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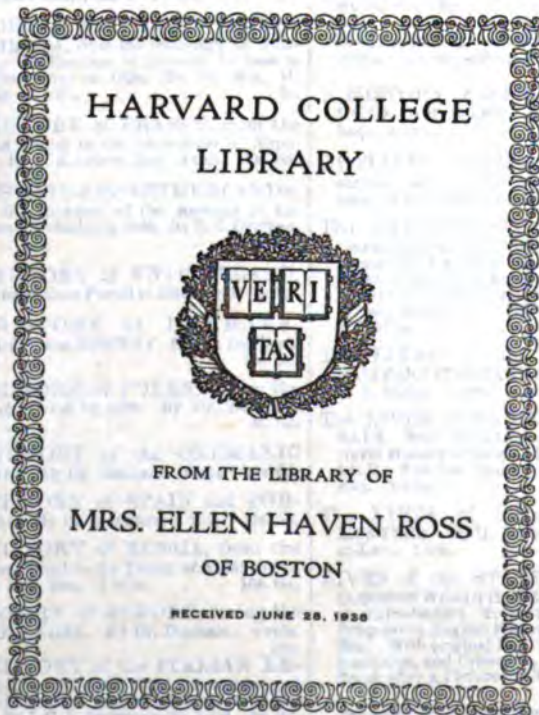
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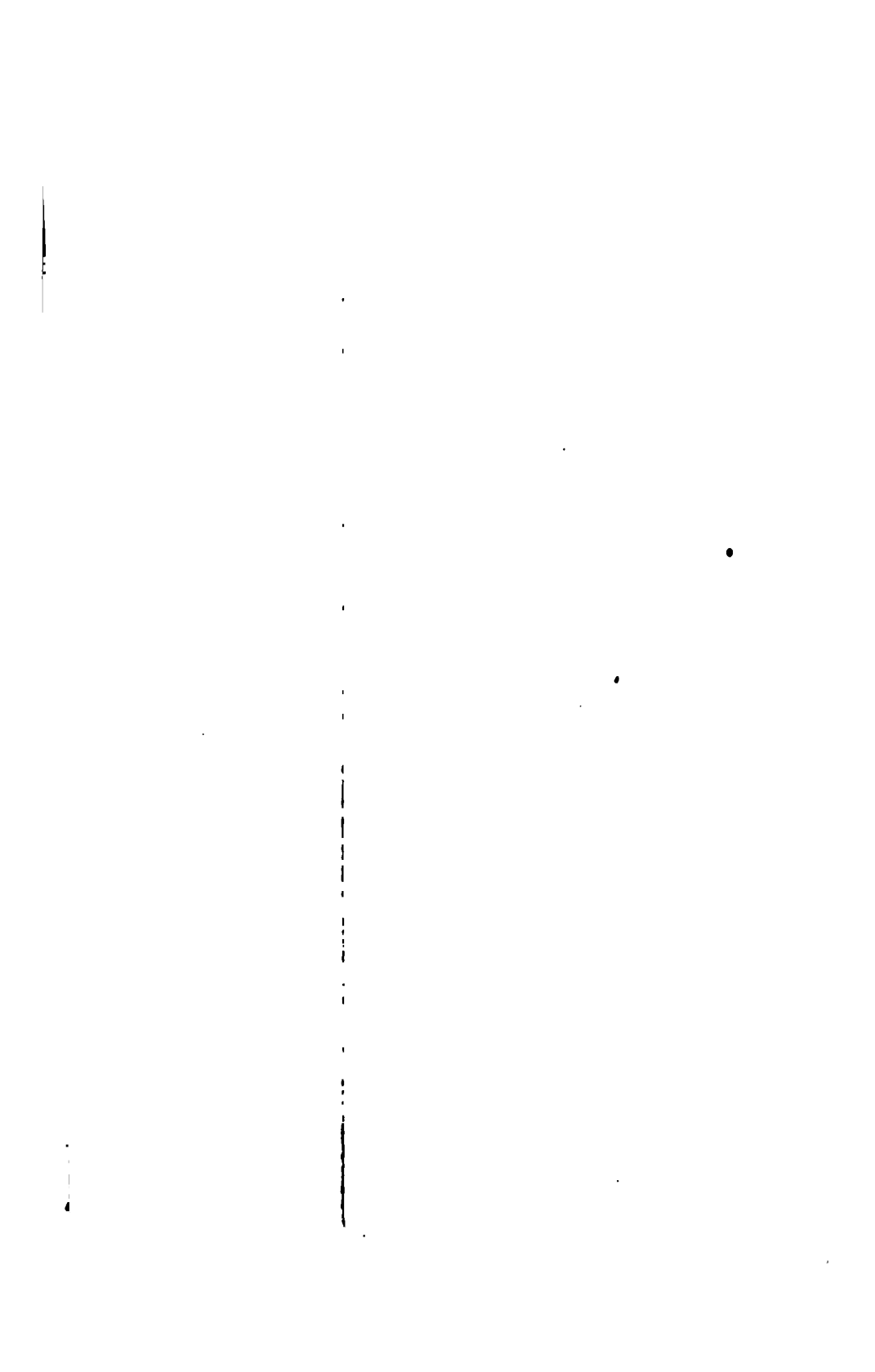
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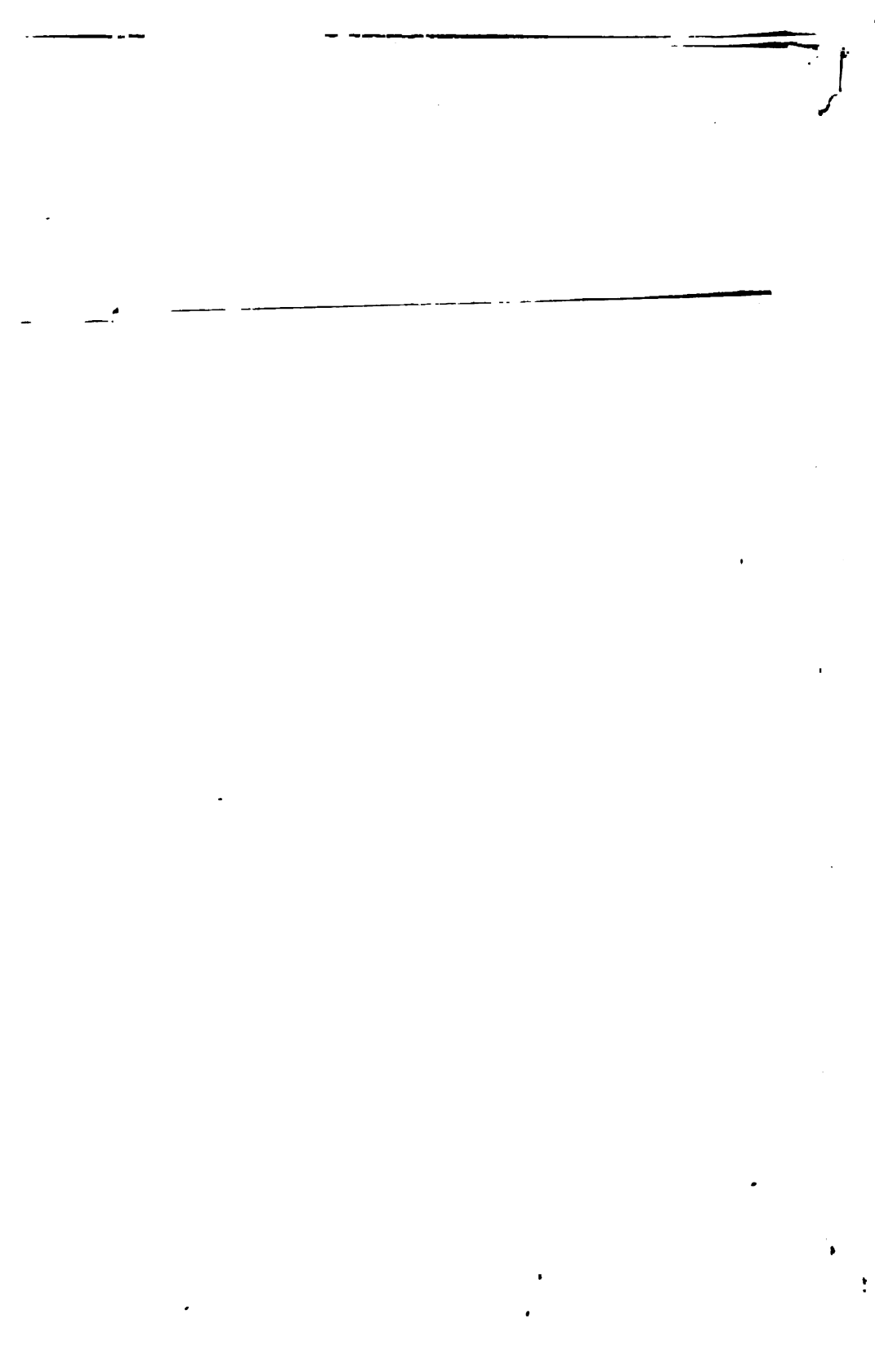


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HUNGARY.

HUNGARY (Hung. *Magyar Ország*), a kingdom of Central or S.E. Europe, which, taken in its widest acceptation, includes, besides Hungary Proper, Croatia, Slavonia, the military frontier provinces, and Transylvania. In a more limited sense, it denotes Hungary Proper, with Croatia and Slavonia, to the exclusion of the other provs. Hungary, thus considered, is situated between $44^{\circ} 18'$ and $49^{\circ} 29'$ N. lat., and between $14^{\circ} 29'$ and $26^{\circ} 30'$ E. long. The chain of the Carpathians forms the boundary of Hungary on the N.W., N., and N.E. They stretch from the Danube, near Presburg, in the form of a circle, towards Moravia, Galicia, and Transylvania, until they meet the Danube a second time at the ravine called the Iron Gates. On the S., the Danube and the Save separate the kingdom from the Turkish provs. of Servia and Bosnia, to the junction of the latter river with the Unna; which thence continues to mark the boundary. Hungary may be considered generally as a large plain sloping to the S., and surrounded on every side by heights of different elevation, but most considerable in the N. sections of the kingdom.

Mountains.—The first group of hills which runs N. from the Danube, near Presburg, is named the Little Carpathians, and is of small extent and inconsiderable elevation. Granite and gneiss, overlaid by grauwacké, form a large portion of this group. The adjoining group, named the Savorina, is also composed of grauwacké. A third group, called the Jablunka range, terminates with the Pass of Jablunka, through which the high road from the valley of the Waag passes into Silesia. The formations in the last-named group are grauwacké on primitive limestone, which reaches a height of 1,500 to 2,000 ft. On the E. side of the Jablunka Pass a chain of lofty mountains commences, which stretches E. to the banks of the Dunajec. The formations of this chain are, as far as Neumarkt, the same with the Jablunka; the summit being all of limestone, with grauwacké superimposed. At Neumarkt the great sandstone formation commences, and, for an extent of more than 400 m., constitutes the leading feature of the E. Carpathians. Between the Dunajec and the Poprad, a branch of the Magura chain, situated altogether in Galicia, stretches to the S.W., and connects with the chain now described an isolated group of lofty mountains, the naked summits of which rise, like so many gigantic sugar-loaves, from the vale of the Waag and the plain of Zips. This is the Tatra group, in which some of the highest summits of the Carpathians are found. The summits of the Tatra are of granite and gneiss, bare of vegetation, and varying annually in elevation, from the effects of thunderstorms and the melting of the snow which covers them for a great portion of the year. The large mountain group, of which the Kradowa Hora forms the highest summit, covers a large portion of N.W. Hungary. On the E., the Tatra chain is bounded by the valley of the Gran, on the W. by the Waag. The principal portion of the Tatra group is likewise formed of trachyte, mingled occasionally with granite.

Branching from the N. Carpathians, in the beginning only as a succession of heights, traversing the level country of Zips, another trachyte mountain chain of considerable elevation runs S. between the rivers Hernad and Bodrog, and joins the Thesias near Tokay. This mountain chain, named the Hegyalla, is famous for the opals found within it, as well as for the wine grown upon

its S. slope. On the E. bank of the Poprad, a long unbroken chain of the Carpathians stretches E. as far as the sources of the Save, and thence S.E. to the sources of the Thesias.

On the W., Transylvania is divided from Hungary by a chain of heights, lying between the Szamos and the Maros, two rivers which flow W. to join the Thesias. Though the summits of this chain no where exceed 3,600 ft., it is yet extremely rugged and precipitous. In the N. part, limestone rises above the sandstone; and in the S. summits, gneiss and granite break through the upper strata.

These hills are composed of Jura limestone, resting on transition limestone and mica slate, with occasional interruption of syenite, porphyry, and other volcanic matters, rich in veins of metal of various kinds. They stretch between the Maros, Czerna, and Danube. The frontier of the Banat, towards Wallachia and Transylvania, is formed by the last offsets of the Carpathians towards the Danube, in the valley of which river the mica slate of the Banat gives place to limestone. The rocks that close in the river as it leaves Hungary, and which are named the *Chissura*, are composed of limestone, traversed by broad veins of quartz. This passage, between the E. Carpathians and the N. offsets of the Balkan, which meet them on the Servian side, is more than 70 m. in length, and ends with the dangerous rapid named the Iron Gate. (See DANUBE.)

On the S. side of the Danube, near Presburg, are the Leitha mountains, which form the boundary towards Austria, and are offsets from the Alps, as they subside from Styria towards the Danube. Granite and gneiss appear in the highest summits, on which sandstone and limestone formations lie superimposed. The Bakony Forest hills stretch from the Danube towards the S., dividing the lesser from the great plain of Lower Hungary. Near the mouth of the Drave, this chain, dividing that river from the Save, subsides to the plain, but rises soon after on the right bank of the Danube, which turns E. as soon as it reaches these heights. The summits of the greater part of these offsets from the Alps are limestone, overlaid by tertiary formations, except on the banks of the Danube, where serpentine and schist rise in bold masses above the secondary rocks. This chain of heights, called the *Fraska Gora*, terminates at Szankamies, opposite the mouth of the Thesias.

The Julian Alps and their offsets cover Croatia and the Hungarian coast districts, the Capella and Vilebich being the last branches of this range towards the S.

Valleys.—In the N. of Hungary, the valleys are very numerous, and highly picturesque. The plains in the Tatra mountains are wildly romantic, offering every variety of rocky scenery, and being interspersed with numerous lakes and waterfalls. The valley of the Waag is most extensive, being more than 200 m. long. The rocks of Sulyo, where the Waag crosses the ridge of the Tatra, are amongst the most picturesque in Europe. The valley of Kohlbach, that of the Jablunka Pass, and of the five lakes in the high Carpathian groups, the vale of the Czerna, in the hills of the Banat, near the baths of Mehadia, are all highly beautiful, and, in mountain chains of less extent, would be deemed grand. The valleys of the Save (the Symria) and the Drave contain some of the finest land and scenery of Europe. The climate is like that of the N. of Italy, and the fertility of the soil is unparalleled.

Plains.—The plains of Hungary are very remarkable,

the greater part of the kingdom consisting of two extensive levels. The plain of Upper Hungary, by far the smaller of the two, is bounded N. by the Lesser Carpathians and the mountainous districts of the N.W. counties; W. by the Leitha mountains, and the offshoots of the Styrian Alps, which, as well as the Croatian Hills, confine it also on the S.; the Bakony Forest forming its E. boundary on the E. as far as the Danube. This plain is traversed by the Danube from W. to E., and is watered besides by the Raab, Waag, and Neitra. The Lake of Neusiedler-See, at the foot of the Leitha hills, issues from great marshes lying between it and the Danube. The soil of this plain is more fertile on the N. than on the S. side of the Danube, but it everywhere produces good and abundant crops of corn.

Near Buda, the Danube, breaking through the mountains of the Bakony Forest and the Matra chain, enters the large plain of Hungary, which it traverses N. to S., from Walsen to Dala, whence its course is E. The great plain is bounded W. by the Bakony Forest hills; N. by the Hegyalla, and offshoots of the Carpathians; the frontier hills of Transylvania bound it E.; and the high lands of Servia and Slavonia on the S. The extent of this plain is estimated at 1,700 sq. German miles, or 35,000 sq. English miles, and is consequently about 4,000 sq. m. larger than Ireland. In the whole plain scarcely a single point is more than 100 ft. above the level of the Danube, which, in this part of its course, is 300 ft. above the Black Sea. This plain is watered by the Danube and its tributaries, the Drave and Save, the Theiss, with its affluent the Szamos, Maros, Körös, &c. The fall is everywhere very trifling, and the greater part of these streams have a winding course, through a country flooded by the slightest increase of their waters. Many, such as the Körös and Theiss, form a succession of swamps, and the whole marshy land of the plain is estimated to cover a surface of 2,425 sq. m., which is wholly reclaimable. The Balaton Lake lies at the S.W. extremity, at the fall of the Bakony Forest hills. With the exception of some extensive sandy tracts near Debrecin, and in the co. of Pest, the whole of this plain contains some of the richest soil of Europe.

Rivers.—The numerous rivers which water Hungary fall, with one sole exception, into the Danube, which traverses the kingdom in a general S.E. direction. The distance along the stream, from Presburg, where it enters, to Orsova, where it leaves, Hungary, is 580 m. Its direction from Presburg to Walsen is E.; but here it makes a sudden turn S., and runs S. to the juncture of the Drave, from which point its general course to Orsova is E. by S. Of the 30 navigable rivers which are its tributaries, several of the largest belong to this country. The largest and most important is the Theiss, 490 m. long, rising in Transylvania, and flowing N.W. to lat. 48° 30' N., and long. 22° 10' E., whence it runs S. by W., in a very irregular channel, which, for about 180 m., is parallel to that of the Danube. Its chief tributary is the Maros. (See THAMIS.) The other affluents on the N. side are the Waag and Neutra, the latter the Eipel. Of the S. affluents, the most important is the Drave, which rises in the Pusther-thal of the Tyrol, and has an E. course of 380 m. through a plain country; it is navigable from Villach, in Carinthia. (See DRAVE.) The second in size is the Save, which rises in the Julian Alps, and runs E. by S., joining the main stream near Belgrade. Length about 340 m. The Raab is of considerable size; but the rest are unimportant. (For further particulars, see DANUBE.)

The only river which rises in Hungary and does not belong to the region of the Danube, is the Poprad, the source of which is in the Krivan, very near that of the White Waag. The Poprad traverses the level country of Zips, passes through the mountains near Muzzyna, into Galicia, and unites with the Dunaec, which falls into the Vistula. At Lublo, in Zips, the Poprad is navigable for rafts.

Canals.—No country is better adapted for, or more needs, canals than Hungary. The greater number of those hitherto made have been cut to regulate the courses of winding rivers. Such are the Leitha canal, in the co. of Wieselburg; the Albert-Karacsza canal, in the co. of Barany, and the cuts for the regulation of the Körös, in Heves co., and of the Bersava, in the Banat. Other cuts, on a large scale, regulate the course of the Latorcza in the co. of Beregh, and of the Survis, in the co. of Wespriem, Stuhlweissenburg, Tolna, and Szümegh. The most remarkable canal in Hungary, however, is the Francis or Bacs canal, between the Theiss and the Danube. It is nearly 7 m. long, and at the level of the water is 8 ft. deep and 50 ft. broad. The difference between the levels of the Danube and the Theiss is 37 ft., which is carried off by locks. The entire cost of this undertaking was 300,000*l.* A similar canal between the Theiss, near Szegedin, and the Danube, near Pest, is projected.

The Béga canal, between the Temes, near Temeswar, and the Theiss, near Tittel, is on a smaller scale, but a

most useful undertaking, and a source of great prosperity to the Banat.

Lakes.—Hungary possesses two of the largest lakes of Europe;—the Neusiedler-See (Hung. *Fertő-Tava*), in Upper Hungary, lying S. of the Danube, in the co. of Oedenburg and Eisenburg, is 26 m. long, 12 m. broad, and from 9 to 13 ft. deep. Its waters rise and fall without apparent cause, often receding from the banks, and then again filling and overflowing them. Lake Balaton, situated in the great plain, at no great distance from the Neusiedler-See, is nearly 50 m. long by 10 m. broad, and receives the river Siyala on the W. side. The water is very slightly tainted with salt. Besides large lakes, Hungary possesses an almost inconceivable number of stagnant sheets of water. Some in the Carpathian mountains, though small, are especially worthy of notice; these are the White, the Green, and the Red lakes. The Green Lake is 4,764, the White Lake 5,224 ft. above the sea, and both are enclosed by high and precipitous granitic rocks. There are many mineral springs in Hungary, the principal of which are at Mehadia, in the Banat, at Trentchin on the Waag, and at Bartfeld, in the N. chain of the Carpathians.

Climate.—The climate of Hungary is of three kinds, varying according to the surface of the country. The climate of the Carpathians, including the high lands of N.W. Hungary, is coldest, and that of the great plain is the warmest; the climate of the high lands S. of the Danube being a mean between both. The mean temperature of Buda, which represents the mean climate of Hungary, is stated to be 16° Reaumur, or 54° 20° Fahr., corresponding nearly with the mean temp. of Nantes. At Nantes, however, the difference between the winter and summer averages 15° Reaum., and the range is 17°; whereas, at Buda, the average difference is 21°, and the range 23°. In the great plain, the mean temp. is 12° 48' Reaum., or the same as at Milan. (*Berghaus*.) The mean fall of rain at Buda is 16 inches, the number of rainy days being about 112; the average of all Germany being 180 days; and in the high Carpathians, the yearly average is doubtless very much greater; whereas the summer and autumn, in the low lands, are usually seasons of drought, unfavourable alike to agriculture and river navigation.

Vegetable Productions.—The products of Hungary embrace all the plants indigenous to Europe, from the Iceland moss, gathered on the Carpathians, to the rice and cotton plant, so successfully cultivated in the Banat, and the olive, which thrives in the coast district. In the hills, especially in the Carpathian district, fir forests abound; but along the plains and valleys of the Save and the Drave, extensive oak and beech forests are found. The oak forests yield large quantities of gall apples, and large herds of swine are fattened on the acorns and beech mast. The increase of pop. everywhere introduces improved fruit plantations, and the S. slope of every elevation is found covered with vines and orchards. The well-known liqueur *Szörösvíz* (*Shiva plum*) is made from the plums grown in the S. parts. The grapes are of various kinds, and one species, the *grey* grape, of which the Tokay wine is made, is peculiar to Hungary. The extent of the wine country, including the fall of the hills, to the two plains and the valleys of the Save and Drave, is more than 2,000 English miles long, measured in a straight line. Many districts, such as the Fraska Gora hills in Slavonia, and the hills near Buda, yield a heavy red wine, which, with care, might easily be fitted for exportation. The water melon in the great plain has obtained a kind of national celebrity; it often attains a weight of 30 lbs. and upwards. Tobacco is particularly fine. Dye-plants of all kinds, madder, wood, and safflower, succeed wherever they are cultivated; but what is of far more consequence, the soil is particularly adapted to the cultivation of wheat, which is largely exported. Of other cereal plants, little more is grown than is required for local consumption, excepting maize, much of which is sent to Italy. Rapeseed and hemp, also the produce of the marshes, are objects of trade; and popples, for oil, are much cultivated. The laurel, the laurus *laurus*, arbutus, cedar, and other evergreens, are too tender to bear the winter cold.

Animals.—Among the animals, the bear of the Carpathians is the most remarkable; and in autumn he often visits the oak and beech forests of the low countries: wolves are more numerous. The small lynx, wild cat, and wild boars are found in all parts. There are many varieties of the dog; one of the finest is the wolf-dog, found in every shepherd's cottage. The chamois and marmot are inhabitants of the Carpathians; and stags, roebucks, foxes, and hares are common, though seldom preserved for game. Among birds, the golden eagle, as a stray visitor, and the stone eagle, more frequently, various kinds of kites, hawks, bustards, and woodcocks, partridges, and black game; and all kinds of domestic fowls thrive remarkably in the S. parts, and have beautiful plumage. Herons' plumes are taken as rent in some parts of Transylvania. Fish abound in the rivers of Hungary, espe-

ally in the Theiss, which is said to be the richest fish-river in Europe; amongst these, the sturgeon, and the fogasch of Lake Balaton (*Petiolepis*) are much esteemed. The entomology of Hungary is richer than in any other part of Europe, owing to the extensive forests and large swampy tracts of the warmer districts. In the forests along the Save, cantharides are gathered. Wasps and hornets build enormous nests in the sandy plains, which are not exterminated without difficulty and danger. Swarms of gnats of peculiar kinds occur in the Banat. One kind, which is harmless, is peculiar to the river Theiss, and increases so rapidly at the breeding time, as to cover the stream like a thick coat of moss, and even to impede the navigation. In this state, the masses of insects are collected by the peasantry, and given as food to the cattle. Another more formidable insect, the *Cohimbæus* gnat, issues from the caverns of the limestone rocks on the banks of the Danube, and spreads in swarms over the adjacent plains, to the great annoyance of the cattle. Locusts are often met with; and the destruction of their eggs, which they lay deep in the earth, is a work of great labour. The leeches of S. Hungary, especially those from the Hosszler-See, form a considerable article of trade. (*Page's Herp.*, i. 32.)

Minerals. The minerals are very important. Nearly all the metals are met with in the kingdom. They are mostly found in the central trachyte groups of N.W. Hungary. Gold is found at Schemnitz, in a whitish compact limestone, alternating with syenite and porphyry. At Königsberg, Telke Banya, and in the still richer mines of Nagy Banya, on the frontier of Transylvania, the ore is found in small conglomerations, or thin veins, in soft sandlike masses of decayed pumice stone, lying on and in excavations of the trachyte, or on the porphyry, exactly under the same circumstances as the ores described by Humboldt, in the Mexican mines of Villalpando. Silver, copper, and lead are found mingled with gold at Kumnitz, Schemnitz, Nagy Banya, Telke Banya, in the trachyte group of the Hegyalla, near Tokay, and in the Banat. A solution of copper, locally known as cement-water, is found in many parts; and from this copper is easily obtained. Sulphur and arsenic are found at all the above-named places; the former in masses at Radoz, in Croatia. Another mineral peculiar to the trachyte and porphyry rocks is the alum-stone, found in the breccias of Beregh, near Tokay, and Parad, in the N. part of the Matra mountains, under similar circumstances of position and quality with the alum-stone of the Apennines. Cobalt is a valuable mineral, which occurs in many parts, but especially at Doboschau, in the N. of Hungary. In the extensive sandstone hills stretching from the Dumajec to the Transylvanian frontier, coalbeds occur, containing large quantities of the carbonate of iron, some of which yield 81 per cent. of metal. Mineral salt is found extensively in the same sandstone in the N. of Hungary and Croatia. The richest mines are those of the county of Marmaros. Indeed, the remarkable fertility of the great plain of Hungary is by some attributed to the abundance of the various salts, muriates and others, that mingle with the soil, and which serve to explain the appearance of the numerous ponds which yield soda, and from their colour are termed *white lakes*. These soda-lakes are scattered over the great plain, from the county of Sathmar to that of Bac; and on the W. side of the Danube, in the counties of Stuhlweissenburg and Oedenburg. Nitre is found in these counties in sufficient quantities to supply the whole empire. The last mineral production to be mentioned is opal, found in clumps of a siliceous stone, met with in pearl-stone rocks. (*Boudant.*) The pearl-stone presents itself in connection with trachyte and porphyry, in several parts of Hungary, over a range of 600 sq. m.; and rising 900, and even 1,200 ft. above the adjacent plains. The clumps above mentioned are hollow, the inside surfaces coloured, and consisting of delicate siliceous substances, — sometimes chalcedony, sometimes the stone called half-opal. The opal is found within it, lying in the hollows, like a kernel in a nutshell, exactly as Humboldt, in similar geological strata, found the *fire opal*, at Zimapan, in Mexico. The hyalite partakes both

of the nature of the opal and of the chalcedony; and, as well as the garnet, is found in the clefts of the pearl-stone rocks. The greatest extent of pearl-stone rocks occurs in the Hegyalla, or Tokay group, where the celebrated opal mines of *Csernevitz* are situated, not far from Eperies, which annually yield a considerable quantity; but, being farmed by a private speculator, nothing is suffered to transpire respecting their product. The most beautiful are the Iris opals, which are seldom found larger than a franc piece, and whose beauty seems to depend on the water with which they are saturated, as they lose their brilliancy on being heated, but regain it when laid in water. The largest opal of which we have any account (weight 17 oz.) is preserved in the mineralogical cabinet of Vienna. The Iris opal is next in price; then come the half-opals, the Jasper opal, and wood opals, which are very abundant, and which, as was before observed, are found in many other spots; not being, like the Iris opal, confined to the hills of Csernevitz.

Area and Population. — The official population returns of Hungary, as given by the Austrian government, are founded on a survey of the country made in the reign of Joseph II., to which additions have been annually made. There is reason, however, to believe that these returns are very inaccurate, both as respects the area and population. In the subjoined table the area of the counties is taken from *Stein's Handbuch der Geographie*, and the population from the government returns. The estimates of the latter by Feueys show a discrepancy of at least one million and a half, or about a ninth part of the whole. [See Table at the top of next page.]

These statements differ widely; but the estimate of Feueys is entitled to more credit than the loose calculation of the official return, which has no pretension to accuracy. In the latter no account is taken of the ravages of the cholera, to which, according to the *National Encyclopædia*, no less than 300,000 persons fell victims, and which is said to have been preceded and followed by a bad state of health for some years before it broke out, and after its violence subsided. The statement of Feueys would make the pop. of Hungary 10,000,000, exclusive of the military frontier; this account was drawn up from returns furnished from the respective counties, and nearly coincides with the calculation made by M. Csœrenyi, in a very interesting communication in the Austrian *Archiv*. According to the last-named writer's correction of the statements of M. Nagy, the pop. of Hungary was, in 1827, 9,756,512 souls, and this number would show down to that period a most rapid rate of increase. The pop. was,

According to a census in 1787, 7,130,394.

Do. Schwartzner, 1805, 7,961,414, incr. in 18 yrs. 12 per cent.	
Do. Caspary, 1820, 8,904,117, " " " " 11 " "	
Do. Csœrenyi, 1827, 9,756,512, " " " " 7 " 9 " 5 "	
Do. Feueys, 1835, 10,000,000, " " " " 8 " 2 " 4 "	

Hungary contains several large cities. Pest has 60,000 inhab.; Buda, on the bank of the Danube, immediately opposite, 35,000; Debreczin, 50,000; Szegedin, 32,000, &c. Several towns count between 20,000 and 30,000 inhab.; and even many villages are equally populous. In winter, the rural pop. is usually collected in the villages; but in summer they are scattered according to their occupations and possessions, hiring either in small houses on the Pustas, where the cattle graze, or in detached farming establishments, which are often at a considerable distance from the villages. During the grazing season, the peasants, in large numbers, spend their time with the flocks and herds intrusted to them, in the extensive pastures. The increasing subdivision of property has a tendency to diminish this nomadic system. The herdsmen are distinguished by different names, such as the horse-herd, the cow-herd, and the swine-herd.

The people of Hungary consist of seven distinct races. The number belonging to each race are given in the following table, founded on the estimate of Feueys, in round numbers. The military frontier, and the recently added counties from Transylvania, are not included; nor is any account made of the Greeks and Albanians (10,000), the Ziguener or Gipsies (30,000), and numerous naturalised foreigners.

Nations.	On this Side the Danube.	On the other Side the Danube.	On this Side the Theiss.	On the other Side the Theiss.	Haiduck Towns.	Croatia, Slavonia, &c.	Total.
Magyars - - -	851,000	1,319,000	817,500	930,000	193,000	150,000	4,400,000
Slowacks - - -	1,173,000	15,000	418,000	59,000	-	-	1,745,000
Croatians - - -	186,000	214,000	1,400	161,000	-	750,000	1,311,000
German - - -	-	407,000	87,600	307,400	-	300,000	901,000
Wallachians - -	-	-	-	891,000	-	-	891,000
Russians - - -	8,500	-	516,800	107,000	-	-	632,300
Jews - - -	73,000	42,000	51,000	37,000	-	50,000	255,000

Condition of the People. — In the provs. on this side the Theiss, the Magyars come into contact with the Russians; in the prov. beyond the Theiss, with the Wallachians and Illyrian or Servian Slavonians; in the prov. on this side the Danube, with the Croatsians, and in that beyond the Danube with the Slowacks, or Slavonians. The Magyars

thus occupy the heart of a country bounded on every side by other nations, which, separately taken, are inferior to them in point of numbers, and are, besides, disunited by religious differences. Of the 4,250,000 Magyars, more than 2½ millions are Protestants; the Calvinistic confession being that most prevalent amongst

Lower or Western Hungary.				Upper or Eastern Hungary.			
Counties.	Area in Eng. sq. m.	Pop. in 1837-38.	Pop. to Eng. sq. m.	Counties.	Area in Eng. sq. m.	Pop. in 1837-38.	Pop. to Eng. sq. m.
I. Hungary on this side (or N.) the Danube:—				III. Hungary on this side (or W. & N.) the Theiss:—			
1. Preuburg -	1,751	375,500	213·4	1. Zips -	1,309	240,500	183·7
2. Neutra -	2,686	476,200	177·3	2. Gömör -	1,616	185,500	113·5
3. Thurocs -	452	61,600	137	3. Heves -	2,560	289,100	112·9
4. Trentin -	1,859	357,800	192·2	4. Borsod -	1,294	219,200	171
5. Arva -	797	121,100	151·9	5. Torna -	238	25,700	103·9
6. Liptau -	990	92,800	104·2	6. Aba-ujvár -	1,118	201,000	182·4
7. Zolt -	1,070	110,300	103	7. Sáros -	1,378	251,000	168
8. Harsch -	1,042	178,600	168·5	8. Ungvár -	1,661	95,300	74
9. Honth -	975	201,500	206·6	9. Semplin -	2,300	340,100	147·8
10. Gran -	403	69,400	173·2	10. Beregh -	1,431	111,300	77·7
11. Neograd -	1,615	242,000	147·1	11. (Great Cumania) (Jazygia) -	221	44,900	105·5
12. Pest -	4,019	507,100	125·2		373	52,200	140
13. Bács -	3,620	355,400	97·6				
(Little Cumania)	1,013	84,500	83·6				
	22,933	3,195,400	139		15,282	2,035,700	133
II. Hungary on the other side (or S.) the Danube:—				IV. Hungary on the other side (or E. & S.) the Theiss:—			
1. Wieselburg -	753	86,800	115·4	1. Szabolcs -	2,455	172,100	70·1
2. Oedenburg -	1,323	261,400	213·3	2. Szatmar -	2,258	252,700	111·8
3. Komorn -	1,136	171,500	151	3. Máramaros -	3,604	160,600	47·3
4. Raab -	611	122,600	200·6	4. Bihar -	2,120	570,200	269
5. Suhlweiszenburg -	1,586	177,500	112	5. Ujcz -	479	27,000	108
6. Wespitz -	1,598	224,900	143·6	6. Békés -	1,386	114,500	82·4
7. Eisenburg -	2,035	268,000	131·1	7. Csongrad -	1,314	96,900	73·7
8. Ratib -	2,118	372,100	175·2	8. Kalnad -	615	51,500	83·7
9. Tolna -	1,378	213,300	154	9. Arad -	2,296	246,500	107·3
10. Szésmegh -	2,430	268,700	110·5	10. Temes -	2,311	267,500	159
11. Baranya -	1,929	226,700	118	11. Torontal -	2,798	334,900	83·9
				12. Krassó -	2,420	312,400	105·5
				(Hajdúk towns) -	376	45,700	121·5
	16,806	2,572,000	153		34,482	2,672,300	109
We subjoin the estimate of the present pop. of Hungary, exclusive of the military frontier, according to the able statesman Fényes, whose statements, we believe, have greater pretension to accuracy than those of the official returns, which afford, at best, only an approximation to the actual amount:—				Total of Hungary-Proprietary			
Prov. and Distr.		Pop.			78,822	10,471,400	133
I. Hungary on this side the Danube -		2,591,541		Since 1839, incorporated from Transylvania:—			
II. Hungary on the other side the Danube -		1,993,375		Middle Szolnok -	859	122,680	116·2
III. Hungary on this side the Theiss -		1,690,614		Lower Szolnok -	1,270	27,070	21
IV. Hungary on the other side the Theiss -		2,326,597		Krasna -	415	19,550	47
Cumania, Jazygia, &c. -		206,285			2,569	227,600	87·9
Transylvanian counties -		198,337		To which add, for Slavonia, Croatia, & milit. frontier -			
Slavonia -		372,023			24,810	1,992,400	80·3
Croatia -		837,748		Hungarian Littoral -	138	41,900	303
Total -		10,036,118			106,559	12,733,300	119
Berghaus estimates the pop. of Hungary (exclusive of the military frontier and the Transylvanian counties), on the 1st of Jan. 1839, at 11,788,190.							

them. They are a manly and active race, possessing frankness of character, and many other estimable qualities. Their general manner is serious; but in the hours of gaiety and feasting they indulge in tumultuous joy. The advantage possessed by the Magyar over his neighbours of other races, is altogether one of character, for in learning, the peasantry, as well as the middle classes, are behind the Germans. The hussar jacket, with light pantaloons, and the *cutsmen*, or light boots, and a huge brimmed hat, form the costume of the lower orders. The Hungarian costume, as worn in full dress by the higher classes, is well known, and has been adopted in part for the uniform of hussar regiments in almost every country. The *altia*, or frock, and the *monte*, or long surcoat, trimmed with fur, are often substituted for the *dollman*, or short hussar jacket. The *kaipak*, or fur cap, with the costly heron's feather, forms the national headgear; and on official occasions the sabre is an indispensable addition to a gentleman's attire. The Slowack, or Slavonian inhabitant of the N.W. parts of Hungary, belongs to the same family with the Moravians, whom he resembles in appearance, and whose customs and language he preserves. The government project of inducing the Slowack peasantry to adopt the Magyar language, has been detrimental to the improvement of the lower orders in these counties, and has introduced divisions in the primary schools. (See below, under *Education*, and also *Page*, i. 315.; and *Gleig's Germany and Hungary*, iii. 344.) The Croatian peasant is not so fortunate in the tenure of his land as the Slowack, and feels more acutely the pressure both of his temporal and spiritual lords. Still the Wallachs in E. Hungary, and the Russniak Slavonians of the N., are far behind both the Slowacks and Croats in point of education, and have a language that has no literature. The Wallachians almost universally profess the Schismatic, and the Russniaks the United Greek, confession. The Illyrians, or Serbian emigrants of the Banat, use a Slavonian dialect, similar to that of the Croats, and the majority of the books printed in Servia are written in this province. In fact, the written characters constitute the only difference, the Serbians using the Russian, while the Croats adhere to the Roman character. The exter-

nal appearance of the Wallachians at once declares them to be strangers amongst the Slavonian and Hungarian inhabitants. Their light active figures, dark complexion, and the resemblance to Italian in their dialect, proclaims their Romanic descent. They name themselves *Romouni*, are poor, light-hearted, but mostly ignorant peasants, fond of brilliant colours in their dress, when their means allow of it, and subservient under oppression.

The nobles and landed proprietors, with the exception of the few foreigners who have purchased property in Hungary, are of Magyar origin in the Hungarian provinces, and mostly Slavonians in Croatia and Slavonia. Their privileges are more extensive than those enjoyed by the nobles of the Continent generally, and the rank is held by great numbers, whose property does not exceed that of a peasant. Their numbers can only be learned approximately, as they refuse to submit to any continued registration. Of late years, the higher classes have been laudably active in endeavouring to ameliorate the condition of the lower orders by the foundation of schools, the distribution of useful works, attention to the state of prisons, &c.; and their private beneficence has been effectually aided by the grand legislative measure of 1836, which so much extended the civil rights of the peasants. By the act of the Diet of that year, called the "*Urbanismus*," the nobles gave up in principle two of the most obnoxious privileges of their order—freedom from taxation, and the right of being judges in their own causes in manorial courts; and agreed that disputes between peasants and their lords should be referred to a court formed of indifferent proprietors of magisterial rank, headed by the *Vice-schubbrichter*, or deputy-lieutenant of the county. The former heavy penalties for slight offences were modified, and appeals were admitted from these to the higher courts of the kingdom. The exemption from taxation was waived, not by a voluntary acceptance of burdens, which would have occasioned a vast revolution in property, and endangered one of the most valuable advantages of the Hungarian constitution, but by the enactment that if a noble purchased a peasant's holding liable to taxation, the noble should continue to pay the impost. In some respects the lords were

placed in a disadvantageous position by the new law, as the peasants may leave, sell, or transfer their holdings at will, whereas the lord has no power over them, except that of execution for rent. The amount of rent payable for peasants' holdings was then, also, fixed by the custom of each county. The extent of a session, or full peasant's holding, varies in different parts; 16 jochs of arable land, with 5 jochs of pasture (together 20 acres), being the smallest, and the largest (in the county of Arva) being 40 jochs. The right of drawing wood from the seigniorial forests, of fattening pigs on the acorns, and other privileges, still remain to attest the patrimonial tie which once existed between the lord and his dependants. The peasant gives for his holding one day's labour in the week, with a waggon and two horses, or two days hand-labour in all counties excepting the Banat and Slavonia. These last-named districts have peculiar customs respecting tithes. A small sum of money, and a part (1-7th to 1-9th) of the produce, are likewise paid to the lord, which may be redeemed, or converted into a rent-charge. The small tithe and the tithe of reclaimed land were abandoned by the landlords. (See *Page*, i. 296—316.) To this decree of the Diet, which, as a voluntary act of self-renunciation by the nobles, has no parallel in the annals of any other nation, other measures have since been added of scarcely less importance. A decree of the Diet of 1808 secured to the peasant the right of disposing by will of all kinds of property. In 1840 the Diet passed a bill, declaring Catholics and Protestants to stand upon an equal footing in contracts of marriage, neither confession being suffered to impose restraints upon the other, and admitting Jews to equal rights with other commoners throughout the kingdom. It cannot be matter of wonder, if the Hungarian nation set a high value upon a constitution which has procured them so many advantages, without exposing the country to the trials and disturbances to which states under a strictly monarchical government are constantly subject. To the Magyars as a nation, rather than to the Slavonians, is the merit due of firmly upholding their national institutions. One instrument of oppression, however, which is liable to great abuse, still remains to be abolished,—the power of the county courts to summon the peasants to do county work, such as road-making, building and repairing churches, &c., and which is universally condemned by the enlightened classes throughout the kingdom. The Germans, as settlers, are most numerous in the county of Zips, in the Banat, and kindred districts: they are chiefly found in the towns, where the greater part of the trading population is German. In the country parts the inn-keepers are mostly Germans.

Mr. Page, in his able and interesting work, *Hungary and Transylvania*, gives the following description of the various customs of the peasantry: "The cottage of the Hungarian peasant (Magyar), for the most part a long one-storied building, presenting to the street only a gable-end, which is generally pierced with two small windows,—or rather peep-holes, for they are very rarely more than a foot square,—below which is a rustic seat, overshadowed by a tree. The yard is separated from the street, sometimes by a handsome double gateway and stately wall; sometimes by a neat fence formed of reeds, or of the straw of maize; and sometimes by a broken hedge, presenting that dilapidated state of half freedom, half restraint, in which pigs and children so much delight, where they can at once enjoy liberty, and set at naught control. Passing through the gateway of one of these cottages, we entered the first door which led into the kitchen; on either side of which was a good-sized dwelling room. The kitchen, whitewashed like the rest of the house, was itself small, and almost entirely occupied by a hearth 4 ft. high, on which was blazing a wood fire, with preparations for the evening meal. The room to the left, with the two little peep-holes to the street, was evidently the best, for it was that into which they were most anxious to show us. In one corner was a wooden seat, fixed to the wall, and before it an oaken table, so solid that it seemed fixed there too; on the opposite side stood the large earthenware stove; while a third corner was occupied by a curious phenomenon—a low bedstead, with the ceiling with feather-beds. The use of this piece of furniture completely puzzled us—to sleep on it was impossible; and we were obliged to refer to the count for an explanation, who assured us it was an article of luxury, on which the Hungarian peasant prided himself highly. For sleeping he prefers to lay his hard mattress on the wooden bench, or even on the floor; but, like other people, who think themselves wiser, an exhibition of profuse expenditure in articles of luxury—feather-beds are his fancy—flatters his vanity. These beds are generally a part of his wife's dowry. In the favourite corner we commonly observed—for the peasants of Zinkendorf are Catholics—a gilded crucifix, or a rudely coloured *Mater dolorosa*, the *Pennies* of the family;

while all round hung a goodly array of pots and pans, a modest mirror, perhaps even a painted set of coffee-cups, and sometimes a drinking-cup of no ordinary dimensions. A Protestant peasant supplies the place of saints and virgins with heads of Kaiser Franz and Prince Schwarzenberg, and not unfrequently Napoleon and Wellington look terrible things at each other across the room.

"The corresponding apartment on the other side of the kitchen was furnished with more ordinary benches and tables, and served for the common eating and sleeping room of the family. Beyond this, but still under the same roof, was a store-room and dairy, and below it a cellar. The store-room well deserved its name; for such quantities of *suro* (kind of cheese), lard, fruits, dry herbs, and pickles laid up for winter use, I never saw; and in some houses the cellar was not less plentifully supplied, and that too with very tolerable wine. The cow-house was rarely without one or two tenants: the stable boasted a pair, or sometimes four horses; the pigsties, it is true, were empty, but only because the pigs had not yet returned from the stubble fields; and to these, most of the houses added sheepfolds and poultry-pens—presenting altogether perhaps as good a picture of a rich and prosperous peasantry as one could find in any part of the world." (i. 297.)

It would be easy," adds the same writer, "to find a contrast to this.—Take G—, a small village of the N. of Hungary, difficult of access from the best roads in the neighbourhood, and not favoured by nature with the richest of soils. The peasants love the brandy-bottle and hate their landlord. The Baron E—, lives in Vienna, and lets his village to a greedy Jew, who grinds out of the people every particle of possible profit, no matter how injurious ultimately such conduct may prove to them or to their master. The dingy cottages are built of unheavened fir, carelessly put together, and plastered with mud on the inside; they rarely consist of two, and generally only of one chamber, where the whole family must live, attached to the house is a shed for the cows and pigs; horses and sheep they have none. I confess I cannot speak so minutely of the interior of the cottages here as at Z—; for in going towards them, I stepped up to the knees in a mass of putrefying hemp; which, with the filthy appearance of the children crowding the threshold, effectually cooled my curiosity. Such are the varieties to be found among the Hungarian peasantry; nor have I in Z— or G— chosen exaggerated instances of either class." (i. 291.)

Of the Slovak peasantry, Mr. Page does not give so favourable a picture. "The peasant's house is almost always built of the unheavened stems of the pine, covered with straw thatch, carelessly and ill made; its interior is not over clean, and the pig, oxen, and goats are on far too familiar terms with the rest of the family. It is rare amongst them to see those neatly fenced farm-yards, large barns and stables, and well-made corn-stacks, which are so often met with among the Magyars. How far this may depend on the poverty of the soil, it is difficult to say; that it does not depend on any greater want of the landlord in one case than in another, as I have heard intimated, my own observations convinced me. The men are in general about the middle size, strongly formed, of a light complexion, with broad and coarse features half-shaded by their long flaxen hair; in some particular districts, however, there are found among them singularly fine and handsome men—as a military friend of mine observed, ready-made grenadiers. The peasant women when young sometimes are pretty, but hard labour and exposure to the sun soon deprive them of all pretensions to comeliness." (i. 285.)

The Wallachians, according to the same authority, stand still lower in the scale of civilisation. "The Magyar peasant holds the Wallachs in the most sovereign contempt. He calls them a people who let their shirts hang out, from the manner in which they wear that article of clothing over the lower part of their dress; and classes them with the Jews and Gipsies. Even when living in the same village, the Magyar never intermarries with the Wallack."

"That the Wallack is idle and drunken, it would be very difficult to deny. Even in the midst of harvest, you will see him lying in the sun, sleeping all the more comfortably because he knows he ought to be working. His corn is always the last cut, and it is very often left to shell on the ground for want of timely gathering, yet scarcely a winter passes that he is not starving with hunger. If he have a waggon to drive, he is generally found asleep at the bottom of it; if he have a message to carry, ten to one but he gets drunk on the way, and sleeps over the time in which it should be executed. But if it be difficult to deny these faults, it is easy to find a palliation for them. The half-free labour with which the Hungarian peasants pay their rent, has a natural tendency to produce, not only a disposition, but a determination, to do as little as possible in any given time.

Add to this, that at least a third part of the year is occupied by feasts and fasts, when, by their religion, labour is forbidden them; that the double tithes of the church and landlord check improvement; that the injustice with which they have been treated has destroyed all confidence in justice, and every sentiment of security; and it will not then be difficult to guess why they are idle. The weakness of body induced by bad nourishment, and still more by the fasts of the Greek church, which are maintained with an austerity of which Catholicism has no idea, and which often reduces them to the last degree of debility, and sometimes even causes death, is another very efficient cause. Like the Turks, the Wallacks ornament their burial-places by planting a tree at the head, and another at the foot of every grave; but instead of the funeral cypress, they plant the *Succisa*, or plum, from which they make their brandy,—a very literal illustration of seeking consolation from the tomb. For the death of near relations they mourn by going bare-headed for a certain time,—a severe test of sincerity in a country where the excesses of heat and cold are so great as here." (ii. 215.)

The dress of the Wallachian women consists of a long white linen shirt, embroidered with red or blue wool at the collar and cuffs; two aprons, bound before and behind, serving in place of petticoat and gown; and these aprons are not unfrequently formed of coloured laces, hanging down like a fringe to the ankles. The colours are sometimes very brilliant; and the stripes run both horizontally and perpendicularly, forming the pattern of a Scotch plaid. The Wallachians of Transylvania dress more showily than those of the kingdom, and their costume is often ornamental, and even rich. A small sheep-skin jacket, trimmed and richly embroidered, at times, is occasionally worn by the women in both countries.

Of late years, the exertions of writers in the Magyar language have furnished elementary works fitted for schools, as well as newspapers and other periodicals. The foundation of the National Casino at Pest, which originated with Count Stephan Szechenyi, furnished the inhabit, and visitors of the capital for the first time with a place of meeting; and the example has been imitated by nearly every city in the kingdom. The national prints with German and French newspapers and reviews, are now to be found in these clubs, in remote corners of the country; and small provincial theatres are, perhaps, more numerous in Hungary than in any other country. Scientific societies have also sprung up of late years; that for the Magyar language and literature was endowed by Count Szechenyi with the sum of 60,000 fl., and this noble example was followed, though on a smaller scale, by other magnates. A scientific institution, to be named the *Ladovicsen*, has long been projected, and even subscribed for; but has hitherto been delayed by a difference of opinion between the founders and the government with respect to its operation. An Illyrian society of literature at Pest has recently been founded, under the patronage of Count Tököly, with a capital of 20,000 fl. The Archduke Joseph, palatine and viceroy of the kingdom, has established a pattern farm at Alcaut, not far from Pest; and a college for instruction in the theory and practice of agriculture, by the Archduke Charles, has been opened at Altenburg near Pressburg. Two similar institutions exist in Upper Hungary; one at Keszthely, near Lake Balaton, founded by Count Festetics; and one at Rohancs, by Counts Curoly and Bathany. To improve the breed of cattle, many of the rich proprietors send bulls and stallions to fixed stations, and the greater part of the estates in their own hands are as scientifically farmed as those of any country in Europe.

Agriculture.—Agriculture, owing to the richness of the soil, is the most important branch of national industry; and there can be no doubt, that if a market could be found for the produce, the resources of the land would be fully developed, which is not the case at present. 1-4th part of the best land lying wholly uncultivated. (Page 7, ii. 618.) The soil, indeed, constitutes a source of wealth in Hungary, which bad laws alone prevent from being adequately worked. In the N.W. counties, among the hills, the Moravian systems of farming are met with,—a natural consequence of the Slavack's general resemblance to the Moravian in customs and language. This part of Hungary does not produce corn enough, in ordinary years, to supply its own consumption, and imports corn, &c. from the adjoining level districts. The lesser plain of Upper Hungary contains many fertile tracts, especially N. of the Danube, as well as the islands "Gross and Kleine Schott."

The following is said to be a pretty correct statement of the way in which the soil of Hungary is distributed:—

Arable land	-	-	4,897,220 jochs.
Gardens	-	-	639,000
Vineyards	-	-	911,200
Meadows and pasture	-	-	7,715,220
Fonds	-	-	850,000
Forests	-	-	8,943,000

The rich soil of Lower Hungary is productive and ge-

nerally well tilled. The black vegetable mould of the Banat, or the district between the Maros, Theiss, and the Danube, extending also over the counties of Bacs, Arad, Bekes, and Csongrad, is peculiarly well adapted to the growth of wheat, which consequently is grown as often as possible, that is, according to the present system, once in three years; a crop of summer corn follows, after which the land either lies fallow or is sown with maize. The following particulars respecting the cost of tillage, &c. were gathered by a traveller in the year 1839 from the books of some well-managed estates:—

	Fl. Kr.	(in silver).
Cost of ploughing, 1 Austrian joch (equal to 1-6 English acre) in fallow in June	1	0
Seed-ploughing in October, harrowing and sowing	2	24
Weeding in April and May, four labourers one day (children)	-	0 36
Cutting the corn at the end of June	-	2 36
Cartage to the treading place	1	0
Hire of labourers for treading (14 to 2 metzen per joch at 1 florin)	-	2 0
Cartage to the granary	-	0 36
Screening	-	0 18
Seed, 14 metzen at 1 florin	-	1 30
Total	-	- 12 0 = L. 1. 10. 0d.

The immense tracts sown with grain in the great plain present a singular spectacle at harvest, owing to the great number of hands requisite to get in the crop. A square piece of ground is usually well beaten at one end of the field; and if horses and oxen can be got to tread out the corn immediately, it is carried thither at once, and trodden out by their unshod hoofs. This practice of treading out the grain is, however, most wasteful; not only is the work badly done, but, being performed in the open field, it exposes the crop to the chance of plunder, and to all the vicissitudes of the weather. Sudden thunder-storms often destroy the greater part of a crop.

Notwithstanding the abundance of the crops in many parts of the plain, and the difficulty of finding a market for produce, but little money is invested in farm buildings to preserve the grain. Holes dug in the earth, and shaped something like a bottle, with a narrow entrance or neck, are dried by burning straw in them, and after being lined with fresh straw, are filled up with wheat dried in the sun. These rude granaries are common in the plain N. of the Theiss, but are given way in the Banat to regular granaries, as the foreign trade in that fertile district has gradually become regular.

The average of a number of years well ascertained gives a produce of 16 metzen per joch, which, valued at 1 florin in silver (about 11s. 4d. per quarter) would leave 4 fl. per joch (or about 6s. per acre) profit to the landholder. Small tracts of land, let on short terms to peasants in the best-cultivated parts and in the neighbourhood of towns, are sometimes paid for at the rate of 4, and even 6 or 7 fl. per joch; but large estates are farmed out by the government at 1 fl. per joch, or about 1s. 6d. per acre. From the end of June the ground lies idle till the following April, sheep being turned into the stubble after the September rains. The grazing of the second year is more valuable, and may be let at about 3 fl. per acre, where wool-growing does not form a regular part of the farming system. In April it is common to sow half the fallow with maize, the expense being as follows:—

	Fl. Kr.	(in silver).
Ploughing, harrowing, and sowing, about 24th April, 1 joch	-	2 24
Stacking (four labourers one day)	-	1 20
Earthing up the plants (six labourers one day)	-	2 0
Breaking the heads when ripe (six labourers)	-	2 0
Cartage from the field	-	0 0
Reaping the grain from the head	-	1 0
One quarter metzen maize as seed for 1 joch	0	15
Total	-	- 9 59 = 19s. Engl. nearly.

The produce of a joch is estimated at 90 Presburg metzen, which, consequently, nets to the landlord only 14 metzen, or about 104 per metzen, or about 10 per imperial bushel in labour. With this grain he feeds his pig, poultry, and even his horses, which latter, however, are more frequently obliged to content themselves with the straw. Barley and oats are only cultivated for domestic use, as they are in no demand for exportation. Half the fallow is often cultivated with cow-grass or tares: the expense of this crop is—

	Fl. Kr.	
Ploughing, harrowing, and sowing 1 joch	-	2 24
Mowing and sowing	-	1 12
Cartage	-	1 0
Seed, 5-Sets of 1 metzen	-	2 0
Total	-	- 6 36 = 3s. 7d. Engl.

The crop of tares and beans usually produces from 40 to 45 Austrian cwt., or 2½ to 3 tons of hay, which cost in labour, as above, about 18s.

The great drawback on the landowner's profit in these productive countries is the difficulty and expense of forwarding the produce to market. The soil of the great plain is so singularly free from stones, that road-making

is extremely difficult, and demands a large outlay. The navigable rivers and canals are by no means in a state to allow of their being used at all seasons; and these difficulties, added to the wasteful manner of getting in the corn crops, make it wonderful that as much as 16-fold can be returned from the ground. Manure is in these parts scarcely used, as it makes the plant too rank, and forces it up into straw. In the greater part of the great plain cattle-dung is cut into bricks like turf, and used for firing. Wheat-straw is likewise used for fuel, as wood is scarce.

Tobacco is successfully cultivated, especially in the counties of Heves, Szegedina, and Szeged, and it has a high character in Germany. The annual produce is reckoned at 240,000 cimeters, of which only 60,000 are kept for home consumption. On being exported, it is subjected to heavy imposts, levied by government. The annual produce of the Hungarian vineyards is said to be 24,000,000 cimeters, or 96,000,000 gallons. These wines, which are strong and fiery, requiring to be kept before they reach perfection, are of two sorts; the sweet wines (*Ausbruch*), and the red and white table wines. Of the former, the Tokay (grown about Tokay, on the Theiss) is unequalled for its delicacy and flavour. It is a sweet, rich, but not cloying wine, strong, full-bodied, but mild, bright, and clear, seldom to be procured of the finest quality, and then only at the private tables of the nobility. There are three distinct kinds of Tokay. The annual produce of the Tokay vineyards is 250,000 cimeters, of which only 1-5th part is of the best quality. Good old Tokay costs, even in Hungary, from 5s. to 8s. a bottle. Next to Tokay comes the Mènes wine and the Ruast, Carlowitz, and St. Georg. Of the red wines, that of Buda (*Qffer-Wine*) is considered equal to the best Burgundy, and next to it are the Pöding, Soró, Mirkolcs, Neusatz, and other wines. The best white wines are those of Somly and Neusatz, which, it is alleged, equal any of the white wines of France, except champagne. (*Page*, l. 461., and ll. 610-612.) The cultivation of the mulberry-tree for silkworms was introduced by the Empress Maria Theresa; and in the military frontier a large quantity of silk is produced; but neither this article, nor the cultivation of dye-plants, such as woad, madder, saffron, &c., is well attended to. The farmers, discouraged by the various difficulties in the way of a

sale for their crops, have of late years devoted themselves to sheep-grazing, and the breed has been greatly improved by the introduction of the Merinos. The number of sheep grazed in Hungary is said by Czaplowski to be 20,000,000; and the quantity of wool exported in 1837 was 300,000 cimeters of 125 lbs., which, at the ordinary medium price of 100 florins the cimeter, would amount to 3,000,000. The horned cattle bred on the Hungarian plains are among the largest and handsomest in Europe; they are a race peculiar to the country, grey-white in colour, with wide-spreading horns. The horses generally are small and weak, and of an inferior breed; but in some parts considerable attention is given to breeding, especially in the county of Cassa, where nearly 10,000 horses are kept, and stallions of all the best breeds in Europe. Hundreds of thousands of swine are bred in the forests, and on the great heath of Debreczin there are some millions of geese. Poultry and game of every kind abound throughout Hungary.

Manufactures and Trades.—Hungary, as a trading country, is quite insignificant, and there is but little prospect of her importance in this respect being speedily increased. She publishes no trade lists, nor any special details concerning her manufacturing industry. Becher states the principal linen manufacture to be carried on in the N. and mountainous districts; but they do little more than supply the home consumption of the district. He names but one cotton factory at Sussin, in the county of Mitra, which produces 30,000 pieces in the year. Wool is every where manufactured into coarse cloth, for country consumption. At Pest there is a silk factory. Tobacco, leather, paper, soda, alum, and salt-petre manufactories, with numerous iron-works, close the industrial list.

Mines.—Mining industry ranks next to agriculture. It would be a source of far greater profit to the country if entirely in the hands of private companies. The expensive management of the Oberst-Kammer-Gräf, assisted by a numerous council of subordinates, and the charges on internal communication, swallow up all the gains, and by keeping the price high, diminishes the consumption in the country. The produce of the various mines of Hungary during the last few years will be seen in the following table:—

Mineral Products.	Districts where obtained.	Quantities obtained in Ten Years (from 1818-1828).	Quantities obtained in 1837.
Gold	Schemnitz, Kremnitz, Neusatz	14,760 marks	3,419 marks
Silver	Schemnitz, Nagy-Banya, Banat	673,762 —	64,728 —
Copper	Neusatz, Schmolnitz, Banat	908,737 cimeters of 125 lbs.	97,978 cimeters of 125 lbs.
Lead	Neusatz, Schmolnitz, Nagy-Banya	148,375 —	14,942 —
Litharge	Nagy-Banya, Banat	66,457 —	7,658 —
Zinc	Banat	9,794 —	1,117 —
Antimony	Neusatz, Schmolnitz	26,474 —	6,350 —
Iron	Neusatz, Banat, Schmolnitz, Nagy-Banya	1,674,547 —	205,303 —
Alum	Nagy-Banya	66,576 —	12,301 —
Coal	Schemnitz	132 —	5,263 —
	Neusatz, Banat	2,643,597 —	—

Considering the metallic wealth of the Hungarian mountains, the amount of produce is astonishingly low, and certainly the resources of the country are little understood, more especially as respects iron and coal. Paget considers the Hungarian coal to be equal to the English for all manufacturing purposes. (ll. 608.) The number of individuals employed in the mines on government account in 1835 was 18,611, of whom 692 were officers. The salt-works employed 1,510 individuals, including 71 officers. The salaries of all amounted to 2,196,893 florins in silver. From the abundance of ore in many of the mining districts, a most thriving trade might be opened; but, to insure this, the means of transit must be improved, and government exactions must cease. The mines are divided, from their position, into four districts: the Schemnitz, Schmolnitz, Nagy-Banya, and Banat, of which the first is by far the most considerable; and hence Schemnitz is considered as the mining capital of Hungary. This town possesses an excellent school for miners. Each of the districts has its government and separate establishment of smelting-houses; but all send their produce to be assayed to Kremnitz, in the Schemnitz district. (*Page*, l. 339.)

River Communication.—The trade by way of the Black Sea was not commenced till the establishment of the steam navigation of the Danube. The Hungarian peasant, with corn, wool, and flax about him in abundance, lives in poverty, for want of a market. The articles imported from Wallachia and Moldavia are wax, honey, wool, bristles, some metals, &c. The agricultural produce of the great plain along the Save is conveyed to Szissek, in Croatia, whence the more expensive articles are forwarded along the river to Agram, and thence, by land carriage, to Ljubna and Trieste; those more bulky are sent up the Culpa to Carlstadt, and thence conveyed to Fiume by the Louis Road. (*See Fiume*.)

The navigation on the rivers is as well managed at present as the peculiar circumstances of the country

will allow. The barges are of great size, usually from 100 to 150 ft. long by 17 to 24 ft. broad, and drawing 5 to 6 ft. They are built of Croatian oak, either at Szissek, on the Save, or at Segedin, on the Theiss, and cost between 600*l.* and 700*l.* They have a high pointed roof, like a house, and serve the purpose of granaries in the interior of the country. The peasants bring their corn for sale to the river's bank, and it is at once laden in sacks into the barge, and sorted into various partitions. These barges load from 1,600 to 2,000 qrs. of wheat. They are drawn up the Danube or the Save by 30 to 25 small horses, and are often moored on their way from the mouth of the Theiss to Raab, Wieselburg, or Szissek, when the water is low; but, under favourable circumstances, the trip from the Theiss to Szissek may be made in 14 or 15 days; and the freight is commonly 15 kreutzers, or 6*d.* per cwt. All navigation up the stream is, of course, interrupted during floods or hard frosts, and thus there are many months in the year when no navigation is possible. The improvement of the beds of the Save and the Culpa, the use of steam tow-boats instead of horses, and the adoption of smaller craft, would much increase the traffic along the rivers of Hungary. It was estimated in 1839 that 60 barges of various size, between 40 and 400 tons, belonged to various shipping estates on the Theiss; 60 of a smaller description to the Besa Canal, between Temeswar and Beeskerek; 68 of the larger kind to the lower Danube, at Panchova, Semla, and Neusatz; and 100 to the Save, including craft of all sizes, owned at Mitrovitz, Brod, Gradiska, Jasenowitz, Szissek, Carlstadt, and Agram, making a total of 278. The number of men employed is usually 4 for smaller, and 6 or 10 for larger craft. The bad condition of the beds of the rivers makes the stevedores (*Gyromas*) a person of great importance, demanding high wages.

A considerable trade is carried on along the course of the Danube, the grand highway of Hungary; which, of late years, has received a considerable impetus from the

employment of steamers. (See Vol. I. p. 246.) Still, however, the central situation of the country, and its great distance from the ports accessible to foreign ships, lay its commerce under great disadvantages. The exports consist almost wholly of raw produce, inc. corn, wool, wine, tobacco, cattle and sheep, timber, &c. The imports comprise most species of manufactured goods, with colonial products, dye-stuffs, spices, hardware, &c. The principal trade is carried on with the Austrian dominions, inc. Galicia; and is facilitated, not only by the Danube and other rivers, but, also, by the railways which unite the W. parts of the kingdom with Vienna, &c. Fiume, the nearest port on the Adriatic to Hungary, is an open roadstead, in which ships cannot lie when either the Bora or Scirocco winds are violent; and, independent of this, its great distance from the productive districts makes it almost useless; and there seems little chance of effecting the projected railway communication between it and the more productive portions of Hungary.

Hungary has no commercial town to compare with Cracow or Vienna for bill and banking business; but the transmission of money, &c. is much facilitated by branches of the National Bank of Vienna established at Pest and other places.

Coin, Weights, Measures.—The Hungarians use the same standards as the Austrians, in most respects. The florin of 60 kreutzers is equal to 2s. English. The gold ducat of Kremnitz, consisting of 44 florins, is worth 6s. 6d. English. The *ort* contains 12 kreutzers, and the polturock $\frac{1}{16}$ kr. The Hungarian yard, used in measuring cloth, is 4-5ths of the Austrian yard, or about 34 Engl. inches. The *joch*, or Austrian acre, contains 1,600 sq. klaften, and is equal to 1-46 Engl. acre. The metz of Presburg, commonly used for measuring dry substances, is 1-78 imp. bushel. The *seimer* (for liquids) varies; for the wine *seimer* is equal to 154 Engl. gallons, while that used in Lower Hungary is equivalent only to 15 gallons. The *antal*, used in the Tokay district, is equal to 13-3 Engl. gallons.

Constitution and Form of Government.—The following account of the Hungarian constitution is given in the official report drawn up for the use of the emperor's cabinet by Baron de Baldacci, and may be looked upon as a declaration of the rights of the nation on the part of the crown:—"The constitution of Hungary is monarchical, limited by the power of the aristocracy. All that concerns the security of the country against foreign attacks, in other words, the defence of the nation, is monarchical in principle. The armed force is consequently altogether dependent upon the king. The internal government of the nation is a mixed monarchy and aristocracy. Laws can only be enacted by the joint consent of the king and the diet; and, although the executive power be said to lie with the king, yet the sovereign has only the nomination of lords lieutenant (*Obergespanne*) of counties, and administrators; since every other public officer is either elected by the county itself, or named by its lord-lieutenant, — a nomination, however, which is often successfully disputed. Justice is administered on the principle, *res est fons et origo jurisdictionis*, in the name of the king, who has, however, no further influence than the power of appointing the president and councillors of the Curia Regia, that is, of the *septuaginta* and royal courts; but to these courts the crown dignitaries likewise depute their representatives. The king nominates the presidents and counsellors of the district courts, watches over the course of justice in all courts, and enjoys in civil suits the exercise of certain prerogatives, and the power of issuing mandates founded upon them; such are the power of ordering a suit to be recommenced (*mandatum novi causæ gratia*), and of issuing *moratoria*: in criminal cases the king has the power of pardoning.

"The royal dignity is hereditary in the house of Austria (1526), and is confirmed to all perpetuity (1547) in the female as well as the male lines (1723). Since 1723, the succession to the throne of Hungary is placed upon the same footing with that of other hereditary states of the empire. The chief prerogatives of the crown are, 1st. The power of making laws, after consulting the estates assembled in the diet, and in common with them. The king assembles the diet, and dissolves it at pleasure. 2d. The highest executive authority in every thing which is in accordance with the laws, or which involves no violation of them. 3d. The right of patronage, or the nomination to all bishoprics and other clerical dignities. 4th. The highest judiciary authority, which the crown, however, only mediately exercises through its officers. 5th. The full power of declaring peace and war. 6th. The right of levying troops, of erecting fortresses, and of demanding wall-like subsidies. 7th. The right of calling out the general insurrection of the country for its defence, in the prescribed legal manner. 8th. The right of pardoning. 9th. The right of coining money. 10th. The right of granting patents. 11th. The right of nominating to all offices, except those of palatine of Hungary, of the two guardians

of the crown, and of the county offices above mentioned. 12th. Of legitimising bastards. 13th. The *ius præfationis*, or the power of transferring the right of succession to a daughter, on the extinction of male heirs in a family. 14th. The *ius successionis*, or the inheritance of all noblemen's estates when there are no male heirs. 15th. The right of abrogating decrees of infamy pronounced by the courts of justice. 16th. Of granting letters of prosecution. 17th. The supreme guardianship of orphans. 18th. The post. 19th. The right of sending special commissions to inquire into the faulty administration of the counties, by which the authority of the lord-lieutenant is suspended; as the royal commissary presides in the congregations or county meetings, abrogates their previous resolutions in the king's name, causes them to be taken out of the lists of protocols and destroyed, suspends the county officers, and institutes legal proceedings against them. The royal authority watches, further, over the disposition of the domestic fund of each county; and the accounts of this fund, which has a revenue of more than 3,000,000 florins, are revised by the general-accountant at Ofen (Buda), who sees that they are sent in complete.

"The private rights of the king comprise the enjoyment of, 1st, the regalium, in which the customs' revenue (*Druckszigistümer*), the tithe of mining produce, &c., are included; 2d, the crown lands; 3d, the national lands (*Kammergüter*); 4th, the lands in the possession of the Fiscus.

"The prelates, magnates, nobles, and free cities are comprised under the name of estates. The free cities are regarded as nobles in their municipal capacity; their rights are expressed in the 93d table. There is no proper charter or constitutional code. King Stephen was the founder of a regular constitution, which he modelled according to the forms of government existing at that time in many countries of Europe, but his constitution has experienced many modifications in the course of time. The Golden Bull, issued under very unfavourable circumstances by Andrew II., changed the form of government, which had until then been almost autocratic, into an aristocratic monarchy. The vigorous steps taken by some kings, as for instance by Charles I., Louis the Great, and Matthias Corvinus, to extend the royal prerogatives, were retraced at the close of the 15th century, under the reign of Vladislaus II.

"The *opus tripartitum*, published by Verboec in the beginning of the 16th century, was not on its first appearance, nor for more than a century afterwards, looked upon as legal authority, nor has it ever formally received the royal sanction. The collection of ancient decrees by Bishop Motosky (1585) cannot be looked upon as any thing more than the compilation of a private individual; and in many diets, even in that held in 1609, propositions were made for the drawing up of a regular code of laws. Under the kings of the reigning house, a great portion of Hungary and of the annexed districts has conquered from the Turks, by great exertion on the part of the other imperial states; and many important alterations, in the relations of the king and the estates, took place at different times. What are called the cardinal privileges of the nobles and of the clergy, who are looked upon as equal to the nobility, have been preserved to the present day to an extent unparalleled in any country in Europe."

Such were the claims asserted and the privileges allowed by the king of Hungary in 1831. That the political privileges of the nobles have been maintained, should, perhaps, be matter of rejoicing, when the services they have recently conferred on their countrymen are taken into account; and still more when they have been the means of preserving what will no doubt become, in the end, a really free system of government. At present, except the right of election, which is vested in the 267,300 nobles, there is no political privilege which the lowest Hungarian does not enjoy in common with the inhabitant of the other constitutional states of Europe. The liability to taxation is not a territorial distinction, and not one of birth; and the moderate imposts thus raised are, in reality, only a part of the rent, which goes into the treasury instead of the landlord's pocket. In extraordinary contributions, of late years the nobles have assessed themselves for their share of the burden.

Religion.—The pop., considered in relation to its religious belief, is divided into four grand classes. The religion of the state is Rom. Cath., to which faith 6-10ths of the pop. are attached. The Protestants amount to 2,676,000; the adherents of the Greek church to 2,185,000; and the Jews to about 353,000. By the decrees of Joseph II., who dissolved 600 monasteries, and endowed with their funds various universities and schools, religious toleration, if not absolute equality, was granted to the professors of all Christian creeds; and this liberal policy has been maintained by his successors. The Rom. Catholics are spiritually governed by 3 archbishops and 14 bishops, who are all members of the diet: these are well provided for; but the inferior clergy are

poor, and are not remarkable for their liberality of feeling, or exemplary morals. (*Page*, i. 111.) The Archbishop of Gran, who has a very large revenue, is primate of all Hungary. The United Greeks have 4 bishops, and the Orthodox-Greek churchmen, 1 archbishop (Abp. of Carlowitz) and 6 bishops, all of whom have had seats in the diet since 1792. The Protestants are not under episcopal jurisdiction, but have 8 superintendents or presidents of synods. They are divided into two classes; the Lutherans, who adhere to the confession of Augsburg, and the Reformers, who follow the doctrine of Calvin. The former are principally found in the N., and among the Slovaks; the latter are almost entirely Magyars, and chiefly inhabit the towns and villages of the Pusztas. There are upwards of 300 Jewish synagogues in Hungary. By the law of 1840, they are admitted to all civil rights and privileges.

Education.—So minute a survey cannot be given of the educational institutions of Hungary as of those in other provinces of the empire, owing to the more local character of the Hungarian municipal and parish jurisdictions. The University of Pest is one of the most richly endowed of Europe, but its services are by no means in proportion to the magnitude of its revenues. The family of Marichany has the credit of founding 100 bursarships for poor students. There are Rom. Catholic lycæums or colleges at Agram, Kaschau, Grosswardein, Presburg, Raab, and Erlau; and Protestant colleges at Presburg, Oedenburg, Kacsmark, Eperies, Raab, Debreczin, Saros Patak, and Papa; they have faculties of law and arts. The largest of these is at Debreczin, founded in 1792. (*See Page*, ii. 42.) The colleges of Szeged and Stein am Anger have faculties of arts only. At Schemnitz is a mining college, similar to that at Presburg, supported by government, with 7 professors and 54 scholarships, endowed with 10,800 fl.; but its efficiency is very doubtful, and its degrees are no sure test of merit. (*Id.* i. 338—335.) The Ludovici academy at Waiizen, and 67 Catholic and 13 Protestant gymnasia or grammar-schools, complete the list of higher schools. The academy at Carlowitz, intended to educate the priests of the Greek Schismatic confession, belongs strictly to the military frontier. There are, moreover, boarding-schools for sons of nobles, 1 at Agram and 1 at Kaschau; 24 Catholic and Greek united clerical seminaries, with 1,081 students; 14 regimental schools, with 798 pupils; a nursery for education at Pest; and an excellently conducted school for the deaf and dumb at Waiizen. (*Id.* i. 321.) Besides this, every village has its elementary school (*Trivialschule*), and the larger villages more than one, where instruction is given in the language of the inhabitants; but it is very limited, and has little tendency to improve the social state of the peasantry. Pest and other places subscription infant schools have been established.

Any estimates of the state of crime in Hungary must be extremely loose, owing to the want of proper returns. The poverty and ignorance of the lower orders are undoubtedly great inducements to offences against property. Cattle-stealing is a common offence, and the insecurity of gardens and field-crops is much complained of by the industrious peasant. Murder, however, is of rare occurrence, except in cases of popular tumult, the last of which was the memorable epoch of the cholera in 1830 and 1831, when the phrenzy of the populace vented itself in fearful enormities. The new enactments in favour of the peasantry will operate gradually to obviate these consequences of national degradation.

The prisons, formerly wretched, have of late years attracted attention in Hungary, not less than in other countries. The landowners of the country have raised the sum of 30,000 florins by subscription, for the erection of a penitentiary on the American system. A society of ladies has likewise raised the sum of 16,000 fl. to erect a workhouse for mendicants. At Gyarmet, Arad, Szexard, Miskolcz, and Jászberény, the old system of imprisonment has been changed, at the expense of the nobles, into the better one of prison labour. This laudable spirit is spreading rapidly in all parts of the kingdom. The castle of Munkacs is used as a state prison, and Szegedin is appropriated by the Austrian government to the confinement of criminals from Lombardy.

The court of lowest jurisdiction for the peasant is the manorial court of his lord; but in disputes between the peasant and the manor, a special court is formed from members of neighbouring manorial courts, with the "Vice-stuhlrichter" or police magistrate of the district, and from their decision an appeal lies to the "Stuhlrichter's" court. This court is the tribunal of first instance for the nobles; but causes involving more than 2,000 fl. come before the court of the "Vice-gespann," or sheriff of the county, whence an appeal lies, as well as from the "Stuhlrichter" to the "sedes iudicialis," or "sedria," the proper county court of session, and thence to the royal table, or court of king's bench. The "Septem-wirrali" is so called from its having formerly consisted of 7 judges; it is now composed of 4 prelates, 10 magistrates, and 4 nobles, or their representatives, of whom 11

must be present to form a court. This is the highest tribunal of the kingdom, but death-warrants must be signed by the king. In civil trials, the greatest drawback on the due administration of justice is the power given to an unsuccessful plaintiff of renewing his action after the lapse of 33 years from the former trial. This, with the impossibility of selling noblemen's lands in execution for debt, has completely deprived landed property of all credit, and has rendered commercial transactions in Hungary so insecure, that they are usually carried on only upon onerous conditions. To remedy this evil, a bill was brought into the diet in the session of 1840, to allow creditors on bills of exchange summary redress. This measure, so loudly called for by the wants of the trading interest, has contributed to increase the commerce of Hungary.

Finances.—The taxation of Hungary is extremely moderate. The sum of 3,908,704 fl. for Hungary and Transylvania is raised for the support of 31,500 soldiers; besides which, Hungary pays 100,000 fl., Croatia 4,000 fl., and Transylvania 10,000 fl., for the maintenance of the Hungarian noble guard at the emperor's court. Further, Hungary pays towards the expenses of recruiting 79,235 fl., and 38,533 fl. for king's dues. Another tax, amounting to 2 millions of fl., is raised to indemnify the peasants who supply forage at a low rate to the troops quartered in the kingdom. Thus, what may be called the direct taxes of Hungary amount to about 7 millions of fl., or 700,000*l.*; but they are levied according to an old law, which makes them fall very unequally on the different towns and counties. The royal imposts are raised from the clergy, and separate tributes are levied on the royal towns and from the towns of Zips. The Jews pay a tax for toleration, which amounts to 160,000 fl. The profits of the monopoly of salt have, most probably, been rated far too high by the author of the *Neuere Beschreibung*, &c., whom Mr. Paget quotes. The entire produce of the mines does not exceed 1,240,000 *wt.*; so that the revenue from it cannot well exceed 10 millions. If the domains be supposed to yield 1,200,000 fl., the mines and mint 1,096,000 fl., the post 500,000, although each of these items appears overrated, Austria may draw altogether from Hungary the sum of 20,100,000 fl., about 2,000,000*l.*, annually.

In the general distribution of taxes, the share that falls upon each county and upon the great towns is only decided upon. The apportionment in the former is determined at the county meetings; and the rural districts and smaller towns seek each to throw on the other, by no very honourable tactics, the greatest share of the burden. Each county and town has also its "cassa domestica," or local rates, and the value of property of course varies with their amount. Thus, a peasant's session in the county of Czoograd pays 14 fl. annually for all taxes; whereas in Saros, where the sessions are much smaller, each pays 30 fl. a year. Many of the royal cities, such as Pest, Debreczin, Szegedin, &c., have most extensive town-lands; which, if properly managed, ought to produce large revenues, but which, under the present municipal systems, do not defray the charges of lighting and paving. The town-lands of Szegedin exceed 10 German sq. m. in extent, and yet 4 strong horses are scarcely able to pull a carriage through the streets of the town, so much are they neglected.

With respect to indirect taxation, the king claims the right of levying customs' dues at will; and has surrounded the country with a barrier of protecting duties. Still the excise and octroi, or consumption dues, levied on the larger Austrian towns, are either unknown in Hungary, or are raised by the municipalities as town-dues, for local purposes. Salt and playing-cards are royal monopolies. Tobacco is free. Even the title of all minerals claimed by the crown, and their states of the empire in, as has been mentioned by the owners of iron and coal mines. A peculiar feature of Hungarian financial economy is the pride which the nobility feel in not being compelled to pay road and bridge tolls. The principle of this absurd exemption has, however, been abandoned in the new chain-bridge between Pest and Buda, where all classes are to pay toll indiscriminately.

The county meetings, which are the nursery of patriotism in Hungary, are of two kinds, *restorations*, and *congregations*. In the former, the county officers are elected; in the latter, accounts are passed, and the county business discussed. The number of nobles or electors is between 300,000 and 300,000; and as their qualifications are limited neither to property nor instruction, the tumultuous scenes which present themselves at elections, and on other occasions, bear a good deal of resemblance to the occurrences in England at such like meetings. The magistrates have an ingenious way of manufacturing votes for their friends. On the candidate's demand to vote, the claim, if opposed on the ground of non-qualification, is referred to the county court as a disputed point, where the magistrates generally have

influence enough to settle the matter as they wish. In this way the number of the nobles is annually increased. Whoever purchases land of the crown becomes, by so doing, a noble. At the county congregations a large amount of business consists in the making out of instructions for their representatives during the session of the diet: these are, in fact, *delegates* without any will of their own, being bound to adhere to that of their constituents, to whom they apply for directions on all doubtful and difficult questions. The county meeting may also recall a refractory member, and send another in his stead. The rights of the nobles are based on the "Aurea Bulla," granted to the armed barons by King Andreas, in 1222, in a manner similar to the Magna Charta of England. (Paget, i. 399-412.) The nobles, being mostly Magyars, it follows that the Magyar nation has been chiefly instrumental in maintaining the constitution during so many centuries.

The internal management of the cities is wholly dependent on the government, which has power to appoint and remove their officers: they are on this account a constant object of jealousy to the nobles, who consider this dependence as opposed to the principle of constitutional liberty. They reproach the citizens for their financial economy, and for allowing the majority of the inhab. to be excluded from a voice in all public business. The distribution of Hungary into counties is attributed to King Stephen, about the year 1000. The *Fo Ispan*, or lord-lieutenant, is the only officer named by the crown. The *Al Ispan*, or deputy-lieutenant, of whom there are usually two, is, however, the common president of the county meetings: he holds the supreme direction of the county police, whether the nobles deriving seats from courts; being, in fact, a kind of sheriff. The small salary attached to all county offices seems rather intended to defray extra expenses, than as a remuneration.

The most important national institution, next to the county meetings, is the diet, at which the prelates and magnates formerly assembled with the deputies from the counties and the towns. Since 1562, the chambers have been divided. The chamber of magnates is composed of the prelates, with the archbishop of Gran, as primate, at their head; the "barons, who consider their titles only, or peers of the realm, in two classes; the great officers of the crown, with the lords-lieutenant of the 52 counties; and the barons, summoned by royal letters, including every prime count and baron of 25 years of age. Mr. Paget states, that "the upper chamber has at present no power of bringing forward any measure, nor, I believe, of proposing amendments on those sent up from below; the power of veto or approval is all that is granted to it. But the most extraordinary anomaly is the undecided privileges of some of their own body. It is questioned, whether the nobles deriving seats from their titles only, have an equal right to vote with those deriving their seats from their offices and estates. In consequence of this, the palatine, on some occasions, is said to have decided against the absolute majority: 'Vota non numerantur, sed ponderantur,' was declared to be the principle, and it was for him to hold the scales." The palatine is the president of the chamber of magnates. Magnates who are absent depute representatives, as do also the widows of magnates; but these deputies sit in the second chamber, where they can speak, but have no vote. The business transacted in the lower chamber is previously discussed in a kind of committee of the whole house, called a "circular session," in which strict forms are not observed, and each member speaks as often as he can get a hearing. The speeches in both chambers are now usually made in Hungarian. Among the magnates some few speak Latin; but this language has almost entirely fallen into disuse. The "personal," or president of the lower chamber, who is at the same time chief judge of the "royal table," is appointed by the crown. When the diet assembles, the propositions of the crown are first presented to it for consideration, and these form the great business of each session; but proposals also originate in the lower chamber, which, when agreed to by the magnates, are also sent to the king, who, if he approve them, communicates his assent by a royal "resolution." Many propositions rejected by the crown are voted anew in every diet, under the title of *Gravamina*; and their number has accumulated to such an extent as to make it expedient to make a selection of the most pressing, which are denominated *preferentialia*.

Mr. Paget thus describes them:—
"They demand that Dalmatia, Transylvania, Galicia, and Lodomeria should be reincorporated with Hungary; that the military frontiers should be placed under the command of the palatine, and governed by Hungarian laws; that the duty on salt should be reduced; that the edicts of government to officers of justice should be discontinued; that the laws respecting the taxes on the clergy should be observed; that the Hungarian chancery should be made really, not merely nominally, independ-

ent of the Austrian chancery; that the coinage should bear the arms of Hungary, and that the exportation of gold and silver should be prevented; that the paper moneys should be abolished, and a return made to a metallic currency; that the Hungarian language should be used in all official business; that the fiscal estates, such as have fallen to the crown on the extinction of the families to whom they were granted, should, as the law directs, be given only as the reward of public services, and not sold, as at present, to the highest bidder; and, lastly, that spies should not be employed and trusted by the Austrian government in Austria."

The Hungarians attach great importance to their country's being recognised as an independent kingdom. The sovereign is styled "king" in all public acts, and the regalia of the crown are guarded by a special corps appointed for the purpose in the palace at Buda, whence they are only removed, and that with great ceremony, for the sovereign's use on state occasions. The grand officers of the court and household are numerous, and are termed "aule ministeriales." These are the grand justiciary (*iudex curie*), the ban of Croatia, the arch-treasurer (*archicamerarius regium magnificus*), the great cupbearer (*pincernarius reg. mag.*), the grand carver (*dapiferorum reg. mag.*), the master of the household (*agaxomus reg. mag.*), the lord chamberlain (*cubiculariorum reg. mag.*), the grand porter (*janitorum reg. mag.*), the master of the ceremonies (*curie reg. mag.*), and the captain of the body-guard (*capitaneus nobilium turmae praetorianae*). The king is represented by his viceroy, the palatine, who resides at Buda, but the grand chancery of the kingdom has its seat at Vienna, where the business is transacted. The exchequer is managed by the "Hofkammer," which has its seat at Buda, and under which are the collectors of taxes, the mining boards, and the directions of the crown domains.

The soldiers voted by the diet amount to 38,000 men, consisting of 15 infantry, 12 hussar regiments, and 1 regiment of artillery; but there are generally 60,000 men quartered within the kingdom. On great emergencies, every nobleman turns out as a soldier, in what is called "the insurrection." The Hungarian body-guard, to wait upon the king's person, consists of 62 young nobles selected by the crown, the course of instruction in military sciences and languages accompanies their duty at court, and the ostensible destination of the officers is to prepare a number of young men to head "the insurrection," whenever it may be necessary to call it out.

History.—The oldest inhabitants of Hungary, mentioned in history, were known to the Greeks and Romans by the name of Pannonians. Of its history during the time of the Western and Eastern empires, and the various wars and invasions which are said to have taken place between the third and tenth centuries, there is no certain information. Hungary, however, had assumed the form of an independent kingdom in the eleventh century, the sovereign power being vested in the house of Arpad, a chief of the Magyar race. This family having become extinct in 1301, the Hungarians, through the influence of Pope Boniface VIII., elected Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX. of France. One of his sons became king of Poland in 1370, and thus his dominions extended from the Baltic to the Adriatic. A few reigns subsequently, under Matthias I., Hungary comprised about 256,000 sq. m., the extent of the present Austrian empire. The Turks, soon after their establishment in Europe, began to assail Hungary. They were, for a lengthened period, vigorously resisted, particularly by the famous John Hunniades. In 1526, however, Louis II., king of Hungary, was totally defeated and slain by the Turks, in the battle of Mohacs, and a large part of his dominions fell into their hands. On his death, Ferdinand I. of Austria, his brother-in-law, succeeded to the throne, and was crowned king of Hungary in 1527, since which time the monarch has always been emperor of Austria; but the Turks continued for many years to hold the greater part of the kingdom. The despotic conduct of the Austrian princes was most distasteful to the Hungarian nobles; and so great was their antipathy to the Austrian yoke, that, in 1683, they rose, with Tekeli at their head, and called upon the Turks to relieve them from servitude. Austria, however, succeeded, by the help of John Sobieski and Prince Eugene, in expelling the Turks from these countries, and they were finally secured to it by the treaties of Carlowitz and Passarowitz, in 1718. Hungary has since been on amicable terms with the Austrian royal family; and it seems to have been the policy of the emperors, for many years, to concede liberal measures, though perhaps not to the extent desired by such men as Szechenyi, Bathany, Wesselenyi, and other able politicians and reformers in the Hungarian diet.

P. & S. Since these paragraphs were written Hungary has been the theatre of revolution and of civil war. Some very important reforms had been effected by the Diets of 1836 and 1839; and

* The prelates are, 55 archbishops and bishops of the Rom. Cath. church, 1 Greek archbishop, 9 bishops, and 2 abbots.

others were in progress, which, had they been constitutionally followed up, would have been of great public utility. Latterly, however, revolutionary opinions and projects had begun to make their way into the Diet. The old opposition, which, though sometimes violent, was of an essentially conservative character, was gradually superseded by one animated by a far less cautious policy. The emancipation of Hungary from the dominion of the princes of the House of Austria, and the rendering of Magyar influence paramount in the Croatian and Slavonian provinces connected with Hungary, were the real and latterly the avowed objects of the new opposition. They might not, however, have been willing, or if willing they might not have been able to precipitate matters to a crisis, but for the revolution in France, in February 1848, and the revolutionary proceedings that followed soon after in Vienna. But it then appeared to the opposition leaders that the time for carrying their favourite schemes had arrived; and, after some violent preliminary measures in the Diet, they at length proceeded, on the 14th of April, 1849, formally to depose the House of Hapsburg-Lorraine.

But, though in great peril, the Austrian monarchy was not overthrown. In no very lengthened period the revolution in Vienna was suppressed; and government was able to direct a considerable force, inc. that led by the Ban of Croatia, against the insurgent Hungarians. It is doubtful, however, whether the latter might not have succeeded, had it not been for the interference of the Russians, in erecting themselves into an independent state. But Austria having applied for assistance to Russia, it was willingly rendered. And a powerful Russian army having been marched into Hungary, the insurgents were speedily compelled to give up the contest in which they had so rashly engaged.

But though the government has been re-established, it is impossible that its old forms should be again renewed. They will necessarily require to be very greatly modified. And it is believed that the Austrian cabinet will see that it is for its advantage to establish a constitution which, while it secures the tranquillity of the country, may, at the same time, provide for its progress in wealth and civilisation.

HUNGERFORD, a market town and par. of England, partly in co. Berks. hund. Kintbury Eagle, and partly in co. Wilts. hund. Kinwardstone, on the Kennet, 36 m. E. Bath, and 64 m. W. by S. London. Area of par. 6,940 acres; pop. (including the hamlets of Eddington and Sandon-fee), in 1841, 2,734. The town consists chiefly of one long street, in the centre of which is the market house, open below, and having a room above for the transaction of the town business. The church, which stands at the end of a shady avenue on the W. side of the town, is a handsome structure, erected in 1816, and near it is the grammar-school. There are also places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists and Independents. Hungerford has no manufactures; but there are some extensive breweries, and a considerable traffic arises from the circumstance of the Kennet and Avon Canal passing close to the town. It is a bor. by prescription, and is governed by a constable elected annually by the inhab., who are called together by a brass horn, known as the "Hungerford Horn," and given by John of Gaunt with the charter. Hungerford Park, at the E. end of the town, is a finely-wooded domain, with a mansion in the Italian style, recently erected on the site of a house built by Queen Elizabeth, or the Earl of Essex. Markets on Wednesday; fairs, last Wednesday in April, Aug. 10., and Monday before Michaelmas.

HUNTINGDON, an inland co. of England, partly included within the great level of the Fens; being surrounded by the cos. of Northampton, Cambridge, and Bedford; the latter bounding it only on the S.W. Area, 238,000 acres, of which about 220,000 are said to be arable, meadow, and pasture. Surface in the W. and S. parts gently varied, but the N. and N.E. portion, included in the Fens, is almost quite flat. This latter portion of the co. is mostly in grass, the other parts being about equally divided between tillage and pasturage. Chief crops, wheat, oats, and beans. Agriculture, though much improved, is not very advanced. Theland is ploughed in immense ridges, by which a great deal is lost; and it is frequently also foul and out of order; turns little cultivated. A good deal of fine cheese and butter is made. The sheep, the stock of which is estimated at about 200,000 head, produce long combing wool. Estates generally extensive: there are many large farms, but small ones predominate. Average rent

of land in 1843, 26s. 2½d. an acre. Pigeon-houses are extremely abundant. There are neither minerals nor manufactures of any importance. Principal rivers, Ouse and Nene. There are in the fens two shallow lakes, Whittlesea Mere, and Ramsey Mere; the former containing above 1,550 acres, and the latter about half as much: meadows, however, are now in progress for draining the former. Huntingdonshire is divided into 4 hundreds and 102 pars.: It sends 4 mems. to the H. of C. 3 for the co. and 3 for the bor. of Huntingdon, the principal town in the co. Registered electors for the co. in 1849-50, 2,892. In 1841, Huntingdon had 11,860 inhab. houses; and 38,549 inhabs., of whom 29,073 were males, and 29,477 females. Sum contributed for the relief of the poor, in 1846-47, 29,608*l*. Annual value of real property in 1818, 325,954*l*; do. in 1843, 401,684*l*.

HUNTINGDOON, a parl. and mun. bor. and market town of England, co. Huntingdon, of which it is the cap. hund. Huntingstone, on the Ouse, 57 m. N. London, and 17 m. N.W. Cambridge. Area of parl. bor., which includes the old bor. and the adjoining par. of Godmanchester, 6,890 acres: pop. of do., in 1841, 5,500. The town, which stands on a gentle slope N. of the Ouse (crossed here by a causeway and bridge of six arches), "consists principally of a long range of respectable brick houses running from N. to S., which commence immediately from the bridge, and line each side of the N. road to London. A few streets and lanes branch off on each side; but these are mostly composed of inferior houses. It is paved and lighted with gas, and there is an appearance of general improvement and increase." (*Bownd. Rep.*) Of 15 churches once standing, only 2 remain, though there are 4 parishes. Both are built in the perpendicular style, and one of them has a beautiful pinnacled tower, and a fine W. entrance. There are 4 places of worship for dissenters, an old grammar-school, with 3 exhibitions at Cambridge, attended by 80 boys, a green-coat school for 30 boys and 12 girls, a national school with 150 children, and 3 Sunday schools. The town-hall, behind which are the shambles, is a stuccoed building, comprising 2 court-rooms, and an assembly room; and close to it is the county gaol. A small theatre and a race-course furnish occasional amusement in summer. "No manufacture is carried on in Huntingdon, nor is there any trade of importance, except in wool and grain: its prosperity, therefore, is mainly attributable to the business connected with posting, which it owes to its favourable position on the great N. road." (*ibid.*) *Bownd. Rep.* Godmanchester, on the opposite side of the river, which seems to have been once an important bor., is now a mere suburb of Huntingdon, chiefly inhabited by farmers and farming labourers, and having a pop. of 2,163 in 1841. Both towns were chartered in the reign of John: the present officers in each are 4 aldermen and 12 councillors; but neither of the bors., as now constituted, has a commission of the peace. The county magistrates hold petty and quarter sessions in the town-hall, the chief local set of the town being that of 36 George III. Huntingdon has sent 3 mems. to the H. of C., since the reign of Edward I., the franchise, till the passing of the Reform Act, being vested in freemen by birth, grant, or purchase. The boundaries of the present parl. bor. include the entire parish of Godmanchester, as well as the old borough. Registered electors in 1849-50, 406. Markets at Huntingdon on Saturday: Godmanchester cattle-fair on Easter Tuesday.

HUNTLEY, a bor. of barony, market town, and par. of Scotland, co. Aberdeen, on the peninsula formed by the confluence of the Deveron and Bogie, 36 m. N.W. Aberdeen. Pop. of the town and par. in 1801, 2,869; in 1841, 2,642. Pop. of the town only in 1841, 2,731. It is neatly built, consisting of two principal streets crossing each other at right angles, having a handsome square or market-place in the middle. The Deveron is crossed by an ancient bridge of a single arch. On occasion of the great floods of 1829, when the waters of the river rose 23 ft. above their usual level, only 6 ft. of the arch remained unoccupied; but it received no injury, and stands apparently as firm as ever. A modern bridge of three arches spans the Bogie. In addition to the par. church, the Episcopalians, Catholics, and Independents have each chapels. In the immediate vicinity of the town are Huntley Lodge and Huntley Castle; the former a seat of the late Duke of Gordon; the latter, which is in ruins, an ancient seat of the Gordon family: both are now the property of the Duke of Richmond, feudal superior of the town. Huntley was once celebrated for its manufacture of linen; but it has nearly disappeared. There is a thriving bleach-field on the banks of the Bogie. The business of brewing and distilling is carried on to a considerable extent in the town and neighbourhood. There are here three branch banks.

HURDWAR, HARI-DWAR, or GANGA-DWAR ("the gate of the Ganges"), a town of Hindostan, presid. Bengal, prov. Delhi, in lat. 29° 57' N., and long. 78°

3° E.; 106 m. N.E. Delhi, and famous from its being one of the principal places of Hindoo pilgrimage, and the seat of the greatest fair in India. The town, which is but inconsiderable, is situated on the Ganges, at the point where that sacred stream issues from the mountains. The pilgrimage and the fair are held together, at the vernal equinox; and Europeans, nowise addicted to exaggeration, who have been repeatedly present on these occasions, estimate that from 300,000 to 800,000 strangers are then assembled in the town and its vicinity. But every twelfth year is reckoned peculiarly holy; and then it is supposed that from 1,000,000 to 1,500,000, and even 2,000,000, pilgrims and dealers are congregated together from all parts of India and the countries to the N. In 1819, which happened to be a twelfth year, when the auspicious moment for bathing in the Ganges was announced to the impatient devotees, the rush was so tremendous that no fewer than 480 persons were either trampled to death under foot, or drowned in the river! The foreigners resorting to Hurdwar fair, for commercial purposes only, consist principally of the natives of Nepal, the Punjab, and Peshawar, with Afghans, Usbeck Tartars, &c. They import vast numbers of horses, cattle, and camels, Persian dried fruits, shawls, drugs, &c.: the returns are made in cotton, piece goods, indigo, sugar, spices, and other tropical productions. The merchants never mention the price of their goods, but conduct the bargain by touching the different joints of their fingers, to hinder the bystanders gaining any information. During the Maharratta sway a king's poll-tax and duties on cattle were levied; but all is now free, without impost or molestation of any sort. Owing also to the precautions adopted by the British government, the most perfect order is preserved, much to the surprise and satisfaction of the natives; for, antecedent to our occupation of the country, the fairs usually ended in disorder and bloodshed. (*Private Information; Hamilton's E. India Gazetteer.*)

HURON (LAKE), one of the five great lakes of N. America, belonging to the basin of the St. Lawrence, second in size only to Lake Superior, and intermediate in position between that lake and Michigan, on the N.W. and W., and lakes Erie and Ontario, on the S. and S.E. It is of a somewhat triangular shape, extending between lat. 42° and 46° 15' N., and long. 79° 30' and 85° W., surrounded, W. and S.W., by the Michigan territory, and on all other sides by the territory of Upper Canada; and divided into two unequal parts by a long peninsula and the Manitoulin chain of islands, the parts to the N. and E. of which are called North Channel and Georgian Bay. The total length of Lake Huron, N. to S., is rather more than 300 m., and its greatest breadth about the same. Area estimated by Darby at 19,000 sq. m. Elevation above the surface of the ocean 536 ft., or less by 45 than that of Lake Superior, and by 4 than that of Lake Michigan. (*Gordon, N. York Gaz. p. 11.*) Greatest depth towards its W. shore at least 1,000 ft., and its mean depth is estimated at 900 ft., or about 300 ft. below the level of the Atlantic. In various parts it abounds with islands, their total number being said to exceed 32,000, the largest the Great Manitoulin (Evil Spirit) Island, is nearly 90 m. long, and in one part almost 30 m. wide. Lake Huron receives the superabundant waters of Lake Superior, by the river St. Mary, at its N.W. angle, and those of Michigan at Michilimachiac; and discharges its own towards Lake Erie, by the St. Clair, at its S. extremity. Lakes Nipissing and Simcoe communicate with it by the Francis and Severn rivers, except which, however, Lake Huron receives no river worthy of mention. The banks of this lake are mostly low, especially along its S. and W. sides. Few or no towns of consequence exist on its shores, and navigation is rendered dangerous by sudden and violent tempests. (*Darby, View of the U. States; New York Gaz., &c.*)

HYDERABAD, a town and fortress of Hindostan, prov. Sind, of which it is the cap., though not the largest city. It stands upon a rocky precipice upon an island formed by the Indus and the Fullaire, one of its tributaries, 48 m. N.E. Tahta; lat. 26° 22' N., long. 68° 41' E. Pop. estimated by Sir A. Burnes at 20,000. The fortress (of which there is a view in *Burnes's Sindia*, vol. II.) has an imposing appearance, and is considered very strong by the Sindians; but it could not oppose any effectual resistance to European troops. Its shape is an irregular pentagon; its walls, which are of brick, are about 25 ft. high, very thick at the bottom, but tapering to the top, and flanked with round towers from 300 to 400 paces apart. On one side it is enclosed by a ditch about 10 ft. wide, and 8 deep. In its centre is a massy tower unconnected with the works, in which a great portion of the treasures of Sind are deposited. When Colonel Pottinger visited the place, about 70 pieces of cannon were mounted on the ramparts, and there were formerly 2,500 houses and several handsome mosques within the citadel; at present, Sir A. Burnes says, the fortress is a mere shell,

HYDRA.

and its walls are going rapidly to decay. N. of it is the *pettah* or unfortified town, in which most of the inhabs. reside in mud huts: there are, however, some well supplied shops. Hyderabad has manufactories of arms of different kinds, employing about 1-5th of its inhabs.; and others of embroidered cloths, leather, &c. (*Pottin-ger's Beloochistan; Burnes's Sindia, and Trav. in Bokhara, &c.*)

HYDERABAD, a city of the Deccan, Hindostan, cap. of the Nizam's dom.; on the Musah, a tributary of the Krishna, 197 m. W.N.W. Mausulipatam, 270 m. S.E. Aurungabad, and 190 m. W.S.W. Bejapoor; lat. 17° 15' N., long. 78° 35' E. Pop., including its suburbs, estimated at 200,000. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz. i. 683.*) It is about 4 m. in length by 3 in breadth, and surrounded by a stone wall, capable of resisting the attacks of predatory cavalry, but no adequate defence against artillery. Streets narrow, crooked, and badly paved; houses mostly of one story only, and built of wood and other combustible materials. A large arched bridge, wide enough for two carriages abreast, here crosses the Musah. The chief public buildings are the palaces and numerous mosques, Hyderabad having long been the stronghold of Mohammedanism in the Deccan. Within the city are also some large magazines belonging to the Nizam, filled with European manufactures. Hyderabad (then called Baumngur) was founded by Cuttub Shah, about 1585. It was taken and plundered in 1687, by the troops of Aurungzebe. The late Nizam transferred the royal residence from Aurungabad thither, and more in the centre of the town, and since having been the seat of gov. and the court, it has progressively increased in wealth and population.

The territory of which Hyderabad is the cap., known as the Nizam's dom., extends between the 15th and 21st degs. of N. lat. and the 75th and 82d degs. of E. long.; embracing, together with the provs. Hyderabad and Beeder, part of Bejapoor, Aurungabad, and Berar; having an area of 108,000 sq. m., with a pop. of at least 8 millions. By all accounts, this territory was very badly governed by its native princes, and insurrection was frequent. But according to a treaty made in 1800, it was provided that the military power of Great Britain should be employed not only in the suppression of rebellion, but also in the collection of the revenue. The British bound themselves to protect the Nizam against all enemies, and to secure the lawful succession to the throne; and the Nizam engaged to receive and maintain a subsidiary British force, to abstain from all connection with other states, and to carry on no negotiations except through the British gov.; to refer to us, and to abide by our arbitration, on every occasion of dispute with any other power, and to assist us with his troops and resources on occasions of just war. (See *Crawford, Edmonstone, &c. in Part. Report, Append. Political; Hamilton's E. I. Gazetteer.*)

HYDRA, an island of the Grecian Archipelago, off the coast of Argolis, from which it is 6 m. distant; lat. 37° 20' N., long. 23° 30' E. Area, 69 sq. m. Pop., according to Thiersch, in 1834, 20,000. It is a mere rock, so utterly barren as to contribute nothing whatever to the maintenance of its inhabitants, nor, in all probability, would it ever have been peopled, were its insular situation and the excellence of its harbour had pointed it out as a safe place of refuge from the oppressions of the Turks, and a favourable situation for commercial pursuits. The town of Hydra, which, with the exception of two adjacent villages on the coast, is the only inhabited part of the island, is situated on the N.W. side, and rises in successive tiers, like an amphitheatre, over the harbour, presenting from the sea an extremely beautiful prospect. The streets are precipitous and uneven; but the houses are most beautifully built of marble, and the interiors are well-furnished, and are extremely neat and clean. The harbour, defended by a battery, is crescent-shaped, and though small, is deep and safe; it is lined, through its entire sweep, with storehouses and shops, most of which, however, are now empty, only showing, by their number, the former consequence of the port. Several Greek churches (two of which have fine marble steeples) and a hall of commerce are the chief public buildings; and the educational establishments, instituted in the days of Hydra's prosperity, comprise a well-regulated college, for instruction in the classical Greek and the modern languages, several elementary schools, and a mathematical seminary. The commerce of Hydra before the war of Independence was very considerable, employing, in 1816, according to Pouqueville, 120 vessels, and more at a later period, trading in wheat with Spain and Portugal, and in oil, wine, and other goods, with different ports of the Mediterranean; but it has now greatly fallen off, and in all probability will never recover its former prosperity, having been chiefly transferred to the more advantageously situated ports of Nauplia and the Piræus. The Hydriots, most of whom are Albanians, and not true Greeks, were, during their prosperity, which com-

menced in the beginning of the French war, the boldest seamen of all Greece, and acquired large sums by privateering. During the war of independence they earned for themselves the character of being the most efficient and intrepid sailors in the Greek navy, and their bravery contributed in no small degree to the successful issue of that contest. (*Mod. Trav.*; *Dkt. Géog.*, &c.)

HYTHE, a cinque port, parl. bor., market town, and par. of England. Co. Kent, 14th Shepway hund. same name, 15 m. E. Canterbury, and 50 m. S. E. London. Pop. of parl. bor., which includes Sandgate, Folkestone, and four other small parishes, in 1841, 8,336. The town stands near the E. extremity of Romney Marsh, and consists chiefly of one long street, parallel to the sea-coast, which is about $\frac{1}{2}$ m. distant, the beach lying between being considerably higher than the town. The church, a cruciform structure, built in the early English style, and having two towers, is remarkable for its elegant architecture; the living is in the gift of the archbishop of Canterbury: there are also places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists and Independents. Two national schools, supported by subscription, were attended in 1824 by 240 children, and 16 poor aged people are supported by an old charity belonging to the town. The other chief buildings are the court-house, gaol, and theatre. "Hythe prospered during the war, in consequence of the large military force quartered in the neighbourhood, and of the expenditure in the formation of the military canal, and of the forts and martello towers with which this part of the coast is studded; but its prosperity has declined since it has ceased to be a military station. It has no manufactory; and the beach being open and exposed, the colliers, which are the only vessels trading to the town, are obliged to land their cargoes only during the summer. Fishing employs a few of the inhabs., the rest being tradesmen and labourers." (*Mus. Boson. Rep.*) The corporation, which received its constitution from the general charters granted to the Cinque Ports, especially that in 1204 (Charters II.), has consisted, since the passing of the Municipal Reform Act, of 4 aldermen, one of whom is mayor, and 12 councillors. Corporation revenues in 1847-48, 531l. The bor. sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the 42d of Edward III. down to the passing of the Reform Act, which deprived it of 1 mem.; previously to that act, the franchise was vested in the freemen, made so by birth, marriage, or gift. The Boundary Act enlarged the limits of the parl. bor., by adding to it the liberties of Folkestone, and the parishes of West Hythe, Saltwood, Cheriton, and Newington. Registered electors in 1849-50, 758. Markets on Saturday; fairs July 30. and Dec. 1.

I.

IBARRA, a town of Ecuador, Colombia, in a delightful plain, on the Taguando, at the foot of the volcano Imburo, 50 m. N. E. Quito, and on the high road between that city and Popayan. Lat. $02^{\circ} 21' N.$, long. $78^{\circ} 18' 34'' W.$ Pop. unknown, but formerly estimated at 12,000. It was founded in 1597, is well built, and has a large and well built church, several convents, a college, formerly belonging to the Jesuits, an hospital, and many good private residences. Without the city are some suburbs, inhabited by the Indian pop. It manufactures fine cotton and other fabrics. The district of which it is the cap. produces sugar and wheat of the finest quality, and a good deal of cotton, the weaving of which into stockings, caps, &c., employs many of its inhabs.

IBRAILA. See BRAHILOW.

ICELAND, a large island under the dominion of Denmark, in the N. Atlantic Ocean, on the confines of the polar circle, generally considered as belonging to Europe, but which should rather, perhaps, be reckoned in America; between lat. $62^{\circ} 30'$ and $66^{\circ} 40' N.$, and long. 16° and $29^{\circ} W.$ It is of a very irregular triangular shape, and is estimated to contain about 30,000 sq. miles. Pop. (1845) 57,000, supposed to be spread over about two thirds of the island, the central portion being totally uninhabited, and imperfectly explored. Iceland appears to owe its existence to submarine volcanic agency, and to have been upheaved at intervals from the bottom of the sea. It is traversed in every direction by vast ranges of mountains: the principal ridges run chiefly E. and W., and, from these, inferior mountains branch off towards the coasts, often terminating in rocky and bold headlands. All the coasts, but more especially the N. and W., are deeply indented with *fjords*, similar to those of Norway. The most extensive tract of level country is in the S. E. It is estimated that about a third part of the surface is covered with vegetation of some kind, while the other two thirds are occupied by snowy mountains or fields of lava. The general aspect of the country is the most desolate and dreary imaginable. The height of very few of the mountains has been correctly ascertained, and those said to attain an elevation of 7,000 feet are not the most lofty. The Yökuls, or enormous ice-mountains, are

among the greatest elevations: the most extensive of these is the Kiofa Yökul in the E.; it lies behind the heights which line the S. E. coast, and forms, with little or no interruption, a vast chain of ice and snow mountains covering a surface of perhaps 3,000 sq. m. The W. quarter contains, among other lofty heights, the Snafel Yökul, 4,680 ft. high. In the N. the mountains are not very high; but in the E. the Great Yökul, 6,800 ft. in elevation, is the most lofty of which any accurate measurement has been obtained. The celebrated volcano Hecia is in the S. W. quarter, and about 30 m. inland. It is more remarkable for the frequency and violence of its eruptions than for its elevation, which is only about 5,300 ft. (*See HECIA.*)

The bays and harbours along the coast are numerous and secure, but little known or frequented; the most so are those of Eyaford on the N., Eyarbacka on the S., and Reikiavik on the W. coast. The rivers, which are numerous and comparatively large, have mostly a N. or S. course. Although sufficiently wide, they are generally obstructed by rocks and shallows, and are too rapid to admit of navigation. There are several large lakes, of which Myvatn Lake, in the N. E., is the most considerable: it is estimated at about 40 m. in circ., and has upwards of 30 islands composed of lava. In no country have volcanic eruptions been so numerous as in Iceland, or spread over a larger surface. Besides more than 30 volcanic mountains, there exists an immense number of small cones and craters, from which streams of melted substances have been poured forth over the surrounding regions: 9 volcanoes were active during the last century, 4 in the N., and the rest lying nearly in a direct line along the S. coast. Twenty-three eruptions of Hecia are recorded since the occupation of the island by Europeans: the first of these occurred in 1004. The most extensive and devastating eruption ever experienced in the island happened in 1793: it proceeded from the Skaptar Yökul, a volcano (or rather volcanic tract having several cones) near the centre of the country. This eruption did not entirely cease for about two years. It destroyed no fewer than 20 villages and 9,000 human beings, or more than one-fifth part of the then pop. of the island! On the S. and W. coasts, numerous islands have been from time to time thrown up; some of which still remain, while others have receded beneath the surface of the ocean, forming dangerous rocks and shoals. The Vestmanna Islands, which lie about 15 m. from the E. coast, are a group consisting almost entirely of barren vitrified rocks: only one of them is inhabited.

Tracts of lava traverse the island in almost every direction. This substance chiefly occurs in isolated streams, having apparently flowed from the mountains; but in some parts there are continuous tracts, and along the S. coast, for 100 m. inland, the lavas that spread over the country have been ejected from small cones rising immediately from the surface. The ground in this part is frequently broken by fissures and chasms, some of which are more than 8 m. in length, and upwards of 100 ft. in width. Besides the lava, Iceland abounds in other mineral masses indicative of an igneous origin: of these the most prevalent are tufa and submarine lava, obsidian, sulphur, &c. Whole mountains of tufa exist in every part. Sir G. Mackenzie observes, that the instance of tufa excepted, he saw no marks of stratification in any rock in the island, all the substances appearing to have been subjected to a degree of heat sufficient to reduce them to fusion; and that some, if not all, the Icelandic masses, which are not the produce of external eruptions, are really submarine lavas. The rocks not bearing external marks of heat are mostly of trap, and contain all the varieties of zeolite, chalcedony, greenstone, porphyry, slate, &c.: the celebrated double refracting calcareous spar is found chiefly on the E. coast. Basaltic columns occur in many parts, especially on the W. coast, where they form several grottoes; and that of Stappen bears a great resemblance to the cave of Fingal, in the island of Staffa.

Few metals are met with: Iron and copper have been found; but the mines are not wrought. The supply of sulphur is inexhaustible: large mountains are incrustated with this substance, which, when removed, is again formed in crystals by the agency of the hot steam from below. Large quantities were formerly shipped; but latterly the supplies sent to the foreign market have been comparatively small.

By far the most remarkable phenomena of Iceland are the intermitting hot springs met with in several parts, and of all degrees of temperature. The water in some of these springs is at intervals violently thrown into the air to a great height. They have thence received the name of *geysers*, from the Icelandic verb *geysa*, to rage. The most celebrated of these springs are situated in a plain, about 16 m. N. from the village of Skalholt. The great geyser, or principal fountain of this kind, rises from a tube or funnel, 78 ft. in perpendicular depth, and from 8 to 10 ft. in diameter at the bottom, but gradually widening till it terminates in a

capacious basin. After an emission, the basin and funnel are empty. The jets take place at intervals of about 6 hours; and when the water, in a violent state of ebullition, begins to rise in the pipe or funnel, and to fill the basin, subterraneous noises are heard like the distant roar of cannon, the earth is slightly shaken, and the agitation increases till at length a column of water is suddenly thrown up, with vast force and loud explosions, to the height of 100 or 200 ft. After playing for a time like an artificial fountain, and giving off great clouds of vapour, the funnel is emptied and a column of steam rushing up with great violence and a thundering noise, terminates the eruption. Such is the explosive force, that large stones thrown into the funnel are instantly ejected, and sometimes shivered into small fragments. (For an explanation of this phenomenon, see *Lycell's Geology*, II. 303. 3d ed.) Some of the hot springs, near the inhabited parts of the island, are used for economical purposes; food is dressed over them; and in some places huts are built over small fountains, to form steam baths. In other parts of the island vast cauldrons of boiling mud are seen in a constant state of activity, sending up immense columns of dense vapour, which obscure the atmosphere a great way round.

That Iceland had formerly some extensive forests is apparent from authentic records, but they no longer exist: in fact, the climate seems to be now unsuitable for the growth of trees, those that are found at present being stunted and diminutive, and little better than underwood. Vast quantities of *saururbrand*, or fossil wood, are frequently found buried at a great depth beneath the surface.

Of the wild animals, foxes are the most numerous. Reindeer, which were introduced from Norway in 1770, in the intention of being domesticated, have increased very rapidly; but they are entirely wild, and are very difficult to kill. Bears are frequently brought down from the arctic regions on masses of floating ice; they sometimes commit great devastations, but are generally destroyed almost immediately after making the land. Nearly all kinds of season inhabit the coasts and islands; and plovers, curlews, snipes, and a variety of game, are found in the interior. The elder duck is very plentiful; and the down taken from the nest is an important article of export. The birds are so familiar as to build their nests all round the roofs, and even inside the huts. A severe penalty is inflicted on those who kill them. The peasantry entertain a superstitious reverence, mingled with aversion, for the seal. The coasts, rivers, and lakes produce an abundance of fine fish; and it is from the sea that the Icelanders derive great part of their subsistence. Their fisheries are prosecuted with great activity; and at Niardvik, one of the fishing stations on the E. coast of the island, there are said to be 300 boats. Cod and haddock are plentiful on the coasts: of these, as well as of the other sea-fish, part is salted for exportation, but by far the greater part is dried for winter provision. The herring fishery is much neglected, as well as the inland fishery on the lakes and rivers.

The climate is more variable than that of the same latitudes on the continent. Great and sudden changes of temperature often occur, and it has frequently happened that after a night of frost, the thermometer during the day has risen to 70° Fah. The intensity of the cold is much increased by the immense quantities of floating ice, which, being drifted from the polar regions, accumulate upon the coast. Fogs are frequent; but the air, on the whole, is reckoned wholesome. Thunder is seldom heard, but storms of wind and rain are frequent; and the *aurores borealis* and other meteors are much more common and brilliant here than in countries further to the S. The sun is visible at midnight, at the summer solstice, from the hills in the N. parts of the island. There is a prevalent opinion in Iceland, that the seasons in former ages were less unfavourable; but there is probably no good foundation for this belief. The summers are necessarily short; but Dr. Henderson states that the cold is rarely more intense than in the S. of Scandinavia, and the winter he passed in the island was as mild as any he had experienced in Denmark or Sweden.

No grain is now cultivated, though traces exist of its having been formerly raised. Agriculture is limited to the rearing of various grasses for cattle, and haymaking is consequently the most important branch of rural industry. Potatoes have been introduced with some success; and several kinds of culinary vegetables are raised, but with the exception of red cabbage, few attain perfection. The grasses are of the sorts common in other N. climates, and keep horses and other cattle in good condition during the summer. Many of the low mountains are covered with a coarse grass, which yields pretty good summer pasturage; and the meadows and valleys through which the rivers flow produce grass in tolerable abundance, which, when the weather allows of its being harvested, is made into hay. Seaweed and moss are eagerly devoured by the cattle in winter, when

other food fails, which is often the case. In 1834 it was estimated that there were about 500,000 head of sheep; from 35,000 to 40,000 head of black cattle; and from 50,000 to 60,000 horses in Iceland: goats are kept only in the N. The number of sheep appears to be increasing; they have remarkably fine fleeces, which are not shorn, but cast off entirely in the spring. The horses are hardy and small, seldom standing more than 14 hands high. There being no carriages of any description, they are principally used for carrying burdens; and the poorest peasant has generally 4 or 5 of these animals. Horses are paid mostly in produce; on the coasts in fish, in the interior in butter, sheep, &c. Tenants who are in easy circumstances generally employ one or more labourers, who, besides board and lodging, have from 10 to 12 specie dollars a year as wages. The whole pop. is employed either in fishing or feeding cattle, or both; those who breed cattle being, as compared with those who live by fishing, nearly as 3 to 1.

No manufactures, of any kind, are carried on for the purpose of trade. Every branch of industry is domestic, and confined chiefly to articles of clothing, such as coarse cloth, gloves, mittens, stockings, &c. The peasantry supply themselves with such furniture as their cottages require, and some manufacture silver trinkets and snuff boxes, and forge implements of iron. Every man can shoe his own horse; and, in this land of primitive simplicity, even the bishop and chief justice are sometimes employed in this necessary occupation! The greater part of the trade is carried on by means of barter; the quantity of money in circulation is very small, few of the peasants possessing any. The merchants receive the articles for exportation at regulated prices, according to the state of the market, and pay for them in such foreign commodities as the inhab. may require. The peasantry of the neighbourhood assemble annually at Reikjavik and the other principal settlements, and bring down with them wool, woollen manufactured goods, butter, skins, tallow, Iceland moss (*Lichen Islandicus*), and sometimes a few cattle. In return for these they take basic coffee, sugar, tobacco, snuff, a little brandy, rye, rye bread, wheaten flour, salt, soap, &c. The better class purchase linens and cotton goods, which have latterly come more into use. Those who live near the coasts bring to market dried cod and stock fish, dried salmon, whale, shark, and seal oils, seal skins, &c. The domestic produce has, of late years, been considerable, and the export of wool amounts to from 3,000 to 4,000 skippons annually.

The Icelanders are of Norwegian origin; they are tall, have a frank open countenance, a florid complexion, and flaxen hair. They seldom attain to an advanced age, but the females generally live longer than the men. They are hospitable; devotedly attached to their native land; remarkably grave and serious; and, indeed, apparently phlegmatic, but extremely animated on subjects which interest them. They have retained, with few innovations, the ancient modes of life and the costume of their race. Their principal articles of food are fish, fresh and dried, bread, made of imported corn, great quantities of rancid butter, game, and, in some parts, a great quantity of the Icelandic moss. They sometimes use the flesh of the shark or sea-hag, when it has become tender from putrescence. Their huts, though larger, are not unlike those of the Irish: their dampness, with the darkness, filth, and stench of the fish, render them uninhabitable by strangers. The Icelandic, or original Scandinavian tongue, has been here preserved in all its ancient purity. The Icelanders are extremely attentive to their religious and domestic duties, and display in their dealings a scrupulous integrity. Perhaps there is no country in which the lower orders are so well informed. Domestic education is universal; and there are very few among them who cannot read and write, and many among the better class would be distinguished by their taste and learning in the most cultivated society of Europe. Even many of the peasantry are well versed in the classics; and the traveller is not unfrequently attended by guides who converse with him in Latin! In winter nights it is customary for a whole family to take their places in the principal apartment, where they proceed to their respective tasks, while one, selected for the purpose, reads aloud some of their *sagas* (ancient tales), or such other historical narrative as can be found. Their stock of books is not large, but they lend to each other, and frequently copy what they borrow.

The island was formerly divided into four *amts*, or provinces, answering to the four cardinal points. The N. and E. are now merged into one, and the W. is presided over by the governor in person. This officer has the title of *sjálfstjórnari*; he is sometimes a native, but more frequently a Dane. Under him are the *amtmenn*, or provincial governors, who exercise a similar jurisdiction over their quarters. Each province is divided into *sýslur* or shires, presided over by *sýslumenn*, with authority similar to that of sheriffs; these collect taxes, hold petty courts, regulate assessments, &c. Under the

systemen are *separators*, who are overseers of the poor, constables, &c. The tataroad, or chief justice, holds, with two assistants, a criminal court at Reikjavik, but very few cases are tried in the island, and all capital punishments are inflicted at Copenhagen. Crimes are rare, petty theft and drunkenness are the most common; the latter has been introduced chiefly by the crews of the Danish vessels that visit the coast.

The island constitutes one bishopric; the bishop's salary does not exceed 500*l.* per annum. There are about 194 par.; but the clergy amount to upwards of 300: their incomes are very small, and they are frequently among the poorest of the community. The only charitable institutions are, four hospitals, for the reception of those afflicted with leprosy, which, in the form of elephantiasis, was formerly very prevalent. Small-pox was formerly also very destructive. There are no work-houses, the sick and poor being almost universally supported by their own families. The principal school at Bessastadt, near the W. coast, has three masters, who teach classics, theology, and the Danish language; and several young men, after attending this school, go to Copenhagen to finish their studies. Reikjavik, the cap., on the S.W. coast, has little more than 500 resident inhab., chiefly Danes. Most of the villages are situated on the coasts, at convenient spots for the receipt and transport of merchandise.

The early and successful application of the Icelanders to the cultivation of literature is an anomaly in the history of learning. When most parts of continental Europe were in a state of rude ignorance, the inhab. of this remote island were well acquainted with poetry and history. The most flourishing period of Icelandic literature appears to have been from the 12th to the end of the 14th century. During the last three centuries, however, Iceland has produced many learned men, some of whom have risen to great eminence. The literature of the island in the present day may perhaps be said rather to have changed its character than declined from its ancient fame; the inhab. now attend more to solid branches of learning than to the poetical and historical romances of the ancient Icelandic sagas. Domestic education is carefully attended to; there is no want of modern books in Icelandic; and a printing press is actively employed in the island of Vidoe.

The discovery of Iceland by Europeans is attributed to a Norwegian pirate, about the year 860; but the earliest permanent settlement was effected by the Norwegians in 874.

In little more than half a century, all the coasts were occupied by settlers; and about the year 928 the inhab. formed themselves into a republic, and established the *Althing*, or General Assembly of the Nation, which was held annually at Thingvalla, in the S.W., and not abolished till 1800. The Icelanders maintained their independence for nearly 400 years; but during the 13th century became subject to Norway, and on the annexation of that kingdom to Denmark, Iceland was transferred along with it. (See *Sir R. Mackenzie's Travels*; *Hooker's Travels*; *Bergman's Voyage to Iceland*, 1834-5; *Gaimard's Voyage en Island et Groenland*, 1838; *Henderson's Journal*, &c.)

IDRIA, a town of the Austrian empire, k. Illyria, duchy Carniola, circle Adelsberg, in a valley of the Carnic Alps, 23 m. W. by S. Laybach. Pop. (1834), 4,185. The inhab. are principally engaged in mining; the quicksilver mines of Idria belonging to the Austrian government being, after those of Almaden in Spain, the richest and most celebrated in Europe. They yield annually from 2,200 to 2,600 cwt. of metal, about a sixth part of which is converted on the spot into vermilion, corrosive sublimate, and other preparations of mercury. The mine is rather more than 1,000 ft. in depth. The formation in which it is situated is transition limestone, alternating with clay-slate, in which latter rock the quicksilver is found. It exists partly pure, in globules among the slate; but it is mostly found in combination with sulphur, forming veins of cinnabar, &c., which vary greatly in thickness. The cinnabar ore is considered too poor to be wrought when it contains only from 15 to 18 per cent. of quicksilver, and is then usually abandoned in search of a better vein. The richest ore yields from 50 to 70 per cent. of metal. From 600 to 700 workmen are employed, of whom about 800 are miners. These are enrolled in a corps, and have a regular uniform. They are divided into three sections, which relieve each other, each working below for 8 hours in the 24, and the work incessantly going on. Within his 8 hours, the labourer is required to perform a certain measurement of work, for which he receives 17 *kreuzers* (nearly *fd.*). If he performs less or more than this measured extent, his pay is proportionally reduced or increased; but the number of those who gain less than the fixed sum is greater than of those who gain more. Besides their money pay, the miners get an allowance of corn sufficient for themselves and their families; and in illness, gratuitous medical aid. No lodging is found them; but they may purchase at a government store a number of articles of prime ne-

cessity, at fixed charges, generally below the ordinary market prices. The miners usually enter the service at 18 years of age. After 40 years' service, or earlier, if ill health overtake them, they are allowed to retire on full pay, and enjoy various privileges. The widows and orphans of miners are entitled to a pension, and about 35,000 florins are thus expended annually. The process of mining is said to be very unhealthy; the heat of the mine, varying from 80° up to 95° Fah., impregnates the atmosphere with volatilised mercury, which soon exerts all its characteristic effects on the constitutions of the miners. In some parts, the heat is so great, and the atmosphere so vitiated, that the workmen are obliged to relieve each other every two hours. The mine is very clean, and in its lower parts remarkably dry. In 1808, a violent conflagration broke out in the mine, destroying the whole of the works, with several of the workmen.

Of the mercury produced at Idria, a small part goes to Trieste, whence it is exported chiefly to America; but by far the largest portion is sent to Vienna, partly for the plating of mirrors, but principally for the use of the gold and silver mines of Hungary and Transylvania.

Fifty years ago, Idria was notoriously a place of banishment for state prisoners and criminals, who were condemned to work in the mines. It is so no longer; no coercion is used, and no convicts are sent thither; the supply of labourers petitioning to be admitted is considerably greater than can be received any day. The town and district of Idria is a mining intendency, with its own government; consisting of a director-general, an imperial comptroller of accounts, a secretary-general, and four councillors, who superintend all the departments of the public service, under the Council of Mines in Vienna. Idria has some German, primary, and other schools, and a small theatre. It had a school for instruction in mining, but it was abolished on the restoration of the Illyrian provs. to Austria. The aspect of the place is thus described by Turnbull:—"We perceived the white church with its little steeple, perched on a small green knoll, and not far from it another insulated height, crowned with an antique-looking castle, erected by the Venetians during the time that they possessed Illyria, and which now serves as a residence for the bergrath, or director of the mines, and for the government offices connected therewith. Between these two heights, the town straggles along on very unequal ground; with a stream rushing through it, a second church in a sort of public place, some large buildings connected with the public administration, but scarcely any good shops or private houses." Mendicancy, or abject poverty, is, however, unknown. The mine was discovered by accident in 1497; it was afterwards wrought by a company of Venetian merchants, and purchased by the house of Austria, who accorded the miners considerable privileges in 1575, since which the prosperity of Idria has been generally on the increase. (See the elaborate accounts of *Franché*, in the *Revue du Nord*, vol. v. p. 11.; *Turnbull's Trav.* l. 283-286; *Bergbau, Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.*)

IGUALADA (an. *Agualeta*), a town of Spain, prov. Catalonia, 37 m. N.W. Barcelona, and 286 m. E.N.E. Madrid; lat. 41° 40' N., long. 1° 31' E. Pop. 7,731. It stands on the Noya, a trib. of the Joul, in a rich plain, abounding with corn-fields and olive-grounds. It has some well-built streets, and a handsome suburb, the chief buildings being a par. church, two convents, a clerical college, hospital, and cavalry barracks. The inhab. are among the wealthiest and most industrious in Spain; and their manufactures, by which they are almost wholly supported, comprise cotton and woollen yarns and cloths, hats, and fire-arms, the last of which are highly esteemed. In the neighbourhood are several considerable paper-mills. Fairs, well attended, for manufactured produce, are held here in the beginning of Jan. and at the end of August. (*Milano*.)

ILCHESTER, a bor., market town, and par. of England, co. Somerset, hund. Tintinhull, on the Yeo or Ivel (whence its name is derived), 18 m. E. Taunton, and 116 m. W.S.W. London. Area of bor. and par., 690 acres; pop. in 1881 (including 130 prisoners in the gaol), 1,058. The town comprises 4 indifferently-built streets, and has but few public buildings. The church is remarkable for its octagonal tower. A national school, and almshouses for 16 women, are the only public charities. The co. court-house is handsome, and conveniently arranged. The gaol, built on Howard's plan, is large, and well regulated, and capable of accommodating upwards of 200 prisoners, and was often quite full, when employed, as formerly, for a state prison and house of correction; it is now chiefly used for untried prisoners and debtors, the number of inmates averaging 50. (*Pris. Inspect. Rep.*) The town, which has no manufactures, and little trade, derives its chief importance from the fact that a large portion of the county business is transacted here, the assizes being held at Ilchester alternately with Taunton, Wells, and Bridgewater. It is altogether, however, in a low, declining state, and pauperism is on

the increase. Ilchester is a bor. by prescription, and sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the 36th of Edw. I. down to the passing of the Reform Act, when it was disfranchised: it was a more nomination bor., in the patronage of the Duke of Cleveland. Markets on Wednesdays. Distinct traces of a Roman station, and the discovery of numerous Roman coins and antiquities, have led to the belief that this town occupies the site of the *Ischalis* of Ptolemy, the principal military station of the Romans in the West of England. It had 108 burgesses at the time of the Norman conquest. Still later, it was a place of considerable consequence, and was made, by patent of Edw. III., the assize town of Somerset.

ILDEFONSO (ST.). or LA GRANJA, a celebrated palace of the sovereigns of Spain, Old Castile, prov. Segovia, 43 m. N.N.W. Madrid, and 5 m. S. E. Segovia, on the N. declivity of the Sierra Guadarrama, built by Philip V. as a place of retirement during the hottest months of summer. "It is placed in a spot where the mountains fall back, leaving a recess sheltered from the hot air of the S. and from much of its sun, but exposed to whatever breeze may be wafted from the N.; the immediate acclivity towards the S. being occupied by the garden, which, though somewhat formal, is full of shade and coolness." (*Travels*, L. 283.) The garden, which is of brick, plastered and painted, occupies three sides of a square, in the centre of which is the royal chapel. The principal front, looking towards the garden, is 530 ft. long, having 2 stories, with 12 rooms in a suite; the great entry, with its iron palisade, very much resembling that of Versailles. The interior is, in every thing regal: the ceilings of the apartments are painted in *fresco*, the walls decorated with noble mirrors, and the floors chequered with black and white marble, while the furniture, though somewhat antiquated, is highly enriched with Jasper, verd-antique, and rare marbles. The upper rooms are adorned with the works of the first masters, chiefly of the Italian school, the lower apartments being used as a repository for sculpture. Many, however, of the best specimens once belonging to this palace, both in painting and sculpture, have been removed to the royal gallery of Madrid, which now possesses one of the richest collections in Europe. The gardens are laid out in the French style, with formal hedges and walks; and the trees, notwithstanding the labour which the formation of these grounds was attended, are poor and starved; the chief feature, indeed, in these gardens is the quantity of fine water, disposed in a variety of ways, and especially in the formation of fountains and works. "These," says Swinburne, "surpass all that I ever saw, not excepting the finest at Versailles. The *jets d'eau* send forth a clear crystal stream, which falls around like the finest dew: the most remarkable are eight fountains, dedicated to the chief heathen deities, one of which, Fame, seated on a Pegasus, throws up from a trumpet a stream to the height of 133 ft. There are various other water-works, all adorned with statues of lead, varnished in imitation of brass; and the whole supply of water is procured from reservoirs on the hills above." (*Swinburne*, li. 230.) The expense of constructing the garden alone, a large part of which was made by blasting out of the solid rock, must have been very great; and the entire expenditure on the palace gardens and water-works is stated by Townsend to have exceeded 5,000,000*l.* In the town, which lies at a little distance below the palace, is a manufactory of mirrors, supported by the government, which at the time when Townsend visited it, "proved a devouring monster, in a country where provisions were dear, fuel scarce, and carriage exceedingly expensive." Inglis says that the largest mirrors made there were 134 ft. long, 8 ft. broad, and 6 in. deep. (*Townsend*, vol. ii.; *Dillon*, p. 85.; *Inglis*, l. 281-285.; *Memoirs*.)

ILFRACOMBE, a sea-port, market town, and par. of England, co. Devon, hund. Braunton, on the Bristol Channel, 9 m. N.W. Exeter, 41 m. N.W. Exeter, and 173 m. W. by S. London. Area of par., 2,690 acres. Pop. (1831), 2,301. The town, consisting of one long street and a noble terrace facing the sea, extends W. from the harbour along the shore. The church, which stands at its upper end, is a large plain building containing some fine monuments: the living is attached to a prebend in Salisbury Cathedral. There are places of worship for Independents and Wesleyan Methodists, a large national school, and a girls' school of education. The harbour is a natural basin formed by the curve of a very rocky shore, and a bold mass of rocks stretching nearly half way across the entrance of the recess shelters it from the northern storms. A battery and lighthouse stand on the top of this rocky mass, and the harbour is further defended by a pier 850 ft. in length, which has been lately put in excellent repair. There is safe anchorage for vessels of 320 tons, and ships can easily enter here when they cannot get up the Taw to Barnstaple; the consequence of which is, that Ilfracombe has taken away a great part of its coasting trade. The trade with Bristol, Swansea, and other ports in the Bristol Channel is considerable; and

many vessels are employed in the herring fishery. This port, in 1838, had 63 ships, of the burden of 3,897 tons. Oats, barley, and fish are the chief articles of export. The town, however, depends in a great measure for its support on the numerous wealthy families that resort thither in summer since it has attained celebrity as a watering-place. The bathing is excellent, and the neighbourhood abounds with romantic scenery. Steam-packets run daily to and from Bristol, and at less frequent intervals, to and from Swansea, Tenby, and Milford. The town is governed by a portreeve appointed by the lord of the manor. Markets, well supplied with fish, on Saturdays: fairs April 14, and the first Saturday after Aug. 22.

ILL-E-T-VILLAIN, a mark. dep. of France, in the N.W. part of the kingdom, formerly included in the prov. of Brittany; between lat. 47° 38' and 48° 30' N., and long. 10° and 10° 15' W., having W. Côtes-du-Nord and Morbihan, S. Loire Inférieure, E. Mayenne, and N. La Manche and the English Channel. Length, N. to S., about 70 m. Area, 668,697 hectares. Pop. (1836), 547,350. The Menes mountains run through this dep. from E. to W.; but they rise to no great height, and the surface elsewhere is not hilly. The chief river is the Ille, which has mostly a S.W. course, and falls into the Atlantic in the détroit de Saint-Malo, one of its affluents. The Rance, which has its mouth in this dep., is connected with the Ille by a canal, extending from Dinan to Rennes, 82 m. in length, and wide and deep enough for vessels of 70 tons. Climate temperate, but very damp; fogs are frequent, and from 36 to 38 in. rain fall annually. Soil thin, and not generally fertile. In 1834, 397,496 hectares of land were arable, and 73,349 in pasture; forests, heaths, and waste lands occupying 146,078. Agriculture is in a backward state. Throughout the greater part of the dep. the land is parcelled out into small farms, one of 30 hectares being considered large. In 1835, of 143,550 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 60,390 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 26,068 between 5 and 10 fr.; the number of considerable properties is much below the average of the dep. Principal crops, rye, oats, and barley; the dep. is not so suitable for wheat; and but little maize is grown: the annual quantity of grain produced is about 3,426,000 hectolitres, which is scarcely sufficient for home consumption; and the peasantry add to their corn chestnut flour, potatoes not being in regular use. 15,200 hectares are in gardens and orchards; fruit is plentiful, and some very good cider is made; but the agricultural products of the greatest importance are flax and hemp, and the linen thread of the dep. is very highly valued. Both cattle and horses are of good breeds; many oxen from this dep. are fattened in Normandy for the Paris market. Dairy husbandry occupies a good deal of attention, and the *beurre de Prevailay*, made in the neighbourhood of Rennes, is highly esteemed throughout France. The sheep are of an inferior kind. The sole, cod, mackerel, and other fisheries on the coast are extensive, and Cancale Bay is celebrated for its oysters, with which Paris is in great part supplied. From 50 to 60 boats go annually from this dep. to the cod fishery of Newfoundland. Some copper, iron, argentiferous lead, and coal mines, and quarries of marble, granite, slate, limestone, &c. are wrought, but apparently not to any great extent. The manufactures consist chiefly of hemp and linen thread, rapping and sail-cloth, cordage, flannels at Fougères, leather, &c. In the vicinity of Fougères there is a large government glass factory, the output of which is some of the products of which are equal to any made in Lyons. This dep. is divided into six arrondis.; chief towns, Rennes, the cap., St. Malo, Fougères, Redon, Montfort, and Vitré. It sends 7 mems. to the ch. of dep. Number of electors (1838-9), 2,128. Total public revenue (1831), 11,116,307 fr. This dep. has produced many celebrated men, including M. de la Bourdonnaye, Maupertuis, Savary, Vauban, Chateaubriand, and Broussais. (*Hugo*, art. *Ille-et-Vilaine*, &c.)

ILLINOIS, one of the U. States of America, the fourth in the Union in point of extent: between lat. 37° and 42° 30' N., and long. 87° 30' and 91° 30' W., having N. the Wisconsin territory, E. Lake Michigan and Indiana, S. Kentucky, from which it is separated by the Ohio river, and W. Missouri and the Sioux territory, the Mississippi forming the whole of its boundary on that side. Length, N. to S., 380 m.; average breadth about 166 m. Area estimated at 69,000 sq. m., 80,000 of which are supposed to be susceptible of cultivation. Pop. (1845), 648,482, since which it has rapidly increased. In the N., its surface is uneven and broken, and in parts of the S. also it is hilly; but, on the whole, next to Louisiana and Delaware, Illinois is the most level state in the Union. It consists mostly of vast unutilized prairies, or rich plains, called by the settlers, "barrens," producing stunted oak, hickory, pine, and other trees. Many tracts in the S. are densely wooded, especially those lying along the rivers; and the prairies are sometimes interspersed with copses, though much more frequently situated with isolated trees at short distances.

The state is well watered; next to the Mississippi and Ohio, the chief rivers are the Illinois, its tributary, the Sangamon, the Kaskaskia, Great Wabash, and Rock River. The Illinois rises in the N.E. part of the state, and intersecting it in a S.W. direction, falls into the Mississippi, 26 m. above its junction with the Missouri, after a course of 450 m., most part of which is navigable for steam-boats. The Sangamon has a course of about 180 m., with a boat navigation of 180 or 190 m. The Kaskaskia rises in the centre of the state; runs with a S.W. course for nearly 300 m., and falls into the Mississippi 150 m. below Vandalia, to which city it is navigable. The Great Wabash belongs more properly to Indiana, but it forms the lower 3-6ths of the E. boundary of Illinois, and falls at its S. E. angle into the Ohio. The Rock River runs through the N. W. portion of the state. It has a S. W. course, like the Illinois, Kaskaskia, and other tributaries of the Mississippi, which river it enters about lat. 41° 20', after a course of nearly 400 m., for about 300 of which it is navigable. The total length of the navigable rivers is estimated at 4,000 m. Small lakes are numerous, and in the N. is Winnebago Swamp, a considerable extent of marsh-land.

In the W., and probably throughout most of the central and N. parts, the geological strata succeed each other in the following order:—a vegetable mould from 8 to 30 in. in depth, clay, limestone, shale, bituminous coal, generally from 4 to 5 ft. thick, coals, and sandstone. Limestone appears to be a universal formation; and coal and sandstone are found almost everywhere. In the N. W. a mineral district, very rich in lead, &c., extends for 100 m. N. and S., by a breadth of half that distance, communicating with a tract of a similar character across the Mississippi. The smelting of lead ore on the banks of the Rock River began only in 1822, from which period to Dec., 1836, 70,420,257 lbs. of lead had been obtained in the state of Illinois and the adjacent Wisconsin territory. The produce of this metal is at present estimated at from 8,000,000 to 30,000,000 lbs. a year. After lead,—iron, copper, coal, salt, and lime are the chief mineral products. Copper and iron are found in various parts; and, in 1837, 300,000 lbs. of the first were raised from the mines on the Pekatonica, a tributary of Rock River. The salt springs near Shawneetown yield 60 lbs. of table salt from 160 galls. of water. Other salt springs, and sulphureous and chalybeate mineral waters, are found in many places. The climate is healthy, except in the marsh tracts along the rivers or elsewhere. The winter is, in most parts, short and mild; and the summer heat not oppressive. Probably no portion of the territory has a mean annual temperature of more than 54° Fahr.; and the mean of the state at large is not above 51°.

This state is supposed to possess a larger proportion of first-rate cultivable land than any other in the Union. All the grains, fruits, and roots of temperate regions grow luxuriantly; and in none of the W. states is corn raised with greater facility and in more abundance. Wheat yields a good and sure crop, especially on the banks of the Illinois and in the N. It weighs upwards of 60 lbs. a bushel, and is preferred in the markets of New Orleans to the wheat of Ohio and Kentucky. Indian corn is a great staple, and hundreds of farmers grow nothing else. Its average yield is 50 bushels an acre, and sometimes the produce amounts to 75 or even 100 bushels. Oats, barley, buckwheat, common and sweet potatoes, turnips, rye for horsefeed and distilleries, tobacco, cotton, hemp, flax, the castor bean, and all other crops common in the middle states are raised. Hemp is indigenous in the S., and succeeds well every where. Tobacco is good; and cotton is grown both for exportation and home use. Fruits of various kinds are very abundant, and the climate of the S. is favourable to the growth of the vine. Great numbers of cattle are reared in the prairies, and hogs in the woods. Sheep generally thrive well; but little has been done to improve the breed by crossing. Foultry are abundant, as are also bees, and the silkworm succeeds well. Deer roam the prairies in large herds. In the Military Bounty tract, in the N. W., large tracts of land of the best quality may be had at the government price of 1½ dollar an acre. This tract was, at a former period, mostly appropriated, by the general gov., in grants to the soldiers who served in the war against Great Britain; but a great part of it has again come into the possession of the gov., having been resumed for arrears of taxes, or disposed of by those to whom it had been granted. All lands in this state purchased of the general gov. are exempted from taxation for five years after purchase. The great fertility of the soil in Illinois, in common with the adjoining part of Missouri, has attracted thither so many emigrants of late that the pop. of this state was supposed in 1847 to have reached 700,000, and in the present year (1840) it has been estimated at nearly a million. (*American Almanack.*)

Many large and flourishing settlements have been formed in its W. part since the introduction of steam navigation on the Mississippi; these, however, are almost

exclusively agricultural. Manufactures are yet few, and principally domestic; though there are some of cotton fabrics and yarn, woollen cloth, &c. In 1838, the state possessed 916 mills of different kinds, many impelled by steam, and 143 distilleries. In every town and county artisans in all the trades of prime necessity are to be met with; and boat-building is carried on to some extent on the Mississippi. Grain, cattle, butter, cheese, and other agricultural products form the chief articles of export; and sugar, tea, coffee, wines, woollen cloths, and other manufactured goods are the chief imports. The external trade is carried on principally through New Orleans, to which emporium the articles of export are forwarded by the Mississippi, the imports being also received by the same channel. Illinois presents great facilities for a most extensive system of inland navigation; and various plans for improving the means of communication are now in progress of execution. The government has not been backward in endeavoring to further this object; and has granted 300,000 acres of land for the construction of a canal to unite Lake Michigan with the head of the steam navigation on the Illinois. This canal, which was begun in 1830, is to reach from Chicago to the town of Peru, a distance of 96 m. Several sums of money have been also appropriated by the government for the improvement of the river navigation. Three railroads have been commenced by private companies, many more being projected at the charge of the state. The *American Almanack* for 1840 reports that, in the preceding year, more than 1,300 m. of railroads, and 100 m. of canals, were in process of formation.

Illinois is divided into 70 cos., in 60 of which courts are held. Vandalia, on the Kaskaskia, was the cap. till, in 1837, the seat of government was removed to Springfield, near the centre of the state. Jacksonville, Chicago, Kaskaskia, and Alton are the other chief towns. The legislative part of the government is vested in a senate, composed, in 1836, of 40 mems., chosen for 4 years; and a house of representatives, having in the same year 98 mems. All white male inhabs. above the age of 21, having resided in the state for 6 months, are privileged to become electors. Elections for representatives and the sessions of the legislature are held biennially. The executive duties are discharged by a governor and a lieutenant-governor, chosen by universal suffrage every 4 years. The high judicial functions are exercised by a supreme court composed of a chief justice and three inferior judges. The governor and judges of the supreme court constitute a council of revision, to which all bills that have passed the assembly must be submitted. If objected to by the council of revision, the same may, notwithstanding, become law by the vote of the majority of all the members elected to both houses. Slavery does not exist, having been prohibited by the constitution of 1818. This state had, in 1837, 4 banks of its own, and 6 branch banks, with a united capital of 2,800,000 doll. A 96th part of every township of land, and a tax on some reserved lands belonging to the U. S. government, have been appropriated for public instruction, by lands and claims on account of which amounted, in 1837, to about 3,000,000 doll. A college, founded at Jacksonville, occupies two extensive buildings, and is usually attended by about 65 students; and many other lyceums and seminaries are established in different parts of the state. In 1839, 33 periodical publications were issued in Illinois. The prevailing religious creed is the Methodist Episcopal.

During most part of the 18th century the name of Illinois was applied to all the country N. and W. of the Ohio. The territory comprised in the present state was discovered in 1670 by a party of French colonists, who made their first permanent settlements at Kaskaskia and Cahokia in 1673. This tract of country was ceded by the French to the English at the same time with Canada, in 1763, and by Virginia to the U. States in 1787. It was admitted, as a state into the Union in 1818; and sends 3 delegates to congress. (*Illinois in 1837; Mitchell's U. States; Swarth's Three Years in America*, li. 334—402. *Higman's 4 Winter in the Far West*, i. 224—301; *Darby's American Almanack*, 1837-8-9-40, 5.)

ILLYRIA (KINGDOM OF), a portion of the Austrian empire, comprising the provs. of Carinthia, Carniola, and Istria, the islands of the Gulph of Quarnero, and the Illyrian Littorale. It lies between lat. 44° 26' and 47° 7' N., and long. 13° 14' and 16° E., having N., Austria and Styria; E., the latter prov. and Croatia; W., the Tyrol and Italy; and S., the Adriatic Sea. It is divided into the govts. of Laybach and Trieste.

The divisions, with their extent and pop., are as follows:—[See top of next page.]

Its N. part is covered by the central chain of the Alps, and likewise by various offsets, constituting the southern limestone girdle of the Alpine system. The S. portion of the kingdom, comprising the gov. of Trieste, occupies the S. slope of this mountain-range towards the Adriatic. The main chain at the Gross Glockner (14,000 ft. high) takes the name of the Norik Alps, stretching its lo^g

Circles.	Area in sq. m.	Towns.	Villages.	Pop.	Chief Towns.
Laybach	1,202	9	918	149,724	Laybach
Neustadt	1,239	13	1,833	183,133	Neustadt
Adelsberg	1,138	8	431	88,076	Idria
Klagenfurt	1,441	23	1,677	178,523	Klagenfurt
Villach	1,626	13	1,139	122,860	Villach
Trieste (Territory of)	40	1	24	70,815	Trieste
Istria	2,178	35	479	211,040	Rovigno
Goritz	1,837	10	441	176,570	Goritz
Troops in garrisons	-	-	-	16,879	
	10,801	111	6,871	1,212,753	

peaks, here called *Tauern*, as far as the Ankogel, 10,131 ft. high. All this region contains extensive ice fields and glaciers. At the Ankogel the Noric Alps, taking a N.E. course, enter Styria; but a branch bounds the vale of the Drave on the N., and that of the Lavant on the E., separating their waters from those of the Mur. The Carnic Alps form the S. boundary of the valley of the Drave, dividing it from that of the Save. Various summits in this chain are from 6,600 to 8,000 ft. high; and over one of them, the Lobel, the emperor Charles VI. constructed the road connecting the Drave and the Save valleys: its summit-level is 5,477 ft. above the sea. At Mount Terglou, the Julian Alps break off, running S.E. towards the Adriatic and Dalmatia; E. of Idria they decline in height, forming an elevated plateau, remarkable for drought and sterility, owing to the porous nature of its constituent limestone. Besides the pass over the Lobel, various others connect the fruitful valleys of this romantic country, the most remarkable being the Katscher, 5,230 ft. high, between the Drave and the Lungau; the Wurzen, 3,100 ft., and the Pass of Tarvis, 2,800 ft., leading from the valley of the Drave to that of the Tagliamento. The valleys of the Gail (an. *Vallis Julia*), the Lavant, and Jaun (*Vallis Junonia*), in Carniola, and of the Save and Wochein in Carniola, offer all the varieties of Alpine beauty, while in the S. those of the Isonzo and Wippach, especially the former, present a picture of the richest Italian cultivation. The only level tracts of any considerable extent lie S. of the Julian Alps towards the Adriatic, and in the Istrian peninsula.

The Carnic and Julian Alps are perforated by very numerous subterranean cavities, which, by draining the surface of water, condemn whole districts to a melancholy sterility. Several of these caverns are celebrated for their great size and curious natural phenomena, as the Cave of Adelsberg in Carniola, the neighbouring Magdalen cavern, in which the "*Proteus Anguinus*" is found, &c. Through several of these the mountain torrents find subterranean channels, to the great detriment of agricultural prosperity. (See *ADELSBERG*.)

The N. portion of Illyria is well watered. The Drau or Drave, rising in Tyrol, traverses Carinthia in all its length, and receives tributaries from both the N. and S. mountain barriers of that province. It is navigable from near Klagenfurt to its mouth in the Danube. The river second in importance is the Sau, or Save, which traverses Carniola with an E. course parallel to that of the Drave. The banks of the Upper Save are mostly level; but the mountains close in on the river near Reichenberg. It is navigable from near Laybach; and receives various affluents, both in Carniola and Croatia. The rivers falling on the S. side of the Alps to the Adriatic, are the Isonzo, Ausa, and Timavo. The Isonzo, traversing the beautiful vale of Friaul, and taking near its mouth the name of Sdoba, falls into the sea near Monfalcone. The Ausa falls into the sea near Buio; and the Timavo (*Timavus*), with a course of scarcely more than 1,500 yards, is navigable up to its source. Istria is very scantily watered: the Quileto, its principal stream, falls into the sea near Cittanuova, and, as well as the Arsa on the E. side of the peninsula, is navigable for some miles of its course.

There are several lakes in the N., but none of any great extent. The Lake of Klagenfurt, 11 m. long, is united with the neighbouring city by a canal. At a short distance from it is the Ossach lake, 7 m. long, and connected with the Drave by the Laybach. Further N.W. lies the Muhlstadt lake, 10 m. in length and 1 m. broad, with very picturesque banks. The Weissensee, the Feldecker-see, (an. *Lacus Auracius*), and, lastly, the remarkable Zirknitzer-see, are of smaller extent. The lake of Zirknitz has 3 islands, and receives its waters through subterranean channels. During the spring, and the autumnal rains, it presents a sheet of water 6 m. long, and 1 m. broad; but in summer the waters recede, and leave a dry fertile surface, either used for hay, meadows, or raising summer corn. The openings by which the water rises and retires are then visible, and various names have been given them by the peasantry: such as *Kottur* (the kettle), *Betschek* (the caulk), *Reitite* (the corn sieve), *Reaschito* (the great sieve), *Sritsazau* (the hair sieve), &c. When the lake is full, it has an abundance of fish, which disappear and return with the water. In Istria

there is only one lake, that of Zeppitzsch, near Chersano. The climate of Carinthia is most inclement. The mean temp. of the year at Klagenfurt is estimated by Blumenbach at 7° Réaumur; while, at Obervillach, the mean is 6°. The snow lies in the lower parts of the valley of the Drave till the middle or end of April; but in the valley of the Save, the climate is much milder. At Laybach, the temperature of the year is 8.7 Réaumur. The temperature of the government of Trieste presents a great contrast to that of the mountain districts. In the valley of the Isonzo, as well as in Istria, the olive, vines, and other productions of a southern climate, are largely cultivated.

Occupations of the People.—*Agriculture.*—Illyria has two distinct agricultural systems; that of the N. government, which is Alpine, and that of the S. districts, which are cultivated in the Italian fashion. The mountainous districts of Carinthia, situated in a cold and damp climate, and having a short summer, are tilled with difficulty. Rye and summer corn are the most usual crops; and the three-course system, according to which 1-3d part of the land is in fallow, is generally prevalent. The corn, in order to dry thoroughly, requires to be hung up on poles or railings, of a peculiar construction; and these erections (called *Harfen*, Germ., and *Stog* or *Kosov*, Slav.) are often covered with a roof like that of a house. The most productive corn region is the valley of the Lavant, and the district of Krappfeld. In the higher parts of the valley of the Drave, near Gottschee, the climate is so severe as not to allow of winter crops. Carniola, on the other hand, especially the valley of the Save, and the circle of Idria, has a warm climate, and is highly cultivated. Excellent wheat and maize, especially the "conquantino," are grown to a great extent; and there is a judicious rotation of crops. Blumenbach states that the usual succession of crops on good farms is:—First year (with manure) maize, potatoes, flax, or millet; 2d year, wheat or barley; 3d year, oats; 4th and 5th years, clover. The ground is broken up both with the plough, and by hacking. The quantity of land under cultivation, and its produce in 1837, in the gov. of Laybach, are thus stated. (*Official returns.*)

Distribution of Surface.	English Acres.	Produce.
Arable land	668,490	Wheat - 85,220 imp. qrs. Maize - 187,640 — Oats - 352,400 — Barley - 180,000 —
Vineyards	93,540	Vine - 5,680,000 gallons.
Forests	2,140,520	Timber - 1,132,600 cub. toises.
Meadows and gardens	779,760	
Commons	1,069,390	

The S. part of Illyria differs essentially both in its productions and cultivation from the N. As soon as the traveller enters the valley of the Isonzo, the most charming landscape is presented to his view. The fields are in the highest state of cultivation, and being covered with rows of mulberries, or with elms and poplars, around which the vines cluster, the country bears an aspect of profuse fertility, superior even to that of central Italy. The mode of irrigation pursued in Lombardy, however, is not practised in Friaul; and on advancing E., good husbandry is found to diminish. In Istria, which has a climate as well calculated as the Milanese territory for raising oranges and lemons, if they were covered during the winter, the farming system is execrable. Olives and sumach afford the principal crops both to the landowner and his *colono*. The *melayer* system of farming for half the produce of the land, prevails likewise in this part of the empire. In this government the cultivated land and its produce were, in 1837, as follows:—

Distribution of Surface.	English Acres.	Produce.
Arable land	354,133	Wheat - 73,970 imp. qrs. Maize - 137,040 — Barley and Rye - 91,520 — Oats - 32,500 —
Vineyards	36,584	Wine - 18,000,000 gallons.
Olive grounds	11,236	Oil - 261,340 —
Forests	444,144	Timber - 284,040 cub. toises.
Meadows	248,226	
Commons	739,212	

From these statements, it appears that the grain produced in Illyria is insufficient for its consumption; in the district of the "Littorale" wood for fuel and building must be procured from other districts.

Good flax is grown in all the valleys, and hemp chiefly in Friaul. Fruits of all kinds, especially chestnuts (*mazons*) and figs, are abundant in the coast district. The best wines are those of Monfalcone and the Prosecco, grown near Trieste; but very little wine is exported. The oil of Istria is considered equal to that of Provence. The stones and refuse of the olive are used for fuel, and are even exported to Ancona. The olive is also extensively cultivated in the Quarnero islands, especially Veglia and Cherso.

Cheese is a considerable article of farming produce, and a good deal is exported. Silk is an increasing product. The two spinning establishments at Farra furnished, in 1832, 11,891 lbs. of raw silk. The silk produced in Istria during the same year amounted to 4,500 lbs.; but till 1837 this article was not included in the land-tax returns of the province.

The chief wild animals of the northern districts are the chamois, red deer, and roebuck, and less frequently the wolf, bear, and small lynx. In the S. provs. the otter and the common partridge, quail, water-fowls, and birds of passage are common. The fishery in the Gulph of Quarnero, and in the channels between the islands, furnishes an abundance of fish peculiar to those waters.

Mines.—The chief wealth of Illyria consists in the rich metallic veins found in its mountains. The N. mountain chain separating Carinthia from Styria consists of transition formations, overlying mica slate, which composes the great spine of the Noric Alps, and contains vast quantities of a very superior iron ore. This chain opens S. into several valleys, sending tributaries to the Drave; and in these secluded districts the various mining operations are carried on, favoured by the water-power afforded by the mountain-torrents. In the valleys in the Leiser, Gurr, Ols, Metnitz, and Lavant, iron is the chief product. The mountains near Huttenberg are rivalled in productiveness only by the most prolific of the Swedish veins. The ore is chiefly the carbonate of iron. The usefulness of these mines to the country is much impeded by the interference of the government with the industrial occupations of its subjects. In fact,

the limitations on the export of iron, and the vexatious hindrances to enterprise, are such as to cramp all speculation; and the quantity annually produced corresponds neither with the wealth of the mines nor with the wants of the empire. In Carniola the same description of ore is found, near Felstria, in the valley of Wocheln; at Sava and Jauerburg, in the valley of the Save; and in Lower Carniola, near Hof. There are rich mines of lead at Bleiberg, in Carinthia, and of quicksilver at Idria. The latter are situated in the E. portion of the Julian Alps, on the right bank of the Isoszo. The ore is found in a schistose rock, breaking through the predominant limestone of that chain; and as the veins get deeper, they are said to become richer. Blasting is the usual method employed for obtaining the ore; and the workmen, on account of the depth and consequent heat of the mines, work by relays of eight hours each gang. The lowest point in the mine is 300 ft. below the bed of the adjacent Idritsa. The following is the return of the produce of the mines of Illyria for the year 1837:—

Gold and silver	-	5 marks
Lead	-	54,487 cwt.
Iron	-	391,323 —
Coal	-	97,653 —
Alum and graphite	-	5,236 —
Quicksilver (from Idria)	-	5,236 —
		value L.300,000.
		value L.75,000.

The other occupations of the people, though less important, exhibit an annual increase. The following table shows the increase in the number of registered manufacturers and traders between 1829 and 1837:—

Districts.	Manufacturers.		Comm. Establishments.		Traders.		Special Occupations.	
	1829.	1837.	1829.	1837.	1829.	1837.	1829.	1837.
Carinthia and Carniola	149	221	365	398	24,554	25,663	798	707
Gov. of Trieste, excl. of capital	22	48	164	190	6,218	6,800	797	957
	171	269	419	516	30,772	32,463	1,595	1,660
Total, in 1829	-	-	35,257	-	-	-	34,910	-
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Most of the manufacturers in the above table are employed in converting the metals into hardware, &c. There is no return of the commercial establishments in Trieste, inasmuch as that city is not included in the tax registers of the kingdom, its taxes being commuted for a payment of 60,000 forins annually. Flax-spinning and linen-weaving are the common and supplementary employments of the peasantry during their leisure from tillage labour, and the quantity annually produced for home consumption and exportation is considerable. Common woollen fabrics are likewise manufactured for home consumption; and fine cloths are made at Klagenfurth. There are 21 glasshouses, but only 2 cotton factories in Illyria.

In the trade returns of Illyria, Trieste, being a free port, is usually excluded. Its exports are chiefly metals and timber. The inhabitants of the district of Gottschee are almost all pedlars, who travel through foreign countries with their wares. The trade of Carinthia, Carniola, and the Illyrian coast, exclusive of Trieste, according to the official report for 1837, was as follows:—

Imports	-	7,304,367 forins.
Exports	-	7,197,695 do.

The amount of the trade of Trieste with the rest of the empire during the same year was:—

Imports	-	31,281,583 forins.
Exports	-	12,712,882 do.

The exportation of metals is chiefly confined to the other provinces of the empire, Germany and Italy. Formerly a considerable export trade was carried on with England; but it has almost ceased since the interruption occasioned by the continental blockade, and the increased production of iron in England. The present customs regulations, which prohibit by extravagant duties the exportation of raw steel, have also been most prejudicial to the iron trade of Illyria. The shipping lists, in 1837, gave the following report:—

Port.	Vessels.	No.	Tons.	Crews.
Trieste	Ships	378	70,889	4,591
	Coasters	172	6,930	918
	Barks	221	2,110	692
Rovigno	Coasters	577	8,928	1,676
	Barks	181	1,540	670
Total	-	1,527	90,451	8,565

Since 1837, great activity has prevailed in the shipping interest, chiefly owing to the exertions of a joint-stock company, named "The Austrian Lloyd's," which has 10 steam-boats running between Trieste and the harbours of Dalmatia, and the Levant. The Illyrian coast has many excellent harbours, few of which, however, are

made available for purposes of commerce. Istria abounds with ports, many large enough to shelter whole fleets, the principal of which are, Capo d' Istria, Pirano (Porto Rose), Queto, Pola, Parenzo, Rovigno, &c., but these are now only frequented by the barks conveying salt, wine, oil, gall nuts, charcoal, bark, and other productions of the peninsula to Trieste and Venice. There are likewise some tolerable harbours in the Quarnero Islands, among which the Port of Lussan Piccolo is, perhaps, the most capacious.

The roads of Illyria are as good as in most parts of the Austrian empire. The valleys of the Drave and Sava are used for communication between Tyrol and Salzburg, and Carinthia and Carniola. Two main lines of road lead from the capital to Trieste, one by Klagenfurth and Goritz, the other by Laybach. From Goritz the former has a branch to Venice and other parts of Italy, while the latter is connected by roads following the vale of the Sava and Drave, with Hungary and the military frontier provs. The internal navigation is limited to rafts on the Sava and Drave, by means of which rivers and their tributaries, much timber is floated down from the forests to the Danube.

Population.—The pop. of Illyria, in the course of 20 years, has increased in Carinthia and Carniola at the rate of 17·4 per cent., and in the Littorale at 30·8 per cent.

The inhab. (with the exception of the German settlers and of the Italians who have immigrated into the southern circles) are of Slavonian origin, and the vernacular language of Carniola, which is used as a written dialect, is one of the purest of the Slavonic idioms. Carniola is divided into Upper and Lower, the seats of the *Gorenzi Kraisci* and the *Dolenzi Kraisci*; the former of which are the mountaineers of the Julian Alps, the latter the inhab. of the valley of the Sava. The *Vipavci*, in the valley of the Wippach; the *Krakovci*, on the Karst; the *Pischni*, in the Polk valley; and the *Zaitze*, are perhaps only local names. The general denomination for the Illyrian Slavonians is "Windi or Wenden" (*Venedi*). The inhab. of Friaul call themselves "*Furlani*;" the peninsula is occupied by the "*Istriani*," and the Quarnero islands by "*Liburni*." Nearly one million of the inhab. are Slavonians.

The condition of the Illyrian pop., though certainly improving, is by no means prosperous. Like a many of the Slavonian inhab. of the empire, they speak a language which has not for centuries been the vehicle of intellectual improvement, and from an early period they were governed by tyrants, who availed themselves of their feudal rights, to the injury of the people, without conferring on them any of the advantages incidental to that system. In fact, the Illyrians had no national existence till the time of Napoleon. The ephemeral kingdom of Illyria which he established infused a spirit into all classes,

which awakened them from the lethargy of ages. Much still remains to be done towards ameliorating the condition of the peasant, yet the change in his condition for the better within the present century is very great. The mountaineers of Carinthia and Upper Carniola are the poorest and worst fed of the inhab. Amongst them, "cretins," or idiots, are of frequent occurrence, and are recommended to their neighbours' charity by the superstitious notion that their presence in a family indicates good fortune. *Gottre* is common amongst the mountaineers, and the mortality is so great as scarcely to admit of any increase in the pop. The inhab. of the valleys, especially those living near the Save, are in a better condition, and in the district of Goritz enjoy a considerable degree of prosperity. Istria, with all its natural advantages, is worse cultivated, and less civilised, than the rest of Illyria. The dress of the mountaineers resembles that of the peasant of Tyrol and Salzburg. The women wear peaked, bread-brimmed hats; and in Carinthia, instead of stays they wear a red girdle, sewn to the linen tunic or shift, which is seen between the upper part and skirts of the gown worn over it. Formerly the men of the Gall valley wore a gay dress of motley colours, from which the costume of Harlequin in the Italian comedy is said to be derived; indeed, many of the figures in the mimics are believed to have been originally caricatures of the Illyrian peasantry.

The institutions for education have greatly improved within the present century, and consisted, in 1837, of 3 lycées, or colleges, with 431 students; 7 gymnasia, or grammar-schools, with 1,074 scholars; and 476 elementary schools for both sexes, attended by 38,254 children, or about one fourth of those who, from the statistical returns, were of a legal age to frequent the schools; 479 Sunday and repetition schools are attended by 19,648 young persons of both sexes. The criminal returns for the same year do not exhibit a greater proportion of crime to pop. than in the other provinces of the empire. Murder, and crimes of violence, however, are frequent; for of 691 criminal investigations, 85 were cases of murder and manslaughter, 44 of stabbing, 12 of arson, and 34 of riot and outrageous conduct; making a total of 175 offences against the person. Illyria has three penitentiaries: one at Laybach, for Carinthia and Carniola; one at Capo d'Istria; and one at Gradiška; containing altogether 472 prisoners, 30 of whom were sentenced for less than 1 year, 297 for less than 10 years, 171 between 10 and 20 years, and 4 for life, and 33 were in the gaols of the various criminal courts.

The prevailing religion is Rom. Cath. In both governments; but in Carinthia there are 17,500 Lutherans, chiefly in the circle of Villach, and about 400 communicants of the Greek church. In the gov. of Trieste there are about 1,550 persons of the united Greek confession, 800 Protestants, and 3,000 Jews.

The Rom. Caths. are under 15 bishops; those of Goritz, Laybach, Trieste, Gurk, and Lavant; the last two of which are suffragans of the archbishop of Salzburg. There are 37 monasteries and convents in the kingdom, tenanted by 321 monks and 307 nuns; the number of the secular catholic clergy is 2,431, performing the pastoral duties of 967 parishes. The administration of this province is the same with that of the other German and Slavonic provinces of the empire. The cities of Laybach and Trieste are the seats of the respective governments; but the general court of appeals for civil and criminal cases throughout the kingdom is held at Klagenfurth, where also is the mining court for Illyria. The city of Trieste has besides its prætor's court, a sanatory commission, with two lazarettos in the harbour, and numerous deputations at various places along the coast. (For further particulars, see CARINTHIA.)

ILMINSTER, a market town and par. of England, co. Somerset, hund. Abdyk and Bulstone, on the Ivel, 10 m. S.E. Taunton, 4 m. S. by W. Bath, and 127 m. W. by S. London. Area of par., 3,290 acres; pop., in 1841, 3,527. The town comprises two streets, intersecting each other at right angles, one of which is nearly a mile long; the houses are irregularly built, some being of stone or brick, and the greater part merely thatched. The church, formerly conventual, is cruciform, in the decorated Gothic style, and has a square embattled and pinnacled tower. There are also places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists and Independents, to which, as well as to the church, are attached well-frequented Sunday schools. A free grammar-school was founded in 1550, and endowed with considerable estates; there is also an hospital for the maintenance of clergymen's widows. Ilminster was formerly an important woollen clothing town; but its industry is now confined to the weaving of narrow cloths, and is of little importance. Lace-net mills have been recently established, and give employment to several hands. Petty sessions are held in the market-house. Markets on Saturday: fairs for horses, live-stock, cheese, &c., the last Wednesday in August.

IMOLA (an. *Forum Cornelii*), a town of N. Italy.

Papal States, legat. Ravenna; on the Santerno and the Emilian way, 18 m. N.W. Forlì, and 20 m. S. E. Bologna. Pop. about 9,000. It is a town of some consideration; being a bishop's see, surrounded by ancient walls and ditches, and further defended by an old castle. It is tolerably well built, and has a cathedral and 15 other churches, numerous convents, a hospital, theatre, college, and a literary academy, of some celebrity, termed *de' Industriali*, which has included among its members several distinguished individuals. It has manufactures of cream of tartar, called *tartaro de Bologna*, &c., and some trade in agricultural produce.

INDIA (BRITISH), a very extensive empire, chiefly situated in the central portion of S. Asia, comprising the greater part of the peninsula of Hindostan, or India within the Ganges, with the island of Ceylon, the provs. of Assam, Cachar, Jynteah, Aracan, Martaban, Tavoy, Ye, and Mergul, in India beyond the Ganges, acquired from the Birmese in 1826; Prince of Wales's Island (Pulo Penang), Malacca, Singapore, &c., or the straits' settlements, situated on, or adjacent to, the Malay peninsula. These vast dominions lie between lat. 10° 30' and 31° 15' N., and long. 71° 45' and 140° E.; their principal boundaries being, N.W. the Indian Desert; N. the Himalaya, which, in the upper provs. of Agra and in Assam, separates them from the thalms of the empire, Nepal, and Bootan; E. the Birman empire and Siam, and S. and W. the Indian Ocean, the Bay of Bengal, and the Arabian Sea. The area and pop. of the principal divisions of British India have been estimated as follows:—

Divisions.	Area in sq. m.	Pop.
<i>In Hindostan:—</i>		
Presidencies of Bengal and Agra	455,000	74,000,000
Presidency of Madras	130,400	15,000,000
Presidency of Bombay	130,000	8,000,000
Island of Ceylon	24,450	1,500,000
<i>In India beyond the Ganges:—</i>		
(a) Provs. conquered from the Birmese (under the Bengal presid.)		
Assam	16,300	608,500
Jynteah	10,350	170,000
Cachar	16,850	320,000
Aracan		
Transaverin coast (Martaban, Tavoy and Ye)	28,500	85,000
(b) Straits' Settlements:—		
Penang, or Prince of Wales's Island, and prov. Wellesley	1,570	300,000
Malacca		
Singapore		
Total	818,780	99,957,500

To the foregoing territories, under the immediate rule of the British, there may be added the tributary states of Berar, Oude, Mysore, Travancore, Cochin, Satarah, the dom. of the Nizam, of the Rajpoot, and Bundelood chiefs, &c., which are substantially administered by British rulers, and are either entirely or in part surrounded by British territories, are estimated altogether to comprise about 433,000 sq. m., and a pop. of about 41,000,000.

The physical geography, products, inhabs., industry, &c. of the several divisions, provinces, and districts of British India, will be found treated of under the head HINDOSTAN, and in separate articles appropriated to each. The present article will, therefore, be principally occupied with those topics, such as the general government, the judicial and revenue systems, army, commerce, &c. of British India, that could not be conveniently introduced under any other head.

Government.—Previously to 1773, the government of that part of India that then belonged to the British was vested in the E. India Company. The body of proprietors of E. India stock, assembled in general court, elected 24 directors, the executive power was entrusted, the body of proprietors reserving exclusively to themselves all legislative authority. A vote in the court of proprietors was acquired by the holders of 500l. of the company's stock; but to be a director, it was necessary to hold 2,000l. stock. The directors, with their chairman and deputy chairman, were chosen annually, and subsequently subdivided themselves, for despatch of business, into 10 separate committees. As early as 1707, the three principal presidencies into which British India is divided—those of Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta, were in existence. Each was governed by a president or governor, and a council of from 9 to 12 members, appointed by commission of the company. All power was lodged in the president and council jointly, every question that came before them being decided by a majority of votes. In 1726, a charter was granted, by which the company were permitted to establish a mayor's court at each of the presidencies, consisting of a mayor and nine aldermen, empowered to decide in civil cases of all descriptions, with an appeal from their jurisdiction to the president and council. The latter were also vested with

the power of holding courts of quarter sessions, for the exercise of penal jurisdiction, in all cases excepting those of high treason, as well as a court of requests, for the decision, by summary procedure, of pecuniary questions of inconsiderable amount. Added to this, the powers of justices of the peace were granted to the members of the council, and to them only, the president being, at the same time, commander-in-chief of all the military force stationed within his presidency. It will thus be readily seen that the officers of the company were recognised as the judges in their own cause in all cases; and that, notwithstanding the establishment of the mayors' courts, they still held all the judicial as well as the executive functions, both civil and military, in their own hands. An individual who became a member of the council was not debarred from subordinate functions; and from this circumstance especially it might have been expected that abuses would prevail; and to the abuses which thence arose, in fact, Mr. Mill attributes the embarrassments in which the affairs of the company afterwards became involved.

In 1772, the great increase in the territorial possessions of the company attracted the attention and excited the cupidity of the government at home: while the functions of the company, and the abuses which had crept into the government of India, furnished ample grounds for interference. In consequence, the ministry introduced two bills into parliament, distinctly asserting the claim of the crown to the territorial acquisitions of the company, raising the qualification to vote in the court of proprietors from the possession of 500*l.* to that of 1,000*l.* stock; giving to every proprietor possessed of 5,000*l.* 3 votes, of 5,000*l.* 2 votes, and of 10,000*l.* 4 votes; limiting the annual election of the whole 24 directors to that only; vesting the government of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa in a governor-general, with a salary of 25,000*l.* a year, and 4 councillors, of 8,000*l.* each; rendering the other presidencies subordinate to that of Bengal; and establishing at Calcutta a supreme court of judicature, consisting of a chief justice, with 8,000*l.* a year, and three *perone* judges, with 6,000*l.* a year each, appointed by the crown. As subsidiary articles, it was proposed, that the first governor-general and councillors should be nominated by parliament in the act, and hold their office for five years; after which the patronage of those great offices should revert to the directors, but still subject to the approbation of the crown; that every thing in the company's correspondence from India which related to civil or military affairs, to the government of the country, or the administration of the revenues, should be laid before ministers; that no person in the service either of the king or of the company should be allowed to receive presents; and that the governor-general, councillors, and judges should be excluded from all commercial speculations and pursuits.

Mr. Pitt's famous India bill of 1784 established the board of control, consisting of six members of the privy council, appointed by the king, two of the principal secretaries of state being always members. The president of the board is, in fact, secretary of state for India, and is the officer responsible for its government, and for the proceedings of the board. The superintendence of the latter extends over the whole civil and military transactions carried on in India. It revises, cancels, or approves all despatches, letters, orders, or instructions proposed to be sent out by the court of directors to the government in India; it may also require the court to prepare and send out despatches on any given subject, couched in such terms as it may deem fit; it may transmit, in certain cases, orders to India, without the inspection of the directors, and has access to all the company's papers and records, and to all proceedings of the courts of directors and proprietors. It is clear, therefore, that from 1784, when the board of control was established, the real sovereignty of British India was taken out of the hands of the company, and placed in those of ministers.

Under the act of 1833 (3 & 4 William IV. cap. 85), the company holds, under the superintendence of the board of control, the political government and patronage of British India, till the 30th of April, 1854; but its exclusive commercial privileges are no longer in existence. The supreme authority is vested in the governor-general, who is also governor of the presidency of Bengal. He is nominated by the court of directors, the nomination being subject to the approval of the sovereign, and is assisted by a council of five members, three of whom are appointed by the court of directors, from amongst persons who are or have been servants of the company; the fourth is also chosen in a similar manner, but from amongst persons unconnected with the company; and the fifth is the commander-in-chief, who takes rank and precedence immediately after the governor-general. The other presidencies have also their governors and councils, subordinate to the governor and council of the Bengal presidency; the presidency of Agra, however, comprising the upper provinces of Bengal, is at present

administered by a lieutenant-governor only. The governor-general in council is competent to make laws for the whole of British India, which are binding upon all the courts of justice, unless annulled by higher authority. Parliament reserves to itself right to supersede or suspend all proceedings and acts of the governor-general; and the court of directors has also power to disallow them. The foregoing remarks do not, however, in any way apply to Ceylon, which is quite independent of the jurisdiction of continental India, being placed directly under the colonial secretary of Great Britain. By the act of 1833, the salaries of the principal civil officers in India were fixed, that of the governor-general at 24,000*l.* a year; the governors of the Bombay and Madras presidencies, 11,600*l.*; the ordinary members of the head council, 9,600*l.* each; and the members of the other councils, 6,000*l.* each yearly. (*Parl. Acts, Reports, &c.; Mill's Hist., &c.*)

Judicial System.—When, in 1759, the Marquis Cornwallis undertook his reform of the judicial and revenue systems of British India, that territory was in a most deplorable state. "The administration of justice through all its departments was most pernicious and depraved; the public revenue levied upon principles incompatible with the existence of private property; the people sunk in poverty and wretchedness; no man had one third part of the country a desert, and the rest hastening to desolation." (*Mill, v. 438.*) Under the orders sent to India in 1786, the same individuals combined the business both of judicature and finance; being at once collectors of revenue, judges, and heads of the police. Lord Cornwallis endeavoured to separate these apparently incompatible offices, and distributed them amongst different individuals. He gave to native commissioners power to determine civil suits amongst natives to the value of 50 rupees, several of whom he established in each *sahib* district, giving an appeal from their decisions to the *sikah* court, held in the principal town of the district, of which one of the company's servants was appointed the judge. The latter functionary was assisted by a registrar, and some other members from among the junior servants of the company, and natives duly qualified to expound the Hindoo or Mohammedan law. These courts had jurisdiction in cases to the amount of 1,000 rupees. From them appeal might be made to four provincial courts established at Calcutta, Benar, Dacca, and Poona. These courts consisted of three judges, chosen from the civil department of the company's service, a registrar, one or more assistants from the junior European servants of the company, and three expounders of the native law—a *causae*, *mufti*, and *pendit*. A higher tribunal, that of *Sudder Dewannee Adawlut*, was established at Calcutta, composed of the governor-general, his council, the head *causae*, two *mufties*, two *pendits*, a registrar and assistants. All suits of Europeans were exclusively tried in this court: appeal from it lay only to the king in council, in cases above the amount of 50,000 rupees. Four tribunals were erected—the four provincial courts, for criminal judicature, at which the judges, &c. of the civil tribunals officiated every month; the penal judicature was administered in most of the country districts only twice, but in that of Calcutta four times a year. The superior criminal tribunal was the *Niwamut Adawlut*, held at Calcutta, and constituted almost similarly to the *Sudder Dewannee Adawlut*.

But with all this machinery of legislation, nothing like a code of laws was promulgated. The Hindoo and Mohammedan law were governed by the rules laid down in their respective sacred books,—the *Shasters* and the Koran,—as interpreted by the ever varying opinions of the *pendits* and *causae*. The courts established on the European model were infected with all that multiplication of technical forms, which forms the worst feature of our own legal code, and all that delay and expensiveness of process, which tend to destroy the ends of justice, followed as a matter of course. The errors in the system adopted were great; but, considering the state in which Lord Cornwallis found affairs, it may be truly said that he effected a vast deal of good. He was actuated by the purest and most benevolent motives; and wisely endeavoured to respect, in as far as possible, the different legal codes of the various sects and nations comprised in the pop. of India.

Of late years, however, a disposition has grown up to unite again the judicial, magisterial, and revenue authorities which Lord Cornwallis had separated. A considerable change of this description was introduced by Sir T. Munro in the Madras territories, and more recently by Lord W. Bentinck in Bengal. (*See Revenue and Judicial Sections; Asiatic Journal, &c.*)

Within the cities of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, and also within the settlements of Penang, Singapore, and Malacca, English civil and criminal law is administered to both natives and Europeans, with the exception of their own laws of inheritance being preserved to the former. But beyond the limits of the above-mentioned cities, on the continent of India, the native laws have been made binding on Europeans as well as natives. The charter of

1833 provides, that no one shall, by reason of his nation, colour, or faith, be disqualified from holding office under the company, and that, henceforth, there shall be no distinction of blood or nativity. Upon this ground," says Mr. Crawford, "the legislative council of India, without waiting for the code of laws which, under direction of the same statute, was in course of preparation, passed a law subjecting Europeans to the same tribunals to which natives are subject, although these tribunals administer their own domestic laws respectively to Hindoos and Mohammedans, are cognisant of no others, repudiate expressly the laws of England, and are presided over by natives, or by unprofessional European servants of the E. I. Company, the first of whom rarely know a word of English; while the proceedings of the courts are both conducted in the native languages, to the express exclusion of the English tongue. This act, from its unpopular character, is commonly called by Europeans in India, the "Black Act."

There can be no doubt that, under the act of 1833, Europeans gained great advantages by the abolition of the E. India Company's monopoly and trade, the power to possess land, and the comparatively ample field which is thus opened to their enterprise. It is alleged, however, that, in so far as respects their rights, liberties, and interests, they are in a less favourable position than under the old system. Under the latter, British subjects, within the special jurisdiction of the king's courts, could only, like the natives, be tried by their own laws, and the local government could enact no new law for their government not in accordance with the "laws of the realm." But by the new system, the governor-general in council may enact any laws whatsoever, that shall be binding on British subjects, whether the same be consonant with the "laws of the realm," or otherwise. Under the old law, an appeal lay to the privy council, which any individual might institute. This privilege is now, however, cut off, and under the modern system, nothing short of an act of parliament can repeal a law that has the sanction of the Indian authorities. Under the old system, British-born subjects in the provinces, that is, beyond the special jurisdictions of the king's courts, were, in civil cases, amenable only to courts presided over by their countrymen in the commission of the peace. Under the new system, they are amenable to the extent of 5,000*l.* in value, to the petty native tribunals presided over by a Mohammedan or Hindoo,—judges equally ignorant of their manners, laws, and language, and, with few exceptions, viewing their religion with hatred or contempt. The appeal to the king's courts, which was a guarantee for their own laws, is taken away from them; and it lies to the chief native tribunal,—of which the judges indeed are Englishmen, but in which the proceedings are in the native tongue,—in which there is no one to advise the judges, and where an English barrister is not even permitted to plead. Under the old system, an appeal lay, even from the competent tribunals of the king's courts, to the king in council; under the new system, no such appeal lies from the native tribunal, unless the value be above 12 times as much as it was before the innovation.

We believe, however, that, practically, little inconvenience has arisen, or is at all likely to arise, from most of these regulations. We may be quite sure that the power given to the governor-general and council of enacting laws will not be easily or capriciously exercised. How exalted soever, these functionaries are not merely responsible to parliament, but to public opinion: the free press, now established in India, will not fail to advertise them of any error they may be likely to commit; while the growing attention given to Indian affairs at home will tend to make them wary in their proceedings. We are less able to judge of the expediency of making British-born subjects responsible to the native tribunals; but even this, we believe, less objectionable than it might appear to be.

Revenue system.—The land tax constitutes the principal source of the revenue of British India, as it has always done of all eastern states. The governments of such countries may, in fact, be said to be the real proprietors of the land; but in India, as elsewhere, the cultivators have a perpetual, hereditary, and transferable right of occupancy, so long as they continue to pay the share of the produce of the land demanded by the government. The value of this right of occupancy to the rural pop. depends on the degree of resistance which they have been able to oppose to the exactions of arbitrary governments. In Bengal and the adjacent parts of India, from the peculiarly timid character of the inhabs., and the open and exposed nature of the country, this resistance has been trifling indeed, and, consequently, the value of the right of occupancy in the peasant, or *ryot*, (an Arabic word, meaning subject,) has been proportionally reduced. This, also, may be considered, though with some modifications, as being nearly the condition, in this respect, of the inhabs. of every part

of the great plain of the Ganges, comprising more than half the pop. of Hindostan. But where the country is naturally difficult, the people have been able more effectually to resist the encroachments of the head landlord, or state, and to retain a valuable share in the property of the soil. This has been particularly the case along the ghauts, as in Bednore, Canara, Malabar, &c.; the inhabs. of which prove not only lay claim to a right of private property in the soil, but have been generally ready to support their claim by force of arms. There can be no question, indeed, that the same modified right of property formerly existed everywhere; and it is indeed impossible that otherwise the land should ever have been reclaimed from the wilderness. But, in those parts of India which could be readily overrun by a military force, the right of property in the soil has long been little else than the right to cultivate one's paternal acres for behoof of others, the cultivators reserving only a bare subsistence for themselves.

Under the Mogul emperors, the practice in Bengal was to divide the gross produce of the soil, on the *metayer* principle, into equal shares, whereof one was retained by the cultivator, the other going to government as rent or tax. The officers employed to collect this revenue were called *semindars*; and in some degree of personal office seems to have become hereditary. It may be remarked that, in Persian, *semindar* and *landholder* are synonymous; and this etymology, coupled with the hereditary nature of their office, which brought them exclusively into contact with the *ryot*, or occupier, as well as with the government, led many to believe that the *semindars* were in reality the owners of the land, and that the *ryots* were their tenants. This, however, it is now admitted on all hands, was an incorrect opinion. The *semindars* in reality were taxgatherers, and were, in fact, obliged to pay to the government *nine tenths* of the produce collected from the *ryots*, retaining only one-tenth as a compensation for their trouble; and, so long as the *ryots* paid their fixed contribution, they could not be ousted from their possessions, nor be in anywise interfered with.

But notwithstanding what has now been stated, the perpetual or *semindary* settlement, established by Lord Cornwallis in Bengal, in 1793, was made on the assumption that the *semindars* were the proprietors of the soil. His object, indeed, was to get rid of persons who were, in fact, obliged to pay to the government *nine tenths* of the produce collected from the *ryots*, retaining only one-tenth as a compensation for their trouble; and, so long as the *ryots* paid their fixed contribution, they could not be ousted from their possessions, nor be in anywise interfered with. It is clear, however, that this wish could not be realized without destroying the permanent rights of the *ryots*, for, unless this were accomplished, the *semindars* could not interfere in the management of their estates. The interests of the *semindars*, and the rights of the *ryots*, were plainly irreconcilable; and it was obvious that the former would endeavour to reduce the latter to the condition of tenants at will. But this necessary consequence was either overlooked or ineffectually provided against. The *semindars* became, under condition of their paying the assessment, or quit-rent, due to government, proprietors or owners of the land. The amount of the assessment was fixed at the average of what it had been for a few years previously, and it was declared to be perpetual and invariable at that amount. When a *semindar* fell into arrear with government, his estate might be either sold or resumed.

That the assessment was at the outset, and still is, too high, cannot well be doubted; and it must ever be matter of regret that the settlement was not made with the *ryots*, or cultivators, rather than with the *semindars*; but, notwithstanding these and other defects, the measure was, on the whole, a great boon to India. Until the introduction of the perpetual system into Bengal, the revenue was raised in it, as it continues to be in the rest of India down to the present day, by a variable as well as a most oppressive land-tax. We all know what a pernicious influence (the has had in this country; but suppose that, instead of amounting to 10, the land had amounted to 50 per cent. of the gross produce of the soil, it would have been an effectual obstacle to all improvement; and the country would now have been in about the same state as in the days of Alfred, or of William the Conqueror.

In France, Italy, and other parts of Europe, where the *metayer* system is introduced, the landlord seldom or never gets half the produce, unless he also furnish the stock and farming capital, and, in most cases, the seed. But in India, neither the government nor the *semindars* do any thing of the sort: they merely supply the land, which is usually divided into very small portions, mostly about 6, and rarely amounting to 34 acres. A demand on the occupiers of such patches for half the produce is quite extravagant, and hence the excessive poverty of the people, which is such as to stagger belief. Still, however, the perpetual system is vastly preferable in principle, and also in its practical influence, to any other revenue system hitherto established in India. It set

limits to fiscal rapacity, and established, as it were, a rampart beyond which no tax-gatherer dared to intrude. The enormous amount of the assessment, and the rigour with which payment was at first enforced, ruined an immense number of zemindars. But their lands having come into new and more efficient hands, a better system of management was introduced, and the limitation of the government demand gave a stimulus to improvement unknown in any other part of Hindostan. This, in fact, was the grand desideratum. A land-tax, that may be increased should the land be improved, is all but certain to prevent any such improvement being made. This has been its uniform operation in every country in the world that has had the bad fortune to be cursed with such a destructive impost. But a heavy land-tax, provided it be fixed and unsusceptible of increase, is no bar to improvements, unless in so far as it tends to deprive the proprietors and occupiers of land of the means of making them. There is, in such a case, no want of security, and the cultivator is not deterred from attempting improvements, or of bringing superior enterprise and industry to operate on his estate, by the fact that the tax will, in consequence, be increased.

The truth of what is now stated has been fully evinced in Bengal during the last 20 or 30 years; for both the pop., and the land-revenue of that part of our Indian empire has greatly increased. A great deal of waste land has been cultivated, and various works have been undertaken that would not be so much as dreamed of in any other part of our empire in the east. But, with all this, there has been but little, if any, improvement in the condition of the people of Bengal under our government. They, in fact, are practically excluded from, at least, all direct participation in the benefits resulting from the limitation of the assessment. They have merely exchanged one taskmaster for another. It is their landlords who have been the great gainers. The occupiers still, generally speaking, hold under the same oppressive, paying half or even more of the produce as rent; so that their poverty is often extreme, and their condition not infrequently inferior even to that of the hired labourer, who receives the miserable pittance of two annas, or about 3d., a day as wages.

It seems, however, as if there were some strange fatality attending the government of India; and that the greatest talents and the best intentions should, when applied to legislate for that country, produce only the most pernicious projects. The perpetual settlement carried into effect by Lord Cornwallis in Bengal was kindly opposed by Lord Teignmouth, Colonel Wilkes, Mr. Thackeray, Sir T. Munro, and others, whose opinions on such subjects are certainly entitled to very great respect; and it would seem that the Board of Control became, at length, favourable to their views. In consequence of this change of opinion it was resolved to introduce a different system, under the superintendence of its zealous advocate, Sir Thomas Munro, into the presidency of Madras, or Fort St. George. This new system has received the name of the *ryotwar* system. It proceeds on the assumption that the government possesses the entire property of the soil, and may dispose of it at pleasure; no middlemen or zemindars are interposed between the sovereign and the cultivators; the ryots being brought into immediate contact with the collectors appointed by government to receive their rents. It is impossible, however, to enter fully into the details of this system. They are in the last degree complicated, which of itself would be enough to show their inexpediency. The land is taxed, according to its quality, at rates varying from 6d. up to 70s. an acre. Thus, for example, the land was mere dry field, without artificial irrigation, the land-tax would be about 3s. an acre. If it have a supply of water capable of growing rice, the tax rises to 22s., or to nearly 8 times the former rent; and if the irrigated land be a garden, or an orchard, the tax rises to 40s., or above 13 times the tax on dry land! In the first instance, the natural and inherent fertility of the soil only is taxed; in the second, to that tax is added one on the capital and labour which the peasant or his ancestor laid out in reservoirs, canals, trenches, or wells. In the third, not only are all these taxed, but there is imposed besides an excise on fruits, garden-stuffs, and pot herbs. But the radical vice of the system is that the lands are not let for a considerable number of years, or for ever. On the contrary, there is a constant tampering and interference with the concerns of the ryots. It is enacted, for example, that "at the end of each year the ryot shall be at liberty either to throw up a part of his land, or to occupy more, according to his circumstances." When, owing to bad crops, or other unforeseen accidents, a ryot becomes unable to pay his rent or assessment, it is declared that "the village to which he belongs shall be liable for him to the extent of 10 per cent. on the rent of the remaining ryots, but no more." And to crown the whole, the tehsildars, or native officers, employed in collecting the land-rents, or revenue, have been vested with

powers to act as officers of police, to impose fines, and even to inflict corporal punishment almost at discretion!

It is really astonishing how acute and able men should have dreamed of establishing a system in an extensive and only half civilised country that every one must see would be destructive of the industry of the tenants, and would lead to the grossest abuses, were an attempt made to introduce it into the management even of a single estate in Great Britain. Mr. Tucker, a gentleman who resided long in India, and now occupies a place in the company's direction, has animadverted on this plan as follows:—"My wish," says he, "is not to exaggerate; but when I find a system requiring a multiplicity of instruments, surveyors and inspectors, assessors, ordinary and extraordinary; potalis, curums, tehsildars, and cutcherry servants; and when I read the description given of these officers by the most zealous advocates of the system, their periodical visitations are pictured in my imagination as the passage of a flight of locusts, devouring in their course the fruits of the earth. For such complicated details, the most select agency would be required; whereas the agency we can command is of the most questionable character. We do not merely require experience and honesty to execute one great undertaking; the work is ever beginning and never ending, and calls for a perennial stream of intelligence and integrity. And can it be doubted that the people are oppressed and plundered by these multifarious agents? The principle of the settlement is to take one third of the gross produce on account of government; and, in order to render the assessment moderate, Sir T. Munro proposed to grant a considerable deduction from the rates deducible from the survey reports. But, if it be moderate, how does it happen that the people continue in the same uniform condition of labouring peasants? Why do not the same changes take place here as in other communities? One man is industrious, economical, prudent, or fortunate; another is idle, wasteful, improvident, unlucky. In the ordinary course of things, one should rise and the other fall; the former should, by degrees, absorb the possessions of the latter; should become rich while his neighbour remained poor; gradations in society should take place; and, in the course of time, we might naturally expect to see the landlord, the yeoman, and the labourer. And what prevents this natural progression? I should answer, the *officers of government*. The fruits of industry are nipt in the bud. If one man produce more than his fellows, there is a public servant at hand ready to snatch the superfluity. And wherefore, then, should the husbandman toil, that a stranger may reap the produce?"

"There are two other circumstances which tend to perpetuate this uniform condition. The ryots have no fixed possession; they are liable to be moved from field to field: this they sometimes do of their own accord, for the purpose of obtaining land, supposed to be more lightly assessed; at other times, the land is assigned by lot, with a view to a more equal and impartial distribution of the good and the bad, among the different cultivators. But these revolutions tend to destroy all local attachments, and are evidently calculated to take away one great incentive to exertion.

"The other levelling principle is to be found in the rule, which requires that the ryot shall make good the deficiencies of his neighbour to the extent of 10 per cent.; that is to the extent, probably, of his whole surplus earnings. Of what avail is it that the husbandman be diligent, skilful, and successful, if he is to be mulcted for his neighbour's negligence or misfortune? A must pay the debt of B. If a village be prosperous it matters little, for the next village may have been exposed to some calamity; and from the abundance of the one we exact wherewithal to supply the deficiency of the other. Is it possible to fancy a system better calculated to baffie the efforts of the individual, to repress industry, to extinguish hope, and to reduce all to one common state of universal pauperism." (*Review of the Financial Policy of the E. I. Company*, p. 134.)

It will be afterwards seen that, notwithstanding the long period of tranquillity that the Madras territories have enjoyed, the land revenue, instead of increasing, as it should have done under any reasonable system, has been progressively declining. The organisation and maintenance of the existing ryotwar system is, in truth, the most discreditable fact connected with the history of British India. The assessment of the land revenue in Madras is, in every respect, quite as objectionable as the assessment established by Mehemet Ali, in Egypt (See Vol. I. p. 747.); and it would seem, indeed, that the pacha had had the land revenue code of the Mar. Presidency before him when he framed his code; if there be any substantial difference between the two, that of the pacha, arbitrary and oppressive though it be, is entitled to the preference.

We have already stated enough to show that a variable land-tax is, in all cases, most injurious to a country. It

is understood to have been adopted by the authorities in India and England, in the expectation of enabling the government to participate in the advantages resulting from the improvement of the old lands, and from the bringing of new or waste land into cultivation. But it is clear, as well from the experience of Madras itself as of all other countries in which it has been tried, that a continually varying land-tax is an insuperable barrier to all improvement; and that it is, in fact, a powerful cause, not of advancement, but of poverty and barbarism. But the power of periodically revising the assessment might be retained without perpetually tampering with the occupiers. The only effect of this is to paralyse industry, to make those who are not poor counterfeits of poverty, and to hinder any outlay of capital on the land. To obviate these disastrous consequences, the proper plan would be to assess the occupiers at a reasonable rate, and to make the assessment invariable for a period of at least forty or fifty years. An arrangement of this kind would give the ryots that security of which they are now wholly destitute; and would, we are bold to say, do ten times more to improve the Presidency than all the other measures it is possible to adopt, save that of making the assessment perpetual. This plan is, in fact, beginning to be tried in some parts of India; and it has, we are assured, been attended with the best results.

The land revenue in most parts of British India is assessed under one or other of the systems now described; but in some parts of the Bengal provinces, in the ceded districts on the Nerbudda, and in the greater number of the native states, a different plan is adopted, which has received the name of the *village system*. This system, though defeated after inquiry into the property of the superior to the ryotwar system, and, in some points, is even preferable to the perpetual system. It is a settlement made between the government and the cultivators, through the medium of the native village officers, who apportion the assessment without any direct interference on the part of the government functionaries. (See art. BOMBAY PRESIDENCY, for a short notice of this system of assessment.) It is difficult to state the proportion of the produce of a village paid to government. The authorities know little of the precise property of any of the proprietors: it is not the interest or the wish of the village that they should; and, if any member of the community fail to pay his share, that is a matter for the village at large to settle, and they usually come forward and pay it for him. These, however, are private arrangements; and the *mocaddim*, or headman, through whom the government settles with the cultivators, has no power from government to enforce the assessment on the particular defaulter. The tax to be paid by each villager is settled by the villagers amongst themselves; the total assessment being calculated after inquiry into the property of the village—what it has paid and what it can pay—regular surveys of the village boundaries, and of its lands, having been previously made by government. The *mocaddim* or *potail* (headman) is elected by the villagers; and, if the latter become dissatisfied with him, they turn him out of office. This system may have, and doubtless has, its disadvantages: the *potails* may, from various motives, unequally assess the villagers; and the tendency to cultivate waste lands will not be so strong as under the perpetual settlement; but the latter effect is much more likely to be brought about under this than under the ryotwar system; nor does the village system involve the same inquisitorial acts on the part of government. If the amount of the tax charged on a village under this system were not too high, and if the amount, when once fixed, were made perpetual or invariable, for a period of at least 40 or 50 years, it would probably be as good a plan as could be devised for the assessment of the land-tax.

We may, in this place, compare the respective results which have followed under the different land systems, but especially where the permanent and ryotwar systems of taxation have been established. In 1793-94, the total gross revenue of the four provinces of Bengal, Bahar, Orissa, and Benares, was 4,129,948*l.*, of which 3,012,590*l.* consisted of land-tax, only 2,873,714*l.* being, however, actually collected. In 1837-38, the total gross revenue amounted to 8,842,723*l.*, or to more than double its amount in 1793-94. The land-tax in 1837-38 amounted to 3,377,938*l.*, which was almost all collected. The produce of the other branches of revenue amounted, in 1837-38, to no less than 5,464,830*l.*, being nearly five times the produce in 1793-93, when the perpetual settlement was organised! It should also be observed, that Bengal, which, but a short time previously to 1793, had been the theatre of a most frightful famine, has not since been afflicted with even a year of remarkable scarcity; while both famines and scarcities have been frequent in every other part of our dominions in Hindostan. In 1793, the highest estimate of the pop. of these provs., exclusive of Benares, was 24,000,000; in 1835 it had risen to 37,500,000, or increased by more than a half in 32 years.

In the Madras presidency, the land-tax, in 1805-6, amounted to 3,469,977*l.*; in 1814-15 to 3,439,198*l.*; and in 1837-38 to only 3,149,781*l.* being a decline of 330,000*l.* a year; whereas the land-tax in Bengal during the same period had increased more than half a million! But how could it be otherwise? In Madras, the tax, besides being assessed in the worst possible manner, is oppressively high; indeed, the land-tax paid by that Presidency is almost equal to that paid by the far richer and wealthier country of Bengal, Bahar, Orissa, and Benares, with more than double its population. The other taxes in Madras are also more onerous than in Bengal; and several, such as a monopoly of tobacco, a tax on fruit trees, on cow-dung used as fuel, and on arts and professions, are unknown in the latter. But notwithstanding, while in Bengal the land-tax amounts to little more than a third, it amounts in Madras to fully three-fourths of the total revenue of the Presidency.

In the upper provs. of Bengal, now forming the government of Agra, where both the ryotwar and village systems prevail, and where the pop. is estimated to be about 18,000,000, or not quite half that of the 4 provs. of Bengal, Bahar, Orissa, and Benares, the land-tax, in 1806-7, was 2,108,410*l.*; in 1811-12 it was raised to 3,665,494*l.*; in 1819-20 to 3,061,932*l.*; and in 1829-30 to 3,766,666*l.* In the short space of 23 years, the tax had therefore been augmented by the enormous sum of 1,658,156*l.* But this augmentation proved to have been a great deal too rapid; for in 1834-35 the land-tax realised in the upper provs. sank to 3,398,094*l.*, at the same time that the other branches of revenue amounted to only 796,877*l.*, making the land-tax 81 parts in 100 of the whole revenue. Two years afterwards a dreadful famine broke out in the Agra provs.; and not only was little or no revenue collected, but the tax-receivers had to dole out relief to the tax-payers. In the Bombay presidency, where fluctuating assessments prevail, the land-tax, in 1837-38, amounted to 1,737,717*l.*, collected at an expense of 294,717*l.*, or about 1-6th part of its gross produce. The gross amount of all the other branches of the Bombay revenue amounted, during the same year, to only 385,115*l.*

These statements conclusively demonstrate the vast superiority of the perpetual settlement, not merely as respects the prosperity of the country and the inhabitants, but also as a financial engine. Had the perpetual settlement been adopted in Madras when it was adopted in Bengal, we venture to say that the revenue of the former, instead of remaining stationary, or retrograding, would have advanced quite as rapidly as in the latter, while the pop. and wealth of the Presidency would have been proportionally increased.

Besides the lands subject to the foregoing systems of assessment, a considerable extent of land in India is held rent-free. Throughout Hindostan, and indeed, we believe, throughout Asia, China perhaps excepted, a considerable portion of the land-tax is assigned to a great variety of parties, and for various purposes. Lands have been given to public officers as the reward of their services; to men of learning; to the favourites of sovereigns; for the maintenance of civil and military public establishments; and for the endowment of charitable, educational, and religious institutions. The grants, especially those for the use of temples, mosques, and shrines, were in perpetuity; and others became so through the usage of India. Inscriptions on stone and brass, found in most parts of India, attest the antiquity of these grants. One of them is supposed to be nearly coeval with the invasion of Britain by Julius Caesar, and hundreds are of dates antecedent to the Norman invasion. (*Asiat. Researches*, i.; *Trans. of the Royal Asiat. Soc.* passim.) The extent of these free tenure lands throughout India is very great.

In the ceded territory under the Madras presidency, comprising an area of 56,000 sq. m., they amount, as estimated by Sir T. Munro, to one-third of the entire surface. In the N.W. provs. of the Bengal Presidency (now Agra), embracing an area of 66,000 sq. m., the free tenure lands were ascertained by the British commissioners to amount to 44,851,770 begahs, the land-tax of which, if assessed in the usual manner, would have amounted to 1,236,000*l.* From an inquiry made in 1777, it appeared that the rent-free lands in Bengal Proper amounted to 8,575,943 begahs, or 3,164,554 acres, which would have yielded a tax of 1,265,890*l.* a year. It is deserving of notice, that the rent-free lands under the Agra presidency were at the very threshold, as it were, of the Mohammedan power; and the territory in which they are included was in the possession of the Mohammedans for six centuries. But, notwithstanding their bigotry and despotism, they respected the free tenures. They also, much to their honour, respected them in a singular degree in Bengal, where most of them had originally consisted of tracts of waste or wild land, reclaimed by the labour and capital of the grantees, or their heirs and successors. Lord Cornwallis, and the Indian council of his day, affirmed the possession of the rent-free lands to their holders, on the same perpetual tenure as the taxed

lands; and it was enacted that those that held under a free tenure prior to 1765 should remain untaxed "for ever." It has been said that the present Indian government has manifested a strong disposition to seize upon the rent-free lands, or to subject them to a system of taxation; but, as a proceeding of this sort would be a flagrant vio-

lation of a solemn engagement, we do not believe that there is any real foundation for the statement.

The other principal sources of the public revenue are the sea and frontier customs, the salt and opium monopolies, &c.

Abstract View of the Revenues and Charges of British India, for the Years 1845-46, 1846-47, 1847-48, and 1848-49, including the Charges disbursed in Great Britain. (*Parl. Paper, No. 479. Sess. 1850.*)

Revenues.	1845-46.	1846-47.	1847-48.	1848-49, partly estimated.	Charges.	1845-46.	1846-47.	1847-48.	1848-49, partly estimated.
Bengal	Co.'s revenue 8,42,30,416	Co.'s revenue 8,40,51,004	Co.'s revenue 7,75,95,036	Co.'s revenue 7,75,95,036	Bengal	Co.'s revenue 9,94,81,363	Co.'s revenue 10,29,26,457	Co.'s revenue 10,36,66,218	Co.'s revenue 10,66,29,444
N. W. Provinces	4,56,38,788	4,85,21,708	5,00,51,482	4,77,76,600	N. W. Provinces	92,80,984	91,87,314	86,05,408	89,93,940
Madras	3,82,84,536	3,87,40,499	3,88,11,615	3,91,17,169	Madras	3,75,25,918	3,87,95,925	3,99,53,417	3,81,72,611
Bombay	2,18,38,719	2,26,28,119	2,12,30,674	2,16,05,376	Bombay	2,74,14,370	2,85,95,731	2,72,37,052	3,14,81,938
Total ordinary revenues	18,99,83,529	19,89,63,320	18,74,87,005	18,87,90,679	Total, including war charges	17,34,79,267	17,66,15,327	17,47,10,093	18,13,80,594
At 2s. per acre	17,810,890	18,635,000	17,578,907	17,692,563	At 2s. per acre	16,843,778	16,567,687	16,472,221	17,004,431
Extraordinary Receipts from produce of commercial assets in India and China:					Charges consequent upon the discharge of the 6 per cent. redeemable debt:				
Bengal	15,882	1,551	2,058	500	Bengal	-	267	-	-
At 2s. per acre	1,489	145	195	47	At 2s. per acre	-	25	-	-
Total ordinary and extraordinary revenues and receipts in India	17,812,419	18,635,145	17,577,102	17,692,610	Total charges in India	16,843,788	16,567,712	16,472,221	17,004,431
Deficiency, after deducting net produce of the commercial assets of the Company	1,495,376	971,302	1,911,791	2,394,729	Charges disbursed in England on account of India	5,044,067	5,066,635	5,016,072	5,012,908
	19,307,795	19,624,547	19,488,893	20,017,339	Total charges of India	19,307,795	19,624,547	19,488,293	20,017,339

We subjoin the following statement with respect to the revenue of the presidency of Bengal:—

Account of the Revenue of the Bengal Presidency, in 1845-46, 1846-47, 1847-48, and 1848-49.

Revenues.	1845-46.	1846-47.	1847-48.	Estimate, 1848-49.
Mini duties	Co.'s revenue 6,52,147	Co.'s revenue 5,54,828	Co.'s revenue 4,97,393	Co.'s revenue 5,29,000
Post-office collections	5,11,118	5,53,506	5,11,681	4,99,402
Stamp duties	23,73,154	23,91,565	22,91,196	22,78,500
Excise duties in Calcutta	2,10,492	2,78,904	2,80,668	2,74,100
Judicial fees and fines	7,96,014	7,78,545	8,04,586	8,37,300
Miscellaneous civil receipts, including net gain or deducting net loss by exchange operations between India and England		13,87,267	3,85,183	
Land Revenue	2,50,48,987	2,52,15,893	2,50,77,753	2,51,86,000
Sayer and Abkerry	36,70,599	38,01,225	39,16,838	39,19,800
Miscellaneous receipts in the revenue department	81,448	66,581	44,772	47,100
Receipts from the territory ceded by the Burmese	18,81,473	20,03,310	19,75,230	20,11,400
Receipts from Bencoolen	28,00,517	28,91,870	30,30,320	30,30,320
Customs	88,94,778	77,19,709	74,83,857	76,08,100
Sale of salt	1,53,17,711	1,64,40,018	1,58,72,690	1,55,97,100
Sale of opium	2,86,96,875	3,06,75,658	2,55,61,021	2,92,34,406
Marine and pilotage receipts	10,86,611	9,77,042	9,26,533	8,64,000
Revenues of Prince of Wales Island, Singapore, and Malacca.				
Prince of Wales Island	Co.'s revenue 1,76,485	Co.'s revenue 1,63,840	Co.'s revenue 1,76,974	Co.'s revenue 1,81,000
Singapore	5,16,415	4,30,411	5,89,688	5,85,900
Malacca	66,150	61,008	75,111	1,10,650
Subsidy received from the Naper government	7,59,010	6,15,744	6,38,821	6,78,150
Transfers from the Naper, Rajpoot and other states	8,00,000	8,00,000	8,00,000	8,00,000
Interest on arrears of revenue, &c.	6,96,132	11,09,306	12,99,306	12,99,300
	27,104	1,26,141	1,26,141	49,540
Total gross revenue	10,36,16,141	10,70,74,808	9,94,75,081	9,87,22,476
Deduct allowances and assignments payable out of the revenues in accordance with treaties or other engagements	36,94,615	36,30,097	36,69,308	36,70,795
Charges of collecting the Revenues (including out of Salt and Opium).	10,09,16,596	10,44,44,711	9,58,05,874	9,80,51,681
Charges of collecting the stamp duties	Co.'s revenue 1,09,063	Co.'s revenue 1,06,228	Co.'s revenue 1,30,778	Co.'s revenue 1,06,308
Charges of land, Sayer and Abkerry revenues	37,42,770	37,40,457	36,66,848	37,66,800
Charges of customs	4,72,018	4,79,072	4,68,786	4,84,000
Cost and charges of salt, including payments made to the French and Danish governments under convention	44,45,946	41,58,685	35,08,707	35,78,361
Cost and charges of opium	75,35,515	78,50,365	1,06,45,723	1,06,94,187
Total net revenue of the Bengal presidency, after payment of allowances and assignments, and charges of collection	1,66,35,710	1,63,63,707	1,84,10,838	1,88,29,144
	8,42,30,816	8,40,81,004	7,75,35,036	7,72,25,553

The total debt of India, in India, on the 30th of April, 1848, amounted to 48,085,963*l.*, bearing an interest of 2,045,314*l.* a year.

The army maintained in British India consisted, in 1837, of 295,840 men, being distributed into British, native, and contingent native troops, as follows:—

British.			Native.			Contingent Native.		
Staff	-	205	Staff (British)	-	312	Scindia	-	15,000
Horse artillery	-	1,927	Co.'s officers of British birth	-	2,416	Oude	-	10,000
Foot do.	-	4,354	Officers of Hindoo birth	-	2,416	Nizam	{ cavalry, 10,000	
Engineers	-	47	Engineer corps	-	2,416		{ infantry, 12,000	22,000-
Cavalry	-	2,543	Horse artillery	-	1,022	Baroda	{ cavalry, 3,000	
Infantry	-	15,879	Foot do.	-	5,822		{ infantry, 4,000	7,000
Officers	-	755	Artillery train	-	1,322	Nagpore	-	1,000
			Cavalry	-	14,529	Holkar	-	5,000
			Infantry	-	124,781	Travancore, 3 battalions	-	3,000
						Cochin, 1 do.	-	1,000
						Mysores	-	4,000
						Cutch and Jondpoor	-	6,000
						Rajpoot { cavalry, 7,500		
						Nizam { infantry, 27,000		
						Battarah	-	5,000
								111,500
The British troops serving in India in 1840-50, consisted of— officers, 1,377 ; non-commissioned officers, 1,570 ; rank and file, 25,190 ; making in all an effective force of 28,137. Horse, 2,550.								

The expense of the Anglo-Indian army, according to reports laid before parliament in 1830, was as follows:—

Engineer Corps	-	83,574	Medical staff	-	132,490
Artillery	-	606,463	Pioneers	-	74,211
Cavalry	-	1,070,534	Commissariat	-	614,387
Infantry	-	4,124,079	Sundries	-	2,178,887
Staff	-	481,490			
			Total	-	9,879,955

It may be observed, by the way, that this sum of 9,374,000*l.* is more than double the sum annually expended on the Prussian army. Considerable additions have been made within the last half dozen years to the military force in India.

Each presidency has its separate army, commander-in-chief, staff, &c.; but the commander-in-chief of the supreme government has a general authority over the armies of all the presidencies. Among the native troops, called *Sepoys* (esquires), there is a complete intermixture of tribes, castes, and creeds; but the infantry consists chiefly of Hindoos and the cavalry of Mohammedans. The Hindoo soldiers of the Bengal army are mostly of high caste, more than 20,000 being Brahmins. The soldiers of the Madras army are principally Rajpoots, and are reckoned the most persevering, hardy warriors; but they observe their religious customs so strictly, that the least deviation from them might have a dangerous effect on their discipline. The Bombay soldiers are the most easily disciplined, being generally of the lower castes. The troops are not raised by any forced levy or conscription; military service in India is quite voluntary, and is so popular that each regiment has a number of supernumeraries ready to take the place of such soldiers as die or leave. The men are well paid, clothed, and fed. The corporal punishment of Hindoos is not allowed; imprisonment being, in the Indian, as in the French, army, the principal engine by which discipline is kept up. In the former, however, the disgrace attending dismissal from the service, which is acutely felt by the native soldiers, tends powerfully to preserve discipline and obedience. Each company has an English captain, lieutenant, and ensign, as well as a native captain, lieutenant, and ensign. The latter, however, are under the command of the British officers; so that, with the title and uniform of officers, they are, properly speaking, only subalterns or non-commissioned officers. The Indian army, when not in the field, is in camp the whole year through, a system which has contributed, in no small degree, to bring it to its present state of efficiency.

A good deal of conflicting evidence was given before the parliamentary committees in 1832 and 1833, as to the real state of the Indian army, and the degree of dependence to be placed on it. On the whole, it would seem to be superior, in its degree of discipline and organisation, to any native army ever previously embodied in India; and so long as its discipline and efficiency are maintained unimpaired, it is no doubt fully adequate to provide for the tranquillity of India, and its defence against Asiatic invaders. But the *Sepoys* are decidedly inferior both in physical strength and mental energy to Europeans: and such being the case, we cannot help, how reluctantly soever, agreeing in opinion with those who think that the Indian army could not make any effectual opposition to any thing like a corresponding force of French, Russian, or other European troops.

The Indian navy consists only of one frigate, 4 or 5 18-gun brigs, 6 or 8 10-gun corvettes and brigs, 3 or 4 armed steamers, and some other vessels: it is manned by about 500 European seamen, and from 500 to 700 natives, under about 140 British officers: it is attached to the Bombay presidency, which see.

Commerce.—Internal Trade.—Throughout the whole of the immense basin of the Ganges there is an extensive inland navigation; and this, also, is the case in the valleys of the larger rivers in the S.; but elsewhere the inland trade is greatly impeded by the want of roads, and the imperfect means of conveyance. With the ex-

ception of a few military roads, made by the English, none fit for carriages have been constructed in any part of the country; what are called high roads being, in fact, little better than broad and bad pathways, on which goods to a small extent are conveyed in carts, or, rather, very rude cars, drawn by a pair or more of oxen. Many kinds of goods are carried by pack-bullocks; on the N.W. frontiers of Hindostan, camels and horses are used; in the N., small horses, and even goats and sheep are employed; but, in most of the mountainous part of Hindostan, porters are the chief bearers of merchandise. The charge for conveying goods by land is estimated at an average of 100 m. at 5*ss.* per ton, being about 28 times as much as the conveyance of the same weight of goods for 100 m. on the Ganges; and equal to more than half their freight by sea from Calcutta to London! In consequence the internal trade of the country has hitherto been confined principally to the necessities of life. Under these circumstances we must not be surprised that various projects for the construction of railways have latterly been brought forward; but it is to be hoped that these may be well considered before any attempt be made to carry them into execution.

Corn, cotton, oleaginous plants, and sugar are the most important objects of inland commerce. The chief trade in rice takes place within the tract of the inundation of the Ganges: N. of lat. 25°, it is superseded by that of wheat and barley. Cotton is grown in every latitude in India; and is not, therefore, an article of very extensive internal commerce. Indian cotton is, speaking generally, coarse, dirty, and short in the staple; and is very inferior to most other kinds brought to the markets of Europe. But it is believed that this is not owing so much to any natural incapacity on the part of India to produce good cotton, as to the want of care in selecting the seed, and in the culture of the plant. In these respects, too, some very material improvements have been effected of late years; and a good deal of the cotton brought from India is now greatly superior to what it was a few years ago. But it is still susceptible of much improvement. It has been estimated that cotton fabrics, of the value of about 20,000,000*l.* a year, used to be made by the pop. of British India, or of the value of 34,000,000*l.* including the tributary states. Cotton goods from Great Britain are now imported to the value, inc. twist, of nearly 4,000,000*l.* a year; but the real falling off in the amount of the Indian manufacture, in consequence of the import of British cottons, does not, probably, exceed two millions sterling a year; for we consume more than 400,000*l.* worth of their cotton wool, and dispose of more than a million's worth of their fabrics in China. These statements sufficiently evince the fallacy of the often-repeated complaints of the destruction of the cotton manufactures of India by the importation of English goods; and it is needless to add that, though the latter were imported to a much greater extent, the circumstance would be an advantage, not an injury, to India; for they would not be imported were they not cheaper, and, consequently, more easily attainable than their own by the great bulk of the population. (For an account of the circumstances that led to the ruin of the manufacture of fine muslins in Dacca, see Vol. I. 689.)

Sugar is a principal article of internal culture and trade. It is principally raised in the great plain of the Ganges. The average annual consumption of sugar in Hindostan has been estimated at between 11*lb.* and 12*lb.* a head, which, for the British and tributary states, would amount to upwards of 650,000 tons; but we believe that this is a most exaggerated estimate, and that half the quantity would be much nearer the mark, though probably still in excess. The average consumption of salt is estimated at 15*lb.* per head, or upwards of 877,000 tons annually, which, at 6*d.* a ton, including the taxes, gives a total amount of between 7 and 8 millions sterling. This article is every where paid for chiefly in corn. The other staples of the inland trade are indigo, opium,

silk, tobacco, nitre, oil-skins, drugs, hides, hme, timber, &c. The Malabar coast has some products peculiar to itself, as teak and sandalwoods, black pepper, and cardamoms, and now, also, furnishes considerable quantities of coffee. With these, and different metals, areca nuts, and spices obtained from other countries, woolen and cotton goods, and various manufactures and products of Europe and China, the corn, cotton, sugar, and other articles of the inland trade are paid for on that coast. But there is no extensive or well-organised system of inland trade in India. The different parts of the country are, in this respect, separate and unconnected. "The merchants of the upper provs." says Sir C. Trevelyan, "know nothing of the trade of the lower provs.; the merchants of the lower provs. know nothing of what is passing above Miraspoor; and the maritime trade is a branch separate from both." This is a consequence, partly of the want of good roads and other easy modes of communication, but more, perhaps, of the internal duties that were laid on the transit of goods from one part of the country to another. These, however, have been abolished; and there can be no doubt that this measure will be of signal advantage to the country, and is, in fact one of the greatest boons conferred upon it by the English.

In India, as under most uncivilised governments, the transit of goods within the country was made subject to duties; and upon all the roads and navigable rivers toll-houses or custom-houses (*chokrys*) were erected, which had power of stopping the goods till the duties were levied. By the rule and oppressive nature of the government, these custom-houses were exceedingly multiplied; and, in long carriage, the inconvenience of numerous stoppages and payments was very severe. As in all other departments of the government, so in this, there was nothing regular and fixed. The duties varied at different times and different places; and a wide avenue was always open to the extortion of the collectors. The internal trade of the country was, by these causes, subject to ruinous obstructions." (*Mill, book iv. cap. 5.*)

The pernicious consequences resulting from this state of things early engaged the company's attention; though, at first, their efforts were directed rather to obtain an exemption from the transit duties in favour of their own trade than to effect their abolition. In 1798, however, Lord Cornwallis, who was at that time the chief administrator, adopted the judicious and decisive measure of abolishing the duties. But, unaccountable as it may seem, they were again restored in 1801; and were "frightfully increased" in 1810! Through the artificial impediments thus thrown in the way of internal commerce, the country was split, as it were, into a vast number of petty states, each surrounded by a line of custom-houses, and each jealous of the other. Metals, for example, passing from one town or district to another, were charged 10 per cent. *passum*, and most other articles were charged from 5 to 10 per cent. Hence, the power of carrying on business on a large scale, of using expensive machinery, and engaging numerous labourers, is contracted in an infinite degree; employments cannot be subdivided and improved; industry languishes; and a general tendency exists towards that barbarous state of things in which every body is obliged to produce and manufacture every thing he requires for his own consumption." (*Trevelyan's Report, p. 5.*)

Had the inland transit duties been productive of a large amount of revenue, that would have been some set-off against the enormous evils of which they were productive. But such was not the case. The expense of their collection, and the obstructions they threw in the way of communication, were such as to render their produce quite insignificant. At length, however, the pernicious influence of these duties in a commercial, and their inefficiency in a fiscal, point of view were clearly demonstrated by Sir C. Trevelyan, then one of the secretaries to the Bengal government*, in the able report referred to above. In the course of the year (1856) following the publication of this report, the inland transit duties and town duties in Bengal were abolished; but their abolition in other parts of India, which it was expected would immediately follow, has not yet taken place.

External Trade.—Sir George Larpent furnished the following estimate of the trade of India and China with Great Britain in 1837-38 to a committee of the H. of Commons; and taking it for a basis, and making the necessary alterations, the following estimate of its present (1850) amount may not, perhaps, be very wide of the mark. (See next column.)

Indigo grows luxuriantly from the equator to the 30th degree of lat.; but in India the best is produced in Bengal and Bahar, between lat. 23° and 27° N., and long. 84° and 90° E.; everywhere else the product is inferior. The annual produce of all the Bengal provs. may be esti-

Exports to England.		Made in which Exports from India are paid for.	
	Estimat. value.		Estimat. value.
Indigo	£ 2,000,000	British manufactures sent to India	£ 5,300,000
Sugar	1,000,000	Do. to China	1,000,000
Silk	800,000	Remainder of private fortunes	500,000
Silk piece goods	350,000	E. I. Comp.'s home charges	5,000,000
Saltpetre	200,000	Opium sent to China	1,000,000
Rice	100,000	Cotton	15,000,000
Rauddy articles	1,500,000	Deduct billion to India and England	5,450,000
Bamlay cotton &c.	5,000,000		
Tea from China	1,500,000		
Silk and other articles from the	1,500,000		
Total	11,550,000	Total	11,550,000

mated at about 9,000,000 lbs., produced on about 1,250,000 acres of cultivated land; the planters, at an average, farming about 3,500 acres each. The prime cost of the article to the planters has been estimated at 1,680,000; the gross profit on which, including risk and charges to the port of exportation, amounts to 40 per cent. The production of silk in India is confined to Bengal, and the produce is inferior. (See art. HINDOSTAN.)

Opium has been, for many years past, and still is, an article of great and rapidly increasing export to China, the Malay Islands, and elsewhere. The exports to China may at present (1850) be estimated at the prodigious amount of from 35,000 to 40,000 chests, worth from 20,000,000 to 25,000,000 dol. This vast importation is the cause of the heavy drain for bullion now operating on China. The poppy may be said to take the place in Indian agriculture that the vine and olive occupy in that of S. Europe. Its growth within the British territories has been confined to Bahar and the Benares districts; but in the prov. Malwah, most part of which is included in the dom. of Scindia, it is extensively cultivated, and pays an export duty on being shipped from ports under our dominion. It is produced under a monopoly, and yields a large revenue to government.

The principal export of cotton is to China; but the export to Great Britain is also very considerable, having amounted to 84,101,961 lbs. in 1848. But large as this importation may appear it does not really amount to 1-8th part of our whole annual consumption of cotton wool!

Notwithstanding the vast, and all but unlimited, capacities of British India for the production of sugar, its total export, in 1838, amounted to little more than two thirds of the export of sugar from the Mauritius! This miserable result was wholly, or almost wholly, ascribable to the inferior quality of East Indian sugars, owing to the very rude and imperfect methods in which they were prepared; but it was partly, also, ascribable to the circumstance of E. Indian sugars having been burdened, previously to 1836, with a duty of 8s. a cwt. over and above the duty charged on W. Indian sugars. But in the course of that year Bengal sugars were put on the same footing, in respect of duties, as those of the W. Indian colonies; and of late years a great improvement has been effected in the manufacture of E. Indian sugars, the best of which are now put equal to the best of those from Jamaica and Demerara. In consequence of the circumstances now referred to, and of the comparatively high price of sugar in this country, the imports from India increased with great rapidity.

We subjoin an account of the importation of sugar from British India, ex. Ceylon, during the three years before and the three years subsequent to the equalisation of the duties:—

Years.	Imports.	Duty.	Years.	Imports.	Duty.
1833	111,731 cwt.	31s.	1836	124,163 cwt.	24s. per cwt.
1834	124,626	—	1837	296,557	—
1835	100,856	—	1838	428,554	—

The imports from India have since continued to increase though not, perhaps, so rapidly as was anticipated; and it is thought by some that when the duties on foreign and colonial sugars are equalised, the sugar of India will have some difficulty in maintaining its ground. The imports in 1848 amounted to 1,332,745 cwt.

The abolition of the discriminating duty, in favour of Bengal sugars, being founded on reason and equity, it has since been extended to all parts of British India, and to Ceylon. Nothing, indeed, could be more unjust and inconsistent with sound principle, than to impose higher duties on the products of one portion or dependency of the empire than on those of another.

The corn of India, both rice and wheat, is inferior to that of most other countries, for the same reason that its cotton and sugar are inferior, both being the produce of a rude husbandry, and rude preparation. Rice is scalded instead of being kiln-dried, and wheat is never dried at all, except in the sun. It was supposed that the latter might be largely imported under a free corn trade

* Now Assistant-Secretary to the Treasury.

into England; but it does not appear that there are any real grounds for such an opinion. Indian wheat is, speaking generally, very inferior to British wheat; and it could not be imported, in ordinary years, at less than from 40s. to 44s. a quarter. Its price, free on board at Calcutta, may be taken at 15s. or 16s. a quarter; to which, if we add 16s. or 18s. for freight to England, and 8s. or 10s. for profits and landing charges here, it is abundantly plain that, except in high priced years, it would not answer to import Indian corn.

Previously to the discovery of nitrate of soda in S. America, Bengal and Behar had a monopoly of the trade in saltpetre. And, contrary to what might have been anticipated, the exports from the latter do not appear to have been at all affected by that discovery. In proof of this statement it is enough to mention, that the exports of saltpetre from Calcutta amounted, in 1848-49, to 615,000 maunds. Dyes, shell-lac, linseed, safflower, sal-ammoniac, castor-oil, coffee from Malabar, tea from Assam, &c., tin, antimony, catechu, and pearl sea are other exports worthy of mention; and which owe their importance as such principally to the commercial enterprise and talent of Europeans.

Statement of the Quantities of the Principal Articles Imported into the United Kingdom from British India (the East India Company's Territories and Ceylon) in 1848.

Articles.	Quantities.	Articles.	Quantities.
Casla Lignum - lbs.	37,019	Cotton wool - lbs.	84,101,961
Cinnamon - "	837,184	Saltpetre and cu-	
Coffee - "	30,851,465	bic nitre - cwts.	286,960
Cotton piece - "		Senna - lbs.	807,385
goods - pieces	114,306	Raw and waste - "	
Gum arabic - cwts.	6,599		772,152
Gum dyer - "	13,687	Bandannas - "	
Lac-dye - lbs.	488,978	handks. &c. pieces	298,438
Shell-lac - "	1,624,658	Sugar, unref. - cwts.	1,332,715
Hemp, undressed - cwts.	328,328	Shabaz - lbs.	17,843
Hides, untanned - "	69,999	Nutmegs - "	199,039
Indigo - lbs.	6,293,089	Sago - cwts.	63,438
Castor oil - "	215,445	Swiss - galls	868,438
Pepper - "	7,487,351	Sheep's wool - lbs.	5,997,135
Rice - cwts.	844,644		

Statement of the Quantities and Declared Value of the Principal Articles of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported to the E. India Company's Territories, exclusive of Ceylon, in 1849.

Articles.	Quantities.	Declared Value.
Apparel, cloths, &c.	-	£. 116,014
Arms and munitions - barrels	35,796	98,139
Beer and ale - cwts.	1,567	50,449
Printed books - yds.	125,559	557,361
Brass and copper manuf. - yds.	299,335,985	2,078,010
Hosiery, lace, &c.	-	60,163
Cotton twist and yarn - lbs.	21,096,702	839,132
Earthenware - pieces	1,079,586	44,160
Glass ware - cwts.	40,439	97,378
Hardware and cutlery - "	17,637	375,071
Iron and steel - tons.	30,065	29,730
Linen manufactures - yds.	970,784	98,136
Machinery - "	-	26,346
Plated ware and jewellery - "	-	11,260
Silk manufactures - "	-	30,763
Stationery - "	-	-
Woolen manuf. entered by the piece - pieces	49,161	165,223
Do. by the yard - yds.	604,144	19,176
Other articles - yds.	-	424,510
Total declared value -	-	£. 5,149,784

For further particulars as to British India the reader is referred to the article HINDOSTAN.

We subjoin a chronological statement of the principal territorial acquisitions made by the British in India. — [See top of next column.]

INDIA-BEYOND-THE GANGES, sometimes called **INDO-CHINA**, an extensive region of Asia, forming the eastern of its three great peninsulas, extending between the 7th and 36th degs. of N. lat. and the 92d and 109th of E. long., comprising the empires of Birman, Siam, and Anam, the Malay peninsula, Laos, the Tenasserim provs., Aracan, Cathay, Cachar, Assam, and the Bengal districts of Sylhet, Tipperah, and Chittagong, which see.

INDIANA, one of the United States of America, in the N. W. part of the Union, between lat. 37° 45' and 41° 45' N., and long. 84° 40' and 89° W., having N. the lake and state of Michigan, E. Ohio, W. Illinois, and S. Kentucky, from which it is separated by the Ohio. Length, N. to S., 370 m.; average breadth, 130 m. Area, 35,100 m. Pop. (1840) 688,866; but its inhabs. have since rapidly increased, and may now, perhaps, be estimated at 850,000. Surface generally level or undulating; there are, however, some extensive hilly tracts in different parts. The chief elevations in the state are the bluffs which skirt the Ohio; and these, and the country immediately

Districts.	Date of Acquisition.	Districts.	Date of Acquisition.
Twenty-four Pengu-		Distr. in Bundelcund -	1802
nahs -	1757	Cuttach and Balasore	1803
Moulipatam, &c. -	1759	Upper Doab, Delhi ter-	
Buridar, Binaspore,		ritory, -	1803
and Chittagong -	1760	Districts in Gujrat -	1805
Bengal, Bahar, &c. -	1765	Kanoun	1815
Company's Jaghirs in		Rajpur and Huttah,	
the vicinity of Madras -		Darwar, &c. -	1817
- Chingleput -	1765	Ahmedabad -	1817
Northern Circars -	1766	Candahar, &c. -	1818
Zemindary of Benares		Ajmer -	1818
Island of Solat -	1775	Poonah, Concan, S. -	
Nagpore -	1778	Mahratta country -	1818
Guwalior Circars -	1778	Distr. on the Nerbudda,	
Pulo Peang -	1786	Bambhalpore, &c. -	1818
Malabar, Dindigul, Sa-		Lands in S. Concan -	1820
lem, Barmahal -	1792	District in Bejapoor	
Cornistore, Conara, -		and Ahmednagar -	1822
Wynand, &c. -	1799	Singapore -	1824
Tanjore -	1799	Malacca -	1825
Districts acquired by		Assam, Aracan, Tavoy,	
the Nizam from Tip-		Ye, Temasserim -	1826
poo Sultan in 1792 -		Cora -	1824
1799 -	1800	Sinde -	1845
Caracot -	1801	Punjab -	1849
Goruckpore, Lower			
Doab, Bareilly, &c. -	1801		

N. of them, are densely wooded. The central and N. parts consist chiefly of level prairies, interspersed with small lakes and swamps. Next to the Ohio, the principal river is the Wabash. It rises in the N.E., and, flowing first W. and afterwards S., in the lower part of its course divides this state from Illinois, and falls into the Ohio after a course of 480 m., the greater part of which is navigable. It has several tributaries, including the White, the E. Fork, &c., which also are navigable for a considerable distance. The other principal rivers are the St. Joseph, which falls into Lake Michigan, and the Kan-
kakee, an affluent of the Illinois. The climate differs little from that of Ohio and Illinois; but Indiana is somewhat less subject to the extremes of heat and cold than the latter state. The winters seldom last longer than six weeks; the Wabash, however, is at that season frozen over so as to be crossed with safety. In the valleys of the Ohio and Wabash, bilious fevers, agues, &c. are very prevalent during summer.

Soil in most parts very fertile. The agricultural products are the same as in the adjoining states of the E. and W. Little is known of the metallic resources of the state, no mines being wrought. Large quantities of sulphate of magnesia are met with in the S. along the banks of the Ohio. An extensive system of internal navigation has been undertaken, and in 1836 a loan of 10,000,000 doll. was negotiated by the state for promoting the construction of canals and railways. The most important public work yet commenced is the Wabash and Erie Canal, to extend from the W. end of Lake Erie to La Fayette, on the Wabash, a distance of 87 m., 100 of which are within Indiana. 80 m. of this canal had been navigated during the year ending Aug. 1838. It is proposed to extend the line down the Wabash to a projected central canal leading to Evansville, making its total length 460 m. A railway from Indianapolis to Madison has been finished, and various other extensive public routes are either completed or in active progress.

These undertakings have involved the state in a rather large debt, that portion of it due to foreigners having amounted, in 1847, inc. arrears of interest, to 14,374,640 doll. Since then it has been distributed into various stocks, above 6,000,000 doll. having been thrown upon the canal, the payment of its principal and interest being made to depend on the receipts from the canal.

In 1840, the state had one bank of its own, and 12 branch banks, with a united capital of 3,985,876 dollars. By a clause of the constitution, the legislature is bound to provide, as far as the circumstances of the state will permit, for a system of general education, and the establishment of a university, in which tuition shall be gratis. The thirty-sixth part of every township of land is reserved for the purposes of education; but no general system of public instruction has yet been devised and carried into effect. There are at present 3 colleges: Indiana College, at Bloomington, founded 1825; that of S. Hanover, established 1827, and Wabash College, at Crawfordsville, established in 1833. The Methodists have a university, founded in 1839.

Indiana is divided into 64 coes. Indianapolis, on White River, near the centre of the state, is the cap. and seat of government; the other chief towns are New Albany, Madison, and Vincennes. The legislature consists of a senate, with, at present, 30 members, and a house of representatives of 62 members; the former are elected for three years, and the latter annually, by all the free white male citizens above 21 years of age, who have resided in the state for one year preceding the election. The general assembly meets annually at Indianapolis.

* The number of members of the legislature is regulated by that of the electors.

Judges are elected for a term of seven years; the governor is chosen for three years, and is only twice eligible.

The earliest permanent occupation of Indiana was made by the French, about 1702, when Vincennes, and several other small settlements were established by them along the Wabash. Previously to 1800, it was included in the N.W. territory, and from that year until 1809 was governed with Illinois, under the title of the Indiana territory. In 1816, it was constituted an independent state. It sends 7 representatives to congress. (*Stuart's America; American Encyc.; Darby; American Almanack, 1834-1840.*)

INDIES (EAST). Under this vague and ill-defined appellation are usually comprised Hindostan, India-beyond-the-Ganges, and the islands in the E. Archipelago.

INDIES (WEST). Under this term were formerly included not only the Caribbee and other islands in the Atlantic near the coast of America, but also all the countries included under the name of the Spanish Main. But at present the term is restricted so as to signify only the islands between lat. 10° and 27° N., and long. 60° and 85° W., comprising the larger and smaller Antilles; (the former consisting of Cuba, Hayti, Jamaica, and Porto Rico; and the latter of the Virgin, Leeward and Windward groups, with the Bahamas, Trinidad, Tobago, and a few other islands. Of these, Hayti alone is independent. Cuba and Porto Rico belong to Spain; Jamaica, the Bahamas, Trinidad, Barbadoe, Antigua, Dominica, Grenada, St. Lucia, &c., to Great Britain; Guadaloupe, Martinique, Marie Galante, &c., to France; St. Eustatius, Saba, and Curaçoa, to the Dutch; St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John, to the Danes; and St. Bartholomew to the Swedes. For further details, see in this Dictionary the several islands above named.

INDORE, a city of Hindostan, prov. Malwah, cap. of Holkar's dom., and the residence of that chief, a title N. of the Windy mountains, and 20 m. S. by E. Oojein, lat. 23° 42' N. long. 75° 40' E. Pop. very uncertain, it having fluctuated greatly at different periods. According to Malcolm (*Central India*, i. 496.), it is now inconsiderable both in size and pop., and, being but weakly fortified, is a place of small importance. It stands at nearly 3,000 ft. above the level of the sea, in a well wooded, pleasant, and healthy tract, and has been wholly built within the present century. Some of its streets are tolerably spacious, paved with granite slabs, and its houses often of two stories, and constructed partly of brick; but, speaking generally, it is mean and ill built, and contains no public edifice worthy of remark, except the palace, a massive quadrangular granite building, with decorations of carved wood.

The territories of Holkar comprise an area of 4,360 sq. m., having N. and E. Scindia's dom., and W. and S. territ. of the Bombay presid. By the treaty of 1818, Indore was placed on the footing of other subsidiary states, the British agreeing to maintain a force for its external and internal security; and Holkar to keep no useless troops, and to furnish us when required a contingent of 3,000 horse. A British resident is accordingly stationed at this cap., and a British force at Mhow and Mahidpore. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz., Part. Rep., &c.*)

INDRE, an inland dep. of France, reg. centre, formerly included in the prov. Berri, between lat. 46° 22' 30" and 47° 15' N., and long. 60° 51' and 2° 13' E.; having N. Loir-et-Cher, E. Cher, S. Creuse, and W. Vienne and Indre-et-Loire. Average length and breadth 60 miles each. Area, 688,851 hectares. Pop. (1846) 253,577. Its surface is generally level, with a slope towards the N.W., in which direction nearly all its rivers run to join the Loire or the Cher. The Creuse bounds it W.; the other chief river is the Indre, whence it derives its name. The latter rises in the dep. Creuse, and has a course of about 94 m. through the centre of this and the succeeding dep. to its mouth in the Loire, below Tours. Châteauroux and Loches stand on its banks, but, like the other streams of this dep., it is innavigable. A pestiferous tract of pools and marshes, called the *Brenne*, extends throughout the centre and W. part of the dep., occupying about 1-10th part of the whole surface, and a more extensive tract towards the E. end, called the *Pays de Champagne*, is quite bare of wood, and infertile; but the remainder is mostly either under culture or covered with forests. In 1834, the arable land comprised 401,351 hectares, meadows 65,303 h., and forests and heaths 123,223 h. Agriculture is very backward; but more corn is grown than is required for home consumption, a result probably owing to the thinness of the pop., as only about 1,480,000 hectolitres of all kinds are produced annually. The produce of wine amounts to about 450,000 hectol., a year, which is more than is consumed by the inhabs. Fruits are good, and excellent hemp is raised. In 1830, there were 765,000 sheep in the dep., large flocks being fed on the *Pays de Champagne*. A good many oxen are fattened for the supply of Paris; and hogs for the markets of Auvergne and Limousin. Geese and other poultry are reared in large numbers, particularly in the *Pays*

de Brenne. Fish are abundant; and leeches form an article of trade. Iron of good quality is found, and forges are numerous. Good gun-flints are obtained at Châteauroux. Next to iron goods and woollen cloths, the principal manufactures are those of cottons, woollen yarn, leather, tiles, earthenware, hats, paper, and parchment. The dep. exports corn, wine, cattle, wool, woollen cloths, iron and iron goods, &c., to double the value of its imports. In 1835, of 83,376 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 47,461 were assessed below 5 fr., and 13,002 between 5 and 10 fr.; the number of considerable properties is somewhat below the average of the dep. The peasantry are strongly attached to routine practices, and therefore little likely to better their condition. Education is little diffused; in 1836, 150 communes were without primary schools, and only 3,260 persons, or 1-49th part of the pop., were receiving public instruction. Indre is divided into 4 arronds.; chief towns Châteauroux, the cap., Le Blanc, Issoudun, and La Châtre. It sends 4 mems. to the ch. of dep. Number of electors (1838-39), 1,659. Total public revenue (1831), 5,319,998 fr.; expenditure in the same year, 2,773,904 fr.

INDRE-ET-LOIRE, a dep. of France, reg. of the W., formerly included in the prov. Touraine, comprising a tract on both sides the Loire, between lat. 46° 46' and 47° 42' N., and long. 60° 2' and 10° 31' E., having N. Sarthe, Cher, E. Loiret, and S. Indre and Vienne, and W. Maine-et-Loire. Area, 611,679 hectares. Pop. (1846), 312,400. Surface almost an entire plain, with a slope from both the N. and S. to the Loire, which runs through it, near its centre, from E. to W. The part of the dep. watered by the Loire is so productive and beautiful that it has been termed the garden of France; but the soil elsewhere is generally dry, thin, and poor, and in the N.W. there are some extensive pools and marshes. Heaths and wastes occupy nearly 1-6th part of the surface, and forests more than 1-10th. In 1834, 324,910 hectares were arable, 33,463 pasture land, 35,004 vineyard, and 23,673 otherwise cultivated. Agriculture is tolerably well conducted, having been much improved of late years. The corn now produced is more than adequate to the supply of the dep.; in 1835, 2,790,780 hectolitres were harvested, 1,109,780 of which were wheat, and 845,420 oats. Beans, peas, &c. are of excellent quality. Wine is annually made of the value of 9 or 10 millions of francs, or about double what is required for home consumption; but it is generally inferior. In 1834, 140,000 quintals, or nearly worth 5,600,000 fr., are raised yearly, and liquorice, aniseed, coriander, angelica, truffles, &c. are cultivated. The culture of the mulberry-tree is increasing rapidly; in 1835, 42,000 kilog. cocoons were gathered. The chief exports of this dep. are its agricultural products: cattle are not reared in any great number, and most kinds of live stock are inferior. Manufacturing industry is in a rather active state. The woollen, leather, and silk manufactures of Tours have materially increased within the last few years. The silk and cap factories at Amboussay employ 160 workmen, and consumes above 200,000 kilog. of year of fine steel. The manufactures of red lead and iron goods are important; and near Montbazoin is the royal gunpowder factory and saltpetre refinery of Ripault, at which 250,000 kilog. of gunpowder are made annually. Indre-et-Loire is divided into three arronds., the chief towns of which are Tours, the cap., Chinon, and Loches. It sends 4 mems. to the ch. of dep. No. of electors (1838-39), 2,113. Total public rev. (1831), 7,769,120 fr. This is the native country of Descartes, who was born at La Haye on the 31st March, 1626; Indre-et-Loire has also produced Rabelais and Balzac, Agnes Sorel, Gabrielle d'Estrees, and the Duchesse de la Vallière. (*Hugo, art. Indre, and Indre-et-Loire; Official Tables.*)

INDUS (*Sindhu*, Sansc.; *Aub Sind*, Pers.), a large river of S. Asia, forming during part of its course the proper N.W. boundary of Hindostan, and lying between the 23d and 35th parallels of N. lat., and between the 67th and 81st degrees of E. long. The geography of this river, especially as regards its upper portion, is very imperfectly understood; but we shall endeavour to collect into a consistent account the information gained from the investigations of Major Rennell, Moorcroft, Burnes, Elphinstone, and other travellers. As the source of the river has not been visited by Europeans, its situation is at present only a matter of conjecture; but general consent seems to place it on the N. declivity of the Callias branch of the Himalaya range, near the Chinese frontier town of Goroo, and not far from the lake Manasourra and the sources of the Sutledge. The stream, called by the Chinese *Sing-tschu*, takes a general W. N.W. course past Ladakh, and receives the larger river Shyook, N.W. of Ladakh, whence the united streams run through the country of little Tibet, and after cutting a passage through the great Himalaya range, in lat. 35° 30' N., and long. 74° 30' E., are joined, about 120 m. S. of the mountains, by the Aboo-Sen, and lower down at Attock, where it is 260 yards wide, and both deep and rapid,

by the river of Caubul. The river is crossed here by a bridge of boats, constructed like that used by Alexander, and described by Arrian (lib. v. cap. 7.). The bridge is only allowed to remain between November and April, when the river is low; and the construction of it is completed in the course of six days. "S. of Attock, the Indus enters a plain, but soon afterwards winds amongst a group of mountains as far as Harrahah, whence it pursues a southward course to the sea, uninterrupted by hills, and expanding over the plain into various channels, which meet and separate again, but are rarely united into one body. The breadth of the river at Kaharee Ghat, in lat. $31^{\circ} 28' N.$, was found to be about 1,000 yards, the deep part of the channel being only 100 yards across, and 12 ft. deep. The banks in this vicinity are very low, and in summer are so much overflowed, that the stream extends in many places to a breadth of 15 m. (*Elphinstone*, vol. ii. p. 416.) In lat. $28^{\circ} 55'$, the Indus receives the Punjab rivers, and rolls past Mittum with a width of 2,000 yards, and a depth near the left bank of 4 fathoms. "From this point to Bukkur the main stream takes a S.W. course, with a direct channel, but frequently divided by sandbanks. Various narrow crooked branches also diverge from the parent stream, retaining a depth from 8 to 15 ft. of water; and these are navigated by boats ascending the river. The country on both sides is of the richest nature, but particularly on the E. bank, where it is flooded from innumerable channels, cut for the purpose of throwing the water S.E. into the interior." (*Burnes' Bokhara*, vol. i. p. 260, 261.) About 17 m. S. of Bukkur, in lat. $27^{\circ} 19'$, the Indus sends off a branch to the W. called the Lark-haun river, which, after making a circuit, and expanding in one place into a large lake 12 m. broad, rejoins the main stream 80 m. below the point of separation. The insulated territory, called Chandokee, is one of the most fertile in the Sindh dominions. About 160 m. below Bukkur is Sehurun, in lat. $26^{\circ} 32'$; and between these points the river flows in a zig-zag course nearly S.W., the intervening country being richly watered and divided by its ramifications into numerous islets of the finest pasture. The distance between Sehurun and Hyderabad is 106 m.: the banks seldom exceed 8 ft. in height, and the neighbouring grounds are usually covered with tamarisks. The river throws off no branches in this part of its course, except the Fullees (generally an unimportant stream), which leaves the Indus 12 m. above Hyderabad, and crossing the W. extremity of the Runn of Cutch, enters the Indian Ocean by the Khoree mouth. The main river opposite Hyderabad is 830 yards broad, and 5 fathoms deep; but the channel becomes narrower and deeper as it approaches Tatta, 65 m. below the capital. Shifting sandbanks also occur in many parts between these towns, to such an extent as to perplex the navigator. The course of the stream from Hyderabad is S.W. by S., with one decided turn below Juruk, where it throws off the Pinraee leading to Mughribes, and entering the sea by the Seer mouth. The country N. of Tatta, which might be rendered one of the richest and most productive in the world, is devoted to sterility, presenting to the eye only dense thickets of tamarisk, saline shrubs, and other underwood. About 5 m. S. below Tatta is the commencement of the Delta of the Indus. The river here divides into two branches, that to the right being called Buggara, while that to the left is known as the Sata. The latter is by far the larger of the two, and a little below the point of division has a breadth of 1,000 yards; "it divides and subdivides itself into many channels, and precipitates its water into the sea by 7 mouths, within the space of 35 m.; yet such is the violence of the stream, that it throws up sandbanks or bars; and only one mouth of this many-mouthed arm is ever entered by vessels of 50 tons." (*Burnes' Bokhara*, vol. i. p. 207.) The Buggara, on the other hand, flows in one stream as far as Darajee, within 6 m. of the sea, at which point it bifurcates, forming two arms, which fall into the ocean about 25 m. apart. A sandbank, however, which crosses its upper part, close to the apex of the Delta, renders it unfit for navigation. The land embraced by the Buggara and Sata extends at the junction of these rivers with the sea to about 70 m.; and so much, correctly speaking, is the existing Delta; but the river covers with its waters a much wider space, and has two other mouths still farther E., viz. the Seer and Khoree, from which, however, the waters have been diverted by the rulers of Sindh into canals for the purposes of irrigation. If therefore, these forlorn branches be included, the base of the Delta, measured in a straight line from the W. to the E. embouchure, extends 110 m. in a S.S.E. direction. Arrian estimates its extent at the time of Alexander's expedition at 1,800 stadia, or nearly double that now assigned to it; but it seems doubtful whether we are to attribute this difference to any great changes in the bed of the river, or to the miscalculation of the Macedonian admiral, Nearchus. The inconsistency of the stream through the Delta makes the navigation both difficult and dan-

gerous. The water is cast with such impetuosity from one bank to the other, that the soil is constantly falling in upon the river, and huge masses of clay hourly tumble into the stream, often with a tremendous crash. In some places the water, when resisted by a firm bank, forms eddies and gulphs of great depth, in which the current is really terrific; and, in a high wind, the waves dash as in the ocean. It appears, indeed, from the *Report of the State and Navigation of the Indus*, by Lieuts. Carless, Wood, and Pottinger, notwithstanding the statement of Sir A. Burnes, of there being "an uninterrupted navigation from the sea to Lahore," that banks, bars, &c. offer such great obstructions, as effectually to prevent the river from ever becoming extensively available for the purposes of commerce. Vessels drawing 8 feet water find themselves aground at the very entrance of the Seta mouth: the employment of ships is out of the question, and the navigation of the *doondees*, or small native boats, is so tedious, that no communication of any importance could be kept up between Hyderabad and the sea, except by steamers, the use of which, in a country like Sindh, would be attended with extreme difficulty. There are also political obstacles to using the Indus as a channel of commerce. The people and princes are ignorant and barbarous: the former refuse to be taxed, the latter to be interfered with by the merchant, so that goods ascend by land and by circuitous routes rather than by the Indus, their natural channel. The tides rise in the mouths of the Indus about 9 ft. at full moon, and both flow and ebb with great violence, particularly near the sea, where they flood and abandon the banks with equal and incredible velocity. This phenomenon was an object of great surprise to Alexander's fleet, and Arrian remarks (lib. vi. cap. 19.) that "the ebbing and flowing of the waters was as in the great ocean, inasmuch that the ships were left upon the dry ground; but what still more astonished Alexander and his friends was, that the tide, soon after returning, began to leave the ships, so that some were swept away by the fury of the tide and dashed to pieces, while others were driven on the banks and totally wrecked."

It is most probable, allowing for the exaggerations current on the subject, that the countries traversed by the Indus were less barbarous and uncivilised in the days of Alexander than at present; but admitting this, still we are disposed to reject the statement of Vincent, that the navigation of the Indus by extensive intercourse means of the Indus between the Punjab and the coast of Malabar. He has even supposed that the vessels employed in that trade proceeded as far S. as Cape Comorin, and having doubled it, sailed N. along the coast of Coromandel (*Voyage of Nearchus*, p. 11.) But there is no direct evidence of any such intercourse, and the presumption is all the other way. That there was a good deal of traffic on the river between its upper parts and Pattala (near the modern Tatta) is pretty certain; but the navigation of the mouths of the river must have been very different in antiquity from what it is at present, to admit of much intercourse taking place between Pattala and the ocean.

The tides are not perceptible more than 75 m. from the sea, or about 25 m. below Tatta. The quantity of water discharged by the Indus is stated by Sir A. Burnes to amount to 80,000 cubic ft. per second, nearly as much as is discharged by the Mississippi, and four times as much as is discharged by the Ganges, the other great river of Hindostan. This discharge, provided the statement be accurate, must be attributed chiefly to the greater length of its course in high and snowy regions, to its numerous and large tributaries, and to the barren arid nature of the soil through which it passes; while the Ganges, on the other hand, expends its waters in irrigation, and blesses the inhabitants of its banks with rich and exuberant crops.

The Indus has numerous affluents, none of which, however, deserve any particular mention except the Sutledje, and the other rivers of the Punjab. Of these rivers, the Sutledje (the *Zaradrus* of Ptolemy), which is the most easterly of all, takes its rise near Garoo, on the great plain N. of the Himalaya mountains, enters the chain at Shipkee (where it is 10,484 ft. above the sea), runs in a narrow mountain valley for upwards of 100 m., and enters the S. plain at Ropur, whence its course is south-westward to its junction with the Indus. The other rivers of the Punjab, besides the Beas (the *Hyphasis* of Arrian), which is an affluent of the Sutledje, are, proceeding westward, the Havel (the *Hydrates* of Arrian), the Chenab (*Acenes*), and the Jylum or Hydaspes. The last three, all of which rise on the S. slope of the great mountain range of N. India, join their waters with those of the Sutledje in lat. $30^{\circ} 10' N.$, and long. $71^{\circ} 12' E.$ The rivers of the Punjab are in general navigable up to the place where they issue from the mountains. (*Rennell's Hindostan*, p. 177. &c.; *Elphinstone's Caubul*, vol. ii. App.; *Burnes' Bokhara*, vol. i. passim; *Hamilton's Gazetteer*; *Ritter*, vols. v. and vi. passim.)

INGOLSTADT, a town of Bavaria, circ. Ratisbon, on the Danube, 33½ m. S.W. that city. "The pop. of this ancient and melancholy town is reduced to 9,000 (1839), a number very disproportionate to its extent. It has recently been restored to the condition of a fortress, by the construction of very strong works on an improved plan. Its old fortifications had withstood sieges from the troops of the League of Schmalkald, from Gustavus Adolphus, and Duke Bernard of Saxe-Weimar, and resisted Moreau for three months; but he, succeeding at length, caused them to be demolished. Ingolstadt lost its university, at which the celebrated Dr. Faustus studied, in 1800: it is now referred to Munich." (*Murray's Handbook*.) It still possesses, however, a royal residence, nine churches, in one of which the Bavarian general, Tilly, was buried, and several hospitals and charitable institutions. It had formerly a considerable manufacture of woollen cloths; but this and its other branches of industry and trade has fallen into complete decay. (*Dict. Géog.*; *Scrim*, &c.)

INNSBRUCK (Fr. *Innsbruck*), a city of the Tyrol, of which it is the cap., on the Inn, 80 m. N. by E. Trent, and 940 m. W. by S. Vienna. Lat. 47° 16' N. long. 10° 29' 45" E. Pop. (1846) 12,900. Its situation is highly picturesque. It stands in the middle of a valley, the sides of which are formed by mountains from 6,000 to 8,000 ft. high, and the Inn is crossed by a wooden bridge (whence the name of the city) from which a magnificent prospect is obtained. On and round this bridge one of the severest actions took place during the war of the Tyrolese, under Hofer, against the French. Innsbruck is divided into the old and new towns, and has 5 suburbs. The latter are larger and better built than the city itself, though badly paved. The houses of Innsbruck are mostly 4 or 5 stories high, built in the Italian style, with flat roofs, and are frequently ornamented with frescoes. Many have arcades below, occupied with shops. The object most attractive to strangers is the Franciscan, or Court church, an edifice containing numerous fine works of art. Among others, is the tomb dedicated to the emperor Maximilian*, a splendid monument: it is ornamented with 24 bas-reliefs, representing the principal actions of his life, and is surrounded by 24 colossal bronze statues of persons connected with his reign, viz. Theodor, Charles, Arthur, Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, Godfrey of Bouillon, Rodolph of Habsburg, and many of the emperors of Austria, his descendants, &c. Here, also, is the mausoleum of the archduke Ferdinand of the Tyrol, and his wife, also adorned with bas-reliefs; the grave of Hofer; his statue in white marble, &c. There are numerous other churches, several of which are worth notice. The palace, an extensive building, has gardens extending along the Inn, which form a public promenade. In front of the Old Palace, the former residence of the archbishops of the Tyrol, and of some of the German emperors, is the "Golden Roof," a kind of oriel window, covered with a roof of gilt copper, and one of the curiosities of the place: this edifice is now used for the chancery-chamber (*Kanzleihaude*). Innsbruck has a university of the 2d order, in which instruction is entirely gratuitous. It occupies an extensive and fine edifice, and has 26 professors, and exhibitions to the amount of 12,000 fs. yearly. It is attended by above 400 students, and has attached to it a valuable library, botanical garden, normal school, &c. The *Ferdinaneum*, founded in 1823 upon the model of the *Johanneum* of Grätz, is a museum devoted to the productions of the Tyrol in both art and natural history, and contains some interesting collections, particularly in the dep. of mineralogy. The seminary for noble ladies, founded by Maria Theresa in 1771, the gymnasium, ancient Jesuit's college, and various convents, provincial house of correction, council chamber, town-hall, theatre, and a handsome ball-room, are the other chief public buildings; a statue of Joseph II., and a triumphal arch raised by Maria Theresa, are among the most conspicuous ornaments of the city. Innsbruck is the seat of the state assembly, high judicial court, and other superior departments of the public service for the Tyrol and Vorarlberg; it has manufactures of silk, woollen, and cotton fabrics, leather, glass, and steel goods, and sealing-wax; and is the seat of a considerable trade between Italy and the other countries N. of the Alps. (*Oesterr. Nat. Encycl.*; *Bergman's Tourbillon's Austria*, &c.)

INVERARY, a royal and parl. bor. and sea-port of Scotland, co. Argyre, of which it is the cap., on a bay on the W. shore, and near the bottom of the arm of the sea called Loch Fyne, 40 m. N.W. Glasgow. Pop. in 1841, 1,233. Inverary consists principally of two rows of houses, one of them fronting the bay, the other at right angles with it, running inward, and having a northern exposure. The houses, built on a uniform plan, are large and commodious; and the town is one of the neatest and cleanest, and its situation the most pic-

turesque, in Scotland. The public buildings are the par. church (in which public worship is alternately performed in Gaelic and English), and a handsome edifice by the water side, containing the court-house and other offices. In the immediate vicinity of the town, on the N., is Inverary castle, the chief residence of the ducal family of Argyre. It was built after a design by Adams, in 1749; but it is hardly worthy of the situation or of the family. It is an embattled structure, of two stories, and a sunk floor, flanked with round overtopping towers, and surmounted with a square-winged pavilion. There is in the saloon a curious collection of old Highland arms, including some of those used by the Campbells in the battle of Culloden.

The family of Argyre was, for a lengthened period, one of the most illustrious in the annals of Scotland. Its chiefs were especially distinguished by their devotion to and support of the great principles of civil and religious freedom. Among other members of the family may be specified the Marquis of Argyre, beheaded in 1661; and his son and successor, who also fell a victim to arbitrary and unconstitutional power in 1685; Wodrow, and after him Mr. Fox, in his Historical Fragment, have given singularly interesting accounts of the circumstances attending the trial and execution of the last-mentioned nobleman. The grandson of the first and the son of the last of these noble martyrs, created duke of Argyre and Greenwich, and commonly called the great Duke of Argyre, was celebrated both as a statesman and general. He was commander-in-chief in Scotland, in 1715, and by his conduct on that and other occasions, was of signal service to the revolutionary establishment. Pope said of his Grace, —

"Argyle, the state's whole thunder born to wield,
And shake alike the senate and the field."

The staple commodity of Inverary is herrings, those of Loch Fyne being celebrated for their superior excellence; but the fishing in the Loch has latterly declined: in 1847 the quantity cured and packed in Inverary amounted to 7,857 barrels.

Inverary was erected into a bor. of barony in 1648. In a garden beside the church is a small obelisk, commemorative of the execution in this place, in 1685, of several gentlemen of the name of Campbell, on account of their adherence to presbyterianism. This bor. unites with Campbellton, Oban, and Irvine, in sending a mem. to the H. of C.; and in 1849-50 had 39 reg. voters. Edmund Stowe, a self-taught mathematician, editor of *Euclid's Elements*, and author of a *Treatise on Fluxions*, and other works, was a native of Inverary. (*Bound. Rep.*; *Wodrow's Hist. of Church of Scotland*, *passim*.)

INVERKEITHING, a royal and parl. bor., par., and sea-port of Scotland, co. Fife, beautifully situated on rising ground on a bay on the N. bank of the Frith of Forth, 10 m. W. N.W. Edinburgh. Pop. of town (1841) 1,827. The town consists of a main street, and a smaller one branching off it, besides several wynds or lanes. Many of the houses are extremely old, and an air of antiquity generally marks the place. The only public buildings are the par. church, a dissenting chapel, the bor. school, and the town-house. About 10 in every 100 of the inhab. are, at an average, at school; a larger proportion than generally obtains elsewhere. There are 3 libraries in the bor. The par. abounds with coal, most of which is exported from St. David's, on Inverkeithing bay. There belonged to the bor. in 1843, 26 registered vessels of the aggregate burden of 1,356 tons, employed chiefly in the coasting trade. A considerable number of English and foreign vessels resort to Inverkeithing for coal, bringing in exchange bark, timber, and bones for manure. There are in the immediate vicinity of the town, a distillery, tan-work, ship-building yard, a magnetia manufactory, and a brick work.

Inverkeithing was created a royal bor. by William the Lion in the 12th century. Its privileges included right of customs over a considerable district of country lying on the Frith of Forth; but these have fallen into disuse, with the exception of the duties at the markets held at Kinross and Tulliebole, and the customs at North Queensferry. Even Edinburgh, at one time, paid an acknowledgment of superiority for some parts of the Calton Hill, but it was bought up, or relinquished. In the ridings of the Scottish parliament, the provost of Inverkeithing was entitled to precedence next to the provost of Edinburgh. Before the convention of royal burghs was appointed to be held at Edinburgh, Inverkeithing was the place of its meeting. This bor. unites with 8. Queensferry, Dunfermline, Culross, and Stirling, in sending a mem. to the H. of C., and in 1848-9, had 45 registered voters. (*Bound. Rep.*; *New Stat. Acc. of Scot.*; *Fife*, p. 250.; *Beauties of Scotland*, iv. 119.)

INVERLEITHEN, a par. and village of Scotland famous for its mineral well, co. Peebles, 22 m. S. by E. Edinburgh, and 5 m. E. of S. Peebles. It is situated

* Maximilian, who himself commenced this mausoleum, was after all not buried in it, but at Wiesentz nearstadt, in Austria.

In a romantic pastoral country, within 4 m. of the N. bank of the Tweed, and on both sides the Leithen, a tributary of that river. Pop. of the village, 463; not including summer visitors, the aggregate number of whom, in the season, may be about 1400. (*New Stat. Acc. of Scot., 3 Peebleshire, p. 31.*) The mineral water has been analysed, and found to contain, per quart bottle, carbonate of magnesia, 10.3 grains; muriate of lime, 19.4; and muriate of soda, 31. (*ib.* 26.) The popularity of Inverleithen, as a watering-place, was greatly enhanced by the publication (in 1834) of Scott's novel, entitled "St. Ronan's Well," of which it was supposed to be the prototype. A yearly festival has been since instituted. Inverleithen, for the celebration of "the St. Ronan's Border Games;" and the name of almost every street, or separate edifice, in the village, such as "Abbotsford Place," "Waverley Row," "Marion Hotel," &c., refers to the illustrious novelist. Traquair-house, the seat of the noble family of that name, is in the immediate vicinity of Inverleithen. The first Earl of Traquair, Lord Treasurer of Scotland in the time of Charles I., was one of the most eminent statesmen of his day. Dr. Russell, author of the *History of Modern Europe*, was born near the village, and was educated in it. The woollen manufacture has been introduced into Inverleithen. (*Craufurd's Officers of State, p. 406; Factory Returns, 1839.*)

INVERNESS, a marit. co. of Scotland, and the most extensive in that part of the U. Kingdom: it stretches quite across the island from the E. to the W. sea, having N. the Moray Frith and Ross-shire, W. the Atlantic Ocean, S. Argyle and Perth, and E. Aberdeen, Banff, Moray, and Nairne. But it includes, exclusive of the mainland, the large island of Skye, with the smaller islands of Harris, and S. Uist, Benbecula, &c. Area, 3716,800 acres, of which 1943,990 belong to the mainland, and 772,760 to the islands; the former having 84,460, and the latter 377,670 acres of water. Inverness-shire is, speaking generally, wild, mountainous, and rugged. It is supposed that there is not more than 24 per cent. of its surface not naturally covered with heath. Ben Nevis, which, next to Ben Macduin, is the highest mountain in Great Britain, being 4370 ft. above the level of the sea, is situated near Fort William, in this co. Meafourouny, on the N. side of Loch Ness, is 2,780 ft. above the sea. The arable land, which is of very limited extent, is principally comprised in the low districts contiguous to the town of Inverness, in Strathapey (the low country on both sides the Spey), and in narrow gleus along the other rivers and lakes. Climate very various; but generally it may be said to be wet and stormy on the W. coast, severe in the interior, and comparatively mild and dry on the shore of the Moray Frith. Principal rivers, Spey, Ness, and Beaully; all which, but especially the first, are valuable salmon fisheries. The arable land of this co. was formerly divided into small patches, having usually a greater or less extent of hill pasture attached to them, and occupied by tenants at will. The latter lived in miserable huts; and were at once excessively poor, idle, and disorderly. But the abolition of hereditary jurisdictions and clanship in 1748, and the carrying of good military and other roads into districts that were formerly quite impervious, by enabling the law to be every where brought into full operation, have completely repressed the feuds and disorders that formerly disgraced this and other Highland cos. The small holdings have also been very generally consolidated into sheep-farms, some of which are very extensive, and which are mostly stocked with cheviots. Arable farming has, also, been very much improved; and, in consequence, there has been a very great increase in the quantity of disposable produce, and in the rent and value of the land. Good wheat is raised round the Moray Frith; but oats is the principal crop. The stock of black cattle is very large; and cattle, sheep, and wool constitute the principal articles of export. In some districts there are extensive forests. There are no manufactures of any importance, nor any considerable town, except Inverness. Illicit distillation, that was once very prevalent, is now all but suppressed. Limestone, slate, and marble abound in most places; but the want of coal renders the limestone of little value. Average rent of land, including islands, in 1843, 1s. 2s. 4d. per acre. Gaelic is the common language; and in the W. parts of the co., and some of the islands, it is the only one that is generally understood. Owing to the thinness of the pop., the co. is but ill supplied with schools, though in this respect, as in others, it is very much improved.

This co. is divided into two nearly equal portions, by a remarkable glen or valley, stretching N.E. and S.W. from the town of Inverness to Loch Linnhe, opposite the island of Mull, on the W. coast. This glen, which is very narrow, consists principally of a chain of lakes, comprising Loch Ness, Loch Oich, and Loch Lochy. Its surface being now more than 84 ft. above the level of the sea, advantage was taken of this circumstance, and of the continuous chain of lakes, to open a navigable

communication between the E. and W. seas, avoiding, consequently, the lengthened and dangerous navigation by the Pentland Frith. The entire length of this navigation, or of the Caledonian Canal, inclusive of the lakes, is rather more than 60 m.; but the excavated part is little more than 33 m. It cost about 1,000,000*l.*, and is on a larger scale than any work of a similar class in any other part of the empire. It promises, however, to be a very unproductive undertaking; and but for the invention of steam-boats, which were unknown when it was commenced, it would have been nearly useless.

Inverness co. has 35 parishes: it sends 1 mem. to the H. of C. for the co.; and the bor. of Inverness joins with Fortrose, Nairne, and Forres in sending a mem. Registered electors for the co. in 1849-50, 883. Inverness-shire had 19,194 inhab. houses, and 79,799 inhab., of whom 45,538 were males, and 52,261 females. Valued rents 73,184*l.* Scotch. Annual value of real property in 1843, 182,064*l.*

INVERNESS, the cap. of the above co., and of the Northern Highlands, a royal and parl. bor., and sea-port of Scotland, on both sides the Ness, within a mile of its influx into the Moray Frith, and at the N.E. extremity of the town of Glen of Scotland, forming the line of the Caledonian Canal, 113 m. N.W. by N. Edinburgh, and 81 m. N. by W. Aberdeen. The situation of Inverness is peculiarly striking and picturesque, standing, as it does, in the middle of a beautiful plain, of unequal extent in different directions, with the Moray Frith on one side, and the back ground, consisting of variously shaped hills, some of which are richly wooded, while others are bleak and rugged. It is the boast of Inverness to unite two opposed qualities, and each in the greatest perfection; the characters of a rich open lowland country, with those of the wildest alpine scenery; both also being close at hand, and in many places intermixed; while to this is added a series of maritime landscape not often equalled." (*M'Culloch's Letters on the Highlands, vol. I. p. 56.*) The Ness, on whose banks the borough stands, is perhaps the shortest river in Scotland, flowing between Loch Ness and the Moray Frith, a distance of only 8 m. Pop., in 1841, 11,569; of the town and par., in 1801, 8,783; in 1841, 15,418; inhab. houses, 3,064.

The most important portion of the town is on the right bank of the Ness. A handsome stone bridge of 7 arches was erected across the river in 1688; there is also a wooden bridge, built in 1808, at an expense of 4,000*l.* The principal streets lie E. or N., and consist generally of more elegant and substantial buildings than are to be found in any other town of the same size in Scotland. The streets, which are lighted with gas, are causewayed and flagged. The inhab. are supplied with water by pipes from the river. The shops, which supply the demand of an extensive district of country, are, in many instances, large and well stocked with goods. The villas in the suburbs are numerous and elegant, and the walks varied and commodious. The public buildings are the Exchange and Town-house, near the centre of the town; the Gaol, surmounted by a tower 130 ft. high; the Assembly Rooms of the Northern Meeting; Infirmary, Academy, the United Charity Institutions; which last edifice occupies an elevated situation in the vicinity of the town. With regard to ecclesiastical buildings, the High Church is the most conspicuous; the square tower attached to it was built by Oliver Cromwell, and the bell brought from the cathedral of Fortrose, on the N. banks of the Moray Frith. There are other two parish churches, in one of which Gaelic alone is used; and two chapels of ease. There are, also, free churches, dissenting chapels, belonging respectively to the Episcopalians, the United Associate Synod, the Independents, Baptists, Methodists, and Rom. Catholics.

Gaelic was formerly the only language spoken in Inverness and its neighbourhood, and it is at this moment the ordinary speech of the lower order of all whom, however, understand and can speak English. It is admitted that the English language is spoken in greater purity by the middle and upper ranks in Inverness than in any other place in Scotland; a distinction which is said, whether correctly or not, to have originated in the circumstance of Cromwell having stationed and long maintained an English garrison in the town. "The soldiers seem to have incorporated afterwards with the inhab., and to have peopled the place with an English race; for the language of the town has been long considered as peculiarly elegant." (*Johnson's Tour to the Hebrides.*) The Highland character, however, still predominates very considerably in the borough. In addition to the Gaelic language, the speech of the common people, their dress is more or less of Celtic fashion, and of home manufacture, such as the short coat, blue bonnet, plaid rig and fur stockings, all of the coarsest materials. The married women usually walk the streets and go to church without a bonnet; the maidens without either cap or bonnet; while the other parts of their dress are of the most simple and homely description.

Inverness enjoys eminent advantages as to education.

The Academy, founded by subscriptions raised in the bor. and elsewhere, is a chartered institution, and one of the most efficient seminaries in Scotland. The old grammar-school, with its endowment, has merged into it. It is provided with a rector, and from 4 to 6 other teachers in the different departments of liberal study. There are various other excellent schools, some of which are endowed, including a Free-Church model institution. Raining's Charity School, attended by about 250 scholars, is a useful institution. An Infant School, which has been in operation for several years, is admirably conducted. The late Dr. Bell, of Madras, left 10,000*l.* 3 per cent. consols to the magistrates, for the purposes of education. The number of female schools is very considerable; the better ranks in the northern counties generally sending their daughters hither to complete their education. Inverness has, besides, a mechanics' institute; various libraries, both subscription and circulating; two public reading-rooms, several printing presses, and two weekly newspapers. (*New St. Acc. of Scot., i. Inverness; Educ. Inquiry, Scot.; Part. Paper, 1837, No. 1.*)

The infirmary and the dispensary are the most important of the charitable institutions of the town. On the 30th September, 1849, the principal of the various funds bequeathed for educational and charitable purposes, under the management of the town council of the bor., amounted to 40,039*l.* 8*s.* 9*d.* The assessment for the relief of the poor, in 1847, amounted to 2,174*l.* 14*s.* 10*d.*, and the paupers relieved to 777.

Manufactures, in the proper sense of the term, may be said not to exist here, if we except those of linen, plaidings, and woollen stuffs, and a small hemp manufactory, principally for the making of bagging. Ship-building is carried on to some extent. There are breweries, distilleries, and tan-works. With regard to trade, Inverness is the centre of a custom-house district, which embraced, in 1850, 10,857 tons of shipping, and 233 registered vessels; the port of Inverness possessing about half the vessels, and 2-3*ds* of the tonnage. Customs revenue, in 1848, 6,852*l.* The town has regular trade, both steamers and sailing vessels, to Aberdeen, Leith, London, &c. on the E. coast; she has a similar communication, by means of the Caledonian Canal, with Glasgow, Liverpool, &c., on the W. coast; and also with Ireland. The canal passes within less than a mile of the bor.; and Clachnaharry (pop. 300), where it joins the Moray Frith, is not more than a mile distant. There are three harbours, one of them for small craft, near the town, the others at the mouth of the river; while the canal wharfs at Clachnaharry are also used for the loading and unloading of goods. Grain, at least oatmeal, used to be imported to Inverness; but oats are now largely exported. Coal, almost the only kind of fuel used, is imported both from England and the Frith of Forth. The imports consist generally of the various articles which the demand of a large district of country requires. The Caledonian Banking Company has its head-office in the town; and here, also, are branches of the Bank of Scotland, the B. Linn Co., and other great banks. The savings' bank had, on the 20th Nov., 1848, 12,530*l.* deposits. Inverness has several fairs; but the principal is the month of July, attended by all the principal Highland sheep farmers, as well as by wool staplers and agents from England and the S. of Scotland, is the most eminent. Fully 100,000 stones of wool are annually sold at this market; while above the same number of sheep are also disposed of. The prices paid at this fair generally regulate those of all the other markets in the country.

Inverness is very ancient. In the 6th century it was the capital of the Pictish kingdom, when St. Columba of Iona went thither, *ad odium Nere,* with the view of converting the Pictish king to Christianity. An ancient castle stood on a rising ground S. of the town; but it was destroyed in the 11th century by Malcolm III., who built another on a commanding eminence near the river, which continued to be a royal fortress, till blown up, in 1746, by the troops of the Pretender. Inverness was erected into a royal bor. by David I.; and various royal charters, confirming or extending its privileges, were subsequently conferred on it. The town was often an object of plunder to the lords of the Isles and other Highland chiefs. A monastery, belonging to the Black Friars, existed in this place; but all traces of it have long since disappeared. The citadel referred to above, as constructed by Cromwell, was built in 1652-57, N. of the town, near the mouth of the river. Part of its ruins are still standing. Culoden Moor, the scene of the battle that decided the fate of the Pretender, Charles Stuart, is within 3 m. of the town. Since 1745, great improvements have been effected here. Previously to 1758, the post from Edinburgh to Inverness was conveyed by a man on foot! In 1740, the magistrates advertised for a saddler to settle in the bor.; and in 1778 a cart, purchased by subscription, was first seen in the bor. No plan of regularly cleaning the streets was adopted till about the beginning of the present century.

Inverness is now, however, superior perhaps to any town of its size in Scotland as to all the necessities, comforts, and luxuries of life. Corp. revenue, 1848-49, 1,707*l.* 13*s.* 7*d.* This bor. unites with Forres, Fortrose, and Nairne in sending a mem. to the H. of C. Registered voters, in 1849-50, 477. (*Anderson's Highlands and Islands; Caledonia*, vol. i.; and the works already referred to.)

INVERURY, a royal and parl. bor. and par. of Scotland, co. Aberdeen, in the angle formed by the confluence of the Don and Ury, 14 m. N.W. Aberdeen. Pop. of town (1841) 1679; of town and par. 2020. The inhab. are chiefly agriculturists, there being only about 36 weavers in the par. The Aberdeenshire Canal, begun in 1796, and completed in 1807, commences in the tide-way of the harbour of Aberdeen, and terminates at Port Elphinstone, near Inverury. The entire length is 18½ m.; the surface width is 23 ft.; the depth 2½ ft.: it has 17 locks; and its highest level is 168 ft. above low water-mark. Keith Hall, the seat of the Earl of Kintore, who also holds the title of Lord Inverury, is in the immediate vicinity of the bor. Arthur Johnston, editor of the *Dee-side Post*, *Forresman*, *Scottoman*, and who holds the next place to Buchanan among the Latin poets of Scotland, was born in the neighbourhood of Inverury in 1587. This bor. unites with Elgin, Banff, Cullen, Kintore, and Peterhead, in sending a mem. to the H. of C. Registered voters in 1849-50, 115. (*Boundary Reports; Beauties of Scotland*, iv. 420.)

IONA. (*See Highlands.*)

IONIAN ISLANDS, a collection of 7 principal and many smaller islands on the W. and S. coasts of Greece, lying between the 36th and 40th parallels of N. lat., and between the 19th and 23 deg. of E. long., forming a republic under the protection of Great Britain. The principal islands, with their area, population, &c., are as follows:—

Islands.	Area in sq. m.	Total Pop. in 1836.		Altitude, &c.	Pop. to sq. m.
		Males.	Females.		
Cephalonia	227	25,221	29,536	9,806	257
Zante	344	34,864	28,333	9,36	192
Zante	136	19,675	15,673	1,137	86
Santa Maura	120	8,087	4,998	190	85
Ithaca	44	4,912	4,792	108	219
Ceigo	116	4,156	4,551	37	75
Paxos	26	2,561	2,505	283	195
Total	1,007	110,516	93,746	12,437	186

204,266

These islands, a more minute description of which will be found under their several heads, have, generally speaking, rugged irregular coasts, and a very uneven surface; barren rocks and heath-covered hills forming nearly half their whole contents. Their geological formation is chiefly limestone, disposed in highly inclined strata, intermixed with grey bluish gypsium, and masses of sandstone; and there are few organic remains. The climate is mild, but subject to sudden changes. The *sirocco*, however, makes the heat occasionally oppressive, and the thermometer in summer frequently rises to 32° Réaumur. Hurricanes called here (*borascas*) and earthquakes are frequent, especially in Zante. There fell, in 1838, 49.04 inches rain. Fine springs of fresh water are abundant on most of the islands. The soil is more favourable to grape cultivation than to the raising of corn; and hence more than ¾ of the surface available for tillage is laid out in currant-grounds, vineyards, and olive plantations, which are all managed with considerable skill. The land is chiefly in the hands of small proprietors, who let it out to tenants on the *metayer* system, receiving half the produce as rent.

The following table has been said to exhibit the employment of the surface, the nature and quantity of the produce, and the average market prices of the different articles in 1836. (*Op. Tables.*)

Kind of Produce.	Acres.	Amount of Produce.	Average Price.
Wheat	16,187	76,396 bush.*	3 11
Indian corn, bar.			3 11 per bush.
Oats	37,437	185,680	2 4
Pulse	5,498	24,918	1 8
Barley	4,330	35,378	2 4
Olive oil	219,359	115,219 barr.	45 3 per barr.
Wine	119,158	210,147	
Currents	15,740	17,900	11 4
Cotton	1,014	37,567	0 9
Flax	1,310	74,933	0 2½
Total of land in crop	480,151		
Pasture land	44,980		
Total of available land	465,111		

* This should certainly be quarters; if not, the crop was worth little more than the seed.

IONIAN ISLANDS.

The live stock on the islands, in 1836, consisted of 14,189 horses, 10,866 horned cattle, 95,960 sheep, and 68,826 goats, a number far too small to meet the demands of the pop.: and hence, large quantities are annually imported from Albania and Greece. The manufactures are not important. Soap is made at Corfu and Zante, and the value of the quantity exported, in 1836, is officially estimated at 12,000*l*. earthenware, silk shawls, goat-hair carpets, coarse blankets, linen cloths, and sackings are also made to some extent. The islands, however, enjoy a considerable share of the commerce of the Mediterranean, owing to their convenient situation for the supply of the neighbouring continent. They import wheat and other grain; chiefly from Odessa, silk, cotton, and woollen fabrics, cured fish, British hardware, and colonial produce, the total value of which amounted, in 1839, to 342,326*l*.: and in the same year, they exported island produce and manufactures (woven fabrics) to the amount of 669,588*l*. The commerce of the islands is cramped by the high duties laid on exported articles. Their commercial relations will be best understood by the subjoined account of the entries and clearances of shipping in 1838.

Countries.	Inwards.	Outwards.
Ionian islands	123,290 tons	134,667 tons
English	32,154 —	30,860 —
Austrian	25,079 —	27,419 —
Russian	15,548 —	11,594 —
French	—	104 —
Neapolitan	5,600 —	5,158 —
Papal states	1,105 —	1,898 —
Sardinian	8,924 —	8,924 —
Greek	44,169 —	46,544 —
Turkish	3,333 —	5,647 —
All others	1,816 —	2,106 —
Total	329,542 —	275,001 —

These islands possess few manufactures properly so termed. The wives of the villan or peasant spin and weave a coarse kind of woollen cloth, sufficient in great part for the use of their families. A little soap is made at Corfu and Zante. The latter manufactures a considerable quantity of silk *gras-de-Naples* and handkerchiefs; the art of dyeing, however, is too little studied, and the establishments are on too small a scale. The peasantry, in general, are lazy, vain, delighting in display, and very superstitious. Those of Zante and Cephalonia are more industrious than the Corfiotes; in the first, particularly, their superior condition is probably to be ascribed, in part at least, to the fact that the nobles reside on their estates, and contribute by their example to stimulate industry. In Corfu, the taste for the city life, which prevailed in the time of the Venetian government, still operates to a great degree. The Corfiote proprietor resides but little in his villa; his land is neglected, while he continues in the practice of his forefathers, who preferred watching opportunities at the seat of a corrupt government, to improving their fortunes by the more legitimate means of honorable exertion and attention to their patrimony. In this respect, however, a material change for the better has taken place within the last thirty years.

The government of these islands, since 1817, has been vested in the high commissioner (who represents the sovereign of Great Britain), the senate, and the legislative assembly, which have jointly the title of the "parliament of the Ionian Islands." The legislative assembly consists of 40 mems., 29 of whom are elected by the syncretis, or nobles of the different islands, Corfu, Cephalonia, and Zante returning 7 each, Santa Maura 4, and the three smaller islands sending 4 among them; the other 11 are styled *integro*, being officers appointed by the high commissioner. This assembly elects its own officers, fixes the amount of the supplies, and has the power of originating new laws. The senate, consisting of 5 mems., is elected by the legislative assembly out of their own number; but the president is nominated by the commissioner, who likewise confirms the election of the rest. This body is legislative, so far that it has a veto on the proceedings of the assembly; but its chief business is to regulate affairs during the recess of the legislative body, to decide on matters submitted to it by the commissioner, and to nominate the officers under the general government, subject to the approbation of the commissioner. The assembly and senate are elected for five years; but may be dissolved at an earlier period, either by the sovereign or his representative, with whom ultimately rests the confirmation, or veto, of every measure, appointment, or proceeding of the general or local government. The separate islands, likewise, have each a council of 5 mems., selected out of a list of 10, furnished by the *syncretis*, besides whom 5 other active functionaries are nominated by the senate to act as an executive body. The judicial power is lodged in a supreme court at Corfu, comprising 4 ordinary and 2 extraordinary mems., the latter being the commissioner and the president of the senate: of the former, two are

native Ionians, nominated by the senate, and two are appointed by the commissioner, who may be either Ionians or British subjects. The ordinary mems. decide common causes, and, in case of difference of opinion, appeal to the extraordinary mems. Subordinate to this court are four tribunals on each island, making 21 in the whole, and under these again are justice-of-peace courts for minor offences and small civil suits; but the senate and high commissioner may reverse every decision whatever, if they think proper. The *santia*, or health-establishment, the police, and the army, are under the sole direction of the high commissioner. The public press is, likewise, under the immediate control of the commissioner and senate. The religious establishment consists of an archbishop and bishops, with the vicars or curates of the Greek church, which is the dominant sect. Full liberty, however, is given to the adherents of the Rom. Catholic, Protestant, and other creeds.

The revenues of the Ionian islands are principally derived from export duties on oil and currants of 194 per cent., on wine of 6 per cent., and on soap of 8 per cent. *ad valorem*. The duties on imported merchandise are regulated by a tariff, and all articles not specifically included in it pay an *ad valorem* duty of 7 and 8 per cent. There are no direct taxes. The following is an official statement of the revenue and expenditure in these islands during 1837. —

Revenue.	Expenditure.
Customs	General government
Transit duty	Local do. on the sepa-
Duty on oil	rate islands
Duty on currants	Contingencies of police
Do. wine and spirits	and courts of justice
Do. tobacco	Education
Do. cattle	Rents of public offices
Stamp duties	Public works, roads, &c.
Port dues	Public buildings and
Monopoly of salt and	salines
gunpowder	Hospitals and other com-
Rent of public buildings	tingencies
Rates for roads, &c.	Collection of revenue
Sanita and post-office	Packet service
surplus	Military protection
Miscellaneous	
147,507	199,911

Owing to the want of an efficient police, and to the gross corruption of the Venetian government, under which impunity might be secured for the foulest crimes, the state of society in the Ionian islands, when they were placed under the eagle of England, was as bad as can be imagined. The inhabitants were at once lazy, ignorant, superstitious, cowardly, vindictive and blood-thirsty. Perjury was so common, as hardly to excite attention, and assassination was more frequent than in any other country, Corsica not excepted. But under the vigorous and equal government of Great Britain, a great change for the better has been effected; assassination is now comparatively rare, and the inhabitants are beginning to appreciate the advantages of honesty, fair-dealing, and industry.

Education in these islands has been progressively improving since the efforts of the Earl of Guildford first gave the impulse to the government and inhab. At Corfu there is a university supported by the government, in which instruction is furnished by competent professors in classical and scientific subjects; and the same town contains an ecclesiastical seminary for young men intending to enter the priesthood of the Greek church. Each of the islands has a "secondary" school for instruction in the Greek, Italian, and English languages, writing, arithmetic, &c. and in the chief town of each island there is a central school for teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic. District schools are established in many parts of all the islands. The whole educational establishment is under the direction of a commission of public instruction, and the Ionian government makes large annual grants for building school-rooms, providing books, slates, &c.

The only coins properly belonging to the Ionian islands, are a silver *ad*, piece and a copper cent; but these mostly in circulation are Spanish doubloons and dollars, and Venetian dollars, received in payment for the produce exported to Spain and Italy. British silver coins are also occasionally met with. The chief standard of weight is the imperial Troy pound of 5,760 grains: 24 of these grains make a *calco*; 20 *calco* make an ounce, and 12 ounces compose a *libbra sottile*. The *libbra grossa* is equivalent to the pound avoirdupois, and 100 of these pounds make a *talento*. The English yard is the standard linear measure: 5½ yards make a *cemicio*, 220 yards a *stadia*, and 1,760 yards a mile. The gallon (equivalent to the English gallon) contains 8 *dicotoli*.

The Ionian islands are frequently mentioned in the ancient history of Greece, but only as detached governments, and not under their collective form. After having repeatedly changed masters during the middle ages they at length became the possession of the Ve-

ventions early in the 13th century. They were thenceforward governed by an Italian proconsul; the Italian language was generally introduced into public acts and among the nobles; and Corfu was made the chief arsenal and port of the Venetian navy. In this state the islands continued till 1797, when they were seized by the French, who were confirmed in their possession by the treaty of Campo Formio. Two years afterwards they were taken by the Russians and Turks, and declared an independent republic, under their joint protection. The treaty of Tilsit, in 1807, restored them once more to the French, who retained them till 1814, when they were yielded to the English. By the arrangements of the Congress of Vienna they were constituted a republic, and placed under the protection of Great Britain. The constitutional code was drawn up and ratified by the British government in July, 1817. (*Tables of Rev. & Pop. Suppl.*, p. vii.; *Part. Rep.* 1817-26; *Priv. Off. Rep.*; *Turner's Levant*, i. 99-106; and *Burgess's Levant*, vol. i.)

IPSAMBOUL. (See NUBIA.)

IPSWICH, a pari, and mun. bor., river-port, and town of England, cap. co. Suffolk, on the Orwell, 40 m. S. Norwich, and 63 m. N.E. London; lat. 52° 4' N., long. 1° 5' E. Area of pari. bor., which includes 12 entire pari. and parts of 6 others, 7,090 acres. Pop., in 1841, 26,354. The town occupies the foot of a range of hills gradually sloping to the river, which is navigable up to this point by vessels of 200 tons, and is crossed by a handsome iron bridge. The streets are irregularly built, and for the most part narrow; but some of them, which are new or have been recently widened, consist of neat and substantial buildings. On the whole, although containing a great many old-fashioned houses, the town presents a flourishing appearance, and is not only improving, but rapidly extending. It is lighted, chiefly with gas, and the streets are either paved or macadamised. (*Mun. Board. Rep.*) There are 13 pari. churches, none very remarkable for architectural beauty, and several places of worship for dissenters. The other public buildings are, the town-hall; the shire-hall; the custom-house, a respectable brick structure on the quay; a commodious market-house, erected in 1811; the corn exchange; the co. gaol, said to be very well regulated; the bor. gaol; and the town library, kept, as well as the grammar-school, in an old building once a monastery of Black Friars. The grammar-school, which was intended by its founder, Cardinal Wolsey, to form part of a college preparatory to Christ-church, Oxford, was chartered by Queen Elizabeth in 1564. The master receives, for the instruction of 50 free boys (some of freemen), a salary of 150*l.* a year, and a dwelling-house, and he is allowed to take boarders. A charity-school, for maintaining, clothing, and educating 16 poor children, two national schools, and a Lancastrian school, furnish instruction to a great many children; and Sunday schools are attached to most of the churches and all the chapels. An institution for the support of widows and orphans of poor seamen was established in 1704, and there are several almshouses. Two weekly papers are published in the town.

Ipswich formerly enjoyed a considerable share in the woollen and coarse linen trade; but manufacturing is now all but extinct, the trade in this district having been nearly annihilated by the cheaper goods made in the North. The town has no spinning factories; but small quantities of yarn are spun for the Norwich weavers. The present industrial establishments comprise two extensive iron foundries, a snuff-mill, a soap-works which produced, in 1848, 691,430 lbs. hard soap, breweries, and two ship-building yards, with accommodations for constructing merchantmen of the largest size. The principal business of the town consists in the corn and coal trade; large quantities of meal, flour, and malt, being exported to London; while coals are extensively imported, being supplied by the Stowmarket Canal to the W. parts of the co. A general foreign trade of some importance, especially in Norway timber, is carried on. In 1850 there belonged to the port 180 vessels, of 14,737 tons burden, and the gross customs' duties, in 1846, amounted to 37,013*l.* A communication with London is carried on by means of steam-packets; but the principal intercourse with the metropolis, and all parts of the kingdom, is now carried on by means of the Eastern Counties Railway. (*Handloom Weavers' and Municipal Board. Reports*; *Tables of Rev. & Pop.*, &c.)

The corporation, the first charter of which was granted by King John, and confirmed by subsequent monarchs, appears to have been, previously to the passing of the Municipal Reform Act, one of the worst regulated and most corrupt in the kingdom, "every power intrusted to it, its property, its patronage, and its charities, having been used for election purposes." (*Mun. Report*.) The present municipal officers are, 10 aldermen, one of whom is mayor, and 30 councillors; the bor. being divided into 5 wards, and having a commission of the peace, under a recorder. Corporation revenue in 1847-48, 5,585*l.* A county court is established here, before which 1,752 suits

were entered in 1848. Ipswich has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the reign of Edward I., the franchise, till the passing of the Reform Act, being vested in freemen (by birth, servitude, gift, or purchase) not receiving alms. The boundaries of the old bor. have not been changed. Registered electors, in 1848-50, 1,781.

The ancient name of the town was *Gippenswich*, derived from its proximity to the confluence of the Gipping (now converted into a canal) with the Orwell. Its antiquity is proved by its destruction, in 991, by the Danes. In the reign of Edward the Confessor it comprised 800 burgesses. William the Conqueror erected a castle for its protection. Its ancient corporate privileges included admiralty jurisdiction over the river and port of Harwich, which was long subordinate to Ipswich, and an exemption from serving on co. juries or holding co. offices. During the 13th and 14th centuries, this town seems to have been a favourite resort of monks and clergymen, there being at that period not fewer than 21 churches and 6 religious houses. (*Kirby's Suffolk Traveller*; *Acc. of Ipswich*; *Mun. Board. Rep.*; *Mun. Corp. Rep.*)

IRELAND, a large and important island of Europe, in the N. Atlantic Ocean. It is situated to the W. of Great Britain, being separated from the latter by St. George's Channel on the S., the Irish Sea in the middle, and the N. Channel on the N.: the distance from St. David's Head, in S. Wales, across St. George's Channel, to Carnsore Point, in Ireland, is about 47 m.; the distance from Holyhead, in N. Wales, across the S. border of the Irish Sea to Dublin, about 55 m.; and the distance from the Mull of Cantire, across the N. channel to the opposite coast of Ireland, about 134 m. And besides its proximity to England, Ireland has been long politically connected with that part of the empire; and since 1800, when its separate legislature was merged in the imperial parliament, it has formed a principal portion of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

Ireland was called by Aristotle and Strabo *Ierne* (*Iern*), by Cæsar, Tacitus, and Pliny, *Hibernia*, and by Mele and others, *Juerna*; these names being obviously derived from its native or aboriginal name of *Ir*, *Eri*, or *Erin*, whence also the modern name has been deduced. (*Cæsar's Orbis Antiquus*, i. 449.)

Ireland is situated between the parallels of 51° 35' and 55° 23' N. lat., and of 6° and 11° W. long. It is of a rhomboidal figure; and though more compact than Great Britain, is deeply indented, particularly on its S.W. and N. coasts, with bays and arms of the sea. Its greatest length between Mizen Head, in Cork, and Fair Head, in Antrim, is about 301 m.; and its greatest breadth from the W. coast of Mayo to the E. coast of Down, is about 183 m.; but in other places the breadth is much less, and there is no part of Ireland above 50 or 55 m. from the sea. Its area is estimated at 32,512 sq. m., of which 985 sq. m. are water.

Face of the Country.—As contrasted with Scotland, or even the greater part of England, Ireland may be said to be a flat country. Still, however, the surface is in most parts much diversified; and even where it is quite flat, the prospect is generally bounded by hills or mountains in the distance. With the exception of the Devil's-bit and Sliebhloom mountains, which run N. E. and S. W. for about 30 m., intersecting Tipperary, and dividing King's and Queen's Counties, most of the other mountains in Ireland are parcelled out into groups, or form only short chains. The principal group is situated in the S.W. corner of the island, in the cos. Kerry and Cork, adjoining the celebrated lakes of Killarney, Gurrane Tual, in Macgillicuddy's Reeks, in this group, the highest mountain in Ireland, has an elevation of 3,404 ft. above the sea. The Wicklow mountains, in the co. Wicklow, on the E. coast of the island, cover a considerable area; Lugnaquilla, the highest, is about 3,000 ft. above the sea. Some of the glens in this mountain group are celebrated for their beauty. The Mourne mountains in the S. part

of the co. Down, are also of considerable extent ; and some of their peaks attain to an elevation of above 2,700 ft. The mountains of Donegal, and those in the N. parts of Leitrim and Sligo, and in the W. parts of Mayo and Galway, constitute a formidable barrier along the N.W. and the greater part of the W. coast, and serve at once to attract the moisture brought from the Atlantic, and to break the fury of the storms from that quarter. Some of the Irish mountains are rugged and precipitous ; but the greater number are smooth and rounded, admitting of cultivation a considerable way up their sides, and sometimes to their very summits.

The central portion of Ireland consists of a vast tract of level land, broken in some places by a few undulating hills and ranges ; but for a great part of its extent nearly an uninterrupted flat, extending in some parts, as between Dublin and the Bay of Galway, quite from sea to sea. This great level consists partly of rich cultivated land ; but it also comprises a vast extent of bog, partly in Kildare, King's County, and Roscommon, and partly in Meath, Westmeath, and Queen's County. Though not continuous, these bogs differ but little in elevation ; and being in many parts separated only by narrow ridges of dry land, they have received the common appellation of the Bog of Allen. Several rivers have their sources in this bog, the highest part of which may be elevated about 280 ft. above the level of the sea. There are several very extensive levels in other parts of the country ; and some of them, particularly in Tipperary and Limerick, are not inferior in fertility to any land in the empire.

Ireland is very well watered, having to boast of an unusual number of rivers and lakes. At the head of the former is the Shannon, which, as a channel of internal communication, is not inferior, if it be not superior, to any other river in the United Kingdom. Excepting the Shannon and, perhaps, the Erne, there is no river of any consequence flowing westward. The Blackwater, Suir, Nore, and Barrow, all considerable streams ; and the Lee and Bandon, which, though much smaller, have a good deal of commercial importance, pour their waters into the Atlantic on the E. coast ; the Slaney, Liffey, Liffey, &c. discharge themselves into St. George's Channel and the Irish Sea ; and the Bann and Foyle have their mouths on the N. coast. The Shannon, after rising at the base of the Culkeagh mountain, in Ulster, runs through the centre of the island, traversing, or, rather, expanding into the lakes Allen, Rea, Derg, &c. ; and, after nearly insulating the prov. Connaught and co. Clare, falls into the Atlantic, by an estuary of great length and width. This fine river is navigable for 214 m., or throughout its entire course, except about 6 or 7 m. above Lough Allen. (See SHANNON.) The Blackwater or Broadwater is the chief river of Munster ; it rises on the confines of Limerick and Kerry, and soon assumes an E. direction, which it generally preserves till about a dozen m. from its mouth, when it turns suddenly S., and falls into the ocean at Youghal harbour. Its course may be estimated at about 100 m. The tide rises as high as Cappoquin, to which point it is navigable. Malinow, Fermoy, Lismore, and Youghal, are on its banks. The Suir rises in the Sliebhloom mountains, and has generally a S. course till it approaches the Knock-me-le-down range of hills, which separates its basin from that of the Blackwater. It then turns E., and ultimately falls, together with the Barrow, into the estuary termed Waterford harbour. In a commercial point of view, this is one of the most valuable rivers of Ireland. Vessels of 500 tons come up it to Waterford ; besides which city, Carrick, Clonmel, Cahir, &c. are situated on it. The Barrow is decidedly the most important of the Irish rivers, after the Shannon ; it has been elsewhere described (Vol. I. p. 801.). The Nore, its chief tributary, holds its course between the Barrow and the Suir ; it has a general direction S.E., running past Kilkenny, Thomastown, and Inistioge. It is navigable for considerable vessels to the latter place, and for barges to Thomastown. The Slaney, like the two foregoing rivers, has in general a S.E. course ; it rises at the foot of Mount Lugnaquilla, co. Wicklow, and falls into the arm of the sea termed Wexford Haven. Wexford, Enniscorthy, Newtown Barry, Tulloge, &c. are built on it ; it is navigable for barges as far as Enniscorthy. The Lee and the Bandon have both an E. course ; the former, on which Cork is situated, is navigable to that city for vessels of from 150 to 300 tons ; the Bandon has its mouth in Kinsale harbour. The Boyne, celebrated in Irish history, has been elsewhere noticed (Vol. I. p. 425.). The Liffey is remarkable only as the river on which the metropolis is situated. The Upper Bann rises near the Mourne mountains, and runs into Lough Neagh, which receives several other large streams. The outlet of this lake is the Lower Bann, which has a N. course to its mouth, 5 m. below Coleraine, to which point only it is navigable for boats, and that with difficulty, from the rapidity of its current. Its salmon and eel fisheries are highly important and valuable. The Foyle, formed by the confluence of several streams near Strabane, runs generally N.N.E., and discharges itself into Lough Foyle. Stra-

bane, Lifford, St. Johnstone, and Londonderry are on the Foyle, which is navigable to the latter city for the largest class of merchantmen, and to St. Johnstone for barges. The Erne, Arrow, Moy, Kenmare, &c. require no particular notice.

Ireland is more remarkable for the number and extent of her lakes, or, as they are there called, *loughs*, than either Scotland or England, though they must, perhaps, in general, yield to those of the sister island in point of picturesque beauty. Lough Neagh, in Ulster (which see), ranks pre-eminently among the secondary European lakes, inasmuch as it extends over about 100,000 acres. Lough Erne, co. Fermanagh, consists of two considerable lakes, connected by a winding strait, on an island in which the town of Enniskillen is built. Both these lakes are full of islands, some large and thickly inhabited, many well wooded, and the whole so disposed, and accompanied by such a diversity of coast, as to form a vast number of rich and interesting prospects. Loughs Corrib, Mask, and the lakes of Killarney, so celebrated for their surrounding scenery, are the other principal lakes. (See KILLARNEY.) The total extent of the Irish lakes has been estimated, as already seen, at 455,399 acres ; of which, 32,474 acres are included in Leitner, 44,582 in Munster, 182,796 in Ulster, and 194,477 in Connaught.

The term lough is also often applied in Ireland to arms of the sea nearly enclosed on all sides by the land, and frequently forming commodious harbours. Of these, the most celebrated are Loughs Foyle and Swilly on the N., and Belfast and Strangford on the E. coast.

The Irish coast, particularly on the W. and S.W., is deeply indented with numerous bays, gulphs, and arms of the ocean, forming some noble havens. Ireland has been vaguely said to possess, in all, 14 harbours for the largest ships, 17 for frigates, and from 30 to 40 for coasting vessels, independent of at least 24 good summer roadsteads. The principal inlets of the sea on the W. coast are Donegal, Sligo, Killybegs, Clew, Galway, Tralee, Brandon, Dingle, Bantry (a matchless bay) and Dumanus bays, and the estuaries of the Shannon and Kenmare ; and on the S. the harbours of Cork (one of the finest in Europe), Waterford, Dungarvan, Youghal, and the bays of Courtmacsherry, Cloghankilly, &c. The E. coast has no good harbour ; the principal inlets on that side being, exclusive of Loughs Strangford and Belfast, the bays of Dublin, Dundalk, and Dundrum, and Wexford Haven. The chief Irish headlands are, Dummora Head (which, exclusive of a few insignificant islands, is the most W. point of Europe) and Achill Head, on the W. coast ; Cape Clear, on the S., Carnara Point, on the S.E., and Fair and Malin Heads, on the N. A great number of small islands and islets belong to Ireland, which lie chiefly along its W. coast. They are of little importance : the largest are Achill, Clare, N. and S. Arran, Valentia, and Rachlin (the *Ricina* of Ptolemy), on the N.E. coast.

The climate is more temperate and equable than that of other parts of Europe in the same lat. The heat of summer is less oppressive, and the cold of winter less severe ; and, when any thing like immoderately hot or bad weather takes place, it lasts for a much shorter time. The S. the seasons of the climate of Ireland is excepted humidity : not only is rain more frequent than in England, but the atmosphere, when there is no rain, is largely impregnated with moisture. This circumstance, the result of the insular position of Ireland, and of the prevalence of W. winds for three fourths of the year, accounts for the greater verdure of the country, and for the trees continuing in leaf much longer than in England. In the driest seasons, Ireland rarely suffers from drought, but the crops are often injured by too much wet. "It is a common saying in Ireland, that the very driest summers never hurt the land ; for, although the corn and grass upon the high and dry grounds may get harm, nevertheless the country in general gets more good than hurt by it : and when any deaths fall out to be in Ireland, they are not caused through immoderate heat and drought, as in most other countries, but through too much wet, and excessive rains." (*Boate's Nat. Hist. of Ireland*, 167, ed. 1692.) Hence, Ireland is naturally much better adapted for a grazing than for an agricultural country ; a peculiarity noticed by Giraldus Cambrensis, in his *Topog. Hibernie*, who says that it is more fruitful of pasture than of fruit, and of straw than of grain. *Pascuis tamquam quidam frugibus, gramine quidam grano facundior est insula.* It may also be worth mentioning, that the superiority of Ireland as a pastoral country was well known to the ancients. *Caill*, says Pomponius Mela, *ad materiamda sentitis iniqui ; verum adeo largioris herbi, non satis modici, sed etiam lucubus, ut se cunctis pascuis dici pascuis implent.* (*De Situ Orbis*, lib. iii. c. 6.) It is alleged that the atmosphere is less humid now than formerly ; and this is only what we should be inclined, *a priori*, to infer, from the cutting down of the woods, and the great extension of cultivation. Were drainage as extensively practised in Ireland as in England, there can be little doubt that the climate would be still further improved ; though, from the po-

sition of Ireland in respect of the Atlantic, it must necessarily be always distinguished for humidity. The average quantity of rain in a series of years was found to be 35 inches annually in Cork, and 31 in Derry. The changes of the seasons, and of the weather generally, are a good deal more uncertain even than in England; and the business of agriculture is proportionally embarrassed. Thunderstorms are less frequent and destructive in Ireland than in Britain. The mean temp. of the N. of Ireland is about 49° of the middle 50°, and of the S. 55° Fahr. Its range at Dublin has been found to be between 14° 50' and 81° 50', the mean being about 49°. Potatoes, grapes, and most other southern fruits do not ripen without much care and attention; but the broad-leaved myrtle grows luxuriantly in the S. counties, and the arbutus is not native to any other country so remote from the equator.

The geology of Ireland differs greatly from that of England, and in a general point of view rather resembles that of France; Ireland being, like the latter, a basin surrounded by mountains of a primary or transition character. The Mourne mountains, and others in the N.E., are composed chiefly of granite, mica-slate, grauwacké, porphyry, &c., similar to the mountain ranges on the opposite Scottish coast. Granite prevails in the Wicklow mountains, and it is found, together with gneiss, mica-slate, hornblende, quartz, old red sandstone, &c., in Mayo, and other parts of the W. Clay-slate, felspar, primitive greenstone, and limestone are the other chief primary and transition rocks. Limestone is a very prevalent formation, it being found over the whole country, except in a few of the N. and W. counties; in many places sandstone protrudes through it in the form of knolls. In the N., the trap-field of Antrim, the largest basaltic formation in Europe, extends over an area of 800 sq. m., and presents, in the Giant's Causeway, &c., the finest specimens of columnar basalt. No tertiary beds, containing shells, &c., like those of the London and Paris basins, have been discovered; but the limestone in most parts abounds with fossil remains. Coal, that most valuable of fossils, is found in the S. and E. The principal coal-field is that of Kilkenny, which rests, like the great coal formations of England, upon mountain limestone; the other coal-fields are those of the cos. Tipperary, Cork, Kerry, Limerick, Lough Allen in Leitrim, Monaghan, and another in Ulster, N. of a line drawn between Dublin and Galway. Little coal is, however, raised; the produce of the Kilkenny coal-field, according to the return in the Railway Report, not exceeding 55,000 tons coal, and 53,260 tons culm. The coal that is raised is also very inferior. In fact, Dublin, Belfast, Cork, and all the principal Irish towns, are supplied with coal from Great Britain. Iron is found in many parts of the country; and the great increase of iron-works in the earlier part of the 17th century is said by Boate to have been a principal cause of the destruction of forests in Ireland. (p. 130.) But these having been exhausted, and coal not having been found of such quality and in such quantity as to supply the deficiency, the Irish iron-works have been almost wholly abandoned. In Donegal and Galway, statuary marble, nearly equal to that of Italy, is found; and the black and grey marbles of Kilkenny are much prized, and exported to a considerable extent. There are copper and lead mines in Cork, Kerry, Wicklow, and other places. The copper mine of Allihies, in Cork, is said to employ from 1,300 to 1,500 men. Small quantities of gold and silver have been found in Wicklow. Indeed, some stream-works were wrought in the latter co., on account of government, previously to the rebellion in 1799; and it is said that as much gold was obtained as paid the expense. But some mining operations in Wicklow, commenced by government early in the present century, having failed, all attempts to obtain the precious metals have been since entirely abandoned. Copper is the only metal which at present appears to repay the labour and expense of raising it: the ore is mostly sent to Wales to be smelted. Antimony, manganese, serpentine of excellent quality, fullers' earth, gypsum, limestone, slate, with beryl, garnet, &c., are the other chief mineral products. (*Railway Report*, App. B., p. 66, &c.)

The deficiency of good coal in Ireland is less felt as regards domestic than manufacturing purposes. About 2,600,000 acres, or nearly 1-7th part of the entire surface, consists of bogs, which are capable of furnishing an almost inexhaustible supply of peat at very little more expense than that of the labour required in digging it. About 1,576,000 acres of this peat soil are estimated to consist of flat red bog; the remaining 1,255,000, called mountain bogs, lie on the surface of the uplands. The red peat bogs, which form a remarkable feature of this country, are chiefly comprised in the great central plain of Ireland; and the space bounded N. by a line drawn from Howth Head to Sligo, and S., by another from Wicklow Head to Galway, would include the greater portion of the Irish bogs. Unlike the English moors, they are rarely level, but undulating; and in Donegal

there is a bog completely diversified with hill and dale. These bogs consist of moist vegetable matter, containing a great deal of stagnant water: and after heavy rains, fogs, &c., sometimes burst, and inundate or overwhelm the surrounding country. But they vary infinitely in wetness, as also in depth, composition, &c. The extensive bogs in the central part of the island, though separated from each other, have, as already stated, received the common name of the Bog of Allen. The bogs in general rest upon a stratum of blue clay, based on limestone, and are invariably above the level of the sea; their greatest elevation, however, not exceeding 488 ft. Many conflicting opinions have been entertained with respect to the origin of these bogs. It has been contended by some that they are of no great antiquity, and originated in the cutting down of the forests, after the invasion of Ireland by Henry II., or at a somewhat earlier period. It is alleged that the recumbent trees having intercepted and dammed up streams of water with the rubbish carried along with them, the whole became gradually covered with a vegetation of moss, sedgy grass, rushes, and various aquatic plants. We believe, however, that there is but little foundation for this theory; and that the bogs owe their origin to natural causes, and not to a supposititious cutting down of the forests. The English did not, till long after the reign of Henry II., spread themselves over any considerable portion of the country, and could not, therefore, be the agents in any very recent and extensive destruction of its woods, which, in fact, were both numerous and extensive long after the bogs had attained to about their present extent. (See *Boate's Nat. Hist. of Ireland*, pp. 118—122, ed. 1692.) The drainage and cultivation of these extensive portions of the surface of Ireland have long been regarded as objects of great national importance, and frequent attempts have been made to show that they might be effected at no very great expense. But there are but few examples in any part of the island, and these under very peculiar circumstances, of successful bog cultivation. The attempts to drain the bogs hitherto made in Ireland have not been very successful; and even had they succeeded, it is doubtful whether the bogs would have produced any considerable return. It is, indeed, by no means clear, supposing them to be quite dried, that they would not, in most instances, be rendered still more worthless than at present. (*Walsby's*, l. 108.)

The bogs are not, however, without their value; they supply the inhabitants with fuel in the parts, indeed, where bogs are scarce, they are the most valuable properties in the country. In not a few localities, they have been wholly cut out; and where this is the case, and other bogs are not easily accessible, the inhabitants have sustained great privations from the want of fuel.

The diversity of soils is not nearly so great in Ireland as in England. It has no stiff clay soils, such as those of Essex, Flints, Oxfordshire, &c., nor any chalk soils, as those of Hertford, Wilts, Sussex, &c. Sandy soils are also rare. Loams, resting on a substratum of limestone, predominate in Ireland; and, though often shallow, it is almost everywhere very fertile. A large part of Limerick, Tipperary, Roscommon, Meath, Longford, &c. consists of deep fine friable loam, and is, perhaps, not surpassed by any land in Europe; it is not permanently injured by the bad system of culture to which it is subjected, and if kept clean, will yield an almost interminable series of corn crops; and how bad soever the order in which it is laid down to grass, it is in no long time covered with the finest pasture. The deer, which grazing lands on the banks of the Shannon and Fergus are not surpassed by the best in Lincolnshire. A good judge of such matters, Arthur Young, contends that, acre for acre, the soil of Ireland is superior to that of England, though, as the proportion of waste land in the former is much greater than in the latter country, we incline to think that this is an exaggerated statement; but had Mr. Young confined his remark to the cultivable land in both countries, it would have been quite correct. In fact, if we deduct the bogs and mountains, we believe that Ireland is about the richest country, in respect of soil, in Europe. As a grazing country, she is probably superior to any other, and certainly is surpassed by none.

The botanist Schultz not long ago complained that there were two great islands in Europe, Ireland and Sardinia, of which the *floras* were unknown; and he might, perhaps, have said the same of the *fauna* of the former. The arbutus and myrtle have been already mentioned, and besides these plants, most of those common to Britain are met with. The wild animals do not materially differ from those of England. Wolves formerly infested the country, but they were extirpated under Cromwell. The Irish greyhound, which was of use in clearing the country of these animals, is about 3 ft. in height, of a light colour, and of such strength and courage, that it is said to be more than a match for the mastiff or bull-dog; D 3

It is now, however, nearly extinct. The numbers of deer have greatly declined with the clearance of the forests, and the progress of cultivation. The native Irish horse is seldom more than 15 hands high, very hardy, and sure-footed: it is used for all kinds of labour. A large blood-horse is reared extensively in Meath, and is to be found in most of the rich grazing counties. The native Irish cattle, a breed with short legs, large bellies, and white faces, have been, to a considerable extent, superseded by the introduction of the Holderness, Staffordshire, and Devonshire breeds, either pure or crossed. As compared with England, but few sheep are raised in Ireland. The native Irish sheep is small, and covered with nearly as much hair as wool; but it is now uncommon in a pure state, having been crossed with various English breeds. Most of the Irish sheep are at present long-wooled, and are usually of large size. A breed of fine short-wooled sheep is peculiar to the mountains of Wicklow. Goats are very generally kept, and hogs are universal. The native Irish hogs are of the worst possible breed, being tall, lengthy, and narrow in the loins; but improved breeds are now common: they are fattened principally with potatoes, and one or more is to be found in every house. Every body is acquainted with the story of St. Patrick having extirpated reptiles from Ireland. And there is this much of foundation for the legend—that neither of the three species of snakes found in England is met with in the country, a circumstance which is most probably

to be ascribed to the great humidity of the soil and climate. The toad is, however, said to be met with at the S.W. extremity of the kingdom; and frogs, having been introduced in the last century, are general denizens of the pools. Moles are unknown; and Irish oak timber is said not to harbour spiders, &c. There is now, whatever may have been the case formerly, a great want of wood in most parts of Ireland. And, however rich the soil, the appearance of the country is, in most parts, indicative of the poverty and depressed condition of the bulk of the pop. Generally speaking, what are called farm-houses and offices in England, do not exist in Ireland; and the aspect of the cottages, which, in the vast majority of instances, are of the most wretched description; the smallness of the fields, which, instead of hedges and ditches, or stone fences, are usually divided by turf dykes; and the badness of the horse furniture, and of the agricultural implements, all impress the traveller with the most unfavourable convictions. But, how mortifying soever the contrast between the excellence of the soil and the state of the people, it is some satisfaction to know that it is less striking now than formerly. In many districts, a considerable advance has been made towards a better order of things; and the spirit of improvement has begun to scatter its seeds and spread its roots in most parts of the country. We subjoin—

A Table of the Provinces and Counties of Ireland, specifying the Number of Baronies and Parishes, the Extent of the cultivated and uncultivated (Bogs and Mountains) Land, Plantations, Towns, and Water in each Co. and Prov.; with the Population of each in 1841, and the Number of Acres of Land corresponding to each Person.

Territorial Divisions.			Area whereof							Total Population in 1841.	Acres of Land corresponding to each Person.
Provinces and Counties.	No. of Baronies.	No. of Parishes.	Cultivated Acres.	Uncultivated.	Plantations.	Towns.	Water.	Total Area, Acres.			
LEINSTER.											
Carlow	7	47	184,059	31,940	4,997	602	506	221,512	86,229	2-561	
Dublin	10	99	198,063	19,318	5,519	5,590	—	226,414	372,773	0-607	
Kildare	14	116	356,787	61,854	8,284	490	1,017	418,436	1,44,488	3-645	
Kilkenny	11	140	470,102	71,186	15,899	1,549	2,036	509,732	929,489	2-503	
King's	12	51	357,256	145,326	8,258	302	1,753	493,583	146,837	3-351	
Longford	6	25	191,225	56,337	4,610	564	13,675	269,499	115,491	2-114	
Louth	6	54	178,574	15,676	5,318	1,930	815	201,906	128,440	1-564	
Meath	12	146	547,391	16,033	12,767	464	5,944	619,899	193,898	3-136	
Queen's	11	53	344,492	69,299	11,630	1,117	396	424,551	153,530	2-757	
Westmeath	12	63	306,218	56,292	8,903	698	22,447	453,468	141,590	3-040	
Wexford	9	144	510,792	45,501	14,325	2,392	3,684	576,588	297,073	2-373	
Wicklow	8	59	280,293	200,754	17,690	541	1,090	500,178	196,143	3-356	
Totals	184	1,005	3,961,188	731,486	115,944	15,569	51,624	4,876,211	1,973,731	2-444	
MUNSTER.											
Clare	11	80	455,009	226,083	8,204	728	67,280	847,994	366,994	2-633	
Cork	23	231	1,308,893	465,289	63,180	6,512	12,867	1,846,333	854,118	2-146	
Kerry	8	47	414,614	786,773	11,169	807	32,761	1,186,126	263,860	2-525	
Limerick	12	121	596,676	121,101	11,275	2,759	18,531	1,061,544	230,299	2-006	
Tipperary	12	123	843,987	179,183	22,779	2,539	15,225	1,061,731	435,533	2-408	
Waterford	8	82	325,243	106,496	25,408	1,545	6,779	461,553	196,187	2-922	
Totals	78	884	3,574,615	1,855,477	130,415	14,633	151,281	6,064,579	2,396,161	2-467	
ULSTER.											
Antrim	15	75	515,771	180,423	10,558	2,037	63,288	761,777	360,475	1-983	
Armagh	8	38	265,343	26,117	2,596	778	17,942	328,076	232,293	1-334	
Cavan	6	27	275,475	71,918	7,393	602	25,142	477,560	243,158	1-872	
Down	6	51	293,191	759,287	7,079	479	23,107	1,195,443	226,444	3-947	
Fermanagh	10	70	514,180	78,217	14,255	2,211	5,428	614,495	361,446	1-695	
Londonderry	6	25	399,228	114,547	6,155	110	46,735	457,195	159,441	2-422	
Monaghan	6	43	318,292	180,709	7,718	1,539	10,357	518,595	279,174	2-297	
Monaghan	5	23	295,285	31,263	5,616	204	6,167	319,757	200,442	1-564	
Tyrone	4	42	450,286	311,867	11,981	710	31,796	806,640	312,596	2-475	
Totals	70	591	3,407,439	1,764,570	79,783	8,790	214,956	5,475,438	2,368,375	2-304	
CONNAUGHT.											
Galway	18	120	742,205	708,000	23,718	1,801	90,030	1,566,354	440,198	3-553	
Leitrim	5	17	249,350	115,829	3,596	—	22,748	394,268	155,997	2-373	
Mayo	9	73	407,267	800,111	8,240	848	66,976	1,365,882	288,887	3-280	
Meath	12	121	460,537	180,520	19,870	607	60,630	661,534	233,534	2-680	
Sligo	6	41	380,596	151,723	6,124	460	12,740	461,753	180,386	2-482	
Totals	47	309	2,280,960	1,906,002	48,540	3,877	218,464	4,392,045	1,418,859	2-946	
General Totals	316	2,232	13,464,200	6,296,735	374,482	42,229	650,225	30,808,271	8,175,194	2-468	

Population.—The first authentic account of the pop. of Ireland is given by Sir William Petty, in his tract entitled the *Political Anatomy of Ireland*. Sir William was employed by government to superintend the survey and valuation of the forfeited estates, instituted during the protectorate; and so well did he execute his task, that his survey continues, after the lapse of near two centuries, to be the standard of reference in the courts of law as to all points of property. He had, therefore, the best means of obtaining accurate information with respect to the numbers and condition of the people; and, as the results of his researches on these points are exceedingly curious, it is best to give them in his own words.

"The number of people now in Ireland (1762) is about 1,160,000; viz. 300,000 English, Scotch, and Welsh Protestants and 800,000 Papists; whereof 4 are children unfit for labour, and 75,000 of the remainder are, by

reason of their quality and estates, above the necessity of corporal labour; so as there remains 750,000 labouring men and women, 800,000 whereof do perform the present work of the nation.

"The sum of 1,100,000 people do live in about 300,000 families or houses, whereof there are about 16,000 which have more than one chimney in each, and about 94,000 which have but one; all the other houses, being 160,000, are wretched nasty cabins, without chimney, window, or door-shut, even worse than those of the savage Americans, and wholly unfit for the making merchantable butter, cheese, or the manufactures of woollen, linen, or leather.

"By comparing the extent of the territory with the number of people, it appears that Ireland is much under-peopled; forasmuch as there are above 10 acres of good land to every head in Ireland, whereas in England and France there are but four, and in Holland scarce

one!" (*Polit. Anst. of Ireland*, pp. 114. 118. ed. 1719.)

In 1731 an inquiry was instituted by order of the House of Lords of Ireland, for ascertaining the population through the medium of the magistrates and established clergy, the result of which gives a pop. of 3,010,321. At this period, and for long after, Ireland was essentially a grazing country. To such an extent, indeed, was the pasturage system carried, that in 1727, during the administration of prime Minister Bountier, a law was made to compel every occupier of 100 acres of land to cultivate at least 5 acres, under a penalty of 40s. 1

According to the returns of the hearth-money collectors, which are believed to have been pretty accurate, the number of houses in Ireland is

Years	Houses	Pop.
1754 was	365,132	2,573,634
1767 —	494,646	2,544,376
1777 —	448,125	2,890,556
1785 —	474,322	2,845,303
1788 —	650,000	3,900,000
1791 —	701,104	4,906,618

In 1806, Mr. Newenham estimated the pop. at 3,395,456. An incomplete census was taken in 1812, from which the pop. was computed at 5,587,856. At length a complete census was taken in 1821, from which it was ascertained that the pop. of Ireland was 6,801,827. According to the last census, taken in 1841, the pop. amounted to 8,175,124, viz. Leinster, 1,973,731; Munster, 2,306,161; Ulster, 2,386,373; Connaught, 1,418,856.

The extraordinary increase of pop. since 1785 has arisen from a variety of causes. The bounty acts of the 19th Geo. III. (1780) on the exportation of corn from Ireland appear to have given the first great stimulus to corn cultivation in that country; and consequently to the breaking up of the large grazing farms; and this stimulus was continued and increased by the high prices of corn during the late war. The impetus thus given to the subdivision of farms was vastly increased by the enfranchisement of the Catholics, in 1793; for, the great majority of the landlords being eager to increase their political influence, by increasing the number of voters on their estates, did not hesitate to subdivide them into small patches for that object. The influence of these accidental causes was powerfully increased by the practice that has always prevailed in Ireland of dividing property, whether freehold or leasehold, equally amongst the children.

This pernicious practice has, in fact, done more than any thing else to stimulate early marriages, and the increase of the pop., and to bring about that dependence on the potato, and that minute division of the land, that are now the grand sources of the misery of the country, and the most formidable, by far, of all the obstacles to its improvement.

Considering the extent of bogs in Ireland, the backward state of its agriculture, the deficiency of manufactures and trade, and the feverishness of the great towns, its pop. is astonishingly dense. There was, in fact, in 1841, at an average of the entire kingdom, an individual for every 2.68 acres; whereas, in England, notwithstanding the number and magnitude of her great towns, and the vast amount of her manufacturing and commercial pop., there were 2.24 acres for every individual; and in Scotland there was only one individual to every 7.28 acres! This wonderful density of pop. in Ireland is entirely ascribable to the interminable division and subdivision of the land, and the general dependence on the potato. But, however it may have originated, there can be no question that it is the immediate cause of the abject poverty and depressed condition of the great bulk of the people. It is not too much to say that there are at present (1850) more than double the number of persons in Ireland than it is, with its existing means of production, able either fully to employ, or to maintain in a moderate state of comfort.

Rural Economy.—Ireland, generally speaking, may be said to be a country of small farms and cottier cultivation. Few of the tillage farms extend to 40 acres; the great majority being about 5 acres, and varying from 5 to 10 and 15 acres. It is obvious that farms of this size cannot, except under peculiar circumstances, be well cultivated. They are too small to admit of a proper division of labour, or rotation of crops; at the same time that, owing to the poverty of the occupiers, the stock and implements are of the most inferior kind. Drainage, though the most essential of all improvements, is all but unknown to the greater number of Irish farms; and, in the smaller class of occupancies, the potato, owing to its supplying the greatest quantity of nutriment from a given space, is always a principal crop. Owing to the difficulty, and sometimes impossibility, of the occupiers of a small patch of land finding employment in the neighbourhood when they are not fully occupied at home, they acquire lazy, careless habits. In consequence, many of the most ordinary operations of husbandry, such as the cutting down weeds, and even the harvesting of corn and potatoes at the proper time, are neglected; and, on the better class of farms, about twice the number of

labourers are said to be required for their cultivation that would be necessary in England or Scotland.

There being few, and those only inconsiderable, manufactures in Ireland, not less, perhaps, than 4-5ths of the pop. directly depend for employment and subsistence on the soil. The competition for small patches of land is consequently very keen, and the rents greater than the occupiers can afford, though not greater than might be paid for them, were they consolidated into proper sized farms, and cultivated on an improved system. In Ireland, in fact, the possession of a piece of ground has long been a condition all but indispensable to existence; and we need not, therefore, wonder that the occupiers should cling with desperate tenacity to their small patches. This has led in most parts to a sort of tacit pact, but well-understood agreement among the cottiers or small farmers, to support each other against intruders; and, in the greater part of Ireland, it is as necessary to the quiet possession of the land to secure what is called the tenant's right, or the good-will of the occupier, as it is to make a bargain with the landlord. Any tenant who should neglect this indispensable precaution would run a great risk of being disturbed in, or violently ousted from, his possession. Indeed, most of the disturbances by which Ireland has been so long and so severely disgraced have been of an agrarian character, or have been directly or indirectly connected with the occupancy of the land.

It is not necessary to enter into any lengthened disquisitions as to the various circumstances which have led to that minute parcelling of the land that is the bane and curse of Ireland. The greatest influence is no doubt, as already stated, to be ascribed to the dependence on the potato, and to the habit of providing for the sons, and sometimes also, the daughters of the occupiers of land, by giving them shares of their father's holdings. Had there been a poor-law in Ireland as in England, compelling the landlords to provide for all residents on their estates, in the event of their becoming unable to provide for themselves, the landlords would, it is most probable, have long since devised means for checking the progress of subdivision. But, having no motive of this sort, and believing that the rents promised them by the small occupiers would be paid without any deduction, they either sanctioned, or connived at the practice, till it had well nigh parcelled out the whole country into miserable patches, and filled it with a redundant and beggarly population. Latterly, however, they have become fully aware of the pernicious consequences of the practice, and have, in many instances, exerted themselves to check it, and to consolidate the small patches into considerable farms. Their efforts to bring about these desirable results have been facilitated by the operation of the act against sub-letting, passed in 1826; and the introduction of the assessment for the support of the poor has also made them more anxious to hinder the too minute division of their estates, and their occupancy by parties likely to become paupers.

It is unfortunate that in Ireland the introduction even of an improved system cannot be effected without inflicting, at least, a temporary injury upon a great many persons. The ejectment of cottiers and other small occupiers from their patches of land, has, in some parts, occasioned much irritation and distress; and has been occasionally, perhaps, gone about with an unnecessary degree of bitterness. But, though liable to abuse and to all sorts of misrepresentation, this is the line of conduct that is most likely to prove in the end of advantage to the country. We believe, indeed, that we might go further and say that no other can be of any material service. No real improvement need be looked for in Ireland till the hordes of paupers that are huddled upon the land have been removed from it; and, speaking generally, no clamour can be more completely unfounded than that which has been raised against those landlords who have acted upon this conviction. They are the best friends to their country. It is no doubt the duty of a landlord who is endeavouring to clear his estate of its surplus inhab. to carry out his plans in the way least likely to be oppressive upon the parties to be removed, and to assist them, in as far as he may be able, in emigrating, or in establishing themselves in some other locality. It is not, however, always in the power of a landlord to do this; and we do not know that government could expend some portion of the public money more advantageously than in facilitating the settlement of the ejected parties in the colonies. As it is they very frequently either find their way into the towns where there is no demand for their services, or come to Britain, into which their immigration is a very serious evil. It is, indeed, surprising that no public aid should hitherto have been given to emigration from Ireland. At present it is extensively carried on; but the parties who emigrate are not generally those who could best be spared. The small occupiers are by far the most redundant class; and they are precisely those who have the least ability to carry themselves to

the colonies, or those parts where they might be able to maintain themselves.

A good deal of what is peculiar in the mode of occupying land in Ireland has grown out of the circumstances under which it was originally acquired by the ancestors of its present owners. About 9-10ths of the land was forfeited under Cromwell and William III.; and this vast amount of property was mostly either gratuitously bestowed upon, or was acquired at a very small sacrifice by, noblemen and gentlemen of fortune and influence in England. Such persons could not be expected to leave England to reside in Ireland; and, in point of fact, they very rarely visited their estates in the latter, but satisfied themselves with taking what rents they could get for them. There was no sympathy between them and their tenants: the religious and political principles of one party were opposed to those of the other. The landlords looked upon their tenants as a sort of unwilling bondsmen, who, if any favourable opportunity should present itself, would immediately shake off their dependence on them; and the tenants regarded the landlords as usurpers unjustly intruded on the estates of others, and as enemies to the religion and rights of the Irish people. Very few had, or could be expected to have, any confidence in the stability of such a state of things; and it could not be expected that landlords should care much about the permanent interests of such estates, or that they should lay out any considerable sum on their improvement. To build a farm-house or offices was an outlay which, for a lengthened period, no Irish landlord ever incurred; and even to this day the old habit maintains an ascendancy, and the great majority of landlords lay out little or nothing on buildings. In consequence of this practice, and of the general smallness of the holdings, and the poverty of the occupiers, the farm-buildings, if we may so call them, of Ireland are, as already stated, quite unworthy of the name; and, in most instances, are wretched in the extreme. Such a thing as a barn is hardly known among the smaller occupiers; and the corn is not unfrequently thrashed on the public roads, which serve as barn-floors.

The circumstances thus shortly stated, as to the acquisition of landed property in Ireland, account for the introduction of middlemen, and for the prevalence of absenteeism, and of partnership tenures. Nothing could be more natural than that an English gentleman, possessed of an Irish estate, should prefer letting it for a round sum to a middleman, allowing the latter to transact with the occupiers. This relieved him from an unpleasant duty, for which, most probably, he was wholly unfit, and gave him a certain income with little comparative trouble. It is true, however, that a middleman, having no permanent interest in the soil, or in the welfare of the estate or its occupiers, will look only to temporary advantages, and will be more likely than a landlord to harass the cultivators, and to squeeze out of them all that they can possibly afford. Hence it is that, speaking generally, it is bad policy for proprietors to resort to the agency of middlemen; and they are rarely employed, except, as in the case of Ireland, property be supposed to be insecure, or it be very difficult or inconvenient for the landlord to deal directly with the occupiers. In Ireland, too, the injurious consequences naturally resulting from the employment of middlemen were materially aggravated by the state of the law; which authorised the landlord, in the event of the bankruptcy of a middleman to whom the occupiers had paid their rents, to come upon the latter, and to force them to pay their rents over again to him! The subtlety of law which obviated this injustice; and no landlord, who has let an estate to a middleman, can now come upon a sub-tenant with a demand for rent *bona fide* paid to his immediate superior.

It should, however, be observed, that these remarks apply only to the employment of middlemen who have leases of a reasonable length. But many, perhaps we should say the majority, of Irish middlemen, hold under very long leases; and when such is the case they are to be regarded as the real landlords, and have all their interests and feelings.

Much has been said about the injustice done to Ireland by the absence of many of her great proprietors. But, in point of fact, several of the absentee estates, as those of the Marquis of Hertford, the Duke of Devonshire, Earl Fitzwilliam, &c. are the best managed, the least subdivided, and most prosperous of any in the country. Besides, whatever might have been the case formerly, absenteeism is not at present more prevalent in Ireland than in Scotland or the N. of England, a pretty conclusive proof of the hollowness of the complaints with respect to it. The truth is, that it is not that many of the Irish landlords have been absentees, but that, whether absent or resident, they have too generally acted as if the improvement of their estates, and the prosperous condition of the occupiers, were matters with which they had little or no concern, that the depressed and backward condition of the country is to be ascribed.

The same circumstances that occasioned the employment of middlemen seem also to have led to the still more baneful practice of letting lands in partnership to a number of tenants, sometimes, indeed, to a whole village, made conjointly and severally liable for the rent. It is needless to repeat what we have elsewhere stated (Vol. I. 183.) as to the pernicious influence of this mode of occupancy. Nothing can be imagined more destructive. Wherever it prevails it forms an insurmountable obstacle to all improvement. But though it have prevailed, and still prevails, in many very extensive districts, especially in the wilder and more mountainous parts of the country, we are glad to have to state that it is generally on the decline.

A system which has received the name of *con-acre* is very prevalent in most parts of Ireland, but especially in Connaught. By *con-acre* is meant a pernicious custom, prevalent among the landlords and occupiers of the larger class of farms, of letting to the peasantry, or cottiers, small slips of land, varying from a perch to half an acre, for a single season, to be planted with potatoes, or cropped. Old grass land is frequently let out on this system; and then it is usual to allow the surface to be pared and burned. An intelligent witness examined by the agricultural committee of 1833, (Thomas S. Lindsay, Esq.) stated, that, when he left Mayo, "the country appeared as if it were *anterior ære*; I should say that 1-10th part of the surface of the co. is either destroyed or is now covered with ashes." The rent got for land subjected to this abusive treatment is enormous, running from 7s. to 12s., or 13s. an acre! Potatoes are invariably planted on *con-acre* land, when it is broken up from grass; and afterwards it is usual to take from it successive crops of corn, till it be reduced to a *caput mortuum*, when it is left to be recovered by the *vis medicatrix nature*! Wherever this practice exists, there cannot, of course, be the least improvement; and nothing but the extraordinary fertility of the soil could enable it to produce any thing under so destructive a system. (*Agricult. Committee of 1833, Min. of Evid., p. 333, &c.*) In many parts, the entire dependence of the peasantry being on these *con-acre* lands, when the crop fails they are reduced to the extreme of distress, and have rarely any choice between starvation and begging, unless it be to enlist under the banners of Captain Rock. *Con-acre* tenants dare not remove the crop from the ground without permission, which is seldom granted till the rent be paid. In most cases, they are allowed to abandon the soil for the rent; but this is an alternative they make every sacrifice to avoid, as it involves the loss, not merely of their labour, but of their only means of supporting themselves during the ensuing season.

It must, however, be borne in mind that, though the previous remarks apply to the agriculture of Ireland taken as a whole, they do not apply to every estate, or even to every considerable district. Generally, it is most advanced in the eastern and northern counties, and is most backward in the S. and W., especially the latter. But in the provinces of the north, the soil is more cultivated than elsewhere; a few large estates still consist of pretty considerable farms; and the buildings upon and cultivation of some farms, occupied by landlords and principal tenants, would do no discredit to any part of the empire. These, however, are but exceptions, which it is to be hoped will every day become more numerous, to the ordinary state of things. The leading features of Irish agriculture are such as have been already delineated. No doubt, however, a spirit of improvement has insinuated itself into most quarters, which, notwithstanding the formidable difficulties in the way, can hardly fail to gather strength. The landlords, on whose conduct so much depends, are, as already stated, becoming more alive to their real interests. And their sensitiveness in this respect will, there is reason to think, be increased by the act now in force for promoting the sale of encumbered estates. A considerable number of these have already been brought into the market, and more will follow. And the new landlords, being comparatively free from embarrassments, and probably, also, from the prejudices by which their predecessors were influenced, the presumption is, that they will act on different and more enlarged views. It is to be hoped that, despising the misrepresentations to which they may be exposed, they will set their face firmly against the further subdivision of the land, and that they will embrace every fair opportunity of consolidating the small patches into which their properties may have been subdivided.

Improved implements of husbandry have been introduced into most parts of the country; while the ready communication with England by means of steam, and the boundless markets that have thus been opened for most articles of Irish produce, afford the larger class of occupiers the means of augmenting their capitals and farms, and of improving their stock and culture. The course of tillage is still, however, the same in all its essential features; and hitherto the demand from England has led infinitely more to the extension of husbandry than to its amelioration. But it is difficult to

suppose that it should not, also, have a material influence over the latter; and, so soon as an effectual check is given to the practice of subdivision, this, no doubt, will be the case. It must, however, be kept in mind, that the introduction of a better system of agriculture is, by dispensing with useless hands, for a while injurious, rather than otherwise, to the bulk of the labouring pop. "From north to south," say the railway commissioners, "indications of progressive improvement are every where visible; and most so in places accessible to the immediate influence of steam navigation. But all these signs of growing prosperity are, unhappily, not so discernible in the condition of the labouring people as in the amount of the produce of their labour. The proportion of the latter reserved for their use is too small to be consistent with a healthy state of society. The pressure of a superabundant and excessive pop. is perpetually and powerfully acting to depress them." (*Report 9.*)

Potato Cultivation. — For a lengthened period the great bulk of the people of Ireland have principally subsisted on potatoes, and have but seldom tasted bread or butcher's meat. This general dependence on the potato has been in part a cause and in part a consequence of the subdivision of the land; and may, therefore, be considered as a main source of the over-population of the country, and the degraded state of the poor. Being the cheapest species of food raised in Europe, and the rate of wages being principally determined by its cost, the poor can resort to nothing else when the potato happens to be deficient, and are then, in fact, reduced to the extreme of distress. Such deficiencies are also very apt to occur, partly from the potato crop being peculiarly liable to failure, and partly from the impossibility as to all practical purposes of storing up the surplus of abundant years as a reserve against future scarcities, or of mitigating the pressure of the latter by importing so bulky an article from abroad. The circumstances now glanced at sufficiently account for the extreme severity of the distress which Ireland has sustained through the failure of the potato at different epochs, such as 1740-41, 1817 and 1820, and 1846 and 1847. Everybody knows that in the last-mentioned years, when the failure was very general, the Irish were wholly unable to meet the difficulties of their situation; their wages, proportioned to the cost of potatoes, were altogether inadequate to purchase supplies of wheat, oats, or other grain; and there being no cheaper food on which they could fall back, they must, but for the bountiful assistance afforded to them by the government and people of England, have been subjected to all the horrors of famine. And notwithstanding all that ample means, and the most active benevolence could effect, the deficiency and bad quality of the food on which they were occasionally obliged to depend, proved fatal to a considerable number of persons. Hence it is that the extension of the potato culture in Ireland, and the reliance placed on the root by the population, have been and continue to be evils of the first magnitude, being fatal alike to agriculture, and to the comfort and security of all classes of the people.

Such being the result of the potato culture, the reader will not be surprised to learn that we are not of the number of those who regret the checks given to it by the late failures of the crop. On the contrary, we incline to think that their influence should have been extended by legislative measures; and that it would be sound policy to discourage the growth of a root which is otherwise almost sure to become a staple article of food, and which never fails to exercise a most pernicious influence over those dependent on it. Were it used, along with bread, as a subsidiary variety of food, it would be different. But it can hardly continue for any very con-

siderable length of time to be so used, its greater cheapness and the facility with which it is made ready for use, tempting the poor to resort to it in preference to any other article. And after they have been accustomed to subsist on it, they become its slaves; for their wages being governed by its price, they have no means, even were they desirous, of leaving it for a better or more costly article. It is not easy to exaggerate the evils incident to such a state of things. We are persuaded, indeed, that the growing dependence on the potato has not in Ireland only, but in Britain and elsewhere, had the most fatal tendency; and that but for it the labouring classes would have profited to a much greater extent than they have done by the wonderful progress of industry and invention since the peace of 1815. The accounts of the great extent of land under the potato in Ireland in the course of the present year (1850), and of the apparently unabated confidence placed by the peasants on this hazardous and debasing resource, are, perhaps, the most unfavourable that have been received from that country for many years past.

Next to potatoes, oats, barley, and wheat, but especially oats, are the crops most commonly cultivated. Owing to the humidity of the climate, the country is not well fitted for wheat and barley, which are at once more precarious and not of so good quality as in England; but it is admirably suited for the growth of oats, the culture of which has rapidly increased. Turnips are cultivated only in some of the best farmed districts, and, though extending, are not to be looked upon in the light of a general crop.

Ireland, however, is much better adapted for a grazing than for an agricultural country; and such, in this respect, is the excellence of the soil, that in most parts it never fails, however foul and exhausted when laid down to grass, speedily to clothe itself with a rich and luxuriant cover of herbage. We have noticed the improvements made in the stock in most parts of Ireland, by the introduction of improved breeds: and both the dairy and grazing systems of husbandry have been materially amended.

The rapid increase of the exports of corn and other raw produce from Ireland is very generally referred to as demonstrating the great improvement of agriculture; and, in so far as respects the increased exports of cattle, beef, and butter, the inference seems to be well founded. The breed of live stock has, as already stated, been very greatly improved; the system of stall-feeding has also been introduced; and the increased exports of animal produce have been obtained, not only without any increase, but with a positive diminution, of the land in pasture. But it is quite otherwise with the extraordinary increase of the exports of corn and meal. The subjoined table shows that they increased from less than a million of quarters previously to 1817 to nearly three and a half millions in 1838! But no one will venture to affirm that agriculture improved in any thing like a corresponding proportion; and as the condition of the bulk of the people did not probably vary very materially during this interval, there cannot be a doubt that the increased exports of corn are principally to be ascribed to the extension of tillage. The late Lord Clements says, in his tract on the Poverty of Ireland, that "the export of grain has increased most rapidly from those parts where no agricultural amendment whatever is visible." (P. 27.) It has been occasioned partly and principally by the breaking up of grass land,

and partly by the occupiers being tempted, by the facility and certainty of the market, to sell every bushel they can spare, subsisting themselves principally on potatoes, and retaining the worst corn for seed and their own use. This,

also, has been the case with pigs, which, speaking generally, have been raised by the cottiers as a means of paying rent, and not of providing subsistence for their families.

Account of the Quantities of Grain, including Flour and Meal, of the Growth of Ireland, imported into Great Britain from Ireland, in different Years, from 1803 to 1849 inclusive.

Years.	Wheat and Wheat Flour.	Barley, including Bear or Bugg.	Oats and Oatmeal.	Rye.	Pear.	Broom.	Malt.	Total.
	<i>Quartiers.</i>	<i>Quartiers.</i>	<i>Quartiers.</i>	<i>Quartiers.</i>	<i>Quartiers.</i>	<i>Quartiers.</i>	<i>Quartiers.</i>	<i>Quartiers.</i>
1803	108,751	7,116	841,101	282	115	1,655	2,303	461,571
1805	84,087	19,656	208,508	235	1,634	3,010	-	306,594
1806	109,475	15,237	337,077	330	1,289	3,261	-	466,760
1807	44,300	23,048	389,549	431	1,390	3,777	-	463,195
1808	43,497	30,582	379,974	573	75	3,065	-	656,770
1810	196,558	8,231	492,741	80	816	3,541	-	631,237
1812	158,532	45,138	590,229	178	131	5,008	-	597,386
1813	177,154	63,360	691,498	480	77	4,455	-	977,184
1814	225,478	16,779	564,010	4	460	5,731	-	815,402
1815	189,544	27,108	207,527	207	6,371	6,371	-	881,199
1816	211,631	69,254	683,714	45	239	5,984	-	873,865
1817	55,481	36,769	811,117	-	18	3,275	-	695,631
1818	105,179	25,587	1,000,382	4	10	4,708	-	1,204,735
1819	155,850	30,511	779,613	2	-	3,404	-	967,680
1820	405,407	87,093	916,551	134	429	8,396	-	1,415,792
1821	569,700	82,854	1,162,449	650	2,474	4,959	-	1,822,516
1822	465,004	95,435	1,069,537	338	785	5,355	-	1,663,599
1823	401,068	19,874	1,104,487	198	586	5,540	-	1,628,135
1824	356,394	44,699	1,225,085	112	1,56	5,791	1,175	1,634,000
1825	396,018	125,038	1,699,556	230	1,915	11,353	10,546	2,205,562
1826	314,851	65,825	1,303,704	77	1,452	7,190	1,303	1,663,599
1827	405,555	67,791	1,345,367	1,282	10,037	578	-	1,828,460
1828	596,594	84,204	2,076,631	1,424	4,876	7,068	853	2,826,590
1829	619,017	97,400	2,515,678	608	1,915	10,445	2,011	3,267,214
1830	589,717	189,745	1,471,528	414	2,390	19,053	2,890	2,815,921
1831	555,498	185,409	1,655,701	515	4,142	15,099	10,888	2,429,182
1832	790,859	125,859	1,951,467	294	1,515	14,530	5,229	2,999,977
1833	844,111	101,707	1,762,290	366	4,646	12,114	7,017	2,737,441
1834	779,505	817,885	1,769,503	983	2,476	18,771	3,865	2,792,558
1835	661,776	156,242	1,897,767	618	5,447	21,235	10,357	2,679,438
1836	686,757	184,136	1,919,128	893	8,903	27,609	20,515	2,985,402
1837	531,465	187,473	2,274,675	1,016	60	25,630	4,174	3,030,935
1838	545,043	136,467	2,748,407	608	5,524	21,484	5,001	3,471,502
1839	686,351	61,676	1,904,333	9,531	4,227	11,535	2,861	2,245,151
1840	774,430	93,854	2,087,835	132	1,403	14,673	2,387	2,287,782
1841	218,708	75,568	2,339,380	179	885	15,007	4,955	2,555,585
1842	301,598	50,397	2,261,155	76	1,591	19,831	3,046	2,538,524
1843	415,466	110,419	2,648,053	371	1,192	24,322	8,648	2,806,482
1844	440,122	90,636	2,245,308	264	1,091	18,589	8,155	2,801,304
1845	779,118	99,095	2,355,985	165	1,644	12,745	11,144	3,251,901
1846	393,608	92,854	1,511,591	1,496	14,663	11,393	11,393	1,696,152
1847	194,094	47,297	705,465	15	4,659	32,361	8,266	969,400
1848	304,873	50,477	1,676,639	15	2,572	12,314	6,365	2,032,875
1849	249,439	-	1,077,564	-	-	-	-	-

The exports of cattle, sheep, &c., from Ireland to Britain, in 1846, 1847, and 1848, were, according to the best attainable information, as follows:—

	1846.	1847.	1848.
Oxen, bulls, and cows	No. 186,485	No. 189,900	No. 196,048
Cattle	6,363	9,992	7,096
Sheep and lambs	289,537	294,179	265,666
Pigs	480,837	106,407	110,787
Totals	952,930	690,636	669,597

The great decline in the exportation of swine is owing to the havoc made in that description of stock by the scarcities of 1846 and 1847.

Rent of Land.—There are no means of forming any accurate estimates as to the amount of rent in Ireland. The property-tax does not extend to it; and all that we have to trust to in determining its rental are estimates deduced from the rentals of particular estates, or from valuations made for the assessment of the local burdens and for the adjustment of the composition on account of tithe and the poor's rate. The first, unless made with unusual care, are rarely much to be depended on, and lead almost always to exaggerated conclusions. In 1727, Mr. Brown computed the gross rental of Ireland, inclusive of quit-rents, tithes, &c., at 2,824,000l.; and, in 1778, Mr. Young estimated it at 6,000,000l. (*Newenham's View of Ireland*, p. 232.) Mr. Wakefield, from minutes collected in his tour, estimated the average rental of Ireland at 7s. the Irish acre, or at 16s. 6d. the imperial acre (vol. i. p. 305.); and, notwithstanding the imperfect data on which it was founded, this estimate, though in excess, came

pretty near the mark. No doubt, however, the elaborate estimate framed by Mr. Griffith, and contained in his evidence given in the Second Report of the Lords' Committee on Tithe (1832), is much more deserving of attention: it is principally bottomed on official valuations, and is probably, therefore, a little under the mark. According to Mr. Griffith, the total rent of Ireland in 1832 amounted to 12,715,478l., which would give an average rent of 12s. 2d. per acre for the whole kingdom. But to get a correct notion of the rent, the area occupied by water, amounting to 630,825 acres, should certainly be deducted, and this being done, the average rent is 12s. 7d. an acre. According to the more recent estimate of the value of the land obtained under the valuation of the poor's rate, the average rent per acre, deducting water, is 18s. 7d.

The annual value of the unimproved mountains and bogs has been variously estimated at from 1,000,000l. to 2,000,000l. If we suppose 1,500,000l. to be the more correct sum, it will leave, on Mr. Griffith's hypothesis, a sum of about 12,000,000l. for the gross rental of the cultivated land of Ireland, amounting to 13,464,300 acres, equivalent, at an average, to about 16s. 8d. an acre; which, allowing for deficiencies in the valuation, may, perhaps, be increased to 17s. or 17s. 6d. an acre—a very high rent for a country occupied and farmed in the manner of Ireland. And to this has to be added the sum, frequently a large one, paid in most parts by new tenants to the previous tenants or their heirs, on account of tenants' right.*

* The measurements of the different Irish counties given by Mr. Griffith, do not quite agree with those deduced from the Ordnance Survey. The latter have been used in this article, but the discrepancies are not material.

The object of this payment is to secure the "good will" of the previous occupiers, or, in other words, to get leave peaceably to occupy the holding. Different opinions have been entertained in regard to the origin of this custom. Probably it had its source in payments made by entering tenants for certain improvements made, or articles left, on the holding by those leaving it; but now it is really a bonus to secure peaceable possession, and is exacted in cases where no improvement whatever has been effected, where nothing is left upon the land, and even where the outgoing tenant has been evicted for non-payment of rent. It is at once a source and an evidence of the depressed state of agriculture, and of the barbarism of the country; and, instead of being extended, as the Irish demagogues demand, should be everywhere suppressed.

Fisheries.—The seas round Ireland swarm with fish. Cod, ling, and hake are found in great abundance on the Nymph Bank to the S. of Waterford. Flat fish also abound in many parts. Large shoals of herrings visit the coast annually; and the bays and creeks furnish great quantities of the smaller and more delicate species, as pilchards, sprats, smelts, and sand-eels. The basking whale and sunfish are often seen off the W. coast. But the fishery has never been either largely or successfully carried on by the Irish; and, at this moment, the principal supply of salt fish is derived from Scotland. In 1764 a system of bounties was established to encourage the trade, but without any material success. It was revised in 1819 by a commission, which also gave loans for the purchase of boats and tackle. With such encouragement the number of fishermen and boats increased considerably during the ten years the system was in operation. But though the fishing declined on the bounties being withdrawn, this decline was temporary only, and it has since considerably increased. In 1846 it employed in all 15,932 boats, and 70,011 men and boys.

There are salmon and eel fisheries in most of the great rivers. The salmon fisheries in the Bann, near Coleraine; the Foyle; the Blinck, near Ballyshannon; the Borne, above Drogheda; and in various other parts, are very productive. At an average of the nine years ending with 1834, the produce of the Foyle salmon fishery amounted to 2,514 cwt. a year. Irish salmon, packed in ice, is principally exported to Liverpool, Bristol, and London.

Manufactures.—Ireland is not, and never has been, a manufacturing country. Its unsettled turbulent state, and the general depression of the population on land, have hitherto formed insuperable obstacles to the formation of great manufacturing establishments in most parts of the country; while the want of coal, capital, and skilled workmen, and the great ascendancy of England and Scotland in all departments of manufacture, will, there is reason to think, hinder Ireland from ever attaining to eminence in this department. And it is needless to add, that while manufactured goods can be produced cheaper in Britain than in Ireland, so long will the interests of the latter be best promoted by their importation. It is, whatever the Irish demagogues may say to the contrary, a contradiction and an absurdity to suppose that either individuals or states can be enriched by producing at home what it would cost less to bring from abroad.

The woollen manufacture was carried on to some extent in Ireland previously to the revolution of 1698, soon after which, in compliance with the interested solicita-

tions of the English manufacturers, the export of Irish woollens to foreign parts was prohibited, and oppressive duties laid on their importation into England. But, though it be impossible too severely to condemn this selfish insulting policy, there is no solid ground for supposing that it was productive of any real injury to Ireland. Though the acts complained of had never existed, the result would have been the same. It is quite nugatory to suppose that, under any circumstances, the woollens of Ireland should ever have been able to come into competition with those of England, either in the home market, or any where else.

The existing woollen manufacture of Ireland is carried on upon a small scale. At Dublin, and other parts in the vicinity, some cloth of a better description is made; and other branches are carried on to some extent in Killybeggy and other places, more especially at Mountmelick and Abbeyfeix, in Queen's Co., and a few other places. It appears, from the returns of Mr. Stuart, inspector of factories, that there were in Ireland, in 1838, 21 woollen mills; but they were upon so small a scale as to employ, in all, only 1291 persons, and this number would appear, from the subjoined account, to have decreased in the intervening period. The railway commissioners estimated the value of the wool produced in Ireland at about 800,000*l.* a year. It is not suitable for the manufacture of any but very low priced cloths. But since well adapted for the manufacture of woollen stuffs, and hence the recent extension of that department at Mountmelick and Abbeyfeix.

To compensate for the bad treatment of the woollen, the linen manufacture of Ireland was long the object of especial patronage. It was fostered and promoted by a number of statutes, and placed under the superintendence of a board, with an annual grant of public money for distribution in premiums and bounties. The board, however, has been discontinued for some years, and the grants withdrawn. The manufacture is chiefly confined to Ulster. In 1834, the last year for which there is an official return, the total value of unbleached linen sold in Ireland amounted to 2,580,697*l.*, of which that sold in Ulster produced 2,108,566*l.* The exports in 1835 amounted to 70,309,273 yards, of the estimated value of 3,738,654*l.*; and their value at present (1850) can hardly fail to exceed 4,000,000*l.* The manufacture was at one time, and still is, very generally diffused over the country; the yarn being spun by the cottier's family, and woven by the cottier himself. But since the introduction of machinery for the spinning of yarn, and of power-looms, the old system has been to a considerable extent abandoned, and the yarn is now principally spun by machinery. A good deal of cloth is also made by power-looms; but the greater part continues to be woven in the houses of the cottiers, who are supplied with yarn by the agents of the manufacturers. In fact, but for this change of system, the manufacture would have been wholly annihilated; as the manufacturers under the old domestic system could not have withstood the competition of Dundee, Leeds, &c. It is also of importance to observe that under the new plan the weavers, being regularly supplied with yarn, are kept constantly at work, and do not combine, at least to nearly the same extent as formerly, the incongruous occupations of weavers and farmers. This, as was to be expected, has tended to improve both businesses. In 1835 no fewer than 2,692,000 lbs. linen yarn were imported from Great Britain into Ireland; but we understand that, in consequence of the increased quantities of yarn produced by the mills in Belfast and the vicinity, the imports of yarn from Britain have since declined. The growth of flax has latterly been considerably extended, especially in the N. of Ireland. We subjoin

An Account of the Numbers of Work-people employed in the Cotton, Woollen, Worsted, and Flax Factories in Ireland in 1846, distinguishing the Sexes and Ages of the Work-people:—

		Ages.						Total.		
		Under 15 Years of Age.		Between 15 and 16 Years of Age.		Above 16 Years of Age.				
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males and Females.
Cotton	-	4	11	592	773	904	1,450	2,633	4,135	
Woollen	-	2	1	79	144	462	462	549	1,032	
Worsted	-	9	-	21	46	91	101	127	228	
Flax	-	-	27	2,456	4,853	3,138	7,251	5,565	11,465	
Total		15	39	3,150	3,198	4,614	9,575	7,779	14,812	22,591

Distillation has been, for a lengthened period, an important business in Ireland. Previously to 1823, when the duty on spirits was 6*s.* 6*d.* a gallon, illicit distillation was extremely prevalent in Ireland; so much so, that the commissioners of revenue inquiry estimated the total annual consumption of spirits in Ireland at that period at 8,380,000 imp. galls, though, in 1822, no more than 2,228,267 paid duty! In 1823, the duty having been re-

duced to 2*s.* 10*d.* per imp. gall., 6,890,315 galls. paid duty in 1824, and 9,262,744 in 1825. In 1825 the duty was reduced to 2*s.* 4*d.* per gall.; and in 1828 duty was paid on 12,396,243 galls. But it would seem that the consumption had then attained to a maximum; for, in the course of 1830, and the immediately subsequent years, great numbers of people in all parts of the kingdom were induced, principally by the exertions of a Roman Catholic priest,

of the name of Matthew, to pledge themselves to abstain from spirituous liquors. And the extent to which the temperance system was afterwards carried was most extraordinary; the consumption of spirituous liquors having declined in 1839 to 10,815,709, and in 1842 to only 5,350,550 galls. This appears, however, to have been the lowest point in the descending scale, the consumption having increased in 1843, 1844, and 1845, when it amounted to 7,605,196 gall. In 1849 the consumption amounted to 6,973,333 galls. native spirits, and 255,276 gall. foreign do. The habit of drinking spirits, formerly so prevalent among the Irish, particularly when assembled at fairs and other public meetings, was the source of innumerable outrages; and there can be no doubt that the decline of this vicious practice has been of material advantage to the lower classes.

The silk trade was introduced by French emigrants shortly after the Revolution: its chief seat was in Dublin; but since the repeal of the protecting duties it has declined, so as to be now nearly extinct, with the exception of tabbnet or Irish poplin, a mixed fabric of silk and worsted, for which there is a considerable demand. The first importation of cotton wool into Ireland, of which there is any authentic notice, took place in 1771. The manufacture was carried on with some little success in several parts during the continuance of the protecting duties. On their withdrawal it declined for a while; but it has since revived, and is now prosecuted in the neighbourhood of Belfast, where there are several large mills, and at Portlaw, co. Waterford, where there is a mill that employs many hands.

Commerce.—The exportation of the raw produce of the soil has always formed the principal commercial

business carried on in Ireland. During the late war, she supplied a large share of the provisions required for the army and navy serving abroad; and she still sends large supplies to the colonial markets. Great Britain, however, is by far the best and most extensive market for all sorts of Irish produce; and her exports to this country, ex-

II. Account of the estimated Value of the Total Exports and the total Imports of each Port of Ireland in 1835.

Names of Ports.	Exports, 1835.		Imports, 1835.	
	Value.		Value.	
Armagh and Killough	55,161	£ 0	2,970	£ 0
Arkw	5,477	0 0	6,789	10 0
Ballybragan	5,417	10 0	11,591	19 2
Ballina	70,568	0 0	15,332	0 0
Ballyvaughan	20,434	0 0	5,779	0 0
Ballycastle	1,791	0 0	4,030	13 3
Ballyshannon	11,130	0 0	9,574	0 0
Baltimore, &c.	37,142	0 0	17,767	0 0
Bantry	6,212	0 0	17,933	8 0
Berehaven	77,360	0 0	30,081	0 0
Belfast	5,940	0 0		
	4,541,794	£ 7	3,055,437	11 10
Clare	16,617	0 0	1,872	0 0
Coleraine and Portrush	105,665	0 0	63,900	0 0
Cork	2,809,546	0 0	1,751,524	0 0
Donaghadee	62,484	0 0	7,570	0 0
Donnegal	11,563	0 0	11,531	0 0
Drumfahoe	766,027	0 0	399,854	0 0
Dublin	2,598,543	0 0	4,350,321	0 0
Dundalk	45,813	0 0	107,955	0 0
Dungarvon	69,486	0 0	16,512	0 0
Galway	231,564	0 0	88,368	0 0
Killybegs	26,396	0 0	3,118	0 0
Killybegs	26,158	0 0	2,788	0 0
Kilrush	13,472	0 0	17,854	0 0
Kinsale	66,509	0 0	7,825	6 7
Larne	726,430	0 0	325,740	0 0
Limerick	1,040,918	0 0	708,054	0 0
Londonderry	5,581	10 0	3,156	0 0
Newcastle	2,269	0 0		
Newport	616,836	0 0	568,711	0 0
Newry	59,074	0 0	63,007	0 0
Ross	79,633	6 4	20,498	8 0
Sarranford	369,490	0 0	174,692	0 0
Trillick	79,315	0 0	7,870	0 0
Waterford	1,291,345	0 0	1,374,154	0 0
Westport	621,136	0 0	621,417	0 0
Wicklow	87,805	0 0	98,517	0 0
Youghal	24,564	0 0	15,671	0 0
	215,316	0 0	29,210	0 0
Total	17,594,813	7 11	15,337,097	4 6

I. Account of the Trade of Ireland with Foreign Parts in the undermentioned years from 1830 downwards.

Years.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Official Value.	Real Value.	Official Value.	Real Value.
1830	1,459,844	665,478	560,800	
1831	1,447,933	445,038	445,900	
1840	1,559,233	450,548	509,874	
1845	1,951,349	334,968	275,421	
1846	2,896,179	321,458	240,890	
1847	2,634,925	367,472	329,181	
1848	4,255,978	394,413	323,899	
1849	6,031,569	366,611	276,068	

III. Account of the Quantities of the Principal Articles imported into and exported from Ireland in 1825 and 1835.

Imports.				Exports.			
		1825.*	1835.			1825.*	1835.
Coal, culm, and clinders	tons	734,453	1,001,378	Cows and oxen	number	65,594	98,150
Corn, malt	quarters	4,300	4,300	Horses	—	3,140	4,635
— other sorts	—	5,861	5,861	Sheep	—	73,191	192,462
Hops	cwt.	15,944	15,944	Swine	—	65,919	65,919
Bark, oak, for tanners	tons	6,866	6,866	Grain, viz. wheat	quarters	283,340	450,522
Beer and ale	tuns	233	233	— barley	—	154,482	168,946
Fish, herrings	—	111,408	111,408	— oats	—	1,503,304	1,375,564
Salt	—	1,646,614	1,646,614	— other grain	—	35,332	36,537
Sugar, British, refined	cwt.	66,292	43,987	Wheat meal, flour, and oatmeal	cwt.	599,134	1,984,490
Spirits, British and Irish	gallons	35,395	388,690	Potatoes	—	369,378	253,398
— foreign, rum	—	—	1,498	Provisions, bacon and hams	—	379,111	379,111
— brass and copper	cwt.	—	4,650	— beef and pork	—	604,253	370,172
Metals	tons	17,908	19,330	— butter	—	474,161	827,009
Unwrought	—	—	1,498	— lard	—	35,961	70,867
— tin	cwt.	—	1,233	S soap and candles	—	—	—
Cast iron	tons	—	7,093	Eggs	number	—	54,244,800
Iron, foreign	—	—	2,930	— crates	—	—	3,273
Stones, slate	—	18,894	18,894	— boxes	—	—	10,993
Wool, sheep's or lambs'	lbs.	879,051	811,500	— cwt.	—	—	6,492
Woolen yarn	—	—	65,118	Hides and calf-skins	number	—	57,657
Linon yarn	—	—	2,636,000	Wool, sheep's and lambs'	bales	—	764,184
Cotton yarn	—	2,702,523	582,914	Flax and tow	cwt.	54,896	163,949
Cotton manufactures	yards	4,996,480	14,172,000	Lead and copper ore	—	—	47,660
Woolen manufactures	—	3,394,318	7,884,000	Spirits	gallons	929,569	2,864,475
Wool, cotton, foreign	—	4,065,350	2,646,350	Beer	—	—	—
Wool, sheep, foreign	—	—	155,008	Cotton manufactures	yards	10,567,542	1,039,088
Linens, Irish	yards	—	30,500	— packages	—	—	6,583
— British	—	—	592,633	Cotton yarn	yards	55,114,515	70,309,272
Silks, raw and thrown, foreign	lbs.	62,126	9,072	Linon	boxes	—	124
Turned plates	boxes	—	9,090	Silk manufactures	yards	—	8,400
Leather	—	—	2,196	Woolen manufactures	—	—	100,290
Wrought iron and hardware	packages	—	18,386	Other articles	value	466,900.	369,394.
Machinery and millwork	—	—	2,361				
Glass and earthenware	—	—	14,108				
Haberdashery and apparel	—	—	6,177				
Ases	cwt.	112,836	12,429				
Barilla	—	—	3,443				
Indigo	lbs.	—	99,183				
Hides	cwt.	—	74,887				
Tallow	—	186,147	87,847				
Sugar, foreign	—	290,631	189,080				
Tea	lbs.	3,289,658	4,734,316				
Coffee	—	335,921	1,305,748				
Tobacco	—	3,804,084	4,467,746				
Wines	gallons	965,840	304,031				
Flax seed	—	535,331	846,436				
Other articles	value	2,081,974.	1,275,783.				

* It is supposed that many of the articles which appear blank in the columns for 1825, and are detailed in those for 1835, are returned in the Aggregate Value of "Other Articles."

pecially of corn and flour, and of butter, pigs, eggs, &c., have prodigiously increased. The conversion of grain into flour and meal has lately become an extensive business in Ireland; and many mills, erected for this purpose, are on an extensive scale, and are furnished with the best machinery. By far the greater part of the trade of Ireland is carried on as a cross-channel trade with Great Britain, and especially with Liverpool, Bristol, and Glasgow. Its trade with foreign countries, and with British colonies, is comparatively inconsiderable.

The extraordinary increase in the value of the imports in 1847, 1848, and 1849, is entirely to be ascribed to the immense importations of corn in these years. The values of the latter were, in 1847, 6,306,488*l.*; 1848, 2,898,694*l.*; and 1849, 4,266,199*l.*

The shipping of Ireland is but inconsiderable, compared with that of Great Britain; but it has increased considerably within the last ten years. We subjoin an account of

Number and Tonnage of Sailing Vessels and Steam Vessels registered in the Ports of Ireland in 1847 and 1848.

Ports.	Sailing Vessels.								Steam Vessels.							
	1847.				1848.				1847.				1848.			
	Under 50 Tons.		50 Tons and upwards.		Under 50 Tons.		50 Tons and upwards.		Under 50 Tons.		50 Tons and upwards.		Under 50 Tons.		50 Tons and upwards.	
	Ves.	Ton.	Ves.	Ton.	Ves.	Ton.	Ves.	Ton.	Ves.	Ton.	Ves.	Ton.	Ves.	Ton.	Ves.	Ton.
Belfast	111	2,621	9	1,305	108	2,569	7	850	2	28	4	459	2	28	4	749
Belfast	111	2,621	9	1,305	108	2,569	7	850	2	28	4	459	2	28	4	749
Coleraine	11	224	3	66	12	236	2	629	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cork	159	5,541	227	39,273	134	3,365	226	43,038	5	184	15	4,216	5	184	15	4,097
Drogheda	1	183	38	4,569	7	193	39	4,670	-	-	6	1,794	25	9	1,569	-
Dublin	225	18,918	114	25,984	295	9,784	180	21,044	4	161	42	10,704	42	11,510	42	11,510
Dundalk	7	263	16	1,549	8	267	19	2,040	-	-	3	1,024	-	-	3	1,024
Galway	5	118	15	2,515	6	119	14	2,775	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Limerick	47	1,286	65	15,598	46	1,275	61	14,668	-	-	7	1,846	-	-	7	1,846
Londonderry	12	305	25	1,563	12	315	25	6,515	-	-	1	303	-	-	1	303
Newry	155	4,642	57	6,732	149	4,366	57	7,166	-	-	1	63	-	-	-	-
Ross	2	69	25	9,441	2	69	25	10,539	-	-	1	66	-	-	1	66
Sligo	9	274	36	5,291	9	274	36	5,291	1	44	1	66	-	-	-	-
Stranorlar	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	27	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Trillick	5	247	-	-	6	168	3	546	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Waterford	72	1,787	123	22,261	75	1,944	123	22,260	-	-	11	2,717	-	-	14	3,187
Westport	4	89	1	130	4	89	1	120	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Wexford	81	1,276	78	7,532	32	1,185	74	6,890	-	-	1	228	-	-	1	228
Total	1,075	30,717	1,140	211,072	1,063	32,492	1,156	212,569	13	417	92	23,350	13	412	93	24,759

Account of the Great Customs Revenue collected at the different Ports of Ireland in 1849.

Ports.	Customs.	Ports.	Customs.
Belfast	£ 5,264	Londonderry	£ 111,431
Belfast	£ 5,264	Newry	£ 25,784
Coleraine	£ 6,805	Roskilly	£ 32,925
Cork	£ 25,569	Sligo	£ 24,566
Drogheda	£ 15,428	Trillick	£ 2,559
Dublin	£ 99,433	Waterford	£ 119,269
Dundalk	£ 41,621	Westport	£ 14,182
Galway	£ 31,435	Wexford	£ 19,261
Limerick	£ 16,044		

The great preponderance of the customs revenue of Dublin results from its being the principal port for the importation of wine, sugar, timber, and other taxed articles. Its trade is really inferior to that of Belfast, but little superior to that of Cork.

Banks.—Banking business in Ireland was long in a very unsatisfactory state. Till 1785, when the Bank of

Ireland was incorporated, the business was wholly in the hands of individuals. The privileges given to the Bank of Ireland were similar to those of the Bank of England, as to the restriction of private banking establishments to six partners. Its capital, at its commencement, was 600,000*l.*, increased in 1791, to 1,000,000*l.*; in 1797, to 1,600,000*l.*; in 1808, to 2,500,000*l.*; in 1821, to 3,000,000*l.* In 1804, there were 80 registered private banks; and since then several others were opened, but they have all closed or failed, except one in Dublin. The system of joint-stock banks came into operation, in Ireland, in 1825, excepting within a circle extending 65 m. round Dublin, of which the Bank of Ireland had a monopoly.

The system of savings' banks, though in a very unsafe and unsatisfactory state, has been considerably extended. The total number of depositors and deposits was, in

	1835	1839	1847	Depositors.	Deposits.
	-	-	-	58,482	1,664,632
	-	-	-	74,233	2,158,665 <i>l.</i>
	-	-	-	80,351	2,410,790 <i>l.</i>

Account of the Joint Stock Banks existing in Ireland in 1850, specifying the Date of the Establishment of each Bank, the Number of its Branches, the Number of Partners, its nominal and paid up Capital, and its paid issue.

NAME.	When instituted.	No. of Partners on 1st Jan. 1844.	No. of Branches.	Capital.	Capital paid up.	Fixed Issue.
Bank of Ireland	June, 1783	-	25	£3,000,000	£5,000,000	£3,738,438
Hibernian Joint Stock Co., Dublin	June, 1825	-	3	1,000,000	500,000	-
Provincial Bank of Ireland	Sept., 1825	267	29	2,000,000	500,000	227,687
Northern Banking Co., Belfast	Dec., 1825	179	11	500,000	150,000	245,410
Belfast Banking Company	Dec., 1827	300	10	500,000	125,000	261,411
National Bank of Ireland	Jan., 1835	913	41	1,000,000	450,000	761,737
Ulster Banking Company, Belfast	April, 1836	489	14	1,000,000	250,000	511,079
Commercial National Bank of Ireland	May, 1836	1,000	5	-	-	66,428
Carrick-on-Suir National Bank of Ireland	May, 1836	973	3	-	-	21,061
Royal Bank, Dublin	Nov., 1836	437	-	1,044,250	309,075	-
Tipperary Joint Stock Company	Aug., 1859	49	8	-	-	-

Roads are generally well laid out, and kept in good order. They are made and maintained partly by turnpike trusts, but chiefly by co. proprietors, or associations of the co. The latter amounted, in 1848, to the sum of 4,069*l.* The system of macadamizing was practised in Ireland for some years before it attracted public attention in Great Britain.

Canals.—The Grand Canal, commenced in 1768, is carried from Dublin to Robertstown, 25 m. W., whence proceed two branches, that to the right to the Shannon harbour, on the Shannon, near Banagher, and thence on the W. of the river to Ballinasloe, 94 m. from Dublin, with a branch of 84 m. to Kilbeggan; that to the left to Athy, 55 m. from Dublin, with a branch of 11 m. from Moostereven to Portllington and Mountmellick. The summit level is 200 ft. above the sea. The Barrow is navigable from Athy, for small craft, to the Scars, 43 m., thence for larger vessels, by Ross to Waterford, 30 m.

The Royal Canal, commenced in 1789, extends from Dublin to Tarnonbarry on the Shannon, 92 m., with a branch of 5 m. from Killashee to Longford. Its greatest height above sea level is 207 ft. The Shannon has been rendered navigable from Limerick almost to its source, and is traversed by steam-boats both for passengers and goods. The Boyne navigation from Drogheda to Navan, and the Lagan from Belfast to Lough Neagh, are partly river and partly still water. The Ulster Canal connects Loughs Neagh and Erne. The Suir Navigation Company was incorporated in 1837, for making a ship canal to Carrick-on-Suir.

Railways.—Numerous railways, some of which promise to be of great advantage, have been opened in Ireland; others are in the course of being constructed, while many more have been projected. Among the leading lines may be specified the Great South Western, extending from Dublin to Cork and Limerick, with a branch to

Carlow, where it unites with lines that are to run to Waterford and Wexford; the Great Western to connect Dublin with Mullingar, Athlone, and Galway; the line from Dublin to Belfast; from the latter to Armagh, Enniskillen, and Sligo, with a number of others. Of these the first mentioned line connecting Dublin with Cork and Limerick has been nearly completed; its branch to Carlow has also been completed, and it is thence extended to Bagnalstown on the way to Waterford. The Great Western has been opened as far as Mullingar; and government have agreed to advance 500,000*l.* as a loan towards the completion of the portion of the railway between Athlone and Galway, upon the security of the line, and under the stipulation that it is to be finished on or before the 31st December, 1861. The communication between Dublin and Belfast, which one might have supposed would have been the first to be perfected, is still incomplete, though this will not, probably, be the case much longer. A number of other lines, including several which originate in Belfast, have either been completed, or are more or less advanced; but the probability is, that a far greater number of the lines that have been projected will not be undertaken. On the 30th of June 1849, 351 m. of railway had been opened, and 183 additional m. were then in progress. The total receipts from passengers and goods, during the year ended at the above date, amounted to 280,842*l.*

Revenue.—The Revenue of Ireland is raised from the same sources as in England, except the property and assessed taxes, which do not extend to Ireland. But, owing

to the depressed situation of the great bulk of the Irish people, and their inability to consume taxed articles, the revenue of Ireland falls far short of what it might be expected to amount to from the magnitude of the pop. In fact, the revenue of Ireland, with a pop. (in 1841) of 8½ millions, hardly equals that of Scotland, with a pop. of 3 millions.

We subjoin an account of the gross and nett receipt of the public revenue of Ireland in 1849, showing the rate per cent. which it cost to collect the gross revenue.

	Gross Receipts.			Nett Receipt, deducting Expenditures.			Rate per cent. at which Gross Revenue was collected.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Customs	2,182,045	3	3	2,177,121	13	8	10	2	0½
Excise	1,408,492	7	1½	1,403,638	16	4	11	3	10
Stamps	538,949	0	0	518,914	12	4½	5	4	10½
Post-office	184,514	2	2	181,350	16	1	61	10	5
Surplus Fund	10,561	0	4	10,561	0	4			
Totals	4,323,561	11	10½	4,291,806	18	9½	12	12	9

But, exclusive of the above, or of the public revenue, a considerable sum is annually raised by grand jury presentments, that is, by assessments on the cos. made by the grand juries, for constructing and keeping up roads, prisons and bridewells, police and police establishments, and for charitable purposes, &c. We subjoin

An Account of the Sums raised by Grand Jury Presentments in Ireland, in 1846, 1847, and 1848; specifying the Objects for which they were raised, and the Amount appropriated to each.

	1846.			1847.			1848.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Roads, bridges, &c.	110,264	9	8½	96,135	16	10½	75,055	3	1½
Repairs of roads, &c.	223,891	10	0	264,369	11	9½	325,644	17	9
Erection and repairs of court or sessions houses	9,904	18	7	13,457	17	1½	9,872	12	0½
Erection and repairs of prisons	8,882	8	11	6,881	8	4	9,298	13	0
Other prison and bridewell expenses	33,303	1	1	145,677	15	6	120,212	16	11
Police and witnesses	155,429	1	0	137,452	11	2½	54,166	1	10
Salaries of county officers	102,381	16	8	97,954	18	3	102,324	17	3
Public charities	113,074	12	1½	118,290	14	10½	113,265	14	6½
Appropriation to Government	119,337	10	8½	158,233	8	2	260,945	5	3½
Miscellaneous	94,067	7	7	116,536	11	8½	132,232	8	1½
Total	1,180,266	16	1½	1,175,474	0	0½	1,241,854	8	9

This is but a small sum, compared with what is assessed for similar purposes in England. But the weight of local taxation on the land is now considerably increased, through the operation of the compulsory provision for the support of the poor; though that will be far more than counterbalanced by the good effects of which it cannot fail to be productive.

The constitution of Ireland is modelled on that of England; but, for a lengthened period, the native Irish, comprising the great bulk of the population, were effectually excluded from all participation in its benefits, and were in fact reduced to a state of *helotism*. This conduct, it is needless to add, was little less injurious to the conquerors than to the conquered. "As the English would neither in peace govern the Irish by the law, nor could in war root them out by the sword, they needs became pricks in their eyes and thorns in their sides." But nations are slow and reluctant learners; and that selfish short-sighted policy, whose effects were thus forcibly exposed by Sir John Davies (*Discoverie*, &c., p. 120. ed. 1747) in the reign of James I., flourished in its full vigour down almost to our own times! The granting of the elective franchise to the Catholics, so late as 1792, was, in truth, the first great step in the progress to a better system, which was happily consummated by the repeal of the last remnant of the penal code in 1829. The odious distinctions by which society was formerly divided have no longer any legal or statutory foundation. Adherence to the religion of their ancestors has ceased to entail upon the Catholics a denial of their political franchises; and all classes now participate equally in the rights and privileges granted by the constitution. The legislature consisted, previously to the Union, of a chief governor, under the name of lord lieutenant, with power to appoint a deputy during absence, a house of lords and a house of commons. Under Henry VII., the prostration of the Irish parliament was effected, by transferring the right to hold parliaments, which had been vested in the lord lieutenant, and to originate bills, to the king and the English privy council. The first parliament, in which members were returned from all parts of Ireland, sat in the beginning of the reign of James I. The number of members varied at different times, but was ultimately fixed at 300, two for each co., two for Trinity College, and the remainder for cities and bors., the representatives for the latter being, in most instances, nominated by their proprietor or

patron. Previously to 1768, the members held their seats for life, so that they could hardly be considered as representatives even of the Protestant part of the nation, and had but little sympathy with popular feelings. At this epoch, however, parliaments were made occasional. Since the Union, Ireland has been represented in the imperial parliament by 38 temporal peers, elected for life by the whole body of Irish peers; four bishops, who sit according to annual rotation of sees; and from the Union till the passing of the Reform Act, it was represented in the H. of C. by 100 mems., two for each co., two each for the cities of Dublin and Cork, one for Trinity College, and one each for the 31 bors. of Armagh, Athlone, Bandon, Belfast, Carlow, Carrickfergus, Cashel, Clonmel, Coleraine, Downpatrick, Drogheda, Dundalk, Dungannon, Dungarvan, Ennis, Enniskillen, Galway, Kilkenny, Kinsale, Limerick, Lisburn, Londonderry, Malvern, New Ross, Newry, Portarlington, Sligo, Tralee, Waterford, Wexford, and Youghal. The Reform Act gave Ireland five additional mems., which were assigned to Trinity College, Belfast, Galway, Limerick, and Waterford, which, consequently have now two mems. each. It also vested the electoral franchise in cos. in the same classes as in England, with the substitution of 50*l.* for 50*l.*, and 14*l.* for 20*l.*; and in cities and bors. in freemen resident within seven miles, and 10*l.* freeholders. But these qualifications having been found to be too high, were reduced, in 1850, by the 18 & 14 Vict. c. 69., which has given the franchise in counties to the occupiers of land rated for the poor-rate at the nett value of 12*l.* a year, and to the possessors of estates in fee or for life rated at 5*l.*; it has, also, given the franchise in towns to all parties occupying lands or premises rated at 5*l.* a year. The electoral boundaries of the bors. are fixed by statute. The executive government is vested in the lord lieutenant, or, in his absence, in the lords justices, generally the prime, lord chancellor, and commander of the forces, and a privy council nominated by the crown, and consisting chiefly of the high judicial and ministerial functionaries. The lord lieutenant is assisted by a chief secretary, a mem. of the H. of C.; and who, being in effect secretary for Ireland, is especially responsible for its government. The salary of the lord lieutenant is 30,000*l.* a year, with liberal allowances for residence and household.

The judicial establishment is vested, as in Great Britain, in the lord chancellor, removable at pleasure, as

slated by the masters of the rolls, and in 12 judges, four for each of the courts of Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer. Two of the law judges go through each of the six circuits, into which the country is distributed, twice a year, to decide criminal and civil cases. The judges of the courts of Prerogative and Admiralty are generally practising barristers. A barrister also presides along with the co. magistrates, at the Courts of Quarter Sessions. Petty sessions, at which at least two magistrates must be present, are held weekly, or once a fortnight, in every district. Each corporate town has a judge, or recorder, and local magistrates, elected by the corporation; and every manor has its courts under a seneschal or bailiff nominated by the proprietor. The lord chancellor has the power of appointing and removing the co. magistrates, for whose conduct he is responsible. An act passed in 1840 (3 & 4 Victoria, cap. 108.) for remodelling the municipal corporations in Irish towns. It gives the right of voting at municipal elections to all persons resident in boroughs, or within 7 m. of their boundaries, occupying houses, shops, or other premises within the same of the annual value of 10*l*.

The conservation of the peace is committed, in the co., to a lord lieutenant, aided by an indefinite number of deputy lord lieutenants, all nominated by the crown and by the high sheriff, selected, as in England, from lists prepared by the judges of assize. The police consisted of a well-organised constabulary force, which consisted, on the 1st of January, 1849, of 12,122 officers and men, under an inspector-general, 2 dep. inspectors-general, 2 assistant inspectors-general, 35 county inspectors, &c., and including also 70 stipendiary magistrates. The total expense of the force in 1848 amounted to 562,507*l*.

The larger towns have each a corporate police; and a military force, varying in numbers according to circumstances, is distributed throughout the country.

There are 44 county or town prisons, penitentiaries, and houses of correction, and 111 bridewells or places of temporary confinement. The superintendence of the prisons is committed to two inspectors-general, who make annual reports to parliament, and to a local inspector. The prisons are generally well constructed and regulated. The following table, extracted from the inspectors' reports, exhibits a view of the number of committals and convictions, and of the number of the latter visited with the highest and lowest grades of punishment, from 1837, to 1848 inclusive:—

Years.	Summary Convictions.		No. of Cases at Assizes and Quarter Sessions.	Total convicted.	Sentences at Assizes least and greatest.	6 Months Imprisonment and under.	Capital.	Deaths.
	Petty Offences.	Drunkenness.						
1837	9,649	8,769	14,304	9,536	6,186	154	16	
1838	9,760	16,461	15,723	9,609	6,343*	39	2	
1839	16,814	36,678	26,292	17,619	7,726	26	17	
1840	15,611	35,927	25,453	17,194	6,976	45	9	
1841	15,177	38,649	23,796	15,987	5,594	40	5	
1842	17,009	17,396	21,146	18,774	5,975	39	4	
1843	18,848	20,453	20,126	18,600	5,282	11	5	
1844	18,837	24,362	19,448	18,912	7,083	30	5	
1845	17,512	23,076	16,696	17,101	5,696	13	3	
1846	16,699	23,182	18,492	16,529	4,897	11	1	
1847	25,110	15,406	18,086	18,238	9,410	33	8	
1848	49,717	13,202	28,582	18,306	11,289	60	8	

The following Table shows the Committals for the Years 1847 and 1848, arranged according to Classes:—

Class.	1847.	1848.	Increase.	Increase per Cent.	Rate per Cent. in 1848.	
					Convicted.	Acquitted.
1. Offences against the person with violence	4,569	5,998	1,417	31.12	81.48	65.72
2. Offences against property with violence	2,229	2,561	332	14.99	37.91	67.09
3. Offences against property without violence	17,484	19,547	2,063	11.8	69.08	60.92
4. Malicious offences against property	1,108	1,603	495	44.67	87.73	87.73
5. Forgery and offences against the currency	735	802	67	10.38	51.48	48.52
6. Miscellaneous offences	6,443	6,390	57	44.65	38.42	66.58

Gross increase on the year 1848, as compared with 1847, 7,313, or 33.43 per cent.

The regular troops stationed in Ireland since 1800 have been as follows:—

Years.	Troops.	Years.	Troops.	Years.	Troops.
1830	20,408	1837	18,490	1844	25,115
1831	16,701	1838	16,490	1845	23,776
1832	19,301	1839	16,884	1846	24,116
1833	22,086	1840	16,868	1847	28,108
1834	23,083	1841	16,687	1848	26,417
1835	18,862	1842	15,191	1849	25,567
1836	17,908	1843	14,476		

The military department is under the control of the commander of the forces, whose head quarters is at Kilmalsham. He has under him 5 general officers, who respectively command one of the 5 military districts into which the island is divided. The Ordnance, which is a branch of that of Great Britain, has its chief station at the Pigeon House Fort: attached to it is the staff of the trigonometrical survey of Ireland. There is at Kilmalsham an hospital for disabled and disabled soldiers, similar to that of Chelsea.

Religious Establishments.—The ecclesiastical arrangements that prevail in Ireland are at once anomalous and irrational. The Reformation never made any considerable progress in the country, the new doctrines being only espoused by the English settlers within the pale. But after protestantism had been adopted by the bulk of the English people, and had been a state established religion on this side the water, it was determined to establish it as the state religion in Ireland. In pursuance of this resolution, the Catholic clergy were ejected from their livings, which were bestowed upon divines attached to the doctrines of the church of England. This change did not, however, produce any corresponding change in the religious feelings of the people, who seemed, indeed, to become the more attached to their ancient faith, according as their clergy were treated with harshness and injustice. In every other country, the established religion, if there be one, is that of the great majority of the people; but in Ireland the established religion is and long has been that of a small minority—and that minority, be it observed, consists principally of the wealthy and best educated classes, who could, without difficulty, supply themselves with religious instruction! Such an arrangement is inconsistent with and subversive of every principle of sound policy and common sense. The grand object of an establishment should be the provision of religious instruction and consolation for the great bulk of the community, and

especially for those who are too poor to be able to provide it for themselves. But, in Ireland, the reverse of all this obtains. The established religion is alien to and repudiated by nine tenths of the pop., who regard it as erroneous in principle, and as a usurpation upon the rights and property of their clergymen. These feelings are natural; and it is nugatory to suppose that they should be got rid of, so long as the existing arrangements are maintained. A Catholic establishment in England would not, in fact, be more irrational and absurd than a Protestant establishment in Ireland; and, so long as the latter is permitted exclusively to enjoy the revenues appropriated by the state for the support of religion, so long will it be an object of disgust and hostility to the Catholic people and clergy, that is, to the great majority of the nation, and be productive of the most implacable animosities.

Previously to 1834, when the Church Temporalities Act, the 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 37, was passed, the country was divided into 4 archbishoprics, corresponding nearly with its four civil provinces, and these were further subdivided into 29 bishoprics, held by 18 bishops. But this hierarchy, obviously disproportioned to the wants of the country, was restricted within more moderate dimensions by the act referred to above. It reduced the archbishoprics of Cashel and Tuam to bishoprics; and divided the island into the Northern and Southern provinces, the archbishop of Armagh being the head of the one, and the archbishop of Dublin of the other. It also reduced the number of bishops to 10; and effected various changes in the revenues of the different sees to take effect on the demise of the different incumbents by whom they were then occupied. The revenues arising from the cancelled bishoprics and other sources were vested in commissioners, to be applied to the building and repair of churches and other ecclesiastical purposes.

Under the old arrangement, the archbishoprics and bishoprics, with their revenues, were as follows:—

	VICARS.	
Armagh	—	417,570
North and Clonsilla	—	5,920
Clogher	—	10,371
Down and Connor	—	5,998
Derry	—	14,183
Lisburn	—	5,787
Kilmore	—	7,775
Down	—	4,813
	LEIGHEN.	
Dublin and Glendalagh	—	49,391
Kildare	—	6,453
Wexford	—	3,459
Ferens and Leighlin	—	6,550

		NORTHWEST.			
Cashel and Emly	-	-	-	£7,554	
Limerick, Ardara, and Aghadoe	-	-	-	5,369	
Waterford and Lismore	-	-	-	4,328	
Cork and Ross	-	-	-	5,546	
Cloyne	-	-	-	5,019	
Killaloe and Killmora	-	-	-	4,041	
		SOUTHWEST.			
Tuam and Ardagh	-	-	-	£25,306	
Elphin	-	-	-	7,054	
Clofart and Kilmacduagh	-	-	-	5,621	
Killala and Achonry	-	-	-	4,082	

Total Income £130,635

Under the existing arrangement, the dioceses and their incomes will be thus regulated:—

		NORTHERN PROVINCE.			
Armagh with Clogher	-	-	-	£119,067	
Meath and Clonmacnoise	-	-	-	4,068	
Derry and Raphoe	-	-	-	8,000	
Down and Connor, and Dromore	-	-	-	4,304	
Kilmore, Ardagh, and Elphin	-	-	-	6,253	
Tuam, Killala, and Achonry	-	-	-	4,640	
				£39,312	
		SOUTHERN PROVINCE.			
Dublin, Glendalagh, and Kildare	-	-	-	7,786	
Osney, Leighlin, and Ferns	-	-	-	4,300	
Cashel, Emly, Waterford, and Lismore	-	-	-	5,000	
Cork, Cloyne, and Ross	-	-	-	2,198	
Killaloe, Killmora, Clonfert, and Kilmacduagh	-	-	-	3,470	
Limerick, Ardara, and Aghadoe	-	-	-	4,975	
				£15,327	

The total income of the two archbishops, and of their ten suffragan bishops, will thus be £7,539, being an average of £5,328, to each.

The revenues of the suppressed bishoprics were, in the years ending 1st August, 1845, 1846, 1847—

	1845.			1846.			1847.		
	£	s	d.	£	s	d.	£	s	d.
Ardagh	2,538	8	2	2,521	7	10½	2,596	14	0
Clonfert									
Kilmacduagh	3,216	7	7	1,825	18	6½	1,134	3	9
Cork and Ross	4,548	16	6	4,341	0	8½	2,904	7	11
Dromore	2,578	15	3	4,518	5	5	4,518	5	5
Elphin	6,180	1	10	7,165	10	11½	4,251	17	3
Kildare									
Diocese of Christ Ch.							2,906	15	10
Killala									
Achonry	4,073	0	4	5,524	15	9½	3,286	5	11
Osney	5,049	11	3	4,041	11	3	2,545	1	3
Raphoe	6,108	18	9	8,524	16	1	4,654	6	11
Waterford and Lismore	4,561	7	7	3,960	7	2	3,777	12	5
Total	40,160	11	1	42,770	15	11½	32,638	5	6

On the demise of the present bishop of Clogher the revenues of that see, estimated at 10,000, per annum, will fall into the hands of the commissioners; and on the next voidance of the sees of Armagh and Derry, a further income will be derived of 4,500, from the former, and 2,000, per annum from the latter see.

Exclusive of deans, prebendaries, and other dignitaries, Ireland is divided into about 2,400 parishes, and has about 1400 beneficed clergymen. The incomes of the prelates and other dignitaries are principally derived from the rent of lands let on lease, or rather on leases renewable by fine. The other clergy are partly provided for by glebe lands, but principally by tithes, and in towns by an assessment called minister's money.

In addition to the unpopularity attaching to the church of England in Ireland, from its being the church of a minority, the fact of its deriving the largest portion of its income from tithes, tended materially to increase the odium under which it has long laboured. Tithe is every where a most vexatious and impolitic tax; but in Ireland it has been peculiarly noxious; for there the land being mostly split into small portions occupied by poor Catholic cottiers, the payment of tithe to Protestant clergymen is not only felt to be a most oppressive burden, but it is, at the same time, looked upon as a sacrifice imposed for the promotion and advantage of heresy and error. It has also been very unfairly assessed. By a resolution of the Irish H. of C. in 1735, grass lands obtained an exemption from tithe; so that while a tenth part of the produce of a potato garden or slip of land, on which, perhaps, a numerous family was dependent, went to the establishment, the herds of the opulent grazer contributed nothing to its support. Under such circumstances, we need not wonder that, for a lengthened period, the payment of tithes in Ireland was made with extreme reluctance, and that their collection has, in innumerable instances, been productive of outrage and bloodshed. At last, it became next to impossible, in many parts of the kingdom, to derive any revenue from this source; and in consequence it was attempted to substitute compositions or fixed payments for tithes in the room of tithes themselves. But, though productive of some advantage, this measure was comparatively useless, from its leaving the composition to be paid by the occupier and not by the

landlord. To obviate this defect, an act was passed in 1838 (1 & 2 Victoria, cap. 109.) abolishing compositions for tithes, and substituting in their stead a fixed payment of three fourths of their amount (£01,114.) to be made by the landlords or others having a perpetual interest in the land. This act, by relieving the tithe-collector from the necessity of coming into contact with the great bulk of the occupiers, has obviated a prolific source of predial disturbance, and been, in so far, advantageous. Still, however, it must not be supposed that either this or any other device should ever reconcile the Irish people to the appropriation of a large revenue to the exclusive use of the church of a small minority of their number. The effect of this preposterous arrangement is to insult and alienate the bulk of the population, who would be more or less than men if it ceased to encounter their rooted hostility.

The R. Catholic church is arranged nearly in the same manner as the established church previously to the late changes. There are four archbishops, the same in name and provincial rank as those of the Protestant church, and 23 bishops. Eight of the bishops—Ardagh, Clogher, Derry, Down and Connor, Dromore, Kilmore, Meath, and Raphoe—are suffragan to Armagh. Dublin has but three suffragans—Kildare and Leighlin, and Ferns and Osney. Six are suffragan to Cashel, namely Ardara and Aghadoe (usually called the Bishop of Kerry, Cloyne, and Ross), Cork, Killaloe, Limerick, Waterford, and Lismore. Tuam has four suffragans—Achonry, Clonfert, Killala, and Galway. The bishop of the united dioceses of Kilmacduagh and Killmora is alternately suffragan to the archbishops of Tuam and Cashel. The wardenship of Galway, formerly an exempt jurisdiction, subject only to the triennial visitation of the archbishop of Tuam, has been lately erected into a bishopric, under its former archiepiscopal jurisdiction. On the death of a bishop, the clergy of the diocese elect a vicar-capitular, who exercises spiritual jurisdiction during the vacancy. They also nominate one of their own body, or sometimes a stranger, as successor to the vacancy, in whose favour they postulate or petition the pope. The bishops of the province also present the names of two or three eligible persons to the pope. The new bishop is generally chosen from among this latter number; but he appoints virtually coadjutors with the cardinal, who constitute the congregation of *capitulum*. *Adde.* Their nomination is submitted to the pope, by whom it is usually confirmed. In cases of old age or infirmity, the bishop nominates a coadjutor, to discharge the episcopal duties in his stead; and his recommendation is almost invariably attended to. The emoluments of a bishop arise from his parish, which is generally the best in the diocese, from licences of marriage, &c., and from the cathedralism. The last is an annual sum, varying from 2½ to 10½, according to the value of the archbishop, paid by the incumbent. In all the maintenance of the episcopal dignity. The parochial clergy are nominated exclusively by the bishop. The incomes of all descriptions of the R. Catholic clergy of Ireland arise partly from fees on the celebration of births, marriages, and masses; and partly, and principally, perhaps, from Christmas and Easter dues, and other voluntary offerings. All places of worship are built by subscription. There are numerous monasteries and convents.

Exclusive of the injustice inflicted on the R. Catholics of Ireland, by the seizure of the funds belonging to their church, and their appropriation to the support of the clergy of the church of England, they laboured for a lengthened period under the most degrading disabilities. The treaty of Limerick, in 1691, between the generals of William II. and those of James II., guaranteed to the Irish R. Catholics the same religious privileges they had enjoyed during the reign of Charles II. But this treaty was most shamefully broken; and during the reigns of Anne, George I., and George II., a series of acts were passed, constituting what has been termed the Catholic penal code, which had for its object the extermination of the R. Catholic religion in Ireland. It is unnecessary to recapitulate the provisions of these statutes. Their spirit was succinctly and truly described by Mr. Burke:—"The laws made in this kingdom (Ireland) against papists were as bloody as any of those that had been enacted by the popish princes and states; and when these laws were not bloody they were worse: they were slow, cruel, outrageous in their nature, and kept men alive only to insult in their persons every one of the rights and feelings of humanity." (*Letter to Sir H. Langrish.*)

Every body knows that this atrocious code entirely failed of its object, and that, instead of being exterminated, the R. Catholic religion gained new strength and vigour from the persecution to which it was exposed.

Per damna, per cunctas, ab ipsis
Ducti opes animarumque furores.

In the earlier part of the reign of George III., the leading statesmen of England became alive to the impolicy and mischievous operation of parts, at least, of the penal code; and its more offensive provisions were gradually

repealed. In 1798, the elective franchise was conceded to the R. Catholics; but they continued, down to a comparatively late period, to be excluded from the privilege of having seats in the legislature, of being members of corporations, and of holding numerous public offices of trust and emolument. At length, in 1829, the R. Catholics were fully emancipated from all civil disabilities on account of religion, and were placed, as respects their political rights and franchises, nearly on the same footing as Protestants.

That this measure was a great boon to Ireland is most true; but, though it allayed, it was not enough to extinguish, religious feuds and animosities. Justice, and the most obvious dictates of policy, require, as already stated, either that the R. Cath. should be made the established religion of Ireland, or, at all events, that the R. Cath. clergy should participate, proportionally to the number of their flocks, in the emoluments now exclusively engrossed by the clergy of the church of England. It is a contradiction and an absurdity to suppose that a great and decisive majority should ever quietly submit to be deprived of privileges possessed by a minority. This, however, is the state of things in Ireland; and, till it be radically and completely changed, the country will, no doubt, continue, as heretofore, to be disgraced and distracted by religious dissensions.

The Protestant dissenters are found chiefly in Ulster. They are classed in congregations, an indefinite number of which forms a presbytery, and delegates, partly ministers and partly lay elders, form the general synod, which regulates the ecclesiastical concerns of the body, and is presided over by a moderator chosen annually. The synod of Ulster is consistent with the establishment of the Presbyterian doctrine and discipline in Ireland. The Southern Association, or Presbyterian Synod of Munster, was formed about 1660: the Presbytery of Antrim separated from the Synod of Ulster in 1727, and the Remonstrant Synod in 1829. The number of presbyteries and congregations in each body, and in the Seceding and Covenanters' synods are as follows:—

	Presbyteries.	Congregations.
General Synod of Ulster	24	275
Presbyterian Synod of Munster	2	15
Presbytery of Antrim	1	15
Remonstrant Synod	4	27
Seceders	10	132
Covenanters	4	28

The Methodists are divided into two societies—the Wesleyan and the Primitive Wesleyan; the number in both societies is 27,546. The Independents, or Congregational Union, a separate body from Presbyterians or Methodists, have 25 congregations.

The Society of Friends, or Quakers, are most numerous in Dublin, the Queen's Co., and Armagh. The United Brethren, or Moravians, have establishments in Dublin and Antrim. The Jews have a synagogue in Dublin.

The numbers attached to each religious persuasion in Ireland, in 1834, were, according to the returns of the Commissioners of Public Instruction, as follow:—

Denominations.	Number.	Centimal Prop.
Established Church	839,064	10-738
Roman Catholics	6,127,712	80-912
Presbyterians	641,556	8-096
Other Dissenters	21,809	0-275

Or, in round numbers, out of every hundred souls, 11 are of the establishment, 81 R. Catholics, and 8 Protestant dissenters.

Education.—The principle of educating the great body of the people was fully recognised at the Reformation. An act of 28 Henry VIII. bound every beneficed clergyman by oath, on his incumbency, to keep or cause to be kept a school in his parish. A subsequent act of Elizabeth required the bishop and beneficed clergy of every diocese to maintain a grammar-school. But in nine cases out of ten, the oath and the act were alike disregarded; and the few schools that were organised were founded on sectarian principles, being intended for the exclusive use of the dominant sect. In 1733, a society was established by charter, for founding schools at the public expense, in which the children of the poor should

be taught the elements of literature, and instructed in useful works. But though the avowed, this was not the real object of this society, which exerted itself to undermine the Catholic religion by educating Catholic children in the principles of the Protestant faith! But this attempt at proselytism was soon discovered; and the schools were, of course, deserted by all but Protestants, and have, in fact, served as so many foci for the dissemination of bigotry rather than of really useful instruction. But though thus thrown upon their own resources, the Catholic peasantry of Ireland were by no means uneducated, at least, if we understand by education, instruction in reading, writing, and the common rules of arithmetic. But we regret to have to add, that the moral character of their education was too generally of the most objectionable description; and that, instead of improving, it not unfrequently tended to debase and pervert the mind, and to familiarise the young with immorality and disorder. In these respects, however, great improvements have been effected within these few years, and the character both of the country schoolmasters and of the school books (formerly of the worst possible description), has been greatly ameliorated.

In 1815, a society in Dublin, for the suppression of vice, received a large parliamentary grant for the instruction of the poor on the principles of the established church; and, in 1819, a society for the instruction of the poor, but professing to avoid any interference with the religious opinions of the pupils, received a much larger annual grant. The latter of these associations was called the *Kildare Street Society*, from the place of its meetings.

These societies failed, however, in producing a general effect. The grants of public money, by which the chartered schools were chiefly maintained, were withdrawn, from a conviction of their inefficacy, and of the abuses which had crept into their management. The grants to the society for the suppression of vice, and the Kildare Street Society, were also withdrawn, in consequence of their want of success, and of the real or supposed interference with the religious tenets of the pupils. In 1833, the public money hitherto parcelled out among these associations was vested in the lord lieutenant, to be expended in promoting the education of the children of every religious denomination under the superintendence of commissioners forming a board of National Education. Education in the national schools is strictly confined to the common and most useful branches of secular knowledge, the religious instruction of the pupils being, in every case, left to the care of their parents and the priests of the denominations to which they belong.

The commissioners comprise some of the highest dignitaries, both of the Protestant and R. Catholic churches; and some distinguished Protestant and Catholic laymen. They seem to have discharged their important functions with great diligence and impartiality. The schools they assist in establishing, though opposed by the bigots of both factions, appear to be making the most satisfactory progress; and will, no doubt, be productive of great public benefit. We subjoin an account of the progress of the national schools since their commencement in 1833:—

Years.	Schools.	Pupils.	Parl. Grants.
1833	789	107,044	25,000
1834	1,106	145,221	35,000
1835	1,181	153,707	35,000
1836	1,300	166,929	35,000
1837	1,384	169,448	50,000
1838	1,561	192,971	50,000
1839	1,978	232,560	50,000
1840	2,537	281,849	50,000
1841	2,721	319,792	55,000
1842	2,912	355,320	55,000
1843	3,153	394,350	75,000
1844	3,428	432,944	85,000
1845	3,637	456,410	100,000
1846	3,825	492,628	120,000
1847	4,109	507,469	125,000

The comparative progress of the system through the several provinces appears from the following table, showing the number of the schools and teachers in 1847, and the number of pupils, both male and female, as returned by the managers half-yearly:—

Provinces.	No. of Schools in operation on the 31st Dec., 1847.	No. of Children on the Rolls, as returned by the Managers, for the half-years ending						Number of Teachers.	
		31st March, 1847.			30th September, 1847.				
		Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.
Ulster -	1,598	79,124	57,411	136,535	75,724	58,772	134,544	1,329	382
Munster -	1,000	57,000	40,818	97,818	61,014	45,116	106,130	854	265
Leinster -	947	65,128	50,510	105,638	54,775	55,558	110,333	645	424
Connaught -	460	35,833	19,159	44,992	25,880	18,346	44,226	343	176
Total	3,925	209,140	147,098	356,238	217,569	133,690	397,259	2,944	1,298

Of the children educated, fully one-seventh are Protestants, which is not less than a fair proportion, as the Protestant poor certainly do not exceed one-seventh part of the poor of Ireland.

The Sunday School Society, formed in 1809, for the moral and religious instruction of children unable to attend schools on week days, had in connection with it, in 1849, 2,936 schools, attended by above 20,000 teachers and 224,171 pupils. It is maintained wholly by voluntary contributions.

There are several collegiate institutions for instruction in the higher departments of science and literature. Among them are Trinity College, Dublin, the only university entitled to confer degrees in all the faculties, the R. Catholic College at Maynooth, the Academical Institution in Belfast, &c. Some details relating to each of these are given in the accounts of their respective localities. (See DUBLIN, MAYNOOTH, BELFAST.)

More recently, however, or in 1845, an act was passed (8 & 9 Vict. c. 65.), for founding new colleges in Ireland with liberal endowments, on an enlarged and comprehensive plan. In pursuance of this act, colleges denominated the "Queens'" have been opened in Belfast, Cork, and Galway. The professors have been selected with the greatest care, regard being solely had to their moral, literary, and scientific character, without inquiring or caring whether they were R. Catholics or Protestants. Religious instruction is given in the class-rooms of the colleges; but attendance at such times is quite voluntary on the part of the students; and no religious test, qualification, or declaration is required to enable any one to enter the college, or to contend for its honours and prizes. These institutions were intended by Sir Robert Peel, by whom they were founded, to furnish the best classical, literary, and scientific education to all ranks and orders of Her Majesty's subjects; and they appear eminently well fitted to realise his enlightened views. They have, however, we are sorry to say, encountered the marked hostility of the more bigoted portion of the Catholic clergy; and, though we would fain hope for better things, we should not be surprised were the attendance of the R. Catholic youth at these colleges prohibited by the Pope.

Poor.—Notwithstanding the great natural advantages of the country, it has, as already seen, been overspread with a redundant population, in such depressed circumstances as to be involved in the extreme of destitution on any failure of the potato crop; and there is also, at all times, much suffering, arising from the pressure of want. Down to a recent period there was no efficient provision for the relief of the poor, who, in consequence, had to depend wholly on private benevolence. Mendicancy was practised to an extraordinary extent, and strangers in Ireland were shocked by the swarms and disgust, by the importunity of beggars of all ages and sexes, and in the most abject state of poverty, that infested the roads and public places. Such a state of things was a disgrace to a country pretending to be civilised. But discreditable as it was, it could not be materially improved without instituting a compulsory provision for the support of the poor, which was long successfully resisted, through the prevalence of unfounded theories with respect to its operation in this country. At length, however, sounder opinions gained an ascendancy; and parliament became impressed with the conviction that it was indispensable, in order to preserve the tranquillity of the country in seasons of scarcity, to make some more effectual provision for the support of the poor. This was done by an act passed in 1838, which introduced the principle of compulsory assessment for the poor into Ireland; and which, while it serves to protect the population from falling a sacrifice to the extremity of want, is a new and powerful motive to the landlords to oppose the splitting of farms, and to take a greater interest than they previously did in the condition of the cottiers and others inhabiting their estates. In both these respects, the compulsory assessment has been eminently useful. This system is placed under the control of the Poor Law Commissioners for England, and is now extended over the whole country.

The Poor Law came into operation in 1839, but none of the workhouses were opened for the admission of paupers till 1840. Since 25th March, 1846, all the workhouses in Ireland have been open, and a rate has been made in every union. The following (see next column) is a series of the returns of expenditure of every kind, and of the numbers of paupers relieved in the workhouses, from the commencement of proceedings under the Relief Act, to 29th September, 1848:—

Races, Character, and Condition of the People.—It seems to be admitted on all hands that the first inhabitants of Ireland, of whom history has preserved any account, belonged to the great Celtic family. Much ingenious conjecture has

Year.	No. of Unions.	Expenditure.	Paupers
1840	4	237,057	10,910
1841	57	110,378	21,108
1842	92	291,233	87,504
1843	106	244,374	87,898
1844	113	271,544	108,358
1845	123	316,023	114,305
1846	129	435,001	242,933
1847	130	303,686	117,139
1848	131	1,853,510	610,463

The number of paupers relieved in the 131 unions in the year ended 29th September, 1848, was as follows:—

In workhouses 30th September, 1847	-	85,300
Admitted into, and born in, workhouses, during the year ended 29th September, 1848	-	523,263
Discharged and died during the year	-	486,460
Remaining at close of the year	-	194,003
Relieved in the workhouses during the year	-	610,463
Relieved out of workhouses	-	1,433,042
Total	-	2,043,505

been expended on the question whence Ireland derived her earliest colonists; and the claims of Britain, France, Spain, Scythia, and even Troy, to the honour of being the mother country of the Irish, have all been supported with some learning and much confidence. We shall not enter on this slippery arena; but shall content ourselves with observing that, owing to the greater proximity of Britain to the Continent, it is most probable that she was peopled before Ireland; and the latter being nearer to Britain than to the Continent, it is for the same reason most probable that she was either wholly peopled from Britain, or principally from her, but partly also from Gaul.

Though there be no direct evidence of the fact, it may, perhaps, be inferred that Ireland was visited at an early period by Phœnician, or rather Carthaginian ships; but, in those days, this must have been a long and perilous voyage; and there are no grounds whatever for thinking that it was of common occurrence, or that the Phœnicians ever made any settlement in the country.

The Irish belong to what is called the Gaelic division of the Celtic family; having, as is supposed, emigrated from Britain when the latter was invaded and settled by the Cimbri or Northern Celts. About the period when the Romans withdrew from Britain, a tribe called the *Scotti* began to acquire a preponderating influence in Ireland, which, from the 5th to about the 11th century, was thence called *Scotia*. But about the latter period this tribe, having effected a settlement on the W. coast of N. Britain, its name was transferred to that country, which still retains it, and Ireland again recovered its old name of Hibernia, Ierne, or Ireland. The greatest diversity of opinion exists, and an almost impenetrable obscurity hangs over every circumstance connected with the establishment of the *Scotti* in Ireland. Colonists from Belgium are known to have settled in it, and Pinkerton supposes that they were the progenitors of the *Scotti*; but this is disputed by Moore and others, who contend that the settlement of the *Scotti* in Ireland is comparatively recent; and that they were of Scandinavian origin.

But though these Belgian or Scandinavian immigrants succeeded in obtaining an ascendancy in parts of Ireland, they were not sufficiently numerous to make any considerable change in the language, character, or institutions of its Celtic inhabitants. "The conquering tribes themselves, one after another, became mingled with the general mass, leaving only in those few Teutonic words, which are found mixed up with the native Celtic, any vestige of their once separate existence." (*Moore's Ireland*, l. 98.)

The number of English settlers in Ireland was long inconsiderable. Till the plantation of Ulster, in the reign of James I., they were mostly, indeed, confined to the E. and S.E. counties; where, though they had partially changed the language, they had effected comparatively little change in the habits and manners of the people. The pop. of Connaught, and generally of all the western and of a large portion of the other parts of the island, may, even at this day, be considered as of nearly pure Celtic origin; and in several of the remoter districts Celtic is now the ordinary language of the common people. And, notwithstanding the differences that may easily be traced in different parts, from the intermixture of English and Scotch blood, the entire pop. has a peculiar and distinctive character, that is not to be mistaken. It may, in general, be said of the Irish, that they are ardent in their affections, credulous, vain, fond to excess of flattery, irascible, easily influenced by sudden impulses, uncertain, and usually in extremes. Hence the facility with which they have been duped by the merest impostors; and their proneness to believe every falsehood, how gross soever, that flatters their prejudices. They are wholly destitute not merely of the foresight and prudence, but also of the resolution and steady perseverance of the English and Scotch: and though their bravery be unquestionable, and they will undertake any thing, they are very apt, if they do not succeed at the first onset, to become dispirited, and to despond. They are eminently witty, hospitable and social; though often parsimonious, prodigality is one of their distinguishing traits; as is their light-hearted, contented disposition: but this frequently degenerates into thoughtlessness; and, how advantageous soever in some respects, by disposing them to be satisfied with existing circumstances, it tends to hinder their making any persevering and well-concerted efforts for their improvement.

Dr. Crumpe*, in his valuable essay on the employment of the people, has the following statements with respect to the character of the lower Irish:—"Two leading and naturally allied features in the character of the lower Irish are idleness and inquisitiveness, especially when hired and employed to perform the work of others. The moment an overseer quits them, they inevitably drop their work, take snuff, and fall into chat as to the news of the day; no traveller can pass them without diverting their attention from the business in hand, and giving rise to numerous surmises as to his person, errand, and destination. The most trivial occurrence, especially in the sporting line, will hurry them, unless restrained, from their occupations. Even the sedentary manufacturer will, on such occasions, quit his employment. Nothing is more common than to see a weaver in the N. start from his loom on hearing a pack of hounds, and pursue them through a long and fatiguing chase. A tendency to pilfering and theft is very predominant among them, and connected with this vice is the prevalence of low cunning and lying; and, as their accompaniment, may be mentioned a fawning flattery. The blunt honesty, the bold independence of the English yeoman, are wanting; and in their stead too generally substituted the petty dishonesty of the vassal, the servility and artifice of the slave. Drunkenness is an evil of considerable magnitude in the catalogue of national vices. It is

one to which the lower Irish are peculiarly addicted, and that from which the most serious obstructions arise to their industry and employment. That vile beverage, whisky, so cheaply purchased, and so generally diffused, affords them an easy opportunity of gratifying this destructive passion. As one consequence of the general prevalence of ebriety, the lower Irish are remarkably riotous. I do not here so much allude to Whiteboyism, and other public disturbances, which owe their origin chiefly to other causes, as to their quarrels among themselves. Their fairs are frequently the scenes of confusion, riot, disturbance, and bloodshed. Combinations, too, risings, and outrage among tradesmen, are far from unusual, and on pretexts that are truly ridiculous. The Irish are, also, to a remarkable degree, lawlessly inclined. It is well known that instead of being anxious to apprehend offenders, or to assist the execution of the law, they are, in general, ready to give the former every assistance to escape; and to resist the latter, unless awed by a superior force." (*Essay*, pp. 170—175.)

We believe that this, though not a very flattering, is a perfectly fair statement. But some, at least, of the defects of national character, specified by Dr. Crumpe, originate in circumstances that either have been, or admit of being obviated. Drunkenness, happily, is now, one should think, in a fair way of being expunged from the list of Irish vices; and with it will disappear the riots and disturbances to which it gave birth. The idleness of the Irish, though in part constitutional, is in part, also, a consequence of the minute division of the land, and of the impossibility of its occupiers finding any regular or continuous employment. Their proneness to combination and outrage, their readiness to obstruct the course of law, and to assist the escape of malefactors, were formerly promoted, if not occasioned, by oppression and misgovernment, and now they are the results of their desperate efforts to keep possession of their patches of land. Down to a comparatively recent period the native Irish had not, and could not be expected to have, any confidence in the law. They were, in fact, a proscribed and enslaved race, among whom it would have been preposterous to look for "blunt honesty," and "bold independence." And notwithstanding the "oppression and extortion" to which the Irish were formerly subject have disappeared, their effects will, it is to be feared, be long visible, and with the defects inherent in their character will make their regeneration a work of extreme difficulty. Agitation is still rife in the land. The peasantry are taught to ascribe all the ills with which they may be visited to misgovernment, or to their connection with England. Nothing is ever set down to account of their own improvidence, or want of industry. On great emergencies, such as a scarcity of food, or of employment, they become quite paralysed; and instead of exerting their energies, sink into despair, or, at best, abuse the government which feeds them. These evils can only be modified by slow degrees; by government pursuing a consistent and impartial course; placing the Catholics on a level with the Protestants, in respect of religious endowments as well as of civil rights; diffusing sound instruction; discouraging agitation; enforcing, at all hazards, the empire of the law; and adopting every practicable method for preventing the further splitting of the land, and for promoting its consolidation into larger farms.

Wages in Ireland vary from about 1s. to about

* An intelligent physician at Limerick, whose work received a prize awarded by the Royal Irish Academy for the best essay on the subject of which it treats.

6d. a day; but at neither rate is employment constant, and in parts of the country half the labourers are all but unoccupied for nearly half the year. Under such circumstances, it is needless to add that their food, clothes, &c. must, speaking generally, be of the most inferior description. In these respects, however, there are some material differences; and in the N.E. and eastern counties, but especially the first, the condition of the peasantry is much superior to what it is in the S.W. and W.

We subjoin, from the Report on Railways*, the following statements with respect to the condition of the pop. in the N.E., S.E., E., and W. divisions of the country.

"In the first (N.E. division) they are better lodged, clothed, and fed than in the others: the wages of labour are higher, being, at an average, about 1s. per day; and their food consists chiefly of meal, potatoes, and milk. They are a frugal, industrious, and intelligent race; inhabiting a district for the most part inferior, in natural fertility, to the S. portion of Ireland, but cultivating it better, and paying higher rents in proportion to the quality of the land, notwithstanding the higher rate of wages.

"In the southern districts we find a population whose condition is, in every respect, inferior to that of the northern. Their habitations are worse; their food inferior, consisting at best of potatoes and milk, without meal: the wages of labour are found reduced from 1s. to 8d. per day; yet the peasantry are a robust, active, and athletic race, capable of great exertion, often exposed to great privations, ignorant, but eager for instruction; and readily trained, under judicious management, to habits of order and steady industry.

"The population of the midland (eastern) districts does not differ materially in condition from those of the south; but the inhabitants of the western district are decidedly inferior to both, in condition and appearance: their food consists of the potato alone, without meal, and in most cases without milk: their cabins are wretched hovels; their beds straw; the wages of labour are reduced to the lowest point, upon an average not more than 6d. per day. Poverty and misery have deprived them of all energy; labour brings no adequate return, and every motive to exertion is destroyed. Agriculture is in the rudest and lowest state. The substantial farmer, employing labourers, and cultivating his land according to the improved modes of modern husbandry, is rarely to be found amongst them. The country is covered with small occupiers, and swarms with an indigent and wretched population. It is true, that some landed proprietors have made great exertions to introduce a better system of agriculture, and to improve the condition of their immediate tenants; and a few of the lesser proprietors have made humble attempts to imitate them; but the great mass of the population exhibits a state of poverty bordering on destitution.

"The distinctions we have drawn as to the usual diet of agricultural labourers in the different parts of Ireland, are strictly applicable to those only who have regular employment. When they are out of work, which is the case in many places during three or four months of the year, the line is not so easily perceived. Then a reduction in the quantity as well as in the quality of their food takes place; but still, though on

a diminished scale, their relative local degrees of comfort or of penury are maintained nearly according to the above classification. In no extremity of privation or distress, have the peasantry of the northern counties approached to a level with those of the W.; while Leinster and the greater part of the S., though sometimes reduced to the lowest condition, retain, generally, even in the most calamitous periods, a shade of superiority. There are districts, indeed, in every quarter of the land, where through peculiarities of situation, or other causes, distress falls with an equal pressure upon all; but such exceptions are rare, and so limited in extent, as scarcely to qualify the foregoing observations." (Report, p. 5.)

In another part of the same Report, the commissioners give the following information with respect to the deterioration in the condition of the lower orders:—"Among the effects of the rapid increase of pop., without a corresponding increase of employment, the most alarming, though, perhaps, the most obviously to be expected, is a deterioration of the food of the peasantry. It could scarcely be thought, indeed, that their customary diet would admit of any reduction, save in quantity alone; yet it has been reduced as to quality also, in such a way as sensibly to diminish their comfort, if not to impair their health. Bread was never an article of common use amongst the labouring poor; but it is now less known by them than formerly. Milk is become almost a luxury to many of them; and the quality of their potatoe diet is generally much inferior to what it was at the commencement of the present century. A species of potato called the 'lumper,' has been brought into general cultivation, on account of its great productiveness, and the facility with which it can be raised from an inferior soil, and with a comparatively small portion of manure. This root, at its first introduction, was scarcely considered food good enough for swine; it neither possesses the farinaceous qualities of the better varieties of the plant, nor is it as palatable as any other, being wet and tasteless, and, in point of substantial nutriment, little better, as an article of human food, than a Swedish turnip. In many counties of Leinster, and throughout the provinces of Munster and Connaught, the 'lumper' now constitutes the principal food of the labouring peasantry; a fact which is the more striking, when we consider the great increase of produce, together with its manifest improvement in quality, which is annually raised in Ireland, for exportation and for consumption, by the superior classes." (p. 81.)

This certainly is a very unfavourable statement; but it is not possible that wealth should increase in the hands of the upper and middle classes, without the lower ultimately participating in its advantages.

History.—The early accounts of Ireland are singularly disfigured by fable. It was not invaded by the Romans, whose knowledge of it could, therefore, be derived only from the reports of the Britons, or of natives of Ireland in Britain. The fair presumption, however, is, that its inhabitants were then more barbarous than even those of this island.† In the 5th century Christianity was introduced into Ireland by St. Patrick, a native of N. Britain, who, in his youth, had been carried a captive into Ireland. Along with the

* The statements in this report, which was drawn up by the late Mr. Drummond, Under Secretary for Ireland, are of the highest authority. It was compiled in 1836.

† Pomponius Mela, who has given so accurate an account of the soil of Ireland, and of the richness of its pastures, says, *Celtæque incolunt suæ, et consuetum vitæ modum legunt, plectitis admodum capreis.* (Lib. iii. sec. 6.) Strabo (lib. iv.) gives some extraordinary details respecting the Irish, which, however, he does not state on his own authority, but merely as having been reported to him.

gospel the British missionaries introduced the letters and learning of Rome; and a school founded at Armagh, not long after, became famous in most parts of Europe; but it would be as inconsequential to infer, from the fact of this and a few other schools existing in the country, that it was then distinguished by literature and civilization. It would be to allege that such was the case with the Western Islands, and the adjacent parts of the mainland of Scotland, in the 8th century, because there was then a celebrated monastery and school in Iona!

The accounts of the political state of Ireland, previously to the English invasion, are obscure and contradictory. This much, however, may be gleaned from them, that the island was parcelled out into a number of semi-independent states, which sometimes did, and sometimes did not, acknowledge their dependance on a chief prince or king of all Ireland. Incessant hostilities were waged by the petty sovereigns against each other, which were not even interrupted by the invasion of the Danes in the 9th century. The latter, in no very long space, became masters of the greater part of the coasts of the island; and occupied the ports of Dublin, Wexford, Waterford, and Cork, where they were taken by the English.

The successors to the petty sovereigns, or to the chiefs of clans or septa, were called *tamias*, and were generally elected from the family or kindred of the reigning prince or chieftain during his lifetime. Females were excluded from the succession, and minors were never chosen as *tamias*; the object being to have a prince of mature years always at the head of the seignior or clan, who might be able to direct their operations, and to defend them from hostile attacks. The laws of the Irish were such as might be expected to prevail among a rude and barbarous people; and were administered in the open air by hereditary judges, denominated *brethens*. The most atrocious crimes might be compounded for by the payment of an *eric*, or fine; and, as in all cases a considerable portion, and in some cases the whole, of the fine went to the lord, or chief of the sept, his interest obviously led him to encourage rather than to repress crime! The laws with respect to the succession to fixed property were such as would have alone served to extinguish all industry. "Through the whole country," says Leisner, "the tenure of lands determined with the life of the possessor; and, as the crimes or misfortunes of men frequently forced them from one tribe to another, property was eternally fluctuating, and new partitions of lands made almost daily. Hence the cultivation of lands was only in proportion to the immediate demands of nature, and the tributes to be paid to superiors." (*Hist. of Ireland*, Introd., p. 24.)

A people with such institutions could not be otherwise than barbarous; and such, in fact, they were. They had made little or no progress even in the most necessary arts; and were, with few exceptions, entire strangers to civilisation and refinement. "Neither was it possible to reform the evil customs that prevailed among the Irish, without altering their government; nor could that be accomplished by any other means than by their being subjected to some more civilized foreign power." (*Lyttleton's Henry II.*, v. 56.; where the reader will find an excellent account of the state of Ireland previously to the English invasion.)

Soon after the English conquest effected by Henry II., in 1171, the island was divided by John into 12 counties. But, though the king of England received the submission of the Irish chieftains, and was nominally lord of Ireland, his authority was, for a lengthened period, only partially recognised. The native families of O'Connor, O'Neill, O'Melaghlin, Byrne, and O'Toole, still asserted, and, to a certain degree, exercised sovereign authority in Connaught, Ulster, and part of the midland districts. Even in Leinster and Munster, where the English were principally settled, and which had partially adopted the laws and constitution of England, the sovereign authority was far from being generally or firmly established. The allegiance of several of the great feudal barons, who held extensive tracts of land, was frequently little better than nominal. The English families of De Burgh in the W., of Desmond in the S., and of Butler in the central parts, adopted the manners of the natives, and often became the declared and most dangerous enemies of their mother country. At one time there were 9 counties palatine, with independent jurisdiction. In the part of the island subject to England, and distinguished by the name of the *pale*. The miseries resulting from the interminable disorders inseparable from such a state of things, were increased in 1215 by an invasion of the Scotch, under Edward, brother of Robert Bruce. He overran the greater part of the country, but was finally defeated and killed near Dundalk. The resources of the country were also wasted in subsidies, and its youth carried away to fight the battles of their masters on the continent, or in England, during the wars between the houses of York and Lancaster. After the death of

Richard III., and the accession of Henry VII. had terminated this sanguinary struggle, Ireland was chosen by the defeated party of the Yorkists as a theatre on which to commence a system of operations for the dethronement of the new monarch. In consequence, Lambert Simnel was sent thither by the Duke of Burgundy, as the descendant and representative of Edward IV. His title was acknowledged by the Anglo-Irish, and he was crowned in Dublin with all the ceremonies attendant on the inauguration of the ancient Irish sovereigns. A similar, though less vigorous effort was afterwards made in favour of Perkin Warbeck, whose title was also acknowledged in the S. of Ireland.

In 1493, a parliament assembled at Drogheda, under the presidency of Sir Edward Poyning, then lord-deputy, passed some very important statutes. By one of these, afterwards well known in Irish history by the name of "Poyning's Law," effectual provision was made for maintaining the ascendancy of the government of England over the legislature of Ireland. With this view it was enacted, that no parliament should in future be held in Ireland without license from the king; and that no bill or draft of a law should be submitted to its consideration, without having been previously sent over to England by the Irish government for the approval, alteration, or rejection of the king; so that the power of the Irish parliament was thus, in fact, limited to the mere acceptance or rejection of bills approved or modified by the English government.

This act was much and justly complained of at a later period; but, when passed, it was a decidedly popular measure. Parliaments had previously been, for the most part, the mere instruments of the faction that happened to be ascendant at the time; so that their enactments were often conflicting, and the administration wanted consistency. Poyning's law obviated, in some measure, these defects; and parliament henceforth became dependent rather on the government of England than on any particular faction or party in Ireland.

Early in the reign of Henry VIII. the spirit of insurrection broke out in a formidable shape. The chief authority had previously been exercised for a lengthened period by the rival families of the Fitzgeralds and Butlers, whose heads were the Earls of Kildare and Ormond. The former of these noblemen was at this period lord-lieutenant. On being summoned to England, to answer charges brought against his government, he appointed his son, Lord Thomas Fitzgerald, his deputy. The latter, on a false rumour of his father's execution in London, not only threw up the reins of government, but declared himself an open enemy to the English monarch, ravaged the pale, and laid siege to Dublin, where he was repulsed by the gallantry of the citizens. Having soon after surrendered to Lord Grey, the new lord-lieutenant, he was sent prisoner to England, where he expired on the scaffold, along with several of his near relations who, though unconnected with his acts, were unjustly implicated in their consequences. The introduction of the Reformed doctrines, which was effected with equal violence and contempt for the prejudices of those within and without the pale, brought a new element of discord into Ireland. The native Irish were devoted adherents of the church of Rome. Their hostility to the new doctrines did not, however, display itself openly during the reign of Henry, who, about this time, changed his title of lord to that of king of Ireland, nor in the reign of his protestant successor, Edward VI.; but it broke out with unrestrained fury in that of Elizabeth. O'Neill, who possessed nearly the whole of Ulster, instigated by the court of Spain, hoisted the standard of rebellion. He was supported by a Spanish armament, which took possession of Kinsale, without, however, being able to maintain itself in that position. After a lengthened contest O'Neill was forced, by the energetic and prudent measures of Lord Mountjoy, to an unconditional submission; and his subsequent flight from Ireland, on the imputed charge of another insurrection, terminated the war. Ulster was soon after divided into counties, and planted with numerous bodies of English and Scotch settlers, which laid the foundations of the improvement of that province, and gave it a distinctive character. The reign of James I., and the earlier part of that of Charles I., formed a period of undisturbed tranquillity. But the disputes between the latter and the English parliament afforded the Irish a flattering though fallacious prospect of regaining their independence and re-establishing their religion. To effect this object, an insurrection was secretly organised, on a very extensive scale, embracing, not only the native Irish, but many Rom. Cath. families of English descent. This formidable conspiracy broke out in 1641. The treachery of one of the conspirators prevented Dublin from falling into their hands; but the insurrection broke out simultaneously in Ulster, and soon after spread into most other parts of the country. The most horrible excesses were committed by the conspirators, which were sometimes fearfully retaliated; and the country

continued to be a prey to all the horrors of civil war till 1649, when Cromwell appeared in the field, at the head of a well-disciplined and powerful army. Having taken Drogheda by storm, he delivered it up to military execution; and such was the terror inspired by the fate of this city, that almost all the strongholds belonging to the party of the Catholics soon after fell into his hands, and the English supremacy was, for the first time, established in every part of Ireland.

The confiscations that followed Cromwell's success were upon so vast a scale that about *four fifths* of the soil was transferred to new proprietors, either parliamentary soldiers, or speculators, called adventurers, who had advanced money to carry on the war.

After this tremendous visitation Ireland continued tranquil, and began to advance considerably in prosperity, till the events connected with the Revolution of 1688 again made it the theatre of fresh and sanguinary contests. After the flight of James II. from England, he landed, with a view to retrieve his fortunes, in Ireland, where he was received with open arms by the Catholics; and having brought with him from France a number of experienced troops and officers, partly Irish and partly French, he soon found himself at the head of a powerful army. Luckily, however, he was wholly without the talents necessary to ensure success in such an enterprise. The battle of the Boyne, on the 1st of July, gained by William III., turned the scale completely in favour of the latter; and the battle of Aughrim, on the 12th of July, 1691, when the British under Ginkell, afterwards earl of Athlone, obtained a decisive victory over the troops of James II., commanded by St. Ruth, who fell in the action, was the last great effort made by the Irish to achieve their independence. The remains of the Irish forces, having retreated to Limerick, capitulated under conditions embodied in the famous convention called the treaty of Limerick. We have already noticed the violation of this treaty. It is due, however, to the memory of our great deliverer, William III., to state that he was no willing party to its violation. This is entirely to be ascribed to the intolerance of the English and Irish protestants, who, flushed with victory, did not hesitate, despite the stipulations to the contrary in the treaty, to trample the Catholics under foot, and as far as possible to exterminate their religion.

"By the total reduction," says Mr. Burke, "of the kingdom of Ireland, in 1691, the rule of the native Irish, and in a great measure, too, of the first race of the English, was completely annihilated. The new interest was settled with as solid a stability as any thing in human affairs can look for. All the penal laws of that unparalleled code of oppression, which were made after the last event, were manifestly the effects of national hatred and scorn towards a conquered people, whom the victors delighted to trample upon, and were not at all afraid to provoke. They were not the effects of their fears, but of their security. They who carried on this system looked to the irretrievable ruin of Great Britain for their support in their acts of power." (*Letter to Sir H. Langrish*, p. 44.)

The violation of the treaty of Limerick being accompanied by the most extensive confiscations, and followed up by the enactment of the penal code, completed the prostration of Ireland. There being no longer any means of rising, nor even security at home, the aspiring Catholic youth sought employment and distinction in the service of France, which, for a lengthened period, drew large supplies of recruits from Ireland. Hence, by a singular contradiction, the same revolution that established freedom of conscience and a liberal system of government in England and Scotland, established an odious despotism and persecution in Ireland. In the words of Mr. Burke, "It established, in defiance of the principles of our revolution, the power of the smaller number, at the expense of the religious liberties of the far greater, and at the expense of the civil liberties of the whole."

But, as already stated, the penal code failed to effect its object; and, instead of being exterminated, the Catholics gradually acquired a still greater numerical superiority. At length, in the earlier part of the reign of George III., the rigour of the code began to be abated, and the Catholics ceased to be regarded as mere *feræ nature*.

One of the most curious chapters in Irish history is that connected with the embodying of the volunteers in 1788, and the revolution that was soon after effected in the constitution of Ireland. The difficulties in which Great Britain was then involved having occasioned the withdrawal of the greater number of the troops from Ireland, rumours were propagated of an expected invasion of the island by the French; and, to meet this contingency, the Protestants of Ulster and other parts took up arms, and formed themselves into volunteer corps. These bodies soon became sensible of their strength; and having appointed delegates and concerted measures, they proceeded to set about reforming the constitution.

In this view they published declarations to the effect that Ireland was a free and independent kingdom, and that no power on earth, except that of the king, lords, and commons of Ireland, could legally enact laws to bind Irishmen. These declarations, which struck a direct blow at the superiority hitherto claimed and asserted by the British parliament, might, and most probably would, at another time, have been successfully resisted. But Great Britain, being then engaged in a desperate contest with her revolted colonies, and with almost all the Great European powers, prudently made the concession demanded by the Irish volunteers; and the *Independence of Ireland* was proclaimed amid the most enthusiastic demonstrations of popular rejoicing.

In truth, however, this independence was apparent only. The wretched state of the elective franchise in Ireland was totally inconsistent with any thing like real independence; and so venal was the Irish parliament, that any minister, how unpopular soever, had no difficulty in securing a majority in that assembly. Hence the anticipations in which the more sanguine Irish patriots had indulged were destined soon to experience a most mortifying disappointment; and this, and the hopes inspired by the French revolution, terminated in the rebellion of 1798, which was not suppressed without a repetition of the former scenes of devastation and bloodshed.

The British government at length wisely determined to effect a legislative union between Great Britain and Ireland, and to suppress the separate legislature of the latter. This measure, notwithstanding a strenuous opposition, was happily carried, and took effect from the 1st of January, 1800. And, unless it were resolved or wished to put an end to all political connection between the two countries, nothing could be more inexpedient and absurd than the existence of a separate independent legislature for Ireland. Perpetual jealousies could not have failed to arise between it and the legislature of Great Britain, which must necessarily in the end have led to estrangement, and probably separation. A legislative union was the only means of obviating these and other sources of mischief: its repeal would make Ireland a theatre for all sorts of projects and intrigues, and it would be sure to be followed, at no distant period, by the dismemberment of the empire. Its maintenance should, therefore, be regarded as a fundamental principle of policy; and, to give it permanence and stability, every advantage should be made to move all just grounds of complaint on the part of the Irish people, and to make the union one of national interest and affection, as well as of constitutional law.

IRKUTSK, GOVERNMENT OF. *See* SIBERIA.

IRKUTSK, a city of Asiatic Russia, cap. of Eastern Siberia, on the Angara, at its confluence with the Irkut, about 30 m. from the N.-W. shore of Lake Baikal, 600 m. S.E. Krasnojarsk, and 1450 m. in nearly the same direction from Tobolsk; lat. 52° 16' 20" N., long. 104° 19' 48" E. *Climate*, *Soil*, *Trade*, *Population*, &c. Irkutsk, with its garrison, about 15,000. It is situated in a wide plain, 1,240 ft. above the level of the sea; the mean temperature of the year being — 0·3 R., or rather below the freezing point. The Angara, which is about 1,000 ft. broad at Irkutsk, divides the city into two nearly equal parts. It is fortified and defended by a citadel, and has 4 suburbs. Of about 1,900 private houses, only 50 are built of stone; the rest are chiefly of wood, or faced with painted planks. The streets are broad, but altogether unpaved; from the solidity of the ground, however, they are not dirty; and Erman says, that, in many respects, Irkutsk is much more agreeable than Tobolsk. It has 33 churches, 12 of which are constructed of stone; an exchange, also a stone edifice, and a good bazaar with numerous shops. The Baikal admiralty house and building docks on the Angara, medical college, gymnasium, and *comptoir* of the Russo-American Company, are said to be worthy of a European city; the government-house, theatre, several convents, and hospitals, and a prison, are among its other public edifices. It is the seat of an archbishop, and of a Russian governor, whose authority extends over the immense provs. of Irkutsk, Yakutsk, Okhotok, Kamtschatka, and Russian America, including Bodega and the other settlements on the coast of California, distant nearly 1200 long. It has numerous educational establishments, including besides the gymnasium, with a library of 5,000 vols., an episcopal seminary, high school of navigation, with classes for instruction in the Tartar, Chinese, and Japanese languages; normal, secondary, Lancasterian, and other schools, and a cabinet of mineralogy. It has an imperial factory of woollen cloth for the supply of the troops in Siberia, manufactures of linen and other piece goods, glass, hats, soap, leather, &c.; and is the residence of numerous artisans in the different trades common in Europe. It is the great entrepôt for the commerce of N.E. Asia, importing tea, rhubarb, fruit, paper, silks, porcelain, and other manufactured goods from China by way of Kiachta and furs, &c. from Kamtschatka, the Aleutian

islands, and Russian America; which articles are here exchanged for European goods sent from Petersburg and Moscow by way of Tobolsk. It has also some trade with Bokhara and Khokan. The total annual amount of its commerce is estimated at 4,000,000 paper roubles (or francs), one fourth of which has sometimes been transacted at its annual fair in June. (*Brown, notes and the Erie, H., Ritter, Asien Erdkunde, II. 128-134; Stein, Geog., Dict. Geog., &c.*)

IRRAWADI (*Eriavati*, "the Great River"), an important Asiatic river, the principal in India-beyond-the-Brahmaputra. It has its sources near the E. extremity of the Himalaya range in Tibet, about lat. 36° N., and long. 97° 30' E., not far from the sources of the Lohit, a principal branch of the Brahmaputra. With the exception of two reaches to the W., at Bhamo and Ava, it flows generally S. through the centre of the Birman empire, which it traverses in its entire length, till it falls, by numerous mouths, into the Bay of Bengal (or rather the Eastern Ocean), between Cape Negrais and the Rangoon river, in about the 16th deg. of N. lat., and between 93° 30' and 97° E. long. Its course may be estimated at about 1,300 m., during which it passes through 13 degs. of lat. It receives at Yandabo, lat. 21° 48' N., long. about 96° E., its principal tributary, the Ning-the, or Kyen-dwen, from the N. Its delta commences about lat. 17° 45'. This is a vast alluvial tract about 130 m. in length, N. and S., and where widest about as many miles across, intersected by a vast number of arms of the river, that frequently interlace each other. Of its numerous mouths, the Rangoon and Bassein rivers, forming respectively the E. and W. boundaries of the delta, are the principal. Most of its mouths are navigable for large craft; and those of Bassein and Rangoon for vessels drawing five fathoms' water. The harbour of Negrais, formed by the mouth of the river of same name, is said to be, without exception, the most secure in the Bay of Bengal. The Bassein branch, which may be considered the proper continuation of the main stream of the Irrawadi, is about 700 yards in width at the point where the Rangoon river separates from it. From the apex of the delta to Yedan above Ava, the breadth of the Irrawadi is seldom less than 1 m., and often 4 m. It may be ascended as far as Ava, at all seasons, by vessels of 300 tons; and in the rains they may proceed to the Mogoung river, a sailing distance of about 800 m. from the sea. Above Yedan, the river suddenly contracts to 150 or 200 yards in breadth. It is navigable for canoes up to Bhamo, but in the dry season it is in many parts dangerous, from its passing over rocky ledges and through precipitous defiles. About 50 m. from its source, it has been observed with a width of 80 yards, during the dry season.

The current is not, in general, remarkably rapid; even above the Mogoung, the Irrawadi, in the dry season, flows only at the rate of about 2 m. an hour. (*Malcolm, I. 171.*) Best in the inundations, from June to Sept., it flows so rapidly that the most secure in the Bay of Bengal, the river suddenly contracts to 150 or 200 yards in breadth. It is navigable for canoes up to Bhamo, but in the dry season it is in many parts dangerous, from its passing over rocky ledges and through precipitous defiles. About 50 m. from its source, it has been observed with a width of 80 yards, during the dry season.

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The Irrawadi is to the Birman empire what the Nile is to Egypt, the source of life and abundance, and the main artery and great commercial highway of the country. "The number of trading boats on the river is astonishing. We pass scores every day, and sometimes

hundreds; and the largest of them carry 10,000 or 12,000 bush of uncleaned rice, the smaller 300 or 400. Their chief lading seemed to be rice, salt, and ginseng. In ascending they are for the most part drawn by the crew with a rope upon the bank, or propelled by setting-poles; sailing only when the wind is fair, and neither too strong nor too weak. They are generally from three to four months in ascending from the delta to Ava.

"The boats on this river, though of all sizes up to 300 tons, are of but two general descriptions. All retain the canoe shape, sharp at each end. Large boats have one mast and a yard of long slender bamboo, to which is suspended a square sail. The sail is made in sections, the centre ones only being used in strong winds, and the others added at the sides when necessary. Sometimes a small sail is temporarily fastened above the yards to the ropes, by which it is sustained. The deck extends from 5 to 10 ft. beyond the sides with large bamboos fastened beneath, making at once a platform for the men, when using their setting-poles, &c. and an outrigger to prevent their upsetting. The vessel itself is wholly covered with a regular Birman house, well thatched, which carries part of the cargo, and furnishes cabins to the family and boatmen. Over the roof is a platform, on which the men stand to work the sail. They are manned by from 15 to 25 or 30 men, and sometimes more."

"The smaller-sized vessels are of an elongated shape, like the foregoing, and do not merit a particular description. "No one can ascend the river without being impressed with the hardihood, skill, energy, and good-humour of the Birman boatmen, and the happy adaptation of their boats to the navigation. In ascending, much of the way must be accomplished by setting-poles. For these they use straight bamboos, of a species which is almost solid and very strong. The end is applied not to the front of the shoulder, as with us, but above the collar-bone, or on the top of the shoulder. Bending forward and till their hands touch the deck, they bring the resistance perpendicular to the spine, and thus possess far greater power than is possible by our mode. When but slight exertion is required, the pole is applied as with us." (*Malcolm's Trav. in S.E. Asia, I. 90, 91, 96, 97.*)

Near the Irrawadi, in the prov. Sarawadi, are celebrated teak forests, covering the hill-ranges bounding the valley. Petrifications of wood, bones, &c. are common along this river; and Mr. Crawford collected on its banks a great number of fossil remains, including those of two species of mastodon, the rhinoceros, hippopotamus, tapir, hog, ox, deer, antelope, gaval, alligator, emys, and trionyx. (*See Trans. of the Geol. Soc., and Appendix to Crawford's Embassy, &c.*) Coal (anthracite) has been discovered along its course, and about 40 m. S. Pagan are some rich petroleum wells on the E. bank, respecting which see BIRMAN, I. 377. (*Pemberton, Rep. on the E. Frontier; Crawford, Cox, Symes, &c. in Mod. Trav. xi.; Malcolm's Trav. in S.E. Asia; Asiatic Journal, &c. passim.*)

IRVINE, a royal and parl. bor., sea-port, and market town of Scotland, co. Ayr, on rising ground on the N. bank of the river of the same name, the estuary of which forms its harbour, on the line of railway from Glasgow to Ayr, 23 m. S.W. the former, and 12 m. N. by W. the latter. Pop. of parl. bor., in 1841, 7,213. A suburb has arisen to the S. of the river, which is connected with the town by a bridge, the widest and handsomest in the co. There are other suburbs, not in the royalty, but comprised, since 1853, within the parl. bor. The parish church, between the town and the river, with a handsome spire, is the most striking building in the bor. Here, also, is a Free church, and chapels belonging respectively to the Associated Synod and Relief. To the N. of the town an academy was erected in 1814, at an expense of 2,350*l.*, of which the burgh contributed 1,633*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.*; the remainder being raised by public subscription. This seminary, which embraces all the branches of a learned and commercial education, has fully realised the object of its founders. There are various other schools, with several libraries, and a news-room. Eglinton Castle, famous in the sporting world for the "tournament" held in its park in 1839, is in the immediate vicinity of the bor. According to the official returns, there belonged to the port, on the 1st of Jan. 1850, 118 ships of the aggregate burden of 15,085 tons; but the largest portion of this shipping belongs to Troon and Saltcoats, inc. in the Irvine customs' district. Coal is the chief article of export, considerable quantities being shipped for Ireland. A considerable number of weavers work in connection with the Glasgow manufacturers, or for local consumption. There are three branch banks in the town. Irvine was created a royal bor. by Robert Bruce, in 1308. It unites with Ayr, Campbelton, Oban, and Inverary, in returning a mem. to the H. of C. Registered voters in 1849-50, 234. Robertson's *Rural Recollections*, a valuable and authentic work, illustrative of the progress made by Scotland from 1756 downwards, was published at Irvine in 1829, the author being at the time

factor for an estate in the neighbourhood. John Galt, author of *Annals of the Parish*, and other works, was a native of the bor.; and Burns was for a short time engaged in business in it as a flax-dresser.

ISCHIA (an. *Ænarìa*, *Inarime*, and *Pitheussa*), an isl. of the Mediterranean, belonging to the k. of Naples, 8 m. S. W. from the promontory of Misenum, and 18 m. W. S. W. Naples. It is about 7 m. in length, and 20 in circ., having an area of 21 sq. m., and a pop. of about 24,000. Nearly in its centre is M. San Nicolo or Epomeo (an. *Epopeus*). This, though now an extinct, was formerly an active volcano, the eruptions of which are noticed by Strabo (lib. v.) and Pliny (lib. ii. § 88.); and which burst forth with great fury in 1301, since which it has been quiescent. It is 2,515 ft. above the level of the sea, and the whole isl. falls in a gentle slope from it to the sea, except on the N., where its sides are more abrupt. Ischia obviously, indeed, owes its origin to volcanic agency, and consists wholly of volcanic matters. Its bold and rocky shores present an imposing appearance from the sea; and the favourable impression it makes at a distance is not dispelled on landing, it being remarkable both for fertility of soil, and beauty of situation. Besides a great quantity of wine, it produces olives and a variety of fruits, with wheat, maize, pulse, and excellent herbage. It is well supplied with game, especially partridges. Sulphur and other useful mineral products are abundant, and there are numerous hot springs and natural vapour baths, especially at its N. W. extremity. The inhab. are partly husbandmen, and partly sailors and fishermen. The manufacture of straw hats, baskets, and earthenware, are carried on to some extent.

Ischia is divided into two cantons: chief towns, Ischia and Foria; the former on the E. and the latter on the W. coast. Ischia, the cap. with 3,000 inhab., is "a pretty town of white buildings, and the residence of a bishop. A round rock, as black as if just smothered out of the bowels of a volcano, forms a kind of haven by means of a causeway communicating with the town; its summit and sides are covered with houses, old turrets, and ruinous fortifications, huddled together, and accessible only on one side by a steep winding road." (*Swinhurne*, li. 12.) On this rock stands an old fortress, in which the last princes of the house of Aragon took refuge when Naples was conquered by the French. This building is now used as a state prison. Foria is ill built, and without a harbour.

The poets account for the volcanic phenomena of Ischia, as for those of Væusius and Etna, by ascribing them to the violent efforts of Typhoeus and the other giants buried below them to escape from their prison:—

*Apparet procal Inarime, quas turbare nigro
Æmuntum, gremio Ispetum, flammeusque rebellis
Ore spectantem.* *Mitius Italica*, xii. lin. 147.

See also *Æneid*, i. lin. 714.

Ischia was, some time prior, colonised by the Ætreians and Chalcidians, and afterwards by Syracusans sent thither by Hiero, who, however, abandoned the isl. in consequence. It is said, of a violent eruption of Mount Epopeus, s.c. 470.

(Besides the authorities referred to above, see *Cramer's Ancient Italy*, ii. 183.; *Rampoldi, Corografia*; *Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

ISÈRE, a frontier dep. of France, in the E. part of the kingd., formerly included in the prov. of Dauphiny; between lat. 45° 44' 30" and 45° 53' N. and long. 4° 46' and 6° 22' E., having E. Savoy, N. the dép. Ain, and W. Rhone, Loire, and Ardèche, from all which it is separated by the Rhone, S. W. Drome, and S. E. Hautes Alpes. Length, N. W. to S. E., about 95 m.; average breadth about 40 m. Area, 529,031 hectares. Pop. (1846), 308,492. This dep. is very mountainous, especially its S. E. part, and its scenery is in general highly picturesque. The Alpine chains that traverse it rise in the *Col de Sagay* to an elevation of 11,017 ft. (3,358 mètres), and in the *Pic de Belladone* to 10,302 ft. (3,140 mètr.) above the level of the sea. Some of the valleys are spacious, and many very fertile; that of Grainsvaudun, through which the Isère flows, is one of the richest in France. There are a few plains in the N. and W., and numerous lakes and marshes, but none of the latter is of any considerable size. Next to the Rhone, the chief river is the Isère, which gives its name to the dep. It rises in the E. part of Savoy, runs with a tortuous course, generally S. W., and falls into the Rhone about 8 m. N. N. E. of Valence, after a course of 180 m., 106 of which are navigable. Its chief affluents are the Romanche and Drac; Grenoble stands on its banks. W. winds predominate in this dep., and the annual fall of rain is estimated at nearly 25 inches. In 1835, the arable lands were estimated at 316,387 hectares, meadows 66,718, vineyards 27,698, forests 168,420, and heaths, wastes, &c. 171,990 do. Agriculture is backward, but improving. In 1835, 2,789,120 hectolitres of corn, chiefly wheat and rye, were said to have been harvested, being a larger supply than

was produced in any of the surrounding depa., besides 10,771,200 hectolitres of potatoes, or more than double the quantity grown in any other dep. of France. But it should be borne in mind that these returns, though given in the official tables, are but little to be depended on; and are, in fact, nothing but rough approximations. The vine is pretty generally cultivated, and the produce of wine amounts to about 450,000 hectol. a year. Chestnuts, almonds, and other fruits abound, and large quantities of ratafia, and other liqueurs, are made. The number of mulberry trees had increased nearly a third between 1820 and 1834: in 1835, 430,256 kilog. cocoons were collected. Good cavalry horses and mules are bred. In 1830, the stock of black cattle amounted to about 137,000 head; the breed is generally small, but the cows are good milkers, and some superior cheese is made. The sheep yield excellent wool, and many flocks from the surrounding depa. are sent to pasture in summer in the mountains. Poultry are reared in great numbers. In 1835, of 195,450 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 89,659 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 31,468 at from 5 to 10 fr.; the number of large properties is a good deal below the average of the depa.

Isère is one of the richest depa. of France in respect of minerals, and mining is one of the chief occupations of its inhab. Gold and silver mines were wrought till the commencement of the present century. At present, iron, copper, zinc, and lead are the chief metallic products; but mercury, blamuth, antimony, and cobalt are likewise obtained; as are also coal, sulphur, alum, marble, granite, gypsum, &c. There are 10 large smelting furnaces, and numerous forges and steel factories. Paper, silk stuffs and yarn, coarse woollens, table linen, sail and packing cloth, gloves, especially at Grenoble, cotton and woollen yarn, crapes, straw hats, mineral acids, &c. are the other chief manufactures. Lyons is the great entrepôt for the produce of Isère. The dep. is divided into 4 arrondis., 45 cant., and 556 com. Chief towns, Grenoble, the cap., with 23,322 inhab., St. Marcellin, La Tour du Pin, and Vienne. Total public revenue (1844), 14,547,040 fr. This dep. abounds with remarkable natural curiosities, and Roman and other antiquities. One of its most remarkable establishments is the GRANDE CHARTREUSE, which see (*Hugo*, art. *Isère*; *French Official Tables*; *Guide des Voyageurs*, &c.)

ISIR, see THAMES.

ISKARDO, a commercial town of Little Tibet, on the Upper Indus, about 130 m. N. W. Leh, but at present little known. It is reported to be a large fortress of irregular construction, and the cap. of a distr. of same name. (*Burne's Trav.*)

ISLAMABAD, a town of India beyond the Brahmaputra, belonging to the prov. Bengal, district Chittagong, of which it is the cap., on the river Chittagong, 8 m. from the Bay of Bengal, and 124 m. S. E. Dacca. Pop. 12,000 (*Malcolm*), about 3,000 of whom are of Portuguese descent. The streets are in good order, and the bazaar abundantly supplied with every kind of domestic and foreign produce. The mode of building, and the general aspect of every thing, is decidedly Bengalee. About 300 vessels, chiefly brigs of from 40 to 100 tons, are owned in the place, and many vessels from other places resort thither. The chief exports are rice and salt. Large Maldiv boats come annually, during the fine season, with cowries, tortoise-shell, cumela, cocoa-nuts, and colir for rope; and carry away rice and small manufactures. (*Malcolm*, i. 134.) This town is the emporium of a great extent of country, and the resort of numerous merchants. A kind of cotton canvass is made in its neighbourhood, and vessels of considerable burden are built. Islamabad has two Portuguese churches, and a large English school established in 1818. (*Malcolm's Travels in S. E. Asia*.)

ISLAY. See HEBRIDES.

ISLE OF WHITHORN. See WHITHORN.

ISMAIL, a strongly fortified town and harbour of Russia in Europe, on the Bessarabia, on the N. side of the Kilian arm of the Danube, about 43 m. from the Black Sea, lat. 45° 21' N., long. 38° 50' 15" E. Pop. 12,000. Ismail was stormed by the Russians, under Suwarow, in 1790, by whom it was given up to an indiscriminating pillage and massacre. But latterly it has recovered, at least in part, from this barbarous devastation. It has a considerable trade, exporting corn, hides, tallow, &c. The custom-house and quarantine are of the first class. Owing to the shallowness of the water over the bar of the Kilian mouth, vessels bound for Ismail generally enter the Danube by the Soulineh or middle mouth. (See DANUBE, in this Dictionary; and *Hagermeister on the Black Sea*, p. 94. Eng. trans.)

ISPAHAN (*Aspadana*), a celebrated city, formerly the cap. of Persia, and once so extensive and populous that the Persians said of it, in their inflated phraseology, "*Sefam nispæ gikon*"—"Ispahan is half the world." (*Chardin*, lii. 3.) It is situated in the

prov. Irak Adjimi, of which it is the cap., as well as of a begler-beglik, of the same name, 311 m. S. Teheran, and 363 m. S.E.W. Bushire. Lat. 32° 29' N., long. 51° 50' E. Pop. variously estimated at from 250,000 to 50,000, the latest estimate of Morier fixing it at 60,000. This, however, is unquestionably too low; and the pop., most probably, exceeds 100,000. (*Ritter*, ix. 48.) This city, which was at the height of its glory during the reign of Shah Abbas, in the 17th century, now presents to the traveller, in its buildings at least, little beyond the magnificent ruins of its former greatness. It stands in the midst of an extensive plain, abundantly watered by the Zenderood, a river about 600 ft. broad; and is surrounded by groves, avenues, and spreading orchards. Among the first objects that struck our eyes," says Sir R. K. Porter, "were the numerous noble bridges, each carrying its long level line of thickly ranged arches to porch-like structures, some fallen into stately ruin, others nearly entire, but all exhibiting splendid memorials of the Sefi race. The S. avenue, through which we entered the town, terminated at the great bazaar of Shah Abbas, the whole of which enormous pile is vaulted above to exclude heat, yet admit air and light. Hundreds of shops, without inhabitants, filled the sides of this once great emporium, the labyrinths of which we traversed for an extent of nearly 2 m., till we entered the *Maidan Shah*, another spacious theatre of departed grandeur." (*Travels*, ii. 37.) This vast oblong, formerly enriched with shops, in which every commodity of luxury and splendid manufacture was exposed, is of very large dimensions, being (according to Porter) 2,600 feet long, and 700 feet broad, and in the centre of each of its sides stands some edifice remarkable for grandeur or character, while the remaining parts composing the square are occupied by uniform ranges of building, once used as apartments for the nobility and officers of the Persian court, the lower part being open, and forming a noble arched walk. On the N.W. side is the great painted gate of the bazaar, on which, in former times, stood the celebrated clock of Isfahan, and on the opposite side is the Mehed-Shah, a superb mosque built by Shah Abbas, and dedicated to Mehed, one of the twelve Imams. The centre of the N.E. side is occupied by another mosque, called Looft Ullah, which faces the Ait-Kapi, a noble gate surmounted by a dome, the marble ornaments of which still remain. Above the gate is a pavilion, pointed out as the place where Shah Abbas was wont to sit and witness the games and exercises of his troops in the *Maidan*; but only a few wooden columns, pieces of glass, and decayed paintings remain to attest its former beauty, as described by Chardin. The summit of the tower commands a view of the city in its whole extent, presenting a succession of narrow unpaved streets, numerous houses, mosques, and shapeless structures, broken by groups of various tall trees, which once made part of the gardens attached to the houses now fallen to decay. In the S. part of the city is a large tract of pleasure-ground, called the *Chahar-Bagh*, which consists of a series of eight gardens, or *paradises*, watered by canals, basins, and fountains, adorned with numerous palaces or pavilions, and enclosed within four majestic walls. In the centre of the enclosure is the palace of the *Chahai Sitoon*, or forty pillars, the favourite residence of the later kings of the Sefi dynasty. Its front, which is entirely open to the garden, is sustained by a double range of columns, each shooting up from the united backs of four lions of white marble; and within are several large apartments, on which all the caprice and cost of eastern magnificence have been lavished. The walls of the saloon, in particular, are embellished with large paintings, which, without exhibiting much taste or correctness of design, are still useful as illustrations of the manners and habits of the Persians. The suburb of Julfa, which is situated S. of the Zenderood, and connected with the *Chahar-Bagh* by a bridge 1,000 ft. long, having 34 arches, was originally founded for a body of Armenians, whom Shah Abbas transplanted from their own country (Julfa on the Araxes), and stationed here, with full toleration of their religion, and many valuable mercantile privileges. They were known all over the E. for their manufacturing industry; and their quarter, which was inhabited exclusively by Christians, formerly comprised 13 churches, and some of the handsomest private residences and gardens in the city, the pop. of this industrious quarter alone having exceeded 30,000 at the close of the 17th century. At present, however, it is little more than a mass of ruins, the few remaining houses being tenanted by a population, whose moral condition, according to Sir R. K. Porter, has suffered a deterioration corresponding to the decline of their fortunes. The suburb of Abbasabad, which lay W. of the city, and that of the Guebers, or fire-worshippers, on the S. side, near Julfa, are entirely destroyed.

Isfahan has, within the last 30 years, begun to revive

from its desolation; and the spontaneous efforts of the inhabs., in trying to better their condition, were ably seconded by the exertions of Hadji Mahommed Hussein Khan, the *Ameer-e-dowlat*, or second minister of the shah, who employed his immense wealth and influence in the improvement of his native city. A new palace, near the *Saceli Sitoon*, has been completed, and extensive repairs have been made in the bazaars, streets, and fountains; besides which, a large tract of land, close to the river, has been enclosed to form rice plantations, the produce of which now forms an important article of commerce. The manufacture of all kinds of woven fabrics, from the most costly gold brocade or figured velvet to the most ordinary calico or coarse cotton, pursued on an extended scale, partly on raw materials raised in the surrounding district, and partly also on silk and cotton wool introduced from Ghilan and other provinces of Persia: many hands are also employed in making gold and silver trinkets, paper and paper boxes, peacocks, ornamented book covers, firearms, sword-blades (of steel, from India), glass, and earthenware. These goods are sent to all parts of the E., Isfahan being the chief emporium in Persia, and on the great line of communication between India, Caubul, and China, on the one, and Turkey, Egypt, and the Mediterranean, on the other. Its trading prosperity, however, like that of Bushire, is much obstructed by the monopolies and injudicious taxes of the government. The inhabs. of Isfahan are considered the best manufacturers in Persia, and education seems to be very general. Every one above the lowest order can read and write; and artisans and shopkeepers are familiar with the works of their favourite poets. The merchants form a distinct class: frugal, and even penurious in their habits, they seldom make any display of wealth, and are extremely wary and circumspect in their commercial speculations, owing no doubt, to the severity of their sufferings during national disturbances, when they have been usually selected as the first victims of plunder and oppression. Their houses are mean on the outside, with low, narrow entrances, but are often fitted up internally with great luxury. These merchants, with all their affectation of poverty, have capitals embarked in trade which vary from 50,000 to 150,000 toman, and not only control in a great degree the whole trade of Persia, but are able also to fix the standard price in the markets of W. Hindostan. Owing to insecurity and bad government, the interest of money in Isfahan varies from 12 to 36 per cent. a year; and the farming pop. are often compelled to pay 60 per cent. for the loans required to enable them to meet the exactions of the government. If trade exist at all under this wretched system, how great would it become under a government that should establish security, and give full scope to the enterprise and ingenuity of a people who are amongst the most industrious in W. Asia! (*See Hagmeister; Essai sur l'Asie Occidentale*, 268-275.)

The origin of Isfahan is uncertain; but its position seems to identify it with the *Aspadana* of Ptolemy. Under the caliphs of Bagdad, it became the cap. of Irak, and rapidly increased in wealth, pop., and trade. This rising prosperity, however, received a severe check during the invasion of Timour, who took the city, in 1387, and gave it up to military execution. The troops massacred 70,000 of the inhabs., whose heads, piled on the walls of Isfahan, long attested the merciless severity of the conqueror; and on this desolation the city gradually revived under the Sefis; but it did not become the residence of royalty till Shah Abbas the Great made it the metropolis of Persia, embellished it with stately mansions, and rendered it not only a luxurious capital, but filled it with merchants, artificers, and agriculturists from Europe as well as Asia, whose united industry soon made it the great emporium of the Asiatic world. The city was at this time 10 m. in circuit, and comprised, according to Chardin, 160 mosques, 45 colleges, 1,800 caravanserais, 372 public baths, and 12 cemeteries: while the pop. amounted, according to the same author, to 600,000 persons; but other authors raise it to 1,100,000; and the inhabitants of 1,400 villages are said to have derived their subsistence from its prosperity. There can, however, be no doubt that these statements are grossly exaggerated; and, in fact, merely show that Isfahan was then a rich, flourishing, and populous city. "Its bazaars," says Sir R. K. Porter, "were filled with merchandise from every quarter of the globe, mingled with rich bales of its own celebrated manufactures;" and the shah's court was the resort of ambassadors from the proudest kingdoms of the east, as well as of Europe. This prosperity, however, was but of short duration; for, in 1722, Persia was invaded by the Afghans, and Isfahan, after sustaining a siege of eight months, during which the adjacent country was laid waste by the barbarous policy of the enemy, was reduced to its present ruinous state: the walls were so completely destroyed that all traces of them are obliterated, the palaces dismantled and robbed of all their ornaments, and the

people massacred without mercy. Nadir-Shah captured the city in 1771; but he took no steps to restore its ancient glory. The sovereigns have resided at Teheran during the last 70 years; and Isphahan has gradually fallen to a state of decay, from which even its commercial importance has not been able to preserve it." (*Chronica*, vol. iii. passim; *Porter's Travels*, ii. 87-88; *Ouseley's Travels*, iii. 62-63.; *Ritter*, ix. 40-46.)

ISSOIRE, a town of France, dép. Puy-de-Dôme, cap. arrond. on the Creuze, 19 m. S.S.E. Clermont. Pop. (1836), 5,741. It is well built and clean; in its centre is a spacious market-place. It has manufactures of copper kettles and other copper wares, with some trade in walnut oil, hemp, and wine.

ISSOUDUN, a town of France, dép. Indre, of which it is the most important, though not nominally the chief town, cap. arrond., on the Theola, which is here crossed by three bridges, 16 m. N.E. Châteauroux, and on the high road between that city and Bourges. Pop. (1836) 9,406. It stands partly on the declivity of a hill, and partly in the plain at its foot; is said to be better laid out and built than any other town in the centre of France; and is remarkably clean. It owes its regularity and beauty principally to the numerous devastating fires it has undergone at different times; during one of which, in 1651, the citizens repulsed and put to flight the troops of Louis XIV., then investing the place. Issoudun was formerly a fortress of some strength, and possessed a large castle, a portion of which, now remaining, serves as a prison. The town has 4 churches, 2 hospitals, a new town-hall, barracks, a small theatre, and several public walks. It is the seat of a sub-prefecture, of a tribunal of original jurisdiction and commerce, and of a chamber of manufactures. It has linen and woollen cloth and parchment factories, and was formerly a place of considerable commercial activity; but it has not yet recovered the injury done to its industry by the revocation of the edict of Nantes. It is of great antiquity, having been one of the towns laid waste by the Bituriges to arrest the progress of Julius Cæsar. (*Ælugo*, &c.)

ITALY.

ISTRIA. See *ILLYRIA*.

ITALY (Lat. *Italia*, Fr. *Italie*), one of the most celebrated and fertile countries of Europe, the seat of the greatest empire of antiquity, and of art, science, and civilisation, when the surrounding countries were immersed in barbarism. It is finely situated, comprising the whole of the central peninsula of S. Europe, with the extensive and rich country to the N. of the peninsula, and included between the Alps and the Mediterranean. It extends between lat. 37° 46' and 46° 30' N., and long. 6° 30' and 18° 30' E., having N.W. France and Savoy, N. Switzerland and the Tyrol, N.E. Carinthia, Carniola, and the Hungarian Littoral, E. the Adriatic, and on all other sides the Mediterranean. In antiquity, it was known by the names of *Hesperia*, *Ausonia*, *Saravaria*, *Æswaria*, &c.; but these names, though loosely applied to the whole country, were strictly applicable only to particular portions of its surface. Various derivations have been assigned to the term Italy. (See *Faccioliati, Lexicon*, voce *Italia*.) In the first instance, it is said to have designated only its more S. portion, or what is now the peninsula of Calabria Ultra; but in the course of time it superseded every other name, and was gradually extended to the whole country from the Alps southward. In shape, Italy has been familiarly likened to a boot, the base of which forms the Terra d'Otranto, and the foot by Calabria, both in the Neapolitan dom. The general direction of the Italian peninsula is S.E. and N.W.; its length, from Mount St. Gothard to Cape Spartivento, in Calabria, is nearly 750 English m.; its breadth varies from about 380 m. in N. Italy, to less than 80 m. near its centre; and in one part of Calabria it is no more than 18 m. from sea to sea. The area of the mainland may be estimated at about 100,000 sq. m.; but three large islands, Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, and many smaller, as Elba, Ischia, the Lipari group, &c., belong to Italy. It has long been divided into a number of independent states; the names, area, population, &c. of those at present existing in it may be seen in the following table:—

States.	Area in Eng. sq. m.	Pop. by latest Census.	Pop. to sq. m.	Capitals.
Kingdom of Naples and Sicily:—				
Naples	31,621	(1848) 6,382,706	201.8	Naples.
Sicily	10,510	2,040,610	194.	Palermo.
	42,131	8,423,316	200.	
Kingdom of Sardinia, &c.:—				
Continental, &c. (excluding Savoy)	15,373	(1838) 5,561,998	251.7	Turin.
Insular	9,547	624,633	55.	Cagliari.
	24,920	6,186,631	164.	
Lombardo-Venetian kingdom	17,552	(1844) 4,803,389	275.6	Milan and Venice.
Illyrian Government of Trieste (belonging to Austria)	3,098	501,989	162.	Trieste.
	30,650	5,305,378	257.	
Papal States	17,210	(1848) 2,898,115	168.	Rome.
Grand Duchy of Tuscany	9,130	(1848) 1,693,597	185.	Florence.
Duchy of Parma	2,258	(1850) 494,737	218.	Parma.
Modena	2,517	(1850) 568,678	228.	Modena.
Republic of San Marino	22	7,600	345.	San Marino.
Total	118,668	23,471,892	197.1	

(*Serristori, Statistica d'Italia; Bowring's Reports*, &c.)

Physical Geography.—The frontier of Italy is extremely well defined. She is defended on the N., the N.E., and N.W. by the vast bulwark of the Alps, the passes of which might be easily guarded and made impervious to hostile attack. She has every where else a sea frontier; so that, while she is protected by a natural rampart against attacks by land, she has every facility, by means of her extensive sea frontier and numerous ports, for internal and foreign commerce.

Though bounded by the Alps, only a comparatively small portion of the surface of Italy is covered with alpine ramifications. The mountain system exclusively belonging to the peninsula is that of the Apennines. (See Vol. I. 125, 126.) These mountains, which may be regarded as a continuation of the maritime Alps, at first run E. along the Mediterranean shores in the Sardinian territory; and then, turning gradually S., divide Tuscany from the Papal States, passing through the peninsula nearly in its centre, and sending of numerous branches on either side. At length, near lat. 40° 45', the main ridge divides into two separate chains, the principal of which continues S. to the extremity of Calabria, while the other runs E.S.E. through the Terra d'Otranto. The mean elevation of the Apennines is about 4,000 ft.; Monte Corno, the summit of the Gran Sasso d'Italia, in Abruzzo Ultra, is, however, 9,521 ft. in height, and is capped with snow during the whole year; Monte Velino is 8,183 ft.; and Monte Sibilla, in the Papal States, 7,312 ft. high; and many other summits in central and extreme S. Italy approach the latter in elevation. The Apennines are much less rugged than the Alps, and abound with rich forests, and pasture land, on which numerous flocks of sheep are fed. They are of great service to the country, by the numerous rivers which have their sources in them and by their influence in moderating the summer

heats. Italy is also famous for its volcanoes; those of Etna, Vesuvius, and Stromboli, in the Lipari Islands, being, if not the greatest, by far the most celebrated and best known of any on the globe.

But though for the most part mountainous, Italy has some plains of great extent and extraordinary fertility. Of these, the most extensive and richest is that of Lombardy, or of the Po. This noble plain extends from the foot of the Alps, near Suva, to the mouth of the Po, in the Adriatic, a distance of about 250 m., with a breadth varying from 50 to 130 m., including nearly the whole of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, the central portion of the Sardinian dom., most part of the duchies of Parma and Modena, and the N. legations of the Papal States. This great plain is extremely well watered; the numerous rivers and streams that rise in the Alps, and pour down into the plain, afford a vast and inexhaustible supply of water; and from these an infinite number of canals have been cut, that diffuse the fertilising element over the whole country, and give to its corn and rice fields, and its variegated meadows, extraordinary productiveness. The soil, though different in different parts, is for the most part loamy, and very fertile. The surface is generally divided into small farms of from 10 to 60 acres; and if not scientifically, is at least carefully and economically cultivated. The fields are enclosed by lines of fruit-trees, mulberry-trees, poplars, and oaks; and their growth is so luxuriant, that in many parts the country has the appearance of a vast forest. This plain has to boast of an immense number of cities, many of which are of great antiquity and considerable size, and all of them adorned with noble buildings and valuable works of art. Probably, on the whole, the plain of Lombardy may be called the garden of Europe; and, at all events, it is certainly the garden of Italy.

The next great plain stretches along the W. shore of Central Italy for about 300 m., from Pisa, in Tuscany, to Terracina, between the Papal States and Naples. Within these limits are included the Tuscan *maremma*, great part of the *campagna* of Rome, and the *Pontine swamps* (anc. *Pomptinae paludes*). This plain is, in all respects, very different from the former. Though in antiquity, and to a certain extent, also, in the middle ages, it was celebrated for its fertility, and was highly cultivated and populous, it is now comparatively a desert. This is a consequence of the prevalence of *malaria*, which infects these districts to such an extent as to render them at certain periods of the year all but uninhabitable. They are necessarily, therefore, for the most part in pasture; and are occupied by a vagrant population, who reside in the country only in the healthy season. In the *campagna* of Rome the shepherds who have charge of the flocks are obliged, during the summer season, to repair every night to the city, or to some other town, as sleeping in the country would be fatal: it is then, also, extremely dangerous to travel by night through the Pontine marshes. The vagrant population of this extensive tract, and those who live on its borders, have all an emaciated, unhealthy, cadaverous aspect; and where the plain is cultivated, the labourers who come from other parts of the country to assist in the harvest frequently fall victims to the pernicious influence of the atmosphere, or have their constitutions injured for life. In the Tuscan *maremma*, the soil has in many places become, from neglect, sterile and unproductive; but in the *campagna* of Rome, and the Pontine marshes, the soil is, in most parts, extraordinarily fertile, is covered with a luxuriant vegetation, and, were it properly cultivated, would yield immense crops.

There are no hills in the *campagna*. Its undulations do not arise from elevations of the surface, but from depression; it may be described as a *plateau* from 1 to 300 ft. above the level of the sea, traversed by wide and shallow valleys, which occupy 1-4th or 1-5th part of its surface. Some of these valleys are dry, others have small sluggish streams, and they are from 50 to 150 ft. deep. There is a strip of swamp along the sea-coast, probably 2 or 3 m. broad; but with this exception, the *campagna* of Rome seems to be generally dry; for the wet lands seen in some of its small valleys are such as we find in every country, and are not worth mentioning as an exception. Its present appearance is bleak and deserted in a remarkable degree. There are scattered clumps of brushwood; but the eye ranges over it for miles often without discovering a single timber tree, and I have seen nothing deserving the name of woodland or forest within its vast bounds. Fences are rare, except near Rome; a gentleman's country house, or villa, is not to be seen in it, nor a decent farm-house; and even the cottages are so few and far between, that in the 40 m. from Rome to the hills near Civita Vecchia, I am satisfied that I did not see 80 houses of all descriptions. It is divided into immense estates, usually let in small lots, on the *metayer* system, and is kept mostly in pasture, not more than 1-4th or 1-10th part being under the plough, or rather *acoe*, for it is laboured with the latter.

The Pontine marshes are 34 m. long, and probably 13 broad. The work of draining was commenced under the Roman republic, was continued by the emperors and popes, and is not yet entirely finished. The journey through them is monotonous beyond any thing I have met with. A canal 50 ft. broad, the grand trunk of the drainage, extends along their whole length, in a line mathematically straight. The soil thrown out of this canal forms a raised bank, 5 or 6 ft. above the water, and 80 or 100 ft. broad. An excellent road passes along this bank, with a double row of lofty trees on each side. You travel mile after mile on this road, on the same unvarying straight line, with the same endless vista before you, longing for some hill, or valley, or turn of the road, to break the fatal uniformity of the scene. It was upon this canal that horses travelled in a track-boat, on his journey to Brundisium. The marshes are not altogether uninhabited. A few houses are met with on the road, and others are seen in the distance. The surface is chiefly in pasture; but part is planted with tall reeds used for vine props, part covered with brushwood, probably raised for fuel, and some small patches are ploughed. Very little wet marsh is now visible till you come to the north or higher end, where there is a considerable tract still unimproved. The general surface of the plain inclines eastward and southward, so that the inland part is actually lower than that towards the coast on the north; and, like the Neapolitan *campagna*, the level ground abuts sharply against the mountains. (*Maclaren's Notes on Italy*, p. 65.)

Various and very conflicting causes have been assigned for the increase of *malaria*, and the consequent depopulation of these extensive and once fertile territories. They were always, indeed, rather unhealthy; but their unhealthiness has been prodigiously aggra-

vated in modern times. It is believed by many that its deterioration has been, in a considerable degree, owing to the wanton destruction of the woods and forests, by which the land was shaded in antiquity, and screened from the fiery beams of the summer sun. No doubt it is in part also a consequence of the obstructions that have been allowed to grow up in the courses and at the mouths of rivers, by which their waters have been formed into stagnant and noxious marshes. But the last-mentioned circumstance may itself be ascribed to what we believe has had by far the greatest influence, that is, to the decay of pop. and industry, occasioned by the irruptions of the barbarians, the ravages of war, and the influence of epidemics. The ill success that attended the efforts of the Grand Duke Leopold to reclaim some portions of the *maremma*, by establishing colonies in them, appears to have led many to believe that they were absolutely irreclaimable. Certainly, however, this is not the case. The great works, principally of a hydraulic character, that have of late years been undertaken and carried into effect in Tuscany, by which large tracts of the *maremma* have been converted into productive estates, show what may be done by judicious efforts on a large scale. Hitherto, indeed, the land that has been reclaimed, and made tolerably healthy, bears but a small proportion to what is still abandoned and pestiferous; but the example has been set, and what has been done and is doing in Tuscany will probably lead to similar efforts being made by the Papal and Neapolitan governments. (*See TUSCANY*.) Mr. Maclaren says of the *campagna* di Roma, that, "having seen it, I find it difficult to believe that, in the hands of an industrious people, enjoying the advantage of good government, it should not become fertile, populous, and healthy, and assume the cheerful aspect of Lombardy." (P. 67.)

The third great plain of Italy, that of Capitanata (Apulia), having Foggia in its centre. It comprises the greater portion of a tract of flat country, extending from the border of Samnium to Otranto, along the shore of the Adriatic, anciently included in Daunia, Japygia, Peucetia, and Messapia. The lower part of the Apulian plain is arid, the rivers decreasing both in size and frequency as we proceed farther S.; and in the provinces of Otranto and Bari the rain water is obliged to be carefully preserved in cisterns for the irrigation of the land. The upper portion of the plain, is more plentifully supplied with water, but it, also, has in many parts a sandy and thirsty soil. A great part of it is destitute of bush, house, or tree; it is farmed in large estates, and round about Lucera and elsewhere there is a good deal of arable land; but by far the greater portion of the surface consists of pastures, called *taboliere*, into which immense flocks of sheep from the Abruzzi are driven to feed in the winter. (*See APULIA*, l. 128.) The sums paid for this privilege by the proprietors form a rich source of revenue to the crown of Naples, to which the *taboliere* belong.

The level district round Naples is still well entitled to its ancient epithet of *Campania Felix*, being at once rich, well cultivated (for Italy), and densely peopled. We borrow from Mr. Maclaren's Notes the following account of this famous plain. "Conceive a tract of *carse* land, 40 m. in length, by 15 or 20 in breadth, presenting a dead level like the surface of the ocean, and probably from 1 to 100 ft. above it. In the midst of this vast area, there are two large islands; Vesuvius and its dependent hillocks constitute one of a round form, and about 8 m. in diameter; a chain of hillocks, narrow ridges, and truncated cones, extending from Naples to Cape Misenum, covering a space of 12 m. in length, and 3 or 4 in breadth, constitutes the other. With the exception of these two elevated tracts, the whole district, as I have said, is a dead level. It is, in fact, a portion of the bottom of the ocean lifted up by subterranean agents, and converted into dry land. As might be expected, it does not rise by a series of small elevations to the outer hills of the Apennines; it abuts sharply against them, as the waters of the German Ocean abut against the last level of the Lammernuir hills. I traversed this plain in three directions; and, excepting the mountains named, did not see a single hillock or eminence in it which would conceal a sheep. It is probably equal in fertility to any spot in the world. Though so level, it seems to be remarkably dry, and hence it is free of malaria. The vegetable soil, which is exposed in drains at some places, seems to be of great depth, and it is cultivated like a garden. It is put to what may be called a double use, first ploughed and sown with corn, and then at every interval of 50 or 100 ft. there is a row of vines." (P. 57.)

Rivers and Lakes.—Few countries are better watered than Italy, whether in regard to springs, rivers, or lakes. The principal river is the Po, the *Eridanus* or *Padus* of the ancients; it issues from Mount Viso in the Alps, on the confines of France, and receives, during its long course to the Adriatic, a vast number of tri-

butary streams. It divides the great plain of Lombardy into two nearly equal parts, and is the grand receptacle for the streams flowing S. from the Alps, and for the lesser waters that flow N. from a part of the Apennine range.

"Piled with a thousand raptures, I survey
Eridanus through flowery meadows array,
The king of floods! that, rolling o'er the plains,
The towering Alps of half their moisture drains,
And proudly swells with a whole winner's mow,
Distributes wealth and plenty where he goes."

Of its numerous affluents, the most important are the Baltes, Sesa, Tessino, Adda, Chiese, and Mincio, from the N.; and the Tanaro, Bormida, Trebia, famous for the great victory gained by Hannibal on its banks, and Panaro, on the S. The other large rivers of the N. of Italy, are the Adige, Brenta, Piave, and Tagliamento, all flowing S. from the Alps. In Central and Southern Italy no great river can be expected to arise, on account of the narrowness of the peninsula, and the central position of the Apennines, in which they have their sources. The Tiber is the principal, and also the most celebrated; but, like the other rivers of this part of Italy, it is interesting chiefly from its ancient renown, and the classical recollections associated with its name, than from its magnitude or intrinsic importance. Among others of this class are the Arno and Ombrone in Tuscany. Considerable differences of opinion have taken place as to the identity of the Rubicon, the S. E. boundary of Cisalpine Gaul, so famous in ancient history. It is generally, however, believed to be represented by the Fluminio, which falls into the Adriatic 18 or 20 m. below Ravenna. An ancient law of the senate and people of Rome made it death to cross this river with arms in a hostile intention. Its passage, by Cæsar, has been finely described by Lucan (lib. i. lin. 183-227.); and his exclamation on that occasion, "*jacta est alea*," has passed into a proverb. In Naples, the only streams deserving the name of rivers are the Vulturno, the Garigliano, anciently the *Liris*, and the Ofanto, formerly the *Aufidus*, which, flowing past Canne, is thence called *sanguesivo*, by Silius Italicus (lib. x. 890.). The rivers that descend from the Apennines are apt, like other mountain currents, to swell suddenly, and to cause inundations in the level parts of the country, particularly towards the mouth of the Po.

"Frolics inano contempts vortice d'isole
Fivulorum rex Eridanus, carpoque per omnes
Cum stabulis armenta tulit." Georg. i. 481.

To restrain this, dykes or mounds have been erected in many places; and as the earthy substances brought down by the flood have, in many cases, raised the bed of the stream, and required fresh embankments, the mounds are often of considerable height, and have the appearance of aqueducts.

The most considerable of the Italian lakes are situated in the N.; including those of Garda, Maggiore, Como, Lugano, &c. In Central Italy are the lakes of Perugia (an. *Lacus Thrasimenus*), Bolsena, Bracciano, Celano or Fucino, Albano, &c. (see the names); and in the S. those of Averno and others, which, though insignificant in point of size, have acquired imperishable renown. Many considerable salt lagoons line the Mediterranean coast in various parts of Tuscany and the Papal States, and the shores of the Adriatic in the Venetian territories, and round the promontory of Gargano. Besides the Pontine marshes, at the S. extremity of the Pope's dominions, there are numerous marshy tracts of less extent in the Val di Chiana and other parts of Tuscany, in the plain of Salerno, and along the banks of the Po, especially in the region round its mouth. S. of the last-mentioned tract, a considerable extent of bog-land, called the *Pal di Commacchio*, occupies a large portion of the papal legation of Ferrara. Italy has about 3,000 m. of sea-coast. Its chief capes and headlands are, Argentaro, Circeio, Campanella, Spartivento, and Santa Maria di Leuca, on the Mediterranean, and the Testa di Gargano, and Cape Promontorio (Istria), on the Adriatic. Of the gulphs or bays formed along its coast, the principal are the Gulph of Taranto, on the S.E., between Apulia and Calabria; those of Genoa, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policastro, Eufemia, and Gioja, on its W.; and those of Squillace, Manfredonia, and Trieste, on its E. shore.

Geology and Minerals.—Italy may be described as "a calcareous region enclosing a schistous band;" but volcanic action has been so prevalent, that the strata are often found extremely disarranged from their original position. N. of Genoa, the primary formations in the Apennines include granite, gneiss, serpentine, quartz, clay-slate, &c., often intermixed with transition limestone and gneiss. Granite and gneiss are absent in the Apennine region of Central Italy, but they reappear in the S., where they predominate among the primary formations, furthest from the S. end of Calabria. They also exhibit themselves in the *Maremma*, near the surface; the secondary formations in Tuscany being often intermixed with primary

rocks, and in some instances overlap by them. The tertiary deposits of Italy are very extensive, and form the sub-Apennine region, or low hill ranges, extending along the flanks of the Apennines throughout the whole peninsula, consisting of sandstone, marl, coarse limestone, &c. These formations contain an abundance of marine shells, among which as many as 770 different species have been enumerated, half of them still inhabiting the adjacent seas. The alluvial plain of the Po abounds in fossil remains of mammalia, birds, and amphibia, and similar fossils have been discovered in the Neapolitan dominions. Several regions in the central and S. parts of Italy are almost wholly composed of volcanic products. Such are the Campagna di Roma, which abounds with a volcanic tuff, called *travertini*, of which great part of Rome is built; and the neighbourhood of Vesuvius, which is covered with lava and *scoria*. Numerous traces of extinct volcanoes exist, the craters of which have been converted into lakes. Such is the origin of the lakes of Bracciano, Vico, and Albano, in the neighbourhood of Rome.

Italy is less rich in metals than in most other things; it, however, is well supplied with iron; it has also copper and lead ore, and the precious metals have been found, but in inconsiderable quantities. Tuscany is the chief seat of mining industry, and large quantities of iron are furnished by the island of Elba, among which is a duchy. (See *Elba*.) The most valuable mineral product of continental Italy is, however, the fine statuary marble of Carrara, in the Modenese territory. Marble of a similar kind, and nearly as good, is found at Seravizza, and other kinds are met with in almost every part of the peninsula. Great quantities of borax are found in Tuscany: sulphur, building stone, salt, nitre, alum, alabaster, crystal, &c. are the other chief mineral products; and the Apennines abound in basalt, dried lava, *porzollano* sand, and other volcanic substances. Quarries of statuary marble are met with in many parts, and mineral springs and vapours are of very frequent occurrence. (*Hoffmann, Europa; Lyell's Geology; Ramond's Dict. Géol.*)

The climate of Italy is delightful. Owing to its length from N. to S., and the great difference in the elevation of its surface, there is necessarily a considerable variation in the temperature of different parts; but, speaking generally, the air is throughout mild and genial; the excessive heats of summer are moderated by the influence of the mountains and the surrounding sea, and the cold of winter is hardly very extreme. As respects temperature, it may be divided into four regions: the first, extending N. of the Apennines, and of lat. 43° 30', and including the plain of Lombardy, has a climate somewhat similar to that of S. Germany, but warmer. In winter, the lakes of Garda, Maggiore, &c., and the lagoons of Venice, are partially frozen; snow often falls, and the thermometer sometimes sinks to 14°; even in summer, the N. wind is cold, and oranges, lemons, and other *agrumi* do not flourish in the open air. The second region, extending between lat. 43° 30' and 41° 30', includes the greater part of Tuscany and the Papal States, with the N. part of the k. of Naples. Within this band, snow and ice are mostly confined to the mountain tops, and olives and *agrumi* of all kinds flourish luxuriantly without culture. The third region, from 41° 30' to 39°, comprises the middle Neapolitan provs. Snow is here very rare, and the finest fruits are found in the valleys throughout the winter. The fourth region embraces the S. part of Calabria, with Sicily, the Lipari Is., &c. Here, the thermometer never falls to the freezing point, and the sugar-cane, Indian fig, papyrus palm, and other tropical plants are abundant on the low lands.

The following is a table of the medium temperature of the year in different latitudes of Italy:—

Place.	Lat. N.	Height above Sea.	Mean annual Temperature.
Milan	45° 28'	492 feet.	53·60 Fahr.
Bologna	44° 30'	215	55·40
Florence	43° 48'	230	59·40
Rome	41° 25'	187	60·00
Naples	40° 50'	-	62·20

Throughout most parts of Italy there are but three seasons in the year: a spring, which more than realises all that poets have said in its praise; a hot summer, and a short, and not severe, winter: most of the vegetable products, even in the N., flower by the end of March. Heavy rains prevail during Oct. and Nov.; W. and N.W. winds are the most prevalent; but the *libeccio* and *sirocco*, the *simoom* of the Arabs, also occasionally occur, and exert an oppressive, and in the S. an injurious, influence over the animal frame.

It is true, however, notwithstanding the mildness and general salubrity of the Italian climate, that large districts of the country are very unhealthy, and that the chances of longevity are less than in England and other countries under more inclement skies. But the unhealthiness complained of is not the effect of climate, but of circumstances connected with the physical geography of

the country, and the want of industry: neither do we think that the inferior longevity of the Italians is to be ascribed to their climate, but to the depressed situation and poverty of the bulk of the people; the bad quality and scanty supply of food and clothes; the low state of medical science; and the want of cleanliness. The genial climate may, indeed, be said to contribute indirectly to bring about these results, by encouraging slothful habits, and making the people less industrious than they would be were it more severe; and, no doubt, this is to some extent true. But it is to the want of enlightened institutions, a tolerant system of religion, and a free press, that the distressed state and heavy mortality of the people of Italy are mainly to be ascribed.

It has been supposed that the climate of Italy has undergone a considerable change, and that it is now less cold in winter than formerly. There seem to be good grounds for concurring in this opinion; and the change may be accounted for by the cutting down of the forests already alluded to, and by the changes that have taken place in the countries to the N. of Italy. (See *Hume's Essay on the Populousness of Ancient Nations*, and the authorities referred to in it.) We doubt, however, whether there be any foundation for the notion, that either the productiveness of Italy or its pop. has diminished. No doubt some extensive tracts, as the Tuscan *marisma*, the Campagna, and some parts of the Neapolitan territory, which in antiquity were occupied by a dense pop., are now all but uninhabited; but, on the other hand, Lombardy has been signal improved, and is at this moment infinitely better cultivated and more populous than at any former period. On the whole, we incline to think, that whatever Italy may have lost in respect of pop. in certain districts, has been fully compensated by a corresponding gain elsewhere; and that her decline from her ancient fame and influence has not been occasioned by any decline in the number of her sons.

General Aspect of Italy.—Speaking generally, nothing can surpass the beauty and diversity of the scenery of Italy. Its mountains have every variety of form and elevation; alternately smooth and rugged, they exhibit by turns gentle declivities and fine pastures, tremendous precipices and chasms, water-falls, deep and majestic forests, and summits capped with snow, and sometimes emitting smoke and flames. Many of the valleys, as that of the Arno, are delightful beyond description; the plain of Lombardy is not less beautiful than rich, and even the half-desert tracts along the W. shore interest by their solitude and their vastness. The extent of the sea coast, and the number and magnitude of the lakes, add also greatly to the beauty and variety of the landscape; while the clearness of the atmosphere gives to every object a brightness of colouring, and distinctness of outline, that can with difficulty be conceived by those accustomed to cloudy and less brilliant skies. No wonder, then, that the beauty and richness, as well as the glory of their country, should have been a favourite theme of the ancient writers:—

"*Sed neque Modicum solum, dicienda terra,
Nec pulcher Gangem atque arva torrida Rhenum,
Laudibus Italiam cernit: non Bactra neque Indi,
Totaque charitibus pascuntur pinguis arena.
Hic grævidæ fruges et Bacchi Mæcenas humor
Implevit; tantæ oleæque, armentorum laeta.
Hic ver æquidum, atque ætatis manibus mæta.
Adde tot ægræque urbes, opæque laborum,
Et congesta manu præcipitæ oppida tellus,
Flammisque antiquæ subter labentia muræ.—
Sæpe, magnæ parvasque, Soteraia tellus,
Magna virum.*"

Georg. ii. 138—174.

In respect of its *vegetable products*, Italy may be divided into six regions, according to its elevation. These are as follow:—

Regions.	Elevation.	Products.
1. Of the plains	— to 1,500 ft.	Lentils, myrtle, laurel, linx and cork trees, citrons, figs, olive, vine, pomegranate, &c.
2. Oak and chestnut	1,500—5,000 —	Oak, chestnut, beech, olive, vine, corn, &c.
3. Beech and fir	5,000—5,000 —	Beech, fir, larch, juniper, and wheat, barley, oats and maize, to 4,500 ft.
4. Subalpine region	5,000—6,000 —	Dwarf pine, arborea, gentian, anemone.
5. Upper Alpine region	6,000—8,500 —	Androsace, saxifrage, and other Alpine plants.
6. Region of snow	8,500 ft. & upwards	Island moss, <i>Artemisia medullosa</i> , and a few other plants.

There is a much greater diversity of plants in the S. portion of the Apennine chain than in any other part of its extent: this diversity is the most marked in the second, or oak and chestnut region. The Italian or S. declivities of the Alps present a greater diversity of vegetation than those facing the N.; and more species of plants are found on them than on the Apennines.

On the Alpine summits are seen the dwarf birch, juniper, and other plants of Lapland and Siberia, whilst at their feet flourish the fig, *Agave americana*, and *Cactus opuntia*. Mount Vesuvius has a Flora peculiar to itself. (*Haffmann, Europa und Seine Inseln*, iii. 64—65.)

Italy is much more an agricultural than a manufacturing country; but the indolence of a great part of the pop., the remaining operation of the feudal system, and the backward state of agriculture, render the actual return far inferior to what the country is calculated to yield. Silk has become a most important product: its culture has increased very rapidly since the peace of 1815, and the total produce is now estimated at about 12,000,000 lbs. a year: wine and olives, particularly the latter, are also very important products; and there is a great abundance of the finest fruits. Corn is not so generally cultivated in Italy as in the more N. countries of Europe; but pulse and other vegetables are extensively raised. Particular parts of the country are appropriated to particular products. Lombardy is the chief corn country; in the Genovese and Tuscan territories, the culture of fruit, particularly of olives, predominates; while the unhealthy district of the Maremma, and the marshes, remain, as before stated, chiefly in a state of natural pasture. Skillful agriculture is principally confined to the N.; in the centre, with the exception of portions of Tuscany, and S., it is at a very low ebb; and throughout the kingdom of Naples the abundance of vegetable productions is owing more to the climate and soil than to the industry of the husbandman. The products of the N. parts of the peninsula are found there in abundance; and whole groves of olives are seen growing in the open country, interspersed with spices and other tropical products.

The pastures of Italy are stocked with large herds of black cattle, sheep, and goats: few horses are reared; and the breed is in little estimation, except in certain parts of the Neapolitan territory. Mules are more common, being found better adapted for the bad and mountainous roads. The operations of agriculture are performed by oxen. The buffalo is found in Italy, though hardly any where else in Europe. Hogs are fed in large herds in the forests, particularly in Calabria. The mountains and forests contain a number of wild animals; among others, the boar, stag, marmot, and badger. The lynx or tiger cat is not uncommon in the mountains of Abruzzo; and the crested porcupine is supposed to be peculiar to the S. of Italy. Foxes, hares, and winged game, are sufficiently abundant. From the heat of the climate in the S. provs., snakes and reptiles of different kinds are numerous. The rivers, lakes, and coasts abound with fish.

Manufactures and Trade.—Italy is not distinguished for manufactures: the chief are those of silk, fabrics, silk thread, &c., which have their principal seat in Lombardy. Woollen and linen stuffs, straw plait, gauze, artificial flowers, straw hats, paper, parchment, leather, gloves, essences, and musical instruments, are among the other goods manufactured in Italy; but, generally speaking, the raw products of the country form its chief exports, and most manufactured articles, whether of necessity or luxury, are imported from foreign nations. Venice and Genoa engrossed a large proportion of the trade of Europe, till the discovery of the passage to the East by the Cape of Good Hope, and the enterprise of the Portuguese and Dutch, and after them the French and English, diverted European commerce into a new channel. From that period, the prosperity of those cities gradually decayed, and the first of them has sunk into comparative insignificance, while Italy at large has but a small portion only of her former commercial importance. In the Austrian, Papal, and Neapolitan territories, the exportation and importation of commodities is checked by impolitic duties and prohibitions; while, in the last two at least, the trading is done to promote trade or manufactures by the improvement of roads, harbours, and such like public works. In Tuscany, a more liberal and enlightened policy is adopted, and Leghorn and Genoa still display a considerable degree of commercial wealth and activity. Trieste, however, is at present the principal Italian port; but a good deal of its exports and imports are derived from and intended for, Austria and Hungary. Italy is, next to Germany and Holland, the largest European importer of English goods. The exports to it, at an average of the six years ending with 1838, amounted to 2,738,161*l.* a year. In 1838, the exports from the U. Kingdom to Germany were 4,988,900*l.*; to Holland, 3,549,429*l.*; and to Italy, 3,076,231*l.* Cotton stuffs and twist form about 2-3ds of our exports to Italy; the remainder being principally made up of sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; woollens, iron and steel, hardware, linens, fish, earthenware, coal, &c.

The exports to Great Britain are principally olive oil, brimstone, wine, kid and lamb skins, oak, and cork bark, oranges and lemons, raw and thrown silk, partly

imported direct and partly indirect through France; straw hats, wheat (a good deal at second hand from the Black Sea), linseed, shumac, rags, &c. The trade with the Levant is very considerable; and a good deal is carried on with France, Austria, Greece, Switzerland, Germany, Russia, and America. Next to Trieste, Leghorn, and Genoa, the chief commercial ports are Civita Vecchia, Naples, Gallipoli, Bari, Ancona, Venice, and Palermo: the principal inland commercial cities are Milan, Brescia, Verona, Bologna, Turin, Florence, Lucca, Rome, and Sinigaglia. Further details respecting the trade of Italy will be found under these separate heads, and the different states into which the country is divided. We subjoin—

A Statement of the Quantities of the principal Articles

A Statement of the Quantities of the principal Articles exported from the U. Kingdom to Italy and the Italian Islands, in 1838, specifying the declared Value of the Articles of British Produce and Manufacture.

British and Irish Produce and Manufactures.			Foreign and Colonial Produce.	
Articles.	Quantities.	Declared Value.	Articles.	Quantities.
Brass and copper (manufactured)	7,609 cwts.	£. 24,291	Cassia lignea	105,945 lbs.
Cotton (manufactured) and yarn	36,709 tons	9,005,585	Cinnamon	59,179 —
Coals, culm, and clinders	981,610 pieces	12,867	Cocoa-nuts	914,317 —
Earthenware	30,954 barrels	30,954	Coffee	2,308,872 —
Herrings, &c.	8,227 cwts.	49,598	Cotton piece goods	32,980 pieces
Hardware and cutlery	20,553 tons	185,568	Ginger	2,334 cwts.
Iron and steel	41,385	57,965	Shell-lace	3,197 lbs.
Loom (manufactured) and yarn	115,620 cwts.	276,372	Indigo	540,545 —
Machinery, &c.	56,455	41,385	Pepper	297,205 —
Sugar (refined)	276,372	276,372	Rain	107,164 gals.
Tin and pewter goods	25,455	25,455	Sugar (unrefined)	3,197 lbs.
Woolen manufactures, &c.	128,738	128,738	Tobacco (unmanufactured)	1,474,833 lbs.
Sundries	—	—	Cotton wool	2,980,756 —
Total British and Irish		£. 5,076,231		

The principal roads in Austrian Italy, Tuscany, &c. are pretty good, and some of them excellent; but in the Papal States and the Neapolitan dom., they are in general very bad. In Central Italy, however, several ancient roads exist, in good preservation; as the Emilian Way, and a part of the Applan, which constitute, in fact, the best routes in the territories of Parma, Modena, and the Pope. New and excellent roads have been opened from Genoa to Nice, Turin and Leghorn, and from Leghorn to Grosseto. The road from Rome to Naples is extremely good; and a new road has been made from Naples to Brindisi, and the extremity of Calabria. Within the present century, also, magnificent roads have been carried over the Alps, by the passes of the Splügen, Simplon, St. Bernard, Mont Cenis, &c., and easy means of communication have thus been opened between Italy and transalpine Europe.

Canals are numerous, especially in the Austrian territories, the N. legations of the papal dom., and the central part of Piedmont; they are chiefly, however, for irrigation only. But those of Pisa and Cento, and those from the Po to Ferrara and Reggio, are navigable.

Religion, Education, &c.—The pop. is entirely Rom. Catholic, except a small portion inhabiting a few valleys of Piedmont, who profess the Protestant faith; some communicants of the Greek church, in the S. provs. of Naples; and Jews, and strangers of various creeds, residing principally in the large cities, where they are allowed the free exercise of their different modes of worship. There are 28 Rom. Cath. archbishops, and an indefinite number of suffragan bishops, in Italy. The number of inferior ecclesiastics is surprisingly great, and the secular clergy are the principal teachers in their respective pars. It has been said, with reference to public education in Italy, "It is quite a mistake to conceive that no advance has been made in late years in the department of education in Italy; so far is it otherwise, that the footing on which popular instruction has been placed is, on the whole, superior to what exists in France or England. Any one who will give himself the pains to enquire into the fact, will find that there are proportionally more Italians than Englishmen or Frenchmen who are able to read and write; and the children of the middling and lower classes in Lombardy and Tuscany have no reason to shrink from a comparison with their contemporaries in Protestant countries, as respects the quality of their acquirements. In every part of Italy the mind is perceptibly on the advance, more especially in the north." (*Journal of Education for April, 1838, p. 356*.)

This, however, is a most inaccurate and unfair statement. It is true that elementary instruction is pretty generally diffused in N. Italy and Tuscany; but such is not the case in the Papal States and in Naples. And whatever may be the fact as to mere elementary instruction, most of the higher branches of education are very far behind in all parts of Italy. And what else could be expected in a country subjected to irresponsible governments, and where the freedom of the press is almost unknown? There is not, and it would be folly to expect that there should be, any real instruction, in such a

country, in either moral or political philosophy. People in N. Italy are taught to read and write; but there, as in most parts of the peninsula, this preliminary knowledge, instead of being turned to good account, is made a means of imbuing them with prejudices, and of enslaving their minds.

Articles.	Quantities.	Articles.	Quantities.
Brinstone (all kinds)	833,710 cwts.	Shumac	300,080 cwts.
Cheese	945 —	Raw and waste silk	379,294 lbs.
Cork (unmanufactured)	1,483 —	Lamb skins (undressed)	1,410,541 No.
Wheat	30,554 qrs.	Drumdy	22,170 galls.
Gum Arabic	948 cwts.	Valloons	12,348 cwts.
Lemons and oranges	68,469 chests	Cotton wool	996,764 lbs.
Olive oil	1,385,734 galls.	Sheep's wool	1,756,834 —
Flax and linseed	209,174 bush.	Wines	425,999 galls.
Straw-bonnets (ex. straw plait)	4,758 No.		

Imported into the U. Kingdom from Italy and the Italian Islands in 1838.

Articles.	Quantities.
Cassia lignea	105,945 lbs.
Cinnamon	59,179 —
Cocoa-nuts	914,317 —
Coffee	2,308,872 —
Cotton piece goods	32,980 pieces
Ginger	2,334 cwts.
Shell-lace	3,197 lbs.
Indigo	540,545 —
Pepper	297,205 —
Rain	107,164 gals.
Sugar (unrefined)	3,197 lbs.
Tobacco (unmanufactured)	1,474,833 lbs.
Cotton wool	2,980,756 —

The most celebrated Italian universities are those of Pavia, Padua, Bologna, Pisa, Parma, Rome, Naples, &c.; but their ancient reputation has greatly fallen off; and it was originally owing, not so much to the superior instruction they afforded, as to the backwardness of the corresponding class of seminaries in other parts of Europe.

Of the societies instituted in the country with a view to the improvement of the language, the most celebrated is the *Accademia della Crusca*, at Florence (see *Florence*); others are established in Rome, Milan, Bologna, and other large towns. No part of modern Europe has surpassed Italy in the number of her sons eminent in literature, science, and the fine arts. This has been, in some degree, owing to her being the refuge of men of letters, when driven out of Greece by the invasion of the Turks; but far more to the early independence and wealth of the principal cities. Under the fostering influence of the latter, Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio, Machiavelli, and a host of other great poets and prose writers, besides painters, sculptors, and musicians, flourished at a period when the literature and the arts of the west of Europe were comparatively barbarous. The Italians still excel in works of imagination, and of pure science and antiquities; but the antipathetic nature of their governments, the want of free institutions, and of a free press, drive them from the higher and more interesting walks of literature.

Italy is richer than any other country in monuments of antiquity and of the middle ages. Among the splendid relics of ancient grandeur are the Coliseum and Pantheon; the triumphal arches of Vespasian, Severus, and Constantine; the pillars of Trajan and Antonine; the obelisk, &c. at Rome; the amphitheatres of Verona and Pola; the catacombs of Naples; the ruins of the temples of Paestum or Paestum, simple, austere, massive, and of unknown antiquity; and, above all, the subterranean remains of Herculaneum and Pompeii. Almost every town possesses some memorial of antiquity, and there is scarcely a place or a stream of any size that is not imperishably associated with some circumstance of importance in ancient or modern history. Tivoli (*Tiber*), where Horace and Catullus had villas; the Alban Mount (*Monte Albano*), surrounded by the temple of Jupiter Latiaris; Frascati (*Tuscanum*), the seat of Cicero's villa, whence the *Disputationes Tusculanae*, the most beautiful of ethical disquisitions, derive their name; the Lake Nemi (*Lacus Nemorensis*), sacred to Diana; the *Campi Phlegræi*, near Naples; the Bay of Baia; the field of Cannæ; the lakes of Trasimene, and Avernus, and a thousand other places, have all acquired an immortality of renown.

State of the People.—It is difficult to form any fair estimate of the real condition of the people of Italy. Having been long parcelled out into numerous small states, and subjected to different laws and customs, they are not a homogeneous nation; and it would be unjust, as well as

inaccurate, to suppose them all alike. Nevertheless, they have many things in common; and the state of the peasantry in most parts of the country contrasts very disadvantageously with the fertility of the soil and the beauty of the climate.

How has kind Heaven's bounty the happy land,
And scatter'd blessings with a wondrous hand!
But what avail her unarm'd stores,
Her blooming in meadows and her sunny shores,
With all the gifts that heav'n and earth impart,
The smiles of nature and the charms of art,
While proud Oppression in her valleys reigns,
And Tyranny snatches her happy plains?
The poor inhabitant bobs in ruin
The reeking orange and the swelling grape;
Joyless he sees the growing olive and wine,
And in the myrtle's fragrant shade he sines;
Starves in the midst of nature's bounty curst,
And in the laden vineyard dies for thirst.

Perhaps, however, this is rather too unfavourable a picture. We agree with Dr. Moore in thinking that extreme indigence is accompanied with less wretchedness here than in most other European countries; a consequence partly and principally of the mildness of the climate, and partly of the temperance and contented disposition of the people. (*Moore's Italy*, li. 240.) But, with all this, it is still true that there is in Italy a great deal, not merely of poverty, but of wretchedness and misery. With the exception of the Neapolitan dominions, in which agriculture is at the lowest ebb, Italy may be said to be a country of small farms held on the *medæger* principle, or on condition of the occupier giving up half the produce to the proprietor; and where such a system of occupancy exists, there can be little or no improvement, nor any accumulation of wealth. In such a state of things, the occupiers live uniformly almost from hand to mouth, and are necessarily exposed to the most tremendous vicissitudes. Neither is there in Italy any regular state provision for the poor; and wherever this is the case, and especially in so densely peopled a country, there cannot fail to be innumerable instances of extreme suffering. The mortality that took place in Italy after the deficient harvest of 1817 was quite frightful, and mendicancy and misery prevail at all times to an extent unknown in better governed countries, though with fewer natural advantages. A superficial observer might suppose that the small farmers in the *Fief of Arno* and other rich and beautiful districts of Tuscany and other parts of Italy, were in the enjoyment of most of the comforts of the Golden Age; but, in point of fact, they have to maintain a constant struggle with poverty. M. Lullin de Châteauneux says of the occupiers in the Tuscan Arcadia, that, "on entering their houses, we find a total want of all the conveniences of life; a table more than frugal, and a general appearance of privation: they are unable to lay by any thing as a reserve against unfavourable years." (*Letters on Italy*, &c., Eng. trans., p. 79.) And such is the case with the greater portion of the country. Mr. Maclaren says, that the proportion of poor, tattered, and wretched persons at Naples is quite excessive. "On our way to Caserta, Baia, and other places, children 8 or 9 years old, absolutely naked, often kept running alongside our carriage for a quarter of a mile or more. In all the towns and villages near Naples, strangers are besieged with crowds of mendicants, whose importunities know no bounds." (*Letters*, p. 65.) Mr. Matthews says, that in "the Papal States all is slovenly and squalid; there seems to be no middle link in the chain of society between the cardinal and the beggar." (*Diary of an Invalid*, p. 262.) It is not so bad in the N. of Italy; but even there, the destitution and misery of the people are often such as almost to stagger belief. (See *Rose's Letters*, li. 128, &c.)

It were idle to expect that cleanliness should be a distinguishing characteristic of such a people. And, in fact, the towns, houses, and persons of the people, would, in most instances, be greatly improved by scrubbing, washing, and combing.

The reader may find in Moore, Matthews, and other writers, full details of the *cicchie* or *coahier servitico* system, peculiar to Italy. It is confined to the higher classes, and appears to be the natural result of a state of society in which marriages are adjusted on mere mercenary principles, the parties frequently meeting for the first time at the altar, and where there is little save affairs of gallantry to engage the attention of the men. The introduction of free institutions and of a free press into Italy would soon make an end of the race of *cicchie*. But till then, it is probable that this public display of apparent, if not real, disregard to the most important engagement of life, will maintain its ground.

Foundling hospitals abound in most parts of Italy; and are at once a powerful cause as well as an effect of the corruption of manners. They receive all classes of children, legitimate and illegitimate, rich and poor; and great numbers are annually sent to them. The mischievous consequences of such a state of things, and the disregard which it evinces for the most sacred obligations, are too obvious to require being pointed out. One of the greatest, and, perhaps, most indispensable reform

that could be effected in Italy would be the abolition of foundling hospitals. What is to be expected of those who do not scruple to send their children to die, or, if they escape death, to be brought up, independently of any care of theirs, in foundling hospitals? Such persons may have the cant of patriotism on their lips; but we may be quite sure that they will never incur any sacrifice to effect any object that they do not believe will directly conduce to the promotion of their own selfish ends and projects. We borrow from Mr. Matthews the following striking description of the ladies of Rome and of the Papal States.

"The women are in the grandest style of beauty. The general character of their figure is the majestic; they move about with the inceding tread of a Juno. The physiognomy of the Italian woman bears the stamp of the most lively sensibility, and explains her character at a glance. Voluptuousness is written in every feature; but it is that serious and enthusiastic expression of passion, the farthest removed from frivolity, — which promises as much constancy as ardour, and to which love is not the capricious trifling gallantry of an hour of idleness, but the serious and sole occupation of life. There is an expression of energy and sublimity which bespeaks a firmness of soul and elevation of purpose equal to all trials; but this expression is too often mingled with a look of ferocity that is very repulsive. Black hair, and black sparkling eyes, with dark olive complexions, are the common characteristics of Italian physiognomy. A blonde is a rarity: the black eye, however, is not always bright and sparkling; it is sometimes set off with the soft melting languishment proper to its rival blue; and this, by removing all expression of fierceness, takes away every thing that interferes with the bewitching fascination of an Italian beauty." (*Diary*, p. 115.)

Government.—There is nothing more than the shadow of popular representation in Italy. The little duchy of Lucca has, indeed, its senate of 26 representatives, of the classes of merchants, scholars, artisans, and cultivators, and some bodies in the city of Genoa and the island of Sardinia slightly trench on the power of the king of those domes. The Lombardo-Venetian kingdom has also its 2 provincial assemblies; and in the kingdom of Naples there are nominally 2 legislative chambers, one of peers and the other of deputies. But the functions of the Sicilian chambers were, since 1815, been obliterated; and the provincial assemblies of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom are divested of all legislative powers. Elsewhere the governments of Italy are absolute (San Marino being little more than a dependency of the pope), especially the papedom and the duchy of Modena; though in the former it is generally exercised with extreme mildness.

That a country so fertile and extensive as Italy, rich in the various products of a fruitful soil, enjoying an excellent climate, well situated for commerce, having a frontier covered by a range of almost impassable mountains, whose inhabitants are remarkably shrewd and intelligent, and which was civilised and powerful, possessed of great wealth, and studded over with innumerable free states, at a time when the rest of Europe was sunk in comparative barbarism, should have been thrown back in the career of improvement, and for centuries subjected to the sway of foreigners, and treated with all the ignominy of a conquered province, can hardly fail to excite the astonishment even of the most careless observer. To trace the various causes which have conspired to produce so striking an anomaly in the moral and political world, would require a lengthened essay, or rather a large volume. But if we mistake not, the same circumstance to which Italy principally owed her superiority in the 13th, 14th, and 15th centuries, has also been the principal cause of her subsequent degradation. The number of separate and independent communities into which Italy was then divided, by directly associating her inhabitants with the government of their respective cities, and making them feel that their own interests were identified with those of the community to which they belonged, powerfully excited their passions, and called forth all their energies. Those powers which had been dormant for centuries were again revived; Milan, Florence, Venice, Genoa, Pisa, &c., became the capitals or so many free states, distinguished by their wealth, and their progress in the arts: eloquence, poetry, history, architecture, painting, and every other pursuit that could either add to the comfort or the embellishment of society, were prosecuted with vigour and success. But this state of society, though it gave a powerful impulse to civilisation, was also productive of the most implacable animosities. The disputes among the rival republics, from their limited territory, and their deeply affecting every individual, were prosecuted with all the eagerness of a personal and the rancour of a political quarrel. Sismondi's great work (*Républiques Italiennees du Moyen Age*) is chiefly filled with accounts of these conflicts. And such a state of society, how incompatible soever with the enjoyment of peace and tranquillity, unquestionably affords a fine field for the development of superior talent and mental energy.

Unfortunately, the contests between the different parties in Italy ended, as such contests almost always do, by making it an arena for the struggles, and subjecting it to the arms of foreigners. German, French, and Spanish troops, after being engaged in supporting the pretensions of one or other of the rival states, turned their arms against those they had supported, or who had invited them into their country, and, trampling on their liberties, imposed on them new and despotic masters.

Had Italy, when the republican governments were destroyed, had the good fortune to have been consolidated into one single and undivided monarchy, the people would have been fully compensated for the loss of political independence. According as local hatreds and party animosities subsided, the nation would have become animated with the same spirit, and would have been able to defend itself against foreign aggression; and the probability is, that in the course of time the people would have acquired power sufficient to soften the despotism of a government originating in conquest, and to recover possession of a portion at least of their former rights and privileges. But the subversion of the Italian republics was attended by no such result. Instead of being reduced under one, the country was divided among a hundred petty despots and despotical aristocracies. Nor was there any possibility of remedying these evils; for Austria, having obtained possession of the Milanese and Venetian, was enabled to prevent any single state from acquiring a decided ascendancy, and to perpetuate and embitter those disastrous feuds and divisions which led to the ruin of the republics.

It would be an endless task to endeavour to describe the various effects of which this state of affairs has been productive. Ever since the subversion of the Florentine republic, in 1530, the Italians have ceased to exercise any perceptible influence over the deliberations of their multitudinous rulers. Farcelled out among foreign sovereigns, or sovereigns descended from foreigners, what interest could they feel in the contests of the Bourbons of Parma and Naples; the Austrians of Milan and Mantua; and the Lorrains of Tuscany? They were not only deprived of their ancient liberties; but the constant state of vassalage in which their petty sovereigns were themselves held by the great transalpine powers prevented their acting in conformity either with the wishes or the real interests of their subjects. The national spirit was thus gradually destroyed; the Italians either ceased to have or to express any public opinion; they endeavoured to forget the stormy discussions in which they had been engaged, by plunging into the depths of sensuality; and from being the most active, intelligent, and industrious people in Europe, sunk into a state of sluggish indolence and apathy. "The victim by turns of selfish and sanguinary factions, of petty tyrants, and of foreign invaders, Italy has fallen like a star from its place in heaven; she has seen her harvests trodden down by the horses of the stranger, and the blood of her children wasted in quarrels not their own; *conspicua in universum* in the indignant language of her poets (Pillcois), *still alkis a stercus*; a long retribution for the tyranny of Rome." (*Hallam's Middle Ages*, i. 354.)

In the latter part of the 18th century, Beccaria, Genovesi, Verri, Filangieri, and other eminent men, attempted to awaken their countrymen to a sense of their true interests; but their efforts were not attended by any corresponding success. At the epoch of the French revolution, the government of almost every state in Italy, with the exception of Tuscany, was a tissue of the grossest abuses. The use of torture was universal; civil and criminal processes were conducted secretly, and left to the decision of a single judge; a direct tax of 25 per cent. per annum was levied on all land and other tangible property; heavy transit duties were imposed on all commodities passing from one petty state to another; except in particular cases, the exportation of the raw produce of the soil was forbidden; the high roads were infested by robbers; morals were at the lowest ebb; and assassination was carried to an extent unknown anywhere else.

Whatever may have been the influence of French domination in other parts of the Continent, there cannot, we apprehend, be a doubt, that, to Italy at least, it was most advantageous. Under Napoleon, who has a just title to be called its greatest benefactor, the countries now comprised in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom formed the kingdom of Italy; Piedmont, Genoa, Parma, Tuscany, and Rome were united to France, and received her laws and institutions; and Naples was constituted into a subordinate kingdom, with improved and more liberal institutions. A vigorous and efficient police was everywhere organised; the oppressive shackles which the jealousy and short-sighted rapacity of the different petty states had imposed on the internal commerce of the country, were entirely removed, and full power was granted to export the various products of the soil; torture was abolished; a uniform code of laws was introduced; instead of the dark and mysterious proceedings of secret

tribunals, justice was openly and impartially administered; science was protected and encouraged; the Italian soldiers emulated the discipline and bravery of their French allies; local prejudices and long-cherished antipathies were on the wane; a national spirit was beginning to revive, and that energy which had for centuries been dissipated in frivolous and unimportant pursuits, was again exerted for the public benefit.

No doubt the government of the French in Italy was defective in many respects, and in some oppressive and arbitrary. But, notwithstanding these drawbacks, it was certainly far preferable either to that by which it was preceded, or to that by which it has been followed. Direct taxation was carried by the French to an unprecedented extent; and, latterly, the conscription was felt to be a severe hardship; but as the former was accompanied by the entire freedom of industry, and as the latter pressed indifferently on all classes, they were submitted to with little or no reluctance. "The Italians," says M. Sismondi, "partook of all the privileges of the conquerors; they became with them accustomed to the dominion of the law, to freedom of thought, and to military virtue; secure that, at no very distant period, when their political education should be accomplished, they would again be incorporated in that Italy, to the future liberty and glory of which they now directed their every thought." (*Principes and Facts of Italian Freedom*, p. 80.)

"Under the French," says Mr. Stewart Rose, "Italy enjoyed all the incalculable advantages of a code which allowed the cross-examination of witnesses, and gave publicity to all the proceedings of justice. This, indeed, was so under the ancient government of Venice; but a criminal code was given her by France, infinitely superior to what she possessed in the time of her republic. But the system of open pleadings and examinations, has given way to one which has abolished the oral examination of witnesses; and for these principles, perhaps yet more precious in Italy than elsewhere, have been substituted that of written depositions and secret applications to the judges. Under the government of France, the *awmons* (laws regulating the trade in corn and other necessities) laws slept, and justice, civil as well as criminal, was well and expeditiously distributed. At present, there is no one, uninfluenced by passion, who would not rather renounce a debt than endeavour to recover it by law." And in these respects, matters continue at present nearly on the same footing as when Mr. Rose's work was published.

It is greatly to be regretted that, on the downfall of Napoleon, in 1814, provision was not made for the consolidation of Italy into an independent state; but *dixit altiter visum*. "The coalition destroyed all the good conferred on Italy by France." (*Sismondi*.) The old order of things was, to a considerable extent, restored: the republics of Venice and Genoa, indeed, disappeared; but the kingdom of Sardinia, the Papal States, and the dukedoms of Tuscany, Parma, Lucra, &c. were reintegrated nearly on the footing on which they stood before the revolution. Austria became swifter, had the lion's share in the new arrangements, having acquired the whole Milanese and *ci-devant* Venetian provinces; at the same time, that the dependent thrones of Tuscany, Modena, and Parma were filled by members of the house of Hapsburg, to which they look up for protection and support. Hence the influence of Austria is now all but omnipotent in N. and Central Italy, and it also predominates in the S., where the throne of Naples is again occupied by a Bourbon.

On the restoration of the old governments, a good many abuses which the French had rooted out were revived, and the nation was insulted and humiliated. With the division of the country into different states, an end was put to the equality of duties and the freedom of internal commerce; and those sectional prejudices and hatreds that had begun to be obliterated, again exhibited their odious characteristics. The open impartial justice, and the vigorous police, introduced by the French, were either wholly suppressed, or materially modified; and in the Papal States and Naples, especially the former, the priests again acquired a preponderating influence; and these are, once more, Turkey and Spain excepted, the worst governed of the European states.

The government of Austria in Italy cannot be justly said to be oppressive. But it is antipopular, jealous, and repulsive. This is evinced by the restraints laid on the press, and on the importation of books, and by its preventing the opening even of a school for elementary instruction without its express permission. The pressure of taxation and the conscription are less severely felt now than under the French, but this is more than counterbalanced by the defects in the administration of justice.

Under the French government, the prompt administration of justice, and the efficient police, almost wholly suppressed private assassination and public robbery; but they have again revived in the Papal States and Naples,

though even there they are a good deal less frequent than formerly.

It is impossible to say how long the present order of things is destined to last; but at present, unless relief should come from without, the prospects of Italy are far from encouraging. The want of all sympathy with each other, and the jealousies that subsist amongst the different states, will, it is much to be feared, long oppose an insuperable obstacle to any united or persevering effort to throw off the yoke of their foreign masters; and even though such were not the case, there is a "softness of character, approaching to imbecility" (*Masthews*), that unmakes the Italians, and unfits them for sustaining the difficulties and perils that would have to be encountered in such a struggle.

ITALY (AUSTRIAN). Under this term are included all the Austrian territories within the limits of Italy, comprising the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, and the gov. of Trieste, extending over a space of about 22,118 sq. m., and having, in 1839, a pop. of 6,179,100. The gov. of Trieste is, however, included in the kingdom of Illyria; and the following statements will, therefore, apply only to the rest of the territory, being that, indeed, to which the name of Austrian Italy especially belongs.

The Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, one of the most valuable possessions under the Austrian sceptre, extends between lat. $46^{\circ} 48'$ and $46^{\circ} 41' N.$, and long. $8^{\circ} 34'$ and $13^{\circ} 36' E.$, having N. Carinthia, the Tyrol, and the Grisons, from which it is separated by the Alps; W. the Swiss cant. Ticino and Piedmont; S. the duchies of Parma and Modena, and the N. legations of the Papal States, from which it is chiefly divided by the Po; and E. the gov. of Trieste and the Adriatic. Area, pop., subdivisions, &c. as follows:—

Governments.	Delegations.	Area in sq. m.	Population.	Pop. to sq. m.
Lombardy	Bergamo	1,399	(1830) 333,043	239
	Brescia	1,255	354,743	282
	Como	1,485	302,703	204
	Cremona	479	181,756	379
	Cremona-Lodi	782	305,354	391
	Mantua	379	204,664	539
	Milan	1,015	479,093	471
	Parma	317	152,593	480
	Sondrio	1,314	366,976	279
		8,538	2,580,630	301
Venice	Padua	844	(1835) 290,514	344
	Rovigo	489	150,625	308
	Vicenza	874	297,747	340
	Venezia	1,284	309,848	241
	Venezia	1,085	308,157	284
	Treviso	735	351,732	478
	Verona	970	275,074	283
	Belunio	314	157,840	502
		9,525	3,069,238	323
	Total	18,063	4,149,873	230

But it would appear from the statements in the *Almanac de Gotha* for 1841, that the pop. in 1839 had increased to 4,377,468.

The N. part of this territory is mountainous; the S. flat forming a portion of the plain of Lombardy. The Alpine chains on the N. frontier rise to an elevation of more than 13,000 ft. above the sea. By far the greater part of the surface, however, is flat: the flat lands, comprising the delegs. of Pavia, Lodi, Crema, Cremona, Padua, Rovigo, Venice, and parts of Verona, Vicenza, Brescia, Milan, &c. The whole country abounds with rivers, all of which, except the Po, have more or less a S. course, and all contribute their waters to the Adriatic. The chief, after the Po, are the Ticino, between Lombardy and Piedmont, the Adige, Oglio, Chiese, Mincio, Adige, Brenta, Piave, Tagliamento, &c. At the foot of the Alpine chains, in the N. of Lombardy, are the lakes of Garda, Como, Maggiore, Lugano, Isèo, &c. The shores of the Adriatic are lined with extensive lagoons, in the midst of which is Venice. A succession of marshes extends along the banks of the Po, in the lower part of its course, and round its embouchure is a dreary tract of swampy ground scarcely enlivened by a single tree.

The central parts of the high mountain chain consist of granite and other primary formations; the lower hill ranges consist chiefly of secondary limestone. The country on the Po is a vast alluvial plain, containing numerous fossil remains. Traces of former volcanic action exist in the Euganean hills, an isolated group to the S.W. of Padua. Lava, basalt, iron, coal, turf, potter's clay, some copper, arsenic, marble, and alabaster, are the most important mineral products. The climate is generally healthy, except in the rice grounds along the Po, in the vicinity of Mantua, and near the Adriatic. The thermometer, though it keeps much higher in summer, generally sinks lower in winter in Lombardy than in England. The mean temp. of the

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year at Sondrio is 51 Feh., at Milan 53-6, and at Padua 56-6. More rain falls in this than in any other portion of the Austrian dominions; in the government of Venice the mean annual amount is estimated at 34 inches, and in Lombardy at 45 inches. The greatest fall is in autumn and winter.

The tops of the Alps are naked, covered with snow, and interspersed with glaciers; but their sides are for the most part covered with fir, larch, oak, pine, chestnut, and other trees, or natural pasturages. The plain country is continuously cultivated, and is one of the most productive portions of Europe. About 4-fths of the pop. of Lombardy depend directly or indirectly on agriculture; and nearly 7-10ths of the surface are under culture, the proportions in 100 parts being, arable lands 67, pasture 12, and wood 21. But, however adapted for cultivation on an extended scale, Lombardy is, as already stated, generally a country of small farms, cultivated on the *metayer* principle, and its agricultural inhabs., though industrious, are mostly poor. *Châteaufort* remarks, that over most of the country few of the farms exceed from 70 to 75 English acres, while few also have less than 10 or 12. The sowing of land is, however, much greater in the upland regions than in the plains: in the Milanese there are many farms of 120 acres. Most of the productive land in the mountains consists of pastures. Only the lower border of the mountain belt is arable; the land is there frequently cut into terraces, one above another, the divisions being occasionally supported by stone walls. The earth that fills these terrace-trenches is continually carried down to the lower levels by the action of rain, and other causes, and has to be brought up again every two or three years, often on peasants' backs, the roads being impracticable for vehicles. The vine, mulberry, walnut, and various other fruit trees, barley, rye, a little wheat, buckwheat, pease, millet, kitchen vegetables, hemp, and flax, are the chief agricultural products of this region. The land is here divided into the most minute portions; and being, as it were, the one thing needful to existence, the greatest value is attached to its possession. The inheritance of an individual is often only a few yards of land; and on the lake of Garda a similar extent of surface, cultivated with lemons or oranges, or the laurel (for its oil), serves to maintain a family. In the central region, or hill country, properties are less divided; though they are there split into small stewardships, worth from 15,000 to 30,000 francs. These farms are mostly the property of the higher classes, and of the inhabs. of cities. There is scarcely a single peasant proprietor, the peasantry being mere tenants, paying, in general, a rent of half the produce. A lease at a fixed rent, or a money rent, is extremely rare. Silk, wine, oranges, lemons, olives, and other fruits, corn, cheese, and cattle, are the chief products of this region; the culture of the silkworm is an important occupation of the peasants' families, and, with the money gained from this source, they provide themselves decently with the necessities of life.

The aspect of this part of Lombardy is very pleasing. Flourishing villages, hamlets, and isolated houses are spread over it, connected by carriage roads made at the expense of the proprietors and communes, which latter possess a considerable portion of the soil in this and the next region. In the high flat country, or that part of the plain near the hills, small stewardships are not common. The system is that of *pignoratium*, or sharing-tenants; that is, tenants who pay a rent in money for their house, and a fixed rent in kind for the ground. In the low flat country, none of the property is communal; the farms let at from 10,000 to 60,000 fr. a year, and some as high as 96,000 fr.; and the farmers have considerable capital in stock, as cattle, implements, seed, and timber. In this region, great numbers of cattle are fed. It has like the high flat country, a delicious bottom, with the difference, that here in every part water may be procured at a very little distance below the surface. In the deleg. of Lodi, and its neighbourhood, the soil is so fertile and well watered, that the inhabs. have relinquished the growth of corn for that of the indigenous plants spontaneously produced. The meadows, constantly irrigated, are mowed, and spring again four times in the same year, and the value of the produce in grass is superior to that of the richest corn. (*Châteaufort* 376.)

The mode of irrigation deserves some notice. It is effected in the first place by *fontanelli*, or excavations in the earth, in which are placed long tubes, from the bottom of which bubble up copious streams of water, analogous to Artesian wells. From the *fontanelli* the water is conducted into a ditch, by which it is carried to irrigate the fields placed on a lower level. To these natural waters, derived from the subterranean springs, replenished by constant supply from the mountain region, are added a great mass of water drawn from the rivers by means of canals, some of which are navigable. The grounds thus inundated are let as high as 80 Milan livres (14. 9s.) the *peretta* (about 3 1/2 lbs. of an acre). The

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waters are diligently measured by rules, derived from hydrostatic laws, which have passed into an habitual practice. The canals are provided with graduated doors, which are raised or lowered according as the case may be: they are termed *incastrati*. The measure is called *vacca*, and corresponds to the quantity of water which passes through a square hole, 3 Milanese inches high (an oncia of Milan equals 3 in. Eng.), and 4 in. wide, open 1 in. below the surface of the water, which, with its pressure, determines a given velocity. Sometimes the same number of inches of water is given out by the day and the hour on different farms. The value of a property depends on the command and goodness of the water; if deprived of the fertilising fluid, it would diminish rapidly in price. Hence the state of the waters is the object of local statutes, and of diligent care and attention. The absolute property of an inch of water is usually valued at from 10,000 to 15,000 fr.; but some waters are valued as high as 30,000 fr. All proprietors are entitled to carry a new canal for the purpose of irrigation across the grounds of their neighbours, on paying the fair value of the ground occupied by the canal, and adding to it one quarter more. (*Bouring's Rep.*, p. 99.)

W. of the deleg. of Lodi, between Milan and Pavia, a good deal of rice is grown. The measure is appropriated to its culture is divided by a great number of canals, lined with banks of turf, into squares of 3 or 3 acres each, within which the rice grows, in water, admitted by sluices, to the height of a few inches. The rice is sown after a single ploughing, and without any other preparation of the land. The sluices are opened to admit water when the plant is some inches in height, and it is drained off again near the period at which the grain is ripe, to allow the land to dry before reaping. After having been reaped, the rice is tied into small sheaves, which lie heaped together some time before being thrashed. The soil remains dry till again ploughed. Rice is grown for three years successively on the same land, after which the ground is left fallow for two years, manured once, and produces in those two years a most abundant crop of hay. The produce of a crop of rice is estimated at double that of a crop of wheat. The rice grounds are let at fixed rents, of about 160 fr. an acre; and even at this enormous rent, the farmers (who do not divide their profits with landlords) have often made large fortunes. The labour required is little, and not expensive, but it is very unhealthy. "Sickly labourers are seen passing along the banks, to superintend the distribution of the water. They are dressed like miners, in coarse cloth, and they wander about, pale as ghosts, in the reeds and near the sluices, which they have scarcely strength enough to open and shut. In crossing a canal, they are often obliged to plunge into the water, and they come out wet and covered with mud, carrying with them the germs of fever, which never fails to attack them. They are not the only victims, as the harvest men seldom get in the crop without being seized with rigors, the air in all the neighbouring places being deteriorated by the stagnant water. The avidity of the rice planters is, therefore, restrained by law, and they are prohibited extending this culture beyond certain limits." (*Châteaufort's*, p. 285.) The meadow lands in the irrigated country are, like the rice grounds, parcelled out into fields of two or three acres. After remaining about fifteen years in natural pasture (refreshed by a thick coat of manure every three years), they are ploughed and cleaned in autumn, and undergo *five* successive crops—hemp followed by vegetables, oats, wheat followed by vegetables, maize, and wheat. The land is then left to itself, and a crop of grass immediately springs up without any seed being sown. As soon as the sward becomes thick, the sluices are opened upon it as formerly. In the course of 30 years, 67 crops are obtained from the land: 61 for the food of cattle, 5 for that of man, and 1 for clothing. There are few countries in which the cattle of every kind are more abundant. In 1836, there were in Lombardy 257,800 cows, 168,000 sheep, and 53,000 horses employed in agriculture, besides draught cattle, &c.

The famous Parmesan cheese is no longer made in Parma, but in a district 40 m. long by 30 wide, stretching from Abbatogrosso on the Tessino, to near the confluence of the Po and Adda. About 80,000 cows are set apart for its production. These come chiefly from Switzerland, the Tyrol, Bavaria, &c., being bought at from 3 to 4 years old; the supply of milk increases till they are 6 or 7 years old, when it begins to fall off. About 11,500 are annually imported, at an average cost of from 14*l.* to 15*l.* each, but varying up to 20*l.* (*Bouring's*); the sale of old cows, calves, and whey, on which last many hogs are fed, are estimated to cover the cost of the young cows, and interest thereon; the profits of the butter and cheese remaining to the farmer. The cheese is made entirely of skimmed milk: the cows are only fed at stated times, and are stabled during a great part of the 24 hours to empty racks, a process which Arthur Young says he was assured was necessary to give the requisite richness to the milk! (ii. 188.) In the course

of a year a cow produces at an average 300 *libbre grosse*, or 155 kilogrammes of cheese. It is sold twice a year by the farmers, at about 1 franc per pound. The total quantity made is about 16 millions of *libbre grosse*, worth from 15 to 16 millions fr. There are about 12 lbs. butter for every 40 lbs. cheese. The value of the cheese and butter consumed and exported from Lombardy, is estimated at 23,360,000 fr. In the Milanese district, a fat cheese, called *stracchino*, is made, especially at Gorgonzola, to which coagulated milk is carried from other parts. Its production is considered more profitable than that of Parmesan: it is sold at about 1 fr. 28 c. the kilogr. Much of it is made from the wandering herds of cattle which descend in the autumn into the plains. The proprietors of these herds, called *bergamini*, belong to the mountain region: in summer they migrate in search of pasture to the N. side of the Alps, sometimes as far as the Grisons. The pasture lands of Lombardy are mostly in the mountains and low flat country; in its other regions, cattle, sheep, beasts of burden, and even goats, are scarce.

The large farm-houses and offices throughout Lombardy are built on a uniform plan. They are of brick, and surround a square court-yard, on one side of which is the residence of the farmer, granary, and stables, all well arranged, while the other sides consist of covered porticoes, under which the fodder, carts, &c. are kept. Half the court is paved; the other half is an area on which to thrash the corn. A garden is attached to the building, the outer walls of which are covered with vines, producing a growth for ordinary use. Each of these farms has a métayer and his family, who usually hold it for generations. They consider it as a patrimony, and never think of renewing the lease, but go on from father to son, on the same terms, without writing. The stock of cattle, &c. belongs to the proprietor. In a farm near Margignano, Châteaufort states that 100 cows and some animals for draught were kept on 85 acres of meadow land. The métayer estimated the average return of each cow at 200 fr., or of the whole at 20,000 fr. There were 35 acres of arable land, the produce reckoned at half that of the acres in grass, or 6,000 fr. The gross produce of this farm of 120 acres was therefore 26,000 fr.; which sum was equally divided between the proprietor and métayer; the former out of his moiety paying the taxes and shares of irrigation, and the latter deducting from his share the whole expenses of cultivation.

The peasantry in the low flat country receive a part of their earnings in wages, and a part is produced from the share each has in the cultivation of the land. The ground is, as has been said, divided into portions of from 10 and 15 to 50 and 70 acres. Two acres are assigned to every man and his family, or three to families where there are two men. The farmer furnishes the oxen and horses to plough the ground, and advances the seed; the cultivator performs all the farm work till the crop is carried to the granary. 1-3d part of the buckwheat and beans, and 1-4th part of the rice, are then the share of the cultivator; out of which, however, he returns the farmer the seed formerly advanced, amounting to about 1-5th part of the rice, and 1-30th part of the buckwheat. In addition to their wages, the master allows most of his farm servants a small house and kitchen-garden rent free; and pays their capitulation and other taxes, amounting to about 6 or 7 fr. each. The hire of a dairymaid, besides a certain quantity of provisions, varies from 115 to 200 fr. a year; that of a carrier from 180 to 180 fr. Ordinary labourers get bread, rice soup, milk, &c., and from 62 to 69 fr. a year; drovers get only their food. Rice-reapers, wood-cutters, and mowers come mostly from the mountain districts of Parma and the Tyrol, and vine-dressers from Piedmont and the lake Maggiore: the wages of all vary from about 1 to 1*½* fr. a day, with food.

In 1836, it was estimated that 770,000 Winch. bush. rice, 3,795,000 wheat, 6,362,700 maize, 638,000 rice, 10,110,000 cwt. hay, &c., 5,300,000 do. straw, 698,000 do. cheese, butter, and honey, 170,000 do. silk, and 1,916,000 cimer were produced in Lombardy.

We have fewer details respecting the agriculture of the Venetian provs. Their surface is estimated by Quadrio at 2,367,070 *tornature*, 1,102,128 of which are in the plain country, 747,260 being arable, or corn lands, 17,800 rice-grounds, and 189,000 meadows and pastures. Maize is grown in considerable quantities near Verona, and the mulberry very extensively between that city and Mantua, and towards Vicenza. The mulberry-trees are frequently planted all round the corn-fields, and vines festooned from one tree to another, so that on the same ground three crops—silk, wine, and grain—are annually produced. From Verona to Vicenza the meadows are irrigated with great care as well as facility, by means of the numberless streams that flow into the Adige, the beds of which, being continually raised by the gravel they bring down, and artificially embanked, are, for the most part, above the general level of the plain. Notwithstanding the fertility of the soil, the inhab. are generally poor. Several large farming establishments may be seen,

but uncomfortable cottages, or signs of wealth, among the peasantry, who bear a very indifferent character. The fields about Vicenza, however, are kept with great neatness, and cultivated with much industry, presenting a favourable contrast to those about Padua. On the road between those two cities all beauty of scenery disappears.

"Willows in all their pollard ugliness, and long lank poplars trimmed to the top, afford a yearly crop of faggots, the only fuel of the country. The tops of the pollarded trees near Vicenza, may be seen cut almost in the shape of goblets, for the sake of holding the leaves of the maize placed there for drying. Potatoes are often cultivated amidst the corn. On the road may be seen immense butts full of grapes, mounted upon clumsy waggon, to which they are secured by such iron rings and chains as would hold a frigate at her moorings, dragged along by 4, 6, or 8 oxen, when a proper vehicle would not require more than a pair." (*Condor's Italy*, li. 111.) The grain produced in the Venetian provs. leaves a surplus over what is required to meet the home demand. Good husbandry diminishes as we proceed eastward, and Istria is a country which would scarcely repay it. The peninsula is a collection of barren limestone hills, interspersed with a few fertile valleys; it yields very little corn, and the expenses of cultivation nearly absorb the profits. Wood is scarce, and fuel has mostly to be brought from Carniola or elsewhere. The oils of Istria, however, are frequently as good as those of Tuscany, and form its chief export. Some of its wines, also, are good, but the inhab. are more a commercial and sea-faring, than an agricultural or manufacturing people. (See *LIVINGS*.)

The culture of silk, the most important staple of Northern Italy, is rapidly extending; and even in the delegs. of Pavia and Lodi, where the climate is unfavourable to the worm, the mulberry is gradually superseding the vine and olive. In the deleg. of Brescia alone, the oil crop has diminished within the last 25 years from 400,000 lbs. to half that quantity; while the produce of silk has risen within the same period from 1,500,000 to 3,800,000 lbs. The annual produce of silk in Lombardy, Venetia, Tyrol, and Trentino, is estimated at about 7,000,000 lbs., or nearly 7-11ths of the total produce of Italy. The produce of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, in 1825, was 2,499,475 Milanese lbs., since which time it has consequently about doubled. The best silk in Lombardy is obtained in the district of Branzà, between the lakes Maggiore and Como; and in the Venetian provs., from the delegs. of Treviso and Friuli. Milan and Bergamo are the great centres of the trade in silk; the former city and its neighbourhood being the chief seat of its manufacture. Next to the silk fabrics of Milan rank those of Como, Brescia, Cremona, and Mantua. Verona and its neighbourhood, with many Mantuan districts, produce the best sewing and twist silk. Vicenza and Bassano produce immense quantities of silk, chiefly double-threaded trains, and much also is obtained from Padua; but in all the latter named provs., quantity is more sought after than quality in the production of the article.

Next to silk, the chief manufactures are those of woollen and cotton fabrics, linen thread, paper, hats, iron goods, &c. In Lombardy there are several iron and copper works, with fabrics of earthenware, marble quarries, &c. (For details respecting the chief foreign trade of Austrian Italy, see MILAN, VENICE, TRIESTE, &c.) The mountain districts send wines into Switzerland and the Tyrol; and live stock, game, cheeses, butter, honey, firewood, charcoal, timber, granite, marble, slates, bricks, iron and steel, various implements, cloths, and a little hemp, into the flat country; out of which they receive, in exchange, wheat, rice, maize, and oil.

Taxation.—According to the new government survey, the value of the land in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom has been estimated at 210,861,000 *scudi* (28,656,000*l.*). The land-tax paid in Lombardy Proper amounts to from 21,000,000 to 22,000,000 *lire*, and in the Venetian provinces to about 12,000,000 *lire*, or together to about 1,040,000*l.* a year, or nearly 9 per cent. on the assumed value of the capital. The valuation by which the land-tax is levied in the Milanese has not been altered since 1750; the tax has indeed been increased, but the increase has not been by any means equal to the increased value of the land. After 1796, the land-tax was as high as 48 centesimi per scudo, but since 1819 it has been reduced to 17-1 centesimi; in the Venetian provs. it has also been reduced, but it is still higher there than in the Milanese. It is supposed that the system, to be bottomed on the new survey, will equalise the taxation of the two portions of the kingdom. In the above survey the valuation is guided by the amount of every kind of produce in ordinary years, and under an ordinary system of cultivation. The average prices, from 1825 to 1825, are taken as a guide, regard being had to local circumstances, distance from markets, &c. The expenses are deducted from the gross receipts, and calculated according to the system of farming. To allow for casualties, from 1-9th to 1-7th part is deducted from the nett proceeds for corn, 1-7th for flax, chestnuts,

and olives, 1-15th for hay, 1-15th for wood. Churches, fortresses, and open spaces are free; but of all other buildings, the value is ascertained as nearly as possible, for the purposes of taxation. Machinery is free; not so mills or water power. All buildings are assumed to be in an average state, and a reduction of from 20 to 40 per cent. is made for keeping them in repair.

The poll-tax is levied in places not subject to the tax on consumption. All individuals (except paupers), from the ages of 14 to 60, are liable; and it amounts to 2 *lire* 5 centesimi for every inhab., without reference to his circumstances. In addition to this tax levied for the state, a sum not exceeding 3 *lire* may be imposed for the exigencies of the commune. The poll-tax, therefore, may reach, but can never exceed, the sum of 5 *lire* 66 cent. The injustice done to the humbler part of the pop., by imposing the same amount of poll-tax on them as on the higher classes, is in part compensated by the frequent practice of raising extraordinary impositions on the latter, in the shape of augmentations to the land-tax, and by the control of the communal property being almost entirely in the hands of the small proprietors. The collection of the taxes is farmed out on leases of three years; and the same person may be collector of several communes, or of several entire districts. The farmer of the taxes has power to proceed against defaulters, and in extreme cases to sell the land for arrears; but such proceedings are seldom or never heard of, and the collection is simple, and attended with very little expense.

The *decime*, or taxes on consumption, which exist in walled towns differ in amount in different places. They do not every where comprise the same articles, but generally include wine, spirits, flour, bread, cattle, fish, oil, butter, cheese, hay, straw, wood, coals, and a few other articles. The mill-tax is levied at the mills, the others mostly at the town gates. At Milan, wine and vinegar are charged 1 *lire* 15 cent. the cwt., wheaten flour and bread about 14 *lire*, hay and oats 86 cent., cheese 2 *lire* 30 cent., coals and sawed wood 57 cent., tallow and tallow 22 cent. per 100, oxen 7 *lire* 47 cent., pigs 3 *lire* 45 cent. each, &c. The taxes at Venice (which see) are higher. Taxes on trades have generally been abolished; in Milan, however, bakers and butchers are subject to an impost. Certain tradesmen in open towns are subject to taxes, which, like others, are farmed out to the best bidder, who usually compounds with the parties for a stipulated sum. The income and expenditure of the different cities of Lombardy amount annually to from 26,000,000 to 46,000,000 *lire*.

The import duties are heavy on most articles. Cotton, woollen, pewter, and tin manufactures, fine polished hardware, porcelain, and books allowed by the censorship, are admitted on payment of an *ad valorem* duty of 60 per cent. on their declared value. Silk fabrics pay 20*per* lb. nett. The importation of salt is prohibited, salt, tobacco, saltpetre, and gunpowder being government monopolies. Here, as in England, the private cultivation of tobacco is disallowed, and the salt springs not made use of by the government, must be filled up. The revenue has risen less in consequence of an increase of duties than of increased production and consumption. The total public revenue of Lombardy amounts to upwards of 50,000,000 *lire* a year. The public debt has been considerably reduced; and the interest, which is 5 per cent., is regularly paid.

Government, Education, &c.—The government of Austria in Italy is so liable to be disturbed, through the rooted dislike entertained by the Italians for the Germans, as to require the most vigilant attention on the part of the Austrian ministry. The policy of the latter has been to restrict the power and privileges of the nobles and large proprietors, who have generally been found at the head of any popular movement; and, at the same time, to conciliate the middle and lower classes. Accordingly, the representation in the provincial councils has been rendered apparently more popular than in the other parts of the empire. Each of the two provinces has its assembly, with attributes and powers similar to those of the German *Stände*; but their composition is wholly different. They have neither ecclesiastical members, nobles sitting in right of birth or property, nor deputies of close corporations; but with all this, the most effectual precautions are taken to hinder those assemblies having any popular bias. The members are appointed through the medium of a double, or rather a triple, stage of election. The two great classes of *Comitali*, the proprietors of land; and *Cittadini*, the inhab. of towns, are the primary electors, the suffrage depending on the payment of a certain amount of taxes. These primary electors return from their general body a council of election, the members of which must possess a higher property qualification than is requisite for the primary electors. The council of election elect from the members of its own body a certain number of candidates, and from these candidates the crown selects those who are to act as members of the provincial assembly; and, as if all

this were not enough to stifle any thing like popular feeling, it reserves to itself, whenever it thinks fit, power to cancel all the proceedings, and to order a new selection! And even when elected, this assembly has no legislative powers; the will of the emperor being law. This is carried into effect by the viceroy, who is at present an Austrian archduke; and under whom there is a governor in each prov., assisted by a government council appointed in Vienna. Each deleg. has a delegate, or political superintendent, and a separate financial officer; each district a chancellor; and each commune a *podesità*. In the chief town of each deleg. is a court of primary jurisdiction; in Milan and Venice are courts of appeal and of commerce; and a high court of revision sits in Verona. Trial by jury, and *visa voce* pleadings and examinations, are unknown. And if we add to this, that a jealous censorship is established over the press, and that only certain foreign journals or books can be imported, we shall have a pretty good idea of the spirit of the government. Two foreign regiments are maintained for the police service, one in either government. Eight regiments of the line in the Austrian army are levied in these provs., but there is no militia. All males, whether noble or otherwise, are registered for military service at the age of 18, unless exempted from physical or other causes. From those thus registered the number required are taken by ballot; but are allowed to serve by approved substitutes, for wages, however, it is necessary to pay large sums. The period of service is eight years, after which the soldier is entirely free. Whatever, therefore, may be said by such flimsy eulogists as Von Raumer, the government of Austria in Italy is undoubtedly a cold, repulsive, and jealous despotism. But it is not oppressive; and we agree with Mr. Turnbull, that in point of fiscal and military pressure, it is more lenient than that of the French; and all that may tend to the advancement of agriculture and commerce, and the material comforts of the people, is sedulously promoted.

It is, also, true that large sums are expended by the government in keeping up the roads and other public works, and in public education. A larger proportion of the pop. is educated in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom than in any other prov. of the Austrian empire, except the Tyrol and Bohemia. By a law of 1822, every commune is obliged to maintain a primary school, either wholly or in part; and, in 1837, only 66 communes were without schools exclusively their own: 45 gymnasiums, 18 ecclesiastical seminaries, and 12 lycées, exist in the chief towns, and there are 2 universities, those of Pavia and Padua, the former ranking as the first in Italy. But notwithstanding all this apparatus, a really good education is unknown in Lombardy; and that which exists is better fitted to enslave and debase than to expand the mind. It is wholly under the direction of the clergy; and no school can be opened, or book used in a school, or other seminary, without the express sanction of the government. Even the *Conversations Lexicon* has incurred the displeasure of this paternal government.

History.—The greater part of this portion of Italy, after the fall of the Western Empire, was successively possessed by the Heruli, Ostrogoths, Greeks, and Lombards: the latter held it from 568 till 774, when Charlemagne annexed it to the empire of the Franks, to which it remained attached till 988. From that period, except the territory of the Venetians, it generally belonged to the German emperors, till the establishment of the republic of Milan, in 1150. This republic was erected into a duchy in 1395, and, in 1535, came into the possession of the emperor Charles V. After the war of the Spanish succession, the duchies of Milan and Mantua were assigned to Austria, to which they have since belonged, with the exception of the short time they formed a part of the Cisalpine republic and French empire. Venice and its territory, which had existed as an aristocratic republic from the 7th century to 1797, was confirmed to Austria by the treaty of Vienna, in 1815. (*Bowring's Reports on the Lomb.-Ven. States*; *Turnbull's Austria*, &c., and the *Journal of Education*; *Von Raumer's Italy*, l. 124—203; *Châteaufort's Italy* and its Agriculture, *Rigby's Transl.* p. 14—36, 274—286, &c.)

ITHACA, one of the Ionian Islands, and celebrated in antiquity as the kingdom of Ulysses (*scopulus Ithaca, Lærtia regna, Virg., Æn. iii. 375.*). 7 m. S. Santa Maura, 3 m. E. Cephalonia, and 17 m. W. the coast of Acarnania; Point Marmaca, at its N. end, being in lat. 38° 30' N., and long. 30° 39' E. Length 14 m., breadth 4 m., area 44 sq. m. Pop., in 1826, 9,644. It presents from the sea the appearance of a barren, rugged rock, deeply indented on its E. side by a gulph, at the bottom of which is Vathy, the port and cap. of the island, accurately described in the *Odyssey*:—

"A spacious port appears,
Sacred to Phœbus' power, whose name it bears;
Two craggy rocks, projecting to the main,
The roaring waves' tempestuous rage restrain:
Within, the waves in surly murmurs glide,
And ships secure without their haven's side."—*Pope.*

About a third part of the surface is capable of cultivation, the greater part of which is laid out in vineyards. The chief products are wine (esteemed in Greece as extremely delicious), olive oil, currants; barley, and a small quantity of wheat; but the industry of the islanders is greatly impeded by the taxes levied on their exports by the Ionian government. After all, it appears probable that Ithaca has little to interest, beyond the associations connected with its ancient history. Many of the places mentioned by Homer can be traced, with great appearance of probability. The port *Phœrgos* is clearly identical with Molo, and the inner harbour of Vathy seems to correspond with the *πύργος Πύθων εναίος* under Mount Neison. In the S. part of the island, at no great distance from the shore, is a spring, rising at the foot of a rock still called *Koraka*, and supposed to be the *Arethusa* of Homer. (See *Odys.*, s. 408.) Some ruins of Cyclopean walls, similar to those of Mycenæ and Tiryns, are considered by Dodwell to be the remains of the city of Ithaca, the residence of Ulysses. (See *IONIAN ISLANDS.*) (*Dodwell*, l. 66; *Prie. Reports*, &c.)

IVES (ST.), a parl. bor., seaport, and par. of Cornwall, at the W. extremity of the bay of same name, 18 m. W. Truro, and 250 m. W. by S. London. Area of par., 1,850 acres; pop. of parl. bor. (which includes the three pars. of St. Ives, Lalent, and Towednak), in 1841, 8,645. It consists principally of one long street, branching S. into two smaller; and the houses are generally of moderate size, and built in situations to suit the convenience of persons connected with the trade of the port. The church, a low but spacious building, erected in 1434, stands close to the sea: there are also two places of worship for dissenters, a national school, and two Sunday-schools. A grammar-school, founded by Charles I., has gone to decay. The town-hall and custom-house are the only other public edifices. The port has a pier, built by Smeaton, in 1770, at an expense of 10,000*l.*, within which small vessels lie aground at low water. Large ships may anchor in the bay, in 6 and 7 fathoms, but being quite exposed to the N. winds, it is not much frequented. Notwithstanding these disadvantages, however, this port had in 1850, 152 ships, of 10,479 tons burden, and the customs revenue in 1846 amounted to 1,592*l.* The pier dues are let for 830*l.* a year, exclusive of the tax of 1*s.* per hhd. on the export of fish, which sometimes exceeds 800*l.* in a single year. The principal employment of the inhabs. is the pilchard fishery, which of late has been carried on with more than ordinary success, and to a greater extent than in any other adjacent Devon or Cornwall. The season lasts from July to Sept., and in favourable years very large quantities are exported to the Mediterranean, a considerable supply being also furnished for the consumption of the town and neighbourhood. In 1842, the entire quantity exported amounted to 20,714 hhd., of which 17,710 hhd. were furnished by St. Ives alone. Several new mines have likewise been opened in the vicinity, affording additional employment to the people. The corporation, chartered in the reign of James II., was, down to the passing of the Municipal Reform Act, a close self-elected body of 11 members: it now comprises 4 aldermen, one of whom is mayor, and 12 councillors, and has a commission of the peace, under a recorder. Corporation revenue in 1847-48, 192*l.* The bor. sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the 5th of Queen Mary down to the passing of the Reform Act, which deprived it of 1 mem. Previously to the last-mentioned act, the franchise was vested in the inhabs. paying *scot and lot*; the boundaries of the parl. bor. were then enlarged, by the addition of the two adjacent pars. of Lalent and Towednak. Registered electors, in 1848-50, 585. Markets on Wednesday and Friday; cattle-fair, Saturday before Advent. (*Mun. Rep.*; *Carl. Bound. Rep.*; *Com. Dict.*, &c.)

IVIZA or IBIZA (an. *Ebusus*), an isl. in the Mediterranean, forming one of the Balearic group belonging to Spain, 50 m. E. by N. Cape Nao in Valencia, and 42 m. S.W. Majorca; the cap. on its S.W. side being in lat. 38° 53' 19" N., long. 10° 26' 32" E. It is of an irregular 5-sided figure; its length from N.E. to S.W. being 27 m., and its average breadth 18 m. The coast is irregular, indented by a great number of bays, the largest being those of St. Antonio and Iviza: the surface is hilly, and in many parts well wooded; but there are several picturesque and fertile valleys having a soil well adapted for tillage. The climate is, in most respects, similar to that of Valencia and Catalonia: the winters are so mild that the thermometer seldom falls below 13° Réaumur, and the heats of summer are tempered by the sea breezes. The chief products of the island are olives, wine, corn, figs, and hemp, different kinds of fruit, especially figs, for which it was celebrated even in the time of the elder Pliny. The salt-pan is so productive that salt is a chief article of exportation: large flocks of sheep are pastured on the hills, and the sea near the coast abounds with fish, the capture of which gives employment to many of the inhabs. But, notwithstanding these advantages, the island is in great

poverty, owing to the indolence of the inhab., and their slovenly mode of tillage. The Ivisans are of middle size, shrunk and sallow; they speak a language similar to that spoken in Catalonia and Valencia, being a corrupt dialect of the ancient Romance, once the common language of all S. Europe.

The cap. Iviza (which has a pop. of 5,730 persons) is fortified, and has a good harbour. It is the residence of the governor, and a bishop's see. The chief buildings are a cathedral, 6 churches, 3 convents, 2 hospitals, and a public school.

Iviza, the largest of two islands, called by Strabo *Pityusae*, or the pine-bearing islands, was early occupied by Phoenicians and Carthaginians, whence it has been called *Eborus Pharnisia* by Silius Italicus (*Pun.*, lib. iii. l. 362.). It was taken from them by Q. Metellus, and remained subject to the Romans, and their successors the Vandals, till the conquest of Spain by the Moors in the 8th century. The Spaniards took the island in 1294, and attached it to the kingdom of Arragon, since which it has usually followed the fortunes of the larger islands, Majorca and Minorca. In 1706, during the war of the succession, it submitted to Sir John Leake with a British squadron, and was ceded to England, together with Minorca, at the peace of Utrecht. They continued in the possession of the British till the peace of 1814, when they were restored to Spain. (*Milano, Dict. Géog.*)

IVREA (an. *Eporodia*), a town of N. Italy, dom. of Sardinia, div. Turin, cap. prov. of same name, on the Doire, 30 m. N.N.E. Turin. Pop. in 1838, inc. com., 8,475. It is an ill-built town, defended by old fortifications, a citadel, and a small fortress upon an adjacent hill; and has an ancient cathedral, supposed to occupy the site of a temple of Apollo, five other parish churches, several convents, an hospital, a seminary, and a large prison. Here are manufactures of silk fabrics and of organized silk, and some recently established cotton-works; with markets for cheese, cattle, and other Alpine produce; and for the iron obtained near Cogné, and other places in its vicinity. *Eporodia* is reported to have been colonised by the Romans in the time of Marius. It would appear from Tacitus (*Hist.*, l. 70.) to have been a *municipium* as well as a colony. Strabo says that 36,000 Sardinians, made prisoners by Tertullus Varus, were sold here as slaves by public auction. Ivrea has been repeatedly taken by the French, and under the French empire was the cap. of the dep. Doire. (*Dict. Géog.; Cramer's Italy, &c.*)

J.

JACCA, a town of Spain, prov. Aragon, cap. of a partide of its own name, 56 m. N. by R. Saragossa, and 22 m. N.N.W. Huesca; lat. 42° 30' N., long. 0° 04' W. Pop., according to Milano, 3,012. It stands at the foot of one of the highest ridges of the Pyrenees, only 21 m. from the French frontier, in a wide and fertile valley, enclosed by the rivers Aragon and Gallego; it is surrounded by a strong wall, and entered by 7 gates. The chief public buildings are a cathedral church, castle, military hospital, and 5 convents. The inhab. are chiefly employed in agriculture and woollen weaving; but the difficulty of access to other places confines their industry to the supply of the town and immediate neighbourhood. The crops raised in the district comprise wheat, barley, pulse, &c., and fruits are abundant; but the severity of the climate during winter prevents it from producing many of the fruits of S. Europe.

Jacca was a place of some consideration in the time of the Romans, and was the cap. of the *regio Jaccatania*. It was taken by M. P. Cato, anno 195 A.C., and was made a station for the troops during the war with Spain. (*Milano.*)

JAEN, a prov. and kingdom of Spain, in Andalusia, between lat. 37° 30' and 39° 40' N., and long. 3° 50' and 4° 30' W. Its shape is that of an irregular four-sided figure, and it is bounded N. by the Sierra Morena and La Mancha, W. by Cordova, S. by Granada, and E. by Murcia. Greatest length, 86 m.; greatest breadth, 78 m.; area, 4,430 sq. m. Pop., 377,000. This province, situated in the upper part of the valley of the Guadalquivir, is encircled by lofty mountains, which make access difficult, and give to its borders a rude and mountainous character. The surface is chiefly an alternation of hills and valleys, formed by the Guadalquivir, Herrerublar, and other affluents of the Guadalquivir. The climate, though damp in some parts, is, on the whole, healthy and favourable to vegetation. The soil on the hills, consisting of *destritus* from the primitive and transition rocks of the sierras Morena and Granada, is sandy and barren; but the valleys are extremely rich, and with moderate attention to tillage, might be made highly productive. Agriculture, however, is in the most degraded state; only a very small portion of the soil is tilled, and the produce is insufficient for the consumption of the prov. Olives, wine, and other fruits of good quality, gall-nuts, woad, kermes, and shumac are abun-

dant, and honey and silk are produced in small quantities. Cattle and horses, however, are pastured on a large scale, and a breed of the latter, peculiar to the neighbourhood of Ubeda, ranks as nearly equal to the Arabian. The mineral wealth of the province, which was celebrated even under the Romans, consists chiefly of iron, lead, and copper, with smaller quantities of silver; but lead and iron are the only ores now wrought. Veins of marble and jasper occur here as frequently as in Granada, but are not quarried, from want of spirit in the inhab. Manufacturing industry is quite insignificant; silk and woollen fabrics are made in some of the towns; but the chief branch of employment is in pottery, and particularly in making *alcarrasas*, a species of porous earthen jars, much used in Andalusia for keeping liquors cool in warm weather. (*Bowles; Milano; Dict. Géog.*)

JAEN, a city of Spain, cap. of prov. and partido same name, and a bishop's see, on the Jaén, an affluent of the Guadalquivir, 37 m. N. Granada, and 128 m. E.N.E. Madrid. Pop., according to Milano, 16,700. It is situated on the outskirts of the great Sierra de Susana, and is so surrounded by mountains, crossed by extremely bad roads, that few travellers have visited it. A recently made road, however, joining the high road between Cordova and Madrid, and passing through Baylen and the Puerto de Peñacerrados de la Sierra Morena, has made it more easy of access. The city, above which towers a Moorish castle commanding a fine view of the whole country, has extremely narrow streets, a cathedral, 12 par. churches, and 15 convents. The cathedral is of Corinthian architecture, 300 ft. long by 190 ft. in breadth, and built in a very pure style; the pavement is laid in chequered slabs of black and white marble, and the high altar is enriched with fine specimens of jasper and marbles; it also has some good pictures and sculptures. The city, which was celebrated, under the Moors, for its manufactures, still contains numerous fabrics of silk, linen and woollen cloths, and mats, and has a thriving appearance. (*Scott's Honda and Gram.* ii. 341.)

The remains of a Roman aqueduct, and various inscriptions, prove the antiquity of Jaén. Under the Moors, it rose to considerable importance, and successfully withstood the attacks of the kings of Castile. It was the theatre of war during the final struggles between the Moors and Spaniards in the 15th century, since which time it has never recovered its former consequence.

JAFFA, or YAFFA (an. *Joppa*), a town and port of Turkey in Asia, on the coast of Syria, pach. Damascus, sandjak Gaza, 32 m. N.W. Jerusalem, and 60 m. S.S.W. Acre; lat. 32° 3' 25" N., long. 34° 46' 10" E. Pop., according to Robinson, about 4,000 one fourth of whom are Christians. It is fortified, and stands on a tongue of land projecting into the Mediterranean, and rising from the shore in the form of an amphitheatre, at the top of which is a ruined castle. The port, defended by two batteries, is merely a long basin, enclosed by a ledge of rocks, extending from the S. side northward, directly in front of the town; but it is so choked up with sand as to be unapproachable by all except small coasting craft. The houses are chiefly of stone, and the streets are uneven, narrow, badly paved, and dirty: the principal public buildings, are 3 mosques, 1 R. Catholic and 2 Greek churches, with 3 convents, and a good bazaar. The quarantine house, recently founded, is clean and well regulated; separate divisions, with a chapel attached to each, being allotted to the pilgrims of the several nations, chiefly Greek, who land here on their way to Jerusalem. A military establishment is kept up, comprising (according to Dr. Bowring) 1 reg. of infantry, with 4 battalions of 800 men, and 2 cavalry regts., each having 700 men. A considerable traffic has recently been created by the disturbances in Syria for the supply of the Pacha's troops; but usually the town is dull, and little frequented by strangers, except at pilgrim time, when the pop. is often nearly doubled. Cotton is exported to some extent within the district; and in the neighbourhood are beautiful gardens of orange and lemon trees, tall waving cypresses, coral, and fragrant mimosa, intersected with enormous prickly pears. The fruit bears a high character, and forms a considerable article of export. Tradition assigns to Joppa an exceedingly ancient date. Joshua defined the possessions of the tribe of Dan as including "the border before Joppa." (*Josh.* xix. 46.) In the time of Solomon it was, no doubt, a port of some consequence; for Hiram, king of Tyre, sent a letter to the former monarch, then engaged in building the temple at Jerusalem, saying, "We will cut wood out of Lebanon as much as thou shalt need; and we will bring it thee in floats by sea to Joppa, and thou shalt carry it up to Jerusalem;" and from this place Jonah took his passage in a ship going to Tarshish, when "he fled from the presence of the Lord." In the New Testament it is mentioned as the place where Peter had the vision which revealed to him the duty of preaching Christianity to the Gentiles as well as the Jews; and where he raised to life Dorcas, a faithful disciple, "full of good works and almsdeeds." Among the Greeks and Romans, also, Joppa had the re-

putation of being very ancient. It is stated by Pliny (*Hist. Nat.*, lib. ix. § 5.) to be the place where Andromeda was exposed to the sea monster, from which she was rescued by Perseus. Reland suspects that this fable may have its origin in, or be connected with, the history of Jonah. (*Relandi Palestina*, p. 864.) In A.D. 66, during the Jewish wars, it was repeatedly taken, and finally all but destroyed; and during the crusades it was so entirely ruined by Saladin, that it had scarcely any buildings left, except its two castles. It was soon afterwards repaired by Louis IX. of France. The subsequent history of the place, till the close of the last century, is little known. In 1759 it was taken by Napoleon, after an obstinate and murderous siege. On this occasion Napoleon put to the sword about 1,300 Turks that had formed part of the garrison of El Ariach, which, having previously capitulated, had been discharged, on their engaging not to serve against the French. But though their execution was, no doubt, justifiable, according to the laws of war, still it seems to have been an act of extreme and useless cruelty, and wholly at variance with the general conduct of Napoleon. (For further particulars, see *Bouring's Report on Syria*; *Wilt's Narrative*, vol. ii. p. 168-178; *Robinson's Syria*, vol. i. p. 129.)

JAFFNA, a sea-port town of Ceylon, near the N. extremity of the isl., cap. of the distr. Jaffnapatam, 190 m. N. Colombo; lat. 9° 36' N., long. 79° 50' E. Pop. 8,000? chiefly Mohammedan. The town stands on an inlet, navigable for boats, which communicates with the Gulph of Manaar. It has near it a pentagonal fortress of some strength, which forms the head quarters of one of the principal garrisons in the island. As a commercial port, Jaffna is the third in Ceylon, ranking after Colombo and Point de Galle. Provisions are cheap; and from its salubrity the town is a favourite resort of the Dutch residents in Ceylon, who have named several small and verdant islands in the opposite roadstead after the principal cities of Holland.

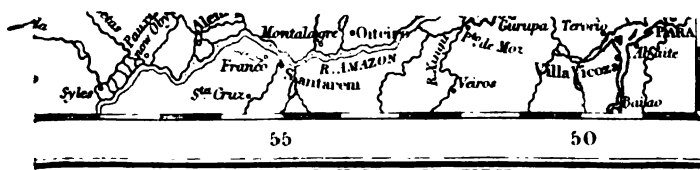
JAGO (ST.), or SANTIAGO DE CUBA, a city of Cuba, cap. of its E. division, the second in pop. and magnitude, and the third in mercantile importance in the island, about 6 m. from the S. coast, on the river Santiago, the mouth of which forms its port, about 470 m. E.S.E. Havanah; lat. 19° 37' N., long. 76° 2' W. Pop. (1837) 26,738, of whom 3,303 were whites, 10,033 free coloured, and 7,404 slaves. Santiago is well built, having wide streets and stone houses. It has a cathedral, several other churches, a college, hospital, and numerous convents and schools. The port is from N. to S. about 4 m. long, with an irregular breadth, and in some places rather narrow; but it has water sufficient for ships of the line, and is sheltered from winds on every side. Its entrance is narrow, and defended on the windward side by the Morro and Estrella castles. The city is very unhealthy; being hemmed in by mountains on three sides, the free circulation of air is greatly impeded, and the yellow fever commits great ravages in the rainy season. Santiago is the see of an archbishop, and the residence of a governor, who, in respect of civil and political affairs, is independent of the captain-general. It was the cap. of Cuba till the beginning of the 18th century, when the Havanah was raised to that dignity; since which the importance of Santiago has diminished. Its trade has, however, of late years increased considerably. In 1837, the imports amounted in value to 1,441,048 doll., and the exports to 1,370,586 doll.; ten years afterwards, in 1837, the imports were 2,399,399 doll., and the exports 2,182,001 doll. The gross customs revenue of the port amounted, in 1837, to 470,365 doll., and in 1837, to 604,339 doll. Santiago is the port where the copper ore of the Sierra de Cobre is shipped. It was founded by Diego Velasquez in 1514. (*Humboldt*; *Tarnowitz's Cuba*, p. 233, 234.)

JAGO (ST.), or SANTIAGO, a city of Chili, of which it is the cap. and seat of government, in the prov. of the same name, on the Maypocho, at a distance of 2,600 ft. above the sea, 64 m. E.S.E. Valparaiso, and 370 m. N.N.E. Concepcion; lat. 33° 16' S., long. 69° 48' W. Pop., in 1848, estimated at 65,000. It is situated on the verge of the extensive and fertile plain of the Maypocho, and at a distance has a very imposing appearance, its domes and steeples rising among groves, vineyards, gardens, and maize fields. It is inferior to Lima and Buenos Ayres in its public buildings, but greatly surpasses them in cleanliness and regularity, and is, upon the whole, one of the best cities in S. America as to appearance, convenience, and salubrity. Like other cities of Spanish origin, it is divided into *cuadras*, that is, squares or compartments of buildings 408 ft. square, separated by streets about 18 yards across. The city-proper is on the S.W. bank of the Maypocho, and is connected with its suburb of La Chimba by a handsome stone bridge. On its E.S.E. side the city is separated from its suburb of Cafiadilla by the Cafiaa, a handsome promenade 50 yards wide, planted with poplars; and at the S.W. extremity of Santiago is the suburb of Chacunco. Fifteen years ago, the city-proper comprised 110 *cuadras*, and the suburbs about

the same number. It is built upon ground sloping gently towards the W., of which circumstance advantage has been taken in supplying water for its consumption and under drainage, which latter is more perfect than in any other S. American city. The waters of the Maypocho are also frequently employed for the ornament as well as use of the city, there being numerous public fountains, reservoirs, &c. A solid brick rampart, 6 ft. in breadth, and raised 10 ft. above the ground, extends along the S. bank of the river, and protects the city against inundation from the river during the rains. Between it and the town is the *Alameda*, the favourite promenade of the inhab. planted with willows, and furnished with seats, reservoirs, &c. At the N.E. extremity of the city, proper is the hill of Santa Lucia, the site of the fortress of the same name built to command the town. Santiago has no other defence, and this fortress could be easily silenced by artillery placed on the contiguous hills.

The houses of the city occupy a good deal of ground: most of them take up 1-6th part of a *cuadra*. The rooms are ranged round three quadrangles or *patios*, the first being an outer paved court-yard, the second generally laid out as a *parterre*, and the third used for domestic purposes. The wide Archway, which divides the *patio* is closed at night by a pair of large folding gates, but is always open during the day. The windows, looking into the two outer court-yards, are protected by iron gratings; but in Miers's time, 15 years ago, there were generally no windows in any of the other rooms, the door alone admitting light through a small grating. The front and sides of the houses facing the streets, where not blank walls, are divided into small rooms, and let out as shops. In the centre of the city is the *Plaza*, or great square, occupying an entire *cuadra*. On its N.W. side are the directorial mansion, the palace of government, the prison, and the chamber of justice; on the S.W. side stand the cathedral, and the old palace of the bishop, now occupied by the *estado mayor*; on the S.E. is a range of shops, &c., with an arcade in front; and the N.E. side is composed of private residences. All these buildings, except the cathedral, are of brick, plastered and whitewashed. The palace is by far the best edifice as to its architecture: it consists of two stories, including a large open quadrangle; the lower story comprises the treasury, and the upper story the council hall of assembly and the ministers' offices. The cathedral is the only stone edifice in Santiago; it is constructed of limestone quarried in the Chimba suburb; its design is of the better order of Moorish architecture; but when seen by Miers, its front was only half finished. The bishop's palace is a heavy decayed building, and the arcade with the shops behind it is much dilapidated. In the centre of the square is an ornamental fountain, furnished with water by a subterranean aqueduct. The city is mostly supplied hence with water for drinking, which is conveyed in barrels of 10 gallons each, two of which are a mule's load, and sold for 5d. a barrel. The largest public building, and that most admired by the natives, is the mint; but, according to Miers, it is an unsightly structure. It occupies an entire *cuadra*, and, like the private houses, consists of a variety of offices arranged round three quadrangular courts. Its front, facing the shabby street in which it is situated, presents a series of heavy pilasters, supporting a rude cornice and a ponderous balustrade, and having in its centre a large arched portico. The entire edifice is of plain brick, and was, like the other public buildings, constructed by bricklayers sent out from Spain for the express purpose. The Consulado, a spacious plastered and whitewashed structure, in which the commercial tribunal, senate, and national congress meet; the custom-house and the handsome little theatre are worth notice. The city and suburbs are divided into 5 parishes. All the parish churches are mean; but not so those of the conventual establishments, which are somewhat numerous. One of the Jesuits' convents has been converted into a national college, and is used for the public library and printing-office. The library contains several thousand printed vols., and some curious MSS. relative to the Indian tribes.

Santiago has 3 markets: the principal is holden in the Bassoral, a large open space at the foot of the bridge, and is tolerably well supplied with meat and vegetables. The other markets consist of mere moveable stands at either end of the Canada; but meat, kitchen vegetables, fruits, and other requisites, are continually hawked about the streets on horses or mules, which precludes the necessity of sending to the markets. Fodder for horses is hawked about in a similar manner; and large quantities of lucerne, &c. are daily brought into the town, horses being kept by nearly every family. The horses of Santiago are generally well broken, and are more docile than those of Buenos Ayres. Most part of the adjacent country is devoted to the rearing of live stock; but, when cultivated, it produces good crops of wheat, the soil being excellent, and irrigated by many subterranean springs. The climate, were it not for the dreadful visitation of earthquakes, could be delightful; and, from its comparative coolness, European vegetables



Engraved by S. Hall, Bury Str. Bloomsb.

may be raised in great perfection. The vine is grown, and wine of good quality might be made if its manufacture were properly understood. In the outskirts of Santiago are numerous handsome *casitas* or villas, and the approaches to the city are mostly through lanes bounded by walls inclosing extensive vineyards and orchards, which yield a large revenue to their proprietors.

Santiago occupies the site of a previous Indian settlement: it was founded by Pedro de Valdivia in 1541. It has frequently suffered from earthquakes; but, with other towns of the interior of Chili, it escaped the catastrophes which destroyed Valparaiso and Concepcion in 1835. (*Mier's Trav. in Chili*, 1: 426-432; *Scott's S. Amer.*, &c.)

JAMAICA (Nat. *Xaymaca*), one of the Greater Antilles, and the largest and most valuable of the West Indian islands, belonging to Great Britain. It lies in the Caribbean Sea, between lat. $17^{\circ} 44'$ and $18^{\circ} 30' N.$, and long. $76^{\circ} 12'$ and $78^{\circ} 25' W.$, about 100 m. S. Cuba, and 120 m. W. Hayti, from which it is separated by the Windward Channel. Shape nearly oval; greatest length, E. to W., 150 m.; average breadth, about 41 m. Area estimated at 6,300 sq. m. According to a census taken in 1844, the pop. is said to have amounted to 377,432, the blacks being 293,123, the mixed or coloured class 68,529, and the pure whites only 15,776. But Sir Charles Grey, the governor, thinks that the numbers given in this census were under-rated; and as the negro and mixed races are certainly increasing, and considerable numbers of Indian and African emigrants have been added to the pop., there can be little doubt that at present (1850) it exceeds 400,000.

The Blue Mountains, a lofty range, run through the island, in its whole length, rising in some places to upwards of 7,200 ft. in height. On the N. and S. sides of this range, the aspect of the country is extremely different. On the former the surface rises gradually from the shore by undulating hills, separated by spacious valleys, watered by numerous rivulets, and clothed with pimento groves. The scenery on the S. side is much bolder. The shore is skirted by abrupt precipices and inaccessible cliffs; and the hill ranges towards the interior are more abrupt and less fertile. Between these ranges, and the foot of the central chain, are extensive savannahs, and wide plains cultivated with sugar-cane, &c., the luxuriant beauty and verdure of which is set off by a boundless amphitheatre of forest—

"Insuperable height of loftiest shade,
Cedar; and branching palm."

The outline of the forest melts into the distant blue hills, and these again are lost in the clouds. The island is well watered. There are about 100 streams dignified with the name of rivers; but none of them are navigable except for boats. Black River, which debouches on the S. W. coast, the largest, is only available for flat-bottomed boats and canoes for about 30 m. Like all the other streams, its current is very rapid.

From the geographical position of the island, so near the equator, the climate in the low grounds is necessarily very hot, with little variation throughout the year; the days and nights are, for the same reason, nearly of equal duration, there not being more than two hours difference between the longest day and the shortest. There is very little twilight; and we may add, that when it is noon in London, it is about 7 o'clock in the morning in Jamaica. The medium temperature of the year near Kingston ranges between 70° and 80° ; but little differences of elevation have a wonder ul effect over the temperature and the salubrity of the climate. "At about 4,200 ft. above the level of the sea, the temperature usually ranges between 55° and 65° ; in the winter it falls even as low as 44° . There the vegetation of the tropics disappears, and

is supplanted by that of temperate regions. Showers are common in the interior almost throughout the whole year, but they do not fall with the same violence as in the plains, and the quantity of rain appears to be less. The air is exceedingly humid, subject to dense fogs, and those rapid alternations of temperature peculiar to all mountain regions. While the pestilence of yellow fever rages in the low grounds, and along the coast of this island, cutting off its thousands annually, these elevated regions enjoy a complete immunity from its effects; for that bane of European life has never been known, in any climate, to extend beyond the height of 2,500 ft. The inhabitants are said to enjoy a degree of longevity rarely attained in other countries, and to exhibit that ruddy glow of health which marks the countenance in northern climes, and forms a striking contrast to the pallid, sickly residents of the less elevated districts." (*Tullock's Report on the Health of the Troops in the W. Indies*, p. 43.) The S. side of the island is said to be more healthy than the S.; but all insalubrity is supposed to cease at an elevation of 1,400 ft. The mid-day heat is, during most part of the year, greatly modified by an invigorating sea-breeze, called by Europeans the *doctor*, which sets in from 8 to 10 o'clock in the morning, increases in force till about 2, and declines with the sun, till, on the approach of evening, it is succeeded by the land wind from the mountains. When these winds become less regular, or altogether fail, as is sometimes the case before the rainy season, the atmosphere is exceedingly oppressive. The year is divided into a short wet season, which begins in April or May, and lasts about six weeks; a short dry season, from June to August; a long wet season, comprising Sept., Oct., and Nov.; and a long dry season, which occupies the remaining four months, during which the weather is serene and pleasant, being comparatively cool. The annual fall of rain is nearly 50 in.; the amount has become less in proportion as the forests have been felled. More rain falls on the N. than the S. side of the island, and the average temperature is lower. The principal towns and military stations are on the S. side, and it is estimated that of the European troops employed in Jamaica a 7th part died annually during the 20 years previously to 1837. Fevers, dysenteries, and diseases of the lungs or brain, are the most fatal. Fevers of a remittent character are more prevalent than in any of the other British stations in the W. Indies. Earthquakes are frequent, and sometimes dreadfully violent: in 1692 the town of Port Royal was submerged several fathoms beneath the ocean, by a catastrophe of this kind. Hurricanes mostly occur between July and October; and though, perhaps, not so frequent as in the windward islands, they are sometimes most destructive. One of the most appalling of these visitations took place on the 3d of October, 1780. On this occasion the little sea-port town of Savannah-Mar, on the S. W. coast of the island, was completely destroyed. During the tremendous conflict of the elements, the sea burst over it with irresistible fury, and in an instant swept into its abyss its inhab. and their houses, leaving behind no vestige of either! Several hurricanes have occurred since, but happily none of them have had such frightful consequences. Jamaica contains no active volcano; but the traces of former volcanic action are sufficiently obvious. Micaceous schist, quartz, and rock spar, are common; but limestone, containing numerous shells, is the most prevalent geological formation. The island contains argentiferous lead, copper, iron, and antimony ores; and the Spaniards are reported to have wrought both copper and silver mines. Mining industry is now, however, quite extinct.

The turf-clad hills on the N. side of the island are chiefly composed of a chalky marl; elsewhere the soil is frequently of a deep chocolate colour, or a warm yellow or hazel. The latter, called the Jamaica *brick mould*, retains a good deal of moisture, and is among the best adapted for the sugar-cane throughout the W. Indies. But though the soil be in some parts deep and fertile, Jamaica is not generally productive, and requires both skilful labour and manure to make it yield heavy crops. In 1780, only 1,907,569 acres were held under grants from the crown, and of this extent only 1,059,000 acres were under culture, leaving about 3,000,000 acres unproductive; from which circumstance it was hastily inferred by Edwards that "not more than one fourth part of the island is fit for any profitable cultivation, great part of the interior country being both impracticable and inaccessible." Of the above 1,059,000 acres, it was estimated that 630,000 (710 estates, averaging about 900 acres each) were occupied with sugar plantations; 290,000 acres taken up by 400 cattle-breeding farms, and 140,000 acres in cotton, indigo, coffee, pimento, ginger, &c. Indigo, cotton, and cocoa were formerly important staples; but these have

mostly given way to other articles. Maize, Guinea corn, and rice, are the principal grains cultivated; the latter, however, is not raised in great quantities. Maize yields two, and sometimes three, crops a year, of from 15 to 40 bushels the acre. Calavances, a species of pea used by the negroes, the kinds of pulse and other garden vegetables common in Europe, thrive well in the mountains; and the markets of Spanish-Town and Kingston are abundantly supplied with these, as well as native pot-herbs, &c. of excellent quality. The plantain, banana, yam, cassava, and sweet potato, are indigenous; the first named is the principal support of the blacks. Few countries offer so fine an assortment of tropical fruits. Among these is the bread-fruit tree, from Otaheite, originally introduced by Sir Joseph Banks. The orange, lemon, lime, vine, melon, fig, and pomegranate, are met with, having probably been introduced by the Spaniards; and many other European fruits succeed in the cool mountain region. The sunflower is an article which has recently begun to be cultivated for its oil. Cinnamon has been naturalised in Jamaica; and the forests abound with dye-woods and gualicum, iron-wood, brazilletto, mahogany, greenheart, and other valuable kinds of timber, and woods fit for cabinet work. Various kinds of grasses are cultivated; the principal is Guinea grass, a product of so much importance, and growing so luxuriantly that the grazing farms are for the most part covered with it. Horned cattle are excellent, and better or cheaper beef is not met with in any part of Europe. Oxen or mules are used for farm labour. Horses, an active and hardy breed, are reared for saddle and harness. Sheep, goats, and hogs are numerous: the latter are of a small breed, but their flesh is very good. Poultry, pigeons, &c. are kept in great numbers. The Europeans found many indigenous quadrupeds on the island, but none worthy of notice now exist, except the agouti, some monkeys, and rats, which last are in such immense numbers, and so destructive of the sugar-cane, that from 8 to 10 per cent. per annum of the sugar crop, while standing, is supposed to be destroyed by them. Great numbers of wild fowl are met with; and rice birds, esteemed great delicacies, visit the island in large flocks in Oct. Alligators inhabit some of the larger rivers, and many varieties of lizards and snakes are found, some of which are used as food by the natives. The mountain crab of Jamaica is highly prized. These singular animals come down by millions from the mountain to the sea, to deposit their spawn, from Feb. to April, and return to their original habitations by the end of June. Copious accounts respecting them will be found in *Du Tertre, Browne, Edwards, &c.*

The European pop. consists of English, Irish, Scotch, French, German, and Portuguese settlers: the coloured races are divided, according to their share of negro blood, into *sambos, mulattoes, quadroons, and mestizos*. A few maroons, the descendants of Spanish slaves, inhabit parts of the interior. They formerly were a great annoyance to the colony, but being, at length, nearly exterminated, those that survived adopted a more peaceable mode of life. The total surface of Jamaica is generally estimated at about 4,000,000 acres; of which, according to a *Parl. Report* of 1839, 3,403,359 have been granted by the crown, on payment of a quit-rent, fixed by the colonial act, the 8th of Victoria, c. 16., at 1d. per acre. This leaves 596,641 acres unaccounted for, and still vested in the crown. There are no means of ascertaining how much of the land assigned to individuals is actually under culture; but in 1838 only 2,568,056 acres paid quit-rent, leaving 815,303, probably less productive and valuable than the rest, but at any rate liable, if not to be resumed by the crown, to be sequestered by the government for non-payment of quit-rent. The attempt of Lord Sligo to resume such lands on behalf of the crown involved him in disputes with the House of Assembly, which asserted a right to possess itself of them: and it would appear, in the absence of any express enactment on the subject, that the crown has no right to resume land once granted, except for the purpose of re-granting it to those who may pay up such quit-rents as are in arrear. (See *Rep. of the Colon. Land and Emigr. Commissioners in Jamaica, Report*, 1840, p. 11.) A large portion of the 596,641 acres unaccounted for is supposed to be held by individuals, owners of contiguous grants, and to be liable to a quit-rent. Nearly all the surface of Jamaica, therefore, appears to be occupied by private parties, and to be altogether under circumstances very different from what it was in Edwards's time, 60 years ago.

Few estates comprise more than 1,200 acres; and the emancipation of the slaves has tended to split the land into more minute divisions. The large estates, especially those on which sugar is grown, have latterly been reduced to great difficulties for want of labourers. On some estates, on which 70 or 80 negro apprentices were formerly employed, not more than 10 or 12 can now be got to work regularly; and on other estates, previously wrought by about 200 hands, the ordinary number is said

to have dwindled down to 20 or 25. The negroes are most anxious to become proprietors of land. If they succeed in this great object of their ambition they devote the principal share of their attention to the culture of esculents and other necessities on their own patch of ground, or raise arrowroot, ginger, &c., on speculation; and work on the sugar and other estates only when it suits their inclination or convenience. Thus, in some districts, they will only work the first four days of the week; and at critical periods of the crop it is necessary to offer high bribes to get them to leave their homes on Friday and Saturday. In corroboration of what is now stated, we beg to lay before the reader the following extract from a Report by a Committee of the House of Assembly in 1848:—"That from the now independent condition of the mass of the people, the command of labour has become exceedingly precarious, often not to be had at all when most wanted; that hardly in any case will the people work on estates for more than five days in the week; that in several districts they refuse to work more than four days in the week; that the average time of field labour is from five to six hours a day; that the labour given for the wages is not only inadequate in quantity, but generally ill performed; that on the anniversary of freedom, and at Christmas, the entire agricultural population spend from one to two weeks in idleness; that in some districts this is also the case at Easter; that at all these periods, even if the canes are rotting on the ground, and the coffee falling from the trees, no rate of wages will induce the people to work, and that labour continues to become more scarce every year by the people withdrawing from the plantations."

Under such circumstances, coupled with the low price of sugar, the reader will not be surprised to learn that the planters have been involved in the greatest distress. It is stated in the Report now referred to, that since the passing of the Slave Emancipation Act in 1833, no fewer than 653 sugar and 456 coffee plantations had been abandoned, and their works entirely broken up. And of the estates that continue to be cultivated, there are very few, indeed, that yield any thing like a profit to the planter.

Since their emancipation, the blacks who were formerly provided with lodgings, and a piece of ground rent-free, have had to pay rent for them; and a good deal of dissatisfaction has arisen from the manner in which this rent has been charged under the new system. In some cases, it is said to have been estimated, not according to the value of the premises, but according to the number of persons deriving sustenance from the land, so that the man with the largest family became liable to the heaviest rent! In order the better to command the services of the occupiers, the planters refused at first to give them leases, and stipulated that they might be ejected even at a week's notice. But this plan would seem to have defeated its own object; both by making the blacks inattentive to the culture of grounds held on so precarious a tenure, and by making them extremely anxious to acquire the property of a small piece of land. "Labour and rent," to use the words of Sir T. Metcalfe, "are the questions which agitate the land from one end to the other." Of late, however, the plan of fixed rents, unconnected with labour, has been gaining ground; and 5s. per week may be stated as about the average sum paid by the negro for a house and patch of land. Wages may, at an average, amount to 1s. 8d. a day for field labourers, 2s. 6d. a day for cane cutters, and 2s. 4d. a day for mill-yard people.

It is due to the blacks to state that, since their emancipation, they have conducted themselves with the greatest propriety. But those who expected that they would thereby be advanced in the scale of civilisation will, we fear, be disappointed. They are incurably indolent and apathetic; and the probability is, were the whites withdrawn from the island, that they would gradually relapse into their original barbarism.

It has been attempted to obviate the deficiency in the supply of labour, by importing free labourers from India and Africa. But the former have been found to be quite unsuited to the demands of the country; whereas the latter, so long at least as they are unable to find the means of supporting themselves otherwise, make serviceable labourers. The managers of the estates in St. Thomas-in-the-East, and other quarters into which the Africans have been introduced, have, for the most part, been able to keep their factories at work on Saturdays, and to get their labour performed with tolerable efficiency.

But these schemes are all liable to the greatest abuse. And though it were otherwise, we confess we have little confidence in their affording any real or permanent relief from the difficulties under which the planters are placed. The falling off in the exports since the emancipation of the slaves is not really greater than might have been anticipated. But it is needless to repeat the statements by which we have already endeavoured to show that it is nugatory to expect that free blacks should voluntarily undertake the hard labour they were compelled to un-

dergo while in a state of slavery. (See CUBA, GUIANA (BRITISH), HAWTI, &c.) It will readily be understood that great differences may be observed in the condition of different estates, owing, no doubt, to their various management, the degree of interest taken in the welfare of the labourers, &c. It is alleged that the smaller estates are best attended to, and that they have not been so much deteriorated as the others by the change that has taken place.

The products raised for exportation, more especially sugar, have hitherto been the grand objects of the industry of the colonists; and the greatest efforts have been made, by the introduction of machinery and otherwise, to obviate the drawbacks under which they have latterly been placed. The estates on the high grounds, called "pens," have been kept almost entirely in pasture, to supply the sugar and coffee estates with horned cattle, horses, and mules. And the inability of the latter to purchase stock, in consequence of the depreciation of their produce, has involved the holders of "pens" in nearly the same distress with themselves. The culture of corn and other grain, with the exception of maize, has hitherto been confined within the narrowest limits. Latterly, however, it has been a good deal increased, especially on the grounds belonging to the negroes; and the probability is, that it will continue to increase. The culture of the great colonial staples may be, and probably will be, relinquished: but unless the island should be wholly abandoned, that very circumstance will necessarily occasion a corresponding extension of the growth of corn and provisions. Irrigation is, perhaps, the greatest improvement that could be introduced. But, how indispensable soever, it has hitherto made little or no progress. There are no manufactures except those of sugar and rum.

Commerce.—The history of the trade of Jamaica is not destitute of interest. For a long time after we obtained possession of the island, in 1655, the chief exports

were cocon, hides, and indigo. The wretched colonial policy of Spain had immersed Jamaica in sloth, poverty, and decay; and even so late as 1762, the exports of sugar amounted to only 11,000 hhds. In 1774, they had increased to 75,000 hhds. of sugar, 26,000 puncheons of rum, and 799,000 lbs. of coffee. The American war was very injurious to the W. Indian settlements, which may be said to be still suffering from its effects in the restrictions which were laid on the importation of food, lumber, &c. from the U. States. The devastation of St. Domingo by the revolution of 1792, which in a few years annihilated a supply of 115,000 hhds. of sugar, previously exported by that island to Europe, gave a corresponding stimulus to its culture in Jamaica and elsewhere. The latter, which, at an average of six years preceding 1799, had produced only 68,000 hhds., exported in 1801 and 1802 upwards of 775,000 hhds., or 139,000 hds. a year! In 1806 the exports from Jamaica rose to 150,282 hhds., their maximum limit, and considerably more than three times what they now amount to. The same cause gave a similar stimulus to the growth of coffee, which has been increased by the increasing demand for the article in Europe. In 1792 the export of coffee from Jamaica amounted to only 60,000 lbs.; in 1775 it amounted to 440,000 lbs.; in 1797 it had increased to 7,981,631 lbs.; and in 1814 it rose to 24,045,585 lbs! But the rise of prices, which so rapidly increased production in Jamaica, occasioned a similar though less extensive increase in Cuba, Porto Rico, &c.; and more recently in Brazil, Java, Louisiana, Guiana, the Mauritius, and other colonies. In consequence, prices sustained a very heavy fall; and the keen competition to which they were exposed subjected the Jamaica planters to the most serious difficulties. These, however, might have been overcome had they not been immeasurably increased by our legislation in regard to the black and, latterly, also in regard to foreign sugar. Some of the effects of these measures are exhibited in the following table:—

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles, the produce of Jamaica, imported into the U. Kingdom in the undermentioned Years.

	1831.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1847.	1848.	1849.
Sugar	- cwts.	1,429,025	1,148,760	617,817	742,855	751,048	627,005
3d classes	- "	47	982	119	38	147	5
Rum	- gals.	3,222,463	2,450,272	1,290,808	1,745,679	2,140,219	2,290,2
Coffee	- lbs.	15,644,072	11,154,507	8,607,937	8,050,153	6,570,248	4,911,702
							3,599,193

Among the articles shipped from the colony are pimento, the exports of which, in 1835, exceeded 2,500,000 lbs., but have since been greatly reduced; with arrow-root, ginger, succades, mahogany, indigo, and sometimes small quantities of cotton. The latter was, at one time, rather extensively grown; and among the projects for the revival of industry with which it is customary to amuse the planters, the renewal and extension of the culture of cotton have not been forgotten.

The imports comprise flour, bread, rice, and meal, with beef, pork, fish, and other articles of provision; cotton and linen manufactures; staves and lumber; slops and haberdashery; iron and steel, soap and candles, machinery, and a great variety of other articles.

We regret there are no accounts on which any reliance can be safely placed, of the value of the trade of the island. The estimated value of the imports during the year ended the 10th of October, 1847, amounted to 1,221,923*l.*; and that of the exports of insular produce to 1,504,862*l.* The entire value of the exports from the U. Kingdom to the W. Indian colonies, including Demerara and Berbice, in 1849, amounted to 2,025,019*l.*, of which those to Jamaica made 624,568*l.* A large proportion of the trade of the island is carried on with the U. States, the British N. American colonies, and the ports on the Spanish Main. The principal ports (all of which are free) are Kingston, Ports Royal, and Morant, Black River, and Savanna-la-Mar on the S. S. coasts; and Lucea and Montego Bay, Falmouth, St. Ann, Ports Maria and Antonio, and Annotto Bay, on the north.

Jamaica is divided into three counties; Middlesex in the centre, Surrey in the E., and Cornwall in the W. These are subdivided into 22 parishes, 10 of which are comprised in the first, 7 in the second, and 5 in the third named co. St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish Town, is the seat of government; but Kingston is the largest town, and the real cap. of the island. The executive power is vested in a governor, appointed by the crown, aided by a council of 19 members, appointed in like manner, of which the lieut.-gov., chief justice, attorney-general, and the bishop, are members. The legislative power is vested in a H. of Assembly, of 47 mems., 3 being elected by each of the parishes containing the towns of Kingston, Spanish Town, and Port Royal, and 2 by each of the other 19 parishes. All male inhabitants, of full age, and possessed of a freehold of 5*l.* per ann., or a rent-charge or leasehold of 30*l.* per dn. or who pay 2*l.* a year of taxes, may vote for representatives. The latter ought to possess an estate, over and above all incumbrances, of 100*l.*

a year, or real property worth 800*l.*, or real and personal do. worth together 3,000*l.* The Assembly has all the privileges of the British H. of C., and, like it, its utmost duration is 7 years. Since 1728, the Assembly and Council have been the originators of all laws for the government of the island, the power of legislation having been then conferred upon the island, and a permanent revenue of 6,000*l.* a year guaranteed by it to the crown. The salary of the governor is 6,000*l.* a year. Justice is administered in a supreme court, composed of the chief justice and 3 puisne judges, which sits 3 times a year at Spanish Town. Courts of Assize are held 3 times a year in each county. Inferior courts of common pleas decide in causes to the value of 20*l.* with costs, and justices of the peace in those not above 40*l.* The Court of Chancery was formerly held by the governor only; but in Lord Metcalfe's time, a vice-chancellor was appointed, with a salary of 2,500*l.* a year, who transacts all the ordinary judicial business of the court. Appeal is made from the Court of Chancery to the Privy Council. There are, also, admiralty, and other special courts. Since the emancipation of the slaves, courts of conciliation, similar to those established in Denmark (Vol. I. 689.) and some other countries, have been instituted in various parishes: the blacks are frequently members of these tribunals, and are thus accustomed to the discharge of some of the most important social duties. Submissions to that decision is, of course, optional; but there, elsewhere, they are usually acquiesced in. A new police force, of upwards of 400 constables, was established in 1840.

The military force usually amounts to about 3,000 regular troops, exclusive of the insular militia, which is at present (1850) in a very reduced state. The public expenditure on account of the religious establishments, amounts to nearly 32,000*l.* a year; ministers of other denominations besides the Church being salaried by the government. Jamaica is under a bishop with a salary of 4,000*l.* a year, whose see extends over the Bahamas and Honduras. Nearly 15,000*l.* are spent yearly on public instruction and charitable institutions. Education is pretty widely diffused, except in some parts towards the E. end of the island. But there and elsewhere numerous schools and churches have recently been established; and it is said that the emancipated blacks have not been slow to avail themselves of the benefits resulting from the institution of savings' banks. The press is free, and several able publications are issued. The public revenue and expenditure amount, at an average, to nearly 200,000*l.*

a year each, exclusive of large assessments for parochial purposes. The compensation money awarded to the proprietors for the liberation of the slaves amounted to 6,161,927*l.*, the average value of a slave from 1823 to 1830 having been 4*l.* 1*s.* 2*d.* The ordinary currency of the United Kingdom has been adopted in Jamaica.

Jamaica was discovered by Columbus in 1495, and was settled in 1503. It remained in the possession of Spain till 1655, when it was taken by the English, to whom it has since belonged. (*Parl. Papers, including the able Report by the Governor, of the 10th March, 1849; Edwards's Hist. of the West Indies, &c.*)

JANEIRO. See RIO DE JANEIRO.

JAPAN (EMPIRE OF), called *Nippon* by the Japanese, and *Yang-hou* by the Chinese; an insular empire off the E. coast of Continental Asia, and opposite to the sea of Japan, the gulph of Tartary and Corea, from which it is separated by Manchuria. It comprises five large and a great number of small islands, lying between the 30th and 50th parallels of N. lat., and between the 128th and 151st degrees of E. long.; bounded N. by the sea of Okotak and the independent part of the island or peninsula of Tarakal, or Karafto (formerly known to English geographers as Saghalien); E. by the N. Pacific ocean; S. by the eastern sea of the Chinese; and W. by the sea of Japan, which communicates with the open ocean by the straits of Korea, Senagar, &c., running between the different islands. Our knowledge of Japan is very unsatisfactory: Dutch traders annually visit its only open port, Nangasacki; and the Russians have acquired some slight acquaintance with the country; but, though the talents of Kämpfer, Thunberg, Krusenstern, Siebold, Meylan, and Fischer, have been engaged in collecting materials for a good description of this very curious and interesting country, the cautious and jealous policy of the Japanese government with respect to the admission of foreigners (caused, as in China, by the attempts of Jesuit missionaries to Christianise the country,) has hitherto, in a great measure, baffled the efforts of European inquirers into its internal arrangements and economy. The shores of Japan are, likewise, either so rocky or so extremely flat, and are so often enveloped in heavy and dangerous fogs, that exploring vessels cannot approach near enough to make an accurate survey of the coasts. The total area may perhaps amount to about 290,000 sq. m. the pop., which is quite unknown, has been variously estimated at from 30,000,000 to 60,000,000. *Physical Geography.*—The three principal islands of Japan Proper, which alone have been explored by Europeans, have a very uneven surface, few plains being of any great extent, and the hilly country extensive and of a rocky character. Nippon, the largest, longest, and best known of these islands, contains a regular mountain chain, running N.N.E., the highest summit of which, called *Fusai*, is, according to Siebold, upwards of 12,000 ft. high, another also (*Siro-Jama*) reaching an elevation of 8,000 ft. and being covered with perpetual snow; the average height, however, is alleged to be so moderate, that the high ground generally admits of cultivation almost up to the dividing line of the watershed. The summits above named are active volcanoes, and many other hills emit either flames or smoke. Earthquakes are frequent, one in 1705 having destroyed nearly half of Yedo, and killed more than 100,000 of its inhab.; thermal and mineral springs also are of very frequent occurrence, so that, on the whole, the islands of Japan may be considered the seat of great volcanic movements, connected, most probably, with those of Kamtschatka, and the islands of Formosa and the Asiatic Archipelago, all of which belong to a chain of heights almost as distinctly marked as the volcanic chain of America. The metallic riches of Japan are stated to be very great, comprising copper in sufficiently large quantities for an extensive exportation, a considerable quantity of sulphur, some lead, tin and iron, and a little gold and silver, the mines of the last two being under the exclusive superintendence of the government. The rivers of Japan, though numerous, are not long, on account of the secular narrowness of all the islands: few of them are navigable, and most might be characterised rather as torrents than rivers. The largest is the Yedo-gawa, in Nippon, rising in the large lake Otsu, or *Biwa-no-umi*, and emptying itself, after a probable course of 60 or 80 m., into the harbour of Osaka. The lake Fakones, S. W. of Yedo, is treated with superstitious reverence by the natives. The climate in a country extending over so many parallels of lat. must, of course, vary extremely, the N. dependencies having a severely cold climate, while the S. parts of the empire are nearly as warm as the S. of France, though with a temperature considerably more variable, owing to their insular condition. In Kiu-siu and the S. parts of Nippon, as far N. as Yedo, the thermometer ranges between 10⁰ and 25⁰ Fahr., 80⁰ being the average height in the middle of summer, and 35⁰ during the severest months of winter. The winter cold, however, is much increased by the prevalence of N. and N.E. winds; and the summer heats of July and August are moderated by cooling breezes from

the S. and S.E. Rain is very frequent, falling more or less on two-thirds of all the days in the year, but more especially in June and July, which are the *saison*, or rainy months: hurricanes, also, and storms frequently occur, and are described as being very violent. (*Thunberg, vol. iv. 68—90; Siebold, vol. i. p. 325.*)

Agriculture.—Tillage is followed in Japan, not merely as a pursuit dictated by private interest, but also in obedience to a general and very peremptory law, which obliges all owners of land, under the penalty of confiscation, to keep their property in good productive condition, and therefore able (for this is the secret reason of the regulation) to pay a large land-tax to government or its officers. But, whatever may be the cause, the soil, though not naturally fertile, has been so much improved as to be rendered extremely productive. Few plants, except on the hills, are found in a natural state; and the face of the country, even on the mountain sides (which are formed into terraces, as in some parts of Italy and Persia), is so diligently cultivated, that, as Thunberg observes, "it would be difficult to find in the country a single nook of untillied land, even to the dry summits of the mountains;" and this is confirmed in all material respects by Siebold, one of the latest travellers in Japan. In the S. district rice is raised in very large quantities, as it forms a principal article of food with the Japanese; but wheat is little grown, and holds but a small estimation; barley, also, does wheat, a bean called *daidai*, and another, the *soya dulchickwa* (from which the well-known "soy" sauce is made), potatoes, melons, pumpkins, and cucumbers, are raised in great abundance; and the fruit trees of S. Europe, the orange, lemon, vine, peach and mulberry (the last of which is carefully reared for silk worms), are both plentiful and highly productive. Ginger and pepper are the chief spice plants. Cotton is cultivated in considerable quantities, and tobacco, introduced by the Jesuits, is very generally raised in the S. islands. The grand object of cultivation, however, next to rice, is the tea-plant, brought here from China in the 9th century. Not only are there large tea-plantations, with dyeing-houses, &c.; but every hedge on every farm consists of the tea-plant, and furnishes the drink of the farmer's family and labourers. The finer sorts demand extreme care in their cultivation: the plants thrive best on well-watered hill-sides, and they are said to be manured with dried anchovies, and a liquor pressed out of mustard-seed. Amongst trees, the *Broussinetta papyrifera* is cultivated for its bark, which is converted into cloth and paper; and the varnish tree (*Rhus vernis*), and called *ocroino-ki* by the natives, for its gum, used in varnishing wooden furniture; the camphor laurel, also, the iron tree, the oak, fir, and cypress are common, and furnish products useful as well for home consumption as exportation. Of timber, however, there is an insufficiency, and supplies are obtained from the N. dependencies of Jessao and Saghalien. The plants, a great number of which are described by Siebold in his review of the climate and vegetable empire of Japan (vol. pp. 280—292.), are extremely beautiful, and many of them, as the *Clerodendron*, *Camelia*, and *Pyrus*, have been naturalised in England; and there is little doubt, the climate being so similar to ours, that numerous other specimens from the Japanese Flora may be introduced.

Cattle and other Animals.—Pasturage in a country inhabited by a people eating scarcely any animal food except fish, and so well supplied with cotton and silk that they feel no want of wool for the manufacture of clothes, must necessarily be very unimportant. Buffaloes and oxen are not numerous, and are used only for draught labour, and there are but few sheep, the progeny of a breed introduced by the Dutch soon after their settlement in Japan: the horses are of inferior size, and are only used by the nobility; there are neither mules nor asses, and pigs are found only in the neighbourhood of Nangasacki. Dogs are common, and are considered sacred animals, in consequence of the favour which they enjoyed from one of the *Mikados* or supreme emperors; and cats are even more esteemed, if possible, by the Japanese ladies than by the venerable spinsters of Great Britain. Among the wild animals, may be enumerated bears, wild boars, foxes, wild dogs, deer, monkeys, hares, rats, mice, and two small animals of the weasel kind peculiar to the country, and called the *touts* and *tins*. Birds are numerous and of many varieties: falcons are highly valued, and pelicans, cranes, and herons are considered useful in destroying vermin and insects that are injurious to the interests of agriculture: the pheasants, ducks, and wild geese have splendid plumage: besides which there is a great variety of teal, storks, pigeons, ravens, larks, and other small birds. The common crow, however, and the parrot, have never yet been found in Japan. Among reptiles, snakes are not unfrequent, especially in the N. part of Nippon, and one variety, the *Ovabambi*, is of enormous size: tortoises also and lizards are of common occurrence; and the islands, particularly towards the S., abound with noxious insects, scorpions, centipedes, white

ants, &c. An apterous phosphoric insect (*Lampyrus japonica*) deserves notice as being singular in its habits to the fire-fly of America, but of an entirely different genus. The sea contains large quantities of fish, affording a main article of food to the inhabitants, and giving employment to "entire villages" of fishermen. The salmon, herring, cuttle-fish (*Scia opotopoda*), eel, perch (*Sciaema japonica* and *Callionymus japonicus*), with many others, are caught in great quantities: oysters, also, of a peculiar and delicious kind, are extremely abundant, and are used almost exclusively as food by many of the poor inhabitants about Yedo, where the fisheries lie. Whales and narwhals frequently visit the coast, and are caught by harpooning; the flesh is eaten, the whalebone serves various purposes, and ambergris is extracted from the entrails. (Thunberg, vol. iii. 357. ad finem; Siebold, passim.)

Manufactures.—The industry of the Japanese will bear to be compared with that of the Hindoos, or even Chinese. The artificers in copper, iron, and steel, have a high character, and the swords of Japan rank second only to those made in Khorassan. Telescopes, thermometers, watches and clocks, of good quality, are constructed at Nangasaki; and if the description of Leyden, in his excellent work on Japan, of a very curious and complicated clock, may be credited, some of the workmen possess a very high degree of mechanical ingenuity. Glass is made; but the natives are not acquainted with the art of glass-blowing. Printing was introduced in the 13th century, and is conducted, as in China, by means of wooden blocks; engravings also are made, but in a very clumsy manner. Silk and cotton fabrics, of good quality, are manufactured in quantities almost sufficient for the consumption of the population. Porcelain, more highly esteemed even than that of China, is formed from two peculiar kinds of earth, called *kasim* and *pitensere*. The art of lacquering furniture with gold, silver, and various pigments, the secret of which was till lately almost exclusively confined to the Japanese, and hence called "japaning," is practised with great success; and the specimens that have reached Europe, and are now deposited, with many other curiosities, in the Royal Museum at the Hague, exceed in excellence every other sort of japanned wares, though Meylan informs us that in the country they would only be esteemed second-rate. The process is extremely tedious, and the gum requires long preparation for its conversion into varnish. Five coats, at least, are successively applied, and when dry, rubbed down and polished with stone; many of the more costly specimens are inlaid with mother-of-pearl. Good paper is made from the maceration of the mulberry and other barks, the fibres of which are used in the manufacture of cordage. The art of building houses is little understood: they are almost universally constructed of timber, covered on the outside with plaster, and the inside consists usually of two stories, each of which, when divided, is parted off into close rooms by flimsy paper partitions, adorned, or rather disfigured, with garish and bold paintings. Of ship-building and navigation the Japanese have a very slight knowledge; and that is prevented from increasing by a law, which compels the people to build their ships in a particular fashion, somewhat similar to that of the Chinese junks. They are made of cedar, fir, or camphor-wood, and the merchant vessels average about 70 ft. in length, by 30 or 34 ft. in breadth, their burden varying from 100 to 150 tons. Great numbers of ships are employed in trading with the different parts of the empire (the principal of which are Yedo, Soseki, Isinomaki, Saga, or Sakai, and Nangasaki), and many others besides are engaged in fishing; but it is manifest from their construction that they are not adapted for sea-navigation. (Siebold, i. 218—220.)

Trade and Commerce.—The internal trade of Japan is very extensive, and a variety of regulations are in force, the object of which is to protect and encourage home industry. The prices of goods are not enhanced by imposts of any kind; and communication between the great markets and all parts of the empire is facilitated by numerous crossing vessels and well maintained roads. The shops and markets, especially in Yedo, Miako, and Nangasaki, are well provided with almost every description of agricultural and manufactured produce, and the great fairs are crowded with people from the most distant parts of the country. Accounts also are published, from time to time, of the general state of trade and agriculture, and of the prices current for the chief articles of traffic at the trading towns of Yedo, Miako, Osaka, and Simonoeki on the island of Niphon; Sanga, Kokoura, and Nangasaki in Kiu-siu; Tosa in Sikokf, and Matsubai in Jesso. Foreign commerce, however, so far from being encouraged, is vigorously opposed by the government, in consequence of the attempts of the Jesuit missionaries to Christianise the people. An

edict, published in 1637, and still in force, makes it a capital offence for the natives to travel into other countries; and their seamen even, when accidentally cast on foreign shores, are, on their return, subjected to rigorous examination, and sometimes tedious imprisonment, to purify them from the supposed pollution contracted abroad. The Dutch, who were the first permitted to visit the empire after the expulsion of the Portuguese, had their earliest factory on the island of Firato; but they were removed, in 1641, by the emperor's orders, to Nangasaki, where, in common with the Koreans and Chinese, they are allowed to bring their goods for sale; but the number of vessels allowed to come each year, and the quantity of each description of wares to be sold, are strictly defined: and the residents in the factory are restricted to 11 only. The ships, immediately on their arrival, are minutely searched, and the crews are kept, during their stay in port, completely secluded from the natives, on the small island of Djelima, close to the harbour. All the business transactions are conducted by the Japanese, who also unload and re-load the vessels. Besides these obstructions, the superintendent of the Dutch factory is obliged to send valuable presents, or rather tributes to the sjogun, and, once in four years, he makes an official visit to Yedo with great pomp, and gifts of more than usual value, costing with the journey about 3000*l*. The imports comprise raw silk, woollen, cotton, and linen cloths of various kinds, sugar, dye-woods, seal-skins, pepper, and other spices, quicksilver, tin and iron, cambric, glass-ware, &c. from the Dutch, and silk, tea, sugar, dried fish, and whale oil from the Chinese: the exports consist chiefly of copper ingots (forming about 9-10*l*. of the whole), camphor, and to a smaller extent, of silk fabrics, lacquered wares, porcelain, soja-dolichos, &c. (*Hogendyck's Coup d'Œil sur l'île de Jona et l'Archipel des Indes*, p. 283—400; Siebold, i. ch. 2. and 3.; Thunberg, iii. 63—96.)

Accounts are kept in *thalis*, each of which is equivalent to 24 Dutch florins, or 5*l*. 10*s*. Eng. money, and the thali is composed of 10 *mas*, and the *mas* of 10 *condorins*. The gold coins are the *itab*, worth 15 *mas* (or 8*l*. 9*d*.), the *ko-ban*, equal to 64 *mas* (1*l*. 7*d*. 4*d*.), and the *oban* valued at 3 *ko-ban*. Large payments, however, are most commonly made in silver ingots of a fixed weight and value. The standard of weight is the Japanese *picul*, equal to 130.9 English lbs. avoirdupois, and divided into 100 *cattys* and 1,600 *talcs*. The measure of length is the *latiamy*, equivalent to 6 ft. 4 in. English; but road distance is reckoned by *ri*, or Japanese leagues, about 30 of which, according to Siebold (vol. i. p. 209.), go to a degree of latitude. (*Balbi*.)

Government and Laws.—The government of Japan is an hereditary, absolute monarchy. The supreme power was originally vested in an ecclesiastical emperor, called *Daïri-same*, or *Mikado*; but in 1543 Joritomo, the emperor's *sjogin*, or military commander, usurped the chief civil power, and from that time to the present, notwithstanding its acknowledged illegality, the mikado, who is the only real emperor, has been a mere puppet-king, in a state of dependence on his *sjogin*, his first officer, and the military chief of the empire. All enactments, however, must have the sanction of the emperor before they have legal force; he alone confers honorary distinctions on the *sjogin* and the nobility, and he has the entire superintendence of religious affairs and education. Any further connexion with subaltern affairs would, it is supposed, degrade the Son of heaven, and profane his holy character. His court is at Miako, where he lives secluded in a large palace, and surrounded by numerous officers, who treat him with almost divine honours. His person is considered too sacred to be exposed to the air, and the rays of the sun, and still less to the view of his subjects; and he is consequently confined within his palace: his hair, nails, and beard are not cleaned or cut by daylight, these operations being always performed when he is asleep; he never eats twice off the same plate, nor uses any vessels a second time; and they are invariably broken to prevent them from falling into unhalloved hands. The mikado's finances, however, are now restricted to the taxes collected from Miako and the surrounding territory: certain revenues from the treasury of the *sjogin*, and the fees paid on the admission to honourable dignities and offices. His income, indeed, is so small, and the number of dependents so great, that he may truly be said to live in splendid poverty. The *sjogin*, who has, as has been seen, usurped all the substantial power, holds his court at Yedo, and exercises entire authority over the lives and property of the natives, controlled only by the laws enacted by former emperors, and which admit of little change. To him, also, directly belongs the local government of the five great towns, Yedo, Miako, Osaka, Sakai, and Nangasaki. The country is divided into 8 districts, which are subdivided into 68 provinces.

* The name *Daïri* is by some writers applied to the emperor; but this is incorrect, for the *daïri* is simply the term used to denote the Mikado, who is hence called *Daïri-same* (lord of the *daïri*).

vinces, and these again into 604 counties: the provs. are governed by princes called *daimio* or high-named; and under them are governors of districts, called *sionio*, or well-named. The daimios are appointed by the sjogun, to whom they are accountable, with hostages for the proper exercise of their authority. They are entitled to the revenues of their respective provs., which enable them, besides maintaining their state and dignity, to keep an armed force for the preservation of order, and to make outlays in repairing roads, and other public works. They reside usually in large towns, either maritime or situated on rivers, and their castles are defended by strong gates and lofty towers. Once a year, in token of subjection, they repair to the sjogun's court, at Yedo, attended by numerous and splendid retinues, and bearing valuable presents, constituting a main portion of his yearly revenues. The executive department is confided to seven ministers, who undertake severally the departments of internal economy and finance, commerce and navigation, public works, police, civil and criminal legislation, war and religion. The supreme judicial council, called *gorondje*, is composed of 3 daimios, who assist the kubo in his decisions on political offences; and a senate of 15 daimios or nobles forms a subordinate court, that takes cognizance of civil and criminal cases.

The laws of Japan are severe, nay, even vindictive and sanguinary; fines are seldom imposed, and exile to the penal settlement of *Tata-en-sima* (inflicted on the nobles), banishment, imprisonment, torture, and death by decapitation or impaling on a cross, are the ordinary penalties of crime, the shades of which are little distinguished. It frequently happens, also, that the courts visit with punishment not only the delinquents themselves, but their relatives and dependents, and even strangers who have accidentally been spectators of their crimes; and hence, the remarks of Montesquieu on the spirit of the Japanese laws are by no means incorrect:—

"Ces lois, qui ne trouvent point d'innocens là où il peut y avoir un coupable, sont plus sévères que toutes les autres; les hommes se méfient les uns des autres, pour que chacun recherche la conduite de chacun, pour qu'il en soit l'inspecteur et le juge. Mais ces gens opiniâtres, capricieux, déterminés, bizarres, qui braveront tous les périls et tous les malheurs, sont-ils corrigés on arrêtés par la vue continuelle des supplices et ne s'y familiarisent pas? Un législateur sage aurait cherché à ramener les esprits par un juste tempérament de peines et de récompenses, &c. . . Mais le despotisme ne connaît pas ces ressorts, il ne mène pas par ces voies; il peut abuser de lui; mais c'est tout ce qu'il peut faire. Au Japon il a fait un effort, il est devenu plus cruel que lui-même." (Esprit des Loix, book vi. ch. 13.) The prisons are gloomy and horrid abodes, containing places for torture and private executions, besides numerous cells for solitary confinement. The police is extremely strict, and in the large towns each street has a chief officer, called the *ottomo*, who is responsible for the maintenance of order, the punishment of delinquents, and the registration of births, marriages, and deaths; besides these, four superintendents regulate the economy of the towns, and rigorously punish, often with death, the most trifling infraction of public order or peace, information of which is obtained by an established system of espionage.

Revenues.—The public revenues are derived from taxes on land and houses. The land is assumed to be the property of the state, and is rated according to the class of soil to which it belongs; the rate being said always to exceed $\frac{1}{4}$ and often $\frac{1}{2}$ of the produce; but it is difficult to believe that so heavy a tax can be collected. Tenants neglecting the proper cultivation of their land are punished by ejectment. Houses are rated according to the extent of street frontage, and the amount in which the holders are mulcted is greatly increased by forced presents to the civil officers, and dues for maintaining the temples and idols. The amount of the kubo's revenues cannot be ascertained; but it may be inferred that the land-tax, and the contributions from the daimios, who furnish the taxes of the 68 provs., must form a pretty large privy purse.

Armed Force.—The army in time of peace consists of 100,000 infantry, and 20,000 cavalry; the force during war being increased by levies from the different provs. to 400,000 infantry, and 40,000 cavalry. The arms used by the infantry are the musket, pike, bow, sabre, and dagger; those of the mounted troops being the lance, sabre, and pistol. The artillery is so confined to a few brass cannon and light pieces. The generals have no permanent office, but, in case of war or disturbance, are appointed by the sjogun and princes. Discipline and fortifications are little understood; and their batteries consist usually of a few odd-looking walls, raised without either order or apparent object. Japan, though an insular dominion, has no navy whatever; the ships, such as they are, being wholly used in trade.

Religion.—The form of religious worship in Japan, especially the old form, has no resemblance whatever to any of the contemporary Chinese forms: the early in-

habits of Japan had a peculiar form, which, being respected as that of their ancestors, has maintained itself to this day, as well in the hut of the peasant as in the palace of the daimi. Being generally liked, it is not only tolerated, but even protected and venerated by government; even at the present time, it might have been the positive religion of the Japanese, if political causes had not obliged the subjects openly to acknowledge one of the sects of Buddh. The doctrines, views, and interpretations of the ancient rites of the Japanese worship are in no essential points similar to those of Buddh; and though by contact of 1,000 years, they appear to have more or less amalgamated, yet they are kept rigorously distinct by Japanese theologians. The old religion is the *Sin-sin* (lit. *faith in Gods*), or, according to Siebold, the *Kami-no-miiti*, or way to the *kami*, or gods, the other being a modern Chinese term for it. This sect regards the founders of the empire to be sprung from *Ten-syo-da-zin**, the supreme deity, and to have descended from heaven upon the Japanese land; and their title *Ten-xi* is a recognition of their divine origin. The race is never extinct; for in case of a failure in the succession, a descendant is supposed to be sent from heaven (though in fact privately selected by the emperor from the families of the nobles) to the childless ten-xi. The spirit of their ruler is immortal, and this also confirms the faith of the people in the immortality of the soul, in connection with which they also believe in a future retribution of their good and evil deeds during life on earth. Their paradise is called *Takama-kakara*, and their hell *Ne-no-kuni*. The supreme Deity is too great to be addressed in prayer, save through the mediation of the Mikado, the Son of Heaven, or of inferior spirits called *kami*, of which 492 were born spirits, and 3,640 are canonised mortals. For these *kami*, who seem to be regarded somewhat like the saints of the Romish calendar, as intercessors with God, temples are specially erected; and in every Japanese dwelling is a kind of altar, on which the natives offer incense, and utter their prayers to the supreme Deity. Large gates and triumphal arches lead to the temples, which, with the dwellings of the priests and other buildings, frequently form extensive and stately edifices. Various estates are offered as sacrifices to the *kami*, and anciently even human victims were immolated to reconcile the hostility of evil spirits. The priests of this sect are allowed to marry.

The Buddhist form of worship is supposed to have been introduced from China, through Corea, in the 6th century of the Christian era; and the dogmas of that religion are divided into a higher and lower doctrine of faith. According to the first, man derives his origin from nothing, and therefore has no evil in himself; the impressions of the material world bringing out the evil in him, and fostering its growth. This evil is to be counteracted by following the bent of the soul, within which is neither more nor less than the Deity guiding our actions. The human body being sprung from nothing, will, after death, return to nothing; but the soul survives, and the wicked floating eternally in the void of space, while that of the good will repose in the palace of the Deity, whence, if the denizens of this lower world should ever need the aid of a virtuous man, it will be sent from heaven to occupy another body. From this curious view of the Esoteric doctrine of the priests, let us turn to the more popular and practical tenets of the people. "On the other side (i. e. in the other world), before the great judge *Emaso*, stands a large mirror, in which the actions of all mankind are imaged forth. Near this mirror stand two spirits, who observe and report the deeds of every person, and a third records them in a book, by which the souls of the dead will ultimately be judged, and, according to their sentence, sent to their places of rewards and punishments. *Amida*, the saving deity, is the god of paradise; and the way to ensure a journey on the *Go-kura*, or road to paradise (one only out of six to which departed spirits may be sent), is an obedience to five commandments—viz. not to lie, not to commit adultery, not to kill any living creature, not to get drunk, and not to steal. One of the roads for the dead is *Tsukuyodi*, the road to the hell of animals; and hence the Buddhists of Japan believe in the transmigration of souls into animals as well as men."

Of the religion of Buddh, as now professed, there are many ramifications, and much superstition prevails. *Jammabos*, or monks of the mountain, live a secluded and ascetic life; and blind monks, who deprive themselves of sight that they may not behold the vice around them, are very common throughout Japan. Occasionally, in pursuance of vows, men are met running about the street entirely naked, on a round of visits to different temples; multitudes of religious beggars also are to be seen with shaven heads; and singing girls, in the assumed

* This Deity, however, though practically considered as supreme, is only the descendant of more ancient gods, the most remote of whom was, according to the Japanese mythology, self-created out of infinite and eternal chaos.

habit of nuns, procure from the rich considerable sums. The sect of *Sinism*, which professes the morality of Confucius, is quite separate from any of the creeds above described, and has existed in Japan since A. D. 59. Here, as in China, its only object is the inculcation of a virtuous life in this world, without reference to an after-state of existence. (The above account of the religion of the Japanese is chiefly taken from Dr. Burger's paper, in the Chinese Repository for Nov. 1833; but the statements are confirmed in every important point by a private English authority.)

Population, Manners, &c.—The pop. of Japan has been variously stated: but no estimate yet put forth has the slightest pretension to accuracy. The most moderate estimate, however, fixes it at rather more than 80 millions, exclusive of the inhab. of the Japanese dependencies. They are divided into eight classes, the princes, nobles, priests, soldiers, civil officers, merchants, artisans, and labourers either agricultural or otherwise: the caste system is strictly pursued, and each follows the employment of his fathers, whatever his talents may be for a different pursuit. The people, physically considered, appear to be a mixed breed of Mongolian and Malay blood, though they regard themselves as aborigines. They are, in general, well made, active, and supple, having yellow complexion, small deeply set eyes, short flatish noses, broad heads, and thick black hair, which, however, is not allowed to be worn except on the crown, the sides of the head being kept constantly shaved. The dress of the Japanese consists of several loose silken or cotton robes, worn over each other, the family arms being usually worked into the back and breast of that which covers the rest. To these is added, on state occasions, a robe of ceremony; and the higher classes wear with it a sort of trousers called *hakama* (resembling a full-plaited petticoat drawn up between the legs), with one or more swords, according to the rank of the parties. The lower orders are prohibited from wearing swords. The men shave the front and crown of the head, the rest being gathered and formed into a tuft, covering the bald part: the women, on the contrary, wear their hair long, and arranged in the form of a turban, stuck full of pieces of highly polished tortoise-shell; and they paint their faces red and white, and stain their lips purple, and their teeth black. Hats are worn only in rainy weather; but the fan is an indispensable appendage to all classes of the Japanese. Their gait is awkward, owing partly to their clumsy shoes; but that of the women is the worst, in consequence of their practice of so tightly bandaging the hips, as to turn their feet inwards. On the other hand, they do not deform themselves by confining their feet in tight shoes, like the Chinese. Polygamy is not practised even by the nobles, and far more freedom is permitted to the female sex than in China: many are well educated, and almost all play on musical instruments. Concubines are kept in numbers, varying according to the means of the owner; but they hold a rank much inferior to that of wives: prostitutes are found in every town in greater numbers than in any country in Asia, except Hindoostan; and so little discredit is attached to their profession, that they are visited by married females; and received back without remark into respectable society.

Respecting the moral condition of a people so little known, it would be rash to venture any remarks. They are alleged, by Siebold and others, to be intelligent, and desirous of increasing their knowledge by inquiries; they study medicine and astronomy, and their observations are as correctly made as their rude instruments will allow. Almanacks are compiled at Miako, the great centre of the national science and literature. The history of Japan has been written with great care by some of its learned writers; and their works on botany and zoology contain good descriptions and tolerable engravings of the plants and animals indigenous to their islands. Poetry, also, is cultivated, and there is a prevalent taste for music. The Japanese language has no relation to the Chinese, nor, indeed, to any known Asiatic language, except that of the Ainoo, who inhabit Jesso and Tarakal. Klaproth, in his *Recherches Asiatiques*, Siebold in his *Travels*, A. de Remusat, in his *Illustrations of the Japanese Language*, and Meylan in his able work on Japan, present some curious details, the exhibition of which does not fall within the province of this Dictionary. It is a polysyllabic language, has an alphabet of 47 letters, and is written in four different sets of characters, one of which (the *katakana*) is used exclusively by the males, while another (the *hiragana*) is appropriated to the females. The Chinese character also is in use among the learned.

History.—Marco Polo was the first to make known to Europeans the existence of a country called by him *Tzempu*, but since proved to be identical with Japan. In 1542, Mendes Pinto, a Portuguese, was cast by storm on these shores, and a Portuguese settlement from Malacca was soon after made at Nagasaki, the commercial relations of which, with the inhab., were very considerable

and highly lucrative to the settlers, till the interference, in 1585, of Jesuit missionaries with the religious profession of the inhab., led to the persecution and final expulsion of the traders. The Dutch soon afterwards (in 1600), with great difficulty, prevailed on the Japanese to allow them to trade on condition of not interfering with the national religion; but the vexatious and harassing regulations by which the trade is obstructed, and the very limited extent allowed to it, make it a matter of question how far the factory should be kept up by the Dutch government. The Russians tried, some years ago, to establish commercial relations with Japan; but their proposals were declined, and the envoys were ordered not to return on pain of death. The internal history of Japan is almost unknown; and the statements that have reached us through Kämpfer, Thunberg, and others, are too loose to be admitted as authentic history. (*Voyages de Thunberg en Japon*, vols. iii. and iv. *passim*; *Siebold's Voyage au Japon* (French edit.) vols. i. ii. and v.; *Meylan's Hist. of Japan*; *Kämpfer's Hist. of Japan*; and several excellent papers in the *Asiatic Journal* for 1830-40.)

JAROSLAVL, or YAROSLAV, a gov. of Russia in Europe, chiefly between the 57th and 60th degs. of lat. and the 38th and 42d of long., having N. Novogorod and Volodga, K. Kostroma, S. Vladimir, and W. Tver. Length, N. to S., about 160 m.; greatest breadth nearly the same. Area estimated at about 13,900 sq. m. (*Schottler*). Pop. (1846), 1,008,000. Surface almost wholly flat, in some parts marshy, and in general only moderately fertile. The Volga traverses this government in its centre; the other chief rivers are its tributaries the Mologa, Schekona, &c., all which have, more or less, an E. direction. The lake of Rostof, in the S., is 8 m. long by 6 broad, and there are nearly 40 other lakes of less size. Rye, barley, wheat, oats, peas, &c., are grown, and Schottler estimates the annual produce of corn at about 3 millions of chetverts; a quantity insufficient for the inhab., who are partly supplied from the adjacent provinces by means of the Volga. Its hemp and flax are excellent, and cherry and apple orchards are numerous. The gardeners of Jaroslavl and Rostof are famed throughout Russia, and many are met with at Petersburg. Timber is rather scarce. The rearing of live-stock, excepting horses, is little pursued; but the fisheries in the Volga are important. This government is, however, more noted for its manufacturing than its rural industry. In 1830 there were 106 factories, employing 7,970 hands, chiefly in the towns of Jaroslavl, Rostof, and Ouglitch. Linen, cotton, and woollen stuffs, leather, silk, paper, hardware, and tobacco are the principal manufactures; but, independently of the hands above mentioned, the peasants are almost every where partially occupied with weaving stockings and other fabrics, and making gloves, hats, shoes, wooden shoes, and various rural implements. Commerce is facilitated by several navigable rivers and good roads.

Jaroslavl is subdivided into ten districts; chief towns Jaroslavl, Rostof, and Ouglitch. Its pop. is Russian; and the women are proverbial (among Russians) for their beauty. Only about 1-17th part of the inhab. reside in towns. In respect of education, the gov. is comprised under the div. of Moscow; and, in 1832, had 19 public schools, and 1,141 scholars, besides 9 ecclesiastical seminaries with 1,607 students.

JAROSLAVL, a city of European Russia, cap. of the above gov., and of a circ. of same name, on the Volga, at the mouth of the Kotorozh, 213 m. N. E. Moscow; lat. 57° 37' 30", long. 40° 10' Pop. (1846), 24,856. It is well built, though mostly of wood; and is defended by a fort at the confluence of the two rivers. In its broad main street, which is ornamented with trees, are many handsome stone houses; and 3 convents and numerous churches contribute to give Jaroslavl an imposing appearance. The Demidoff lyceum in this city, founded in 1803, has a good library, a cabinet of natural history, a chemical laboratory, and printing-press, and ranks immediately after the Russian universities. It was originally endowed with lands, to which 3,578 serfs were attached, and with a capital of 100,000 silver roubles; since which it has received other valuable benefactions. The same educational course is pursued as in the universities, and lasts three years. The establishment is placed under a lay-director and an ecclesiastic, and has 8 professors, 3 readers, and 40 pensionary students. Jaroslavl has also an ecclesiastical seminary, with 500 students. A large stone exchange (*Gostinnoi dvor*), an hospital, founding asylum, house of correction, and 2 workhouses, are the other chief public edifices. This city is the residence of a governor, and the see of an archbishop. It has about 40 different factories, including 3 of cotton, 4 of linen, and 2 of silk fabrics, 8 smeries, and several tobacco, hardware, and paper-making establishments. Its leather and table linen are much esteemed. The position of Jaroslavl on the Volga contributes to promote its commerce, which is very considerable. Its manufactures are sent to Moscow and Petersburg, and a great

many are sold at the fair of Marklarof. Two annual fairs are held in Jaroslavl.

This is a city of considerable antiquity, being founded in 1025 by the famous Jaroslav, son of Vladimir the Great, who annexed it to the principality of Rostov. It fell under the dukes of Moscow, in 1496. Peter the Great was the first to give it commercial importance, by establishing its linen manufactures, since which its prosperity has been progressive. (*Schottler, Dict. Géog.*)

JAROSLAW or JAROSLAU, a town of the Austrian empire, Galicia, circ. Przemisl, on the San, a tributary of the Vistula, 16 m. N. N. W. the town of Przemisl. Pop. (1838), 7,564, among whom are many Jews. It has a castle belonging to Prince Czartorinsky, a cathedral, and several other churches, a high school and girls' school, and manufactures of woollen and linen cloths, rosoglio, and wax candles. It has an extensive trade in these goods, and in wooden ware, honey, bleached wax, flax, and Hungarian wines, considerable quantities of all which are sent to Danzig, though less than formerly. It has some rather large fairs; the principal is that held on the 15th of Aug. (*Berghaus; Stein; Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.*)

JASSY (an. *Jassorium Municipium*), a town of Moldavia, of which it is the cap., on the Bagliu, a tributary of the Pruth, about 120 m. N. N. W. Galatz, and 160 m. W. N. W. Odessa, lat. 47° 8' 30" N., long. 27° 30' 15" E. The pop., which is vaguely said to have once amounted to 80,000, and during the present century to 30,000, has been reduced, by war, pestilence, and fire, to less than 20,000. It is situated in a fertile country, partly on a hill, and partly in the valley beneath, and covers a large surface, the houses being interspersed with gardens and plantations. Its fortifications were demolished in 1788, and its only defence is now a small fortress on an eminence, opposite the residence of the hospodar. About 4,700 houses, including all the summer residences, were destroyed by fire in 1832; since which, Jassy has presented a miserable appearance. Of the 6,000 houses it is now stated to contain, about 200 only are of stone or brick, and not more than 50 have a second floor. The principal street is wide, and lined with low shops; the other streets are narrow and crooked: they are paved only with logs, and in wet weather are impassable from the mud, while in dry weather they are enveloped in clouds of dust. There is a total want of cleanliness; and this, with the proximity of marshes, and the exhalations which arise from the imperfectly covered sewers, render the town, especially its lower part, very unhealthy. Jassy is the see of a Greek archbishop, whose residence is perhaps the most remarkable public edifice. It has many Greek churches and chapels, a Rom. Cath., and a Lutheran church, numerous convents, an hospital, 3 public baths, a large building appropriated to a Wallachian printing establishment, the only one in the province, a gymnasium, established in 1644, a Lancelian school, and a school of handicrafts for females, founded in 1834. It has few manufactures; some canvases, is, however, made in the town for export to Constantinople, and the trade in wine, flax, corn, hides, wool, wax, honey, and tallow, is considerable, especially at the fairs. The town has so often suffered from fire, that to be secure, some of the merchants deposit their most valuable wares in chests in the high church of St. Nicholas. The boyars, or principal inhabitants, have a great passion for pageantry and gaming, and are filitrate in the extreme. Their costume is a mixture of Oriental and European, and the showy dresses of the upper classes strikingly contrast with the general wretched appearance of the population. Like the rest of Moldavia, Jassy swarms with beggars. (*Dict. Géog.; Macmichael's Journey from Moscow to Constantinople*, p. 83; *Stein*.)

JASZ-BERENY, a town of Hungary, distr. Jagyria, of which it is the cap., on the Bodony. The Jazygians were destroyed by a flood, 40 m. E. Pesth. Pop. 18,530. It has a large and handsome Rom. Cath. parish church, several other churches, a Franciscan convent, Rom. Cath. gymnasium, high school, and a town-hall, in which are kept the archives of Jagyria and Great and Little Cumania. In the centre of the town stands a marble obelisk, erected in 1797 in honour of the archduke John; and within the precincts of the convent, on an island in the Jagyria, the traveller is shown a tomb, reported to be that of Attila. The town has a large trade in corn, horses, and cattle, which latter are reared in great numbers in its vicinity. (*Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.; Berghaus.*)

JAUER, a town of the Prussian dom., prov. Silesia, cap. circ. of same name, on the Neisse, which, by its inundations, often does much damage, (10 m. S. by E. Leignitz. Pop. (1839), 5,847. It is the seat of the judicial courts for the circle, &c.; it has a house of correction, a Lutheran, and five Rom. Cath. churches, a free school, and fabrics of linen and woollen cloths.

JAVA, a large and fine island of the Eastern Archipelago, 1st division, belonging principally to the Dutch, and the centre, as well as the most valuable, of their posses-

sions in the East. It lies between the 6th and 9th degs. S. lat., and the 106th and 115th E. long.; separated from Sumatra on the W. by the straits of Sunda, E. by those of Ball from the Isl. of that name; having N. the Sea of Java between it and Borneo, and S. the Indian Ocean. Its general configuration is not unlike that of Cuba, except that it is not curved, and it also resembles Cuba in its extent, fertility, products, and commercial value, while it supports eight times its amount of pop. Its length W. to E. is about 600 m.; breadth varying from 40 to 130 m. Area inclusive of the neighbouring Isl. of Madura, estimated at about 52,000 sq. m. Pop. between 9 and 10 millions, of whom above 100,000 are Chinese, with Malays, natives of Bali and other isls. of the Archipelago, a few Arabs, Moors, and Bengalees, and 14,000 Europeans, mostly Dutch, but comprising about 300 English, including those employed in the mercantile navy.

Physical Geography, &c.—Most part of the surface is mountainous. A mountain chain, obviously of volcanic origin, runs W. and E. entirely through the centre of the Isl., its peaks varying in elevation from 5,000 to probably 12,000 ft. All these peaks are of a conical form, and, with few exceptions, each appears to have originated in a distinct convulsion of nature. All have been at some period active volcanoes; in most of them, however, volcanic agency is now apparently extinct, though, from some eruptions occasionally taking place, and sulphureous vapours are emitted, especially after rain. The S. coast is usually bold and rocky, and being exposed to all the violence of the ocean, is unsafe for shipping; the N. shore is, on the contrary, low and marshy, and has many tolerable harbours and roadsteads, affording sufficient shelter to trading vessels, the sea being generally smooth. Rivers numerous; but very few of any size. The largest is the Solo, which runs through nearly the centre of the Isl., and empties into the N. coast, opposite Madura. Its length may be estimated at 400 m., 7/8ths of which are navigable for vessels of 300 tons. Surakarta, the cap. of the chief native prince, is on its banks; five or six other rivers are at all times navigable for a few miles from the coast, and probably 50 more are in the wet season used for the conveyance of rafts and rough produce downwards. There are many extensive swamps, and in the mountains many small lakes occupy the craters of extinct volcanoes.

Basalt, hornblende, and other volcanic formations are abundantly intermixed among the primary rocks of the mountain region. On either side of the mountain chain coarse limestone and argillaceous iron-stone are very prevalent formations, and are covered, especially in the lower parts of the country, with a volcanic soil of great richness, in some places 12 ft. in depth. The N. coast rests entirely upon coral. Metals are few. Mineral springs of various kinds are met with, besides naphtha and petroleum wells, and in one distr. is a cluster of hills which exhibit a metamorphosed sandstone, like the mud-volcano of Maccaluba, in Sicily. (*See ARAGONA*, vol. I. p. 145.)

The seasons are divided into the wet and dry. The former accompanies the monsoon from October to March or April; the latter, the E. monsoon, which lasts during the rest of the year. On the N. coast, where the thermometer sometimes rises to 90° Fah., the climate is very unfavourable to Europeans; but in the interior, at an elevation of 4,000 ft., where the temperature ranges between 50° and 60°, no deleterious influence is to be apprehended from the atmosphere. Thunderstorms and earthquakes are frequent, but hurricanes are unknown.

Java has a most luxuriant vegetation. It is distinguished by the number and excellence of its fruits and other vegetable products, which comprise many of the most valuable common to tropical climates. Dense forests of teak and other trees, useful for shipbuilding, cover a great part of the interior, especially towards the E. end of the island. The forest of Java is inferior in hardness and solidity to that of Malabar, but is superior in those respects to that of Birmah; and is said to excel every other variety in durability. The sago, and many other palms, the very curious pitcher-plant (*Nepenthes distillatoria*), and two virulently poisonous plants, the *anchar* and the *cheit*, are natives of the island. The latter, which is peculiar to Java, is a large creeping shrub, and identical with the celebrated *rat snake*, formerly supposed, but on no good foundation, to be, like *Averna*, destructive of birds flying over it. The aggregate number of mammalia has been estimated at 50, including the royal and black tigers, rhinoceros, several kinds of deer, the wild hog, wild Javan ox, buffalo, &c. Crocodiles and other large reptiles infest the mouths of the rivers and the marshes; and upwards of 20 venomous serpents are enumerated, including some of enormous size. Birds are in immense variety; the bird of paradise visits Java from Gilolo, Papuan, and the other islands to the E. and the edible nests of the sea swallow (*Hirundo cuculata*)

• From the salt water thus ejected 200 tons of salt are said to be made annually. (*Anglo-Holl. I. 37.*)

form an important and valuable article of trade for the Chinese markets. This singular product is obtained in the greatest perfection from deep, damp, and all but inaccessible caves along the rugged parts of the sea coast. These are the property of government; and, when they can be easily guarded, produce a considerable revenue.

Mr. Crawford, who for several years superintended the collection of the valuable covers of Karang-bolang, on the S. coast of the island, estimates the value of the nests obtained from them at about 140,000 doll. a year, collected at an expense of about 11 per cent. The nests are taken twice a year; and if no unnecessary violence be done, the operation seems to be but little injurious: at all events, the quantity is but little increased by the caves being left untouched for a year or two. The nests are assorted in three qualities, the best being the whitest, or those taken away before they have been soiled by the food or feces of the young bird. The supply of nests being limited and unsuceptible of increase, and being, at the same time, highly prized by the rich and luxurious Chinese, on account of their real or supposed invigorating powers, they bring enormous prices; the finest sorts selling for 5*l.* or 6*l.* per lb. i. and the inferior for 2*s.* or 2*s.* per do. i. They are collected, but in smaller quantities, in other parts of the Archipelago: their total export to China is estimated at from 240,000 to 245,000 lbs. (*Crawford*, iii. 394-397. *Commerce*, Div.)

Industry, &c.—The Javanese are a nation of husbandmen. To the crop the mechanic looks immediately for his wages, the soldier for his pay, the magistrate for his salary, the priest for his stipend, and the government for its tribute. The wealth of a province or village is measured by the extent and fertility of its land, its facilities for rice irrigation, and the number of its buffaloes.

The proportion, at an average, of the inhab. engaged in agriculture to the rest of the pop. may be stated at 3*l.* or 4*l.* to 1; and it is probable that the whole island was under cultivation, no area of land of the same extent in any other quarter of the globe could surpass it, either in the quantity, quality, or value of its vegetable productions." (*Raffles*, i. 117-430.) At present, only about 1-3d part of the surface is supposed to be under culture; and yet Java produces not only enough of corn for its own consumption, but is the granary of the E. Archipelago, and even of Singapore. Within the last twenty years, the cultivation of all its great staples has wonderfully increased; and the progress of Java has been probably even more remarkable than that of either Brazil or Cuba.

The husbandry of the Javanese may be said to exhibit, upon the whole, much neatness and order. Two or more crops are never cultivated in the same field, as is the slovenly practice of the Hindoos. Neither are the lands tilled in common, as is a usual but most injurious practice in India. The peasant and his family bestow their labour exclusively on their own possessions, and consider their culture rather as an enjoyment than a task. It is here only that their industry assumes an active and systematic character: the women take a large share of the labour. The work of the plough, the harrow and mattock, with all that concerns the important operations of irrigation, are performed by the men, but the lighter labours of sowing, transplanting, reaping, and hoeing, belong almost exclusively to the women.

The implements of agriculture are few and simple; but as well as the agricultural processes, they are more perfect, and imply a greater degree of intelligence, than those of the Hindoos, and perhaps, indeed, than those of any Asiatic people, the Chinese excepted. The Javanese plough, like the Hindoo, has no share. The sock is tipped with a few ounces of iron, and the earth board is carved out of the body of the plough; the wood is teak, the yoke of bamboo cane. One man conducts the plough, and with a long whip guides the cattle, which never exceed two in number. The Javanese harrow is a large rake, with a single row of teeth. The same yoke and cattle are used for it as for the plough, and over its beam a bamboo cane is placed, on which the person who guides it sits to give a necessary weight to the implement. The hoe is very indifferent; its edge only tipped with a little iron, and its handle about 2*l.* feet long. The Javanese sickle is a very peculiar instrument. Its object is to nip off separately each ear of rice with a few inches of the straw for which purpose it is grasped in the right hand, and the operation effected with a dexterity acquired by habit. The whole farming stock of a villager may be purchased for little more than one-third part of the yearly produce of his land; or for about 15 or 16 dollars, including a pair of buffaloes. These animals usually serve all agricultural and other purposes in place of horses. Cattle of every description are plentiful throughout Java; but the cows are inferior, and yield little milk. Sheep, goats, and hogs are numerous.

Rice is the principal food of all classes: it is grown not only along the whole of the sea-coast, but in all the low grounds and ravines where water is to be had. Wherever rice is cultivated by numerous, the land is divided

into small chequers of about 200 or 300 sq. yards, surrounded by dykes not exceeding 1*l.* feet high, to retain the water for irrigation. When the culture depends on the periodical rains, the charge of these dykes constitutes, as far as irrigation is concerned, the only care of the husbandmen; but the greater quantity of the grain of Java is raised by the help of artificial irrigation. The principal care of the husbandman is to dam the brooks and mountain streams as they descend from the hills, and before the difficulty has occurred which would be presented by their passing through deep ravines. From this circumstance, the crests of the mountains, and the valleys at their feet, are best supplied with water, and there, consequently, is the finest and richest husbandry. The slopes of the mountains are formed into terraces highly cultivated, and the valleys are rendered almost impassable from the frequency of the water courses. The art of forcing rice by artificial irrigation is found only to prevail in the most improved parts of the eastern Archipelago, and in the best lands. This mode does not depend upon the seasons; and hence we see in the best parts of Java, where it chiefly obtains, rice in every state of progress, at any given season, and in the same district, within, indeed, the compass of a few acres. In one little field, or rather compartment, the husbandman is ploughing or harrowing; in a second, he is sowing; in a third, transplanting; in a fourth, the grain is beginning to flower; in a fifth, it is yellow; and in the sixth, the women, children, and old men are busy reaping. Lands which may be inundated at pleasure almost always yield a white and a green crop within the year; and to take two white crops from them, whether a judicious practice or otherwise, is very common. Mr. Crawford states that he has seen lands which have produced, time immemorial, two yearly crops of rice. Two varieties of rice are raised in Java, one a large, productive, but delicate kind, requiring about seven months to ripen, and the other small, hardy, and less fruitful, which ripens in little more than five months. The first is always cultivated in rich lands, where one annual crop only is taken; but where two crops are raised, the other variety is grown. The rapid growth of the latter has, indeed, enabled the husbandman, in a few happy situations, to reap six crops in two years and a half.

Rice, of whatever description, is reaped and stored in the same way. The whole field is not reaped at once, but each portion of the grain is taken successively as it ripens; so that, in the desultory manner in which the operation is performed, a very small field, with many reapers, may occupy a period of 10 or 12 days in reaping. With the singular sickle before mentioned, the ears are nipped off, and forthwith transported to the village by the manual labour of the reapers, for cattle or carriages are very rarely used. At the village, the corn is sufficiently dried by a day or two's exposure to a powerful sun, when it is tied in sheaves or bundles, and deposited in little granaries of wicker work, one of which is attached to every cottage. Grain is never thrashed by treading it out by means of cattle. It sometimes, chiefly in the case of mountain rice, becomes necessary to separate the seed from the straw, which is done by treading, or rather rubbing, the sheaf between the feet, an operation effected with considerable dexterity. Commonly the grain is stored for use, and transported to market in the straw. The operation of husking is performed by the women in large wooden mortars, with pestles of the same material. (*Crawford's Indian Archipelago*, i. 248-255.) Rice is mostly grown in the E. part of the island, whence it is sent in large quantities to Batavia for exportation, or to Samarang, from which port a good deal is shipped for China, and the islands of the Archipelago.

Coffee, which has now become the great commercial staple of Java, is grown in the uplands, the best situations for it being the alluvial lands, 200 to 1000 ft. above the level of the sea. The coffee plant grows from 12 to 16 ft. in height; it attains to maturity in about 5 years, and continues to bear well for the succeeding 10 or 12 years, each tree yielding, at an average, 1*l.* lb. coffee. The chief peculiarity of the coffee culture in Java is the planting of the *dadap* tree (*Erythrina indica*), in rows alternately with the coffee plants, for the purpose of affording shelter to the latter. Coffee is raised principally in the W. part of the island, where the residency of Preangers furnishes at least 1-4th part of the total produce.

Sugar is, also, a most important staple. That best known in European markets is called Jacatra sugar; it is grown near Batavia, where numerous sugar-mills have been erected of late years. Formerly the sugar-mills and grounds where almost wholly in the hands of the Chinese, but this is no longer the case: the Europeans, since the culture of sugar with the Chinese, and having the advantage of machinery, surpass the latter both in the quantity and quality of their produce. The Chinese, however, by their frugality and business-like habits, are supposed to reap the greatest profit from

its production. A species of sugar obtained by fermenting the juice of a tree, is much used by the natives.

The increase in the production of sugar in Java since 1825 has been most extraordinary; the quantity exported in 1847 having been above *seventy* times greater than in 1826! At present (1850), the export of sugar may be estimated at about 90,000 tons. The increase in the growth of coffee has been even greater than that of sugar; and Java is now become one of the principal sources for the supply of these important products. (See post.)

In 1839, the government officially announced that the cultivation of spices, previously prohibited in Java, would for the future be free to all parties desirous of engaging in it; and, further, that every facility would be given to such persons, by supplying them with whatever information, and even seed, they might require. This liberal policy has had a considerable influence, though not, perhaps, so much as was anticipated. The produce of cloves and nutmegs amounted together, in 1845, to 8,637 pic.; but Temminck speaks unfavourably of the prospects of the former. (*Possessions Néerlandaises dans l'Inde Archipelagique*, l. 264.) Cinnamon has, also, been introduced, and apparently with considerable success; the crop in 1840 having amounted to 57,074 lbs. of the first quality. Indigo has been one of the most successful of the various articles introduced into the island; and has already, indeed, been found to be a formidable rival to the indigo of India. In 1838, the culture of the tea plant was attempted; and considerable quantities are now raised in different parts of the island. Temminck, however, says that it has an astringent taste and a feeble aroma; but it is not clear whether this originates in the unsuitableness of the soil and climate, or in some mismanagement in the treatment (l. 255.). The silk-worm was introduced early in the 18th century; but though often renewed, the attempts to produce silk have failed. Pepper is extensively produced; but long pepper, though indigenous, has been comparatively neglected. Tobacco and cotton may be ranked among the staple products; considerable quantities of the latter are exported. Maize is grown in the plains, and wheat, rye, oats, and barley in the hilly tracts, but the latter only in small quantities. A great variety of pulses and vegetable oils, the sweet potato, cocoa, betel-leaf, pistachio nuts, &c., are among the other articles of culture.

Labour is very cheap: in the European districts, labourers get only 4d. a day, and in the native districts only from 3d. to 2½d. a day; but they are, notwithstanding, in a much better condition than the inhab. of Bengal, being generally well fed and clothed, and, for the climate, well housed. Their food is principally rice or maize, with a little sugar; their clothing is chiefly of cotton, and in the centre of the island it is mostly the manufacture of the country; but they consume a greater quantity of manufactured articles of good quality than the Bengalese. Each peasant has his hut of bamboo, &c., which costs only from about 5s. to 10s. in the first instance, and is usually surrounded by a small garden. The proprietary right to the land, except in a few districts, belongs every where to the sovereign. No law nor usage gives to the oldest occupant the land he has reclaimed from waste, or the farm he has enriched by his industry. As a matter of convenience, the same cultivator may continue to occupy the same field for life, and his family may afterwards succeed, but none can retain possession against the will of the sovereign, or even of his own immediate superior. Half the produce of wet lands, and a third part of that of dry, was formerly exacted by the government, but at present it takes only one-fifth part of the produce; nor has any proprietor purchasing land of the government the right to demand more of the native occupant, except for lands which the proprietor himself may have brought into cultivation, for which he may demand one third part, or less, according to the productiveness of the land. It is not uninteresting to compare this moderate assessment with the exorbitant amount taken from the occupiers in Hindostan, and to mark the results exhibited in the impoverishment of the inhab. of British India, and the stationary state of the country, and the comfort of the Javanese labourer, and the great and rapidly increasing prosperity of Java.

No permission is necessary from the Dutch government for Europeans wishing to go to Java, but a licence from the colonial governor is necessary to remaining there. Europeans are permitted to buy and sell lands in the W. provs., and to hold leases in the N. The principal conditions are the payment of a tax of 1 per cent. on the estimated value of the property; that the proprietor shall not exact more than the before-mentioned proportion of produce as rent; and that he shall keep the roads and bridges in repair. The European proprietors receive their rents in kind; and are obliged to take their produce to Batavia to be shipped. The free cultivation of every article of produce is allowed, except the poppy. The extent of estates held in property in 1850, was about 5,000 sq. m., divided between 30 or 30

European, and 10 or 12 Chinese proprietors; of which, about 1,800 sq. m. were held by 8 or 10 British-born subjects; but in the interval the quantity of land held by Europeans has been materially increased. British and other foreign proprietors are treated precisely in the same way as the Dutch. The Chinese possess a somewhat less extent. Large capitals have been expended on the lands held by Europeans in irrigation, the construction of sugar-mills and mills for husking rice, and the introduction of machinery from Europe. The introduction of European capitalists and residents has greatly improved the condition of the natives, who are always ready to enter their service. Theft and robbery, though common elsewhere, are seldom heard of on estates belonging to Europeans, and there are no instances of personal violence done the latter. About 500 sq. m. in the territories of the native princes are leased by Europeans. (*Maclean's Evidence in Parl. E. I. Reports; Earl, Eastern Seas.*) The natives cultivate the rest of the land according to their ancient customs and usages, paying a rent to the government, partly in money, and partly in kind. A village system is very prevalent, by which every commune has its own lands, the culture of which it has a right to direct, and which is conducted for the benefit of its inhabs. in common. This is particularly the case in the E.; the produce is afterwards divided (after deducting the rent) into equal parts, according to the number of hands engaged in its production. The land belonging to a commune varies generally from about 40 to 100 acres; and the extent allotted to each individual from one half to two acres.

Manufactures are few, and principally domestic: the peasant's family fabricates almost every article required for its own use. Cotton goods are woven; and a cubit's length of cotton cloth, 5 spans in breadth, is considered a sufficient day's work by the Javanese weaver.

The Javanese and Indian Islanders, in general, are wholly unacquainted with the art of manufacturing fine clothes of any kind: all their fabrics are of a coarse, though durable texture; and all the labours of the loom are performed by women only. Of calico-printing the Javanese are entirely ignorant; but they have a singular substitute for it. The part not intended to be coloured, they daub over with melted wax. The cloth, thus treated, is thrown into the dying-vat, and the interstices take the colour of the pattern. If a second or third colour have to be added, the operation is repeated on the ground made by the first application of wax; more wax is applied, and the cloth is once, or often, consigned to the vat. The greater refinement that is attempted, the more certain seems to be the failure. This awkward substitute for printing adds 100 per cent., at least, to the price of the cloth. "The latter," Mr. Crawford says, "is 450 per cent. on the price of the raw material;" and he adds, "This is a picture of the rude condition of manufacturing industry, of the waste of labour and of time, which results, in an uncivilised stage of society, from imperfect machinery, indolence, unskillfulness, and the want of the division of labour." (*Ibid. Appendix*, l. 173, 184.) And yet, unskilful as the manufacturing industry of the Javanese is, it generally excels that of the other islanders of the Archipelago. Leather and saddlery are made at Solo, boots and shoes at Semarang, mats and hats of bamboo, &c., colr, fishing-nets, paper from the bark of the *Morus papyrifera*, bricks, cabinet-work, carved wooden articles, boats and ships, in the construction of which the natives are tolerably versed, and *Arries*, matchlocks, and other arms, &c., are, excl. of cotton, the chief manufactures. Copper and brass pans are made, but their manufacture has very much declined. Almost all the manufactured goods used by Europeans are imported. Java is the only island of the E. Archipelago in which salt is made to any extent: along the N. coast there are numerous salt-pans, from which a great deal more of the article is obtained than is required for home consumption—a quantity estimated at 52,000 tons annually. The salt marshes, and other inlets of the sea, are often embanked for the rearing of fish in large numbers.

In architecture, the Javanese surpass the other natives of the E. Archipelago; and many structures of stone and brick, some in a style of superior magnificence, (as, for instance, the temple of Boro Budor,) exist in different parts of the island. But the art of building has declined since the middle of the 13th century, and the modern Javanese do not even understand the art of turning an arch, though arches are seen in every ancient structure remaining in Java. The *Wratons*, or palaces of the native princes, are walled inclosures, laid out on a uniform plan, and comprising numerous buildings. They were formerly constructed of hewn stone, but at present consist only of ill-burnt bricks and ill-concocted mortar. After these, the better sort of residences are called *padangar*, a word derived from the Sanscrit; and the edifice is, therefore, probably of Indian origin. In most of these a thatched roof is supported by four wooden pillars, round which it

an awning of light materials, supported by moveable props of bamboo; and the whole is closed in by a temporary paling, and divided into apartments by light partitions. The chief materials of the houses of the Javanese are the bamboo, rattan, palmetto leaf, and wild grass. The house of a peasant in a populous part of Java, where materials are not the most abundant, will not exceed the value of 60 days' labour. In the dwellings of the chiefs there is generally, in a conspicuous part of the house, a kind of state bed, rather for display than use; but an ordinary bed is usually only the bamboo floor of the cottage, or, at best, a bench of the same flimsy material, on which a mat and small pillow are laid, and the peasant retires to rest without undressing. Food is served up on salvers or trays of wood or brass. A few Chinese porcelain dishes are used occasionally, but neither spoons, knives, nor forks.

The commerce between Java and Holland, which

amounts to 5-7ths of the whole external trade, is chiefly carried on by the *Nederlandsch Handel Maatschappij*, or Dutch Commercial Society, which includes some of the most wealthy persons in the mother country.

The principal articles of import are linen and cotton manufactures, chintees, muslins, &c.; provisions, wines and spirits, iron and iron goods, and woollen goods, haberdashery, glass, copper wares, &c., from Europe and America; opium from the Levant and Bengal; pecking, linens, wheat, &c., from India; porcelain, tea, tobacco, silk and silk goods, from China; copper and camphor from Japan; gambier, coffee, tin, cotton, gold dust, benzoin, sandal-wood, &c., for exportation, from the rest of the archipelago. The following account of the principal articles of produce exported from Java during each of the undementioned years ending with 1845, shows better than any thing else can do, the wonderful progress recently made by this noble island.

Years.	Coffee.	Pepper.	Indigo.	Hides.	Cloves.	Nutmegs.	Sugar.	Tin.	Rice.	Rattans.	Mace.	Arrack.
	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Coppers.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Leaguers.</i>
1830	228,740	6,061	72,063	90,249	903	1,304	108,640	21,476	15,521	5,095		
1833	466,371	11,668	535,753	139,993	4,566	5,022	439,543	40,836	25,577	4,905	1,606	2,075
1840	1,132,194	9,911	2,125,911	110,494	53	3,600	1,024,493	69,354	680,909	28,038	670	5,261
1841	961,467	13,477	1,827,386	120,472	1,600	5,125	1,046,576	68,430	676,213	37,017	1,171	4,672
1842	1,015,554	10,441	1,697,437	107,677	1,718	5,129	884,665	69,127	884,157	36,594	1,439	4,668
1843	1,018,195	22,063	1,596,129	116,713	2,087	5,129	993,749	45,705	1,008,774	73,555	486	6,362
1844	1,239,593	13,484	1,648,590	154,294	2,800	5,131	1,008,632	75,476	1,008,632	75,476	2,800	6,318
1845	1,006,190	11,297	1,653,869	105,751	2,234	3,403	1,455,425	75,537	1,447,017	51,960	430	4,578

The value of the principal articles exported from Java in 1845 was,—

	<i>Florins.</i>		<i>Florins.</i>
Arrack	- 135,372	Sugar	- 20,550,309
Hides	- 220,649	Tobacco	- 2,734,480
Indigo	- 4,361,608	Tin	- 4,044,518
Coffee	- 30,123,798	All other articles and treasure	- 10,005,888
Pepper, round	- 184,433		
Mace	- 2,685,101	Total value	- 65,985,168*
Rice	- 139,824		
Cloves	- 201,043		
Nutmegs	- 510,383		

The total amount of import and export duties received, in 1837, was 485,602*l*. In the same year, 1,648 ships, of the aggregate burden of 102,416 lasts (under the Dutch flag, 1,423 of 79,202 lasts), entered; and 1,891 ships, burden 111,590 lasts (1,636 of 85,571 lasts, under Dutch colours), cleared out of the different ports of Java and Madura.

The internal traffic is comparatively small, though few countries have better means of communication. A carriage road, extending from one extremity of Java to the other, 600 m. in length, was made by General Daendels; but it is alleged that its construction cost the lives of 12,000 natives.

The Chinese weights are invariably used in commercial transactions at Batavia, and throughout Java and the other Dutch possessions in India. These are the picul and the catty, which is its hundredth part. The picul is commonly estimated at 125 Dutch or 134*l* lbs. avoirdupois, but at Batavia it has been long reckoned equal to 13*l* lbs. avoird. The bahar is 3, and the timbang 5, piculs. The coyang of rice is equivalent to 2,300 lbs. Dutch. The coins in use are similar to those current in the Netherlands. Spanish dollars are received at the custom-house in Batavia, at the rate of 100 for 260 florins.

Government, &c.—Java, inc. Madura, is divided into 22 provinces, or residencies, each governed by a European resident, assisted by a secretary, and as many sub-residents as may be deemed necessary. The residencies are subdivided into arrondis, or regencies, the administration of which, especially in respect to the police, is confided to native chiefs, termed regents. The colonial government at Batavia exerts a full and complete power over all the Dutch colonies in the E. sea. The gov.-general in the cap. is the representative of the king of Holland, and commander-in-chief of the forces by land and sea. He is assisted by a secretary-general, and a colonial council of 4 members, who must be of Dutch extraction, born in Holland, or one of its dependencies, and 30 years of age; and who can exercise no other functions while they remain councillors. Justice is administered in the last resort in a supreme court at Batavia, which has jurisdiction in all cases above the value of 500 florins. Three subordinate civil and criminal tribunals, and 3 courts martial, subordinate to a central court in the cap., are established in Batavia, Samarang, and Sourabaya. A member from each of these courts makes a circuit at least every three months into the residencies under its control, to preside at a court of assize, composed besides of 4 native chiefs chosen annually by the government, on the recommendation of the natives. The permanent tribunals of the residencies are the *land-raaden*, composed of the resident, 4 mems. selected from among the regents, a secretary, &c. In each arrond. and commune

there are justices of the peace, with authority in petty cases. The Chinese are governed by their own laws, under functionaries chosen by them, who are responsible to the Dutch for the behaviour of the rest. There are few slaves belonging to Europeans in Java. The great religious toleration exists, and ministers of all Christian sects are equally remunerated by the government. Superior schools are established in the chief towns, and primary schools in most of the residencies. The squadron stationed in Java sometimes comprises several ships of the line, but in time of peace usually consists only of a few frigates and corvettes. There is, besides, a colonial navy of light vessels (schooners, gun-boats, &c.), which forms a separate branch of service, though both are generally placed under the command of the admiral of the royal squadron, who has the title of Director of the Dutch East India Navy. Besides the foregoing force, a flotilla of cruisers, manned by native Javanese, is supported by the different marine residencies. The land forces consist of several battalions of infantry and artillery, a corps of pioneers, a regiment of hussars, and a portion of a squadron of lancers. In all, there are about 8,000 Europeans in the Dutch Javanese army, being about equal to 1-3d part of those serving in British India. But, notwithstanding the heavy expense incurred in the government, Java is one of the few colonial dependencies that in ordinary years remit a considerable revenue to the mother country.

The territories of the native princes comprise about 1-4th part of Java and its inhabs., in the centre, S., and S. E. of the island, the cap. of the Susuhunan, or empire of Java being at Surakarta, on the Solo, and that of the sultan, at Djocjokarta. The religion of both these dynasties is the Mohammedan, which prevails over almost the whole of the country. The *Javanese*, as a nation, are the most advanced of any in the E. Archipelago. They only, of those inhabiting that region, have a native calendar, and have made considerable progress in the arts and sciences of civilised life. They appear to have received these originally from Hindostan, together with the Hindoo religion, which is supposed to have prevailed over Java, till its conquest by the Mohammedans in 1478. Copious details respecting the manners, customs, &c. of this curious and interesting people, the antiquities of the island, &c. which would take up too much space in the present work, may be found in Temminck, Raffles, Crawford, and other writers on the subject.

The history of Java cannot be traced with any degree of confidence, further than the latter portion of the 12th century. From that time down to the establishment of Mohammedanism, at the close of the 15th century, the religion of the people was a modified Hindooism; and a number of independent states existed in Java. The ruins of Mojopahit, one of the principal capitals of these several states, are among the most extensive in the East. This city had between two opposite gates, the remains of which still exist, a breadth of about 3 m. which would give a circuit of 12 m. if the enclosure had been a square. The Hindoo kingdom of Mojopahit was overturned by the Arabs in 1478.

The Portuguese reached Java in 1511, and the Dutch in 1596. The latter founded Batavia in 1619, and gradually consolidated their power on the island, though for a long period engaged in continual wars with the native sovereigns. In 1811, Java was taken by a British force from Hindostan, and held till 1816, when, in pur-

* Equal, at 20*l*. per florin, to 2,591,364*l*.

suance of the treaty of Paris, it was restored to the Dutch. (*Hogedorp, Coup d'Œil sur l'île de Java; Raffles's Hist. of Java; Crawfurd's Indian Archipelago; Parl. Reports; Hamilton, E. I. Ges.* &c.)

JAXARTES, a celebrated river of antiquity, now very generally acknowledged to be identical with the Sir-Daria, the chief stream of the Kirghis-steppes. It rises in the Kachkar-Davan, a W. branch of the Tiang-khang range, in lat. $42^{\circ} 30' N.$, and long. $73^{\circ} 50' E.$ Its course to Kokan is W.S.W. about 180 m.; but at that point it takes a N.N.W. direction for about 300 m., as far as Akmeschet, in lat. $45^{\circ} N.$, long. $66^{\circ} E.$, where the channel divides, the N. and larger branch retaining the name Sir, while that to the E. is called Kouvan-Daria; their mouths in the Caspian Sea lie about 40 m. apart, but are both in long. 61° . The entire length of the Sir, including its windings, cannot be much less than 900 m.; and it is both broad and deep, which may be attributed to its being the sole recipient of the waters on the N. side of the great chain separating the khanate of Kokan from Chinese Turkestan. It has no affluent of any great size; its banks (which are low and sandy) are usually flooded in summer and at the beginning of winter; and the water is described as being loaded with a whitish brown deposit. The ruins of temples and habitations in the Karakoum sands at the lower part of its course clearly prove that its banks were once peopled by a race far more civilised than the brigand Kirghis, who now wander over the Steppe. (*Léveque, p. l. ch. v.*)

Herodotus gives the name *Araxes* to a large river full of fish, and studded with islands, situated in a vast immeasurable plain. (*See l. 201-216.*) Some geographers have conjectured that he meant the Amoo (*Oxus*), others the Volga; but D'Anville, Heeren, and Mannert, clearly show, from the position of the Massagetae relatively to the Issadones, that no other river but the Sir could have been meant by the Father of history. Ancient geographers agree in stating that the Jaxartes flowed into the Caspian Sea, an assertion, perhaps, not quite so erroneous as modern critics have supposed, if any credit be attached to the investigations of Mouravief and Berg on the level of the country between the Caspian and Arab seas, which lead to the supposition that these great salt-lakes were once united. This conjecture, also, if it be correct, at once accounts for the great breadth (E. and W.) given to the Caspian by all the ancient writers. With respect to the term *Araxes*, which was used by the old authors as applicable to at least five distinct rivers, it is now regarded as generic, meaning simply any rapid stream, like the modern *Aras*. (*See D'Anville's valuable paper, Des Fleuves du Nom d'Araxes, in vol. 36. of the Histoire de l'Acad. des Inscriptions.*) Herodotus, whose geography is in general so very accurate, was probably led into what Rennell calls his "prodigious mistake" respecting the direction of the Araxes, by not knowing that this name was held in common by several eastern rivers. (*Comp. Rennell's Geog. Herod., l. pp. 370, 373, and 293-293, with Heeren's Reflections, Asia, li. p. 240, &c., and Mannert, Geographie der Alten Griechen und Römer, Th. li. b. 2.*)

JEAN D'ANGELY (ST.), a town of France, dép. Charente Inférieure, cap. arrond. on the Boutonne, which here begins to be navigable for vessels of from 80 to 40 tons, 33 m. S.E. by E. La Rochelle. Pop. (1836), 5,342. It is ill built, but clean and cheerful. It has an ancient abbey, a handsome public hall, some baths, a theatre, and other places of entertainment, and a brisk trade in wine, brandy, and timber.

JEDBURGH, a royal and parl. bor. and market town of Scotland, co. Roxburgh, of which it is the cap., in a narrow valley on the Jed, about 3 m. above its junction with the Teviot, near the termination of the Cheviots, 40 m. S.E. Edinburgh, and 43 m. N.E. by N. Carlisle. Pop. of bor. and par., in 1811, 4,454; in 1841, 4,464; of which the bor. had 2,777. It consists of four leading streets, which cross each other at right angles, and are wide and well built. Around the town are several beautiful villas. The Town Head, a street parallel with the river, consists of old houses, which, with their inhab., are said for generations to have undergone little or no change. The public buildings are the Castle (built on the site of the ancient castle of Jedburgh, once a royal residence), containing a bridewell and prison, the co. hall, the town-house, and churches belonging respectively to the Associate Synod and Relief. The par. church consists of the western portion of the abbey, founded by David I., in the 12th century, and will be noticed below. A majority of the people are dissenters. The denomination of dissenters, termed *Relief*, had its origin here in 1754. The grammar-school of Jedburgh, an endowed seminary, has long been eminent. It has the honour to reckon among its pupils Thomson, the illustrious author of the "Seasons," and of the "Castle of Indolence," born in the par. of Ednam, in this co., on the 11th of Sept. 1700. It may also be mentioned, that Dr. Thomas Somerville, author of "The History of Great Britain, during the Life of Queen Anne," was minister

of Jedburgh. The only charitable institution in the town is a dispensary, founded in 1807; and open to the poor of the adjoining district.

The woollen manufacture has been introduced into Jedburgh. The fabrics made are blankets, carpets, sannels, hosiery, &c.: there are three mills, driven by water, which employ 104 hands, exclusive of the stocking-weavers, who carry on their business in their own houses. (*Factory Returns, Parl. Papers, Jan. 1839.*) There is an establishment for the manufacture of printing presses, under a patent, conducted by the inventor, Mr. Hope, an iron founder in the bor. There are two branch banks and a savings' bank.

The abbey of Jedburgh, belonging to the Canons Regular of St. Augustine, must, when entire, have been one of the most magnificent ecclesiastical structures in Scotland. It exhibits different styles of architecture, according to the taste prevailing at the different periods when it was built. The walls of the nave, central tower, and choir, remain; and though (the two last especially) much dilapidated, they sufficiently attest its ancient grandeur. The N. transept, which has a beautiful traceried window, is entire. There are two magnificent Norman doors in this edifice, one at the W. end, and the other in the wall of the choir, close to the transept. Indeed the ruin generally affords fine examples of the Saxon, Norman, and early English styles, the latter being admirably exemplified in the long range of narrow painted windows above the arches of the middle part of the nave, and in the blank arches of the W. end. The altar, or E. end of the choir, the cloisters, and the chapter-house, have disappeared. We regret to have to add, that this noble ruin has been disfigured, and its character, in fact, destroyed, by fitting up the W. end of the nave in a most barbarous style, as the parish church. (*Morrison.*) Luckily, this piece of miserable patchwork is as uncomfortable as it is unseemly; so that it is to be hoped it may be abandoned, and the ruins restored, in as far as possible, to their former state. (For farther information with respect to this fine ruin, see the learned and valuable work, entitled *Monastic Annals of Teviotdale*, by the Rev. James Morton.)

A monastery for gray friars was founded in this town by the citizens, in 1513; but of it all traces have disappeared. Here may still be seen the house in which Oliver Mass lodged after his visit to the Earl of Bothwell at Hermitage. Mary continued in it several days, owing to a sickness she had contracted in her unfortunate journey. The apartment which she occupied was on the third story, and is in tolerable preservation.

Jedburgh was erected into a royal bor. in the 12th century: but the castle, the site of which is now occupied by the gaol and bridewell, is supposed to have been of earlier date. After having been for some time in the possession of the English, the castle was taken by the Scotch in 1409, and demolished. Little other borders the citizens of Jedburgh were anciently more celebrated for their martial than for their peaceful virtues. Their favourite weapon was a partizan or halbert, known by the name of the "Jethart (Jedburgh) staff." Their war-cry, or slogan, was "Jethart's here." The term "Jethart Justice," which implies execution before trial, is supposed to have originated in the many instances of lynch law, executed here on border marauders. (*Scott's Border Minstrelsy, l. 60.*) The eldest son of the Marquis of Lothian, descended from the ancient border family of the Kerrs of Fernihirst, for centuries the feudal superiors of the bor., has the title of Lord Jedburgh.

Jedburgh unites with N. Berwick, Haddington, Lander, and Dunbar in sending a mem. to the H. of C. Registered voters, in 1849-50, 323. Corporation revenue, 644*l.* 1*s.* 4*d.* (*Keith's Scot. Bishops, pp. 392-452; Bed-paith's Border Hist.; Chalmers's Caledonia.*)

JEDDO. *See Yaddo.*

JELLALABAD, or JULALABAD, a town of Affghanistan, in a fertile plain, and on the high road between Caubul and Peshawur, 90 m. E. by N. the former, and 60 m. W.N.W. the latter; lat. $34^{\circ} 30' N.$, long. $70^{\circ} 25' E.$ Sir A. Burnes says, "It is one of the finest places I have seen in the E. It is a small town, with a bazaar of 50 shops, and a pop. of 3,000 people; but its number increases tenfold in the cold season, as the people flock to it from the surrounding hills. Julalabad is the residence of a chief of the Barukzay family, who has a revenue of about 7 lacs of rupees a year. The Caubul river passes $\frac{1}{2}$ m. N. of the town, and is about 150 yards wide: it is not fordable." (*Baker's G. S., li. 100.*)

JEMME (EL). *See Tzem.*

JENA, a town of central Germany, grand duchy of Saxo-Weimar, circ. Weimar-Jena, cap. district, on the Saale, 13 m. E. Weimar, and 41 m. N.E. Halle; lat. $50^{\circ} 56' 20'' N.$, long. $11^{\circ} 37' 15'' E.$ Pop., in 1838, 5,817. (*Berghaus.*) The town, which is walled, and has handsome suburbs outside its four gates, lies in a valley, between two abrupt eminences, on the left bank of the river, which is here crossed by a handsome stone bridge.

The streets are wide, and some of the houses are large and well built, many being highly ornamented with rude and grotesque sculpture. The ducal palace, containing a library and museum, with a good collection of minerals and animals, 1 Rom. Cath. and 3 Protestant churches, 3 hospitals, a lunatic asylum, and the university-house, are the chief public buildings. It is a place of considerable eminence for literature, and the seat of a university, founded in the 17th century by the sovereign princes of the Ernestine branch of the house of Saxony, in whom the patronage and appointment of the professors is still vested. The constitution is similar to that of other German universities; it has faculties of divinity, law, medicine, and philosophy, with 36 ordinary professors, composing a *senatus academicus*, for examining students and conferring degrees: there are also 17 extraordinary professors, and a few *privat-docenten*, or private tutors. The salaries of the ordinary professors range between 80*l.* and 180*l.*; those of the "extraordinary" varying from 30*l.* to 90*l.*, which are increased by five from pupils, each of whom pays at the rate of about 5 *s.* six dollars, or 15*s.* 6*d.*, for the course. The remuneration of the tutors depends wholly on the number of their pupils. The annual expenditure of the university, including the expense of theological and other seminaries, the library (comprising 100,000 vols.), veterinary school, collections, botanical garden, prizes, officers, &c., amounts to 80,000*l.* The salaries of nearly 6,000*l.* a year. A fund, also similar to that in Göttingen, with a capital of 4,600*l.*, is employed in pensioning the widows of professors; and an academical refectory fund (*Specie-custodi*), supported by endowments and yearly grants from the grand dukes of Saxe-Weimar, Coburg, and Meiningen, furnishes daily meals at several ordinaries for 123 indigent students. The number of students has averaged 500 during the last 10 or 12 years; an attendance far more limited (owing in a great measure to the murder of Kotzebue, perpetrated by a student in Jena) than in the middle of the last century, when 3,000 were in actual residence at the same time (*Journ. of Educ.*, vols. v. and ix.) Living in Jena is considered cheaper than at almost any other university of Germany; and a student may live respectably, and enjoy for half the money the same education he could command in Scotland: but, notwithstanding this inducement, very few visit it, either from other German states or foreign countries. The industry of the town, which is considerable, comprises the manufacture of coarse linen fabrics, hats, tobacco, &c.; and three annual fairs are very numerous attended.

Jena is famous in modern history, from its vicinity having been the scene of the great battle of the 14th of October, 1806, between the grand French army under Napoleon, and the Prussians, commanded by the king and the duke of Brunswick, the latter of whom was mortally wounded in the action. The French gained a complete and decisive victory. The Prussians lost above 30,000 men, killed and taken in the course of the day, with all their cannon, baggage. In fact, their army may be said to have been totally destroyed, and the troops who escaped from the field were soon after compelled to surrender.

JERSEY, an island of the English Channel, belonging to Great Britain, and the principal of that group known as the Channel Islands, in St. Michael's Bay, 13 m. W. the coast of France, and 85 m. S. Portland Bill, its N.W. point being in lat. 49° 16' N., long. 2° 22' W. Shape somewhat oblong; greatest length, E. to W., 12 m.; average breadth, 5 m.; area, 39,000 acres. Pop., in 1841, 47,544. The entire N. side of the island, and portions of the N.E. and S.W. sides, are defended by bold precipitous rocks, rising to upwards of 250 ft. above the sea, and all around it are almost innumerable rocky islets, separated from the cliffs by the operation of the tides, which set with great force and rapidly round the Channel Islands. The surface has a general inclination from N. to S., on which side the coast approaches the level of the sea. There is little table land; but elevated hills range round southward, bounding deep and narrow valleys, watered by small rivers. Jersey, geologically considered, is, like the other islands in the same group, composed of secondary rocks, resting on granitic formations. True granite is not observed; but sienite, which is largely quarried, and exported as granite, is very prevalent, passing in some parts into porphyry and greenstone: it is covered in the S. and more level tracts by schistus and clay-slate, intermingled here and there with a clay conglomerate. Iron and manganese, the only metals that occur, are not wrought. The climate, though damp, owing to frequent rains and intense sea fogs, is remarkably mild. "The island," says Dr. Hooper, "enjoys an early spring and a lengthened autumn, vegetation being usually active and forward in March, and the landscape far from naked at the end of December. Spring is marked by unsteadiness of temperature and harsh variable weather, with a prevalence of E. winds; and this disadvantage is felt particularly in May, which often fails to bring with it the expected enjoyments. March is mild, and

October yet milder." (*Observ. on the Top. Clim. and Diseases of Jersey.*) The soil in the higher parts is gritty, being composed of detritus from the rocks and sea-sand, mixed with vegetable mould; but in the valleys there is a great depth of alluvial matter, washed down by violent rains from the higher lands; and these tracts, where not swampy, are extremely fertile. The S.W. corner of the island is a mere assemblage of sandy and barren hillocks. Agriculture is backward, owing partly to the minute division of property, occasioned by the law of gavelkind, and partly to the insufficiency of rural labourers. The value of land ranges between 120*l.* and 160*l.* per acre, and rents vary from 4*l.* 10*s.* to 6*l.* 15*s.*, according to the distance from St. Helier's. Farms average about 4 acres, few exceeding 10: the occupiers are, consequently, for the most part poor; and even if they were possessed of adequate capital, the limited size of the farms is an invincible obstacle to the introduction of an improved system of farming. Some tendency towards improvement has, however, recently manifested itself. The ponderous Jersey plough, known as the *grande guere*, though not wholly discarded, is likely soon to be supplanted by the Norfolk plough.

The rotation of crops, as applicable to the soil and climate, is pretty well understood, and absolute fallows are rarely, if ever, seen. Wheat crops, cut early in Aug. previous, according to the old calendar, of 5 qrs. per acre, and the gross yearly produce is said to amount to 13,000 qrs. of wheat and 3,200 qrs. of barley. But the culture of neither wheat, barley, nor oats, is found to be profitable, and they are therefore chiefly imported. Potatoes are raised in large quantities, the returns sometimes exceeding 60,000 lbs. per acre; but the sea-weed used as manure gives them an unpleasant flavour. Parsnips and mangel-würzel are largely cultivated. Lucerne is highly in favour with the farmers, as it will grow on soils unfit for other purposes: four crops in a year are not unusual, and the land is afterwards fed off. A large portion of the cultivable land (one quarter, according to Quayles) is occupied by apple trees, and the exports of apples and cider have been steadily increasing for some years, the export of the latter amounting to 2,000 hhds. a year, according to the latest returns. The annual yield of apples averages 20 hhds. per acre. The *pear-maine* is a good eating apple; but the pride of the island is the *chassanetle* pear, about a pound in weight, and sold occasionally at the rate of 5*s.* per hundred. The common pear is also well esteemed, and pears, apples, melons, and strawberries are abundant, and noted for size and flavour. Timber trees grow in the hedge-rows, and unite with the fruit trees in giving to the scenery softness and richness rarely equalled. "In fact," says Mr. Inglis, "Jersey appears like an extensive pleasure-ground, one immense park, thickly studded with trees, beautifully undulating, and dotted with cottages." (i. p. 25.) The manure universally used in dressing the land is seaweed or *vrac*, the gathering of which is restricted by the island legislature to two seasons, the middle of March and the end of July, time of the greatest scarcity of the nature. On grass lands the *vrac* is used in its natural state; but for other purposes it is burnt. Cattle breeding is a favourite and highly profitable pursuit here, and in the other Channel Islands; and the treasure highest in a Jerseyman's estimation is his cow. (*Quayles' Agric. Survey.*)

The Jersey cow (usually called the Alderney cow in England) materially differs from that of Guernsey, which is larger, and resembles the short-horned Devonshire breed. It has a fine, curved, tapering horn, slender, not fine skin, and deer-like form. Its purity is maintained by breeding in and in; and in order to preserve the breed intact, the legislature has prohibited the importation of other breeds under heavy penalties. Milch cows produce daily, at an average, 10 quarts of milk, and 1 lb. of butter (8 quarts of the former producing 1 lb. of the latter), the yearly produce of a cow being estimated at 10*l.* The price of a good cow varies from 10*l.* to 18*l.* The butter is chiefly sent for sale to St. Helier's market, or exported to England; the quantity sent thither in 1830 amounted to 26,000 lbs. Sheep are little reared. The Jersey horse is a cross of the Cossack, procured through the residence of some Russian cavalry on the island in 1800: it is a strong hard-working animal; but no attention is paid to the improvement of the breed. The oyster fishery employs many of the natives; but lately it has been on the decline, owing to the competition of the French fishermen of Granville. The fishery is most active from Feb. to May, and the exports of oysters in 1835 amounted to 150,000 bushels. In the same year 1,470 dozen lobsters were sent to London from Jersey. The oyster and lobster fishery, formerly highly productive, has been almost superseded by the deep-sea cod fishery, which employs nearly 80 vessels of 8,000 tons, and gives employment during the summer to 1,300 Jerseymen. The fish are chiefly sent to Brazil, 16,000 barrels, of 128 lbs. each, being sent thither in 1835.

The trade of Jersey has increased rapidly during the

last 50 years, and its commercial relations, formerly confined to England and France, now extend to the chief countries of Europe, the W. Indies, and S. America. This increasing prosperity is proved by the returns of ships belonging to St. Helier's. That port, in 1817, had only 79 vessels of 8,167 tons; whilst in 1837 (after a gradual increase) it had 244 ships of 23,326 tons, exclusive of about 50 fishing smacks, chiefly used in the oyster fisheries. Indeed, so great has been the increase of business of late years, that the erection of a new and larger pier at St. Helier's is in contemplation. The trade with England is subject to certain regulations intended to prevent contraband traffic; but every article of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Jersey is admitted into the mother country on payment of the duties imposed on similar commodities grown, produced, or manufactured here. The island receives from England, its general merchant, cotton and woollen fabrics, and hosiery, hardware and cutlery, earthenware and glass, soap and candles, and about 30,000 tons of coals yearly, in exchange for which it sends apples and cider, cattle, potatoes and potato-spirit, oysters, and granite. The imports from France consist of wine and brandy (70,000 gall. of the former and 50,000 gall. of the latter), skins, fruit, and poultry, for which coals, bricks, and potatoes are sent in exchange. The island is supplied with fir and oak timber (1,400 loads of fir and 500 ditto of oak yearly) from Sweden and Norway, with hemp, linen fabric, and calico, from Russia, with wheat and barley (about 20,000 bushels annually) from Prussia and Denmark, and with cheese, Geneva, and tiles, from Holland; the exports to these countries chiefly consisting of coffee and sugar from Brazil, with which this island has extensive dealings, employing 20 ships of 4,000 tons, and importing thence about 600 tons of sugar, and 4,700 cwt. of coffee. The imports from Spain, Portugal, and Sicily, average yearly 70,000 gall. of wine and 100,000 gall. of brandy. The Jersey merchants also trade with Honduras for mahogany, sent chiefly to England. The manufacturing industry of the island is almost confined to ship-building, shoe-making, and hosiery. Ship-building is carried on to a considerable extent, in consequence of the timber imported into the island being exempted from all duty; though, if it be proper to lay a duty on the timber employed in ship-building in Britain, it is not easy to see why timber employed for the same purpose in Jersey should be exempted from the duty. Shoe-making is pretty extensively carried on, and about 13,000 pairs of boots and shoes, chiefly of French leather, are sent annually to British N. America. The hosiery business has greatly declined, owing to the use of machine-made stockings; and the persons now employed in it depend almost entirely on the demand of the island. The communication with England is kept up by means of steamers to and from Southampton four times a week, and by mail-packets twice a week to and from Weymouth. On the arrival of the steamers from Southampton, packets leave for St. Malo and Granville, returning on the alternate days. Traders are constantly sailing to and from London, Bristol, and other English ports.

The vernacular language of the island is French, which is used in the churches and courts of law: the upper ranks speak it in its purity, but the lower classes speak Jersey-French, a *patois* compounded of old Norman French with Gallicised English. English, however, is becoming daily more prevalent, and most of the country people understand and speak it. "The Jersey men, especially the lower orders, are characterised by blunt independence, often amounting to *bravuerie*, excessive love of gain, and unceasing industry. The minute division of property prevents them from acquiring an independence, while at the same time the actual ownership of land protected by legal privileges, gives them a freedom of sentiment which no tenant at will can enjoy. Their parsimony, however, is not only prejudicial to themselves, as leading them to begrudge provender to their most valuable cows, but is also injurious to others, whom they overreach in bargaining." (*Anglia*.) Their fare is simple and inexpensive, consisting principally of *soupe-d-choux*, a compound of lard, cabbage, and potatoes: conger-eel soup and pickled pork are rarities reserved for festive occasions. The chamoiselle pear is commonly eaten with tea; cider is the general substitute for beer. The higher classes seldom give entertainments or exchange civilities, and are much divided by party spirit. The old parties of *Magot* and *Charlot* have given way to the liberal *Rose* and the exclusive high church and state *Laurel*. Literature is forgotten amid island politics; and even the press, so powerful an engine in England, has scarcely any influence in Jersey. The English residents must be considered as a class quite distinct from the natives, with whom they have little intercourse; they amount to about 4,000, being chiefly half-pay officers with their families, attracted by the cheapness of living and the mildness of the climate.

The revenues of Jersey have greatly increased of late

years, for at an average of the three years ending with 1812, they only amounted to 4,600*l.* a year, whereas, in 1836, they exceeded 14,600*l.*, arising from licenses to tavern-keepers, market-tolls, harbour-dues, duties on wine and spirits, &c. These revenues, after the current expenses of the government and the interest on the public debt (amounting in 1840 to 61,276*l.*) have been paid, are applied to the public works and general improvement of the island. The expense of the militia and English troops (exceeding 20,000*l.* yearly) is defrayed by the British government, and the salaries of the governor and his officers are provided for from the great tithes of the 12 parishes. French and Spanish coins were until lately current in Jersey; but in 1832 the French government called in its old silver coins, since which time English sovereigns and silver have been commonly circulated. The exchange varies from 8 to 9 per cent. in favour of England, so that an English shilling passes for 13*d.*, and a sovereign for 1*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* Jersey currency.

Jersey and Guernsey have long enjoyed peculiar privileges granted by John and succeeding monarchs. No process in either of the islands, commenced before an island magistrate, can be carried out of it, and no person convicted of felony *out* of the said islands is to forfeit his inheritance in them, so as to deprive his heirs of their lawful possessions. They are exempted from the jurisdiction of the British courts, except that of the admiralty, and have an immunity from all taxes except what are voted by the island legislature.

Jersey is governed by a local legislature, and a distinct judicature under the ultimate control of the sovereign in council. The legislative assembly, called the states, consists of 36 members, viz. 12 jurors elected for life by the rate-payers of the island, the 12 rectors of the 12 parishes into which Jersey is divided, and the 12 constables of parishes chosen triennially by the parishioners. It is convened by the bailiff, who always presides, either in person or by deputy; and its chief business is to raise money for the public service, and to pass laws for the government of the island; which, however, continue in force only 3 years, unless ratified by the sovereign in council. The governor, as the king's representative, has a *veto* on all the proceedings of the states, but never uses it, except in cases which concern "the special interest of the crown." The Jersey court of judicature, called the "royal court," is composed of the bailiff, who here represents the sovereign, and of the same 12 jurors who sit in the states. The officers are, the attorney-general, solicitor-general, high-sheriff or viscount clerk, or *greffier*, and 6 pleaders appointed by the bailiff, and styled *avocats de barreau*. This court has cognisance of all pleas, suits, and actions, whether real, personal, or criminal, arising within the island, except cases of treason and coining, which are referred to the sovereign in council. A code of laws, compiled in 1771, and sanctioned by the king, is the fundamental statute law; but it is extremely defective, and is continually changed by the enactment of new laws. The custom of gavelkind obtains, with respect to the disposal of real property: the eldest son, however, by common usage, takes half the estate, and the other half is divided. Personal property may be devised, but when left intestate is divided among the children, 2-3rds going to sons, and 1-3rd to daughters. Debts are recoverable by legal process in the royal court. Insolvents may be compelled to give up (*renoncer*) their property, for the benefit of creditors, and either the *vicome* may sequestrate it, to pay demands entered against it, or the court may grant the debtor a respite of a year and a day for payment of his debts. Persons not possessing land or houses may be arrested for debt; but property is attached before the person; and landed proprietors cannot be imprisoned till after judgment. Debts contracted in England may be sued for in Jersey, if not of more than 6 years' standing; debts contracted in Jersey are recoverable within 10 years.

The military government of the island is conducted by a lieutenant-governor, who has the custody of the fortresses, and the command of both the regular troops and militia. The chief fortresses are Fort Regent, Elizabeth Castle, and Mt. Orgueil Castle, all on the S. coast. The island is further defended by a chain of martello towers, redoubts, and batteries which encircle it. The militia, in which all male natives, from the age of 17 to 65, are liable to serve, comprises 6 regiments and 2,500 men, exclusive of an artillery battalion of 600 men. The regular troops in time of peace seldom exceed 300 men; but 7,000 men were quartered in the island during last war. Since the reign of James I., the church of England has been the established religion of Jersey, which is under the ecclesiastical direction of the bishop of Winchester. Every par. has a church, and the service is usually performed in French, except at St. Helier's, where English is the language of the congregation. The Independents, Wesleyans, and Baptists have chapels in which service is conducted both in French and English; and there are two places of wor-

ship for Rom. Catholics. Two free grammar-schools were established in Jersey in the 15th century; but the endowments are small. Two public schools on the national system were established by subscription some years since, and are now in successful operation.

The remains of Roman fortifications and the discovery of coins belonging to the emperors, prove Jersey to have been a military station, and under the Franks it formed a part of the region called Neustria. The Normans invaded the Channel Islands in the 9th century; and when the duchy of Normandy was annexed to the crown of England at the Conquest, they came under the British dominion. The French have repeatedly tried to wrest from us these islands, which, by their proximity to the coast of France, seem to be their natural property; but they have uniformly failed. The last attempt was made in 1781 by a detachment of 700 soldiers, under the Baron de Rullecourt, who surprised and captured the garrison, but were finally compelled to escape to their vessels after a desperate encounter with the native militia under Major Plesion, in the streets of St. Helier's. (*Cassini*; *Englis's Channel Islands*, vol. i. *passim*; *Quey's Agricultural Survey of Jersey*; *Geol. Transl.* vol. i.)

JERSEY (NEW), one of the U. S. of America, in the N.E. part of the Union, between lat. 39° 54' and 41° 20' N., and long. 74° and 79° 30' W.; having N. and N.E. New York; W. Pennsylvania; S.W. and S. Delaware Bay; and E. the Atlantic. Length, N. to S., 170 m.; average breadth about 40 m.; area, 6,300 sq. m. Pop. (1840), 373,306, of whom 674 were slaves. A great part of the E. shore is skirted by a chain of low islands, similar to those on the coasts of the more southerly maritime states, but with more numerous, larger, and deeper inlets between them. Great Egg Harbour, Little Egg Harbour, Barnegat, Tomsbay, Shark Inlet, and the united bays of Neversink and Shrewsbury, afford shelter to vessels of considerable burden. The S. half of the state is low, level, sandy, and in many parts barren; but N. of an imaginary line drawn between the mouth of the Shrewsbury river and Bordentown, about lat. 40° 10', the surface is overgrown with several hill-ranges, abounding with rich scenery; and the coast is skirted by the Neversink hills, the only heights of any consequence in the Union near the ocean. A mountain region rising abruptly from the hilly country, occupies the N. part of the state, which at its N. extremity comprises a portion of the Alleghany chain. The Hudson forms the N.E. boundary for about 35 m. The river next in importance is the Delaware, which divides this state from Pennsylvania. The other chief rivers are, the Raritan, which rises in the hilly country, within 5 m. of the Delaware, and falls into Amboy Bay after a course of 70 m., 16 of which are navigable; and the Passaic and Hackensack, which fall into the small bay of Newark.

The difference of the climate of the N. and S. parts of the state is very striking. The plain country of the S. is warmer than might have been expected from its lat., the temperature approximating to that of K. Virginia, and admitting of the culture of cotton; while the winter in the N. assimilates in severity to that of the N. states. In the upper part of the state, and along the banks of the rivers, there is some good land; but the surface is in general either sandy or marshy, and it is chiefly by the unrelenting industry of its inhabs., who till lately have been principally engaged in agriculture, that New Jersey has been rendered so productive as it is. Wheat, rye, barley, oats, maize, buckwheat, potatoes, &c. are cultivated; and in the higher parts of the state large herds of black cattle and sheep are reared. In 1836, the stock of sheep was 250,000, producing 912,500 lbs. of wool, worth 410,000 dollars. Large quantities of butter and cheese of superior quality are made. The only wild quadrupeds now met with are the racoon and fox; the fisheries are productive, and employ many of the inhabitants. Iron in the mountains, and bog iron ore in the marshes, form the most important mineral products; but there is abundance of marble, limestone, peat, clay, sand of fine quality, copper, zinc, &c. The principal articles brought to market are cattle, fruit, iron, faxseed, butter, cheese, cider, hams, &c. New York and Philadelphia are the chief outlets for the surplus produce, New Jersey being very advantageously situated between those cities. The exports elsewhere are trifling. Manufactures are already extensive, and increasing; the principal are those of iron. It is estimated, in a work published in 1840, that 1,200 tons of bar-iron, 1,200 tons of pig-iron, and 80 tons of nails, besides large quantities of hollow ware, sheet-iron, and nail-roads, are annually made.

Paterson is one of the principal manufacturing towns in the U. States, and is well supplied with water-power by the Passaic. Its principal products are cotton, linen, and woollen goods; paper, buttons, &c. Manufactories of glass, leather, shoes, carriages, gunpowder, &c. are established in different places.

In 1836, there were 51 cotton-mills in the state, producing annually about 8,133,700 yards of cotton cloth. The internal communications are generally good; the Morris Canal, 101 m. in length, by 80 to 22 ft. wide, and 4 ft. deep, extends across the state, from Jersey city, or the Hudson, to Delaware river. The Delaware and Raritan Canal, 42 m. long., from Bordentown to New Brunswick, is 7 ft. deep, and 73 ft. wide at its surface, and therefore adapted to vessels of considerable burden. It is connected with the Chesapeake, Delaware, and Dismal Swamp canals, and effects a continuous water communication between New York city and Albemarle Sound. Another canal, 4 m. long, connects Salem Creek with the Delaware river; and several others have been projected. Three railroads were completed in 1837, the principal of which, from Camden to Amboy, a distance of 61 m., in the N. part of the state, was finished in 1832. The second, 164 m. in length, from Paterson to Jersey city, was finished in 1834; and the third, from New Brunswick, through Newark, to the Hudson river, in 1838.

This state is divided into 14 counties: Trenton, on the Delaware, is the capital and seat of government. It probably owes this rank to its central position only, since it has not above half the pop. or wealth of New Brunswick or Newark. Elizabeth, Burlington, Somerville, and Paterson, are the remaining chief towns.

The constitution framed in 1776 has continued, with little variation, to the present day. The government is vested in a legislative council of 14 mems., and a general assembly of 50 mems., all of whom are annually elected by the free white male citizens, who have resided in the state for the preceding year, and who pay taxes. The governor is also chosen annually by the joint vote of the council and assembly. The governor and council form a court of appeal and pardon. The salary of the former is 2,000 dollars, with fees. The rest of the judicial authority is vested in a supreme court, a court of chancery held at Trenton, circuit courts, and courts of *oyer and terminer*, held in most of the cos. four times a year; and inferior courts of common pleas, which, with courts of quarter sessions of the peace, are held in the different cos. by judges chosen by the legislature, and receiving no salary. The state penitentiary at Lambertop had, in 1838, 163 prisoners. In 1837, the state had 33 banks, with a united capital of 10,675,000 dollars. The school fund, established in 1816, had in 1838 a capital of 280,437 dollars. The college of New Jersey, established at Elizabeth Town, in 1746, has been removed to Princeton, where it occupies a spacious edifice. It has a museum and philosophical apparatus, 3 libraries, with 11,000 vols., and, in 1838, had 940 students; in 1839, 39 periodical publications were issued in the state. A great part of the pop. are Quakers.

The earliest settlement of New Jersey was made by the Dutch, in 1612. Many Swedes and Danes afterwards settled in it, but the Dutch continued to possess it until finally expelled by the English, in 1664. In 1682, it came under the jurisdiction of Penn and his associates. It took an active part in the revolutionary war, and suffered proportionally. New Jersey sends 6 mems. to congress. (*Darby's View*, &c.; *Mitchell's U. S.*; *American Encyclopedia*; *American Ann.* 1834 to 1840.)

JERUSALEM (Heb. *Kadushah*; Gr. *Kadibus* by Herodotus, and *Iερουσαλα* by Strabo and later writers; mod. Arab. *El-Koddes*), a famous city of Palestine, interesting from its high antiquity, but far more from its intimate connection with the history of the Jews, and the eventful life of the great Founder of Christianity; 128 m. S. S. W. Damascus, 33 m. E. Jaffa, and 76 m. S. by E. Acree; lat. 31° 46' 34" N., long. 35° 31' 34" E. Pop., according to the official report of Mr. Consul Moore, 10,000, of whom about two thirds are Mohammedans. The pop. has been estimated by some travellers at 20,000; but it has not had so many inhab. for some years, except at Easter, when the Moslem and Christian pilgrims swell the pop. to nearly a half more than its ordinary amount. The city stands on a hill, between two small valleys, in one of which, on the W., the brook Gihon runs with a S.E. course, to join the brook Kedron, in the narrow valley of Jehoshaphat, E. of Jerusalem. The first view of the city from the W. is thus described by Robinson:—"As we approach Jerusalem, the road becomes more and more rugged, and all appearance of vegetation ceases: the rocks are scantily covered with soil, the

verdure is burnt up, and there is an entire absence of animal life. A line of embattled walls, above which rose a few cupolas and minarets, suddenly presented itself to my view. I was disappointed in its general appearance; but this feeling originated not so much from the aspect of the town as from the singularity of its position, surrounded by mountains, without any cultivated land to be seen, and not on any high road." (*Pal. and Syr.* i. p. 36.) The opposite view, however, from the Mount of Olives, is much more attractive, for it commands the whole of the city, and nearly every particular building, including the church of the Holy Sepulchre, the Armenian convent, the mosque of Omar, St. Stephen's gate, the round-topped houses, and the barren vacancies within its circ. (*Henniker's Trav.* p. 174.) The modern city, built about 300 years ago, is entirely surrounded by walls, barely $2\frac{1}{2}$ m. in circ., flanked here and there with square towers. The four principal gates are those of Damascus and Jaffa on the W., that of Zion on the S., and St. Stephen's on the E. The interior is divided by 2 valleys, intersecting each other at right angles into 4 hills, on which history, sacred and profane, has stamped the imperishable names of Zion, Acra, Bezetha, and Moriah. Zion is now the Armenian and Jewish quarter; Acra is better known as the lower city and Christian quarter; while the mosque of Omar, with its sacred inclosure (called by the Turks *el Haram Sherref*), occupies the hill of Moriah. The streets are narrow, like those of all Syrian towns; the houses, except those belonging to the Turks, shabby, and the shops poorly supplied. Dr. E. Robinson, of the U. States, however, remarks, "that he was agreeably disappointed, and found the houses better built, and the streets cleaner, than those of Alexandria, Smyrna, or Constantinople." (*Geog. Journ.* ix. p. 299.) The public buildings are not numerous, and excepting those consecrated to religious worship, there are none worthy of notice. The baths also and bazaars are mostly inferior to similar establishments in other parts of the E.

The boundaries of the old city, said by Pliny to be *longe clarissima urbium Orientis non Judæa modo* (*Hist. Nat.* lib. v. § 13.), are so imperfectly marked, that no fact can be deduced respecting them from the elaborate researches of D'Anville, Clarke, Niebuhr, and others, save only that they varied at different periods; and that, when most extensive, at the æra of its destruction, its treble row of walls embraced a circuit of 33 stadia, including Mount Moriah, Mount Zion, Acra, Bezetha, &c. (*Relandi Palestina*, p. 835.) But the walls having been wholly destroyed, it is impossible to trace their exact situation.* It is impossible also to describe in detail the many spots within the modern city which blind superstition or minute criticism has fixed on as the scenes of events connected with the history of the patriarchs, and the sufferings of Christ; but some places are ascertained beyond a doubt, which all travellers visit with interest, and which command universal respect. There can, for example, be no question, that the mount (Moriah) on which the mosque of Omar now

stands was once crowned with the *House of the Lord*, built by Solomon, at a cost and with a magnificence of which we can form no adequate idea (1 Kings, caps. vi. and vii.). This great glory Judea, after standing for above 400 years, was first rifled, and soon after destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon. A second temple, built on the site of the first, by the Jews, after their return from the Babylonish captivity, was so much enlarged and improved by Herod the Great, as to be little inferior to that of Solomon. Tacitus calls it, *immensa opulenta templum*; and he truly adds, *nulla intus Decum effigie, vacuum sedem, et inania arcana*. (*Hist. lib. v. § 8, 9.*) Notwithstanding the efforts of Titus for its preservation, this structure, the palladium of the Jewish nation, was totally destroyed during the siege of Jerusalem, A. D. 70. The mosque of Omar, which occupies this sacred site, stands on an elevated four-sided plateau, about 1,500 ft. long, and 1,000 ft. broad, supported on all sides by massive walls, built up from the lower ground. The lowest portion of these walls is supposed by Dr. Robinson to belong to the ancient temple, and to be referable to the time of Herod at least, if not of Nehemiah and Solomon. The mosque, *el Sakhara*, the erection of which was begun by the caliph Omar, in 637, is of an octagonal shape, surmounted by a lead-covered dome, above which is a glittering crescent. It has four entrances, one of which, towards the N., is adorned by a fine portico, supported by eight Corinthian pillars of marble. Its 48 windows are of stained glass, and the walls are faced below with blue and white marble, and above with glazed tiles of various colours, forming a beautiful mosaic of texts from the Koran. It is altogether a fine specimen of light and elegant Oriental architecture; and the building contrasts singularly with the severity of the surrounding scenery. The interior is not allowed to be entered except by the followers of the prophet; and Dr. Richardson, an English physician, is one of only four Christians who have been admitted within its walls. (See *Robinson's Pal.*, vol. i. Append. p. 290.) "The arrangements," he remarks, "are so managed as to keep up the external octagonal shape. The inside of the wall is white, and without ornament; and the floor is of grey marble. A little within the W. door, is a flat polished slab of green marble, forming part of the floor, and regarded with peculiar respect by the Mohammedans; a little beyond is a series of 24 blue marble pillars supporting the roof, and inside these are 4 large square columns, forming the support of the dome, which rises about 100 ft. above the floor. The central part is railed round, a single door admitting the devotee to the sacred stone, called the *Hadjr el Sakhara*, on which is shown the print of Mahomet's foot when he was translated to heaven. The whole interior is extremely beautiful, and the effect is much heightened by the blending of colours in the pillars that run round the mosque." (*Richardson's Travels in the Med.*, &c., vol. ii. p. 366.) Within the same enclosure, near its S. wall, is another mosque, of square shape, called *El-Aksa*. The cupola is spherical, and ornamented with arabesque paintings and gildings of great beauty. Between the mosques is a handsome marble fountain for ablutions. On the opposite side of the city, in the Latin quarter, called *Harat el Nassara*, is the church of the Holy Sepulchre, a building in the Byzantine style, erected by Helena, mother of Constantine the Great, in the centre of a court or enclosure, filled at pilgrim-

* Josephus most distinctly says that the Romans left only the W. wall standing, with the towers Phasias, Hippicus, and Mariamme, and that the remainder was reared to the ground. Τὸ δ' ἄλλο ἀπὸ τῆς πόλεως περιέβαλον ὄντες ἱερουσαλὴν αἱ κατεσκαπέντες, ἀπὸ μὲν πάντες εὐκρίτους εἶναι, ἐπὶ τῇ παλαιᾷ οὐκ ἀπολείποντες. (*Jos. Ant.* lib. vii. c. 1.) This sentence of an eye-witness, and the knowledge that two subsequent and very destructive sieges left scarcely any remains even of a more recent city, suffice to show how little credit is due to any of those antiquarian speculations, however ingenious.

time with pedlars of every description, especially venders of relics and rosaries. The building resembles Rom. Catholic churches in general, but is greatly inferior, notwithstanding its valuable marbles, to many of the sacred edifices in Rome. Immediately in front of the entrance, which is guarded by Moslem soldiers (who receive a tax from all the pilgrims), is a slightly elevated marble slab, called the "stone of unction," on which, according to the monks, our Lord's body was laid, to be anointed by Joseph of Arimathea; and near it are 17 steps, conducting to the supposed Mount Calvary, now a handsome dome-covered apartment several ft. above the floor of the church, floored and lined with the richest Italian marbles: in the crypt beneath is a circular silver plate with an aperture in the centre, through which the arm reaches the identical hole in which the cross was fixed! The great object of interest, however, is the Holy Sepulchre itself, an oblong structure 15 ft. long by 10 ft. in breadth, roofed in with a handsome ceiling corresponding to the richness of the silver, gold, and marble decorating its interior: it stands directly under the great dome of the church, and is divided into two chambers, the first containing the stone on which the angel sat when he addressed the affrighted women, "Why seek ye the living among the dead? he is not here, but is risen," and the other being the sepulchre to which he pointed, saying, "Behold the place where they laid him." The inner compartment, lined with *verd antique*, is only large enough to allow four persons to stand by the side of a plain white marble sarcophagus of the ordinary dimensions, over which hang 7 large and 44 smaller lamps, always kept burning. Around the large circular hall, which is surrounded by a gallery supported on pillars, and roofed by a vast dome, are oratories for the Syrians, Copts, Maronites, and other sects who have not, like the Greeks, Armenians, and Roman Catholics, chapels in the body of the church. The Greek chapel at the E. end of the hall is parted off by a curtain, and is incomparably the most elegant and highly decorated: the Latin chapel closely resembles those seen in Italy, and has a gallery with a fine organ: that belonging to the Armenians is in the gallery. Various parts of the church are pointed out by monks and pilgrims, as the scenes of certain events connected with the last sufferings of Christ; and to such an extent is superstition carried, that a stone is exhibited and gravely declared to be that on which our Saviour was placed, when put in the stocks! The faith, indeed, of intelligent men is most severely tested during a visit to this church: there cannot, however, be a doubt that it stands on the hill of Calvary, and it probably includes the site of the crucifixion; but there seems to be little ground for the assumption, that the tomb and site of the cross were so near to each other as to be inclosed by the same building. In an antichamber near the entry are several relics, the most authentic probably of which are the sword and spurs of Godfrey of Bouillon. The tombs of Godfrey and his brother Baldwin were destroyed during a fire which took place in 1808, and have not been restored, owing to the ill-will felt by the Greek Christians towards the Romish church, to which these monarchs belonged. Westward of the church just described in the *Harât-el-Nassara*, or Christians' Street, is the Franciscan convent of St. Salvador, called by way of distinction *Il Convento della Terra Santa*, a large stone building, having several courts and

gardens enclosed within a strong wall. The funds are supplied by contributions sent from Rome and other Catholic countries, and the inmates comprise from 60 to 80 monks, chiefly Italian and Spanish, by whom European strangers visiting the Holy City are hospitably entertained. The church attached to the convent is gaudily furnished with candlesticks, images, &c., and has a good organ. E. of the above stands the Greek monastery, a well supported establishment with a small subterranean church. The city castle, close to the gate of Jaffa, is supposed to have been built on the ruins of the *Turris Prephina* of old Jerusalem: it comprises a few towers connected by curtains, and has a few old guns mounted on broken carriages. Close by it, on the ascent to the hill of Zion, is the Armenian convent, in the best-looking district of the city, comprising within its precincts rooms sufficient to accommodate a thousand pilgrims, and a large garden: the conventual church is spacious, and most elaborately ornamented; the floor is paved in the most delicate mosaic. E. of the convent is a small Armenian chapel, marking the site of the house of Anna, the high-priest; and just outside the gate of Zion is another chapel, supposed to occupy the site of the house of Calaphas: these positions seem to be far from improbable. (Compare *Joseph. Antiq.* lib. xviii. c. 3. with St. John xviii. 24.) Not a vestige remains of the ancient buildings on Mount Zion, where David built a palace, his own residence, and that of his successors, whence it was emphatically called the "City of David." Its limits are, however, well defined by the aqueduct which conveyed water from Jerusalem to Bethlehem. The hill-side is now used as a Christian burial-ground. N. of the city, in the district called *Acra*, are the ruins of Herod's palace, and about 300 yards to the S.E., near the reputed pool of Bethesda, is the residence of the *muteslim*, or Turkish governor, supposed, though with little show of reason, to occupy the site of the prætorium of Pontius Pilate. It is a large straggling building, having a flat roof, which commands a complete view of the mosque of Omar: it stands in the principal street of the modern city, called by the Turks *Harât-el-Allam*, and by the Christians *Via Dolorosa*, the monks having fixed on it as the line of route along which our Saviour was led from the hall of judgment to Calvary. The Jewish quarter (*Harât-el-Yahoud*) occupies the hollow between the hills of Zion and Moriah: it contains 7 mean and small synagogues; and the numerous private dwellings, how comfortable soever inside, have uniformly mean and ill-built exteriors, owing, it is said, to the fear of exciting among the Mohammedans any suspicion of the wealth of the despised nation. The poorer Jews are supported by charitable contributions obtained from their fellow-countrymen in Europe, especially in Germany and Spain. (Turner, ii. 264.) The Turks reside on the E. side of the city all round the great inclosure of Mount Moriah. The suburbs of Jerusalem abound with interesting remains of less questionable antiquity and authenticity than most of those within the modern walls. Close to the gate of Jaffa is the pool of Gihon, near which, in a village of the same name, "Zadok the priest, and Nathan the prophet, anointed Solomon king over Israel" (1 Kings, i. 34.), and, at a later period, Hezekiah "stopped the upper watercourse of Gihon, and brought it straight down to the W. side of the city of David." (2 Chron. xxxii. 30.) S. of Mount Zion is the valley of Hinnom, in which are numerous tombs hollowed out of the

rock, and a building, once used by the Armenians as a charnel-house. The E. boundary of Jerusalem is formed by the valley of Jehoshaphat, which divides it from the Mount of Olives. Proceeding up this valley, the traveller soon arrives at

"Siloa's brook, that flow'd
Fast by the oracle of God."

The source of these celebrated waters, which now, at least, are brackish and sulphureous, lies close under the walls of *Harat-el-Schereef* on Mount Moriah; but the pool is rather more than $\frac{1}{2}$ m. below it. "The stream," says Mr. Robinson, "issues by an underground passage from a rock, and falls into a small basin of no great depth. It was once covered with a chapel, erected to commemorate the miraculous cure of the man born blind." (St. John, ix. 1—7.) The descent to the lower pool, which is remarkable for its daily ebbing and flowing, is by a flight of 30 steps, whence it has acquired the name of the "fountain of stairs." On the E. side of the brook Kedron, now a mere rivulet, running in a valley so closely pent up as to deserve the name of a mountain-gorge, especially at its N. extremity, are four sepulchres constructed, unlike most in Judea, above ground, and designated the tombs of the patriarchs: one of them is alleged to be the burial-place of Zacharias, the son of Barachias. (See Matt. xxiii. 29. 35.) S. of these tombs, and under the shadow of the temple of Solomon, is the favourite burial-ground of the Jews, among all of whom the dearest wish is, that they may lay their bones near those of their long-buried ancestors, and be ready for the summons of Jehovah, when He "shall come up to the valley of Jehoshaphat, and there judge all the heathen round about." (Joel, iii. 12.) Further N.E. are the gardens of Gethsemane, enclosed by a wall, and still in a sort of ruined cultivation, and the Mount of Olives, a hillock covered with stunted herbage, and with patches here and there of the tree with which it was once abundantly clothed. Here every spot has its grotto and legend, and on the hill the precise place is pointed out whence the Saviour ascended to heaven. The Empress Helena built on it a monastery, which the Turks have converted into a mosque; somewhat to the N. is the Church of the Ascension, now in the hands of the Greek Christians. N. of the bridge, over the brook Kedron, and about 250 yds. from St. Stephen's Gate, is the reputed tomb of the Virgin Mary, comprising, besides several cenotaphs, a subterraneous chapel, in which lamps are kept constantly burning, and services daily celebrated according to the rites of the Greek church. Passing thence up the bank of the Kedron, and crossing the hill Bezetha, the stranger is conducted to the excavations called "the Tombs of the Kings." The road down to them is cut in the rock, and a stone doorway leads to a kind of anti-chamber, now at least, open at the top, and measuring 50 ft. in length by 40 ft. in breadth. It is ornamented by a beautifully carved cornice, and in the S.W. corner a door, formed of a single stone slab, admirably adapted to its framework, and easily working on its hinges, leads into a series of chambers, round which are niches in the rock for the reception of the dead. It is very probable that these are the "royal caves" described by Josephus, as situated close to the N. boundary of the ancient city (see *Bell. Jud.* lib. v. c. 4.); but whether they contained the bones of the sons of David (2 Chron. xxxii. 33.) or those of Helena, queen of Adiabene (as Drs. Clarke and Pococke have supposed), is a

matter as to which no certain conclusions can be drawn.

Jerusalem, considered as a modern town, is of very slight importance. Superstition and fanaticism constitute the principal bond by which the pop., Christian, Jew, and Moslem, are held together. The Jew despises the Christian, and the follower of the prophet looks down with contempt on both; but pilgrims of each of the three creeds resort thither in such numbers as to increase the pop. nearly a half; and heavy taxes are levied on all for the benefit of the pacha. The convents are supported by wealth sent from foreign countries, and a great influx of property takes place from the thousands of annual visitors, rich and poor, so that Jerusalem draws largely on Jaffa, Damascus, Nablous, and other places; but it has no industry whatever—nothing to give it commercial importance,—unless, indeed, we may mention a trade, now almost wholly engrossed by the monks of the *Terra Santa* convent, in shells, beads, and relics, whole cargoes of which are shipped from Jaffa for Italy, Spain, and Portugal. The shells are of mother-of-pearl sculptured, and the beads are manufactured either from date-stones or a hard kind of wood called *Mecca fruit*. Rosaries and amulets are also made of the black fetid limestone, and are highly valued in the East as charms against the plague. (See *Bowring's Report on Syria*, p. 21.) The retail trade seems to be equally insignificant. "The bazaar, or street of shops," says Mr. Robinson, "is arched over, dark, and gloomy, the shops are paltry, and the merchandise exposed for sale of an inferior description. This is the only part of Jerusalem where any signs of life are shown; and even here the pulsations of the expiring city are faint and almost imperceptible, its extremities being already cold and lifeless. In the other quarters of the town you may walk about a whole day without meeting with a human creature." Well, then, may the Jews, who still indulge the hope of restoring their metropolis to its pristine greatness, lament, with the prophet Jeremiah, "From the daughter of Zion all her beauty is departed. Jerusalem hath grievously sinned; therefore, she is removed. The adversary hath spread out his hand, and the heathen hath entered into her sanctuary. All her people sigh and seek bread: see, O Lord, and consider, for I am become vile." (Lam. i. 6—11.) Nothing, indeed, can well be conceived so vile, so degrading, as the mummeries enacted in the Holy City, especially during the Easter festival. The monks, who are servants of Mammon rather than of Christ, act on these occasions as showmen, and masters of the ceremonies; and even the pilgrims, who crowd to the Sepulchre in such numbers as to make order impossible, too frequently exhibit the greatest levity and unconcern. "What a scene was before me," says Mr. Turner. "The whole church was absolutely crammed with pilgrims, men and women halloing, shouting, singing, and violently struggling to be near the Sepulchre. One man in the contention had his right ear literally torn off." (ii. 198.) A few years ago, during the representation of the blasphemous pantomime, entitled "the Holy Fire" (intended to represent the descent of the Holy Spirit), the pressure was so intense, 6,000 persons being assembled on the ground-floor, that great numbers fainted, a general confusion ensued, and upwards of 300 were either suffocated or crushed to death. (*Wilde's Narr.* vol. ii. p. 212.) In fact, the whole scene is revolting to every rational and really devout Christian. Such, however, is the strength

of superstition, that a pilgrimage to Jerusalem is still regarded, in many parts, as an act of the highest merit, and as bringing with it the assurance of eternal felicity.

The local government of Jerusalem is conducted by the *mutzellim*, or military governor; the *mula-khadi*, or chief of the police; the *mufti*, or chief judge; the *capo-verde*, or superintendent of the mosque of Omar; and the *súbaski*, or town-major; all of whom, except the *mufti*, hold their appointment under the pacha of Damascus.

Jerusalem has been usually supposed to be identical with the Salem of which Melchizedek was king in the time of Abraham, anno 1913 A.C., according to App. Usher. When the Israelites entered the Holy Land 500 years afterwards, it was in the possession of the Jebusites, descendants of Canaan. Joshua, soon after his entrance into Canaan, "fought against Jerusalem, and took it, and smote it with the edge of the sword, and set the city on fire" (Judges, i. 8.); but the citadel on Mount Zion was held by the Jebusites till they were dislodged by David, who made Jerusalem the metropolis of his kingdom, and his dwelling in "the strong-hold of Zion." (2 Sam. v. 7.) He enlarged the city and built a beautiful palace: it was further embellished by his son Solomon, who in the years 1012—1004 A.C. erected the temple already referred to. Palestine was afterwards successively invaded by the Egyptians, Assyrians, and Babylonians, the last of whom, under Nebuchadnezzar (A.C. 588,) took and destroyed the city, burnt the temple, and carried the people captive to Babylon. After a bondage of nearly 70 years the Jews were restored to their city, by Cyrus the Persian, and about anno 515 A.C. they rebuilt the temple, under the superintendence of Zerubbabel and Nehemiah. Alexander the Great is said, by Josephus, to have visited Jerusalem in peace, and to have respected the religion of the Jews; but the best critics reject this statement as inconsistent with the ascertained events in the life of Alexander, and unworthy of credit. (*Ancient Universal History*, viii. 536., 8vo.; *Milford's Greece*, vii. 533.) Ptolemy Soter, one of Alexander's generals, seized upon Syria and Palestine, sacked the Holy City, and carried off a large portion of its inhabitants to Alexandria. Later monarchs of the Macedonian empire, who attempted to introduce the pagan worship, were successfully opposed by the Maccabees, and the liberty of Judæa was at length restored, anno 165 A.C. The all-absorbing power of Rome finally put a period to Jewish independence, the whole of Syria being reduced by Pompey, and made a proconsular province. This great general, who took Jerusalem after a stout resistance, entered the temple, and explored its inmost recesses; and it is mentioned to his honour, that he touched none of the precious relics, or of the vast wealth accumulated in the sanctuary. *Victor ex illo fano nihil attigit.* (Cicero pro L. Flacco, § 28.) Jerusalem, however, was merely tributary, and had not lost its nominal sovereignty (in other and prophetic words, *the sceptre had not departed from Judah, nor a lawgiver from between his feet until Shiloh had come*, Gen. xlix. 10.) till after the birth of Christ, when it became the residence of a procurator. The repeated rebellions of the Jews at length roused the vengeance of the Romans; and, A.D. 70, the city was taken by Titus, after one of the most memorable and destructive sieges of which history has preserved any account. The Jews, though rent by intestine factions, defended themselves with invincible obstinacy; they contemptuously rejected every

proposal for a surrender, and braved alike the attacks of the Romans, and the still more dreadful attacks of famine. But their resistance was unavailing, except for their own destruction; and the city, being taken, was completely destroyed, along with the temple—three towers only being left as memorials of its existence and destruction. According to Josephus, no fewer than 1,100,000 persons fell in the siege, exclusive of above 100,000 taken prisoners. But notwithstanding what has been alleged in defence of this statement by Brotier (Notæ ad lib. v. § 13. *Hist. Taciti*) and others, there can be no reasonable doubt that it is grossly exaggerated. The statement of Tacitus would seem to be infinitely more probable, though we incline to think that even it is, perhaps, beyond the mark. "Pervicacissimus quisque illuc perfergerat; eoque seditiosus agebant. Tres duces, totidem exercitus: prælia, dolus, incendia inter ipsos, et magna vis frumenti ambusta. *Multitudinem obsessorum, omnis ætatis, virile ac muliebre secus, sexcenta millia fuisse accepimus.* Arma cunctis qui ferre possent; et plures, quam pro numero, audebant. Obstinatio viris feminisque par; ac si transferre sedes cogerentur, major vitæ metus quam mortis."* (*Hist. lib. v. c. 12. & 13.*) Adrian rased the city to the ground, ploughed up a great part of the surface, and built on its site the Roman town of Ælia Capitolina. The condition of Jerusalem at this period is well described by Milman:—

Her tale of splendour now is told and done;
Her wine-cup of festivity is spilt,
And all is o'er, her grandeur and her guilt.
Her gold is dust, and nought her music's voice;
The Hæthens o'er her perished pomp rejoice!
Her streets are raised, her maidens sold for slaves;
Her gates thrown down, her elders in their graves;
Her fountains are hid, 'mid the Gentiles' scorn,
By stealth her priesthood's holy garments worn,
On long funeral, though long accomplish'd tale
Her house is left unto her doleful.

Fall of Jerusalem.

When Christianity, in the reign of Constantine, became the established religion of the Roman empire, Jerusalem, in name at least, was restored by the zealous Helena. The idol temples were destroyed, and several churches and other buildings were erected on sites supposed to be connected with the events of Christ's history; in short, no efforts and expense were spared in the attempt to raise the Holy City to its rank as the metropolis of Christendom. The period of prosperity thus commenced terminated in 636, by the conquest of Omar, who made the city tributary, heavily taxed the pilgrims, and desecrated the site of the temple, by erecting on it a mosque in honour of Mahomet.

After being more than 400 years subject to the Arabian caliphs, Jerusalem fell into the hands of the Turks, who proved still more oppressive masters than any of their predecessors. The resentment and sympathy of the princes and people of Christendom were awakened by Peter the hermit, and the crusades were undertaken to rescue the natives and pilgrims of Palestine, and above all the holy sepulchre, from the dominion of infidels. The Christian army reached Jerusalem in the summer of 1099. "Godfrey of Bouillon erected his standard on Mount Calvary: the time of the siege was fulfilled in forty days of calamity and anguish, during which the soldiers suffered intensely from hunger and thirst. At length, on a Friday, the day and hour of the Passion, Godfrey stood victorious on the walls of Jerusalem:

* It should be acknowledged, however, that the errors of Josephus, like those of Herodotus, Diodorus, Arrian, and others, in mere numbers, may, perhaps, be ascribed less to the author's inaccuracy than to the disabused writing in MSB., in which the numerals are effected by single letters, and mistakes, though easily occurring, are detected with extreme difficulty. In general points of history and topography, Josephus's works should be considered the *vesti-mecum* of the traveller in Palestine.

his example was followed on every side by the emulation of valour; and about 460 years after the conquest of Omar, the Holy City was rescued from the Mohammedan yoke. A bloody sacrifice was offered to the God of the Christians: resistance might provoke, but neither age nor sex could mollify their implacable rage: they indulged themselves three days in a promiscuous massacre, and the infection of the dead bodies produced an epidemic disease." (*Gibbon* xi. 84.) Saladin, 88 years afterwards, appeared in arms before Jerusalem: some feeble and hasty efforts were made for its defence, but within 14 days the banners of the prophet were erected on its walls. Saphadin, the brother of Saladin, destroyed, in 1218, all that remained of the fortifications of this devoted city, and reduced the population to a servile subjection to the Mohammedans. A series of changes subsequently occurred; but Jerusalem came finally into the hands of Selim in 1519, since which the Turkish flag has always floated over its sacred places. For more than three centuries its fortunes have been stationary: crowds of pilgrims fill its streets at one season of the year, creating a temporary activity, and increasing the revenues of the Turkish officers; but at all other times its condition recalls forcibly the complaint of Jeremiah:—"The city sits solitary that was full of people: she is become as a widow: she that was great among the provinces is become tributary. Her gates are desolate. . . . All her beauty is departed. . . . Filthiness is in all her skirts."

Among the principal authorities for this article are *Richardson's Travels along the Med.*, ii. 221, &c.; *Henniker's Travels*, p. 173-198.; *Clarke*, iv. 288-294.; *Elliot's Travels in Turkey*, ii. 416-449.; *Robinson's Trav. in Pal. and Syr.*, ch. 5-9.; *Châteaubriand, Voyage*, &c., ii. 116-180.; *Wilde's Narrative*, ii. 180-259.; *Taciti Hist.*, lib. v. and vi.; *Josephus*, passim, but particularly *Jud. Bell.* i. vi. and vii.; and the *Bible*.

JESI (an. *Æstum*), a town of Central Italy, papal states, deleg. Ancona, on the Fluminesino (an. *Æsti*), 16 m. W.S.W. Ancona. Pop. about 6,000. It is walled, and has a handsome main street, three large squares, a cathedral, and six other churches, many convents, a theatre, &c. It is a bishop's see. It has manufactures of silk and worsted stockings. *Æstum* anciently bore the rank of a Roman colony. Numerous antiquities exist on the banks of the river in its neighbourhood. (*Rampoldi, Corografia*, &c.)

JESSELMERE, or JAYSULMEER, a state of N.W. Hindostan, prov. Rajpootana, subsidiary to the British, and one of the five principal Rajpoot principalities, between the 26th and 28th parallels of N. lat., and the 69th and 73d of E. long. Area estimated at 10,000 sq. m. Pop., perhaps, near 300,000. (*Burnes in Geog. Journ.* iv. 3.) Surface uneven, and intersected with rocky hills: it is not watered by any considerable stream, has little arable land, and is in many parts more fertile than the sandy desert that encompasses it. Cultivation is, consequently, very limited; and the parts which are cultivated yield only the coarser grains, which form the food of the inhab. Irrigation is effected with great labour, chiefly by means of very deep wells and tanks; but large and spacious tanks occur every 3 or 3 m., and rain water is carefully preserved, the periodical rains being scanty and uncertain. The heat of summer is oppressive, but the cold of winter is sufficiently great for the tanks to be covered with ice every morning during a part of Jan. Mineral products few; the chief are primary limestone and lithographic stone: no metals appear to be found. Wood is scarce. The better kind of houses are of stone; the others mere conical grass huts. The open nature of the country frees it from the most formidable wild animals: foxes, wolves, hyenas, and jackalls, are indeed met with, as are several kinds of antelopes, game of various kinds, wild ducks, &c.; but the uncertainty of water hinders both the animal and vegetable kingdom from thriving. Jesselmere is better suited for grazing than agriculture; but neither herds nor flocks are numerous. The horned cattle are of medium size, and of different quality: the sheep, though small, have excellent

wool. The mass of the pop. consists of Bhattie Rajpoots. The commerce of Jesselmere is perfectly insignificant; what little wealth it does possess arises from its being on the chief road between Central India and the Indus; and the duties imposed on the transit of merchandise passing by it constitutes the chief resources of its ruler. It has no exports of its own; and its only manufacture is that of woollen cloth of a very fine texture, but in no demand elsewhere. Indigo and cotton cloths are imported from Malwah, sugar from Jeypoor and Delhi, iron and brass from Nagore. From 20 to 25 thousand maunds of opium pass annually through Jesselmere to Sind; the return articles of transit thence being sulphur, assafetida, rice, and tobacco. The revenues of the rajah do not amount to 2 lacs of rupees yearly, more than half of which is derived from transit duties. The remainder is made up of fines, levies, salt taxes, and the land revenue, which latter is about 1-10th or 1-11th part of the nett produce. About 1,200 rupees are derived yearly from the salt monopoly, some portion of which article is obtained in the principality; but most of it, as well as of grain, is imported from the neighbouring states. Jesselmere contains 3 towns and 84 villages; but except in its cap., every where betrays the strongest marks of poverty.

JESSELMERE, a town of N.W. Hindostan, prov. Rajpootana, cap. of the above rajahship, 120 m. W.N.W. Jeypoor; lat. 26° 56' N., long. 70° 54' E. Pop. probably 30,000. (*Burnes*.) It is of an oval shape, about 2 m. in circuit, and surrounded by a rampart of loose stones. At its S. end is a fort built on a scarp of rock about 80 or 100 ft. higher than the city; and it presents a commanding appearance externally, and is in reality a place of considerable strength. It is of a triangular shape, its two longest sides, about 300 yards in length each, facing the W. and N. The only entrance is on the N. side, leading through several narrow and strong gates. The whole of the works are of firm substantial masonry, and comprise a vast number of towers (the natives say 176). These stud the brow of the hill on all sides, and give it a very remarkable appearance; some are as much as 40 ft. in height. The fortress is the residence of the rajah, and is supplied with water from wells 80 fathoms deep. The town is regularly laid out, and, for an eastern city, its streets are wide. Its houses are lofty, spacious, terrace-roofed, and built entirely of a hard yellow limestone, sometimes elegantly carved. Some opulent merchants reside at Jesselmere, it being on the great commercial route from Malwah to the port of Karachi. (*Burnes in Geog. Journ.* iv. 108-118.)

JESSORE, a distr. of British India, presid. and prov. Bengal, chiefly between the 23d and 24th degs. of N. lat.; and the 89th and 90th of E. long.; having N. the main stream of the Ganges, separating it from the distr. Rajshayee; E. Duca and Backergunge; W. Nudda and the 24 Fergannah, and S. the Bay of Bengal. Length, N. to S., about 160 m.; average breadth, 32 m. Area, 5,180 sq. m. Pop. (1832) 1,183,990. It is a fast country, intersected by numerous interlacing branches of the Ganges; its S. part comprises a portion of the region called the Sunderbunds; and on the shore are many extensive marshes, in which salt is largely made on government accounts. The soil is very fertile, and a good deal of rice is grown. Indigo, tobacco, mulberry, betel nut, and long pepper, are also raised; but a great proportion of the land is uncultivated, and covered with jungle. Chief towns, Jessore or Moorley, the residence of the Zillah authorities, Culna, and Mahnudpoor. Land revenue (1829-30), 120,988*l.* (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*; *Parl. Reports*.)

JEYPOOR, or JYEPOR, a city of N.W. Hindostan, prov. Rajpootana, cap. of a subsidiary state of the same name, in a barren valley, 150 m. S.W. Delhi; lat. 26° 57' N., long. 75° 27' E. Pop. estimated at 600,000. It is altogether the handsomest and most regularly built city of Hindostan. It is surrounded by a battlemented wall of grey stone, flanked with towers, and defended or commanded by a citadel and a line of forts on the adjacent heights, a few hundred feet in elevation. Jeypore is laid out, like most modern European and American cities, in regularly square blocks of houses. A main street, 3 m. long, and about 40 yards broad, traverses it W. to E., and is crossed at right angles by four others of equal width, though much shorter. At the points of intersection are spacious market-places, and there are two good squares, which, like the principal streets, are crowded with shops. The great thoroughfares are, however, disfigured by hovels, platforms, and stalls, erected along the centre of them, which detract greatly from their appearance. The houses are generally 2 stories high, but some are 3 or 4 stories, with ornamented windows and balconies, and are often adorned with frescoes and sculptures. The chief public edifice of Jeypore is a magnificent palace, constructed, it is said, by an Italian architect, in the 18th century, for the rajah Jey Singh, under whose reign this city was one of the principal seats of Hindoo learning. This palace, with its fine gardens, occupies about 1-6th

part of the city: a sketch and account of it may be found in the *Med. Trav.* v. 52. Jeypoor has numerous temples, in the purest Hindoo style, and some are of larger dimensions than are to be found in any other city of Upper Hindostan. (*Heber's Boileau, in Asiat. Journ.* 1833. li. 200.; *Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.* &c.)

JHYLUM, JELUM, or BHEUT (an. *Hydaspes*), a river of the Punjab, Hindostan, which rises in the S.E. extremity of Cashmere, and, after a course of about 450 m., at first N.W. or W., and afterwards S.W., joins the Chamb (Aconine), about lat. $31^{\circ} 10'$ N. During most part of its course it is not fordable; and at Jaisalpor, in lat. $25^{\circ} 40'$, it has been proved, even when not at its highest point, 1,500 broad, and 14 ft. deep. It is correctly described by Arrian as "muddy and rapid," having a current of 3 or 4 m. an hour. Its banks are interesting as the scenes of several of the exploits of Alexander, but it is impossible to indicate their localities. Not far from the Jhylum is the famous *slope* of Manyakala. (*See PUNJAB, INDUS, &c.*)

JIDDA. *See DIBBDA.*

JOANNINA. *See YANNINA.*

JOHANNISBERG, or MOUNT ST. JOHN, a hill famous for its vineyards, which exists, in the shape of Nassau, near the E. base of the Rhine, on the N. side of the distr. called the *Rhinquess*, 16 m. W. by N. from Mentz. This hill formerly belonged to an abbey, the monks of which planted the vineyard towards the end of the 11th century. It comprises, excluding the portion which produces only ordinary wine, about 63 arpents; and its produce in average years is estimated at about 25 tons of 1,500 bottles each. The soil is composed of the *débris* of various coloured stratified marls. The grapes are gathered as late as possible, or when they are dead ripe. Its choicest produce, called *Schloss-Johannisberger*, is admitted to be the very finest of all the Rhemish wines, being distinguished by its high flavour and perfume, by an almost total want of acidity, and by its being improved the longer it is kept. The finest growths in the best years fetch enormous prices, sometimes as much as 15 s. the bottle! The vintages of 1779, 1783, 1801, 1811, and 1823, enjoy a high reputation. Schreiber says that the vineyard is worth from 75,000 to 80,000 l. a year net revenue. After the secularisation of the abbey of Fulda, this vineyard became successively the property of the late king of the Netherlands, Maximilian, and Prince Metternich's present owner, to whom it was presented by the late emperor of Austria. The prince has repaired the castle, which he occasionally occupies. (*Schreiber, Guide du Rhin*, p. 176.; *Henderson on Wines*, p. 233. &c.)

JOHN'S (ST.), a city and sea-port of New Brunswick, on the S. coast, and the largest and most important town, though not the cap. of that colony. It is built on rocky and very irregular ground on a small peninsula, on the N. side of the St. John river, near its mouth, in the Bay of Fundy, $40^{\circ} 30'$ W. S. W. Halifax, and 100° E. N. E. Annapolis, in the State of Maine, lat. $45^{\circ} 30'$ N., long. $65^{\circ} 30'$ W. Pop. (1834) 12,895. Its harbour is commodious and spacious; and though a bar across its entrance dries at low water, and the rise of the tides is such (from 25 to 30 ft.) that large vessels enter the port at high water. The entrance to the harbour is between a bold headland bounding the river to the E., and Partridge Island, about 2 m. S. of the town, which has a lighthouse and a fort. Another fortress guards the harbour, at Carleton, opposite St. John's, and on a commanding height immediately above the town itself is Fort Howe, now in ruins. At ebb tide, a mud flat extends for some distance in front of St. John's; but at high water it is covered, and the aspect of the place is most imposing. A projecting rock separates the town into the upper and lower coves. The former, containing the wharfs and warehouses, is the principal division; but the lower has been much improved by the erection of a line of barracks. Several of the streets are inconveniently steep, and in winter even dangerous; though much labour has been employed to level and adapt them for carriages. The houses, principally of brick, are regularly arranged, and on the whole handsome, but ornament has not been much studied. The chief public buildings are, a handsome stone court-house, recently erected on high ground above the middle of the town, the marine hospital, poor-house, goal, 2 episcopal churches, a Scotch church, and Rom. Cath., Methodist, and Baptist chapels. The grammar-school, which has an endowment of 125*l.* a year, had, in 1836, 495 scholars; and there are other schools, and several religious and charitable associations. The provincial bank has a capital of 80,000*l.*, and within these few years another bank, with a capital of 150,000*l.*, has been established. St. John's has a chamber of commerce; a savings' bank, and a marine insurance company; 3 public libraries, and a good news-room; and 4 or 5 well conducted weekly papers.

On the opposite bank of the river is the little town of Carleton, under the municipal government of St. John's,

comprising a good many new buildings, a church, with some saw-mills, and building docks. St. John's is a corporate city, which, including Carleton, is divided into 6 wards, and governed by a mayor, recorder, 6 aldermen, and 6 assistants. The mayor, recorder, and other chief officers, are appointed by the governor; the aldermen being elected annually by the freemen.

St. John's is a free port, and the great commercial emporium of New Brunswick. In 1836, 2,549 ships, of the aggregate burden of 299,610 tons, entered; and 2,380 ships, burden 298,127 tons, cleared out from the port and its outports. In the same year 81 vessels of the burden of 24,579 tons were built at St. John's. Several ships, averaging 400 tons, belonging to this port, are employed in the Pacific and Eastern oceans in the seal and whale fishery. The herring fishery in the harbour affords from 10,000 to 15,000 barrels a year, besides salmon and shad.

"Fifty years ago, the site of this thriving city, with the exception of a few straggling huts, was covered with trees. This was its condition at the peace of 1763; and when we now (1833) view it with its pop., its stately houses, its public buildings, its warehouses, its wharfs, and the majestic ships which crowd its port, we are more than lost in forming conjectures of the time which has become less than a century. Its position will ever command the trade of the vast and fertile country, watered by the lakes and streams of the river St. John, and it will flourish, as all towns have flourished, through which the bulk of the exports and imports necessarily pass into the countries in which they are situated." (*McGregor's British America*, li. 12-20.; *Boisclaire; Wedderburns; Parl. Papers*, &c.)

JOHN (ST.), or the St. John's River, called by the Indians *Looskok*, is the long river; is the principal river of New Brunswick, and next to the St. Lawrence, the finest in British America. The area of its basin is estimated by Darby at 19,300 sq. m. The St. John rises from two principal sources, about lat. $65^{\circ} 10'$ N., and long. 70° W. in the territory N. of the State of Maine, disputed between Great Britain and the U. States. It flows through this territory, at first N.E., for about 100 m.; and then takes a bold curved sweep to the E., as far as long. $67^{\circ} 40'$, where it leaves the disputed country, and enters the prov. of New Brunswick. It then flows, first in a S. direction for about 1-4th part of its course; then E. for perhaps 80 m., and lastly S. for at least 80 m., when it discharges itself into the Bay of Fundy, a little below the city of St. John, about lat. $45^{\circ} 30'$, and long. 66° , after an entire course, estimated by Darby at 380 miles.

Independent of any artificial improvement, the St. John is, in the greatest part of its course, one of the most navigable of the Atlantic rivers, being much less impeded by rapids, shoals, or falls, than any other stream between it and the Hudson. (Darby, p. 196.) At its mouth, which forms St. John's harbour, it is 5 m. wide; and at Fredericton, 85 m. up, it is half a mile wide. Vessels of 50 tons come up to Fredericton; and barks of 20 tons ascend to the Great Falls, about 300 m. from its mouth; above which it is fitted only for boats. It is unfortunate, however, that almost at the very entrance of this river, about a mile above St. John's, its bed contracts to about 400 ft. in width, and is crossed by a formidable rocky bar, on which there is seldom more than 17 ft. water, and which only admits of the passage of vessels at certain times of the tide. The waters of the river at low ebb are in this place about 12 ft. higher than the sea, and at high water about 5 ft. lower; so that in every tide there are 3 falls, — one outwards, and one inwards. The only time of passing with safety is when the waters on either side of the bar are about level, which happens twice in a tide, continuing nearly 20 minutes at a time. The tide is not perceptible much above Fredericton; where it rises to from 6 to 10 inches. The Great Falls, near lat. 47° , consist of one principal cataract, perhaps 80 ft. high, and some smaller ones of several ft. each, extending 4 m. for 1 m. along the stream, and having a total fall of about 75 ft. Though very small in respect of magnitude compared with that of Niagara, the Falls of the St. John are said to be more picturesque. Its entire descent, from its mouth to its source, is estimated by Darby at probably 1,000 ft. (*View*, &c., p. 197.)

Besides St. John's, Carleton, Gage-town and Fredericton, there is no place of any consequence on the banks of the St. John; but the country through which it flows is well cleared, and settled, and is said to be greatly superior in fertility to the river basins of New England. (*See MAINE.*) (*Darby's View of the U. States; McGregor's Brit. Amer.* &c.)

JOHN'S (ST.), a town of the island of Newfoundland, of which it is the cap., on its S.E. coast. Lat. $47^{\circ} 32'$ N., long. $53^{\circ} 29'$ W. Pop. of the town and its electoral district, comprising 12,413 acres (1836), 18,596, being about 1-4th part of the total pop. of the colony. It stands at the inner end of an excellent har-

bow, the narrow entrance to which has 13 fathoms water in the centre of the channel. It is protected by several strong batteries and forts, and a light-house is constructed on a rock at the N. side of its entrance. The town extends along nearly the whole N. side of the port. It consists mostly of one main street, about 1 mile in length, and from 40 to 50 ft. broad, from which, at almost every step, called *fish-fakes*, project into the sea. There are some good stone and brick houses, and other handsome buildings, erected principally since the great fires that devastated St. John's in 1816 and 1817; but most part of the town is built of wood, and, with all its improvements, it still bears the aspect of a mere fishing station.

"In time of war, St. John's is a place of great importance. There are a great number of shops, and a still greater number of public houses, in proportion to its size, in this than in most towns. Commodities were formerly dear; at present, shop goods are as low as in any town in America; and fresh meat, poultry, and vegetables, though not so cheap as on the continent, are not unreasonably dear.

"The pop. of St. John's fluctuates so frequently, that it is very difficult to state its numbers, even at any one period. Sometimes, during the fishing season, the town appears full of inhabitants; at others it seems half deserted. At one time, they depart for the seal fishery; at another to different cod-fishing stations. In the fall of the year, the fishermen arrive from all quarters to settle their accounts with the merchants, and procure supplies for the winter. At this period St. John's is crowded with people; swarms of whom depart for Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, and Cape Breton to procure a livelihood in those places, among the farmers, during winter. Many of them never return again to the fisheries, but remain in those colonies; or often, if they have relations in the U. States, and sometimes when they have not, find their way thither.

"Society in St. John's, particularly when we consider its great want of permanency, is in a much more respectable condition than might be expected; and the morals and social habits of the inhab. are very different from the description of Lieutenant Chappell, who represents the principal inhab. as having risen from the lowest fishermen, and the rest composed of turbulent Irishmen, both alike destitute of literature. The fishermen, who are principally Irishmen, are by no means altogether destitute of education: there are few of them but can read and write; and they are, in general, neither turbulent nor immoral. That they soon become in New-foundland, as well as in all the other colonies, very different people to what they were before they left Ireland, is very certain. The cause is obvious; they are more comfortable, and they work cheerfully. When, after a fishing season of almost incredible fatigue and hardship, they return to St. John's, and meet their friends and acquaintances, they indulge, it is true, in idleness for a short time, and occasionally in drinking; but when the hazardous life they follow is considered, we need not be surprised that they do so, especially in a place where rum is as cheap as beer in England." (*McGregor's British America*.)

Fort Townshend, on a steep height above the town, was formerly the residence of the governor; but a new edifice has been recently built for this purpose, on so extravagant a scale, that it is said to have cost 50,000*l*. The custom-house, church, and other public buildings present nothing remarkable. A Lancasterian school, with a government endowment of 100*l*. a year, was attended, in 1836, by 216 boys; a girls' school with 600 pupils, chiefly supported by voluntary subscriptions to the amount of about 360*l*. a year; and several other schools and benevolent associations. The inhab. are generally possessed of the rudiments of education, and many of them pretty well informed. Several weekly newspapers are published in the town. Most of the pop. are R. Catholics, and this is the see of a R. Catholic bishop. It is a good deal agitated by party contentions.

In 1838, 110 vessels, of the aggregate burden of 9,300 tons, were fitted out, at St. John's, for the seal fishery. Agriculture is scarcely pursued at all in the neighbourhood; the ground being rugged and stony. Potatoes form the chief crop. The provisions and other commodities are dearer than on the American continent, from which, indeed, they are mostly imported. (For the import and export trade of St. John's, &c., see *NEWFOUNDLAND*.) (*McGregor's Brit. America*, i. 165—173; *Parl. Papers*.)

JOHNSTON, a manufacturing town of Scotland, par. of Paisley, co. Renfrew, on the Black Cart, 3 m. W. Paisley, and 18 m. W. by S. Glasgow. The rise of this town is remarkable, being more rapid than that of any other place in Scotland: the ground on which it now stands began, for the first time, to be fenced or let on building leases in 1711, when it contained only 250 persons. In Oct. 1792, 9 houses were built, and 3 more were being erected. In 1793, the inhabitants amounted to 1,424; in 1811 to 3,647; in 1821 to 5,617; and

now (1840) they are estimated at upwards of 7,000. The place was formerly called "the Brig o' Johnston," from a bridge over the river in the immediate vicinity. It is built on a regular plan, and lighted with gas. There are two squares, besides numerous streets, and public works. The houses are, for the most part, of good mason-work, two and three stories in height. To each house is attached an adequate extent of garden ground. It has an established church, and various dissenting places of worship. In its immediate neighbourhood is Johnston Castle, the residence of Mr. Houston, lord of the manor. There are excellent grammar and English schools; two reading-rooms, three public libraries, several printing presses; various booksellers, lawyers, medical practitioners, &c. The civil polity of the town is managed by a committee elected annually by the feu-takers. A monthly justice of peace court is held in the assembly rooms.

Johnston is chiefly distinguished for its manufactures. It had, in 1839, 15 cotton mills, employing in all 1,456 persons, of whom 694 were between 9 and 18 years old. This is exclusive of mills at Elderslie, Linwood, and other places in the immediate vicinity. With two slight exceptions, the mills are all propelled by water. There are, besides, in Johnston, two brass and two iron foundries, on an extensive scale; with five machine manufactories, employing 120 individuals, as well as various minor branches of industry. The Glasgow and Ardsay Canal, projected in 1806, has been completed only from Glasgow to Johnston. It was on this canal that light iron boats, or gig-boats, for the rapid conveyance of passengers, were first (1831) tried and established. The Glasgow, Paisley, Kilmarnock, and Ayr Railway passes Johnston; so that this village enjoys every advantage in the way of internal intercourse. Near Johnston are four collieries. (*Factory Reports*; *Fowler's Com. Direct. for Renfrewshire*; *New Stat. Acc. of Scotland*, & *Renfrewshire*, pp. 301—309.)

JOIGNY (an. *Jovinianum*), a town of France, dép. Yonne, cap. arrond., on the Yonne, 18 m. N.W. by N. Auxerre. Pop. (1836), 4,700. A handsome quay runs along the bank of the river, above which the town rises on a steep declivity, crowned with the remains of an ancient castle. Joigny is surrounded with old walls, and entered by 6 gates; it has 2 suburbs, with one of which it is connected by a handsome stone bridge of 6 arches across the Yonne. The streets are narrow, steep, and inconvenient; but some of the houses are good. It has a cathedral built in the 15th century, 2 other Gothic churches, cavalry barracks, &c., with vinegar and other factories. (*Hugo, art. Yonne*.)

JORDAN (Arab. *Sheriat-el-Kebir*), a river of Palestine famous in sacred history; it rises in lat. 32° 25' N., long. 35° 36' E., a few miles N. of Banias (the an. *Caesarea Philippi*), in a small pool formerly called *Phiala*, on the W. slope of Djebel-es-Sheikh, the *Antilibanus* or *Mount Hermon* of antiquity. After a S. course of about 40 m., during which it crosses the fenny Bahr-el-Hool (an. *L. Merom*), it opens into the lake Tabariah or *Gennesareth*, and thence to the ancient town of Bethesda. At the S. end of this fine sheet of water (15 m. long, and about 7 broad), on and near which occurred so many striking scenes in the history of Christ, the Jordan enters a narrow pent-up valley called el-Ghor, and after running through it with a tortuous southerly course of about 90 m., empties its waters into the Dead Sea, its entire length being about 180 m. The discoveries of Burckhardt in the Wady-el-Araby, which he traced completely up from the Red Sea to the lake Asphaltites, have led to the supposition that before the volcanic movement which so altered the surface, this river had a continuous course along this wady to the gulph of Akabah (see *DEAR SEA*). Its tributaries on the W. side are mere torrents, one of the largest of which is the brook Kedron, rising in the suburbs of Jerusalem: the E. affluents comprise the Sheriat-el-Mandhur (an. *Jarmok*, Gr. *Ἰερμὰκ*), and the Wady Zerk, which is the scriptural *Jabbok* (see *DEUT. III. 16*). The breadth and rapidity of the stream vary in different parts and at different seasons. The floods occur in Feb. and March, and at that season, when filled with the melted snow of Mount Lebanon, it is from 80 to 70 m. wide, and about 17 ft. deep, with a current so rapid that it is not safe even for an expert swimmer to bathe in it. In the dry seasons it is low, and has a comparatively languid current; and to this circumstance, probably, may be attributed the discrepancies in the statements respecting the nature and magnitude of the river. The channel, however, as appears from Maundrell and Burckhardt, having cut its way through a loose sandy soil, is much deeper now than formerly, and the waters, even in floods, run within narrower limits. A second and higher bank now skirts the actual bank at about a furlong's distance on either side, and the intervening space is so filled up with bushes and trees (tamarisks, willows, oleanders, myrtles, &c.) that the stream is completely hidden from view till its

upper and dry channel has been passed. Lord Lindsay says:—"The river is concealed till you are close upon it, by dense thickets of trees, reeds, and bushes, 'the pride of Jordan' (Zech. xl. 3.), growing luxuriantly to the very water's edge. The lions, hippopotami, &c. (Jer. xlii. 19.), that formerly hunted these thickets are extinct; but wild boars are still found there." "The nightingales," says the same writer, "sung in the cool, starlight night from the trees; and the scene altogether was most delightful." (*Travels in Egypt, and the Holy Land*, vol. ii. p. 65.)

The water is described by Robinson as being rather warm than cold, of a white sulphurous colour, but free from any taste or smell. On analysis, however, it proves to be strikingly dissimilar to that of the Dead Sea; for while the latter contains 1 part of its weight of salts, the former has only 1-300th part of the proportion of solid matter contained in the water of the lake. (See *Dr. Marcott, Phil. Trans.* for 1807.)

The Jordan has been the scene of many events in which biblical scholars must be deeply interested. This river valley was the dwelling of Lot, who "pitched his tents towards Sodom," the men whereof "were wicked, and sinners before the Lord exceedingly." Here the four kings, persecuted by the five powerful princes close to the Salt (or Dead) Sea, fought, and regained their liberty; and the power of the latter was afterwards destroyed by divine interference. (*Comp. Gen. xiv. 1-12.*, with *xix. 34-35.*) At a later, but still very early historical period, when the clans of Israel were returning, after an absence of four centuries, to the possessions of Abraham, the great sheikh of a nation that was yet only in the nomad state, the ark, by command of Jehovah, was carried by the priests before the people into the stream, and "the waters which came down from above, stood and rose up upon an heap; and those that came down towards the sea of the plain, even the Salt Sea, failed, and were cut off; and the people passed over right against Jericho." (*Josh. iii. 14-16.*) It is said that the prophets Elijah and Elisha afterwards divided its waters to prove their divine mission, and the special fact that "the spirit of Elijah doth rest on Elisha." (*2 Kings, ii.*) In Christian times, it has been celebrated as the stream in which Jesus Christ received from John the baptism which prepared him for the ministrations destined to exercise so important an influence over mankind. By modern writers of Palestine, in the East, indeed, throughout Christendom, the spirit of this institution has been forgotten, and a superstitious attention to the form substituted in its stead; hence, every year pilgrims, at the great Easter season (about April), are found rushing, young and old, rich and poor, sick and sound, men, women, and children, into the stream. "All," says Mr. Elliott (an English clergyman), "carried with them the piece of cloth with which they wished to be enveloped after death." The Moslems ridicule these vain abstractions, and their victims of decoction; and the Protestant cannot but lament the degradation they exhibit. (*Burckhardt's Syria*, p. 260-412; *Elliott's Travels*, vol. ii. p. 476; *Stephens's Inc. of Travel*, vol. ii. p. 261; *G. Robinson's Palestine*, vol. i. p. 69-75; *Mod. Trav.*, &c.)

JORULLO, JURUYO, or XURULLO, an active volcano of Mexico, state of Valladolid, in an extensive plain 70 m. S.S.W. the city of that name, and 80 m. from the Pacific; remarkable not only for its extent, but as being the only volcano of any consequence that has originated in New Spain since its conquest by Europeans. Its origin was, perhaps, one of the most tremendous and extraordinary phenomena that has ever been witnessed; for in one night there issued from the earth a volcano 1,600 ft. high, surrounded by more than 2,000 apertures, which still continue to emit smoke. Humboldt, who visited Jorullo, describes its appearance and formation nearly as follows:—"A vast plain extends from the hills of Aguasclaro, to near the villages of Tepala and Petatlan, from 2,460 to 2,524 ft. above the level of the sea. In the midst of a tract of ground, in which porphyry, with a base of greenstone, predominates, basaltic cones appear, the summits of which are crowned with evergreen oaks, small palm trees, &c., their beautiful vegetation forming a singular contrast with the aridity of the plain, laid waste by volcanic fire. Till the middle of the 18th century, fields cultivated with sugar-cane and indigo occupied the extent of ground between the rivers Cutumba and San Pedro. From June 1759, hollow subterranean noises, accompanied by frequent earthquakes, succeeded one another for from 50 to 50 days. At length, in the night between the 29th and 30th of Sept., a tract of ground from 3 to 4 sq. m. in extent, which goes by the name of *Malpais*, rose up in the shape of a bladder. The bounds of this convulsion are still distinguishable in the fractured strata. The *Malpais*, near its edges, is only 29 ft. above the old level of the plain called the *Playas de Jorullo*; but the convexity of the ground thus thrown up increases progressively towards the centre to an elevation of 524 ft.

Flames were now seen to issue forth, it is said, for an extent of more than 4 sq. leagues; fragments of burning rocks were thrown up to prodigious heights; and, through a thick cloud of ashes, illumined by volcanic fire, the softened surface of the earth was seen to swell up like an agitated sea. The rivers of Cutumba and San Pedro precipitated themselves into the burning chasms. Thousands of small cones, from 6 to 9 ft. in height, called by the natives *hornitos* (ovens), issued forth from the *Malpais*, from each of which a thick vapour ascends to the height of from 20 to 50 ft. In many of them a subterranean noise is heard, which appears to announce the proximity of a fluid in ebullition. In the midst of the ovens, six large masses, elevated from 1,312 to 1,640 ft. each above the old level of the plains, spring up from a chasm, the direction of which is from N.W. to S.S.E. The most elevated of these enormous masses, the great volcano of Jorullo, bears some resemblance in shape to the *Puy de Auvergne*, in France. It is continually burning, and has thrown up from the N. side an immense quantity of scorified and basaltic lava, containing fragments of primitive rocks. These great eruptions of the central volcano continued till Feb. 1760. In the following years they became gradually less frequent; but the plains of Jorullo, even at a great distance from the scene of the explosion, were long uninhabitable, from the extensive tract of which prevailed in them.

The Cutumba and San Pedro totally disappeared on the occasion above mentioned; but two new streams are now seen bursting through the argillaceous vault of the *hornitos*, having the appearance of mineral waters, in which the thermometer rises to 126° Fahr. The Indians give these streams the names of the former rivers, because, in several parts of the Malpais, great masses of water, with which they are supposed to be continuous, are heard to run in a direction from E. to W., as the Cutumba and San Pedro did originally. Jorullo is situated in the great volcanic band of Mexico, which runs E. and W., nearly at right angles, to the Cordillera, including the peaks of Orizaba, Puebla, Toluca, Tancitaro, Colima, &c.; and of which Humboldt conjectures the Revillagigedo islands, in the Pacific, may mark the continuation. (*Humboldt's Mexico*; *Encyc. Americana*; *Mod. Trav.*, xxvi. 121-127.)

JOUNDPOOR, or MARWAR, a state of N.W. Hindostan, subsidiary to the British, and the most extensive and powerful in Rajpootana; between the 24th and 28th deg. of lat., and the 70th and 73th deg. of E. long. having E. the states of Odeypoor and Jeypoor, and the British territory of Ajmere, from which it is separated by a mountain range; N. Bikanere; W. Jesselmere, and S. Sind; and S. some smaller rajpaships on the borders of Gujrat. Length, E. to W., about 360 m., by about the same breadth. Area estimated at 70,000 sq. m. Pop. uncertain.

Joundpoor and Jesselmere (which see), may be taken as pretty fair types of the several Rajpoost states of N. W. India; the former being, however, the most extensive and the valuable as a whole, and the latter the least. The wealth of Joundpoor has been much undervalued; and it has been erroneously considered as a portion of the sandy desert. Its exports in wheat are considerable; the soil is favourable to many other kinds of grain; and its central parts are highly productive. The country consists generally of open plains; the hills being almost confined to the S. The soil is not arid (as in Jesselmere, Bikanere, &c.); but is almost every where watered by torrents, and affluents of the Loonee or Salt river. This river rises in Ajmere, and flows through the centre of Joundpoor to enter the Runn of Cutch. Its waters are distributed over the adjacent wheat lands, which extend along its banks from Ajmere to the Runn, by means of earth aqueducts, sometimes a mile in length. The fields are surrounded with dykes to prevent the egress of the water; and being thus irrigated, Joundpoor produces heavy crops of barley, *dajree*, *Joowaree*, and other kinds of grain. Neither the climate nor soil is favourable to the poppy; but an inferior kind of opium is grown in the E., where it is an article of large consumption and export. Tobacco is produced in some parts; but not in a sufficient quantity to supersede the necessity of importing it from Gujrat. Cotton is an important article of produce. Marwar is celebrated for its camels, which may be purchased in every village, at from 50 to 60 rupees each, and which have contributed greatly to the commercial importance of the state, by facilitating the conveyance of almost every kind of goods. Goats, sheep, and hogs are numerous; mutton is good, but the wool is not so much prized as that of the poorer countries. (*Jesselmere*, &c.) Salt is a very important article of produce. Large tracts are impregnated with it, especially about Panchpudra, on the Loonee towards Cutch. It is got by digging pits of about 120 ft. by 40, and about 10 ft. deep in the saline soil. A jungle shrub is then thrown in upon the water which exudes; this assists the crystallisation, and in the course two years, the moisture having evaporated, a mass of salt, some-

times from 4 to 5 ft. deep, is left. The commerce of Joudpoor is extensive; its great emporium being Pallee, about 40 m. S. E. of the cap. This town is the entrepôt between the W. coast and Upper India, and the channel by which the Malwah opium is exported to China and W. Asia. The chief trade of Pallee is in opium, and for six years, preceding 1834, the exports were never less than 1,500 camel loads, and oftener 2,000. A camel carries 10 maunds of 40 seers, and the Pallee maund exceeds that of Bombay, which would give an annual export of from 20 to 24 thousand maunds. The opium is sent by land to Kurachee in Sind, a distance of 500 m., whence it is shipped to Damaun. The expenses of this journey are very great, as exorbitant transit duties are claimed by the rajahs of Joudpoor, Jesselmere, and other states, through which the opium passes. The Joudpoor government alone demands 50 rupees per camel load! It is customary with the Pallee merchants to consign their opium to contractors, who agree to deliver it safe at Damaun, uninjured by weather, plunder, or otherwise; on the receipt of 300 rupees for each camel load. Marwar exports wheat of superior quality to Ajmere, Bikanere, &c.; and has most extensive dealings in salt, with which it supplies the upper provs. of Bengal, and, indeed, all parts of Upper India. It imports from Sind, by its return camels, rice, assafœtida, sulphur, &c.; from Lahore, Cashmere, and the Punjab, Jeyors, metals, woollen and cotton cloths, and sugar. From Cutch it receives spices, cocoa-nuts, coffee, dates, &c.; ivory from Africa, and European goods from Bombay. Its commercial importance has risen wholly within the last 70 years. The inhab. are chiefly Rhatore Rajpoots, a handsome and brave race of men of the purest castes; the rajah is of this tribe, and being considered its legitimate head, has a paramount influence far beyond the limits of his own territory. Bhatt, Chumars, and Jauts, the last of whom are the cultivators, comprise most of the remaining inhab. The government is a kind of feudal monarchy, the chiefs, who are both numerous and powerful, holding their lands on the tenure of military service. It is said, that the rajah can bring into the field, at ordinary times, a force of 60,000 men, besides mercenaries. The subsidy he furnishes to the British government is 1,500 men. The revenues of the state are considerable. The royal lands yield 37 lacs of rupees annually, and the town of Pallee alone yields half a lac monthly. The assessment on the land is always paid in kind, varying from 1.34 to 1.38 part of the produce. Within the limits of Marwar, there are said to be 5,000 towns and villages, many consisting of from 500 to 1,000 houses. Chief towns, Joudpoor, the cap., Pallee, Nagore, and Meerta.

JOUNDPOOR, a town of Hindostan, prov. Rajpootana, cap. of the above rajahship; in a hollow surrounded by rocky eminences, and on a soil destitute of water; 100 m. W. Ajmere. Pop. probably 60,000 (*Burmes*). Notwithstanding the magnitude of this city, we have no recent accounts respecting it. Near it is the residence of the rajah, a fort about 2 m. in circuit, placed on a high point of taln, and said to have some resemblance to Windsor Castle. (*Burmes*, in *Geog. Journ.*, vol. iv. &c.)

JUAN-DEL-RIO (ST.), a town of Mexico, state of Querétaro, and cap. dist. of its own name, 81 m. N.W. Mexico, and 164 m. S.W. Tampico; lat. 20° 25' N., and long. 99° 50' W. Pop. 10,000. It is described by Poinsett as a neat and tolerably well-built town, in an extensive plain, 6,490 ft. above the sea, and on the S. bank of a stream, crossed here by a fine bridge of 5 stone arches: S. of it rises a hill of basaltic rock, the summit of which is crowned with a pretty chapel and spire. The private residences are of stone, and are large, roomy, and well furnished: there is an excellent inn; but the prices of provisions are extravagantly high. The town is surrounded by gardens and orchards; and nothing can exceed the beauty and fertility of the neighbouring country. Indian corn is the chief article of culture; but the ear is much smaller than that of the corn grown in the United States. (*Poinsett's Notes on Mexico*, p. 176-179.)

JUAN-DE-LA-FRONTIERA (SAN), a town of Buenos Ayres, near the Chilian frontier, cap. prov., and on the river of same name, 123 m. N. Mendoza; lat. 31° 4' S., long. 68° 57' 30" W. Pop. estimated at from 16,000 to 20,000. Though much inferior in extent and pop. to Mendoza, Miers says it possesses much greater capabilities for becoming a flourishing city. Its climate is delightful, though the temp. rises sometimes to 105° F.; but, owing to the latter circumstance, the grape ripens exceedingly well, and very good wine is made. The territory round San Juan, besides being highly productive, has the advantage of being free from the incursions of the Indians, and some years ago a British agricultural colony was about to be established there. The prov. San Juan produces wheat, barley, maize, olives, figs, pasturage, garden vegetables, and all the fruits of the temperate zone in great luxuriance; and in times of scarcity, corn has been sent from San Juan to Buenos Ayres, a distance of above 1,000 m. This, however, can

never answer but ordinary circumstances, from the great expense attending the land carriage; but it is different with its wines and brandies, which, after all charges, may be sold in most of the provs. of the interior, and even at Buenos Ayres, at a fair profit. They are in general demand among the lower classes, and the quantity exported to other parts of the Republic is little short of that sent from Mendoza. The mountain ranges in the neighbourhood of San Juan yield fine statuary marble, gypsum, sulphur, alum rock, and coppers, and the earth in its vicinity is strongly impregnated with sulphate of soda, which is extracted by washing for medical purposes. (*Miers, Chile et La Plata*, l. 239-243.; *Barish, Buenos Ayres*, 315-317.)

JUAN-FERNANDEZ, a group comprising two chief and several smaller islands in the S. Pacific Ocean, about 400 m. W. of the coast of Chili; lat. 33° 40' S., long. 79° W. The largest of these islands, and the only one inhabited, is called *Mas-a-tierra*, to distinguish it from *Mas-a-ueria*, a lofty volcanic rock, about 90 m. W. It is from 10 to 12 m. long, and about 6 m. broad, its area being nearly 70 sq. m. The coast line is very irregular, with frequent bays and headlands; and the chief harbours are Port English, on the S. side, visited by Anson in 1741; Port Juan, on the W.; and Cumberland Bay, on the N. side of the island. Its northern half is in general fertile, intersected with numerous fruitful and well-wooded valleys; while to the S. the land, though less elevated, is rocky and barren. The fig and vine flourish on the hill sides, and among the larger trees are the sandal, cork, and a species of palm called *Chama*, bearing a rich fruit. Goats are found in a wild state, and on the rocky shores are seals and walruses: fish are plentiful, especially cod. The island is very subject to earthquakes, two of which (viz. in 1751 and 1835) are described as having done great damage. In the earthquake of 1835, an eruption burst through the sea about a mile from the land, where the depth is from 40 to 80 fathoms: smoke and water were ejected during the day, and flames were seen at night. (*Geog. Journ.*, vi. 1.)

Juan-Fernandez (which is popularly applied only to the island of *Mas-a-tierra*) was discovered by a Spanish navigator, who gave to it his own name, and formed an establishment, which was afterwards abandoned. The buccanniers of the 17th century made it a place of resort during their cruises on the coast of Peru; and more recently it was the solitary dwelling, during four years, of a Scotchman, called Alexander Selkirk; whose adventures are supposed to have given rise to De Foe's inimitable novel of *Robinson Crusoe*. In 1750, the Spanish government formed a settlement, and built a fort; which, however, with the town, was all but destroyed by an earthquake in the following year. They were rebuilt somewhat further from the shore; and were still inhabited, and in good order, when Carteret visited the island in 1767, but they were soon after abandoned. (*Ibid.* iv. 3.) The Chilian government established a penal colony here in 1819, but has since discontinued on account of the expense. The island has lately been taken into possession by the Chilian government by an enterprising American, who has brought thither about 150 families of Tahitians, with the intention of cultivating the land, rearing cattle, and so improving the port of Cumberland Bay, that it may become the resort of whalers, and other vessels navigating the Pacific Ocean. (*Ibid.*; *Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

JUANPORE, a distr. of British India, prov. Allahabad, chiefly between the 36th and 36th degs. of N. lat., and the 82d and 83d of E. long.; having N. Oude, and the distr. Azimghur; E. Benares; S. the Ganges, separating it from Mirzapoor; and W. Allahabad. Area, 1,820 sq. m. Pop. uncertain. Its surface is slightly undulating. The river Goompy runs through it in a S.E. direction. The soil is sandy, but generally well cultivated, and irrigated with care, except towards the Oude frontier, where there is much waste land covered with jungle. This distr. has improved greatly since it has been brought under the British government, and it is now the principal seat of the sugar cultivation in the central provs. of the Bengal presidency. Some sugar lands in Juanpore let at high as 10 rupees the begah; from 6 to 8 rupees being the average rent of sugar lands in the adjacent districts. (*Syn. m Part. Rep.* 1840.) The buildings and villages, though still very indifferent, have been latterly much improved. The land is generally divided into such small portions, that a few years since the incomes of very few landholders exceeded 500. Education appears to be at an extremely low ebb; and the people have always been rather celebrated for turbulence. The remains of many mud forts are to be seen, but none of stone exists, except that of the cap., Juanpore. Land revenue (1823-30), 132,250.

JUANPORE, a town of British India, presid. Bengal, cap. of the above distr. on the Goompy, 38 m. N.W. Benares. Pop. doubtful. Though now decayed and comparatively insignificant, it was previously to the middle

of the 15th century a place of importance, and the cap. of an indep. sovereignty. It was annexed to the Mogul empire by Akbar, under whom was built its magnificent bridge over the Gomty, which is now in perfect preservation, and is one of the finest works of the kind in India. A stone fort, a mosque of great beauty, and a number of ruined edifices and monuments, attest the former greatness of Jaunpore. The modern town is wholly built of mud; it is, however, the residence of the collector, judge, and other chief British authorities of the district. (*Hamilton; Mod. Trav. &c.*)

JUGGERNAUT (*Jagannath*, "the lord of the world"), a town and celebrated temple of Hindoostan, the latter being one of the chief places of Hindoo pilgrimage, and, according to Hamilton, the most sacred of all the religious establishments of the natives of India. The town stands on the sea coast of the distr. of Cuttack, presid. Bengal, prov. Orissa, beside a branch of the Mahanudda, 45 m. S. Cuttack, and 360 m. S.W. Calcutta; lat. 19° 49' N., long. 85° 54' E. It contains nearly 5,800 houses, with 30,000 inhab. It is for the most part mean and dirty, consisting of low brick buildings, with here and there large *serais* and some handsome residences. The chief street is wholly composed of religious edifices, interspersed with plantations; and at its S. end stands the great temple of the deity or idol. Its structure is imposing only from its immensity; its execution is rude and inelegant, and its form unpleasing to the eye. It is built of coarse red granite, and was completed in 1198, at a cost of from 40 to 50 lacs of rupees (400,000. to 500,000.). The establishment of which it forms a part comprises about 80 temples dedicated to various deities, within a nearly square area inclosed by a stone wall 24 ft. high, and measuring 676 ft. in length on two of its sides, and 670 ft. on the two others. The principal gate of entrance to this area is on the E. side, from which a broad flight of 22 steps leads to a terrace raised about 25 ft., and inclosed by a second wall 445 ft. square. On this terrace is the first apartment, called the Bhog Mandap, a building 60 ft. square, in which the great idol is worshipped during the bathing festival; and in a line, and connected with it by a low portico, is the anti-chamber opening into the great tower or sanctuary. This tower rises to 180 ft. above the area on which it is raised, or rather more than 200 ft. above the ground, and forms a valuable landmark to mariners on this dangerous coast. Its ground plan is 28 ft. square within the building; its shape is conical, its walls are externally covered with stone statues in relief, and its roof is ornamented with representations of monsters of various kinds. Little palms, however, appear to have been taken in the sculpture of these decorations, and of late the temple has had an outer coating of *chamam* or mortar, while its figures have been daubed with red paint: within this sanctuary, seated on their thrones, are the rude statues of three of the most revered deities of Hindu faith—Juggernaut or Vishnu, his brother Balarama or Mahadeo, and his sister Subhadra or Kali; the temple being devoted to all three, though particularly to the first. Adjacent to this edifice are two other temples, much smaller, and of a pyramidal form. The E. gate of entrance to the outer inclosure is flanked by colossal figures of lions or griffins in a sitting posture, and porters of Hindu mythology. In front of it is a column, remarkable for its light and elegant appearance, composed of a single block of dark basalt, 40 ft. high and 8 in diameter, supporting a sitting figure of the god Huniman. This pillar was brought thither from the half ruined black pagoda of Kanarak (which see), less than a century since. On the N.E. side of the temple is the collection of buildings forming the European station.

All the land within a distance of 30 m. from the pagoda is accounted holy by the Hindoos, and is held rent-free by the cultivators and others, on condition of their performing certain services in and about the temple. The priests and other persons deriving their subsistence from the establishment, are said to amount to 3,000 families! exclusive of 400 families of cooks, to prepare the holy food so much sought after by pilgrims.

The provisions, &c., furnished daily for the idol and his attendants, consist of 120 cows, 37 geese, 30 *hatted*, 24 of *meeng*, 188 of clarified butter, 90 of molasses, 25 of vegetables, 100 of milk, 12 of spices, 30 of salt, and 23 of lamp oil. The holy food is presented to the idol 3 times a day, and the gates are cautiously shut during this presentation, and none but a few personal servants of the idol are allowed to be present. This meal lasts for about an hour, during which period, the dancing-girls attached to the temple (consisting of 120), dance and sing in the room with many pillars. On the ringing of a large bell, the doors are thrown open, the food is removed, and the rajah of *Kawar*, as high priest of the temple, divides it with the priests." (*Travels*, &c., vol. iii. 258.)

The images of Juggernaut, Balarama, and Subhadra, are nothing more than wooden busts, about 6 ft. high, fashioned into a rude resemblance of a human head,

resting on a sort of pedestal. They are painted white, black, and yellow respectively, with grim distorted features, and decorated with different coloured head-dresses. The two brothers have arms projecting forward, horizontally, from the ears; the sister is without arms. These monstrous figures may, in general, be seen daily, and are publicly exposed twice a year; when Juggernaut and his brother, after undergoing certain ablutions, assume the form of Ganesa, the elephant-headed god, a transformation effected by means of a mask. Thus dressed, they are placed on the high terrace, overlooking the outer wall of the temple, surrounded by crowds of priests, who fan them to drive away the flies, whilst the multitude below gaze in stupid admiration. But the grand festival, or *ratâ'ra*, takes place in March, when the *ratâ'ra* has entered Aries. This has been described as follows, by a British eye-witness, for some years resident at Poort, Juggernaut. "Three large *ratâ's*, or cars of wood, are prepared for the occasion, of which, the first (intended for Jagannath) has 16 wheels, each 6 ft. in diameter; the platform, to receive the idol, is 26 ft. square, and the whole car is fully 45 ft. from the ground. The wood-work is ornamented with images of different idols, and painted, and the car has a lofty dome covered with English woollens of the most gaudy colours, bought at the import warehouse in Calcutta; a large wooden image is placed on one side as a support, and several wooden horses are suspended in front of the car with their legs in the air. (An exact model of the car of Juggernaut, about 3 ft. square and 4 ft. in height, exists in the museum of the Royal Asiatic Society.) Six strong cables are fastened to the *ratâ's*, by which it is dragged on its journey. The concourse of pilgrims is always very great, and a loud shout from the multitude announces the approach of Jagannath, who is carried from the temple by a number of priests, appointed for the purpose. A short time after, the rajah of Khurda, as hereditary high priest, makes his appearance in a state-paliquin of a strange construction, followed by large state elephants, and generally alights near the *ratâ's* of the idol Balabhadra. The latter, and Subhadra, are placed upon two separate *ratâ's*, like that of Jagannath, except being a little smaller, the one having only 14 wheels, and the other 12. The rajah is surrounded by a large train of priests, and immediately prostrates himself before the idol Jagannath, amidst the shouts of pilgrims and the piercing notes of the shrill silver trumpets; he then with a broom sweeps the floor of the car, and is presented by the priest with a silver vessel, containing essence of sandal-wood, with which the floor is sprinkled all round the idol. The rajah receives from Jagannath, as a mark of honour, a garland of flowers, which the priests take from the image, and put round the rajah's neck. The rajah then descends from the principal car, and proceeds bare-footed to the car of each of the other idols, and endeavours to propel them forward, without which ceremonies it is supposed they could not afterwards be moved. On a signal being given, a most active scene commences, and several thousand men, each holding a small green branch in his hand, begin running to the *ratâ's*, clearing their way through the crowd for a considerable distance in regular files. They immediately lay hold upon the cables, each man having first touched the car with his branch; and then, aided by the pilgrims (men and women), pull the *ratâ's* to their destination, taking care to keep their faces towards the idol, who is driven to his garden-house, where he is worshipped for four days, and then returns in the same way to the temple." (*Memoirs* in *Trans. Asiatic Soc.*, iii. 258—259.) Besides that described, 12 other principal, and many minor, festivals are celebrated during the year. The worship of Juggernaut is attended by every sect and class of Hindoos, who meet on equal terms, all caste being abolished within the precincts of the temple.

That excess of fanaticism, which is said to have prompted the pilgrims to court death, by throwing themselves, in crowds, under the wheels of Juggernaut, either never existed, or has long ceased to actuate the worshippers of the idol. During four years that Mr. Mansbach witnessed the festivals, only three cases of self-immolation occurred; one was probably accidental, and the two others were suicides committed by sufferers to rid themselves of painful diseases. The greatest misrepresentations were formerly circulated in Europe respecting the number of widow-burnings, pilgrims, loss of life, &c., at Juggernaut. It is true that, for many miles round the temple, the sides of the roads are literally whitened with the bones of devotees, who have perished by the way-side. But this is not the result of any violent modes of destruction, voluntary or otherwise. If a Hindoo have reason to believe dissolution at hand, he forthwith collects his remaining strength, and should he fortunately succeed in dragging his diseased body within sight of the sacred edifice, he will lie down in peace, and die with a perfect confidence of future happiness; besides which, thousands set out on a pilgrimage thither in health, and in the full intention of returning, who

subsistence falling by the way, devote themselves (in fact they can do nothing else) to death by starvation. An unfounded clamour was long raised in England against the government of British India for promoting idolatry, as it was said, by continuing to exact taxes on the pilgrims to Juggernaut, Gaya, and other places, as had previously been done by the native sovereigns. But the levy of taxes on pilgrims seems rather an odd way of promoting idolatry! However, in deference to the well-intentioned, though absurd, misrepresentations propagated in England on the subject, these taxes have been repealed, to the great satisfaction of the "idolaters." The number of pilgrims to this and other shrines has since greatly increased; and the natives are extremely well pleased by this act of liberality on the part of government. It may be right to mention, that no part of the pilgrim-tax ever came into the general funds of the government, but was wholly laid out on the repair of roads, and the maintenance of a proper police at the different places of pilgrimage. (See *Asiatic Researches*, vols. viii. x. xv.; *Trans. of the Royal Asiatic Soc.*, vol. iii.; *Hamilton's Hindostan* and *E. I. Gaz.*; *Asiatic Journal*, &c.)

JULIERS (Germ. *Jülich*), a town of Rhenish Prussia, cap. circle, on the Roër, a tributary of the Maese, 224 m. W. Cologne, and 68 m. N. W. Aachen. Pop. 3,130. It has a strong citadel, 3 churches, a fine old town-hall, circle court of justice, police court, high school, &c., and manufactures of woollen cloth, leather, and vinegar.

Juliers is believed to be identical with *Juliacum*, in Antonine's Itinerary. After the extinction of the Roman dominion, it became the property of independent counts of the Germanic empire, who were created dukes by the emperor Charles IV., in 1356. The family of the dukes of Juliers becoming extinct in 1609, the town was taken by Prince Maurice of Nassau in the following year; in 1692 it was taken by the Spaniards, who held it till 1699. In 1794 it was taken by the French, who afterwards made it the cap. of the dep. Roër. The former dukes of Juliers is the most W. portion of the Prussian dom., and is remarkable for its fertility, and its linen manufacture. (*Dict. Géog.*; *Schreiber*; *Berghaus*.)

JUMBOSER, a town of British India, presid. Bombay, distr. Baroch, on a river of the same name, 35 m. N.N.W. Baruch. In 1820, it had upwardly 10,000 inhab. It carries on considerable trade with Bombay, to which it sends cotton, grain, oil, and piece goods. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*.)

JUMILLA, a town of Spain, prov. Murcia, 36 m. N. by W. Murcia, and 75 m. S.S.W. Valencia. Pop., according to Mifano, 8,267. It is situated on the S. slope of a hill, at the summit of which is a castle commanding the town; streets straight and of moderate width, but not paved: the public buildings comprise 2 churches, 2 convents, a public granary, and an hospital. The town contains about 30 oil-mills, 2 soap manufactories, and an establishment for making firearms: the salt-pans being under the direction of government, cannot be in a prosperous condition. A considerable fair is held here, Dec. 2. The climate, though not so genial as in neighbouring towns situated at a less elevation, is, on the whole, salubrious; and corn and fruit are abundant. Grazing, however, is the principal pursuit of the people in and near the town; and Mifano states that, at an average, 35,000 head of sheep and goats are pastured on the surrounding hills.

Junilla was taken from the Moors, who, having founded or rebuilt it, gave it its present name, by a king of Arragon: it was again taken from Arragon by Henry of Trastamare, who made it subject to the crown of Castile. (*Mifano, Dict. Géog.*; see *MURCIA*.)

JUMNA (Sanscr. *Yamuna*, the *Yamones* of Pliny), a river of Hindostan, and the chief tributary of the Ganges. It rises on the S.W. side of the great Himalaya range, about lat. 30° 55' N., and long. 78° 24' E.; and has been traced to an elevation of about 11,500 ft. above the sea, at the foot of an abrupt mountain nearly 4,000 ft. higher. Over the wall of this mountain falls a streamlet, probably caused by the melting of the snows on the summit, and which appears to be the true source of the river. For some miles the Jumna proceeds through a glen no more than about 40 yards in width at its bottom, and bounded by mural precipices of granite many thousand feet in height. The stream is here concealed by a thick bed of frozen snow, which arches over the course of the river beneath, supported by the abutting walls of the ravine. About half a mile below the point to which the Jumna has been traced, is Jumnottri, a celebrated place of pilgrimage and ablation with the Hindoos. At this spot are numerous hot ferruginous springs, some of which rise in the rocky wall 10 or 12 ft. above the bed of the river; and having melted the snow for 20 or 30 yards round, mix with the waters of the Jumna, rendering them sensibly warm. Some of the springs are hot enough to boil rice, their temperature having been found as high as 194°° Fah., or near the point at which water is converted into steam at that elevation,

about 10,840 ft. above the sea. Before arriving at them, the Jumna is only about 8 ft. in width and a few inches deep; but these, causing a continual melting of the snow, contribute greatly to augment its supply of water. About 50 m. below its source, the Tonas unites with the Jumna; and though double the size of the latter, takes its name. From this point to Delhi the river flows generally in a S. direction; it thenceforward gradually declines to the S.E. Throughout its whole course it usually runs parallel to the Ganges, the tract between the two rivers, called the *Doab*, varying from 20 to 80 m. in width. At its emerging from the hilly region, about lat. 30° 15', the bed of the Jumna, which is 1,000 yards broad, is full in the rains, though in the dry season the river is not more than 100 yards across. It is not usually very deep, being fordable in several places above Agra; in its progress through the prov. of Delhi it divides into various branches, inclosing large islands. It joins the Ganges at Allahabad, where its breadth is fully equal to that of the latter river. Its entire length is estimated at 780 m. It receives no tributaries of any consequence in the upper part of its course; but in the lower, the Chumbul, Sind, Betwah, and Cane, join it from the S. and the Rinde from the N. Delhi, Agra, Allahabad, Benares, Kailash, and other cities, on its banks, its shallowness, the Jumna is little serviceable to commerce, and its waters in the great plain of the upper provs. are so impregnated with natron, that vegetation is rather hindered than promoted by its inundations. The country to the W. of Delhi is, however, fertilised by the canal of All Mordan Khan, cut from it immediately after its leaving the hills; and the upper portion of the Doab is irrigated in a similar manner by the Zabeta Khan's canal, 200 m. in length, which also commences at the foot of the hilly region, and proceeds to Delhi. (*Géog. Jour.*, iv.; *Frazer*; *Hodgson*; *Asiat. Researches*, xii.; *Hamilton, E. I. Gaz.* &c.)

JUNGEEPOOR, a town of Hindostan, prov. Bengal, distr. Moorsheadabad, on an arm of the Ganges, 35 m. N.N.W. Moorsheadabad. It is one of the principal stations in the British territories for the culture of the silk-worm. The mulberry is cultivated to a great extent from annual shoots; and large quantities of indigo are also grown in the neighbourhood.

JUNGLE MEHALS, a distr. of British India, presid. Bengal, prov. Bengal, between lat. 25° 30' and 26° N., and long. 86° and 88° E.; having N. the distr. Beerbhoom, E. Burdwan, S. Hooghly and Midnapore, and W. Ramghur. Area, 6,990 sq. m. Pop. (1829-30) 1,304,740. "The name of this district implies a waste territory and backward stage of civilisation; yet it appears, from the report of the circuit judge in 1815, that no instance of gang-robbery or arson had occurred during the previous six months, and in India, where a country furnishes few materials for history, it may be presumed to be going on tolerably well." (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*) Total land revenue (1829-30) 44,942*l*.

JURA, a frontier dep. of France, region of the E., formerly included in Franche Comté, between lat. 46° 18' and 47° 18' N., and long. 5° 19' and 6° 12' E., having N. Haute Saône, E. Doubs and a part of Switzerland, S. Ain, and W. Saône-et-Loire and Côte d'Or. Length, N.W. to S.E., 70 m. Area, 496,980 hectares. Pop. (1836), 315,355. More than two thirds of the surface, principally in the S. and E., is covered with mountain ranges belonging to the Jura system, the principal summit of which, the Reculet, 5,835 ft. high, is in this dep. Rivers numerous: the chief are the Doubs and Ain. There are several small lakes, and in the N.W. some large marshes. In the plains the atmosphere is moist and heavy, while in the mountains it is dry, and the winters long and severe. In 1834, the arable lands were estimated at 183,113 hectares; meadows at 50,547; vineyards at 21,097; forests at 115,614; heaths, wastes, &c., at 79,000 do. According to Hugo, *l'agriculture du département paraît aussi perfectionnée qu'elle peut l'être*. Sufficient corn is grown for home consumption, chiefly wheat, barley, maize, and oats. In 1835, the crop of potatoes was estimated at 719,000 hectol. Upwards of 400,000 hectol. of wine are produced annually, some of which is very good. The mountains afford excellent pasture, on which many black cattle are fed; and *châlets* are established on them, as in Switzerland. The butter and cheese of the dep. are much esteemed. In 1830, the horned cattle amounted to nearly 155,000 head: sheep are much less numerous. Horses and mules are extensively bred; and hogs, poultry, and bees, are also very plentiful. In 1835, of 122,24 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 61,337 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 19,865 at from 5 to 10 fr. The number of large properties is much below the average of the depes. There are several iron mines, and quarries of marble, alabaster, and gypsum. The dep. has also ores of lead, coal, copper, and even gold, but no mines of these metals are at present wrought. Iron forges and paper factories are numerous; cotton and linen fabrics, chamois and other leather, glue, mineral acids, and marble ornaments, are among the other chief

manufactures. Watches and trinkets are made at Mores, and ivory, bone, horn, marble, and wooden articles are sent all over Europe from the turning establishments of St. Claude. Jura is divided into 4 arrond.: chief towns, Lons-le-Saunier, the cap., Dôle, Poligny, and St. Claude. It sends 4 mems. to the ch. of dep. Number of electors (1838-39), 1,156. Total public revenue (1830), 7,582,947 fr. (*Euge, art. Jura; French Official Tables, &c.*)

JURA MOUNTAINS, a chain of central Europe, usually classed with the Alpine system, and including the mountains of W. Switzerland, and those between the Lake of Geneva, the Rhone, the Saone, and the Doube. The range commonly thus designated has a length of about 180 m., with an average breadth of 30 m., commencing S. on the banks of the Rhone, and running N.E. to the junction of the Rhine and Sar; but connected mountains of analogous composition run N. through Suabia and Franconia, and S.W. along the right bank of the Rhone to the vicinity of Narbonne, so that the Jura range, in its most extended sense, has a length of about 600 m. The Swiss Jura, of which alone any notice will here be given, consists of several long parallel chains, enclosing narrow longitudinal valleys, such as the Val de Joux (in which is the mountain-lake of the same name, 2,360 ft. above the sea), the Val Travers, the Val de Ruz, and the valleys of the Valserine, Doube, Birs, and other rivers. Transverse valleys, similar to those in the main Alpine system, are of rare occurrence, and the range throws off only one lateral spur, viz. the chain of Mount Jorat, passing between the lakes of Geneva and Neuchâtel, and joining the Bernese Alps. The slope is rapid on the Swiss side, but more gentle towards France; and the ridge, as seen from a distance, presents a regular undulating line with rounded dome-like summits, contrasting strongly with the abrupt crags and towering peaks of the Alps. The chain sinks, as it advances N.: the culminating point, *le Reculet*, is 5,533 ft. high, and 8 others rise above 5,000 ft.: the roads across the ridge have an elevation varying from 3,600 to 2,500 ft. above the sea. Snow lies on the highest ground about 7 months in the year, and there are no glaciers. The geological constitution of the Jura mountains, which has been described at length by Von Buch, Boué, and also by different writers in the *Geological Transactions* (London), is limestone of the oolitic series. The strata comprise most of the varieties lying between the lias and the compact limestone, answering to the Portland stone of English geologists; and the beds are thrown up at high elevations, thus causing the formation of those longitudinal valleys which are a characteristic feature of the Jura. On the S.E. slopes, and, as Lyell observes, exactly opposite the principal openings by which great rivers descend from the Alps, lie numerous "erratic" blocks of extraordinary magnitude. How these granite fragments came to their present situation is wholly matter of conjecture; but if it be true, as Lyell supposes, that the limestone layers of the Jura were upraised by some internal commotion, it is not improbable that these boulders were detached from the Alpine summits, and transported to lower platforms, which have been subsequently denuded. (*Princ. of Geol.*, vol. iii. p. 364.) The vegetation of the Jura nearly resembles that of the Alps: box-trees are very abundant on the N.W. side, and the hills near Poligny are covered with fir, the timber of which furnishes materials for the industry of the pop. during the winter months, and is also a considerable article of trade with the surrounding districts. Many of the villagers, also, on the mountain sides, and in the valleys, are employed in making watch-movements, which find a ready market at Geneva and other towns in which the watch trade is extensively pursued. (*Brugière; Géographie de l'Europe; Ebel, Manuel du Voy. en Suisse, &c.*)

JURA, one of the Hebrides, which see.

JUTLAND, a large prov. of Denmark, formerly comprising the whole continental portion of the Danish dominions, but which is now restricted to the part of the peninsula belonging to Denmark to the N. of Sleswick, extending from about 55° to nearly 59° N. lat., being about 170 m. in length, and from 60 to 80 in breadth, comprising an area of 9,580 sq. m. Pop. in 1834, 525,963, having increased at the rate of about 1 per cent. per annum during the present century. It is of an oblong form, with the addition of a triangle towards the N. Surface generally flat. It has few rivers, and none of any considerable magnitude; but it is deeply indented, and in part traversed by inlets or arms (fjords) of the sea. Soil very various. In the middle it is dry, sandy, and occupied by extensive heaths; on both shores it is more fertile; and on the W. coast, particularly towards the S., there are large tracts of very rich marsh-land, defended by dykes from being overflowed by the sea. Agriculture, though still backward, has made great progress during the present century. Rye, oats, and buckwheat are the crops most generally raised; and they, along with cattle of excellent quality, horses, and butter,

form the principal articles of export. Hogs are so very plentiful, that Jutland has been called "the land of bacon and rye bread!" Fish very abundant in the fjords or inlets of the sea. Minerals and manufactures unimportant. Principal towns, Aalborg, Aarhus, Wylburg, &c.

K.

KAFFA, or **THEODOSIA**, a sea-port town of European Russia, on the S.E. coast of the Crimea, lat. 45° 1' 37" N., long. 35° 23' 37" E. Pop. 7,350. It is believed to stand on the site of the ancient Theodosia, founded by Milesian colonists in remote antiquity. The Athenians carried on a great trade with this city, importing from it vast quantities of corn, with slaves, lumber, and naval stores, hides, and honey. After undergoing many revolutions, it fell, in the 12th century, into the possession of the Genoese, who rebuilt it, and made it the chief seat of their power during the lengthened period of their ascendancy in the Black Sea. In 1475 it was taken by the Turks; but it continued, down to its conquest by the Russians, to be a large, populous town. It, however, suffered severely from this event, partly in consequence of the devastations committed by the Russian soldiery, and partly through the emigration of its Tartar inhab. Latterly, however, it has begun to revive; though, owing to the superior advantages enjoyed by Kertsch as an entrepôt for the trade of the sea of Azoff, it does not seem very probable that Kaffa will ever recover her former importance. The road, or bay of Kaffa is very extensive, and capable of accommodating a great number of vessels. It has deep water throughout; the holding ground is good; and, with the exception of the E., it is sheltered from all winds. (*Hugmeister on the Trade of the Black Sea*, p. 64, &c., Eng. Trans.; *Purdy's Sailing Directions for the Black Sea*, &c., p. 308, &c.)

KAIRA, a distr. of British India, presid. Bombay: between lat. 22° 15' and 23° 35' N., and long. 72° 40' and 73° 30' E.; area, 1,837 sq. m. Pop. (1824) 484,785. It consists principally of territory ceded at different times by the Peshwa and Guikowar, is well watered, and contains a great deal of good soil; but having been inhabited by a turbulent pop., it was greatly neglected before it came into our hands; and it still contains much waste land; while education appears to be in a lower state than in most British districts. The land is assessed under the village system, and the assessment is realised without difficulty. Total amount of land revenue (1818-19), 175,874.

KAIRA, a town of Hindostan, cap. of the above collectorate, 113 m. N.N.W. Surat; lat. 22° 47' N., long. 72° 48' E. It is a neat town, surrounded by bastioned ramparts and walls in good repair. Its streets are narrow, but tolerably clean, and its houses are solid, lofty, and adorned with a great deal of carving. Its chief public buildings are the district court-house, a handsome Grecian edifice, a large and secure prison, a church, an English school, and, near the centre of the town, a large Jain temple. The cantonment of Kaira, about 1½ m. distant, is, unfortunately (like many of the settlements in India founded by the British), in a very unhealthy situation; but it is extensive and well laid out, with good barracks, an hospital, a regimental school, and a tolerable English library.

KAIRWAN, or **KEERWAN**, a large city of N. Africa, at present the chief source of Mohammedan bigotry in that country, regency Tunis, 85 m. S. from the city of Tunis; lat. 35° 36' N., long. 95° 57' E. Pop. estimated, but on no good authority, at 50,000. It is situated in a barren sandy plain, and is surrounded by a low wall: the public buildings comprise a considerable number of several mosques, two of which are extremely magnificent, supported, as Shaw affirms, "by an almost incredible number of pillars." (*Travels*, p. 116.) The houses are clean and respectable; and the streets wide, and ornamented with columns, capitals, and highly raised Cufic inscriptions. It is regarded as the second town in the regency; and its Kadee, or governor, may be said to be almost independent of the Bey of Tunis. He fixes the price of provisions, which are said to be, though certainly not on account of his interference, a half cheaper than at Tunis; but, with all his influence, he cannot so far overrule the bigotry of the inhabs. as to ensure a good reception to the Christian traveller, who, if he venture within the walls, must take on himself all the risks of his enterprise. Kairwan is famous for its yellow Morocco boots and slippers, the delicate dye of which it has hitherto been found impossible to equal. It was formerly a place of great literary eminence, possessing well-endowed institutions and good libraries, from which Europeans have derived a large portion of their knowledge of Arabic literature; but of its present claims to

* For an account of the trade of the A theodians with this emporium, see Clarke's *Commerce of Rome, Persia, and Sarcen Colon*, p. 26.

such distinction we have no information, as the extreme jealousy of the people shuts out all local inquiry.

Kairwan is supposed by Shaw to occupy the site of the *Vicus Augusti* in Antonine's Itinerary; but, notwithstanding the deference due to so great an authority, this supposition is contested by Temple and others, apparently on pretty good grounds. The present city was built about A.C. 670, about the time when Africa was invaded by the general of the Ommyyade, Khalif Moswyad I. In 802, the governor of W. Africa threw off his allegiance to the khalif, declared himself independent, and established his capital at Kairwan. In 969, the seat of government was transferred to Calro, since which its importance, though still considerable, has materially declined. (*Shaw's Travels; Temple's Excursions*, vol. II. p. 92-96.)

KAISARIAH (an. *Masaca*, and afterwards *Cæsarea*), a town of Asiatic Turkey, prov. Karamania, sandjak of its own name, on the Karasa (an. *Milas*), a tributary of the Euphrates, 140 m. E. N.E. Koneh, and 135 m. S.E. Angora, lat. 38° 43' N., long. 35° 20' 20" E. Pop., according to Kinnier, about 25,000, of whom 2,000 are Armenians, Greeks, and Jews. It is situated on the E. side of a fertile plain of great length, and in a recess formed between two spurs projecting from the lofty, snow-covered Mount Erdik, the *Argæus* of antiquity. The houses, though built of stone and brick, have a mean appearance, and the streets are said to be the filthiest in Turkey. It is surrounded by a wall now in ruins, and in the suburb are some interesting remains of a Roman city. Several mosques, one Greek and two Armenian churches, a convent, and some mausoleums, are the chief public buildings. Kaisariah is the emporium of an extensive trade, and the resort of merchants from all parts of Asia Minor and Syria, who come to purchase cotton cultivated in the vicinity in great quantities, and sold either in a raw state or when manufactured in cloth. Cotton thread, and cloth constitute the chief articles of industry; and there are some tanneries of yellow Morocco leather. The land in the neighbourhood is fertilised by the inundations of the Karasa, and produces an abundance of large and delicious-flavoured fruits and vegetables. The climate is very healthy, except within the town, where epidemics prevail, owing to the offal, &c. left in the streets to decay and infect the air.

Masaca, the anc. cap. of Cappadocia, took the name of Cæsarea in honour of Tiberius. Its antiquity is attested by Strabo, who also gives an excellent description of the neighbourhood. It was the residence of one of the kings of Cappadocia previously to its being annexed to the Roman empire, after which it continued to increase in size and beauty. An amphitheatre and many temples were erected; and in the reign of Valerian, when Shapoor I. king of Persia pillaged the city, and massacred its inhabs. It is said to have had a pop. of 400,000 persons, though this is most probably far beyond the mark. (*Gibbon*, l. 493.) Its dimensions were contracted by Justinian, who rebuilt the walls: it was raised to the dignity of an apostolic see, and gave birth to St. Basil. Having been destroyed by an earthquake, it was afterwards rebuilt, and by turns became subject to the sultan of Iconium, the princes of Karaman, and the grand seignor. (*Kinnier's Asia Minor*, p. 96-106; *Geog. Journ.*, vol. viii.; *Dict. Geog.*, &c.)

KAISARIAH, a ruined town and sea-port of Palestine. (*See CÆSAREA*.)

KALISZ, a city of Poland, and the most westerly in the Russian dominions, cap. palat. of the same name, on an island in the Proena, immediately within the Russian frontier, 128 m. W. S.W. Warsaw, and 70 m. S.E. Posen. Pop. estimated at 15,000, of whom 2,400 are Jews. This is one of the finest cities in the kingdom. It is surrounded by old walls flanked with towers, and entered by five gates; and has a citadel founded by Cassimir the Great. Its streets are broad and well paved, and several are planted with trees: its houses are generally good. The most remarkable public edifices are the former palace of the volrodes, now occupied by the courts of law, the cathedral, church of St. Nicholas, and the Lutheran church. Besides the cathedral, there are five R. Catholic churches and six convents, a synagogue, a R. Catholic gymnasium or lyceum, with a fine library, and large scientific collections, a military school with 300 students, several superior female seminaries, elementary schools, attended by about 300 children of both sexes, a school of midwifery, &c. (*Horschelmann's Stein*, l. 701.) It has also a theatre, a house of charity, and three hospitals. Kalisz is a town of some industry, having manufactures of linen and woollen cloths, and leather. A fine road leads to Opatowek, a village about 6 m. distant. E. S. E., celebrated for its large manufacture of woollens, and its gardens, which form the favourite resort of the inhab. of Kalisz. This city was founded about 653, and was long the residence of the dukes of Great Poland. Near it, in 1706, the Poles totally defeated the Swedes; and in Sep. 1835, a grand military muster and

review took place at Kalisz, attended by the sovereigns of Russia, Austria, and Prussia. (*Malte-Brun; Tableau de la Pologne; Balbi; Stein*.)

KALPEE, or CALPEE, a large and populous town of British India, presid. and prov. Agra, on the S. bank of the Jumna, 45 m. S.W. Cawnpore. It is a place of considerable trade, being an entrepôt for the transport of cotton from the S.W. of India to the Gangetic provs.; and has also manufactures of sugar-candy, paper, &c.

KALUGA, a government of Russia in Europe, near its centre; chiefly between lat. 53° 30' and 55° 30' N., and long. 33° 40' and 37° E., having W. the gov. of Smolensk, N. the latter and Moscow, E. Tula, and S. Orel. Area, according to Koppen, 11,470 sq. m. Pop. in 1846, 1,066,400. Surface an almost uninterrupted plain, watered by numerous rivers, of which the Oka and its tributaries are the principal. Climate tolerably mild for the lat. Soil mostly either sandy or hard clay, and not fertile. Forests occupy more than half the surface. Arable lands rather more than 2-5ths; but a good deal of manure is required to render the latter even moderately productive; and the agricultural produce is not adequate to the consumption of the inhabitants. Rye is principally grown; but oats, wheat, and barley, are also cultivated; as are hemp and flax. Cattle not numerous, and but little valued; but there are in the gov. 2 extensive studs for the breeding of superior horses. The fisheries are insignificant: little game is met with. Bog-iron is found, but in no great quantity, and a good deal has to be imported to supply the various iron works. This government being so little suitable for agriculture, the attention of its inhabitants has been naturally turned towards manufacturing industry; in this respect, Kaluga ranks immediately after the governments of Moscow and Vladimir. In 1830, 18,600 workmen were employed in distilleries and manufactures of sail cloth, linen and cotton goods, leather, soap, candles, and hardware. The manufacture of beet-root sugar has been lately introduced. Nearly all the peasants' families employ a considerable portion of their time in weaving. Many of the merchants in this government are opulent, and some have commercial transactions with foreign countries, through Archangel. The chief exports are oils, spirits, potash, honey, linen, sail-cloth, and other manufactured goods. The chief commercial towns are Kaluga, and Borofoak. The inhabitants are nearly all of the Russian stock. Kaluga is divided into 11 districts, and is under the same military governor with Tula. Its scholastic institutions are under the university of Moscow, but they are extremely deficient; and it has only one printing press, which is the property of the crown.

KALUGA, a town of Russia in Europe, cap. of the above gov., on the Oka, near where it suddenly turns eastward, 105 m. S.E. Moscow. Lat. 54° 30' 37" N.; long. 36° 17' 12" E. Pop. 25,660. (*Schützler*.) Though comprising no more than about 3,800 houses, it is said to occupy a space of 10 versts, or little short of 7 m. in circ., and is divided into 8 quarters by the Oka and its tributary, the Kalonjehk. It is an ill-built town, with narrow, crooked, and ill-lighted streets, and wooden houses. There are, however, some good public edifices as the high church, government-house, town-hall, and theatre. Of the 24 churches, 23 are of stone; a convent, also a stone building, gymnasium, seminary for poor children of noble birth, founding asylum, several work-houses and hospitals, and a house of correction, are the other chief public establishments. Kaluga is one of the most important manufacturing and commercial towns in the empire: it has 5 sail-cloth factories employing 400 weavers, and 1,000 spinners, between 30 and 40 oil factories, numerous tanneries, some sugar refineries, and manufactures of woollen cloth, cotton fabric, hats, paper-hangings, earthenware, soap, vitriol, &c. Besides carrying on an extensive internal trade, its merchants make large exports of lamb-skins, Russia leather, and wax, to Dantzig, Breslau, Berlin, and Lelpsic. (*Schützler, La Russie*, pp. 123-128; *Possart, Russland*, pp. 517-530.)

KAMINIETZ (Polish, *Kamienie Podolski*), a town of Russian Poland, gov. Podolia, of which it is the cap., on the Smerecz, about 15 m. from its junction with the Dniestr, 215 m. S.E. Kiev, and 300 m. N.W. Odessa; lat. 46° 40' 30" N., long. 27° 1' 30" E. Pop., in 1830, according to an official document, 15,599; but this is probably much exaggerated: in 1832 it had only 600 houses and 8,000 inhab., many of whom were Jews. It is irregularly laid out, with narrow streets, and wooden houses. It has, however, some conspicuous edifices of stone and other solid materials; including the cathedral, dedicated to St. Peter and St. Paul, a Gothic building containing 15 altars and a nave, supported by 180 columns. Near it is a column supporting the statue of the Saviour. The church of the Dominicans, originally constructed of wood, in 1360, was rebuilt in stone after the expulsion of the Turks in the 18th century. There are in all 5 R. Catholic, and 4 Greek churches, and 1

Armenian church, a fine edifice, completed in 1767. The R. Catholics have several convents. The other chief public buildings are the government library, circle school, and new gymnasium, commenced in 1837.

The town was formerly walled, but its works were levelled, by order of the Russian government, in 1812. It is, however, still defended by a citadel and another fortress. The former, situated on a steep isolated rock overlooking the town, might be made impregnable, but it is commanded by some more lofty adjacent heights. Kamniskie was however, for a lengthened period, the principal bulwark of Poland on the side of Turkey. It was founded by the sons of Olgherd, in 1231, after that prince had wrested Podolia from the Tartars. It was soon after fortified, and in 1374 attained the rank of a city. It remained attached to Poland till its final capture by the Russians in 1793, except from 1672 to 1699, during which it was in the possession of the Turks. (*Schmidler, La Russie*, pp. 306, 301.; *Posselt, Das Kaiserth. Russl.*, p. 373.)

KAMTSCHATKA, a large peninsula at the N.E. extremity of Asia, forming a part of the Russian gov. of Irkutsk, and bounded N. by the country of the Tchukchik, E. by the Aleutian archipelago, and W. by the sea of Okhotsk. It lies between the 51st and 62d parallels of N. lat., and the 165th and 167th deg. of E. long.; has a length of about 800 m., and a breadth varying from 100 to 250 m., the area being very loosely estimated at 80,000 sq. m. Supposed pop. only 5,000, of whom about 1,500 are Russians. The coast line on the W. side is tolerably regular, the Gulf of Penguik, at its N. end, forming the only considerable exception (between the E. side are several extensive bays, enclosed respectively between the capes Chlpunsky, Kronotsky, Kamtschatka, Ozeronoy, and Oltzotsky, the last of which is near the N.E. end of the peninsula: C. Lopatka (lat. 51° 0' 15" N., long. 152° 2' 15" E.) is the S. extremity of Kamtschatka. The coast, generally speaking, is abrupt and rocky, especially on the E. side, and the peninsula, when viewed from the sea, presents the appearance of a barren and desolate rock; but in the interior there are plains of considerable extent, having a soil well adapted for tillage. The high lands, which cover about two thirds of the entire surface, consist of a chain of volcanic mountains, running in a S.S.W. direction. Many volcanos in this chain have been ascertained by Erman and Lutk to be in a high state of action; and it seems very probable that, geologically considered, they form only one extremity of a great volcanic belt, continued through the Kurile and Japanese islands, Formosa, and the islands of the E. Indian archipelago.

The following statements are drawn up from the observations of the naturalists in Commodore Lutk's expedition, in 1827-29, and of Prof. Erman, who visited Kamtschatka in 1829. In the main range running N. from C. Lopatka, 13 summits, with craters and hot springs, have been observed within the 51st and 56th parallels, one other height being isolated, and lying W. of the principal chain. The elevation of 9 summits has been accurately measured, and appears to be as follows:—

Asatchinsky	8,340 ft.	Kronotsky	10,610 ft.
Vilatchinsky	6,546	Klutchewsky	16,500
Avatcha	8,750	Tobachin	8,250
Koriata	11,190	Chevelutch	10,590
Japanow	9,050		

The most active are Asatchinsky, Avatcha, and Klutchewsky. The scorie and ashes thrown from the first, in 1828, were carried as far as Petropaulowsky, 120 versts distant; and it appears to be more or less in continual activity. In 1827 there was a violent eruption of Mount Avatcha, during which, besides lava and stones, a very large quantity of water was ejected; a phenomena remarked also by Humboldt in the volcano of Karkuariso, a little N. of Chimborazo, in the Colombian Andes, and known to have occurred, though in a less degree, during the eruptions of Etna and Vesuvius. At the summit is a crater several hundred yards in circ., formed by a wall 30 ft. high, composed of porphyry, felspar, and trachyte; and on the E. side, at an elevation of about 5,000 ft., another crater, now extinct, and similar both in origin and appearance to the Somma of Mount Vesuvius. Klutchewsky, which, in common with six others, continually emits smoke, was during the last century in very violent action, sometimes for a year or two at a time, sending forth vitrified stones, lava, pumice, and water: after having been comparatively quiet for about 40 years, it broke out again during Erman's visit in 1829. It presents a large base, swelling in an elliptic curve, and crowned by four cones: its geological components are trachyte, Labrador felspar, obsidian, and lava, and on its side are numerous thermal springs of high temperature. Indeed the general formation of Kamtschatka is of igneous origin, comprising porphyry, jasper, felspar, schist, trachyte, dolomite, &c.; the W. side, however, is composed of Neptunian, secondary, and tertiary rocks, among

* Balbi (1837) says they have been since restored.

which may be distinguished various beds of lignites, sandstone, iron-sand, and chalk. In the last of which are found large quantities of yellow amber: fossil shells in great variety have been discovered in all the secondary and tertiary formations of this interesting peninsula. The shape of Kamtschatka precludes the possibility of there being any extensive rivers; and, accordingly, those met with resemble torrents more than rivers, being either nearly dry, or flooded and rapid: the Kamtschatka river, however, is alleged to be capable of admitting vessels of 100 tons about 150 m. up the stream.

The severity of the climate, though considerable, has been greatly exaggerated. The average temperature in the middle of winter is about 10° Reaumur; that of summer is about 70°; but the difference seems greater, owing to the prevalence of raw piercing winds, and thick fogs. Still, if any judgment may be formed from the health of the inhabs., it cannot be unwholesome; for they are robust and long-lived, and there are few diseases, except small-pox, syphilis, &c. introduced by the Russians, who also corrupt the pop. by familiarising them with the use of ardent spirits. (See *Dobell's Travels*, vol. i. p. 67.)

The vegetation is generally considered to be very limited; but the limits are prescribed by man rather than by nature. Rye, barley, potatoes, cabbages, turnips, hemp and flax, with several other plants peculiar to the country, may be raised successfully, with moderate attention; but the people are, with few exceptions, devoted to hunting, able to live on game and dried fish, and extremely loath to engage in the more civilising, though less exciting pursuit of agriculture, the first attempts at which date no further back than 1810. Among the fruits may be mentioned the raspberry, red currant, whortle-berry, cranberry, a delicious species of strawberry called *Amchika*, a wild cherry called *cheronka*, and a kind of apricot or plum. The forest trees comprise the birch, fir, larch, poplar, cedar, willow, and juniper. Pasturage has hitherto been little followed; but the abundance of grass shows that if there was an inclination towards it, the pursuit would be profitable.

The animals usually hunted comprise bears, lynxes, sea and river otters, rein-deer, foxes of different colours, the sables, beavers, &c., and the number of skins exported is supposed to average about 20,000 a year, chiefly of foxes and sables. Among the birds, the principal are moor-game of different kinds, and many varieties of water-fowl, the eggs of which, saturated with oil, constitute the chief food of the inhabs. The fish caught in the rivers comprise many varieties of salmon, some of which are peculiar to the country, all serving most essentially to supply winter food: the sea also abounds with cod, herrings, &c., and seals; walrus and whales furnish oil, exclusively employed for domestic purposes.

The trade of Kamtschatka, owing to the exactions of the Russian governors, who, in consequence of their great distance from Petersburg, or even Tobolsk, have few checks on their own cupidity, is of course extremely limited. Taxes are taken in skins; and the people complain bitterly, that no equitable system of taxation has been authorised by the Imperial government. Hence, wholly left to the mercy of individual officers, they justly apprehend the insecurity of property, and want the chief motive for improving the natural resources of the country: labour is confined to the supply of merely temporary necessities, domestic comforts are little known or cared for, and affluence is scarcely ever attained even by the most provident and laborious. Furs and dried fish are exported from Petropaulowsky, chiefly by the Russians and Dutch, who bring in exchange rice, flour, coffee, sugar, brandy, and whisky.

The natives, comprising the two tribes of the Kamtschatdals and Koriaks, who differ more in mode of life than in physical conformation, are of low stature, but stout and broad in the shoulders, with large heads, flat and broad faces, prominent cheek-bones, thin lips, lank black hair, and eyes deeply sunk in the head. Their features seem to identify them with the Mongolian race, to which they are certainly more closely allied than to the Esquimaux, with whom Cochrane and Langsdorff have erroneously classed them. The Kamtschatdals are described by Dobell as being shy and averse to strangers, but at the same time intelligent, and fully capable of improvement, if endeavours were made to instruct them in the arts of civilised life. Honesty, openness of character, and extreme hospitality, are prevailing features among them; but it has been remarked by more than one traveller, that their morals have been much debased by the introduction of felons from Siberia, and the quartering of Russian troops at Petropaulowsky: drunkenness has since that period been an increasing evil, and now threatens to be as destructive to the Kamtschatdals as to the Indian tribes of N. America. Their employment, when not agricultural, is hunting and fishing. They live in fixed habitations; but their dwellings are low, comfortless, and extremely filthy, sunk in the ground in the winter months, and raised on posts during summer, to facilitate the curing of fish.

which is hung up on lines to dry. In travelling they use dogs instead of horses. These animals somewhat resemble the English shepherd-dog, are extremely intelligent, and endure an almost incredible degree of labour and privation. They are fed during the winter, when they are principally used, on offal and decayed fish, and in the summer are allowed to roam abroad, and shift for themselves. Few Kamtschatkales have less than six, and some upwards of twenty, the whole number of dogs being estimated at 3,000. When used for draught they are harnessed, two and two to a sledge, one particularly well trained being placed in front as leader. The sledge is in the shape of an oblong basket about 3 ft. long, and raised 3 ft. from the ground: the driver usually sits sideways, like a lady on horseback, and urges the dogs by throwing at them a stick, which he afterwards catches with great dexterity. Occasionally parties travel in company: "and then," says Dobell, "the eagerness and impetuosity of the dogs, and the rivalry of the *Kyoorshiks*, or drivers, are worthy to be compared with the exertions of the high-blooded coursers of Newmarket; nor does the management and driving of the dogs require much less skill and attention than are needed in the latter case, to arrive at perfection, and gain the palm of victory." The Koriaks, who inhabit the N. part of the peninsula, a wandering tribe, subsist on the produce of their herds of rein-deer, which they also use to draw their sledges. The number of Koriaks is unknown, and they are not included in the estimates of the population.

Kamtschatka was first known to the Russians in 1696, when Vladimir Atlasov invaded the peninsula, and made great part of it tributary to Peter the Great. The conquest was completed in 1706, since which, regular tribute has been paid, in furs, to the governor of Irkutsk. There are 4 districts, each of which is governed by a *toim*, or lieutenant, whose business is to preserve peace, enforce the orders of government, and collect the tribute, the quantity of which varies according to the character of the governor, and the favour which particular persons happen to enjoy. The commander of the troops resides at Petropaulowsky, which for some years has been the principal place. Its population, however, does not exceed 700, while that of Nishni-Kamtschatk, the former capital, has scarcely 150 persons. Bolcheresk, a small harbour on the W. side of Kamtschatka has a pop. of about 200. (*Cockburn's Travels in Siberia*, li. 27—28; *Lutke's Voyages*, li. 64—98; *Erman: Reise um die Erde*, l. 415—420; *Dobell's Kamtschatka*, &c. l. 1—188.)

KANDAHAR. See CANDAHAR.

KANNAGHERRY (*Khanagiri*), a town of Hindostan, prov. Bejapoor, formerly the cap. of a Hindoo principality, 19 m. N.W. Bijnagur. It is beautifully situated in a valley, enclosed by wooded declivities, and partially encircled by a rivulet. The principal street is very spacious, and at one extremity is a fine pagoda to Krishna, the interior of which is elaborately ornamented with stucco bas-reliefs. Various other temples have been converted into dwelling houses or stables by the Mussulman pop.; and the vicinity abounds with fragments of Hindoo monuments. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*)

KANOJE (*Kanyarubja*), a town of Hindostan, prov. Agra, and, according to Rennell, possibly the an. *Canipaza* mentioned by Pliny, about 2 m. from the Ganges, 118 m. E. by S. Agra, and 67 m. W.N.W. Lucknow; lat. 27° 4' N., long. 79° 47' E. It is now degraded into a mere second-rate town of the district of Etawah; but it is mentioned by Ferishta as having been once the cap. of the principal kingdom along the Ganges, comprising the mod. provs. of Delhi, Agra, Oude, and Serinagur. The Indian histories are full of accounts of its grandeur and extent, and for a distance of 6 m. the traveller now wanders over a tract covered with scattered ruins of brick and other buildings. The most perfect vestige of the an. Hindoo city is a portion of a small and rude pagoda, its interior adorned with figures of Lakshmi and Rama, surrounded by the Hindoo pantheon in miniature. There are several handsome tombs, mosques, and other Mohammedan edifices in stone, Kanoje having been taken by the Mohammedans under Mahmood of Ghizal, in 1018. Under the Moguls it gave its name to a district; but it soon lost its importance, and, in consequence of its ruin, it was sacked by the Mahabatas in 1761. The mod. Kanoje consists of only a single street, and presents nothing worthy of note, except a citadel, close to which is the termination of a canal communicating with the Ganges. (*Rennell's Memoir*, &c.; *Lord Valentia*; *Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*)

KARA-HISSAR. See APFUM KARA-HISSAR.

KARAK, or KHARRACK (*the Icarus of Arrian*), an island of the Persian Gulph, now belonging to the British, lat. 29° 18' N., long. 60° 21' E., 35 m. N.W. Bushire. It has an area of 13 or 18 sq. m. with a pop. of about 300 or 400. "It affords a safe anchorage at all seasons, but more particularly during the severe gales which blow from the N.W., and are the prevailing winds in this sea. The greater part of the island is so rocky,

that little use can be made of it; but the E. side, being somewhat lower than the other parts, is capable of being cultivated. It has abundance of water. The inhab. gain a livelihood by gardening and fishing, and manufacture a small quantity of common cloth for their own consumption. The island of Corgo, lying about 14 m. or 2 m. N. Karak, contains about 2 sq. m., and is of a light sandy soil. It has also plenty of water, but not of so good a quality as that of Karak; and although not inhabited at present, it is capable of being cultivated, and will produce both wheat and barley during the rainy seasons." (*Kinnaird's Pers. Empire*, p. 18, 19.) Pearls of a superior colour and description are fished around the coasts of both islands. The Dutch, after having been obliged to abandon their factory at Busorah, founded an establishment at Karak in 1748. They were, however, driven from it by the Arabs about 1765. Karak was subsequently occupied by the Persians; and in 1807, for a short period, by the French. During our recent disagreement with the shah of Persia, the British resident, previously stationed at Bushire, removed thither; and the island was taken possession of by an English force in 1839. Its acquisition will give us the complete command of the Persian Gulph, and will be also serviceable from its affording a secure anchorage for our ships, and a station where they may water and refit. (*Kinnaird's Pers. Empire*, *Asiat. Journal*.)

KARAMANIA, a town of Asiatic Turkey in Karamania, 56 m. S.S.E. Konieh; lat. 37° 10' N., long. 33° 5' E. Pop. 15,000. It stands at the S. extremity of a large plain, and at the foot of the lofty range of Bedierin-dagh, a branch of Mount Taurus: it covers with its squares and gardens a large area; the houses are of mud and sun-dried bricks, and have a mean wretched appearance; but the climate is salubrious, and water abundant. The public buildings comprise four mosques, with the ruins of others, numerous khans and hummums, and a castle on a height, now mouldering to decay. Karaman trades with Kasab, Smyrna, and Tarsus, in cotton fabrics, hides, and nungals; and it has a pretty extensive manufacture of blue cotton cloth, worn by the lower classes.

Karaman, which occupies the site of the ancient *Laranda*, is said to have been founded by Karaman Oghe, a powerful prince living in the 14th century. It was the cap. of a Turkish kingdom, which lasted from the time of the partition of the Seljuk dominions of Iconium till 1486, when Karamania was subjected by the Ottoman emperor Bajazet II. Konieh then became the seat of the pachalic, and from that period Karaman has been gradually falling into decay. (*Kinnaird's Asia M.*, p. 211; *Leake's Tour*, p. 99.)

KARAMANIA. See TURKEY IN ASIA.

KARASUBASAR, a town of European Russia, Crimea, 15 m. E. Simpheropol, inhabited by Tartars, Greeks, Russians, Jews, Armenians, &c. Pop. according to the official returns, nearly 11,000, which, if they may be depended upon, show a great increase within the last dozen years. Streets narrow, winding, and dirty. There are several graceful looking mosques, a new Rom. Catholic church, a large building, or khan, occupied by shops, &c. It is celebrated for the manufacture of a very superior sort of red and yellow morocco leather, and it contains several tanneries, candle and soap works, potteries, and tile-works. It is also the great mart of the Crimea for fruit, wine, and cattle. There is a weekly market, and a great annual fair. (*Schmitzer, La Russie*, &c. p. 736; *Lyell*, l. 356.)

KARLSBURG. See CARLSBURG.

KARS, a town of Turkish Armenia, formerly cap. of a pachalic of the same name, on the Arpak-Chai, a tributary of the Aras or Araxe, 85 m. N.E. Erzeroum, and 160 m. E. by S. Trebizond; lat. 40° 25' N., long. 41° 10' E. Pop. in 1835, not exceeding 2,000 families. It is situated on the N. side of a plain, which, though about 4,000 ft. high, is extremely fertile: a part of it is walled, and there is a citadel, which, however, is commanded by heights within musket-shot on the other side the river. Two stone bridges unite the two portions of the city divided by the river, which encircles the walled portion on three sides. The houses of the citadel are tolerably large and well built, but those in the town below are of the underground architecture usual in the Armenian villages. The public buildings comprise several mosques, and one Armenian church outside the walls: the Armenian convent is uninhabited and in ruins. Kars being the centre of a fine corn-growing district, had formerly a considerable trade in farming produce; but it was nearly destroyed during the Russian invasion, and is only slowly recovering.

Kars, the origin of which is doubtful (*Tournefort*, li. p. 256), was formerly a large town, with a pop. of nearly 8,000 families; but it is now little better than a heap of ruins, the ruins of the Russian occupation, a large part of the Turkish pop. abandoned it, while at the same time the Armenians emigrated with the retreating army of the Russians, leaving many deserted villages and much unoccupied land. The present inhab. are about half

Turkish and half Armenian; the former being described as turbulent and impatient of subordination to the pacha of Erzeroum, under whom it is now a sandjak, and the residence of a mutsiliin. (*Smith and Dwight's Mus. Researches*, p. 31; *Geog. Journ.* vi. 195.)

KASAN, one of the eastern governments of Russia in Europe, having N. Viatka, E. Orenburg, S. Simbirsk, and W. Nijegorod. Area, 94,000 sq. m. Pop. 1,343,000, partly Russians and partly Tchouvaches, of Finnish origin, Tatars, &c. It is traversed for a considerable distance by the Volga, the Kama, one of the principal affluents of the latter, and by some lesser streams, and is interspersed with numerous lakes. Surface generally flat, but in parts undulating and hilly; soil almost every where fertile, producing, with very imperfect culture, abundant crops of rye, wheat, hemp and flax, &c. Forests very extensive, covering nearly half the surface. Climate in winter very severe; but the summer, though short, is generally fine. Grazing is not well understood, and but little attention is given to the rearing of cattle. The fishery in the Kama is very productive. There are numerous distilleries, saw-mills, and potash works, with tanneries, &c. More than half the government belongs to the crown, which, in 1816, had 356,166 peasants. The public revenue in 1827 amounted to 6,205,314 roubles, of which 4,699,342 consisted of the obrok or rent paid by the peasants belonging to the crown. (*Schmidler, La Russie*, &c., p. 665, &c.)

KASAN, a city of European Russia, cap. of the above government, on the Kasanka, about 4 m. above where it falls into the Volga; lat. 55° 47' 26" N., long. 49° 21' 9" E. Pop., in 1833, 57,000. After being burnt down by Pougatcheff in 1774, Kasan was rebuilt, by order of Catherine II., on a more regular plan. It was again the prey of an accidental conflagration in September 1813, by which it was more than half destroyed; but, like Moscow, it has risen from its ashes larger and better built than ever. It stands on very uneven ground, interspersed with lakes, and consists, like most other Russian cities, of three parts: the kremlin or citadel, on a considerable eminence; the town, properly so called; and the *slobodas*, or suburbs. The town is well built, and has broad and spacious squares and market-places. In the suburbs, which are principally occupied by the Tartar pop., the houses are of wood, and the streets disgustingly filthy. Principal buildings, the grand cathedral, founded in 1532; the cathedrals of St. Peter and St. Paul, with several other cathedrals and churches, some of them built in the course of the present century. The convent of Bogoroditskoï Kasanskoi, rebuilt by the emperor Alexander; the hotel of the general governor; the archiepiscopal palace; the hotel of the nobles; the bazaar; the military hospital; the arsenal, &c. Kasan is one of the most literary towns in Russia. It has a university, founded in 1804, but which was not opened till 1814. It had, in 1-35, 70 principal and subordinate professors, 234 pupils, and a library of above 24,500 volumes. Its principal object is to supply instruction in the eastern languages, or in Arabic, Persian, Turkish, Tartar, and Mongul; within the last three or four years, a professorship has been established for giving instruction in the Chinese language and literature. The city has also one of the four great theological academies, with a gymnasium, an observatory, a grammar-school, a Tartar school, a school for the instruction of school-masters, &c.; and several journals and publications issue from its press, among which are comprised some works in the Turkish language. A great cloth manufactory, established by Peter the Great, is now the property of individuals, and employs about 1,000 work-people; and there are besides manufactories of cottons, hardware, earthenware, and tiles, with tanneries, soap-works, distilleries, &c. Kasan is the seat of an admiralty; and vessels are constructed for the navigation of the Volga and the Caspian. It also carries on an extensive trade, for which its situation adjoining the Volga gives it peculiar facilities. About 15,000 of the pop. are Mohammedans. The rest, with the exception of a few Protestants, belong to the established Greek church. (*Schmidler, La Russie*, &c. p. 671, &c.)

KASCHAU, a royal free city of Hungary, in the circ. on this side the Theiss, co. Abaujvar, on the Hernad, 123 m. N.E. Pesth. Pop. 13,600. It is well-built, with fine squares, and regularly laid out streets; and has 13 Rom. Cath. and 2 Lutheran churches, besides a theatre, and several other handsome public buildings. The chief public establishments are a royal academy, with a library of 10,000 vols., and a fine collection of natural history, a gymnasium, an episcopal seminary, a school for nobles (*adleges Kowats*), and a military asylum: it is the seat of a county-assembly and court of justice; and has manufactories of tobacco, cutlery, earthenware, paper, &c.; and a large transit trade with Poland. (*Westerr. Nat. Encyc.*; *Berghaus*.)

KATRINE (LOCH), a lake of Scotland, in the district of Monteth, in the S.W. part of Perthshire, on the confines of Stirlingshire, 8 m. W. Callander, and 5

m. E. from Loch Lomond. This, which is the most westerly and largest of a chain of lochs, consisting of lochs Venacher, Achray, and Katrine, the principal feeders of the Teith, is about 104 m. in length, and from 1½ to 2 m. in width, of a serpentine form, and very deep. It is embosomed among lofty mountains, divided by deep ravines, whose sides, in parts clothed with wood down to the water's edge, and in parts consisting of bold rugged precipices, give it every variety of wild, picturesque scenery. Still, however, it was but seldom visited, and little known, till Scott made it the scene of his fine poem of *The Lady of the Lake*, when it at once attained the maximum of celebrity, and has since been annually resorted to by crowds of visitors. At the E. end of the loch, between it and Loch Achray, is the celebrated pass of the Trossachs, so beautifully described in stanzas 11-12. of the first canto of *The Lady of the Lake*.

KAZAMKEN, a town of Asiatic Turkey, prov. Irak-Arabi, on the W. bank of the Tigris, 3 m. N. Bagdad. Pop. 8,000. ? chiefly Persians, who have been induced to settle here on account of its being the burying-place of two celebrated imams, to whose memory a noble mosque has been erected. It is ornamented with two gilded cupolas, and, like those of Meshed All and Kerbela, is supported by the contributions of pilgrims. The town has a decent bazaar, many coffee-houses, 3 hammams, and a caravanserai on the opposite side of the river to the tomb of Imam Abo Hanaf, another Mohammedan saint. (*Kinncir*.)

KEDGEEREE, a town of British India, prov. Bengal, on the W. side of the Hooghly river, near its mouth, lat. 21° 35' N., long. 89° 16' E. It stands in a low, swampy situation; but, according to Hamilton, it is, notwithstanding, much healthier than Diamond Harbour, and ships of war, unless compelled by strong reasons, should never go higher up the river. A light-house has been erected a few miles further down, and of late years one has been established at Kedgeeree, the charge for which, on ships sailing under British or American flags, is 3d. per ton per annum. The charge for pilotage to Kedgeeree is half the full pilotage from the sea to Calcutta. A government marine officer is stationed at this town, who makes daily reports of the ships which arrive and sail. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*; *Commercial Dict.*)

KEDJE, a town of Beloochistan, prov. Mukran, of which it is the cap., on a rivulet, by which the surrounding district is well irrigated, 374 m. S.W. Kheilat; lat. 26° 24' N., long. 62° 28' E. Pop. unknown, but it is said to have once contained 3,000 houses. It stands clustered around the base of a precipice, on which is a fortress; and was formerly a place of considerable trade, which having declined, the town has fallen into decay. (*Pottinger's Beloochistan*, p. 304.)

KEILL, a town of Baden, circ. Middle Rhine, on the Rhine, immediately opposite Strasbourg, and 10 m. N.W. Offenburg. Pop. about 1,000, or, with its immediate environs, nearly double that number. It was formerly a fortress, and was esteemed an important bulwark of Germany. It was fortified by Vauban in 1688, ceded by France to Baden in 1697, taken by the French in 1703, 1733, 1753, and 1796; by the Austrians, also, in the latter year; and re-taken by the French in the succeeding. After the peace, its works were dismantled, Gernersheim being fortified by the Germ. Confed. in its stead. The town is connected by a bridge of boats with the opposite bank of the Rhine, near Strasbourg. Its inhab. employ themselves chiefly in transit trade. (*Berg-haus*; *Schreyer's Dict. Geog.*)

KEIGHLEY, or KIGHLEY, a market town and par. of England, in the W. riding of co. York, wap. St. Cliffe and Ewoson, on an affluent of the Aire, 16 m. W.N.W. Leeds, and 178 m. N.N.W. London; area of par. 10,160 acres. Pop., in 1841, 12,413, being an increase of 20 per cent. on that of 1831. The town is beautifully situated in a valley close to the range called the Blackstone Edge; and though irregularly built, comprises many handsome stone houses: it is well paved, sufficiently supplied with water, and lighted with gas. A neat and commodious court-house, and a spacious market-place, were erected in 1833, and more recently a Mechanics' Institute has been built on ground given by the Earl of Burlington, who has large possessions in and near the town. The church was built in 1808, on the site of one erected in the reign of Henry I., and is a large and handsome structure, with a lofty steeple, containing a fine peal of bells; the living is a rectory in the gift of the Duke of Devonshire. There are also places of worship for Independents, Baptists, Wesleyan new connection, and Primitive Methodists, Swedenborgians, and the Society of Friends; and to all of these, as well as to the church, large Sunday schools are attached, furnishing religious instruction to about 1,800 children of both sexes. A free grammar-school, founded and well endowed in 1713, a girls' national school, and an infant school, are the chief educational establishments; and a mechanics' Institute, founded in 1825, and now in union with that at Leeds,

has conferred many benefits on the working classes. The worsted manufacture, especially of coarse stuffs, merinos, and worsted yarns, is carried on to a considerable extent; and the produce is sold in the piece-halls of Halifax and Bradford: 38 worsted-mills gave, in 1838, employment to 2,125 hands, and 5 cotton-mills to 198 hands; about 1,800 looms are at work within the par. The Leeds and Liverpool canal, which passes near the town, affords cheap conveyance for manufactures, &c., and establishes a communication with Hull on the one hand, and Liverpool on the other. A county court is established here, where by which 1,197 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. Under the Boundary Act Kelghley is a polling place for the W. riding. It is also the head of a union comprising 6 par.; the expense of maintaining the poor of this par. having amounted to 3,192, in 1847. Markets, well supplied, on Wednesday: fairs, May 8. and 9., and Nov. 7., 8., and 9.

Kelghley is known in the history of the great civil war, as having been the scene of an encounter, in 1645, between the king's troops, and a division of the parliamentary army, under Colonel Lambert. Its name is derived from an old family called Kelghley, one of whose members married a Cavendish, from whom the present Duke of Devonshire and the Earl of Burlington are descended. (*Baines's Gazetteer of Yorkshire; Pari. Rep.*)

KELLS, a town of Ireland, prov. Leinster, co. Meath, adjacent to the Blackwater, on the top and sides of a gentle hill, 35 m. N. W. Dublin, and 21 W. Drogheda. Pop., in 1841, 4,205, since which it has not increased. It consists of three principal and some smaller streets, and has some good houses; but, generally speaking, it is a poor, mean place, and is neither lighted nor watched. Here is a fine old church, contiguous to which is a pillar or round tower 99 ft. in height. It has, also, a R. Cath. chapel, a court-house, market-house, bridewell, fever hospital, a national school, and a school supported by Lady Headfort. A lace manufactory is said, in the *Municipal Boundary Report*, to employ 100 hands, and there is also an extensive brewery.

This is a very old town; a synod having been held here in 1152, and a castle erected on the site of the present market-place in 1178. Here, also, was a monastery, some remains of which still exist, and are called St. Columb Kill's House, from the name of its reputed founder. In one of the streets is a fine stone cross. The bor. returned 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C., but was disfranchised at the Union. The magnificent seat of the Headfort family is in its vicinity. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 678*l.*; in 1836, 715*l.*

KEITH, a bor. of barony and market-town of Scotland, co. Banff, on both sides the Isla, a tributary of the Deveron, 41½ m. N. W. Aberdeen. Pop., in 1801, inc. the par., 3,284; in 1841, 4,456. Keith is, properly speaking, composed of three towns, namely, Old Keith and New Keith, on the S. of the river, and Fife Keith, on the N., the whole lying in the centre of an amphitheatre of hills. The first, which is very old, is but of mean appearance and irregular shape; the second, begun to be erected in 1750, stands on a gentle eminence to the S. E. of the former, and consists of one principal street divided into several portions; the third, or Fife Keith, which had its origin in 1816, is connected with the two former towns by two bridges over the Isla. New Keith is the largest and best built of the three divisions in question, and in it most part of the public buildings are situated, such as the par. church, a Gothic building, with a tower 104 ft. high, and a R. Cath. chapel, after the plan of St. Maria de Vittoria at Roma. It has also an episcopal chapel, and two meeting-houses, belonging to the Associate Synod. The means of education are very ample. There are 4 subscription libraries. A considerable number of persons are employed in weaving woollen and linen cloth for the Aberdeen manufacturers; and it has also about 35 "customer weavers" employed by private persons for articles of local consumption. There are three branch banks in the bor. In addition to weekly markets, Keith has four annual fairs, all of considerable importance: Summer-eve Fair, held in September, is by far the greatest fair in the north for cattle and horses.

A skirmish took place in 1745 at Old Keith, between the forces of the Pretender and those in the royal service, in which the former had the advantage, and carried off 150 prisoners. James Ferguson, the celebrated self-taught astronomer, was born in the vicinity of Keith: the only school he ever attended was one at Keith, and that for only three months. He died in 1776. His "Autobiography" is well known. (*Beauties of Scotland*, vol. iv. § *Banffshire; Chambers's Gas.*)

KELSO, an inland market-town of Scotland, co. Roxburgh, beautifully situated on the left bank of the Tweed, near the point where it is joined by the Teviot, 28 m. S. E. Edinburgh, and 20½ m. S. W. Berwick-upon-Tweed. Pop., in 1801, 3,266; in 1841, 4,594: of the town and par., at the latter date, 5,238. The town, which is peculiarly neat and handsome, consists of 4 principal and

some smaller streets. The former meet in a square or market-place in the centre of the town, consisting of well-built houses, which, like those in other parts, are mostly of freestone and slated. On the E. side of this square is the town-house, an edifice of two stories, with a pediment in front supported by 4 Ionic columns, surmounted by a handsome balustrade, and dome springing from the centre of the roof. The old par. church being a "misshapen pile," a new or second par. church was built here in 1837 in the Elizabethan style, with a quadrangular tower 70 ft. high. The bridge across the Tweed, from a plan of the late Mr. Rennie, is said to have been the prototype of Waterloo bridge over the Thames by the same architect. It has 5 elliptical arches; its total length is 494 ft.; the breadth of the roadway is 35 ft., and the greatest height from the bed of the river 42 ft. It was finished in 1803 at an expense of 18,000*l.* In the immediate vicinity of the town, on the W., is Fleurs, the seat of the ducal family of Roxburgh, the feudal superiors of the bor.; a mansion erected in 1718, but recently repaired and modernised, combining, as Sir W. Scott has observed, "the ideas of ancient baronial grandeur with those of modern taste." But the most prominent feature in or round Kelso is its venerable abbey, founded in 1128 by David I. for Tyronensian monks, and endowed with immense possessions and privileges. Its form is that of a Latin cross, and it affords a fine specimen of the Saxon or early Norman style of architecture. It has long been in a state of dilapidation; but the Scotch reformers are guiltless of the demolition of this noble fabric: for, having been occupied as a place of security by the townspeople in 1545, it was then battered down by the English under the Earl of Hertford. The most prominent remains are the N. and S. aisles, each having two round towers, with two sides of the central tower, now only 91 ft. high. The thickness of the lower walls is 5½ ft. The pillars are clustered; the arches circular. Part of the ruin served as the par. church from 1649 till 1771, when it was deserted, from the idea of insecurity, for another place of worship. The Roxburgh family have of late laudably exerted themselves to repair and perpetuate this fine ruin. Kelso has been characterised by Scott, in his "Autobiography" (p. 38), as "the most beautiful, if not the most romantic village in Scotland." "It presents, as he says, "not only grand in themselves, but venerable from their associations." The best view of the town and environs is from the bridge.

In addition to the old and new par. churches previously noticed, there are five other places of worship in the town, belonging respectively to the Episcopalians, Cameronians, Original Seceders, Relief and Associate Synod.

There are 10 schools in the bor. and par., attended by about 700 scholars; of that about the seventh part of the people are, at the same time, being educated; and this without including Sunday schools, of which there are 6. Kelso has 6 subscription libraries; the oldest, containing about 5,000 vols., having been instituted in 1750. The "Kelso Physical and Antiquarian Society" would do credit to a much larger town. There are two reading-rooms; two newspapers, one published weekly, the other twice a week. Kelso was the first provincial town in Scotland that introduced the printing-press. (*Irving's Scot. Poets*, i. 75.) The first edition of Scott's *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border*, was printed in Kelso by James Ballantyne, who afterwards brought the typographical art to high perfection in Edinburgh, where he carried on the printing business in partnership with Scott.

A dispensary was founded here in 1777. Poor-rates were introduced in 1795; and yield, ex. other sources of income, a sum of about 1,700*l.* a year. About 40 children are educated at the expense of the par.

The currying of leather, and the manufacture of whetstones, linen stockings, and hats, which are the chief branches of industry, do not together employ more than 150 hands, and some of these branches are disappearing. The town, which is chiefly dependent on its retail trade, is remarkable for its numerous hand-some shops. It has a weekly corn-market, at which a great deal of business is transacted; and several annual fairs for cattle and sheep. There are four banks in the town; exclusive of savings' bank.

Kelso was originally a species of suburb to the bor. of Roxburgh, on the opposite bank of the Tweed. But the foundation of the abbey gave Kelso a more important character: and on the final destruction of Roxburgh, in the 18th century, its inhabitants transferred themselves thither. No traces now remain of the bor. of Roxburgh, and but few of its castle; though the latter was for centuries one of the most important Border fortresses. In 1460, James II., having taken the town of Roxburgh and demolished it, laid siege to the castle, during which he was killed by the bursting of a cannon. The queen, attended by her infant son, James III., encouraged the besiegers, and in a few days, the fortress was compelled to surrender. It was then destroyed; since which time it has remained in ruins, though partially repaired by the

English, under Somerset, in 1547. Soon after the Reformation, the lands and possessions of the abbey were conferred on the ancient family of Kerr, of Cessford, in the hands of whose descendants, the family of Roxburgh, they still remain. Kelso has repeatedly suffered from conflagrations, not in warlike times merely, but in pacific, as in 1696 and 1738. (*Morton's Monastic Annals of Tervelake; Haig's Hist. of Kelso; Tennant's Tour; New Stat. Acc. of Scotland, Roxburghshire*, p. 258.)

KEMPTEN (an. *Campeodunum*), a town of Bavaria, circ. Swabia and Neuburg, cap. distr. of same name, on the Ilser, 30 m. S.S.W. Augsburg. Pop. about 5,000. It consists of two parts, an old town surrounded with walls nearly encircled by the new town. The former is the commercial portion of Kempton; the latter, seated on higher ground, comprises the abbey, where was formerly held the court of the abbot of Kempton, an ecclesiastical possessing, besides the town, an independent territory of 340 sq. m., ceded to Bavaria in 1802. Kempton has a fine collegiate church, aqueduct, and theatre, an hospital, founding asylum, public library, &c.; and is the seat of the council for the circle, courts of law for the circle and town, a board of tolls, a gymnasium, and high-school. It has manufactures of linen and cotton fabrics, and a brisk trade in these goods, and in wool, cattle, and Italian produce. The Ilser becomes navigable near Kempton. Adjacent to the town is the eminence of Hilarmont, on which are the ruins of a fortress supposed to be Roman, and where various Roman coins have been found. (*Stein; Berghaus*, &c.)

KENDAL (KIRBY), a market-town, par. bor. and par. of Eng. and co. Westmoreland, ward of same name, 40 m. S. Carlisle, and 219 m. N.N.W. London. Pop. of par. bor. (which comprises the townships of Kendal, Kirkland, and Nethergraveship), in 1841, 11,519. The town, on the side of a hill, at the bottom of which the river Kent (crossed h-re by three bridges), runs nearly N. and S., consists principally of one long street on the line of the Carlisle road, and a lateral street leading down to the river on the Appleby road. The houses are well built of stone, and being whitened, and roofed with blue slates, have a remarkably clean and neat appearance. There are two other principal buildings, and the market, for butchers' meat, is neat and commodious. At the N.W. end of the town is a large and well arranged workhouse, and near it is a house of correction. The other principal buildings are a handsome hall, belonging to the society of "odd fellows," the assembly and news rooms, theatre, and several extensive factories. The church, near the S. entrance of the town, is a large Gothic structure, with a square tower: the living is a vicarage in the gift of Trinity College, Cambridge. There are two other episcopal places of worship, and 10 belonging to different denominations of dissenters. Among the educational establishments, are a well endowed grammar-school with university exhibitions, a blue-coat charity, a green-coat school, a large national school, supported both by endowment and subscription, a school of industry, an infant school, and several Sunday schools. There is also a thriving mechanics' institute. The charitable institutions comprise an hospital for old unmarried women, endowed with 100*l.* a year, a dispensary, and a lying-in charity; and the corporation has the trust of charitable funds to a considerable amount.

Kendal has long been noted for its weaving industry; and in the reigns of Richard II. and Henry IV., special laws were enacted for the protection of its manufactures. The present manufactures comprise linens, serges, batizes, the coarser kinds of kerseys, and carpets. There were 12 woollen mills, which employed, in 1838, 343 hands; and about 3,000 persons were employed in weaving, and otherwise preparing cloth. The wages of adult weavers (good hands) average 18*s.* a week, and are fully employed; but the trade has sometimes been much depressed, and great distress has consequently prevailed among the working classes. Sum raised by rates and expended on the poor in 1846-47, 2,477*l.* The marble works, for cutting and polishing marble, quarried at Kendal Fell, employ several hands; and the machinery is very ingenious. There is water-communication by a canal with Lancaster, and a railway has been projected to connect Kendal with Carlisle northward, and with the N. Union, and the other great lines of England. A joint-stock bank, and two private banking establishments furnish ample accommodation to the manufacturers, and a savings' bank has a large number of depositors. Two newspapers, of opposite politics, the "Westmoreland Gazette," and "Westmoreland Advertiser," are published every Saturday, and are said to be well conducted, and pretty extensively circulated.

Kendal was first incorporated by Queen Elizabeth, and a second charter was granted by Charles I. Under the Municipal Reform Act, it is divided into three wards, the municipal officers being a recorder, a mayor, and 5 other aldermen, with 18 councillors. Corporation revenue, in 1847-48, 760*l.* The Reform Act conferred on

Kendal the important privilege of sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. The electoral boundaries include the townships of Kendal and Kirkland, with those parts of Nethergraveship which adjoin Kendal. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 385. Markets, well attended, on Saturday; cattle fairs, March 22, April 29, and November 8.

Near Kendal, on the opposite side of the river, are the ruins of a castle, commandingly situated on a rocky eminence, and celebrated as the birthplace of Catherine Parr, one of the queens of Henry VIII. A large portion of the outer wall, and two towers, still remain to mark its former extent.

KENILWORTH, a market-town and par. of England, co. Warwick, hundred Knightlow, 5 m. N. Warwick, 18 m. S.E. Birmingham, and 96 m. N.N.W. London. Area of par. 6,460 acres; pop., in 1841, 3,149. It is delightfully situated on an affluent of the Avon, and consists chiefly of one long street, about 1 m. in length, part of the road from Warwick to Coventry. In the lower part of the town is the church, a Gothic building of different periods, having a handsome tower and spire; and near it are the ruins of an abbey, valued at the dissolution of the monasteries at 644*l.* On the higher ground are several handsome houses; and at the top of the hill on which the town stands are the ruins of a castle, the ancient fame of which has been made familiar to all Europe by the Magician of the North. There are several places of worship for dissenters, to each of which, as well as to the church, are attached well attended Sunday-schools. A free-school was founded in 1794, and there is a large national school. Among other charities, are almshouses for 16 widows, and an apprentice fund. Ribbands, gazes, and combs are made here; and there are chemical works for the preparation of Glauber salts, sal-ammoniac, and Prussian blue; but they are not important. Markets on Wednesday; horse and cattle fairs, April 30, and Sept. 30.

Kenilworth Castle, whose extensive ruins bear ample testimony to its ancient splendour and magnificence, was erected in 1190 by Geoffrey de Clinton, treasurer and chamberlain to Henry I., and in the reign of Edward I. the Earl of Leicester held a tournament here, which was attended by 100 knights with their ladies. The estate afterwards reverted to the crown, and was given by Queen Elizabeth to her unworthy favourite, Dudley, Earl of Leicester, who is said to have expended on its improvement 60,000*l.*, a vast sum for those days. "The outer wall," says Sir W. Scott, "inclosed seven acres, a part of which was occupied by extensive stables and by a pleasure-garden, with its trim arbours and parterres; and the rest formed the large base-court or outer yard of the noble castle, which was itself composed of a huge pile of castellated buildings surrounding an inner court. A large and massive keep, called Caesar's Tower, was of uncertain though great antiquity; and that noble and massive pile, which yet bears the name of Lancaster's Buildings, was erected by John of Gaunt, 'time-honoured Lancaster.' The external wall was on the S. and W. sides adorned and defended by a lake partly artificial, across which was a stately bridge, and on the N. side was a barbican, which, even in its present ruinous state, is equal in extent and superior in architecture to the second cast of many a northern chief. Beyond the lake lay an extensive chase, full of deer and game, and abounding with lofty trees. Queen Elizabeth twice visited this noble palace; and here, in 1575, she was entertained, with her whole court, with princely magnificence during 17 days, at the enormous expense of 1,000*l.* per diem. The castle was plundered and ultimately left in a state of ruin by Cromwell's soldiers, who appropriated to themselves the adjacent lands. After various changes, the estate came into the possession of Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, and is still held by that noble family. (*Sir W. Scott's "Kenilworth,"* vol. ii., with notes; *Bingley's Beauties of England and Wales*, &c.)

KENNERLY (CAVE-TEMPLES OF). See SALSETTE.

KENSINGTON, a town and par. of England, co. Middlesex, hund. Osulston, in the suburbs of London, 14 m. W. Hyde Park corner, comprising (with the hamlets of Baywater, Earl's Court, Brompton, and Little Chelsea), an area of 2,580 acres. Pop., in 1841, 17,319. It consists of a main street forming a part of the London road, and of several subordinate streets running from it N. and S., one of which leads into a handsome square. The houses are well built, and many good detached residences are scattered in the outskirts. The par. church is a plain but spacious building, erected in 1690; and the living is a vicarage in the gift of the Bishop of London. There are also 2 district churches, and a proprietary episcopal chapel, with several places of worship for dissenters (the largest of which, built in 1794, belongs to the Independents). A large charity school, uniting Lancasterian schools, and several private boarding-schools, furnish instruction to all classes; and there are numerous charities for the relief of the aged and sick.

poor. The trade of the town chiefly depends on the many families of rank and wealth resident in and round it.

Kensington is the chief locality of a poor-law union, comprising, besides itself, the parcs of Chelsea, Fulham, Hammersmith, and Paddington. The expense of maintaining the poor of this par. amounted to 10,675*l.* in 1847.

The palace, which, with its gardens, forms the chief object of attraction, is an irregular brick building, purchased by William III. of the Earl of Nottingham. Among other additions made by that monarch, the whole S. front was rebuilt under the direction of Sir C. Wren, and the interior received great improvements and embellishments: the W. front was rebuilt by Kent, in the reign of George II. The state rooms comprise 12 handsome chambers, well adapted for occasions of ceremony; but few of them, except the galleries, are of commanding proportions. The staircase, painted by Kent, is intended to represent a number of spectators on a court day; and the artist has introduced several portraits of characters connected with the court of George I.: the style, however, is *à la regence*, and in very bad taste. The presence chamber is now hung with pictures, many of which were highly valued by the late president West. This palace was the residence of William and Mary, Anne, George I., and George II., all of whom (except George I.) died within its walls. George III. removed the town residence of the court to St. James's; and Kensington palace has since been allotted to junior members of the royal family. The childhood of Queen Victoria was spent in it; and it was for many years the town residence of the Duke of Sussex. The duke's library, which has been sold, was very valuable, especially the collection of bibles and biblical works, inc. about 300 rare MSS. The gardens occupy an area of about 350 acres, and have been for many years an attractive public promenade. Holland House, a brick structure, in the Elizabethan style, at the W. end of Kensington, was built in 1607, and descended in the reign of Charles I. to the Earl of Holland. Addison occupied it after his marriage with the dowager Countess of Warwick. In 1766 it was purchased by Henry Fox, Lord Holland, in whose family it still remains. The library is 112 ft. in length, and contains a valuable collection of books, especially in Spanish and Portuguese literature. There are many good pictures, and in the hall is a sitting statue of C. J. Fox. About 200 acres of land are attached to the house, which is one of the finest residences in the vicinity of London.

KENT, a marit. co. in the S.E. part of England, being the nearest of any in the kingdom to the Continent, having N. the Thames and its estuary, E. and S.E. the German Ocean and the Straits of Dover, S. Sussex, and W. Surrey. Its greatest length, from Deptford to the N. Foreland, is about 64, and its greatest breadth about 30 m. Area, 996,480 acres, of which above 900,000 are said to be arable, meadow, and pasture. This is a finely diversified and beautiful co. Two parallel ridges of hills traverse its whole extent from E. to W. The upper, or most northerly of these ranges, extending from Westerham, on the confines of Surrey, to Dover, being composed chiefly of chalk, and thence called the chalk ridge; while the lower, or most southerly range, about 8 m. from the former, is usually called the ragstone range, from its consisting principally of ragstone and ironstone. The country to the N. of the upper range, including the isles of Sheppey, Grain, and Thanet (see THANET), is generally very fertile, and contains a good deal of marshy and of rich loamy land, producing the finest wheat. Romney Marsh, a celebrated grazing district (see ROMNEY MARSH), and the *Heads*, lie to the S. of the lower or ragstone range. The latter, which extends into Sussex and Surrey, is a very singular tract. Its soil is generally stiff and clayey, but in parts sand predominates. For a lengthened period it formed an immense forest; but was gradually, though slowly, brought into tillage. Its soil continues to be particularly well adapted to the growth of timber, especially oak, which here attains to the greatest luxuriance. At this moment most inclosures in the Weald are surrounded with oaks, and every wood and coppice is full of them. "When viewed from the adjoining hills, which command a prospect over the whole of it, the Weald exhibits the most delightful scene that can be imagined. It appears to the eye an extensive level country (the few hills in it being so small and inferior to those whence it is viewed), covered with all the richness of both art and nature; the variety of small inclosures of corn and meadow, and the houses, seats, and villages, promiscuously interspersed among the large and towering oaks, which grow over the whole face of it, have the most pleasing effect, and represent to us, even at this time, something, though a great improvement of its original state, in the idea of an inhabited and well cultivated forest." (*Hasted's Kent*, i. 293, 299, 8vo. ed.) From its proximity to the Continent the climate of Kent is colder in winter, and the E. winds in spring are said to be more piercing than in other cos.

In the same parallel more to the W.; but, on the other hand, the summers are warmer, and its autumns less liable to wet, which renders it especially fitted for the production of corn and fruit. Agriculture is in a very advanced state in Kent, and it has a greater variety of products than any other co. in the kingdom. Its wheat, barley, beans, and pease are all excellent. With the exception of the sale of Thanet, turnips are extensively raised on the light soils. Hops are produced in large quantities, especially in the district between Maidstone and Canterbury. Most part of the cherries, filberts, plums, and other fruits brought to the London markets, are supplied by the orchards between Maidstone and Tonbridge, &c.; while the sale of Thanet and other places furnish supplies of spinach and of various seeds. Though Kent feeds large numbers of cattle, it cannot be called a grazing co.: the stock of sheep is, however, very large. Romney Marsh has a peculiar breed that furnishes long, combing wool. There is a great deal of timber in other parts of the co., exclusive of the weald. Property much divided, and there are no great estates. Size of farms very various; but, owing to the sort of garden culture carried on in many parts, they are mostly, perhaps, rather small; many varying in extent from 10 to 30 acres, while there are but few above 200 or 250 acres. Average rent of land, in 1843, 26*s.* 7*d.* an acre. The yeomanry of Kent are a very superior class; and besides their own, some of them occupy extensive hired farms. All lands in Kent, unless expressly exempted by an act of the legislature, are held by the tenure of *quasi-feudum*. In the event of the father dying intestate, not to the eldest son, but to all the sons alike in equal portions; and if there be no sons, they divide equally among the daughters. This is supposed to have been the common tenure in England before the Conquest; but, exclusive of Kent, it now obtains in but a few places. Some estates have been *disgavelled*, or excepted by a special act of parliament, from this tenure; and partition is now, in most instances, prevented by testament. But such lands as are not *disgavelled*, or settled by testament, are invariably disposed of in the way stated above. (*Hasted's Kent*, i. 311—325, 8vo. ed.) The customs that prevail with respect to the entry to farms operate injuriously on agriculture; and owing, as is said, to the prevalence of smuggling on the coasts, and the abuse of the poor laws, the peasantry were lately supposed to be a good deal demoralised; but both these sources of disorder are now in the way of being obviated. Ironstone is abundant in many parts; and previously to the employment of coal in the making of iron, the weald, from the abundance of its timber, was a principal seat of the iron trade; but this has been long abandoned. With the exception of ship-building carried on at Deptford, Woolwich, Chatham, and other places, manufactures are unimportant; they consist of paper, made at Maidstone and Dover, gunpowder at Dartford and Faversham; and toys at Tonbridge. Exclusive of the Thames, the principal rivers are the Medway (which see), Stour, Rothe, Darent, and Ravensbourne. Kent is divided into the two nearly equal divisions of E. and W. Kent, each having its own court of sessions. Principal towns, Greenwich, Deptford, Chatham, Rochester, Canterbury, and Dover. It is divided into 5 lathes, 63 hundreds and 15 liberties, and 411 parishes. It sends 18 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 2 for each of the 2 divisions of the co.; 2 for each of the bors. of Canterbury, Rochester, Dover, Greenwich, Maidstone, and Sandwich, and 1 each for Chatham and Rye. Registered electors for the co. in 1849-50, 16,217, being 6,987 for the E., and 9,230 for the W. division. In 1841, Kent had 95,482 inhab. houses, and 548,337 inhab., of whom 372,532 were males, and 175,805 females. Sum expended on the relief of the poor, in 1846-7, 208,256*l.* Annual value of real property, in 1815, 1,687,443*l.* Do. in 1843, 2,907,606*l.*

KENTUCKY, one of the U. S. of America, in the central part of the Union, between lat. 36° 30' and 39° 30' N., and long. 86° and 89° W.; having N. the States of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, from all which it is separated by the Ohio river, W. Missouri, from which the Mississippi divides it, S. Tennessee, and E. Virginia. Length, E. to W., nearly 400 m.; breadth, varying from 40 to 175 m. Area, estimated at 39,000 sq. m. Pop. (1840), 779,828, of whom 132,250 were slaves. The general slope is towards the N.W. The E. extremity of the state is occupied by some offsets of the Alleghany mountains; and along the Ohio the country is broken, and contains many abrupt hills, and deep and fertile valleys, often densely wooded. Towards the centre of Kentucky the surface is undulating; the W. is comparatively level. In the latter direction is an extensive tract, called the "barrens," not sterile, however, as its name would seem to imply, but comprising some of the fine pasture land for which Kentucky is distinguished; and studded with oak and other forest trees. Next to the Ohio and Mississippi, the chief rivers are the Cumberland, Green, Kentucky, Licking, and Tennessee, which have numerous affluents, and are all tributary to the Ohio. Most

of them rise in the S.E. and mountainous part of the state. Cumberland river, the course of which is principally in Kentucky, has an entire length of 440 m. and is navigable for steam-vessels to Nashville in Tennessee, and for boats to near its source. Most of the other rivers above mentioned are navigable for more than 100 m. in the winter; but in summer the large streams are diminished to a greater extent than those of any other state in the union, and the small ones are entirely dried up. The whole of Kentucky appears to rest upon a bed of limestone, which rock is usually met with about 8 ft. below the surface. Bituminous coal is found along the banks of some of the rivers, and iron of excellent quality in numerous places. There are many salt springs, from which salt is obtained in sufficient quantities, not only for the supply of Kentucky itself, but of a great part of Ohio and Tennessee. Nitre, and fine white marble are plentiful. In the limestone formation, in the S.W., are several stupendous caverns, one of which, Mammoth Cave, in Warren co., is supposed to be 8 or 10 m. in extent. The climate in the E. and central parts is highly salubrious; but in the W., especially along the Mississippi, it is unhealthy, no year elapsing without a considerable mortality from fever, ague, &c. Great extremes of heat and cold are experienced in the state, and, considering its lat., its winters are both long and severe. The soil is generally fertile: of 83 cos. into which Kentucky is divided, 50 consist of rich land, and are comprised in the tract called the "Garden of Kentucky," 150 m. in length, and from 80 to 100 m. in breadth, in the centre of the state. Nearly all the European grains, Indian corn, and tobacco are cultivated. The hills along the N. boundary are under culture wherever their declivities are not too steep for the plough; and in those places they are generally covered with forest trees of vigorous growth, as oak, pine, elm, sycamore, chestnut, black walnut, locust trees, &c. The vine, mulberry, and a great variety of other fruits are grown. Hemp is a staple product. In the central tracts the land is generally well cultivated, and the farm-houses and offices are good. Artificial grasses and red clover are sown; white clover is of spontaneous growth. The chief branch of rural industry is the rearing of horses and cattle. The Kentucky horses are of acknowledged excellence, and are bred in large numbers. Their superiority is so great that many are sent over the mountains to the Atlantic States, and the principal supply of saddle and carriage horses for the lower country is drawn from Kentucky; the horses being sent down the Mississippi in flat-bottomed boats. Mules are numerous, and of excellent quality; when full grown, they average from 15 to 16 hands, and are sometimes 17 hands high: their price varies from 80 to 160 dollars. Many of the central counties are cultivated by large proprietors, who rear cattle very extensively, with which they supply the W. markets. Large droves of the first quality of hogs are exported to Virginia and Pennsylvania. Hogs are reared in large numbers on the barrens. Manufactures are of secondary importance: the chief are those of cotton and woollen cloths, cordage, salt, iron goods, and maple sugar. Cattle, hemp, wheat, and tobacco are the principal articles of export. Most of the external trade is carried on through New Orleans. The means of internal communication are rapidly extending. In January 1838, 308 m. of turnpike road had been completed, and 215 m. more were under contract, and in progress. In the same year, 6 m. of the Lexington and Ohio railway were open; and 90 m. of that between Frankfort and Louisville were nearly completed. Several other railways are in contemplation; among which is one designed to extend from Charleston in S. Carolina to the Ohio, its entire length being estimated at 640 m. Improvements in the river navigation are at the charge of the state; the construction of locks, dams, &c. on Green River was begun by the government, in 1834. A canal near Louisville, 3 m. long, by which the rapids are avoided, was completed in 1831. In January, 1836, Kentucky had 4 banks of its own, and 13 branch banks, with an estimated united capital of 7,030,900 dollars. Frankfort on the Kentucky is the cap., and seat of the legislative government; but Louisville is the largest commercial emporium. Lexington is the other principal town. The legislative power is vested in a senate, which consisted, in 1848, of 38 mems., and in a House of Representatives of 100 mems. The senators are elected for 4 years, one-fourth of their whole number being returned yearly. The representatives are elected annually. The right of election is in every free male citizen 21 years of age, who has resided in the state for 2 years preceding the election, or for one year in the country for which he desires to vote. The governor and lieutenant-governor hold office for 4 years; and are re-eligible only after the lapse of 7 years. Justice is administered in a supreme court, a court of chancery, and 16 district courts. The U.S. circuit-court is held at Frankfort. The militia of the state consisted, in 1838, of 75,926 men. In 1837, Kentucky had upwards of 1,000 ordinary schools

for public instruction; and there were many superior schools in the chief towns. Transylvania University, the oldest establishment of the kind in the W. part of the Union, is at Lexington (which see). Centre college, at Danville, founded in 1822, had (1849) an average attendance of 130 students. St. Joseph's college, at Bardstown, founded 1819, has a library of 7,000 vols., and generally about 180 students. There are colleges at Augusta, on the Ohio, Princeton, and Georgetown; a state-literary fund, several lunatic and deaf-and-dumb asylums, hospitals, &c. In 1839, 31 periodical publications were issued in the state. The earliest permanent settlement of this territory was made by settlers from N. Carolina, in 1773. Kentucky continued to form a part of Virginia till 1776, when a separation was effected; and in 1792 it was admitted into the Union as an independent state. It sends 12 mems. to Congress. (*American Cyclopaedia and Almanack; Pitkin's Statistics of the U. S.; Mitchell; Darby; Stuart's Three Years in America; Hoffman.*)

KERBELA, or MESHEH HOSSEIN, a town of Asiatic Turkey, prov. Irak-Arabi, 60 m. S.W. Bagdad. Pop. uncertain, but very considerable. It stands on a plain about 6 m. W. of the Euphrates, with which it is connected by a canal said to be more ancient even than the Nile. Alexander the Great had 5 gates, a well-supplied bazaar, and 7 caravanserais; but the chief ornaments of the city are the tomb of Hossein, adorned with a gilded cupola, and a noble mosque. Its chief lustre has been derived from Hossein, son of Ali by Fatima, the daughter of the prophet, who was slain near it, and to whose tomb numerous pilgrims of the sect of Ali flock from all quarters, but especially from Persia, to pay their devotions. It is subject to the Turks, but still the majority of the inhab. are Persians; and it has always been a favourite object of their king to obtain possession of this place, as well as of Meshed Ali and Kasameen, both of which are, like Kerbela, the resort of pilgrims. The environs of the town and borders of the canal are shaded by extensive plantations of palm-trees, and the walls, which are upwards of 2 m. in circuit, are kept in good repair, to secure the riches of the holy city against the predatory excursions of the Wahabees, by whom it was plundered some years ago.

Kerbela occupies the site of *Vologesia*, a small town built by Vologese, one of the Parthian kings, contemporaneous with Nero and Vespasian. KERESOUN (an. *Cerasus*), a town and sea-port of Asiatic Turkey, on the S. shore of the Black Sea, pach. Trebisond, from the town of which name it is distant 88 m. W. by S.; lat. 40° 57' 10" N., and long. 38° 24' E. Pop. about 3,000, half being Armenian and Greek. It stands on an elevated rocky promontory bounding an extensive bay to the E., and appears to have been formerly a place of great strength. A considerable part of the ancient wall still exists; but the present town is in a ruinous condition, and the people bear the appearance of being in abject poverty. There is some little trade in corn with the Crimea, and trading vessels are built in the bay under the city walls.

Cerasus was visited by Xenophon on his return with the ten thousand; and he calls it a "Hellenic colony, situated in the country of the Colchi." (*Anab. v. 2.*) It is also said to be the native country of the cherry, which hence received its name. It was here that Mithridates ordered his wives and sisters to be poisoned after the battle of Cabira, when it fell into the hands of Lucullus; but that it was, as Arrian states, identical with the Pharnacia which was the residence of the kings of Pontus, is, to say the least, extremely doubtful. (*Cramer's Asia Minor*, i. 281.) Keresoun was conquered by Mahmoud II., and has since been attached to the Turkish empire. (*Kinnear's Asia Minor*, p. 329; *Renell's Geog. of W. Asia*, vol. II.)

KERKOUK (*Demetrius*, Strab.; *Corsura*, Ptol.), a large town of Asiatic Turkey, in Lower Kurdistan, cap. sandjak, 100 m. S.E. Mosul, and 180 m. N. Bagdad. Pop., according to Kinnear, 15,000. It is situated on a commanding eminence, nearly perpendicular on all sides, below which is an extensive suburb: it is surrounded by a mud wall, but beyond this are extensive suburbs. Besides numerous mosques, it has 3 R. Catholic churches and 1 Armenian do. The streets are narrow and filthy; and the meanness of the houses leaves no doubt with respect to the poverty and wretchedness of the inhab. The surrounding district is uneven and hilly; and on the N. side a low range of barren and rocky mountains separates it from the fine plain of Altun-Kuip. In the pass through these mountains are numerous naphtha pits, yielding an inexhaustible supply of that useful commodity, which is sent in earthen jars all over the neighbouring country. (*Kinnear's Persia*, p. 298; *Olivier*, iv. 300.)

KERMAN (an. *Caramania*), a prov. of Persia, between lat. 25° 30' and 31° 30' N., and long. 54° 30' and 60° 20' E., having N. Khorassan, E. Afghanistan and Heloochistan, S. the Persian Gulph, and W. the provs. Fars and Laristan. Shape triangular; extreme length

380 m.; breadth, 250 m.; supposed area, 66,000 sq. m. Pop. alleged to be under 600,000, having greatly decreased of late years through the wars of extermination waged by the Persians on the Guebres or Parsees. Kerman, generally speaking, is mountainous; but the elevation of the high ground varies considerably from mere hills to lofty ridges, scarcely lower than those of the great mass in which they originate. The principal range divides Nurmansheer from Laristan, and thence runs W. with many ramifications. The interior of the prov. is not irrigated by a single river, and the natives could not possibly exist, but for a few mountain springs, and the diligence used in cutting *karez* or subterranean reservoirs, for watering the land. The Rud Shuir, which runs through the S. part of Kerman into the Persian gulph, is at present very imperfectly known. The climate is accounted the least healthy of any part of Persia; the hills, which are clad with snow nearly all the year, being extremely cold, and the long narrow valleys between them oppressively hot. The winds from the mountains are deliciously cool; but, as they bring with them agues, and epidemic fevers, the natives prefer sultry weather. The N. portion of the prov., and that close on the coast, are arid sterile deserts; but in Nurmansheer and a few other central districts where irrigation has been properly followed up, layers of alluvial soil and rich vegetable mould are found to be exceedingly productive. Wheat, maize, and barley; cotton, tobacco, saffron, and madder, are raised with facility, and in the greatest perfection. Dates, oranges, lemons, grapes, almonds, and pistachios, with other fruits of S. Europe, are of common occurrence; and mulberry-trees are largely cultivated for the silk-worms. In breeding which the inhabs. have attained considerable celebrity. The gum-plants, the produce of which is not less esteemed than that from Arabia, comprise the *assafoetida*, mastic galbanum, sandaric ammoniac, sarcocolla, and tragacanth. Much attention is likewise given to the cultivation of the white rose, from which is distilled an *attar* or essence highly valued in Asia. Pasturage, however, is a more favourite pursuit than tillage. The breed of sheep peculiar to this prov. called *damberdar*, is small and short-legged, with a long bushy tail; its wool fetches a higher price in the market than that of any other varieties in Persia. Camels also, and goats, are bred in great numbers; as their hair is thought to make a fibre at once stronger and more delicate than that of animals reared elsewhere. Oxen and horses are little attended to. The forests are infested with wild beasts of the cat and bear tribe; and there are many species of serpents, some being highly venomous. On the S. coast sea-fish is abundant; but the pearl-fishery, once very profitable, has been abandoned in consequence of the too great depth of the outer beds. The mineral riches might be made a source of considerable wealth for most metals are abundant; but iron, copper, and sulphur are the only products hitherto obtained. The manufactures comprise fine woollen fabrics, carpets, goats' and camels' hair shawls, coarse linens, and a peculiar kind of matchlock, much esteemed in the E. These articles, with *chama*, a yellow dye, fruits, gums, &c., are either sent N. by caravans, or exported from the port of Gombroon.

The inhabs. were formerly almost exclusively Guebres; but the number of these is now less than 40,000. The Persians constitute the chief mass of the pop.; but there are also many Belooches and Arabs of different tribes. The government is vested in a beglerbeg; and the prov. is divided into 9 districts, each of which is under a bakun or lieutenant. The taxes on land, and imposts on manufactured goods, are very oppressive, and operate as a great hindrance to industry. The S. part of Kerman, called Moghistan, is not subject to Persia, but to the Imam of Muscat, who receives from it a yearly tribute of 7,000 tomanas. The Arabs of various tribes are governed by their respective sheiks. (*Kinney's Persia*, p. 194—201; *Pottinger's Travels*, p. 220—237; *Hagemeister sur l'Asie Occidentale*, &c.)

KERMAN, of SERJAN (an. *Carmana*), a city of Persia, and cap. of the above prov. 230 m. E. Shiraz, and 240 m. S.E. Isfahan; lat. 29° 56' N., long. 56° E. Pop. estimated by Pottinger at 30,000. This city, which was once more prosperous and extensive than at present, stands on the W. side of an extensive plain, so close to the mountains as to be completely commanded by two of them. The walls, pierced by 4 gates, are high and built of mud, flanked outside by a dry ditch, 30 yards wide, and 10 yards deep. On the S. side of the town is a citadel, in which the governor resides. The bazaar, well supplied with every article of necessity and luxury, is covered in with very elegant domes, built of a beautiful blue stone procured in the adjoining mountains. There are nine good caravanserais within the walls, several mosques, baths, &c.; but most of them are in a ruinous condition. The trade of Kerman, however, is still very considerable; and it is celebrated for its manufactures of shawls, carpets, and matchlocks, which are exported to Khorassan, Balh, and Khiva, Arabia, Sindh, and all

parts of India. The shawls of Kerman are of coarser quality, but approaching nearly in colour and general appearance to the inferior Cashmires. Immense quantities of the commoner kinds are sent to all parts of Turkey; they are about 2 yards square, very low in price, and are generally worn by the lower classes in W. Asia.

Kerman, formerly one of the proudest cities of the Persian empire, owed much of its former opulence to its situation on the road from Bokhara to Gombroon, a port which has been almost superseded by Bushire. Domestic and foreign wars, however, with repeated pillages, have all but ruined it. In 1794 it was besieged and taken by Aga Mahommed Khan; the walls and public buildings were then levelled to the ground, and licentious soldiery were allowed to pillage it during three months, vast numbers of the inhabs. were put to death, and 30,000 are said to have been sent into exile. From these calamities Kerman is only very slowly recovering, nor does the present state of its trade warrant the conclusion that it will ever attain its former importance. (*Kinney's Persia*, p. 198; *Pottinger*, &c.)

KERMANSHAW, or KERMANSIAH, a city of Persia, the cap. of Persian Kurdistan and of a district bearing its own name; 83 m. W.S.W. Hamadan, and 320 m. S.W. Isfahan; lat. 34° 28' N., long. 47° 15' 15" E. Pop. 30,000. It stands a short distance from the right bank of the Kerkeh or Karasu, in a beautiful plain open to the S., but inclosed on every other side by lofty mountains. It is surrounded by a substantial brick wall, having round towers at its four angles and a deep ditch in front. The citadel, strongly fortified, is the residence of the beglerbeg, who belongs to the royal family of Persia. The streets are narrow, crooked, and unpaved; but the town is adorned with many gardens, has 14 *hamams* or public baths, 4 mosques, several bazars, and a spacious caravanserai kept in tolerable repair. Its manufactures consist chiefly of woollen carpets and swords, mostly sent to Bagdad, with cotton, very delicious grapes, and other products of the rich soil belonging to the district. Considerable advantages accrue to the town in consequence of its situation on the great caravan road between Persia, Caubul, &c. and Asiatic Turkey. Great improvements have been made by the existing dynasty in its fortifications and public buildings; and it has become the residence of one of the members of the reigning family; so that its pop. and general importance have been steadily increasing during the present century.

About 6 m. E. of Kermanshaw, on the road to Hamadan and in the N. range of mountains, are the excavations and sculptures of Taki-Bostan. The most considerable of these is an arch cut in the rock, 60 ft. high, 20 ft. deep, and 24 ft. wide; on the top is an emblematic figure, flanked by two angels, the sculpture of which is tolerably perfect and in good taste. At the extremity of the arch is the figure of a mounted warrior clothed in chain armour, with a shield on his left arm, a lance in his right hand, a quiver at his side, and a *thara* on his head. The horse is well proportioned and tolerably carved. The representation of a boar-hunt occupies the entire left side of the arch; it is remarkably well executed, "some parts being so exquisitely finished (according to Kinney) that they would not have disgraced the finest artists of Greece and Rome." At the upper end of another cave, similar in shape and size to that just described, is a *bass-relief* of two kings in the costume of Persepolis, and wearing globular crowns identifying them with members of the Shapur dynasty. Near the entrance of this cave, also, are three figures, two of which are treading on the third, who is prostrate. The origin of these sculptures is a matter of doubtful conjecture: some attribute them to Semiramis, while by others they are ascribed to the successors of Alexander; but, if Silvestre de Sacy's translations of the Pehlvi inscriptions be correct, we cannot greatly err in attributing them to the monarchs of the sassanian dynasty. (For further particulars, see *Ker Porter's Travels*, ii. 163—204; *Kinney's Persia*, p. 136; and, above all, *Ritter's* very full and satisfactory description, *Erklaenung von Asien*, part ix. p. 367—386.)

The date of the foundation of Kermanshaw is not accurately known, but it is generally attributed to Bahram (Vararanes IV.) the son of Shapur II., about 400 years after Christ. Kobad improved it, and built a citadel, which, after having been almost destroyed by the Turks, was re-established by Kouli-khan, when he restored its independence in 1723.

KERRY, a marit. co. in the S.W. part of Ireland, prov. Munster, having N. the estuary of the Shannon, E. and S. the cos. of Limerick and Comeragh, and W. the Atlantic Ocean. Area, 1,148,720 acres, of which 852,862 are unimproved mountain and bog, and 14,669 water, including the lakes of Killarney, so famous for their scenery (see KILLARNEY). This co. is particularly wild, rugged, and mountainous. Macgillivuddy's Reeks, the highest mountains in Ireland, lie to the W. of Killarney; and several other mountain ridges rise to above 3,000 ft. in height. The coast is deeply indented by Tralee and Dingle bays, and the estuary of the Kenmare; Dunmore Head, bo-

tween the bays now named, in lat. $52^{\circ} 7' 30''$ N., long. $10^{\circ} 38'$ W., is the most westerly land in Ireland, and consequently in the U. Kingdom. The climate is particularly mild, but also extremely moist. The soil in the low grounds mostly rests on a limestone bottom; it is very fertile, and produces fine herbage, which the mildness and moisture of the climate maintains in a constant state of verdure throughout the year. The arbutus flourishes in the greatest vigour round Killarney, and in other places in this co. Large flocks of goats are fed on the mountains, which also depasture great numbers of the pure Irish breed of middle-horned cattle. There are some rather extensive dairy farms; but, speaking generally, agriculture is at the lowest ebb. Tillage farms are, for the most part, very small, and the occupiers miserably poor. The potato is the only article they reserve to themselves; cattle, corn, butter, pigs, eggs, &c., all go to market to make up the rent. Still, however, improvements are taking place; good roads now lead into districts that were formerly next to impervious; and some landlords, among whom Lords Headly and Lansdowne deserve to be especially noticed, have laboured, with considerable success, to introduce an improved system of management on their estates, and to meliorate the condition of the occupiers. In some parishes the greater part of the tillage is performed by means of the *loy* or *spade*; but Scotch and other improved ploughs are beginning to be introduced. The sea, west of which bounds along the sea shore, furnishes an ample supply of manure; but it is in most parts neglected or injudiciously applied. Houses and cabins as bad as possible. Property mostly in very large estates; but some of them are leased for ever. Average rent of land 7s. 2d. per acre, being, Donegal excepted, the lowest in the kingdom. The Irish language is in many parts used to the total exclusion of the English; and, in consequence, old customs and habits maintain their ground in a remarkable degree. Minerals, though in a great measure unexplored, are, no doubt, of considerable value and importance. Copper mines have been wrought near Killarney, and one is now wrought on a small scale at Cahirciveen. Valentia Island produces good slate for roofing and flagging. Manufactures can hardly be said to exist. Principal rivers, Feale, Lane, the outlet of the lakes of Killarney, Roughan, and Mang. Principal towns, Tralee, Killarney, and Dingle. Kerry is divided into 8 baronies and 83 parishes; and sends 3 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 2 for the co. and 1 for the bor. Tralee. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 620. In 1841 Kerry had 46,638 inhab. houses; 51,593 families; 233,890 inhab., of whom 147,307 were males and 146,573 females.

KERTSCH, a sea-port town of European Russia, in the Crimea, on a spacious bay on the W. side of the Straits of Yenikale, lat. $45^{\circ} 21'$ $30''$ N., long. $36^{\circ} 29'$ $30''$ E. It has recently been a good deal improved; and contains some handsome edifices, and from 2,000 to 3,000 inhab. This town occupies the site of the ancient *Panissopolis*, the seat of the Bosphorian kings, and once the residence of Mithridates. The quarantine for the port of Asoff has been established here; and it is probable that it will in no distant period supersede Taganrog as the emporium of that sea. Corn, salt, and hides, are the principal articles of export. In the outer road, 5 or 6 m. from the town, there are 19 ft. water; in the inner bay there are 14 ft., and close in shore it shoals to from 9 to 11 ft. (*Hagermeister on the Trade of the Black Sea*, p. 63. Eng. trans.)

KESMARK (Germ. *Kaisersmarkt*), a royal free town of Hungary, co. Zips, on the Poprad, a tributary of the Vistula, at the foot of the Tatra mountains, 150 m. N. E. Pesth. Pop. 1,200, of whom about 2,500 are Protestants. It is surrounded with old and decayed double walls, and entered by three gates, near one of which the Emp. Sigismund, in 1433, erected a large tower, to protect the town against the attacks of the Hussites. Paget says, "In Kesmark there is nothing remarkable, except the ruins of an old castle which formerly belonged to the family of Tökölly, by whose restless ambition, and warlike talents, Hungary was involved in a series of civil wars, which, but for Sobieski's timely aid, would probably have ended in delivering the whole country into the power of the Turks" (Vol. I. p. 443.) Kesmark has, however, several handsome public buildings, as the town-hall, with an elegant tower, and the large R. Catholic church; besides a R. Catholic high school, Protestant lyceum, girls' school, &c. Many of its inhabs. are linen weavers and dyers; others carry on a brisk trade with Galicia in wine and garden produce. (*Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.*; *Berghaus*; *Paget's Hungary*.)

KESWICK, a market town of England, co. Cumberland, ward of Allerdale, par. of Crowthwaite, on the Creta, in a well cultivated valley at the foot of Skiddaw, and contiguous to the N. end of Derwent-water, or Keswick lake, 22 m. S. by W. Carlisle, and 18 m. E. by N. Whitehaven. Pop., in 1841, 2,242. This neat and finely situated town, which may be regarded as the cap. of the

English lakes, consists principally of one long street of well-built houses. It has manufactures of linen-woolsey stuffs, and fancy waistcoatings; black lead pencils are also made in the town, of lead from the famous mine in Borrowdale; and the potting of char taken in the lake is a considerable business. Copper mines were formerly wrought in the vicinity, but they have been long abandoned. The principal dependence of the place is on the crowds of visitors to the adjacent lakes and mountains, who are here supplied with lodgings, guides, conveyances, &c. It has a free-school, a national school, a workhouse, and two museums, containing many fine specimens of natural history peculiar to the county. Property, which at present produces about 300*l.* a year, was bequeathed in 1643 by Sir John Banks, Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, for behoof of the poor of this, his native town.

Keswick lake, or Derwent-water, is about 3 m. in length, by rather more than 1 m. in breadth, extending over an area of 1,363 acres. It has numerous small islands, is embosomed among lofty mountains, and from its picturesque scenery, is deservedly called the "gem" of the lakes. (*Tattersall's Guide to the Lakes*, p. 57, &c.)

KESZDI-VASARTHELY (Germ. *Neumarkt*), a town of Transylvania, in the Szekler-Land, 46 m. N. E. Cronstadt. Pop. about 9,000. It has a Protestant gymnasium, several breweries and distilleries, and manufactures of hats, paper, and cloth; but it is chiefly noted for its military establishments. It is the head-quarters of the second regiment of Szekler Infantry, in the Transylvanian military frontier, and has a celebrated military school. "This institution was founded by the late emperor, and is supported partly by a royal grant and partly by the Szeklers themselves. The regulation of it is entirely in the hands of the government. On the foundation there are 100 boys, from 6 to 18 years of age, who are fed, clothed, and taught, free of all expense. A few additional scholars are admitted on the payment of about 15*l.* per month. The children, when they have finished their education, are drafted into the infantry, and often rise to the rank of officers. The course of education, besides drilling, exercising, &c., includes writing, reading, arithmetic, geography, mathematics, military drawing, and the German language. In fact, all the lessons are given in German, all the books are German, and the children are even obliged to speak German to each other. The national language is never heard within the walls of the school." Hence the Szeklers affirm, that the grand object of the school is to denationalise their children, and make them renounce their native language; so that its institution, whatever may be its ultimate influence, tends, in the mean time, to keep alive the distrust which these borderers entertain of the Austrian government. (*Paget's Hungary*, i. 417, 418.; *Oest. Nat. Encyc.*)

KESZTHELY, a market town of Hungary, in the circ. on the other side the Danube, co. Szalad, near the W. end of lake Balaton, 38 m. S. W. Veszprim, and 98 m. S. Presburg. Pop. 7,500. "It is," says Mr. Paget, "a thriving little town, and of considerable importance from the great school of agriculture, founded here by Count George Festetics, and known as the Georgicon, which, though no longer in so flourishing a state as formerly, has still several professors and practical teachers maintained at the Count's expense." The object of this establishment is to form useful and well-instructed officers and accountants for the management of estates, to give instruction in particular branches of husbandry to the peasantry, and to furnish opportunities for farmers to improve their knowledge of agriculture. Eight or ten scholars are pensioned by the Count, the rest being independent students; and the school is divided into 6 sections, 1. for scientific agriculture, and its auxiliary sciences; 2. for the law of property, as affecting landlords and tenants; 3. for practical husbandry, as taught to the peasantry; 4. for forest-planting and the chase; 5. for horse-breeding, training, &c.; and, 6. for teaching girls the branches of knowledge connected with housekeeping. The complete course appointed for the pensioners lasts 3 years; but others may select their pursuits, and limit themselves to one or two years, as they think proper; the theoretical course lasting from the beginning of Nov. to the end of Aug. In the Georgicon, large apartments are fitted up as lecture-rooms, depositories for philosophical instruments, museums, &c.; chambers are set apart for the pensioners; and the lower floors are occupied by the farming servants and their families, and by a spacious workshop for carpenters and coopers. The outbuildings comprise stalls for fattening cattle, a shed for sheep, a granary, brewhouse, and a house for silkworms and the winding of silk; gardens and orchards of different kinds are laid out for the purpose of teaching horticulture; in all its branches, so that a farm set apart from the rest of the Count's estates, practical instruction is given in the rotation of crops after the Norfolk system. In fact, the Georgicon, as described at length by Dr. Bright, (to whose valuable

work we beg to refer the reader, who desires further information,) is a most complete establishment, and is conducted at present with the same vigour as at the time of the Doctor's visit, it cannot fail of being highly serviceable. The other educational institutions are a Catholic gymnasium, a high and normal school. The public buildings comprise besides the Georgian, a fine castle, in which Count Festetics resides, and which contains a library of 15,000 volumes, 3 Catholic churches, a convent, and an hospital. Wine, from the extensive vineyards in the neighbourhood, is a considerable article of trade, and several hands are employed in weaving woollen fabrics. (*Page's Hungary*, vol. ii. 577.; *Bright's Travels in Lower Hungary*, pp. 365-389.)

KETSKEMET, or **KUZKEMET**, a market town of Hungary, circ. on this side the Danube, co. Pesth, 50 m. S. E. the cap., lat. $46^{\circ} 54' 29''$ N., and long. $19^{\circ} 43' 8''$ E. Pop., in 1845, 42,000. The houses are generally low, the streets long, narrow, and crooked, and the surrounding districts of a dull monotonous character: there are five churches, (two Rom. Cath., and one each belonging to Greeks, Lutherans, and Calvinists,) a Franciscan convent, a reformed college and gymnasium, a *Piarist* college, a normal school and a school of design, an orphan asylum, and a military hospital. The breeding of horses, cattle, and sheep is the chief employment of the pop.; and there are some tanneries and soap factories. (*Oest. Encyc.*; *Dict. Géog.*)

KETERING, a market town and par. of England, co. Northampton, Huxloe hund., on an affluent of the Nen, 14 m. N. E. Northampton, and 65 m. N. N. W. London. Area of par., 2,840 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,867. The centre of the town comprises a spacious area, surrounded by well-built houses and shops, with a commodious sessions-house; but in the suburbs are many low thatched tenements that have a mean and wretched appearance. The church, considered a fine specimen of ecclesiastical architecture, has an elegant embattled tower at its W. end, surmounted by a light crocketed spire; the living is a rectory, the house of worship also for Wesleyan Methodists, Baptists, Independents, and the Society of Friends. Sunday schools are attached to all, except the last; and there is a small free school; this, and an almshouse, for 6 poor widows, are the only endowed charities of the town. Several hundred weavers are engaged at Kettering, and the neighbouring villages of Rothwell and Deoborough, in making silk plush for hats: a great number of hands were formerly employed in woollen and worsted weaving, but this branch of industry appears to have declined of late years.

K.E.W., a village and par. of England, co. Surrey, hund. Kingston, on the S. bank of the Thames, about 7 m. W. London. Area, 230 acres; pop., in 1841, 923. This village, which is connected with Brentford on the opposite side of the river by a handsome stone bridge of 7 arches, consists principally of the houses on and near a large and neatly kept green. The par. church is a small brick structure with a turret at the W. end. Many handsome residences are scattered over the village, but none deserves particular mention; except *Kew House*, or *Palace*, a red brick building of the age of James I., for many years the favourite residence of George III. and his queen. It was taken on lease from S. Molyneux, Esq., by Frederick, Prince of Wales, and was greatly improved in its interior fittings by Kent. George III. acquired the property in fee simple, and it is still occupied by members of the royal family or persons belonging to their households. Near this house, and close to the river's bank, a new palace was commenced by George III.; but the situation and plan of the building proved to be ill chosen: it was never completed, and was ultimately taken down in 1827. The grounds, which were first laid out by Sir William Chambers for Frederick, Prince of Wales, have since been greatly improved. They are under the management of the Commissioners of Woods and Forests, and consist, at present, of what are called the pleasure grounds, comprising about 130 acres, open to the public twice a week, and of the royal gardens, comprising about 75 acres, open to the public every lawful day. The improvements in the latter, which began in 1840, have been on a very grand scale, and they now form one of the favourite resorts of the Londoners, having been visited, in 1849, by 137,865 persons. The palm-house, completed in 1848, is an extraordinary fabric. It is somewhat in the form of the hull of a large ship with the keel upwards, having attached to it the hulls of smaller ships, one at each end, the ribs being of cast-iron, and the intermediate spaces of glass. It is 263 feet in length; the central compartment is 100 ft. in width, and 66 ft. in height, and the wings respectively 50 ft. wide and 30 ft. high. The central portion has a gallery all round, reached by a spiral stair, at the height of 30 ft. from the floor. The glass is tinted green to mitigate the intensity of the light; and the structure is heated by hot water pipes distributed beneath the floor, the smoke being conveyed by an under-

ground due to an ornamental tower at a little distance. Opposite the palm-house is a fine piece of water; and the whole garden, whether reference be made to its fittings-up, or to the infinite variety of rare and valuable plants with which it is furnished, reflects the highest credit on the public liberality, and on the taste of those by whom it has been planned and directed. In the pleasure-gardens are different grotesque, if not very elegant, buildings; the largest and most celebrated being an octagonal Chinese pagoda of 10 stories and 163 ft. high, from the top of which is an extensive view of the surrounding country.

KEYNSHAM, a market town and par. of England, co. Somerset, hund. of its own name, at the confluence of the Chew with the Avon, 5 m. E.S.E. Bristol, and 100 m. W. London. Area of par. 2,330 acres. Pop. in 1841, 2,807. The town is built on a rock, and consists of a single street, about a mile long. The church, which stands in the centre of the town, is a large and handsome edifice, with a fine lofty tower at its W. end, and some curious monuments: the living is a vicarage, in the gift of the Duke of Buckingham. The Wesleyan Methodists and Baptists have places of worship, to each of which, as well as to the church, Sunday schools are attached. A well conducted charity school also furnishes a plain education to poor children of both sexes. The river Chew runs through the E. end of Keynsham, and falls into the Avon at the bridge, which is of stone, and consists of 15 arches; another bridge crosses the Chew on the Bath road, the tiles of the Avon crossing up to this town. The clothing trade, formerly considerable, has now almost wholly fallen to decay, though a few people are still employed in spinning and winding for the clothers of Bradford and Shepton-mallet. Coarse linen-weaving has been introduced within the last 15 years, with little success; but a good deal is done in maling.

KEY-WEST. See SUPPLEMENT.

KHARKOFF, a government of European Russia, having on the N. Tchernigoff and Koursk, on the E. Voronez, on the S. Ekaterinoff, and on the W. Poltava and Artyz st. q. Pop. in 1846, 1,467,400. This, like the other governments of Little Russia, has a flat, monotonous surface, and a very fertile soil. It has nearly 470,000 desyatines of forests. Principal rivers, Donetz, Orkol, and Vorarka; but none of them are navigable, at least, for any considerable distance. All sorts of corn are raised, the produce in ordinary years amounting to above 5,000,000 chetwerts, of which about 1,000,000 are exported. Flax and hemp, tobacco, hops, &c. are also raised, and the potato is extensively grown. Cattle are numerous; there are few peasants without bees, with the exception of distilleries, which are numerous, and some tanneries, and establishments for the preparation of tallow and saltpetre, manufacturing industry can hardly be said to exist. The pop. consists of Little Russians, Great Russians, and Cossacks. Some regiments of cavalry are colonised in this government. (*Schmitzer, La Russie*, &c. p. 471.)

KHARKOFF, the cap. of the above government, on the Lopani, lat. $49^{\circ} 58' 27''$ N., long. $36^{\circ} 26' 32''$ E. Pop. 30,000. It is built of wood, and has no crooked, and Artyz st. q. Pop. in 1846, 1,467,400. This, like the other governments of Little Russia, has a flat, monotonous surface, and a very fertile soil. It has nearly 470,000 desyatines of forests. Principal rivers, Donetz, Orkol, and Vorarka; but none of them are navigable, at least, for any considerable distance. All sorts of corn are raised, the produce in ordinary years amounting to above 5,000,000 chetwerts, of which about 1,000,000 are exported. Flax and hemp, tobacco, hops, &c. are also raised, and the potato is extensively grown. Cattle are numerous; there are few peasants without bees, with the exception of distilleries, which are numerous, and some tanneries, and establishments for the preparation of tallow and saltpetre, manufacturing industry can hardly be said to exist. The pop. consists of Little Russians, Great Russians, and Cossacks. Some regiments of cavalry are colonised in this government. (*Schmitzer, La Russie*, &c. p. 471.)

KHELAT, or **KELAT**, a city of Beloochistan, of which it is the cap., and a fortress of considerable strength, now in possession of the British; on an elevated site, on the W. side of a highly cultivated plain about 250 m. N. the Indian Ocean, and 240 m. S. by W. Candahar; lat. $29^{\circ} 7'$ N., long. $65^{\circ} 45'$ E. Pop. estimated by Pottinger at 20,000, chiefly Beloochees, Brahmoes, Hindoos, and Afghans. The town, of an oblong form, is described by Pottinger, in 1810, as encompassed on three sides by a mud wall, 18 or 20 ft. high, flanked at intervals of 560 paces, by bastions pierced, as well as the wall itself, with numberless loopholes for matchlocks. The defence of the fourth side is formed by the W. face of the hill, on which the town is partly built, being cut away perpendicularly. On the summit of this eminence stands the palace of the khan, enclosed by a mud wall, with bastions kept in better repair than any other portion of the fortifications. In 1839, Major Willshire said, "The defences of the fort, as in the case of Ghiznee, far ex-

ceeded in strength what I had been led to suppose from previous report; and the towering height of the inner citadel was most formidable both in appearance and reality." (*Port. Report on Khelat*.) It is, however, commanded by heights to the N. and W.: it has three gates, and above 3,500 houses within the walls; and, in 1810, about half as many more were comprised in the suburbs. The houses are of half-burnt brick, on wooden frames, and plastered over with mud or chunam. The streets are generally broader than is common in the E., and have a raised footway on either side; but their centre is a receptacle for all sorts of filth; and they are dark and gloomy, from the upper stories of the houses nearly meeting. The markets are well furnished with flesh, vegetables, and other necessities, at a cheap rate; and the town is supplied with excellent water by a spring, which, according to Pottinger, is tepid during the night, but after sunrise becomes cold, and remains so the whole day. Some water-mills are turned by the stream from this source. Khelat has some trade and manufactures, respecting which see BELOOCHISTAN (Vol. I. p. 350.).

The many outrages alleged to have been committed on the followers of the army of the Indus, at the instigation of the Khan of Khelat, compelled our interference; and Khelat was taken by storm by the British, Nov. 13. 1839, after a siege of a few hours.

KHERSON, a gov. in the S. part of Russia, in Europe, on the N. shore of the Black Sea, between the rivers Dniester, on the W., and Dniep., on the E. Area, variously estimated at from about 25,000 to 30,000 sq. m. Pop., in 1838, including the military colonies, 765,000. Besides the great boundary rivers, already specified, it is divided into two not very unequal portions by the Bug. In the N. part of the government, the surface is undulating and covered with immense forests; but elsewhere it consists mostly of an immense steppe, without trees and covered with grass to the height of a man. Generally, the portion on the W. side of the Bug is decidedly more fertile than that on the E. side. Climate in extremes, the rivers being mostly frozen over for a short time during winter, while in summer the thermometer rises sometimes to above 25° Réaumur. Agriculture has made little progress, and is but a secondary pursuit, the rearing of cattle and sheep forming the chief employment of the inhab. The breed of sheep has been much improved, and is now the best in the empire. Among the horned cattle, buffaloes are common. Flax and hemp, tobacco, saffron, liquorice, &c. are all cultivated; and a good deal of an inferior acid wine is made. There are establishments for the cleaning and sorting of wool, tanneries, tallow and candle works, with manufactories of cloth, &c. The commerce of the government centres entirely at Odessa and Khereson, and is very extensive.

KHERSON, the cap. of the above government, on an eminence on the right bank of the Dniep., about 60 m. above Kinbourn Fort, at the entrance of the estuary to that river, lat. 46° 37' 46" N., long. 32° 38' 53" E. It was founded in 1775; was fortified in 1781; and soon after became a large and flourishing town. Owing, however, to the difficulty of navigating the Dniep., which, for 15 m. below Khereson, is shallow and encumbered with shifting sand banks. Odessa, founded in 1792, soon took precedence of it as a commercial emporium, and it began to decline. Its pop., amounted, in 1834, according to the official accounts quoted by M. Schnitzler, to 24,508. It is divided into four distinct parts: the citadel, the admiralty, and the Greek and military suburbs. Within the first are the government buildings, arsenal, prison, barracks and the cathedral. The latter is the burial place of the celebrated Prince Potemkin, the powerful favourite of Catherine II., who died near Vassy, in 1791.* In the admiralty are the docks, for constructing ships of war, cut out of the limestone rock. They are sent down the river on machines, called camels, but only when there is a large flood. The Greek suburb is inhabited by the bourgeois, and the military suburb by sailors and artisans.

Within these few years a part of the mast trade that used formerly to be confined to Riga, has been transferred to Khereson; and, besides masts, staves, planks, flax and hemp, corn, cordage, tallow, wool, of which it is a principal market, &c., are sent down the Dniep. to Khereson. But owing to the cataracts and other obstructions to the navigation of the river between Ekaterinolaiff and Alexandroffsk, these shipments can only be made in spring and autumn; and when the commodities have reached Khereson, it is found most convenient to ship them coastwise in small vessels for Odessa where they are put off board the ships in quarantine. In fact, owing to the difficulties not mentioned, the greater part of the corn from the *ex-destro* Polish provinces, shipped at Odessa, is not brought down the

Dniep., but is conveyed, direct to its destination, in waggons drawn by oxen.

John Howard, the celebrated English philanthropist, expired at Khereson, on the 30th of January, 1790; and is interred about 3 m. N. from the town, where an obelisk has been erected to his memory. (For further particulars as to Khereson, see the art. DNIESTR, in this Dictionary, the works of Clarke and Lyall, as referred to in the note below; Schnitzler, *in Russia*, &c., p. 722; Hagemeister's *Report on the Commerce of the Black Sea*, Eng. trans., p. 76., &c.)

KHIVA, KHAREN, or ORGUNJE (an. *Chorasnia*), an indep. khanat of Turkestan, in Central Asia, properly comprising only a narrow strip of fertile land along the Oxus, in the lower portion of its course. Of late years, however, it has established a supremacy over the wandering Turkman hordes to the S. and W., and holds Merv (Murū), with its territory, on the road between Khorassan and Bokhara. Its dominion is believed at present to extend between the 36th and 44th degrees of N. lat., and 52d and 64th of E. long., having E. the Karakalpack territories and Bokhara, S. Afghanistan and the Persian prov. of Khorassan, W. the Caspian, and N. the Kirghiz Steppe and the Sea of Aral. The pop. of this extensive territory is estimated by Burnes at only 300,000, and is nearly the whole surface consisting of unproductive sandy wastes. The Oxus is the great fertiliser of the tract it passes through; many canals communicating with it have been cut for the purpose of irrigation, some of which are 30 m. in length; and the cultivated lands in the neighbourhood of the capital are surrounded with wet ditches. The climate and products are much the same as in Bokhara; the summer is warm, the air dry, and evaporation rapid; the winter is short, and ice lasts only a few days at a time. Agriculture is better attended to in the small extent of productive land comprised in this khanat than in some of the neighbouring countries. The lands, after being irrigated, are manured; but animal manure is scarce, from the fæces of the cattle being used as fuel, and their being seldom stalled. Wheat, barley, *djurgari* (*Holcus saccharatus*), millet, sesamum, oleaginous plants, lentils, fruits, linseed, cotton, hemp, flax, and some rice, are grown. The vine thrives well; but the inhab., being chiefly Mohammedans, little or no wine is made. The distillation of brandy from raisins has, however, been introduced by the Persians; and, out of the capital, the inhab. indulge pretty freely in its use. An intoxicating liquor, as well as a narcotic product for smoking, is obtained from hemp. Little tobacco is grown. Many of the fruits are good, and the melons are excellent; but the culture of fruit-trees is nearly abandoned for that of grain or fodder. Wood is sufficiently abundant in the N., and is not dear in the capital; but over all the desert the only vegetation is a few stunted bushes. Horned cattle are few; sheep and goats are much more numerous, their flesh, with that of the horse, forming the chief animal food of the inhab. Camels, the principal beasts of burden, and almost every khivan possesses one. Agriculture and cattle rearing occupy most of the settled pop.; but some cotton and silk stuff, shawls, &c. are made by the women, and exported to the neighbouring countries. The dominant race in Khiva, as in Bokhara, is the Uzbek, to which the khan belongs; the rest of the pop. consists of Oigours, Turkmans, Karakalpacks, Tadjiks, about 2,000 families, chiefly prisoners of war, from Bokhara, and a few Afghans, Jews, Armenians, Persians, Emauks, Kirghiz, &c. The Uzbeks enjoy no privileges over the rest, but they compose the chief portion of the khan's army. The Turkmans are altogether nomadic, and live principally by plunder, especially the capture and sale of slaves. They seize upon the subjects of Russia on the Caspian, and make many inroads into Khorassan; Bokhara and the whole of Turkestan is supplied by them with Persian captives. In 1835, according to Sir A. Burnes, there were as many as 2,000 Russian slaves in Khiva; and the capture of her subjects was one of the principal causes (and a substantial one certainly) of the late hostile attempts of Russia against Khiva. It is estimated that from 30,000 to 40,000 of the pop. of the khanat are slaves. They have frequently a piece of land given them to cultivate, or are permitted to exercise some handicraft, paying an annual rent to their masters for the privilege, from the produce of which they are afterwards frequently able to ransom themselves. No foreign slave, however, even after the purchase of his liberty, is permitted to leave the country. Meyendorf, in comparing this khanat with that of Bokhara, observes:—"Though the inhab. of the two countries are of the same race, and profess the same religion, the schools of Khiva have never enjoyed the same reputation as those of Bokhara; the Khivians are more barbarous than the Bokharese, as is attested by an inferior agriculture, worse habitations, a more limited commerce, less wealth, and a more savage mode of life." (*Voyage à Bokhara*, p. 111.) According to Burnes, the Khivians are at best

* Dr. Clarke says that the body was taken up by order of the emp. Peter, and deposited in the first hole that could be found." (*Vol. II. p. 536. 3ro. ed.*) But Dr. Lyall asserts that this inquest order, though given, was not obeyed. (*Id. p. 214.*)

but an organised banditti, protected by the natural strength of their country. The trade of such a country may be dismissed in a few words. Four routes exist for communication with Russia: one through the Kirghiz steppe, W. of the Aral Sea, to Orenburg; a second by way of Sarachak, or Sarachik, on the Ural, also to Orenburg; a third through Sarachak to Astrakhan; and a fourth from Khiva to Karaghan, on the E. shore of the Caspian, whence goods are sent by sea to Astrakhan. (*Heeren, Researches on Asiatic Nations*, &c., transl. II. 288.) About 2,000 camels go annually to Orenburg, Astrakhan, and some towns of Caubul and Persia, with wheat, barley, silk and cotton fabrics, and yarn; and about a dozen large boats come annually from Astrakhan to Karaghan and the Gulf of Manghislak, with the products of Russia and the West, to be exchanged for those brought by the caravans from Khiva. The chief imports are slaves, coin, iron and copper, wrought and unwrought; handkerchiefs, wax, honey, sugar, tea, which, as in Bokhara, is a favourite article; cochineal, spices, hardware, &c. The commerce with Persia is insignificant. The merchandise which goes to Asterabad is conveyed on camels, at a charge averaging from 2½ to 4 roubles per poond, under the conduct of Turkman guides. The trade of Khiva is solely in the hands of Turkmen, Khivians, and Persians; none but Mohammedan merchants being suffered to transact business within the khanat. No foreign merchants pass through or into the country with ease or safety; when not openly robbed of a large portion of their goods, the caravans are delayed by the khan's officers, the sales of merchandise are opened, and much property has been at times extorted. The khan demands duties at the port of Manghislak, on the Caspian, which lies opposite Astrakhan, and sometimes (it is said) on the Jaxartes, E. of the Aral Sea. In order to reach Bokhara by a route avoiding Khiva altogether, the Russians attempted, in 1830, to send caravans by way of the latter river; but the khan took umbrage at a measure which turned the traffic from his own territories, and sent an army to the Jaxartes, which intercepted a caravan, and occasioned the destruction of its merchandise. Since then, no attempt has been made by the Russians to follow any route other than that through this khanat; but no intercourse of a really friendly nature has taken place between the two countries.

The commercial duties realised by the khan amount to, perhaps, half his total revenue, which latter is roughly estimated, by Helmersen (*Khiva*, &c. p. 45.), at 2,000,000 roubles, or francs: the remainder of this sum being made up of 1-5th of the produce of every predatory excursion of his subjects, a family tax of 3 ducats a year, taxes on war-horses, on land cultivated by slaves, &c. A regular transit duty of 2½ per cent. *ad valorem* is levied on all kinds of merchandise passing through the country. The government is despotic: for judicial affairs, each town has its *atalyk*, or judge; and in the cap. is a central court of justice in the last resort, composed of the *cadit* or chief priest, the four ministers, and other members nominated by the khan. The khan may sometimes raise a force of 10,000 men, and has a park of nine pieces of ordnance. His troops, which are mostly cavalry, are entirely composed of Uzbeks and Turkmen, and armed like those of Bokhara: some of the Turkmen carry bows and arrows. There are in the khanat, besides Merv, only two towns worth notice, — Khiva, the cap. and seat of government, and Orgunje, the chief commercial town, and largest of the two.* Khiva was tributary to Bokhara till the late khan rendered it independent, early in the present century. The present khan, in 1832, led a hostile army into Merv, which he subdued, but he has always maintained friendly relations with Bokhara. Political relations have long existed between Russia and Khiva, envoys having been sent from the one to the other as early as the time of Peter the Great. Latterly, the Russians have determined to put an end to the robberies committed by this horde; and though the impracticable nature of the country has hitherto hindered them from reaching Khiva, there is little doubt of their ultimate success.

KHIVA, a town of Central Asia, cap. of the above khanat, and residence of the khan; in an irrigated and fertile plain near the Oxus, 880 m. W.N.W. Bokhara, and 720 m. S.S.E. Orenburg, on the high road between those two cities: lat. 41° 40' N., long. 50° 22' E. Pop. doubtful, but probably from 10,000 to 12,000. The town is surrounded by a mud wall and wet ditch, and contains about 700 houses, the suburbs comprising 1,200 more. Khiva has a palace, which, like nearly all the rest of the dwellings in the town, and in the khanat generally, is of mud, though placed upon an eminence composed of stone. The only stone buildings in the town are three mosques, one having a handsome minaret; a school, and a caravanserai. Khiva is externally picturesque, being surrounded with gardens; but its streets are so narrow

as scarcely to admit a laden camel. Its pop. is very mixed; its chief trade is in slaves, for which it is the largest mart in Independent Turkestan. (*Helmersen, Khiva, Bokhara*, &c.; *Mejdendorf; Zinaveroff; Burnes*, &c.; *Heeren; Chinese Repository; Zwanzermann's Memoir on Khiva*, 1841.)

KHOL, a town of Persia, prov. Azerbaijan, and cap. of a distr., 70 m. N.W. Tabriz. Pop., according to Smith, about 5,000 families, or 30,000 inhab. It is situated on a tributary of the Kur, about 25 m. N. from the lake of Urmiah, and is a handsome, well built town, in much better repair than most others in Persia. It has few mosques or large public buildings; but the regular streets, shaded with avenues of trees, give the town, on the whole, an appearance of respectability and even grandeur. A large and handsome bazaar, with a caravanserai, furnishes ample accommodation to the merchants, who carry on a considerable trade with Turkey and E. Persia. The suburbs were formerly inhabited by about 600 Armenians; but their number has greatly decreased since the war with Russia, when most of them migrated N. of the Araxes. The plain of Khol is celebrated as the scene of a great battle fought in 1514 between Shah Ismael and Selim I., in which the Turks, though the most numerous, were signally defeated. (*Smith and Dwight's Asia Researches*, p. 315; *Jaubert, Voyage en Perse*, p. 148; *Ritter, Asia*, &c. 4. *Kienicer's Persian Empire*, p. 154.)

KHOJEND, a town of Indep. Turkestan, in Central Asia, khanat of Khokan, near its W. extremity, cap. distr. of same name, on the Jaxartes, 90 m. W. Khokan, and said to be as populous as that city, or Samarcand, from which it is 150 m. N.E. It is built on rising ground, and protected by walls, which, however, are much decayed on the S. and W. sides. It is surrounded by wet ditches, and intersected by canals. It is of high antiquity; and near it, Nazarov says, are some remarkable ruins. Khojend has manufactures of coarse cotton goods; and a brisk trade in these, and in Russian merchandise. It is the station at which the caravans entering the khanat from Bokhara pay toll; as the town of Uch is for those entering from the Chinese dominions. (*Nazarov; Helmersen; Ritter, Asia Erdkunde*.)

KHOKAN, KOKAN, or FERGHANA, an indep. khanat of Turkestan, in Central Asia, between lat. 40° and 45° N., and long. 67° and 75° E., having N. the Kirghiz steppe, E. and S. E. Chinese Turkestan, S. the table-land of Pamirs and Bokhara, and W. the desert territory of the Karakalpacks. It is, for the most part, mountainous, comprising a portion of the region which forms the W. wall of the great table-land of E. Asia. (*See ASIA*, Vol. I. p. 167.) The Jaxartes (Sir or Sihoon), which rises not far beyond the E. boundary, traverses it E. to W., about its centre, watering many fertile tracts. Khokan is divided into 8 provinces or districts. Great extremes of climate are experienced at different seasons. The products are very similar to those of the countries to the S. and W. This khanat has a greater extent of territory and produce than Bokhara. In the S. the corn and fruits, especially grapes and melons, grow in great perfection; and a proverb of Central Asia praises the "pomegranates of Khojend with the apples of Samarcand." This was the patrimonial kingdom of the Emperor Baber, who celebrates in lively terms its beauty and fertility. Cotton and the mulberry are articles of constant culture, silk being the chief staple, and one for which Khokan is famous. The pastures on the Jaxartes are excellent: sheep are the principal live stock, and wool is an important product. The camel, horse, and ass are extensively used; and horse-flesh is a common article of food. Game is very plentiful. Coal, iron, copper, jasper, lapis lazuli, &c. are the chief mineral products. The use of coal has been long known in Khokan, since Abulfeda speaks of "stones that flame and burn" being found there; and this important mineral may, at no very distant period, become a powerful auxiliary in civilizing this, at present, semi-barbarous region. The inhab. are mostly Uzbeks; to which race, as in Bokhara and Khiva, the khan belongs. They are Mohammedans, and equally bigoted and strict in their religious customs with the Bokharians. The dialect they use is the Jagatai-Turkish. The rest of the pop. are chiefly Tadjiks (*see Bokhara*, Vol. I. p. 297.) and Kirghis, who inhabit the N. and E. The Tadjiks are deprived of the right of property, which they enjoy in Khiva and Bokhara, and are only suffered to cultivate the soil under the Uzbeks. After agriculture, and the rearing of sheep and silkworms, the chief occupation of the people is the manufacture of embroidered silks and cotton goods. The former are much worn by the Kirghis hordes; the latter are sent in large quantities to Bokhara, the returns being made in Russian goods, as iron, shawl, woollen cloths, cotton-skins, cochineal, vitriol, sandal-wood, &c. Shawls and other Indian manufactures come from Cashmere and the Punjab, by Caubul

* This is the statement of Burnes. Hagermeister (1879) says, that all the commerce of the khanat is now centred in the cap.

and Balkh. The rest of the trade is chiefly with Bukhara; the intercourse with Chinese Turkestan is very limited, owing to the ill-feeling that exists between the Khan of Khokan and the Chinese authorities. The same cause renders the intercourse between Yarkund and Bokhara less frequent; the nearest and best route between those cities leading through the valley of the Jaxartes. This route, though passing over mountains on which travellers experience difficulty of breathing, is passable except in the three summer months, when it is flooded by the melting of the snow. It may be travelled by a caravan in 45 days; and merchandise may be conveyed from Bokhara as far as Khokan in carts, the route between those two cities being the best in all Indep. Turkestan. Some Russian caravans from Semipalatinsk, Petropawlawsk, &c., go by the route through Khokan to the Chinese frontier; and 3 times the quantity of Russian piece goods are sold in this country that go to Bokhara. Of late, indeed, this khanat has begun to have a very active trade with Russia, the caravans engaged in this trade passing through a region much less interrupted by marauding parties than those between Russia and Bokhara, through the territories of Kkiva and the Little Kirghis horde. According to Burnes, a commercial intercourse is also kept up between Khokan and Constantinople. A duty of 21 per cent. *ad valorem* is laid on all merchandise imported by Sunniti Mus-ulmans, and 5 per cent. on the goods of all other individuals passing the frontier; but these duties are levied with little regularity. Internal commerce is entirely free, as in Bokhara, and the trade is second only to that of the last-named country. Each town possesses at least one caravanserai, and has stated fairs, at which a good deal of business is transacted. Besides the cap., the chief towns are Andejan, Khojend, Turkestan, and the others which give name to the several provinces. The government is despotic; the khan, maintaining an army of about 10,000 cavalry, which he can, on an emergency, increase to 30,000. According to some Chinese records, it would appear that this country was formerly subject to China; it has, however, for many ages thrown off its allegiance. In the early part of the present century, many of the adjacent Kirghis tribes were reduced to subjection; but about 1830, the khan having supported the Mohammedans of Cashgar against their Chinese masters, was totally defeated in a great battle, and his territories invaded by the latter; since which the power of Khokan has been on the decline. This, and the neighbouring countries are interesting, from having been the seats of nations whose armies have frequently changed the political face of Asia, and even in some degree of Europe. Besides giving birth to Baber, the conqueror of Hindostan, who ascended the throne of Ferghana in 1494, Khokan, and its vicinity, abounds with localities intimately connected with the history of Jenghis Khan and Timour.

It is probable that this country will, at no distant period, be united to Russia. The boundary between Russia and Khokan, as determined about 1828, was fixed at the Kkiva, or Blue River, long 67° 30' E. (?); but, according to the *Asiatic Journal*, Aug 1834, p. 374., the Russians had then crossed that river, and erected forts on the Khokan side.

KHOKAN, a city of Central Asia, cap. of the above khanat, and seat of its gov., on the Jaxartes, 220 m. N.E. Samarcand, and about the same N.W. Cashgar. It is reported to be about half the size of Bokhara, which is supposed to contain 150,000 inhab. Khokan is an open town, but contains a palace fortified with a wall of mud, of which material most of the houses in the town are constructed. The only exceptions are three bazars, built of stone, open to the air, except for the purposes of trade; in some ancient monuments in different parts of the city, and some large stables constructed of brick, and belonging to the khan. There are a great many mosques and public schools, and several caravanseras. Among the pop. are many Cashmerians, and some Hindoos, Jews, Nogai-Tartars, and Russians. The streets are narrow, unpaved, and unpleasant; but its vicinity is very productive, and sprinkled with numerous gardens, cultivated fields, meadows, and villages. (*Wathen, in Bengal Journal; Nazarov; Meyendorff; Burnes; Ritter, Asien Erlebnisse*, v. 750-754, &c.)

KHOONASSAN, a town of Persia, prov. Irak Adjilmi, 82 m. W. N.W. Isfahan; lat. 30° 7' N., long. 60° 36' E. It is said, by Klineer, to contain 2,500 families, or from 12,000 to 13,000 people. Its situation is singularly interesting and romantic, at the base of two ranges of mountains, running parallel to each other, and so very close, that the houses occupy the bottom, and, at the same time, the face of the hills to some height. The town is about 6 m. long, but only 3 m. broad, and each house is separated and surrounded by its own garden. The hills afford an ample supply of water; and the appearance of the black and barren rocks, without a particle of vegetation hanging over the gardens, forms a striking contrast with the luxuriant and variegated foliage of the planta-

tion. No corn of any kind is grown in the valley; but the fruit is so abundant, that it alone enables the inhab. to procure in return every article either of necessity or convenience. According to Klineer, it yields an annual revenue of 5,000 tomans, exclusive of a payment usually made in dried fruits and cotton cloths. (*Klineer's Persia*, p. 126.)

KHOOLOOM, KHULM, or TASH-KURGHAN, a town of the khanat of Koondooz*, in Central Asia, on the Khulm river, a tributary of the Oxus, and on the high road between Balkh and Koondooz, 40 m. E. by S. the former, and 64 m. W. by S. the latter city. Lat. 36° 29' N., long. about 69° K. Pop., estimated by Burnes in 1832, at 10,000; and if this number may be depended upon, either the pop. had greatly declined during the preceding ten years, or (which is most probable) the number of houses had been much exaggerated by Moorcroft, by whom they were estimated at 20,000. According to the latter, "The houses are built of clay and sun-dried bricks, of one story, with domes, in the usual fashion of the country, and each stands by itself in a walled inclosure, often containing fruit trees. The streets are straight, of a moderate breadth, intersecting each other at right angles, and have commonly a stream of water running through them. The town is surrounded by a wall of earth, with wooden gates; a sufficient protection against sudden incursions of horsemen, but none against artillery. It is also guarded by two forts, one on an eminence, on the right bank of the river to the S.E.; the other on the left bank, and on the plain: both are of earth, and of no strength. There are 4 tolerably good serais for travellers. The inhabs. are chiefly Tadjiks and Caudules, with a sprinkling of Usbeks. The shops for dyes and drugs are usually kept by Hindoos, who also act, in a small way, as bankers. The vendors of dried fruits are mostly from Caudul. The Usbeks engage little in traffic. They are all, rich and poor, dressed much alike, in long gowns of striped cotton, and shaggy hats. Bazaars are held every Monday and Thursday, when horses, asses, mules, camels, cows, sheep, and goats, are brought to their respective markets. A sheep sells at from two to four rupees; they are of the large tall variety, and the fat of the tail, and along the back, is commonly 1-3d of the weight of the sheep, including the bones. Cotton cloths, cotton in the pod, tanned leather, raw hides, fuel, grapes, raisins, pistachio nuts, pomegranates, dried plums, rock salt, brown leather boots with iron-shod heels, dyes, as the pomegranate bark, madder (indigenous) and indigo, from Hindostan, are exposed for sale, along with blankets of fine wool from Chitral, and raw wool from thence and Budukshan. Printed chintzes, quilts, and turbans are also brought from India. Coarse saddlery is much in request. There is one market entirely for melons, which are raised in this neighbourhood in great quantities. The sheep and furs of Koondooz are exchanged at Yarkund for tea, disposed of in Turkestan, at an advance of 600 per cent. The following were the prices of different articles at the time of our visit:—mutton 4 to 5 pyas † per charak (54 lbs.), beef 3 pyas ditto, sheep-tail fat 8 ditto, rice butter 28 ditto, cow butter 20 ditto, oil 16 ditto, rice 4 ditto, wheat flour 7 pyas for 4 charaks, barley about 1½ maund for a rupee, &c. The workmen in wood, leather, and metals, were very indifferent, but demanded high wages, 4 to 8 a rupee per day. Most of them, in fact, had lands, and were in some degree independent of labour." (II. 449-452.) Khooloom has long been the station for receiving the custom-duties on all merchandise coming from the W. into Koondooz; which duties amount to 2½ per cent. *ad val.*

Old Khulm (now entirely destroyed), is situated about 4 m. from Tash Kurghan. It was a place of importance in the time of Khilich Ali (a former chief of Balkh); but its situation on the plain exposed it to predatory incursions; and the Hazaurehs dammed up or diverted the course of the river, upon which the fertilization of its soil depended. The chief therefore removed his capital to Tash-Kurghan, much to the regret of the people of Khulm, whose orchards had been celebrated throughout the E. for the quantity and quality of their produce." (*Moorcroft's Trav.* II. 443, &c.; *Burnes' Bokhara; Madras Journal of Literature*, &c. *passim*.)

KHOORASSAN (country of the sea), a prov. of Persia, lying between the 31st and 38th parallels of N. lat. and the 63d and 64d degrees of E. long., being bounded N.E. and N. by the Oxus and country of Balkh; S. by Caudul and Seistan; and W. by Irak, Aserabad, and Daghestan. Its boundaries, however, have been very different at different times; and its present area, which is small comparatively with the great extent of country that it comprised prior to the invasion of the Afghans, is roughly estimated at about 80,000 sq. m. Pop. uncertain.

* A paper in the *Madras Journal of Science*, &c., for Jan. 1810, states that Khooloom is an independent town; adding, however, that "nothing is more variable than the limits of a khanat in Asia." † A pyas is the 50th part of a Mahmood-Shahi rupee.

Its surface is much diversified by plains and mountains; a large portion consists of arid rocks, destitute of vegetation or fresh water, and of salt and sandy deserts, among which may be found a few fertile oases. The Elburz range of mountains crosses the N. part of the prov. eastward; and between this lofty ridge and the Caspian Sea is an immense uninterrupted plain, which includes the steppe of Khiva, and forms a part of that extensive flat called by the natives Dushet-el-Kipchak. That portion of the plain which belongs to Khorassan is without a single cultivated spot or permanent habitation; and its scanty pop. comprises only a few tribes of wandering Turkmans. At the foot of the mountains, however, there are many rich valleys, watered by numerous rivulets, and formerly well peopled, and cultivated. This district, known in Persia as the *Attock*, once comprised several large towns, all of which are now in ruins, and totally deserted in consequence of the incessant attacks of the Turkmans, who have obtained full possession of the whole tract. The Elburz mountains send ramifications southward, which penetrate from 60 to 100 m. into the plain. This range contains considerable quantities of iron, which, however, is not wrought: the turquoise mines of Nishapoor are rich, and if managed with skill would yield large revenues; but the exorbitant demands of the Persian government on the tenants of the land have led to the closing of many of the most productive mines. (See *Nishapoor*.) In this portion of the country are many fertile tracts, which, were there any security for property, would no doubt be cultivated and well peopled. The valley of Mushed is of great length, commencing about 10 m. N.W. of Sheerwan, and extending in a S.W. direction for upwards of 50 m. beyond Mushed. Its breadth varies from 12 to 30 m., and it comprises, besides Mushed (which has a pop. of 30,000), the towns of Chinnarân, Radkan, and Koochan, with a great extent of good land, cultivated by Koordish settlers. The W. limit of Khorassan is nearly that of the great saline desert, which forms its predominating feature. This tract, which, though considerably more lofty, is considered by Fraser (p. 251.) to be connected with the desert N. of the Elburz ridge, skirts the districts of Teheran, Khashan, and Isfahan, insulates that of Yazd, and extends from Toorshes southward to the confines of Fars, Kerman, and Selatan, including hardly any habitable country except that near Beerjoon and Ghayn. Its E. limit is pretty correctly indicated by a line connecting the towns of Herat, Subzawar, Furrah, and Dooshak. The nature of this desert varies much in different parts. In some places it produces a few of those plants that thrive in a salt soil, while in others it consists of a crackling crust of covered with salt efflorescence: a considerable portion is marshy, and in the lower parts water accumulates during winter, which is evaporated in the hot weather, leaving lakes of salt, on a bed of mud. Again, in certain districts, sand abounds in plains, interspersed with waving hillocks, easily moved by the wind, and sometimes so light and impalpable as to prove not only disagreeable but extremely dangerous to travellers, who not unfrequently are buried in its heaps. Of the rivers of Khorassan, the Tedsen (an. *Okox*) is next in size to the Oxus; it appears to rise near Serak, and, after receiving the Meshed and other streams, falls into the Caspian Sea in lat. 38° 41' N. The rivers of the interior are few and inconsiderable, and for the most part are lost in the sand, like the Zenderoon of Isfahan.

The climate of Khorassan varies according to the nature and elevation of the districts into which it is divided. In some parts it is temperate, in others extremely cold. The deserts are infested by the *simoom*, which is as fatal here as in Arabia. (See Vol. I. 130.) The cultivated districts produce the grains and fruits of S. Europe, with asafetida, tragacanth, and gum gins; but timber is rare. Cattle-feeding is the chief employment of the nomadic race that roam over the desert; and the camels and goats of Khorassan are celebrated for their fine soft hair, which is a valuable article of trade in the markets of Meshed and Nishapoor, the two largest towns of the province. The inhab. of the settled districts are Tadjiks or Persians, properly so called, and their number has been estimated at 1,900,000. The Ilyats, or nomads, comprise Turkmans, Djelers, and other Turkish tribes, and there are about 30,000 Kurds in the N. part of the province. The religion of all the inhab. is Mohammedan, and most of them belong to the sect of Ali. The prov. is divided into several little governments; but the authority of the King of Persia extends only over the cities of Meshed, Nishapoor, Turkush, and Tabas, with their dependencies. The S. parts belong to the Afghans, and the Uzbek Tartars and Turkmans wander over the N. and E., acknowledging only their native khans. These wild tribes carry on incessant hostilities, invading each other's territories with bodies of irregular horse, who, after ravaging the country and burning the villages, carry off the inhabitants into slavery. (Fraser's *Khorassan*, p. 240., and *Appendix*; Kinneir's *Persia*, p. 161., &c.)

KHOTAN, or ILITSI, a town of Chinese Turkestan, prov. Yarkund, on the high road between that city and Lassa, 260 m. E.S.E. the former: lat. 37° 10' N., long. about 78° E. It is principally occupied by Uzbeks; and is said to be celebrated for "its musk, and the beauty of its inhab." Khotan, according to Abulfeda and other Mohammedan geographers, was formerly a town of great consequence: it is still a place of considerable size, enclosed by ramparts of earth, and, though ill built, has broad streets. It is the station of a Chinese governor and garrison: has manufactures of silk fabrics, leather, paper, &c., and a brisk trade in these and various other articles, including *yw*, the Jasper of the ancients. (*Helmerson, Ritter, Klaproth, &c.*)

KIACHTA, or KIAKHTA, a town of Asiatic Russia, gov. and prov. Irkutsk, being the centre of the trade and political intercourse between the Russian and Chinese empires. It stands immediately within the Siberian frontier, on a rivulet of the same name, a tributary of the Selenga, and upon a plateau elevated about 2,220 ft. above the sea, 55 m. S. by E. Selenginsk, and 180 m. S.E. Irkutsk: lat. 50° 31' 5" N., long. 106° 29' 15" E. (*Erman*.) Pop. between 4,000 and 5,000. It is divided into an upper and lower town: the former, or the fortress of *Troiskoi Savsk*, was founded when the first commercial treaty took place between Russia and China, in 1728. The town within is regularly laid out, in the form of a square; in the centre of which is the bazaar, or market-place, a wooden building. Except a chapel of stone, and some of the public offices, built partly with brick, Kiachta is constructed wholly of wood. The church, government-house, barracks, and watch tower, are the chief public edifices within the town: the various courts and government offices, Imperial rhuabar depôt, custom-house, &c., are in one of the suburbs. The lower town, a few versts distant, consists of only about 50 houses, inhabited by merchants, who conduct the trade with the Chinese, and some of whom are said to be very rich.

On the Chinese side of the boundary is the Mongolian village of *Mi-mi-tschin* (the place of trade), which, like the Russian town, is laid out in a square form, and surrounded by a palisade. It is ill built, and has only from 1,200 to 1,500 inhab., all males, no women being allowed to reside in it. All the mercantile transactions are conducted between this village and Lower Kiachta; and the merchants of the two places visit each other without let or hindrance. The goods bought by the Russians are immediately sent to Upper Kiachta, to be examined by the custom-house authorities. The Russians exchange furs, sheep and lamb skins, Russian and Silesian broad-cloths, Russian and morocco leather, coarse linens, cattle, and especially bullion, for tea, raw and manufactured silks, nankeens, porcelain, sugar candy, rhuabar, tobacco, musk, &c. At the Kiachta Dec. fair, the tea bought by the Russians is, at an average, said to amount to 60,000 chests, or 4,200,000 lbs., of fine pekoe: besides a large quantity of an inferior kind, much of which is consumed by the Siberians and nomadic Tartars. But, according to Klaproth, the accounts of the Russian commerce with China have been much exaggerated; the total amount of the trade seldom reaching 24 millions fr. a year, and frequently not a fourth part of that sum. In 1831, the Russian exports by Kiachta amounted to 4,655,536 fr., and the imports to 6,758,858 fr. Goods may be conveyed from Kiachta to European Russia either by land or water (by the Lake of Baikal, the Angará, Yenisei, &c.); in the former mode the journey occupies a year, and in the latter three years, or rather, three very short summers, the rivers being for a great part of the year frozen over. (*Erman, Rise and Fall of Klaproth, Mémoires*, &c., I. 57—80.; *Ritter*; *Official Pap.*, &c. and *Privé Inform.*)

KIDDERMINSTER, an important manufacturing and market town, par. bor. and town of England, co. Worcester, head of navigation on the Stour, 5 m. S.W. of the Severn, 13 m. N. Worcester, 16 m. W. S.W. Birmingham, and 118 m. N.W. London. Area of the entire par., 11,160 acres: pop. of par. bor. (which includes the old bor., and a small portion of the "foreign" district) in 1841, 15,427. The town, divided by the river, which is here crossed by a stone bridge, into two unequal parts, is irregularly built, but has several good streets, well paved, lighted with gas, and kept clean by an underground sewerage. In the centre of the market-place is the town-hall, a capacious brick structure, comprising, besides several other rooms, a large council-chamber for corporation meetings, quarter sessions, &c.: the lower part of the building is used as a butchers' market, and underneath is a cellar that has sometimes been used as a gaol. The church, which stands in a fine open space, on the brow of a hill, and close to the river, is a large Gothic edifice, richly adorned, and surmounted by a lofty pinnacled tower, the whole being in excellent repair. The interior has accommodation for 2,000 persons, and contains several fine old monuments, with Coats of arms, and the church, at its E. end, is a Gothic chapel or chantry, now appro-

printed to the use of the grammar-school. On the E. side of the town is the fine district chapel of St. George, erected in 1828, at an expense of 18,131l.; the altar-piece is embellished with a representation of the descent from the cross, in carpet-work, executed with much taste and brilliancy of colouring; there are also places of worship for Independents, Baptists, Wesleyan Methodists, and Unitarians. The grammar school, chartered by Charles I., has estates attached to it worth about 500l. a year; but though all the inhab. are entitled to send their sons here to be educated, free of expense, it is of little practical utility, and is attended only by a few boys. A free school, founded in 1796, provides instruction for about 35 boys, chiefly dissenters. There are numerous Sunday schools, attended by about 2,000 children; and 2 National schools, and 3 Lancasterian schools, furnish instruction to above 1,100 children. The charitable institutions comprise several almshouses and a dispensary, with some clothing and benefit societies. Near the town is a chalybeate spring, the road to which is an agreeable and fashionable promenade, and in the suburbs are some elegant villas, inhabited by the wealthy manufacturers.

Kidderminster has been noted for its weaving industry since the time of Henry VIII., in whose reign it had a considerable trade in broad cloth. Linsey-woolseys were afterwards introduced, and were superseded, in their turn, by poplins, bombazeens, and carpets. The fabrics now made are carpets, finger-rugs, bombazeens, coverings for buttons, and waistcoat-pieces. The carpet manufacture, introduced in 1736, has long been the staple business of the town: there are no power-loom, the carpets being all woven by the hand; and carpet-weaving is the principal trade; bombazeens are not extensively made, and button-coverings have only been lately introduced. The carpet fabrics comprise Brussels or pile carpets, Kidderminster or *de-grain* carpets, and Venetian carpets: the proportion of each, in 1838, is seen from the following table. (*Hand-loom Weavers' Report*, part v. 53c.)

Description of Fabric.	No. of Manufacturers.	Looms.	Hands employed.
Brussels carpets	84	1,765	1,995 men
Kidderminster or Scotch	11	210	351 women
Venetian	7	45	1,760 children
Total	102	2,020	4,016

Skilful and industrious carpet-weavers earn 7s. a week; but the average wages do not, perhaps, exceed 14s., the quantity woven averaging 24 yards a week. Button-makers and waistcoat-piece-makers earn about 12s. or 13s. a week; bombazeen-weavers earn only 7s. a week, but the work is light, and is principally performed by women and aged persons. There are 6 worsted mills, which employ 622 hands, and factory wages average from 2s. to 6s. a week for children and women, and from 13s. to 25s. for men. The moral condition of the weavers is said to have deteriorated of late years, chiefly in consequence of an obstinate strike in 1828, when wages were lowered 17 per cent., and when also the manufacture took root in other places. Since that period, the weavers are said to have become discontented and improvident, and, in fact, to have in a great measure changed their character. Rents are also said to have been considerably reduced. The manufactures and trade of the town are greatly facilitated by the Staffordshire and Worcestershire canal, which passes close to the town; and its communications have been further improved by the opening of the Birmingham and Gloucester railway.

Kidderminster is a bor., by prescription, and received its charter of incorporation in 12 Charles I. Since the Mun. Reform Act it has been divided into three wards, the government being vested in a recorder, 6 aldermen, and 18 councillors. Quarter and petty sessions are held in the town-hall. It is also the seat of a county court, before which 1,800 plaintiffs were entered in 1838. Corp. revenues, in 1847-48, 1,546l. In the reign of Edward I., Kidderminster sent 3 mems. to the H. of C., but the privilege being either lost or disused, it ceased to be represented; and the populous and industrious town had no voice in the legislature till the Reform Act conferred on it the privilege of sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. The electoral limits comprise the old mun. bor., and a small portion of the "foreign" district. It had 470 reg. electors in 1849-50. Markets on Thursday: fairs, Holy Thursday, June 30., Sept. 4., and Nov. 26., for horses, cattle, linen and woollen cloth.

KIDWELLY, or CIDWELLI, a bor., market-town, and par. of S. Wales, co. Caermarthen, and hund. of its own name, on the Gwendreth-Vechan, 9 m. S. Caermarthen and 179 m. W. London. Pop. in 1841, 1,529, there being a decrease of 68 persons during the preceding 10 years. It is divided by the river into 2 townships, Old Kidwelly being on the W., and New Kidwelly on the E. or left bank. The former was once surrounded by walls

with 3 gates, one of which is yet standing; but the houses have fallen to decay, and consist at present of little more than hovels. New Kidwelly, which is joined to the other by a stone bridge, has several respectable houses and numerous cottages. On a rocky eminence overlooking the Old Town, stands the castle, said to have been built soon after the Norman Conquest, and now a large and imposing ruin in tolerable preservation, with many of its apartments and staircases still entire: the W. gateway is a noble specimen of architecture, and some of the towers at the angles retain their arched roofs of stone. The battlements command magnificent views of Caermarthen Bay and the country on both sides the Towry. The church, which is in the New Town, is an old cruciform structure, with a tower and spire 170 ft. high: the transepts are now in ruins, and the centre aisle is the only part used for services. The ruins of a priory of black monks adjoin the church. The living is a vicarage in the gift of the crown; and connected with it is a rural deanery in the diocese of St. David's. There are places of worship also for Calvinist and Wesleyan Methodists, Presbyterians and other dissenters. A free-school is supported by funds in the hands of the corporation, and one other school is maintained by subscription. The industry of Kidwelly is chiefly employed in working coal, smelting iron, and making tin plates. It is not a place of much trade, however, owing to the choking up of the river, which is almost useless, notwithstanding the construction of wharfs, stiths, and other improvements, by Lord Cawdor. There is canal communication with Pembrey, where there is a commodious quay; and a canal and tram-road connect it also with Llanelly, which has a flourishing and increasing trade. Kidwelly forms a part of the duchy of Lancaster, but is governed by its own mayor and 12 aldermen, whose privileges were not affected by the Mun. Reform Act. Markets on Friday: cattle fairs, May 24., July 22., and Oct. 29.

KIEF, a government of Russia in Europe, lying lengthwise along the right bank of the Dnieper, having N. the government of Minsk, W. Volhynia and Podolia, and S. Kherson. Area estimated at about 20,000 sq. m. Pop. in 1846, 1,600,000. Principal rivers, Dniepr, by which it is bounded all along the E., Pripiet, which traverses its N. division, Teteriff, and other affluents of the Dniepr. Surface flat; soil very fertile, so much so, that, though agriculture be very indifferent, the return to most sorts of grain is said to be as 6 to 1. Cattle numerous, large, and of a fine breed. Horses small. Forests extensive. In its N. parts there are considerable marshes. Manufactures, exclusive of those carried on in the houses of the peasantry, can hardly be said to exist. Commerce trifling, and mostly in the hands of the Jews. Principal town Kief.

KIEF, the cap. of the above government, and the former residence of the grand dukes of Russia, on the Dniepr, a little below the confluence of the Desna with that river; lat. 50° 36' 53" N., long. 20° 27' E. Pop. 20,000. This is a very ancient city. It was the earliest seat of the Christian religion in Russia, and was for a considerable period the cap. of the empire. But it subsequently underwent many vicissitudes; being successively destroyed by the Lithuanians, the Tartars, and the Poles. In 1666, however, it was finally ceded to Russia, and has ever since continued in her possession. The town consists of three parts—the old town, on an eminence elevated considerably above the river; Pitcherak, or the citadel, more to the S., and on a still higher eminence; and the lower town, or Podolsk, on a plain along the river. The first or old town contains the cathedral of St. Sophia, founded in 1037, and an object of the greatest veneration on the part of the Russians. It is stated by Dr. Pinkerton, that the sum appropriated by the Russian government to the support of this the most ancient cathedral in the empire, with its priests, deacons, singers, &c., amounts to only 96l. a year! (*Russia*, &c., p. 217.) The citadel is surrounded by a rampart. Within it is the arsenal, erected by Catherine II. a large handsome building, containing an extensive supply of arms. But the principal object of curiosity in the citadel is the famous monastery of Pitcherak, with its cathedral. It derives its name from *pitchora*, a cavern, because in the vaults beneath are preserved the bodies of several Russian saints. The tower or belfry of the cathedral, deemed by the Russians a masterpiece of architecture, rises to the height of 304 ft. The theological academy of Kief, founded in 1661, in the Podolsk, is one of the most celebrated in Russia. In 1830, it was attended, according to Schnitzler, by 1,500 pupils; but this, we suspect, must be an exaggeration, and we should think that 350, or 400, would be nearer the mark. In 1833 a university was founded at Kief, intended to replace that of Wilna, suppressed after the late Polish revolution. It had, in 1846, 68 professors and assistants, about 550 pupils, and a library with more than 35,000 vols. The university buildings are said to be once large and handsome. One of the most remarkable edifices in the lower town is the exchange, a very large building, the great hall of which can accommodate 3,000 persons.

The houses are, for the most part, of wood, and the streets narrow, crooked, and mostly unpaved. The town is principally dependent on the pilgrimages to the cathedral and the monastery, and on the academy. In 1798 a fair, formerly held at Dubno, was transferred thither. It takes place during January, and is attended by all the surrounding nobles, as well as by great numbers of merchants and other descriptions of people. They rendezvous in the exchange. Provisions of all kinds are abundant and exceedingly cheap. (*Schützler, La Russie*, &c., p. 448-458; *Engelström, Inseln's Travel*, ch. 103, &c.).

KIEL, a town of Denmark, cap. Holstein, on the N. shore of the prov. at the bottom of a beautiful bay, lat. 54° 19' 43" N., long. 10° 8' 18" E. Pop. 13,572. It is handsome, well built, and thriving. The university, founded in 1665, has had many distinguished men among its professors: it has a valuable library, comprising 70,000 volumes, and is attended at present by about 200 students. There is also an excellent grammar school, with an orphan-house, a workhouse, &c. The Church of St. Nicholas is a fine old building; a handsome royal palace stands on a hill adjoining the town, and the public baths deserve notice.

Kiel is the seat of government, and, since 1834, of the supreme court of appeal for the duchies of Sleswick, Holstein, and Lauenburg. There is an extensive hat manufacture; and starch, tobacco, refined sugar, &c., are also produced. The harbour is safe and has water sufficient for large ships. A good deal of trade and ship-building is carried on. Packet boats sail regularly for Copenhagen; and the road from Hamburg to Kiel being equal to any, an Englishman's variety of barques called by travellers visiting the Danish metropolis. The Holstein canal, forming a navigable communication between the Eyder and the Baltic, unites with the latter 2 m. from the town. There is a great annual fair in January.

KILDA (ST.), or HIRT, a small island belonging to Scotland, the most remote of the Hebrides or Western Islands, in the Atlantic Ocean, 60 m. W. from Uist; lat. 57° 50' N., long. 8° 32' 30" W. It is about 3 m. in length by 2 m. in breadth, and contains about 4,000 acres; having attached to it a few dependent and inferior islets. Except at the landing place on its S. side, and at a rocky bay on the N., the island is wholly fenced round with lofty inaccessible precipices. The landing place, now noticed, affords, except during southerly winds, good anchorage. St. Kilda is principally occupied by four hills; and though the soil be thin and poor, it is, owing to the moisture and mildness of the climate, covered with luxuriant verdure, and affords pasture for some hundreds of sheep and a few cows. A small portion of the surface is in tillage, and produces the variety of barley called bear or big, and oats; but owing to the frequent and tremendous storms by which the island is visited the crops are exceedingly precarious, and are not unfrequently destroyed. The inhab. consist of 22 families, of 5 or 6 individuals each, who live together in one poor hamlet. The island being resorted to by a vast number of sea fowl, the inhab. are principally engaged in fowling and are mainly dependent on the eggs, flesh, and feathers of the birds. Fowling is here, as in all similar localities, an extremely eligible occupation, and one requiring great nerve and dexterity. (See Vol. I. p. 832.) Fishing is, also, a considerable resource. The people are filthy in their habits, destitute of most of the comforts of life, and apparently unhealthy and short-lived. The island belongs to a single proprietor, who lets it to a middleman, by whom it is let to the inhab. The latter pay their rents in feathers and bear. The pop. has long been stationary.

Recently a considerable improvement has been effected in the condition of these remote islanders by the visits paid them in the course of summer by steamers from various parts of Great Britain. A few years ago, they were extremely ignorant; but they are said to be, in this respect, a good deal improved through the residence amongst them of a worthy and most attentive clergyman. (*Martin's Voyage to St. Kilda*, 4th ed. Lond. 1753; *Fuflartion and Baird on the Highlands and Islands of Scotland*, p. 28, &c.)

KILDARE, an inland co. of Ireland, prov. Leinster, having N. Meath, E. Dublin and Wicklow, S. Carlow, and W. King's and Queen's Cos. It contains 292,435 acres, of which 165,447 are unimproved bog and waste, consisting principally of portions of the bog of Allen (which see). Surface mostly flat, or but slightly undulating; and, with the exception of the bog, the soil is mostly clayey and fertile. The famous common, called the *curragh* of Kildare, in the centre of the co., contains about 5,000 acres, and is said to be unmatched for the softness of its turf and the richness of its verdure. When Mr. Wakefield visited Ireland, agriculture in this co. was in the worst possible state (L. 419); but, though still very far behind, it has been materially improved in the intervals; and better implements, better stock, and improved processes have been pretty generally intro-

duced. There are some very large estates; but property is, notwithstanding, a good deal divided. Farms vary in size from 5 up to 200 and even 600 acres; and have, indeed, been less subdivided in this than in most Irish cos. Average rent of land, 18s. an acre. Minerals and manufactures unimportant. Principal rivers Barrow, Liffey, and Boyne; the last-mentioned river having its principal source in this co., near Carbury. It is also intersected by the Grand Canal, and by its branch leading to Monastereven and Athy. It has no considerable town, Athy being the most populous. Kildare contains 10 baronies, and 113 parishes; it returns 2 mems. to the H. of C. both for the co. Registered electors in 1849-50, 896. In 1841, it had 18,556 inhab. houses, 20,338 families, and 114,488 inhab., of whom 58,030 were males, and 56,458 females.

KILIA, a small town of European Russia, in Bessarabia, on the N. bank of the Kilia, an arm of the Danube, about 8 m. from its mouth. It has some trade; but owing to the shallowness of the water over the bar at the mouth of this arm of the river, it is not likely ever to become a place of any importance.

KILKENNY, an inland co. of Ireland, prov. Leinster, having N. Queen's Co.; E. Carlow and Wexford, from which it is separated by the Barrow; S. Waterford, from which it is separated by the Suir; and W. the latter and Tipperary. Area, 613,686 acres; of which 56,569 are unimproved mountain and bog. Though in parts hilly, the surface is mostly either flat, or but slightly undulating. Soil of various qualities; but for the most part, it rests on a limestone bottom, and is light, loamy, and, in the valleys, particularly fertile. The remarks made under the head of Kildare as to the improvements that have been made in agriculture, since 1813, apply equally to this co. In some districts the dairy husbandry is extensively carried on. Property mostly in very large estates. Farms of various sizes, but generally small. Partnership tenures are not uncommon; and farm-houses and cottages are in general very inferior. Average rent of land, 15s. 6d. an acre, being among the highest rented counties in Ireland. There are extensive beds of coal in this co., and collieries have been wrought, at a waste for more than a century; but owing to the excess of sulphur, the coal is but little used for domestic purposes, and is principally employed in malting, lime-burning, &c. The woollen manufactures formerly established in this co. are now nearly extinct (see next article); and, if we except the grinding of corn into meal and flour, and some breweries, distilleries, and tanneries, the manufactures now carried on in the co. are quite inconsiderable. Kilkenny is intersected by the Nore, and bounded on the E. by the Barrow, and on the S. by the Suir; so that it has peculiar facilities for the shipping of its produce, which may be conveyed either to Waterford by the Barrow and the Suir, or to Dublin by the Barrow and the Grand Canal. It contains 9 baronies and 127 par.; and sends 2 mems. to the H. of C., being 2 for the co., and 1 for the bor. of Kilkenny. Registered electors for the co. in 1849-50, 445. In 1841, Kilkenny had 32,147 inhab. houses, 34,805 families, and 202,430 inhab.; of whom 98,114 were males, and 103,306 females.

KILKENNY, an inland city and par. bor. of Ireland, prov. Leinster, cap. of the above co., on the Nore, which is here crossed by two handsome stone bridges, 72 m. S. W. Dublin, and 27 m. N. by W. Waterford.

Kilkenny, with its liberties, which are comprised in the par. bor., extends over a space of 17,012 imp. acres, and forms a co. of itself; the portion on the E. side the river, called St. Cannice, or Irishtown, being on the estate of the bishop of Ossory. The city and liberties had, in 1821, 23,230; and in 1841, 23,625 inhab., of whom above 21,000 are R. Catholics. Mr. Ingles says, that Kilkenny is well built (excepting the suburbs), beautifully situated, and a very interesting town. The principal streets are 2,245 houses belonging to the town in 1831, 1,837 were thatched and 965 slated. The principal structures are the castle and cathedral. The former, which is of great antiquity, having been built by Strongbow, has been long the property and residence of the Ormonde family. It has recently been almost entirely rebuilt, and has been rendered a very commodious as well as a magnificent residence.

The church of St. Cannice, the cathedral of the see of Ossory, is a large venerable pile of Gothic architecture; it has several monuments, and near it is a round or pillar tower 108 ft. high: the bishop's palace and the deanery are also close by. The co. of the city comprises the parishes of St. Mary, St. Patrick, St. John, and St. Canice. The church of St. Mary is an elegant modern building; that of St. John, which was the chapel of the monastery of the same name, has been restored, so as to preserve the character of its former singular style of architecture, in which the windows are replicated in such close succession, that the intervals are merely mullions, whence it is called the Lantern of Kilkenny. There is a Rom. Cath. chapel in each parish, that of St. Mary's

being looked upon as the bishop's cathedral. Chapels are also attached to the Presentation Convent, and to the Dominican and Capuchin friaries. The ruins of the Franciscan and of the Dominican, or Black Abbey, add greatly to the interest of the place.

A public grammar-school, endowed by one of the earls of Ormonde, and elevated to the rank of a royal college by James II., has accommodation for 80 resident pupils: the house, which stands in a retired situation, on the banks of the Nore, was rebuilt, at the public expense, towards the close of last century: the children of the inhab. of Kilkenny are admitted at half price. Here is also a charter school in which 94 boys are instructed in weaving, a seminary for candidates for the R. Catholic priesthood at Birrfield, a large female school, conducted in the best possible manner by the nuns of the Presentation Convent, a parochial school, and a female orphan house. There are about 1,500 pupils in the public, and 1,600 in the private schools.

The principal charitable institutions are the infirmary for the co., the fever hospital, and a lunatic asylum, wholly independent of the county district asylum. There are several almshouses, and two loan funds. The charitable society affords relief to sick tradesmen and to their widows: the benevolent society to the bedridden poor. The workhouse for the Kilkenny union, opened in 1842, is an extensive building, having accommodation for 2,000 inmates.

A public walk, called the Mall, extends upwards of a mile along the bank of an unfinished canal and of the Nore. Here, also, is a small library, a news' room, a mechanics' friends' society, and a horticultural society. Races are held in September.

A charter, granted to the city by William Earl Marshal, was repeatedly confirmed by successive sovereigns. Elizabeth combined the two boroughs into a single corporation. Under the Municipal Reform Act, the corporation consists of a mayor, 2 aldermen, and 18 councillors. Previously to the union, Kilkenny and Irish town sent 4 mems. to the Irish H. of C.; and since then, they have sent 1 mem. to the Imperial H. of C. The right of voting was formerly in the freemen and freeholders of the co. of the city, the freedom of the city being obtained by birth, servitude, or by gift of the corporation. Registered electors in 1849-50, 217. The income of the corporation, amounting to about 2,400*l.* a year, is employed to defray the charges for lighting, paving, &c.

The assizes for the county and city are held here; as are the general and petty sessions of the peace, in a quarterly rotation with three other places. The court-house, built on the site of Grace's Old Castle, is a spacious and elegant building, with sufficient accommodation for the public business of the co. and city. The mayor holds a weekly court of conscience for the recovery of debts not exceeding 2*l.* Irish. The co. prison is at a small distance from the town: that of the city is ill constructed, and limited in its means of accommodation. The Bank of Ireland, Provincial, and National banks have branches here; and the savings bank had in Nov. 1848, 16,730*l.* deposits. Two weekly newspapers are published in the city.

The Ormonde family have laudably exerted themselves at different periods to introduce manufactures into Kilkenny. In this view, Pierce, the third earl, brought over a colony of Flemings skilled in the making of tapestry and carpets, but without success. The first marquis expended large sums in attempts to establish the linen manufacture. That of frieze, after being carried on for a considerable period, was eventually transferred to the neighbouring town of Carrick-on-Suir. Wool-combing was also introduced, and the manufacture of blankets was extensively carried on; but this also has all but entirely failed. Mr. Inglis represents the woollen manufacturers of Kilkenny as being, at the period of his visit, without employment, and in great distress. The *Irish Review* comments on the state that the entire value of the woollen goods produced within the districts of Cork, Kilkenny, Moat, and Carrick-on-Suir, did not (in 1828) amount to 20,000*l.* a year! And we doubt whether it be now (1850) materially greater. Several flour and corn-mills have been erected in or near the city, and there are several distilleries, breweries, and tanneries, and a starch manufactory: but the principal dependence of the town is on its retail trade, of which it is an extensive centre. A great number of pigs are also killed in the city, and it has an extensive butter trade. Within about 1 m. from the city are some celebrated marble quarries and a sawing and polishing mill. The marble is extremely beautiful; it has a black ground variegated with madrepor, bivalve shells, and other organic matter; it takes a fine polish, and makes beautiful chimney-pieces, and such like articles. Kilkenny coal neither emits flame nor smoke; but its sulphurous exhalations unfit it for domestic purposes. Post-office revenue, in 1842, 876*l.*; in 1848, 1,508*l.* Markets on Wednesdays and Saturdays, in the covered area of the Tholsel or town-house. Fairs on the 28th of March, and Corpus Christi day, for cattle

and wool, are frequented by purchasers from all parts of the country.

Kilkenny derived its name from a church or cell dedicated to St. Canice, or Kenny. It appears to have been a place of some importance before the arrival of the English: for Strongbow built a fortress here, which was enlarged and strengthened by William Earl Marshal, and subsequently by the earl of Ormonde, in whose possession it has continued for centuries. Parliaments were frequently held in this city; and a famous statute, passed in 1571, for regulating the intercourse between the English and the native Irish, is still quoted by the title of the Statute of Kilkenny. In the wars of 1641, the assembly of the confederated Catholics held its meetings here, in a building which is still, on that account, an object of curiosity to strangers. In 1650, it surrendered to Cromwell.

Kilkenny enjoys many advantages, independently of its locality as a central point of communication to all parts of the S. of Ireland. Its situation, equally picturesque and salubrious, the circumstance of its being the ancient and continued residence of one of the principal Anglo-Irish families, and of the bishop and titularies of the diocese, as well as of many highly respectable inhab., and the vicinity of numerous resident landholders of large property, have all contributed to increase its rank and respectability. The higher classes here may vie with those of the capital; but we regret to say, that the situation of the labouring classes is as bad as possible. Mr. Inglis says, "I found the working pop. in a miserable condition; hundreds subsisting on the chance contributions levied on the farmers round the country, and hundreds more subsisting at the very lowest point at which life can be sustained." And we understand that this paragraph may, with little modification, be applied to the state of the lower classes at this moment (1840). (*Inglis's Ireland*, l. 83. *Boundary Municipal and Railway Reports*, &c.)

KILLARNEY (TOWN AND LAKE OF). The town of Killarney in Ireland, co. Kerry, so celebrated for the fine scenery in its vicinity, is situated about 1½ m. from the E. margin of the lake, 162 m. S.W. Dublin, and 44 m. E. by N. Cork. Pop. in 1831, 7,014; in 1841, 7,127. The town took its rise from iron and copper works in its neighbourhood, now discontinued from want of fuel; but, for a lengthened period, it has been principally indebted for its support and celebrity to the attractions of the surrounding scenery. It has three pretty good streets, with many bad alleys, and close filthy lanes and yards. Mr. Inglis says, that it has a large pauper population, and a vast number of idle persons; which, indeed, is a common characteristic of all places much resorted to by strangers. The great drawback, on a visit to Killarney, has hitherto been the number and importunity of the beggars by whom its streets and environs have been infested. It is to be hoped that something effectual may be done, through the agency of the Poor-law Commissioners, or otherwise, to rid the town of this nuisance.

The principal buildings are the par. church, built in 1802; a large, low, heavy, Rom. Cath. chapel, a Methodist meeting-house, a national school, a fever hospital with a dispensary, an almshouse for aged females, founded and endowed by Lady Kenmare, a market-house, theatre, court-house, and bridewell. In New Street is a convent for nuns of the order of the Presentation. Attached to their convent is a school, in which these benevolent and excellent ladies give gratis and very superior instruction to about 400 girls: Lord Kenmare contributes 100*l.* a year towards defraying the expense of the school, and also clothes 30 of the girls. General sessions are held four times a year; petty sessions on Tuesdays, and a manor court monthly: a party of the constabulary has a station here. It has several good inns, which, in the visiting season, are much frequented. The only manufactures, if we may so call them, carried on in the town, are those of toys and fancy articles, made of the wood of the arbutus, which is here very abundant. It has a considerable trade in corn, groceries, woollens, coarse linens, &c.; and it has some tanneries, two breweries, and a large flour-mill. Markets on Saturdays; fairs on 4th July, 8th Aug., 7th Oct., 11th and 28th Nov., and 28th Dec. Post-office revenue in 1830, 594*l.*; in 1836, 694*l.* Branches of the Agricultural and National banks were opened in 1835. The town is built on the estate of the Earl of Kenmare, whose house and grounds lie between it and the lake.

The lake of Killarney, or Lough-Lane, consists properly of three lakes connected by a winding channel, through which vessels pass from the one to the other. It lies at the E. extremity of the extensive range of mountains called MacGilllicuddy's Reeks, and has in its immediate vicinity, or rather, indeed, rising from its banks, the highest summits in Ireland. The largest division of the lake, or that portion called the lower lake, occupies an area of about 3,000 Irish acres; its W. shore is formed by the mountains of Tomies and Glenna, respectively, 2,150 and 2,090 ft. above the level of

the sea, having their precipitous sides well clothed with forest trees; on the opposite shore is the striking contrast of flat land in a high state of cultivation, ornamented by the fine demesne of Lord Kenmare. There are said to be no fewer than thirty-three islands, many of which are extremely picturesque, in the lower lake. One of these islands, Innisfallen, has been admired by every traveller. Arthur Young says that it is the most beautiful spot in the United Kingdom, and perhaps in Europe. It contains about 20 acres, is extremely well wooded, and has every variety of tranquil beauty and sylvan scenery. On the S. shore of this lake is the fine ruin of Muckross Abbey, the property of Mr. Herbert. This lake is, in some parts, very deep. Between Glenna Mountain and Ross Island, the largest in the lake, the soundings give 42 fathoms; and as the surface of the lake is about 50 ft. above the level of the sea, it follows that its bottom is 203 ft. below that level.

The middle lake occupies about 640 Irish acres; it lies immediately under the Fore or Turk Mountain, elevated at 1,900 ft. above the level of the sea. The strait which joins the middle and upper lake is about 3 m. in length, having, in many places, the appearance of a beautiful river. The upper lake contains about 720 Irish acres. It lies in a hollow, formed by some stupendous mountains, among which are Gurrán Tual, the highest in Ireland, rising 3,404 ft. above the level of the sea; so that its scenery is in the highest degree magnificent and sublime. "Here," says Mr. Wakefield, "Nature assumes her roughest and most terrific attire to astonish the gazing spectator, who, lost amid wonder and surprise, thinks he treads enchanted ground; and while he scarcely dares to which side he shall direct his attention, can hardly believe that the scenes he sees around him are not the effects of delusion, or the airy phantoms of the brain, called into momentary existence by the creative powers of a fervid imagination. Here rocks piled upon rocks rise to a towering height; there one mountain rears its head in succession above another, and sometimes a gigantic range seems to overhang you, forming a scene that may be more easily conceived than described. Such sublime scenes cannot be beheld but with a mixed sensation of pleasure and awe, and on a contemplative mind they must make a deep and lasting impression." (Vol. I. p. 65.) In other places, however, especially on the E. shores of the lower and middle lakes, the scenery is of the softest and most agreeable kind, consisting of finely wooded promontories, ornamented with rivers and seats, verdant islands, &c.; and it is in the contrast between these and whatever is most wild and rugged, that we find the great charm of Killarney.

The lakes of Killarney receive the Fiesk and several other streams, their redundant waters being carried off by the Lane. The latter issues from the N.W. extremity of the Lower Lake, and after pursuing a W.N.W. course for about 10 m., falls into Castlemaine Harbour, at the bottom of Dingle Bay. It is well stocked with salmon and white trout, and also with pearl oysters, whence pearls have been repeatedly taken. Were it desirable, it is said that the Lane might, at a small expense, be made navigable from the sea to the lake. (*Angler's Ireland; Young's Ireland*, 4to ed.; *Windsor's Cork*, &c., p. 254, &c.)

KILLIECRANKIE, a celebrated pass through the Glanman mountains in Scotland, co. Perth, about 15 m. above Dunkeld. It is about 1 m. in length. The road is cut out of the side of one of the contiguous mountains; and below it at the foot of a high precipice, in the bottom of the ravine, the river Garry dashes along over rugged rocks, but so shaded with trees as hardly to be seen. At the N. extremity of this pass, the Revolutionary army under Mackay was defeated in 1689, by the troops of James II. under the famous Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, who fell in the moment of victory.

KILMARNOCK, an eminent manufacturing town, par. bor., bor. of barony, and par. of Scotland, district of Cunningham, co. Ayr, on level ground on the N. bank of the Irvine, and on the small stream Kilmarnock or Fenwick, a tributary of the former; 30 m. S. W. by S. Glasgow, and 12 m. N. N. E. Ayr. Pop. of the par. of Kilmarnock, in 1801, 8,079, in 1841, 19,955; but the pop. of the par. bor., which includes the suburb of Riccarton, on the S. bank of the river, is at present, 1850, estimated at above 22,000.

The main street, forming part of the high road between Ayr and Glasgow, is upwards of 1 m. in length, and is largely built. The houses, generally of freestone (which is found in great abundance in the immediate vicinity), are erected in a handsome substantial style. Similar remarks are applicable to all the modern portions of the town. Kilmarnock has recently been extended greatly towards the S. and E., and in these directions there are many handsome buildings. The older streets are narrow and irregular; but the magistrates having obtained an act for improving the town, about the beginning of the present century, judicious measures were adopted to carry

its objects into effect; and Kilmarnock is now, on the whole, one of the neatest and best built manufacturing towns in Scotland. The streets were lighted with gas in 1823.

Among the public buildings are the 2 parish churches, one of which, the High Church, after the plan of St. Martin's in London, is surmounted by a tower 80 ft. in height; the academy; and the town-hall, a neat modern building in the centre of the town, on an arch over the water of Kilmarnock. The merchants' society have built a spacious inn, in point of architecture, is an ornament to the town. There are five bridges over the Kilmarnock within the town, and two over the Irvine between Kilmarnock and Riccarton, all substantial structures.

In addition to the two parish churches, one of which is collegiate, there are 3 free churches, two chapels belonging to the U. Presbyterian Associate Synod; and the Relief, Cameronians, Independents, and Rom. Catholics have each a chapel. The Dissenters, including R. Catholics, who are almost all Irish, but ex. the adherents of the free church, comprise rather more than a third part of the whole community.

Kilmarnock is well furnished with the means of education. There are, in the country part of the parish, 3 schools, and 2 teachers; in the town there are above 30 schools; but of these only two are endowed; the remainder being private or voluntary. The academy erected in 1807 at the joint expense of the landowners and private contributors, and which is at once a parish school and a joint-stock establishment, is an efficient and useful institution, amply realising the object of its founders. The total number of pupils at all the schools in 1839, was upwards of 3,000 (*New Stat. Acc.*, *ut supra*), or about a seventh part of the pop. This, too, was exclusive of 21 Sunday schools, attended by 1,288 scholars. Two of the above schools are free; one for boys, and one for girls. It has several public libraries, a philosophical institution, and other scientific and literary associations, various printing presses, a weekly newspaper, and an astronomical observatory. It may be worth mentioning that the first edition of *Burns's Poems* was printed here in 1786.

Poor-rates have been introduced. They amounted in 1847 to 2,100*l.*, and in 1850 to 3,200*l.*, assessed one half upon heritable property valued at 41,000*l.* a year, and the other half on personal property.

Kilmarnock is chiefly eminent as a place of trade and manufacture. It seems originally to have been distinguished for its manufacture of woollen bonnets, formerly worn by all the peasantry; and of striped night-caps. These articles, called "Kilmarnock bonnets and caps, are still much esteemed to a very considerable extent, as are forage caps for the army. The carpet manufacture was introduced more than a century ago; but the value produced, in 1791, was only 21,400*l.*; whereas in 1839, including Brussels, Venetian, Turkey, and Scotch carpets and rugs, its gross value was estimated at 150,000*l.* Five woollen mills in the town and neighbourhood engaged in spinning worsted or woollen yarns for the carpet factories and bonnet-makers, employed in 1838 about 200 hands (*Factory Returns*, 1839), and they still continue to employ about the same number. The manufacture of worsted printed shawls was a few years ago the most extensive business carried on in Kilmarnock. It was first begun in Scotland in 1824, at Greenholm, in this neighbourhood, by Mr. William Hall, an ingenious and enterprising calico-printer; and so rapidly did it extend, that, during the year ending 1st June, 1831, there were manufactured 1,128,814 shawls, the value of which might be about 300,000*l.* (*Bound Rep. ut supr.*). The business afforded employment in 1840 to about 1,400 persons, including weavers and printers. But the printing of shawls has since been greatly lessened, and the fabrics called De Laine have been, to a considerable extent, substituted in their stead, so that the number of persons employed in the printing trade has considerably diminished. There are extensive tanneries, and the boot and shoe trade is very considerable, both for home consumption and exportation. Machinery is also rather extensively produced, and there are a number of inferior manufactures. In the *Statistical Account* of the parish in 1791, the gross annual value of its different manufactures was estimated at 86,850*l.*; whereas in the *New Statistical Account* of the parish, published in 1840, the annual value of its leading manufactures is estimated at above 476,000*l.*; and, including inferior articles, the whole may (1850) probably amount to about 600,000*l.* The weaving of cotton (by hand-loom), in connexion with the Glasgow market, is carried on to some extent in Kilmarnock, as in all the towns in the W. of Scotland. There are 4 branch banks in the town, and a savings' bank. Coal is abundant in the neighbourhood, and is extensively exported. Market days, Tuesday and Friday.

The port of Kilmarnock is at Troon, on the Ayrshire coast, with which it is connected by a railroad 9½ m. in length. This was the first public railway constructed in

Scotland, the act for its construction having passed in 1820, though it was not finished till 1812. Branches of the Glasgow, Paisley, Kilmarnock, and Ayr railway, communicate with Kilmarnock, and through it by Dumfries with England, so that it possesses the readiest means of intercourse with different sea-ports, and with all the most important towns not only in the W. of Scotland, but generally in the kingdom.

Kilmarnock was originally a mere appendage of the baronial manor of the Boyds, lords of Kilmarnock, situated in 1745, who had their seat in the neighbourhood. Its first charter as a free bor. of barony was granted by James VI. in 1591; a second was granted in 1672. The Reform Bill erected Kilmarnock into a parl. bor., conferring on it, along with Renfrew, Port Glasgow, Dumfries, and Rutherglen, the privilege of sending a mem. to the H. of C. Constituency of the burgh in 1849-50, 702, being more than equal to the aggregate constituency of the other burghs. Corp. rev. 1848-9, 5371. Under the Municipal Reform Act it is governed by a provost, 4 bailies, a treasurer, and 12 councillors.

KILRENNY, a royal and parl. bor., sea-port, and bur. of Scotland, co. Fife, on the N.E. shore of the Frith of Forth, near the mouth of that great estuary, 30 m. N.E. Edinburgh, and 54 m. S. by W. St. Andrews. Its burghal privileges embrace Cellardykes, sometimes called Nether Kilrenny, distant 3 m. S.E. Pop. 1,719. Kilrenny is a place of no importance; but Cellardykes engages extensively in the herring and whale fishery, and is a thriving village. Kilrenny, which was created a royal bor. in 1707, unites with Cupar, St. Andrews, and three small adjacent bor., in sending a member to the H. of C. Registered electors in 1849-50, 43. Municipal revenue, 500.

KILRUSH, a sea-port town of Ireland, S.W. part of the co. Clare, on the innermost extremity of a creek on the N. side of the estuary of the Shannon, 37 m. W. Limerick, and 30 m. E. by N. from Loochard, at the mouth of the Shannon. Pop. in 1841, 5,070. It exports considerable quantities of corn, meal, and flour: the herring fishery is also carried on to some extent; and it has a pier, and a patent slip for the repair of vessels. It is a creek belonging to the port of Limerick. Its chief buildings are the N. and S. Catholic churches, a Wesleyan Methodist meeting-house, market-house, custom-house, court-house, and bridewell. It has a school on the foundation of Erasmus Smith, and some other schools. A manor-court is held monthly; general sessions at Easter and Michaelmas, and petty sessions on Tuesdays. It is a coast-guard and constabulary station. Markets on Saturdays; fairs, May 10, and Oct. 12. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 2634; in 1836, 4024. Branches of the Agricultural and National Banks were opened in 1835. A mail car plies daily to Ennis. Turf for fuel is brought coastwards by boats in large quantities.

KILSYTH, a bor. of barony, market and manufacturing town of Scotland, co. Stirling, in a valley 104 m. N. by E. Glasgow, and 16 m. S.W. by S. Stirling. Pop. (1841), 4,108. The town is irregularly built. The only public buildings are the parish church, with a lofty spire, and a chapel belonging to the Relief. The Independents have a small congregation, but no separate meeting-house. The inhabs. are chiefly employed as cotton-weavers in connexion with the manufacturers of Glasgow. In 1831, it had 424 weavers; it has now upwards of 600. About 30 persons are employed as sickle-makers. Iron stone and coals abound in the neighbourhood. The Forth and Clyde canal passes within 4 m. to the S., and contributes greatly to the prosperity of the district. Of the *presidia*, or forts, erected by Agricola in his 4th campaign, several mouldering remains may yet be traced. (*Tacit. Agricola*, cap. 22.) They were generally about 2 m. apart, and built nearly in the direction afterwards occupied by the wall of Antoninus. This wall, or *Græm's Dyke*, as it is vulgarly termed, built by the Emperor Antoninus Pius, about the year 140, as a protection against the Caledonians on the N., ran across the isthmus between the Forth and Clyde, and passed within five furlongs of Kilsyth on the S. Kilsyth gives its name to a great victory gained in its vicinity (15th Aug. 1645), by the Marquis of Montrose over the Covenanters, commanded by General Baillie. Sir James Livingston (a branch of the noble house of Linlithgow) was created Viscount Kilsyth (1661), on account of his loyalty during the civil wars; but the title was attained, and the estates forfeited in the person of the 3d viscount, who joined the rebellion in 1715. "Religious revivals," as certain fanatical displays recently got up in various places throughout Scotland, in 1830, have been termed, originated at Kilsyth, but they seem for some years past to have entirely subsided, not merely here, but every where else. (*Nimmo's Hist. of Stirlingshire*, edit. 1817; *Chalmers's Caledonia*.)

KILWINNING, a market and manufacturing town and bor. of barony, Scotland, in the district of Cunningham, co. Ayr, on a rising ground on the right bank of

the Garnock, 3 m. N.N.W. Irvine, and 21 m. S.W. Glasgow. Pop. including the contiguous village of Byres, in 1801, 1,343; in 1841, 2,971. The town consists chiefly of one street, but there are various narrow lanes. The modern additions to the town are substantial and elegant. The only public buildings are the parish church (with a spire) and two dissenting chapels. Eglington Castle, famous for the tournament held there in 1830, is in the immediate vicinity. The inhabs. are chiefly employed in the weaving of cottons, gauzes, &c. for the Paisley and Glasgow manufacturers. Number of employed about 400. Lime and coal abound in the district around. The Glasgow and Ayr railway passes close to Kilwinning.

Kilwinning is celebrated for its abbey, founded by Hugh de Moreville, constable of Scotland, in 1140, and dedicated to St. Winning. It was, at the Reformation, one of the richest in the kingdom. It is said that the foreign architect who built the abbey was the first to introduce the craft of Free Masonry into Scotland. The lodge of Kilwinning, as the mother lodge of the kingdom, was the habit of granting charters to other lodges all of which spread the word Kilwinning to their name; but the institution of the Grand Lodge of Scotland at Edinburgh has nearly superseded the dignity of Kilwinning as a mother lodge. Kilwinning is the seat of a body of archers, which existed at least as early as 1499, and is still in a flourishing condition. (*Old Stat. Acc. of Scotland*, & *Kilwinning*; *Kelch's Scot. Bishops*, p. 407; *Chambers's Gazetteer*.)

KINCARDINESHIRE, or THE MEARNs, a marit. co. of Scotland, having N. the co. of Aberdeen, from which it is for the most part separated by the Dee and Avon, E. the German Ocean, by which it is bordered above 30 m., and S. and W. Forfar. It is of a triangular shape. Area, 244,480 acres, of which 1,360 are water. The Grampian mountains occupy the western, central, and most of the northern parts of the county, extending from Battock-hill, 2,611 ft. high, on its W. confines, to Stonehaven on the E. coast. The arable land consists principally of the district denominated the *How of the Mearns*, being a portion of Strathmore, or a continuation of the *How of Angus*, extending from Strathcathro and Marykirk to within a few miles of Stonehaven. It comprises about 50,000 acres of comparatively low, fertile, and well cultivated land, with many thriving plantations. On the E., the *How* is divided by a range of low hills which separate it from what is called the *Coast* district, containing about 68,000 acres, about a half of which is in a high state of cultivation. There is also a narrow glen or district of arable land along the Dee. Property in a few hands. Arable farms of all sizes, many small; some from 400 to 800 acres, and the proportion of small farms decreasing. Hill pastures let in immense tracts. Improvements began in this county about the middle of last century, and have been carried on since the close of the American war, and especially during the last dozen years, with great spirit and extraordinary success. Commodious farm-houses have been erected, and new and level roads constructed in districts where formerly there were only wretched footpaths. The following statements, extracted from the notice of the parish of Fettersclair in this county, in the *New Statistical Account of Scotland*, comparing its present state with its state when the old statistical account was published about half a century ago, may, with little modification, be applied to the entire county. "The improvements in this parish, either begun or completed, since the last statistical account was published, have been of great extent. Much waste ground has been reclaimed, and converted into productive arable land. Extensive plantations have been formed, which are now, generally, in a thriving state, and adding to the shelter of the fields, the beauty of the landscape, the resources of the proprietors, and the benefit of the neighbourhood. Better accommodations in the dwelling-houses, farm-steading, and enclosures, have been provided. By means of extensive and judicious draining, the salubrity of the atmosphere has been improved, the state of disease has been altered, and the health of the people promoted. By the introduction of thrashing-mills, and other useful inventions, agricultural labour has been greatly diminished. By the formation of so many new roads, internal communication and access to markets have been very much facilitated. Enlarged means of intellectual, moral, and religious improvements, have been called into operation; and it is to be hoped that the habits, manners, and enjoyments of the people have in some measure kept pace with the increase of these advantages." (P. 137.) Average rent of land in 1843, 10s. 11½d. an acre. Lime is the only mineral of any importance. The manufacture of the beautifully jointed and painted wooden snuff-boxes, now in very general demand, originated at Laurencekirk, in this co., about 1790; but Cumnock and Mauchline, in Ayrshire, have become the principal seats of the manufacture. Principal rivers, Dee, N. Esk, Bervie, Dye, &c., on some

of which are considerable salmon fisheries. It contains 19 parishes, and one royal bor., Inverbervie, which is quite inconsiderable. It sends 1 mem. to the H. of C. for the county, and Inverbervie joins with Montrose, Arbroath and other bors., in returning a mem. Registered electors for county, in 1845-50, 302. In 1841, Kincardine had 7,204 inhab. houses, and 33,075 individuals, of whom 15,829 were males, and 17,246 females. Valued rent, 74,912*l*. Scotch; annual value of real property in 1815, 94,816*l*. do. in 1843, 134,241*l*.

KINCARDINE, a sea-port town of Scotland, in a detached part of the co. Perth, par. of Tulliallan, on the N. side of the Frith of Forth, 31 m. W. N. W. Edinburgh. Pop. of par., in 1841, 3,196; of town, 2,875. The streets are mostly narrow, irregular, and dirty; but the houses are good especially those in the newer parts of the town. It has a good quay and harbour, and a good roadstead, affording convenient anchorage for vessels of large burden. Ship-building is carried on to a considerable extent, and the town has an extensive coasting trade. The parish church is at Tulliallan, but there is a dissenting meeting-house in the town. The different parties in the town to whom vessels belong have formed themselves into a Kincardine Mutual Assurance Company, the value of the property so insured being estimated at about 80,000*l*. There are two branch banks in the town; and a regular ferry is established with the opposite side of the river.

KINGHORN, a royal and parl. bor., sea-port, and par. of Scotland, co. Fife, on an eminence, overhanging a small bay, on the N. banks of the Frith of Forth, 9 m. N. by E. Edinburgh, and 3 m. S. W. Kirkcaldy. Pop. of bor. in 1841, 1,542; of bor. and par., 2,935. The town was not long since one of the most irregularly built in Scotland; but it has of late undergone many improvements in this respect, and most of the older houses (which had two flats or stories, with outside stairs facing the street) have been superseded by more modern and better buildings. The only public edifices are the par. church, a dissenting chapel, a town-hall, gaol, and a handsome school-house erected by subscription. Fifty poor children are educated gratuitously on the bequest of the late Mr. Philip Kirkcaldy, and are clothed, and provided with books and other school utensils. There are several subscription libraries. The chief branch of industry is flax-spinning; three flax mills, driven by steam, employing 350 hands. In addition to the above 180 individuals are employed in the weaving of different linen fabrics. A few persons engage in fishing. The harbour is bad, and scarcely any shipping is ever seen in it. Pettycur, about a mile W., is a better harbour; but its chief business derived from its being one of the seats of the ferry across the Frith of Forth, is now all but wholly superseded.

Kinghorn lays claim to great antiquity; it is certain that it was created a royal bor., as early as the 13th century. It was originally a royal residence, but lost that dignity on the death of Alex. III., who was killed (1285) by falling over a rugged and lofty eminence about a mile W. of the town. Kinghorn unites with Burntisland, Dysart, and Kirkcaldy, in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered voters in 1849-50, 33. (*Bound. Returns; Factory Returns; Beauties of Scotland; Sibbald's Hist. of Fife.*)

KING'S COUNTY, an inland co. of Ireland, prov. Leinster, having N. Westmeath, E. Kildare, S. Tipperary and Queen's County, and W. Roscommon, Galway, and Tipperary. Area, 528,166 acres. A portion of the bog of Allen covers a very considerable tract in the more northerly parts of this co., while on the S. it is partially encumbered with ramifications of the Devil's Bit and Silebbhinn mountains. On the whole, the unimproved bog and mountain are supposed to occupy 133,349 acres, of which, however, the far greater portion belongs to the bog. Soil of an average degree of fertility. Estates mostly very large. Tillage farms small, but some of those devoted to grazing are very extensive. Subsoil is less common here than in most parts of Ireland; but its rural economy is, notwithstanding, but little different from that of the surrounding cos. (*See KILDARE, MEATH, &c.*) Average rent of land 14*l*. 5*d*. an acre. Silver has been found at Edenderry, but, if we except limestone, it has no minerals of any real importance; manufactures can hardly be said to exist. Its chief town is Birt or Parsonstown. It is bounded on the W. by the Shannon, and on the S. by the Little Brosna, while it is intersected by the Greater Brosna and the Grand Canal. It is divided into 11 baronies and 52 par., and returns 2 mems. to the H. of C., both for the co. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 497. In 1841 King's County had 24,584 inhab. houses, 26,683 families, and 146,887 inhab., of whom 72,681 were males, and 74,206 females.

KINGSTON-ON-THAMES, a bor., market town, and par. of England, co. Surrey, loc. alt. in hund. of its own name, but with separate jurisdiction, on the S. bank of the Thames near the S. Western railway, 12 m.

S. W. London. Pop. of the par. in 1841 (exc. Ham and Hook), 8,147; and with the hamlet of Hampton-wick (which is included within the new boundary of the mun. bor.), 9,761. "The town extends from N. to S. about $\frac{1}{2}$ m. along the Thames, crossed here by an elegant stone bridge of 5 arches opened in 1828, and rather more than $\frac{1}{2}$ m. from E. to W. Nearly continuous lines of houses, however, diverge from the body of the town along the two principal high roads towards London, almost to the bottom of Kingston Hill, and on the road to Portsmouth as far as the par. boundary, $\frac{1}{4}$ m. from the town. On the opposite side of the river is Hampton-wick, which may be fairly considered to constitute a part of Kingston, though the communication has recently been much lessened by a toll levied on all passengers crossing the new bridge." (*Mem. Round. Rep.*) The town is well paved and lighted with gas. The streets are narrow and irregular; but there is a spacious market-place, in which is the town-hall, erected in the reign of James I., containing some curious pictures and carvings of high antiquity. The lent assizes for the co., which were formerly held in it, have been for some years transferred to a neighbouring brick edifice built for the purpose; and attached to it is a small gaol, used for the temporary accommodation of prisoners. The church is large, but plain, with a low square tower, and several other edifices of different periods, commencing with the reign of Richard II.; the living is a vicarage, in patronage of King's College, Cambridge. There are places of worship for several denominations of Dissenters. It has a grammar school, founded in 1560, furnishing instruction to between 30 and 40 boys; a boys' and girls' national school, supported by subscriptions; an almshouse for 6 aged men and as many women; and a dispensary.

Kingston is not a place of much trade. Considerable business is done in malting, there being 15 malting-houses in or near the town; and there are also some flax and oil mills; but most of the townspeople are dependant on their retail dealings with the neighbouring gentry. A large and well-attended corn market is held every Saturday; and the fairs are on Thursday, Friday, and Saturday in Whitsun week, Aug. 2, 3, and 4, and Nov. 13, for horses, toys, pedlary, &c.

Kingston, first incorporated by King John in 1199, and chartered by many subsequent monarchs, has been governed since the passing of the Municipal Reform Act, by a recorder, 6 aldermen, and 18 councillors; the bor. being divided into 3 wards. Corp. rev. in 1847-48, 414*l*. Sum expended on the poor in 1847, 3,636*l*, assessed upon property valued at 34,119*l*. a year. Members were sent by it to the H. of C. in the reigns of Edward I. and II.; but the burgesses were relieved from the burden on petition, and the franchise has not since been renewed. Roman coins, urns, and other antiquities, that have been dug up in considerable quantities, prove Kingston to have been inhabited by the early conquerors of Britain. It received its name, *King's-town* (its more ancient appellation being *Mercford*) from its having been the residence of our Saxon monarchs, eight of whom were crowned here, some in the market-place, and others in a very ancient chapel once attached to the church, but now destroyed. A general council was held here by Egbert in 838, and attended by the chief prelates and nobility of the realm. The town continued during several centuries to be a place of high consideration, and in royal favour. (*Lytton's Esquires of London, art. Kingston; Mem. Round. Report, &c.*)

KINGSTON, the largest and most commercial city of Jamaica, though not the cap. of the isl.; on its S. coast, on the N. side of a fine harbour, on the verge of an alluvial plain surrounded by an amphitheatre of mountains. Lat. 17° 56' 6" N., long. 76° 53' 15" W. Pop. loosely estimated at 30,000; but no accurate census has ever been taken, and this estimate is probably exaggerated. It is built on ground gently shelving to the verge of the sea, and was originally comprised in an oblong space, 1 m. in length, by $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in breadth, but it has of late years extended considerably beyond these limits.

The streets in Lower Kingston are long and straight, crossing each other at right angles, like those of the new town of Edinburgh; the houses in general are two stories high, with verandahs above and below. There are two churches, an English and a Presbyterian, both handsome structures, especially the former, which is built on an elevated spot overlooking the city. Kingston has several dissenting chapels, two synagogues, an hospital founded in 1776, numerous other charitable institutions, a free school established in 1729, with an endowment of 1,500*l*. a year, a workhouse and house of correction, commercial subscription rooms, an atheneum, a society of agriculturists, arts, and sciences, a savings' bank, and a theatre.

The mountain chain forming the boundary of the plain on which Kingston stands, terminates to the E. in a narrow ridge, whence a long narrow tongue of land extends to Port Royal, forming the S. boundary of the Kingston harbour, a land-locked basin, in which ships of

the largest burden may anchor in perfect security. It is strongly fortified. Its entrance, between Port Royal on the E., at the extremity of the tongue of land already noticed, and the opposite coast, is defended by Fort Charles, near Port Royal, on the one hand, and by the Apostles' Battery, Fort Anderson, and Fort Augustus, on the other. The depth of water in the centre of the channel leading to the harbour is, where shallowest, 4 fathoms, and in the harbour itself it varies from 6 to 10 fathoms. About 2 m. N. of Kingston is Up-Park Camp, the only government barracks in the island, consisting of two long and parallel lines of buildings, two stories high, occupying, together with the parade ground, &c., between 200 and 300 acres. Not far from this station is the "Admiral's Pen," the former residence of the naval commander-in-chief, but which has been abandoned for several years. Stoney-hill garrison is about 7 m. N. Kingston, at an elevation of about 2,000 ft. above the sea.

Kingston engrosses by far the largest portion of the trade of the island. In 1839, the value of the imports amounted to £29,334., of which products of the value of £9,522. were from Great Britain; £110,000. from British colonies; £137,307. from the U. States; and £53,020. from other foreign countries. The value of the exports during the same year amounted to £74,719.; of which, products worth £37,215. were shipped for Great Britain; £3,000. for British colonies; £1,828. for the U. States; and £60,261. for foreign countries. The staple article of export is, of course, sugar, of which the shipments amounted, in the course of the above year, to 5,856 hhds., 93,656 cwt.; and those of rum to 2,445 puns., 282,210 galls. During the same year, 465 ships, of the burden of 57,285 tons, entered; and 426 ships, of the burden of 51,814 tons, cleared out. But for later details, see JAMAICA.

The corporation of Kingston consists of a mayor, 12 aldermen, and 12 common-councilmen. The town was founded in 1693, in consequence of the destruction of Port Royal by an earthquake; but it was not incorporated till 1802. (*Jamaica Almanack; Encycl. Americana; and Parliamentary Papers.*)

KINROSS, in Upper Canada. See SUPPLEMENT.

KINROSS, a small inland town of Scotland, on the W. confines of Fife, being entirely surrounded by the latter co. and that of Perth. Area, 50,560 acres, of which 4,480 are water, consisting principally of Lochleven. (See next article.) Surface varied: in the lower district, to the N. and W. of the lake, the soil is clayey, sandy, and moderately fertile; but in the upper districts it is mostly moorish, mossy, and unproductive. Agriculture a good deal improved; but it labours under great disadvantages from the backwardness of the climate. Property much subdivided, being mostly occupied by resident proprietors holding of the estate. Low Kinross, under payment to a few or quit rent. The manufactures are of little importance; and though it has limestone and freestone quarries, it has no coal. Average rent of land, in 1843, 16s. 10d. an acre. Kinross and Milnathort are the only towns. It is divided into seven parishes, and is united with Clackmannan and certain parishes in the S.W. part of Perth in returning a mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors in this co. in 1849-50, 522. In 1841, Kinross had 1,813 inhab. houses, and 8,758 inhab., of whom 4,195 were males, and 4,563 females. Valued rent, 30,194. Scotch; annual value of real property in 1845, 4,0104.

KINROSS, a market town of Scotland, co. Kinross, of which it is the cap., in an open vale on the W. shore of Lochleven, and on the high road between Edinburgh and Perth, 21 m. N.W. by N. Edinburgh, and 134 m. S. by E. Perth. Pop. of town and par. in 1841, 3,822; of which the town had 2,062. The town formerly consisted of a series of narrow tortuous lanes, but the main street, along the public road, of comparatively recent erection, is wide and substantially built, though not entirely straight. The other portions of the town are irregular, narrow, and of an inferior description. The public buildings are the par. church, built in 1832, in the Gothic style, an elegant structure; the co. hall, which also contains the public gaol, erected in 1836; a Free church; and two places of worship in connection with the Associate Synod. On the margin of the lake, in the immediate vicinity of the town, is Kinross House, built on the site of an ancient castle, long the residence of the earls of Morton, by Sir William Bruce, architect to Charles II., and now the seat of the feudal superior of the burgh (Sir Graham Montgomery). This mansion was originally intended for the residence of the Duke of York, afterwards James VII. of Scotland, in the event of his being prevented by the Exclusion Bill from succeeding to his brother. (*New Stat. Acc. of Scotland, & Kinross*, p. 9.) Gas was introduced into the burgh in 1835; the gas works being placed about a mile N. of the town, at an equal distance from it and the neighbouring village of Milnathort. Of the whole inhab. of the par. considerably more than a half are dissenters.

Kinross, including the town and par., has about a

dosen schools, of which one only is endowed, and some are taught by females: in 1838, rather more than the seventh part of the pop. were at school. (*Id.* p. 24.) There are two public libraries, three juvenile libraries of a religious kind, and a public reading room.

Kinross was famous of old for its cutlery; afterwards for the manufacture of Sillesia linen. But both these have ceased. Cotton weaving, in connection with Glasgow, and more recently the manufacture of tartan shawls, plaiding, and such like articles, are now the principal employments. Damask weaving, for the Dundee mill manufacturers, has also been introduced. There were, in 1839, 354 cotton weavers, 48 weavers of tartan shawls, &c., and 14 of damask; total, 356. A mill for carding and spinning wool, in connection with the tannery manufacture, was opened, in 1838, at West Tillyochie, 3 m. from Kinross. There are four annual fairs, chiefly for cattle, held at Kinross; and it has branches of the B. Linen Company and of the Edin. and Glasgow banks.

Lochleven, on the banks of which the town is built, has of late been subjected to a considerable drainage. Its circuit is 12 m., being three less than formerly; and its mean depth has been reduced from 14 to 14 ft. Its waters, which opened on 1st Jan., and closed on 1st Sept., yields a yearly rent of about 3000. Notwithstanding its diminished size, Lochleven is still a very fine sheet of water. It contains three islands, of which two are important; St. Serf's, on the E., on which are the ruins of a priory belonging to the canon regulars of St. Augustine; and the Castle Isle, on the W., so named from its castle, once a royal residence, and in which, as every body knows, Queen Mary was confined from 16th June, 1567, to 23d May, 1568. During her imprisonment here she was forced to sign an instrument resigning the crown to her infant son.

The battle of Langside, which decided her fate in Scotland, took place on the 13th May, only eleven days after her escape from Lochleven. Andrew Winton, author of the *Cromyld of Scotland*, was prior of the monastery of St. Serf. Michael Bruce, the poet, who died in 1767, in the 21st year of his age, was born in Kinrosswood, on the N.E. shore of Lochleven, and received the principal part of his education in Kinross.

The bor. of Kinross has no public property; but the inhab. have, since 1743, had recourse to a small voluntary assessment for municipal purposes; this fund placed under the management of a board or committee, consisting of a dozen members chosen annually at a public meeting held for the purpose; thus constituting a species of municipal government.

KINSALE, a parl. bor. and sea-port town of Ireland, co. Cork, on the E. side of the Bandon, a little way above its mouth in St. George's Channel, 14 m. S. Cork, and 7 m. N. from the lighthouse on the Old Head of Kinsale, which last is in lat. 51° 36' 48" N., long. 8° 35' 16" W. Pop. of parl. bor., in 1841, 6,918. It is mostly built along the water's edge, but extends in part up a pretty steep hill, so that many of its streets are of inconvenient access; they are generally also narrow and dirty; the houses have for the most part an antiquated appearance, and some of them are said to be built in the Spanish fashion. The harbour is excellent. There are 12 feet water over the bar at the river's mouth at low ebb; and at the anchorage within the bar, off Cove, there are 4 or 5 fathoms water within half a cable's length of the shore, and large vessels may lie close to the town. It was formerly strongly fortified; Fort Charles, on the E. side the river, is now converted into a barrack. It has an ancient par. church, a modern and handsome R. Catholic chapel, another R. Catholic chapel attached to a convent, and two Methodist meeting-houses; with a suite of assembly-rooms, a town-hall, prison, fever hospital, and dispensary. Exclusive of Fort Charles, there is another extensive barrack adjoining the town. Here is an endowed school, founded in 1767; it has also charity schools for R. Catholics and Protestants, Sunday schools, &c.

The late corporation, which claimed to be such by prescription, confirmed by several charters, consisted of a sovereign and an unlimited number of burgesses and freemen; but no person was entitled to his freedom *de jure*, this being a matter of grace and favour in the hands of the council, consisting of the sovereign, burgesses, and common speaker. This body has been dissolved under the Municipal Corporation Act, and its revenues, which were but of trifling amount, have been made over to the "Town's commissioners." Previously to the union, Kinsale returned 3 mems. to the Irish H. of C.; and it has since returned 1 m. to the imperial H. of C., who, down to the passing of the Reform Act, was elected by the sovereign, burgesses, and freemen. The village of Scilly, contiguous to the town, is comprised within the limits of the present parl. bor., which includes a space of 290 acres, and had, in 1849-50, 281 registered electors. Corporation revenue, about 3200. a year.

Notwithstanding the excellence of its port, and its fine river, which is navigable for a considerable way above the town, the trade of Kinsale is but trifling, the value of its exports in 1835 not having exceeded 13,479. It is,

consequently, in rather a depressed condition. But though the post-office revenue declined between 1830 and 1836, it rose from 2911 in 1842 to 4012 in 1848. There is a brewery in the town, and some flour-mills in the vicinity. The union workhouse, opened in 1841, has accommodation for 1,250 inmates.

The principal dependence of the town is on its fisheries, which supply Cork and the surrounding country. Every kind of fish is taken; and the sales of fresh fish are said occasionally to average 500*l.* per week. The fishermen are esteemed the most skilful of any in Ireland; and, being well acquainted with the coasts, they are good pilots, which obtained for them an exception from imprisonment during the late war. They generally fish in good sea boats of from 15 to 30 tons, called hookers, and earn from 9*rs.* to 12*s.* per week; several boats are also employed in the lobster fishery. Oysters of a large size were formerly abundant, but are said to be decreasing, from the want of a judicious and properly enforced code of fishery regulations. The Kinsale fishing district extends from Flathead to the east side of Inchy bridge, comprising 60 m. of coast; and had, in 1849, 893 registered vessels, employing 5,119 men and boys.

In the summer season Kinsale is resorted to by sea-bathers.

Kinsale is a place of some note in Irish history. It was taken in 1601 by a Spanish armament, but was retaken during the siege of James II. landed here in March, 1689, but it was taken by the troops of William III., under the Earl, afterwards Duke, of Marlborough, in the following year. It had formerly a royal dock-yard; and during the late war the harbour was a good deal resorted to by king's ships. (*Railway, Fishery, Boundary, &c. Reports; Thom's Awanack.*)

KINTORE, a royal and parl. bor. and market town of Scotland, co. Aberdeen, on the line of road from Aberdeen to Inverness, 11 m. N.W. Aberdeen, and 3 m. S.E. by S. Inverury. Pop., in 1841, 464. It is a place of no importance. The Aberdeenshire Canal passes it on the W. The bor. lays claim to great antiquity; its earliest extant charter is dated 1506, confirming others of older date.

Kintore gives the title of earl to a branch of the ancient family of Keith, descended, in the 17th century, from a younger son of the sixth earl Marischal. It unites with Elgin, Banff, Cullen, Inverury, and Peterhead, in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered voters in 1849-50, 45. (*Boundary Returns; Beauties of Scotland.*)

KIRBY-MOORSIDE, a market town and par. of England, N. riding co. York, wap. Ryedale, on the Dove, an affluent of the Derwent, 22 m. N. by E. York, and 192 m. N. by W. London. Area of par., comprising five townships, 19,920 acres. Pop. of township in 1841, 1,905. The town, which is very small, stands on the side of the N. York moors, and is nearly encompassed by steep hills. The par. church, in a romantic situation, is about 1 m. distant, and the living is a vicarage, in the gift of the Lord Chancellor. There are places of worship also for Calvinistic and Wesleyan Methodists, and for the Society of Friends. The river turns several corn-mills; limestone is dug in the neighbourhood; and the malting trade is carried on, the surrounding district being very productive of grain. Its only historical celebrity is owing to the fact that George Villiers, 2d Duke of Buckingham, the profligate favourite of Charles II. (a part of whose estates lay here), retired thither after his disgrace at court, and ended his days, on the 16th of April, 1688, in seclusion and poverty. Pope has described the circumstances attending his death in some of the finest verses in the English language. (*Moral Essays, Epist. iii. lin. 289.*) Markets on Wednesday; cattle and horse fairs, Whit-Wednesday and Sept. 18.

KIRGHIS (STEPPE OF THE), a country of W. Asia, in the N. part of Independent Turkistan, between the 44th and 55th parallels N. lat., and 59° and 82° E. long.; bounded N. by the Oul, a trib. of the Tobol, and a line of forts connecting Zvernegolovsk, Petropawlovsk, and Omsk; E. by the Irish and the Chinese stations, extending S. as far as the 42d parallel; S. by the khanates of Kokan, Bokhara, and Khiva; and W. by the Oural and the Caspian sea. Length, about 1,400 m.; breadth, 1,100 m.; probable area, 1,533,000 sq. m. Pop. of the three hordes composing the Kirghis nation, 2,300,000. According to M. Alexis de Lévéchine, from whose able work, *A Description des Hordes et des Steppes des Kirghis-Kazaks*, lately published, we are enabled to give many interesting details respecting this nomadic people, who till now have been comparatively unknown. The Kirghis steppe is not, as hitherto generally supposed,

KIRGHIS (STEPPE OF THE).

a mere flat and unvaried plain, but is intersected by numerous mountain ridges, and even in its more level parts is covered with round hillocks, causing considerable undulations on the surfaces. Offsets of the Oural range occupy a large amount of surface in the W. and N.W. parts of the steppe. The W. continuations of the Altai range run in very irregular ridges close to the Chinese frontier, and finally connect themselves about the 42d parallel with the W. part of the Muztagh, or Thian-chan range. It would be difficult to reduce the ridges in the centre of the steppe to any system; but the principal are all N. of the 48th deg. of N. lat. The Kara-tau mountains separate the Kirghis steppes southward from the khanates of Khokan. The geological constituents and mineral riches of these mountains are little understood; the central masses appear to consist of granite, gneiss, serpentine quartz, &c., on which are superimposed silicious and clay-slate, blue limestone, coal strata, with various secondary and other rocks. Lead, copper, and iron, with a small quantity of silver, are found in these mountains, but the present state of the country makes mining wholly impossible.

The waters of the Kirghis steppe comprise, besides the two land-locked seas, the Caspian and the Aral (which see), a considerable number of lakes and rivers. Among the former (most of which are salt), the largest are the Balkat (115 m. long), Isik (90 m. by 20 m.), in the S.E. angle of the steppe, the Kourdalgane, Tenia, Tehagil, Oubagan Denghis, and Alkaskel-Barbi lakes, with many others of smaller extent. The chief rivers are, 1. the Sir-Daria (anc. *Jaxartes*?) rising in the Muztagh, about lat. 40° N. and long. 75° E., having a course S.W. to Kokan, and thence N.W. through the sandy plains of Kail-koum and Kowak into the sea of Aral, its entire length somewhat exceeding 800 m. and, 2. the Irish, rising in Chinese Turkistan on the W. side of the Great Altai, entering the steppe in the 49th par., forming its E. boundary up to 55° N., and receiving on its W. banks the Ichim, the Tobol, and other tributaries, which intersect with their streams the entire N. half of the steppe. Numerous smaller rivers fall into the different lakes, and many others are almost unknown to Europeans.

The winters are remarkable for its extremes of heat and cold. In the middle and little hordes, that is, in the N. and N.W. parts of the steppe, the therm. often falls to 20°, and sometimes 30° below freezing point (Réaumur). The rivers and plains are covered with ice, and the hills with a thick coating of snow; while strong winds from the N.E. increase the intensity of the cold, and hurricanes, called *douramas*, often uproot forest trees, and carry away both man and beast, causing dreadful, and often irremediable, destruction. (*Lévéchine, p. 5.*) In summer, on the contrary, the temp. often rises to 36° Réaumur (119° Fahrenheit), and the copiousness of the heat is much increased also by the sandy nature of the soil, and the paucity of rivers and forests over so vast an extent of country. This great variability of temp., however, and the rapid transition from one extreme to the other, are said not to be so prejudicial to the health either of natives or travellers as might have been expected: agues, indeed, and fevers, are common in the marshy districts; but, generally speaking, the people are robust and long-lived. Rain is very rare, even on the mountain sides: dew refreshes the soil in some parts, but by far the largest portion of the surface is dried up, and rendered useless, by the entire absence of atmospheric moisture. Trees and shrubs are only found on the banks of rivers, and at the foot of the mountains near the Russian frontier, where the soil is the most capable of cultivation: the principal are elms, poplars, willows, wild plum, juniper, and liquorice trees, (the latter very abundant, and their produce forming a principal article of trade), wormwood, alkanet, tragacanth, various kinds of euphorbia, anononies, camomile, asparagus, garlic and onions, horse-radish, wild oats, rye, &c. Short coarse grass generally covers the plains, on which also the sal-sola plant grows in great perfection. Agriculture, as a branch of industry, cannot be said to exist. Some land about the rivers is roughly tilled, for the purpose of raising millet, rye, and barley; but the pursuit, except by the Karakalpak, S. of the Sir-Daria, is generally despised, being only followed by the poorest classes, and then chiefly by women. The wild animals of this region comprise the wolf, wild boar, fox, Cosack dog, wild goat, and hare, all of which roam in great numbers over every part of the steppe the bear, buffalo, antelope, wild horse, beaver, and water-rat, are plentiful in some districts; and there are likewise tigers, lynxes, and other varieties of the cat tribe, in the S. Among the birds may be mentioned the eagle, falcon, cormorant, pelican, stork, heron, goose, and pheasant, with many smaller

birds. The lakes and rivers abound with seals, and with several kinds of fish, sturgeon, pike, perch, and carp, being the most common. The domestic animals of the Kirghis are the sheep, goat, horse, and camel, the rearing of which constitutes the chief employment of this nomad race. Larger flocks of sheep are, perhaps, no where to be found, some of the richer inhabs. possessing upwards of 20,000 head. The animals are strong and large, weighing from 100 to 150 lbs., and they have long coarse wool, and enormous tails, sometimes 30 lbs. in weight. They endure with astonishing patience the long privations of food and drink to which they are subject, soon recovering in spring their plump and healthy appearance.

The advantages derived by the people from these animals are immense; their flesh and milk supply them with food, and the wool furnishes felt for covering the tents and other purposes, while at the same time they serve as a standard of value, and form a chief article of export; for, according to Hagemester, 1,000,000 sheep are sent off every year and sold in Russia, Bucharia, and China. Goats, very similar to those of Thibet, are chiefly used as guides in leading the sheep from pasture to pasture, as the latter will not move without them; their flesh is eaten, and the down concealed under their red shaggy hair is an extremely valuable article of trade. The camels (most of which have humps), the single-humped variety being too delicate for the climate) are here, as elsewhere in Asia, the chief beasts of burden. They are indispensable to a nomad people, like the Kirghis, for transporting their women and children, their property and trading stock; nor is it unusual for the rich to possess 300 or even 400 of these animals. Their hair is spun and made into garments, the milk and flesh are used as food, and the skins of the younger animals make warm pelisses. The camels are extremely docile, and carry burdens varying from 14 to 18 poods (from 5 to 6 cwt.), travelling during long journeys at the rate of 25 or 25 m. a day. Camel breeding is pursued to a considerable extent in the great (or S.) horde, and great numbers are sent to Persia and India. Horned cattle are very little bred, except in the middle horde; and they were not introduced into the country till about a hundred years ago. Horses are reared in immense numbers, particularly in the N. part of the steppe, where there is a grass called *koum* admirably suited for horse pasture. A Kirghis's wealth is usually reckoned by the number of his horses; and the richest among them have as many as 6,000 or 8,000. They are small, but strong, and extremely rapid in their movements; they can travel from 30 to 80 m. without stopping for days together, and, like the other domestic animals, are inured to great privations and long abstinence from food and water. Various expedients are adopted to procure pasturage for the cattle during winter, by making enclosures, raking away the snow, &c.; but still they feel most severely the absence of nourishing food, and great numbers, especially of sheep, are lost every year. (*Lévesque*, p. 408-415.)

The pop. of the Kirghis steppe, however different the origin of its several sections, has long become amalgamated; and they are now but one people, inhabiting the same kind of country, speaking the same language, professing the same religion, and characterised by nearly uniform habits and customs. The following table of the races and tribes of the three great hordes gives also some insight into the distribution of the pop.:

Hordes and Races.	No. of Tribes.	Tents.	Individuals.
1. <i>Little Horde</i> :—			
Altin-oi	6	160,000	900,000
Beim-oi	12		
Djeit-sourang	7		
2. <i>Middle Horde</i> :—			
Argina	17	165,000	960,000
Naimans	9		
Kipchaks	3		
Orwak-Ghirin	3		
3. <i>Great Horde</i> :—			
Oulouin	10	75,000	400,000
Toulait			
Sergan			
Kodkars	9		
Total	83	400,000	2,260,000

Hence it appears that the terms "great" and "little" are wholly misapplied. The little horde was still greater in the 14th century than at present; the great horde, however, is generally respected, as being the most ancient.

The Kirghis, physically considered, are closely allied to the Mongol Turkmans. Their faces are not so flat and broad as those of the Kalmuks; but their small black eyes, small mouths, prominent cheek-bones, and almost beardless chins, prove their similarity to the Mongols, which has been strengthened also in recent years by frequent marriages with Kalmuk and Mongol

women, whom they often bring away by force into their own country. The hair of the men is usually dark brown; but the women have black hair, fresh complexions, and brilliant animated eyes, which, however, are ill-contrasted with lean cheek-bones, coarse skins, and a shapeless amorously person. Both sexes are strong and healthy, long-lived, and capable of enduring, to an extraordinary extent, both cold and hunger; in fact, if they were not thoroughly inured to every kind of privation, they could not live in this country. The men take the most violent exercise, being often almost wholly on horseback for days together; but in the height of summer, and during the winter, they spend their time in listless indolence, sleeping, drinking *koumis*, their favourite beverage, and listening either to stories or the rude music of their national instruments, a reed pipe and a rude kind of violin. Household labour and dilige are undertaken wholly by the women, who, as in other parts of Asia, are treated almost like slaves. The Kirghis language is a very corrupt dialect of the Turkish, so interlarded with local words, that it is almost unintelligible by the Turks of Kasan and Khiva. Few can read, still fewer are able to write, and he that knows enough of Arabic to read the Koran is reckoned a paragon of erudition! Their poetry, however, is highly imaginative and beautiful. The dwellings of the Kirghis, who are distinctly pastoral, having no fixed station except in winter, consist of rude tents composed of wooden trellis-work covered with felt, having an opening at top serving at once for window and chimney: their dimensions average about 30 ft. in diam. and 13 ft. in height; the ground (bare earth) is covered with felt, or carpeting; the inside is hung with straw mats, or red cloth; and the furniture consists only of a few boxes and warlike implements. The food of the people is very simple, consisting almost altogether of the flesh and milk of their flocks and herds. Bread is not known; but *halamish*, or porridge made of millet, rye, or wheat, is in common use. Rice, being an object of import, is very dear, and is used only by the rich. Smoked horse-hams, colts' haunches, and camels' humps, are esteemed great delicacies. *Ermetchik*, a rich cheese made from mares' milk, is likewise highly valued; a thinner and inferior kind, called *kyumis*, is much used by the lower orders, and constitutes almost the whole article of food on those marauding expeditions which give such zest to the life of a Kirghis. Fish are eaten only by the lowest orders, chiefly by those living on the banks of rivers; and game is little valued. The favourite drinks are the everlasting *koumis*, a whey made from mares' milk, and a spirit distilled from koumis, alleged to be both strong and palatable. Arak (made by distilling rice), and tea, are luxuries enjoyed only by the wealthy classes. The dress of this nomad people is long and full, little suited, according to our notions, for the horse exercise, in which they are chiefly engaged; two or more *tolchenes*, or loose gowns of velvet, silk, or cotton, according to rank; a leather belt fastening the robe and securing a knife and tobacco-bag; a round cap surmounted by another, when abroad, of felt or other warm materials, conically shaped, and with broad flaps; very full and highly ornamented trousers are worn, by the men at least, over the gown, which is tucked underneath; and large pointed, high heeled boots, complete the costume. The heads of the men are usually kept shaved, with the exception of a forelock; but those of the women are adorned with long plaits running down the back. The female costume, in other respects, differs little from that of the males, except that the robe is close in front, and the bonnets are high, shaped like truncated cones, and surrounded by veils, which serve both for shade and warmth.

The employments of the men consist in an attendance on their flocks and herds, and in hunting antelopes, boars, and wild horses. Very generally, however, they join with the life of a huntsman that of the robber and man of violence, attacking and plundering caravans crossing their steppe, or seeking vengeance for some real or imagined insult from a neighbouring tribe. They are cowards in regular warfare, soon discouraged, and, when unhorsed in close conflict, wholly vanquished. Respecting their *barantas* or feuds, M. Lévesque says,—"Rien de plus affreux, de plus funeste, que l'esprit de vengeance dans les Kirghis, et les suites de ce préjugé, de cette disposition cruelle, qui leur tenant lieu de la satisfaction que les lois seules doivent accorder, perpétuent la véritable bravoure. Leurs vengeances sont toutes dirigées par la passion effrénée du pillage, qui les ruine, les perd, les démoralise complètement: ces *barantas* consistent dans des vols ou des raptus mutuels de bestiaux, d'où résultent souvent entre eux des combats sanglants. Aujourd'hui, tout homme offensé, volé, ou simplement mécontent, rassemble une bande de cavaliers, arrive chez son ennemi, attaque ses habitations, et lui enlève ses haras et ses bestiaux. Voilà l'héroïsme: voilà en quel consiste la grandeur chez les Kirghis!" (*Desc. des Kirghis-Kazaks*, p. 351.) These barantas had become so frequent and ex-

tensive in 1812-1820, that the pop. of the border, especially the little horde, was much thinned; the trade in cattle was all but destroyed; and thousands of families, unable to support life in their own country, emigrated to the government of Orenburg, and other parts of Russia.

The arms of the warrior Kirghis are the lance, sabre, bow and arrow, a long-handled axe, called *tschakme*, and a clumsy kind of gun; their defensive armour being a coat of mail, and sometimes a helmet. Among a people so disorderly, it is impossible that internal industry should flourish. Weaving is carried on for the supply of family wants, cordage is manufactured from horses' and goats' hair, a coarse soap is made of grease and vegetable ashes, and the skins of sheep and goats are converted into a rude kind of leather. Blacksmiths, and other workers in metal, make the ornaments attached to horse-furniture, belts, sword-blades, spears, &c.; but every article is of the coarsest quality and worst make. The trade now carried on by these people with other nations is much less considerable than it was half a century ago, in consequence of the loss of cattle and horses by the barantas. The Russians and Chinese have pretty large dealings with them, and a brisk trade is also carried on with Khiva, Khokan, and Little Bucharla. The trading posts of the Russians are at Orenburg (the most important of all), Troitsk, Petropavlovsk, Omsk, Semipalatinsk, and Ouralak, those of the Chinese being at Tchuguchak (Chin. *Talbasatai*) and Kuldsha (Chin. *Il*).

The business, usually carried on in summer and autumn, is conducted wholly by barter, the Kirghis furnishing sheep, horses, horned cattle, camels, goats, goats' hair and wool, the skins of horses, sheep, and other animals, wild as well as domestic, and antelope's horns; in return for which they receive from the Russians iron and copper implements, tinblades, needles, cutlery, padlocks, hatchets, velvets, brocades, silk-stuffs, linens, ribands, looking-glasses, snuff, &c.; from the Chinese, silver, silk goods, porcelain, japanned wares, and tea; and from the Khurians and Bokharians, cotton goods, quilted dresses, rice, swords, fire-arms, and powder. Independently of the trade they carry on at the outposts, considerable traffic takes place with the caravans crossing the steppe between Khiva, Khokan, and the Russian frontier. The Kirghis are usually employed as protectors and guides in the journey over these wilds; great delays often occur owing to the caprice of the guides, and the travellers, if they be not entirely plundered of their property, are in general heavily mulcted by the Khans, through whose pastures they are obliged to pass. In fact, says Lévesche, the experience of more than a century shows the impossibility of success in the overland trade in W. Asia, so long as these tribes maintain their instinctive love of war and brigandage. The chief caravan routes are, 1. from Kalmikof to Khiva, across the Oust-court plateau, between the Aral and Caspian Seas; 2. from Orenburg to Bokhara (64 days), over the Mogodjar mountains and across the Karakum and Kizil-koum deserts; 3. from Petropavlovsk to Bokhara (90 days); and 4. from Semipalatinsk to Khokan (40 days). These roads, however, are so vaguely laid down, and so often varied, that distances cannot be computed with any accuracy.

The government to which these people are subject cannot be properly compared with any form common to civilised countries. Geographers have termed it patriarchal and despotic; but, in fact, there is no system of government, for even where a khan, or sovereign, is chosen, he is usually elected only by a few of the tribes, who obey only so long as they are pleased with their ruler, while the rest refuse all obedience, and probably take arms against him. He may issue orders, but he cannot enforce compliance; and even where there is an absolute infraction of the laws of the Koran, by which they profess to be guided, the delinquent's punishment is more frequently inflicted by private revenge than by the decision of a public judge. The punishments are founded on the *lex talionis*, and consist commonly of the bastinado, maiming, and strangling; but, if the offending party consent, almost all crimes may be atoned for by payments of sheep or horses. The khan must be elected from the highest class, known as the *white kazi*, those, in fact, who can lay claim to noble descent; the rest of the people belong to the *black kazi*, and these are the only remaining distinctions among a people who, a century ago, were, of all others, the nicest in establishing family preeminence.

With respect to religion, it is difficult to say whether the Kirghis have any particular form. They acknowledge a supreme creative intelligence; but some worship according to the dogmas of the Koran, and others mingle Islamism with an old kind of idolatry, while a third section of the pop. believe in the existence not only of a good deity, called *Koudai*, but also of a wicked spirit, *chaitane*, the author of all evil. In the existence of in-

ferior spirits, and in witchcraft and sorcery, the people have universally the most implicit faith; and the hadjis travelling through the steppe reap great pecuniary advantages by imposing on their credulity. The divinations, however, of the *Jaourowndchi*, and other self-styled prophets, are not, according to Lévesche's account, a whit more absurd than the impositions anciently practised by the priests of Delphi (p. 352-358.). The exercises of religion meet with little attention; long and frequent prayers do not suit the Kirghis; they fast too often by compulsion to do so by choice; and they are not so friendly to cleanliness as to relish the ablutions enjoined by the Mohammedan religion. In fact, with the exception of extreme credulity, there is hardly a trace of religious sentiment among them.

The history of the *Kirghis-Kasaks* cannot be traced with much probability beyond the 16th century. Earlier historians, commencing even with Herodotus, inform us, that the steppe was inhabited by a people living in felt tents, and otherwise assimilated to the great Mongolian family; but these were *Nogais*, not Kirghis, being more civilised, and in all probability the builders of those temples and houses the ruins of which are still visible. (See *Herod. iv. 24. 46.*; *Herren's Researches, Asia, ii. 285-298.*; and *Lévesche, p. 117-135.*) The name of the Kirghis first appears in Russian history about the middle of the 16th century; but Ferdiusi, in the 11th century, speaks of Kasaks characterised by the same habits as the Kirghis; though it does not appear that they then lived on the single street of the Aral. They first became nominally subject to Russia in 1740; but the rule of that country has never been felt but by the tribes adjoining the frontier. As to the native khans, so also to the Russian government, obedience is paid, only when it is convenient, a rapid journey into the interior soon carrying them out of reach, when it suits their purpose to plunder rather than trade. It remains to be proved whether the efforts now in progress at Orenburg, to introduce civilisation into the steppe by educating young Kirghis, will accomplish the professed object of making them instead of a burden and nuisance, useful and obedient subjects of Russia. (*Lévesche, Desc. des Hordes des Kirghis-Kasaks, traduites du Russe par Ferry de Pigmy; Hagemeister, sur l'Asie Occidentale; Klaproth's Asia Polyglotta, &c.*)

KIRKCALDY, a royal and parl. bor., sea-port, and manufacturing town of Scotland, co. Fife, on the N. shore of the Frith of Forth, 10 m. N. Leith. Pop. of parl. bor., which includes the greater part of the par. and the Link town of Abbotshall, about 8,650. The town consists principally of a single street, parallel to the shore, which, being measured from Bridgetown on the W. to East-burn on the E., is nearly 2 m. in length; and being united on the E. with Pathhead, Sincletown, &c., included in the bor. of Dysart (which see), the mass of town is about 4 m. in length. Having been originally laid out and built with no attention to any general plan, but according to the taste, convenience, and means of the parties, this street was formerly of the most irregular description, being narrow, crooked, and the houses frequently mean and poor. In 1811, however, an act was obtained for widening, paving, and lighting the streets, and otherwise improving the town; and since that period several new lines of houses have been constructed, and many important improvements effected. The houses in the main street are now mostly of a very respectable class, and the shops are good, and handsomely fitted up. There are several cross streets, some of which lead up the ascent of the hill to the N.; and there are several between the high street and the shore. The town is well supplied with water, paved, and lighted with gas. Among the public buildings are the par. church, rebuilt in 1807, Abbotshall church, within the parl. bor.; 2 chapels belonging to the Free church; various dissenting chapels; and a handsome town-house, including a gaol, court-house, &c., with a spire erected in 1828. Besides the parochial schools, and a variety of private seminaries, some of which are said to be extremely well conducted, 2 charity schools have been opened in this town for the education of 200 children of both sexes, on an endowment by Mr. Philip, late merchant here, who bequeathed about 70,000*l.* for the foundation and maintenance of these and similar schools in Pathhead and Kinghorn. The education given in these schools is of the more common and ordinary description; and the children are supplied with books, are clothed, and receive a small sum on leaving school. Kirkcaldy has also a mechanics' library, and two or three subscription coffee-rooms and libraries.

The inhabitants of Kirkcaldy are honourably distinguished by their enterprise, both as manufacturers and traders. The staple manufacture of the town is that of coarse linen, including sheetings, ticks, dowlas, canvases, &c. It appears, from the *Factory Returns*, that in 1838 there were in Kirkcaldy 10 flax mills driven by steam, employing in all about 500 workpeople. It also appears that in 1830 there were 54 looms at work in the parishes

* These *kazi* are, in all probability, synonymous with the *Khodjas* among the Mongolians, mentioned by Timkovsky.

of Kirkcaldy and Abbotshall, exclusive of a few in power-loom factories. The average net weekly earnings of the weavers amount to at least 8s. 6d. a week; but superior hands make 10s. 6d. and some even as much as 16s. The wages of machine makers, masons, and other artisans, are higher, averaging from 16s. to 18s. a week. The moral and intellectual condition of the weavers is said to be very good; and there is very little apparent distress amongst them. There are no poor rates; the poor being supported by voluntary contributions.

Kirkcaldy has also a rope-walk, bleach-works, two iron foundries, a distillery, a tile and brick work, a pottery, and two or three breweries. Branches of the bank of Scotland, the Commercial and National banks, and the Glasgow bank, are established here; and there is also a savings' bank. A chamber of commerce has been established for several years.

The harbour, near the E. end of the town, consists of an inner and outer basin. It is wholly artificial, being formed of three piers, and unfortunately dries at low water; but notwithstanding this drawback, the town possesses a good deal of shipping, and carries on a pretty extensive trade. There belonged to the port (ex. Anstruther), on the 1st Jan. 1850, 74 sailing vessels, of the burden of 9,975 tons; vessels from Kirkcaldy have been for a lengthened period engaged in the N. Sea whale fishery; but here as elsewhere, this business has been recently on the decline. Shipping companies carry on a regular intercourse, by means of smacks and steamers, with London and Leith; and there is a good deal of trade with the N. of Europe, whence hemp, flax, timber, tar, &c. are imported, and to which manufactured goods, coal, &c. are exported. Gross customs' revenue, in 1846, 9,868. There is a weekly corn market, which is extremely well attended; and the town's markets for butcher's meat, fish, &c. are well supplied.

Kirkcaldy was made a royal bur. by Charles I. in 1644. It had attained about this period to considerable wealth and distinction; but it subsequently encountered severe losses, and about the middle of last century it had only two ferry-boats and one coasting vessel! But since 1763, and especially since the close of the American war, its manufactures, commerce, and population have steadily increased. It is now governed by a provost, bailies, and 18 councillors. Corporation revenue, in 1848-49, 1854., principally the produce of the ferry between the town and Leith.

Kirkcaldy unites with Burntisland, Dyarst, and Kinghorn, in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors in this bur., in 1849-50, 366.

Kirkcaldy has to boast of being the birth-place of Adam Smith, the author of the "Wealth of Nations," born here on the 5th of June, 1723. His father being comptroller of customs at this port, Smith received the rudiments of his education in the parish-school; and afterwards resided here, with little interruption, from 1766 to 1776, occupied in the elaboration of his great work, which appeared in the last-mentioned year. Balh, the seat of the Ferguson family, is in the immediate vicinity of the town.

KIRKCUDBRIGHT, a marit. co. of Scotland, or, as it is more frequently termed, a stewartry, in the most southerly portion of that kingdom, comprising the E. half of the district known by the name of Galloway. It is bounded on the E., N., and W. by counties of Dumfries, Ayr, and Wigtown, and on the S. by the Irish Sea and the Solway Frith. Area, 533,760 acres, of which from 1-4th to 1-3d part may be arable. Surface much diversified, but in general hilly, and in extensive districts mountainous. The highest part of the Kell's range has an elevation of 2,653 ft.; and Cairnmuir of Fleet, on the bay of Wigtown, rises to the height of 2,229 ft. The greater number of the hills are bleak and barren; but in parts, particularly on the confines of Ayrshire, they afford good sheep pasture. The arable land principally to the S. of a line drawn from the middle of the par. of Irongray to Gatehouse; but Criffel, 1,831 ft. high, on the Solway Frith, and some other considerable hills, lie within this tract. Climate in the lower districts mild but moist; in the upper districts it is sometimes severe. Except along the Solway Frith, the soil even of the arable land of the stewartry has seldom a smooth, continuous surface: it is very often broken with gravelly knolls, but the hollows between these consist principally of a gravelly or basally loam, and are often extremely productive, and particularly well adapted for the turnip husbandry; and in wet summers the arable knolls are covered with luxuriant crops, while many of those that do not admit of cultivation yield excellent pastures. Principal crops barley and oats; but wheat is also raised. Within the last few years the turnip culture has made great progress. Arable husbandry has been greatly improved since the peace: furrow draining is now extensively practised, and lately bone-dust has been successfully employed in the raising of turnips. But the soil and climate are better suited for grazing

than cropping, and the principal attention of the farmer is given to the former. The breed of polled cattle, peculiar to this co. and that of Wigtown, is well known to be one of the best in the empire; they are principally sent up by land when half fat to the Norfolk fair; but they are now, with sheep, sometimes (attained off on turnip and sent by steam to Liverpool. Farm buildings have been vastly improved, and the roads, which were formerly execrable, are now nowise inferior to those of any other co. in the empire. There are some very large estates; but property is, notwithstanding, more subdivided in this than in most other Scotch coes. Farms of medium size, and all let on 19 year leases. This co. and Wigtown are mostly subdivided by the dry stone walls known, from this district, by the name of "Galloway dykes," and which, when well built, make an excellent fence. Average rent of land, in 1843, 6s. 11½d. an acre. Manufactures and minerals unimportant: lime, coal, and freestone, are all imported principally from Whitehaven, on the opposite side of the Solway Frith. The granite used in the construction of the Liverpool docks is mostly obtained from near Creetown, in this co. Principal rivers, Dee, Fleet, and Urr; the salmon fisheries on the first are valuable. Principal town, Kirkcudbright. This co. has 28 parishes, and sends 1 mem. to the H. of C. for the co., while the bur. of Kirkcudbright joins with Dumfries, Annan, and other bur. in returning a mem. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 1,363. In 1841 Kirkcudbright had 6,163 inhab. houses; 41,119 inhab. of whom 18,856 were males, and 22,265 females. Valued rent, 114,127l. Scotch. Annual value of real property, in 1843, 193,801l.

KIRKCUDBRIGHT, a royal and parl. bur., and sea-port of Scotland, cap. of the above co., on the Dee, about 6 m. above its confluence with the Solway Frith, 34 m. S.W. Dumfries, and 83 S.W. Edinburgh. Pop. of bur., in 1841, 2,692. It is a finely situated, well built, respectable county town. The streets intersect each other at right angles, and the houses, which are mostly two stories high, have a respectable appearance. A large and handsome Gothic church, with a spire, (which, however, is not very well proportioned,) was erected in 1838, at an expense of 6,792l.; it has also a gaol erected in 1816; an excellent academy, with a room for the public subscription library; and the ruins of an old castle, once the property of the local Kirkcudbright. Exclusive of the parish church, the Free Church, United, and S. and R. Catholics have places of worship. A school founded and liberally endowed by Mr. W. Johnston, a native of Kirkcudbright, and intended to furnish the children of the poorer classes with a good English education, was opened in 1848. It is a large, handsome, well situated building, and had, in 1850, about 770 pupils. A workhouse for the use of this and the adjoining parishes of Tongland, Twynholm, Borge, and Kerwick has recently been erected at a little distance from the town. Sum raised for a rate for the relief of the poor of the par. in 1847, 1,006l. The harbour of Kirkcudbright is the best in the S. of Scotland. At low ebb in neap tides there is about 10 ft. water in the river; and as the tide then rises about 18 ft., there is at all times water to float the largest ships. The access to the Dee is much facilitated by the lighthouse erected in 1843, on the little Ross at its mouth. But, despite its fine harbour, Kirkcudbright, owing to its limited communication with the interior, and the thinness of the population in the vicinity, has very little trade. In 1850, 24 vessels of the burden of 994 tons belonged to the port. A branch of the bank of Scotland is established in the town. Ship-building is carried on to some extent; but it has no other manufacture worth notice. A regular steam communication is established with Liverpool, which has been of the greatest advantage to the town and district. There is no bridge over the Dee nearer than Tongland, about 2 m. farther up the river, and to which it is navigable; but passengers, with horses and carriages, are ferried over in a flat-bottomed boat, with but little inconvenience. The town is lighted with gas, and is supplied with water brought from a distance by pipes.

It was made a royal bur. by James II. in 1458. Under the Municipal Reform Act, it is governed by a provost, 2 bailies, and 14 councillors. It unites with Dumfries, Annan, Sanguhar, and Lochmaben, in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 89. Corporation revenue in 1848-49, 1,349l. 8s. 6d.: its pecuniary affairs have been exceedingly well managed; and it has at this moment the whole property contained in the charter of James II. The town's revenues are employed to defray the expenses of the academy, and the charges on account of lighting the town, supplying it with water, &c., for which no assessment is imposed on the inhabitants.

The environs of the town are extremely beautiful. The rising grounds on each side the river, from Tongland to the sea, are embellished with plantations. St. Mary's lale, the residence of the earls of Selkirk, adjoins the town on the S. Kirkcudbright appears to be a desirable place of residence for people of small fortune;

provisions of all sorts are abundant and cheap; house-rent is very low: a good education may be had for a mere trifle; the society is superior to that in most small towns; and there is a ready means of communication with Edinburgh on the one hand, and with Liverpool and London on the other.

KIRKHAM, a manufacturing and market-town, and par. of England, co. Lancaster, hund. Amounderness, in the low district, called the Fylde, 7 m. W. by N. Preston, 37 m. N. Liverpool, and 220 m. N. W. London. Area of par., which contains 18 townships and chaperies, 41,850 acres: pop., in 1841, 11,604: do. of Kirkham township, 2,903. The town, though small, is handsome and well built. The church, a large modern structure, was erected, in 1822, at an expense of 5,000*l.*: the tower, however, is ancient, and its interior, which accommodates nearly 2,000 persons, is ornamented with several fine old monuments, carefully replaced in the new building. The living is a vicarage, in the patrimony of the Dean and Canons of Christchurch, Oxford, the chaperies in the out-townships being in the gift of the incumbent. Within the town, are places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists, Independents, Swedenborgians, and Rom. Catholics, with attached Sunday schools, attended by about 600 children; and connected with the church, is a national school for boys and girls. A grammar school, founded in 1670, enjoys a good reputation, and is attended by 80 or 100 boys: it is managed by a principal and two under-masters; the instruction given is purely classical: a charity school, established in 1760, for clothing and educating 40 girls, is alleged to be respectably conducted; and the Rom. Catholics have two large schools for the children of that religion, which has law for the whole of the town. The industry of Kirkham, 20 years ago, was confined to the manufacture of sail-cloth, cordage, and coarse linens, of materials brought from the Baltic; but now, the cotton manufacture is extensively carried on, and gives employment, within the par., to several hundred hands. In 1836, there were two flax mills within the par., which employed 542 hands. The Lancaster Canal, the Lancaster and Preston railway (opened in 1840), and the Preston and Wyre railway, afford cheap and expeditious conveyance both for passengers and goods. Petty sessions are held once a fortnight, and a court of requests for debts under 40*l.* sits monthly. A savings' bank is established here. Markets on Thursday: fairs, Feb. 4, and 5, April 29, and Oct. 18. (*Baines's Gaz. of Lancaster*, vol. ii., art. *Kirkham*.)

KIRKLESI, KIRK-EKLESI, or KIRK-KILISSA (meaning the town of forty Churches), a town of European Turkey, prov. Roumelia, cap. circ. of its own name, 30 m. E. Adrianople and 106 m. W. N. W. Constantinople: lat. 41° 50' N., long. 16° 55' E. Pop., according to Dr. Walsh, about 5,500 females, or 26,000 individuals (3 males being Greeks). It is a large, dirty, ruinous town, surrounded with old walls defended by a citadel, and has a bazaar, several mosques and hammams, but no Greek church, the public celebration of the rites belonging to that religion being here attended with heavy penalties. The neighbourhood produces an abundance of grapes, melons, and other fruits; and a good deal of wine is made. The Turkish inbab. are described as a rude, brutal, and ignorant rabble, treating all with contempt who speak any language in addition to their own. The Greeks, on the contrary, are described by Dr. Walsh as "a large and thriving community, who have established two good schools on the monitorial system for the instruction of their children, a degree of refinement to be met with in only one other town of Turkey." (*Walsh's Journey from Constantinople*, p. 127.)

KIRKWALL, a royal and parl. bor., market-town, and sea-port of Scotland, in Mainland, or Pomona, the largest of the Orkney Islands, of which it is the cap., on the N. E. side of the island, at the head of an open bay exposed to the N.; lat. 58° 56' 11" N. long. 2° 22' 57" W.; 26 m. N. by E. John O'Groats, and 308 m. N. Edinburgh. Pop., in 1841, 2,046. The town consists chiefly of one narrow and inconvenient street, about 1 m. in length, parallel to the bay. The houses have generally their gables to the street, and most of them bear the marks of antiquity. But new and handsome houses are gradually being erected, both in the town and neighbourhood. Here most of the country gentry reside, at least during winter, and the society of this remote place is esteemed equal, if not superior, to that of any provincial town of its size in Scotland. The only public building of a modern date is the town hall, with piazzas in front, containing a gaol, assembly-rooms, court-room, &c. The principal building in Kirkwall is the cathedral, erected in the 12th century, and dedicated to Magnus, one of the Scandinavian earls of Orkney, who, having been assassinated in 1110, was canonised after his death. This venerable Gothic structure, which has been enlarged at different times, is, after the cathedral of Glasgow, the most entire in Scotland: it is in the form of a cross, its extreme length being 226 ft., its greatest width 56 ft., the height of

the roof 71 ft., and that of the spire 140 ft. But the original spire having been destroyed by lightning in 1671, the present spire is modern, and it is, also, unworthy of the building. About 100 yds. S. from the cathedral are the ruins of two ancient edifices, viz. the Earl's Palace, built by Patrick Stewart, Earl of Orkney, and the Bishop's Palace. In the latter, Haco, king of Norway, died on his return to Orkney, after the unsuccessful battle of Largs, in 1063, and James V. occupied it on his visit to the island in 1540. The remains of Kirkwall castle, on the W., are still visible. The cathedral formed the cemetery of many Scandinavian kings, nobles, and warriors. The par. church, consisting of the choir of the cathedral, is collegiate. There are also chapels belonging respectively to the Associate Synod, Original Seceders, and Independents. The town has numerous and well attended schools, several libraries, a museum, and a printing-press. The poor are supported by a poor-rate, which, in 1847, amounted to 197*l.*, and by the church collections, the usual parochial dues, and the produce (16*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.*) of a bequest for the purpose. Malcolm Laing, the historian of Scotland, was born in the vicinity of Kirkwall, and educated at the grammar-school of the bor.; and his death, in 1818, his remains were interred in St. Magnus' cathedral.

Rye straw raised in Orkney having been found to be peculiarly suitable for the manufacture of straw plait for ladies' bonnets, the business is carried on in Kirkwall to a considerable extent, though not so much so as formerly. It has also 2 distilleries, and some weaving is carried on for domestic use.

The herring, cod, and lobster fishery is prosecuted to considerable extent. The town is the seat of the courts of law for the whole of Orkney. Kirkwall has a custom-house, which comprises all the harbours in the Orkneys: total number of vessels in 1850, 63; tonnage, 4,245: gross customs' revenue, in 1846, 962*l.* A steam-boat plies between Leith and Kirkwall weekly, touching at Aberdeen, Wick, and intermediate ports: in summer it goes as far as Lerwick, in Shetland. Kirkwall has an annual fair in the month of August, which lasts about two weeks; and the greater part of all the mercantile business of the Orkney Islands is negotiated at this fair. The town has 2 branch banks.

Kirkwall was made a royal bor. by James III. in 1466. It unites with Cromarty, Wick, Dingwall, Dornoch, and Tain in sending a member to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 109. (*Mezars. Anderson's Highlands and Islands of Scotland*, sect. ix.; *Barry's Hist. of Orkney*; *Keth's Scottish Bishops*, Russell's ed., 1824, 219-229.)

KIRRIEMUIR, a bor. of barony, market and manufacturing town and par. of Scotland, co. Forfar, in a pleasant situation, partly on a flat and partly on an inclined plain, along the N. brow of a picturesque glen, through which the river of the Great South run, 15 m. N. by W. Dundee, and 5 m. N. W. Forfar. The Grampians are within 3 m. of the town, on the N. The view from its upper part, about 400 ft. above the level of the sea, is most extensive and striking, having the Grampian range on the N., and the whole extent of the splendid valley of Strathmore on the S. Pop. of par. in 1801, 2,521; in 1831, and in 1841, 7,085, of town, 3,067.

The form of the town has some analogy to an anchor. The streets are lighted with gas. The only public buildings are, the Trades' Hall, the property of 19 friendly societies of the town and parish; the parish church; and chapels belonging respectively to the Associate Synod, the Relief, the Original Seceders, and the Episcopalians. There are 16 schools in the par., of which 3 are endowed, 1 supported by subscriptions, and 12 unendowed. There are 2 bequests for education, the one educating about 50 boys, the other 20 boys and 50 girls. There are 3 libraries, and a news-room. About 50 years ago, only one newspaper came to the parish; the number is now about 300 per week. (*Stat. Acc. of Scotland*, 1845, Forfarshire, p. 188.) Dr. McCre, the biographer of John Knox, and Dr. Jamieson, the Scotch lexicographer, were once dissenting clergymen in Kirriemuir.

Though inland, and devoid of ready communication with the sea, Kirriemuir has attained to considerable eminence in the manufacture of the coarser kinds of linen fabrics, such as Osnaburghs, sail-cloth, bagging, imitation Russia sheeting, &c. This branch of business, which is carried on chiefly in connexion with the Dundee manufacture, was introduced soon after the rebellion of 1745. During the year ending November, 1759, 1,014,874 yards were stamped. In 1833, 52,000 webs were woven, containing no fewer than 5,760,000 yards, or nearly quadruple the quantity produced at the beginning of the century. The quantity produced in 1841 was estimated at about 7,000,000 yards, and the number of persons, including apprentices, employed in the town and vicinity, at about 3,000. (*Stat. Acc. et supra*.) * Although the yarns must be carried from the shore in carts, and along roads constructed on the common principles, and although the cloths, when manufactured, must be carried back by the

same rude conveyance, such is the ingenuity of the weavers, and such their industry, that we are not only able to come into competition with our rivals in the more favoured towns on the coast, but even to bear away from them the palm of victory. Hence it is, that several mill-spinners in Melrose and Dundee, towns possessing many natural advantages, to which we can lay no claim, have been accustomed to send their yarns to be woven in this distant quarter." (*J.* p. 150.) But the communication has recently been much improved, at least with Dundee, inasmuch as the Dundee and Newtyle railroad extends to Glamis, 5 m. distant from Kirriemuir. There is also a railway between Arbuthnot and Forfar, the last place being also distant 5 m. The Kirriemuir weekly market is one of the best in the country. There are, besides, four annual fairs for cattle, horses, and sheep. There is a branch bank here: also a savings' bank. About 30 years ago, the revenue from the post-office amounted, in one year, after paying the necessary expense, to £d.: it now (1838) amounts to 280*l.* per annum. (*J.* p. 155.)

Kirriemuir is governed by a bailie, nominated by the feudal superior (Lord Douglas). The peace is preserved by a body of constables, chosen annually.

KISHM (the *Oreasta* of an. Greek authors), the largest island in the Persian Gulf, and the chief of a group situated near its mouth, extending between lat. 56° and 56° 30' N., and long. 36° and 37° E., comprising Ormus, Kenn, Anjar, Larak, and many smaller islands. Kishm is of an elongated shape, nearly 60 m. in length E. to W., and 12 m. in its greatest breadth. Pop. estimated at 5,000. It is separated from the main land by Clarence Straits, a narrow and intricate channel, navigable, however, for large ships the soundings varying from 4 to 12 fathoms. A ridge of hills extends from one extremity to the other of the island on its S. side; the rest of the surface is mostly plain. Sandstone is the predominant formation. The surface is generally arid and barren, and is in parts extensively incrustated with saline efflorescence; but a few portions are remarkably productive. The N. part of the island is the most fertile and populous: the soil there consists of a black loam, on which wheat, barley, vegetables, melons, grapes, and dates in large quantities are produced. The island present yields corn enough for home consumption. Boats from all parts of the Gulf come to Kishm for wood. Cattle and poultry are reared; the former are scarce, but goats are bred in considerable numbers, and thrive well. The greatest enemies of the goats are jackals, with which the island is much infested; antelopes of a superior breed, partridges, and rock pigeons, abound, and wild fowl in winter. The inhab. are chiefly Arabs; they employ themselves in fishing, agriculture, and the manufacture of cloth, and reside chiefly in villages and hamlets scattered along the coast. Kishm is said to have contained upwards of 300 towns and villages, but at present it has nothing like half that number. The chief towns are Kishm at its E., and Basidoh at its W. extremity, and Left on its N. side. Kishm, with about 2,000 inhab., seems to have been formerly of considerable commercial importance. It is surrounded by a high mud wall, flanked with towers, on which a few old guns are mounted. Streets narrow and dirty, houses flat roofed, and some of them large and neatly fitted up. The bazaar is plentifully supplied with many kinds of vegetables and fruits from Persia; and good wines, dried fruits, silk and cotton cloths, and carpets of the richest patterns, may be obtained. The town has a brisk trade and a bustling appearance, many native vessels calling for food and water, or to take pilots for the Kishm channel. It is the residence of the sheikh. A few coasting vessels are built here with timber from the Malabar coast. Basidoh, or Bassadore, once belonged to the Portuguese, and the ruins of their town and fort may still be traced. It is admirably situated in most respects, and healthy, but ill supplied with water. Being the principal station in the Gulf for ships of the Indian navy, it has several European houses and public buildings, including an hospital, store and guard house, a billiard-room, five-court, &c.; and it is the residence of the commander of the Indian squadron. Its port is difficult to enter, but vessels have good anchorage in 6 or 7 fathoms; 4 m. from the shore. Left is at present a town of only 600 inhab.: it was bombarded by the English in 1809. Vessels may lie before it in 4 fathoms water completely landlocked.

The island of Anjar, 3 m. S. of Kishm, is of volcanic origin, 8 or 6 m. in circuit, and uninhabited, though the remains of a town and reservoir be still visible on its N. side. It is covered with pits of salt and metallic ores; and between it and Kishm is an excellent anchorage. Larak, to the S.E., is also of volcanic origin, and inhabited only by a few fishermen. The Great and Little Tombs, about 26 m. S.W. Kishm, are low and uninhabited. The small islets between Kishm and the main land are verdant and covered with wood, a circumstance rare in the adjacent parts of Persia. Nearchus visited

and described this island group; and Arrian affirms that in his time it was to be seen in Kishm the sepulchre of its first king Brythra, from whom the Gulf was named *Mare Brythraeum*. These islands are now governed by a sheikh, tributary to the Imam of Muscat. (*Knapthorne and Whitehead, in Geog. Journal, v. 27*—280, viii. 176—182.; *Kinnear's Pers. Emp., pp. 14—16.*)

KLATTAU, a town of Bohemia, cap. circ. of same name, on the Bradlenka, 70 m. S.W. Prague. Pop. 5,700. It is well built, and has a castle, some handsome churches, a council-house, with a tower 180 ft. in height, containing a bell weighing 90 cwt., a gymnasium, high school, two hospitals, and manufactures of woollen cloth and stockings. It is said to have been founded in the 8th century.

KNARESBOROUGH, a parl. bor. market town, and par. of England, co. York, W. riding, wap. Claro, 164 m. W. by N. York, the same dist. N. Leeds, and 181 m. N. by W. London. Pop. of parl. bor. (which includes, besides the old bor., parts of Scriven and Knareborough townships), in 1831, 5,253. The town is beautifully situated on a slope, N.E. of the Nidd, the stream of which is rapid, and very serviceable for turning the wheels of mills and machinery connected with the linen trade" (*Bound. Rep.*) Two stone bridges cross it, one above, and the other below the town; and on a beesting crag, close over the torrent stands a ruined castle, opposite to which, on the other side the river, is a curious dropping well, the water of which runs from a source 80 ft. above, and trickles through a porous limestone rock with sufficient rapidity to deliver about 30 gallons per minute. At no great distance is an oratory, carved out of the rock, and a mile lower down the stream are the ruins of a priory, founded by Richard, brother of Henry III., and a cavern known as St. Robert's Cave, where Eugene Aram, now so well known through Sir Lytton Bulwer's novel, committed the murder in 1745, of which he was convicted 15 years after. The streets of Knareborough are broad, regularly laid out, well-paved, and lighted with gas: the houses are almost wholly of stone, and many of them large and handsome. The market-place is extensive, and there is a good market-house. The court-house occupies the centre of the old castle, and another part of it is used as a prison for the liberty of the forest. Knareborough. The par. church is of considerable antiquity, but little beauty. The Independents, Wesleyan Methodists, and R. Catholics, have also places of worship, and the Sunday schools of the church and chapels are attended by upwards of 800 children. A charity school, 2 national schools, an infant school, a school of industry, and 2 other schools, furnish instruction to about 600 children, chiefly belonging to the working classes. The public institutions of the town comprise a public library, dispensary, lying-in charity, savings' bank, and Bible society.

The industry of Knareborough is chiefly confined to linen-weaving. The trade has been long established, and a large amount of capital is vested in mills, warehouses, and machinery. Two flax-mills employed, in 1836, 143 hands, and about 400 looms are at work on various descriptions of linens. But during the ten years ending with 1841, the trade of the town was much depressed, and the pop. declined nearly 1,000. The diminution of the trade was attributed, partly, to the competition of Scotch and Irish goods, and, partly, to the scarcity and high price of coal; for, as there were no canals in the par., the latter had to be brought a distance of 18 m. by land carriage. But these drawbacks on the industry of the town have been to a great extent obviated by the construction of railways which open a direct communication with York, Leeds, and other towns, and bring Knareborough, in this respect, to a level with the best situated places. Knareborough has a great corn market, and from this place and Ripon the manufacturing districts of the W. riding are principally supplied. It is also the seat of a county court, before which 736 suits were entered in 1848. The sum raised in the par. by assessment, and expended in the relief of the poor during 1846-47, amounted to 1,568*l.*

Knareborough is a bor. by prescription, governed by a bailiff. The parl. franchise was granted in 1 Mary (1533), since which the bor. has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. The right of voting till 1832 was vested in the owners of 84 burgage tenures, all of which, excepting four, being the property of the Duke of Devonshire, the mems. were his nominees. The Boundary Act enlarged the limits of the bor. by including in it parts of the townships of Scriven and Knareborough; and, in 1831, there were 369 qualifying tenements. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 320. Markets on Wed., and on alternate Weds. for cattle. Sheep fairs, Wed. and Thurs. after Jan. 13., Wed. after March 12., May 6. and 7., Aug. 12. Statute fairs, Tuesd. and Wedn. after October 10., and Wedn. after Nov. 22.

KNIGHTON, a market town, parl. bor., and par. of N. Wales, co. Radnor, on the Teme, 36 m. S.S.W. Shrewsbury, and 136 m. W.N.W. London. Area of

parish, 252 acres: pop., in 1841, 1,404. Pop. of par. bor., 1,183. The town comprises two chief streets, intersecting each other at right-angles, and the gentle acclivity on which it stands, not only gives it a picturesque appearance, but greatly contributes to its cleanliness. A small modern-built church, subordinate to that of Stowe, in Shropshire, and a chapel for Calvinist-Methodists, are the only places of worship; and the charities comprise a free-school and an almshouse.

Knightsford is principally occupied by tradesmen, mechanics, malsters, &c.: it has no manufactures, the wool-dyeing and spinning business having ceased to exist. Wool-stapling is carried on to some extent, though much less than before 1811, when a large establishment failed. The market is very large and important: it is attended by dealers even from Birmingham and its neighbourhood, who come for meat, poultry, eggs, butter, cheese, &c.; and butcher's meat is sometimes sent to London. Petty sessions are held here monthly. The officers of the borough are a bailiff, burgesses and constables; but they have little or no authority, and the bailiff's only business is to collect the chief rents of the manor, which belongs to the Earl of Oxford. The boundaries of the par. bor. were not changed by the Boundary Act of 1833, and in 1849-50 there were 467 registered electors in the bor. of New Radnor, to which Knightsford is contributory.

Knightsford is called by the Welsh *Tref-y-clawd*, or "the town on the dyke," from the circumstance of its position close to Offa's dyke, which enters the parish on the N., and running due S. about 2 m., may be traced through several parishes into the county of Hereford. (*Nicholson's Guide; Par. Rep.*)

KNUTSFORD (corrupted from *Cnut's Ford*, so called because the Danish Canute crossed here with his army,) a market-town and par. of England, co. Chester, hund. Bucklow, 11½ m. W. by N. Macclesfield, 12½ m. S. by W. Manchester, and 154 m. N.N.W. London. Area of par., 4,300 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,006; do. of Nether and Over Knutsford townships, 3,410. The town is divided into two parts, called Over and Nether Knutsford, by the brook Birken, an affluent of the Bodin, which rises about ½ m. S. in Nether Knutsford are the marketplace, sessions-house, and county-gaol, the last of which is said to be spacious and well conducted. The church, a modern structure of brick and stone, with a square tower, was built in 1741, when this par. was separated from that of Rostherne: the living is a vicarage in private patronage. Another church, at Over Knutsford, is in the patronage of Lord de Tabley. The other places of worship are for Wesleyan Methodists, Independents, and Unitarians; and Sunday-schools are connected with the two former, as well as the churches. The charities of the town comprise a free-school, founded in the reign of Edward VI., and well endowed by an ancestor of the Legh family, a school of industry for 100 girls, supported by the Egerton family (who support also another school at Rostherne), and a parochial school for 70 boys. The manufactures of shag, cotton velvet, sewing thread, worsted, and leather, employ many hands; but the supply of the wants of the opulent gentry in the neighbourhood is a chief source of support to the tradespeople. Races are held annually in July, and are well attended. Knutsford is the election town for the N. division of Cheshire, and sessions are held in July and Oct. Markets on Sat. Cloth and cattle fairs, Whit-Tues., July 10. and Nov. 8.

KOMORN. See **COMORN.**

KONIEH (an. *Konium*), a town of Asiatic Turkey, prov. Karamania, cap. of a pach. and sandjak of its own name, 27 m. E. by S. Smyrna, and 122 m. S. Angora, lat. 37° 54' N., long. 29° 30' E. Pop. about 20,000, chiefly Turks. It extends over the plain E. and S. far beyond the walls, which are covered by a snow-covered mountain range, and the level country on every side except the E., where a dreary plain extends to the horizon. The walls were built by the Seljuk sultans, of materials taken from more ancient edifices; and the figures in *alto-relievo* which ornament the gates are alleged by Kinnaird to be amongst the finest in Turkey. In the middle of the town a small eminence is covered with the remains of a fortified palace, once inhabited by the Seljuk princes. The present public buildings comprise 12 large and numerous smaller mosques (that of Sultan Selim having been built on the model of St. Sophia at Constantinople), several madrasahs or colleges (only one of which, the Capan madrasah, is now inhabited), 3 Armenian churches, 4 public baths, and 7 khans for the accommodation of merchants. The importance of Konieh belongs to the past; for it has now dwindled into insignificance, and exhibits every mark of desolation and decay. A few carpets and some morocco leather are manufactured here; but trade is in a very languishing state, and far the greater portion of the adjacent territory is permitted to lie waste. Konieh is mentioned by Herodotus and Xenophon as being on the great post road be-

KOOM.

tween Sardis and Susa, is reported by Strabo to have been a well-built town, situated in a fine country, and is celebrated in gospel history as having been the scene of St. Paul's persecution by the unbelieving inhab. (See Acts, xiv. 1-7.) After the taking of Nicæa by the crusaders in 1099, it became the residence of the Seljuk sultans of Roum, by whom it was much embellished and enlarged. Frederick Barbarossa expelled them in 1189; but after his death, they re-entered their capital, and lived in splendour till the irruption of Tuglaik-Khan, and his son Holukow, who broke the power of the Seljuks. Konieh has been included in the dominions of the Grand Seigneur since the time of Bayazet, who finally extirpated the Ameer of Karamania. (*Kinnaird's Asia Minor*, p. 217-222; *Leake's Tour*, p. 48.)

KONIGGRATZ (Boh. *Kralowý-Hradec*), a town of Bohemia, cap. circ. of same name, on the Elbe, 63 m. E.N.E. Prague. Pop. (1838) 8,024. It is fortified; and has 3 suburbs, some large barracks, a fine cathedral, Jesuits' college, episcopal seminary, gymnasium, high school, and a celebrated orphan asylum. Woolen cloth weaving is the chief employment of the inhab. It was taken several times by the Prussians during the last century. (*Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.*; *Bergbau*, &c.)

KONIGSBERG, a large city of the Prussian states, now the cap. of the prov. of Prussia Proper, and of a reg. and circ. of the same name, as it formerly was of the monarchy, on the Pregel, near where it falls into the Frische Hauff, lat. 54° 42' 11" N., long. 20° 30' E. Pop. (1846), 75,324. A bar at the mouth of the Pregel prevents vessels drawing more than 5 or 6 ft. water ascending the river to Königsberg, so that its port is properly at Pillau, at the junction of the Frische Hauff with the Baltic. A part of Königsberg is built on an island formed by the Pregel, the houses being founded on piles, as at Venice and Amsterdam. Opposite to this island, and on the N. bank of the river, stands the rest of the city, consisting of the old town, and a quarter to the E. called Lobenicht. The circ. of these 2 quarters, which properly form the city, hardly exceeds 2 m.; but the suburbs are very widely spread, and the wall that encloses the whole is no less than 3 m. in circ.; but a large portion of the included space consists of gardens and open fields. According to Dr. Granville, the "streets are long, narrow, dirty, ill-paved, and very offensive, lined by lofty old-fashioned houses, the basement stories of which project far out in the shape of terraces, with their flights of steps guarded by antiquated brass railings, which are not only very inconvenient for the passage of carriages, but render that of pedestrians a work of real danger. Every where, in fact, houses and inhab. are as old fashioned as if the court, of the old dukes of Brandenburg were still held here." (*Travels to Petersburg*, &c., i. 247.)

The old town contains the town-house, rebuilt in 1774; an anatomical theatre, an hospital for the widows and orphans of citizens, and many large warehouses. The quarter to the E. of the old town contains a large hospital on the river side, a mint, theatre, an orphan-house. Here also is the old royal palace or castle, now the government-house. The insulated part of the town contains the council-house, exchange, and university buildings. Its orphan-house is also a conspicuous edifice; but none of these rival the cathedral, which, besides its architecture and ornaments, is remarkable for its organ, erected in 1721, containing 5,000 pipes, and for several monuments of the old dukes of Brandenburg, the founders of the monarchy. There are seven bridges over the arms of the Pregel.

Königsberg is the seat of the government of the prov., and of a court of appeal and a tribunal of commerce. Its university, founded in 1544, had Kant, who died here in 1804, for one of its professors, and is attended by about 350 students. The city has besides three gymnasiums, two seminaries for preachers, with numerous schools, a royal literary society, a celebrated observatory, and various other literary establishments, a blind asylum, &c. There are manufactures of woollens, cottons, leather, gloves, lace, wax, soap, refined sugar, &c., with breweries and distilleries on a large scale. The great articles of export consist of wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, tares, flax and hemp, timber, linseed, ashes, bristles, &c.; the imports being colonial products, cotton, and cotton-twist, wine, dye stuffs, spices, oil, coals, &c. For an account of the shipping entered and cleared out at Königsberg, see *FRUSIA*.

KOOM, a city of Persia, prov. Irak-Adjem, district of its own name, 186 m. N. by W. Isfahan, and 60 m. S. by W. Teheran; lat. 34° 45' N., long. 50° 29' E. Pop., according to Ouseley, about 8,000; but Morier regards this statement as exaggerated. It stands in an extensive plain, and on the banks of a small river rising at no great distance, and lost eastward in the great salt desert. On approaching the city, the remains of habitations, gardens, and tombs become so numerous as to evince that this district was formerly very populous. Among the sepulchral ruins are upwards of 100 tombs of *imam sads* (descendants of imams), distinguished by their tiled

capoia; and there is a very beautiful college, with a celebrated mosque and mausoleum dedicated to the memory of Fatima, the daughter of Imam Reza, and containing the tombs also of Sefi I. and Shah-Abbas II. The dome is lofty, and, with the interior, was, a few years ago, covered with gilt plates, by the mother of the late shah, Fatahe Ali. Koom, though formerly a place of some trade in fruit, silk, soap, sword-blades, and white earthenware, has sunk into utter insignificance; the bazaars hardly contain 40 shops, and the only employment of the inhab. is the cultivation of a little corn and rice. In fact, the place is little more than a mass of ruins, and at least two-thirds of the buildings have been untenanted for half a century. Its sanctity, however, as a place of refuge and pilgrimage is generally celebrated throughout Persia, and devotees still order their bones to be brought here for sepulture.

Koom is conjectured by D'Anville to stand on the site of the ancient Choana, visited by Alexander. In the Shah Nameh it is named as an ancient city, and its foundation assigned to Kai-Kobad. More dependence, however, may be placed on the statement of D'Herbelot, that it was either founded or rebuilt by the Saracens, about the beginning of the ninth century. Timur-Leng destroyed it; but it regained its importance under the Sefi dynasty. In Chardin's time there were 16,000 houses, 30 large mosques, extensive bazars, and a handsome bridge over the river; but in 1732, when the Afghans invaded Persia, they pillaged and all but destroyed the city; repeated earthquakes have also damaged the remaining buildings, and Koom is now only a melancholy ruin. (*Miner's Persia*, 116; *Osborn*, III. 98—106; *Ritter's Asia*, vol. vi. part 2. p. 30—33.)

KOONDOOZ, an indep. khanat of Central Asia, between the 84th and 88th deg. N. lat., and the 86th and 73d E. long., at present comprising, as tributary states, Budukhan, and many other small chieftains N. of the Hindoo Kooch. It has N. the territ. of Hissar, Durwas, &c.; E., the Belor-Tagh mountains, separating it from the Chinese dom.; S., Caspian, and the Hindoo Kooch, which divides it from Gashul; and W., a part of Afghanistan, and the territ. of Balkh. The central part of this dom., or Koondoos Proper, seems to be situated on a lower level than the surrounding provs. It is of limited dimensions, is enclosed by ranges of low hills, and watered by two of the principal tributaries of the Oxus, in the upper part of its course. It is in many parts so marshy, that the roads are obliged to be constructed on piles of wood, fixed among noxious and rank vegetation. The climate is most pestiferous: snow lies for three months in winter, but the heat in summer is often excessive. The soil is, however, very fertile; and produces abundant crops of grain. In the marshy grounds rice is the chief product, and in the drier grounds wheat and barley. The revenues of the chief are derived, as in the other E. states, from the land: they are paid principally in kind, and are said to amount to a third part of the produce of the soil. Apricots, plums, cherries, &c., are plentiful, as are most necessities of life; a good deal of silk, also, is produced on the banks of the Oxus. Since the conquest of Budukhan, that fine prov. has been in a great measure depopulated, its inhab. being carried off to cultivate the fertile Koondoos, where they die rapidly, from the effects of the climate. The surrounding provs. have mostly both a rich soil and a good climate.

The inhab. of Koondoos are mostly Tajiks. (*See Bokhara*, I. 297.) The khan or seer is, however, an Uzbek. Koondoos appearing to be the most southerly region into which the Uzbeks ever penetrated, and afterwards succeeded in establishing their dominion. The army, comprising about 30,000 cavalry, with six pieces of artillery, consists chiefly of Uzbeks; but most of the civil employments under the state remain in the hands of the Pers. By adopting this line of policy, and governing his subjects in general with justice, and (for an Eastern despot) considerable mildness, the present sovereign of Koondoos has consolidated his power: he is supposed to be rich; and his army, at least, is a match for any one likely to oppose it. The khan frequently makes "*chapsowals*" (chupows), or predatory incursions into the neighbouring territ. of Balkh, the Hassareh country, &c., for prisoners, whom he sells for slaves; and the chief of Chitral pays his tribute in human beings, who, being also sold by the khan, form a principal article of export from Koondoos. His encouragement of this nefarious traffic, and his behaviour to the unfortunate pop. of Budukhan, are the principal blemishes in the character of the khan: he has the merit of protecting commerce, and traders in his dom. are secure from exactions or molestation. There is a considerable trade between Koondoos and the Chinese prov. of Yarkund, and sometimes an exchange of presents. Tea is an important article of consumption. European and other foreign luxuries are derived from Bokhara, in exchange for eleven hundred cattle sent to its markets. At present, of all the Uzbek states, Koondoos is the most adverse to British influence.

KOONDOOS, the nominal cap., is in a wide valley, near the confluence of two rivers, about lat. 36° 50' N., and long. 69° 10' E. It has formerly been a large town, but its pop. does not now exceed 1,600. It has a mud fort, surrounded by a ditch, and the winter residence of the chief. The largest town in the khan's dom. is Khooloom (which see.) (*Burnes' Trav.*, II. 179—198; vol. III. 175, 176, 275—281; *Ritter, Erdkunde*, vol. Asia, v. 810—815.)

KOROTCHA, or KAROTCHA, a town of Russia in Europe, gov. Kourak, cap. circ., on the river of the same name, and on the road from Voroneje to Kharkoff, 100 m. S.W. the former city. Pop. nearly 10,000. It is well built, and surrounded by numerous gardens; and has several churches, nearly all, however, constructed of timber, a circle high school, hospital, and a saltpetre manufactory; with an extensive trade in apples, for which its vicinity is famous. Korotcha was founded by Michael Fedorovitch in 1658, as a barrier against the incursions of the Crime-Tatars. (*Schultz, La Russie; Passart, Des Russland*.)

KOSTENDIL, or GHIUSTENDIL (*Justiniana secunda*), a town of European Turkey, prov. Roumelia, and cap. sandjak of its own name, 107 m. N. Salonica, and 192 m. W.N.W. Adrianople. Pop., according to Stein, 8,000. It stands on the N. declivity of the Karasu mountains, at a short distance from the right bank of the Strouma (the an. *Strymon*), and is defended by a crenelated wall flanked with square towers. A bazaar, governor's palace, and several sulphur baths, are the only public establishments. Employment is given to a portion of the pop. by the silver and iron mines of the neighbouring mountains.

KOSTROMA, a gov. of Russia in Europe, between 56° 45' and 59° 12' N. lat. and 40° 27' and 48° E. long., having N. the gov. of Vologda, W. Jaroslavl, S. Vladimir and Nijegorod, and E. Viatka. Area, 30,400 sq. m. Pop., in 1846, 1,054,600. Surface flat, with some undulations. It is indifferently fertile, being marshy in the N., while in the S. it is sandy and clayey. Climate severe, but healthy. It is watered by the Volga, and by its important tributaries the Ounja and Velouga. Principal crop rye; but the quantity grown is insufficient for the consumption. Flax and hemp are largely produced. Cattle few, and but little attended to. This, however, is not the case with the forests, which are extensive, valuable, and better taken care of than those of most other governments. The rivers and lakes furnish abundance of fish. The inhab. particularly excel in the preparation of Russia leather, and there are various fabrics of cloth and linen. Many of the peasants are masons, carpenters, &c., who seek for employment in the summer season in the contiguous governments; and many are employed at home, in the making of charcoal, pitch and tar, mats, of which there is an immense consumption, boats, rafts, &c. (*Schultz, La Russie*, &c. p. 121, &c.)

KOSTROMA, the cap. of the above gov., on the Volga, at the confluence of the Kostroma with that river. Pop. nearly 14,000. Situation elevated and agreeable; houses mostly of stone; the rampart of earth by which it was formerly surrounded has been converted into a promenade. It has a handsome cathedral, two large convents, a great number of churches, and a large stone building, or bazaar, for the security, exhibition, and sale of merchandise. There are several tanneries, with manufactures of linen, Prussian blue, soap, and tallow, a bell-foundry. Various fairs, and a considerable commerce.

KOTAH, a town of Hindostan, prov. Rajpootana, the cap. of a subsidiary state of the same name, with an area of about 4,400 sq. m. (*Sutherland*). The town, on the Chumbul, 195 m. S.W. Agra, is large and populous, with some good and well stocked bazars, and a great number of temples and substantial private houses. The entrances to Kotah are through double gateways, and its walls are surrounded by a fosse hewn in the solid rock. Its chief public edifice is the palace of the rajah, rendered conspicuous by its lofty white turrets, and enclosed by a separate line of works. Kotah has manufactures of cloth and other articles of native consumption. Its territory is among the most flourishing of India, and about 30 years ago its gross revenue was estimated at 47 lakhs of rupees, and its armed force at 26,000 men. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz. & Port. Reports*.)

KOTOCII, a rajahship of N.W. Hindostan, subject to the maharajah of the Punjab; about lat. 32° N., and between long. 76° and 77° E., having W. and S. the territory of the Punjab, and N. and E. the rajahships Chamba, Kulu, and Mundi, separating it from the great range of the Himalayas. It comprises a portion of the upper valley of the Beas (*Hippasis*), and is about 60 m. in length N. to S. by about 25 to 40 m. in breadth. Its natural products are few, but they might be much improved under an enlightened government. Opium is largely cultivated on the Kulu frontier, and cotton is raised, and furnishes the material from which the finer cloths of Hoshiarpur are manufactured. When this place was visited by Moorcroft, these cloths were sent in large

quantities to W. Asia; agents from very remote places attended at Hoshargera, made advances to the weavers, and took the cloth in the rough from the loom, bleaching, washing, and packing it each in his own fashion to suit the market of his country. We have not learned whether any change has been effected in the interval in this trade. Superior wheat and rice are raised. Flax of large size grow in some tracts along the Beas; and in one part is an extensive bamboo forest. Rhubarb and the mulberry-tree are abundant; and iron is found, but the ore is not wrought. Shujampur, about lat. $31^{\circ} 49'$, and long. $76^{\circ} 35' E.$, is the cap. (*Moorecroft's Travels*, i. 138-142.)

KOURSK, a government in the S. part of European Russia, having that of Orloff on the N., Voronezh on the E., Kharkoff on the S., and Tchernigoff on the W. Area 17,382 sq. m. The accounts of the pop. differ very widely; but Schnitzler and Koppen agree in estimating it at about 1,600,000. Surface flat, or slightly undulating; soil very fertile; forests not very extensive, and in some parts there is a scarcity of wood. There are no navigable rivers, the want of which is one of the greatest drawbacks on the government, commerce, and health. Notwithstanding the backward state of agriculture, Hassel says that wheat and rye yield 9 for 1; but this is most probably exaggerated. Corn is kept in silos, or caves, sometimes for 6 or 10 years together, and there is always a large surplus for exportation. Hemp and flax, tobacco, hops, &c., are also produced. The pastures, which are excellent, afford ample provision for large herds of oxen, with horses, sheep, &c. There are in this government above 300,000 free peasants. Manufactures considerable and improving, consisting of coarse cloth for the army and the peasantry, leather, soap, saltpetre, spirits, earthenware, &c. Public instruction has made no considerable progress. There were, in 1831, in the government, 35 educational establishments, attended by 4,095 pupils, being only 1 pupil for every 390 individuals!

KOURSK, a town of European Russia, cap. of the above gov. lat. $51^{\circ} 43' 41'' N.$, long. $36^{\circ} 29' 15'' E.$ Pop. (in 1846) 27,000. It had a citadel and ramparts; but the former is in ruins, and the latter have been converted into public walks. Situation elevated; houses principally of wood, but many of stone; streets narrow, crooked, and ill paved. There are two convents, numerous churches, with a gymnasium, a normal school, an hospital, a founding hospital, &c. It is a thriving, industrious town, having numerous tanneries, tile and earthenware works, wax and tallow foundries, &c. It carries on an extensive commerce with Petersburg, Moscow, and Odessa, sending to them cattle and horses, tallow, leather, wax and honey, hemp and furs.

KORENNIA, Poustyn, a convent in the vicinity of Koursk, is celebrated for a miraculous image of the Virgin; and for a great fair held annually on the 9th Friday after Easter, resorted to equally by merchants and pilgrims. The value of the horses, cattle, and other articles exposed to sale at this fair, in 1832, amounted, according to the official accounts, to about 30,000,000 roubles. But if this be not exaggerated, it is, at all events, greatly above the average. (*Schnitzler, La Russie*, &c. p. 259; *Mallet Bruns*, &c.)

KRASNOJARSK, or KRASNOYERSK, a town of Asiatic Russia, gov. Yeniseisk, of which it is the cap., in a plain of great beauty and fertility, on the Yenisei, and on the high road between Tobolsk and Irkutsk, 230 m. E. by S. from lat. $56^{\circ} 1' N.$, long. $92^{\circ} 57' 10'' E.$ Pop. about 7,000. Though small, this is a town of some importance, being the emporium of a wide extent of country. It is pretty well built; its two principal streets are broad, and its houses, which are mostly faced with planks, are painted in bright colours. Its chief public buildings are, several churches; an edifice, partly of stone, occupied by the government offices; and a large factory, devoted to several branches of industry, especially coach-building, and the manufacture of Russia leather. The district subordinate to it is one of the most productive in the whole prov. Irkutsk, of grain, cattle, horses, &c. "Flour is sold at Krasnojarsk generally at from 15 to 20 *kopecks* the pound, according to the goodness of the crops; excellent beef for $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 roubles, and other things in proportion. Fish and game are also in abundance; and the neighbourhood is famous for wild goats, the flesh of which is not inferior to venison." (*Dobell's Travels in Siberia*, ii. 98.) Within the last twenty years this town has been rising considerably in importance; and it has now a brisk traffic in Chinese and agricultural produce. Erman, who visited it in 1839, found it supplied with Madeira and other European wines, and speaks in high terms of a literary club, which he says may rank with those of a superior order in Europe. (*Erman, Reise um die Erde*, i. 36-60; *Dobell's Travels*, &c.)

KREMNITZ (Hung. *Kormecz-Banya*), a royal town of Hungary, co. Bacs, and one of the principal mining and coal-mining towns of the kingdom; in a deep valley 10 m.

W. Neusohl, and 88 m. E. N. E. Presburg. Pop. about 5,000. The walled town comprises a castle, and about 40 houses, one of which is the mint, ranged round an open space in which the market is held. In the suburbs are nearly 600 dwelling houses, and many mining offices; and about $\frac{1}{4}$ m. distant are the smelting furnaces.

Kremnitz is ill paved, dirty, and disagreeable. It has 5 churches; one with a lofty gilt and coppered steeple and very gaudy internal ornaments, 3 chapels, a Protestant meeting-house, 2 hospitals, a royal infirmary for miners, a gymnasium, normal and girls' schools, a Lutheran grammar school, &c.; and it is the seat of municipal and mining tribunals, and of a mint, and councils of mines and forests.

The Kremnitz mines have 11 or 12 principal shafts, attached to which are 18 or 20 washing works (*pöckwerke*). The best mines belong to private companies; but the richest veins of Kremnitz are now for the most part exhausted, and a considerable portion of the former workings is under water. The mines at present yield about 15,000 marcs of silver, and 250 do. of gold a year. These metals, however, are rarely found pure, but much intermixed with copper, lead, arsenic, &c. Quartz is the matrix of the ore, which is first reduced by the hammer, to small pieces about the size of the stones used for Macadamising roads: the ore is next exposed to the stamping-mill, by which it is pulverised; it is then washed over slanting frames; sometimes roasted, to drive off the sulphur, arsenic, &c.; and is finally smelted. "The object of this process, which lasts four and twenty hours, is to separate the noble from the ignoble metals, which is effected by the oxidation of the latter. At the moment the oxidation is complete, a bright bluish-white metallic lustre spreads itself over the whole surface of the liquid metal. The impure metals are then allowed to run off, a stream of warm water is passed over the gold and silver to cool them; the solid mass is taken out, cut up into bars, weighed, and sent off to the mint, where the gold and silver are separated, and coined. The smelting-houses of Kremnitz are the best in Hungary: instead of the common bellows, they have the double-cylinder bellows worked by water, which maintains a constant blast; and the loss of lead, instead of being 20 lbs. to the marc, is reduced to 12." (*Paget's Hungary*, i. 266, 267.)

All the gold and silver produced in Hungary, whether by private individuals or by the government, should be coined at Kremnitz. Delfus states, in 1773, that between 1740 and that year nearly 100,000,000 *gulden* of gold and silver had been obtained from the mines of Schemnitz and Kremnitz, and coined at the latter town; and that 3,000,000 *gulden* a year still came from Schemnitz, Kremnitz, and Transylvania. (*See Bright's Travels in Lower Hungary*, pp. 177, 178.) The amount of gold and silver coined at Kremnitz is now about 260,000 *mark* (2,500,000 *for.* c. m.); but it is probable that this is considerably less than the amount produced, as it is known that a good deal finds its way to Vienna in bars. The silver is mostly coined into pieces of 20 *kreutzers* (*swanzigers*), and the gold into ducats and half ducats." (*Paget*, i. 294, 396.) Kremnitz has also a royal vitriol factory, 3 paper-mills, and manufactures of earthenware and vermilion. It is abundantly supplied with excellent water by a water-course carried by a former archbishop of Gran, at his own expense, from the Thurocz to Kremnitz, a distance of 50 m. (*Paget's Hungary*, i. 390-397; *Bright's Travels*, 167-163; *Oeder's Encyc. Bohemica*.)

KRISHNA, or KISTNAH (the name of a supposed incarnation of Vishnu), a river of Hindostan, and one which bounds an important division of that country; the S. part of the peninsula being entitled "India S. of the Krishna." It rises in the W. ghats, near lat. $18^{\circ} N.$, and long. 74° , not far from Sattarah; and runs with a very tortuous course E. for about 700 m., through the provs. Bejapoor, Beeder, and Hyderabad, and between the British distr. of Maasilpatan and Gundoor, falling into the ocean on the Coromandel coast, by several mouths near lat. 16° , long. 81° . Its course lies mostly through a mountainous country, greatly elevated above the sea; its channel is of very irregular depth, much broken by rocks and rapids; and it is altogether ill adapted for navigation, except in the N. Circars, where it is available for large boats. In the highlands, the craft usually employed on it are round bamboo wicker baskets, covered with half-tanned hides, and directed with paddles. Its chief tributaries are the Joongabudra, Gutpura, and Malpura, from the S.; and the Seema, Musser, &c. from the N. Sattarah is the principal city on its banks. It is said to be much more productive of gems, &c., than the Godavery, diamonds, chalcodones, onyx, and other precious stones, and some gold, being found in its sediment in the dry season. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*)

KULDSHA, GULDSCHA, or ILI, a city of Chinese Turkistan, cap. prov. Ili or Elé, in lat. $45^{\circ} 46' N.$, long. $85^{\circ} 48' 15''$, about 480 m. N. E. Yarkund. It is said to be

13 Chinese *H* (about 5 m.) in circuit, surrounded by mud walls and wet ditches, and entered by six gates. The town, according to Helmersen, is much better built than either Kotan or Bokhara: the houses are either of stone or wood, seldom of earth, and the streets are traversed by running streams. The inhab. are mostly Chinese; there are, however, about 1,500 Toorkoe families, who profess Mohammedanism, but whose dress, customs, &c. resemble those of the rest of the pop. The inhab. of Kuldah are very industrious, and devoted to commerce. Almost every house has a shop, frequently filled with expensive merchandise; besides which, the streets abound with moveable stalls, and hawkers going about to sell their wares, Kuldah being the entrepôt of an extensive region, peopled by nomadic Kalmuk tribes. It is the residence of a Chinese governor. (*Helmersen, Ritter, Asien, Erdkunde*, i. 402-404.)

KULU, a rajaship of N.W. Hindostan, tributary to the maharajah of the Punjab, about lat. 32° N., and long. 77° E., having E. the great range of the Himalaya, N. Lahoul, W. Chamba and Kotoch, and S. Mandi. Length, N. to S., about 40 m. Area and pop. uncertain. Wheat, barley, and buck wheat, but only a little rice, are raised. No kitchen vegetables are grown. Tobacco, though cultivated in most of the gardens, does not thrive very well, and a narcotic preparation from hemp is used as a substitute. The climate being much colder than in the adjacent rajaships of Kotoch and Mandi, woollen instead of cotton fabrics are used for clothing. Kulu, or Sultampur, the cap., about lat. 31° 37' N., and long. 77° 10' E., is of no great extent or pop.: it stands at the confluence of the Beas and Serhar. The part next the river, forming the southern or lower town, is occupied by the buildings in which the rajah resides with his family and attendants. The upper part of the town consists of the houses of shop keepers and artificers, and is separated from the lower division by a small bazaar. A few coarse chintzes, blankets, and cotton cloths, with opium and musk, are the chief articles of traffic; the three former are brought from the plains, and paid for with the two latter. The principal traders are Hindoo pilgrims, of whom a vast number assemble here on their way to holy places in the mountains. (*Meuserg, l. 171.* &c.)

KUMAON, or KEMAOON, a prov. of N. Hindostan, under the British prov. of Bengal, comprising, with Kumaon Proper, that portion of Gherwal S.E. of the Alacanda river; chiefly between lat. 29° and 31° N., and long. 78° and 81° E., having N.W. Independent Gherwal, N.E. the great range of the Himalaya, separating it from Thibet, S.E. Nepal, and S.W. the prov. Delhi. Area estimated at nearly 11,000 sq. m. The whole country is overspread by mountains successively ascending from S.W. to N.E., till they reach the height of 25,000 ft. The Ganges in the upper part of its course, the Kalesi, and a few of the rajah's vassals, are the chief rivers: there are no lakes of any consequence. The lower portion of the prov. is covered with jungle interspersed with groups of saul, sissoo, and other timber trees, and tracts of high reedy grass. The central hilly region is an almost uninterrupted forest: above the elevation of 2,800 ft. the vegetation of the tropics gives place to the pine, oak, rhododendron, &c. The fruits and vegetables of Europe are common, and thrive well. Wheat, *mendes*, and other dry grains are those principally grown, but rice also is cultivated alternately with the foregoing, a regular rotation of crops being pursued. Hemp is raised in large quantities, and grows luxuriantly to the height of 12 or 14 ft.; little cotton is raised, though it is of excellent quality. The sovereign has the entire property of the soil; and the great functionaries under the native gov. were always paid by grants of land, or by perquisites arising from the soil. The operations of tillage, except ploughing and harrowing, are chiefly performed by women. The implements and operations of husbandry are similar to those in the plains of Hindostan. Irrigation is frequently effected by aqueducts carrying a considerable distance, and water-mills, scarce in Hindostan, are here common. The breeds of horned cattle are small, but yield very good milk; there are domestic camels, but they are small, and goats and sheep are principally used for the transport of goods. Elephants, tigers, leopards, and various kinds of deer abound. Copper, iron, and lead mines are wrought to some extent; and garnets, rock crystal, and bitumen are met with. Manufactures very few; they include blankets, coarse camlets, hempen cloths, coarse cottons, bamboo mats and baskets, wooden vessels, &c. Artisans are sufficiently numerous in the towns, but their work exhibits little neatness. It is singular that, though the saw, plane, and turning-lathe be unknown to joiners, the goldsmiths are acquainted with the use of the spirit blow-pipe. The inhab. at large are more inclined to commerce than agriculture. They carry iron, copper, ginger, turmeric, and other hill drugs and roots into the plain of N. Hindostan, where they exchange them for coarse chintz, cotton

cloths, sugar, tobacco, coloured glass, beads, and hardware; and they frequently travel to execute mercantile commissions as far as Furruckabad and Lucknow. The traders of more capital send the products of India across the mountains into Thibet, where they are exchanged for hawks, musk, coarse camlets, wax, incense, and other drugs and roots, the produce of that country; and borax, salt, and gold-dust from Tartary. In the marts of Kumaon, the chief of which are Mandi, Kasipoor, Chilkia, Afselghur, and Najibabad, sugar-candy, spices, European broad cloths, coral, &c. from the S., are exchanged for shawl wool, coarse shawls, China silks, saffron, hides, &c. Large periodical fairs are held at the above places, whence necessaries are procured, there being no village markets in Kumaon. The country is thinly peopled; the inhab. are of two distinct races, the dominant being the Hindoo; and the supposed aborigines a race apparently of Tartar origin, many of whom, called *doms*, appear to have been reduced to a state of slavery by their Hindoo conquerors. The native government was despotic in an oppressive degree till the British took possession of the country in 1815; since which, the condition of Kumaon and its inhab. has been progressively ameliorated. Total public revenue (1825-26), 156,126 rup., of which the land-tax furnished 176,684; public expenditure, 21,264 rup. Kumaon, like many other parts of N. Hindostan, contains numerous places of Hindoo pilgrimage, and many Hindoo temples. Almora is the cap., which see. (*Asiatic Researches*, xvi.; *Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*)

KUR (an. *Cyrrus*), a river of western Asia, in Georgia, having its rise within the Turkish dominions, not far from Kara, on a S. offset of the Caucasian range, dividing the tributaries of the Caspian from those of the Black Sea, in lat. 41° N. and long. 45° 30' E. It assumes its name near the town of Akislar, whence it flows about 80 m. E.N.E. to Gori. Its course thenceforward is S.E., by Tiflis, through the plain of Kara, and afterwards through a lower plain abounding with salt marshes, and in which are several mud volcanoes and petroleum springs. The latter of these plains is frequently overflowed by the river. The total length of the Kur, as measured along its windings, somewhat exceeds 520 m. Its chief affluents are, 1. the Alasan, from the main Caucasian ridge, joining the main stream in lat. 40° 36' N., and long. 46° 51' E.; and, 2d, the Aras (an. *Araxes*), which rises near Erzeroum, curves northward round Mount Ararat, and thence runs S.E., and afterwards N.E., to its junction with the Kur, at Djwat. The Kur at this point is 140 yards broad, and may be navigated by large boats to its mouth on the W. side of the Caspian Sea, a distance of about 100 m. Fishing villages are established on its lower banks, and great wealth is accumulated from the proceeds of these fisheries. A delta at the mouth projects considerably into the Caspian Sea. KURACHÉE, or KARACHÉE, the principal seaport of Sindh N.W. Hindostan, on the E. side of an inlet of the Indian Ocean, 80 m. S.W. Hyderabad, and about 18 m. from the W. arm of the Indus: lat. 24° 56' N., long. 67° 19' E. It is built on a low, barren, sandy shore, and is walled. In 1813 there were 3,280 houses within the walls, but the pop. did not reach 13,000. The town is irregularly laid out, and the streets are so narrow that two people can scarcely walk abreast. The houses are chiefly of mud and sandstone, obtained in great abundance from the coast.

Kurachee has a considerable trade with Cutch, Bombay, and the principal ports on the Malabar coast. Its harbour is commodious, perfectly safe in all winds, and, though not deep, is capable of sheltering vessels of 200 or 300 tons; so that it is of greater commercial importance than any of the ports on the Indus, which can only be reached from the sea by flat-bottomed boats. Nearly all the Malwa opium exported seaward is shipped at Kurachee. In 1837, about 60 fishing boats, of from 10 to 15 tons, belonged to this port; and most of the men engaged in the fisheries of Sindh are from Kurachee, and are superior in intelligence and appearance to the other inhab. of the coast. Kurachee was bombarded and taken in a few hours by a small British force, on the 2d of Feb., 1839. (*Geog. Journal*, v. 363.; *Asiatic Journal*, 1839.)

KURDISTAN, an extensive country of W. Asia, comprised chiefly within the basin of the Tigris, and belonging partly to Turkey and partly also to Persia; being bounded N. by Armenia, E. by Azerbaijan and Irak-Adjimi, S. by Khuzistan and the pash. of Bagdad, and W. by Diarbekir and Algeria. Area roughly estimated at 520,000 sq. m. Pop. 500,000. Kurds only not including other races. Its surface generally is very unequal; but the mountains are much loftier and more frequent in its N. part, the plains in the latter being also considerably more elevated than in S. Kurdistan; and hence there is a great difference of climate in the two sections into which the country is divided. The principal ranges are the Djebel-tagh and Nimrod; the culminating summit being the snow-covered Mount Bisutum, rising 7,500 ft.

above the surrounding plain, and about 12,000 ft. above the sea. The geological constitution of these mountains consist of serpentine hornblende, and other primary rocks covered, except in the highest parts, by transition limestone, old red sandstone, and various siliceous formations with other rocks, ascending even, in some parts, to the London clay. (*Asiatick's Asyria*, &c., pp. 237-266.) The principal rivers are the Tigris, Diala, Great and Little Zab, Kerah, and Kabur. Extensive and rich pasture grounds support great numbers of sheep and goats, the rearing of which constitutes the chief employment of the pop., and their produce almost the whole wealth of the country. Hence, in the Kurd dialect (which is a patois, composed chiefly, though not entirely, of Arabic and Persian,) the word *mâh*, which means wealth generally, applies in a primary and more particular sense to flocks of sheep. Jaubert says that 1,500,000 sheep and goats are annually supplied to Constantinople from Kurdistan. Each flock comprises from 1,500 to 2,000 animals, and the time required to take them to their destination is somewhat more than 17 months: we believe, however, that the number is not half so great as M. Jaubert has represented. The consumption of London is under 1,500,000 sheep a year; and that of Constantinople, we venture to say, is not a third part so great. As respects the produce of the soil, the N. part produces the grains and fruits of middle Europe, while in the S. the plains and valleys produce, in addition, rice, cotton, tobacco, with a great variety of fruits: excellent timber is found in the forests, and nut-galls form a large article of export at Iskenderon and Smyrna. Good cultivation, indeed, prevails in the vicinity of the towns, and more especially between Mosul and Bagdad, where the country, at the time of Kinnel's visit, seemed to be in a much more improved state than any other district he had visited in this part of the world. (*Persian Empire*, p. 266.) The agriculture of Kurdistan may elsewhere, however, be regarded as in the most primitive condition; and the implements of husbandry are less effective, even, than those of the neighbouring provinces, which owe almost every thing to nature and very little to industry.

The Kurds, who inhabit this country, and give to it its distinctive appellation, are commonly considered as a mixed breed of Mongols and Uzbek Tartars; though this is doubtful. They are Mohammedans, of the sect of Omar: their dress much resembles that of the Turks, but it is lighter, and they do not wear the turbans or the long beard. A red bonnet is their usual head-dress, and the outer garment is a cloak of black goat-skin. They are excellent horsemen, and the exercise of the lance, with other military amusements, are points in which they particularly excel. Improvisation is commonly, and, on the whole, not unsuccessfully practised; and their music, though rude, proves that they have a tolerable acquaintance with the art. There are two castes of Kurds, characterized by very different habits. Those of Turkish Kurdistan have fixed abitations, are acquainted with the working of metals, weaving, and other arts, and live subject to their native princes, and governed by their own laws. The nomad Kurds are chiefly found in Persian Kurdistan and in the pachaliks of Diarbekr and Mosul; often roaming over the desert in search of plunder to the neighbourhood even of Damascus and Aleppo. The love of theft and brigandage is a marked feature in the whole race, without exception; and this accounts for their usual carelessness and impudence about property, for which there is no security. At the same time, all writers agree, that when visited by travellers they exercise the most generous hospitality, and often force handsome presents on their departing guests. (*Jaubert*, p. 86.) The tents of the wandering tribes are low, hastily put together, constructed of coarse black cloth, and generally divided into two parts for the men and women. A defence of reed hurdles surrounds the enclosure in which the tents are pitched, and the horses ready saddled are tied to stakes close to the encampment. Females meet with better treatment than the rest of the race of Asia; neither sex can marry without the permission of relatives, and the constancy of the contracting parties is commonly tried during a long engagement previously to marriage, which with them is considered a sacred and indissoluble tie. Hence the women are considered more as companions than slaves; they are treated with respect, and there is a freedom and openness in their character not to be found in other women of Turkey or Persia.

Turkish Kurdistan comprises the pachaliks of Mosul and Chelersour, with small parts of the pachaliks of Van and Bagdad. Persian Kurdistan is divided into four districts, Ardalan, Kermanshah, and Kinghavor; Kermanshah being the cap. and the residence of a beglerbeg. Neither the sultan, however, nor the king of Persia, has any substantial power, their utmost authority being limited to the exaction of tribute, the payment of which they cannot always enforce. (*Kinnel's Persia*, p. 298.)

312; *Jaubert, Voyage en Perse*, p. 75-89; *Ritter, Asien*, ix. 603, &c.)

KURILE ISLANDS, a chain of small islands connecting the peninsula of Kamtschatka with the large islands forming the empire of Japan: they are chiefly dependent on Russia, but the three farthest S. belong to Japan. They extend between lat. 43° 40' and 51° N., and long. 143° 50' and 156° 20' E., and occupy a length of more than 700 m. Pop. unknown, but very small. The surface is very irregular, some of the heights rising nearly 6,000 ft. above the ocean, while in other parts deep and narrow valleys are almost on a level with the sea. Volcanic eruptions and earthquakes are of common occurrence; and the geological constituents of the islands, examined by Lutz and others, being wholly of igneous origin, indubitably show their connection with the great volcanic band passing S.S.W. from Kamtschatka to the island of Formosa, through more than 30 deg. of lat. The shores are abrupt and difficult of approach; the coast currents are very violent, especially on the E. or ocean side; and continual fogs hovering over the islands, render access extremely difficult. The animals and plants differ little from those found in Kamtschatka; and the minerals consist chiefly of iron, copper, and sulphur. The inhab. may engage in hunting and fishing; the former supplying them not only with meat, but also with furs, which serve as money for the Russian Americans, Japanese, and Dutch; while the latter furnishes oil, whalebone, and spermaceti. Agriculture is confined to the islands belonging to Japan. The inhab. of the N. islands resemble the Kamtschadales in honesty, openness of character, hospitality, and shyness to strangers. Those in the S. islands are Ainoo, a race similar to the Japanese. These islands were discovered between 1718 and 1720; but it must be acknowledged that they are very little known, even after the lapse of more than a century, and the labours of Broughton, Krusenstern, and other travellers. (*Lutz's Voyages*, tome iii.; *Dict. Géog.*)

KURNOUL, a town of British India, presid. Madras, cap. of a subdivision of the Balaghat ceded districts, which formerly composed an independent Patan principality. It stands on the Toombudra, 90 m. N.E. Bellary, defended on two sides by that river and its tributary the Hundry, and on the W. strongly fortified, three of its bastions being 80 ft. high, and covered to the parapets of the curtain by a steep glacis. S. of the fort, is the *petah*, or open town, of considerable extent and pop. Kurnooul was considered impregnable by the natives, and neither Hyder nor Tippoo ever attempted its capture; but it was taken by the British, in 1815, after a siege and bombardment of a single day. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*)

KUTAHIAH (an. *Cotyæum*), a town of Asiatic Turkey, cap. of the prov. Anatoli and of a Sanjak, 180 m. E.N.E. Smyrna, and 134 m. W. by S. Angora; lat. 39° 36' N., long. 36° 18' 15" E. Pop., according to Kinnel, about 55,000 (of whom 10,000 are Armenians, and 5,000 Greeks). The city stands at the foot of a cluster of mountains called the Pursak-Dagh, in which rises the Pursak (an. *Thymbrus*), flowing N. to the Black Sea. The streets, though steep and narrow, contain many handsome and well-supplied fountains, and many of the private houses are large and well furnished. Besides 50 mosques, 20 of which have stone minarets, 1 Greek, and 4 Armenian churches, there are 30 *Assamems* or public baths, and 20 khans. The house architecture is very similar to that of Constantinople; and good gardens attached to many of the private residences take off much of the sombre appearance common to Turkish towns. The surrounding country is well watered, and extremely productive: grain, cotton, nut-galls, and different fruits, are raised in large quantities for exportation; and goats and sheep are pastured for their hair and wool, which fetch high prices in the markets of Smyrna and Constantinople. (*Kinnel's Asia Minor*, p. 286; *Oliver, Voyage*, &c., tom. vi. 409.)

KUTCH, or CUTCH, a small state of N.W. Hindostan, subsidiary to the British, between lat. 22° 45' and 23° 45' N., and long. 68° 35' and 71° E. E. and N. are the Rannas separating from Sind Rajpootana and Gujrat, S. the Gulf of Kutch, and W. the ocean, and an arm of the Indus, which divides it from Sind. Its shape is elongated; greatest length, E. to W., 160 m.; average breadth, 45 m. Area, nearly 7,400 sq. m. Pop. uncertain. It is in general arid and barren; but its scenery is bold, forming a great contrast to that of the adjacent provs. on the W. and N. A chain of rocky hills runs through it in its whole length, dividing it into two nearly equal parts. This chain is of no great height, but its peaks rise in wild and volcanic conical forms of primary formation. It unites at its W. end with another mountain chain, running nearly parallel to it on the N. side; and from both many ramifications are given off. The streams of the prov. are mere torrents, dry when the rains have ceased; there is no navigable river. The scarcity of water is, in fact, one of the greatest drawbacks on the country; and the streams

Sowing N. of the mountains are all so brackish that in the hot season they are not drunk even by the cattle. Good water is, however, usually found 30 ft. below ground. The surface is mostly sandy, the sand resting on strata of clay; but near the hills the country is covered with volcanic matters, which in India are of rare occurrence. Coal and iron of good quality, bituminous and ligneous petrifications, and fossil animals of a late geological period, are found; and there are some mineral springs yielding alum and other salts in large quantities. The country is generally bare of wood; date trees are pretty common, and the neem, peepal, and babool, are met with round the villages, but the tamarind, banyan, and mango, are rare, and the cocoa nut is reared with difficulty even on the sea coast. The arable land is chiefly in the narrow valleys between the mountain ranges towards the S. shore, which latter is the best watered portion of Kutch. Less corn is grown than is necessary for home consumption; and it is imported from Gujrat, Malabar, and Sind, in return for cotton, &c. The Kutch horse is of a good breed; but other domestic animals, except goats, are generally very inferior.

That singular tract, the Runn of Kutch, is thus described by Burnes:—"It extends from the Indus to the W. confines of Gujrat, a distance of about 200 Eng. m. Its breadth is about 25 m.; but there are, besides, various belts and ramifications, which give it an extent of about 7,000 sq. m. It has no herbage, and vegetable life is only discernible in the shape of a stunted tamarisk bush, which thrives by the suction of the rain water that falls near it. It differs as widely from the sandy desert as it does from the cultivated plain; neither does it resemble the steppes of Russia; but may justly be considered of a nature peculiar to itself. It has none of the characteristics of a marsh; it is not covered or saturated with water, but at certain periods; it has neither weeds nor grass in its bed, which, instead of being slimy, is hard, dry, and sandy, of such a consistency as never to become clayey, unless from a long continuance of water on an individual spot; nor is it otherwise fertile or swampy. It is a vast expanse of flat, hardened sand, encrusted with salt sometimes an inch deep (the water having been evaporated by the sun), and at others, beautifully crystallised in large lumps. So much is the whole surrounding country imbued with this mineral, that all the wells dug on a level with the Runn become salt." (*Burnes*, i. 217, 218.) Fresh water is, in fact, obtained only on what may be called the peninsulas and islands of the Runn, tracts of land elevated above the rest of that region, covered with verdure, and moderately peopled by a pastoral race. The Runn has every appearance of having been an inland sea; and indeed the natives of Kutch have a tradition that it was such about 3 centuries ago, and that Nerona, Bitaro, and other places on its limits, were formerly sea ports. This is apparently confirmed by ship nails, and stones shaped like those still used as anchors; being frequently met with; and in one instance the hull of a vessel of some size was found imbedded in the soil. (See *Burnes*; *Mac-saudo*, in *Bomb. Trans.* ii. &c.) During the S.W. monsoon the sea overflows a large part of the Runn; and it is also sometimes partially inundated by the Loosie, Bunesse, Sundrawuttee, and other rivers which lose their waters in it.

The *surange* is here continually presented in wonderful perfection; and the wild ass, the only inhab. of this desolate region, appears often to the traveller at a distance as large as an elephant.

Kutch has undergone many political vicissitudes which have been singularly connected with natural phenomena. In 1762, the ruler of Sind, unable to conquer this prov., threw a *bund* or dam across the Phumnaun, the E. arm of the Indus, and converted the N.W. portion of Kutch from a fruitful rice district into a sandy waste. In 1819, a violent earthquake shook every fortress throughout Kutch; destroyed Bhooj and Anjar; submerged Sindree; and upheaved the *Ullah bund* (mound of God) across the former course of the Phumnaun, a tract of soft clay and shells, 80 m. long, perhaps 16 broad, and many feet in height. In 1826, the Indus burst through the *Ullah bund*, and, after an interval of 65 years, resumed its former channel, with a depth at Sindree of 3 fathoms; a circumstance which may perhaps restore to Kutch a portion of its former commercial importance. (See *Burnes*; *Lyle's Geology*, &c.)

The chief towns of this prov. are Bhooj, the cap., Mandavee, the principal port, Luckput, Moondra, Anjar, and Kotara. The exports are chiefly cotton, glue, and oil, which are transported in coasting vessels of from 25 to 230 tons. The natives excel in naval architecture, and are noted for their skill and daring as seamen and pilots. "Among the timid navigators of the East," says Burnes, "the mariner of Kutch is truly adventurous; he voyages to Arabia, the Red Sea, and Zanguebar, bravely stretching out on the ocean after quitting his native shore. For a trifling reward he will put to sea in the rainy season,

and his adventurous spirit is encouraged by the Hindoo merchants of Mandavee, an enterprising and speculating body of men." (i. 6, 7.) The government is analogous to that which prevailed in many countries of Europe, in the middle ages. The rao is the head of a kind of feudal aristocracy, each member of which is absolute within his own domains. The rao can summon them all to his standard, with their followers, but he must pay them; the number of chieftains is about 300, their annual revenue varying from 100 to 30,000 rupees each. The state revenue of Kutch does not exceed 16 lacs of rupees a year, of which rather more than a half belongs to the rao, and the rest to members of his family. The Jharejaha, to which sect the rao and his chieftains belong, are of Sindian origin, and are a degraded, ignorant, and sensual race, who pass their lives in indolence and drunkenness. They uniformly marry Rajpoot women; and their pride is so great, that, lest their daughters should disgrace them by marrying into inferior ranks, they are sold sometimes to destroy them in infancy. The abolition of female infanticide has formed the subject of an express stipulation between the British government and the rao; but there is reason to believe that it still prevails. The religion of the pop. is a mixture of the Hindoo and Mohammedan, and it is difficult to say which predominates. Our first subsidiary connection with Kutch took place in 1819. The rao furnishes 1 battalion of infantry to our subsidiary force. The British resident is stationed at Bhooj. (*Burnes*; *Lyle's Geology*; *Mod. Trav.*; *Lamilton's E. Ind. Gaz.*; *Asiat. Journ.*)

KUTTENBERG (Boh. *Kettinsberg*), a town of Bohemia, and, after Prague, Reichenberg, and Eger, the most populous in the kingdom, circ. Caslau, 23 m. E.S.E. Prague. Pop. (1838), with its four suburbs, 9,545; and it had double that number of inhab. before the failure of the veins of silver in the mines near it. The latter, however, still furnish copper, lead, arsenic, and zinc; and mining industry is the principal dependence of the inhab. The town has several public edifices, the principal being the church of St. Barbara, a fine Gothic building. It has also a high school, a military school, an Ursuline convent, an hospital, and factories for printing cottons and spinning cotton yarn. A good deal of starch is made for exportation to Silesia. The first silver grochens were struck here in 1800. (*Berghaus*; *Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.*, &c.)

KUZISTAN (an. *Susiana*), a prov. of Persia, sit. between lat. 30° and 32° N., and long. 47° and 51° 30' E., being bounded N.W. by the pachalik of Bagdad, N. by Louristan, E. by Faristan, and S. by the Persian Gulph. Length about 240 m., breadth 120 m.; supposed area, 9,600 sq. m. The country is divided, according to Kliner, between the territories of the Chah-Sheikh, and those forming the government of Shuster. The Chah territories extend from the Chah to the confluence of the Karoon (an. *Chosapes*?) and Abzal, and from the shore of the Caspian sea to the range of hills skirting the valley of Ram-Hormus; this part of the country consists principally of sandy plains and morasses, wholly destitute of vegetation. Eastward, also, intersected by the river Tab, on the banks of which are a few cultivated spots, is a desert about 30 fursungs long, and varying in breadth from 10 to 16 fursungs. The most fertile spot in this part of Kuzistan are near Dorak, the capital of the Chah territories, and in the delta of the Euphrates; in the latter, dates and rice are produced in great abundance on well-irrigated lands, the rice harvest taking place in August and September. The grain-harvest is in April and May; but the produce is insufficient for the consumption of the district. The N. and W. parts of the country afford tolerable pasturage; and here the wandering tribes, comprising the greater part of the pop., pitch their tents. The chief towns of the Chah territories are Dorak (the capital), with a population of 8,000, and a manufacture of Arabian cloaks, largely exported), Ahwas, Endian and Mashoor. The territories attached to the government of Shuster comprise the fairest part of Kuzistan: four noble rivers, with their tributaries, irrigate the plain in every direction. Its riches in Strabo's time consisted of cotton, rice, sugar, and grain, yielding a hundred-fold; but it is at present, owing to the rapacity of the government, little better than a forsaken waste, the only signs of cultivation being near Bundeckel and Hawassa. Indeed nothing can be more lamentable than the marauding, robbery, and utter absence of industry, which characterise this part of Persia. (See *SAUTER*, and *Kissner's Persia*, pp. 85—97.)

L.

LABRADOR, an immense peninsula of British N. America, opposite the island of Newfoundland, from which it is separated by the strait of Belleisle, extending between the 50th and 64th parallels of N. lat.,

and between long. 66° and 78° W.; being bounded S. by Canada and the Gulph of St. Lawrence, E. by the Atlantic Ocean, N. by Hudson's Straits, and W. by Hudson's Bay. Fixed pop. estimated at only 4,000. It is generally described as one of the most dreary and naked regions of the globe, exhibiting scarcely any thing except rocks destitute of vegetation. But, though this be its appearance when seen from off the coast, on penetrating a little into its interior, the surface is found to be thickly clothed with pines, birches and poplars; and with a profusion of delicate berries. It is every where most copiously irrigated by brooks, streams, ponds, and lakes. A chain of high mountains appears inland; but their height is not correctly known. Mount Thoresby, near the coast, is 2,730 ft. high. The well-known Labrador felpsar is found chiefly in the vicinity of Nain. The prevailing rock is gneiss, overlaid by a bed of sandstone, alternately red and white, and strongly marked with iron near the surface: above this again are varieties of secondary limestone, arranged in parallel strata, and full of shells. A few miles from the shore, the secondary formations disappear, leaving gneiss and mica-slate on the surface. (*Geog. Jour.*, vol. iv. p. 308.) The climate is extremely severe, the thermometer occasionally falling below zero of Fahr.; the summers are of short duration, with an average day temperature of 58°. The prevailing winds, on the E. coast, are from W.S.W. to N.W.: there is less fog than on the neighbouring island of Newfoundland, and the straits of Belleisle are never frozen over. Corn will not ripen; but potatoes, cabbages, spinach, and turnips answer pretty well. The wealth of the country, however, consists chiefly in the abundance of fish on its coasts. Whales, cod, salmon, and herrings, are extremely plentiful. The Labrador fishery is nearly confined to the S.E. tract, opposite Newfoundland: within a few years it has increased six fold, and it now rivals that of Newfoundland. During the fishing season, about 300 schooners come from the latter to the fishing stations of Labrador, and about half the produce is sent to St. John's, the remainder being exported to England, Lisbon, and the Mediterranean, by English and Jersey houses unconnected with Newfoundland. The American fishing vessels average about 400, principally sloops and schooners, manned by crews varying from 9 to 13 hands, making a total of about 6,000 men. Each man catches, at an average, about 10 quintals of fish during the season; and the oil is in the proportion of 1 ton to 200 quintals. They frequent chiefly the N. part of the coast, clean their fish on board, and leave Labrador early in September. About 10 ships from Quebec, and 120 from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, carry away fish and furs to the value of about 50,000*l.* a year; the French, also, send a few vessels, but they are not successful fishermen. From 16,000 to 18,000 seals are taken in the spring and autumn, producing about 350 tons oil; and the export of furs of wolves, bears, foxes, and beavers caught in the interior, was valued, in 1832, at 3,150*l.* The total value of the produce of Labrador, during the same year, amounted to 302,050*l.*, exclusively of the articles sent to London by the Moravians settled at Nain.

The native pop. of Labrador are Esquimaux; and of all the tribes settled on the shores of America, these are the most filthy, disgusting, and miserable. They form an exception to all others in their appearance, stature, and manner of living; and are at once hated and despised by the other Indian tribes. They are of small stature, and in their language, persons, and manners, bear a near resemblance to the Greenlanders. Their food consists chiefly of the flesh of seal, rein-deer, and fish; and their dress is entirely of skins. Their houses in winter resemble caverns sunk in the earth, and consist only of one apartment, which, though not very large, generally contains several brothers, or other relatives, with their wives and children. In summer they dwell in tents of a circular form, constructed of poles, and covered with skins sewed together, which they are continually moving from place to place. They have always a great number of dogs about their camp; which, besides serving to guard the habitation, and to draw the sledges, are occasionally used as food, and their skins made into clothing. The European residents are English, Irish, or Jersey servants, left in charge of the property in the fishing-rooms, and who also employ themselves in catching seals. Their principal settlements are at Brador Bay, l'Anse-le-Blanc, and Forteau Bay, the last being by far the most considerable. The Moravians formed their first settlement in 1752. Their habits, and quiet unobtrusive life, render them comparatively unknown. They trade with the Esquimaux, bartering coarse cloths, powder, shot, guns, and edge-tools, for furs, oils, &c. Their influence is alleged to have been very beneficial to the natives, not only in changing their religious belief, but in improving both their moral and physical condition. Murder, and acts of violence, are much less frequent than formerly; and mutual enmities have been removed.

LADAKH.

Their boats, houses, and fishing implements are better constructed, and many of them have begun to exercise foresight and economy. The Moravian settlements are at Nain, Okkak, Hopedale, and Hebron, all on the E. coast.

The coast of Labrador was first discovered by Sebastian Cabot, in 1496; but it was not visited till 1501, when Corte Real called it *Terra Labrador* (cultivable land), to distinguish it from Greenland, which he named *Terra serda*. The name is now applied not only to the E. coast, but to the whole peninsula, including that part on Hudson's Bay called the E. Main.

LABUAN. See Supplement.

LACCADIVE ISLANDS, (*Laksha-Dwipa*, "a land of isles,") a group in the Indian Ocean, lying chiefly between lat. 10° and 12° N., and long. 73° and 74° E., about 75 m. from the Malabar coast. There are 19 principal isles, but the largest is not more than 6 sq. m. in extent. Most of them are surrounded by rocks and coral reefs: the water near them is deep, and they are separated by several wide channels, frequented by ships passing from India to Persia and Arabia. They are inhabited by a race of Mohammedans called Moplahs. They do not yield grain, but produce an infinite quantity of cocoa-nuts, from the husks of which the inhab. form *coir* cables, which are more elastic and durable than hemp, as the sea-water, instead of rotting, preserves them. These islands are well supplied with fish, and export the small shells called cowries, which pass as coin all over India. Jagery, a little betel nut, plantain, a few eggs and poultry, a succession for conversion into lime, are the remaining exports; but they are of little importance, and the inhab. are wretchedly poor. Vasco da Gama discovered these islands in 1495; they were dependent on Cananore till ceded by Tippoo, in 1793; and came into our possession with the rest of that sovereign's dominions. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*)

LADAKH, an independent country of W. Tibet, between the 32d and 36th degs. of N. lat., and the 76th and 79th degs. of E. long.; bounded on the N. and N.E. by the Karakorum mountains, which divide it from the Chinese provinces of Szechuen and Khoten, E. by Chantuan, Rodokh, and Gardokh; S. and S.E. by the Himalaya, separating it from Cashmere, and the territories of Bissahar, Kulu, and Chamhu; and W. by Baltea, or Little Thibet. Length, N. to S., rather more than 300 m.; average breadth, 150 m. Area, according to Moorcroft, about 30,000 sq. m., who also estimates the pop. at from 150,000 to 180,000, chiefly of the Thibetan race. The country is divided into 4 districts; Ladakh Proper in the centre, Nobra to the N., Zaskar S.W., and Piti S.E. It is an inhospitable land, its surface being, for the most part, a succession of lateral mountain ranges belonging to the Himalaya, the lower range rising nearly to the limit of perpetual snow. L₁, the cap., is more than 11,000 ft. above the level of the sea, and some parts of the prov. Nobra are 2,000 ft. higher. The passes that lead into Ladakh from the S., are above 16,000 ft. high, and many summits in the central part of the country are much more lofty. Narrow and deep valleys, of great length, watered by considerable rivers, intervene between the mountain ranges, and comprise nearly all the cultivable land of the country. The chief of these valleys is that of the Upper Indus, here called the Singh-kha-bab. This extends S.E. and N.W. through the greatest part of the country. The Indus, while within Ladakh, receives the Zaskar, Zakat, and Dras rivers; the Shakut, its chief affluent N. of the Himalaya, flows principally through Ladakh, but does not join the main stream till it has passed into Little Thibet. Nearly all the rivers of Ladakh are tributary to the Indus; in the S., however, are several which join the Sutlege, of which the Piti is the chief. There are some considerable lakes. The country is subject to extremes of temperature. Frost, snow, and hail commence early in Sept., and continue, with little intermission, till the beginning of May. From the middle of Dec. to the beginning of Feb., Moorcroft found the thermometer out of doors at night seldom above 15° Fahr. But during the summer the sun shines with great power; and at L₁, in July, the thermometer has been found, at noon, to stand, in the sun, at 134° Fahr., and between L₁ and Piti, at 10 degs. higher. The atmosphere is, in general, dry and clear: what little rain occurs falls chiefly during the summer months. The mountains being of primitive formation, the soil consists almost entirely of disintegrated rocks washed into the bottoms by the action of thaws and torrents. The decomposed granite and felpsar clothes these portions of the surface with a coating of clay, sand, gravel, and pebbles, which skill and industry can only render productive. Both climate and soil being thus hostile to vegetable life, the general aspect of the country, where not cultivated, is of extreme sterility: a few willows and poplars are the only timber trees, and the chief verdure consists of the Tartaric furze, with a few tufts of wormwood, hyssop, dog-rose, and other plants of the desert.

Notwithstanding these unpromising circumstances, the

harvests of Ladakh are by no means niggard; and year after year equally abundant crops are raised from the same land, without its ever being suffered to lie fallow, and without any attempt at an alternation of produce. The mountain sides are formed into a succession of terraces, supported by stone breast-works, down which stone channels conduct a plentiful supply of water, and the *détritus* from the rock. The stone dykes are not only disposed to form terraces near the towns and villages, but in spots remote from human habitations, where they are constructed by the peasantry, and suffered to remain undisturbed for many years, perhaps for some generations, till a quantity of earth is collected.

The field thus gained from the mountain next to be supplied with manure. As wood is very scarce, the faeces of cattle are mostly used as fuel. But Moorcroft says, that the floors of the houses are strewn with a coating of gravel, three or four inches thick, which is removed from time to time, and this, with the ashes of the burnt fuel, forms almost the only manure that sustains the nutritive properties of the soil. Wheat, barley, and buckwheat, are the chief grains cultivated. The wheat is of three, the barley of two varieties: one of the latter, the *sherkal*, or naked barley, is a superior kind, especially for malting, but it degenerates in a lower level, as in the adjacent plains of Hindostan. Wheat and barley are usually sown in May, and reaped in September, the great heat of the sun in summer fully compensating for the shortness of that season. At Pituk, near Lé, more than 10,000 ft. above the sea, barley is said by Moorcroft to be ready for the sickle in two months from the time of sowing. The plough is entirely of wood, generally wheelless, except the point, which is formed of a small piece of iron. The furrow is not more than four or five inches deep; but the earth is well broken, and the seed is afterwards carefully covered over. Ploughing is performed by a pair of oxen, the hybrid male between the yak, *Asus grunniens*, and common cow, or zebu, driven without reins, but, with the utmost precision, by the voice, or by a wand. The ground is ploughed twice; the grain is sown broad cast in the furrow, or planted by the dibble. Corn is frequently reaped while green, and laid on the ground in flat bundles to ripen more completely. In very dry soils the grain is pulled up by the roots, the straw being valuable for fodder; in moist soils, it is cut close to the ground by a curved, short-bladed sickle, which is perhaps quite as well adapted for the purpose as that of Europe. There is no great variety of kitchen vegetables; but onions, carrots, turnips, and cabbages, are raised in some places, and carraway, mustard, and tobacco, are grown in a few gardens. Plenty of apricots and apples are raised every where; but few other kinds of fruits. Pears, grapes, and melons are imported from the neighbouring countries. Lucerne grows with great luxuriance in some parts, and a species of sainfoin is met with in the mountains; but the most valuable source of fodder is, perhaps, the prangos (*Prang. pascuaria*, Lindley). This plant, which is a perennial delighting in a poor sterile soil, but grows in every variety of site, except actual swamp, is common in the W. of Ladakh, and varies in size, from a cluster of leaves and flowers, to from 12 to 18 ft. in circ. In August or September, the plants are cut to within two or three inches from the ground, on which they are laid in bundles to dry, and afterwards piled like other kinds of fodder, on the house tops. The prangos require no shelter. In the winter, about 1 cwt. for 24 hours is considered sufficient for 20 sheep, or 20 lambs. Healthy sheep fed upon it are said to become fat in 30 days: it is also excellent food for cattle and horses, though perhaps less so than for sheep. Rhubarb is an abundant indigenous product; and Moorcroft supposes the facilities for obtaining a supply of it to be so great, that our E. Indian dealers in the article might easily undersell the merchants of Russia or Turkey in the European market.

The yak-mule or zho is principally used for the transport of burdens; horses are few and small, though active and hardy. The native breeds of sheep, though mostly larger than those of India, are much smaller than the sheep of Chan-than. One species, the Furik sheep, is very diminutive; but it gives 2 lambs in 12 months, about 3 lbs. of wool at two shearings, and its mutton is excellent. Being domesticated like the dog, it is maintained at a very small cost. The shawl-wool goat is the common breed in this and the neighbouring countries; the fleece is finer in Ladakh than elsewhere. The latter is cut once a year; the wool, picked out, is sent to Cashmere, and the hair made into ropes, coarse sackings, and blankets, for home consumption. The wild animals are not numerous: the ibex, wild sheep, *ovis ammon*, and a kind of wild horse, are the principal. The leopard, jaguar, ounce, bear, and lynx, are rare. Fish are very plentiful, but the prevailing religion prevents their being used as food.

Sulphur is found in some places, and soda in great plenty on the Indus, and in the N., lead, iron, and cop-

per are said to exist; and gold in the sands of the Slayuk, but the government, from politic or superstitious motives, has prohibited the search for the metal.

The native trade of Ladakh is of no great amount; but its transit trade is important from the country being the great thoroughfare for the commercial intercourse between Thibet, Turkestan, China, and even Russia, on one hand, and Cashmere, the Punjab, and the plains of Hindostan, on the other. Ladakh is the entrepôt for the goats' wool, of which the Cashmere shawls are made, and which is partly supplied from this country, but chiefly from Rodokh and Chan-than. About 800 camel loads are annually exported to Cashmere, to which country, by ancient custom and engagement, the export is exclusively confined, all attempts to convey it elsewhere being punished by confiscation. In like manner, it is considered illegal in Rodokh and Chan-than to allow a trade in shawl-wool except through Ladakh; and in the latter, impediments are opposed to any import from Yarkund, though the wool of that province be of superior quality and cheaper. The fleece of the wild goat is exported in smaller quantities to Cashmere, and wrought into shawls, soft cloth, and linings for shawl-wool stockings; this material is softer and warmer than the ordinary shawl-wool, but much less used for shawls. Sheep-wool is wrought into cloths exported to Kotoch, Kulu, &c.; and many Chan-than sheep are exported to the mountain-stations, where they are extensively used as beasts of burden, carrying from 25 lbs. to 30 lbs. weight. Tea comes from China through Lassa and Yarkund, and is exported in considerable quantities to Cashmere and the Punjab: inferior kinds of the same shrub are imported from the British territories of Bissahar, and used by the lower classes in Ladakh. According to Moorcroft, 100 maunds of black tea, from Bissahar, are imported annually into Lé, where it sells at 15 Mohammed Shahi rupees a maund. Borax and salt from Thibet; silks, silver ingots, and various manufactured articles from China; felts, camlets, dried sheepskins, steel, boots, Russia leather, brocades, velvets, and broad cloths, horses, and drugs from Yarkund; cooking vessels, water-pots, and about 300 maunds of dried apricots, &c. yearly from Baltes; shawls, chintzes, copper-tinned vessels, and other domestic utensils, and grain, from Cashmere and the Punjab; ghee, honey, raisins, and grain, from Hindostan; and iron and hardware manufactures, wooden tea-cups in large numbers, &c., from Bissahar, are the remaining principal imports into Ladakh. The imports from Yarkund, of Russian goods, &c., are mostly intended for the Punjab. The dried fruits from Baltes are exchanged for foreign wool, and the goods from Cashmere and the Punjab are partly re-exported into the Thibet provinces.

The government, as regards the people, is despotic; but the rajah has very little real power, being controlled by the *lamas*, or priesthood, by whom he is occasionally deposed. The business of the state is carried on by the khulun, or prime minister, the deputy khulun, the *lon-pa*, or chief military officer, the treasurer, who is a lama, and the master of the horse. The towns and districts are governed by inferior khuluns; and the magistracy is discharged by officers called *nar-pas*, and by the head men of villages. Most of these are paid by assignments of land, and by claims on the people for contributions or articles of daily use. The rajah, khulun, and *lon-pa* divide among them the produce of the imports on merchandises in transit, and carry on a trade in shawl wool and tea, from which most of their income is derived.

The revenue of the state is roughly estimated at about 5 lacs of rupees a year.

In spiritual affairs Ladakh is subordinate to the authority of the supreme pontiff of the Buddhists, the grand lama of Thibet, who appoints the chief lamas of this country. The lamas are very numerous, every family in which there is more than one son furnishing one, who is a family priest, attached to a monastic institution or college, though living ordinarily among the people, and conducting the rites of their daily worship. All profess poverty and celibacy, though a man who has been married is admissible into their order. The lamas do not confine themselves to strictly religious duties, but cultivate the land, rear sheep and goats, and take an active share in the fiscal and political administration. There are many conventual establishments for females.

Mohammedanism has of late made great progress in the S. and W., but the mass of the pop. are still Buddhists. "Their religious belief and practice seems to be a strange mixture of metaphysics, mysticism, morality, fortune-telling, juggling, and idolatry. The doctrine of the metempsychosis is curiously blended with tenets and precepts very similar to those of Christianity, and with the worship of grotesque divinities. The lamas recognise a sort of trinity, or a triad consisting of a paramount deity, a prophet, and a book; and the people are exhorted to truth, chastity, resignation, mutual forgiveness, and good-will. The religious service performed daily at the temples attached to monasteries consists chiefly of prayers

and chanting, in which the mystic sentence, "*Oom mase pae oom*," is frequently repeated, and the whole is accompanied with the music of wind instruments, chiefly harmonising with tabrets and drums." (*Moorecraft's Trav.* i. 340, 341, 344.)

The military force consists of a peasant militia, very ill equipped and inefficient; and there is little to prevent Ladakh falling permanently under the dominion of some one of its more powerful neighbours.

There is little wealth in the country, but what exists is equally diffused, and the great body of the people are in easy circumstances. They pay no money taxes to the state; but are bound, to suit and service, both domestic and military, and furnish contributions in kind for the support of the rajah and the governors of districts. The people are in general mild and timid, frank, honest, and moral, when not corrupted by communication with the dissolute Cashmarians; but they are indolent, exceedingly dirty, and addicted to intoxication. Their food is nourishing, and consists chiefly of rice, meal porridge, bread, vegetables, tea, wheaten cakes, and once a day the flesh of sheep, goats, or yaks. The wealthy drink grape juice and water or sherbet, the poorer classes a kind of beer, called *chang*, made of fermented barley. All orders and both sexes dress chiefly in woollens; to which the men add mantles of flowered cloths, and brocade or velvet cap, and the women cloaks of cotton, China satin, or Benares brocade lined with sheep skin, the wool inwards, and numerous ornaments. Both sexes wear leather boots, in which they take great pride. Some curious domestic customs prevail: among others, polyandry is common, the younger sons of a family being subordinate husbands to the wife of the elder brother; and when the latter dies, his property, authority, and widow, devolve upon the next brother.

History.—Ladakh originally formed one of the provinces of the kingdom of Tibet, but when the Chinese conquered that country, they did not extend their sway to Ladakh, which seems to have retained its own princes. About 170 years ago, the Kalmuck Tatars invaded Ladakh, and the rajah fled to the governor of Cashmere, who, with the permission of Aurungzebe, reconquered the country for the rajah. From that time a small annual present was made to the emperor of Delhi through the governor of Cashmere. Runjeet Singh took possession of Ladakh, and exacted a tribute; but since his death, there is reason to believe that the country has recovered its former independence. A small annual tribute or present is, however, said to be sent to the authorities of Gaddokh, on behalf of the government of Lassa. (*Moorecraft's and Trecock's Travels*, i. 258—259; *Lloyd's and Gerard's Tour in the Himalaya; Traité de l'Asiat. Soc.*, i. 49—58; *Asiatic Journal*, vol. xviii., &c.)

• LADAKH, or *La*, the cap. of the above country. (See *La*.)

LADOGA (LAKE), a lake of Russia in Europe, surrounded by the governments of Petersburg, Olonetz, and Wyborg in Finland, and extending from lat. 59° 56' to 61° 46', and from long. 29° 50' to 33° 55' E. Though the largest collection of fresh water in Europe, there is but little accessible information respecting it. Its length N. W. to S. E. is about 125 m.; greatest breadth about 70 m. Area estimated at from 6,300 to 6,300 sq. m. Its depth is very unequal. It receives about 60 rivers, the chief of which are the Vuox, connecting it with the Saima Lake in Finland; the Svir, by which the surplus waters of the Lake Onega are poured into it; the Volkhov, by which it communicates with Lake Ilmen; and the Siass, like the latter, from the S. It discharges its surplus waters by the Neva into the Gulph of Finland. Its shores are generally low; on its N. W. and S. banks are situated Berdoba, Kronsburg, Keksholm, Schusselburg, and New Ladoga. It has several islands, chiefly towards its N. extremity; and is so full of rocks and quicksands, and subject to storms, that, to avoid it, Peter the Great began, in 1718, the Ladoga Canal, from New Ladoga, on the Volkhov, to Schusselburg, on the Neva, along the S. shore of the lake, a distance of about 70 m. This work was finished under the Empress Anne, in 1732: it is 74 ft. broad, and, according to the season, from 4 to 8 or 9 ft. deep, and has 30 large, besides many smaller sluices. It is annually navigated by an immense number of boats, chiefly with merchandise for Petersburg. The canal of Siass and Svir form, with that of Ladoga, a continuous chain of communication round the S. and S. E. shores of the lake; and the canal of Tikhvine (Novgorod) places it in direct connection with the Volga. (*Schnitzler, La Russie; Ponsori, &c.*, passim; *Dict. Géog.*)

LADRONES, or MARIANNE ISLANDS, a group of islands in the N. Pacific Ocean, belonging to Spain, between the 13th and 21st deg. of N. lat., and the 144th and 146th of E. long. There are about twenty of them; but five only are inhabited, and these lie near the S. extremity of the cluster. They are so close together, and are also so broken, as well as irregular in their form and position, as to appear like fragments, dis-

jointed from each other, at remote periods, by some sudden convulsion of nature. Those fragments have now a very barren and unpromising aspect. In particular spots, indeed, there are scattered patches of verdure; but, in general, little better than naked rocks appear; and scarcely a tree or shrub is visible among them. The coast of the islands consists mostly of black or dark brown rocks, honeycombed in many parts by the action of the waves. Their geological constitution is almost wholly volcanic, and some volcanoes have been in action in modern times. The climate is generally serene and temperate, the tropical heats being much diminished by the regular sea-breezes. During the months of July and Aug., however, the weather is intolerably hot; and at the season of the W. monsoons, between June and Oct., the most tremendous hurricanes are experienced at the full and change of the moon. The surface of the interior is much broken, and rises into high hills and even mountains; but the soil in the valleys is of great fertility, and if properly cultivated would produce abundantly most of the intertropical plants. Anson visited the Ladrões in 1742, and describes Tinian as abounding with every thing necessary to human subsistence and comfort; and being without a most pleasant and delightful appearance, diversified by a happy intermixture of valleys and gently rising hills; the woods consisting of tall and well spread trees, with fine lawns interspersed. The same island being, however, visited by subsequent navigators, among others by Byron, was found to have become an uninhabitable wilderness, overgrown with impenetrable thickets. The reason of this change was, that the Spaniards, by whom these islands had been conquered, had, for what reason it seems difficult to conjecture, removed the inhab. from Tinian to another island, and after their departure it soon degenerated into a state of nature, and, when last visited, was nothing better than a wild and savage wilderness. This statement, however, does not apply to the whole group; for Kotschube informs us that cotton, indigo, rice, Indian corn, sugar, and the plantain, thrive in other islands, and produce abundant supplies for the pop. Cattle, horses, mules, and asses are numerous, and the lama has been introduced with success from Peru. Wild hogs also are found in great numbers, many of them of a large size, weighing 200 lbs., particularly on the island of Saypan. They are very fierce, and when hunted by dogs make a formidable resistance. The fish that are found on the coast are very unwholesome, and produced pernicious effects on the crews of the ships, both of Anson and Byron. The trisung, or holothuria, is caught by the natives, and sold to the Chinese. The country is infested with musquitos, and with endless varieties of loathsome insects. The natives are tall, robust, and active; the men wear scarcely any covering, and the women only a petticoat of mat. Both sexes stain their teeth black, and many tattoo their bodies. Their huts are formed of wood from the palm tree, and divided by mats into several apartments devoted to distinct uses. They are good swimmers, and extremely clever in managing their canoes, in which, with a good wind, they will sail at the rate of 30 m. an hour. The number, in the 17th century, of this island, is supposed to have amounted to 150,000; though this is probably far beyond the mark; but the race has been so much thinned by the cruelties practised on them by the Spaniards, that the present Indian pop. scarcely exceeds 4,000. Gualan, the largest island, contained in 1816 only one Indian family, its inhab. (5,360) consisting of settlers from Mexico and the Philippine Islands. The cap. is San Ygnacia de Agaña, which in 1816 had 3,120 inhab., and was the seat of the Spanish governor. The number of Spaniards is very small.

The Ladrões Islands were originally discovered by Magellan, who called them *las Islas de Ladrões*, or *The Islands of Thieves*, because the Indians stole every thing made of iron within their reach. At the latter end of the 17th century they obtained the name of the Marianas, or Marianne Islands, from the queen of Spain, Mary Ann of Austria, mother of Charles II., at whose expense missionaries were sent thither to propagate the Christian faith.

LAGO-NEGRO, or LAGONERO, a town of the kingdom of Naples, prov. Basilicata, on the high road from Naples to Calabria, 12 m. N. E. Policastro. Pop. about 5,000. (*Rosengold*.) It is well built, and has an old castle, an hospital, and several other charitable institutions, with manufactures of woollen cloth and caps, and a large weekly market.

LAGOS, a fortified sea-port town of Portugal, prov. Algarve, cap. of a comarca of its own name, 18 m. E. by N. Cape St. Vincent, and 114 m. S. by E. Lisbon, lat. 37° 6' N., long. 8° 40' W. Pop. 6,738. It is built on the shore of a large bay sheltered N. and W. by hills covered with vines and fruit trees. The streets are narrow, and the houses generally small; but there are several handsome and regularly-built public edifices, among which are 2 parish churches, a military hospital, town hospital, and 3 convents, two of which are in the

suburbs. The neighbourhood abounds in wine, figs, and other fruits, with pulses of different kinds; but, as in the rest of Algarve, there is a great scarcity of corn, which is imported from Alentejo and the ports of Spain. The fishery of tunnies, anchovies, &c., is very considerable, and the produce, after being salted, is sent by sea to other parts of the kingdom. (*Mémo.*)

LAGUNA. See TENEBIFFE.

LAHORE, an independent kingdom of Hindostan. (See PUNJAB.)

LAHORE, a city of the Punjab, Hindostan, and in Runjeet Singh's time, the cap. of his dominions, on the Ravee (*Hindostan*), 320 m. N. E. Delhi; lat. 31° 32' N.; long. 74° 52' E. "Laure" is surrounded by a brick wall about 30 ft. high, which extends for about 7 m., and is continuous with the fort. The latter, in which the rajah resides, is surrounded by a wall of no great strength, with loop-holes for musketry; a branch of the Ravee washes the foot of its N. face, but it has no moat on either of the remaining sides. The palace within this enclosure is of many stories, and entirely faced with a kind of porcelain enamel, on which processions and combats of men and animals are depicted. Many of these are as perfect as when first placed in the wall. Several of the old buildings are in ruins; others are entire, and throw into shade the meaner structures of more recent date. Runjeet Singh cleared away some of the rubbish, and repaired or refitted some of the ruined buildings of Jehangire and Shah Jehan; but his alterations were not always made with good feeling or taste. The great square and buildings of the principal mosques were converted into a place of exercise for his Sipahi infantry, and he stripped the dome of the mausoleum of Asaf Jah of its white marbles to apply them to the erection of some insignificant apartments in the garden-court of the mosque. The *diwan-e-am*, or general hall of audience, is a long apartment supported by many pillars. The *diwan-khas*, or private audience-hall, is a suite of small chambers, offering nothing remarkable." (*Moorcroft*, l. 104, 105.)

Laure is said to have been formerly 12 cos (about 19 m.) in circ. Barnes says that the ancient cap. extended E. to W. for 5 m., and had an average breadth of 3 m., as may be learned by the ruins. Whatever, indeed, may have been its actual extent, it is clear, from the remains of buildings beyond the walls, that it was once much more extensive than at present. The modern city occupies the W. angle of the ancient cap., and the portion of it within the walls is an open plain, and is called Moorcroft, who visited Lahore in 1819, says,—"The streets were crowded to an extent beyond any thing I ever witnessed in an Indian city. The houses were in general of brick, and 5 stories high, but many were in a very crazy condition. The chief bazaar follows the direction of the city wall, and is not far distant from it. The street is narrow, and this inconvenience is aggravated by platforms in front of the shops, on which the goods are displayed under projecting pent-houses of straw to protect them from the sun and rain. Through the centre of the remaining contracted space runs a deep and dirty drain, the smell from which was very offensive. The tombs of Mohammedans, Hindoos, and Sikhs, the former in the greatest number." (l. 105, 106.) Moorcroft states that he saw only one mosque of any size or magnificence; but Burnes, a later traveller, says there are two or three: the principal, or king's mosque, a large building of red sandstone brought by Aurungzebe from near Delhi, had, however, been desecrated into a powder magazine.

Across the Ravee, about 2 m. N. Lahore, is the "Shah Dura," or mausoleum of the emperor Jehangire, a monument of great beauty. "It is a quadrangular building, with a minaret at each corner rising to the height of 70 ft. It is built chiefly of marble and red stone, which are alternately interlaid in all parts of the building. The sepulchre is of most chaste workmanship, with its inscriptions and ornaments arranged in beautiful mosaic; the shading of some roses and other flowers is even preserved by the different colours of the stone. Two lines of black letters, on a ground of white marble, announce the name and title of the 'Conqueror of the World,' Jehangire; and about a hundred different words in Arabic and Persian, with the single signification of God, are distributed on different parts of the sepulchre. The floor of the building is also of marble. It is probable that this beautiful monument will soon be washed into the Ravee, which is capricious in its course near Lahore, and has lately overwhelmed a portion of the garden wall that environs the tomb." (*Burnes's Bokhara*, &c., l. 137.) The Shalimar, or garden of Shah Jehan, is another magnificent remnant of Mogul grandeur. It is about 1/4 m. in length, and has 3 terraces, each rising above the other. A canal, brought from a great distance, intersects it, and throws up numerous fountains to cool the atmosphere. Runjeet Singh removed some of its marble houses, and replaced them by others of stone.

The bazars of Lahore do not exhibit much appearance of wealth: the commerce of the Punjab is centred at Umritsir. Lahore was captured by Sultan Baber in

1520, and was for some time the seat of the Mogul government in India. It was for a while in the possession of the Afghans, and was repeatedly sacked by Shah Zamaun, ex-king of Cabul. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*; *Moorcroft*; *Burnes*, &c.)

LALAND or LAALAND, an island of the Danish archipelago, in the Baltic, between lat. 54° 38' and 54° 55' N., and long. 11° 52' E.; forming, with Falster, from which it is separated by the narrow but now navigable channel of Guldberg, a prov. of the kingdom. Length, E. to W., 25 m.; average breadth about 13 m. Area, 460 sq. m. Pop. 47,000. It is low, and is in parts liable to inundations; its shores are much indented by the sea, and it has some considerable bays. In its centre is the lake of Mariæbo, 5 m. in length by 3 m. breadth. The climate is said to be unhealthy; but the soil is very fertile, and it is looked upon as the most productive of the Danish islands. Principal crops, wheat, rye, barley, and oats. Hemp and hops are also produced, and great quantities of apples. Oak, and other kinds of timber abound. Mineral products and manufactures few and insignificant. Laland has an active trade in agricultural produce; the chief seat of which is Nakssow, the cap., a town of 2,900 inhab., on the W. coast.

LALITA-PATAN, a considerable town of Nepal, N. Hindostan, about 1 1/2 m. S. Catmandoo, stated to have had, in 1903, a pop. of 24,000. It is said to be a handsomer town than Catmandoo, and to possess some fine public edifices.

LAMBALLE, a town of France, dép. Côtes-du-Nord cap. cant., on the declivity of a hill, beneath which runs the high road from Paris to Brest, 12 m. E.S.E. St. Briec. Pop. (1836), 4,396. It is well built, has an industrious and thriving pop., is surrounded by old walls, and has two suburbs, a commercial college, public library, with manufactures of woollens, linens, parchment, &c., and a considerable trade in agricultural produce. (*Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

LANEAO, a city of Portugal, prov. Beira, and cap. of a comarca of its own name, near the left bank of the Douro, 44 m. E. Oporto, and 193 m. N.N.E. Lisbon; lat. 41° 4' N., long. 7° 40' W. Pop. 9,000. It stands at the foot of the Sierra de Penide (an offshoot of the Sierra Estrela), on the little river Balsamone, just before its junction with the Douro, and is divided into three quarters, two of which are occupied by the cathedral and bishop's palace, gardens, &c. while the third comprises the square, and a long street crossed by others of smaller size. A cathedral of Gothic architecture, built by order of Don Henrique, the father of the first king of Portugal, 4 convents, and an hospital, are the chief public establishments. The marshy lands, near the town, are very rich, producing an abundance of fine wines and delicious fruits; but these advantages are more than counterbalanced by the badness of the roads, which makes communication with Oporto and other places all but impossible. (*Mémo.*)

LAMPEDUSA, LAMPION, and LINOSA; three islands in the Mediterranean, collectively called the Pelagian Isles, belonging to the king of Naples, and lying between lat. 35° 20' and 36° N., and long. 15° and 13° E., about midway between Malta and the shore of Tunis. Lampedusa, the *an. Lopadusa*, by far the largest, is about 12 1/2 m. in circuit. Its shores are precipitous, but it has a tolerable harbour on its S. side. Its surface is level; the E. extremity has been cultivated by an English speculator; the W. end of the isl. is covered with dwarf olive trees and other wood, much of which is cut for fuel, and sent to Malta and Tripoli. Both Lampion and Linosa are uninhabited, except by rabbits and goats; the former island has, however, some interesting traces of ancient buildings; the latter presents distinct marks of volcanic origin. (*Jung's Sicily*, pp. 284-289, &c.)

LANARKSHIRE, or CLYDESDALE, an inland co. of Scotland, having N. the cos. of Dumfries and Stirling; E. West Lothian, Mid Lothian, and Peebles; S. Dumfries; and W. Ayr and Renfrew. It extends from Queensberry Hill, on the borders of Dumfries-shire, to near Renfrew, a distance of 66 m., comprising nearly the whole country drained by the Clyde (which see) and its tributaries, the Douglas, Avon, and S. Calder, &c. Are 604,800 acres, of which, from a third to a half are supposed to be arable. It is divided into three wards, each of which is characterised by peculiarities of surface, soil, and climate. The *upper ward*, of which Lanark is the principal town, includes nearly two thirds of the co., comprising the district bounded by Peebles on the E., Dumfries on the S., and Ayr on the W. This district consists for the most part of mountains, hills, and wide dreary moors; the only cultivated land lying along the banks of the Clyde and Douglas. Some of the mountains in this ward have an elevation of above 2,000 ft. The *middle ward*, having Hamilton in its centre, has a comparatively level surface, the low grounds along the Clyde extending to a much greater distance, and the hills by which they are bounded on either side being of

very inferior altitude. The *lower ward*, though of small dimensions as compared with either of the others, is the most fertile and best cultivated; and, having the city of Glasgow within its limits, it is by far the most populous, important, and wealthy of the three. The climate in the upper ward is often very severe; in the middle and lower ward it is comparatively mild and humid, especially in the latter. The soil of the middle and lower wards is principally a retentive clay, but in parts it is loamy, sandy, gravelly, &c. Agriculture, though formerly backward, has of late been greatly improved: drainage, which is here quite essential, is now prosecuted with the greatest vigour; and bone dust is extensively employed in the raising of turnips. The draught horses of this co. have long enjoyed the highest reputation of any in Scotland. Ayrshire cows are generally introduced; and a good deal of cheese is made in imitation of Dunlop. There are several valuable orchards in what is called the *trough* of the Clyde, between the mouth of the S. Calder and the lowest waterfall. Farm houses and offices rank with those in the best improved districts. Property mostly in very large estates; farms of all sizes, and let generally on leases for 19 years. Average rent of land in 1843, 11s. 3d. an acre. The minerals of this co., particularly its iron and coal, are of the highest importance. The command of cheap and abundant supplies of the latter has been the principal cause of the extraordinary progress made by Glasgow in manufacturing industry; and more recently, the command of coal, added to the discovery of the peculiarly valuable carboniferous iron-stone (provincially *black-band*), have made Lanarkshire one of the principal seats of the British iron trade. In 1834 about 48,000 tons of iron were produced by the different iron works in this co.; and so astonishing has been the subsequent progress of the trade, that in 1850 about 357,000 tons of iron were produced in this co., and various new furnaces were then, also, in the course of being erected. The principal iron works are those of Gartsherrie, Dundym, Monkland, Summerlee, and Calder. (See Vol. I. 909.) Lead is also rather extensively produced at Leadhills in this co. With respect to manufactures and commerce, it is sufficient to say that they are of the highest importance; and to refer for details to the article Glasgow, where they are principally concentrated. Each of the three wards into which this co. is divided has a sheriff substitute to superintend its judicial affairs. The Forth and Clyde canal is partly, and the Monkland canal wholly, in the co., and it has also several railways. It is divided into 47 parishes, and is managed by the H. of C. 1 being for the co., and 2 for the city of Glasgow; the bors. of Lanark, Aldrie, and Hamilton, unite with Linlithgow and Falkirk in returning a mem. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 3773. In 1841 Lanarkshire had 81,458 inhab. houses; and 426,972 inhab., of whom 208,312 were males, and 218,660 females. At present (1850) the pop. is probably not under 600,000. Valued rent, 162,132; Scotch: annual value of real property, in 1815, 586,531; do., in 1843, 1,534,999.

LANARK, a royal and par. bor. and market-town of Scotland, co. Lanark, of which it is the cap. on an elevated plateau, 14 m. from the Clyde, 30 m. S.W. Edinburgh, and 23 m. S. E. by E. of Glasgow. Pop. of the town and par., in 1821, 6,067; in 1841, 7,579; of the town only, in 1841, 4,467. It consists of one leading street in the direction of E. and W., with several subsidiary streets and lanes. The streets are well paved; but many of the houses are mean, being chatched with broom, heath, or straw, and exhibiting strong marks of poverty or decay; but the older buildings are gradually being superseded by new and better edifices. The only public buildings are the County Hall, including a gaol, the par. church, a free church, two chapels belonging to the Relief, and one to the Associate Synod. Several handsome baronial seats are in the near vicinity.

Various sums have been bequeathed, at different times, for the promotion of education. Twenty-eight boys are supported at the grammar-school; and, in addition to the school fees being paid, each gets an annual sum, varying from 2s. to 3s. There is, besides, a charity school for 50 children. The total number of schools in the par. a short while since amounted to 8 and the pupils to 450; there is a subscription library and reading-room in the town. (*New Stat. Ac. of Scotland*, § *Lanarkshire*, pp. 26, 27.) William Lithgow, the traveller, and Gavin Hamilton, the historical painter, were natives of the bor.; and General Roy, the celebrated engineer, and author of "The Military Antiquities of the Romans in Britain," was educated at the grammar school. Corp. rev. 1848-9 13784.

Hand-loom weaving, in connection with the Glasgow manufacturers, is extensively carried on, there being, in the bor., about 700 weavers. They work, at an average, above 16 hours a day. In order to elude the slender assistance of the family, the wives of the married men engage in winding the waf on pirns; and, as if to perpetuate this poverty-stricken business, the children, both males and

females, are usually employed in the work from an early age. About 120 females are employed in embrodering lace. Boots and shoes are made to a small extent for export. There are three branch banks in the town.

Lanark and its vicinity have many remains of antiquities. The Castle Hill, on the S. of the town, was once the site of a royal residence; but every trace of it has disappeared. The old church, the date of which is unknown, and St. Nicholas's chapel, have been allowed to go to ruins. There are, in the neighbourhood, distinct vestiges of two Roman camps, supposed by General Roy, to have been the work of Agricola: one of them measures 600 yds. in length, and 420 in breadth.

This bor. seems to have been more important in ancient than in modern times. In 978, Kenneth II. held in it an assembly of the states of the realm. It was a royal bor. as early as the 12th century. Lanark was the scene of the first military exploit of Sir William Wallace. During his residence here, after his marriage with the co-heiress of Lamington, he killed, in 1298, Harellrigg, the English sheriff, and expelled his soldiers from the town. This bor. formerly had the custody of the standard weights of Scotland: they are still preserved; but the act of 1826, introducing the imperial standard, has superseded their use.

Lanark unites with Falkirk, Linlithgow, Aldrie, and Hamilton, in sending a mem. to the H. of C. Registered voters, in 1849-50, 249. The Falls of Clyde are in the near vicinity of the town; Bonnington Linn, 30 ft.; Corra Linn, 120 ft.; and Stonebyres, 84 ft.: the two former are to the E.; the latter to the W. of the town. Another remarkable object is the Cartland Crag, a deep chasm, formed by the Mouse, a small tributary of the Clyde, over which a bridge of three arches has been thrown (1825), whose two piers are each 146 ft. in height, about equal to the length of the bridge. (*Chalmers's Caledonia*; *Boundary Reports*, &c.) LANARK (New), a manufacturing village of Scotland, co. Lanark, on the bank of the Clyde, close to the river, and bounded on the N. by steep and beautifully wooded hills, 1 m. S. of the bor. of Lanark. Pop. 1,901. The village consists of a series of cotton mills, and of two streets, in which the work-people live; and so little space intervenes between the river and the hills, that there is room for only two lines of edifices. No person is allowed to reside here, unless he be connected with the factories.

The mills were founded, in 1784, by Mr. David Dale; and Arkwright, the father of the cotton manufacture, was for a while a partner in them. (*Baines's Hist. of the Cotton Manufacture*, p. 193.) Mr. Dale was afterwards succeeded by his son-in-law, Robert Owen, whose attempts (first made at New Lanark) to reduce to practice his absurd projects for the renovation of society, are well known: but Owen ceased, in 1837, to have any interest in the business. The mills give employment to above 1000 individuals, of whom nearly 400 are under 18 years of age. (*Factory Reports*, p. 304.) The hours of labour are limited to 104 a day throughout the year; and the people are peculiarly respectable. (*New Stat. Account of Scotland*, § *Lancashire*, p. 25.) A school is established in the works, for the education of the children, and is attended by about 500 pupils. (*Ib.* 27.) It may be mentioned, that teaching by objects, and what is called (how justly we shall not stop to inquire) the *intellectual system* of education, was originally practised at the mills of New Lanark, about the beginning of the century. There are two funeral societies, from which, on the death of a member or his wife, the family receive 4s., on that of a child 2s. The sum is collected as occasion requires, the society not accumulating any funds.

LANCASHIRE, or LANCASTER, a marit. co. of England, on its W. coast, having N. Cumberland and Westmoreland, E. Yorkshire, S. Derbyshire and Cheshire, and W. the Irish Sea, by which it is in various parts deeply indented. Its most northerly portion, consisting of the hundred of Furness, is separated from the main body of the co. by the intervention of Morecambe Bay and a small portion of Westmoreland. Area, 1,130,340 acres, of which about 650,000 are supposed to be arable, meadow, and pasture. The hundred of Furness is generally rugged and mountainous; and the E. parts of the co. along the Yorkshire border are occupied by portions of, or offsets from, the great central or inner range of English mountains; but with these exceptions, the country is generally flat; and in the S. part of the co. an extensive plain stretches from Formby point and Liverpool on the W., to Oldham on the E. Sandy loam and sand are the prevailing soils in the lower districts, in which, however, there are several extensive mooses; peat soil prevails in the moors. The climate is mild and salubrious; but more humid, perhaps, than any other in England. This co. is wholly indebted to manufactures and commerce for its vast population, wealth, and importance; for, as respects agriculture, it is, though considerably improved, one of the most backward in the

empire. There is a great want of drainage. Few threshing machines have been introduced; and agricultural implements are generally very imperfect. Potatoes are more extensively cultivated in this than in any other English co.; and this, no doubt, is one cause why few turnips are raised. Grazing is more attended to than tillage husbandry; large quantities of hay are produced, and there is a good deal of dairying. Lancashire is believed to be the original seat of the long-horned breed of cattle; but they are now so crossed and intermixed with others, as to be seldom found pure. There are some large estates; but property is, notwithstanding, a good deal subdivided. Tillage farms for the most part rather small, and usually held on seven years leases, a tenure too short to admit of the occupiers undertaking any very expensive improvements. Farm buildings generally good. Average rent of land, in 1843, 29s. 11½d. an acre. Exclusive of other minerals, this co. has vast beds of coal, and to that, more perhaps than any thing else, its extraordinary progress in manufactures is to be ascribed. It is the great seat of the cotton manufacture, which has grown up with a rapidity wholly unexampled in the history of industry. Manchester, Preston, Bolton, Oldham, Blackburn, Ashton, Bury, Chorley, Wigan, and other towns, where the manufacture is principally carried on, and Liverpool, the grand emporium of the trade of the co., have increased with equal rapidity. Manchester is now, beyond all dispute, the first manufacturing town in the world; and the trade and navigation of Liverpool are inferior only to those of London. Besides that of cotton, the woollen manufacture is extensively carried on at Stockdale and other places in this co., as that of silk, flax, &c. hats, &c. The extension of manufactures and trade has been at once a cause and a consequence of the extension of the facilities for conveyance, by means of canals, railways, &c., which traverse this co. in every direction, and bring it, as it were, into immediate communication with almost every other part of the empire. Lancashire was, indeed, the first co. to construct a navigable canal (the Duke of Bridgewater's); and the opening of the Manchester and Liverpool railway, with locomotive engines, in 1825, forms a more important era in the history of internal communication. It is to be regretted that, notwithstanding the great extent of sea-coast belonging to this co., it does not possess a single good harbour. Liverpool is the best, but the access to it is much embarrassed by sand-banks. Lancashire is a co. palatine, and contains 7 hundreds, 4 boroughs, and 70 parishes, many of which are very extensive. It sends 36 members to the H. of C., being 4 for the co., 2 each for the boroughs of Manchester, Liverpool, Oldham, Bolton, Preston, Lancaster, Wigan, and Blackburn, and 1 each for Rochdale, Bury, Clitheroe, Ashton, Salford, and Warrington. Registered electors for 1840, 30, 32,765, being 11,116 for the N., and 21,650 for the S. division. In 1841, Lancashire had 399,184 inhab. houses, and 1,667,064 inhab., of whom 814,847 were males, and 852,207 females. Sum paid for the relief of the poor in 1847-48, 244,815*l*. Annual value of real property in 1815, 3,139,042*l*; do. in 1843, 7,756,228*l*.

LANCASTER, a mun. and parl. bor., and sea-port town and par. of England, cap. of the above co., locally situated in hunds. Amounderness and Lonsdale, but with separate jurisdiction, on the S. bank of the Lune, 36 m. N. by E. Liverpool, and 90 m. N. by W. London; lat. 54° 4' N., long. 2° 48' W. Area of par. (comprising 17 townships), 66,100 acres: pop. of ditto, in 1841, 24,149. Pop. of parl. bor. (which includes parts of Skerton and Bulk townships), in 1841, 14,389. The town stands on a gentle slope facing the Lune, which is crossed here by a handsome stone bridge of 5 arches; and the summit of the hill is crowned by the bastions of its fine old castle, and the lofty tower of the par. church. Nearly the whole town is built of freestone, from quarries in the neighbourhood: the houses are generally well constructed, and many are large and handsome. The streets, however, with one or two exceptions, are inconveniently narrow, and badly paved. Lancaster is lighted with gas, under an act passed in 1824, and is well supplied with water from springs and wells. The principal public building is the castle, once a magnificent structure, originally built in the 11th century, but renovated by John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, during the reign of Edward III.: it was repaired at the end of the 16th century, and much enlarged in 1786, when it was converted, at an expense of 140,000*l*., into assize and county courts, gaol, female penitentiary, &c. The walls enclose an area of 10,528 sq. yards. The prison is conducted on the system of classification, and silent labour: above 160 debtors and 300 criminals have been confined in it at an average of the last few years. Among the other public buildings, exclusive of the churches, are the town-hall, erected in 1781, the custom-house, on St. George's Quay, having a portico and pediment supported by 4 Ionic columns, the assize-house, the assembly-room, the theatre,

the public baths, and the market-houses. The county lunatic asylum, on Lancaster Moor, is a quadrangular building, with a handsome Doric front, occupying, with its grounds, about 5 acres: it accommodates 550 patients, and is said to be humanely and judiciously conducted. The par. church, which stands on the "green and shapely knoll" of Castle-hill, is of the same date as the castle, and consists of a central and two side aisles of equal length, terminated by a well-proportioned and lofty tower at its W. end: it was all but rebuilt in 1759. Its richly-carved stalls, and other curious carvings in the chancel, and its fine monuments, are universally admired. The living is a vicarage, of the clear annual value of 1,700*l*., and the incumbent nominates the ministers of St. John's and St. Ann's, the two district churches, as well as those of all the chapels within the par. There are also places of worship for R. Catholics, Presbyterians, Independents, Wesleyan and Association Methodists, to each of which, as well as to the churches, Sunday schools are attached, furnishing religious instruction to about 1,900 children. There is a meeting-house for the Society of Friends. The school-charities comprise an ancient grammar school under two masters, greatly modified in 1824, and now furnishing a good classical and general education to about 60 boys; a boys' national school, united with an old blue-coat charity, attended by 360 boys (30 of whom are clothed); a girls' national school established in 1820, and attended by 130 girls, a charity school for clothing and instructing 60 girls, a Catholic charity school, attended by 90 children of both sexes, and a Languetian school with 200 children. Among the other public charities may be mentioned Penny's Hospital, endowed with land worth 240*l*. a year, and affording a residence, clothing, and small stipend to 13 poor men, Gillison's Hospital, for the reception of 5 unmarried women, each of whom has a stipend of 4*l*. a year; Gardiner's Almshouses for 4 old men, a dispensary, and house of recovery; a lying-in charity, and a benevolent society. (*Charity Comm.* 18th Rep. pp. 262-273.) Bible, church missionary, and tract societies, are also respectively supported. The chief literary establishments are "the Amicable" book society, the mechanics' library, and 3 news-rooms. A newspaper, called the "Lancaster Gazette," is published every Saturday. A savings' bank was established in 1823; which had on the 31st Nov., 1848, 88,996*l*. of deposits. It has, also, a joint-stock bank, entitled the Lancaster Banking Company, with about 128 partners.

Lancaster had formerly a considerable share in the trade with the W. Indies; for it appears that in 1799, 67 vessels of the burden of 12,590 tons came to it from the W. Indies only. In consequence, however, of the superior facilities enjoyed by Liverpool, this branch of commerce is now nearly extinct. A few vessels are engaged in the trade with N. America and the Baltic, but the great bulk of the shipping belonging to the port consists of coasters, and its amount has sensibly fallen off during the last 10 years. In 1850, there belonged to Lancaster and its dependent creeks, 90 vessels, of the burden of 5,101 tons. The navigation of the Lune being obstructed by shallows, vessels of above 200 tons load and unload in Glasson dock, constructed in 1787, about 5 m. below the town, and to and from which their cargoes are conveyed by means of lighters. Gross customs' revenue, in 1846, 30,774*l*. The manufactures of Lancaster comprise cotton fabrics, silk thread, linen thread, and sail-cloth. The cotton-trade, introduced in 1806, is in a thriving condition; and there were, within the par., in 1839, 8 cotton mills, with 1,373 hands: there are also 3 silk-throwing mills, with 200 hands, and a small flax-mill. The sail-cloth business has declined. Cabinet-work and upholstery are made in considerable quantities for exportation; and there are candle and soap establishments, and two extensive ship-yards. On the whole, Lancaster, notwithstanding its distance from the great coal-field of S. Lancashire, may be said to be in a thriving condition; and the accelerated increase of the pop. since 1821, may be probably attributed to the increasing demand for factory labour. The Lancaster canal skirts the town, and about 3 m. to the N.E. it crosses the Lune by a noble aqueduct bridge of 5 arches, erected by Rennie at a cost of 48,000*l*. The Lancaster and Preston junction-railway, forming a portion of the Great North-Western line, stretching from London to Carlisle, Glasgow, and Edinburgh, intersects the town.

The sum rated by a rate and expended for the relief of the poor in 1847, amounted to 4,097*l*, assessed upon property of the value of 40,808*l*. a year.

Lancaster is one of the most ancient of the English bors.; its first charter having been granted by King John, and confirmed by subsequent monarchs. The present mun. bor. is divided into 3 wards, and governed by 6 aldermen (one of whom is mayor) and 18 councillors: it has a commission of the peace under a recorder. Corporation revenue, in 1847-48, 5,369*l*. Assizes are held in

lent, and summer; and the quarter sessions on Jan. 4, April 5, June 28, and Oct. 19. A bor. court sits every fourth Thursday for the recovery of debts to any amount incurred within the borough; and it is the seat of a county court, before which 514 plaints were entered in 1848. The right to send representatives to parliament was first exercised in 1293 (22 Edward 1.), but it ceased in 1359, and was not resumed till 1547, since which Lancaster has regularly sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. Previously to the Reform Act, the right of election was vested in the freemen and inhabit. The limits of the old par. bor. were extended by the Boundary Act, so as to include parts of the townships of Skerton and Bulk. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 1,272. Lancaster has 2 weekly markets on Wednesday and Saturday, but chiefly on the latter; and fairs are held 1st May, 6th July, and 10th October, for cattle and cheese.

Lancaster is supposed to have been a Roman station. Urns, altars, and other antiquities have been discovered, and the suffix *cæster* given by the Romans, serves to confirm the fact. The Normans found the town in a state of decay; the ancient city reduced to a village, and the Roman castrum little better than a ruin. It was given by William the Conqueror to Roger de Poitou, who built a castle on the site of the ruined castrum: a flourishing town soon gathered round; the burgesses of Lancaster acquired extensive privileges from their lords, and it continued to increase in importance. King John conferred "the honour of Lancaster" on his favourite Gilbert Fitz-Reinfrede, and gave it a charter. The first earl of Lancaster was created in 1266; and in 1281, Henry Earl of Derby was adjoined, by special charter, to the title and dignity of Duke of Lancaster, with power to have a chancery in the county, and "to enjoy all other liberties and regalities belonging to a Count Palatine." John of Gaunt, fourth son of Edward III., married Blanch, the duke's daughter, and, by virtue of this alliance, succeeded to the title. His son, Henry of Bolingbroke, first Earl of Derby, and afterwards Duke of Hereford, became Duke of Lancaster on his father's death in 1399, and finally King of England in 1399, from which time to the present this duchy has been associated with the regal dignity. Lancaster espoused the royalist cause during the civil, lamentary war, and was visited by the Jacobite troops in the rebellions of 1715 and 1745. (*Baines's Lancashire*, vol. ii.; *Parl. and Off. Reports*; *Private Inform.*)

LANCASTER, a town of the U. States of N. America, Pennsylvania, cap. co. of its own name, near Conestoga Creek, a tributary of the Susquehanna, 56 m. W. by N. Philadelphia. Pop. (1840) 8,417. It is pleasant, healthy, and flourishing, in a fertile and highly cultivated vicinity. Its streets are regular; the houses are chiefly brick and stone, and many are spacious and elegant. There are numerous places of public worship, 3 of which are for Germans; a courthouse, gaol, 3 banks, several charitable and religious societies, an academy for the classics and English literature; a school of mutual instruction, and several other schools. The pop. is mostly of German descent; and some of the newspapers are in the German language. Lancaster has been long famous for its manufacture of rifle muskets, and the excellence of the stage coaches built in it. Latterly several large cotton factories have been erected in it, and the inhab. are described as having quite a mania for manufactures. It would, also, seem that they have a mania for litigation, at least such can hardly fail to be the case, if it be true that there are no fewer than 70 lawyers in the town! Exclusive of cotton it has also manufactures of saddlery, hats, nails, hand-screws, and other tools, &c.; and many breweries, distilleries, tanneries, and potteries. Its general trade is extensive: it is connected with Philadelphia and Harrisburg by railroads, and with the Susquehanna below Columbia by a canal. It is the seat of the district judicial court for the S. division of the co. (*Encyc. Americ. Amer. Assoc. Amer. Assoc. Murray's Encyc., Amer. ed., Economist*, 21 April, 1846.)

LANCIANO, a town of the Neapolitan dominions, prov. Abruzzo Citra, cap. dist. and cant., or *circondario*, 6 m. from the Adriatic, and 18 m. S. Pescara. Pop. (ex. circ.) in 1832, 11,863. It is built on the summit of three hills, in a healthy and pleasant situation; and has a cathedral, several churches and convents, an archbishop's palace, a diocesan seminary, and other schools, a tribunal of primary jurisdiction, &c. This is a very ancient city; and in the middle ages it was distinguished by its proficiency in manufactures, and by the extent of the commerce carried on at its fairs; but these have both greatly declined. (*Dei Re, Descrizione delle Due Sicilie*, li. 391, &c.)

LANDAFF, or LLANDAFF, (*Llan-Taf*, church of the Taf), a town and par. of S. Wales, co. Glamorgan, hund. Kibbor, on the W. bank of the Taf, 3 m. N.W. Cardiff, and 27 m. W. Bristol. Area of par., 2,286 acres. Pop., in 1841, including the hamlets of Canton, Elay, Fairwater and Gabalfa, 1,276. The town is at present little more than an inconsiderable village, with about a

dozen respectable residences, and several cottages; nor would it be worth notice, except from its being a bishop's see, and containing a handsome cathedral. This sacred edifice was built early in the 12th century on the site of one still more ancient; but its W. end, with its fine front, and rich Norman doorways, and elegant pinnacled towers, has been allowed to fall into decay. The cathedral now comprises a choir, short nave and transepts; its total length, from E. to W., including the Lady-chapel behind the altar, is 263 ft., breadth of the body 65 ft., and height, from the floor to the centre of the roof, 119 ft. Very extensive repairs, but in very bad taste, were effected in 1751, at an expense of 7,000l. The new front, built about 80 ft. within the original Norman W. end, has a Venetian window, Ionic pilasters, and flower-pot jars on the parapet; and till lately the fine Gothic altar was enclosed within a Grecian portico. The chapter-house, S. of the church, is in the decorated English style, with a central pillar; but it is fast falling into the same ruinous condition as the choir and the episcopal palace, which were defaced and all but destroyed by Owen Glendwr. The choral services have been disused for some years, and the building is now employed as a parish church, the service being occasionally in the Welsh language. The see of Llandaff (created in the 6th century) comprises all the county in which it is situated, and Monmouthshire, except 7 pars. It was the poorest of all the English bishoprics, the annual income, including preferments, at an average of the 8 years ending with 1831, being only 994l.; and it has, consequently, been hitherto held in commendam with the deanery of St. Paul's, London, and the rectory of Bedwas. Since the last visitation of the see, however, the sum of 2,150l. has been paid out of the episcopal augmentation fund, to raise the income to 4,200l., and a further allowance of 200l. is to be made till the residence be restored. The patronage of the see comprises the cathedral appointments with 8 livings, and the chapter comprises 11 dignitaries, besides the bishop: there are also 3 vicars-choral. Llandaff has no market, and is wholly dependent for its supplies on Cardiff, except for vegetables, which send in considerable quantities to that market. Cattle fairs, Feb. 9, and Whit-Monday, well attended. (*Nicholson's Cambrian Guide*; *Parl. Rep.*, &c.)

LANDAU, a strongly fortified town belonging to the German confederation, in Rhénish Bavaria, on the Queich, a tributary of the Rhine, 54 m. S. by W. Mayence, and 46 m. N.N.E. Strasburg. Pop., according to Berghaus, 6,100, exclusive of the Bavarian garrison of 6,000 men. This fortress is considered a *chef-d'œuvre* of Vauban, who commenced the construction of its works in 1690. It is an octagon, with seven bastions, as many demi-lunettes, and several other outworks; its ditches are filled from the Queich. The barracks and magazine are bomb-proof. The town was almost entirely consumed by fire in 1698, since which, it has been regularly laid out, and has some good public edifices, including the principal church with a lofty tower, two convents, the town-hall, court of justice, and a civil and military hospital. In the centre of the town is a spacious parade ground. Some extensive vinegar factories have been established here within the last few years. The gates are closed at an early hour, after which, neither ingress nor egress is permitted.

The history of Landau is little else than that of a succession of sieges, blockades, captures, and other military events. It was founded by the Emperor Rodolph, of Hapsburg, and made a free town of the empire in the 14th century. During the 30 years' war, it was repeatedly taken and retaken by the Swedes, Imperialists, French, &c., and in the 18th century it was many times taken or besieged by the French and Germans. It was generally held by the French from the peace of Nimwegen, in 1690 to 1816, when it was restored to Germany by the second treaty of Paris. (*Schreiber, Guide des Voy. 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100.*)

LANDERNEAU, a town and bur. of France, dép. Finistère, on the Elorn, 12 m. E.N.E. Brest. Pop. (1836) 4,035. It is ill-built, and badly paved; but its quays are good, and its port admits vessels of from 200 to 400 tons. It has a large and fine marine hospital, formerly an Ursuline convent, and considerable manufactures of linen cloth and leather.

LANDES, a dep. of France, and one of the largest, though the poorest, in the kingdom, reg. S.W., chiefly between lat. 45° 20' and 44° 30' N., and long. 0° 7' and 10° 20' W., having N. Glironda, E. Lot-et-Garonne and Gers, S. Basses Pyrénées, and W. the Bay of Biscay. Length and greatest breadth about 70 m. each. Area, 915,129 hect. Pop. (1846) 398,220. This dep. derives its name from an extensive tract of heath, marsh, and other waste land, with a loose sandy soil, about 200 ft. above the level of the sea, termed the "Landes," which occupies 731,143 hect., or nearly 4-5ths of its total surface, besides a considerable portion of the adjacent dep. of the Glironda. This extensive and almost desert plain is for the most part a dead flat, interspersed with

patches of pasture or cultivated land, clumps of pines, scattered habitations of a miserable kind, and a few wretched hamlets; and bounded towards the sea by a chain of *dunes* or sandy downs, inside which is a succession of lagoons frequently communicating with each other, and occasionally with the sea by openings between the *dunes*. The *dunes* extend along the shore nearly from the mouth of the Gironde to the Pyrenees, forming a chain from 140 to 180 m. in length, by about 5 m. in width and from 100 to 150 ft. in height. They consist of loose shifting sand thrown up by the sea. They are continually changing in form and position, according to the prevalent winds; but have a general tendency to move easterly, in which direction they are said to advance about 36 yards a year; and in process of time they would infallibly overspread the whole country, unless arrested and fixed by planting them with pines or other trees, as is done in Holland. Occasionally immense masses of sand have shifted their position through the agency of tempests, as in the African and Arabian deserts. The church and a considerable part of the village of Mismizan was overwhelmed by an inundation of this sort. The increase of the *dunes* having prevented the egress into the sea of many small rivulets, the lagoons have been formed, the largest of which is 7 m. in length and about as many in width. These also continue to extend, since the shifting sands have been gradually shallowing the channels by which they communicate with the sea. The surface of the "Landes" is usually parched and arid, except for about four months of the year, when the rains form extensive pools in its depressed portions, varying to the depth of several feet. These are often covered with sand carried over them by the wind, when they are called *houzas*, and are exceedingly dangerous to strangers. To avoid such dangers, and to travel more speedily through the loose soil, the *Landes* people, as long staffs, are used for the feet, or 3 ft. above their lower extremity; so that a person of ordinary stature, when in walking order, has at a distance the appearance of a giant 8 ft. high. The *inhabs.* are very expert at the use of these singular helps to locomotion. The Adour, and its tributary the Midouze, bound the "Landes" to the S.E., and form the N. limit of the fertile portion of this dep. The soil is there light, but productive. Maize, millet, wheat, rye, saffron, hemp, flax, &c., are grown: in the province St. Sever, about 250,000 kilog. of linseed-oil are produced annually, and about 250,000 hectol. of wine, certain kinds of which, termed the *vin de table*, rival some of the growths of the Gironde. The culture of the mulberry is on the increase. Agriculture is exceedingly backward. The "Landes" are mostly appropriated to the rearing of sheep, of which, in 1830, the dep. had 400,000. The lower classes in the "Landes" appear to be very wretched. Shut out from communication with the more civilized parts of the kingdom by the absence of great roads, they live in a half-savage state, clothed chiefly in sheep-skins, on which or on straw they usually lie at night. Their food is principally maize or rye bread, with pickards, which are served in proportion to their rank; maize, millet porridge and pea-soup with sour hard and some spice, to which they occasionally add garlic or a little fried bacon. They are grossly ignorant, and degraded both physically and mentally. In 1835, of 40,446 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 14,870 were assessed at less than 5 fr., 5,978 at from 5 to 10 fr., and 6,166 at from 10 to 30 fr. Goats, hogs, and poultry are frequently kept by the peasantry, and bees are numerous. The pine forests furnish abundance of deals, pitch, tar, rosin, &c.; and coal, iron ore, potters' clay, &c. are met with. Manufactures unimportant; some smelting furnace and forges, employing about 500 hands, and some tanneries, oil-mills, and glass and earthenware factories, comprise almost all the manufacturing establishments. The trade of the dep. is chiefly in cattle, wines, timber, and agricultural produce. Landes is divided into 3 arrondis., and sends 3 mems. to the Cham. of Dep. Number of electors (1836-39) 1,145. Chief towns, Mont-de-Marsan, the cap., St. Sever, and Dax. Total public revenue (1831) 2,565,980 fr.; expenditure, 2,576,700 fr.: leaving a surplus of more than 1,000,000 fr.—a large sum, considering the poverty of the dep. (Hugo, art. *Landes*; French Official Tables, &c.)

LANDSBERG, a town of the Prussian dom., prov. Brandenburg, gov. Frankfurt, cap. circ., on the Warta, a tributary of the Netze, here crossed by an excellent bridge, 38 m. N.E. Frankfurt on the Oder. Pop., in 1838, according to Berghaus, 9,970; but it is stated by Von Zedlitz (*Der Preussische Staat*, ii. 218.) to be nearly 12,000, among whom are many Jews. Landsberg is divided into the Old and New Town, and has several suburbs. It is walled, and is one of the best built towns in the prov. It has several churches, a house of correction, the inmates of which are made to support themselves by the manufacture of woollen cloths, an hospital, an orphan asylum, a high school, &c. It is a principal mart for corn and wool, the greater part of the produce of

Pomerania, the Neumark, and W. Prussia being brought thither for export by the Oder. The town has also brisk manufactures of woollen goods, leather, and paper, and numerous breweries and distilleries. Landsberg is the seat of a circle assembly, a circle and town tribunal of the first class, boards of taxation, forest economy, and agriculture, and the superintendency of the drainage of the vale of the Warta. (*Deutschhannschaft für das Warthebuch*.) The town was repeatedly taken and retaken by the Swedes and the Imperialists in the 30 years' war. (Von Zedlitz; Berghaus, &c.)

LANDSCRONA, a fortified sea-port town of Sweden, prov. Mahme, on a tongue of land projecting into the Sound, 16 m. N.E. Copenhagen; lat. 56° 51' 56" N.; long. 19° 45' 47" E. Pop. 3,370. It has strong walls, a citadel, and other works; is well laid out, and has a safe and well sheltered harbour, with 30 ft. water.

LAND'S END, a headland at the W. extremity of the co. Cornwall, celebrated as being the most westerly land in England; lat. 50° 4' 8" N., long. 5° 41' 31" W. It is formed of granite cliffs, which rise about 60 ft. above the level of the sea. These assume, in some places, the appearance of shafts, and are as regular as if they had been cut by the chisel. About 1 m. W. from the Land's End are the rocks called the Longships, on the largest of which is a light-house, with a fixed light, having the lantern elevated 83 ft. above high water mark.

LANDSHUT, a town of Bavaria, circ. Lower Bavaria, on the Isar, 38 m. N.E. Munich. Pop. 8,000. It is divided into an old and a new town, has a suburb on an island in the Isar, with which it is united by two bridges, and is partly surrounded by old walls and ditches. It consists of two principal and many smaller streets; the houses, which are of brick, are mostly enveloped by gardens. The town has a very picturesque appearance, from the antique architecture of its buildings, and the number of its towers and spires; that of St. Martin's church being one of the loveliest in Germany. It has an old castle, the residence of the dukes of Bavaria in the 13th century; a Cistercian abbey, in which they were buried; a royal palace, an old town-hall, an hospital for decayed citizens, 2 other hospitals, 3 convents, a lyceum, gymnasium, chirurgical and ecclesiastical seminaries, and various other schools. In 1800, the university of Ingolstadt was removed thither; but in 1826 it was transferred to Munich, since which Landshut has declined. It still, however, has manufactures of woollen goods, stockings, tobacco, paper, cards, &c., with numerous distilleries and breweries, and some trade in corn, cattle, and wool. (Berghaus; Stein, &c.)

LANE-END. See PORTFAXES.

LANGELAND, an island of the Danish archipelago, in the Baltic, between Laland and Funen, extending from lat. 54° 43' to 55° 20' N., and between long. 10° 40' and 11° E. Length N.N.E. to S.S.W. 39 m.; average breadth 24 m. Area about 80 sq. m. Pop. about 17,000. Its shores are generally uniform, except on the W., where they are broken by numerous inlets. Its surface is more elevated than that of the adjacent islands, but it is generally quite flat. Climate healthy. Chief products, corn, potatoes, fruits, and flax. A good many cattle are reared, and the fisheries are productive. Ruchlising, on the W. coast, with 1,580 *inhabs.* is the chief town, and centre of the trade, which is tolerably active. (*Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

LANGENSALZA, a town of Prussian Saxony, gov. Erfurt, cap. circ. of its own name, on the Saale, 19½ m. N.W. Erfurt. Pop. (1838) 7,142. It is well built, walled, and further defended by a castle; and has 4 churches, 4 hospitals, a lazaretto, an orphan asylum, a high school, a public library, and a theatre. It is the seat of a district council, a board of taxation, judicial courts for the town and circle, the Thuringian Agronomical Society, &c. It has manufactures of various descriptions of woollen, linen, and cotton fabrics, a saltpetre factory, with dyeing houses, breweries, distilleries, and paper mills. (Von Zedlitz, *Der Preussische Staat*; Berghaus; Horchmann, Stein, &c.)

LANGHOLM, a bor. of barony and market-town of Scotland, co. Dumfries, in the bosom of a wooded valley on the Esk, and on the line of the road between Edinburgh and Carlisle, 21½ m. N. by W. the latter and 59 m. S. by E. the former. Pop. of town, in 1841, 2,262; of town, parish, 2,820. It is intersected by the Esk, New Langholm (founded in 1778) being on the W. side of the river. The latter is regularly built, of a triangular form. The old town consists chiefly of one street on the line of the road. In it are the town-hall and gaol, ornamented with a spire, and the par. church. There are, also, chapels belonging respectively to the Associate Synod and Relief. The communication between the different parts of the bor. is maintained by a fine bridge.

There are sundry schools in the parish, of which two are endowed; average attendance, about 1-10th pop. There are two subscription libraries, to one of which the late Thomas Telford, the celebrated engineer, a native of the town, bequeathed 1,000*l.* William Julius Mickie,

the translator of the *Lusad*, was a native of the bor.; and Sir John and Sir Pultney Malcolm were born in the neighbourhood.

The poor are supported partly by church collections and partly by assessment; the latter having amounted, in 1847, to 455*l*.

A cotton-mill, driven by water, was erected in 1789. There are in the town a considerable number of weavers, who are partly employed in the stocking trade; there are also two small woollen mills, with a distillery, brewery, and two branch banks.

Langholm was created a burgh of barony in 1610. Gilnockie Tower, the residence of "Johnie Armstrong," the famous border freebooter in the time of James V., is in the neighbourhood, but has long been in ruins. Langholm Lodge, a seat of the Duke of Buccleugh, is also in the neighbourhood.

LANGRES (an. *Andemansum*, and *Civitas Lingonum*), a town of France, dép. Haute-Marne, being the largest and most populous town in the dep., though not its cap.; it is, however, the capital of an arrond., and occupies, next to Briancçon, the highest elevation of any town in the kingdom, 18 m. S.S.E. Chaumont, and 39 m. N.N.E. Dijon. Pop. in 1846 (ex. com.), 7,536. It is surrounded with walls, flanked by towers, and is well-built; its streets being regular, wide, and clean. The principal public edifice of Langres, its ancient cathedral, has a choir, the peristyle of which, of the Corinthian order, is supposed to have formed part of a Roman temple; the edifice itself, though of uncertain date, is very ancient, excepting the grand entrance, constructed in the 18th century. The bishopric of Langres was founded as early as the 3d century. Langres has a handsome town-hall, a theatre, a public library with 3,000 vols., a school of drawing, several hospitals, and a fine public promenade. It is distinguished by its cutlery, which is its chief branch of industry.

The *Lingones* are noticed by Cæsar as being attached to the Romans (*De Bello Gallico*, lib. i. § 96. 40); they afterwards became *federati*, or allies of the Romans; and their city is characterised by Frontinus as *opulentissima*. (Lib. iv. cap. 3.) Among the remains of antiquity of which it has still to boast, are several triumphal arches; one of which, now included in the town-walls, supposed to have been erected in honour of the two Gordians, *circa anno* 240, has a frieze on its entablature, indicating a high state of the arts. It suffered numerous disasters in the dark ages; being taken and burnt by Attila, and again destroyed by the Vandals, in 407. Louis VII. annexed it to the French crown. Diderot was a native of Langres, where he first saw the light, in 1713. (*Hugo*, art. *Huic Marne*, &c.; *D'Anville*, *Notice de l'ancienne Gaule*, p. 417.)

LANGUEDOC, one of the old provs. of France, in the S. part of the kingdom, now distributed among the depts. of Ardèche, Aude, Gard, Haute Garonne, Hérault, Haute-Loire, Lozère, and Tarn.

LANNION, a town and river port of France, dép. Côtes-du-Nord, cap. arrond., on the Guer, 35 m. W.N.W. St. Briegec. Pop. (1846) 5,401. It is ill-built and *triste*; its port on the river is bordered by a spacious quay, but within the last 40 years vessels of 550 tons have been unable to come up to the latter. It has a church erected in the 12th century, two hospitals, barracks, and a communal college; it is the seat of a sub-prefecture, and a court of primary jurisdiction, and has manufactures of linen fabrics, and an active trade in agricultural produce.

LANZAROTA, one of the Canary Islands, which see.

LAODICEA AD LYCUM, an ancient city of Phrygia, in Asia Minor, chiefly interesting as being the site of one of the seven primitive Christian churches, on the Lycus, a tributary of the Meander, 130 m. E.S.E. Smyrna, lat. 37° 56' N., long. 39° 15' N. The site of this town, once ranking as the second in Phrygia, is marked only by the deserted ruins of public buildings; and hence the neighbouring hamlet, inhabited only by a few squalid Turks, has received the name of *Eski-kissar*, "old castle." (*Elliot's Travels*, li. 97.) The remains are very extensive, and the whole surface within the walls is strewn with pedestals and fragments, indicating the size and magnificence of the former luxury and magnificence of the city. The largest ruin is that of an oblong amphitheatre, having an area of 1,000 sq. ft. Many of the seats are still in tolerable preservation, and at the W. end is a vaulted passage about 140 ft. long, and designed for the horses and chariots entering the arena. A Greek inscription on the mouldings informs us that it was completed in the reign of the emperor Vespasian, A.D. 82, after having occupied twelve years in building. There are remains also of an odeum, two theatres, and a fabric which Chandler supposed had been a senate-house and exchange. The soil in and about the city is hard, dry, and porous, bearing many indications of an igneous origin; and Laodicea has at many different times suffered greatly from earthquakes.

Laodicea, so called from the wife of its founder, Antiochus II., was long an inconsiderable place, not-

withstanding the beneficence of Hiero, Zeno the philosopher, and his son Polemo. After its sufferings, however, in a siege by Mithridates, the Romans strengthened and enlarged it, so that at length, about the Christian era, it became, next to Apamea Cibotus, the largest city of Phrygia, and vied in importance with the cities on the coast. There can be little doubt that it was visited by St. Paul in the course of his missionary tour through Asia Minor, and perhaps the Christian converts of Laodicea, as well as those of Colossæ and Hierapolis (*Pambouk*), both neighbouring towns, were the results of the apostle's preaching. In the epistle to the Colossians (iv. 16.) mention is made of an epistle to the Laodiceans; and though some critics have maintained that it is identical with that to the Ephesians, the more probable conjecture is that it has not come down to us. The persecution which raged in Asia Minor during the latter part of the first century tended somewhat to abate the zeal of the Laodicean Christians, and hence the rebuke in the Revelations. Of the subsequent history of this city for several centuries we know little: it was generally in a prosperous condition under the Roman emperors, and was flourishing even in 1190, when Frederic Barbarossa visited it on his way to the third crusade. Soon afterwards, however, it was repeatedly attacked and ravaged by the Turks, and finally taken into their hands in the beginning of the 14th century, since which it has been a mere ruin, "wretched, and miserable, and poor and naked." (*Rev.* iii. 14.—22.)

Laodicea ad Lycum must not be confounded with Laodicea combusta (now *Ladik*), 19 m. N.W. Konieh, also a considerable city, of which there are extensive ruins. (*Chandler*, i. 269; *Elliot*, ii. 97.)

LAODICEA AD MARE, in Syria. (See LATAKIA.) LAON (Lat. *Lendunsum*), a town of France, dép. Aisne, of which it is the cap., on the summit of a steep hill, 52 m. W.S.W. Mezieres, and 74 m. N.E. Paris. Lat. 49° 33' 54" N., long. 3° 37' 37" E. Pop. in 1846 (ex. com.), 8,054. The town is about 1 m. in length, narrow in the centre, expanded at either extremity, and surrounded by old walls, flanked with numerous small towers. Except its main street, it is ill built and *triste*; but it has pleasant promenades, a healthy situation, and fertile neighbourhood. It has a large Gothic cathedral, with 4 towers, rebuilt in 1114; a large old abbey, now occupied by the prefecture; a public library, comprising 17,000 vols.; extensive barracks; a remarkable leaning tower, 3 hospitals, a town hall, communal college, theatre, *dépôt de mendicité*, &c. It is the seat of a tribunal of original jurisdiction; and has manufactures of nails, leather, coppers, earthenware, &c. Coarse woollens, and some other articles, are made in the *dépôt de mendicité*.

Laon has been sometimes supposed, but on no good grounds, to occupy the site of the *Biblar* mentioned by Cæsar. (See AUTUN, Vol. i. 225.) In the middle ages it was distinguished by its industry and wealth; its bishopric was one of the most lucrative in the kingdom; and the position and importance of the town made it be regarded as a kind of second capital. It was, however, far more distinguished by the spirit which animated its inhabitants, and by their persevering efforts to emancipate themselves from the feudal tyranny of their bishops, and to establish a municipal government and the regular administration of justice under magistrates of their own selection. They succeeded in establishing a government of this sort so early as the year 1110; and maintained it, at the cost of many great sacrifices, for above two centuries, or till 1831, when it was finally abolished by royal ordinance. For an account of the commerce of Laon, see the interesting and instructive work of M. Thierry, *Lettres sur l'Histoire de France*, Noa. 16.—18.)

Laon was, in 1814, the scene of some severe fighting between the French and the allies. The Prussians under Blücher having occupied the town, their position was unsuccessfully attacked on the 9th of March, by the French, under Napoleon: and the Prussians having cut to pieces and dispersed the corps of Marmont during the night, Napoleon was obliged to withdraw from before the town on the 11th. (*Hugo*, art. *Aisne*.)

LAOS, or the SHAN COUNTRY, a country of India beyond the Brahmaputra, which may be roughly estimated to extend between lat. 15° and 24° N. and long. 98° and 106° E.; having N. the Chinese prov. Yun-nan; W. the Birman Empire, from which it is separated by the Than-leng river; S. the Tenasserim provs., Siam and Cambodia; and E. Tonquin and Cochinchina, from which a lofty mountain chain divides it. Our knowledge of this extensive region is extremely limited; and what little we do know relates almost exclusively to N. Laos, or the portion bordering on the Birman and Chinese empires. The country appears to be comprised in the basins of two large rivers, the Ménam, which afterwards waters Siam; and the Ménangkong, or river of Cambodia, in the middle portion of its course. The Laos territories formerly comprised 8 or 9 larger and several smaller distinct states; but of late the Siamese have conquered most of these, and the rest are

principally tributary to the surrounding nations, especially the Burmese and Chinese. The Laos pop. in the Siamese dom. is estimated by Mr. Crawford at 440,000; to which we may perhaps add nearly 300,000 for the pop. of N. Laos, &c.; making a total of somewhat more than a million. The country is fertile; but all accounts agree that it is in general very poorly cultivated and thinly inhabited. The smaller villages are mere collections of huts; and a great part of the pop. consists of small migratory herds, who have no permanent habitation. The labour of cultivation is thrown principally on the women. The fields are ploughed about the beginning of the rains in August, and the crop is reaped in February. The *Oryza glaberrima* is the only variety of rice that is raised; and, as there is no market for surplus grain, it sells in plentiful years at an extremely low price. The implements of husbandry are, rude ploughs, drawn by two oxen or buffaloes, harrows, spades, and hoes. The hire of a labourer averages a quarter of a ruppee a day; but hired labourers are few, and the cultivators assist each other by turns in their various operations. The grain is cut with the common sickle, and thrashed by treading out with oxen. Tobacco, with sugar-canes and mulberries, are generally raised; and the country yields pepper, cardamoms, different sorts of indigo, benzoin, stick-lac and other gums, betel, numerous fruits, an abundance of teak and sapan wood, a species of sandal-wood, &c. It abounds with elephants, which are exported in considerable numbers; and with buffaloes, oxen, and other animals found in the adjacent countries. There are, however, no sheep. Asses are used as beasts of burden; but waggoners are frequently employed in the conveyance of goods. Gold is found in parts of N. Laos; but in such trifling quantities as hardly to afford the ordinary low rate of wages of the country to those engaged in sifting and washing the sand in which it is found. Tin ore is abundant; and iron, lead, copper, antimony, and silver are met with. Some of these metals are smelted and wrought; but the ores are principally sent in a rough state to Birmah. Silk and cotton fabrics, paper made from the bark of a creeping plant, leather, date-sugar, and gunpowder, are the chief manufactures. There are, however, gold, silver, and iron smiths, mat-makers, potters, embroiderers, and a variety of petty artisans. Spinning and weaving are usually performed by women, who, as in Birmah, conduct a good deal of the retail trade. Some commerce is carried on with the immediately adjacent countries. The inhab. exchange their lac, sapan-wood, and other dyes, parrot skins, ivory, rhinoceros' horns, wax, tin, lead, &c., with the Tonquinese for sulphur, cinnaabar, gamboge, orpiment, borax, musk, silks, gold thread, embroidery, steel, cutlery, paper, crockery, &c. About 50 merchants come annually from Tonquin, each with 20 or 30 horse-loads of merchandise. Large quantities of salt, with spices, woollen cloths, &c., are imported from Rangoon, to which the Laos merchants take jagbery, drugs, dyes, silks, cottons, lacquered wares, gold, silver, copper, and other metals, partly native produce, and partly obtained from China. The intercourse with the Tenasserim provs. is increasing; and some British cotton and woollen goods, salt, &c., are bought by the Shans at Martaban. In N. Laos, however, the people are not dependent on the coast for salt, a good deal, though of inferior quality, being there collected in the plains. A caravan occasionally comes from Siam.

The government is what is commonly, though incorrectly, called an hereditary despotism. The king is assisted by 4 councillors. The laws, derived from the Institutes of Menu, are administered by the councillors, under whom are 8 inferior judges. Their general tenor is the same as that of the Siamese laws, but they are not generally enforced with so much rigour. Unlike most E. countries, the people have a right of property in the soil, and may dispose of it at pleasure: waste land may be occupied by any one, and if he cultivate it, he establishes a right to its exclusive possession. In N. Laos, a small military force is kept up. The Shans are said by Kemper to resemble the southern Chinese; but Captain Low thinks them more analogous to the Burmese; to whose dress, habits, customs, &c. their own are very similar. Various books have been written in the Shan language, which is little different from the Pali: it is written in a character similar to the Burmese.

Some of the most striking and venerated Buddhist temples are said to exist in this country. The most noted is that of Nang-rung, N.W. of Zimlam, the cap. of N. Laos. The chief city of S. Laos, Lanchang, is reported to be both populous and comparatively well built. The inhab. assert that they are the stock whence the Siamese sprung, and this the latter do not hesitate to acknowledge. The emigration of the Siamese southward from Laos is conjectured by Captain Low to have been about the year 638. (*Low's Hist. of Tenasserim, in Journ. of Royal Asiatic Soc. v. 7: 345-363.*; *Crawford's Embassy to Siam*; *Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*, &c.)

LAPLAND, the most northerly country of Europe;

belonging partly to Russia, and partly to Sweden, between lat. 64° and 71° N., and long. 10° and 42° E., bounded N. by the Arctic Ocean, E. by the White Sea, S. by Sweden and Finland, and W. by the Atlantic Ocean. Area 150,000 sq. m., about 2-3ds of which belong to Russia. Pop. vaguely estimated at 60,000, of whom only 9,000 are Laplanders, the rest being Swedes, Norwegians, and Russians. That part of Lapland which lies along the N. shore of the Gulph of Bothnia, is an extensive plain, abounding in immense forests of spruce and Scotch fir; but at the distance of 80 m. from the sea, the ground becomes gradually elevated, and is at last full of lofty mountains, composed chiefly of primitive and transition rocks, very rich in copper, and other metallic ores. These, between the lat. of 67° and 68° 30', rise to a height of from 5,500 to 5,300 ft., which, in this hyperborean region, is 2,700 ft. above the line of perpetual congelation. These central mountains are the highest in Lapland. The ranges continue all the way to the N. Cape, but decline gradually in height. The principal rivers of Lapland are the Torneo, which, taking its rise in the highest mountains, near lat. 68° 20', holds a course first S.E., and afterwards nearly S., receiving tributary streams from the right and left, till it reaches the N. extremity of the Gulph of Bothnia, at the town of Torneo. The Kemí, a river almost equally large, rises in the N.E., flows S., and falls into the Gulph of Bothnia, not far from the Torneo. The Lulea and Pitea both rise in the mountains of the N.W., in about lat. 68°, and flow S.E., nearly parallel to each other, till they also reach the Gulph of Bothnia. In N. Lapland, above lat. 68° 30', the slope of the ground is N. The Tana, which is the principal river in the N.E., and the Alten, the largest in the N.W., both run into the Arctic Ocean. All these, like the rivers of Switzerland, are comparatively small in winter, and become mighty streams in summer, on the melting of the snows. Lapland abounds in lakes: that, called Enare, or Indigær, in Russian Lapland, in lat. 69°, is of great size. Several of the others are likewise extensive, and are traversed by considerable rivers.

The climate of Lapland is celebrated for extreme coldness; but, in fact, it is milder than that of any other region under the same parallel. The coasts of Norwegian Lapland and Finmark are free from ice early in May, whereas the sea of Siberia is never open till the end of July. The climate of one part of the country, also, differs very much from that of another. In the maritime districts, the temperature is pretty uniform: the winters are not severe, but the summers are raw and foggy; while, in the interior, the winter is intensely cold, but the heat of summer is steady and fruitifying. The mean annual temperature at the N. Cape (lat. 71° 11' 30") is 6° higher than at Enonteki in the interior (in lat. 68° 30"). Yet, at the latter, the thermometer rises in July to 64°, while at the Cape it seldom reaches 50°. In both, the summer begins in May and ends in September; but in the valleys, among the mountains, corn ripens in the short space of three months. The sun being so many hours above the horizon, the heat is then intense, and the clouds of insects are exceedingly troublesome. The cold of winter, on the contrary, is frequently so intense as to freeze brandy, or spirits of wine; and the rivers in the interior are covered with ice to the depth of several feet. Towards the N., the sun remains for many weeks below the horizon in winter, and in summer is as long without setting. During the long night of winter, however, the darkness is relieved by the brightness of the moon and stars, and the vivid continuations of the aurora borealis. The twilight is also such that, during several hours each day, it is possible to read without a lamp or candle.

The vegetable productions of the maritime and mountainous district differ as widely as the climate. In the low country, particularly near the shores of the Gulph of Bothnia, are large forests of spruce, Scotch fir, and other resinous trees; potatoes, turnips, and other vegetables, are cultivated; and roses, carnations, &c., deck the gardens during the brief months of summer. In a colder region the spruce disappears, the Scotch fir being the only one of that class that braves its severity. It, in its turn, declines in vigour, till it totally disappears; and its place is supplied by the birch, which again yields to the *Salix glauca*, a plant unknown in Britain, and peculiar to cold climates. The *Rubus Chamamorus*, *Rubus arcticus*, and other berry-bearing plants, are here numerous, and support even an additional degree of cold; but we arrive soon after at a climate where nothing is to be seen but a few of the hardiest plants, such as the dwarf birch, with the *Salix lapponica*, *Orchis hyperborea*, and other trees and shrubs peculiar to the country. A few mosses still keep their ground; but before reaching the point of perpetual congelation there is here, as in other countries quite destitute of every species of vegetation, neither plant nor animal to be seen. The rein-deer's lichen is of a bright yellow colour, which, as the plant withers, becomes snow-white; it thrives better near the fir forests

than in the loftier regions of birches, and a plain covered with this moss forms a Lapland meadow. It is the winter food of the cattle, and, when ground, is used as flour by the inhab. Rich pastures also are furnished by the bear's moss (*Mesurus polytrichus*), which, on account of its softness and elasticity, is made into beds and mattresses, alleged by travellers to be superior to any in Europe. The root of the *Angelica*, and the stem of the *Pomocrus*, are used as food, and of all the grains barley is that which thrives best; but the potato yields a surer harvest, and, if generally cultivated, might afford sufficient sustenance for the inhabs. The turnip and cabbage, introduced by the Russians, succeed well on the low lands. The best agriculturists are the Finnish colonists, who have raised corn at Alten, in lat. 70°, which may safely be pronounced the N. limit of husbandry; but tillage, generally, is in a very backward state.

Among the animals of Lapland, the rein-deer is the most valuable. It serves as the principal beast of burden; its milk is highly valued; its flesh supplies the chief nourishment of the people during a part of the year; its sinews are made into thread; its horns into spoons, and other domestic utensils; and its skin furnishes a great part of their dress. The rein-deer bears a great resemblance to the stag, but is much smaller, being in general only four feet in height from the foot to the top of the back, and but two feet long in the body. It is remarkable equally for the elegance of its shape, the beauty of its palmed horns, and the ease with which it supports itself during a long winter of nine months. In summer it feeds on grass, and is extremely fond of the herb called the great water-horse tail; but in winter it refuses hay, and obtains its whole nourishment from the rein-deer moss. It thrives best in the cold dry regions of central Lapland, where numerous herds roam at large the whole year round, under the care of shepherds assisted by dogs. The rein-deer, indeed, forms the chief wealth of the natives. The poorer classes have from 80 to 300; the middle classes from 300 to 700; and the affluent often above 1,000 head. The females are driven home morning and evening to be milked, and yield about as much milk as the goat. Horses, oxen, goats, and sheep are common; and in the forests are bears, gluttons, wolves, elk, hares, martens, squirrels, and lemming-rats. Birds of passage arrive in flocks every summer; capercailles, grouse, partridges, and aquatic fowl, are very plentiful near the coast, and lammergeyrs and eagles soar nearly to the line of perpetual snow. The rivers are stored with salmon, herring, and other fish; and in July and Aug. insects abound in such enormous quantities, that Wahlberg has supposed that their dead bodies serve as an excellent manure for the soil.

The Laplanders, who call themselves *Sáme*, are most probably a tribe of Tschoudes or Finns, though difference of situation has, in the course of ages, produced a fundamental difference of character. The Finns, an industrious though unpolished race, were encouraged to form colonies in Lapland about a century ago; and their number has since increased rapidly, while that of the Laplanders has been stationary, or perhaps on the decline. Of the 37,000 inhabitants of Norwegian Lapland, there are not, it is thought, above 6,000 Laplanders. They have swarthy complexions, black short hair, wide mouths, hollow cheeks, and long and pointed chins. They are strong, active, and hardy; but they suffer much from disease, and few live beyond fifty. Dishonesty is general among them, and dram-drinking is often carried to a fatal excess. They were not converted to Christianity till the 17th century. Those of the Russian province are professing of the Greek church, while those subject to Sweden are Lutherans. But notwithstanding the efforts of the missionaries, they are still very ignorant both of the doctrines and duties of Christianity, and retain many heathen superstitions.

The rein-deer Laplanders live either wholly or principally on the produce of their herds, building their rude huts during summer in the moss pastures of the elevated country, and in winter on the level tracts inhabited by other nations; but the fishing Laplanders confine themselves to the banks of lakes and rivers, and catch fish and beavers, which they sell as skins and venison, they exchange with the Russians and Swedes for spirituous liquors, meal, salt, and tobacco.

The clothing of these half-civilized tribes is abundantly coarse, consisting of a woollen cap, a coat commonly of sheep skin, with the wool inwards, and a great coat, either of kersey, or of rein-deer skin, with the hair outwards. They have no stockings, but a kind of pantaloons of coarse cloth, or tanned leather, fitted close to the legs; their shoes are made of rein-deer's skin, the sole being taken from the forehead, and the upper leather from the legs. The women dress nearly in the same manner, but with the addition of some rude ornaments; and, in the case of the more affluent, of mantles and aprons of Russia linen or cotton. These, and leather for the boots of the men, are obtained in the petty traffic of the Laplanders with the Swedes. When tra-

velling, and exposed to the winter blast, it is customary for the natives to cast a hood over the head, neck, and shoulders, leaving only a small opening, through which they see and breathe.

The language of the Laplanders is a Finnish dialect; but it contains so many obsolete and foreign words, that they are not intelligible by the inhabitants of Finland, nor indeed can the tribes in one part understand the language spoken by those of another. The Laponic has been mixed more than the other Finnish tongues with the German and Scandinavian, and hence its principal roots and derivations bear much less affinity with those in the languages of Upper Asia. (*Malle-Brum, Géog. Univ.; Schmitzer, La Russie*, p. 606, &c.)

L.A.R. a town of Persia, cap. of the prov. of Laristan, 130 m. W.N.W. Gombroon, and 182 m. S.E. Shiraz; lat. 27° 30' N., long. 52° 45' E. Pop. 12,000. It stands at the foot of a range of hills in an extensive plain, covered with palm trees. The houses generally are commodious and neatly furnished, and there are several handsome public buildings. The governor's house, in the middle of the city, is surrounded by a strong wall, flanked with towers. The bazaar, which is in good repair, is alleged to be the best structure of the kind in Persia: it is very ancient, and built on a similar plan to that of Shiraz, but on a much greater scale, with loftier arches, greater length and breadth, and superior workmanship. The castle, on the top of a hill, overlooking the town, is now in ruins. Rain-water being the only water to be found in this parched and arid country, is collected during the wet season in large cisterns, similar to those in the island of Ormuz.

Lar was formerly the capital of an Arabic kingdom destroyed by Shah Abbas II. It is at present in a state of decay; but it still manufactures fire-arms, gunpowder, and cotton fabrics, exchanged at Shiraz and Gombroon for coffee, sugar, Indian silks, and European merchandise. (*Kieserling*, p. 83.)

LARGS, a barony, and sea-port of Scotland, co. Ayr, beautifully situated on a bay of the same name, and overhung on the land side by richly-wooded hills, 22 m., dir. dist. by land, W. by S. Glasgow, and 40 m. by water. Stationary pop. 1,300; but in summer, there are sometimes 1,000 visitors at sea-bathing. It has an elegant suite of public baths, with a reading-room and library, and various circulating libraries. Though not built on any regular plan, it contains many excellent and substantial houses. The par. church, with its spire and clock, is eminently conspicuous. Many gentlemen's seats are in the neighbourhood.

Largs is celebrated in history as the scene of a great battle, fought in 1263, between Haco, king of Norway, and the troops of Alexander II., in which the former was signally defeated. The cairns and tumuli, erected by permission of the conquerors, by the Norwegians over their slain, are still visible on the S. side of the village.

LARISSA (Turk. *Yenişehir*), a town of European Turkey, prov. Trikala, 20 m. N.W. Volo, and 70 m. E.S.E. Yania; lat. 39° 52' N., long. 22° 30' E. Pop., according to the census of 1861, 20,000, though the real number be laid on this statement. It is a walled town, and is situated on the Selimbria (an. *Peneios*), crossed here by a bridge of 10 arches. This river approaches it through a tract of woodland, almost concealing it from view, and then flows close at the foot of a convent of Dervishes, two large Turkish mosques, and several groups of lofty buildings, soon after disappearing among the woods. The winter floods, which come down from the mountains with great force, frequently occasion great damage to the clay-built houses in the lower part of the town. Internally, Larissa is mean and irregular; near its centre is an open space, having some good bazaars; but the streets are generally ill built, narrow, and filthy; and both houses and people seem to be in the most abject condition. Besides the mosques, there is a Greek metropolitan church; and these, with some baths and a khan, constitute all the public buildings of the place. There is very little trade, and the bazaars are ill supplied with manufactured goods. The plains surrounding Larissa consist of a fine alluvial soil, and are extremely fertile. They produce large crops of Indian corn, wheat, and tobacco; and northward are rich sheep pastures. In fact, they want nothing but good government and good laws to render Larissa and its vicinity industrious, rich, and populous; but no improvement of any kind need be expected under the worn out, imbecile despotism of Turkey.

If Holland and Dodwell be correct in their opinion, that the modern Larissa occupies the site of the ancient city of the same name, it is of very high antiquity, claiming, in competition with Phthia, the honour of being the birth-place of Achilles, hence called *Larissæum*, and being probably identical with the *Ilia* mentioned by Homer in his catalogue of the Greek forces. (*Il.* v. 68.) At a subsequent period it acquired some celebrity from its adoption of the democratical form of government, and from its zealous support

of the Athenian cause during the Peloponnesian war. (Comp. *Aristot. Pol.* v. 6, with *Thuc. id.* c. 32.) It afterwards fell into the hands of Philip of Macedon and his successors, under whom it remained till the subversion of their empire by the Romans. It appears to have declined under the early Roman emperors from its ancient importance. Lucan says of it:—

"Aque olim Laris potens" (Lib. vi. lin. 854.)

The town and neighbourhood were subject in ancient times to the same violent and sudden inundations which now cause such extensive mischief. (*Holland's Travels*, pp. 258—266.; *Dodwell's Tour*, i. 100.; *Cramer's Greece*, i. 366.)

LARISTAN, a small prov. of Persia, part of the an. *Caramania*, extending along the N. shore of the gulph of that name, between 36° and 39° N. lat., and 50° and 49° E. long., bounded N.W. by Fars, and N.E. by Kerman. Area, 16,000 sq. m. Pop. uncertain. It is the poorest and least productive prov. of Persia, diversified indeed with plains and mountains, extending to the sea; but so arid and so destitute of wholesome water, that, were it not for the periodical rains, which fill the clusters of the natives, and enable them to cultivate the date tree, with small quantities of wheat and barley, it would be quite uninhabitable. The coast is in the possession of different Arab tribes, who, under their respective sheikhs, maintain their independence, paying only a trifling tribute to the king. They are chiefly pirates by profession, and reside in small towns or fort forts scattered along the shore of the Gulph: the chief of these are, Congoon, having about 5,000 inhab.; Nakhilo, opposite the island of Shitwar; and Mogoo, which has one of the most secure roadsteads in the Gulph. The interior of the country has not been visited by Europeans. Lar is the cap., which see. (*Kinnair's Persia*, p. 81.)

LARNE, a sea-port town of Ireland, co. Antrim, on a creek of the inlet of the sea called Larne Lough, 18 m. N. by E. Belfast. Pop. in 1841, 3,345. It consists of an old and a new town, and has, besides, the parish church, a R. Catholic chapel, 3 Presbyterian, and 1 Methodist meeting-houses, and a national school. A manor-court is held every six weeks, and petty sessions every fortnight. It is a constabulary and coast-guard station. It formerly carried on a brisk trade in salt; but its traffic is now chiefly confined to the export of linen, grain, and provisions. These amounted, in 1836, to the value of 65,000*l.*, of which linen was estimated to make 40,000*l.* Considerable quantities of lime are also exported. Coal is the principal article of importation. The harbour is land-locked, and is an admirable one for the smaller class of vessels, which enter and depart at all times of the tide. Markets on Tuesdays; fairs, on July 31., Dec. 1., and on the first Monday of every month. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 453*l.*; in 1836, 518*l.* A branch of the Belfast bank was opened in 1836. Fish is abundant, particularly mackerel, hake, cod, and mullet; salmon is taken near the entrance of the bay. The fishermen do not restrict themselves to the fishing, but are also agriculturists, and go to sea only when there is a prospect of a large take.

LARNICA (an. *Cittium*), a port town of the island of Cyprus, on its S.E. shore, at the bottom of the bay of Salinas, 23 m. S.E. Nicusia, lat. 34° 54' 30" N., long. 33° 40' 45" E. Pop. estimated by Kinnair at 5,000. It consists of an upper and a lower town: the latter, called the Marina, is built along the sea shore; the other is a little more inland, and on higher ground. The houses, with the exception of a few belonging to the Frank merchants, are built of mud bricks dried in the sun, and are mean in the extreme; they have mostly, however, very fine gardens, but these being inclosed by high walls, contribute little or nothing to the beauty of the town, as seen from the streets. It is the seat of a Greek bishopric, and in the Upper Town is the cathedral and convent of St. Saviour, and the Lower has a mosque, a convent, the chapel of St. Lazarus, and the remains of a castle constructed by the princes of the House of Lusignan. Being situated on the verge of a marshy plain, screened by high mountains from the cooling influence of the N. winds, and having near it extensive lagoons, which in summer produce large quantities of salt, Larica is hot, and, at certain seasons, unhealthy. It has no harbour, except what is brought to it by an aqueduct constructed, in 1747, by a Turkish emir. There is no harbour; but the bay, which opens to the S.E., and derives its name from the salt lagoons, affords good anchorage in deep water, at no great distance off shore.

Such has been the influence of that rapacious and intolerant despotism under which this noble island has long groined (*see* CYPRUS), that Larica, though so poor and decayed, is now its second city, the emporium of its commerce, and the principal residence of the foreign consuls. The exports consist of wheat, several cargoes of which are exported to Spain and Portugal, with barley, cotton, silk, wine, and drugs; the imports are rice and sugar from Egypt, and cloth, hardware, and colonial produce, from Malta and Smyrna. When Kinnair visited

the island, this traffic was carried on in Levantine ships, under English colours, and such, probably, is still the case. (*Kinnair's Asia Minor*, &c., 182.; *Drummond's Travels*, 140.)

Drummond, Pococke, and the Abbé Martini, concur in opinion that Larica occupies the site of the ancient *Cittium*; while Kinnair and others suppose the latter to have been near a cape, still called Chittu, a few miles S.W. from Larica, where there are numerous tumuli and hillocks of rubbish. The probability, however, seems to be in favour of the supposition that the site of Larica and *Cittium* are really identical. (*Drummond*, p. 260.; *Clarke*, iv. 89. 8vo. ed.)

Cittium was founded by the Phœnicians at a very remote period, and will be for ever memorable as the birth-place of Zeno, the founder of the stoical system of philosophy. Perhaps we may be excused for saying that, notwithstanding his error in supposing pleasure and pain to be absolutely indifferent, no system of philosophy has ever been proposed so well fitted as that of Zeno, to inculcate its votaries with the purest principles of benevolence, and the most heroic magnanimity.

"Becit fuit, servare modum, finemque tenere,
Naturæ acque gentis, patriæque impendere vitam;
Nec sibi, sed toti in aqum se credere mundo."

LUCAN. li. v. 330.*

Cimon, the great Athenian commander, either died at the siege of *Cittium* or immediately after he had taken it. The epoch of the destruction of the city is unknown.

LASSA, or **H'ASSA** (*Land of the Divine Intelligence*), a city of the Chinese empire and the cap. of Thibet, prov. Oul, 360 m. E. by N. Katmandoo, the cap. of Nepal; lat. 29° 30' N., long. 91° 40' E. Pop. uncertain, but conjectured to be about 24,000. It is situated on the Gaidjao, a tributary of the Sampo, about 28 m. from its confluence with that river, in an extensive and fertile plain about 60 m. long and 35 m. broad, surrounded by lofty mountains. It is not walled, but its streets and houses, towers, bazaars, and handsome detached residences, indicate its importance comparatively at least, with other towns of the kingdom. The houses are built of a brown stone, are two or three stories high, with tolerably lofty rooms, and, though somewhat grotesque, give the idea of wealth and respectability. The great temple of Buddha, which is likewise the residence of the Dalai Lama, the pontifical sovereign of Thibet, stands on the hill Bota-la, in the W. part of the city, and consists of an extensive range of square-shaped buildings, crowned in the centre with a gilded dome, and occupying altogether an area of about 40 bags. It comprises, according to the Chinese geographers, 10,000 apartments, varying in size and grandeur according to the supposed dignity of the idols which they respectively contain. Contiguous to the temple, on its four sides, are the four celebrated monasteries of Brephung, Sera, Ghaidan, and Samyil, alleged to be inhabited by upwards of 4,000 monks, and much resorted to by the Chinese and Mongols as schools of philosophy and Buddhism. In and near the city are five other temples, built on the same general plan, but very inferior in size and splendour to that just described. Lassa, besides being the resort of zealous Buddhists from all parts of China, Turkestan, Nepal, &c., is a place of considerable trade in silk, wool, and goats' hair, woollen cloths and cashmires, velvets, linens, asafetida, bezoar, various kinds of fruit, silver bullion, gold dust, and precious stones, chiefly with N. Hindostan, Nepal, Bootan, Great Bucharia, and China; and in the markets, where the goods are exposed for sale on mats, regularly appointed market-inspectors fix the prices, from which no deviation is allowed. Handicraft is much followed, and with great success; and the lapidaries, workers in metal, and engravers are not inferior to the Chinese. (*Ritter, Erdkunde von Asien*, iii. p. 237—251.; *Kennell's Hindostan*, p. 206.; *Hamilton's Gaz.*)

LATAKIA, or **LADIKIEH** (an. *Laodicea ad mare*), a town of Syria, in the pach. of Aleppo, 90 m. S.W. Aleppo, and 74 m. S. by E. Iskenderoon; lat. 35° 30' 30" N., long. 35° 48' E. Pop., according to Mr. Consul Moore, 5,000; but, according to Mr. Barker, 10,000. (*Bourcier's Report on Syria*, p. 114.) The town comprises an upper and a lower part, separated by gardens and plantations. The lower portion, called the *Scala*, consists of a double street, running parallel to the shore, and another leading down to it from the upper town, having coffee-houses, and places of resort for seafaring people. The port is a small shallow basin, with a narrow entrance, and well sheltered, except westward; on its N. side is a ruined castle, standing on a rock connected by arches with the main land; and at the E. end are the custom-house, landing-place, and several large warehouses. The upper town, which is in a very dilapi-

* The reader who wishes for further information with respect to the Stoics, will do well to refer to *Smith's Moral Sentiments*, part vii. sect. ii. cap. i.; and to the *Essai sur les Loix de Montesquieu*, liv. xiv. cap. 10.

dated state, in consequence of the damage occasioned by frequent earthquakes, consists of several narrow and irregular streets: the houses are constructed of cut stone, flat-roofed, usually two stories high, with an inner court. The greatest ornament of the place is a triumphal gate, between 30 ft. and 40 ft. in height, encircled near its summit by a handsome entablature: its four arches are in the Roman style of architecture, and, as the general appearance of the building denotes great antiquity, it was probably erected in honour of Julius Cæsar, or, perhaps, Germanicus. (*Kinnet's*.) The corners are adorned with handsome Corinthian pilasters; and one of its fronts exhibits a baso-relievo, with arms and martial instruments.

At no great distance is a mosque, built from the ruins of another ancient edifice, with Corinthian columns; and amidst the rocks and crags N. of the town is a large necropolis, containing numerous square sarcophagi, similar to those seen in the island of Milo. There are 3 other mosques and 2 Greek churches. The bazaars are poor and insignificant; and the only considerable article of trade is tobacco, raised near the town in large quantities, and highly prized all over the Levant, and at Constantinople. It pays a duty on being reaped of 34 piastres per cantar, and of 3 piastres per cantar on exportation.

The produce of cotton, in the Latakia district, is not usually more than sufficient for the consumption of the country; but when it exceeds it, the excess is exported to the French and Italian ports, the average price being 1,300 piastres per cantar. Bees-wax, scammony, and sponge, are the other chief articles of export. The imports comprise sugar, coffee, spices, cotton twist, and printed goods, woollen cloths, shawls, and tin. The trade of Latakia, however, is much restricted by the badness of its port, which is so choked up with mud and sand as to be inaccessible to vessels of more than 100 tons burden. Subjoined is an account of the number and tonnage of the vessels, and the value of their cargoes, that entered and left the port of Latakia in 1835, 1836, and 1837.

Years.	Arrived.			Departed.		
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Value.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Value.
1835	102	11,157	£ 100,960	96	10,440	55,578
1836	106	12,323	121,947	102	11,947	29,713
1837	94	10,216	92,925	93	10,447	36,732

Latakia is the representative of the ancient Laodicea, so named by its founder, Seleucus Nicator, in honour of his mother, and was a town of considerable importance before the conquest of Syria by the Romans. It was visited by Julius Cæsar when on his way from Egypt to Pontus, and is styled Juloportus on some of its medals. During the civil war, Dolabella, with his fleet and army, was shut up in it by Cassius, and obliged to surrender. It became a bishop's see early in the Christian era, and was held by the Christians when the crusaders invaded Syria. It was afterwards included in the empire of Saladin, and was finally added to the Turkish dominions by Selim I., in 1517. The ruins of the ancient city fully attest its size and grandeur, and offer ready building materials to the modern inhab. The acropolis stood on a tabular summit S.E. of the town; but nothing remains of it beyond a few wells and cisterns. (*Kinnet's Asia Minor*, p. 163-169; *Olivier, Voyage en Syrie*, &c., iv. 133; *Bourgeois's Report*.)

LAUBEN, or LUBEN, a town of Prussian Silesia, gov. Liegnitz, cap. circ. of its own name, on the Queis, 40 m. W.S.W. Liegnitz. Pop. 5,640. It is surrounded with old walls, and garrisoned by invalids. It is the seat of judicial courts for the town and circle; has a Rom. Cath. and three Protestant churches, a gymnasium, an orphan asylum, two hospitals, a school for teaching the art of spinning woollen yarn, and some trade in woollen and linen fabrics. (*Von Zedlitz*; *Berghaus*.)

LAUDER, a royal and parl. bor. and market-town of Scotland, co. Fife, clister, of which it is the cap., near the Lander, a tributary of the Tweed, on the line of road between Edinburgh and Coldstream, 24 m. S.E. of the former, and 23 m. N.W. by W. of the latter. Pop. (which has long been stationary), 1,148. The only public buildings are the par. church, a dissenting chapel, the town-house, and gaol. Thirstane Castle, the ancient residence of the noble family of Lauderdale, is within $\frac{1}{2}$ m. of the town. It has a branch bank, various schools, and subscription libraries. A common, comprising 1,693 acres, is divided among the burghes. In 1463, Cochran and other minions of James III. were hanged by order of the Earl of Arran, and other noblemen, over the parapet of a bridge in the vicinity of this town. Lauder unites with Haddington, Dunbar, Jedburgh, and N. Berwick, in sending one mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 86.

LAUBENBURG, a town of the Danish dom., cap. of

the duchy of same name, on the Elbe, 26 m. S.E. Hamburg. Pop. about 3,400. It has the ruins of a castle formerly occupied by the dukes of Saxe-Lauenburg, a church, an hospital, and a large market-place. A brisk transit trade is carried on between the Elbe and Lubeck through this town, which is also a station for collecting tolls on the Elbe, amounting to between 40,000 and 50,000 rix-dollars a year. (*Horschmann's Stein*, i. 524; *Berghaus*.)

LAUNCESTON, a parl. and mun. bor., market town, and par. of England, co. Cornwall, in the N. division of hund. East, on the Attery, a tributary of the Tamar, 19 m. E.N. Bodmin, 20 m. N.N.W. Falmouth, and 300 m. W. by S. London. Pop. of parl. bor. (which comprises, besides the old bor., the parishes of St. Stephen, St. Thomas, Lawhitton, and S. Petherwin), in 1841, 6,070. The town consists of two chief avenues on the London and Tavistock roads, intersecting each other almost at right angles, crossed by several narrow and mean-looking streets. It was formerly surrounded by walls, parts of which, with 3 gates, are yet standing. The ruins of an ancient castle cover a large extent of ground, and attest its former strength and importance. A part of its keep was once used as a county goal, but the prisoners are now sent to Bodmin, which has been the assize town since 1838. A small guildhall is the only public building devoted to civil purposes. The church, a handsome Gothic structure built of granite blocks, enriched with curiously carved ornaments, has a lofty tower at its W. end: the living is a curacy of the yearly value of 116*l*. There are places of worship also for Wesleyans and Baptists, with attached Sunday schools. A grammar school, founded by Queen Elizabeth, has, according to the charity commissioners, fallen into a state of decay, there having been no master since 1831. Baron's charity school is in nearly as useless a condition, and the only place of instruction for the poor is the national school, attended by about 360 children. Numerous money charities are chiefly distributed by the corporation. This is neither a manufacturing nor a commercial town. Serge-weaving and wool-spinning formerly employed a considerable number of hands; but the trade has wholly disappeared. The removal of the assizes and quarter sessions has, also, deprived the town of much of its activity, and it now depends chiefly on its retail trade and on its markets, which are large and well attended. Market-day, Saturday. Cattle fairs, first Thursday in March, third ditto in April, White-Monday, July 6, Nov. and Dec. 6.

Launceston, otherwise called *Dunkered*, received its first charter from Richard, Earl of Cornwall, in the 13th century, and its privileges were confirmed by Richard II., and many subsequent sovereigns. It is governed under the Mun. Reform Act by 4 aldermen and 12 councillors; but it has no commission of the peace. Corp. revenue, in 1847-48, 180*l*. Launceston returned 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the 25d Edward I. down to the passing of the Reform Act, which deprived it of one mem. Mr. P. previously to this act, the mems., though formally elected by the corporation, were, in fact, mere nominees of the proprietor, the Duke of Northumberland. Besides depriving it of 1 mem., the Reform Act enlarged the limits of the bor., as stated above. Reg. electors in 1849-50, 367.

LAURENCE, or LAWRENCE (St.), the principal river of N. America, and, when considered, as it should be, in connection with the chain of lakes or inland seas of which it is the outlet, it is one of the largest rivers in the world, extending from W. to E., through about 37° of long., and about 8° of lat. Regarding then the St. Lawrence, in this point of view, or as a general name for the connecting line of that great river or water system that unites with the Atlantic in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, its remotest source will probably be found to be the St. Louis, an affluent of Lake Superior, rising in the table land of the Huron country, near the sources of the Mississippi, flowing S., and of the Red River, flowing N. It receives different names in different parts of its course, being, as already seen, at first the St. Louis; between Lake Superior and Lake Huron, the St. Mary; between Lakes Huron and Erie, the St. Clair and Detroit; between Lakes Erie and Ontario, the Niagara; and from Ontario to Montreal it is sometimes called the Cataract or Iroquois, its course from Montreal to the sea being the St. Lawrence, properly so called, but it is now usually called the St. Lawrence from Lake Ontario to the sea. Considered in this point of view, its entire course, from its source to its mouth in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is about long. 542° 29' W. by S. and lat. 46° 15' N. It is about long. 542° 29' W. by S. and lat. 46° 15' N. It is about long. 542° 29' W. by S. and lat. 46° 15' N. Besides traversing Lake Superior, Huron, Erie, and Ontario, the Lake St. Clair, and some similar sheets of water, are mere enlargements of its bed. Lake Michigan also is included in its basin, which is roughly estimated by Darby to comprise an area of upwards of 500,000 sq. m., including the largest collection of fresh water to be found on the surface of the globe. (*Darby's Geogr. View*,

LAURENCE (ST.)

LAURENCE (ST.), GULPH OF. 113

Ar., 300, 301, 318, 321.) For considerably more than half its extent, the St. Lawrence forms the boundary line between the British N. American territories and those of the U. States.

The source of the St. Louis is estimated at about 1,192 ft. above the sea level. (Darby, 301.) The elevation of the river in successive portions of its course, with the estimated area of the great inland seas and smaller lakes, of which it is the connecting link and outlet, are exhibited in the following table:—

	Elevation above level.	Mean depth.	Mean length.	Mean breadth.	Area.
	<i>Feet.</i>	<i>Feet.</i>	<i>Miles.</i>	<i>Miles.</i>	<i>Sq. miles.</i>
Lake Superior	641	300	300	93	19,000
— Huron	596	900	300	50	15,000
— Michigan	600	900	300	50	15,000
— Erie	563	120	320	35	8,000
— Ontario	331	49	180	30	5,400
River St. Lawrence and smaller lakes	—	—	—	—	1,500
Total water surface	—	—	—	—	72,000

The St. Lawrence varies very considerably in breadth, in the middle part of its course inclosing a great many islands, and forming numerous rapids. In those parts of St. Mary, St. Clair, Detroit, and Niagara rivers, where no large islands are met with, the breadth of the stream is usually from $\frac{1}{2}$ m. to 3 or 4 m. At the Sault of St. Louis, 5 m. above Montreal, the river narrows to 5 furlongs; and at Quebec, it is not more than 1,214 yards across; but between those cities its average width is 2 m. From Quebec, the breadth of the St. Lawrence begins to increase rapidly. Immediately beyond the island of Orleans it is 11 m. broad; where the Saguenay joins it, 18 m.; at Point Pelee, upwards of 30 m.; at the Bay of Seven Islands, 70 m.; and at the island of Anticosti, about 350 m. from Quebec, it rolls a flood into the ocean nearly 100 m. across.

The basin of the St. Lawrence is supposed by Darby to contain "more than the half of all the fresh water on this planet!" Taking the area, mean depth of the lakes, &c., as given above, their solid contents will amount to 1,547,011,792,260,000 cubic ft. of water, being sufficient to envelope the entire earth with a watery covering 3 in. in depth. (Darby, p. 223.)

The annual discharge, however, though prodigiously great, does not, from the nature of the basin, bear so considerable a proportion to the contained body of fluid as might, perhaps, have been expected. Darby, from observations made at three different places, estimated the hourly discharge at the enormous amount of 1,673,704,000 cubic ft. This estimate, continues Darby, "exceeds by more than a half the quantity which, on another occasion, I estimated for the Mississippi; and though contrary to my own opinion when I first arrived on the banks of the St. Lawrence, I am convinced it falls below reality." (Gregg, View, 235.)

The source of the St. Lawrence (St. Louis) being 1,192 ft. above the level of the sea, the average fall of the river will, perhaps, be somewhat more than 6 inches a mile. But this fall is very unequally distributed, on account of the many, and in one instance stupendous, cataracts, rapids, &c. interspersed along the river's course. The Niagara, between Lakes Erie and Ontario, has within the short distance of 38 m. a descent of at least 224 ft., 164 of which are contributed by the Great Falls. The St. Mary, between Lakes Superior and Huron, has a fall of 33 ft. in 500 yards; and the rapids are so numerous and dangerous between Kingston and Montreal, that an extensive line of canal navigation has been cut, at a vast expense, to connect Lake Ontario with the Ottawa, and enable ships to avoid this portion of the river. (For a more particular description of the great falls, the chief lakes through which the St. Lawrence passes, and other parts of the basin, see arts. NIAGARA, and LAKES SUPERIOR, HURON, ERIE, &c.)

The great Canadian lakes, especially the three upper lakes, receive few tributaries of any consequence; but the St. Lawrence, in the middle and lower part of its course, is augmented by several considerable rivers, of which the Ottawa, from the N., uniting with it near Montreal, and the Saguenay, also from the N., uniting with it 120 m. below Quebec, are the most important.

The St. Lawrence is said by Darby to be as remarkable for its uniformity throughout the year in the diurnal and monthly expenditure of its waters as the Mississippi is for its continual change. A rise of 3 ft. is a more remarkable phenomenon in the former than a rise of 30 would be in the latter. The two rivers differ widely also in numerous other particulars. The waters of the Mississippi are turbid; those of the St. Lawrence and its lakes are highly transparent. In the course of the Mississippi few lakes or enlargements occur, its banks are low, much of the surface within its basin consists of open grassy plains, and before its disembogue it divides into

numerous channels; the St. Lawrence, on the contrary, consists, in great part, of a chain of vast lakes; as its bed enlarges, it has shelving or precipitous banks, generally covered with primeval forests; and, instead of a delta, it forms at its mouth a large estuary.

The St. Lawrence is the great commercial thoroughfare of our Canadian provinces, and the northern states of the American union. Its banks, and those of its lower lakes, are studded with flourishing cities and towns, as Quebec, Montreal, St. Francis (Three Rivers), Cape Vincent (Kingston), Toronto, Buffalo, Oswego, &c., and others are daily springing into existence. The rise of the tide is perceptible as high as Three Rivers, 423 m. up the St. Lawrence, and nearly midway between Quebec and Montreal. The river is navigable for ships of the line to Quebec, and for ships of 600 tons to Montreal, 560 m. from the sea, though the navigation be in some places obstructed by rocks and shoals. Beyond the latter point, however, a succession of rapids, especially between Cornwall and Johnston, unfits it for the navigation of other than flat-bottomed boats of from 10 to 15 tons. Further up, Ontario and Erie are navigable for ships of the largest size, as is the Niagara River, both above and below the falls. The falls of Niagara are avoided by the Welland canal, a work undertaken by a company incorporated in 1823. This canal, into the formation of which the Ouse, Welland, and Chippewa rivers were, is 431 m. in length, 56 ft. in breadth at its surface, and 36 at its base, 84 ft. deep; and has 37 wooden locks, 10 ft. long, 23 ft. wide, and capable of admitting ships of 125 tons. Detroit river is no more than 7 or 8 ft. in depth, and the lake and river of St. Clair are navigable only for steamboats and schooners; but beyond this, a wide navigation for ships of any magnitude extends nearly to the falls of St. Mary. Boats of 6 ft. draught may reach the foot of these falls, but they cannot ascend them, though canoes, at great risk, sometimes venture to shoot downwards. The falls of St. Mary are generally avoided by a portage of 3 m.

It is thus seen that there is a continued navigation for vessels of medium burden from the head of Lake Huron to Kingston on Lake Ontario, and from Montreal to the mouth of the St. Lawrence. The water communication between Kingston and Montreal is effected chiefly by a chain of canals, the principal being the Rideau canal, constructed by the Canadian, or rather the English govt., connecting Lake Ontario with the Ottawa. Rideau river and lake, the Indian lake, and the Little Cataraqui, form parts of its course. It admits vessels of about 125 tons. The Grenville and La Chaine canals, with the Ottawa, continue the communication to Montreal; the Grenville canal is, however, only adapted for vessels not exceeding 20 ft. in width. On the side of the U. States, the Grand Erie, Oswego, and Champlain canals (see NEW YORK, ERIE, LAKE, &c.) unite the basin of the St. Lawrence with the basins of the Hudson and Susquehanna; as the Ohio and Pennsylvania canals (see OHIO, PENNSYLVANIA) do with the basin of the Mississippi. A canal line has been proposed in Upper Canada between Lakes Huron and Ontario, by which an easy and direct navigation of less than 200 miles would be secured for one that is roundabout and often difficult, of between 600 and 700 m. Key improvements of the kind would, looking at the map merely, appear to be more advantageous and easily effected; but, in point of fact, a height of 387 ft. would have to be surmounted in a short distance by the canal; and we therefore incline to think that the project is at least premature, and should be postponed till the province be richer and better able to bear the expense.

Strong tides prevent the St. Lawrence being covered with compact ice below Quebec; but the enormous masses driven in every direction by the winds and currents render that portion of the river unnavigable for nearly half the year. Between Quebec and Montreal the water communication is totally suspended by the frost from the beginning of Dec. to the middle of April. The navigation of Ontario closes in Oct. During the winter the N.K. part of that lake, from the Bay of Quinte to Sackett's Harbour, is frozen across, and the rest of its surface is usually frozen to a considerable distance from the shore. Lake Erie is not so much encumbered with ice as Lake Ontario, while Lake Huron and Michigan are more encumbered. On Lake Superior the ice is said to extend to 70 m. from its shores. The frost, however, by no means stops commercial intercourse, but forms the rivers and lakes into excellent roads, on which vehicles of all descriptions are used. Among these are ice-boats, built like other vessels with a rudder, mast, sail, &c., and resting on iron skates attached at either end to cross-bars under stem and stern. One of these ice-boats has, it is said, sailed before the wind from Toronto to Fort George on Niagara, a distance of 40 m., in little more than three quarters of an hour! (Darby, Gregg, View, &c. St. Lawrence Basin, pp. 200—201.; New York Gaz., 11. 26. Ar.)

LAURENCE, or LAWRENCE (ST.), GULPH OF, a bay of the Atlantic, chiefly between the 46th and 51st

deg. of N. lat., and the 57th and 65th of W. long., bounded N. by Lower Canada and Labrador, E. by Newfoundland, S. by Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, and W. by New Brunswick and the peninsula of Gaspé (Lower Canada). At its N.W. extremity it receives the river St. Lawrence; and it communicates with the ocean on the N.E. by the Strait of Belle-Ile, between Labrador and Newfoundland, on the S.E. by its principal outlet, the channel called St. Paul's, between Newfoundland and Cape Breton, and on the S. by the Gut of Canso, between Cape Breton and Nova Scotia. It contains the large islands of Anticosti and Prince Edward; and the Magdalen Islands, a group about lat. 47° 30', and between long. 61° 27' and 62° W., inhabited by perhaps 1,000 Canadian, French, English, and Irish settlers, who carry on a profitable fishery. The shores of the gulf are generally precipitous, barren, and inhospitable; and dense fogs are very prevalent. A powerful current sets continually from Hudson's Strait into the gulf, through the Strait of Belle-Ile, and meeting the stream from the estuary of the St. Lawrence forms a dangerous race off the S. coast of Newfoundland. (*Purdy's Memoir of the Atlantic*, pp. 105, 144.; *Encyc. Amer.*)

LAUSANNE, a city of Switzerland, cap. canton of Vaud, at the termination of a spur from the chain of the Jura, being, according to Rbel, 480 ft. above the level of the Lake of Geneva, from the N. shore of which it is about 1 m. distant, and 30 m. N.E. Geneva: lat. 46° 31' N., long. 6° 47' 22" E. Pop. 14,126. It is finely situated on three eminences, and their intervening valleys; but, from being on uneven ground, its streets are steep and irregular; they are also generally narrow and ill paved, and the interior of Lausanne by no means corresponds with its exterior appearance. It is divided into 6 quarters, the city and 5 suburbs, and is now an open town, but on its S. side are some remains of ancient walls. At the highest point of the city is the castle, a massive square building of stone, flanked at its angles by four brick towers. It was originally the residence of the bishops of Lausanne, but is now the council-house of the canton: its terrace, and that of the cathedral, commands magnificent views of the vicinity, the lake, and, far beyond, the stupendous mountains of Savoy. The church, formerly the cathedral, a vast Gothic building, founded about 1000, but not finished till the 13th century, is certainly the finest religious edifice in Switzerland. It has two large towers, one supporting an elegant spire, the summit of which is 240 ft. above the ground, and a fine round window of stained glass, 30 ft. in diameter: in its interior are some singular specimens of architecture; and amongst others the tomb of Amadeus VIII., duke of Savoy. This personage, after abdicating the dukedom, which he had greatly enlarged, and governed with singular ability, was elected pope, by the title of Felix V., under which name he is best known in history. But another pope having been elected, about the same time, by a different party in the church, Felix, to terminate the schism, resigned the tiara in 1449. He died within two years of this event. (See *Biographie Universelle*, art. *Savoie*, *Ann. VIII.*) The church of St. Francis; the cantonal college, with a library and museum, comprising collections of antiquities and minerals; and in the neighbourhood; the bishop's palace, now appropriated to a school of mutual instruction and the district prison; the cantonal hospital, a fine edifice in the Tuscan order; the lunatic asylum of Champ d'Air; the new penitentiary, established in 1822, and organised like that of Philadelphia; the barracks, theatre, charity schools, and post-office, are the other chief public buildings.

Lausanne will be ever famous in literary history, from its having been the residence of Haller, Tissot, Voltaire, and Gibbon. The house occupied by the immortal poet still in good preservation, and is the grand object of attraction to all travellers to Lausanne. "It was here," to borrow the beautiful passage in which Gibbon has perpetuated the memory of the event, "it was here, on the day or rather night of the 27th of June, 1787, between the hours of 11 and 12, that I wrote the last lines of the last page, in a summer-house in my garden. After laying down my pen, I took several turns in a *berceau*, or covered walk of acacias, which commands a prospect of the country, the lake, and the mountains. The air was temperate, the sky was serene, the silver orb of the moon was reflected from the waters, and all nature was silent. I will not dissemble the first emotions of joy on recovery of my freedom, and, perhaps, the establishment of my fame. But my pride was soon humbled, and a sober melancholy was spread over my mind, by the idea that I had taken an everlasting leave of an old and agreeable companion, and that whatsoever might be the future date of my history, the life of the historian must be short and precarious." When Inglish visited Lausanne a few years ago, the library of the historian is said to have been complete, but it has, we believe, been dispersed in the interval. Voltaire, pre-

vously to his settling at Ferney (which see), lived at Monrepos, a little distance from Lausanne, on the Bern road; and Byron wrote his "Prisoner of Chillon" at Ouchy, the port of Lausanne, on the Lake.

Lausanne is now, as in the days of Gibbon, distinguished by its good society, and is in all respects a desirable place of residence for those who are neither anxious to be rich, nor ambitious of political distinction. "I noticed," says Inglish, "many new houses erecting, and very few old houses to let. The inhab., too, are steadily on the increase; and the number of resident strangers is also greater every year. There are some cheaper places of residence than Lausanne; but no one, perhaps, where education is cheaper or better. House rent is decidedly lower in the neighbourhood of most English provincial towns than here; but the prices of provisions are lower than in England. The inns are extremely good, and not excessively expensive; and at the principal *tables d'hôte* the traveller will find an excellent and even elegant repast. There are, besides, several good coffee-rooms, where the best French and Swiss papers are regularly received." (*Switzerland*, &c., p. 170.) There are, also, several public baths and libraries, and a chapel, in which the English as well as the Lutheran and Rom. Cath. service is performed. A steamer sails daily from Ouchy to Geneva, and the E. end of the lake.

Lausanne is the seat of the superior courts of justice, and authorities of the canton of Vaud, of the councils of academy and public instruction, the inspector of schools, and military commandant of the canton, &c. It has an academy, with 14 professors, founded in 1537, a college for the French language, with schools of military science, horsemanship, and drawing, and numerous literary societies. Its manufactures are of little importance. Woollen cloths, paper, leather, and a few other articles, are made, but in small quantities. The celebrated actor, John Kemble, is buried in the cemetery of St. Pierre, about 2 m. from Lausanne, where a monument is erected to his memory.

Lausanne derived its name from the an. *Lousanum*, which stood a little to the W. of the plain of Vidy. Various Roman remains have been discovered there and elsewhere in the vicinity. Before the Reformation, Lausanne was a rich bishopric. It was taken in 1536, by the Bernese, and governed by an officer from Bern till 1798, when it fell into the hands of the French, who made it the cap. of the dépt. of the Lemman. (*Rbel, Manuel Suisse*, pp. 339-345.; *Inglish's Switzerland*; *Coe's Switzerland*, II. 84.)

LAVAL, a town of France, dép. Mayenne, of which it is the cap. on the Mayenne, and on the high road from Paris to Brest, 150 m. S.W. the former city, and 42 m. E. Rennes. Pop. (1846) 15,484. The town proper is on a steep declivity on the W. bank of the river, across which it communicates with a suburb of about half its own size by 2 stone bridges, one built within the last 16 years. *Laval n'offre en général qu'un amas confus de vieilles maisons, séparées par des rues noires, escarpées, étroites, et tortueuses. (Dict. Géog.)* Though ill built, Hugo says it is well paved. It is surrounded with old walls, parts of which are in good repair; and contains many antiquated buildings, among which is the *château*, formerly the residence of the duke of Laval, with a ponderous round tower, now serving for a prison. Many of the private houses have stood for centuries, and are curious specimens of Gothic architecture, though chiefly built of timber. The church of the Trinity, on the site of a former temple of Jupiter, those of *des Cordeliers* and St. Venerand, and the new linen hall, are handsome edifices; but the prefecture, town-hall, theatre, and most of the other public buildings, are of a very ordinary description. It is the seat of tribunals of original jurisdiction and commerce, and has two hospitals, a communal college, a public library with 10,000 vols., and a theatre. It has considerable manufactures of linen stuffs and thread, with fabrics of cotton handkerchiefs, calicoes, flannel, &c., numerous bleaching grounds, tanneries, and marble works. It is also the entrepôt for the linen fabrics and yarn made in the adjacent cantons; markets being held in it every Saturday for such goods, and for wines, brandy, timber, iron, wool, &c., in which it has a considerable traffic. Laval was founded by Charles-le-Chauve, in the 9th century, to arrest the incursions of the Bretons. It was taken by Earl Talbot in 1466, but retaken by the French in the succeeding year. It suffered greatly in the Vendean war at the close of last century. (*Hugo*, art. *Mayenne*; *Guide du Voyageur*, &c.)

LAVALUR, a town of France, dép. Tarn, cap. arrond. on the Agout, here crossed by a stone bridge, 32 m. S.W. Alby. Pop. in 1836 (ex. com.), 4,622. It is divided into an old and a new town, both of which are ill built. It has a communal college, a public library, with 3,500 vols., with manufactures of silk stuffs, chiefly for furniture; and is the entrepôt for the silk goods of Upper Languedoc. In the 13th century, it was a stronghold of the Albigenes; but, after a lengthened and vigorous resist-

ance. It was taken in 1211 by Simon de Montfort, by whom it was treated with the utmost barbarity. (*Hugo, art. Tern.*)

LAVENHAM, or LANHAM, a market town and par. of England, co. Suffolk, hund. Baberg, 13 m. W.N.W. Ipswich, and 57 m. N.E. London. Area of par., 2,900 acres. Pop., in 1831, 3,107. The town, on a branch of the river Brett, in a valley encompassed by hills on all sides except the S., comprises several small streets, with a spacious market-place, having a stone cross in its centre. The church, which has a steeple 143 ft. high, is a handsome structure, partly of freestone, but partly, also, of curious inland flint-work: the porch is of highly ornamental architecture, and the timber ceiling and several pews in the interior are exquisitely carved, somewhat in the style of Henry VII.'s chapel in Westminster Abbey: the living is a rectory in the patronage of Caius College, Cambridge. There are also places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists and Independents, with attached Sunday schools. The charities comprise a free school, founded in 1647, and endowed with about 21l. a year, some almshouses, and minor bequests for the poor. Lavenham had formerly a considerable business in the weaving of blue cloths, serges, and other woollen stuffs; but this has fallen to decay, and has been replaced of late years by the manufacture of hempen cloth, which here, as well as at Haverhill, employs a considerable number of hands. Lavenham is bound by prescription; and land within the manor descends to the youngest son, according to the custom of borough-English. It is one of the polling places for the co. Markets small and ill-attended, on Tuesday. Fairs for butter and cheese, Savoy-Tuesday and Oct. 10.

LAVERO (TERRA DI), a prov. of S. Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, which see.

LAYBACH (Germ. *Lubana*, Illyr. *Lubiana*, an. *Emona*), a city of the Austrian dom. cap. Illyria, and of the circ. of the same name, comprising the duchies of Carinthia and Cariola, in which latter Laybach is situated, on the navigable river of the same name, a tributary of the Save, 80 m. S.W. Gratz, 72 m. E.S.E. Agram, and 54 m. N.E. Trieste. Lat. $46^{\circ} 1' 40''$ N.; long. $14^{\circ} 46' 40''$ E. Pop., in 1838, 13,079 (*Berghaus*), comprising Germans, Italians, Illyrians, and Greeks. Laybach consists of the town-proper, 5 suburbs, and 3 adjacent hamlets. The town is situated on uneven ground, and has narrow and irregular streets, several of which, however, are well paved, and have foot-paths, while most of them are very clean by running streams. Though ill laid out, Laybach is tolerably well built; and has several handsome public edifices, among which are the cathedral, St. James's church, and that of the Ursuline nuns, the Gothic town hall, the lyceum, to which an agricultural garden is attached; the theatre, masquerade-hall, barracks, military school, Auersperg palace, &c. The town is grouped round the castle hill: the castle being now converted into a house of correction, and state prison. Laybach has, in all, 10 churches, 3 hospitals, 3 convents, a gymnasium, a female school, a normal school, an ecclesiastical seminary, and orphan, lunatic, and other asylums. It is the seat of a bishop, and the seat of the government of the circ., and of criminal, commercial, and mining tribunals for the prov., town, and district judicial courts, the board of tolls, salt duties, and customs for the kingd. of Illyria, the agricultural society of Carniola, the museum for the duchy, a philharmonic society, &c. It has 2 large sugar-refineries, and fabrics of linen stuffs, porcelain, paper, leather, &c.: its silk and woollen manufactures have fallen into decay. A considerable transit trade is carried on between Laybach and Trieste, Croatia and S. Germany. Within the last dozen years some extensive marshes in its vicinity have been in a great measure drained, which has rendered the town much more healthy. *Emona* was destroyed by Attila in 452, but having been restored, is said to have been enlarged and fortified by Narses. It is celebrated in diplomatic history for the congress held here in 1811. (*Oesterr. Nat. Encycy.; Berghaus; Klein; Thurnell's Austria.*)

LE', or **LEH**, improperly called **LADAKH**, a div. of Central Asia, and the cap. of the principality of Ladakh in Thibet; in the valley of the Upper Indus, at the foot and on the slope of some low hills on the N. side of the river, from which it is separated by a sandy plain about 2 m. broad, 150 m. S.E. Iskardo, and 930 m. N.W. by W. Lassa. Lat. $34^{\circ} 10'$ N.; long. $77^{\circ} 45'$ E. It is enclosed by a wall, furnished at intervals with conical and square towers, and extending on either side to the summit of the hills. The streets are disposed without any order, and form a most intricate labyrinth; and the houses are built contiguously, and run into each other so strangely, that from without it is difficult to determine the extent of each. The number of houses is said, by the natives, to be about 1,000; but Moorcroft supposed they could scarcely exceed 500. They usually vary from 1 to 2 or 3 stories in height, and are furnished with light wooden balconies. The walls are sometimes wholly or

in part of stone, but in general of large unburnt bricks, whitened outside with lime. The roofs are flat, and like the ceilings, formed of small trunks of poplar trees, above which a layer of willow shoots is laid, covered by a coating of straw, and that again by a bed of earth. They constitute a very insufficient defence against the weather, as during rain the water soon soaks the earth, and pours down into the apartment. The rooms, though frequently of good size, are rarely above 7 or 8 ft. high, and unprovided with chimneys, though in the kitchen there is sometimes a square hole, which acts as an imperfect ventilator. The doors are made of planks of poplar mortised together: iron nails are rarely used, as they are too costly, the iron ore of the country being little wrought for want of fuel. A few felts and sheepskins, and a bench or two with a large box, constitute the principal articles of furniture. The temples are built of the same materials as the houses, and pillars of timber, like those in private dwellings, support the beams, being little more, in fact, than the stems of the poplar or willow, stripped of their bark and painted. The most considerable building in LE is the palace of the rajah, which has a front of 280 ft., and is several stories in height. The pop. is chiefly of the Tibetan stock, but numerous Cashmerians have settled in LE, and intermixed with the natives. LE is the seat of an active commerce in shawl-wool, brought thither from the surrounding territory, from Lassa and Chinese Turkistan, &c., to be transported to Cashmere, and a silver coin is struck at this city, from bars of silver imported from China, which is in general circulation throughout the whole of Western Thibet. (*Moorcroft's Trav.*, l. 315-320; *Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*)

LEADHILLS, a mining village of Scotland, co. Lanark, in an alpine region, in an irregular valley 1,300 ft. above the level of the sea, and surrounded by wild heathy hills rising to the height of 2,450 ft. Pop. 1,188. The mining village of Wanlockhead, though only 1 m. distant, is in the co. of Dumfriesshire. Both villages are inhabited solely by persons connected with the mines; which, however, belong to different proprietors, and are wrought by different companies. With regard to Leadhills, the mineral district comprises a space about 3 m. in length by $\frac{1}{2}$ in breadth, and is principally composed of greywacke, and greywacke slate, which range from S.W. to N.E. These strata are associated with transition clay-slate, called edge matter, from its vertical position, through which the metalliferous veins pass. The principal lead veins run S.E. and N.W., and dip to the E. of 1 foot in 3. The common and compact galena, or lead glance, are the principal ores, and furnish all the lead used in the arts. The vein stones are quartz, calcareous spar, brown spar, sparry ironstone, heavy spar, &c. Silver is contained in the lead, but in too small quantity to repay its extraction. The Leadhills mines are rented by the Scotch Mining Company from the proprietor, who receives every 6th bar of lead, as seigniorage. The produce varies much in different years. It has lately been above 700 tons a year; but it has sometimes been more, and sometimes less. The mines have been wrought from a very remote period. Gold is found in all the neighbouring streams, disseminated in minute particles among the clay more immediately covering the rocks, and also occasionally interspersed in quartz. The search for this precious metal was formerly conducted on a pretty large scale, under royal authority; but never with much success; and all attempts of the kind, except by the curious, have long since ceased.

Leadhills has a chapel belonging to the established church, a school, and an excellent library founded in 1741. Allan Ramsay, the Scotch poet, was a native of this place. The miners of Leadhills are regarded as more than usually intelligent, moral, and respectable. (*Jameson's Mineralogy of the County of Dumfriesshire; New Stat. Acc. of Scotland, & Lanarkshire*, pp. 335-337; and *Dumfriesshire*, pp. 229-305.)

LEAMINGTON PRIORS, a town, par., and watering-place of England, co. Warwick, in Kenilworth, div. of hund. Knightlow, on the Leam, a trib. of the Avon, 2 m. E. Warwick, and 97 m. N.W. London. Area of par., 730 acres. Pop., in 1811, 543; in 1821, 2,183; in 1841, 12,864; and in 1851, supposed to be upwards of 15,000! An unparalleled increase, occasioned by the growing celebrity of its mineral waters, and its many attractions as a place of fashionable resort. This town, which, 30 years ago, was an inconsiderable village, has now many noble and opulent residents: and the elegance of its squares, streets, crescents, and terraces, and of its numerous public and private edifices, justly entitle it to a place among the handsomest and best built towns in the kingdom. It formerly stood only on the S. of the river; but within the last few years it has been extended to the opposite side, with which it is connected by two handsome stone bridges: one of these, widened and beautified in 1840, has received the name of "Victoria Bridge;" the other, about a $\frac{1}{2}$ m. lower down the Leam, on the

estate of M. Wise, Esq., at whose expense it has been built, was also opened in 1840. The numerous hotels are nowise inferior to those of Bath, Cheltenham, and other fashionable watering places. It has, also, many suburban villas and detached residences.

The waters, to which Leamington owes its celebrity, embrace 11 different streams, uniting, in a single spot, saline, sulphureous, and chalybeate waters. That which most abounds, and which is known as "the Leamington waters," has been analysed by Drs. Lambe and Loudon; it consists chiefly of the sulphate of magnesia and soda, in combination with murate of soda, or common salt: the waters are used internally by dyspeptic and chronic patients; and have been found very useful when applied externally in cutaneous diseases and rheumatism.

The following TABLE, drawn up from the Analysis of Dr. Lambe, shows the number of Grains of Mineral Salts contained in a Gallon of Water from Two of the principal Springs.

Description of Salts.	Old Bath.	New Bath.
Carbonate of Iron	75	
Muriate of magnesia	11.5	58.6
Sulphate of soda	430	530.7
Sulphate of lime	118	57
" " soda	152	146

The *pump-rooms* and *baths* are fitted up with every degree of elegance, combined with comfort and utility. They are constantly supplied with water from the springs; and these, with the assembly rooms, public libraries, music hall, and numerous promenades and pleasure gardens, form the principal attractions, and contribute chiefly to the amusement of the visitors. The church is a good specimen of Gothic architecture; there is also a district church, episcopal chapel, and places of worship for Rom. Catholics, Wesleyan Methodists, and other sects. A national school, an infant school, and several Sunday schools, are well supported; and there are also several very excellent charitable institutions, particularly the "Warneford Hospital," endowed by Dr. Warneford, where the poor have the benefit of gratuitous baths, and of the best medical advice.

Being in the centre of a fine sporting country, Leamington has of late years become the head quarters of many of the leading Nimrods of the day. Three packs of hounds are hunted regularly during the season; and its spring races (held on the Warwick course), its annual steeple chases, hunting club, and other similar attractions, have rendered it in this respect no mean competitor even of Melton Mowbray.

It could not, of course, be expected that manufactures should grow up in a place where pleasure forms the principal pursuit. The business of the town is, consequently, confined to the supply and retailing of articles required by the resident gentry and visitors; and the latter are generally so numerous, as to make it a scene of bustle and activity during the greater part of the year. It has 3 weekly newspapers.

The Warwick and Northampton canal passes close to the town, and, by its union with other lines of canal communication, gives all the advantage of an extensive inland navigation. It is united by a branch line with the London and Birmingham railway.

The surrounding country, which is highly picturesque, furnishes an almost endless variety of pleasing rides and excursions, diversified by the fine residences of the Warwick, Clarendon, Leigh, Willoughby, and other families; the ruins of Kenilworth Castle, Guy's Cliff, and other spots equally interesting to the tourist and the antiquary. (*Private Information.*)

LEBANON, an extensive and very celebrated range of mountains in Asia, connected northward with the table-land of Anatolia, thence running S.W. in two nearly parallel chains through Syria and Palestine, and finally connecting itself with Mounts Horeb and Sinai near the Gulph of Suez. The W. chain, called Djebel-Liban, the *Lībānus* proper of antiquity, detaches itself from the mountains of Asia Minor at the Gulph of Iskenderoon; it is cut through by the deep channel of the Orontes, in lat. 37° 7', and as it proceeds southward, at an average distance of 24 m. from the Mediterranean, it increases in height, till, in lat. 34° 19', the culminating point of the chain, Djebel Makmel attains an elevation of 12,000 ft. above the sea. Many summits in this part rise considerably above the limits of perpetual snow; and even in lat. 23° 50' the ancient *Carmel* and the twin summits of *Ebal* and *Gertziim*, so famous in the history of the Israelites (Deut. xl. 29.), are conspicuous from their towering height; but more southward the mountains sink much lower, and are traced with some difficulty S. of Gaza. The E. chain, now called Djebel-es-Sheikh, and identical with the *Anti-Lībānus* of Strabo (lib. xvi.), detaches itself from the range of Taurus, about 60 m. E. of that last mentioned; it attains the extreme altitude

of about 5,000 ft. in lat. 33° 20', under the ancient name of *Mount Hermon*, and after maintaining a considerable elevation as far S. as the 32d parallel, becomes lower and less regular as it skirts the Dead Sea on its E. side, and finally is connected with the sandy hills of Arabia; this chain, indeed, is much less defined throughout its course, and altogether inferior in proportion to the chain running along the coast. The valley of Bikanah (an. *Cale-Syria*), which separates these chains, is about 100 m. long, and varies from 10 to 30 m. in breadth, having an elevation near the sources of the Orontes exceeding 2,000 ft. above the sea; and southward is the valley of the Jordan, which Burckhardt has traced through Arabia to the Gulph of Akabah (see JORDAN). Besides the Orontes and Jordan, which are the two great rivers of this mountain system, a smaller stream, called the *Litani*, rises near Baalbec, and flows S.W. into the Mediterranean, a few miles N. of Tyre. The geology of Mount Lebanon seems to have been little investigated by travellers; but from scattered hints collected from Richardson, Burckhardt, Robinson, and Elliott, it may be inferred that the general formation is carboniferous and mountain-limestone, with greywacke and slate rising to the surface in the higher parts. The limestone in many parts is very porous, easily acted on by air and water, and rapidly worn into hollows of various shapes and sizes, which have been formed into sepulchres and caves, formerly the hiding-places of the persecuted Jews and Christians. (*Elliott*, II. 357.) Basalt, and other igneous rocks, appear E. and S. of Lake Tiberias, and the heights skirting the Dead Sea, present granite, gneiss, dolomite, &c. Iron and coal are abundant in some parts of the range. The former is wrought in two districts; but, owing to the distance from which the fuel has to be brought for smelting the ore, the produce of the mines is scarcely sufficient for the consumption of the pachalik. The coal-mines which, during several years past, have been wrought by Mehemet Ali, are situated about 8 hours' distance from Beyrout, at an elevation of about 2,500 ft. above the sea. The seams vary from 3 ft. to 4½ ft. in thickness; but the coal, though abundant, is rather sulphureous. In 1828, they employed 114 work-people in alternate gangs, day and night, at daily wages of 3 piastres (7d.) each. The quantity of coal dug up in 1837 amounted in all to only about 4,000 tons. Iron-pyrites are found mixed with the coal, and smelting furnaces have been erected near the pits; but the returns are quite insignificant.

The principal animals found on Mount Lebanon are, the roe-deer, the antelope, the goat, the mountain-sheep, the jerboa, &c.; with eagles, hawks, ravens, herons, and pelicans. The general aspect of the mountain scenery is thus described by an intelligent English clergyman:—"Our route lay directly across Mount Lebanon, the chief part of which is nearly barren. Almost the only tree which it nourishes is the fir, and consequently the view is not of a character to interest a lover of scenery. From the sea and the plains the range forms a noble object for the eye to rest on; but when once the ascent is begun, few of the component elements of a beautiful prospect are discernible. Deep ravines, indeed, and rugged beetling precipices meet one at every turn, and render travelling both painful and hazardous; but there are neither glaciers nor waterfalls, neither lakes nor rivers, nor verdant fields nor smiling valleys, nor extensive forests, no floral richness, and no rural villages: even the cedars, once "the glory of Lebanon" (Isa. lx. 13.) have deserted it, and are replaced by the umbrella-topped fir. In one spot only called Bisharri, nearly opposite Tripoli, eight gigantic cedars, and a few of inferior size, attest the splendour of their by-gone race. The large trees measure about 36 ft. round the trunk, and more than 100 ft. between the extreme points of the opposite branches while at the base a little above the ground out five limbs, each measuring 19 or 15 ft. in circ. At another spot W. of Bisharri, little known, and seldom visited, this same interesting tree is found in much greater numbers, but of inferior growth. The mountaineers cut down the cedars for their charcoal and tar, which latter article is used medicinally to heal the wounds and diseases of the camel and the other animals." (*Elliott's Travels*, vol. II. p. 326.)

"In fact," says another traveller, "it is impossible to view these patriarchs of the vegetable world, the remains of vast forests that once supplied Jerusalem with its finest timber and its choicest incense, without feeling the truth, aptness, and precision of the prophecies concerning them:—'The rest of the trees of his forest shall be few, that a child may write them.' Lebanon is ashamed and hewn down. The high ones of stature shall be hewn down: Lebanon shall fall by the mighty one.'" (Isaiah, x. 19, 23, 24; and xxxiii. 9.) It must not be supposed, however, from Mr. Elliott's description, that the *wāde* mountain region is barren and uninteresting; for there are many fertile and well-peopled valleys, inhabited by an industrious people (about 35,000), chiefly Maronite Christians, occupied in the silk and dyeing trades, and in raising

* See "A Practical Dissertation on the Waters of Leamington Spa," &c. &c., by Dr. Chas. Loudon.

wine, corn, tobacco, and cotton. Dr. Bowring describes them as "an active and laborious race, who turn to good account such parts of the soil as are suited to tillage; and in no part of Syria," says he, "is there so obvious an activity, in none are the inhabitants so prosperous or so happy. The agricultural implements are rude: the plough is occasionally seen; but spade husbandry is much more used; and the steepness of the hill sides requires a succession of terraces for cultivation. Almost every male inhabitant is a small proprietor of land; and some of the emirs are large owners, either cultivating their estates themselves, or letting them out to tenants."

Some of the convents produce a wine called *l'ano d'Ore*, of good quality, both red and white; but it is often spoiled by the practice of boiling, and the use of skins. The tobacco of Mount Lebanon ranks also as the best in Syria. The quantity of raw silk produced in the district, exclusive of Tripoli, amounts annually to 240,000 okeas, the price, in 1838, being from 130 to 135 piastres per oke: of this quantity 2-3rds are exported, and the rest consumed in the country. The weaving industry of Mount Lebanon, however, is perhaps superior to its agriculture; for Mr. Consul Moore reports, that of about 1,300 looms employed in this district, 300 were engaged in producing silk and cotton stuffs of the better qualities, 300 in weaving the *abbes*, or coarse woollen garment of the peasantry, and 600 in making coarse cotton shirting. The manufacture and weaving of silk thread is likewise pursued to a considerable extent; and the annual consumption of gold for this trade averages about 60,000 drachmas. Exorbitant taxes are, however, a great hindrance to industry; and it is only matter for surprise that, notwithstanding they are meted of nearly half their earnings, these people maintain their "proud bearing and independent character." (*Bowring's Report on Syria*; *Elliot's Travels*, vol. ii.; *Robinson's Syria*, vol. ii.; *Ricland's Pal. cap.* xlviii. p. 211, &c.)

LEBRIJA (an. *Nebrissa*), a town of Spain, prov. Cadiz, in the *fiat* of the Guadalquivir, 30 m. S. by W. Seville, and 33 m. N. Cadiz. Pop., according to Mifano, 6,716. A par. church, built of the materials of an old mosque, a convent, an hospital, and a well-endowed classical college, are the chief public buildings; and there is also a ruined castle of considerable extent. Being situated in the midst of an extensive and marshy flat, Lebrija is extremely unhealthy, especially during the heats of summer; but the circumjacent alluvial soil is highly productive. The town has fabrics of glass, earthenware, blankets and sacking, soap, bricks, tiles, and mortar. (*Mifano*.)

LECCE (an. *Syphris* and *Lupia*), a city of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Otranto, cap. distr. and canton, on the road from Brindisi to Otranto, about 23 m. S.E. the former city, and the same distance N.W. the latter; lat. 40° 21' 14" N., long. 18° 17' E. Pop. 14,000. "The city of the present day is least equal that of Foglia; its houses are infinitely larger; and it is even supposed that it would commodiously admit a pop. of 30,000. The city is fortified by a wall and towers, in bad condition, above a deep ditch; and possesses, moreover, a castle or citadel. It comprises the usual appendages of a provincial cap., a seminary, tribunal, and theatre; and adds to these a large manufactory of tobacco, the produce of which, as itself, is highly esteemed throughout the kingdom. The principal gate of entrance to Lecce is very magnificent, though in a strange overloaded style of architecture. The facility with which the stone of the country is wrought, has proved of great advantage to the architectural embellishments of Lecce; but it has also afforded a fatal facility of propagating the extravagant and almost incredibly bad taste exemplified in every building of consequence. Their magnitude alone is imposing to the spectator, while their innumerable absurdities disgust him. Among these edifices the churches are pre-eminent: they exhibit all the grotesque barbarity of the Gothic, without any of its airy lightness; and their interior decorations, though by no means in the same style, are not likely to make up for these defects. The inside of the cathedral, dedicated to St. Oronzio, the patron of the city, is simple and unassuming; a few insaid marbles, and some indifferent paintings, constitute its only ornaments. The ceiling is of brown carved wood, richly gilt; and it has, though perhaps not strictly adapted to a place of public worship, a handsome effect. In the principal square is an antique column brought from Brindisi: it supports the statue of the protecting saint, and near its base is a fountain without water, adorned by a small equestrian statue of one of the sovereigns of Naples. The inbabs. of Lecce are mostly in easy circumstances, and renowned for their courteous polished manners. The climate is oppressively hot

during the summer, and the porous quality of the material of which the town is built is supposed to absorb the damp in the morning, only to emit it again at sunset, to the great prejudice of the health of the natives. The common disorder of the country, to which strangers are more particularly subject, is an intense catarrh, known by the name of *costo*, which is frequently attended by serious fever, and often turns to internal inflammation." (*Cressen's Tour*, &c. p. 134—137.) The surrounding distr. is one of great fertility; but bears all the marks of bad government, and backward cultivation. It supplies, however, silk, wool, fax, cotton, oil, wine, &c., of good quality, in which the city is said to have an active trade. Lecce has also manufactures of lace, linen thread, woollen cloth, and cotton and silk fabrics. The centre of the city is somewhat busy, being occupied by the artisans; but the other parts of the town are so very deserted, that Craven says he has frequently found himself the only person walking in one of the most considerable streets. The produce of Lecce is mostly exported from Otranto, or from San Cataldo on the Adriatic.

Syphris, or Lupia, on the site of Lecce, was very ancient. Augustus remained in it for some days after his return to Italy on hearing of the death of Caesar. In the middle ages it was called *Lycium*. It was made the *fiat* of an earl soon after the establishment of the Normans; and Tancred, one of its earls, succeeded to the crown of Naples in 1189. The novelist Ammirato, and the anatomist Baglivi, were natives of Lecce. (*Cressen's Naples*, i. 134—138; *Swinburne's Two Sicilies*, i. 379, 380, &c.; *Cressen's Ancient Italy*, ii. 307.)

LECHLADE, a market town and par. of England, co. Gloucester, hund. Brighthelm's arrow, at the confluence of the Leech with the Isis, 13 m. E. Cirencester, and 68 m. W. by N. London. Area of par. 3,980 acres. Pop., in 1841, 1,300. The town consists chiefly of a single, long, wide, and well-built street; and the river (which is navigable up to this place, a distance, by water, of 146 m. from London.) is crossed by a good stone bridge. The church, a handsome stone structure, built in the reign of Henry VII., has a tower and spire at its W. end. There are also places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists and Baptists; and two Sunday-schools. The principal importance of Lechlade is derived from its site at the junction of the Thames navigation with the Thames and Severn Canal, which makes it the seat of an extensive transit trade in butter, cheese, corn, malt, &c.; but this will probably suffer a material diminution when the Great Western Railway is completed. Markets on Tuesday; fairs, Aug. 5, and 12, and Sept. 9., for cattle and cheese.

LECTOURE (an. *Lactora*, and *Civitas Lactoratensis*), a town of France, dép. Gers, cap. arrond., on the summit of a steep isolated rock, 19 m. N. Auch. Pop. in 1846 (ex com.), 2,107. It was formerly surrounded with a triple range of strong walls, the remains of which still exist. It is traversed by a wide, regularly built, and clean street, at one end of which is a hospital occupying the site of an ancient castle, and at the other a handsome Gothic church, built by the English. Nearly all the other streets are *fort triste et fort irrégulière*. Near the above church is the old episcopal palace, now the town-hall, sub-prefecture, and court of primary jurisdiction. In the town-hall are portraits of Marshal Lannes, Duc de Montebello, and other distinguished individuals, natives of the town; a marble statue of the marshal is also erected on the public esplanade. Lectora has manufactures of serge and coarse woollen cloths, and a considerable trade in cattle, wines, brandy, and agricultural produce.

Lectora, though not mentioned by the ancient geographers, has several Roman antiquities; the chief is a votive altar, in good preservation, which dates from the time of Gratian. At the foot of the hill on which the town is built is a fountain of excellent water; its modern name is *Hondelis*, derived, as is said, from its ancient name, *Pons Delie*; having been consecrated to Diana, who had a temple in the vicinity.

Lectora belonged, for a lengthened period, to the counts of Armagnac. The last of that family having been besieged in it in 1473, by the troops of Louis XI., commanded by the Cardinal of Alby, surrendered on terms which the cardinal offered and swore to observe. No sooner, however, had the blood-thirsty perfidious ecclesiastic got the count into his power, than he ordered him to be assassinated, and gave up the town to military execution. (*L'Art de vérifier les Dates*, part II. tom. ix. 330. 8vo. ed.; *Hugo*, art. *Gers*, &c.)

LEDBURY, a market town and par. of England, co. Hereford, hund. Radlow, near the Leden, a trib. of the Severn, 13 m. E. Hereford, 14 m. S.W. Worcester, and 105 m. W.N.W. London. Area of par., 8,630 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,561. The town, situated on the slope of a hill at the E. angle of the co., at the extremity of the Malvern hills, comprises two principal intersecting streets, with others of inferior character. Many of the houses are handsome, and built of stone quarried in the neighbour-

* "The stone of the country is of a fine white, so soft when taken out of the quarry that it may be moulded like wax, and will receive any form the slightest strokes of the chisel impress it with; yet, by remaining exposed to the air, it soon acquires a proper degree of consistency." (*Swinburne's Travels*, i. 380.)

hood. The church, which is of Norman architecture, with more recent alterations and additions, comprises a nave, aisles, and chancel, with a chapel; and the tower, which is detached from the rest of the building, is surmounted by a fine spire 60 ft. high: the living is a vicarage, in private patronage. There are, also, places of worship for Independents, Baptists, and Wesleyan Methodists, with well-attended Sunday schools attached to each; a national school for both sexes, partly supported by the produce of two or three old charities; and a school of industry for girls. The free school, founded in the 16th century, formerly had the reputation of being a good classical school; but the endowment is very trifling, and the instruction is now confined to reading, writing, and arithmetic. St. Catherine's hospital, for poor men and women, founded by Hugh Foliot, bishop of Hereford, in 1223, comprises a master, chaplain, 7 brethren, and 3 sisters, each of whom, in addition to a comfortable dwelling and some yearly allowances, receives a stipend of 6s. a week. The hospital, lately rebuilt, is a handsome structure, with two wings, and a chapel and hall in the centre; and it is proposed, as the estates are increasing in value, to raise the number of inmates to 24. The par. is unusually rich in money charities, distributed chiefly by the clergy and churchwardens. (See *Char. Comm. 3d Rep. p. 2*.) Ledbury was celebrated during the reigns of Elizabeth and James I. for its extensive manufactures of broad cloth and silk; but they are now quite extinct. Malting, tanning, and the weaving of sack, employ a considerable number of hands; but the present importance of the town is derived from its being the chief market of a district producing large quantities of hops, cyder, and perry. Stone and marble are quarried in the neighbourhood, and the latter is sent to various parts for chimney-pieces, slabs, &c.

Ledbury was anciently a par. bor., and in the reign of Edward I. twice returned mems. to the H. of C.; but the privilege was not preserved.

LEEDS, a parl. and mun. bor., par., and celebrated manufacturing town of England, being the great centre of the woollen cloth trade, co. York. W. riding, locally situated in w. S. York, on the edge of the Wharfe, and river Aire, 23 m. W. S. W. York. 23 m. N. Sheffield, and 170 m. N. W. London: lat. 53° 47' 30" N. and long. 1° 32' W. Area of par. and of parl. and mun. bor. (which are all co-extensive), 21,450 acres: pop. of parl. bor. in 1841, 151,874; pop. of town, at same period, 88,741.

We subjoin an account of the area, pop., &c. of the different parts of the bor., drawn up from the census of 1841 and other official returns:—

Townships.	Area in Acres.	Pop. in 1851.	Pop. in 1841.
Town of Leeds (comprising 9 townships)	2,500	71,498	88,741
Armley	1,040	5,155	5,676
Beeston	1,770	9,128	9,175
Bramley	2,490	7,032	8,475
Chapel Allerton	3,040	1,324	2,540
Farsley	1,970	1,591	1,580
Headingley with Burley	3,300	5,849	4,768
Holbeck	760	11,810	15,246
Hunslet	1,150	12,674	15,523
Potter Newnham	2,400	1,941	2,540
Wortley	340	5,944	7,090
Totals	21,450	125,593	151,874

The principal and best part of Leeds stands on the slope of a hill N. of the Aire, and the buildings cover a space of about 1,000 acres. The town, speaking generally, is irregularly built, with narrow and crooked streets; but the centre and W. end comprise several handsome streets lined with fine houses. Briggate, in the centre of the town, is the largest, and is as wide as Oxford Street, London. Three stone bridges, at two of cast iron, on the bow and stringer principle, cross the river Aire, on the S. side of which are the extensive suburbs of Holbeck and Hunslet, containing some large factories. The town is well paved, flagged, and lighted with gas. Formerly, the supply of water was rather deficient; but extensive works have been completed within the last few years, by which an abundant supply of excellent water is conveyed into the town from the Harewood hills, 5 or 6 m. distant, at an expense of about 130,000*l*. Among the public buildings, the cloth-halls deserve particular notice: the Mixed-cloth Hall, at the corner of Wellington Street, built in 1758, is a quadrangular building, 280 ft. long, and 200 ft. broad, enclosing an open area, and having about 1,800 stands. The White-cloth Hall, for the sale of undyed goods, on the plan of the former, was erected in 1775: it has about 1,300 stands. A third building of the same description, in Albion Street, but smaller, intended to accommodate traders not licensed to sell in the other halls, has been long abandoned. Close to the Mixed-cloth Hall, is a handsome edifice, called the "Commercial Buildings," which would do credit to the metropolis, appropriated chiefly to news-rooms and bankruptcy courts, but partly also to

trading purposes. The court-house, in which the petty and quarter sessions of the bor. and the Michaelmas sessions of the W. riding are held, is a well-arranged building for police purposes; but the gaol attached to it being too small for the wants of the town and borough, a gaol on the most approved construction, to accommodate in separate cells about 300 prisoners, has lately been erected on Armley hill, at a cost of 30,000*l*. The corn exchange faces Briggate: its front is of the Ionic order, and has a niche in the centre, with a statue of Queen Anne. The central market, erected at an expense of 26,000*l*, is large, handsome, and commodious: there are also two other markets. The cavalry barracks, erected in 1820, on the N. side of the town, are well built and very extensive, occupying, with the parade grounds, nearly 12 acres. The workhouse is not of a size corresponding with the wants of so large a parish, but it is well conducted. The sum raised by rates and expended on the relief of the poor of the township in 1847, amounted to 25,688*l*, assessed upon property of the estimated value of 312,257*l*, a year.

The hall of the Philosophical and Literary Society, and a theatre on the S. side of the town, and two commodious bath establishments, are the only other public buildings besides the churches. The places of worship in the parish are numerous: from a census made and published in 1843, under the management of Mr. E. Barnes, it appeared that there were in the whole parish 20 episcopal churches with 21,337 sittings; and 69 Dissenting chapels with 45,899 do., of which 18,386 belonged to Wesleyan Methodists, 10,121 to other branches of Methodists, 8,718 to Independents, 2,750 to Baptists, 1,400 to R. Catholics, 1,380 to Unitarians, &c. Since then the number of churches, connected with the establishment, has increased to 27, and there has also been an increase in the chapels of Dissenters. The par. church, rebuilt, on the site of an old Gothic edifice, in the perpendicular English style, is said to be one of the largest and handsomest churches in England: the living is a vicarage, worth above 1,200*l*. a year, and has attached to it the sole patronage of 13 out of the 27 churches in the par., and the joint patronage with other parties of 2 other churches. An act of the 8th & 9th Viet. authorized the division of the par. into sundry parishes and vicarages, and gave its authority to 6 parishes have been formed, of which 3 are within and 3 without the township. An independent chapel, erected in East Parade, at a cost of 12,000*l*, has a handsome Doric portico, and is the finest Grecian edifice in the town. Each out-township likewise has its episcopal chapel, and one or more places of worship for dissenters. A spacious cemetery, near Woodhouse Moor, occupying 10 acres of ground, was opened in 1836, for the use of persons of all religious denominations: in the centre is a chapel, beneath which are large vaults. There are also two large parochial cemeteries, one at Burmantofts, and the other at Hunslet, purchased by rates on the inhabitants, and each having an unconsecrated as well as a consecrated portion of ground, and two chapels for the accommodation of Dissenters as well as churchmen. The Sunday schools of the borough give religious instruction to about 26,400 children, 9,000 of whom are connected with the church, and the rest with the various denominations of dissenters. The establishments for general education comprise, 1. A well endowed grammar-school, founded in 1582, which gives free instruction in classics and the elements of mathematics to the sons of all residents in Leeds, and enjoys the reputation of being able and successfully conducted; 4 scholarships in Magdalen College, Cambridge, and an exhibition in Queen's College, Oxford, are open to the competition of its pupils. 2. A national school, attended by upwards of 400 children. 3. An extremely well conducted Lancasterian school, established in 1811, and giving instruction to 300 boys. 4. A model infant school, where a considerable number of persons have been trained for the teaching of infant schools, and where about 120 children receive regular instruction. 5. Mr. Milner's school, comprising a boys', girls', and infants' schools. Numerous other public day schools are supported by the Church, the Wesleyans, the Independents, and other religious bodies. St. John's Charity, founded in 1708, has for its object the training of girls to become household servants: its income is about 40*l*. a year, and the management is vested in a committee of subscribers. The chief societies for the promotion of literature and science are the Philosophical and Literary Society, which has a handsome hall and museum in Park Row; and the Mechanic's Institution and Literary Society, which has a hall in South Parade, a library of 7,000 volumes, and upwards of 1,800 members, with a large day school, a school of design, and numerous evening classes. Leeds has also a school of medicine, a society for the promotion of the fine arts, and five subscription libraries. The charitable institutions comprise, besides the schools already mentioned, an infirmary, founded in 1767, supported by subscriptions, and accommodating 150 in-patients, said by Howard to be one of the best conducted hospitals in England; a fever hospital, called the "House of Recovery;" a lying-in hospital, an eye and ear in-

armacy, and a public dispensary. There are likewise several endowed charities for the aged poor, and other benevolent institutions, the gross revenues of which exceed 4,000*l*. a year. Party politics run pretty high in Leeds. It has three weekly newspapers; one of which, the "Leeds Mercury," is one of the ablest and most widely circulated of the provincial papers.

Leeds owes its great and long-continued eminence as a manufacturing town, partly to its advantageous situation, and partly to the industry and ingenuity of its inhabs. It stands in a fertile country intersected with rivers, and possessing rich and all but inexhaustible beds of coal. The natural facilities afforded by its position for procuring raw materials, and for disposing of its manufactured produce, have been vastly extended by artificial means. On the one hand, it communicates with the Humber, and, consequently, with the German Ocean, by means of the Aire and Calder Navigation, which allows vessels of 120 tons to come up to the town; and on the other hand, it communicates with the Mersey and Liverpool by the Leeds and Liverpool Canal. Railways have also been opened in every direction, — to York, Hull, Manchester, Fresh, Skipton, Lancaster, &c., and two by Derby and Lincoln to London.

The staple manufacture is the production of woollen cloths; but the spinning of flax and worsted is also an important branch of industry. We subjoin the following official return, obligingly furnished for this work, of the description and number of mills engaged in the principal departments of industry carried on in the bor. of Leeds in October, 1850, with the amount of the power in operation, and of the hands employed in the same.

Description of Mills.	No. of Mills.	Horse-power.	Hands employed.
Woolen	102	2,354	10,300
Worsted	146	971	971
Flax	35	1,861	9,256

And to these have to be added 1 cotton and 3 silk mills.

The woollen manufacture of Leeds and its neighbourhood is carried on in two ways — on the domestic system, and by means of factories. According to the former plan, the business is conducted by a number of small masters, generally possessed of very limited capitals, who have in their houses from two to four looms, and employ, besides themselves and their families, from three to seven journeymen. Formerly, they used to carry the wool by hand-labour through all the stages of its manufacture, till it was made into undressed cloth; but for several years past they have availed themselves, in the performance of various processes, of the *public mills* that have been erected, mostly on a joint-stock principle, in all the villages within the district where this system prevails. By this means, the domestic cloths are produced as good and cheap as those made in factories. The wages of hand-loom weavers in and about Leeds vary from 12*s*. to 18*s*. a week. The factory system owes its existence to the improvements of machinery subsequent to 1790; and, though strongly opposed by the domestic clothiers, has greatly improved the manufacture, and raised Leeds to its present eminence as a mart for superfine broad cloths. The master manufacturers, who necessarily either possess or have the command of large capitals, employ a greater or less number of workmen, in one or more large factories, under their own inspection, or that of their superintendents. In these factories the whole processes are carried forward, from the breaking of the wool to the finishing of the cloth for the consumer. Powerlooms, however, have hitherto been but little employed in the weaving of fine cloths, not 1-3rd part of those produced being now (1850) woven by their agency. The woollen fabrics manufactured at Leeds comprise broad cloths, ladies' cloths, kerseys, swansdowns, and beavers. The goods sold to the merchants in a rough or undressed state are finished in dyehouses and dressing-shops, which of themselves give employment to upwards of 4,000 persons. The sale of cloths is partly effected in the different cloth-halls, on the mornings of Tuesday and Saturday, between 11 and 12; but of late years, or since the manufacturers began wholly to finish their goods, the cloth halls have lost a good deal of their importance, and a full half of the business that used to be entirely carried on in them is now transacted in private counting-houses. Shalouns, stuffs, and camlets, are made to some extent; and immense quantities of unfinished stuffs are brought here to be finished from Bradford and Halifax. Some of the flax-mills are superb establishments; large quantities of linen yarn are sent to Barnsley to be manufactured into linens, and large quantities are also sent to Ireland and France; canvases, sackings, and linens, are also made to some extent in the town. The average wages of linen weavers per week vary from 8*s*. to 10*s*. nett, when in full work, which is seldom the case. The weavers were characterised by the hand-loom commissioners as intelligent, sober, and steady, but in extreme poverty. The manufacture of machinery employs a great number

of hands; and there are likewise extensive chemical works, large glass-houses, potteries making goods almost exclusively for exportation, extensive tobacco-mills, and soap-works, which produced, in 1846, 1,121,888 lbs. hard, and 938,150 lbs. soft soap. The greatest portion of the manufacturing operations of the town are carried on by means of steam-engines, of which some hundreds are at work within the par. A branch of the Bank of England is established at Leeds, and there are five joint stock banking companies, besides two private banking establishments, and a savings' bank, which had, on the 30th Nov. 1848, 253,473*l*. of deposits.

Leeds was first incorporated as a mun. bor. in the reign of Charles I., and received its charter in the 13th of Charles II. Under the Municipal Reform Act, it is divided into 12 wards, and the government is vested in a recorder, mayor, 16 aldermen, and 48 councillors: corp. revenue in 1847-48, 31,341*l*. An efficient body of police has been organised, similar to that of the metropolises. It is the seat of a county court, before which 6,174 plaints were entered in 1848. Notwithstanding its importance, as the first clothing town of the British empire, Leeds was not represented in parliament till 1832, when the Reform Act conferred on it the important privilege of sending 3 mems. to the H. of C. Rep. electors, in 1849-50, 6,151. Markets on Tuesday and Saturday; cattle fairs on alternate Wednesdays; and for horses and hardware, July 10, 11, Oct. 8, and Nov. 9.

Leeds is mentioned by Bede, and in the Domesday survey. Leland, early in the 15th century, describes it as a market town, subsisting chiefly by clothing, reasonably well built, and as large as Bradford, but considerably less than Wakefield. The clothing trade had been introduced about 60 years before Leland's time, and the town has since gradually risen to the rank of industry of its inhabs., till it has become the third manufacturing town of the first manufacturing nation of the world. (*Baines's Gazetteer of Yorkshire*; *Parsons' Annals of Leeds*, passim.; *Parl. Rep.*; and *Priv. Inform.*)

LEEK, a manufacturing market-town, and par. of England, co. Stafford, hund. Totmonslow, on the Churnet, a tributary of the Trent, 12 m. S. Macclesfield, and 134 m. N. by W. London. Area of par. (comprising 10 townships), 34,370 acres. Pop. in 1841, 11,738. Pop. of Leek and Looe townships, 7,223. It is situated in the mountainous part of the co. called the Moorlands, on the road between London and Manchester, and consists of a principal street lined with some good modern houses, and crossed by several narrow and irregular avenues. The church is an old Gothic structure, with a square tower: in the churchyard are the remains of a Danish cross, 10 ft. high: the living is a vicarage in the gift of Earl Mansfield. There are places of worship for Independents, Wesleyan and New-connexion Methodists, and the Society of Friends. Except a small endowed school there is no public day-school, and nearly all the instruction which the children receive is given in the Sunday-schools attached to the different places of worship. In the Wesleyan school there are upwards of 1,000 children. A mechanics' institute confers important benefits on the manufacturing population. An almshouse for 8 widows, and some other charities, have endowments amounting to 180*l*. a year.

Leek has long been the seat of a manufacture of broad silks and plain ribands, many of the latter being woven by power-looms. The silk-mills, of which there were 7 in 1839, employing 784 hands, embrace not only the weaving of ribands by power-looms, but the throwing and spinning of silk, and its twisting into sewing-silk, braid, &c. The hand-loom weavers are chiefly employed on checked or figured silk neckerchiefs, and a few grade-napes and figured gown-pieces, the best black ribands, and silk serges of superior quality. These goods are prepared chiefly for the London market; but the sewing-silks, twist, and ribands, are mostly for exportation. The hand-loom work is given out warped and wound to *undertakers*, who possess a varying number of looms, and employ journeymen and apprentices, to the former of whom they pay the warehouse price, after deducting for loom-rent, &c. There are numerous undertakers in the broad trade, and they appear to be superior both in habits and condition to the same class in most other places, many of them possessing convenient and substantial dwelling-houses, the highest stories of which are used as workshops. The journeymen are an inferior class, living in 6*s*. cottages; but though their houses be poor and mean, they are clean, as are also the persons and dress of the weavers and their families: the wives are commonly piecers and doublers, or overlookers in the factories, or else, if at home, wind silk: the children easily get employment in the factories at wages varying from 1*s*. to 2*s*. 6*d*. a week. The weekly earnings of the broad-loom weavers vary from 7*s*. 6*d*. to 9*s*. nett. The weekly net wages of the power-loom weavers average 16*s*., and the women working in the mills usually earn from 6*s*. to 5*s*. 6*d*. From these rates there has been little variation; and the

trade of Leek generally appears to be of a steadier character than that of other towns engaged in the same manufacture. The cotton trade, which has extended itself thither from Lancashire, is not extensive; one small mill employs 60 hands. Coal is procured from the neighbouring Blue hills, in quantities amply sufficient for the wants both of the manufacturers and the pop. generally. (*Hand-loom Weavers' Report*, part iv. p. 344.)

Leek is one of the polling places for the N. division of Staffordshire. Courts leet and baron are held annually by the lord of the manor (Earl Mansfield), who elects a constable for the civil government of the town. Markets on Wednesday, fairs for cattle and pedlary, Feb. 7, Easter-Wednesday, May 18, Whit-Wednesday, July 8, and 28, Oct. 10, and Nov. 18.

LEEWARDEN, a town of Holland, prov. Friesland, of which it is the cap., on the Ee, 31 m. W. Groningen, lat. 53° 12' 14" N., long. 5° 47' 33" E. Pop. about 22,000. It is surrounded by an earth rampart and ditch, and intersected by numerous canals, the banks of which, like the ramparts, are planted with trees. It is well built; its streets are wide and regular; and it has several handsome public edifices, including the palace of the Prince of Orange, the town-hall, arsenal, exchange, and house of correction. It has two churches, in one of which the princes of Orange are buried, a synagogue, a Latin school, a branch of the Society of Public Good, a printing establishment, and considerable manufactures of linen fabrics, paper, Friesland-green, &c. and a large general trade. It is the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, and the residence of a provincial commandant, a military governor, a provincial head of police, and a receiver of taxes for the prov. It sends 4 mems. to the provincial assembly. (*De Cloet*, &c.)

LEGHORN (Ital. *Livorno*, Fr. *Livourne*), a city and sea-port, being the principal emporium of Italy, in the grand duchy of Tuscany, prov. Pisa, on the Mediterranean, 62 m. W. S. W. Florence, lat. 43° 33' 4" N., long. 10° 16' 45" E. Pop., with its suburbs, in 1845, 80,195; of whom, about 5,000 are supposed to be Jews and Greeks, and 3,000 other foreigners. It is of a square form, and about 24 m. in circ., surrounded with new walls, and entered by five gates. It is a neat, clean, and well-built city, and its general air of animation, activity, and business, is singularly opposed to the listless idleness of the inland towns of Italy. Its streets are in general wide and well paved, especially that which runs in a direct line from the gate of Pisa to the harbour, enlarging near its centre into a spacious square. The N. part of the city, called *Venezia Nova*, is intersected by canals, and comprises numerous wharfs, warehouses, and other buildings adapted to commerce. Leghorn has an outer and inner harbour, and a good roadstead. The outer harbour is protected by a fine mole, built by Cosmo II., which runs N. N. W. upwards of 3 m. into the sea. The port is apt to become encumbered with mud, and the water within is rather shallow, varying from 8 ft. in the inner basin to 18 or 19 ft. at the end of the mole. The outer harbour is, therefore, unfit for ships of more than 400 tons; and the inner harbour, called the *Darsena dei mazzicelli*, is only used for repairing ships, and for the reception of galleys and other small craft. A lighthouse, the lantern of which is 170 ft. above the sea, is built on a rock a little S. W. from the mole. The roadstead lies W. N. W. from the harbour, between it and the Melora bank. The latter is a sand, 4 m. in length by 3 in breadth, lying N. and S. about 4 m. from shore. It has mostly from 3 to 4 fathoms water over it; but towards its S. extremity, on some rocky points which project above the water, the Melora tower has been constructed to serve as a sea-mark. During S. winds there is sometimes a heavy sea in the roads; but the holding ground is good, and with sufficient anchors and cables, and ordinary precaution, there is no danger. The lazaretto, said to be one of the best in Europe, lies on a little island to the S., about 1 m. from the tower.

The public and private buildings of Leghorn do not require any very particular notice. They are generally well adapted to their purposes, without being magnificent. The chief public edifices are the ducal palace, the

arsenal, the *duomo* or cathedral, a Gothic building, designed by Vasari, six other par. churches, two Greek churches, chapels belonging to the English factory, and the Dutch and German Protestants, an Armenian, and a Maronite-Arab church, a synagogue, the largest and finest in Europe after that of Amsterdam, a mosque, 3 hospitals, the female charity school of St. Peter and St. Paul, the theatre, and the public baths. Leghorn has also a citadel, an old castle, constructed in 1595 by Ferdinand I., 3 lazarets, besides that before mentioned, 3 *monti-di-piella*, a workhouse, a house of refuge, a savings' bank, a large public school, established 1746, and which has about 350 pupils, schools of navigation and artillery, architecture, painting, mutual instruction, &c. and an academy of sciences, letters, and arts, with a library of 6,000 vols. open to the public. The city possesses few works of art, except a fine marble statue of the grand duke Ferdinand I., supported by four kneeling figures in bronze: it stands on the quay of the inner harbour, and is said to have been executed by John of Bologna. In the cemeteries beyond the walls, however, are some good specimens of sculpture. The English burial-ground, or *Campo Inglese*, contains the remains of Smollett, and of several other distinguished Englishmen.

Being a marshy situation, Leghorn is not quite salubrious, though during the reign of the present grand duke, great improvements in draining, &c. have been effected, by which the public health has been much benefited. There are no good wells in the city; and water is brought by an aqueduct from Colombole, 12 m. distant; one of the most remarkable monuments in the town is the *Cisterna*, belonging to this aqueduct, whence water is distributed through the town.

Leghorn has a considerable coral fishery; but the greater portion of its inhab. are engaged in manufactures and commerce: it produces woollen caps, straw hats, glass, paper, soap, starch, cream of tartar, &c. and it has numerous coral and alabaster factories; and rope walks, building docks for merchant vessels, tanneries, &c. It was made a free port by Cosmo I., about the middle of the 16th century; and the comparative security and freedom which foreigners have long enjoyed in Tuscany, still more than its advantageous situation, have rendered Leghorn one of the first commercial cities of Italy. Its exports are similar to those from the other Italian ports, consisting principally of raw and manufactured silks, straw hats, straw flattings, and straw for plaiting, all excellent; oil, fruits, wines, wool, boracic acid (recently become a very important article), rags, cheese, marble, argol, paper, anchovies, coral, manna, hemp, lamb-skins, timber, with wheat and other species of corn from the Black Sea, Egypt, and Barbary; cotton from Egypt, brimstone from Sicily, &c. The export at second hand of produce from the Euxine and the Levant has, however, rather declined of late years; the English, Americans, and other nations, now generally importing such produce direct from Odessa, Smyrna, Alexandria, &c. The imports comprise most sorts of commodities, with the exception of some of those produced in Italy, sugar, coffee, and all sorts of colonial produce; raw cotton, cotton and woollen stuffs, cotton twist, and other manufactured goods; salted fish, indigo, and other dye-stuffs, rice, hardware, earthenware, and metals; hides, &c. Ships, with corn on board, may unload within the limits of the lazaretto, without being detained to perform quarantine, a circumstance which has contributed to make Leghorn one of the principal *dépôts* for the wheat of the Black Sea.

The old complicated system of currency has been abolished, and accounts are now kept in *new lire*, which are in all respects equal to French francs. Accounts may be converted from old into new lire at the rate of 6 old to 5 new lire.

We regret that there are no detailed statements of the export trade of Leghorn; but it is believed to amount in all to from 1,600,000, to 2,000,000, a year. We subjoin an account of the quantities of some of the principal articles of foreign produce imported into Leghorn during each of the six years ending with 1840, with the stocks on hand on the 1st of January, 1841.

Articles.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	Stock, 1841.
	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>
Sugar, Havanna	905,900	3,684,800	1,844,900	1,471,700	2,457,380	2,009,400	255,000
Crushed	6,047,000	4,107,000	8,119,000	7,823,400	6,853,000	9,515,000	1,894,000
Loaf	224,800	130,500	103,430	112,600	165,400	183,000	44,000
Brazil	1,940,300	1,940,300	14,000	138,000	643,000	445,000	30,000
East India and Bantam	1,271,000	5,111,600	3,666,300	558,780	855,300	2,244,000	200,000
Coffee	1,757,500	3,670,000	2,205,400	1,468,300	1,739,000	4,023,000	720,000
Cotton	1,987,300	1,781,700	2,116,000	904,700	1,064,400	478,000	119,000
Pepper	1,068,500	1,319,500	1,334,400	965,400	1,066,000	756,000	75,000
Indigo	78	234	133	109	83	90	64
Tea	125	46	76	107	71	131	22

The quintal (100 lbs.) of Leghorn is about equal to 77 lbs. avoird. The cantara varies from 88 to 160 lbs.; the rotolo = 3 lbs. Port charges are the same on native and foreign ships. The anchorage dues on a vessel of 300

tons amount to 112 old lire, or to 34.14s. sterling; besides which, she must have a bill of health, which costs 7s. 2d. sterling. These, if she clear out in ballast, are the only charges to which she is subject; but if she clear

ent loaded, the bill of health will cost about 5s sterling, and there is besides a charge of about 3d. for each bill of lading.

There are no other port charges whatever. Good water may be had at about 11d. a tun; and beef, bread, and fuel are all reasonably cheap. There are companies for the insurance of ships, though not of lives or houses. Legnago is the residence of consuls from all the principal states of Europe. This part is supposed to be the anc. *Portus Heracleis* or *Lebronia*; but it has no remains of antiquity. In the 16th century, it was a mere village surrounded by swamps, and it owes all its eminence and prosperity to the munificence of the Medici family, and the liberality of the present rulers of Tuscany. (*Reyitti, Dictionario Geog. Della Toscana; Ramazzoli Corografia; Corder's Italy*, 51-55.; *Comm. Dict.* &c.)

LEGNAGO, a fortified town of Austrian Italy, deleg. of Verona, 22 m. S.E. the city of that name, on the Adige, here crossed by a wooden bridge, with 2 draw-bridges, and on the road from Legnago to Padua. Pop. 5,790. (*Ordre Nat. Encyc.*) Its situation is said to be unhealthy; but it has several churches, convents, and barracks; a powder magazine, a theatre, an hospital, a royal gymnasium, a manufacture of dyed leather, and some trade in corn, rice, and silk. Legnago is supposed to have been founded towards the latter period of the Lombard monarchy. It was fortified in the 16th century; and taken by the French, in 1798, after a 3 days' siege. (*Dict. Géog.* &c.)

LEICESTER, an inland co. of England, nearly in its centre, having N. the co. of Derby and Nottingham, E. Lincoln and Rutland, S. Northampton and Warwick, and W. Stafford and Derby. It is of an oblong form; greatest length, about 48 m.; greatest breadth, about 26 m. Area, 515,840 acres, of which about 480,000 are supposed to be arable, meadow, and pasture. Surface, varied and uneven; but except in the district of Charnwood Forest, to the S. of Loughborough, the hills do not attain to any considerable elevation, and are susceptible of the highest cultivation. The soil consists mostly of clayey and sandy loams; and in some parts, especially along the Soar, there are very rich and extensive meadows. The soil is generally excellent; and this is much more a grazing than an agricultural co. It is famous for its breeds of cattle, sheep, and horses; all of which were much improved through the skill and long-continued exertions of the celebrated Mr. Robert Bakewell, of Dishley, in this co. It is, however, true, that the Dishley breed of long-horned cattle, so famous a few years ago, are every where losing ground; and that even in this, their native co., they are now very generally superseded by the short-horn, and other breeds. The fine rice cheese called Stilton is principally made in this co., in the farms round Melton-Mowbray. The Leicester sheep, though of different varieties, all yield long combing wool. Horses are reared in considerable numbers. Barley is the principal corn crop; but wheat and oats are also extensively cultivated. Property mostly in large estates: farms of all sizes, and mostly held at will. Average rent of land, in 1843, 34s. 10½d. an acre. Coal is wrought at Ashby-de-la-Zouch, Whitwick, and other places; and iron and lead, with lime, and slates, are also products of this co. Leicestershire is the grand seat of the manufacture of woollen stockings and shirts, gloves, and fancy hosiery: the business being principally carried on in the towns of Leicester, Loughborough, and Hinckley; but it is also widely diffused throughout the co. Hairs are made at Loughborough and other places; and this is one of the principal maling counties. Owing to the openness of the country, the number of resident gentry, and other recommendations, Leicester has been long famous as a hunting co. Melton-Mowbray, in the centre of the sporting district, has accommodations for a vast number of horses; and during the season is crowded with visitors, foreign as well as domestic. Principal river Soar; and the co. is intersected by several canals and railways. Leicester is divided into 5 hundreds and 216 parishes. It sends 6 mems. to the H. of C., being 4 for the co., and 2 for the borough of Leicester. Registered electors for the co., in 1839-40, 9,191, being 4,029 for the N., and 5,162 for the S. division of the co. In 1841, there were in this co. 44,774 inhabited houses, and 215,867 inhab., of whom 105,616 were males, and 110,251 females. Sum paid for the relief of the poor in 1847-48, £3,527. Annual value of real property in 1815, 961,908.; do. in 1843, 1,376,384.

LEICESTER, a parl. and mun. bor., and an important manufacturing town of England, cap. co. same name, bund. W. Coecote, on the E. bank of the Soar (crossed here by six bridges, two of which belong to the railways that touch the town), 26 m. S.E.R. Derby, 34 m. E. by N. Birmingham, and 87 m. N. by W. London. Area of mun. and parl. bor. (which are co-extensive, and include the old bor. and its liberties, with the part called the Castle-view), 3,960 acres. Pop. in 1841, 50,365, and now (1850) estimated at 60,000. Assessed rental, in 1849, 118,263s. The town, though irregularly built, has a re-

spectable appearance, the streets being clean, and the houses in the principal thoroughfares substantial and neat. The main street, is joined near its centre by several other handsome streets: at the corner of one of these stands the news-room, a square building of Ionic architecture, forming one of the chief ornaments of the place; and in it also is the New Hall, built in 1831, having apartments for concerts, and the Mechanics' Institute. The paying, lighting, and general economy of the town are well conducted, and have been greatly improved within the last few years: provision is also, about to be made for a more effective system of drainage and sewerage. Water is at present obtained from pumps and wells; but the supply being inadequate to the wants of the pop., water-works are about to be constructed by a company, by which a supply of pure water, sufficient for 100,000 persons, and for flushing the sewers, &c., is to be brought from Thornton, a distance of 9 m. The public buildings devoted to civil purposes comprise, among others, the Guildhall, an old and unpretending building, in which is a library of ancient printed books and a few MSS., one of which, the "*Codex Leicesterianus*," is of considerable value; the Assembly-rooms, with a commodious adjoining theatre; and a Town-Museum, recently established by the corporation, under the Museum's Act: the greater part of the objects in the latter were presented to it by the Literary and Philosophical Society, who have commodious rooms in the building; among its rarities is the celebrated Roman *milliare*, or milestone, inscribed to the Emperor Hadrian, found in the neighbourhood in 1771, and valuable as deciding the previously disputed point whether Leicester was the *Rata* or *Ragus* of the Romans. (*Geog. & Camden's Britannia*, ii. 314.) A market-house is in the course of being erected in the market-place, which has lately been considerably enlarged. The bor. gaol is too small for the proper classification of the prisoners; this, however, is effected in the co. gaol, a massive structure, enclosing an area of 4 acres, built in 1824 at a cost of 78,000s., and lately enlarged at a farther cost of 26,000s. An infirmary and fever hospital were erected in 1771; and a co. lunatic asylum, a spacious and imposing building, with extensive grounds, erected in 1837, and since greatly enlarged at a total cost of 45,000s., affords accommodation for 287 patients. There are also public baths, partly supported by the corporation. Among the ecclesiastical edifices are 8 parish or district churches, and 34 places of worship for dissenters. St. Nicholas, the oldest church, is a structure of Norman architecture, supposed to have been built of the materials of the adjoining Roman wall; it has a square W. tower between the nave and chancel. St. Mary's, in the Saxon and early English style, has a lofty tower and steeple. St. Martin's, the largest church in the town, is a cruciform structure, erected at different periods between the 13th and 16th centuries, and surmounted by a plain spire. St. Margaret's, in the early English and later styles, occupies the site of the Saxon cathedral and bishop's palace; it is remarkable for its handsome and lofty tower. All these churches have recently been restored. The other churches, three of which are modern, are commodious. The old Baptist chapel, in Harvey Lane, (now used as a school-room,) deserves notice, as being the scene of the pastoral labours of Robert Hall, one of the most able and eloquent divines of his day. A public cemetery, established by the corporation, was opened in the course of this year (1850). It has chapels in the decorated style connected by extensive cloisters, and cost above 12,000s., exclusive of the land. Connected with the various places of worship are numerous Sunday schools, furnishing religious instruction to nearly 4,000 children; besides which, 1 national, 3 Lancastrian, and 3 infant schools are attended by about 1,300 scholars, and 2 parochial schools by 330 boys, who are clothed as well as educated. A collegiate school, established in 1826, for members of the Church of England, has about 100 pupils. The Female Asylum clothed, maintains, and educates 16 girls, between the ages of 13 and 16, and afterwards provides them with situations of domestic service. Four weekly newspapers are published in the town.

Leicester possesses many valuable charities, some of which are in the trust of the corporation, and of the trustees of general and church charities, others connected with particular parishes. The grammar school, founded by Queen Elizabeth in 1564, has been closed for some time past. The endowment is only 42s. a year, and previously to its being shut it was attended by only 3 or 4 boys. It is surprising that the corporation do not take measures for reorganising this school, and re-opening it on an efficient plan. It might be made a most valuable institution. Newton's Charity possesses funds amounting to 760s. a year, and supports, either wholly or in part, 12 schools in Leicester and other towns mentioned by the testator. The school at Leicester is a substantial brick building, near St. Nicholas's church, with a house adjoining, in which the master lives rent-free. He has a salary of 100s. a year,

besides coal and candle, and the use of a large garden. There are 100 boys in the school, sons of poor inhabs. belonging to the established church, who are clothed as well as instructed. Trinity Hospital is an extensive establishment, comprising a chapel, and range of apartments for 80 old men and women, who receive each 3s. a week, with other advantages. In the chapel is the tomb of the Countess of Derby, first wife of Henry IV. The revenue of this charity amounted, in 1835, to 830*l.*, and in 1849 to 1300*l.* Wigston's Hospital is a structure of perpendicular architecture in St. Martin's Churchyard, erected in 1521, and endowed with estates, the rental of which exceeds 500*l.* a year, but which, it is affirmed, if let like the estates of private individuals, would produce upwards of 5,000*l.* a year. The present master, the Rev. E. T. Vaughan, vicar of St. Martin's, has been appointed at a fixed salary by the chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster; and it is hoped that some, at least, of the abuses of the charity will now be corrected, application having been made to the Court of Chancery for that purpose. Each of the 24 inmates has an apartment and garden, with 4*s.* a week, and the chaplain or confrater has a stipend of 97*l.* a year, with a house and garden. It may be worth mentioning that both Chillingworth and the learned Dr. Samuel Clarke filled this situation. Some smaller almshouses, loan funds, and bequests to a considerable amount, assist in relieving the distress of the poor of the town and neighbourhood.

In addition to the endowments and voluntary contributions for the support of the poor, the sum raised by rates, and expended for the same object in 1847-48, amounted to 20,344*l.* assessed upon property of the estimated value of 147,236*l.* a year.

Leicester is a principal seat of the manufacture of woollen hosiery, including stockings, shirts, caps, and fancy hosiery, and of woollen, Berlin, and Lisle thread gloves, having, according to the official returns in 1840, 4,142 persons engaged in the various departments of the business, and now (1850) probably 6,000, exclusive of those engaged in the subordinate departments of machine making, wool combing, dyeing, &c. There were in the bor., in 1836, according to the returns of the Factory Inspector, 28 worsted mills, employing 1,418 hands, and 3 cotton winding mills. The business of the former is to produce the yarn used by the manufacturers. The wages of framework knitters vary from 8*s.* to 15*s.*; of glove-makers from 15*s.* to 26*s.*, of "fancy hands" about the same; those of dyers from 1*s.* to 2*s.*, of wool-combers from 1*s.* to 2*s.*, and of machine makers from 3*s.* to 32*s.* a week. Manufacturing operations are greatly facilitated by a plentiful supply of coal from the Whitwick, Salton, and Derbyshire coal-fields. A canal joining the Trent, a railway to Swannington and Burton, being a branch of the Midland Counties' Railway, connecting Leicester with the London and Birmingham line at Rugby, and with the North Midland line at Derby, &c., furnish abundant means of transport for manufactured produce, and are of essential service to the town. Buildings are rapidly increasing in every direction, and in the neighbourhood are many elegant villas, occupied chiefly by manufacturers. A branch of the Bank of England was opened here a few years ago; the Leicestershire Banking Co. has a chief office in the town, and there is 3 other banks. Here, also, is a savings' bank which had, on the 30th Nov. 1848, 73,617*l.* of deposits.

Leicester is a bor. by prescription, incorporated by King John, and governed till 1830 by a charter of the 41st Ellis. The old corporation was a self-elected, close, and irresponsible body; and was long distinguished by its political exclusiveness and intolerance. The mun. officers under the Mun. Reform Act are a recorder, mayor, 14 aldermen, and 42 councillors, the bor. being divided into 7 wards. Corporat. revenue in 1849-50, 33,310*l.*, of which 9,866*l.* was derived from bor. and other municipal rates. Assizes and gaol are held here, and there is a county court before which 1,857 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. The bor. has sent 3 mems. to the H. of C. since the reign of Edward I.; the franchise, till the Reform Act, being vested in the freemen (by birth, servitude, or gift), and the inhab. paying scot and lot. The boundaries of the present par. bor. include, as already stated, besides the old bor., the liberties (which comprise part of the pars. of St. Mary and St. Margaret, together with the Newark) and the extra-parochial part, called the Castle-view. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 4,627. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday: horse and cattle fairs, March, Saturday before and after Easter, May 12, 13, 14, July 3, and Oct. 10.

Leicester occupies the site of Ratae, an important Roman station mentioned in Antonine's *Itinerary*. A ruin called the Jewry wall has been supposed, but on no good grounds, to be the remains of a temple of Janus. Near it a fine Roman pavement was discovered in 1830. Before the Norman conquest, a castle was built here by the Earls of Mercia, which, being demolished by Henry II. in 1175, was restored by Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester. It afterwards became a favourite re-

sidence of the Earls and Dukes of Lancaster. Several parliaments were held in the great hall in the latter end of the 14th and the commencement of the 15th centuries. The castle having ceased to be a royal residence after the elevation of Henry IV. to the throne, was allowed to fall into decay, and in the reign of Charles I. it was pulled down, with the exception of the great hall, which, being new fronted, is now used for the assizes. Two of the gateways also remain, one a fine specimen of the period. During the great civil war, the town was successively occupied by the king and the parliamentary troops. In a meadow near the town are some remains of a monastery of Black Canons, founded in 1143, the revenues of which amounted at its dissolution to 1,062*l.* Cardinal Wolsey expired in this abbey on the 29th Nov. 1530, having been compelled, by sickness, to take refuge here when on his way to London, to be tried for high treason. The stocking frame was introduced into Leicester about the close of the 17th century, since which time it has been steadily rising in manufacturing importance. (*Char. and Mun. Commission Report; Throsby's and Thompson's Hists. of Leicester; Private Information.*)

LEIGH, a manufacturing market-town, and par. of England, co. Lancaster, hund. W. Derby, 12*m.* W. Manchester, and 81 *m.* E. N. E. Liverpool. Area of par. (comprising the townships of West Leigh, Astley, Atherton, Bedford, Pennington, and Tildesley), 11,820 acres; pop., in 1841, 22,229. Pop. of West Leigh and Pennington townships, comprising the town of Leigh, 6,538. The town, consisting of a main street, and other subordinate streets, has a few well-built houses, mixed with others of an inferior character. The church is a lofty stone structure, but low and decayed on the N. side: the living is a vicarage in the gift of Lord Lifford. Chapels of ease have also been erected in the townships of Astley, Chowbent, and Tildesley; the patronage of which is vested in the incumbent of Leigh. There are places of worship for R. Catholics, Independents, Wesleyan and New-connexion Methodists, and Swedenborgians, exclusive of others in the out townships; and upwards of 4,000 children are taught in the Sunday schools connected with the churches and chapels. The charities of the par. comprise the grammar-school, founded in 1655, but poorly endowed, and attended in 1836 by about 50 boys, 40 of whom were pay-scholars; and the free schools of Pennington and Astley, with some apprentices-funds, and minor bequests. (*Char. Comm., 19th Rep.*)

Leigh occupies a very respectable station among the cotton manufacturing towns of Lancashire. The business, which was formerly almost confined to weaving fastens, now embraces all the processes and branches of the cotton and mixed goods manufacture; and according to Mr. Baines, upwards of 8,000 hands were employed, in 1834, chiefly in the townships of West Leigh, Tildesley, Atherton, and Bedford, in spinning and weaving cotton and silk, both by hand and power. In 1838, there were in the parish 19 cotton-mills, and 1 silk-mill, employing 2,458 hands: 8 of these mills are situated in Tildesley township, which has also 2 large factories for machinery. These branches of industry are greatly promoted by the abundance of coal and lime in the neighbourhood, and by the easy communication with Liverpool and Manchester. A branch of the Duke of Bridgewater's canal unites here with the Leeds and Liverpool canal, and the Leigh and Kenyon tram-road connects the town with the Liverpool and Manchester railway, the communication being continued N. by the Bolton and Leigh railway; the latter, 7*m.* in length, was constructed at an expense of 10,000*l.* per mile. The grass-lands of the par. are particularly rich, and the dairies round the town yield a cheese held in deserved estimation. Market on Saturday; and fairs, well attended for cattle, cheese, &c., April 24, and Dec. 7. (*Baines's Hist. of Lancashire, 2nd edit., 1834.*)

LEIGHTON-BUZZARD (or, more properly, Leighton-Beau-desert), a market town and par. of England, co. Bedford, hund. Manshead, on the Ouse, a trib. of the Ouse, 5 *m.* S. by W. Woburn, and 35 *m.* N. N. W. London. Area of par. including five townships, 6,990 acres. Pop. in 1841, 6,053; ditto of town, 3965. The streets are irregularly laid out, ill paved, and not lighted with gas; the supply of water is chiefly derived from wells. It has a fine pentagonal cross in an open area near the market-house, supposed to have been erected at the beginning of the 14th century: it consists of two stories, and is 28 ft. high. The church, formerly collegiate, is a large cruciform Gothic structure, with a tower and steeple rising from the intersection of its nave and transepts: the living is a vicarage, attached to a prebend in Lincoln cathedral. There are places of worship for Baptists and Wesleyan Methodists, and the Society of Friends (here a numerous body) have a large meeting house. Besides Sunday-schools, there is a well-endowed charity-school for the gratuitous instruction of poor children; and a large Lancasterian school, for both sexes, supported by voluntary contributions. Wilkes's almsh-

boomer, founded in 1630, have an average yearly income of 200*l.*, and furnish lodging and stipend to eight poor widows; there are several other charitable foundations. (See *Chor. Comm.* 12th Rep.) Lace-making, formerly a considerable branch of industry in Leighton-Bussard, has been all but extinguished by the frame-lace trade of Nottingham. Straw-plaiting here, as in other towns of Bedfordshire, employs many females; but the principal trade is in corn and timber, the conveyance of which to the London market is greatly facilitated by the Grand Junction Canal and the London and Birmingham Railway, which has a station at this place. One of the largest horse fairs in the S. of England is held on Whit-Tuesday.

LEINSTER, one of the four large provs. into which Ireland is divided, on the E. side of the island, comprising the cos. of Dublin, Kildare, Carlow, Kilkenny, King's and Queen's, Longford, Louth, Meath, Westmeath, Wicklow, and Wexford. For an account of its extent and pop., see *Anti. p.* 38.

LEIPSIK (Germ. *Leipzig*) a celebrated commercial city of Saxony, being, next to Hamburg, the chief trading city of Germany, and the first book emporium in the world. It stands on the White Elster (a tributary of the Saale), where it is joined by the Pleisse and Parde, 60 m. W. N. W. Dresden, and 20 m. S. E. Halle; lat. 51° 39' 16" N., long. 12° 21' 49" E. Pop. (1845) 54,519, nearly all Protestants. Its appearance, at a distance, is not imposing; it stands in a wide plain, which, though fertile, is unvaried by a single eminence to relieve its sameness. It occupies but a small extent of ground compared with its pop., the total number of houses in it and its suburbs being only about 1,450. These, however, are very lofty; many of them being 6 stories high, independent of 3 or 4 additional in the pyramidal roof; and each story, like the houses in the old town of Edinburgh, is usually occupied by a separate family. Few towns exhibit so much of the carved masonry which characterised the old German style of building, joined with so much stateliness. The streets are narrow, but the various markets and squares are large, clean, and neat. Leipzig is far inferior in elegance and beauty to Dresden; but it is better built than Frankfurt, and has a decided air of comfort and substantiality. The suburbs are well laid out, and separated from the town by a succession of pleasant gardens, occupying the glades, and other parts of the ancient fortifications. The great market-place, in the centre of the town, is rendered one of the most striking squares in Europe, by the quaint architecture of its surrounding buildings. In one of these, the *Rathhaus*, the allied sovereigns met to congratulate each other after the battle of Leipzig (see *post*). The *Königsplatz*, formerly a residence of the electors and kings of Saxony, was occupied by Napoleon in 1813. The *Augustumarkt*, at no great distance, is noted as that in which Goethe has laid the celebrated carousal scene in *Faust*; and tradition says that Faust himself used to frequent it. At the S. E. part of the town is the castle of Pleissenburg, which withstood the attacks of Tilly in the 30 years' war, long after the town had surrendered. Its lower part is now a wool magazine, and its upper part an observatory 228 ft. high, from the summit of which a commanding view is obtained of Leipzig and its plain. The ramparts of the town have been laid out as public walks; and its gates have been recently removed. The church of St. Nicholas is a handsome square edifice, and of a species of Corinthian architecture; its interior is ornamented with numerous paintings by Cæsar, a celebrated Saxon artist of the last century. The other most remarkable public buildings are the *Augustumarkt*, *Paulinum*, &c., belonging to the university, the cloth hall, booksellers' exchange, and new post-office. There are many good hotels.

The university is the only one in Saxony; and ranks as one of the first, as well as most ancient, in Germany. It was founded in 1409 by some professors and students from the university of Prague. It is divided into 4 nations, the Saxon, Misnian, Franconian, and Silesian; and has faculties of theology, law, medicine, and philosophy. It had, in 1834, 24 ordinary professors; 6 in the faculty of theology, 5 in that of law, 10 in that of medicine, and 13 in that of philosophy. The total amount of their salaries was 32,410 *doll.* (about 4,72*l.*), independently of certain small fees and minor emoluments. There are, besides, many extraordinary professors teaching modern languages, &c., who do not belong to the *Senatus Academicus*. Leipzig university, though still well attended, has at present few students than usual: at the beginning of 1840 the total number was 925.

The greater number of lecture-rooms are here, as in Heidelberg, within the university buildings. Most of the students live within the walls of the Old Paulinum, without reference to their particular department of study; the only qualification necessary to entitle them to the bursary enjoyed there, being an examination as to their proficiency in learning. Some students are allowed both board and lodging in the Paulinum; others

are only entitled to a seat at the public table. "The university is rich in endowments for stipends to scholars; but with respect to such funds as are applicable to its maintenance and to scientific purposes, it is one of the poorest in Germany. An inventory of its property, which has been lately made public, states its means towards these latter objects to amount to 8,699 *dollars* per annum only, not more than 800*l.* It appears, from a statement of its yearly disbursements, that Saxony does not expend as much on this, its sole university, as the Prussian treasury expends upon the least of its provincial universities. The disbursements in question amount to 56,815 *doll.* (about 8,000*l.*), not including scholars' stipends, nor support of the poor (*armenwesen*); and the proportion of that sum which is derived from the national revenue is but 35,486 *doll.*, or about 3,620*l.* The property of the university is valued at 1,100,000 *doll.* (about 136,000*l.*); and out of this capital, which consists chiefly of house property, besides a small portion of meadow and arable land, some wood, and a few shares of mines, the yearly interest on 650,000 *doll.* is applicable to benevolent purposes; the interest on the remainder, about 450,000 *doll.*, is therefore all the available for the current expenses of the university." (*Journ. of Education*, No. xv. 151, 152.)

The *Augustum* contains a library of 100,000 vols. (*Horschemann*), and the university has also a museum of natural history, a botanic garden, anatomical theatre, laboratory, clinical and lying-in establishments, &c. Leipzig has, besides, a civic school, and attached to it a school of general knowledge, opened in 1834, several other superior and free schools, primary schools, &c., numerous learned associations, a public library, with 60,000 printed vols. and 2,000 MSS., and various scientific collections. Several hospitals, orphan, founding, deaf and dumb, and lunatic asylums, and a house of correction, nearly complete the public establishments. There are some private galleries of paintings, and other works of art, but none deserves particular notice.

Leipzig is a manufacturing town of considerable importance. Among its chief manufactures are silk and half-silk goods, stockings, leather, hats, playing and other cards, paper hangings, all cloth, wax lights, starch, soap, sealing-wax, parchment, tobacco, gold and silver articles, linens, chocolate, &c. Artisans of almost every kind reside in the town. Berghaus says, that of 153 book and map sellers belonging to the kingdom of Saxony, 122 live in Leipzig; and that of 50 printing offices in the kingdom, Leipzig has 32, with 210 presses, including 7 printing machines (*schnell pressen*). * There are also various silk-dyeing and woollen spinning factories; and a large wool market is held annually in May.

But the distinguishing characteristic of the commerce of Leipzig, is its book trade. Leipzig is, in fact, the grand emporium of the literature of Germany; a distinction of great importance, seeing that the number of readers and writers is greater in that than in any other country of Europe. The literary deluge which commenced in Germany immediately after the peace of 1814, continues to increase. Instead of 2,000 works, which were then about the annual complement, there are now 8,000. In 1837, the catalogue of the Easter fair announced 4,253 new works, and that of the Michaelmas fair 2,539; making a total of 7,791 in the year, or an increase of 263 over the number in 1836. Of this number Prussia contributed 3,159, and Saxony (kingd. of), 1,243 publications. In the German book trade, it is the country for almost every house, either in the country or abroad, which publishes or sells German books, to have its agent at Leipzig, who receives and distributes its publications in the same way that the London booksellers receive and distribute English publications. The great sale of new works takes place at the Easter fair, when 600 booksellers sometimes assemble to settle their annual accounts. "The German author will submit to any degree of exertion, that his work may be ready for publication by that important season, when the whole brotherhood is in labour from the Rhine to the Vistula. Whatever the period of gestation may be, the time when he shall come to the birth is fixed by the almanack. If the auspicious moment pass away, he willingly bears his burden 12 months longer, or till the next advent of the Bibliopolical Lucia." (*Russell's Tour in Germany*, i. 231, 232.)

The fairs of Leipzig are the most celebrated in Germany. They are held at the new year, at Easter, and at Michaelmas. The last two are the most important. Above 20,000 dealers are said to have been present at the Easter fair in 1839, and above 15,000 at that of Michaelmas. They should be close in 8 days, but they generally last 3 weeks; and while they continue, Leipzig is the

* *Allg. Leser*, &c. (1838) iv. 178. According to the statement in the *Handbuch für Kaufleute*, art. *Leipzig*, there were, in 1835, 164 booksellers, 30 printing offices, with 250 presses, including 3 printing machines impelled by steam; 5 type and 1 stereotype foundries; and several lithographic and copper plate engraving establishments; and 40,000,000 sheets of letter-press, &c., were estimated to be annually printed at Leipzig.

great mart of central Europe for all kinds of merchandise. According to the author of *Germany and the Germans* in 1835-36, who visited Leipzig at one of its fairs:—"The whole appearance of the town was unique; the streets, markets, and promenades were crowded, not only with the natives of every part of Europe, but even with those of Asia, Africa, and America; every house, yard, and porch, was converted into a bazaar for the display of merchandise, cottons, woollens, and silks of all shades; and, from every loom in Europe, were streaming like flags from the windows of the lofty houses; and although the Prussian tariff was in full force, yet I was informed by a merchant that the market was inundated with smuggled English manufactures." The statement respecting the attendance of Asiatics and Americans is, at least, no hyperbole: exclusive of Turks, Greeks and Wallachians, Georgians, Armenians, and even Persians, are present; and from 300 to 400 guests sit down daily at the *tables d'hôte* of some of the principal inns. It is estimated that the produce of the sale of books at the Easter fair amounts to 3,000,000 dols.

The establishment of the Prussian Customs' Union (commercial league) led many intelligent persons to apprehend that, however advantageous the new system might be for the commercial interests of Germany at large, it would exercise a most prejudicial influence over the trade of Leipzig, by materially injuring, if not annihilating, its fairs. The result, however, seems to show that the customs' union has had a directly contrary effect; and that, so far from being ruinous to the Leipzig fairs, it is the very thing which is most likely to arrest, or rather, perhaps, to retard their fall; as by giving an immense impulse to the internal communications within the German States, it has in some degree compensated Leipzig for the gradual falling off in its commerce with foreign nations. The Leipzig fairs were long the great mart whence Russia, even to the borders of China, Poland, the provs. of the Danube, and many of the Turkish provinces, were supplied with manufactures. At the Michaelmas fair of 1839, however (the latest of which we have any detailed report), the falling off in the numbers of foreign purchasers was particularly remarkable. Of these, Greeks from Wallachia and Moldavia were the most numerous; their principal purchases being German broad cloths, ordinary English and German cotton goods, and French silks; about 7,000 centners of manufactured goods of all kinds being then entered for those principalities. The number of Russians was small; but a great many Jews, from Galicia, Prussian Poland, and Cracow, as usual, attended: whose chief object seemed to be that of introducing, in spite of every obstacle, manufactured goods of all descriptions into Russia. Few buyers went from Austria, Switzerland, or Italy, Trieste and Frankfort being much more convenient marts for them; France and England sent fewer than usual. Still, at the Michaelmas fair of 1839, the number of buyers and sellers, as well as the amount of business done, was as great, if not greater, than on former occasions.

Broad cloths, made within a circle of from 10 to 40 German miles round Leipzig, are among the most important articles brought to the fairs, and from 90,000 to 100,000 pieces were sold on the above occasion, mostly for consumption in the States of the Union. Other woollen goods, both English and German, were sold in considerable quantities, but at very low prices. British printed calicoes form an important item; but the heavier and coarser descriptions of cotton goods are said to be in a great measure driven out of the Leipzig market by German manufactures. French and Swiss silks are rapidly increasing in demand, their use having greatly increased of late among the middle classes in Germany. Hides and leather, lace and embroidery, linens, hosiery, hardware and cutlery, clocks, jewellery, French china, quilts, furs, lingslase, &c. are among the other goods that are most extensively met with at the Leipzig fairs. (*Bowring's Reports on the Prussian Commercial Union*; *Appendix*, xiv, 252-263.)

The Leipzig and other German booksellers have, since 1834, erected an exchange for their exclusive use. The building as originally planned was to be three stories high, 112 ft. in length, and 46 ft. in depth; and the estimated cost of its erection was from 4,000 to 5,000*l*. Among the other establishments in aid of commerce, are a fire and a life assurance office, each with a capital of 1,000,000*l*.; a company for insurance against *hail*; a discount bank, with a capital of 250,000*l*., &c. The Elbe-American Company, established in 1836, has its seat in this town, which has also a savings' bank, and a *mont-de-piété*. A railroad has been completed between Leipzig and Dresden; and another to Magdeburg would, it was expected, be completed by the end of the present year (1840). These works have not yet (as was anticipated) diminished the price of necessaries in Leipzig, provisions, fuel, house-rent, &c. being higher in it than in most capitals. The dollar of Leipzig is equal to 3*s*. 4*d*. sterling; 100 *ells* = 61.83 Eng. yards; 100 Leipzig lbs. = 103 avoird.

Leipzig is the cap. of the prov. and district of same

name, and the seat of the judicial courts, &c. At the end of the 10th century it was only a little Slavonian village; but during the 13th it was fortified, and its 2 principal fairs established. Its new year's fair commenced in 1458, and its book trade originated in 1548.

The vicinity of Leipzig, and, indeed, the town itself, was, in October, 1813, the scene of a most tremendous conflict. Napoleon having concentrated at this point such of his forces as he had been able to collect from the different parts of Germany, to the amount of about 135,000 men, was attacked on the 16th by the allied army, under prince Schwartzemberg, Blucher, and other generals, accompanied by the emperors of Russia and Austria, the king of Prussia, &c. The allied forces amounted to at least 250,000 men. The struggle, which was fierce, obstinate, and bloody in the extreme, terminated at night-fall without any decided advantage to either party. It was renewed on the 18th, when a Saxon brigade went over, during the heat of the action, from the French to the allies, which, combined with their superior force, gave the latter an advantage that all the genius of Napoleon, seconded by the valour and devotion of the French, could not counteract. Though the French maintained their ground during the day, a retreat became indispensable; and owing to the accidental blowing up of a bridge, a part of the French army was cut off; so that Napoleon lost 25,000 men, who fell into the hands of the allies as prisoners, exclusive of the far greater number who fell in the previous battles. Prince Poniatowski, who may emphatically be said to have been the last of the Poles, after displaying prodigies of valour, lost his life in the retreat on the 19th, having been killed in attempting to cross the Elster. The great victory completely emancipated Germany from the yoke of the French, and opened the road to Paris to the allies. (*Berghaus*; *Horschelmann*; *Stettin*; *Handb. für Kaufleute, und Comm. Dict.*; *Conversations' Lexicon*; *Strang, Russel*; *Bowring's Rep. on the Prussian Com. Union*, &c.)

LEIRIA, a city of Portugal, prov. Estremadura, on the small river Lis, 42 m. S.S.W. Coimbra, and 72 m. N. N. E. Lisbon, lat. 39° 30' N., long. 8° 59' W. Pop. 3,500. The town, which, though in a fine country, is small, sombre, and wretched-looking, has no fewer than 18 parish churches (one of which is likewise a cathedral), and 3 convents! A considerable fair is held here on the 25th of March.

LEITH, a sea-port and parl. bor. of Scotland, co. Mid Lothian, on both sides of a small river of the same name, at its confluence with the Frith of Forth, on a flat sandy shore, 2 m. N. by E. of the centre of Edinburgh, of which city it is the port. Pop., in 1753, 7,290 (*Maitland's History of Edinburgh*, p. 600); in 1811, 20,263; in 1841, 26,984; inhabited houses, 3,580, giving rather more than 7 persons to a house. Parts of Leith, like Edinburgh, have houses of considerable height, several families living under the same roof in different *flats* or stories, each having access by a "common stair," which communicates with every story of the tenement.

The river divides the town into two portions, called N. and S. Leith, of which the latter (the original bor.) contained, in 1841, 14,257, and the former 6,289, the residue of the pop. being comprised in Newhaven, and some adjoining hamlets. They are connected by two drawbridges, and by an elegant stone bridge at the W. extremity of the town. Leith is united to Edinburgh by a road (partly paved and partly macadamised), called Leith Walk, but it is so filled up with buildings that it may be regarded rather as a street than a road. Part of the town of Edinburgh on the W. stretches into the parish of S. Leith. The buildings in the older parts of Leith are huddled together without order or regularity, and the streets and lanes are, for the most part, narrow, crooked, and filthy. The new streets to the S. and E., however, form striking exceptions, being not much inferior to the best in Edinburgh. In S. Leith, the only two leading streets (Constantine and the Kirkgate) branch off from the N. termination of Leith Walk in the form of an acute angle. The street called the shore, fronting the harbour on the S., is lofty and substantial. On the S.E. of S. Leith are Leith Links, or downs, a common belonging to the bor., $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in length by nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in breadth. The best buildings are erected on its skirts, chiefly on its N. and W. sides. A project for a new town, as an extension of N. Leith on the W., on a regular plan, was fixed on upwards of twenty years ago, and has been partially carried into effect; but building, both in this parish and throughout the town generally, has been nearly suspended for about a dozen years. Both N. and S. Leith are lighted with gas, and supplied with water by the Edinburgh Water Company. The length of the bor., from E. to W., is $\frac{1}{2}$ m., the mean breadth $\frac{1}{2}$ m. The mean and dirty village of Newhaven, $\frac{1}{2}$ m. to the W., is inhabited almost exclusively by fishermen, who chiefly supply Leith and Edinburgh with fish.

The public buildings in Leith are numerous. The Trinity-house, of Grecian architecture, on the W. side of

the Kirkgate, was founded in 1545, and rebuilt in 1817. The par. church of S. Leith, opposite the Trinity-house, built in the 16th century, has recently been much improved both internally and externally. The parish church was at Restalrig, 1 m. E. of the bor., till the Reformation, when it fell a sacrifice to the destructive zeal of the Presbyterians; since which the present building, originally a chapel dedicated to St. Mary, has served that purpose. The Free church of St. John in Constitution Street, originally erected as a gabled sacra church, is a spacious Gothic edifice: it has a lofty octagonal spire, with two schools attached to it, and forms altogether one of the most imposing objects in the bor. The present parish church of N. Leith is a modern structure of Grecian architecture, on an elevated situation, with a spire 158 ft. high. A handsome place of worship, in connection with the establishment, was erected in 1841 in S. Leith, and endowed by Sir John Gladstone, of Farness, a native of the bor.; it has attached to it a school and an hospital for females labouring under incurable diseases. The buildings, which are in the Gothic style, form three sides of a square, and cost about 21,000*l.*, exclusive of the endowment. Among the other public buildings may be mentioned the gaol, a new edifice of Saxon architecture; the town-hall, in Constitution Street, erected in 1838, perhaps the most chaste and elegant specimen of modern architecture in the town; the Exchange Buildings, a large Grecian structure, extending to 180 ft. in front, and 100 ft. in depth, with several rooms, and a reading room; the Leith bank; the Custom-house, close to the harbour on the N.; the High-school, at the S. corner of Leith Links; Dr. Bell's school; various dissenting chapels, particularly an episcopal one; and the Seafield baths, erected by a joint-stock company in 1812, at the E. extremity of the town, at an expense of 8,000*l.*

In regard to religious instruction, in addition to the two parish churches, and Sir John Gladstone's chapel, 3 places of worship belong to the Free church, four to the Associate Synod, and one respectively to the Relief, Independents, Methodists, R. Catholics, and Episcopalian. The living of N. Leith is, Greenock perhaps excepted, the highest in the Scottish church, being about 800*l.* a year, arising principally from the tithe of fish landed at Newhaven, and from the rent of the glebe, which is *fenced*, or let on building leases. The church of S. Leith is collegiate, or is served by two ministers.

Literature and education cannot be said to have received, at least till of late, much encouragement in Leith. With the exception of the High-School, an efficient seminary, built by subscription in 1808, little else has been done in furtherance of either. The proportion of young persons at school is said to amount to one tenth of the pop. There are several schools for the instruction of the poorer classes, inc. a school, attended by about 700 children, founded by Dr. Bell of Madras, who left a bequest of 10,000*l.* for that purpose. There are several subscription libraries; and a philharmonic society for the cultivation of music, both vocal and instrumental. But there are no literary or scientific associations; and no newspaper is published in Leith. The news is chiefly of Edinburgh, as accounts for these and similar facts. Dr. Henry Hunter, translator of Lavater's "Physiognomy," and John Logan, author of "Sermons and Poems" were successively ministers of S. Leith; and John Home, author of "Douglas," and Hugo Arnot, the historian of Edinburgh, were natives of the bor.

With the exception of the Trinity-house, Bell's bequest, and Gladstone's hospital and school, Leith has no important charities. The Trinity-house, the funds of which are devoted to the relief of decayed sailors or their widows, supports, by monthly or quarterly payments, from 170 to 180 pensioners of various classes (but the number is necessarily variable); besides assisting sailors who have been shipwrecked, or are otherwise in distress. The recipients of the charity formerly lived in the house, but now they are all out-pensioners. There was a charity called King James's Hospital, for the support of old women; but the building has disappeared, though the funds, which are trifling, are still devoted to their original object. The other charitable institutions are the same society, dispensary, and casualty hospital; the society for the relief of destitute sick, and Leith boys' charity school. There are various friendly societies.

Poor-rates were introduced into S. Leith in 1817; into N. Leith in 1822. Aggregate numbers of permanent and occasional paupers, in 1849, 1,850. Sum raised for the relief of the poor in that year 8,912*l.*, assessed upon property of the estimated annual value of 114,944*l.* A work-house has recently been erected at a cost of 7,500*l.*

Leith labours under all but incurable disadvantages in respect to its port. At low water, the tide recedes above a mile from the shore, and the stream of the rivule by which the town is bisected is so tiny, that it is even insufficient to clear away the mud from the harbour. Various efforts have been made to overcome these natural difficulties; but hitherto with no very marked success.

In 1750, a dock was formed on the E. side of the river, and that portion of the present pier which is of stone was erected; and in 1777 a small quay, called the custom-house quay, was built. But the increasing commerce of Leith soon rendered these trifling improvements quite inadequate to the demands of the port; and accordingly, in 1759, the magistrates of Edinburgh, who had the uncontrolled management of all public matters connected with the town and port of Leith, obtained an act of parliament, authorising them to borrow 160,000*l.*, for the construction of wet-docks. In consequence, 3 docks were constructed on the N. side of the harbour, between 1800 and 1817, each measuring 350 yards in length, by 100 in breadth, and comprising together about 104 imp. acres. Attached to them are three graving-docks, each 136 ft. long by 45 ft. wide at bottom; and 180 ft. long by 73 ft. wide at the top; with an entrance 36 ft. wide. At average spring tides, the depth of water in the docks is 16 ft. 9 inches; and at neap tides, 4 ft. less. The total expense was 265,000*l.*, of which 255,000*l.* was borrowed by the city from government, at 5 per cent.; of which 3 per cent. was to be paid annually, and 2 per cent. to be accumulated as a sinking fund for the liquidation of the debt. The city gave as security a mortgage over all their Leith property, and a concurrent claim, with other creditors, over the entire municipal property of Edinburgh, besides ceding certain effects to the admiralty.

In addition to these great works, others were undertaken in 1831-32, viz. an addition to the E. pier, of the extent of 500 yards; and the formation of a covering bulwark on the opposite side, 1,500 ft. in extent. The expense of the former (36,000*l.*) was borne by the city of Edinburgh; the latter (12,000*l.*), by government. The object of these works was to deepen the water in the channel; which was effected to the extent of about 3 ft. But after this had been done, the har-bar was all but dry at low water, and there were only 17 ft. water over the bar, at its mouth, at high water spring tides, and but 14 ft. at neap tides. In fact, no vessel of above 400 tons burden could approach the harbour at the highest tide; and sometimes not even vessels of that burden. Under these circumstances it was determined to make still further improvements. And a statute having been passed in 1839, vesting the management of the harbour and docks in parliamentary trustees, and authorising the expenditure of certain sums on their improvement, various extensive works have since been undertaken and are now (1850) in progress. These works, which are to be completed in the course of next year, comprise, 1st, a further addition of 9,000 feet to the E. pier, and of 2,100 ft. to the W. do.; and 2d, the construction of a new wet dock of nearly 5 acres in extent, fitted to accommodate the largest class of steam ships. The object of carrying out the piers to so great a distance is to secure such a depth of water that they may be accessible at all times of the tide. And it is said that at their termination there is now 8 feet water at low ebb, which may be increased to 14 ft. by dredging. At their extremities the piers approach to within about 250 ft. of each other. The W. pier has a railway which communicates with the Edinburgh, Perth, and other railways; so that vessels may, by using it, either discharge the whole or their cargoes, or be lightened so that they may come up to the inner port.

But it is very doubtful whether even these additional works will effect the object in view—that is, whether they will secure a harbour always accessible; and supposing them to have the desired effect, the distance from the shore to the extremity of the piers will be as great as the distance from the W. end of the docks to Granton pier or greater, and there a deep-water harbour has been already constructed; so that it would seem that the expenditure upon the works now in hand will be little better than useless.

The harbour of Edinburgh should, in fact, have been constructed more to the W., at Trinity or Granton. Indeed, after much opposition on the part of Leith and Edinburgh, a bill was carried through parliament in 1837, for the construction of a low-water pier at Trinity, ½ m. W. of the harbour of Leith; but hitherto no effort has been made to carry that measure into effect. Luckily, however, the Duke of Buccleugh has been, for some years, engaged in the construction of a low-water pier on his estate of Granton, 1 m. W. of Leith; an undertaking of great national importance, and worthy an individual of great wealth and public spirit. This splendid work, now nearly completed, and by far the greatest of its kind attempted in Scotland, will secure for Edinburgh all the advantages of a deep-water harbour, accessible at all times. The pier, which is constructed in the most approved manner, projects into the sea about 1,700 ft., shaped like a T, with its head to the N., having harbours and landing places on both sides. It has been partially open for some years, but its business has hitherto been principally confined to the accommodation of steamers. The Duke is now, also, constructing a breakwater which will add immensely to the accommodation for and security of

shipping. He has further erected a large hotel with warehouses, and other buildings. Granton communicates by an excellent road and by railway with Edinburgh; and it is the point of departure for the steamers for Burntisland.

The commerce of Leith, from its being the port of Edinburgh, is very considerable, and has been slowly but steadily improving. It carries on a considerable trade with Australia, the E. and W. Indies, China, the Mediterranean, Canada, and the United States; but its principal foreign trade is with Holland and the N. of Europe. With regard to its domestic trade, there are various companies which employ steam and other vessels in trading to London, Hull, Newcastle, Liverpool, Greenock, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Wick, Helmsdale, Orkney, Shetland, Dundee, Stirling, and other British ports, and to Hamburg and other continental ports.

The gross amount of customs' dues collected at Leith amounted, in 1845, to £50,124., and in 1849 to £46,885.

There belonged to Leith in January, 1850, 185 sailing vessels, of the aggregate burden of 30,635 tons, ex. 21 steamers; some of the latter being large and handsomely fitted up.

An attempt was made some time ago by a joint-stock company to introduce flax-spinning, and the manufacture of the coarser linen fabrics, into the town; but it was found impossible, as in most similar cases, artificially to raise up a manufacturing population, or successfully to come into competition with places, such as Kirkcaldy and Dundee, where the business had been gradually formed, and long established. A glass and bottle work has existed for a century, but out of seven furnaces only two are now at work. A pottery has been commenced. Ship-building has long been carried on to a considerable extent, and employs more capital than any other business in Leith. There are various extensive rope and sail works, distilleries, breweries, and iron foundries; a sugar refinery; a soap manufactory, which produced, in 1849, 2,646,920 lbs. of hard, and 33,570 lbs. of soft soap; a small linen manufactory, &c. There are 9 incorporated trades; an incorporation of millwrights; a merchant company; a chamber of commerce; six banks, and a savings' bank. A branch of the Edinburgh and Dalkeith railway terminates at the quay, opening an easy communication with the extensive collieries in the E. of Mid Lothian.

Leith existed as a town as early as the 12th century. The old church of N. Leith, long disused as a place of worship, was founded in 1458. It is now in ruins; but its cemetery is still used as a burial ground. A bridge over the river, built, in 1493, by Robert Bellenden, abbot of Holyrood-house, was used till 1786, when the first drawbridge was erected. Leith is of no small note in the history of Scotland, having been the scene of more military service than perhaps any other town in the kingdom. It was once walled on the land side, but all traces of its fortifications have disappeared. Leith was taken possession of by Cromwell, who laid a heavy assessment on the inhabitants, and erected a citadel, of which some portions still remain. It formerly had races, which took place at ebb-tide, on the sands E. of the town; but they were transferred to Musselburgh Links in 1816. A martello tower, on the sands, at some distance from the town, was built, at an expense of 17,000*l.*, for the defence of the port, during the late war; the port is farther defended, by a battery of nine guns, a little to the W. of Cromwell's fort.

Leith was long dependent on Edinburgh. So early as the 14th century, the latter obtained a grant from King Robert Bruce, of its harbour and mill; a right which was confirmed or extended by subsequent grants either from the crown, or Logan of Restalrig, the baronial superior of the place. The municipal government of the burgh was, as already stated, substantially vested in the town-council of Edinburgh, who had the entire management of the port. But the Scottish Bur. Reform Bill, which came into operation in November, 1833, totally changed this state of things, and conferred on the inhab. of Leith what they had long struggled to obtain, the uncontrolled direction of their own municipal affairs; vesting them in a provost, 4 bailies, and 10 councillors, chosen by popular election. This act did not, however, affect the rights of Edinburgh over the harbour and docks, or the revenue arising therefrom. But the Edinburgh and Leith Agreement Bill (July, 1858) made each town, in every respect, independent of the other. By this statute, the affairs of the harbour and docks are vested in 11 commissioners, (of whom 5 are nominated by Her Majesty's Treasury, and 3 by the town-councils of Edinburgh and Leith respectively), whose proceedings, however, require the sanction of the Treasury. The debt on the docks due to government, at the date of the passing of the act, was £28,374*l.*; and the commissioners were empowered to borrow a sum not exceeding 125,000*l.* (the government postponing the security granted to it *pro tem*), for the improvement of the port, provided the whole particulars and estimates receive the authority of the Treasury. Government also postponed

its claims to such annual sums as might be required for maintaining or extending the efficiency of the port.

Previously to the passing of the Reform Bill in 1832, Leith had no parliamentary representative. But that act conferred on it, with Portobello and Musselburgh, the right to send 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered voters in 1849-50, 1,323; being more than two-thirds of the entire constituency. (*Boundary Reports; Campbell's Hist. of Leith; and Private Information.*)

LEITMERITZ, a fortified town of Bohemia, cap. circ. of its own name, on the Elbe, here crossed by a bridge about 800 ft. in length, built partly of stone and partly of wood, 334 m. N. N. E. Prague. Pop. (1846), 4,850. It is well built, and has a handsome cathedral and other churches, a gymnasium, a theological seminary, a high school and girls' school, with manufactures of straw hats and chlorey, and a considerable traffic in agricultural produce, and fish caught in the Elbe. The wines of its circle are the best of any in Bohemia, which, however, is no very high recommendation. It is a bishop's see, and the seat of a circle council. (*Oester. Nat. Encyc. &c.*)

LEITRIM, a marit. co. of Ireland, prov. Connaught, having N. Donegal Bay, B. Fermanagh and Cavan, S. Longford, and W. Roscommon and Sligo. It is long and narrow, stretching N. N. W. and S. E. E. nearly 50 m. Area 420,375 acres, of which 128,167 are mountain and bog, and 29,568 water, including Lough Allen, near the source of the Shannon, which is also in this co. Leitrim is wild, and generally mountainous; but in the valleys and low grounds the soil, which is incumbent on limestone, is mostly very fertile. Property in very large estates. Tillage farms small and not unfrequently let on partnership leases. Agriculture perhaps improving, but in an excessively backward and depressed state. There is no rotation; corn follows corn as long as the soil will bear any thing; or if the series be interrupted, it is only to make way for potatoes or flax; and when the land is exhausted its recovery is left to the *vis medicatrix nature*; clover and turnips are nearly unknown; and here, as in most other districts of Ireland, the potato is the all but sole dependence of the bulk of the population. The habitations of the occupiers are mostly miserable huts; and, except in a few instances, office-houses, in the proper sense of the term, can hardly be said to exist. Average rent of land, 10*s.* 8*d.* an acre. Some coarse linen is made for home consumption. Leitrim contains 5 baronies, and 17 par. It sends 2 mems. to the H. of C., both for the co. Registered electors, 1849-50, 554. In 1841, Leitrim had 26,912 inhab. houses, 27,193 families, and 155,977 inhab., of whom 77,501 were males, and 77,796 females.

LEMBERG (Polish, *Łowicz*, Latin, *Leopoldis*), a city of the Austrian dominions, cap. Galicia, on the Palenka, a tributary of the Bug, 185 m. E. by S. Cracow, and nearly 370 m. N. E. Vienna. Lat. 49° 51' 40" N.; long. 24° 2' 45" E. Pop., inclusive of the garrison and strangers, in 1845, 75,000, of whom about 30,000 were Jews. Lemberg was formerly an important fortress; but the demolition of its fortifications was begun early in the last century, and completed under Joseph II., when its ramparts were planted with trees, and laid out in public walks. It has still, however, 2 castles, one within the town, and the other, the ruined castle of Lowenberg, on an adjacent eminence to the N. The city proper is small, but it has 4 suburbs, each equalling it in extent; and comprising the handsomest buildings. The lofty towers and cupolas of the cathedral and other churches, and the massiveness of its public structures, give Lemberg an air of grandeur, particularly when viewed from a distance. The city has narrow dirty streets and old houses; but the suburbs are generally well built, and have several wide, straight, and tolerably well paved streets, and some spacious squares. The houses are mostly of freestone, two or three stories high, but roofed only with shingles. The chief public edifices are the palace of the Armenian archbishop in the Cracow suburb; the Dominican church, which has a fine monument by Thorwaldsen; one of the 2 synagogues, the old Jesuits' college, the new council-house, the governor's residence, the general hospital, and the large barracks in the Zolkiew suburb. Lemberg has upwards of 20 churches, including a Greek and an Armenian cathedral, 9 Rom. Cath. par. churches, and Lutheran and Calvinist meeting-houses; a Greek, an Armenian, and 6 Rom. Cath. convents, 5 hospitals, and a theatre. Its university, established in 1784, and remodelled in 1817, had, in 1833, 1,311, and in 1845, 1,400 students; of which, in the former year, 485 studied divinity, 399 philosophy, 347 law, and 185 medicine. It has also an imperial academy, a Rom. Cath. and a Greek ecclesiastical seminary, 2 gymnasia, 2 high schools, a school of arts and sciences, a normal school, a Jewish female and many elementary schools; a provincial museum, chiefly for the natural and other products of Galicia, and a valuable public library, said to be rich in works in Polish literature. It is the seat of the provincial government; of the courts for the city and circle, a court of appeal for the prov., &c. &c.

and has Rom. Cath., united Greek, and Armenian archbishops, and Lutheran and Calvinist superintendents.

Lemberg has manufactures of cotton and woollen stuffs, with dye works, distilleries, tanneries, and a few printing establishments; but it is much more a commercial than a manufacturing city. Next to Brody, with which it has a constant intercourse, it is the chief trading town of Galicia. Its position on the high road from Odessa to Siberia and Warsaw, renders it an emporium for much of the produce of S. Russia, Moldavia, and Wallachia, in its transit to central Europe. Large fairs are held at Lemberg; the most important is that called *Drei Königs Messe* (Three Kings' Fair), which lasts six weeks from Jan. 14., and attracts a vast concourse of Jewish, Christian, and even Mohammedan merchants. The Russians bring to the fairs large quantities of poultry from Siberia and Tartary, which they exchange for the woollen and cotton goods and hardware of Austria. Large herds of cattle arrive at Lemberg from Moldavia and Bessarabia, being thence distributed to different parts of Austria and Siberia.

Lemberg is also one of the principal corn-markets of the Austrian empire. Corn is sent from it to Przemysl, on the San, where it is shipped for Dantzic; and it is, also, though more rarely, sent from it to some of the nearest stations on the Dniestr, for shipment for Odessa. But, owing to the length and difficulty of the navigation and reaching only a few inches down the bank, there is a very wide difference between the prices in them and in Lemberg. Thus, on the 20th of November, 1838, wheat sold at Lemberg for 1lb. a quarter, whereas its price at Dantzic on the 20th of the same month, was no less than 4s. 6d.; the difference amounting to 2s. 4d. a quarter, being the measure of the cost of the conveyance from Lemberg to Dantzic! We may remark, by the way, that this fact sets in a very striking point of view the absurdity of the statements so frequently put forth in our newspapers, contrasting prices in this country with those in foreign markets, and ascribing their excess in England wholly to the influence of our corn-laws.

Lemberg was founded in the 12th century. It was taken by Casimir I. of Poland, in 1340. It was besieged in 1646 by the famous Cossack chief, Bogdan Khmelnicki, who threatened its extermination, but withdrew on receiving a large ransom. In 1673 it was taken by the Turks; and in 1705 it was taken and sacked by Charles XII. of Sweden, when it ceased to be of much consequence as a fortress. It came into the possession of Austria in 1773, since which it has progressively advanced in wealth and population. (*Oester. Nat. Encyc.; Malte-Brun, Tableau de la Pologne*, ed. 1830, l. 415.; *Private Information*.)

LEMGO, a town of Germany. See LIPPS-DETMOLD.

LEMNOS (Turk. *Stalimene*), an island of the Grecian Archipelago, belonging to the dom. of the Porte, 43 m. S.E. the promontory of Mount Athos, and about the same distance W. from the mouth of the Hellespont. Mount Therna being in lat. 39° 53' 46" N., long. 25° 8' 39" E. Area about 160 sq. m. Pop. said to amount to 12,000, chiefly Greeks. It is of an irregular quadrilateral shape, being nearly divided into two peninsulas by two deep bays or indentations of the sea, Port Paradise on its N. and Port St. Antonio on its S. side. The latter, which is capacious and land-locked, has good anchorage for large ships. The E. side presents to the sea a bold rock, *Monte Sento*, called by Eschylus the *Egæan Aëtas Aëtiæ*, in his brilliant description of the watch-fires between Mount Ida and Mycenæ: a rocky bank projects from it upwards of 8 m. into the sea. The appearance of Lemnos is far from picturesque: barren, rocky, though not very high, mountains cover about two thirds of its surface, and scarcely a tree is to be seen, except in some of its narrow valleys, which are verdant and fertile, especially on its W. side. The whole island bears the strongest marks of volcanic action: the two highest mountains have craters; there are several thermal springs, and the rocks in many parts resemble the burnt and vitrified scoræ of furnaces. One of its mountains, indeed, appears, from a fragment of a Greek poet preserved by Nicander, to have been constantly emitting flame and smoke; and hence we may account for the fact of this island being sacred to Vulcan, who, when precipitated from heaven, is said to have fallen on its hospitable shores:—

"Lemnos erat deo: nec fœnas notior Etnæ.
At Lypæus domus."

Vol. Eleusis, lib. 1. l. 25.

This island has been long famous for its furnishing a peculiar siliceous earth or bole, celebrated for its detergent and medical qualities, called *Terra Lemnia* and *Terra Sigillata*, from its being impressed with a peculiar seal or mark. Galen visited the island in the second century, for the express purpose of making himself acquainted with this earth; and he states that it was then dug up with many religious ceremonies. (*De Simpt. Medc.*, lib. 1. l. 1.) This practice has been continued down to our own times, or, at all events, to a very late period. The earth is dug up on the 6th of August,

in the presence of the chief men of the island: when a sufficient quantity is extracted, the hole is filled up; the bags or parcels are then sealed, and a few being sent to the grand seignor, the governor is accountable for the value of the others. But the reputation of the Lemnian earth is now much fallen off, and the demand for it has proportionally declined. (*Ancient Universal History*, viii. 346. 8vo. ed.)

At present the high grounds of the island are grazed by sheep; but the W. and S. valleys produce corn, good grapes and figs, cotton and mulberry trees. The climate, however, is too cold to ripen oranges and lemons; and the island frequently suffers from the locust.

The wine of Lemnos is of two sorts, both red; the best fetches about 8 paras per oke, or 2s. 3d. per bottle. It produces more than sufficient grain for its own consumption, the rest, with some wine, being sent to Mytilene; but its chief exports are ewe-milk cheese, silk, cotton, and wool. Wheat sells for 4 plasres (6s.) the bushel, barley for 8 paras the oke, and cheese for the same. The inhabs. are divided between agriculture and fishing, and the women (celebrated for their beauty) are employed in weaving cotton cloths. The Turks resemble those of the other islands, both in dress and manners; but the costume of the Greek women is remarkable as well as picturesque. It consists of a short scurlet jacket, with long sleeves, loose in front, and reaching only a few inches down the back, very short petticoats, wide calico trousers gathered at the ankles, yellow Turkish slippers, and a white handkerchief tied like a turban round the head. The principal town Castro (the ancient *Myrina*), on the W. side, contains 3 Greek churches; and its port, or rather cove, is defended by a little pier, and commanded by a citadel on the overhanging rocks. Ships are built here; and the natives are excellent seamen. Pop. 2,000. The other port is St. Antonio on its S. side, at the bottom of the bay already noticed. (*Walpole's Memoirs*, li. 84, &c.) Lemnos, according to Pliny, had a labyrinth more remarkable than that of Crete or of Egypt. It was reported by 140 columns, and its gates were so admirably adjusted, as to be turned by a child. (*Quarum in officina turbines ita libere pependant, ut pueri circumagere tornarentur*.) It was the work of three architects, one of whom, Theodorus, was a native of the island. Its remains are said to have been extant in Pliny's time. (*Hist. Nat. lib. xxxvi. cap. 13*.) No certain traces of this famous edifice have been discovered in modern times; but this is probably a consequence of the island having been seldom visited by scientific travellers, or of the changes occasioned by the action of volcanoes, or other natural convulsions.

The first inhab. of the island are said to have been Thracians. In the reign of Thos, the only Lemnian king mentioned in history, the Lemnian women are said, in imitation of the Amazons, to have treacherously killed all the males (*Herodot.*, lib. vi. cap. 138.); and hence any premeditated and detestable murder or other crime was long after called a "Lemnian action." Militaries reduced the Lemnians under the sway of Athens.

LENA, a large river of N. Asia, the principal in E. Siberia, extending through the N. lat. and falling into the Arctic Ocean. It rises in lat. 43° 30' N. and long. 106° E., on the W. slope of the lofty granitic range, skirting the N.W. shore of the lake Baikal; and from the source as far as Ust Kuisik, a distance of 350 m. it pursues a N. course; but at that point it is turned E. by a chain of hills, and runs in a very tortuous channel E.N.E. for about 1,000 m. to Yakutsk, the metropolis of E. Siberia, where it is a wide and noble river. Its general course from Yakutsk is N. down to the apex of the extensive delta formed at its mouth, the distance between the two points being about 100 m. If the distances along the stream, carefully measured on J. Arrowsmith's map, be correct, the entire length of this gigantic river is probably somewhat more than 2,100 m. The basin of the Lena, according to Ritter, covers an area of about 800,000 sq. m., the principal tributaries above Yakutsk being the Kirenga, Vitira, and Olekma, on its E. side, while below that city, the main stream is joined E. by the Aldan, rising by several sources in the Stanovoi range, and W. by the Bilui, which rises on the E. side of the hills dividing the Lena basin from that of the Yenisei. The Lena has an extremely tortuous course with a sluggish stream, and encloses numerous islands. Mr. Dobell, who travelled up the stream from Yakutsk to Irkutsk, describes it as "one of the safest navigable rivers, of its size, in the whole world, its course being only very rapid in the spring, at the breaking up of the frost, when numerous tributary rivers and torrents, bursting their icy fetters, rush with impetuosity into the maternal bosom of the Lena. The river, at these times, is a truly sublime spectacle, particularly where it passes through what are called the *gates*, which confine it in a narrow channel between rugged cliffs rising perpendicularly nearly 800 ft. above the stream. The dashing and eddying of the

stream in its course from one side to the other is terribly grand; and yet the native boatmen manage to descend the river without injury, even at this season. The forests on its bank are principally of spruce and the yellow pine, both of a large growth; and the soil on the mountains appears rich and good, and capable of producing grain of all sorts. Most of the farming settlements, however, are either on the level spots along the edge of the river, or on the declivities of the mountains. Below Yakutsk, the face of the country is very different: the river rolls thence through vast and almost uninhabited plains, covered with snow and ice, which never wholly melts, and beneath which have been found the carcasses of mammoths, rhinoceroses, and other fossil animals." (*Dobell's Siberia*, li. 63-62; *Lyell's Geology*, i. 140-144.)

LENHAM, a decayed market-town and par. of England, co. Kent, lathe of Aylesford, hund. Eyborne, near the source of the Len, a trib. of the Medway, 12 m. W. Canterbury, and 40 m. E.S.E. London. Area of par., 6,890 acres. Pop., in 1841, 2,214. The town consists of a principal street, on the high road between Maidstone and Canterbury, intersected by another of smaller size. The church has a square tower and 16 curiously carved stalls in its interior, which are supposed to have belonged to the abbot and monks of St. Augustine, at Canterbury, who had large estates within the par. The market has been long disused; and the inhab. are almost entirely engaged in agriculture.

LENTINI (an. *Leontium*), a town of Sicily, prov. Syracuse, on a hill, washed by the river Porcari (an. *Lissus*), near the lake of Lentini, or Biverti, 14 m. S.S.W. Catania, and 30 m. N.W. Syracuse. Pop., in 1831, 7,276. The country round is now, as of old, extremely fertile; and the inhab. are chiefly employed in its culture, in the fishery on the lake, and the sale of the produce so obtained. In the winter season the lake, which is the largest in Sicily, is about 19 m. in circ., but in summer its circ. is reduced to 8 or 9 m., the exhalations from the mud that is thus left dry rendering the town and district very unhealthy: the fishery yields its proprietor, the prince of Butera, a considerable sum.

The ancient city of Leontium, founded by a colony of Chalcidians in the first year of the 13th Olympiad (*Thucydides*, lib. vi.), most probably occupied the exact site of the modern town; but the ground has been so much shaken and changed by natural convulsions, such as that of the great earthquake of 1693, that few vestiges of the ancient city can now be traced. When it was taken by the Romans under Marcus, it was one of the principal cities of Sicily, as is sufficiently evinced by the notices of it in various writers, and especially by the detailed description which Polybius has left of its state at that period. "The city of Leontium," says he, "considered in its general position, faces the N. Through the middle of it runs a level valley, which contains the public buildings allotted to the administration of government and justice, and, in a word, the whole that is called the Forum. The two sides of the valley are enclosed by two hills, which are rough and broken along their whole extent. But the summit of these hills is flat and plain, and is covered with temples and houses. There are two gates to the city: one of them is in the southern extremity of the city, and conducts to Syracuse; the other is on the opposite side, and leads to those lands so famed for their fertility, called the Leontine fields. Below the hill that stands on the W. side of the valley flows the river Lissus; and on the same side, likewise, there is a row of houses built under the very precipice, and in a line parallel to the river. Between these houses and the river lies the road that has been mentioned." (*Strabo's Polybius*, lib. iii. 106.)

In his third oration against Verres, Cicero repeatedly refers to Leontium, and celebrates the extraordinary fertility of its territory, *Ager Leontinus caput est rei frumentarie*. (*In Verrem*, lib. iii. cap. 23.) The famous orator, Gorgias, whose eloquence was instrumental in persuading the Athenians to undertake their fatal expedition against Sicily, was a native of Leontium.

LEOMINSTER, a parl. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Hereford, hund. Wolphry on the Lugg, an affluent of the Wyfe, 11 m. N. Hereford, and 121 m. W.N.W. London. Area of par., and parl. bor., which are co-extensive, 9,290 acres; pop. in 1841, 4,846. The town consists of a good principal street, about 1 m. long, intersected by several narrow and inconvenient lanes. There are several handsome inns and private residences, and being well paved and well lighted, it has, on the whole, a respectable appearance. The town-hall, called the butter-cross, in consequence of the butter-market being held in the lower part, is an odd-looking structure of timber and plaster, standing on oak pillars, with Ionic capitals. A market-house was erected in 1403, near which is a small pool. The church, which exhibits the architecture of several periods, has a tower 100 ft. high; the vicarage is in the gift of the lord chancellor. The Baptists, Wesleyan Methodists, Moravians,

and the Society of Friends, have each places of worship; and well-attended Sunday schools are attached to the church and to various chapels. A free grammar-school, founded and endowed by Queen Mary, "has entirely ceased to furnish gratuitous education, and has become a private school: the corporation appoints the master; but beyond paying him an annual stipend of 20*l.*, they have no concern in the management of the school." (*Mss. Corp. Rep.*) An almshouse, dispensary, and house of industry, are the only other public establishments. Sum collected by a rate and expended on the poor of the par., in 1847, 502*l.*

Leominster was formerly one of the principal seats of the glove manufacture; but latterly the business has been on the decline. Hats are made, and coarse woollens, but the latter only to a small extent. Tanning is extensively carried on. The principal dependence of the town is, however, on its retail trade with the adjacent country. Coal is brought from Shropshire, partly by canal and partly by waggons, from the Clee Hills.

"The land in the borough and in the out-parish is in a great degree held, often in small portions, by the residents in the town. The country round produces, besides the common agricultural produce, apples and hops in great abundance. In the immediate neighbourhood of the town the meadow lands are let for 4*l.* or 5*l.* per acre. Farther off the average rent is about 2*l.*; in the out-parish the rent was represented to us much lower, seldom exceeding 3*l.* and sometimes falling as low as 1*l.* 1*2s.* The actual farms vary in size from 80 to 400 acres. There are few tenures for lives. Some lands and houses belonging to the corporation are let for long terms, subject to three joint lives, but renewable, as the lives fall in, for fines certain. There are some leases for terms of years; but the greatest number of holdings are from year to year, the leases for years expiring, and the tenant holding on. A considerable quantity of the land is occupied by the proprietors. The wages of labouring men, finding their own food, are on an average of the whole year, about 10*l.* per week." (*Bownd. Rep.*)

Leominster is a bor. by prescription, and received several charters between 1534 and 1706, the governing charter till 1835 having been 36 Charles II. The mun. officers are, a recorder, 4 aldermen, and 12 councillors. Corp. rev., in 1847-8, 512*l.* Quarter and petty sessions are held in the town-hall, and there is a court for the recovery of debts under 100*l.* The parl. franchise was granted in 23 Edward I., since which time the bor. has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C., the voters, down to the passing of the Reform Act, being resident burgesses and inhab. paying scot and lot. The Boundary Act made the parl. bor. co-extensive with the par. Reg. electors in 1849-50, 438. Markets on Friday: large fairs for cattle, farming-produce, &c., Feb. 13., May 12., Sept. 4., and Nov. 8. (*Mss. and Bownd. Rep.*, &c.)

LEON, an ancient kingdom of Spain between lat. 40° 10' and 40° N., and long. 4° and 7° W.; bounded N. by Asturias, E. by Old Castile, S. by Extremadura, and W. by Galicia; greatest length, 200 m.; breadth, 138 m.; area, 10,573 sq. m. Pop., according to Mifanc, 1,226,329. The whole of this kingdom is included in the basin of the Douro, and is intersected by several large tributaries of that river, the principal being the Pisuerga, Esla, and Tormes. The N. and S. districts are mountainous, the former comprising various offshoots from the Asturian chain, and the latter being skirted by the central chain of the Peninsula, two of the highest summits of which are the Sierra de Gredos, 10,552 ft., and the Pena de Francia, 5,689 ft. This hilly country produces the loftiest and best oaks in Spain, and is rich in iron ore, some portion of which is smelted, and made into hardware goods. The inhab. of the Asturian mountains are a distinct race, robust, and simple in their manners, engaged during summer in pasturing cattle, mules, and the migratory flocks of sheep that pass at that season through their country, and at other times employed in tillage and in collecting Iceland moss, which is here very abundant, madder, and medicinal plants, which they sell in the markets of Leon and Madrid.

The less elevated parts of Leon contain many tracts which afford excellent pasture, and dairy-farming might be pursued with great profit, were it not for the want of enterprise and industry. The principal crops are maize, olives, wheat, and flax are cultivated in some parts; but there is a great want of irrigation. The wine of Salamanca is said to be of good quality; but that raised on the borders of Galicia is execrably bad. Leon has no public manufactures worth notice, except that of hardware; but there is a good deal of domestic manufacturing of woollen and linen stuffs for home consumption. The canal of Castile, constructed about 35 years ago, passes northward up the valley of the Pisuerga; but it was never finished, and contributes very little, if at all, to the advantage of the districts through which it is intended to pass. Townsend, who visited Leon while the works were in progress, has given a good account of the undertaking. (*Vol. i. p. 367.*)

The kingdom of Leon is divided into 6 provs., Leon

and Palencia in the N.; and Zamora, Toro, Valladolid, and Salamanca in the S.; the principal cities and towns being Leon, Valladolid, Ciudad Rodrigo, and Salamanca. This country was successively inhabited by the *Celts* and *Celtiberians*, and formed a part of the Roman *Tarracensis*. Don Pelayo and his successors during the 8th century formed this district into a kingdom, called after its capital, and connected with that of Asturias. It was first added to Castile in 1067, but continued in an unsettled state till 1390, when it was finally united to the dominions of Ferdinand III. king of Castile. (*Milano*; *Mod. Trav.*)

Leon, a city of Spain, cap. kingd. and prov. of same name, 49 m. S. Oviedo, and 178 m. N.W. Madrid; lat. 42° 45' N., long. 4° 17' 48" W. Pop., according to *Milano*, 5,500. This ancient city, once the cap. of an independent kingdom and the residence of its sovereigns, stands on a kind of peninsula formed by the Beroesga and the Torgo. It is surrounded by decayed walls, and bears in its narrow, dirty, unpaved streets, and almost ruinous houses, the indications of poverty and wretchedness. Among the public buildings, the largest is the cathedral, a Gothic structure, with a lofty spire deservedly admired for its lightness and elegance; the ecclesiastical establishment comprises a bishop and 40 canons. There are no fewer than 15 par. churches in the town and suburbs, and 4 canonical houses of Augustinian monks, with 7 other monasteries. There are also 4 hospitals, one of which is for foundlings. The inhab. are employed in linen weaving, in knitting stockings and caps, and making leather gloves; there are, also, some tanneries and soap-factories. The surrounding country is bold and beautiful; but agriculture is in the most degraded state. Hay-making, however, though common here, is not usual in other parts of Spain.

Leon was founded prior to the reign of the Roman emperor Calba: it was called by the Romans *Legio septima Germanica*, from the circumstance of this legion being stationed here: it was the first large town recovered from the Moors, after whose expulsion in 722, it was the residence of Christian kings during more than three centuries. (*Milano*; *Townsend*, vol. I. p. 376, &c.)

Leon, a town of Mexico, state of Guanajuato, in a fertile plain, and on the road from Guanajuato to Lagos, 36 m. W.N.W. the former city. Pop. estimated at about 6,500. It has 3 convents, a college, and an hospital, and carries on some trade in corn, &c.

LEON (181 A. DE), a long and narrow island close to the S. coast of Spain, prov. Cadiz, and separated from the mainland only by the narrow but deep channel of Santi Petri, crossed by the bridge of Zuazo, which being the only point of approach to the important city of Cadiz, is defended by strong redoubts. It is about 6 m. long by about 3 in breadth, and consists almost entirely of a dreary sandy waste, abounding with salt-water marshes. Cadiz occupies a small peninsula at the extremity of a long sandy isthmus, separated from the rest of the island by a line of fortifications called the Cortadura. (*See Cadiz*.)

There are two other towns, the chief of which is San Fernando, otherwise called Isla, and sometimes Leon, 64 m. S.E. Cadiz. Pop., in 1830 (as estimated by Inglis), 35,000; but it had decreased 9,000 since 1810, and is probably at present, 1840, under 25,000. "Isla," says Inglis, "is certainly one of the prettiest towns in Spain, and I never saw a cleaner and handsomer avenue than its principal street, which is about 1½ m. long. Every house is of the purest white, and every range of windows on every house has its green verandah." The principal buildings are the hotel-de-ville, in the great square, and the great church, which is not only remarkable for architectural beauty, but also for a curious mausoleum, called the *Pantheon*, intended for the interment of the clergy. In 1808, when Mr. Jacob visited this town (which is quite of modern growth, having been built in the middle of the last century), it was inhabited by a numerous pop., more active and industrious than in any other part of Spain; most of whom either belonged to the navy, or were engaged in the then busy dock-yard of Caracca. But its present condition is the very reverse of prosperous; for "Isla," says Mr. Inglis (1830), "is a sadly fallen town: the great naval school, and extensive docks of Caracca once gave employment, and life and prosperity to Isla; but now there is not a ship on the stocks, nor a pupil in the college." (*Milano*; *Inglis*, vol. II. p. 60; *Mod. Trav.*, &c.)

LEON DE NICARAGUA, a city of Central America, and the former cap. of the state of Nicaragua; in a savannah near a volcano, by whose eruptions it has occasionally suffered; about 80 m. N.W. Granada, and 5 m. from the N.W. shore of the Lake of Leon; lat. 12° 20' N., long. 86° 55' W. Pop., estimated by Thompson in 1829 at 38,000 (*Official Stat.*, &c. 451.); but it has since been greatly reduced by the convulsions that have taken place within its walls, and the decay consequent on the removal of the seat of government to Granada. It is sur-

rounded by old walls; and has several suburbs, a cathedral, and 3 other churches, several convents, an hospital, and a college. It is a bishop's see; and was originally founded, in 1523, on the spot now called Old Leon, but was removed to its present site in 1532.

LEONARD (ST.), a town of France, dep. Haute Vienne, cap. cant. on a hill near the Vienne, here crossed by a handsome bridge, 19 m. E. Limoges. Pop. in 1836, ex com., 3,504. It was fortified in the 16th century; and has manufactures of coarse woollens, paper, earthenware, &c.

LEONESSA, a town of central Italy, in the Neapolitan dominions, prov. Abruzzo Ultra, 36 m. W.S.W. Teramo, and 14 m. N.N.E. Rieti. Pop., in 1830, 7,000. It has several churches and convents, and some large annual fairs. It is situated in a wild rugged country, in an amphitheatre, surrounded by mountains which, in winter, intercept the sun's rays for half the day, and render the climate very severe. (*Dici Re*, II. 326.)

LEONFORTE, a town of Sicily, intend. Catania, dist. Nicosia, cap. cant., in a hollow of M. Tavi, near the Giarretta, and 27 m. W.N.W. Catania. Pop., in 1831, 10,678. Smythe says it is a fine town, in a healthy situation. It is surrounded with walls, and has a large square, from which two long and well-built streets diverge. Its trade in corn, wine, oil, and silk is considerable, and it has a large annual fair. A good deal of asphaltum is found in its vicinity. (*Smythe's Sicily*; *Ortolani Dizionario di Sicilia*, &c.)

LEPANTO (TOWN AND GULPH OF), Lepanto, (an. *Naupactus*), a sea-port town of W. Greece, on the N. shore of the Gulph of Lepanto, about ¾ m. E.N.E. from the castle of Roumella, at its entrance, and 1 m. W. from the mouth of the Morio, lat. 38° 21' 50" N., long. 21° 46' E. Pop. 2,400? It is built on the side of a hill surmounted by a castle of little strength, whence two walls come down to the sea, enclosing the town on either side. The harbour within the town, is shallow, and fit only for small craft, and the place has very little trade. In antiquity Naupactus was a place of considerable importance. It was occupied by the Athenians during the Peloponnesian war; and after many vicissitudes was nearly destroyed by an earthquake during the reign of Justinian. Its present walls are built on the foundations of those by which it was surrounded in antiquity. (*Cramer's Ancient Greece*, II. 107, &c.)

But, how unimportant soever, Lepanto has given its name to the extensive gulph on which it is situated, anciently the *Corinthiæ Sinus*, or Bay of Corinth. The entrance to the gulph, between the ruined castles of the Mores and Roumella, at the bottom of the gulph of Patras, is only about 1 m. across. Within, it expands into a magnificent basin, stretching E. with a little inclination to the S. to Masi, a distance of about 78 m., being, where widest, about 30 m. across. Corinth, whence it formerly derived its name, is situated near its S. extremity. It has many fine bays and harbours; and in antiquity, there were several considerable towns on its banks. Between the castles, at its entrance, there are from 30 to 85 fathoms water; and within the gulph, the water is generally very deep, there being no soundings in the centre at 300 fathoms.

Lepanto has, also, given its name to one of the greatest conflicts of modern times. Philip II., king of Spain, the Pope, and the Venetians, entered, in 1570, into a league against the Turkish sultan, Selim, who, having conquered Cyprus, and become very powerful at sea, threatened to invade Italy. The Turks, being apprised of the intentions of the confederates, assembled a powerful fleet in the gulph of Lepanto, having a large land force on board. The allies, commanded by Don John of Austria, having made equally great preparations, the two armaments encountered each other on the 7th of October, near the mouth of the gulph of Lepanto. The contest was long, bloody, and destructive; and was maintained, on both sides, with invincible courage and resolution. In the end, however, the allies gained a complete victory. The Turks lost above 25,000 men, killed, and 10,000 taken prisoners, and with the exception of 30 or 40 galleys, that effected their escape, their whole fleet was either taken or destroyed. The Christians lost about 10,000 men, killed in the engagement, or who died of their wounds. Estimating it by the number of men engaged, this was certainly the greatest sea-fight that has taken place in modern times. It was, also, the first signal victory achieved over the Turks, and diffused the greatest joy throughout Christendom. Owing, however, to the contentions among the allied admirals, the results were not such as might have been expected. (*Modern Universal History*, xviii. 416-423., 8vo. ed.; *Watson's Philip II.*, book 9.)

LERIDA (an. *Ilerda*), a fortified town of Spain, Catalonia, in W. Barcelona, and 73 m. E. by S. Saragossa, lat. 41° 36' N., long. 0° 46' E. Pop., according to *Milano*, in 1826, 12,600; but, according to Hirschmann in 1833, 16,830. It is situated on the Segre (crossed here by a handsome bridge), under the protection of a hill on which

are seen the ruins of a castle now going to decay, but formerly of considerable strength. Owing to the excess of stagnant water in the vicinity, Lerida is unhealthy, and fevers prevail in spring and summer. A good quay, however, has been lately constructed, which not only keeps out the river, but forms a fine promenade. Its principal street is nearly 1 m. long; but the rest of the town is confined, and the houses are generally ill built. A cathedral, three parish churches, a military hospital, and a priests' college (formerly celebrated as a university, but suppressed by Philip V.), are the chief public buildings; but none requires notice except the cathedral. A double flight of steps leads to the terrace on which the church gates open; the principal front is embellished with six fluted Corinthian pilasters, between which are three doors with finely-wrought iron gates, and the building is surmounted by two handsome square towers. The surrounding country, being thoroughly irrigated, is extremely productive, particularly in wine, for which its gravelly siliceous soil is well suited. Silkworms, also, are reared in considerable quantities. It has some silk and other fabrics, tanning, &c., but they are not very important. (*Townsend*, i. 194-197.; *Mikano*.)

Lerida derives its chief celebrity from its connection with Roman history. In the plain below *Ilerda*, Scipio (*anno* 216 A.C.) gained a signal victory over the Carthaginian Hanno; and about 150 years afterwards it was rendered famous by the difficulties under which Julius Cæsar was placed when encamped in its neighbourhood. He had taken possession of a plain shut in between the rivers *Cinga* and *Scioris*, and defended by a deep intrenchment, whilst at the same time Petrus and Afranius, Pompey's generals, were encamped on a hill between him and *Ilerda*. In the intermediate space is a small plain, in the centre of which rises an eminence which, if seized and fortified, would enable its occupier to cut off all communication with the city. For this, during five hours, the opposing armies maintained a doubtful conflict; but in the end, fortune declared in favour of Afranius, and Cæsar retreated to his camp. At the same time, also, the disastrous intelligence was brought to him that, by the melting of the snow, his bridges had been broken down, the country laid under water, and all communication cut off with those districts by which his army was provisioned. Famine was the immediate consequence; and Cæsar himself says—"Militum vires inopia frumenti diminuerat, atque incommoda in dies augebantur; et iam paucis diebus magna erat rerum facta commutatio, ac se fortuna inclinaverat, ut nostri magna inopia rerum conficiantur; illi omnibus abundanter rebus, superioresque haberantur." Cæsar, however, without loss of time, set his men to work, and having made a sufficient number of light and portable canoes, set a party up the river during the night, who, with these boats, effected a landing, and fortified a camp. *Hæc legionem posita transducit, atque ex utraque parte pontem institutum perficit biduo. Ita convulsus, et quid frumenti cauti processerant, ita ad se recipit.* (*Cæsar de Bell. Civ. l. c. 42-54*.) Lerida has sustained many sieges; it was taken by storm in 1707, during the war of the succession; and the French again besieged it in 1810.

LERWICK, an eminent fishing station and bor. of barony, on Mainland, the largest of the Shetland or Zeeland Islands, of which it is the cap., on the W. margin of the Sound of Bressay, opposite Bressay Island. Pop., in 1801, 1,706; in 1831, 2,750. The town (4 m. in length) is built along the curvature of the bay, and consists of a number of white houses, of from two to three stories in height, with their gables in the Norwegian style, turned to the street, but disposed with the utmost irregularity, and an utter disregard of every convenience, except that of being as near as possible to the water. The town-hall, parish church, and two dissenting chapels (Independents and Methodists), are the only public buildings. The harbour, which is entirely land-locked by Bressay Island, is so ample, that it might contain nearly the whole British navy. Bressay Sound is a rendezvous for Davis Straits and Greenland whale ships, which here take on board supplies of provisions, and complete their crews with seamen belonging to the islands, whom they part with on their return. This has always been one of the principal stations of the Dutch herring fishery; but the fishery is now chiefly in the hands, not merely of the inhab. of Lerwick, but of the islanders generally, who resort thither for the purpose. The Lerwick station (exclusive of those of Unst and Walls) in 1834, had 790 boats, decked and undecked, employed in the fishery, manned by 3,364 persons. The produce of the fishery during the same year amounted to 26,000 barrels of herrings, gutted and ungutted. Cod and other species of white fish are caught in the bay and neighbouring sea, and are also extensively exported. There is a manufactory of straw-plaiting for gentlemen's hats and ladies' bonnets; a branch of business carried on both in the Orkneys and Zeeland Islands. Woollen stockings, under-clothing, and gloves, all wrought with the hand, and sometimes of

extraordinary fineness, are exported from Lerwick. It has a custom-house, the gross revenue of which, in 1839, was 754*l.* *ss.* 4*d.*; and a branch bank. The shopkeepers are in the habit of shutting their shops during breakfast and dinner. Provisions are abundant, and about a half cheaper than on the main land of Scotland. There are several sailing smacks to Leth, and a steamer weekly in summer.

Lerwick was built above 300 years ago, principally for the accommodation of the Dutch fishermen, 2,000 of whose houses were then said to have been often collected in Bressay Sound. It has, however, been more prosperous during the last 30 years than at any previous period. Fort Charlotte, for the protection of the town from attacks by sea, stands a little to the S. The inhab. are of Scandinavian descent. (*Messrs. Anderson's Highlands and Islands; Hibbert's Description of the Shetland Islands; Parl. Reports.*)

LESINA, and LISSA, two islands of the Adriatic, belonging to the circle of Spalatro, in Dalmatia, the first 25 m. S., and the second 35 m. W. Spalatro. United area, 360 sq. m. Pop. about 14,000. Both islands are in great part mountainous, but they have, notwithstanding, a considerable extent of lower and productive land. Lesina (an. *Pharos* or *Pharia*) is said to be one of the most fertile islands in the Adriatic, with a great variety of valuable products. Corn is raised on the low grounds, but the quantity is insufficient to supply the consumption of the inhab.: amongst its other products are wine, oil, figs, almonds, saffron, oranges, aloes, and honey. It has considerable numbers of sheep, and these, with wool and cheese, are among the articles of export. The products of *Lisa* (the an. *Istia*) are similar to the above, and in it, also, the supply of corn is insufficient for the consumption. The wine of Lissa, which was commended by Athenæus, is now sadly degenerated. The inhab. of these islands are chiefly employed in fishing, and great quantities of fish are taken round their shores. They both furnish good marble, and prepare rosemary oil, liqueurs, &c. The town of Lesina, near the W. extremity of the island of same name, has about 1,600 inhab., and is the see of a bishop, whose diocese comprises the islands Lesina, Lissa, and Brazza. In Lissa, which in antiquity had several flourishing towns, are San Giorgio, with one of the best harbours in Dalmatia, and Comissa, with 2,100 inhab. (*Fortis's Trav. in Dalmatia*, pp. 319-340.; *Berghaus*, &c.)

LESLEE, a bor. of barony, and manufacturing town of Scotland, co. Fife, on an eminence on the left bank of the Leven, 14 m. N. of the public road between Kirkcaldy and Cupar-Fife, 7½ m. N. by W. the former, and 9½ S.W. by S. the latter. Pop., in 1831, 1,821. It consists chiefly of one street, and contains a par. church and three dissenting chapels. Leslie House, the seat of the noble family of Rothes, is in the immediate vicinity. Leslie has 5 mills for flax-spinning, employing above 450 hands. Weaving of cotton, in connection with the Glasgow manufacturers, and of the coarser species of linen fabrics, prevails to a considerable extent, and gives employment to nearly 300 individuals. There are also 3 rather extensive bleach-fields. The nearest market-town is Kirkcaldy. Leslie has existed as a village for upwards of 300 years. Dr. Pitcairn, the celebrated physician and Latin poet was born at Pitcairn, the family seat, in the neighbourhood of the town. At Stratherny, near this place, the seat of his maternal grandfather, Adam Smith, author of the "Wealth of Nations," when only 3 years of age, was carried away by a party of gipsies. The inhabs. of the village are remarkable for their rage for religious and political discussions. The first "Political Union" formed in Scotland was at Leslee, in 1831.

LETTERKENNY, an inland town and river port of Ireland, co. Donegal, prov. Ulster, on the Swilly, 4 m. from the S.W. extremity of the lough of the same name, and 18 m. W.S.W. Londonderry. Pop., in 1831, 2,160. It consists of a square and a single street; and has a par. church, a Rom. Cath. chapel, 3 Presbyterian meeting-houses, a national school, a fever hospital, with a dispensary, courthouse, and bridewell. General sessions are held in April and Oct., petty sessions every Wednesday, and it is a constabulary station. Markets on Fridays; fairs on the 1st Friday in Jan., 12th May, 10th July, 3d Friday in Aug., and 8th Nov. Some trade is carried on in the export of corn and other raw produce, the river admitting vessels of 150 tons to come up from the lough to near the town. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 382*l.*; in 1836, 496*l.* A branch of the Belfast bank was opened here in 1835.

LEUTRA, an ancient village of Greece, in the Theban territories, now Leftra or Lefka, 9 or 10 m. W. S.W. Thebes. It is at present only a heap of ruins, but is famous in ancient history for the victory gained by its vicinity, on the 8th of July, *anno* 371 B.C., by the Thebans, under Epaminondas and Pelopidas, over the Spartans. The latter were superior in number and, perhaps, also in discipline and military skill, to their adver-

series; but the ability of their generals enabled the Thebans to achieve, despite every disadvantage, the greatest triumph ever won by one Greek army over another. Cleombrotus, the Spartan king, was left dead on the field, with many of his principal officers, and the flower of his troops. Sparta lost with this battle the ascendancy she had long enjoyed among the Grecian states. (*Xenophon, Hellen.*, lib. vi. cap. 4.; *Diodorus Siculus*, lib. xv.; *Miford's Greece*, v. 90. 8vo. ed.)

LEUTSCHAU (Hungar. *Lécsé*), a royal free town of Hungary, co. Zips, of which it is the cap., on a hill 130 m. N.E. Pesth. Pop. (1837), 5,176, of whom Berghaus says three eighths are Protestants. It is old and ill built, but has a large and handsome square, a Gothic church, with the largest organ in Hungary, a large old town-hall, a new council-house, and several other edifices, the oldest Lutheran gymnasium in Hungary, a Rom. Cath. gymnasium, a high school, a noble female seminary, and an asylum for soldiers' children. It produces linen fabrics, and mead, of which last a good deal is sent into Poland. (*Austrian Encyc.*; *Berghaus*.)

LEVANT, a term applied to designate the coasts of Europe, Asia, and Africa, along the Mediterranean, from Cape Matapan round the Ægean Sea, Asia Minor, and Syria, to the western extremity of Egypt. In the middle ages, the trade with these countries was almost exclusively in the hands of the Venetians, Genoese, and other Italians, who gave to them the general designation of *Levantic*, or Eastern countries. But the term Levant, being no longer vernacular in the languages of the nations now principally engaged in the trade with the countries referred to, it seems to be falling into disuse.

LEVEN, a bor. of barony, sea-port, and manufacturing town of Scotland, co. Fife, on a level at the mouth of the river of the same name, on the N. shore of the Frith of Forth, 194 m. N. by E. Edinburgh: on the W. of the river is its suburb of Duddisburgh or Duddisburgh. Pop. of both, 1,877. Leven consists of two principal, and not very regular, streets, running parallel to each other E. and W., with a variety of bye-lanes, and detached houses. The communication between Leven and its suburb was long maintained by a suspension-bridge over the river; but a stone bridge was built in 1840. The only public buildings are the par. church, a Free church, and chapels belonging to the Relief and the Associate Synod. There is, also, a small congregation of Independents. There are two libraries, a mechanics' institute, and a great variety of firms, societies, &c.

Leven is chiefly remarkable for its manufactures. There were, a few years since, either in the town or its immediate vicinity, six mills for spinning flax, driven partly by water and partly by steam, employing about 520 hands. There are, besides, 170 hand-loom weavers of coarse linens, of whom 22 are females. It has also a foundry for cast-iron, a saw-mill, and wood yard, a mill for bruising bones, a brick and tile work, and an ochre mill.

The harbour is formed by a creek at the mouth of the river. At spring-tides it admits vessels of about 200 tons; but it dries low water, and is, owing to sand-banks, extremely difficult of access. It has a small quay; quite insufficient for the growing trade of the place. Two brigs belonging to the port are employed chiefly in the American trade, and 5 sloops are engaged as coasters. In 1835 the value of the imports amounted to 43,190*l.*; and that of the exports to 60,483*l.* A steamer sails twice a day to Leith in summer, and once in winter. The game of Golf is much played on the links or downs of Duddisburgh. (*New Stat. Acc. of Scotland*, v. *Fifehire*, pp. 364-377.)

LEWES, a par. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Sussex, rape and hund. of its own name, on the Ouse (crossed here by a stone bridge), 7 m. N.E. Brighton, and 43 m. S. London. Pop. of par. bor., which comprises, with the old bor., parts of four outparishes, in 1841, 9,282. It is principally situated on a steep declivity W. of the Ouse, which here cuts through the chalk hills; but it partly, also, stands on the level ground on the E. side, sheltered by the South Downs, that rise abruptly almost close to the river banks. The streets are broad, well-built, paved, and lighted with gas; and the town generally has an appearance of wealth and respectability. The chief public building is the Assize-hall, in High Street, erected in 1812, at an expense of 15,000*l.*, comprising two courts, a council chamber, and other apartments. The house of correction, built on the plan of Howard, in 1794, was greatly enlarged in 1817, and now contains about 70 capacious rooms for prisoners, with 15 cells for solitary confinement. The silent system, with hard labour, is rigidly enforced, and the gaol is, on the whole, well conducted; but "the building is incurably bad, in an unhealthy situation, and much too confined for the wants of so large a county." (*Prison Inspector 4th Rep.*, part. 1.) There are six churches; and the ecclesiastical livings comprise four rectories, two of which are in the patronage of the crown. There are, likewise, seven places of worship for Wesleyan and Calvinist

Methodists, Baptists, Independents, Unitarians, &c., to which, as well as to the churches, are attached well-attended Sunday-schools. The free grammar-school, supposed to have been founded in 1519, provides gratuitous instruction in classics, &c., to 12 boys, the sons of burgesses; and there is a university exhibition for the scholars, tenable for four years, of the annual value of 35*l.* National, Lancastrian, and infant schools, furnish elementary instruction for the children of the poor; and there are several endowed charities and benevolent institutions for the relief of the aged, sick, and indigent. Lewes had formerly an extensive trade in wool; but this has greatly declined; and the present traffic of the place, independently of a very considerable retail trade with the resident gentry of the district, is chiefly in grain, malt, sheep and cattle; it is estimated that upwards of 80,000 sheep are sold annually at the Sept. and Oct. fairs. The Ouse is navigable up to the town; and there is a considerable trade with London, through Newhaven, its port. (*See NEWHAVEN*.) Lewes is a bor. by prescription, and is governed by two headboroughs and two constables, elected by the burgesses; but these officers are subject to the jurisdiction of the co. magistrates. The Lent and summer assizes are held here, and the quarter sessions for the E. division of Sussex are held in Jan., April, June, and Oct. This bor. has, since the reign of H. C. since the reign of Edward I., the franchise down to the passing of the Reform Act being vested in the scot and lot payers within the bor. The Boundary Act enlarged the limits of the bor. so as to include with the old bor. parts of the pars. of Southover, St. Anne's, St. Thomas-in-the-Cliffe, and South Malling. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 724. Lewes is the place of election for the mems. for the E. division of Sussex, and the head of a poor law union, comprising 7 pars. Markets on Tuesday; cattle fairs, May 8. and Whit-Tuesday; large sheep fairs, May 21. and June 1.

The fact of Lewes being a Roman station seems extremely doubtful; but it had acquired its present name (said to be derived from *leues*, the Anglo-Saxon word for pastures) at least two centuries before the Norman conquest. William the Conqueror fixed on Lewes as the site of one of those fortresses by which he kept in awe his Saxon subjects; and considerable remains of it still exist, on a commanding height, N.W. of the town. One gateway is nearly entire; and the keep, which is in tolerable preservation, has recently been tastefully repaired. E. of the town also are the ruins of a very ancient and wealthy priory, the walls of which enclosed an area of about 33 acres: at the dissolution of the monasteries, its revenues amounted to 1,080*l.* (*Horsfield's Antiquities of Lewes*, vol. 1.; *Parl. Reports*, &c.)

LEWIS. *See HERRINGS.*

LEWISHAM, a populous village and par. of England, co. Kent, lathe Sutton-at-Hone, and half-hund. Blackheath, on the Ravensbourne, a trib. of the Thames, 44 m. S.E. London. Area of par., which includes the hamlet of Sydenham, 5,220 acres. Pop. in 1841, 12,276. The village consists chiefly of a long straight line of good houses, and extending about 4 m. along the Hastings road. The lanes leading in different directions abound with handsome villas and detached residences, inhabited by opulent merchants and retired citizens, attracted thither by the beauty of the scenery and superior salubrity of the air. The church, which stands near the centre of the village, is a handsome structure, erected in 1832, on the site of an older but still modern building, accidentally destroyed by fire. There are, also, places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists and Independents; and in Sydenham, besides a district church and episcopal chapel, there are three dissenting meeting-houses. A grammar-school, founded in 1647, and now under the trusteeship of the Leather-sellers' Company of London, is conducted by an upper and under master, and is alleged to be well attended. A charity school, three subscription day schools, and several Sunday schools, have been established for teaching poor children; and there are almshouses for six poor women, and minor charitable bequests. The trade of the village is almost confined to the supply of the families resident within the par.; but at Loampit Hill some marl and chalk pits furnish considerable quantities of lime, and there are some large brick and tile fields.

LEXINGTON, a town of Kentucky, U. States, co. Fayette, of which it is the cap., on Town-fort, a tributary of the Elkhorn river, 25 m. E.S.E. Frankfort, and 70 m. S. Cincinnati. Pop. (1840) 6,997. "Its situation is in the heart of a fine district, with a great many comfortable-looking villas and farm-houses in the neighbourhood. The town itself consists of handsome and substantial buildings, and is not unlike Doncaster. The chief street is a mile and a quarter in length, and 80 feet wide: there is an air of wealth about the place." (*Straw's Three Years in N. America*, ii. 436, 437.) Lexington is one of the most ancient towns in the state, and for a long time was its political, as it still is its commercial, cap. Its chief public estab. is Transylvania university,

the oldest institution of the kind in the W. states. It was incorporated in 1738, and has now 13 professors, and usually about 800 students. In 1839 the principal edifice, with the library, was destroyed by fire; but another library of 4,400 vols. has been collected. There are several superior private schools. The state lunatic asylum, founded in 1834, and which, in 1838, had 123 patients; the U. States branch bank, court-house, market-house, a large masonic hall, and eight churches, are the other chief public edifices. Lexington has manufactures of cotton bagging, cordage, woollen cloths and yarn, carpets, machinery, &c. The inhab. are said to be hospitable and accomplished, and the tone of society agreeable. The town derived its name from a party of hunters, who first heard, while encamped on the spot where it stands, of the memorable engagement between the American and British troops at Lexington in Massachusetts, in 1775. A railroad, 28 m. in length, connecting this town with Frankfort, is intended to be continued to Louisville, on the Ohio. A good turnpike road, 64 m. long, has been also completed between Lexington and Maysville. (*Amer. Almanack and Encyclopedia*.)

LEYDEN (*Lat. Lagunensium Batavorum*), a celebrated city of Holland, being the fourth in the kingdom of the Netherlands, on the Old Rhine, 91 m. S.W. Amsterdam, and 10 m. N.E. the Hague: lat. 52° 9' 29" N., long. 4° 29' 38" E. Pop., in 1844, 38,500. It is surrounded by ramparts and a wet ditch, and is entered by ancient gateways. "On the outer side of the *cingle*, or ditch, which every where encompasses the town except where it is cut by the Rhine, is planted a beautiful double avenue of trees, forming agreeable walks for the citizens; and on the inner side rise the low green mounds, which serve the purpose of walls to this venerable city." (*Chambers*.) Like other Dutch towns, Leyden is traversed by canals, crossed by numerous bridges; though, as its trade is but trifling, the canals are of little use. The streets are usually long, broad, and well built; and there are some striking public edifices, and the town has an antique venerable appearance. Barrow compares the *Brede Straat* (Broad Street) of Leyden to the High Street of Oxford, reckoned among the finest in Europe. He says—"In the first place, it is much wider, and at least three times the length; and, contrary to the usual practice of laying out streets by the Dutch, it has the same gently winding turn, but wants the grateful cent, which contributes so much to the beauty of the High Street of Oxford. The houses in that of Leyden are generally superior and more picturesque; and, though the number of colleges of ancient architecture, with their turrets, towers, and spires, in Oxford, exceed the number of public buildings in the Broad Street of Leyden, there is one, at least, that will bear comparison with the most picturesque college in High Street. This is the old *Hôtel de Ville*, built, as appears by an inscription in front, in the year 1574. It has a tall spire, somewhat remarkable in its architecture, and not inelegant. It is built of a dark blue stone, which has the appearance of black marble, and its prominent parts are tipped with gilding. The body of the building has nearly 30 windows on a line in front, 3 pediments, or gables, highly ornamented, a handsome balustrade, surmounted by a ridge of stone globes, and the whole front of this remarkable piece of architecture may be said to be

"With glistening spires, and pinnacles adorned."

The ground-floor of the town-house is appropriated as a market for butchers' meat, but this is not seen from the street. Nothing can exceed the cleanliness of Leyden in all its streets, whether those with or those without canals. The former, with their quays, are particularly neat; and the bridges are mostly of stone, of which, they pretend to say, there are not fewer than 150." (*Tour in Holland*, 76, 77.) In the council and audience chambers, on the first-floor of the town-hall, are several valuable paintings, as the Last Judgment, by Lucas Van Leyden; a large picture, representing the state of the city and its inhab. during its siege by the Spaniards, including a portrait of the heroic burgo-master Vanderwerf. The church of St. Peter, founded in 1321, one of the finest Gothic edifices in Holland, contains the tombs of Boerhaave, the Meermans, Scalliger, Camper, &c. Near this church, is a large open square, ornamented with trees, and having a canal in its centre; it was formerly covered with houses, accidentally destroyed by the blowing up of a boat laden with gunpowder in the canal, in 1807. About 150 persons lost their lives on this occasion. The church of St. Pancras has also a most imposing front, and the tomb of Vanderwerf. In the centre of the city is a ruined tower, called the *burg*, of uncertain but ancient date, erected on the only elevated spot of ground for many miles round.

Leyden is a very dull inanimate town, without manufactures, trade, or bustle of any kind. But it is, notwithstanding, a most desirable residence for men of learning and research. Its university, which, for a lengthened

period, was one of the most celebrated in Europe, was founded by the Prince of Orange, in 1575, to reward the inhab. for their bravery, and as some compensation for the sufferings they sustained during the siege of the city by the Spaniards. It soon attained to the highest estimation, being deservedly esteemed one of the very best of the Continental schools for the study of classics, law, medicine, and divinity. Among its professors, are the illustrious names of Douza, Joseph Scalliger, Daniel Heinsius, Gomarus, Arminius, Boerhaave, Van Swieten, Læcenhoock, Sgravesande, Burman, Ruhnken, &c. Grotius and Descartes were of the number of its pupils, as were Evelyn, Fielding, and Goldsmith. And though no longer so celebrated as formerly, it is still extremely well conducted, has valuable libraries and scientific collections, and able and learned professors. In 1835, it had in all, 647 students; of whom, 250 studied law, 212 divinity, 131 medicine, and 54 philosophy. The college buildings are detached, and, in fact, are placed at considerable distances from each other, in different streets: they are all plain stone and brick, and sufficiently evince, by their appearance, that they have been intended for use and not for ornament. The principal of these buildings, which is very old, and was formerly a religious house, stands on the W. side of the city; in hall, in which the *senatus academicus* meets, is adorned with a fine portrait of William Prince of Orange, founder of the university, and upwards of 100 portraits of professors in historical succession. The *senatus* consists of 33 professors; and as this university requires no test of religious faith, either from its professors or scholars, it comprises all sects and denominations, both Christian and Jewish. Most of the lectures are delivered in Latin, and the public announcement of the courses is in that language. The students, who wear no particular dress, reside in lodgings in the town; and the greater number subscribe to a club-house and reading-room, supplied with German and French publications. The students of Leyden bear a high character for diligence; but, among other drawbacks, junior students have to act for six weeks as fags to those of older standing; and dwelling is said not to be laid under any efficient restraint.

The museum of natural history, attached to the university, surpasses most others in Europe, being mainly indebted for its excellence to the public spirit of the Dutch naval officers and foreign agents, who take every opportunity of forwarding natural curiosities to their native country; but it also owes much to the acquisition of the valuable collection of birds by Temminck, and to the labours of travellers and collectors sent by the *senatus* to Africa, S. America, and other parts of the globe. The museum, which is open *gratis* to all classes, consists of an upper and under story, occupying four sides of a large court. The classification of the animal kingdom is according to the system of Cuvier; and such is the zeal manifested in perfecting the collections, that Mr. Chambers mentions that 3,000 guineas or 300,000 sterling had recently been paid by the university for one shell of a *nautilus*, to complete the series of such specimens!

The museum of Egyptian antiquities is particularly rich in *papyri*, jewellery, and gold ornaments; and comprises monuments from the ruins of Carthage, and the largest collection of Etruscan bronzes N. of the Alps. Siebold's extensive and valuable Japanese museum is also in Leyden. The library of the university has 60,000 printed volumes, and 14,000 MSS., more than 4,000 of which are Arabic. The botanic garden, which comprises several acres, and is extremely well laid out, has an extensive series of specimens, arranged according to the systems of Linnaeus and Jussieu, with extensive conservatories for rearing and preserving tropical plants, &c.

Leyden has a good observatory, 17 churches (one of which is Rom. Cath.); 1 hospital; an *Hôtel des invalides*, a fine new edifice; an arsenal; custom-house; chamber of commerce; societies of Dutch literature, science, and poetry; branches of the Society of Public Good, the National Economical Society, and the Dutch Society of the Fine Arts; an academy of dem., &c. It is said that all the children belonging to the city are being instructed: a small fee is exacted in the poor-schools, which is not usual in Holland.

In the 17th century the manufacture of fine woollen cloth was extensively carried on at Leyden, and it is said to have had, in 1659, about 3,000 houses, and 100,000 inhab. (*De Cloet*, p. 268.) Perhaps, however, this statement, is exaggerated; but it is said by Busching to have had, in 1732, 10,891 houses, which, at an average of 7 individuals to a house, would give a pop. of about 77,000. (*Busching's Geography*, iii. 490. Eng. ed.) Latterly, however, it has increased very considerably; its pop., which, in 1837, exceeded 36,000, having been under 28,000 in 1817. Its cloth manufacture has been for a lengthened period comparatively unimportant; but it is still carried on to some extent, particularly the

manufacture of coarse cloths, and of counterpanes, rugs, &c. It also carries on some other branches of industry, and has a considerable traffic in wool, butter, and other articles of agricultural produce. It is connected by canals with Haarlem, Deft, and the Hague.

During the latter part of the 17th, and the greater part of the 18th century, the most interesting as well as the most celebrated branch of industry carried on at Leyden was that of printing and publishing. Many of the best and most beautiful of the Dutch editions of the classics, in 12mo., 8vo. and 4to., including most of those by the Elsevirii, issued from the presses of this city, and would alone have conferred on it imperishable renown. A good deal of printing and publishing is still carried on; but we shall look in vain among the works now published here, or, we may add, anywhere else, for any that will bear a comparison with the *clavis-aurea* alluded to above.

The siege of Leyden by the Spaniards in 1574 is one of the most memorable events in the history of the great struggle made by the United Provinces to emancipate themselves from the bitter and brutal despotism of Spain. The inhabitants displayed the most invincible courage and resolution. Valdes, the Spanish general, despairing of being able to carry the town by storm, endeavoured to cut off all communication between it and the surrounding country, and to effect its reduction by famine. He completed his lines of circumvallation, and so far succeeded in his object, as to entail the most tremendous suffering on the inhabitants, without, however, shaking their determination to die rather than give up their city to the enemy. At length the country round the town having been laid under water, a squadron of flat-bottomed boats laden with provisions and stores made its way through the Spanish lines to the city. This was decisive of the fate of the siege; the Spaniards being obliged immediately to raise it, after having incurred a very heavy loss. (*Watson's Philip II.*, b. 13.)

Leyden has given birth to some highly distinguished individuals. Rembrandt was born (in 1606) in its immediate vicinity; and it is the native place of Gerard Douw, Vanderelde, Mieris, Jan Steen, and other distinguished painters; and of Vossius, Heinsius, Muschenbroek, Van Swieten, John Bochoit, better known as John of Leyden, founder of the Anabaptists, &c. The learned and laborious geographer Philip Cluvier, or Cluverius, though a native of Danzig, resided principally in Leyden, where his learned and excellent works on the geography of ancient Germany, Sicily, and Italy, and his valuable *Introductio in Universam Geographiam* were published. He died here, in depressed circumstances, in 1622, at the early age of 43. (*Martinich, art. Leyde; Biographie Universelle*, &c.)

LEYTON (LOW), a village and par. of England, co. Essex, hund. Becontree, on the Lea, 12 m. N.E. London. Area of par., 2,890 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,774. Low Leyton is situated on the low grounds near the E. bank of the river; but further E., connected by a long straggling street, is Leytonstone, on an eminence, comprising several handsome villas, chiefly tenanted by London merchants and traders. The church, a brick building with a low tower, is remarkable only as having been the scene of the pastoral labours of Strype the antiquary, who held the vicarage 68 years, and was buried here in 1757. A Rom. Cath. chapel and chapel for Wesleyan Methodists are the other places of worship; and the parish has, besides Sunday schools, a boys' free school, a school of industry for girls, and several minor charities.

LIBAU (Lettish, *Liepāja*), a sea-port town of Russia, gov. Courland, on the Baltic, beside the lake Libau, 106 m. W. by S. Mittau. Pop. probably 5,000. It is walled, and entered by a gate from the N. Its streets are narrow, and mostly unpaved; and its market-place, though large, is irregular. The houses are of timber, and only one story high. It has Lutheran, R. Catholic, and Calvinistic churches, an hospital, and an orphan asylum. The port, though commodious, has only from 8 to 12 ft. water, and cannot, therefore, be entered by vessels of much burden. It has, however, a considerable trade; most part of the produce of Courland, as cattle, linseed, corn, hides, tallow, &c. being exported from it. Its imports are chiefly colonial products, manufactured goods, wine, oil, fruits, &c. In 1833, the value of the exports from Libau amounted to 5,011,899 roubles, and that of the imports to 617,734 r. (*Schmidler, La Russie*, 583.; *Possart, Des Kaiserth. Russ.* 415., &c.)

LIBERIA, a republican state of W. Africa, founded, in 1821, by free blacks from the U. States of N. America, under the auspices of the American Colonization Society. Its territory extends along the Guinea coast for about 225 m., with a breadth inland of 20 or 30 m., chiefly between lat. 4° and 7° N., and long. 9° and 15° W. Pop. estimated at 4,000 colonists, besides natives. The coast is generally low, but the country gradually rises towards the interior, and at about 20 or 30 m. from the sea, the hills are of considerable elevation. Several rivers fall

into the Atlantic within the colony, — as the St. John, St. Paul, Mesurado, &c.; but these are navigable only by small vessels for short distances. The want, indeed, of any great navigable river that might have opened an intercourse with the interior, is a heavy drawback on the prosperity of this colony; and will always hinder it from becoming a place of much commercial importance. The soil is said to be fruitful, and the climate better, or rather less destructive, than in most other parts of the coast. Rice, cotton, coffee, sugar, indigo, bananas, cassava, and yams are raised; and casewood, palm-oil, ivory, hides, wax, and pepper are among the exports. The settlement is visited by traders from the interior, and some trade is carried on with Europe and America, partly in colonial shipping. The care of the local interests and subordinate affairs of the colony is confided to native colonists, and it has two legislative chambers; but the powers of government are, notwithstanding, substantially vested in the agent of the American Colonization Society. Its object, in fact, was to serve as an outlet for the blacks, who might there enjoy that independence and consideration which long-cherished prejudices hinder them from enjoying in the United States; and it was supposed that the being able to dispose of manumitted slaves by sending them to this colony would promote the practice of manumission; but we believe that in this respect it has had very little influence, only about 2,000 liberated slaves having been sent to it. A good many blacks rescued from slave-ships on the African coast and elsewhere have been landed here. Primary schools have been opened for the instruction of the blacks, and it has several churches, and a printing-press. But we understand, that, on the whole, the condition and prospects of the colonists are not very satisfactory.

The chief town, Monrovia, on Cape Mesurado, lat. 6° 26' N., long. 10° 35' W., has about 1,200 inhab. (*Encyc. Americana; Murray's Encyc. of Geog.*, Amer. edit. iii. 45; *Macquien's Survey of Africa*.)

See SUPPLEMENT.

L'BOURNE, a town and river-port of France, dép. Gironde, cap. arrond. on the Dordogne, at its junction with the Isle, 36 m. E.N.E. Bordeaux. Pop. in 1846, ex. com., 8,490. Few towns in France are so regularly and well built. Its streets are wide and clean, its houses elegant, and it is surrounded with good walls and agreeable promenades. Among the chief public edifices are extensive cavalry barracks, a theatre, a public library, with 3,000 vols., and a handsome brick and stone bridge of 9 arches across the Dordogne. The port, at high water, has from 10 to 16 ft. water, admitting vessels of 300 tons burden. Libourne is the seat of a sub-prefecture, of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, and a sub-commissariat of marine. It has manufactures of woollen stuffs, articles of military equipment, glass and cordage, and docks for ship-building. It is an entrepôt for salt and agricultural produce destined for Bordeaux. It was founded by Edward I. of England, in 1266. (*Hugo, art. Gironde*, &c.)

LICHFIELD, a city, parl. bor., and co. of itself, locally situated in co. Stafford, hund. Offlow, 15 m. N. Birmingham, 29 m. W. Leicester, and 108 m. N.W. London. Area of the co. of city (which is co-extensive with the parl. bor.), 2,180 acres. Pop., in 1841, 6,867. The city, which stands in a fine valley, on a small affluent of the Trent, is irregularly built, with narrow streets; but it is well paved and lighted, many of the houses are handsome, and its general appearance is respectable. The chief public buildings, besides the churches, are the guildhall, a neat stone edifice, on the top of which are carved the city arms; the market-house, occupying the site of an old market-cross; the bishop's palace, in the Close, and a small theatre. Lichfield is an episcopal see, and has a noble cathedral on the N. side of the town, close to a fine sheet of water. It is built chiefly in the decorated Gothic style peculiar to the 12th and 13th centuries, and comprises a nave, choir, and transepts, with a lady's chapel. It measures, from E. to W., 410 ft., and is 153 ft. wide, measured along the transepts. There are three towers, the central one of which, rising from the intersection, is surmounted by a light steeple, and has a total height of 280 ft.: the towers at the W. end are each 180 ft. high. The body of the church is spacious and lofty, supported by pillars formed of clustered columns with neat foliated capitals: the roof is beautifully groined, the choir is elegantly furnished, and there are several fine monuments, one of which is to Dr. Johnson, the great lexicographer, a native of this city, where he first saw the light on the 18th of September, 1709. The exterior parts of the building are highly ornamented with sculpture and tracery-work: the W. front displays a multitude of figures in *alto relievo*, illustrative of passages in Bible history, and on the roof is a statue of Charles II., erected by Bishop Hackett, who exerted himself during many years to repair the damages inflicted on the cathedral by the parliamentary troops in the great civil war. The

whole building was thoroughly repaired in 1787-90, at an expense of 6,000*l*. The chapter comprises a dean, 6 residential canons, 14 prebendaries, and 3 priest vicars. At an average of the three years ending with 1831, the nett revenues of the bishopric of Lichfield amounted to 3,923*l*. a year; and at an average of the seven years ending with 1834, the revenues of the cathedral amounted to 1,673*l*. a year. In the city are 1 par. church and 2 chapels, in the patronage of the dean and chapter; besides which, there are places of worship for Independents, Wesleyan Methodists, Rom. Catholics, and other bodies of dissenters. Among the educational establishments are several Sunday schools, 3 national schools, an English choral school, and a free grammar-school founded by Edward VI., and stated to be in a flourishing condition, with 21 free boys and several stipendiary pupils boarding with the masters: among the former pupils of this school are the illustrious names of Ashmole, Addison, Garrick, Johnson, and Woollaston. The charitable institutions comprise two almshouses, an hospital for clergymen's widows and orphans, a mendicity society, and a dispensary. Lichfield has no trade or manufactures of importance: a carpet factory gives employment to about 150 persons, and 23 others are returned as belonging to a worsted mill. Its trade is chiefly local, arising out of the wants of the town and neighbourhood, and there is little show of activity amongst those engaged in business. The Grand Junction Canal passes the city, and it is now, also, extremely well supplied with railway accommodation. It was anciently governed by a guild, dissolved by Edward VI., who gave it a charter of incorporation, subsequently confirmed by Charles II. Under the Municipal Reform Act, the bor. is divided into 2 wards, and the municipal officers are, a recorder, mayor, and 5 other aldermen, and 18 councillors. Corp. rev. in 1847-48, 2,750*l*. Quarter and petty sessions are held in the guild-hall, and it has a county-court, before which 608 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. Since the 33d Edward I., Lichfield has, with some intermissions, sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. Previously to the Reform Act, the franchise was vested in the freeholders of the co. of the city of Lichfield, and in the freemen and burgh-holders of the city. The boundaries of the present par. bor. include the co. of the city, and the place called "the Close," belonging to the cathedral. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 833. Markets on Tuesday and Friday; fairs, Jan. 10, Shrove-Tuesday, and Ash-Wednesday, for cattle, sheep, bacon, and cheese; May 12, for sheep and cattle; and first Tuesday in November for cheese.

LIECHTENSTEIN (PRINCIPALITY OF), an indep. state of S. Germany, and, according to most authorities, the least in extent and pop. throughout Europe; between lat. 47° 5' and 47° 18' N., and long. 9° 36' and 9° 38' E.; having S. the Swiss canton of the Grisons; W. the canton St. Gall, from which it is separated by the Rhine; and E. the Austrian duchy of Vorarlberg. Area, 53 sq. m. Pop. 16,353. The surface is mostly mountainous; a range of the Grison Alps traverses it, separating the Rhine from the Samina, a tributary of the Ill. Cattle-breeding, agriculture, timber-cutting, and cotton-spinning, especially the first, are the chief occupations of the inhab. Corn, wine, fruit, and flax, are the principal articles of culture. The government is vested in the prince, and in an assembly of deputies of the clergy and rural proprietors. Appeal from the court of original jurisdiction in Vaduts, lies to the court of chancery in Vienna, in which the prince has a seat; and thence to the court of appeal at Innsbruck. Vaduts, or Liechtenstein, the cap., is a town of less than 1,000 inhabs. The princip. furnishes a contingent of 55 men to the army of the German confederation: it has one vote in the full council of that body, and, together with other small states (see GERMANY, Vol. I. p. 894.), a vote in the committee, and the 16th place in the German diet. The Prince of Liechtenstein is one of the richest proprietors of Europe: his estates in other parts of Germany, but especially in Moravia, extend over nearly 2,200 sq. m.; and his annual revenue is estimated at 1,300,000 florins; of which amount, however, his indep. sovereignty yields only about 20,000 *fl*. (*Bergknecht, in Encyclopædie de Geogr.*)

LIEGE (Dutch *Lege*, Germ. *Lüttich*), an important commercial and manufacturing city and river port of Belgium, cap. prov. of same name: on the Maese, 134 m. S. by W. Maestricht, and 54 m. E. by S. Brussels; lat. 50° 29' 22" N., long. 5° 31' 43" E. Pop., in 1846, 75,961; but the city is surrounded by a neighbourhood with a dense pop., employed in branches of industry similar to its own. Its pop. in the middle of the 15th century is said to have amounted to 120,000; later, however, it has been increasing. It is situated on the declivity and at the foot of a hill, and is consequently divided into an upper and lower town. The latter stands at the confluence of the Ourthe with the Maese, and is intersected by many branches of the last named river, which are enclosed by stone walls, and crossed by numerous bridges. The chief bridge, the *Pont de l'Arche*, thrown across the main stream

of the Maese, is 153 yards in length, 49 ft. in breadth, and has 6 arches, varying in diameter from 50 to 55 ft. A convenient quay for commercial purposes extends both above and below this bridge, for the whole length of the town along the Maese, which is navigable for small vessels as far as this city. Liege was formerly fortified, but its fortifications have been almost entirely destroyed. It is defended on the N.W. by a large citadel, lately rebuilt, and on the E.S.E. by Fort Chartrreuse; besides which there are only a few outworks. There are 10 suburbs. Liege is, generally speaking, ill built. In both the lower and upper town, the streets are narrow, and in the latter they have the additional disadvantage of being so steep as to be ascended in many places by flights of steps. Among the 11 squares, 6 are tolerably spacious; in one of which stands the town hall, and in the other the theatre. The town hall, comprising the provincial court-house and prison, is a dark stone building, of great extent and magnificence, with two open courts, surrounded with a colonnade resembling that of the ducal palace at Venice. It was formerly the residence of the prince-bishops of Liege. The cathedral of St. Lambert stood in this square; but it was destroyed by the French revolutionary forces in 1794, and no traces of it exist. The church of St. Jacques, the decorated Gothic, is the architectural glory of the city. It was completed in 1552. The interior is astonishingly magnificent, and displays some of the finest specimens of tracery and fret-work that is any where to be met with. It has a noble organ, but its statues and paintings are inferior. St. Croix, and some of the other churches, of which there are 21 R. Catholic and 1 Protestant, are also fine structures. The theatre is a handsome modern building, surrounded by an arcade: from the square in which it stands a piece of water runs to encircle the town on its W. side, bordered by a promenade planted with trees. The buildings of the university stand beside the Maese, on the ruins of a church of the Jesuits. This institution, founded by the late king of Holland, in 1816, has faculties of theology, law, and physic; 46 professors, and usually from 400 to 500 students. It possesses a cabinet of mineralogy, with upwards of 5,600 specimens, a cabinet of 3,000 fossils, found in the vicinity, and other scientific collections, and a library comprising many curious MSS.

According to Mr. Chambers, "The sight of Liege at once reminds us of an English manufacturing town. We half its engine chimneys and smoke as emblems both of wealth and advancement in the mechanical arts; and as we drive into its busy streets, and pass along its open quays thronged with commerce, we are apt to inquire of ourselves, can all this be on the Continent, and not in one of the manufacturing districts of England?" (*Towr, &c.* in 1838.) In fact, Liege may be regarded as the Birmingham of the Continent. It owes this distinction to its situation in a district abounding with coal and iron, and which also affords zinc, lead, copper, sulphur, alum, marble, and slate. The coal-field of Liege is the most extensive in the prov. of the same name, being 3 leagues in length, with a breadth varying up to 2 leagues. Coal is, however, rather expensive, the cost of raising it having been estimated, in 1836, at about 10 *fr*. per ton.

The manufacture of cannons and fire-arms is that for which Liege and its environs are most celebrated. The royal cannon-foundry in this city, instituted in 1802, produces at an average 9 pieces of ordnance weekly, partly brass and partly iron. There are numerous manufactories of following-pieces, muskets, pistols, &c. The guns of Liege are said to be cheaper than those of England; but there is not, we believe, any real ground for such an assertion; they may perhaps cost less money, but then they are not nearly so well finished, nor so good, as English guns. Had they been really cheaper, the manufacture would not have declined so rapidly as it did during the 4 years ending with 1838.

Account of the Quantities of Fire-arms manufactured at Liege in each of the 4 years ending with 1838.

Years.	Fowling Pieces.			Pistols.		Muskets and Military Fire Arms.
	Single Barrels.	Double Barrels.	Several Barrels.	Horse.	Pocket.	
1835	100,498	24,339	7,129	15,737	49,488	74,608
1836	153,044	24,846	8,438	22,066	70,514	71,721
1837	133,041	16,511	5,041	16,511	45,511	50,520
1838	56,733	31,228	13,006	10,354	32,637	34,241
Total	412,368	93,458	45,789	60,632	216,163	220,301

(*Brissonne, Industrie en Belg.* ii. 305.)

In 1836, the most flourishing year of the manufacture, the value of the fire-arms issued from the different factories of Liege was estimated at 7,000,000 *fr*.

Steam engines and machinery are largely produced in Liege and in the adjacent busy and populous village of Seraing, about 2 m. to the S.W., on the opposite bank of

the Maese. The palace of the former prince-bishops at that place having been bought in 1817 by the Messieurs Cockerill, Engleghen, they established in it the largest hardware manufacturing establishment in Belgium, or indeed on the Continent. It is devoted to the construction of steam-engines and other descriptions of machinery, and to forging and manufacturing iron and iron goods.

It is said that 60 steam-engines, of the aggregate power of 695 horses, are constantly employed in this factory, with from 2,000 to 2,200 workmen, 600 of whom are miners. Most of the locomotive engines upon the Belgian railways, the engines for steam vessels, &c. used in Belgium, have been made here, and many have also been sent to other parts. But we regret to have to add, that from some cause or other, Messrs. Cockerill have recently been involved in serious difficulties; and if their works be now carried on, it must, we apprehend, be through the advances that have been made them.

Liege has also manufactories of files, nails, stores, and hardware of all kinds; watches, jewellery, bronze, and other ornaments; woollen and cotton fabrics, hats, glue, tobacco, paper, chemical products, &c.; with numerous dyeing houses, tanneries, and distilleries. It has an exchange, a chamber of commerce, a bank, with the privilege of coining money, a savings' bank, a *mont-de-piété*, numerous hospitals, and benevolent institutions, superior and elementary schools, and various learned societies. A railway connects Liege with Louvain and Brussels.

In the 7th century, a village named *Legia* occupied a part of the site of the present city. In 713, the ancient cathedral was founded, and Liege was erected into a bishopric. In the 10th century its bishops were raised to the rank of independent sovereign princes. In the succeeding ages continual wars and disturbances prevailed between the burghers, who were ardently attached to popular institutions, and the prince-bishops. It was taken on the 30th of October, 1408, by Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, and barbarously delivered up to military execution. During the French ascendancy, it became the cap. of the dep. of Ourthe. (*Vandermaelen, Dict. of the Prov. Liege; Briavonne, de l'Industrie en Belgique; Heusinger, Chambers, &c.*)

LIEGNITZ, a town of Prussia, prov. Silesia, cap. gov. and circ. of Liegnitz, on the Katsbach, at its confluence with the Schwarzwasser, 46 m. W. by N. Breslau; lat. 51° 12' 40" N., long. 16° 9' 47" E. Pop. (1837), 11,607. It was merely a fortress of some strength, but now has only gates without walls; and its ramparts being planted with trees and laid out in gardens, serve only for public walks. It is an old, but a handsome, well built town: it has several suburbs, 3 Lutheran, and 3 R. Cath. churches; a fine chapel—the *Fürstencapelle*—in which are buried the princes of the line of Piast, a dynasty which gave 24 kings to Poland, and 123 dukes to Liegnitz, from 775 to 1678, when the family became extinct; the old castellated palace of those princes in the centre of the town, surrounded by a wet ditch, an ancient council-house, a gymnasium, an academy, established in 1810 for the sons of Silesian gentlemen, whether R. Catholics or Protestants; an orphan asylum, a workhouse, an hospital, &c. Outside the town is a good cemetery. Liegnitz is the seat of the superior judicial courts, boards of taxation, and weights and measures, &c. for its gov., and the head-quarters of several battalions of fusiliers, of a *landwehr* or militia battalion, and of a commandant of police. It manufactures woollen, cotton, and linen stuffs, stockings, lace, Prussian blue, and starch, and has several breweries and bleaching grounds, and an active trade in its own produce, and in madder and other products raised in the adjacent country. The gardeners in the vicinity are said to be the most expert of any in Silesia. On the 16th of August, 1750, the town was almost totally defeated the Austrian General Laudohn in the neighbourhood of this town; Frederick being his dispositions with so much skill as to render it impossible for Marshal Daun, who commanded another Austrian army, to come to Laudohn's assistance. (*Von Zedlitz, Das Pruss. Staat, iii. 148.; Berghaus, Allg. Länder, &c.*)

LIÈRE, a town of Belgium, prov. Antwerp, cap. canton, at the confluence of the Great and Little Nethe, 10 m. S.E. Antwerp. Pop. in 1836, 13,090 (*Heusinger*). It is well built, and has several churches, a convent, an hospital, manufactures of cotton and woollen stuffs, with cotton-printing establishments, distilleries, breweries, and a number of oil mills, rape seed being largely cultivated in its vicinity. It sends 3 depts. to the provincial assembly. (*Dict. Géog., &c.*)

LIFFORD, an inland town of Ireland, prov. Ulster, co. Donegal, of which it is the cap. It is situated on the extreme E. verge of the co., on the Foyle, immediately below the confluence of the Finn and Morne rivers, 14 m. S. S.W. Londonderry. Pop. in 1831, 1,096. It is connected by a fine bridge over the Foyle with the town of Strabane in Tyrone, of which it is now merely a dependency. It consists of two small streets, and has a par. church, a Rom. Cath. chapel, a Presbyterian

meeting-house, a barrack, and a courthouse and prison for the co. Donegal. It sent 3 mems. to the Irish parliament till the Union, when it was disfranchised.

LIGOR, a town of S.E. Asia, cap. of a Malay principality, dependent on Siam, on the Ta-yung near its mouth, in the Gulf of Siam, about lat. 8° 17' N., long. 100° 12' E. Pop. estimated at 8,000; chiefly Siamese, Malays, and Chinese. It appears to have been formerly more populous; but it was captured by the Burmese, and its inhabs. carried off, in 1760, and again in 1785. It has brick ramparts, and a wet ditch; and in 1825, 14 cannons were mounted on its walls. Within the town are many brick temples and pyramids, one having a gilt spire, a conspicuous object at sea; but all the dwelling-houses are of less solid materials. Two or three Chinese junka trade with Ligor, bringing cotton, and taking back tin, black pepper, rattans, &c. The rajah of Ligor has extensive authority, with the power of capital punishment over all the Malay states, tributary to Siam. (*Crawford's Siam, &c., ii. 211.; Hamilton's E. I. Gazetteer.*)

LIMA, the cap. city of Peru, and, next to Mexico, the most magnificent in the countries formerly comprised in Spanish America, on the Rimac (whence, by corruption, the name of the city), in a delightful valley, from 800 to 600 ft. above the level of the ocean, 6 m. from its port of Callao, on the Pacific, and about 300 m. S.E. E. Truxillo: lat. 12° 45' S., long. 79° 17' W. Pop. variously estimated, but it may probably amount to between 50,000 and 60,000. The great chain of the Andes passes within 20 leagues of the city; but its spurs approach to within three fourths of a league from its gates, and form an amphitheatre, within which Lima is built. The Rimac, which separates the city from its suburb, San Lazaro, is crossed by an excellent stone bridge of six arches, which, being furnished with recesses and seats, is a favourite promenade. The city, about 2 m. in length E. to W., by $\frac{1}{4}$ m. in its greatest breadth, is of a triangular, or rather, semi-circular, shape, the base, or long diameter, being formed by the river, the Elsenyo. Lima is surrounded by a parapet wall, about 7 m. in circuit, from 18 to 25 ft. high, and about 9 ft. thick: it is pierced by six gates, open from 4 A.M. to 11 P.M., and is defended by 35 bastions. Except at some of the bastions, the wall is too narrow for the mounting of artillery; and it is merely sufficient to protect the town against any sudden attack by an Indian force, for which purpose it was constructed, in 1686. At the S.E. extremity of the city is a small citadel, in which are the artillery barracks, and a military dépôt. When seen from Callao roads, or even from a less distance, Lima has an imposing appearance, its numerous domes and spires giving it quite an oriental aspect. Like the other Spanish cities of America, it is laid out in *cuadrads*, or squares of houses, 400 ft. each way, and divided by streets $\frac{3}{4}$ ft. wide, intersecting each other at right angles. The courses of the streets do not follow the cardinal points, but vary from E. to S.E., that the walls may cast a shade both in the morning and afternoon." In 1791, the city, with its suburb, El Cercado, contained 309 *cuadrads*, and 855 streets. Since then little or no improvement has been made; not a single new edifice having been built, within its walls, during the last 30 years. (*Three Years in the Pacific, i. 379.*) Through the centre of nearly all the streets directed E. to W. runs a stream of water, 3 ft. wide, used as a receptacle for all the filth thrown out from private dwellings. Most of the refuse is, however, got rid of by the Turkey buzzards, which swarm in Lima, and, like dogs in Lisbon, are the most efficient, or rather, the only scavengers. The streets are paved with round pebbles, and the narrow foot-paths with flat stones, in very bad repair. The same plan extends to the suburb of San Lazaro. The city is divided into 4 quarters, and each of these into 35 *barrios*. For each barrio an *alcalde*, or district magistrate, is selected from among the inhabs. For religious purposes, it is divided into 8 parishes. On account of the frequency of earthquakes, few houses are more than one story high, or if there be two stories, the walls of the upper consist of only cane, or wattled reeds, plastered over with clay, and whitewashed or painted. This kind of architecture is applied to even the churches and other public edifices, their upper parts being of woodwork, covered with stucco. The lower parts of the houses are mostly constructed of adobe, or sun-dried bricks, made of clay and chopped straw. The roofs are uniformly flat. Some of the better sort of houses have a terrace on the top, formed of large thin baked bricks; the common dwellings are usually roofed only with thin rafters, cane, and mats, covered with a layer of earth an inch or more thick; but as it rarely or never rains with any violence in Lima, these light roofs sufficiently answer their purpose, at the same time that they are not so easily thrown down by an earthquake, and when thrown down are incomparably less dangerous than if they were constructed of more solid materials. Most of the houses have a *patio*, or court yard, in front, with a large arched gateway opening to the street, over which is a heavy

balcony. The walls of the *patios* are painted without and within with various devices, in fresco. Till of late years, few of the windows had either glass or casbes. Almost every house has a stream of water running through its precincts, which is used for domestic purposes. Gardens are rare.

In the centre of the city is the *Plaza Mayor*, or *de la Independencia*, the principal square and market-place. It is a fine open space, the size of a quadra. On its E. side are the cathedral, the *sagrario* or principal parish church, and the archbishop's palace; the last, a large superior edifice, is now partly occupied by the Peruvian senate. On the N. is what was once the viceroy's residence, an old unsightly structure, now appropriated to the courts of justice and other government offices. On the W. side are the *cabildo* or town-hall, a Chinese looking edifice, the city gaol, and other offices; and on the fourth side is a colonnade before a row of private houses. The above public buildings have all ranges of mean lookings shops in their lower story. The booths of small traders cover nearly a third part of the area of the square. In the centre is a fine bronze public fountain, 40 ft. high, raised upon a level table of masonry 40 ft. on each side, ornamented with eight lions supporting a statue of Fame, and supplied with excellent water from the Rimac.

A considerable portion of the area of the city is occupied by convents and churches. Besides a great many convents and nunneries, with churches attached, Lima has 57 churches, and 25 chapels belonging to hospitals, colleges, &c. (For an account of the churches, convents, &c. when in their splendour, see *Ulla, Voyage de l'Amérique*, i. 428., &c.) The cathedral, founded by Pizarro, and in which he is buried, is a large fine edifice, 186 ft. in front by 320 deep; but its meek is injured by gaudy colouring and grotesque ornaments. At either corner of the front is an octagonal tower, rising nearly 200 ft. from its base, which is 40 ft. high. These towers, having been thrown down by the earthquake of 1746, were rebuilt in 1800. In the belfries are several fine-toned bells, the largest of which weighs 310 quintals. The interior of the cathedral is magnificent. It is divided into three naves, and paved with large earthen tiles. The roof, which is beautifully panelled and carved, is supported by arches of springing from a double row of square stone pillars. The high altar is in the Corinthian order, and its columns, cornices, and mouldings, are either cased with pure silver or are richly gilt. The seats and pulpit in the choir are exquisitely carved, and there are two large and fine-toned organs. "The riches which have been lavished at various times upon the interior of this edifice, are scarcely to be credited anywhere but in a city which once paved a street with ingots of silver to do honour to a new viceroy. The balustrades surrounding the great altar, and the pipes of the organ, were of silver. It may be mentioned, as a proof of the abundance of silver in Peru, that in 1831, 1 ton of silver was taken from the various churches in Lima without being missed, to meet the exigencies of the state." (*Caldwells's Travels in S. America*, ii. 56.) The *sagrario* has a fine façade, and its interior is very splendid and richly adorned. The roof is lofty and beautifully panelled, and in the centre is a cupola resting on the four corners formed by the intersection of the cross aisle. Several of the other par. churches are worthy a visit. Some of the conventual churches are remarkably rich. That of the Dominicans, 300 ft. long by 80 broad, has a steeple 150 ft. high, being the loftiest in Lima.

The revolution secularised a good deal of church property; but previously to that event, the Dominican convent is said to have had a rental of 80,000 dollars a year, and a large library, some good paintings, and numerous reliques, &c., including a statue of the Madonna studded with gems, said to be of immense value. Some of the cells belonging to it were richly furnished. The Franciscan convent is among the oldest and largest in Lima. Its buildings cover two quadras, and its church, which is next in size to the cathedral, is gorgeously adorned. Its monks derive a considerable revenue from the manufacture of shrouds, of which they have, or at least had, the monopoly. In addition to the convents, there are *casas de ejercicios*, into which females retire during Lent, to perform acts of penance; and in the convent of Recoleta are similar cells for men. The number of monks and nuns here and in other parts of Peru was formerly very great; but it is now quite otherwise, and the influence of the revolution in turning out these lazy, dissolute drones, and in lessening the deference the inhabs. had been accustomed to pay to all priests, how unobscuring soever, has been most beneficial. There are 2 foundling asylums, and 11 public hospitals, one of the latter, St. Andrea, having 600 beds. Attached to it, is an indifferent botanic garden; and adjoining it, is the medical college of San Fernando, established in 1809. Lima has a university, founded in 1571: it occupies a handsome building, and is partly supported by congress, and partly by the pro-

duce of an annual *ball-ball*. The students, of whom there are only from 30 to 60, generally reside within the walls of the institution. The Peruvian House of Representatives holds its sittings in an apartment in the university. The former palace of the Inquisition is now appropriated to a gaol, and to the national museum, which, though in extremely bad order, possesses valuable collections of minerals, and Peruvian antiquities. Lima has several ecclesiastical colleges, and seminaries, and a nautical academy. The colleges, however, are now in any thing but a flourishing state; but, on the other hand, numerous Lancastrian, and other primary schools, have sprung up, and it is alleged that all the white children are taught to read and write. Notwithstanding the low state of the university, it is affirmed that education has made a great advance in the Peruvian capital since the revolution, and its emancipation from the control of the priests is, at all events, an immense step in advance: a considerable number of modern scientific and other works are said to be annually imported from Europe.

There is a good theatre, but of rather a singular form, it being a long oval with the stage occupying the greater part of one of its sides. Bull-fights were formerly conducted at Lima with an *adret* that rivalled those of Seville; and, though abolished by San Martin in 1823, they appear to have revived. The amphitheatre, *Plaza del Acho*, in the suburb of San Lazaro, where they are held, has an area 400 ft. in diameter, surrounded by a barrier 7 ft. high, and 3 tiers of boxes raised on brick pillars, with accommodations for from 10,000 to 12,000 spectators. Cock-fighting is a favourite public diversion; the cock-pit, or *colicamsa*, is an area 50 ft. in diameter, surrounded by 6 benches and a tier of boxes, which, on Sundays and holidays, are usually crowded by visitors. Outside the walls, in the pantheon, a general cemetery established early in the present century. It is a square inclosure, laid out in walks and gardens, the surrounding wall being full of niches for the reception of corpses. These are generally deposited without coffins, their decay being accelerated by the application of unslaked lime. Before the establishment of the pantheon, the dead were always buried in churches; but this is now prohibited, and hearses belonging to the pantheon are provided for the performance of funerals, which are not allowed to traverse the streets after noon. Immediately without the suburb San Lazaro, are some excellent public baths. The road from Callao to Lima is quite straight, and for nearly the last 2 m. is fenced on either side by a brick wall and parapet, shaded with trees, and irrigated by running streams. At intervals of 100 yards are ornamental stone seats; but the whole work, together with the fine gateway at its upper end, by which the city is entered, has been suffered to fall into decay.

The vicinity of Lima, where not covered with villas and pleasure-grounds, is very productive of maize, barley, various other grains, the various vegetables, fruits, sugar, rice, tobacco, yams, potatoes, &c. &c. grapes are abundant, and yield some pretty good wine; olives thrive well; and water-melons are important articles of culture, being largely consumed in the city during the hot months. But agriculture and horticulture, like every other branch of industry, is much neglected. As very little rain falls at Lima, artificial irrigation is indispensable. The Incas had cut numerous trenches and canals in the neighbourhood, which the Spaniards finding ready to their hands, took some care to keep in order; but as present it is said that the drains for conveying the water from the city are so bad that the water is either suffered to run to waste, or to stagnate and generate noxious effluvia. The refuse of the city might be made a valuable manure for the soil; but such is the carelessness and indolence of the inhab., that it is either thrown into the canals, or conveyed without the walls, or to the river's brink, where it is suffered to accumulate in fermenting mounds of immense size. (*Peru as it is*, i. 30, 31.) Live stock are fed in great numbers near Lima, large quantities of animal food being consumed in the city. The demand for poultry is immense, especially for geese and turkeys. The slaughter of pigs is supposed to exceed 20,000 a year: the trade of the pork-butcher is one of the most lucrative, after that of the baker and lottery-man. Cook-stands for fish (which are good and cheap) and fried pork, are to be found at the corner of every square. From 40 to 60 head of oxen, and from 300 to 400 sheep, are killed daily for the Lima market; the beef is very good; the mutton of inferior quality. Pastry and sweetmeat criers are seen every where in the streets; and *masamoras* or pap-shops are very common, the soup boiled with or without fruit or vegetable acid, and sweetened with sugar or molasses, constitutes the Limerican dish "*masamora*," which is as great a favourite in Lima as roast beef in London. Few of the dishes, however, suit the taste of strangers, from their being, with the exception of poultry, either steeped in lard, or highly seasoned with pepper. Most families in inferior circumstances provide themselves with ready cooked food from the streets. Water for drinking, which is almost

wholly supplied from the large fountain in the *Ploeg Mayor*, is carried round the city by asses and other beasts of burden, carriages of most kinds being rare.

The climate of Lima has been much praised: the extremes of heat and cold are never experienced; within the city the thermometer, in the shade, never falls in winter under 60° F., nor rises in summer above 82°, its usual station being about 80° in well-aired apartments. The ordinary daily range of temp. is only 2° or 4°. The year is divided between the dry and the moist season; the former begins in Nov., the latter in May; and throughout the winter (May to Oct.) a drizzly mist often prevails in the morning and evening, and light dews are abandoned for cool breezes from the S.W. blow for 3-4ths of the year; and the hot rays of the sun are generally intercepted by a layer of clouds. Earthquakes occur every year, particularly after the mists disperse, and have usually been very destructive at intervals of 50 or 60 years; but Lima is free from storms. Epidemics are few. The climate, however, or rather, perhaps, the neglect of sanitary regulations and of cleanliness, seems to have an enervating tendency, as shown in the degeneracy of most of the inhab., especially the whites. The rate of mortality is also very high. The average number of deaths, it is said, has been estimated, from a tolerably correct return, from 1833 to 1835 inclusive, at 2,900 a year, which, in 30 years, would amount to more than its total pop. (See *Peru as it is*, l. 23-26.) Hence the pop. increases little, if at all. In 1793, it was stated to be 52,627; and in 1816, it amounted, according to a census, to 64,008; 27,545 males, and 36,553 females. Of this number, nearly 30,000 were whites and creoles, 6,000 *mestizos*, from 5,000 to 6,000 Indians, and about 30,000 negroes or blacks. The negroes are chiefly employed as domestics and mechanics; the *mestizos* in trade and agriculture. The physical and moral character of the white inhab. of Lima is Andalusian. The ladies are celebrated for beauty and fineness of figure, but want freshness of complexion. They wear a very remarkable walking dress, peculiar to this city and Truxillo. "This dress consists of two parts, one called the *saya*, the other the *manto*. The first is a petticoat made to fit so tightly, that, being at the same time quite elastic, the form of the limbs is rendered distinctly visible. The *manto*, or cloak, is also a petticoat, but instead of hanging about the heels, as all honest petticoats ought to do, it is drawn over the head, breast, and face; and is kept close by the hands, which it also conceals; that no part of the body, except one eye, and sometimes only a small portion of one eye, is perceptible. A rich coloured handkerchief, or a silk band and tassel, are frequently tied round the waist, and hang nearly to the ground in front." (*Hall's Travels*, l. 108, 109.) Within doors the ladies adopt the English or French costume, with a profusion of jewellery. The morals of both sexes have been represented as lax in a high degree, but they are probably not worse (which, however, is not saying much) than in most other large cities of S. America. The author of *Three Years in the Pacific* says: "Intigues are carried on to a great extent in fashionable circles; but I think there is more virtue and morality to be met with in the second ranks." (ll. 105.) Extravagance in living, dress, and gambling, are carried to a great extent; and smoking is universal among both men and women.

Lima was made an archbishop's see in the 16th century; and was long the grand *cantépole* for the trade of all the W. coast of S. America; but a considerable part of the foreign trade of Peru is now carried on through Buenos Ayres, and the former is also in the habit of importing European goods at second hand from Valparaiso, and other parts in Chili. It is still, however, the great emporium of Peru. Its exports consist principally of bullion and specie, vicuña, and sheeps' wool, bark, chinchilla skins, salt-petre, copper, tin, sugar, &c. The imports are principally woollen and cotton stuffs, cutlery, and hardware from England; silks, brandy, and wines from Spain and France; stock fish from the U. States; snuff, indigo, tar, naphtha, &c. from Mexico; tobacco from Colombia, with timber for the construction of ships and houses from Guayaquil; wheat, flour, dried fruits, and bullion from Chili; Paraguay tea from Paraguay, spices, quicksilver, perfumery, &c. (For full details as to these matters, see *Peru*.) The manufacturing industry of Lima is but insignificant. It has some smelting-houses, which, in 1834, produced 15,321 marcs of silver, but for several previous years double that quantity had been reduced to bars. It has also a mint at which, from 1786 to 1820, 2,567,914 marcs of silver were coined. (*Mayen, Reiss, &c.*; *Rev. &c. Tables*, 1838; *Com. Dict.*)

About 3 leagues to the S.E. is the favourite watering-place, Chorrillos, resorted to by people of rank and fashion for several months in the summer, and by invalids during the winter. "It is only a small fishing village, constructed of cane and mud. The Indian owners of the houses let them to the bathers at a high rate during the bathing season; and some persons either

take them for a term of years, or construct other light summer houses for themselves. Chorrillos is sheltered from the S.W. blast by an elevated promontory, called the *Morro-Solar*." Numerous Peruvian antiquities lie scattered over the rich but now partly waste and desolate plain between this town and Lima.

Lima was founded by Pizarro in 1535, under the title of *Ciudad de los Reyes*, "City of Kings." It suffered severely from the earthquakes of 1678, and 1746, the latter leaving only 30 houses standing out of 3,000; and again by those of 1764, 1823 and 1826. San Martin entered it on the 12th July, 1821, and proclaimed the independence of Peru at Lima on the 28th of the same month. (*Ullrich, Voyage de l'Amérique*, l. 432-468, gives by far the most complete and authentic account of Lima, previously to the great earthquake of 1746. See also *Three Years in the Pacific*, 1835, l. 24-403; ll. 1-200.; *Mayen Reiss um die Erde*, ll. 66-64.; *Poeppig*; *Scarlett's Trav.*; *Stevenson's S. America*, l. 143-206.; *Caldwells, &c. in Mod. Trav.*, vol. xxviii.; *Hall's Trav. in S. America*; *Encyc. Americaine*, &c.)

LIMERICK.

LIMERICK, an inland co. of Ireland, prov. Munster, having N. the estuary of the Shannon, by which it is separated from the co. of Clare, S. Tipperary, and W. Kerry. Area, 67,473 acres, of which 91,961 are improved mountain and bog. Except on the S.W. and N.E. extremities, the surface is generally flat. Climate mild, but very humid. Soil for the most part excellent, and applicable to every purpose of husbandry. Mr. Young describes a large tract, called the "Golden Vale," as the best land he had ever seen. Tillage has of late years been much extended in this co., but is, speaking generally, very backward; still, however, there is a good deal of grass land, and grating husbandry and the dairy are busied and improved. Some fine long-horned cattle are bred and fattened in this co., particularly in the low grounds along the Shannon. The pernicious system of *con acre* (see *ant.*, p. 40.) has, unfortunately, been widely spread in Limerick; and, though there has been a great increase in the exportation of wheat, wheat-flour, oats, butter, and most other articles from the co., and a material improvement in stock, and in the implements of husbandry, it is believed that the condition of the cottiers, and the smaller class of occupiers, has been but little, if at all, improved. The latter, in fact, are in the most abject state; and it would seem that in Ireland, as in Italy and some other countries, the peasants are frequently most wretched where the land is finest. Property in very large estates: tillage farms mostly very small, but some of the grating farms are extensive. Average rent of land, 3s. 6d. an acre. Minerals and manufactures, excepting some departments of the latter carried on in the city of Limerick, of no importance. Principal rivers, exclusive of the Shannon, Maig, Deale, and Mulkerna. Limerick is divided into 9 baronies and 126 parishes, and sends 4 mems. to the H. of C. viz. 3 for the co. and 1 for the city of Limerick. Registered electors for the co. in 1840, 8,610; in 1841 this co. had 48,127 inhab. houses, 66,326 families, and 330,020 inhab., of whom 161,597 were males, and 168,423 females.

LIMERICK, a city, parl. bor., river port, and co. of a city in Ireland, prov. Munster, on the Shannon, 107 m. S.W. Dublin, and 55 m. E. Loughbeg at the mouth of the Shannon, lat. 52° 40' N., long. 8° 34' W. It is principally situated on the S.E. side of the river, within the co. of Limerick, but partly also on its N. side, within the co. Clare. The co. of the city, which is identical with the parl. bor., includes an area of 3,863 imp. acres; and had, in 1841, a pop. of 65,265, whereof the city and suburbs had 48,261, and the rural districts, or liberties, 16,906. Limerick is the fourth city of Ireland in respect of size and importance. It owes this distinction to its situation at the head of the estuary of the Shannon, which has made it the emporium of the extensive and fertile districts watered by that great river. It is divided into—1. The English town, now the oldest and most decayed portion, on King's Island, formed by a detached arm of the Shannon in 1640, immediately S. of the above; 2. the New Town, to the W. of the latter, called Newtown-Pery, from Pery the family name of the Earl of Limerick, on whose estate it is built. Popularly the first two divisions are called the Old, and the latter the New Town. The country part of the city of the co., including Thomond Bridge on the W. side of the river, and many other extensive lines of cottages, is called the Liberties. The contrast between the different parts of the city is very striking. The Old Town is said in the Medical Boundary Report to be "one vast mass of filth, dilapidation, and misery, which nothing but the general employment of the people throughout the country can correct, because the unemployed poor are attached to the large crumbling city, where they can find, at a cheap rate, something like a roof to cover them." The New Town, on the other hand, which has been wholly con-

structed within the last half century, is but little inferior to the best parts of Liverpool. It is well built, and the streets, which are broad and straight, cross each other at right angles. It has a handsome square, in which is a column surmounted by a statue of Mr. Spring Rice, now Lord Monteagle, to whom the city is much indebted. The houses in the liberties are mostly mere cabins, occupied by a very poor agricultural population. The main arm of the Shannon is crossed by two bridges, one of which, Thomond Bridge, originally constructed in the early part of the 13th century, was lately re-built; the other, or Wellesley Bridge, of 5 arches, each 70 ft. in span, a very handsome structure, was completed in 1837. There are three bridges over the smaller arm of the Shannon, between English-town and Irish-town.

The co. of the city has 18 parishes, and 8 parts of parishes, besides an extra-parochial district. Six of the parishes being within the city properly so called, which is also the seat of the see of Limerick. The cathedral, a large Gothic pile, has a lofty tower, a handsome interior, and many monuments, among which is that of Donogh O'Brien, king of Thomond. The embattled tower of this cathedral, 120 ft. in height, commands a fine view of the city and adjacent country, including the course of the Shannon. None of the parochial churches seem to be worth notice, except St. Munchin's church, formerly the most ancient in the kingdom, but lately rebuilt, which, though small, is for situation and architecture by far the handsomest sacred edifice in the city. According to the Rom. Cath. divisions, the city consists of five parishes, that of St. John being the bishop's manse, and its church is considered the cathedral. The other places of worship are large, and some of elegant structure. There are friaries of the Augustine, Dominican, and Franciscan orders, all of which have large chapels attached to them. Nearly 9-10ths of the inhabs. are Catholics. The Presbyterians, Quakers, Wesleyan and primitive Methodists, and Independents, have each a place of worship. The handsomest public building in Limerick is the savings' bank, built in 1840. It is a Doric structure, of cut limestone. The savings' bank was established in 1830, and had Nov. 20, 1848, 87,845*l.* of deposits. The diocesan school for the dioceses of Limerick, Killaloe, and Killfenora, is kept in the head-master's house. The literary and scientific institutions are the Limerick Institution, the Mechanics' Institute, and the Literary and Scientific Society. Those for charitable purposes connected with education are the Blue-coat school, founded in 1717; and free schools attached to the parishes and friaries, in which great numbers of children are instructed. No fewer than 1,300 children are educated in the schools of the "Christian Brothers," to whom the city is much indebted. There are also schools founded on bequests of Mrs. Villiers and Dr. Hall. In the Old Town is a school for females, conducted by the "Sisters of Mercy," assisted by a small grant from the Education Board; a Sunday school is also established in it, for the females employed during the week at the lace factories. In the New Town is a large female school, conducted by the nuns of the Presentation Convent. These three schools are attended by about 800 children, who, according to the statement of Mr. Ingalls, are "able in general to write well, are perfectly instructed in reading, and exhibit in their appearance and behaviour the utmost order and neatness." In another school for females, 130 poor children are educated and clothed. The other charitable institutions are the County Hospital; Barrington's Hospital and City of Limerick Infirmary, a large building, containing 126 beds, built and munificently presented to the city by Sir Joseph Barrington and his four sons; the Lunatic Asylum for Limerick, Clare, and Kerry, opened in 1822, cost about 30,000*l.*; it has accommodation for about 240 patients. If cost, in 1848, 4,696*l.*, being at the rate of 1*l.* for 8*d.* for each of the inmates. Here is also a Fever and Lock Hospital, and a Lying-in Hospital; several endowed almshouses; a Magdalen Asylum; an Asylum for the Blind; a mendicity institution; a charitable loan fund; and a charitable pawn-office, founded by Matt. Barrington, Esq., on the plan of the *Mont-de-Piété* at Paris. The Limerick union workhouse, opened in 1841, is on a large scale, being fitted to accommodate 3,450 inmates. Places of public amusement are not much encouraged. The theatre, a handsome building, was sold to the Augustine monks, and has been fitted up by them for a chapel, and a suite of assembly-rooms is applied to other purposes; but there is a small "circus," temporarily erected, occasionally used as a theatre. The Hanging Gardens, built by Mr. Roche, are formed of tiers of terraces, raised upon arches, on the uppermost of which is a range of green-houses, commanding a fine view of the city, river, and adjacent country. Limerick is the head-quarters of the S.W. military district, and has barracks for 1,450 men. Three newspapers are published in the town, each twice a week, so that a paper issues daily from the press.

The old corporation, which laid claim to prescriptive

privileges, confirmed by a series of charters from the time of King John, consisted of a mayor, two sheriffs, and an indefinite number of aldermen, burgesses, and freemen. The corporation now consists, under the municipal reform act, of a mayor, 10 aldermen, and 30 councillors. The city sent 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C.; and from the Union to the passing of the Reform Act, it sent 1 mem. to the Imperial H. of C. The last-mentioned act conferred on it the privilege of sending 2 mems. to the Imperial H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 917. The system of local taxation was said, in the Municipal Boundary Report, to be exceedingly unfair; and to press with unjust and extreme severity on the agriculturists in the liberty.

Assizes are held twice a year for the co. of the city, by the judges of circuit; courts of general sessions every quarter, and petty sessions every week, at which the mayor and city magistrates preside. A court of civil jurisdiction, which is empowered to hold pleas to any amount, is held on Wednesdays; and a Court of Conscience for suits under 40*l.* every Thursday. Civil bill cases are tried before the assistant barrister of the co., who holds a court for this purpose within the city twice a year. The income of the corporation amounts to between 7000*l.* and 8000*l.* per annum. The city Court-house is a plain building; the co. Court-house, a handsome structure, was erected in 1810, at an expense of 12,000*l.* The prisons for the co. and city are within the municipal limits. The former, erected in 1821, at an expense of 25,000*l.*, has a Doric portico, and is, perhaps, the finest building in the city, and is under the management of a plan, and is said to be extremely well managed. The city gaol, a gloomy quadrangular edifice, is comparatively ill adapted for its purpose.

There are three institutions for the promotion of manufactures and trade; the Chamber of Commerce, a society of merchants, incorporated by royal charter in 1815, for the promotion and protection of trade, and who have expended considerable sums of money for these objects; the Agricultural Association; and the Trustees for the Promotion of Industry, in whom a fund of 7,000*l.* was vested by the London City Vestries Committee. Limerick, however, can hardly be said to have any manufactures. The linen manufacture, which had attained to some magnitude, and that of cotton, which had been introduced, are all but extinct. The manufacture of leather gloves, for which the city was once famous, has not entirely disappeared; though gloves, sold under the name of "Limerick gloves," are now not unfrequently made in Cork. There is a great deal of embroidering in lace; and three lace factories now at work give employment to from 1,200 to 1,400 females. Several of the four mills have also been erected; and the town has distilleries, breweries, tanneries, foundries, and a paper mill. Limerick has for many years been famed for its fishing-hooks sent to all parts of the United Kingdom and America.

The great support of Limerick is her trade, which is very extensive. She is, as already stated, the great mart for the country traversed by the Shannon, and that immediately connected with it. Her exports, like those of most Irish towns, consist mostly of corn and provisions, including beef, pork, butter, and the value of these articles having amounted, in 1835, when prices were very low, to 717,600*l.* out of a total export of 736,430*l.* At present (1850) the value of the exports from Limerick is probably not under 1,300,000*l.* The imports consist principally of manufactured goods, coal and iron, tea, sugar, tobacco, wine, salt fish, timber, &c. The Bank of Ireland, and the provincial and national banks, have branches here. The gross customs' duties amounted, in 1845, to 193,497*l.*, in 1846 to 201,853*l.* The post-office revenue, in 1845 was 3,522*l.* in 1846, 4,124*l.* Limerick either is, or was, the terminus of a line of Dublin and the South-Western railway.

This city, and, indeed, the whole kingdom, has derived great advantages from the improvements made in the navigation of the Shannon, and the steamers introduced on that river; and it will derive still farther advantages from the improvements that are projected in respect to it. The estuary of the Shannon forms one of the finest bays in the world: vessels of very large burden approach within a few miles of the city; and ships of 400 or 500 tons unload at its quays. But as the strand along the latter dries at low water, and as its bottom is hard, vessels of considerable burden have been seriously injured on their grounding. To obviate this inconvenience it was proposed to construct a weir or dam across the river, a little below the town, which would give a constant depth of from 16 to 18 feet water for a considerable distance upwards; and a loan of above 85,000*l.* was to be advanced by government for this purpose, and for the construction of quays. But as this project would have obstructed the navigation of the river, it has been abandoned, and government has recently agreed to advance 50,000*l.* on security of the rates, to assist in the formation of a wet dock. The port is managed by com-

missioners. Harbour revenue, in 1847, 7,351*l*. In connection with the trade of the port may be mentioned the commercial buildings, erected, in 1836, by a company of shareholders, with apartments for the chamber of commerce, a library, &c.; the custom-house, and the exchange. There belonged to Limerick, on the 1st January, 1848, 166 vessels, of the aggregate burden of 13,829 tons.

There can be no doubt that the trade, wealth, and pop. of Limerick are rapidly increasing, but at the same time there is a vast deal of misery in it; and we regret to have to state that a large proportion of the lower classes, especially in the old town, were exposed, previously to the introduction of the compulsory provision for the support of the poor, to extreme and almost incredible privations. And this state of things, though in some degree amended, is still very prevalent. That so much squalid poverty and abject misery should exist along with so much wealth and comfort, is a painful and mortifying anomaly. We should think it well worth public consideration to inquire whether some national effort should not be made to relieve this and some other Irish cities of a portion of their pauper inhab., by sending them to the colonies; and whether measures should not be taken to prevent a recurrence of the evil, by preventing the building of any very inferior houses. The present state of the poor in Limerick, and some other Irish towns, is disgraceful to the country, and discreditable to civilization.

Limerick was formerly fortified, and, from its commanding the first bridge above the embouchure of the Shannon, was an important military station. It was occupied, after the battle of Aghrim, by the troops of James II.: it capitulated to the English army under Ginkell, afterwards Earl of Athlone, on the 3d of October, 1691. The capitulation, or, as it has been usually called, the treaty of Limerick, was very favourable to the besieged, and, indeed, to the Irish nation, or, at all events, to the Catholics. But it was afterwards most shamefully violated by the conquering party, and its most important stipulations were openly set aside and trampled upon. The remains of its fortifications add considerable beauty and interest to this ancient city. "King John's Castle," from which the city arms are taken, forms part of the castle barracks, and the stone upon which the capitulation was signed is still in existence, and is regarded with watchful care by the citizens. (*Irish Boundary and Municipal Reports; Railway Report; Juggie's Ireland*, l. 254—312; *Thom's Almanac*; and *Private Information*.)

LIMOGES (an. *Leuvenens*), a city of France, dép. Haute Vienne, of which it is the cap., on the declivity of a hill, at the foot of which is the Vienne, which is here crossed by an old stone bridge of six arches, 110 m. N. E. Bordeaux, and 215 m. S. S. W. Paris: lat. 45° 49' 53" N., long. 1° 15' 23" W. Pop., in 1846, *ex. com.*, 26,294. It is divided into the "city" and the "town." The former occupies the site of the ancient Celtic and Roman city near the river, and is ill built; its streets being narrow and ill paved, and its houses built of wood above the ground floor. The latter division, which is of modern date, on the upper part of the hill, is open, well built, surrounded with pleasant promenades, and particularly healthy. The cathedral, built in the 13th century, is of granite, and in the Gothic style. It has an imposing appearance at the first glance; but when examined in detail it presents many incongruities: among others, one end of the choir has bas-reliefs, representing the labours of Hercules! Another church, which stands in the highest part of the town, has an elegant spire, 236 ft. in height, a conspicuous object at a great distance. The bishop's palace is a very handsome modern granite building, surrounded with gardens. Limoges has a good town-hall, several hospitals, an exchange, mint, theatre, prison, cavalry barracks, public baths, and many public fountains. One of the latter, the *Fontaine d'Aiguilène*, has a basin 26 feet in circ., supposed to be hewn out of a single piece of granite, and supplies the upper part of the town at every season with abundance of good water, derived from an ancient subterraneous aqueduct. Besides this aqueduct, few Roman antiquities are found in Limoges: the site of an amphitheatre, the traces of which existed in 1822, is now occupied by the *Place d'Orléans*. Limoges is the seat of a prefecture and royal court, tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, and a chamber of manufactures; it has a royal college, university academy, diocesan seminary, royal societies of agriculture, arts, and sciences, schools of drawing and commerce, a public library with 12,000 vols., museums of natural history, antiquities, the fine arts, and machinery, a *mout-de-pitié*, and many charities. Its manufactures, which are important, include glass and earthenware, broad cloths, cassimeres, druggs, and other woollen fabrics, calicoes, cotton, linen and hempen yarn, hats, wax candles, cards, paper, glue, &c. It has numerous tanneries, cotton and woollen dyeing houses, and iron forges: its wax bleaching factories rival those of Mans, and its brandy and liqueurs are in high repute.

Being situated at the junction of several great roads, it is an entrepôt for the trade of several dep. with Thoulose and the S. of France, and deals extensively, not only in its own manufactured goods, but in agricultural produce, salt, iron, copper, and brass wares, &c. Marshal Jourdan, and Dupuytren, the famous surgeon, were natives of Limoges. (*Hugo, art. Haute Vienne; Guide du Voyageur, &c.*)

LIMOUSIN, one of the old provs. of France, in the central part of the kingdom, now distributed among the dep. of Corrèze, Creuse, Haute Vienne, and Dordogne.

LIMOUX, a town of France, dép. Aude, cap. arrond., on the Aude, 13 m. S. S. E. Carcassonne. Pop., in 1836, *ex. com.*, 6,666. It is generally well built, paved, and lighted, and has a large parish church, an hospital, two public halls, a theatre, and a small picture gallery. It is the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a chamber of manufactures, &c. Its woollen manufactures produce annually from 11,000 to 12,000 pieces of broad cloth, worth from 6 to 17 fr. an ell; it has also several woollen yarn factories, tanneries, and oil mills; and is an entrepôt for iron goods, in which, and in wines, oil, soap, and leather, it has an active trade. Its environs are highly picturesque and fertile. (*Hugo, art. Aude, &c.*)

LINCOLN, a marit. co. of England, on the E. coast, having N. the Humber, E. the German Ocean, S. E. the co. of Cambridgeshire, Northampton, and Rutland, and W. Leicester, Nottingham, and York. This is a very extensive co., comprising 1,671,040 acres, of which about 1,465,000 are said to be arable, meadow, and pasture. Though but little diversified in respect of surface, Lincoln is naturally divided into the districts of the *Wolds*, the *Moors*, and the *Fens*. The wolds, a ridge from 8 to 10 m. in breadth, extend from Spilsby N. to Barton on the Humber; the soil is principally sandy loam on a chalk bottom, of very various degrees of fertility, but now much improved, and generally producing very excellent crops. The *Moors* stretch E. and S. from the Humber to Grantham; the heath by which they were formerly covered has now mostly disappeared, and they are now very productive of oats. The *Fens* comprise all the flat parts of the co., from Wainfleet on the Wash round by the mouth of the Nen to the borders of Rutland: most part of this district is usually included within the great level of the Fens. (*See BEDFORD LEVEL, Vol. I. 318.*) Lincoln is one of the most productive co. in the empire; and improvements of all sorts have been prosecuted in it for many years with extraordinary spirit and success. Large tracts in the Wolds and Moors, that 30 or 40 years ago were all but unproductive, now yield heavy crops of barley, oats, and turnips. This great improvement has been chiefly brought about by the liberal use of bone manure, which has been applied for a longer period and on a more extensive scale in this than in any other co.

The excellence of the pastures in the Fens is too well known to require any special notice: immense sums have been expended on their drainage, and in the recovering of land from the sea. Formerly the area was frequented by vast numbers of aquatic fowl, but since their drainage these have much fallen off, and the *drays*, for their capture, are now of much less importance: geese, however, are still bred in considerable numbers, and are regularly plucked four or five times a year for their feathers. Previously to the improvement of the Wolds, rabbit warrens were very common, but they are now comparatively scarce. The native sheep of the Fens were remarkable for their size and the extraordinary length of their wool; they have, however, been so much crossed with New Leicester, that it is now difficult to find one of the genuine breed. Some of the finest of the London dray-horses are bred in the Fens. The cattle depastured in the Fens are principally short-horns, and attain to a great size.

Property very variously divided, there being estates of all sizes, from 25,000*l*. a year down to 5*l*., but the great majority small. In the district called the *Isle of Ancholme*, in the N. W. part of the co., between the rivers Trent and Ancholme, the inhab. live together in hamlets or villages as in France, and almost every household is a proprietor, their properties varying from 1 to 50 acres. They are very industrious, and live very meanly. Sixe of farms various: in the Wolds and Moorish district they are mostly very large, but elsewhere they are rather small. They are generally held under leases of 7 and 14 years. Mr. Young has passed a high but well merited eulogy on the enterprise and intelligence of the higher class of farmers in this co. (*Survey, p. 48.*) Average rent of land in 1810, 18*l*. 11*d*. an acre; but, in 1848, 28*l*. 1 custom of *Borough English*, by which if the father die intestate, the younger son succeeds to the paternal property, to the exclusion of his elder brothers, prevails at Stamford, in this co. Principal rivers, Trent, Witham, Welland, and Ancholme. The Witham has been made navigable from Boston to Lincoln; and the Fossdyke

canal extends from the latter to the Trent, near Tortsey, completing an internal navigation between the Wash and the Humber. The co. is popularly divided into the parts of *Lindsey* on the N., *Kesteven* on the S.W., and *Holland* on the S.E., and contains 33 hundreds, wapentakes, and pokes, with the city of Lincoln and the bors. of Stamford, Boston, and Grantham. It is divided into 629 parishes, and sends 13 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 4 for the co., 2 for the city of Lincoln, 2 each for the bors. of Boston, Grantham, and Stamford, and 1 for Great Grimsby. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 19,806, whereof 8,640 are for the S., or the Holland, and 11,166 for the N., or the Lindsey, division. In 1841 it had 72,964 inhabit. houses, and 369,603 inhab., of whom 181,766 were males, and 180,844 females. Sum paid for the relief of the poor, in 1846-47, 130,664. Annual value of real property, in 1816, 2,096,511.; do. in 1843, 2,568,336.

LINCOLN, a city, parl. and mun. bor., and market town of England, cap. of the above co., on the Witham, 26 m. S. Hull, and 121 m. N. London; lat. 53° 24' N., long. 0° 36' W. The parl. bor. (which the Boundary Act left unchanged externally, the only additions being the ball and close in its centre) is divided into 13 parishes, and had, in 1841, a pop. of 13,411. It is situated on the S. slope and at the foot of a hill, on the top of which is the cathedral, a striking object for many miles round. The streets are irregularly laid out; the largest and handsomest runs N. and S. up the hill on which the cathedral stands. A small part of the town, comprising two pars., is on the S. side of the river, and is connected with the main body by one principal and two smaller bridges. The streets are well paved, lighted with gas, and supplied with water from public conduits. The principal and most interesting public building is the cathedral, erected at different times, from the 12th to the 16th century, and consequently exhibiting several varieties of architecture: the prevailing style, however, is early English, of a particularly rich and beautiful character. The closeness of the surrounding buildings is a great disadvantage to the display of architectural effect; but there is a tolerably open space towards the E. The church consists of a nave with its aisles, four transepts, a choir, chancel, and lady-chapel; three towers rise above the building, two on the W. end, 180 ft. high, and one at the intersection of the nave and transepts, rising 308 ft. above the floor: they are all gorgeously decorated with varied tracery, pillars, pilasters, windows, &c. The W. and principal front, in which are three fine doors, is distinguished by its beauty and magnificence; and, from the variety of its styles, is certainly the workmanship of three distinct and distant eras. According to Britton, the interior dimensions are as follow:—Entire length, 482 ft., of which 222 ft. belong to the nave, and the rest to the choir and lady-chapel; width of choir and nave, 80 ft.; height of choir, 90 ft.; and width of W. front 174 ft.; length of principal transept, 222 ft.; breadth of ditto, 66 ft. The great transept, at the ends of which are circular windows, exhibit a good specimen of the English style; and the aisles on the E. side are divided into chapels and vestries: the choir, which is parted off from the nave by a stone screen, is of most elaborate composition; and the great E. window ranks as the second in England, in point of size and fine proportions. Attached to the E. side of the cathedral is the chapter-house, a structure differing from most others of the same nature in being *side-aisled*, and not octagonal; its groined roof is supported by an umbilical pillar, consisting of a circular shaft, cased by ten small fluted columns. The cloisters are on the N. side, and over them is the library, built by Dean Honeywood, at the end of the 17th century, containing a large collection of books, with some curious specimens of Roman antiquities. The cathedral bell, or "Great Tom of Lincoln," originally cast in 1610, having been cracked, was recast, with 6 other bells, into the present large bell and 3 quarter bells. The diameter of the great bell is 6 ft. 10½ in., and its weight 13 tons, or about a ton heavier than the old one. At the time of the dissolution, Lincoln cathedral was one of the finest and most sumptuously adorned in the kingdom. There were then taken from it 2,621 oz. gold, and 4,385 oz. silver plate, besides precious stones of great value. It had formerly many costly sepulchres and monumental records; but the zealots at the Reformation either pulled them down or defaced them, so that, in 1849, scarcely a perfect tomb remained; and the little they left undestroyed was demolished by Cromwell's soldiers, by whom the cathedral was converted into barracks. The ruins of the bishop's palace, which was destroyed at the last mentioned epoch, stand S. of the church, and comprise a fine hall, an old gateway, and part of the kitchen. Adjoining these ruins, a modern house has been erected, which is occupied by the bishop during his stay in Lincoln. (See *Britton's Account of Lincoln Cathedral*.)

Among the tombs yet in a tolerably perfect state are those of Catherine Swinford, wife of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, of their daughter Joan, and of several bishops and deans of the cathedral. The present establishment comprises a bishop, dean, precentor, sub-dean, chancellor, and 38 prebendaries, with 4 vicars-choral, and 30 choristers. The nett revenue of the see amounted, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1831, to 4,542.; but, on the next avoidance of the see, the income was raised to 5,000., with a further allowance of 500., till a suitable residence be built: the limits of the diocese comprise only the co. of Lincoln and Nottingham. (*Orders in Council*, Aug. 1838.) The cathedral revenues, which nett 6,986½ a year, are equally divided between the dean, precentor, sub-dean, and chancellor; and the vicars-choral divide 115½ yearly. Besides monasteries, nunneries, and other buildings devoted to pious uses, Lincoln had formerly upwards of 50 churches; but of these only 11 remain, exclusive of the cathedral, most of them being small and much mutilated. St. Peter at Gowth, evidently an old conventual church, and 3 other churches, S. of the Witham, have lofty square Norman towers. An additional church was recently built by subscription. There are several places of worship for R. Catholics, Wesleyan Methodists, and other Dissenters; and attached to them are Sunday schools, which, according to the parl. returns, were attended, in 1833, by 700 children. The national school (also a Sunday school) had 474 scholars in the same year; and there were 3 infant schools with 330 children. The grammar school, still held in the Grey Friars' chapel, was founded in 1568: it is well endowed, and the instruction, not confined to civis, is given by an upper and under master, who, in addition to their salaries from the corporation, receive fees from the boys, and take boarders. The Bluecoat school, established in 1602, is endowed with landed property worth nearly 2,000*l.* a year, and furnishes clothing and instruction (with apprentice-premiums on leaving) to 56 boys. The master has 94*l.* a year, with a house, coal, and candle, and the establishment is said to be well conducted. Wilkinson's school, which is very slenderly endowed, furnishes instruction to 16 boys. Lincoln is very rich in endowed charities, among which, as one of the principal and most useful, may be mentioned Sir Thomas White's loan-fund for deserving and needy tradesmen, the assets of which are estimated at 850*l.* (*Char. Comm. Report*, part iv.) A general dispensary, lunatic asylum, county hospital, and lying-in hospital, are the chief modern charities; and a flourishing mechanics' institute, several libraries, 3 news-rooms, and some book societies, are well supported. It has 3 weekly newspapers. Among the buildings devoted to civil purposes are the co. gaol and court-house, rebuilt from Smirke's designs, on the site of the old castle, a few remains of which are still standing on the hill W. of the cathedral. The co. gaol, constructed on Howard's plan, is well conducted. The Guildhall is an ancient Gothic building; but the borough court-house is modern, and the gaol is stated to be too small to admit of the classification of prisoners. The market-house, a small theatre, and an assembly-room, are the only other public buildings; but there are several markets. W. of the town is a good race-course, near which is a large building, now dismantled, but used during the late war as a military *dépôt*. As respects ancient remains, few towns in England exhibit so many and so interesting as Lincoln. Saxon, Norman, and pointed arches, doorways with turrets, walls, mullions of windows, and other fragments, appear in every direction. Leland says there were "5 gates in the wauls of the citie;" and of these the Chequer Gate in the Close, and the Stonebow crossing the High Street, are still in good preservation. John of Gaunt's palace and stables present some good examples of the Norman and early English style.

The trade of Lincoln consists chiefly in the exchange of the raw produce of the surrounding district for manufactured and other commodities. Large quantities of flour are sent to Manchester and London. There are some tanyards, malthouses, and tobacco manufactories, and extensive breweries produce excellent ale. It communicates by the Foss-dyke canal with the Trent; and the Witham navigation, running S.E. past Boston, connects it with the North Sea. It is, also, connected by railways with all parts of the country. The Lincoln and Lindsey banking company and a private bank are established here; and there is a savings' bank, which, on the 20 Nov. 1848, had 98,631*l.* of deposits.

Lincoln received its first charter from Henry II., which was confirmed by several subsequent monarchs, its governing charter till 1837 being that of Charles I. Under the Municipal Reform Act the city is divided into 2 wards, and is governed by 6 aldermen (one of whom is mayor) and 18 councillors. It has also a commission of

the peace under a recorder. The assizes and quarter sessions are held for the city and co.; and it is the seat of a county court, before which 1243 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. Corporation revenue 1847-48, 52,432*l*.

Lincoln has regularly sent 3 mems. to the H. of C. since the reign of Henry III., the electors previously to the Reform Act being the freemen of the city. The Boundary Act includes the insulated part called the bail and close in the par. bor.; and those districts round the city called the liberties, which previously had not been represented, were added to the co. Registered electors in 1848-50, 1,237. Lincoln is likewise the election town for the N. division of the co.

Lincoln stands on the site of the great Roman road called *Eborac Street*, and derives its name from its occupying the site of the Roman military station called *Lincoln*. It was fortified by the Saxons; and at the time of the Domesday survey was one of the richest and most populous cities of England, having 1,070 houses, and an extensive trade. The castle was built by William the Conqueror in 1068; and the prosperity of the town was further advanced by Henry I., who cleared out the fens-dyke, and made it navigable. The town was annexed to the duchy of Lancaster at the end of the 13th century; and about the middle of the 14th century it was inhabited by the celebrated John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, who not only improved the castle, but procured for the town many valuable privileges. In the civil wars of Charles I. the king came to Lincoln, and convened the nobility and freeholders of the co. The inhabitants promised to support the royal cause; but in 1643 the city was in the hands of the parliamentarians. The royalists recaptured it; but were again dispossessed, both of the town and castle, on the 5th of May, 1644.

LINDFIELD, a town and par. of England, co. Sussex, between Ely and Arundel, 14 m. N. by E. of Brighton, and 23 m. S. London. Area, 5,250 acres. Pop., in 1841, 1,330. This town deserves notice for its useful institution for instructing poor children of both sexes not only in reading, writing, &c., but also in the processes of agriculture, and various manual operations, as spinning, and netting, printing, shoe-making, &c., and also for a benevolent society, giving pecuniary and other relief to poor persons not willing to receive parochial aid. The church is an old structure of plain exterior, with a low square tower; and the living is a curacy in the gift of the Archbishop of Canterbury. There are 3 places of worship for dissenters. Fairs for cattle and horses, Aug. 12; and for sheep and lambs (the largest in the co.), May 15.

LINGEN, an isl. of the E. Archipelago, off the N. E. coast of Sumatra, lying on the equator, and near lat. 100°. It is about 50 m. in length, by 20 in its greatest breadth; having a healthy climate, and producing abundant supplies of fruit and poultry. Its geological formation indicates the presence of tin; and it furnishes some little gold. Its inhab. may be considered as presenting the type of the Malay race in its greatest purity. (*Hamilton's S. I. Gen.*)

LINLITHGOW, a royal and par. bor. of Scotland, co. Linlithgow, of which it is the cap., in a valley on the S. bank of a lake of the same name, 15 m. W. by S. Edinburgh. Pop., in 1841, 4,009. The town consists of one main street, along the line of road between Edinburgh and Falkirk, with several lanes branching off on both sides. The houses, with few exceptions, have an ancient and decayed appearance; the streets are lighted with gas, and macadamised. In addition to the town hall, and gaol, the most prominent public building is the parish church, erected in the 13th century, but afterwards much enlarged and repaired. This, which is one of the best specimens of Gothic architecture in Scotland, is 183 ft. in length, 100 in breadth, including the aisles, and 90 in height, exclusive of the steeple: the latter, rising about 140 ft. above ground, terminates in an imperial crown. The exterior had formerly a row of statues, of which one only remains, that of St. Michael, the tutelary saint of the borough: it is divided by a partition wall; the Eastern half only being used as the parish church; the other is unemployed.

The royal palace of Linlithgow is finely situated on an eminence projecting into the lake. This magnificent ruin is of a quadrangular form. It was begun so early as the 12th century; and was greatly enlarged and improved by James V., but was not finished till the reign of James VI. (James I. of England), who built the N. side of the quadrangle, after his visit to Scotland in 1517. The W. side of the palace is the most ancient; and here the apartment is still pointed out where the unfortunate Queen Mary first saw the light on the 7th of December, 1542. The palace was entire and habitable till 1746, when it was burnt, either intentionally, or through accident, by the troops under General Hawley. It covers an acre of ground; and though roofless, ruined, and desolate, its appearance sufficiently justifies the not very poetical eulogium of Scott:—

"Of all the palaces so fair,
Built for the royal dwelling,
In Scotland, far beyond compare,
Linlithgow is excelling."

Macdonald, castle 4. stanzas 15.

The hexagonal Cross Well, in front of the town-house, about 30 ft. in height, is surmounted by a lion rampant supporting the arms of Scotland. The sculpture, by which it is adorned, is very complex; and the water is made to pour in great profusion from the mouths of 13 grotesque figures. This well, constructed in 1805, is said to be a facsimile of one previously existing, constructed in 1620.

The Free Church, the Associate Synod, and Independents, have places of worship. The poor, as in other Scotch towns, are supported partly by the interest of certain funds left in mortmain, for the purpose, and by the church collections, and partly by a rate, which amounted, in 1847, to 960*l*.

There is a par. school endowed by the town, but no parish school. There are sundry schools in the parish, all unendowed except the one referred to; and it is supposed that about 1-9th part of the pop. is at school. There are various reading-rooms, and a mechanics' library.

Linlithgow has little or no trade, but depends chiefly on its advantages as a provincial capital. Tanning and preparing leather, said to have been introduced by the soldiers of Cromwell, is the oldest and the staple branch of business, giving employment to nearly 100 hands. There are two extensive distilleries, a brewery, and a small glue manufactory, and a few hand-loom weavers (cotton and linen). There is only one branch bank. The Union Canal, between Edinburgh and Glasgow, and the Edinburgh and Glasgow Railway, pass close along side the town. Blackness, on the Frith of Forth, 5 m. distant, is its port.

Linlithgow was made a royal bor. in the 13th century. In 1513, in an aisle of the par. church, the apparition is said to have appeared to James IV., that warned him against the expedition into England which terminated in the fatal battle of Flodden. (*Pittcott's Hist. of Scotland*, i. 264, 265.) When passing through this town, on the 29d Jan. 1570, the Regent Murray (illegitimate brother of Q. Mary) was shot by Hamilton, of Bothwellhaugh, partly in revenge for a private injury, and partly from political motives. The house whence the shot was fired has been taken down and replaced by a modern edifice. The White or Carmelite Friars had a monastery here, founded in 1390; but all traces of it have disappeared. In addition to certain town dues, the municipal property consists chiefly of land; and the ancient custom of annually riding the marches, though disused in almost every other bor. in Scotland, is here regularly observed. Corporation revenue, 776*l*; number of councillors, 37. Linlithgow unites with Falkirk, Aldrie, Larnark, and Hamilton, in sending a mem. to the H. of C. Registered voters in 1849-50, 101. (*Parl. Papers; Private Information*.)

LINLITHGOW. See LOTHIAN (West).

LINTON, a market town and par. of England, co. Cambridge, hund. Chilford, 10 m. S. S. E. Cambridge, 42 m. N. by E. London. Area of par., 3,963 acres. Pop., in 1841, 1,528. The town, which stands on the line of a Roman road, and at the foot of the chalk downs communicating with the Chiltern range, comprises several irregular streets and lanes, lined in part with good brick houses, but with a much greater number of low thatched cottages. The church is a low structure in the pointed style with a high embattled tower and handsome interior, the living being a vicarage in the gift of the Bishop of Ely. There are places of worship, also, for Wesleyan Methodists and Baptists, and two Sunday schools, one of which belongs to the church. The market-house is a small square building. Tanning is the chief trade of the place, and in the neighbourhood are extensive nursery grounds occupied by gardeners, florists, and seedsmen, who take their produce to the Cambridge market. Markets on Thursday; fairs for horses and lambs, Holy Thursday and July 20.

LINTZ, or LINZ, a city of the Austrian dom. cap. of Upper Austria, on the Danube, which is here crossed by a wooden bridge 280 yards in length, 41 m. S. E. Passau, and 96 m. W. by N. Vienna, lat. 48° 18' 54" N., long. 14° 16' 45" E. Pop., in 1845, 31,000, ex. garrison. It consists of the city-proper and three suburbs, which, as in Vienna, are more extensive than the city itself. All travellers speak favourably of Linz. "This beautiful city has nothing of Germany in it, except its language. The houses, all handsome and lofty, are stuccoed and painted, chiefly white, but many yellow or light brown. Almost all have architectural decorations and columns, friezes over the windows, and Venetian blinds outside. Balconies with flowers salute the eye at every turn; and not only on the broad, spacious 'Place', but in the back streets also, the houses are lofty and elegant, and all look as clean, and white, and fresh, as if newly decorated and painted. We are sensible here of a decided change in

the atmosphere. The sky is cloudless; the heat not oppressive; and there is a peculiar soft balminess in the air. The people, too, are handsome and well clothed, and look happy. Lintz is celebrated for the beauty of its women, and as far as I can judge, justly." (*Turnbull's Austria*, i. 131, 132.) The principal streets are wide and regular, though, according to the *Austrian Encyc.*, most of them are badly paved, and the houses shingle-roofed. Lintz has few remarkable public buildings. The churches are generally handsome; several have glittering cupolas, and many are richly gilded and adorned with good paintings. The *Landhaus*, formerly a Franciscan convent, is the place of assembly for the states of the prov., and accommodates the principal government officers. The *Schloss*, or castle, on an eminence overlooking the Danube, was once the residence of the dukes of Austria, but is now the prison and penitentiary for the prov. In the principal square is a marble column, erected in 1723, between statues of Jupiter and Neptune, to commemorate the escape of the city from the double attack of the plague and the Turks.

Lintz is among the few German towns not encircled with continuous walls. Under the superintendence of the archduke Maximilian, it has recently been surrounded with a chain of 32 isolated forts, 23 being on the right, and 9 on the left bank of the Danube, at the distance of 1, 2, or 3 m. from the town. They communicate with each other by a covered way, and are placed at regular intervals in the plain or along the slopes and tops of the hills, in a circuit of 9 m. The highest eminence near the city, the Pöstlingberg, on the opposite side of the Danube, is surrounded by a cincture of 5 towers, forming a citadel. Each tower is 30 ft. high, and 80 ft. in diameter, built within a hill of sand, and sunk into the earth, so that the roof alone projects; and each has a glacis on the side farthest from the town. Each contains 3 stories; the lower serving as a storehouse and a powder-magazine, the middle as a lodging for troops, the third being the platform on the summit, which, when not used, is covered by a temporary roof. The platform is mounted with 10 guns, so arranged that they can be brought to bear upon any point with the greatest facility, and command the glacis by a cross-fire in every direction. There are also guns on the lower story bearing upon the ditch, to frustrate any attempt to cross it. In this mode of fortification each fort must be made the object of a separate attack; and the expense is trifling compared with the common method. But it is very doubtful whether it will oppose so effectual a resistance to an invading army as a single fortress, on an adequate scale, constructed according to the approved principles of the art. Owing to the demolition of the fortifications at Ulm by the French during the late war, there was not previously to the erection of these works, any fortress to defend the valley of the Danube between the frontier of France and Vienna. (*Murray's Handb. for S. Germany*, &c.)

Lintz is the seat of the provincial government, and the assembly of nobles for Upper Austria, and of tribunals and councils for the Mühl circle and the city; and is the see of a bishop. It has a lyceum, where courses of lectures are given in theology, philosophy, and medicine: the library belonging to this institution comprises about 40,000 vols.; but as they consist, for the most part, of works on R. Cath. theology, and such like subjects, they are of little or no use: if it were really a good collection, it would be of material service, for the reading-room is open to all the town, and under certain regulations, books may be taken home. Drawing-schools, and collections of mathematical and philosophical instruments are attached to the lyceum. It has also a gymnasium, an ecclesiastical seminary, a provincial academy of arts, an imperial collection of economical models, a normal high school, and school of arts, with 3 subordinate schools, 2 military schools, a school of engineering, a female school attached to the convent of the Ursuline nuns, and other seminaries; a military and another large hospital, various charitable institutions, a private deaf-and-dumb asylum, a musical society, &c., with large barracks, a custom-house, a bank, and a small but fine theatre. The public gardens in the vicinity are favourite places of resort.

Lintz has a large imperial factory of broad cloth, carpets, and other woollen stuffs, which occupies 7 contiguous houses, and is said, at one period, to have employed directly and indirectly 22,000 individuals: but this was most probably very far beyond the mark; and the introduction of machinery has since occasioned a material diminution of the numbers employed. Considerable quantities of the red woollen caps made here are sent to Turkey. Lintz has other woollen factories, with manufactures of cotton and silk goods, leather, gold lace, cards, tobacco, &c. Two fairs are held annually, one at Easter, and the other at the Assumption; and the transit trade by the Danube, especially since Lintz became a station for the steamers on the river, is very considerable, and employs several of the inhab. Two

railways meet at Lintz: one goes N. to Budweis in Bohemia 67 m., and was the first constructed in Germany; and the other to Grumunden on the Traun. It is intended to carry on the latter to Gräts, by way of Lobben and Brück: the mineral products of Styria, &c., will then be brought by it to the Danube, as the salt which supplies Upper Austria is at present from the *Salzkammergut*. (*Turnbull's Austria*, ii. 372.)

Lintz is supposed to have been known to the Romans, and it is said to possess some Roman antiquities. It was purchased by Leopold II., margrave of Austria, in 1036. In 1626, during the civil war of Upper Austria, it opposed a long and successful resistance to Fehdinger, the peasant leader, who was mortally wounded before its walls. The suburbs were then, however, destroyed by fire, and the castle and a part of the city suffered severely from the same cause in 1800. (*Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.*; *Berghaus*; *Turnbull's Austria*, &c.)

LIPARI ISLANDS, a group in that part of the Mediterranean, called the Tyrrhenian Sea: they are a dependency of Sicily, from the N. coast, of which they are from 10 to 40 m. distant, forming a part of the intend. of Messina, between lat. 38° 20' and 39° 55' N., and long. 14° 15' and 15° 15' E. Aggregate pop. of the group estimated at about 25,000, of whom about 12,500 belong to the town of Lipari. (*See post*). There are 7 principal islands, Lipari, Vulcano, Stromboli, Salini, Panaria, Feliciudi, and Alicudi; and a number of adjacent islets and rocks. They are all mountainous, rising abruptly on their W. side, and shelving down gradually towards the E.; and in addition to this uniformity, each island, with scarcely an exception, has a high isolated rock off its N. shore, a peculiarity extending even to the distant Isle of Ustica. They are evidently of volcanic origin, being composed chiefly of hornstone and granite, covered with lava, agave, pumice stone, and other volcanic products. Stromboli (which see), the most northerly of the islands, has the only volcano in Europe which is in constant activity. Lipari and Vulcano have also craters in which volcanic phenomena are occasionally manifest. Dolomieu, and others, suppose, with some show of reason, that Panaria, and the adjacent islets of Dattolo, Basaluzza, Lisca, &c., which are circularly disposed, once formed parts of the rim of the crater of an immense volcano, which has now disappeared under the waves, but which may have been the *Eoymus* of the ancients. (*Dolomieu*, pp. 108—109.)

The climate is highly salubrious, and the air pure and refreshing; storms and earthquakes are, however, frequent. Where the volcanic substances have been decomposed so as to form soil, it is very fertile; but it absorbs moisture so rapidly, that the inhab. are obliged to construct capacious cisterns, in which rain-water is carefully preserved for irrigation, and other purposes. Lipari, the central and largest of these islands, is about 18 m. in circuit. It was peopled by a colony of Cnidians, and is described by Strabo as having a fleet, and commanding the other islands. (*Strabo*, lib. vi.) The interior is rugged and broken, presenting hills of vitrified volcanic substances, which, though at least 3,000 years old, present no symptoms of decomposition; but it has, notwithstanding, two considerable plains, and some deep valleys, which are well cultivated, and productive. Exclusive of about a three months' supply of corn, it produces large quantities of fruit, especially grapes, with figs, prickly pears, olives, &c.: it also produces cotton, beans, and peas. Some wine is made; that called *Malvasia* being highly esteemed in Naples. Most of the grapes are, however, converted into raisins: they are prepared by placing the ripened grapes in an alkaline ley of ash, more or less impregnated with salt, and afterwards exposing them to the meridian sun. By this means, an extremely luscious raisin is produced. The agricultural products of the other islands are much the same as those of Lipari: in some, a few oxen are reared, but cattle are generally scarce and lean, the pastures being fit only for goats. Lipari was celebrated in antiquity for its hot springs and sutories; they are now, however, but little used. The only spring in the island is hot. (*Russell's Sicily*, p. 274.)

Lipari is the great magazine whence Europe is supplied with pumice-stone, its surface being almost wholly composed of that singular substance. Though so abundant in that island and Vulcano, pumice-stone is not found either in the neighbourhood of Etna or in the regions of extinct volcanoes on continental Europe, and only in small quantities in Vesuvius. It is of various kinds and degrees of specific gravity, one variety being so light as to float on water. It is used to polish marble, metals, pasteboard, &c., and fetches from 84. to 104. a ton in the London market. Other volcanic products, as sulphur, nitre, sal ammoniac, posolana, blumen, &c., are among the chief exports from the Lipari islands, and in these an active trade is carried on. The principal crater in Vulcano, the most S. of the islands, is covered with effluences and incrustations of the above products. Alum, however, which was formerly a great staple, and from which the Romans an-

ciently derived a considerable revenue, and the Lipariot merchants great profits, now scarcely exists as an article of commerce: the failure of its production is supposed to be owing to a diminution in the intensity of the subterranean fires.

Sulphur is still exported, but not to the extent that it might be, from the notion that the vapour arising from its purification infects the air and injures vegetation. Salina is so called from the salt-pan on its S.E. shore, which produce enough of that article for the supply of all the islands. The *pinna marina*, from whose silky filaments the Romans made imperial robes, abounds on the shores of Salina. Next to pumice stone, wine, raisins, currants, olives, salt, and sulphur, soda, capers, coral, and fish are the chief articles of export. The natives are generally poor, though few are in the extreme of poverty. They are industrious, hardy, and make good seamen; but they are immoral, filthy in their habits, and infested with scabies. (*Dodowicz, Voyage aux Iles de Lipari, 1—140; Smyth's Sicily, 1829.*)

These islands were called *Hekhestiades* by the Greeks, and *Vulcania* by the Romans, from their emitting smoke and flames; such places being supposed to be either inhabited by, or under the immediate protection of, Vulcan. Vulcano, however, was more especially sacred to the god of fire, and is said by Virgil to be

"Vulcani domus, et Vulcania nomine tellus."

They were also frequently called *Æolias* Isles, from *Æolus*, one of their sovereigns. This prince having learned, according to Pliny, to foretell, from observations made on the smoke of the volcanoes, the coming changes of the winds, was said by the poets to have the latter under his command. (*Hist. Nat., lib. iii. cap. 9.*) Virgil has described the power and functions of *Æolus* as ruler of the winds, in one of the finest passages of the "Æneid":—

"Hic vasto ræcæ æolus antro
Luctantes ventos, tempestatesque sonoras
Imperio premittit, ac vicibus et carcere frenat.
Illi indignantes magno cum murmure montis
Circum claustra fremunt. Cæcæ æolus antro,
Sceptra tenens; mollique animos, et temporalia rerum
Ni facies, maria ac terras calumpnie profundum
Quippe ferant rapidi sceleris, venturæque per arces."
Æneid. l. lin. 56—63.

LIPARI, the cap. town of the above group of islands, and of a canton under the intend. of Messina in Sicily, on a steep declivity on the E. side of Lipari Island; lat. 38° 27' 56", long. 14° 57' 50" E. Pop. 12,500. It is healthy, but crowded, irregular and dirty, with narrow streets, and ruinous public edifices; of which last the finest are the Capuchin convent, an hospital, a nunnery, and the bishop's palace. The castle, which encloses the cathedral and some other edifices, is erected in a commanding situation, on the summit of a volcanic rock. From fragments of the Cyclopean wall and other remains, Smyth conjectures that this was the identical Acropolis where the Romans, about anno 559 B.C., attempted to carry by escalade, but were repulsed and driven back with great loss by the Carthaginians under Hamilcar. (*Sicily, &c., 364.*) The greater part of the present fortress was built by Charles V., after Barbarossa had plundered the town in 1544. The cathedral is a neat edifice, but has been much injured by lightning. A college is established here, under which are 8 schools in different parts of the islands. Several Greek and other antiquities exist in and round the town: an excellent statue on the Marina, supposed to have been erected in honour of Timotheus, has, "by the addition of a copper nimbus, been converted into a saint." Lipari has an active trade in the produce of the islands with Messina, Palermo, Naples, &c. Its bay or harbour, nearly 2 m. in circuit, has deep water and tolerably good holding ground, but from want of a mole, it is not at all times secure. (*Smyth's Sicily, 263, 264., and Appendix; Russell; Brydson; Ramsdell, &c.*)

LIPETZK, a town of Russia in Europe, gov. Tambou, on the Voroneje, an affluent of the Don, 80 m. W. by S. from the cap. Pop. nearly 6,000. It has several churches, most of them of wood. It had at the end of the last century an imperial cannon foundry, employing nearly 1,500 hands, but it appears to be no longer in activity. A mineral spring, frequented by numerous visitors, was converted into a spa, under the auspices of Peter the Great, a statue of whom was erected in the town by one of its citizens, in 1839. (*Possart; Das Kaiserth; Russland, 570.*)

LIPPE-DETMOLD, a principality of N.W. Germany, between lat. 51° 47' 36" and 52° 11' N., and long. 8° 34' and 9° 26' E. having N.E. and E. territories belonging to Hesse-Cassel, Hanover, Waldeck, and Prussia, and being elsewhere surrounded by Prussian Westphalia. Area, 445 sq. m. Pop., in 1838, 82,970, the great bulk of whom, with the reigning family, are Calvinists. The country is in general hilly, especially its S.W. part, where the *Twübenbergwald* separates the basins of the Rhine and the Weser. The latter river

forms a part of the N. boundary: the Werra, one of its tributaries, is the other principal stream of Lippe-De-mold. The climate is one of the mildest and most agreeable in N. Germany. The mean temperature of the year, in the valleys and plains, is about 49° Fah.; and that of the winter, no lower than 35° Fah. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabs. Corn, of various descriptions, beans and peas, rape seed, flax, and hemp are the principal articles of culture. The country is well wooded, particularly with oak and beech, and timber is one of its most important products. A good many sheep and hogs, and excellent horses, are bred; and the rearing of bees is extensively pursued. About 20,000 centners of salt are annually produced from salt springs; and marble, lime, and iron are obtained in small quantities. The weaving of linen fabrics, and the spinning of linen yarn from the flax produced in the territory, partially occupy the rural pop. Berghaus says there are 3,000 looms in the principality; and that linen goods to the value of 1,000,000 rix dollars a year are made. There are some woollen cloth and glass factories, tanneries, distilleries, and paper-mills; and Lemgo has a manufacture of *weerschassum* pipe-bowls. These articles, after timber, linen stuffs, and yarn, and cattle, are the chief articles of export. The government is a constitutional and hereditary monarchy, remodelled in 1819; and vested in the prince, and a representative body, or diet of 31 members; 7 elected by the nobility and knights, 7 by the inhabs. of towns, and 7 by those of the rural dist. The diet is convoked every 2 years, and no new tax can be imposed without its consent. All questions relative to taxation are decided by the states in one assembly, by a majority of votes: on other questions, though the states deliberate together, they vote in 3 separate assemblies, the *deys* of the nobles and knights forming one by themselves. Appeal lies from the civil and criminal tribunals of the princip. to the high court at Wolfenbützel. The people are better informed than in many parts of Germany, the princes of Lippe-De-mold having, for a lengthened period, been liberal patrons of public instruction. The gymnasium at Lemgo, and the high school and teachers' seminary at Detmold, are in high estimation, many of the most celebrated scholars of Germany having received the early portion of their education at one or other of those establishments. Lippe-De-mold furnishes 691 men to the army of the German Confederation: it has one vote in the full council of that body; and, along with other small states (*see Vol. I. p. 894.*), a vote in the committee.

Detmold, the chief town and residence of the prince, and seat of government and of the superior judicial courts, &c., on the Werra, 54 m. E. Munster, lat. 51° 46' N., and long. 10° 33' 15" E., has 3,500 inhab. Lemgo, the Bega, the largest town in the principality, has 3,900 inhab., with a seminary for noble families, and an orphan asylum. (*Berghaus, Allg. Länder, &c., iv. 477—479; Cammabich; Alm. de Götting.*)

LIPPE-SCHAUMBURG. (*See SCHAUMBURG-LIPPE.*) LIRIA, a city of Spain, prov. Valencia, 18 m. N.W. Valencia. Pop., according to Mifano, 10,266. It partly occupies a space between two hills; but it is partly, also, on an acclivity, the summit of which is crowned by the ancient parish church *de la Sangre*. Another parish church, a chapel, and two monasteries, are the only other public buildings; and the town generally has a mean and neglected appearance. Its inhabs. are principally employed in the distillation of brandy, soap-boiling, tanning, tile-making, and the weaving of linen fabrics. The neighbourhood is well irrigated, and extremely productive. The marble quarried near Liria is also celebrated for its whiteness and fineness of grain. Its existence is traced by the Spaniards up to the time of the Carthaginians, who founded here the town of *Ederna*. Under the Romans it was called *Edicta*, and was the cap. of the country of the *Edictani*. Having passed successively into the hands of the Goths and Moors, it was finally added to the crown of Arragon in 1522.

LISBON (Port. *Lisboa*; an. *Oisipo*, and afterwards *Felicitas Julia*), the cap. city, and principal seaport of Portugal, in the comarca of its own name, admirably situated for commerce on the right bank, and near the mouth of the Tagus, 172 m. S. Oporto, 220 m. N.W. Cadix, and 320 m. W.S.W. Madrid. Lat. 38° 42' 34" N. Long. 9° 5' 50" W. Pop. 241,500, among whom are many negroes, and mulattoes. The city (as seen from the river) covering several hills with palaces, churches, convents, and dashing white houses, that rise more or less abruptly from the quays, has a magnificent and imposing appearance; but when the traveller has once landed, the delusion vanishes; for nothing can be more literally correct than the poetic description of Byron:

"Whose entrance within this town,
That shewing far, celestial seems to be,
Discomfited will wander up and down,
Mid many things unsightly to strange eyes;
For but and palace show like stilly;

The dingy denizens are rear'd in dirt,
No personage of high or mean degree
Doth care for cleanliness of street or shirt,
Though shent with Egypt's plague, unscant, unwhash'd, unhurt."
— *Childe Harold*, cant. I.

The streets are badly paved, and generally narrow, and the houses, with here and there a latticed window, have a melancholy appearance: while in filthiness and impurity of every description Lisbon may vie with Constantinople. Mrs. Baillie, who resided here for more than two years, describes its streets as sending forth "the most pestilential effluvia. Dogs of every mongrel breed, lean, lean, and voracious, lie about the streets in alarming numbers. Indeed Lisbon maintains no other scavengers." The police, however, has been improved, and scavengers now cleanse the wider streets; but the greater part of the city is still worthy its ancient notoriety for the want of cleanliness, and even decency. The E. quarter of the town not having been destroyed by the earthquake of 1755, is the oldest, and has very narrow irregular lanes, skirted by high old-fashioned and half-ruinous houses; but lower down in the plain to which the ravages of that calamity were confined, the town has been rebuilt in a regular manner, and excellently paved, and there are a few squares and open spaces, which contrast strikingly with the mean appearance of other parts. Lisbon is an open town; and its suburbs are so nearly connected with it, that it is difficult to define its limits. Measuring, however, from the small river Alcantara eastward, to the termination of the continuous buildings, we find it to be about $\frac{3}{4}$ m. in length; the breadth varies from 1 m. to $\frac{1}{4}$ m., so that its total area comprises about 3,000 acres. The whole of this space, however, is not covered with buildings; for many parts there are extensive plantations and gardens, public squares, and a vast extent of ground unoccupied, except by ruins and rubbish, the monuments of the catastrophe of 1755. Some houses also, have been thrown down, and others greatly injured by subsequent shocks; and there is, perhaps, no great presumption in anticipating, owing to the frequency of these phenomena, that Lisbon may one day or other again become the subject of a similar calamity to that by which it was so nearly destroyed. One of the largest squares is the *Praga do Commercio*, in the centre of which is the equestrian statue, in bronze, of Joseph I. The front, towards the river, is open, and flights of stone steps descend from it to the water: on the E. side are the custom-house, E. India-house, and exchange; the public library is on the W. side, and facing the river stands a fine building called the *Junta do Commercio*. The *Rocio* is another fine square, communicating with that last-mentioned by several well-built and uniform streets; and in it stand the scorched and blackened ruins of a large mansion recently burnt down, once the palace of the Inquisition, but afterwards converted into government offices. In this square were celebrated the *Judas de 17* which once disgraced Portugal, even more than the rest of Catholic Europe. Of these streets, one, the *Rua d'Ouro*, is chiefly occupied by goldsmiths and jewellers: the silvermiths live in the *Rua da Prata* (Silver Street), and a third is filled with the shops of cloth merchants and embroiderers. The haberdashers and other tradesmen have likewise their streets called after the trade to which they are appropriated. Among the other squares and remarkable places of Lisbon may be mentioned the *Praga da Figueira*, used as a market for fowls and vegetables; the *Praga das Amoreiras*, in the centre of which is a large reservoir whence water is supplied to the various fountains of the city; and the *Praga de Alegria*, now as formerly celebrated as the Rag-fair, or Monmouth Street, of Lisbon. The *Salitre*, leading from the *Passeio Publico* in the N. quarter of Lisbon, forms a cool and shady promenade; the quarter of Buenos Ayres, on the slopes W. of the town, is airy and pleasant, comprising many handsome residences, and a line of good streets runs westward over the bridge of Alcantara, connecting Lisbon with the suburb of Belem. The houses above the shops, and many others also, are let in separate floors, as at Madrid and Paris, and a common passage, not remarkable for cleanliness, leads to the door and staircase of each. The police, so inefficient during the peninsular war, that Byron might correctly have pictured Lisbon as

"That purple land, where law secures not life,"

was much improved after the peace by the establishment of Novion's police; but this useful body was broken up at the time of Don Miguel's expulsion, and property as well as life are almost as unsafe as ever. The streets, with the exception of a few great thoroughfares, are scarcely lighted at all: there are plenty of fountains; but water is not used to clean the streets, and there is no attempt at sewerage. Fires are frequent; but they are not destructive, owing, in part, to the solid construction of the buildings, and in part to the unfrequent use of domestic fires, and the formation of the *agoadeiros* or Gal-

cian water-carriers into corps, stationed at different parts, to convey water from the fountains on the first alarm. These, of whom there are about 7,000, are generally employed in Lisbon to carry burdens and perform the more severe labour. The work of porters, however, at the custom-house and India-house is done by the Portuguese, to the entire exclusion of the Gallegos.

Few cities of Europe are so scantily supplied with fine public buildings. The custom-house, exchange, and India-house are large and handsome; but besides these there are scarcely any except the churches and convents, which crown the hills, and look like palaces and fortresses. Some of the former, rebuilt since the earthquake, are very spacious, and profusely decorated in the worst taste. The principal of these are, 1. the cathedral, a large Moorish building restored in 1770, and situated on the slope of the hill on which is the *castello*, or citadel; 2. the church *Do Coracao de Jesus*, the largest and most sumptuous sacred edifice built since 1755, surmounted by a finely-proportioned dome, and remarkable as containing a mausoleum dedicated to its founderess, the queen Maria; 3. the ancient church of the Martyrs, erected on the spot where Alphonso I. mounted the walls of Lisbon, and took it from the Moors; and, lastly, the elegant but still unfinished church of Santa Engracia, which not having been touched for the last thirty years, a proverb has come into use, entitling all incomplete undertakings as *obras de Santa Engracia*. Here, also, we may mention the church of San Geronimo, at Belem, built by King Emanuel in 1499, and exhibiting a fine specimen of the ornamental Gothic and Arabic styles: in the interior is a royal mausoleum. The convents, which are of large size, form a principal feature in the town; but, since the suppression of the monasteries in 1835, Lisbon has lost much of its monkish appearance, the buildings have been converted to public uses, or sold to private individuals, and the wealth has been thrown into the national treasury. The English built a Protestant chapel in 1822 contiguous to a cemetery, in which, among other remains of our countrymen, lie those of the celebrated Henry Fielding, who died here on the 8th of October, 1754, at the early age of 48. Among the other public structures, the fine aqueduct of *Agua Fwres*, deserves mention as one of the greatest works of modern Europe, and which will bear comparison even with the grand specimens of ancient bridge architecture. It brings water from several springs about three leagues N.W. of the city: its course is partly underground; but as it approaches Lisbon, and crosses the deep valley of the Alcantara, it is carried over 38 bold marble arches for a length of about 2,400 ft. The water enters the town at the *Praga das Amoreiras*, where, as before mentioned, is the great reservoir from which water is distributed to the various fountains, and whence the Galician *agoadeiros* draw the supplies, which they sell from house to house, and hawk about the streets. The palace of Necessidades, in which the present queen has resided and held her courts ever since the death of the late king-consort at Ajuda, is small and mean-looking, and the palace of Bemposta is equally unworthy so imposing a name; but the palace of Ajuda, near Belem, lately completed, is a large building, and, notwithstanding its faults of architecture, may rank as one of the finest in Europe. The arsenal, post-office, mint, corn-exchange, two public hospitals (one of which, called the hospital of San Joseph, is extremely well conducted, and has accommodation for 1,500 patients, with an attached school of medicine), the nobles' college, and the palace of Calharis, are the only other national buildings of any importance, except the theatres. The opera-house of San Carlos is a large building of good proportions, with a noble box in the centre for the royal family; and Dr. Wilde, a very recent traveller in Portugal, says that the opera enjoys a well deserved popularity, the singing being very good, and the ballet really admirable. (*Narrative*, vol. I. p. 49.) There is a theatre for the performance of the national drama; but it is small and mean, and the plays as well as the performers are of an inferior character. Lisbon, also, like Madrid and Seville, has a bull-ring, the size of which, however, will bear no comparison with the latter, nor are the performances so splendidly appointed or well managed. It must be observed, however, that the people of Lisbon visit the opera rather in obedience to fashion than from any desire for amusement: the bull-fights are not attended, as in Spain, by the *elite* of society, and the national drama is chiefly supported by the *bourgeoisie*. Out-of-door amusements are seldom sought, except water-excursions, in which the people generally take great pleasure; the shores of the Tagus are indeed most beautiful; the country on the opposite side offers many interesting objects, as Almada, Barreiro Seixal, Setubal the convent of Arrabida, &c.

The literary and educational institutions of the Portuguese cap. comprise, 1. a Royal Academy of Sciences, founded in 1778, having a good library and museum, and publishing memoirs and scientific works; 2. a patriotic

Mercury society established in 1822, and sending forth a journal of its proceedings, a society for promoting national industry, and the following establishments, either wholly or in part supported by the government, viz. a school of commerce attended by about 150 pupils, a royal naval academy, a royal academy of engineering, a school of surgery, a music school, 12 schools of logic and rhetoric, 12 others for classical instruction, and 18 primary schools; but they are ill supported, inefficiently conducted, and have been, till very lately, remarkable rather for their antiquated style of instruction than for positive and general usefulness. The national public library of Lisbon in the Praça do Commercio has been much enriched by the addition of books formerly belonging to the monasteries, and probably now contains about 150,000 printed vols. besides MSS. The library of the Cortes in the *Hospício real de nossa Senhora das Necessidades*, where that body holds its sittings, comprises about 30,000 vols.; and that belonging to the theological seminary of San Vicente do Fora has about 18,000 vols.: but the books in these collections are chiefly ecclesiastical and old, while the departments of science, modern literature, and modern history, are almost entirely neglected. In fact, Portuguese literature, down to a very recent period, had been for many years in a state of stagnation, and the institutions of Lisbon are now only slowly recovering from the lethargy in which they had been buried upwards of thirty years. Besides the establishments already described may be mentioned the Royal printing-office, and the cabinet of natural history and botanic garden at Ajuda. Several newspapers are published in the cap.; but they are without exception badly conducted, and exercise very little influence either on society or government.

The harbour, or road of Lisbon, is one of the finest in the world, and the quay, which extends nearly 2½ m. along the banks, are at once convenient and beautiful. Fort St. Julian, built on a steep projecting rock, marks the N. entrance of the Tagus; and on it is a light-house, rising 120 ft. above the sea level. Two large banks, called the N. and S. Cacophs, obstruct the river mouth, and on the middle of the latter stands the Bugio fort and lighthouse, the latter being 66 ft. high. The least depth of water on the bar in the N. channel is 4 fathoms, and in the S. 6 fathoms; and there is little danger in entering the port, except during ebb tides, which run out at the rate of 7 m. an hour. Inside the harbour the water from nearly 20 fathoms in mid-channel shoals gradually to the edge; but in some parts vessels may come within 200 yards of the shore. Lisbon, however, with all the advantages of its position and the excellence of its port, which commands the navigation of the Tagus, holds but a low rank in respect of commerce and industry. The despotism, intolerance, and imbecility of the government have weighed down the national energies, and the insecurity both of life and property, in consequence of bad laws and an inefficient police, have paralysed industry of every description.

The foreign trade of Lisbon, formerly of considerable importance, but, perhaps, at all times, much overrated, has rapidly declined since the emancipation of Brazil. She had formerly about 400 ships, varying in burden from 200 to 600 tons, engaged in the South American trade; but at present only 50 vessels are employed in that trade, the average burden of which does not exceed 150 tons. Indeed, the produce of Portugal now sent to foreign countries is almost entirely conveyed to its destination in foreign ships. A small number of sea-going ships belonging to the port, probably about 60, of the aggregate burden of 9,000 tons, are engaged in foreign trade, partly with the E. Indies and China, but chiefly between Setúbal (or St. Ubes) and Cork, exporting salt in return for butter; and about 300 small craft are employed in the coasting trade. The following table shows the number and flags of different ships that entered and left Lisbon in 1837-38:—

Countries.	Arrived.		Departed.	
	1837.	1838.	1837.	1838.
British	290	274	285	315
Portuguese	568	371	559	371
Swedish	6	19	7	70
Dutch	58	50	55	50
Russian	18	31	16	37
Spanish	14	27	14	27
Sardinian	12	21	16	21
American	11	19	10	19
French	24	19	23	19
Hannoverian	9	17	17	17
Hamburgh	12	15	11	15
All others	89	26	84	26
Total of ships	1,173	1,033	1,180	1,023

The exports comprise wine, oil, fruit, and salt; among the imports are, hemp, flax, and linen cloths from Russia; iron, steel, salt fish, timber, pitch, and tar from the Baltic; linens, corn, &c. from Holland and

Germany; silks from France; and cotton and woollen goods, cod-fish, hardware, ale and porter, linen, coals, and earthenware from England, which engrosses fully 7-8ths of the trade in foreign bottoms. The following account of the articles imported into Lisbon from the British dominions, in 1837, though imperfect, will give a tolerable idea of the present state of the trade between the two countries.

Description.	Quantities.	Value.
Cotton goods	10,202 cases	293,444
Woolen do.	1,340 bales	136,448
Linen do.	618 cases	17,696
Butter	12,205 firkins	30,380
Cod-fish	24,837 quintals	67,791
Wrought metals	13,856 casks	26,969
Drugs	2,554	15,498
Earthenware	937 crates	12,137
Tea	814 chests	10,438
Coals	678,653 arrobas	11,516
Iron	12,009 quintals	5,301
All other articles		46,880
Total value of imports from Great Britain		776,396

The port of Lisbon is open to all nations, all articles, except corn and flour, being allowed to be warehoused. Goods so admitted, with the exception of vinegar, wine, and spirits, pay 15 per cent. on the new tariff valuation of 1837, and, where there is no tariff, *ad valorem*. All exported articles pay a duty of 4 per cent. *ad valorem*. There is no regular warehousing and bonding system at Lisbon: all imported dry goods are allowed to lie in the custom-house stores two years, and liquids, six months, without charge, provided they are intended for consumption, and pay duty accordingly; otherwise, if re-exported, they pay 2 per cent. The port charges on a foreign ship of 300 tons, entering with a general or mixed cargo, and clearing out with the same, average 56,260 reis, or 11½ p., nearly 4-5ths of which are tonnage and light dues, the former being 100 reis, and the latter 60 reis, per ton. There are 3 respectable insurance companies—the *Fidelidade*, *Restauração*, and *Bonança*,—in any of which insurances may be effected.

Lisbon has some fabrics of silk, paper, and soap; there are sugar refineries, tan-yards, and potteries; and its goldsmiths and jewellers are amongst the most expert in Europe; but in every pursuit it is to be perceived a want of energy and industry, to be traced perhaps to the character of the people as well as to political causes. With respect to the character of other artisans, Mrs. Baillie observes: "It is surprising how ignorant, or at least superficially acquainted, the Portuguese are with the commonest branches of handicraft: a carpenter is awkward and clumsy, spoiling every work he attempts, and the way in which the doors and wood-work, even of good houses are finished, would have suited the rudest ages. Their carriages of all kinds, from the *fidalgos*' family coach to the peasant's market-cart, their agricultural implements, cutlery, locks and keys, &c., are ludicrously bad. They seem to disdain improvement, and are so infinitely below par, so strikingly inferior to the rest of Europe, as to form a sort of disgraceful wonder in the midst of the 19th century!" (*Lisbon*, l. 74.)

The bank of Lisbon, founded in 1822, had a capital in 1833 of about 681,100*l.* divided into 1000 shares. The bank discounts bills not having more than three months to run, at 8 per cent.; and it enjoys the singular but valuable privilege of having its claims on all estates paid in full, provided the estate amounts to so much, other creditors being obliged to content themselves with a division of the residue, if there be any. For weights and measures, see PORTUGAL; and for commercial details, see *Commercial Dictionary*, art. LISBON.

The climate of Lisbon is variable, but, on the whole, healthy and genial, notwithstanding the cold piercing winds from the sea, which are disagreeable even during the scorching heats of summer, with the thermometer at 96° and 100°: heavy rains prevail in Nov. and Dec., but it seldom snows: cold clear weather is usual in Jan. and spring commences about the middle of Feb.

The pop. of Lisbon is of an extremely varied character: nearly a third of the lower orders are Gallegos, blacks, or mulattos, who, though the worst used and least considered, have a just claim to rank as the most hardy and industrious people of the cap. Genoese, Spaniards, and a few French, also, are employed, as gardeners or as innkeepers, cooks, and stewards. The lower orders of the Portuguese, who are seen, perhaps, to more advantage in Lisbon than in any other part of the kingdom, are remarkable for their indolence and disregard of the comforts of life; but we believe that these evils are owing, in a great measure, to the total want of education, the influence of a debasing superstition, and the badness of the government. Garlic, rancid oil, dried fish, and goat-cheese, which constitute their favourite food, are easily procurable; and so unconquerable is the predilection for the *dolce far niente*, occasioned in part, we

doubt, by their climate, that they very seldom work except for a bare subsistence. That contempt of cleanliness which is more or less evinced by all but the very highest classes, is most striking and revolting in the lower orders, whom Mr. Semple has well described as "a swarthy, meagre race, generally clothed in rags, and filthy beyond endurance." Irascibility and revengefulness are features of character common to all the inhab. of the peninsula; but to these the Portuguese adds cowardice, and hence assassinations and night attacks are far more common than in Spain. There can be no question, however, that the statements of travellers on this subject are greatly overcharged, or at least do not apply to the present period. Honesty and veracity are virtues seldom met with, unless among the merchants and better class of tradesmen; but there are some exceptions, particularly among domestic servants, who are usually respectful, attentive, and attached to the families by whom they are employed. The merchants are an important body, not inactive in business, and tolerably wealthy, considering the great diminution of their resources since the separation of Brazil from the crown of Portugal; but their habits are modelled on those of foreign countries, or from intercourse with the English and French, many of whom, especially the former, have considerable commercial establishments in Lisbon, and constitute, in fact, its best society. The Portuguese of the aristocratic classes are more grave, reserved, and proud than the Spaniards, against whom all orders of the people entertain a deep-rooted, national antipathy. Their neighbours, however, are not far behind them in the violence of their prejudices, if we may judge from the Spanish proverb: "Strip a Spaniard of all his virtues, and you make him a good Portuguese." Lisbon, as a place of residence, is somewhat dull, especially after Madrid. There are no public walks or lounges, like the Prado and the Puerta de Sol, unless, indeed, the "Tapada," a kind of paddock, on the road to Belem, may be reckoned among them; and even if there were, they would probably be little frequented; nor are the evenings rendered less tedious by the nightly tertulia, a pleasing feature in the society of Madrid. Families live much among themselves, seldom seeing company; neither sex is disposed to much exercise; and their chief pleasure is during summer, when they live in the retirement of their beautiful quintas, a great number of which are situated where—

"Cintra a glorious Eden intervenes
In variegated mass of mount and glen."

The dress of the middle and higher classes of men differs little from that in England, except that a cloak or loose great coat is commonly worn over the dress both in winter and summer. The ladies spend absurdly large sums on their wardrobe; but their dress is tawdry and showy. Jewellery and gay-coloured shawls and mantillas are highly fashionable, coloured shoes being worn by walkers even in the filthiest streets of the city; indeed, ostentation and glare are prevailing features in the costume of Lisbon females, which forms a striking but unfavorable contrast with the sombre but luxurious dress of the ladies of Madrid. The diet of the people of Lisbon differs exceedingly from that of the French or Spaniards. Oil and garlic, the former usually thick and rancid, are unvarying ingredients at breakfast and supper, which are the principal meals: Indian corn and barley often supply the place of wheat; tea is little used, but chocolate is indispensable at breakfast, the accompaniments being hot beef steaks, fish, &c. Rice is the invariable accompaniment of dinner, served up with boiled beef, ham, and fried sausages, all which are eaten promiscuously. The cuisine, however, of the higher classes is somewhat better conducted; but want of taste in these matters is universal. Fish is excellent, and cheap; and its market, in quality and variety at least, might vie with that of London. Abstemiousness in eating is little practised, even by the tender sex; but temperance in the use of wine is almost universal. Domestic habits are much more common among the middle classes in Lisbon than in Madrid; but both men and women marry at a very early age, and the parties are generally lustiferous, often even unknown to each other, the parents being the only negotiators of these unions, which may justly be called *mariages de convenance*. This accounts for, and perhaps in some measure excuses, the prevalence of conjugal infidelity, which is quite as common here, though scarcely so obtrusive, as in Spain.

The vicinity of Lisbon, ugly and uninteresting as is the city itself, presents most striking and delightful scenery. Orange and olive trees, cypresses, and judas-trees, grow not only in the gardens, but in the open country. To the E. and N. of Lisbon are numerous quintas or country-houses, with rich plantations and vineyards; and about 6 m. N.W. of the cap. is Cintra (which see), a place that holds the same relation to Lisbon as a resort of Sunday visitors, that Richmond does to London, and the romantic beauties of which have been celebrated by Byron, in

language full of poetic beauty, and admirably descriptive of the scenery:—

"The horrid crags by toppling convent crown'd,
The cork-trees hoar, that clothe the shaggy steep,
The mountain moss by scorching skies imbrown'd,
The sunken glen, whose sunless shrubs rust weep,
The tender azure of the unruddied deep,
The orange tints that glid the greenest bough,
The tress that from cliff to valley hangs below,
The vine on high, the willow-branch below,
Mix'd in one mighty scene, with varied beauty glow."

Childe Harold, c. l.

The valley of Collares, extending W. from Cintra, is one of the best cultivated, as well as richest, spots in the kingdom, and may very correctly be termed the nursery-garden of Lisbon, since the markets of that city are chiefly supplied from this quarter with fruit and vegetables; neither must it be forgotten that the genuine Carcavello wine is made from a peculiar grape raised in this district. About 8 m. from Cintra is the palace and convent of Mafra, called, though very improperly, the Escurial of Portugal. (See MAFRA.) W. and S.W. of Lisbon the country is not so well cultivated, the hills (formed of basalt, covered with limestone) being more rocky and naked, and extending W. several miles beyond Belem. This suburb (for though Belem is 2½ m. from the Praça do Commercio, it is connected by a nearly continuous line of streets), inhabited by about 8,000 persons, chiefly belonging to the nobility and wealthy citizens, may justly be called the west end of Lisbon. The church of San Geronimo has already been mentioned. The tower of Belem, another striking object, is the great customs-station of the port, whence the officers board all vessels entering the Tagus; close to it is a good quay, and without the village are the castle of Ajuda, and the *quinta da Rainha*, with gardens, menageries, &c., open to strangers.

Lisbon was anciently called *Olistipo*, a name derived, as some say, from a legend that it was founded by Ulysses; the Romans changed its name to *Felicitas Julia*, giving it the privileges of a *municipium*, and the ruins of an ancient theatre near the cathedral warrant the inference that it was then a place of some note. The Moors captured the city in A. D. 716, and, with some slight exceptions, it remained under their power till, in 1145, Alphonso I. made it one of the capitals of Christendom. In the 14th century, Ferdinand I. surrounded the city with walls; but it attained no great importance till the reign of Emanuel the Great (1495–1521), who made it the principal port of the kingdom at a time when the Portuguese were distinguishing themselves above the other nations of Europe in maritime discovery, and wealth was fast pouring in from the recently explored regions of the east. Its subsequent history is so intimately connected with that of Portugal, that we beg to refer the reader to that article. But we cannot conclude this brief account of Lisbon without noticing the earthquake of 1755, by far the most tremendous, and most extensively felt, that has occurred in modern times. On the first of November, in the above year (a festival-day, on which all the churches were lighted up, and crowded with devotees), a sound like that of thunder was heard under ground, and immediately afterwards a violent shock threw down the greater part of the city, destroying about 60,000 human beings in six minutes! The sea first retired and laid the bar dry; it then rolled in, rising 50 feet, or more, above its ordinary level. The neighbouring mountains, among the highest in Portugal, were impetuously shaken, and some of them opened at their summits, which were split and rent, huge masses of rock being thrown down into the subjacent valleys. But the most extraordinary circumstance was the subsidence of an extensive marble quay, on which great crowds had collected for safety. It suddenly sank with all the people on it, and not one of their bodies ever floated to the surface; nor were those in boats and vessels, on the Tagus, much more fortunate, great numbers being destroyed in the whirlpool occasioned by this catastrophe. This earthquake destroyed also the sea-port of Setubal, and a village about 20 m. from Morocco, with nearly all their inhab. Violent shocks being, at the same time, felt all over W. Europe, in N. Africa, and even in the W. Indies and S. America. (Lyell's *Geology*, li. 239.) From this disaster, Lisbon has never entirely recovered. The celebrated Marquis de Pombal, the chief minister of Portugal at the time, exerted himself to have it rebuilt on a regular plan, and to him it owes the few good streets in the neighbourhood of Rocio, the rest of the city presenting either ancient and crazy buildings crowded together in the greatest disorder, or heaps of ruins and rubbish all but rent, huge masses of rock being thrown down into the subjacent valleys of the Portuguese, and of a calamity which all but annihilated one of the capitals of Europe. In 1807, the French army, under Junot, occupied Lisbon for a short time after their defeat at Vimiera; but they were soon driven from it by the combined Anglo-Portuguese army. Lord Wellington, in the same year, for-

titled the famous lines of Torres Vedras, which, in 1809, proved a sufficient defence against a fresh invasion of the French under Massena. (*Bullie's Lisbon*, 2 vols. passim; *Matthew's Diary of an Invalid*, pp. 10-28; *Sir C. Brooke's Trav. in Spain and Morocco*, l. pp. 8-11; *Wilde's Narr.*, l. pp. 40-52; *Mod. Trav. and Priv. Inform.*)

LISBURN, an inland town and par. bor. of Ireland, co. Antrim, par. Ulster, on the Lagan, and on the high road from Belfast to Dublin, 8 m. S.S.W. the former, and 80 m. N. by E. the latter.

This is one of the handsomest, best built, and cleanest towns in the N. of Ireland. It consists principally of a main street along the great road. Its church has been constituted the cathedral of the united dioceses of Down and Connor. It has also a R. Cath. chapel, a Presbyterian, 2 Methodist, and 1 Quaker meeting-house; a national school, 2 infant schools, and a school for the education of Quaker children, supported by the voluntary subscriptions of its members, several almshouses, the infirmary for the co., a market-house, which contains a suite of assembly rooms, and a court-house, formerly a place of worship for the Huguenot settlers. (See post.)

"The Lagan river, on which the town is situated, runs into the head of Belfast Lough, and divides the co. of Antrim from that of Down; it also separates a small suburb from Lisburn, no part of which is in the bor., though in the same par. (now in par. bor.). Great improvements for the Lagan, and a canal in Lisburn by the Marquis of Hertford, who is the owner of the fee of the whole town, and of a considerable part of the surrounding country. A canal runs from Lough Neagh into the river Lagan near the town, by which agricultural produce is conveyed to Belfast. Damask of the most beautiful description is manufactured in the town, as well as muslin and linen, though the two latter branches have fallen off considerably. There are also extensive vitriol works on an island formed by the canal and river." (*Parl. Estuary Report*)

Under a patent from Charles II. Lisburn sent 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C. The franchise was originally vested in the potwallopers; but was restricted by the 35 Geo. 3. cap. 29. to the 54 householders. Since the Union it has sent 1 mem. to the Imperial H. of C. The present par. bor. comprises 1,264 acres; and had, in 1841, a pop. of 7,524. Registered electors, 1845-50, 163.

Court-leets are held twice a year; a manorial court of record, with jurisdiction to the amount of 20s.; and another for debts to 40s. every third Wednesday. The workhouse for Lisburn, opened in 1841, has accommodation for 1,450 inmates. Petty sessions are held every Tuesday. It is a constabulary station. Markets on Tuesday; fairs, July 21., and Oct. 5. Post-office revenue, in 1845, 4800.; in 1848, 5100. A branch of the Northern Bank was opened here in 1835.

This, which was long an obscure place, owed its first rise to the erection of a castle by Lord Conway, about 1637. It repulsed the Irish forces under Sir Phelim O'Neal with great slaughter, at the breaking out of the rebellion of 1641, and in 1649, and a similar attack by General Monck, who a few years afterwards, was defeated near the town by the parliamentary forces. Shortly after the Revolution, a body of Huguenots, who emigrated from France on the revocation of the edict of Nantes, settled here, and introduced the finer branches of the linen manufacture, to which the town is mainly indebted for its prosperity. The castle, which was burnt down with a part of the town in 1707, has never been rebuilt.

LISIEUX (an. *Lisewissum*), a town of France, dép. Calvados, cap. arrond. on the Touques, 27 m. E. by S. Caen. Pop. in 1846, 11,245. It has but one good street, which forms part of the road between Caen and Evreux; and all the others are narrow and crooked, and the houses built of wood, antiquated, and *triste*. It is, however, very well situated, and has environs of much beauty. Its cathedral, a Gothic edifice of the 12th century, has attached to it a fine chapel, dedicated to the Virgin, of a later date than the rest of the building. The bishop's palace, surrounded by noble gardens, the hospital, and the theatre, are all good buildings. Lisieux is the seat of courts of primary jurisdiction and commerce, and of a communal college, and has manufactures of woollen and cotton cloth, flannel, cotton and linen yarn, leather and brandy, and many bleaching factories and dyeing-houses. It was formerly a fortress of some consequence, and was frequently besieged and captured during the middle ages. (*Hugo*, art. *Calvados*, &c.)

LISKEARD, or LESKARET, a par. and mun. bor., market town, and par. of England, co. Cornwall, hund. West, 11 m. E. Bodmin, and 205 m. W. by S. London. Area of par., which is very nearly co-extensive with the par. bor., 7,740 acres. Pop. of par. bor. in 1841, 4,326. The town, which is mainly built with narrow streets, appears still more irregular in consequence of its site, partly in a hollow and partly on rocky heights, the foundations of some of the houses being on a level with the chimneys of others. Of late years, however, it has been considerably improved by the erection of large and

handsome modern houses in the immediate environs. The town-hall, built at the beginning of the 18th century, is a large and somewhat elegant building supported by granite pillars. The church is a spacious Gothic structure, with a tower of more recent erection: the living is a vicarage, of the net annual value of 383s. An ancient free grammar school has been allowed, with other charities, to go to decay (*Comm. 3rd Report*, part i.); but a national school for both sexes, and a school of industry for girls, are efficiently conducted and well attended.

Liskeard, once a town of some consequence in the duchy as the principal place for the coining and stamping of tin, has at present neither manufactures nor commerce, but it is the market of an extensive agricultural district. It has some trade in the metals of the adjacent mining districts, and there are likewise tanneries, ropewalks, &c. Markets on Saturday; fairs, Shrove-Monday, Monday before Palm-Sunday, Holy-Thurs., Aug. 15., Oct. 2., and the Monday after Dec. 6., for horses, cattle, sheep, and corn.

Liskeard (an. *Lis-kerrad*, meaning a fortified post) received its charter of incorporation in 1240, from Richard earl of Cornwall, which was subsequently confirmed by several sovereigns, and among others by Queen Elizabeth. According to the Municipal Reform Act, it is governed by a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 12 councillors; it has a commission of the peace under a recorder, revenue in 1847-48, 3440s. From the reign of Edw. III. down to the passing of the Reform Act this bor. enjoyed the privilege of sending 2 mems. to the H. of C., who, for many years previously, though formally elected by the freemen, were, in fact, nominees of the Earl of St. Germans. The Reform Act deprived Liskeard of one of its mems., and at the same time enlarged the bor. so as to comprise the entire par. with such parts of the old bor. as are without the par. Reg. electors in 1849-50, 324.

LISLE, or LILLE (Flem. *Rijsel*), a strongly fortified city of France, dép. du Nord, of which it is the cap., on the canal connecting the Scarpe and Lys, in a spacious plain 9 m. from the Belgian frontier, and 124 m. N.N.E. Paris. Lat. 50° 37' 50" N.; long. 2° 4' 31" E. Pop., in 1846, 67,775. The shape of the city is oval; length N.W. to S.E. 1½ m., and greatest breadth about half as much. It is surrounded by a line of walls and bastions; beyond which, on its N.W. side, is the citadel, a regular pentagon, with a double ditch and extensive outworks, containing extensive barracks, &c. of the quartermaster's magazines. This fortress has been considered the *chef-d'œuvre* of Vauban; and, in fact, Lille is one of the strongest cities of Europe. It is entered by 7 gates, the most southerly of which, or the *Porte de Paris*, is a handsome Doric arch, built in 1682, to commemorate the military exploits of Louis XIV., who is represented as crowned by Victory in a group over the centre, the sides of the arch being flanked by colossal statues of Hercules and Minerva (or Mars, according to Hugo). Few French towns are generally so well laid out as this, though some parts, principally inhabited by the manufacturing population, are of the most wretched description. There are nearly 300 streets, the principal of which are straight and wide; and 37 squares and market places, the largest, the *Grande Place*, being 170 yards in length by nearly 80 in breadth. The houses are mostly modern, and in a solid, plain style, built chiefly of brick, but in part of stone from the neighbouring quarries. Few have more than 2 or 3 stories. Of late years, many have been built with areas in front; and foot pavements are becoming pretty general in the principal thoroughfares. Lille has many large and conspicuous public edifices. The *Hôtel de Ville* is the most remarkable, though without any great beauty. It is a heterogeneous assemblage of buildings of different epochs, appropriated to various purposes, as the tribunal of commerce, council of *prud'hommes*, *dépot* for the *octrois*, police office, the residences of the chief civil and military authorities, society of sciences and arts, museum of natural history, cabinet of physical objects, library of archives, &c. It was originally a palace, constructed by the dukes of Burgundy in the 18th century; and was inhabited in 1524 by the Emperor Charles V. In 1700 it was partly destroyed by fire; but its ancient hall of convalescence still exists, ornamented with some fine wainscoting, and several good paintings by Arnold de Vues. In this chapel are preserved the likenesses of all the counts and countesses of Flanders, of the House of Burgundy. The church of St. Catherine, of simple and elegant architecture, is unfortunately hidden by mean buildings; it still possesses the magnificent painting by Rubens, of the martyrdom of St. Catherine, which luckily escaped destruction during the phrensy of the Revolution; though the elaborately ornamented door of the choir was then carried off. A telegraph is erected on the tower of this edifice. The church of St. Maurice, built in the 12th century, is the largest and oldest in the city, but its tower, which had

become unsafe, has been removed. Previously to the Revolution, it possessed numerous excellent paintings; and it has still a St. Nicholas by Vanderburgh, and a martyrdom of St. Maurice by L. Jan. St. Madeline, with a handsome cupola, is the only other church worthy of remark. There are 5 hospitals. The *Hôpital Général*, founded in 1733, is a fine but unfinished pile of building, of great extent, and usually accommodating 1,500 patients. The *Hôpital Comtesse*, founded in the 13th century, by the daughter of Baldwin, Count of Flanders, and Emperor of Constantinople, though it suffered greatly from fire in 1687, preserves all the characteristics of its original style of architecture. Its chapel has some good paintings by Vues. The military hospital is large, well aired, and altogether one of the best in France. In 1814, a school of military surgery was established in it. Several large barracks are situated in different parts of the city. Lille has had a mint since a very early period; and of late, steam has been used in its machinery. The Protestant church, synagogue, *abatôir* or public slaughter-house, exchange, the prisons, the theatre, constructed in 1785, concert-hall, and prefecture, the last three being handsome buildings, are the remaining principal public edifices. Lille has numerous benevolent institutions, a communal college, a public library with 21,000 volumes, well arranged, and comprising some valuable MSS., and a gallery of paintings comprising some admirable works of Vandike, Rubens, Vues, and other masters of the Flemish, French, and other schools. In 1834, this gallery was enriched by a collection of designs from the Italian school. A royal academy of music, academies of drawing, architecture, botany, &c.; a botanic garden, and various learned societies, nearly complete the list of public establishments. The canal on which Lille is built has several branches navigable for small trading vessels, which pervade the city. In its progress by and through Lille, different parts of this canal are called the upper, middle, and lower Doule; along the middle Doule, or portion between the town and the citadel, is a fine *esplanade*, the favourite resort of the upper classes. The middle Doule is here crossed by a handsome bridge, the *Pont Royal*, or *Pont Napoléon*; the other bridges are in no wise remarkable. Lille has few public fountains, and, in fact, the want of good water is the greatest inconvenience suffered by the city; nearly the whole supply has to be drawn from the canal, and is of very inferior quality. Beyond the walls are several suburbs, chiefly inhabited by the manufacturing pop.

Lille is one of the chief seats of the French cotton manufacture. Calicoes, cotton handkerchiefs, *indianes*, stockings, and cotton yarn, are the goods principally produced. The manufacture of table linen, linen thread, and lace, is also considerable; and fine woollen cloths, velvets, serges, hats, leather, paper, beet-root sugar, Geneva, soap, and minerals, are made, some to a greater, and some to a less extent. Government has here a tobacco manufactory and a saltpetre refinery; and the neighbourhood is studded with bleaching grounds and oil mills; and it is in the centre of some very extensive beet-root plantations. Steam power is extensively employed in the different manufactures. We regret to have to add, that the condition of the work-people employed in the different factories appears to be, speaking generally, exceedingly bad, and decidedly worse, indeed, than in any other town of France. M. Villermé says, that 4 out of every 12 persons are in a state of absolute indigence. Between 3,000 and 4,000 cotton weavers and twisters live in small, damp, ill ventilated, underground cellars, crowded to excess, and in the most deplorable state of poverty. After describing these wretched hovels, and the still more wretched furniture, M. Villermé adds:—"Je voudrais ne rien ajouter à ce détail des choses hideuses qui résistent, au premier coup d'œil, la profonde misère des malheureux habitants; mais je dois dire, que, dans plusieurs des lits dont je viens de parler, j'ai vu reposer ensemble des individus des deux sexes et d'âges très-différents, la plupart sans soutien d'une seule responsable. Père, mère, vieillards, enfans, adules, s'y pressent." (*Tableau Physique, &c. des Ouvriers*, l. 81, 83.) After all, however, the cellars do not appear to be the worst lodgings, for the garrets, which are quite as ill furnished, are much more exposed to the inclemencies of the weather, and are inhabited by those who cannot afford to buy fuel. The linen thread spinners, the most numerous class next to the cotton spinners and weavers, are said to be favourably distinguished from the latter by their greater cleanliness, sobriety, and better general conduct, though their wages be even lower. Villermé roughly estimates that a workman's family, consisting of a father, wife, and child of from 10 to 15 years of age, who are all employed, might make, at an average, about 915 fr. (38*l.*) a year; of which the rent would absorb from 40 to 80 fr. (say 60 fr.), and food nearly 640; leaving less than 120 fr. for the expenses

of furniture, clothing, washing, fire, candle, and tools; so that any slight indigence, want of employment, or illness, could not fail to plunge the family into the utmost want. It is not easy, however, to see why, with such average wages, the labouring population of Lille should be so much depressed. A family of three persons, who should receive 50*l.* a year in England, would be reckoned any thing but badly off; and if it were true, as is commonly affirmed, that the cost of living is a third less in France than in England, a Lille workman with 38*l.* a year should be as well off as a Manchester workman with 50*l.* In truth and reality, however, there is no such difference between the cost of living in the two countries; and both it and the rates of wages in each approach much more nearly to an equality than is generally supposed. The Lille workmen, unlike those of Lyons, are not prone to engage in insurrections; and no French manufacturing town has, in proportion, so many mutual benefit societies. These, however, are so badly organised and conducted, as to be next to useless; their meetings are always held in a *beer shop*; and at the end of the year, all the money in the chest above a small amount is divided among the contributors, to be spent on the spot, "and the new year commences with the formation of a new fund, the ultimate destination of which is the same." (*De Villeneuve-Bargemont*.) Drinking is, in fact, the prevailing vice and sole amusement of the workmen of Lille. Though most prevalent among the cotton weavers, &c., it is not a consequence of the introduction of the cotton manufacture; for long previously to that epoch many of the work-people were accustomed to work only three days in the seven, and to spend the other four in pot-houses. Lille is the seat of courts of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a *cours d'appel*—commerce, forest inspection, &c., and is the head quarters of the 16th military division of France.

It is supposed to have been founded in 640; and successively belonged to the counts of Flanders, the kings of France, and the dukes of Burgundy. In 1667 it was taken by Louis XIV., and being improved and fortified by Vauban, was definitively annexed to the crown of France. It has sustained several sieges, of which the most celebrated was that by the allies, under the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene in 1708. It was bravely defended by Marsin, Boufflers, &c. notwithstanding the gallantry of the garrison, and the fact that the French had a powerful army in the field, it was ultimately obliged to surrender. In 1792 it was bombarded by the Austrians. (*Hugo, art. Nord; Villermé, Tableau Physique, &c. des Ouvriers*, l. 78—107; *Guide du Voyageur; Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

L'ISLE, or L'ÎLE, a town of France, dép. Vanduse, cap. cant., on an island in the Sorgues, a tributary of the Rhone, 12*m.* E. by S. Avignon. Pop., in 1836, 4,318. It manufactures woollen fabrics and yarn, tram and organzine silk, and leather, and has some trade in silk, madder, oil, and wine.

LISMORE, an inland town of Ireland, co. Waterford and Cork, on the Blackwater, 26 *m.* E.N.E. Cork. Pop., in 1841, 3,007. The town has been much improved of late years, principally through the exertions, and at the expense, of the Devonshire family, who have large possessions in this part of Ireland. It stands on an eminence overlooking the river, across which is a fine bridge, built at the expense of the Duke of Devonshire. Lisburn was formerly the seat of a bishopric, now united with Cashel and Waterford. The cathedral is of good preservation, and handsomely fitted up: it has also a large R. Cath. chapel, a Presbyterian and a Methodist meeting-house, an excellent grammar-school, built and endowed by the Devonshire family, some almshouses, a court house, a fever hospital, and a dispensary. But the great attraction of Lismore is its magnificent old castle, founded by King John, in 1196. It is nobly situated on a rock rising perpendicularly from the river. This large and venerable pile was once the property of the famous Sir Walter Raleigh; and, after numerous vicissitudes, came, through the Boyles, into the possession of the Devonshire family, by whom it has been greatly improved and embellished. It is now in complete repair, and is occasionally visited by its noble owner. It has withstood several sieges. In 1755, the Duke of Rutland, then Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, held a court here, and issued some proclamations, dated from the castle.

Lismore returned 3 *mems.* to the Irish H. of C. till the Union, when it was disfranchised. A manor court holds pleas to the extent of 10*l.* every third week. Petty sessions are held on alternate Wednesdays. It is a considerable town. The trade of the town is inconsiderable, though a canal has been constructed, by the Duke of Devonshire, from it to near Cappoquin, where the river becomes navigable. There is a salmon fishery close to the town, the produce of which is mostly sent to London. Post-office rev., in 1830, 37*3*l.**; in 1836, 371*l.*

LISSA (Polish *Leszno*), a town of the Prussian dom., prov. Posen, circ. Fraustadt, near the border of Silesia, 12 *m.* E.N.E. Fraustadt. Pop. about 8,600, of whom

* The details by M. le Vic. de V. B. Barmont, formerly prefect of the dep., are still more revolting. (See his *Rapport, &c. contre le Chol. Morb.* 1832.)

4,000 are Jews. It is walled, and has three Lutheran churches, a Rom. Cath. church, a synagogue and Jewish school, a gymnasium, two hospitals, a fine council-house, and a theatre. Its streets are mostly narrow and dirty; and the greater number of the houses are of wood. The neighbouring castle was formerly the property of the Leczynski family, of which Stanislaus, the last king of Poland, was a member; but it is now the residence of the prince Sulkowski, to whom the town belongs. Lissa is the seat of a police court, and a board of taxation; a considerable manufacture of woollen cloth is carried on in it and its neighbourhood; and, besides woollen stuffs, it trades in furs, wines, and hardware. Lissa was an unimportant village, when a number of Protestants, driven from Silesia, Bohemia, and Moravia, by the persecutions of the 17th century, settled in it; and to these immigrants it owes its present consequence. (*Von Zedler, Das Preussische Staat*, iii. 186. &c.)

LISNA. See LEMNA.

LITHUANIA, a country comprising a considerable portion of the ancient kingdom of Poland, at present parcelled amongst the Russian governments of Wilna, Grodno, and Minsk (which see).

LITTORALE (AUSTRIAN). See ILLYRIA, TRIESTE, &c.

LITTORALE (HUNGARIAN). See HUNGARY, CROATIA, FUME, &c.

LIVADIA (an. *Lebadia* or *Lebedeß*), a city of indep. Greece, which, under the Turks, gave its name to the prov. comprising E. and W. Hellas, in Bœotia, on the Hercyna, about 6 m. W. the Lake Copala, 25 m. W. N. W. Thebes, and 50 m. N. W. Athens; lat. 38° 25' N.; long. 22° 59' E. Pop. uncertain, but before the Greek revolution it was estimated at 10,000. At that period it had 1,500 houses, many of which were good, though its streets were dirty, narrow, and inconvenient. Its site is very striking, occupying several fantastic knolls and crags at the entrance of a deep defile in a branch of the Heliconian chain. The river Hercyna, which rises in a full stream and with great force from beneath a rock close to the town, rolls in foaming torrents over masses of rock: it is augmented near its source, by a tributary stream from the cavern of Trophonius. The ancient city, called *Midea* by Homer, is supposed to have been built, in part at least, upon the lofty heights which overhang the modern town, and upon which the remnants of a citadel are still visible; with additional buildings constructed by the Catalans, when they were in possession of this country.

Previously to the revolution, Livadia was the seat of a voivode or governor, and a cadl, and had 6 mosques, and as many Greek churches. It had also a considerable trade in the produce of the surrounding territory, and of Attica, with Constantinople, and foreign countries. Mad-dier, corn, oil, kermes, cotton, and honey, were among its principal exports, which it formerly sent to Trieste, Venice, Leghorn, Genoa, and London. Its port at Aspropiti, the an. *Askyra*, on the Corinthian Gulph, is 18 m. W. S. W. from the town. Livadia was burned by the Turks in 1821, and subsequently in part destroyed by the Greeks in an attack upon the Turkish garrison. There can be little doubt, however, that since the revolution it has recovered some portion of its former trade and prosperity. Its greatest drawback is the unhealthiness of its situation. It suffers from great extremes of temperature; the air is frequently loaded with dense fogs, and in summer is vitiated by pestilential effluvia from the neighbouring lake of Copala. In 1784-85, the plague carried off 6,000 of the inhab. (*Clarke's Travels*, vii. 146-170; *Hugier*, i. 327-349; *Hobhouse*, pp. 260-264.)

The entire celebrity and, perhaps, even existence of Livadia, was owing to its being the seat of the famous oracle or cavern of Trophonius. Dr. Clarke has sufficiently identified the site of this celebrated cavern; but the reasons he has alleged in favour of the hypothesis, that the Hercyna is identical with the fountain of *Lete*, or waters of oblivion, are far from conclusive. (*Clarke*, vii. 161. 8vo. ed.) Clarke supposes the fountain that now issues from below the cavern to be that which anciently received the name of *Mnemosyne*, or waters of memory; but this fountain may formerly have been divided into two, or one of the ancient fountains may have disappeared through some convulsion of nature: at all events, it would seem to be pretty clear from the statement of Pausanias, that there were within the sacred precinct the two fountains of *Lete* and *Mnemosyne*, exclusive of the source of the Hercyna. (*Pausanias*, lib. ix. cap. 39.)

This was one of the most formidable of the Greek oracles. The *Hierom*, or sacred cavern, was surrounded by bare, rugged, and high precipitous rocks. Thither those anxious to consult the oracle were, after long preparation, conducted at night through a grove; and could not fail to be deeply impressed by the solemnity of the place, and by the roaring of the waters of the Hercyna bursting forth from their subterranean caverns. Having arrived at the *Hierom*, the votary, after addressing a prayer to the statue of Trophonius by *Dædalus*, de-

scended into the *adytum*, a narrow and deep aperture excavated in the rock, and, no doubt, leading to some great natural cave or chasm. Those who ventured down into this hidden recess seem, generally, to have experienced rather rough treatment. Trophonius was not to be questioned with impunity. The votaries, when they came forth from the abyss, were usually much exhausted, and had no distinct recollection of what they either heard or saw. Generally, however, the mysteries of this dread cavern made a deep impression on their minds, and entailed upon them a settled melancholy for the remainder of their lives; so that it was a proverbial expression in Greece to say of a gloomy or melancholy individual, that "he had come from the cave of Trophonius." No doubt, however, the priests took care to modify their treatment of the votaries, as well as their responses, according to their rank and their bounty to the temple. Pausanias, who descended into the *adytum*, and describes what occurred to himself, states, that when he came out, he was so confused as to have lost his senses. But this visit must have taken place so late as the middle of the 3d century, after the oracle had been long on the decline; and when, probably, it had been stripped of half the horrors by which it had formerly struck terror into those who attempted to penetrate by its means through the veil that conceals futurity from mortal eyes.

The accounts of Trophonius, the reputed founder of the oracle, vary extremely. This much, however, seems to be agreed upon; that he was a mortal to whom, after his death, divine honours were paid; and that he was supposed to be endowed, like Apollo, with the power of foreseeing and predicting future events. It is probable that the gloomy grandeur of the place, and the discovery of some hidden cavern, where all sorts of impostures might be easily practised, first suggested the idea of making it the seat of an oracle; and there seems little doubt, that it was indebted to the same circumstances for its celebrity and its votaries.

According to Dr. Clarke, the present town of Livadia occupies that part of the consecrated ground formerly covered by the grove of Trophonius; but this is merely one of those conjectures in which that ingenious person is, on all occasions, too prone to indulge. Pausanias says, that *Lebadæa* was as much ornamented by temples, statues, and other splendid works of art, as any city of Greece. A statue of Trophonius by Praxiteles was deservedly reckoned among its principal treasures. (For further particulars as to *Lebadæa*, see *Pausanias*, lib. ix. cap. 39; *Voyage D'Anacharsis*, cap. 34; *Potter's Grecian Antiquities*, book ii. cap. 10. &c.)

LIVERPOOL, a parl. and mun. bor. and sea-port of England, being, next to London, the greatest emporium of the British empire, in the co. Lancaster, hund. W. Derby, on the E. or right bank of the Mersey, 32 m. W. by S. Manchester, 67 m. W. S. W. Leeds, and 126 m. N. N. W. London; lat. of observatory, 53° 24' 48" N., long. 5° 0' 1" W. The pop. of the parl. and mun. bor., at the undermentioned periods, has been:—

Townships.	1801.	1811.	1821.	1831.	1841.
Liverpool	77,653	93,276	118,972	165,175	223,008
Kirkdale	—	915	1,109	2,591	4,208
Everton	499	3,892	6,304	9,618	9,221
W. Derby	1,636	5,864	12,829	24,087	9,780
Toxteth Park	2,069	—	—	—	40,256
Total parl. bor.	82,857	103,851	140,911	205,964	296,487

At present (1850) the pop. of the parl. bor. may be estimated at about 370,000.

Liverpool stands partly on flat ground, along the edge of the river, and partly and principally on a gently rising declivity. Besides quintupling its population during the last half-century, it has been more improved, during that period, than any other town in England, not excepting Manchester. Before that time, narrow, inconvenient, and ill-paved streets, lined with dull, heavy-looking houses, were its characteristic features; but so great is the alteration effected chiefly through the exertions of the corporation and the public spirit of the citizens, that at present no town or city in the three kingdoms, except their capitals, has wider or handsomer streets, more sumptuous public buildings, or better constructed and more substantial private dwellings. The corporation is alleged to have expended on improvements between 1796 and 1840, no less than 1,700,000*l*. The present limits of the town comprise about

2-3ds of the parl. bor. : its length from N. to S. (measured from Brunswick Dock to the Gas-works in Vauxhall Road) is about 2½ m., its breadth from the river to the Church at Edgehill, 1½ m., and its area somewhat exceeds 2,500 acres. The central point, from which many of the principal avenues diverge, is the open space partly occupied by St. John's church, and the railway station : the diverging roads are, 1. Dale Street, a fine broad avenue running S.W. to the Townhall and Exchange Buildings, and continued, under the name of Water Street, to George's Dock; 2. Whitechapel and Paradise Street, leading to the Custom House; 3. Lime Street, Renshaw Street, Berry Street, and Great George Street, running nearly S. towards Toxteth Park; 4. the London Road, taking an E. direction towards the Zoological Gardens; and, lastly, Byrom Street, and Scotland Road, leading to the House of Correction in Kirkdale. The principal streets, independent of those above mentioned, are Castle Street, opposite the Townhall, Lord Street, Church Street, Hanover Street, Bold Street, Rodney Street, Mount Pleasant, St. Anne's Street, and the Vauxhall Road; and among the principal squares may be mentioned Great George's, Queen's, Abercrombie, Falkney, Clayton, and Cleveland. Liverpool is supplied with good water from wells sunk in the red sandstone in various parts of the town, that formerly belonged to two companies; but the supply being rather deficient for the growing wants of the pop., the corporation bought up the rights and property of the companies, in 1848, for 554,807*l.*; and they have since obtained an act of Parliament authorising them to bring an additional supply of water from Rivington Hills, the works for which purpose are now being carried on. Gas, of excellent quality, is supplied by a company, at 4*s.* 6*d.* per 1000 feet, not only to the streets, shops, factories, &c., but also to a large proportion of the most respectable private houses.

Corporation and Government Buildings.—The town-hall, which stands at the N. end of Castle Street, was commenced in 1749: its interior having been destroyed by fire in 1795, it has been since rebuilt at a cost of above 110,000*l.* It has a rustic basement, supporting a range of Corinthian columns and pilasters; in the S. front is a handsome portico, and the building is surmounted by a light and elegant cupola, above which is a colossal figure of Britannia. The interior comprises, besides a handsome suite of apartments for the mayor, a ball-room, 90 ft. in length by 40 ft. in breadth and height; a council-room, committee-rooms, town-clerk's, treasurer's, and surveyor's offices, &c.; the grand staircase, under the cupola, is a magnificent specimen of modern architecture: on the landing is a colossal statue of Canning. The Exchange-buildings, which form three sides of the square in which the town-hall stands, were completed in 1809, at a cost of 110,848*l.*, raised by 100*l.* shares. The principal front is 197 ft. in length; and the area, enclosed by the entire building, somewhat above 11,000 sq. yards: in the N. and S. fronts are two magnificent porticos, each supported by 8 Corinthian columns, and surmounted by a carved entablature with stone figures: a very handsome balustrade runs round the entire building. Piazzas extend round the basement, for the convenience of the merchants in hot and rainy weather. In the interior is a magnificent news-room, originally 94 but now 125 ft. in length, by 51 ft. 9 in. in width, having an arched roof supported by two rows of columns; above this is a splendid room for the

underwriters, while, in other parts of the building, are numerous counting-houses and offices, warehouses, &c. The Liverpool Exchange is, in fact, one of the best specimens of Grecian architecture in England; and, perhaps, the noblest structure erected in modern times for purely commercial purposes. In the centre of the square is a monument in honour of Nelson, executed in bronze, on a marble basement: it represents the dying hero; his foot on a prostrate enemy, receiving a naval crown from Victory. The principal group is surrounded by emblematical figures; but they are stiff, affected, and unnatural; and the monument neither redounds to the credit of the town nor of the artist. W. of the exchange stands the session-house, a low, plain, stone building with two principal entrances; in the interior are two spacious rooms, used as nisi prius and crown courts, with other apartments for the use of the judges, magistrates, jurors, &c.; the whole was built, in 1828, at a cost of 19,312*l.* exclusive of subsequent alterations occasioned by the removal of the assizes of the W. Derby and Salford hund. from Lancaster. The custom-house, excise-office, post-office, and other public offices, are comprised in the immense pile of building erected at the S. end of Castle Street, on the site of the old dock, which was filled up for the purpose. It covers an area of 6,700 sq. yards, has an extreme length of 467 ft. measured from E. to W., with a total height of 67 ft., the length of its wings being 225 ft., and their breadth 94 ft., and is remarkable not merely for its size, but also for its massiveness. Porticos, supported by Ionic columns, are attached to the centre, and to the E. and W. fronts; and it has a large dome, lighted by 16 windows, and embellished with pilasters. The basement, through which there is a public passage connecting Castle Street with Park Lane, is used for storing bonded goods. The central portion is occupied by the great staircases and the long room, 146 ft. in length, 70 ft. wide, and 45 ft. high, lighted from the dome; the W. or river wing contains the various offices of the custom-house; and the E. wing contains the excise-office, dock-offices, post-office, and stamp-office. This useful, though heavy-looking, building was erected in consequence of an arrangement between the corporation and the government, negotiated by Messrs. Canning and Huskisson. The corporation gave the land, valued at 90,000*l.*, and erected the building, which, at the end of 20 years, is to be ceded to government, on the latter paying for it the sum of 150,000*l.*, by annual instalments of 25,000*l.* The most magnificent building in Liverpool is, probably, that for the assize courts, inc. St. George's Hall, in Lime Street, opposite to the railway station. It is of the Corinthian order, the Eastern front being 420 ft. in length, and the columns 45 ft. in height. St. George's Hall, in the centre of the building, with a spacious court on each side, is a noble apartment, 175 ft. in length by 75 ft. in width, and 75 ft. in height. It is to the courts, between which it is placed, what Westminster Hall is to the courts adjoining to it. But when the courts are not sitting, it is appropriated to public meetings, concerts, &c. This building, which was designed by the late Mr. Elmes, cost in all about 192,000*l.* The hall in Hope Street, built by the Philharmonic Society, is also of very large dimensions, and is well suited to its object.

Literary Establishments, &c.—Though so extensively busied in trade and commerce, the merchants of Liverpool are honourably distin-

guished by their attention to, and patronage of, science and literature; and the town has several valuable institutions for their promotion. The principal among these are, 1st. The Royal Institution in Colquitt Street, formed in 1814, at the suggestion of the late Mr. Roscoe, by the subscription of 100*l*. shares, and chartered in 1822: it comprises academical schools, public lectures on various subjects, laboratories and philosophical apparatus, a collection of books, and a museum. The building, with a portico and two wings, contains suites of rooms well adapted to the purposes of the institution. The lecture room is capable of accommodating 500 persons; and the natural history department of the museum, occupying two floors of the building, is perhaps the largest and most valuable in the kingdom, after the British Museum, and that of the Zoological Society of London. The institution has also a fine collection of casts from the Elgin, Eginetan, and Phigalian marbles, and from some of the most celebrated statues of antiquity. 2d. The collegiate institution in Shaw Street, a fine building in the Tudor style, opened in 1842, cost about 30,000*l*. Its principal front is 280 ft. in length. It is 4 stories high; but, as the upper rooms are lighted from the roof, it has only 3 rows of windows. It has accommodation in separate schools and classes for 1,500 pupils; but is not at present (1850) attended by more than 500. The instruction in the different schools and the fees of admittance vary very materially; from their being intended to suit the wants and circumstances of the different orders of the community. It is conducted according to the principles of the Church of England, the Bishop of Chester being the visitor. 3d. The mechanics' institute in Mount Street, near St. James's cemetery, intended not only to meet the wants of the working classes, but also to bring them in contact with those in higher spheres of life, was opened in 1837. Its buildings, which, with courts, &c. cover nearly an acre of land, given by the corporation, were erected at a cost, inc. alterations, of above 15,000*l*. The front, in the Ionic style, has a heavy appearance: the grand theatre is capable of accommodating 1,200 persons: it has a museum, and a library, with 15,000 vols. It has attached to it different schools meeting at different hours, and intended, like those in the collegiate institution, to accommodate different classes of the pop. But these have not been very successful, partly from the absurd system of teaching originally introduced (which, however, is now greatly improved); partly from the competition of other and more popular seminaries; and partly from the discredit into which mechanics' institutes have generally fallen. The Medical Institution, in Mount Pleasant, built at a cost of about 2000*l*. (3 of which, with the land, was contributed by the corporation, and the rest by the medical practitioners of the town), has a circular-shaped front, of the Ionic order, 108 ft. in length, and 35 ft. in height; and in the interior are various large apartments, used as libraries, museums, lecture-rooms, &c. Apothecaries' hall belonging to a joint-stock company, may be mentioned here, not as a place of medical instruction, but as conferring important benefits on the profession and the public by importing and manufacturing medicines of the best quality: the building is handsome, and all the arrangements most complete. The school of medicine formerly attached to the Royal Institution has been removed to the infirmary.

Closely connected with the above are the news-rooms, among which the Athenæum holds

the highest station. The building, opened in 1799, is large, but plain; 500 proprietors subscribe to form a yearly income of 1,320*l*.; the library comprises 17,500 volumes; and the news-room is spacious, and well provided with the publications of the day. The Lyceum, a much handsomer building, erected at an expense of above 11,000*l*., supported by about 800 proprietors, paying guinea subscriptions, has a library of about 35,000 volumes, in an elegant circular room lighted from a cupola. The Union news-room in Duke Street is also a respectable building; and there is an important news-room, already noticed, in the Exchange.

The celebrity and example of Mr. Roscoe, the most distinguished of all the citizens of Liverpool, had a wonderful influence in creating and diffusing a taste for literature among all classes of his townsmen. The first editions of his valuable and standard works, the lives of Lorenzo de Medici and of Leo X., were published here. They were printed by McCreery, the author of the poem entitled the "Press," and are enduring monuments of his skill and excellence as a typographer. The life of Poggio Bracciolini, by the late Rev. William Shepherd, a distinguished Unitarian minister of the town, is also one of the products of the Liverpool press; as is the edition of Burns' works, with his life, in 4 vols., by the justly celebrated Dr. Currie.

Newspapers.—A newspaper, entitled the *Courant*, was published in Liverpool in 1712; but it did not succeed; and the earliest of the existing journals appeared on the 28th of May, 1756. There are at present 10 newspapers. Of these *Gore's Advertiser* and *Myers's Mercantile Advertiser* are, as their names import, wholly devoted to commercial matters. Of those which reflect and endeavour to guide the public taste, the following is the distribution:—Monday, the *Albion*; Tuesday, the *Standard* and *Mercury*; Wednesday, the *Courier*; Thursday, the *Times*; Friday, the *Mercury*; Saturday, the *Mail, Journal*, and *Chronicle*. There are thus 8 papers for the 6 days, and 1 of them has 3 issues. Their politics may be stated thus;—3 are conservative, the *Mail, Courier*, and *Standard*; the remainder being more or less liberal.

Amusement and Recreation.—Liverpool has three theatres—the Theatre Royal, the Adelphi Theatre, and the Amphitheatre, a fourth having recently been converted into shops. The Theatre Royal, in Williamson Square, built in 1817, has a plain exterior, but the interior is comfortably fitted up and is well suited for hearing. The Amphitheatre, in Great Charlotte Street, is used mainly for equestrian exercises, but is frequently occupied with public meetings. The people of Liverpool, like those of the metropolis, have little taste for theatrical exhibitions. There is a race-course at Aintree, about 5 m. distant from the town; one at Hoylake, distant 9 m., and a third on the Rood-eye at Chester. From the facilities afforded by railway communication, Aintree and Chester are practically the race-courses of Liverpool; and it may be remarked, as a curious fact, that the cockpit on the verge of the former has recently been fitted up as the chapel of St. Peter, in connexion with the Established Church. The Zoological Gardens, on the eastern verge of the borough, occupy an area of about 10 acres, and the collection is regarded as extremely good. In the summer season, other attractions are added for visitors and subscribers, including fireworks, feats of strength, skill, and agility, music, &c. The grounds are well laid out, and the disposition of the build-

ings is well suited to the disposition of the anima's. The Botanic Garden, formerly on the borders of the parish, has been removed within the last 10 years to the extremity of the borough bounds, beyond Edge Hill. It was formerly the property of shareholders, but now belongs to the town, and is supported by a rate. It is constantly open, and is an agreeable outlet, especially for those in its neighbourhood. Within the borough, and bounded by its southern limit, the beautiful enclosure, called Prince's Park, has been purchased and laid out by Richard Vaughan Yates, Esq., at a cost of about 40,000*l*. It occupies about 45 acres, and is open to the public. In the township of Everton, the inhabitants of Shaw Street, dreading that their view would be impeded or their residences deteriorated by the building of small houses, formed a miniature park along one side of the street, which is open for the recreation of those only who live there. The corporation have recently, also, purchased the Newsham House estate, of nearly 200 acres, on the West Derby road, which it is intended to convert into a public park, with suitable situations for building-ground. The Prince's Parade, between Prince's Dock and the river, St. James's Cemetery, and St. James's Mount, on one side of the cemetery, are public promenades, which are kept in good order. To these may be added the landing stage. The Corporation Baths, at George's Pier-head, are extremely well conducted. There are large swimming-baths, both for ladies and gentlemen, private baths, warm, shower, vapour, and medicated baths, all of which can be obtained at moderate prices. The water is filtered from the river at high tide, and though not quite salt is nearly so. Since the commencement of the sanitary movement, the corporation erected a set of baths and washhouses for the poor in Frederick Street; the experiment succeeded so well, that a new set of baths and washhouses has been opened in Paul Street, the centre of a densely peopled district at the north end of the town. The payments are merely nominal, for the purpose of defraying the current expenses; and so many are desirous to take advantage of them that the prices are undergoing a still further reduction. A similar building, on a larger scale, is in progress at the south end of the town, in Cornwallis Street, and others are projected in different parts of the borough.

Markets, &c.—The markets of Liverpool are better supplied, perhaps, than those of any other town in the Empire. Ireland and Scotland, particularly the former, furnish grain, live stock, bacon and butter; and the Isle of Man, Anglesea, North Wales, and Cheshire, send excellent poultry and eggs, with butter and other farm produce; neither can any town in England, the metropolis not excepted, boast of market accommodation equal to Liverpool. The largest market building is St. John's, completed in 1822, at a cost of 36,813*l*., covering a space of nearly two acres, being 183 yards in length, by 46 in breadth. It is a light and lofty structure, having its roof supported by 116 cast-iron pillars; the walls are lined with 58 shops, and upwards of 400 stalls and standings run in four ranges up and down the interior. It is brilliantly lighted with gas; and on the whole, the regulations are so good, that it may be said to be unrivalled both for size and convenience. St. James's Market, at the end of Great George Street, though only half the size of that last mentioned, is still a large and well-constructed building, regulated by the corporation; as is St. Martin's Market in Scotland Road. There are six other markets. The total expenditure by

the corporation for these buildings has amounted to about 83,000*l*. The Corn Exchange, in Brunswick Street, erected by a subscription of 10,000*l*. in 100*l*. shares, has a plain but handsome front. Owing to the increase of business it has become too small, and is about to be enlarged.

Churches, Chapels, and Cemeteries.—Liverpool, which, till 1699, was a chapelry attached to Walton-on-the-Hill, was constituted by act 10 & 11 Will. 3. c. 36. a distinct parish divided into 2 mediocities; the parish churches are St. Nicholas' and St. Peter's, and the livings are rectories, each valued at 615*l*. a year, exc. surplice fees, and in the gift of the corporation. Within the last twenty years, however, a great many other churches have been opened. Of these, some have been built by the corporation, who, though they have sold the patronage, are bound to keep the churches in repair, and to pay certain salaries to the incumbents. Other churches have been built by associations, and others by private parties. On the whole it would appear, from the returns carefully prepared by the Reverend Dr. Hume, that at present (1850) 31 churches and 4 rooms are licensed for divine service, according to the principles of the Established Church, in the old parish of Liverpool; and that 12 churches and 2 rooms are licensed for the same purpose in the adjoining parishes of Walton and W. Derby.

The emoluments of the established clergy in Liverpool, as in most of our large towns, are mainly dependent upon the voluntary principle, or arise chiefly from pew rents. Some of the new churches are endowed with 150*l*. per annum, in consideration of the body of the church being appropriated to the use of the poor; and the pews of the gallery are, also, let for the benefit of the clergyman. In a few other churches there are endowments from Queen Anne's Bounty, or other ecclesiastical funds, or from the interest of sums subscribed for the purpose; but in many, perhaps the majority, of cases, there is no endowment whatever. The clerical incomes are, therefore, extremely fluctuating. In the lower and central parts of the town, there has latterly been a steady decrease in the amount of pew rents, as the higher classes remove further out of town, and their successors sometimes cannot, and sometimes will not, pay. The annual statements in the "Clergy List" are, therefore, extremely incorrect; indeed, the receipts of a church sometimes show a material variation in the course of twelve months. The range of payments is from 100*l*. to 600*l*. per annum, perhaps not more than two reaching either this maximum or minimum limit, if so many. The average may be stated at the mean between these, or 350*l*.

Several of the churches and chapels have contiguous grave-yards; but the noxious practice of burying the dead within the town is nearly discontinued, in consequence of the formation of three large and well laid out cemeteries. St. James's cemetery, formed out of a stone quarry behind St. James's Walk, is planned with great elegance; another, at Low Hill, is called the Necropolis; the third, or St. Mary's cemetery, is at Kirkdale.

The dissenters in Liverpool are highly important and respectable, whether considered in respect of station, numbers, or character. The first Presbyterian congregation was established in 1672, and a second about thirty years afterwards: the Baptists settled themselves here in 1714, and the Independents in 1777. The first Wesleyan Methodist chapel was opened in Mount Pleasant in 1791; and the New-connexion Me-

thodists (or Kilhamites) built a chapel in 1798. Many of these places of worship are large and commodious, and a few exhibit much exterior elegance. The dissenting places of worship existing in 1830 may be thus classified:—

Wesleyan Methodists - - - - -	11	New-conexion Methodists - - -	5
Baptists - - - - -	7	Society of Friends - - - - -	1
Welsh dissenters - - - - -	16	Other dissenters - - - - -	6
Scottish Kirk and dissenters - - -	7	Jews - - - - -	3
Unitarians - - - - -	3		
Independents - - - - -	8		
Roman Catholics - - - - -	8		
			70

Schools.—The Manchester Statistical Society was engaged during nearly a year collecting statistics on the state of education in Liverpool; and from their report we learn that, in 1836, 32,700 children, of both sexes and all ages, were being instructed, being rather more than half the entire pop. between the ages of 5 and 15: of this number, 4,000 belonging to the upper classes were in private schools, 12,000 of the lowest order were in dames' schools, and the remainder in schools either endowed or supported by subscriptions. But since then several new schools have been opened; though, as a large proportion of the schools, especially those for the children of the upper classes, are private, it is difficult to obtain any satisfactory details with respect to them. Among the endowed schools, the principal are the corporation schools, formed in 1825, on the foundation of an old grammar school, that had been extinct since 1803: they are conducted on the national system, and infant schools are attached to each, so that, in all, above 1,000 children are taught in them. The N. and S. Church of England schools instruct 485 boys, 350 girls, and 453 infants. The Blue-coat Hospital, instituted in 1709, provides clothing, food, diet, and instruction for 250 boys and 100 girls. The building, which is of brick, has a handsome appearance, and the instruction, on the Madras system, is said to be as perfect as that of any school in England conducted on the same plan. The school of industry, established in 1810, is intended for training girls for domestic service. The number is limited to 100, and a few of the more deserving scholars have board and lodging, as well as a good plain education. Christ-church National schools educate 250 boys, 260 girls, and 200 infants; and Everton National school has 66 boys and 60 girls. Among the other schools may be specified Waterworth's school, in Hunter Street; St. Patrick's charity-school; the Duncan Street schools, supported by the Society of Friends; the Renshaw Street school, maintained by the Unitarians; the Caledonian school in Oldham Street, and there is likewise a blind school, and a school for the deaf and dumb. (See Table at the top of next column.)

These statements are highly creditable to the liberality of all classes of Liverpool. The principal schools, now referred to, are, speaking generally, well conducted; their buildings are suitable, and the means of instruction, inc. slates, books, &c. abundantly provided. Still, however, it would appear that additional means are required for the efficient instruction of the children of the poorer classes, especially of those not connected with the Church of England. And we may also add, that a good deal remains to be done before the education of the upper classes can be considered in a satisfactory condition. We doubt whether there be, at this moment, with the exception, perhaps, of that attached to the Royal Institution, a single really good classical school in Liverpool.

Charitable Institutions, &c.—Liverpool has many extensive and respectable edifices devoted to charitable purposes, among which may be

An Account of the various Public Schools in Liverpool, furnished by Mr. Wood of the Blue-coat Hospital, in 1850, in connection with the Church of England, and of the Number of their Pupils.

1850.	Daily.		Add. Sun.		Infants.	Total.
	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.		
Blue coat Hospital - - - - -	250	100	-	-	-	350
Female Orphan Asylum - - - - -	-	150	-	-	-	150
Old Church Schools - - - - -	40	80	-	-	60	180
St. Mark's do. - - - - -	110	117	-	-	-	227
St. Matthew's do. - - - - -	180	100	-	50	130	360
Hunter-street do. - - - - -	140	100	-	-	-	240
St. James' do. - - - - -	145	100	-	-	14	259
Welsh Charity do. - - - - -	250	108	-	12	171	436
Everton and Kirkdale do. - - - - -	210	124	16	80	110	480
Mill Lane do. - - - - -	141	109	22	30	120	403
St. Mark's do. - - - - -	88	90	60	120	216	604
St. Andrew's do. - - - - -	120	130	31	50	120	431
St. Paul's do. - - - - -	-	-	52	36	-	88
Edge Hill do. - - - - -	184	149	20	42	132	293
St. Jude's do. - - - - -	185	143	20	37	117	412
St. Augustine's do. - - - - -	203	170	15	12	174	576
St. John the Baptist's do. - - - - -	176	195	35	60	185	631
Church of England N. do. - - - - -	380	210	23	-	220	833
Do. South do. - - - - -	105	140	-	-	235	478
St. Brice's do. - - - - -	250	108	25	59	187	702
St. Catherine's do. - - - - -	80	92	-	-	169	339
St. Luke's do. - - - - -	90	60	10	6	95	261
St. Mary's (Kirkdale) do. - - - - -	140	122	30	20	-	312
Great Church do. - - - - -	250	250	-	-	800	710
All Saints do. - - - - -	-	70	90	40	-	200
Mariner's Church do. - - - - -	21	45	30	16	-	112
St. Bartholomew's do. - - - - -	180	140	20	20	150	510
St. Clement's (Woolton) do. - - - - -	150	117	60	50	220	577
St. Silas's do. - - - - -	125	95	20	30	100	360
St. Simon's do. - - - - -	101	142	100	80	163	596
St. Barnabas's do. - - - - -	140	122	25	20	275	594
St. Martin's-in-the-Fields do. - - - - -	60	90	6	9	85	251
St. Thomas's (Toxteth) do. - - - - -	190	180	45	50	371	736
St. John's do. - - - - -	130	120	30	40	-	310
West Derby Workhouse do. - - - - -	111	100	-	-	40	250
Liverpool Industrial do. - - - - -	558	394	130	87	-	1,143
St. Thomas's (Park Lane) do. - - - - -	53	50	22	21	-	146
Vauxhall do. - - - - -	83	85	-	-	-	168
Asylum for Orphan Boys - - - - -	10	-	-	-	-	10
Workhouse School - - - - -	100	80	-	-	-	180
St. Paul's (Toxteth) do. - - - - -	180	80	30	50	60	390
Total - - - - -	5,785	4,928	970	1,008	4,382	16,987

The Corporation schools have not been included in this table.

mentioned, the Charitable Institution-house in Slater Street, intended, though on a much smaller scale than the Exeter Hall of London, to give similar accommodation (*without charge*) to all religious and charitable institutions established in Liverpool, for committees, public meetings, &c. The infirmary in Brownlow Street (removed from Shaw's-brow in 1824), was erected at a cost of 27,800*l.*: it is a chaste and elegant structure, with an extent of masonry, and a number of front windows, that give it, when seen from the street, an appearance of grandeur exceeded by few other buildings in the town. There are 20 wards, comprising excellent accommodation for 234 patients, and the medical staff attached to the institution equals in ability and attention that of any hospital out of the metropolis. The fever hospital, with 110 beds, supported by the poor-rate, is a valuable institution. The lunatic asylum, lately erected at a cost of 11,000*l.*, to supply the place of an older establishment, has a handsome exterior, and comprises accommodation, with spacious airing-grounds for 60 patients, many of whom, as at York, belong to the higher classes. The Lock hospital, connected with the infirmary, was opened in 1834, with accommodation for 60 patients. The Northern and Southern Hospitals are extensive buildings. Three dispensaries (one of which, in Vauxhall Road, is a large and elegant building, comprising accommodation for in-patients and medical students), furnish gratuitous advice and medicine for the sick poor, who are likewise attended by the resident officers at their own habitations; and there is an ophthalmic infirmary and dispensary, with which is

connected an institution for diseases of the ear. The ladies' charity affords relief to about 1,200 lying-in women every year, with supplies of linen, &c.; the other principal charities are the Stranger's Friend Society, relieving about 1,000 persons yearly, with a similar institution called the Charitable Society, the Penitentiary and Refuge for the Destitute, both intended for the reformation of degraded females, the Marine Humane Society, and the District Provident Society. A large handsome building, near the Custom-house, now on the eve of being completed, is intended for a Sailors' Home. It is to include a Savings' Bank for seamen, a reading-room, &c., with lodgings for a considerable number of sailors, and lists of those lodging-houses in the town where they will be best accommodated. The plan has been already tried in a temporary building, and seems to be successful in improving the habits, as well as in adding to the comforts, of the seamen frequenting the port. There is also a deaf and dumb institution, and two asylums for the blind, one of which is supported by the Roman Catholics. There are likewise many religious societies, the chief of which are the Bible Society (by far the largest in point of income), the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, and the Mariner's Church Society.

Port and Docks.—The rapid rise of the port of Liverpool to its present consequence, though, no doubt, principally owing, like that of the town itself, to the astonishing increase of manufactures and population in the extensive district of which it is the grand emporium, is also, in part, owing to the facilities which have been given to navigation and commerce by the construction of wet and dry docks. The entrance to the estuary of the Mersey is a good deal incumbered with sand-banks, and is crossed by a bar, which, however, has at low water spring tides, where deepest, 11 ft. water; and as the tides rise 21 ft. at neap and 31 ft. at spring tides, there is water for the largest ships. The channels being indicated by light vessels, and well marked with buoys, there is no difficulty in making the port.

The land around being low, the ships in the river are exposed to risk from gales of wind; and to obviate this inconvenience, and to facilitate their loading and unloading, the docks have been constructed which constitute the great glory of the town. The first wet dock in the British empire was opened here in 1718, the act for its formation, the 8 Ann. c. 12., having been passed in 1709. Another act was passed in 1738, the 11 Geo. II. c. 32., authorising the construction of a second dock. Since that period many more docks have been constructed on a very extensive scale, so that the aggregate area of those now in use amounts to above 174 acres, and the quay-space to about 14 m. in length. The area of the principal docks is as follows, viz. Brunswick, 12 ac. 2744 yds.; Prince's 11 ac. 3889 yds.; Queen's, 11 ac. 3101 yds.; King's 7 ac. 3896 yds.; Albert, 7 ac. 3542 yds.; Trafalgar, 6 ac. 2643 yds., &c. &c.

The King's Dock, being contiguous to the King's Tobacco Warehouse, receives all vessels from Virginia and other parts laden with tobacco; the Queen's and Brunswick Docks are occupied by ships laden with timber from Honduras, Canada, and the Baltic; the Canning Dock receives coasting-vessels which exchange corn and provisions for colonial produce; and other docks are appropriated to other purposes. All these works are defended on the side next the river by a strong sea-wall upwards of 2½ m.

in length. But a number of other docks are now in the course of being constructed; and when these and the great timber float are finished, the sea-wall will be above 4 m. in length. Every precaution is taken to prevent the accumulation of mud in the docks by the use of steam-dredging machines; and strict rules, enforced by a vigilant police force, are established to maintain good order and prevent both fire and depredations.

The docks are all constructed on the estate of the corporation, and are managed by commissioners appointed by act of parliament. The bonding and other warehouses do not, however, in general belong to the dock estate, but are principally private property. Most of them are in the immediate vicinity of the docks, but some are at a considerable distance; and there is not, in consequence, the same accommodation, or the same security against fire and depredations, in the Liverpool as in the London docks, where, the warehouses being built along the dock-quays, goods are loaded and unloaded with the greatest facility, and are subsequently under the most efficient protection. But the many destructive fires that have taken place of late years in warehouses in Liverpool, and the consequent rise in the premium of insurance, which is now very heavy, will no doubt lead to considerable changes in the disposition of the warehouses. Indeed, the warehouses attached to the Albert dock, one of those most recently constructed, are built round the quays and encircled by an outer wall, and are conducted by the dock trust on the same plan as the London docks.

The difference in the situation of the warehouses in the two ports leads to a difference in the mode of discharging and loading ships in each: in the port of London this is done by the servants of the different dock companies; whereas in the port of Liverpool it is effected by gangs of private labourers, called *lumpers*, who contract for a specific sum to load or unload a vessel. A great reduction was effected in the scale of the Liverpool dock dues in 1836, and again in 1848, and they are now extremely moderate.

But vast as is the accommodation afforded by these docks, it will be very greatly increased when the gigantic works now in progress at Birkenhead, on the opposite side of the Mersey, are completed. (See Vol. I. p. 376.) Birkenhead is, in fact, a suburb of Liverpool, and should be regarded as forming part and parcel of the latter. The warehouses in this new dependency are to be all isolated; and the wet and dry docks are to be formed, not only on the largest scale, but after the most approved models. Hence, however they may affect the existing dock interests, they cannot fail to be of much advantage to the trade of this great emporium.

Commerce.—Though extraordinary, the rise of Liverpool has not, perhaps, been quite so rapid as has been represented. In the reign of Henry VIII. she is noticed by Leland as a place to which merchants resorted because of her moderate customs, and as being a great mart for Irish yarn. At a later period she is described by Camden as being "the most convenient and frequented passage to Ireland," and more celebrated for her "beauty and populousness than for her antiquity." (*Gough's Camden*, iii. 376, ed. 1806.) She was once joined for naval purposes with Chester, but she had more trade than the latter, and could not have been correctly described as "the little creek of Liverpool." It appears from the subjoined table, that in 1709 she had about 8,000 inhab. (a large pop. for that period), and nearly 6,000 tons

A Statement of the total Number of Vessels, of all Descriptions, with their total Tonnage, that entered the Liverpool Docks in the Years ending the 34th of June, 1849 and 1850, with the Amount of the Tonnage and other Duties payable by the same.

Year.	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Duties on Tonnage.	Duties on	Lighthouse Duties.	Floating Light Duties.	Other Duties.	Total.
			£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
1849	30,733	3,679,146	122,075	2 0	102,151	17 0	10,411	1 5
1850*	30,457	3,556,337	115,541	7 11	95,301	19 8	10,066	5 6

* The chief cause of the falling off this year is the short supply of cotton, about 750,000 bales.

of shipping; and we have already seen that, in that year, she applied for and obtained an act for the construction of a wet dock. Since then her progress in commerce, and in the accumulation of wealth and population, has been quite unprecedented in the history of industry. It is not, however, difficult to discover the cause of the all but apparently miraculous progress of Liverpool. A good deal must be ascribed to the enterprise, sagacity, and persevering industry of the merchants; but she is no doubt mainly indebted for her rise and the vast magnitude of her commerce, to her fortunate position, and, above all, to the increase of manufactures in Manchester and the surrounding district. The situation of Liverpool necessarily renders her a principal seat of the trade between Ireland and Great Britain; and as the population and trade of the former increased, it could not fail proportionally to increase the trade of this port. The gradual filling up of the Dee, and the consequent decline of Chester as a harbour, has also proved of no little advantage to Liverpool, by rendering her the great mart for the salt of Nantwich, and other places in Cheshire, the exportation of which, to foreign parts, employs a great amount of shipping. Unquestionably, however, Liverpool would never have attained to half her present size or importance, but for the cotton manufacture. But being the port through which Manchester, Oldham, Bury, Bolton, Ashton, and other great seats of that manufacture, could most conveniently obtain supplies of the raw material, and export their manufactured products, she has increased with every increase in this great department of industry; and it is no exaggeration to affirm that the creative influence of the wonderful inventions and discoveries of Hargreaves, Arkwright, Crompton, Cartwright, and the other founders and improvers of the cotton manufacture, has been, though not so direct, quite as powerful in the docks and warehouses of Liverpool, as in the mills of Manchester.

The congenerous businesses of the slave trade and privateering appear to be the only departments of an exotic character, and not bottomed on any natural facility, that have ever been carried on to any great extent from Liverpool. The slave trade began in 1709; and was prosecuted vigorously and successfully from about 1730 down to the abolition of the trade in 1806, when it employed 111 ships, of the burden of 25,949 tons. It was apprehended by many that the abolition of this nefarious, though lucrative, traffic, would be a severe blow to the prosperity of the port. But so rapid was the increase of the legitimate and more natural branches of her trade, that it was but little felt at the time, and was very soon forgotten.

It is probable that the acquaintance with the slave trade may have given a stimulus to privateering; but, at all events, it was carried on to a great extent from Liverpool, both in the American and last French wars, especially in the former. In 1779, no fewer than 120 privateers belonged to the port, carrying each from 10 to 20 guns!

It is extremely difficult, or rather we should

say quite impossible, to form any correct estimate of the total amount of the trade of Liverpool. But in 1849, the real or declared value of the produce and manufactures of the U. Kingdom exported from Liverpool to foreign parts amounted to 32,341,918*l.*, while her imports, in c.asting trade, did not probably fall short of 29,000,000*l.* The following statement is not, perhaps, very wide of the mark.

Real Exports.		Real Imports.	
	£		£
Woolens - -	5,000,000	Irish trade - -	5,000,000
Cotton stuffs & yarn	18,000,000	Raw cotton	13,000,000
Linens - -	1,500,000	Other articles	11,000,000
Iron and hardware	5,000,000		
Earthenware - -	400,000		
Milk	550,000		
Brass and copper manufactures	600,000		
Salt, coal, and all other articles	3,450,000		
Total - -	32,341,918*	- - -	29,000,000

Four-fifths of the trade between the United Kingdom and the United States centres in Liverpool, and she has a large share of the trade with S. America and the W. Indies. She, also, carries on a considerable trade with the E. Indies and China, though in this department she is surpassed by London. Indeed, the ships and products of Liverpool are to be found in every port, in every part of the world, accessible to merchantmen. [See Table, next page.]

The shipping belonging to Liverpool, on the 1st of Jan., 1850, was as under:—

Shipping vessel Sailing do.	Under 50 Tons.		Above 50 Tons.		Total.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
183	5,704	1,285	448,444	1,561	454,138	
17	975	65	8,869	85	9,544	
180	6,309	1,455	457,313	1,633	463,638	

The crews required to man these ships would amount to from 20,000 to 22,000 men and boys.

The gross customs revenue of Liverpool, in 1849, amounted to 3,774,302*l.*, while that of London, in the same year, amounted to 11,070,178*l.* But it would be a great error to suppose that the trade of the metropolis exceeded that of Liverpool in this proportion. Cotton wool, and other raw materials of our manufactures, on which no duties are paid, form the principal part of the foreign imports into Liverpool; whereas London imports comparatively few of these articles, her trade being principally in articles of direct consumption, as sugar, tea, coffee, wines, timber, &c., on which high duties are paid. This circumstance accounts for the comparatively large amount of the customs revenue received in the latter; and, allowing for it, it will be found that the foreign trade of Liverpool materially exceeds that of London. In proof of this we subjoin the following extract:—

From a Parliamentary Return printed in 1847.

London —		No.	Tons.
British ships cleared inwards in 1845	-	5,123	1,109,367
" outwards	-	3,328	825,744
Foreign ships cleared inwards	-	2,430	385,104
" outwards	-	2,302	360,922
Total		-	2,680,567
Liverpool —			
British ships cleared inwards	-	2,610	914,529
" outwards	-	2,519	994,097
Foreign ships cleared inwards	-	1,925	491,189
" outwards	-	1,379	458,376
Total		-	2,919,016

* Some of the items in this statement may be erroneous; but in the aggregate it corresponds with the official return, and is, therefore, correct.

Account of the Principal Articles of East and West Indian and other Produce imported into Liverpool during each of the 6 Years ending the 31st December, 1849; with the Stocks on Hand on the 31st December, each Year. — (From the Tables published by the Brokers' Association.)

Articles.	Quantities.	Imports.					Stocks.				
		1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.
Ashes, American -	barrels	21,600	12,040	7,100	8,650	16,750	Port 4,500	3,750	1,800	600	2,900
Brimstone -	tons	8,950	12,145	8,300	10,200	11,300	Port 4,500	3,450	1,450	1,800	1,800
Caoutchouc -	cases	3,695	470	1,030	none	115	4,120	2,550	1,000	2,100	2,400
Cocoa -	bars and bags	4,120	9,550	9,770	13,565	12,500	1,445	2,800	6,400	7,500	3,500
Coffee, B. P. West India	bars and bags	3,130	3,700	5,710	2,770	2,550	1,650	1,500	1,750	500	1,500
Ditto	bars and bags	12,925	8,410	1,455	1,055	1,850	8,600	5,370	5,000	150	100
Ceylon	bags	4,800	9,500	5,060	7,150	770	2,000	740	1,000	3,800	5,100
East India	casks and bags	92,705	92,505	62,365	37,770	40,200	45,000	32,800	20,000	37,000	32,000
Foreign	tons	12,180	17,575	9,000	12,650	14,550	1,500	5,120	2,300	2,000	1,600
Drywoods, Logwood	ditto	3,700	6,650	4,000	5,600	6,300	220	730	500	300	800
Nicaragua Wood	ditto	2,150	2,510	2,300	2,420	2,400	1,100	560	700	250	800
Ginger, West India	bars and bags	855	580	440	70	70	1,500	510	650	100	60
East India	bags & pockets	1,960	1,755	3,800	2,780	5,950	tons 50	1085	2,100	none	5,600
Africa	bags, &c.	1,750	990	1,200	1,350	1,350	tons 50	30	300	none	400
Gum, Arabic	number	317,000	367,770	367,100	533,800	597,100	106,500	44,650	125,800	113,000	61,300
Hides, Ox and Cow	number	302,000	292,000	415,400	191,300	205,000	85,000	40,000	230,000	50,000	34,400
East India	ditto	3,150	15,675	47,565	67,900	129,600	850	1,000	17,100	12,900	64,500
Horse, South America	ditto	1,800	750	1,500	5	110	50	30	300	15	130
Spanish	serenas	1,210	475	390	850	730	970	450	280	230	125
Lac Dye	ditto	4,050	960	1,400	3,800	610	2,400	1,600	1,000	1,300	450
Shell	casks	3,085	9,745	3,665	3,770	3,700	1,200	150	100	100	80
Madder	bulas, &c.	18,000	12,210	12,690	16,550	15,600	3,600	3,800	1,500	2,500	1,700
Madder Roots	ditto	10,245	10,560	11,450	12,650	13,500	2,500	1,000	2,550	1,500	2,000
Molasses, West India	tons	4,000	5,050	4,800	4,300	7,300	5,000	1,350	2,900	700	1,800
East India and Foreign	tons	21,040	15,800	19,550	18,400	17,900	5,500	5,500	3,500	1,400	1,250
Palm Oil	bags & pockets	35,650	12,860	19,400	17,800	2,500	17,200	7,200	8,000	4,200	1,800
Pepper, East India	bags and bags	6,450	1,315	780	2,100	1,400	500	100	400	150	50
Pimento	ditto	218,200	201,455	578,000	351,000	297,900	25,000	7,500	130,000	120,000	109,000
Rice, East India	casks	150	5,600	86,500	1,050	11,000	1,500	2,500	1,500	500	1,350
American	troughs	7,085	960	9,905	9,800	8,595	3,185	700	3,700	6,700	2,000
Rum, West India	ditto	2,040	1,540	945	1,050	370	1,250	1,000	800	500	600
East India	ditto	365	750	1,900	540	255	545	1,050	500	100	none
Foreign	bags	48,180	69,740	66,100	49,800	45,600	9,000	16,300	5,600	4,100	7,400
Saltpetre, East India	hdhs. and tces.	25,000	69,170	16,000	77,600	68,300	31,000	38,240	56,500	68,000	44,500
Nitrate of Soda	ditto	99,430	21,970	26,340	24,300	30,650	6,500	5,700	14,000	10,400	8,400
Sugar, British Plantation	bags	260,300	309,840	279,600	330,900	301,400	115,000	96,000	145,000	124,000	142,000
Bengal, &c.	ditto	81,180	96,960	89,000	164,000	85,000	32,000	10,800	37,000	15,200	34,800
Maourins	bags, &c.	26,475	10,553	39,035	25,963	7,940	7,900	5,050	1,400	1,500	9,500
Manilla, Java, &c.	boxes	15	13,135	39,180	8,790	1,110	350	7,000	11,500	8,500	5,450
Havana	bags	4,600	4,355	8,710	6,030	6,470	1,600	3,200	5,800	4,200	5,200
Brazil	bags	10,750	19,640	84,800	77,960	95,650	2,600	5,500	32,000	35,000	42,000
Ditto	casks, bales, &c.	7,450	11,740	17,055	13,680	17,580	1,600	1,600	3,000	1,100	2,100
Other Foreign	bags, casks, bales, &c.	63,000	47,275	67,600	64,800	82,550	6,900	8,200	4,700	7,500	500
Sonae	bags	25,000	41,440	26,000	31,000	56,850	3,000	500	12,000	5,000	10,000
Tax	casks	38,760	19,870	17,100	18,900	26,250	9,975	6,580	800	3,850	11,850
Tallow, European	casks, &c.	15,100	9,610	9,000	16,750	24,100	1,000	1,000	550	2,800	1,500
American	casks, bales, &c.	800	570	515	1,100	700	600	600	400	500	450
Tinical	hdhs.	13,370	15,090	10,365	10,300	15,200	17,500	19,963	18,450	16,100	16,350
Tobacco	barrels	159,490	60,000	44,500	52,300	51,300	29,000	15,180	12,000	17,000	10,000
Turnepine	barrels	159,490	60,000	44,500	52,300	51,300	29,000	15,180	12,000	17,000	10,000

The vast preponderance of Liverpool in the cotton trade is obvious from the following

Account of the Packages of the different Varieties of Cotton imported into Great Britain from 1830 to 1849, both inclusive, and showing also the Numbers imported into Liverpool.

	1830.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.
America -	814,500	1,227,500	902,500	1,015,400	1,396,800	1,346,900	1,499,600	991,000	874,100	1,375,585	1,477,737
Brazil -	99,500	85,300	94,300	87,100	98,700	112,900	110,200	84,200	110,800	100,000	165,768
Caribbean -	35,500	38,000	40,700	19,600	45,400	66,700	82,000	60,600	80,700	99,010	74,831
East India -	124,000	218,500	273,600	255,500	182,100	237,500	158,100	94,700	227,800	227,512	181,167
West India, &c. -	36,000	22,500	32,900	17,300	17,700	17,500	8,800	13,000	4,900	7,889	9,144
Total into G. Britain	1,116,500	1,599,400	1,444,000	1,592,900	1,744,100	1,681,600	1,855,700	1,243,500	1,232,700	1,739,997	1,905,427
Total into Liverpool	1,019,499	1,415,241	1,164,269	1,349,511	1,557,597	1,490,984	1,652,731	1,154,194	1,087,058	1,569,097	1,732,727

And we may further mention, in corroboration of what has now been stated, that while the declared value of the exports of the produce of the U. Kingdom from London in 1849 amounted to 11,748,332*l.*, that of the exports from Liverpool amounted, as already seen, to the immense sum of 22,241,918*l.* The cross-channel trade of Liverpool with Ireland, and her coasting trade generally, is, also, of vast extent.

Next to the consequence of Liverpool as a trading port, is its high importance as a packet station, second probably to none in the world, except London. The packet-ships, or *hacres*, to New York and other parts of the United States, which, for size, excellent accommodation, and speed, are justly the objects of general admiration, leave the port weekly; and at present 13 steam ships of unexampled magnitude are engaged in the trade to New York, Boston, Halifax, &c. Packets are also regularly sent to the E. Indies, Rio de Janeiro, Lagayra, Buenos Ayres, Lima, Lisbon, Oporto, and the Mediterranean; and a steamer trades regularly between Liverpool and Harre. There is, also, a daily communication with Dublin; and at intervals not greater than once a week, and generally less, with Waterford, Belfast, Glasgow, the Isle of Man, Drogheda, Wexford, Cork, Bristol, Dumfries, Carlisle, Whitehaven, Wigtown, &c. A host of river steamers, also, are constantly plying

for passengers at the various ferries of the Mersey, or running up and down the stream. In short, nothing can be more striking, or better convince the stranger of the gigantic scale on which the entire business of Liverpool is conducted, than the view from the Cheshire shore of the immense mass of masts, extending upwards of 8 m. along the opposite banks; the activity ever visible in all the docks; the warehouses along the quays, instinct with life and labour; the ships constantly entering and leaving the Mersey, and the almost innumerable steamers of every size and quality, packets, ferry-boats, and tugs, rapidly courting up and down the river to their several destinations.

A commercial town like Liverpool must necessarily have many joint-stock banking companies and private banks. Among the former are the Eastern Bank of the Bank of England, the Royal Bank of Liverpool, the Bank of Liverpool, the Borough Bank, the Liverpool Union Bank, the Liverpool Commercial Bank, the Manchester and Liverpool District Banking Company, the N. and S. Wales Bank; there are, also, four private banks, and a savings' bank, which, on the 30th Nov., 1848, had 442,334*l.* of deposits.

Manufactures.—Liverpool is not, properly speaking, a manufacturing town; but the vast magnitude of its foreign commerce necessarily demands the practice of a

The following Table shows the distribution of the foreign and domestic trade of Liverpool:—

Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels that entered and cleared from the Port of Liverpool, in 1848, specifying the Countries whence they came, and for which they cleared, with the Departments in which they were engaged.

Countries.	Inwards.				Outwards.			
	British.		Foreign.		British.		Foreign.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
Europe generally	774	114,530	532	96,513	1,298	195,137	561	101,725
Africa	154	46,067	3	91	141	45,355	7	1,138
Asia	212	100,522	1	294	223	108,134	16	6,974
America, viz.—								
British Northern Colonies	411	214,445	-	-	390	177,909	-	-
British West Indies	113	30,809	-	-	138	87,048	-	-
Foreign West Indies	43	10,278	10	1,976	33	12,913	38	7,794
United States	349	247,383	648	455,293	395	276,719	600	431,394
South American States	226	76,374	6	1,208	404	180,632	19	5,149
Total	2,342	840,636	1,194	555,568	3,042	977,967	1,241	554,296
Isles of Guernsey and Jersey	80	1,372	5	596	25	2,812	-	-
Irish trade	3,214	682,539	-	-	3,749	680,148	-	-
Other countries (including the Isle of Man trade)	6,447	627,747	-	-	5,539	614,204	-	-
Total	11,083	2,159,702	1,199	554,091	12,785	2,225,121	1,241	554,296

But the extraordinary progress of the town, in population and commerce, will be best exhibited by the subjoined

Statement of the Christenings, Burials, Deaths, Marriages, and Population, of the Parish of Liverpool, from 1700, with an Account of the Vessels and their Tonnage entering the Docks, and of the Amount of the Dock and other Duties on such Ships in different Years since 1700.

Years.	Chri- sten- ings.	Burials.	Marriages.	Houses.	Population.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Dock Duties.		
								£	s.	d.
1700	132	124	25	1,142	5,714	-	-	-	-	-
1709	213	209	41	-	-	84	5,789	-	-	-
1710	228	211	40	1,634	8,168	-	-	-	-	-
1716	334	322	73	-	-	113	6,386	-	-	-
1720	410	393	86	2,367	11,835	-	-	-	-	-
1723	367	361	66	-	-	131	9,201	810	11	6
1728	359	439	79	-	-	-	-	847	16	11
1730	397	307	129	2,430	12,074	412	18,070	-	-	-
1735	451	378	122	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1737	495	479	131	-	-	171	12,016	-	-	-
1742	561	513	183	3,600	18,000	181	15,775	-	-	-
1744	658	587	192	-	-	220	19,176	-	-	-
1754	923	617	238	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1756	910	878	296	3,700	18,500	-	-	2,187	16	9
1760	946	299	408	5,156	25,787	1,943	-	2,330	6	7
1763	1,057	849	659	-	-	1,752	-	3,141	1	6
1770	1,317	1,062	423	6,800	35,600	2,073	-	4,142	17	2
1773	1,297	1,109	600	6,940	34,004	2,214	-	4,725	1	11
1777	1,578	1,186	481	-	34,107	2,361	-	4,610	4	9
1794	2,068	1,635	816	7,110	57,096	3,096	-	6,297	11	16
1790	2,244	1,763	805	8,865	56,732	4,223	-	10,037	6	21
1791	2,491	1,666	854	-	-	4,043	-	11,615	6	6
1798	2,677	2,161	1,101	-	-	4,478	-	12,437	12	3
1801	2,767	2,768	1,234	11,784	77,706	2,060	459,719	28,365	8	21
1805	3,492	2,841	1,239	-	-	4,618	463,482	33,364	13	1
1811	4,183	3,078	1,296	16,162	94,376	5,616	611,190	51,732	18	6
1812	5,896	2,946	1,116	-	-	4,599	416,748	44,403	7	11
1813	5,585	2,534	1,180	-	-	5,241	547,426	50,177	13	2
1815	4,068	3,298	1,725	-	-	6,440	709,819	76,915	8	8
1818	4,515	3,372	1,519	-	-	5,779	731,680	96,336	8	5
1819	4,548	3,748	1,664	-	-	7,849	867,318	110,127	8	8
1820	4,718	3,137	1,633	-	-	7,276	805,033	94,412	11	10
1821	4,629	3,497	1,632	20,339	118,972	7,810	839,618	94,356	9	1
1822	4,734	3,579	1,402	-	-	1,136	892,902	102,403	17	4
1823	5,029	3,538	1,749	-	-	8,916	1,010,819	115,783	1	6
1824	5,303	4,132	1,806	-	-	10,001	1,180,914	130,911	11	6
1825	6,527	4,143	2,068	-	-	10,537	1,223,580	129,931	19	8
1826	6,010	5,868	2,082	-	-	9,601	1,228,318	131,000	19	0
1827	6,587	5,084	2,024	-	-	9,592	1,225,313	134,472	14	8
1828	6,657	5,722	2,109	-	-	10,703	1,211,111	141,369	15	7
1829	6,812	5,747	2,120	-	-	11,383	1,207,327	147,327	4	11
1830	7,158	5,845	2,285	-	-	11,214	1,211,961	151,329	17	10
1831	7,687	5,049	2,380	27,361	165,221	12,537	1,292,136	185,155	4	11
1832	7,767	5,066	2,474	-	-	12,598	1,240,077	170,017	6	3
1833	7,756	5,825	2,525	-	-	12,964	1,290,461	182,980	16	16
1834	8,154	5,881	2,675	-	-	13,444	1,694,870	191,729	27	8
1835	8,546	4,740	2,906	-	-	13,341	1,768,429	196,637	18	9
1836	8,755	5,266	2,923	-	-	13,539	1,947,613	201,994	10	9
1837	9,383	6,475	2,791	-	-	13,038	1,958,981	175,853	10	1
1838	8,651	6,627	2,893	-	-	14,820	2,006,806	146,290	5	11
1839	9,502	7,430	2,188	-	-	15,443	2,138,691	150,355	1	6
1840	-	8,470	-	-	-	15,798	2,416,708	178,190	14	0
1841	-	7,306	-	-	225,003	16,108	2,425,461	175,506	8	5
1842	-	-	3,048	-	-	16,438	2,425,319	177,231	15	5
1843	-	-	3,511	-	-	16,636	2,415,278	188,266	2	11
1844	-	-	3,475	-	-	18,111	2,632,712	208,190	3	4
1845	-	7,371	4,243	-	-	20,521	3,016,531	250,441	0	5
1846	-	9,718	5,912	-	-	19,351	3,096,144	241,062	16	6
1847	-	-	-	-	-	20,889	3,351,739	273,711	15	6
1848	-	9,442	-	-	-	20,211	3,284,263	226,215	1	5
1849	-	-	-	-	-	20,733	3,039,146	255,726	0	9
1850	-	-	-	-	-	20,437	3,536,337	244,389	14	9

great number of domestic trades, some connected with shipping, and others dependent on the peculiar nature of the traffic of the port. There are several large sugar refineries, iron and brass foundries, public breweries, roperies, glass-staining works, and alkali works. The manufacture of soap is more extensively carried on here than in any town of the kingdom, the quantity produced in 1849 being 26,968,290 lbs. of hard,

and 6,418,690 lbs. of soft soap. The business of ship-building has fallen off in Liverpool, and in this respect she is now very inferior to Sunderland, and to her great transatlantic rival New York. Efforts are now, however, being made to recover and revivify the trade.

There are several windmills, and steam-engines for grinding corn colours, dye-woods, &c., and numerous and large manufactories of chain cables, anchors, &c.

The making of watches and watch-movements employs a great number of hands, and large quantities of these articles are exported, with files and tools, produced on a large scale in and near the town. Steam-engines of the best and most powerful kind are made in four establishments, from which have proceeded many of the engines employed on board the largest steam-ships; and this business is every year increasing in importance.

Canals and Railroads.—The commerce of Liverpool has been greatly promoted by the facilities which it enjoys for inland transport, greater perhaps than those belonging to any other town of Great Britain, except Manchester. The Irwell and Mersey navigation (for which an act was obtained in 1720), was the first effort to improve on the resources of nature, almost contemporary with which was the Weaver navigation. By means of the former, raw cotton and cotton goods were conveyed by water to and from Manchester, while, by the latter, the salt of Cheshire was furnished with equal facilities for its transit to Liverpool. The Sankey-brook navigation, completed in 1768, the Duke of Bridgewater's canals, the Trent and Mersey or Grand Trunk canals, and the Leeds and Liverpool canal, were finished in rapid succession, so that, in 1816, the port of Liverpool had a complete water communication, directly or indirectly, not only with the great manufacturing towns of Lancashire, Cheshire, and Yorkshire, from which it derives its chief articles of export, but likewise with the S. cos., and, in fact, nearly every part of England. The following table, drawn up from "Priestley's History of Canals," exhibits some particulars respecting the size, levels, &c. of the above-mentioned undertakings.

Canals.	Length.	Surface breadth.	Depth.	Rise and Fall.	Estimated Cost.
Mersey and Irwell navigation.	Miles.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	£
Weaver ditto	10	12	4	R. 79 F. 50	*
Sankey-brook ditto	24	12	4	F. 78	*
Duke of Bridgewater's canal	35½	-	-	F. 89½	320,000?
Trent and Mersey	93	-	-	R. 266 F. 134 F. 413	355,000
Leeds and Liverpool	134	42	5	F. 432½	1,200,000
Total length of canal communication	551½				

Very large fortunes have been realised by the above undertakings; and, notwithstanding the successful competition of railways, they still bring in large incomes to their proprietors. The facility of transit, however, both for passengers and goods, has been vastly increased since the opening of the railways, by which Liverpool is brought within an hour's distance of Manchester, and both are brought within 3 hours of Birmingham, and 6 hours of the metropolis! The act for the Liverpool and Manchester railway was obtained in 1825; the works were completed in 1830, at a cost of 876,000*l.*, or more than double the estimate laid before parliament, and the line was finally opened on the 15th September of that year, a day that will be long remembered, from its connection with the melancholy death of Mr. Huskisson, one of our most enlightened commercial statesmen. This railway is now incorporated with the London and Birmingham, Grand Junction, North Union, &c., under the name of the London and North-Western Railway, which affords, partly by itself, and partly by the all but innumerable lines connected with it, an easy and safe means of transit to all parts of the U. Kingdom. The station of the Liverpool and Manchester and N. W. Railway, in the centre of the town, opposite St. George's Hall, is at once a magnificent and a commodious structure. The front, in the Corinthian order, cost 7,000*l.* The Lancashire and Yorkshire, East Lancashire, Chester and Birkenhead railways have also terminated in Liverpool.

Corporate Establishment. &c.—Liverpool received its first charter of incorporation from King John in 1207, with others from subsequent monarchs. William III. granted it a new charter in 1693, which was confirmed, with a few alterations, by George II. and III.; and by the provisions of this charter the town was governed down to the passing of the Mun. Reform Act in 1835. The bor. is now divided into 16 wards, the corporate officers comprising a mayor, with 15 other aldermen, and 45 councillors. The corporation revenues derived from ordinary sources, amounted in 1849 to 169,367*l.* 16*s.* 2*d.* The corporation has the right, under an act passed in 1835, to nominate persons to fill subordinate corporate offices, and is empowered to make "laws for regulating the police of the town, the docks and the port generally, for lighting and watching the town, and for the suppression of disorderly and immoral practices." Quarter and petty sessions are held by the recorder, who is appointed

by the crown, and a few years ago the assizes for W. Derby and Salford were removed hither from Lancaster. The police, organised in 1836, and conducted by a commissioner, is formed, like that of the metropolis, into divisions, with superintendents, inspectors, sergeants, &c., and is said to be extremely efficient in suppressing crime, and maintaining order both in the town and port. The force consisted in 1849 of 936 men, including inspectors, &c., and cost 56,696*l.* 18*s.* Liverpool has three prisons.

There is great scope for the committal of offences in Liverpool; and, owing to the number of sailors frequenting the town, and the number of destitute immigrants, Irish and others, that are thrown upon its streets, we need not be surprised at the great number of petty offences. Happily, however, the number of serious crimes is not very considerable; less, indeed, than might have been fairly anticipated in so motley and excitable a population. Drunkenness is here, as in most similar places, the grand source of disorder. In 1849, no fewer than 18,664 individuals were brought before the magistrates charged with offences of various sorts. Of these, 5,504 were admonished and dismissed; 10,965 were summarily convicted; and 1,100 were committed for trial. Of the latter, 206 were sentenced to be transported, and 1 to be executed.

The bor. jail, erected on the plan of Howard, and formerly used as a depot for French prisoners, having become too small to admit of the proper classification of the prisoners, a new, enlarged, and improved prison is now being erected to the N. of the town. The Bridewell is well managed. The County House of Correction is situated at Kirkdale. A County Court is established in the town, before which 12,355 plaints were entered in 1848.

The provision for the poor, in so populous a town as Liverpool is, of course, on a large scale. The total sum raised by a rate and expended on account of the poor in the par. of Liverpool in 1849-50, amounted to 100,64*l.*, assessed upon property valued at 1,082,261*l.* a year. The poor-house, which, from its extent, might well be called a little town, is one of the largest in the kingdom. It admits of the perfect classification of the inmates, according to the principles of the Poor Law Amendment Act, and of considerable indulgence being granted to the sick and aged.

Latterly the pauper children have been removed from this building to the industrial school prepared for their reception at Kirkdale. This, which is a large quadrangular edifice, was finished in 1846 at a cost of 38,135*l.* 13*s.* 8*d.* In 1850 no fewer than 1,123 pauper children, viz. 640 boys and 483 girls, were boarded and educated in this school; the annual cost of their support and education being 18,404*l.* The establishment is well conducted, the education useful and good, and much better, indeed, than industrious artisans can give their children.

The bor. has enjoyed the privilege of sending 2 mems. to the H. of C., since the 26th of Edward I. Down to the passing of the Reform Act, the elective franchise was vested in the freemen and free burgesses. The Boundary Act enlarged the bor. so as to include the out-townships of Kirkdale, Everton, W. Derby, and Toxteth Park. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 17,316.

Condition of the People &c.—Owing to the rapid rise of Liverpool, its population consists, in a great degree, of adventurers, not merely from all parts of the United Kingdom, but of the world, attracted to it in the expectation, which, in many instances, has not been disappointed, of making a fortune. In such a society there is necessarily less prejudice, and fewer conventional and established observances, than in other and differently constituted towns. There is here, in fact, the greatest toleration for all sorts of individuals, and all sorts of opinions. Exclusiveness in Liverpool is, speaking generally, entirely out of the question; and you meet everywhere with people of all grades, all occupations, and all countries. It would be idle in such a place to look for that polish, and careful avoidance of debateable or irritating topics, that distinguish more aristocratically societies; but, on the other hand, it is free from the sameness and insipidity which characterise the latter.

The ostentatious display of wealth made by a lucky hit or successful speculation is sometimes, no doubt, offensive enough; but, on the whole, society in Liverpool is, from its variety and ease, superior to that in most other purely mercantile

* The cost of the above seems to have somewhat exceeded 300,000*l.*

towns. The higher class of merchants, having connections and correspondents in most parts of the world, are generally very well informed; and some of them are honourably distinguished by their taste in literature, science, and the fine arts. All classes are eminently enterprising (sometimes, perhaps, to excess), vigilant, and industrious; and possess, in a high degree, the qualities that go to form successful merchants and traders.

The situation of the lower or labouring classes in Liverpool, is, in many respects, less satisfactory than could be wished. Owing to the intimate intercourse it has with Ireland, and the small expense at which an individual may be brought over from Dublin, vast crowds of Irish labourers land at Liverpool, where they constitute a large proportion of the labouring population. Many of these persons are often, especially on their landing from Ireland, and before they find employment, reduced to a state bordering on destitution; and even after they obtain employment, they are frequently in a very depressed condition. In the departments of skilled labour, such as those of carpenters, smiths, bricklayers, &c. which are not interfered with by the Irish, wages are high; and employment being pretty constant, such workmen as are sober and industrious are in comfortable circumstances.

In consequence partly of the unfavourable condition of so many of the lower classes, but partly, also, of the vast amount of property that is here always, as it were, in a state of transition, passing from the warehouses to the shops, and from the warehouses to the conveyances by which it is to be carried to its ultimate destination, there is at once a great incentive to indulge in dishonest practices, and great opportunities for depredation.

In Liverpool, as in Manchester and Glasgow, a very large proportion of the labouring classes are miserably lodged; but since a sanitary act was passed relative to Liverpool, great improvements have been made in the circumstances conducive to the health of the town. This will be evident from the following statement by Dr. Duncan, the intelligent medical officer of the town:—"The corporation of Liverpool in 1846 obtained a local sanitary act (9 & 10 Vict. c. 127.), which came into operation Jan. 1. 1847. Since this period much has been done in the way of paving, sewerage, systematic cleansing, &c., to improve the condition of the lower and most densely peopled districts of the town; and the result has been a most gratifying change for the better in the back streets and courts inhabited by the working classes. The courts built since the act came into operation are all flagged, and are much more open and airy than those previously erected. The cellar habitations of Liverpool, long notorious as nurseries of disease, have been much improved. Upwards of 5,000 of the worst description have been closed under the powers of the act, and more than 2,000 others, which are unfit for human dwellings, are being gradually cleared of their inmates. The inferior lodging-houses have also been brought under regulation, with the view of preventing over-crowding and enforcing cleanliness and ventilation. Down to the present time (November, 1850) nearly 700 houses have been registered under the act, and brought under sanitary inspection. These operations have produced a marked improvement in the health of the worst conditioned districts. The mortality of Vauxhall Ward, for example, which ten years ago was 1 in 23½, has during the present year (1850) been not more than 1 in 31.

And the mortality of the whole borough, which was formerly 1 in 31, has been, during the three first quarters of the present year (1850), at the rate of only 1 in 37 annually."

The northern part of the town, as far S. as Whitechapel and Dale Street, is seated on a coarse, red, diluvial clay; the remainder is the new red sandstone; and, having a gentle declivity, it has every facility for drainage. It is also protected by hills from the cold, withering, N.N.E. winds; the climate, in fact, though humid, is more equable than in most other places; the sea breezes temper the heat of summer, and the cold of winter is usually from 6 to 8 degrees below that under the same latitude on the E. coast of the island. Its situation is, therefore, one of the healthiest that can be imagined; and though the mortality has sometimes been, as in 1847, excessively great, and is at all times very heavy, that is to be mainly ascribed, partly to the destitute, diseased, condition of many immigrants on their arrival in town, partly to the ill-ventilated, wretched habitations in which they have hitherto mostly resided, and partly to the poverty, improvidence, and vice prevalent among great numbers of the lower classes.

The suburbs of Liverpool are of great extent. Everton, Edgehill, and Kirkdale, are now indeed joined to the town; and this is nearly also the case with Bootle, from the extension of the docks to the N. Aigburth, West Derby, Wavertree, and Allerton are getting fast covered with handsome villas; and on the W. shore of the Mersey, Rock Ferry, Tranmere, Egremont, and New Brighton, are becoming very populous. The works at Birkenhead, to which we have already alluded (see the article), have been resumed; and it will, no doubt, become a place of importance, and command a fair share of the trade of the Mersey. (*Enfield's History of Liverpool; Baines's valuable History of Liverpool*, now (1850) in course of publication; and *Private Information*.)

LIVONIA (Russ. *Liflandia*, Germ. *Livland*, or *Liefland*), a marit. gov. of Europ an Russia, on the Baltic, having N. the gov. of Revel, E. the lake Peipus, separating it from the gov. of Petersburg, and the gov. of Pskov and Vitebsk, S. the latter and Courland, and W. the Gulph of Livonia. Length, N. to S., about 150 m.; average breadth, 117 m. Area, including the island Oesel, in the Baltic, 17,500 sq. m. Pop. in 1848, 814,100. The coast, and the greater part of the surface, are flat and marshy; but in the districts of Venden and Dorpat are some hills of considerable elevation: Elerberg, one of these, being nearly 1,100 ft. in height. There are several extensive lakes: the principal, Virtserv, 24 m. in length by from 2 to 6 m. in breadth, communicates with the lake Peipus by the Embach. Besides the last named, the chief rivers are the Dwina, which forms the South boundary, the Evst, and the Bolder-Aa. The soil, though in some parts loamy, is in general sandy, but being abundantly watered, it is, by proper manuring, rendered very productive. Rye and barley are the principal crops, and more of both is grown than is required for home consumption. Wheat and oats are less cultivated; buckwheat is raised on sandy soils: flax, hops, and pulse are also produced; and the potato culture is on the increase: fruits are of very indifferent quality. In some districts, agriculture is tolerably well conducted. The forests are an important source of wealth, and supply excellent timber; they abound, not only with game, but also with wolves, which are sometimes very destructive to the cattle. The rearing of live stock, though not altogether neglected, does not receive adequate attention; the breed of black cattle is, however, in the course of being improved. Horses and sheep are very inferior. The fisheries, both on the coast

and in the fresh waters, are important. Chalk, alabaster, and other calcareous materials are abundant.

Rural industry, and the distillation of spirits are by far the most important occupations. The manufactures of this government are, however, more extensive than those in its vicinity. The peasantry spin linen yarn, and weave their own cloths; and in the towns, especially Riga, there are sugar refineries, and tobacco, woollen cloth, cotton, linen, glass, and other factories, which employed, in 1837, about 3,500 hands, and produce goods of the amount of 11,000,000 roubles a year. (*Postscript*.) The N. part of Livonia formerly constituted a portion of Esthonia, and the S. a part of Lithuania. The pop. consists of Esthonians, Lithuanians, Russians, Germans, and (along a portion of the coast) Lives, the most ancient inhab. of the country, and from whom it has derived its name. About 82,000 of the inhab. reside in the towns, and these, as well as the nobles, clergy, &c. are chiefly of German descent. Until 1824, the Esthonians and Lithuanians were in a state of predial slavery; now, however, they are free, but without the right to hold real property. The prevailing religion is the Lutheran; there are only about 12,000 individuals of the Greek church, and other professions of faith. Education is tolerably advanced in the towns, and the university of Dorpat, in this government, is the first in the empire. But, after all, only 1 in 143 of the inhab. is said to be receiving public instruction. Livonia has a governor-general, whose authority extends over the government Pakov, and the other Baltic provinces; but it has its own provincial assembly, magistracy, &c., and has preserved many peculiar privileges, among which is that of exempting from the state monopoly of ardent spirits.

It was divided into 9 districts by Catherine II.: Riga is the capital and centre of its commerce; the other chief towns are Dorpat, Pernau, Fellin, and Arensburg in the island Gesel. Livonia was conquered by the Danes in the 12th century, and held by the Teutonic knights from 1346 to 1561. It afterwards belonged to Poland, and next to Sweden; but was definitively annexed to Russia, by the treaty of Nyustadt, in 1721. (*Schultz's La Russie*, 558-555; *Possart*; *Das Kaiserthum Russland*.)

LIZARD POINT.

LIZARD POINT, a bold headland, on the British Channel, being the most southerly promontory of England, on the S. coast of Cornwall, 23 m. E.S.E. the Land's End, lat. of highest light-house, 49° 57' 41" N., long. 5° 11' 5" W. The Lizard is famous in navigation, from its being the point whence ships usually take their departure from the channel, and being, also, the best place for a land-fall when homeward bound. It is surmounted by 3 light-houses with fixed lights at short distance from each other, the lantern of the one being 225 ft. and of the other 221 ft. above the level of the sea. Some steep rocks, called the Stags, lie to the S. of the Lizard.

LLAMPETER, or LLAN-BEDR, a par. bor., market-town and par. of S. Wales, co. Cardigan, hund. Moyddyn, 25 m. E. by N. Cardigan, and 180 m. W. by N. London. Pop. of par. bor., which is contributory to Cardigan, 902, that of the entire par. being, in 1841, 1,507. The town, which stands on a slope about $\frac{1}{2}$ m. N. of the Teify (crossed here by a stone bridge), appears to have been larger formerly than at present, when a score of tolerably built houses, and about 100 cottages, comprise the whole of its private dwellings. The church, which stands on an eminence at the N. end of the town, is very ancient, and being shaded with venerable yews, has a very picturesque appearance: there are also two chapels for Calvinistic Methodists and Presbyterians. The chief ornament of the place is the College of St. David's, a handsome Gothic structure erected in 1828. This institution, founded by George IV. in 1822, at the suggestion of the late Dr. Burgess, then bishop of St. David's, and endowed with 6 livings, is intended to furnish clerical instruction for the clergy of the S. part of the principality, and has already done much to raise a profession, which, owing partly to the misconduct and partly to the poverty and ignorance of its members, had fallen into merited disrepute. The students reside within the college, the business of which is conducted by the principal, who gives theological instruction, and is assisted by Greek, Hebrew, Welsh, and other professors. The course of instruction lasts during two years, and is attended, at an average, by about 60 students, whose necessary expenses do not exceed 55s. a year. The bishop of the diocese, who is the visitor, ordains none except graduates of the English universities, or certificated students of Llampeter College. The town is of little trading importance. Markets on Saturday. Fairs, well attended, for horses, cattle, and hogs, Jan. 11., Wednesday in Whitun-week, July 10., first Saturdays in Aug. and Sept., Oct. 19., and first Saturday in Nov. The town is incorporated, governed by a portreeve, and sessions are held annually by the co. magistrate on the second Wednesday in Oct.

LLANGADOG-FAWR.

LLANDRILLO-FAWR, a market-town and par. of S. Wales, co. Caermarthen, hunda. Caro and Perfedd, on the Towy, 13 m. E. by N. Caermarthen, and 169 m. W. by N. London. Pop. of par. (including 10 hamlets), in 1831, 5,149: do. of township, 1,268. The town, situated in the beautiful and interesting vale of the Towy, is small and ill-built, the only public buildings being an old church, and 4 places of worship for dissenters. Newton Park, the residence of Lord Dynevor, and Golden Grove, belonging to Earl Cawdor, are the principal country seats of the neighbourhood, which is very productive, and has some rich mines of coal and iron. A railway connects this coal-field with the port of Llanelly. Quarter sessions are held here; and Llandello-fawr is one of the polling places for the co. Markets well-supplied with corn, &c., on Saturday; fairs, Feb. 30., May 5. and 12., June 21., Aug. 22., and Nov. 12.

LLANDOVERY, a mun. bor. and market-town of S. Wales, par. Llandinog, co. Caermarthen, bund. Perfedd, 22 m. E.N.E. Caermarthen, and 163 m. W. by N. London. Pop. of bor. in 1831, 1766. The town, agreeably situated in the upper part of the vale of the Towy, at a short distance from that river, has one principal avenue, and 8 other streets lined with respectable houses. The keep of an old castle, destroyed by Cromwell, occupies the summit of an insulated rock, and forms a chief feature of the place. The par. church stands a little S. of the town, and there are likewise 4 places of worship for dissenters, with attached Sunday schools. National and Lancasterian schools are established, and there are almshouses and other charities for the poor. There is little trade or traffic of any kind in Llandoverly: but it is a mun. bor., governed, since the Municipal Reform Act, by a mayor and 3 other aldermen, with 12 councillors. The petty sessions for the hund. of Perfedd are held here, and Llandoverly is one of the polling places at the elections for the co. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday: cattle fairs Wednesday after Jan. 17., the 2d Wednesday after Easter, Whit-Tuesday, July 31., and Nov. 30.

LLANELLY, a par. bor., sea-port, market town, and par. of S. Wales, co. Caermarthen, bund. Caernwallon, 12 m. S.E. Caermarthen, 104 m. W.N.W. Swansea, and 174 m. W. by N. London. Pop. of par. bor. in 1841, 6,819. The town is irregularly built, on a creek near the sea-shore; but some of the houses are good, and the place, on the whole, appears to be thriving. The church is an old irregular structure, remarkable as having two towers, one embattled, and the other surmounted by a steeple: the living is a vicarage, and within the par. are two chapels-of-ease. Dissenters also of different denominations have several places of worship, with free school and two other schools, chiefly supported by subscription, furnish instruction to the children of the poor; and there are four charities for the relief of the sick and aged. Llanelly is situated in the midst of the rich mineral basin of S. Wales. Four large collieries at Llannegonec employ upwards of 500 persons; and the abundance of excellent coal, a part of which is exported to France, Spain, and the Mediterranean, for the use of steam-boats, has caused the establishment of the Llanelly and Cambrian copper-works. The ore is imported chiefly from Cornwall; and the copper-cakes and sheathing are sent to Liverpool, and other ports of the kingdom. There are also two iron-foundries, but both are air-furnaces, and of no great importance. The town has four docks, two of which are floating basins, the largest being capable of accommodating no less than 50 vessels of 500 tons register. This port had, in 1850, 70 ships, of the aggregate burden of 4,469 tons; and the register tonnage cleared outwards, in 1849, amounted to 174,675 tons. The gross customs' revenue, in 1846, amounted to 9323.

The interests of the town have been recently much promoted by the construction of a railway, which runs into different parts of the fine coal-field near Llandello; and it is probable that Llanelly will, at no distant period, become one of the principal trading ports of the principality. The par. bor., which is contributory to that of Caermarthen, includes the bor. hamlet, with some additions. Registered electors in both bors., in 1849-50, 718. The bor. is governed by a portreeve and burgesses, and had formerly both civil and criminal jurisdiction. Markets on Thursday and Saturday: fairs on Ascension-day and Sept. 30.

LLANGADOG-FAWR, a market-town and par. of S. Wales, co. Caermarthen, bund. Perfedd, on the Towy, here crossed by a handsome stone bridge, 19 m. E. by N. Caermarthen, and 167 m. W. by N. London. Pop. of par., in 1831, 2,476. The town has two pretty wide streets, with a few well-built houses and numerous cottages, an old church, and 3 dissenting places of worship, being the only public buildings, besides a ruinous old castle. Woollen stockings, and coarse woollen cloths, are made here; but the chief business is the sale of farm produce at the fairs and markets, which are very considerable. Markets on Thursday; fairs,

March 12, July 9, Thurs. after Sept. 11., and 2d Thurs. after Oct. 10.

LLANGOLLEN, a town of N. Wales, co. Denbigh, hund. Chirk, on the Dee, 30 m. S. W. Chester, and 168 m. N. W. London. Pop. of par., in 1841, 4,906. The town, beautifully situated in a deep, narrow vale, enclosed by lofty mountains, and watered by the Dee, which is crossed here by a good stone bridge, consists of one principal and a few smaller streets, lined with old and mean houses, interspersed with a few handsome modern dwellings, amongst which are three large and commodious inns. The church, in the early English style, has service performed in it both in English and Welsh: there is a chapel-of-ease at a hamlet within the par., and the dissenters have three places of worship. The labials derive their chief support from summer visitors, who, in making the tour of N. Wales, usually make some stay here, in order to enjoy the fine scenery of this vale, which in some respects excels that of the vales of Clwyd and Feestling. Many families, also, reside here during summer, so that Llangollen may be considered as a sort of watering-place. The Reform Act made it a polling-place for the co. Markets on Saturdays. Fairs, March 17, May 31., and Aug. 31.

About 1 m. from Llangollen, situated on a high and steep conical hill, the ruins of the castle of Dinas Bran, once a fortress of considerable strength; and about 1 m. beyond, nearly in the same direction, are the majestic remains of Vale-croci Abbey, still in tolerable preservation: the name of this abbey is derived from a pillar or cross, situated in an adjoining field, supposed to be of high antiquity. Four miles from the town, and in another direction, is the Cysylltu aqueduct, by which the Ellesmere canal is conveyed across the Dee, a noble structure of 19 arches, raised 126 ft. above the river, at a cost of £7,000.

LLANIDORBS, a parl. bor., market-town and par. of N. Wales, co. of Montgomery, hund. Llanidloes, at the confluence of the Clevedon with the Severn, 37 m. W. S. W. Shrewsbury, and 168 W. N. W. London. Pop. of town in 1841, 2,742. It is situated in a valley on the E. bank of the Severn (crossed here by a handsome stone bridge of 3 arches), and is surrounded on all sides by lofty hills: the buildings have increased rapidly, and several respectable houses have been substituted for others composed of wood and plaster, which formerly gave the place the appearance of a village. A new town-hall stands nearly in the centre of the town. The church, built in 1542 on the site of an older structure, and re y recently repaired, is chiefly remarkable for a ceiling of delicately carved oak, and for a square tower of great antiquity. There are also places of worship for Independents, Wesleyans, Calvinistic Methodists, Baptists, and the Society of Friends. Instruction is furnished in day-schools to about 70 children; but education is little valued, and the mass of the population are described, we hope too strongly, as being "cradled in ignorance, and inured to vice both by habit and example."

Flannel and other woollens are the principal articles manufactured in Llanidloes, and the present improved condition of the town is wholly attributable to its trade in these articles. The spinning of wool is conducted in six mills, employing 180 hands; but the cloth is wholly made by hand-loom. The quantity of flannel annually manufactured averages 4,300 pieces: there were 815 looms at work in 1838, which employed 590 men, 176 women, and 106 children. The wages of the best weavers are 10s. a week; but the average is about 7s. Spinners earn about 12s. The weavers are stated to be drunken, improvident, dishonest, and insubordinate: "in fact, between poverty on the one hand, and want of education on the other, the condition of Llanidloes presents a picture darker, by many shades, than any town of its size in the principality, except Merthyr-Tydvil." (*Hand-loom Rep.*) Within the par. is the lofty mountain of Plinlimon, or, more properly, *Pumlumon*. "the five-peaked hill, on which are the sources of the Severn, Wye, and Rhaidol; and at the foot of the range there are slate quarries and lead mines, the produce of which contributes to the support of the place."

Llanidloes is a corporate town, having a mayor, coroner, and other officers, elected at a court-leet: it was not considered sufficiently important to be included in the provisions of the Municipal Reform Act. The Reform Act made it a parl. bor., contributory to Montgomery, which sends 1 mem. to the H. of C., and the electoral limits comprise, besides the town, a considerable extent of surface on both sides the Severn. Registered electors, in all the bors. in 1845-50, 1,048. Markets on Saturday: fairs, April 8, May 11, June 21, July 17, September 8, October 2, and 26.

LLANRWST, a town of N. Wales, partly in co. Caernarvon and partly also in co. Denbigh, on the Conway, 37 m. W. Chester, and 183 m. N. W. London. Pop. of par., in 1841, 2,396. The town, in a spacious vale, surrounded by lofty and well-wooded hills, stands chiefly on the E., but partly also on the W. bank of the Con-

way, which is crossed here by an elegant bridge, constructed in 1636, from the designs of Inigo Jones. Three considerable streets, lined with tolerably built houses, branch from a spacious market-place, in the middle of which is the town-hall, a substantial brick structure. The church, an old and small building, has adjoining to it the Gwydr chapel, a square castellated edifice, originally erected as a family mausoleum, by the Wynne family, and now used as a place of worship. It has many monuments; but its chief celebrity is owing to its containing the remains of the great Llewellyn, removed thither from the abbey of Aberconway, in which they were originally interred. There are also 11 chapels for dissenters within the par., and some good Sunday schools. Llanrwst, formerly noted for its harp-manufacture, depends at present almost entirely on its retail trade; for the spinning and knitting of wool is become quite insignificant. It derives considerable advantages from its position on the Conway, which brings up vessels of 60 tons burden to Trefriw with coal, lime, timber, &c. in return for slate and iron. Gwydr castle, a rather large and very elegant modern structure, is situated about ½ m. from the town. Markets on Tuesdays and Saturdays. Fairs on March 8, April 23, June 10, Aug. 10, and 17, Oct. 23., and Dec. 11.

LLANTRISSENT, a parl. bor. and market-town, and par. of S. Wales, co. Glamorgan, hund. Miskin, 10 m. N. W. Cardiff, and 140 m. W. London. Pop. of parl. bor. in 1841, 856; ditto of par., 3,323. The town, which stands on a commanding eminence overlooking the vale of Glamorgan, consists only of three or four narrow and irregular streets, lined with old and ill-built houses. The town-hall and market-house were erected by the Bute family, who are lords of the manor, and the principal landowners in the par. The church is a large structure in the Norman style, the living being a vicarage in the gift of the dean and chapter of Gloucester cathedral. There are also two chapels of ease in the out-townships, and several places of worship for dissenters, with attached Sunday schools. The ruins of an old castle with a high tower stand close to the town; and at a short distance are some interesting remains of an old monastery. Llantrissant has very little trade; but coal, lead, and iron are found in considerable quantities, in the hamlet of Pentrch, and sent to Cardiff for exportation. The charter of the bor. was granted by Edward III., and the government is vested in a portreeve, constable, and 12 aldermen, whose privileges were left untouched by the Municipal Reform Act. Llantrissant is a parl. bor., contributory with Cowbridge to Cardiff, which sends 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors in all the bors. in 1845-50, 896. Markets on Friday: fairs, Feb. 12, May 12, Aug. 12, and Oct. 29.

LLERENA, a town of Spain, prov. Extremadura, 89 m. N. Seville, and 300 m. S. W. Madrid. Pop., according to Milano, 6,495. It stands on a plain at the foot of the Sierra San Bernardo, which separates Estremadura from Seville; and has 3 par. churches, 4 convents, and an hospital. The inhab. are chiefly engaged in grazing sheep and cattle on the rich pastures of the vicinity, and in collecting oak-bark, galls, and timber from the neighbouring forests.

LO (ST.) (an. *Briovera*), a town of France, dep. La Manche, of which it is the cap., on the Vire, and on the high road between Paris and Cherbourg, 156 m. W. by N. the former. Pop. (1846), *ex. com.*, 8,539. It is ill laid out; streets steep and irregular; they mostly lead from a square in the highest and central part of the town, which has several of the principal public buildings; among these the few that deserve notice are, the church of Notre-Dame, with two lofty spires; that of St. Croix, built in 806, and considered the best specimen of Saxon architecture in France; the prefecture, a handsome new edifice; the town-hall, judicial court, prison, hospital, theatre, and a bridge of six arches over the Vire. The environs are picturesque and agreeable. St. Lo is the seat of tribunals of original jurisdiction and commerce, a chamber of manufactures, and a communal college. It has a public library with 2,600 vols., a philharmonic society, societies of agriculture and commerce, manufactures of fine woollen cloth, drugs, candles, serge, calicoes, lace, cutlery, &c., and considerable trade in thread, iron, salt butter, cider, honey, cattle, &c. It derives its present name from a bishop of Coutances in the 6th century. (*Hugo, art. Manche.*)

LOANGO, a kingdom of W. Africa, on the Atlantic Ocean, bounded N. by Mayomba, and S. by Congo, from which it is separated by the Zaïre. The coast is high and abrupt, but the hills are covered with earth and luxuriant vegetation. The soil is generally a stiff loam, and very productive; but near the coast is an extremely fine sand, that is carried about by the lightest breeze. The lakes and rivers, of which there is a considerable number, abound with fish, and in the forests are found tiger-cats, ounces, hyenas, monkeys, antelopes, hares, and other game. The climate is excessively hot; it sometimes rains, but the dews are sufficient for vege-

tation. Almost the only grains are manioc, maize, and a species of pulse called *mgangen*, rudely cultivated by women, who merely stir the ground to the depth of an inch, and cover up the grain, to prevent its being devoured by birds, and even this slender culture is confined to small patches round the villages. The rest of the country is covered with luxuriant herbage, rising to the height of 8 feet, allowed by the people to grow, ripen, and wither, without being applied to any use. Sometimes, however, they set fire to it, producing a wide extended conflagration over the whole country, the coast appearing from the sea to be on fire. The finest fruits grow wild, and the sugar-cane attains an extraordinary size. The tree called the mapou is distinguished, like the baobab, by the enormous dimensions of its trunk. Palm trees are very plentiful, particularly that species from which the natives extract their favourite liquor. The potato and yam are also abundant. The Chinese hog is the only animal reared for domestic use, the natives having altogether neglected the breeding of sheep, cattle, and horses, formerly introduced by the Portuguese, and still abundant at their settlement of St. Paul de Loanda. The inhabs, usually residing in villages or clusters of straw huts in the midst of palm groves. They seem to be in the lowest state of degradation, being incorrigibly indolent, debauched, filthy, cowardly, and superstitious to the extreme. The country is divided among several chiefs, who, though often at war with each other, acknowledge the supreme authority of the king of Loango, the cap. The latter is elective and absolute, but the judicial power is vested in the *cabals* or assemblies of the different villages. Loango, called *Borai* by the natives, about 2 m. from the coast, in lat. $4^{\circ} 36'$ S., long. $12^{\circ} 20'$ E., has been said to have a pop. of 15,000 persons. It is nothing more than a collection of huts. This and the ports of Kabenda and Majumba, also, in Loango, were formerly among the principal slave marts on the coast of Guinea; and notwithstanding the efforts that have been made for the suppression of the traffic, we doubt whether it be materially diminished. (For further and ample information as to this country, see *Voyage à la Côte Occidentale de l'Afrique*, by Degrandpré, passim; and *Prevost, Histoire Générale des Voyages*, vol. iv. 579—610.)

LOCHES, a town of France, dep. Indre-et-Loire, cap. arrond. on a hill beside the Indre, 23½ m. S. E. Tours. Pop. (1846), *ex. com.*, 3,481. It is irregularly laid out, and its streets are narrow; but it is healthy, and has many good houses. Its castle, on a plateau, at the summit of the hill on which the town is situated, has gained considerable notoriety in French history. It appears to have been built in the last ages of the Western Empire, and is one of the most remarkable remains of that period now existing in France. Charles VII. defended it successfully against the English; Louis XI. made it a state prison; and here, Cardinal Balue, of infamous memory, was confined in an iron cage for 11 years. It is now mostly destroyed, what remains being occupied by the sub-prefecture, prison, &c. The palace of Charles VII., now the municipality, is a large oblong building on the bank of the Indre; it was long the residence of Agnes Sorel, whose remains are deposited in a chapel in a tower of her erection. The church of Loches, originally founded *circa* anno 450, is a singular piece of architecture, with four steeples, two of which are about 160 ft. high. Loches communicates with the little town of Beaulieu by several bridges over the Indre. It is the seat of a tribunal of primary jurisdiction, and a communal college; and has manufactures of linen and coarse woollen cloths, paper, leather, &c. (*Usage*, art. Indre-et-Loire.)

LOCHMABEN, a royal and parl. bor. and market town of Scotland, co. Dumfries, in a level country, surrounded by several lochs, or lakes, 10 m. N. E. Dumfries, and 32 m. N. W. Carlisle. Pop. 931. The town consists of one extremely wide street, more or less overgrown with grass. The public buildings are a town-house, parish church, and a dissenting chapel. It has no manufactures. The schools are good; and there is a subscription library. It was lately, and perhaps, still is about the poorest royal bor. in Scotland. Lochmaben owes its origin to the protection afforded by a castle of the same name, built in the 12th century, by the Bruces, lords of Annandale, from whence King Robert Bruce was descended. The site of this fortress, surrounded by a deep fosse and moat, is still called the Castle-hill. Robert Bruce built another strong castle on a peninsula, on the S. E. side of the Castle Loch, which, with its outworks, covered nearly 16 acres. The walls, in the few places where they are still entire, are 12 ft. thick. It was preserved as a border fortress till the union of the crowns; since which it has gradually gone to decay. Bruce parcelled out the barony of Lochmaben, called the "Four Towns," as it contains 4 villages, among his retainers, in small patches, on the condition that the occupants should furnish a certain amount of provisions for the use of the royal fortress. These persons, who are

called the "king's kindly tenants," had no written title to the lands; and at present, in case of a sale, a simple deed of conveyance is sufficient; and the succession is taken up without any feudal service. Owing to a misunderstanding between these tenants and the keeper of Lochmaben Palace, Charles II., in 1664, guaranteed to them the perpetuity of their leases, and relieved them from every burden, except the rents and services paid by their ancestors in 1602, which are nominal merely. The tenants are a poor but contented class, having little intercourse with the rest of the community. Johnstone, of Annandale, is the hereditary keeper of the royal palace, and, as such, receives the nominal rents in question. Many of the inhabs. of the bor., like the "king's kindly tenants," are owners of small patches of land, there being within the bor. no fewer than 141 small proprietors! Lochmaben unites with Annan, Sanguhar, Dumfries, and Kirkcudbright, in sending a member to the H. of C. Registered voters in 1845-50, 33. (*New Stat. Acc. of Scotland*, § Dumfries, p. 376—397; *Chalmers's Caledonia*, § Dumfries-shire; *Forrest's Picture of Scotland*.)

LOCHWINNOCH, a manufacturing town of Scotland, co. Renfrew, on the Calder, a stream which terminates in Castle Semple Loch, 15½ m. S. W. Glasgow, and 25½ m. N. W. Ayr. Pop. in 1841, 2,681. The town, which is sheltered in every direction, except the S. E., either by rising grounds, or thick plantations, has a main street (½ m. long), with others crossing it at right angles. It, also, has a parish church, a Free church, a chapel belonging to the Associate Synod, several public libraries, and various friendly societies. Manufactures were early introduced into Lochwinnoch; but those of linen and silk have disappeared. Thread-making was introduced in 1723; at one time there were about 20 thread-mills in the place; but the business is now nearly discontinued. Cotton is the staple manufacture. Three cotton-mills employ about 600 persons; and there are above 200 weavers employed by the manufacturers of Glasgow and Paisley. There is a small power-loom factory, a small mill for carding and spinning wool, and one of the best corn-mills in Scotland. The Glasgow and Ayr railway, opened in 1840, passes close to Lochwinnoch. (*Ibid.*; and *Factory Reports*, 1839, p. 206, 307.)

LOCKERBIE, a market town of Scotland, co. Dumfries, in the centre of a rich and fertile country, on the road between Carlisle and Glasgow, 37 m. N. W. Ayr, and 66 m. S. E. the latter. Pop. in 1841, 1,315. It is neat and regularly built; and has been materially increased and improved since the opening of the Caledonian railway, which passes close by the town. It has a par. church, a Free church, and a chapel belonging to the Associate Synod. Lockerbie has long been distinguished for its excellent schools. There are two public libraries and a reading-room. There are 2 fairs and 10 markets annually. The fairs are exclusively, or at least principally, for lambs and wool. When the border laids and so far caled (after the union of the crowns) as to allow a slight intercourse between the English and Scotch, the sheep farmers of the S. of Scotland assembled here to meet the English dealers. This was the origin of these fairs, which have been long very important. The Lammas fair (2d Monday in Aug.) is the largest lamb fair in Scotland. The 10 markets have each a somewhat different object; one of them being for hiring servants, another for black cattle and horses; while those in winter are principally for pork, which is largely produced in the vicinity. There are two branch banks in the town. (*New Stat. Acc. of Scot.* § Dumfries, p. 451.)

LODEVE, a town of France, dep. Herault, cap. arrond. on the Ergue, at the foot of the Cevennes, 37 m. W. N. W. Montpellier. Pop., in 1846, *ex. com.*, 10,272. It is ill built; is surrounded by old fortifications; and has an old cathedral, formerly a bishop's see. In Lodève and its neighbourhood, from 7,000 to 8,000 work-people are employed in the manufacture of woollen cloth for the army, and nearly all the inhabs. of the town are in some manner connected with this business, at least 3-4ths of the pop. belonging to weavers' families. About 60,000 pieces of broad cloth are made annually. The government demand for this cloth being pretty constant, the people engaged in its manufacture have also pretty constant employment, and their condition is consequently better than that of most of those in the ordinary departments of industry. Wages are high; the men getting from 1 fr. 75 c. to 3 fr. a day; women from 75 c. to 1 fr.; and children from 50 to 80 c. The workpeople are said to be active, industrious, and particularly sober; and the proportion of illegitimacy to the total births in Lodève is said not to be more than 1 in 30, while in the dep. generally it is 1 in 19. This singular statement, the accuracy of which seems at first sight very questionable, is partly at least accounted for by the fact that the weavers usually marry early, that there is no garrison in the town, that some of the females lie in at Montpellier, Beziers, and elsewhere, and that there is no founding

asylum in the whole around. (*Hugo, art. Herault; Pictorial; Tableau Physique, &c. des Ouvriers*, l. 319-323.)

LODI, a city of Lombardy, cap. deleg. Lodi and Crema, on the Adda, here crossed by a wooden bridge, and on the road from Milan to Piacenza, 18 m. S.E. Milan. Lat. $45^{\circ} 18' 34''$ N., long. $9^{\circ} 20' 58''$ E. Pop. (1898), 15,968. It is situated on slightly rising ground, and is surrounded by old walls, and entered by four gates. It is generally well built, and has broad and regular streets, an old citadel, now dismantled, and converted into barracks by the Emperor Joseph II., numerous churches, a large hospital, a theatre, several handsome palaces, and a large market-place surrounded by arcades. The church *della Incoronata* is said to have been designed by Bramante; it has a fine rotunda, and is ornamented with frescoes and paintings by Callato, a pupil of Titian. In the cathedral is the "Murder of the Innocents," by the same artist. Lodi is a bishop's see; and the seat of the governor, assembly, and superior judicial courts for the *delegazione*; it has a royal and ecclesiastical gymnasium, a public library, a normal school, founded by Joseph II., orphan and foundling asylums, a workhouse, a *mont de pitié*, a large porcelain factory, and manufactures of linen fabrics, &c. It is the centre of the trade in Parmesan cheese. (*See ITALY (AUSTRIAN)* in this vol., p. 64.)

Lodi is famous in modern history for the victory achieved here on the 10th of May, 1798, by Napoleon, in his first Italian campaign. The cannon of the Austrians swept the bridge behind which they had drawn up; but it was, notwithstanding, forced by the French at the point of the bayonet, and the Austrian army totally defeated. On this occasion, the intrepidity and gallantry of Napoleon shone as conspicuously as his skill as a tactician. (*Quæterf., Nat. Encl.; Berghem; Condor's Italy, &c.*)

LOFFODEN ISLES, a group of islands on the coast of Norway, between lat. $59^{\circ} 40'$ and $60^{\circ} 30'$ N., and long. $11^{\circ} 40'$ and $16^{\circ} 20'$ E. There are five large and several smaller islands, having in all from 3,000 to 4,000 inhab. The principal are (taking a S.W. direction) Anden, Lunde, and Hinnøen, which is the largest of the whole group, and, with six others, forms, on the side of the Norwegian continent, the great gulph of West Fiord. The coasts of these islands are extremely irregular, and they rise into lofty and rugged mountains, covered with perpetual snow, and in some places with glaciers. There are no trees, but only a few stunted shrubs, grass, and cryptogamous plants; nor are these islands of any importance, except on account of the fisheries, which are very extensive and valuable. "In the beginning of February the cod-fish set in from the ocean, and occupy the banks in West Fiord. These banks are from 3 to 10 m. out in the Fiord, at a depth of from 60 to 80 fathoms; and the fish crowd so much together while depositing their spawn, that it is said a deep sea lead is often interrupted in its descent to the bottom through these fish-beds. The fishermen assemble in the month of January at the different stations, and the fish are caught by nets and long lines, set at night and taken up in the morning. An outfit, or company, consists of 2 boats, each having 5 men, and provided with 6 or 8 nets; every 20 or 30 of these companies have a large tender to bring out their provisions, nets and lines, and to take the produce to market. The fish are cured as round or stock fish till April, after which they are split, salted, and carried to Drontheim, or other places, to be dried on the rocks, like the Scotch-dried cod. The stock-fish are merely gutted and hung up, two together, across poles, and are dried, without salt, in the wind. In a medium year (1897) there were 2,516 boats fishing in 83 different stations, accompanied by 134 tenders, the number of men in all being 178,984. The produce amounted to 16,558,630 fish, which, when dried, would weigh 8,900 tons; there were also, 21,560 barrels of cod-oil, and 6,000 barrels of cod-roe. This important winter-fishery ends in the middle of April. The herring fishery on these shores is of much less consequence." (*Living's Norway*, p. 300-43.)

LOGHUR (*Lohagur*, "the iron fort"), a strong hill fort of Hindostan, prov. Aunrabad, in the British territories, 30 m. N.W. Poonah. From the perpendicular height of the rock on which it is built, this fortress could not, if properly defended, be taken by storm. It is supplied with water by numerous tanks and springs, and has extensive excavated magazines. It came into the possession of the British in 1818.

LOGRONO (an. *Logroña*), a town of Spain, in Old Castile, prov. Soria, on a spacious plain on the Ebro, which is here crossed by a handsome bridge, 57 m. W.S.W. Pampeluna, and 166 m. N.E. Madrid. Pop., according to Mifano, 8,310. It comprises, besides several good streets, two fine squares, with a collegiate church, 5 par. churches, 8 convents, and 2 hospitals. It has tanneries, distilleries, and fabrics of saddles, hats, and candles.

LOHEIA, a sea-port town of Arabia, the most northerly in the terr. of Yemen, on the Red Sea, 175 m. N.N.W. Mocha, lat. $15^{\circ} 41' 30''$, long. $43^{\circ} 46' 14''$. It stands on low ground, sometimes inundated by the sea. Its port is so shallow that vessels of even small burden are obliged to anchor at a considerable distance off shore. The environs are arid and sterile, and the town is ill supplied with water. It is not walled, but is defended by several towers at equal distances round it, though only one of these is defensible by cannon. A few houses are of stone; but the greater part are mere mud built, and thatched with grass, with a straw mat for the door, and rarely any windows. The chief edifices are, a mosque, with the tomb of the Mohammedan saint who founded the town; the governor's residence; the custom-house, and some coffee warehouses. The coffee shipped at Lohela is inferior to that of Mocha; but it notwithstanding carries on a considerable trade in it with Cairo, through Djidda. Lime is prepared in the neighbourhood by the calcination of coral; and near the town is a salt mine. (*Niebuhr, Voyage de L'Arabie*, l. 248; *Gaug. Journal*, &c.)

LOIRE-ET-CHER, a dep. of France, reg. centre, between lat. $47^{\circ} 15'$ and $48^{\circ} 10'$ N., and long. $0^{\circ} 30'$ and $2^{\circ} 15'$ E., having N. Eure-et-Loire, E. Loiret and Cher, S. Indre and Indre-et-Loire, and W. the latter, and Sarthe. Length, N.W. to S.E., 80 m.; breadth varying from 20 to 48 m. Area, 635,971 hectares. Pop. (1846), 266,833. Surface mostly plain, with a general inclination toward the W. The Loire intersects the dep. nearly in its centre in a direct line from E. to W.; the other chief rivers are, in the N. the Loir, a tributary of the Sarthe; and in the S. the Cher, Bourbre, and Cosson, affluents of the Loire. In the S. of the department are numerous pools and marshes, which in the arrondissement of Romorantin cover nearly 3,400 hectares. In 1834, it was estimated that 269,627 hectares of the surface were arable, 3,534 occupied with pastures, 26,591 with vineyards, 70,310 with woods, and 80,096 with heaths, wastes, &c. More corn is grown than is required for home consumption; in 1836, 1,861,558 hectolitres were harvested, chiefly oats and wheat. The annual produce of wine is estimated at over 900,000 hectolitres, some of which is of a pretty tolerable quality: the wines are principally made into brandy and vinegar; but a peculiar variety, of a very deep dark hue, is extensively employed to deepen the colour of other red wines, and to give a reddish tint to white wines. (*Jullien, Topographie*, p. 14.) Beans and peas, fruit, hemp, liquorice, and beet-root, are raised in considerable quantities. In 1830, about 277,000 sheep were kept in the dep., the annual produce of their wool being estimated at 795,000 kilogr. A good many poultry and bees also are reared. The rural pop. is, however, in a very depressed condition; the labouring class occupy miserable huts, and in one village the habitations are said to be mere caves dug in the rock. In 1835, of 96,061 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 49,790 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 14,384 at from 5 to 10 fr. Iron, turf, and alabaster are met with, but the most valuable mineral product is flint: the most extensive beds of which in France are in the S. part of this dep., which has furnished the greater part of the gun-flints used in France. A good workman produces in a day 400 flints of the first, and 600 of the second quality; and it is accordingly estimated that 100 workmen, assisted by their families, will probably send to market in a year, 30,000,000 flints of all descriptions. The employment is very injurious to the health, and it is alleged that most workmen die of chest diseases before they attain to 30 years of age. The dep. has several iron forges, tile and glass factories, potteries, &c., with manufactures, though on a small scale, of serge, woollen cloth, and other woollen brics, cottons, and hosiery cloth, paper, leather, chemical products, &c. It is divided into 3 arrondis., chief towns, Blois, the cap., with 13,132 inhab., Romorantin, and Vendôme. Total public revenue in 1844, 7,332,687 fr. (*Hugo, art. Loire-et-Cher; Official Tables*, &c.)

LOIRE (an. *Liger*), the principal river of France, through the central part of which it flows in a W. direction to its embouchure in the Atlantic. Its basin, which comprises nearly 1-4th part of the kingdom, has the basin of the Seine on the N.E., that of the Garonne on the S.W., and that of the Rhone on the E. It rises in Mont Cantier de Juncos on the W. declivity of the Cevennes. In the dép. Ardèche about lat. $45^{\circ} 38'$ N., long. $4^{\circ} 30'$ E., at an elevation of 4,493 ft. above the sea. (*Brugnot*.) Its general direction is N.N.W. to near Orleans, after which it flows mostly W.S.W. to its mouth near Palmbouf, in about lat. $47^{\circ} 15'$ N., and long. $2^{\circ} 15'$ W. Its entire course is estimated at 670 m., of which 519 are navigable. Before losing itself in the ocean, it spreads out into a considerable estuary; below Nantes it is between 2 and 3 m. in width; but its navigation in the lower part of its course is rendered difficult by shallows, and numerous islands. Ships

of 900 tons, though built at Nantes, are loaded at Palmbeuf or St. Nazaire; and all ships of considerable burden unload nearly 30 mi. below Nantes, their cargoes being conveyed to that city by lighters. During the first 40 m. of its course, the Loire has an average descent of more than 50 ft. a mile; its rate of descent afterwards averages 4 ft. a mile. Its current is very where rapid; and its inundations are frequently productive of much damage; to prevent which, extensive embankments have been erected along its banks below Orleans.

The tide rises to about 5 m. below Nantes. Its chief tributaries are the Maine, Erdre, and Brive from the N., and the Allier, Loiret, Cher, Indre, Vienne, and Sèvre-Nantaise from the S. It is connected with the Seine, by means of the Orleans, Briare, and Nivernais canals; with the Rhone by the Canal du Centre; and with Brest Harbour and the English Channel by the Nantes and Brest canal. To obviate the impediments to navigation from sandbanks, &c., above Orleans, a lateral canal, commenced in 1822, has been constructed along the river: it begins opposite the mouth of the Briare canal, in the dep. of Loiret, and runs along its S.W. bank till it intersects the Canal du Centre, near the dep. of Allier. The entire length of this canal is 123 m. The scenery along the Loire, though in parts very fine, is generally surpassed by that of the Rhone. Some very important cities stand on its banks, among which, reckoning from its source, may be specified, Roanne, Nevers, Orleans, Blois, Tours, Saumur, Angoulême, and Nantes. (*Dict. Geog., &c.*)

LOIRE-HAUTE, an inland dep. of France, between lat. 46° 45' and 49° 34' N., and long. 2° and 4° 30' E., having N. Puy-de-Dôme and Loire, S.E. Ardèche, S.W. Lozère and Cantal. Area, 498,860 hectares. Pop. 307,161. It is generally mountainous, with a slope to the N. The Cévennes mountains run along its S.W. border, and a range, passing off laterally from them, intersects the dep. about its centre, and afterwards bounds the dep. of Loire on the W. But most of its mountains belong to the volcanic system of France. The Loire and Allier are the principal rivers, and receive numerous small streams within the dep.: there are many small lakes and pools around Le Puy, and elsewhere. The bottoms of the valleys are fertile, but not the other parts of the dep.: by far the greater portion of the surface being stony and sandy. In 1834, it was estimated that there were 236,073 hectares of arable land, 79,432 ditto meadow, 74,000 ditto woods and forests, and 90,239 ditto heaths, &c. Agriculture is extremely backward; half the arable land is constantly in fallow, and the occupiers are miserably poor. Sufficient corn, chiefly rye with some wheat, is, however, grown for home consumption; but about 60,000 hectol. of wine are annually imported. The natural pastures are good, and their irrigation is pretty well conducted. In 1830, there were about 185,800 head of cattle, and 278,000 sheep in the dep.; the latter yielding about 350,000 kilog. a year of wool. The rural pop. is, in general, very poor; and about 3,000 individuals annually leave the dep. in search of employment in the other depts., as reapers, road-makers, day labourers, &c.; and usually return, after about six months' absence, with sums supposed to average about 70 fr. each. The land is very much subdivided. In 1835, of 93,858 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 45,587 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and there are fewer large properties in this, than in any other dep. of France, Corrèze only excepted. Haute-Loire yields annually about 200,000 metrical quintals of coal, worth as many francs, and a little iron, zinc, and antimony. Manufactures either do not exist at all, or are confined to common linen fabrics, lace, tiles, bricks, earthenware, silk riband, and organzine in small quantities. Le Puy has a small lace manufacture, and is the great entrepôt for the small bells (*grelots*) used by the muleteers and waggons of the S. of France. Haute-Loire is divided into 3 arrondis.; chief towns, Le Puy, the cap., with 15,322 inhabs., Brioude, and Yssengeaux. This dep. is said to be taxed in a disproportionately high degree as compared with its means: in 1844, the public revenue derived from it was 4,965,459 fr.; expenditure, in 1831, 3,524,380 fr. (*Hugo, art. Haute-Loire; French Official Tables.*)

LOIRE-INFÉRIEURE, a maritime dep. of France, formerly included in the prov. of Brittany, between lat. 46° 30' and 47° 50' N., and long. 10° and 12° 30' W., having N. Morbihan and Ille-et-Vilaine, E. Maine-et-Loire, S. Vendée, and W. the Atlantic. Area, 681,704 hectares. Pop. in 1846, 817,358. The Loire has its mouth in this dep., which it intersects from E. to W. near its centre. The Erdre, Sèvre-Nantaise, Maine, Moine, &c., affluents of the Loire, are the other chief rivers, all of them being navigable for some distance. The Vilaine skirts the N.W. extremity of the dep., and communicates with the Loire by the canal between Nantes and Brest. Lakes and pools are estimated to cover 7,200 hectares; the chief of these is the *Grand*

Lieu, in the S., 4 m. in length by about the same in breadth. There are only a few hills of insignificant elevation in the N.E.; but along a part of the coast is a succession of sandy downs (*dunes*), which, not having been fixed by any artificial method, are gradually extending themselves, and have quite buried the old village of Escoubiac. On various parts of the shore, as at Guérande, &c., the sea has receded to a considerable extent. The Isles of Noir-Moutiers and Bacin belong to this dep. In 1834, about 331,600 hectares were arable, and 106,063 in pasture; vineyards occupied 29,246 hectares, orchards 10,984 hect., woods 38,078 hect., and heaths, wastes, &c., 125,252 hect., or nearly 1-8th part of the entire surface. The country on the S. bank of the Loire, is much superior in fertility to that on the N., and it is nearly all under culture; but agriculture is everywhere in the most backward state. There are a great number of little proprietors, many of whom engage themselves as labourers on the larger farms, who hold from 1 to 10 acres of land, farmed by their families. Very few properties yield a rental of 6,000 francs (1,600*l.* a year). The largest farms seldom extend beyond 300 acres; the greater number varying from 160 to 300. In 1835, of 100,000 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 67,796 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 19,814 at from 5 to 10 fr. In the vicinity of Nantes there are lands which sell at high as 3*l.* 10*s.* an acre; while in the vicinity of Châteaubriant the average rent is under 10*s.* and in other parts of the dep. it is still less. Leases generally run from 3 to 5 and 7 years; seldom beyond the latter term. Few farms are let for a money rent. Some farmers pay a stipulated quantity of grain for the arable, and money for the pasture land; but the far greater number hold on the métayage principle, paying half the gross produce to the proprietor. The reader will not, consequently, be surprised to learn, that the farmers are without capital or intelligence, that their implements and cattle are very inferior, and that the land, which is not half tilled, is usually left fallow every other year, and frequently for some years together. The usual wages of farm labourers vary from 7*d.* to 9*d.* a day: women get from 4*d.* to 7*d.* During harvest wages are about half as much higher. Little butcher's meat is consumed by the agricultural pop. Their food consists principally of bread, butter, or fat, cabbage, asparagus, pumpkins, and potatoes. Paupers are very numerous in winter, and in the rural districts there is no adequate provision for their support. The occupiers are in general miserably lodged, frequently sleeping in the same apartment with their cattle. They are not in debt, but have no money; are strongly attached to routine practices; and move on without an effort to improve their condition. (*Consular Report.*)

The produce of corn is estimated at about 1,400,000 hectolitres a year, principally wheat, buckwheat, and rye; good manure is raised as food for cattle and sheep. The produce of wine is estimated by Julien at 900,000 hectolitres, but the quality is inferior; about 300,000 hectolitres are consumed in the dep., the rest being principally converted into brandy. The annual produce of cider may be about 120,000 hectolitres. The pastures on the banks of the Loire are excellent, and feed great numbers of cattle. The cows are good milkers, and the vicinity of Nantes is famous for its butter. In 1830 the stock of sheep amounted to 229,000 head, producing 250,000 kilog. of wool. The horses, though not large, are strong and handsome. The forests, which abound with oaks, feed a good many hogs. Bees are numerous, and the honey and wax of the dep. have a high reputation. The pilchard and herring fisheries are important: the former employs 2,000 fishermen on the water, and a great many women in salting and barrelling the pilchards on shore. The manufacture of salt, from the extensive salt-pans at Noirmoutiers, Guérande, Croisic, &c. employs about 7,000 hands, and furnishes produce worth above 900,000 fr. a year. Bog iron is plentiful, and is smelted in the arrondis. of Angoulême and Châteaubriant. A little mine is wrought at Fret. Granite, coal, turf, porcelain, clay, &c., are the other chief mineral products. There are two royal cannon foundries and several building docks in the dep., and manufactures of sail-cloth, rope, glass, porcelain, tiles, paper, leather, &c. The trade of this department centres almost entirely in Nantes (which see). It is divided into 5 arrondis.; chief towns, Nantes, the cap., with 82,593 inhabitants, Châteaubriant, Angoulême, Paimbeuf, and Savenay. Total public revenue in 1844, 36,971,870 fr.; expenditure, in 1831, 10,680,684 fr. (*Hugo, art. Loire Inférieure; French Official Tables; Paris Report.*)

LOIRET, a dep. of France, region centre, between lat. 45° 13' and 46° 18' N., and long. 2° 45' and 4° 45' E., having N. Eure-et-Loir, Seine-et-Oise, and Seine-et-Marne, E. Yonne, S. Nièvre, Cher, and Loiret-Cher, W. the last-named dep. Area, 667,679 hectares. Pop. (1846), 331,633. Surface, for the most part, level; but the

the N. is a chain of hills separating the basins of the Loire and the Seine. The Loire traverses the S. half of the dep., generally in a W. direction. It receives the Loiret, which rises within the dep., and joins the Loire after a short course; being, however, navigable for boats nearly to its source. S. of the Loire, the country is mainly uncultivated and infertile; but, in other parts, it is very productive, particularly in the W. districts. In 1835, the arable lands were said to comprise 354,490 hectares, meadows 34,464 ditto, vineyards 30,883 ditto, and forests 90,474 ditto. Agriculture is in a comparatively forward state. The corn grown, which is chiefly oats and wheat, exceeds the quantity required for home consumption. The annual produce of wine is estimated at 1,200,000 hectolitres; two-thirds of which is exported, under the name of *vin d'Orléans*, and the rest consumed at home, or converted into brandy or vinegar. None of the wine is of a superior quality; but the better sorts are esteemed as *vins ordinaires*. Cider is made in the arrond. of Montargis. Various fruits, with flax, hemp, saffron, &c. are grown; and of late the culture of beet-root for sugar has gained ground. The different branches of rural industry are all pursued by the same individuals who simultaneously grow corn, garden produce, and wine; and rear cattle, sheep, poultry, &c. In 1830, it was estimated that there were in the dep. nearly 100,000 head of black cattle, and 400,000 sheep. The latter have been improved by crossing with English breeds. In 1835, of 118,143 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 56,061 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 15,457 at between 5 and 10 fr.; but there were, at the same time, a considerable number of large properties. The manufacture of coarse broad cloths and other woollen fabrics are said to employ a large number of hands; and Orleans has manufactures of fine cloth, flannels, woollen yarn, &c.; but the commerce of that city has latterly declined. Cotton yarn, vinegar, white lead, paper, parchment, earthenware, &c. are also produced, and there are numerous distilleries. Meung is celebrated for its leather; Montargis and Pithiviers are the chief seats of the French saffron trade; and the latter town is celebrated for its *gâteaux d'amandes*, and *palets d'alcovettes*. The dep. is divided into 4 arronds.: chief towns, Orleans, Gien, Montargis, and Pithiviers. It sends 5 mems. to the Cham. of Dep. Number of electors (1838-39), 2,693. Total public revenue (1831), 14,001,284 fr.; expenditure, 8,270,185 fr. (*Hugo, art. Loiret; Official Tables, &c.*)

LOKEREN, a town of Belgium, prov. E. Flanders, cap. canton, on the Deurne, and on the road from Ghent to Antwerp, 12 m. E.N.E. Ghent. Pop., in 1836, 16,118. Its appearance is that of a large, quiet, Flemish village. It is celebrated for its linen fabrics; and has also manufactures of cotton goods, flannels, lace, hats, and soap, with cotton printing establishments, bleaching grounds, breweries, distilleries, oil mills, &c. It has large weekly markets, and a considerable trade in its native products, and those of the adjacent country. (*De Cloet; Henschling, &c.*)

LOMBARDY. See ITALY (AUSTRIAN).

LOMBOK, an island of the eastern Archipelago, between lat. 6° and 9° S. and long. 118° and 117° E., separated on the W. from Bali by the strait of Lombok, and on the E. from Sumbawa by the strait of Allas, the last being the most commodious passage through the Sunda chain of islands.

Lombok is of a rhomboidal shape; its length may be estimated at 53 m.; average breadth, 45 m. Area, probably 2,400 sq. m. A mountain chain covered with forests, runs W. to E. through the S. portion of the island, and an isolated height, the peak of Lombok, rises in the N. to 8,000 ft. above the sea. Several rivers disemboque on the N. E. and W. coasts. The country is populous, fertile, and well cultivated. Rice is raised by artificial irrigation, as in the Carnatic; and abundant supplies of bullocks, hogs, poultry, vegetables, &c. may be obtained at the commodious port of Ampannan, on the W. coast. The inhab. are Mohammedans, and more civilised than the E. islanders in general. They carry on a considerable trade with Java, Borneo, and other Malay islands. Lombok and Mataram are the chief towns; the last is the residence of the rajah, who is tributary to the sultan of Bali. (*Crawford's Indian Archipelago; Hamilton's E. I. Gazetteer.*)

LOMOND (BEN), this mountain attains to an elevation of 3,195 ft. above the level of the sea. From its vicinity to Glasgow, from which it is distant N. W. 37 m., and its position between Lochs Lomond and Katrine, it is by far the best known and most frequently visited of any of the highland mountains. Its summit, which is composed of micaceous slate, mixed with quartz, commands a great extent of view. "The whole extent of Loch Lomond, with its wooded isles, appears just beneath. Loch Long, Loch Katrine, Loch Earn, and the river Clyde, form the mountain's water. The mountains of Arran appear very distinct; and to the N. alps upon alps fill up the amazing view." (*Pennant's Tour in Scotland*, ii. 176., ed 1790.)

LOMOND (LOCH), a lake of Scotland, between the co. of Stirling and Dumbarton, its most southerly extremity being 64 m. N. from the town of Dumbarton. This, which is the largest of the Scotch, and, indeed, of the British lakes, is a noble sheet of water, of a triangular shape, about 24 m. in length N.N.W. and S.S.E., and where broadest, along its S. shore, it is from 7 to 8 m. across; but its upper portion, from Rowardennan Inn N. to Ardiesh, is comparatively narrow, being only about 1 m. in breadth. Its area is estimated at about 26,000 acres; its most usual depth is about 30 fathoms; but in some places it has a depth of 80, and even of 120 fathoms. It is studded with numerous islands, some of which are of considerable size, and finely wooded. The scenery of this lake is varied and magnificent. Its N. extremity stretches into a wild, rugged, and dreary country. On the E. side Ben Lomond, one of the most stupendous of the Grampian mountains, rises from its margin; but on descending the lake, the character of the scenery changes; the mountains become less precipitous; the glens between them are well wooded, and filled with gentlemen's seats; and on the S. it is bounded by a low, rich, fertile, and well cultivated country. Its surface level is from 3 to 5 ft. higher in winter than in summer; and it is generally about 22 ft. above the sea level. It receives several streams, of which the Endrick, which flows into its S.E. corner, is the most considerable. Its surplus waters are conveyed away by the river Leven, which, issuing from its S. extremity, falls into the Frith of Clyde, close to Dumbarton. In summer it is much resorted to by tourists; and a steamer is established on the lake for their accommodation. It may be worth while to state that the waters of this lake were violently agitated at the period of the great earthquake at Lisbon in 1755.

LONATO, a town of Lombardy, deleg. Brescia, cap. distr. on the summit of a hill, 13 m. E.S.E. Brescia. Pop. 5,600. It is walled and defended by a castle, has four churches, an hospital, a *meneg da pidi*, cavalry barracks, and manufactures of silk twist and saltpetre.

LONDON (Lat. *Londinium*, Fr. *Londres*), the metropolis of the U. Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the most populous, wealthy, and commercial city, of which we have any accounts, is situated partly and principally on the N. bank of the Thames, in the co. of Middlesex, and partly on its S. bank, in the co. of Surrey, about 45 m. above the river's mouth at the Nore, and 15 below the highest tideway. The site on the N. side is high and dry, but on the S. it is so low as to be under the level of the highest tides; though by a well constructed system of drainage it is kept perfectly free from wet. The subsoil is a hard clay, known to geologists by the name of London clay, lying in the middle of the great chalk basin, extending from Berkshire to the E. coast. In several places the clay is covered by thick beds of gravel. Lat. of St. Paul's Cathedral, 51° 30' 48" N., long. 0° 48' W. Greenwich. Exclusive of the city of London, properly so called, the metropolis comprises the city of Westminster, the boro. of Tower Hamlets, Southwark, Lambeth, and Marylebone, and other contiguous districts, which, though formerly distinct, are now combined into one vast mass of houses.

The Pop. of the Cities of London and Westminster, and of the Five Parl. Boro. comprised in the Metropolis, with the Par. of Chelsea, has been as follows, in 1801, 1811, 1821, 1831, and 1841.

Divisions.	1801.	1811.	1821.	1831.	1841.
London, city of	156,839	180,909	193,434	192,865	180,702
Westminster, boro.	168,410	163,085	187,082	201,848	219,950
Marylebone, bor.	97,641	106,566	174,354	240,294	297,465
Finsbury, bor.	134,616	167,130	201,731	229,123	265,043
Tower Hamlets, bor.	184,568	237,487	291,650	357,246	419,730
Chelsea, par. of	11,604	18,302	36,860	92,371	40,179
Southwark, bor.	94,813	103,763	123,663	154,117	147,690
Lambeth, bor.	49,896	76,806	108,561	160,613	197,418
	888,198	1,015,008	1,234,338	1,506,469	1,695,081

But, exclusive of the cities, boro., and parishes comprised in the above table, the metropolis includes Deptford, Greenwich, and sundry other districts; so that its entire population amounted, in 1841, to 1,873,676, and at present (1850) it is probably little, if at all, under 2,100,000; being

a greater amount of population than has ever been previously accumulated in the same space.

But some additional suburban districts, inc. Wandsworth, Clapham, Putney, the union of Lewisham, &c., have been comprised within the metropolitan district, or the bills of mortality, by the Registrar General. In this enlarged sense, the metropolis extends over an area of about 74,070 acres, and had, in 1841, a pop. of 1,950,526. The estimated pop. within the above limits in the intervening years has been—

1842	-	-	1,980,776	1847	-	-	2,139,209
1843	-	-	2,011,493	1848	-	-	2,172,386
1844	-	-	2,042,690	1849	-	-	2,306,076
1845	-	-	2,074,370	1850	-	-	2,340,389
1846	-	-	2,106,540				

London is of great antiquity. It is said by Tacitus to have been in the days of Nero, *capiti negotiorum et commotuum maximè celebre.* (*Annal.* lib. xiv. § 33.) It suffered severely in the revolt of Boadicea; but it speedily recovered from that disaster, and has always been the largest and most important of British towns. It is mainly indebted for its early and long-continued prosperity to its admirable situation. Though 45 m. from the sea, it enjoys, owing to its position on a great navigable river, all the advantages of an excellent sea-port, vessels of 800 tons burden coming up to London Bridge. Had it been built lower down, it would have been less healthy and more exposed to hostile attacks; and had it been higher up, it would have been deprived of the inestimable advantage of a deep-water harbour.

The Romans surrounded London with walls. It is probable that its limits were then commensurate with the part of the city said to be "within the walls," reaching from the end of Leadenhall Street to the top of Ludgate Hill, and from the Thames to London Wall and Little Britain. The wall appears to have inclosed it along the water as well as on the land sides. The great Roman roads called Watling Street and Ermin Street, as well as the *via vicinales*, centred in London.

The continued and rapid increase of buildings render it difficult to ascertain the extent of the metropolis at any particular period. If we include in it those parts only that present a solid mass of houses, its length, from E. to W., may be taken at 6 m., and its breadth, from N. to S., at about 3½ m. There is, however, a nearly continuous line of houses from Blackwall to Chelsea, a distance of about 7 m., and from Waltham to Holloway of 4½ m. The extent of surface covered by buildings is estimated at about 16 sq. m., or above 10,000 acres, so that M. Say, the celebrated French economist, did not really indulge in hyperbole when he said, *Londres n'est plus une ville: c'est une province couverte de maisons!*

Notwithstanding its immense size, it is not difficult for strangers to keep their way in London. The Thames runs through it lengthwise from W. to E., and most of the great lines of streets are parallel to the river, being intersected at variable distances by lines of cross streets, or of streets running N. and S. Of the former, or of the longitudinal streets parallel to the river, there are two principal lines. The most northerly of these enters London on the W. by the Bayswater Road, passing in front of the fine terraces facing the N. side of Hyde Park: It then runs along Oxford Street, about 1½ m. in length, till, after passing the S. or lower end of Tottenham court Road, it unites with and is prolonged by Holborn, a wide and handsome street about 1 m. in length; whence it proceeds through Skinner

Street, and Newgate Street, till it reaches Chesham, one of the greatest thoroughfares in the city. It next passes through the Poultry, having the Bank and the Exchange on the one hand, and the Mansion-House on the other, along Cornhill, to Leadenhall Street; from which it is continued by Whitechapel and the Mile End Road, into the country. Its entire length, from Hyde Park to the Regent's Canal, Mile End, is above 6 m.

The other great longitudinal street, to the S. of that now traced, enters London on the W. after passing through Kensington. This is by far the finest of the avenues to the metropolis. On the left Kensington Gardens appear like an ornamental forest; Hyde Park gradually rises to the splendid terraces on the N., and is bordered on the E. by magnificent houses, or rather palaces; and on entering Piccadilly is the handsome approach to Hyde Park and the W. front of Apsley House, the town residence of the Duke of Wellington, *decus et tutamen patriæ.* On the right are the bold arch and gate leading to the Queen's Palace, surmounted by the statue of his grace; the Green Park, apparently stretching to the towers of Westminster Abbey; and a long line of splendid buildings, with the Norwood Hills in the distance. The promise of a magnificent city is not belied by an advance through Piccadilly. This, which is the first of the London streets traversed by the traveller from the W., is 1 m. in length, and is principally built only on the N. side, the other being open to the Green Park. It contains many splendid private residences, and shops. On reaching the E. end of Piccadilly, the continuous line of street divides into two main lines: one of these runs on through Coventry Street, Leicester Square, Long Acre, and Great Queen Street, till it unites with Holborn; the other line deflects to the right through the Haymarket, whence it proceeds to the E. along the line of E. Pall Mall, through Trafalgar Square, and past St. Martin's Church, till it unites with the Strand: This, though formerly in many places narrow and encumbered, is now a magnificent street: it follows pretty closely the line of the river, from which it is not far distant; and, besides two churches in its centre, has Exeter Hall on its N., and Somerset House on its S. side. Contiguous to the latter is Wellington Street, leading to Waterloo Bridge. The Strand terminates at the ancient gate of Temple Bar, the boundary of the city on the W. The great line of street is thence prolonged through Fleet Street, at the E. end of which, on the right, is a fine street leading to Blackfriars Bridge; and on the left Farringdon Street, one of the widest in the city, which it is intended to prolong to Islington. From Fleet Street the line continues up Ludgate Hill, till it reaches St. Paul's, the noblest edifice in the kingdom.

At the E. end of St. Paul's Churchyard, the wider channel of communication joins in Chesham the grand northern line already traced, coming from Oxford Street, Holborn, &c.; but another branch of the former line runs nearer the river, through Watling Street, Eastcheap, and Tower Street, to the wide area of Tower Hill, whence it may be traced either in a straight line through Ratcliff-highway, N. of the London Docks, or close by the river along Wapping and Shadwell, where the lines again form a single street leading to the W. India Docks. The streets E. of the Tower are narrow, and lined with mean houses mostly occupied by persons connected with shipping. This line is altogether about 6 m. in length.

Another line of street which unites with that

last described, may be considered as beginning at Vauxhall Bridge, close to which is an open quay, $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in length, commanding a view of the river and of the archiepiscopal palace of Lambeth. The line of road is, however, soon separated from the river by ranges of buildings, along which it passes, till it reaches Abingdon Street. At the termination of the latter it runs on, having Westminster Abbey on the left, and the Houses of Parliament with Westminster Hall and bridge on the right: after leaving these, it connects with Parliament Street, and then with the spacious street called Whitehall, in which are the Treasury, Horse Guards and Admiralty, separating it from St. James's Park on the left, and the Banqueting Hall, with other handsome mansions shutting out the view of the river. The magnificence of the buildings in this short line of street is unequalled, except by those at the W. entrance of Piccadilly, and by the terraces of the Regent's Park. Beyond Whitehall is Charing Cross and Trafalgar Square, with the Nelson monument in its centre, and the National Gallery on its N.W. side. Here the line, bending E. with the river, unites with the Strand, already noticed.

Among the principal streets running from N. to S., the 1st and most westerly is the Edgeware Road, with its continuations, Park Lane, Grosvenor Place, and Vauxhall-bridge Road, which, for the most part, bound the metropolis westward: The 2d, proceeding eastward, is the line formed of Portland Place, Regent Street, and Waterloo Place, extending between the Regent's and St. James's Parks, and forming the most splendid public thoroughfare in London, as well from the width of road as from the grandeur of the houses and shops on either side. At its S. termination is a granite column, surmounted by a bronze statue of the Duke of York, brother to George IV. A little N. of Piccadilly the line curves through the Quadrant, a handsome range of buildings. From this point it continues northward to Oxford Street, where it expands into a circus, and then, resuming its former dimensions, proceeds to the church in Langham Place: here, by a slight curve westwards, it opens into Portland Place, a wide and well-built street, formerly a favourite residence of the foreign ambassadors, but latterly declining in the scale of fashion: Park Crescent and Park Square, opening into the Regent's Park, form an appropriate finish to the whole. The 3d great N. and S. line is a continuation southwards of the road from Hampstead: it passes along Tottenham-court Road to the E. end of Oxford Street, from which point its course may be traced through narrow streets down St. Martin's Lane to Charing Cross: but though a busy, it is an intricate thoroughfare, and is devoid of architectural interest. The other principal N. and S. lines consist of Gray's Inn Lane and Chancery Lane; Goswell Street and Aldersgate Street; and the line of street commencing at the Regent's Canal on the N., successively called Kingsland Road, Shoreditch, Norton-Folgate, Bishopsgate Street, and Gracechurch Street: at the S. termination of the latter this line passes over London Bridge, and is thence prolonged across the Borough as far as Kennington Church in Surrey: its length is about 4 m., which may be considered the breadth of London in this quarter. The portion of this line at and near London Bridge affords some of the finest points for viewing London and the scenery on the river. Exclusive of the above, there are an infinite number of cross

streets, some of which are of great importance. Among others, a spacious line has been opened from Finsbury Square through Moorgate Street, Princes Street, and King William Street, to London Bridge.

In addition to the various routes intersecting each other in different directions, a grand line of road embraces the greater part of London on the N., in a manner not unlike that in which the Boulevards encircle Paris. It commences in the Uxbridge Road, and has a N. E. course as far as King's Cross, St. Pancras, where, turning eastward, it ascends Pentonville hill, and entering the City Road, terminates in Finsbury Square.

In Southwark, the great roads from the different bridges unite at the well-known posting house called the Elephant and Castle. They are generally wide and well-built streets, though, with the exception of Blackfriars Road, inferior to the principal thoroughfares N. of the river. A line of street, extending from Westminster Road to the Borough, connects these several roads with each other.

Unlike Edinburgh and many other great towns, the houses in London are not, with the exception of those in the Temple and Inns of Court, divided into stories (*Scottish* "flats"); but in the vast majority of instances belong to or are hired by one individual, by whom, however, portions of them are frequently let to lodgers. They have usually a story sunk below the level of the street, comprising the kitchen and other offices, above which are usually 3 or 4, or more stories. The smaller, and by far the most numerous class of houses have narrow fronts, containing one room or shop in the front of the street floor, and that immediately above it, the stair and a smaller apartment occupying the back part; the two upper floors are frequently divided into smaller apartments. Every house has the inestimable advantage of having an abundant supply of water; and in all the better class of houses it is supplied to the top as well as to the under story. Except in the very worst parts of the town, all the refuse water and drainage of the house is conveyed by a covered drain to the sewer, or grand receptacle in the centre of the street, sunk below the line of the lateral drains. Most houses have cellars opposite to them under the street for the stowage of coal, and such like articles. No filth is ever laid down upon the streets, which have universally flagged foot-paths along each side; and notwithstanding the concourse of horses, and the grinding of the pavement by carriages, the streets are, speaking generally, extremely well kept.

Until a comparatively late period the external appearance of the houses of London was little in harmony with the wealth of their occupiers, and the richness of their interiors. Internal comfort was long the only, as it still is (and it is to be hoped will long continue to be) the grand object of the Londoner. Provided his house were clean, commodious, and well and handsomely furnished, he cared little about its outside. Hence it was that the interminable rows of dull-looking brick houses, erected with little or no regard to uniformity, led strangers to remark that the best streets resembled long walls pierced with holes for doors and windows. Even Bond Street was said, in 1810, by an intelligent foreigner, to be "an ugly inconvenient street, the attractions of which it is difficult to understand." But the same author (*Stmond*) adds—"You cannot pass the threshold without being struck with the look of order and neatness of the interior. Instead

of the abominable filth of the common entrance and common stairs of a French house, here you step from the very street on a neat floorcloth or carpet, the wall painted or papered, a lamp in its glass ball hanging from the ceiling, and every apartment in the same style. All is neat, compact, and independent."

With the exception, indeed, of St. Paul's, Westminster Abbey, Somerset House, and a few more churches and public buildings, London displayed, till within the last few years, little architectural elegance. In our own times, however, the erection of magnificent ranges of buildings, in every direction, has made our metropolis as superior to most capitals in appearance, as it has long been in wealth, cleanliness, and comfort. The line of Regent Street has been already mentioned, to which may be added the Regent's Park, "affording a landscape bounded by hills, and more than half surrounded by a large circuit of buildings, worthy the capital of the world." Belgrave and Eaton Squares, and the adjoining streets and squares on the estate of the Marquis of Westminster, with the terraces in Carlton Gardens, have all been raised within the last 30 years, and are probably unequalled for symmetry and magnificence. Within a still shorter space a splendid city has been built on the elevated ground on the N. side of Hyde Park. And these, with the new buildings in Pall Mall, St. James's Street, &c., render the W. end of London a residence worthy the wealthiest aristocracy in the world. But the improvements effected of late years in the city, or oldest part of the town, have been equally great and striking. The new streets that lead from the Bank to London Bridge on the one hand, and to Moorfields on the other, are on a grand scale; and when it is borne in mind that the ground which they traverse was previously occupied by a dense mass of houses which had to be purchased at a high price, it will be seen that they do as much credit to the public spirit as to the taste of the citizens. Four new and noble bridges over the Thames form no small addition to the improvements of the last forty years. Although, therefore, it cannot be said of George IV. and William IV., that, like Augustus, they found a capital of brick, and left one of marble, it must be admitted that during their reigns an extraordinary impulse was given to city architecture and embellishment: And this impulse still continues, and bids fair to render the reign of Queen Victoria yet more memorable in the annals of civic improvement.

The houses of London, with very few exceptions, are built of brick. But within the last few years those in the principal streets have been mostly plastered or stuccoed over, and their fronts made so exactly to imitate the finest freestone, that it is sometimes no easy matter to distinguish between them. This method of dressing up houses has contributed most materially to the improved appearance of the town. Those indeed, who have been accustomed to stone structures, are apt to associate ideas of insecurity and of rapid decay with stuccoed fabrics; but, provided the walls be well built, and the plaster be kept in repair by occasional painting, stuccoed houses are, in fact, all but imperishable. The cheapness of stucco, too, allows it to be applied to the inferior class of houses; while, from the facility with which it may be moulded, it permits an elaborateness of ornament that could not be executed in stone at

many times the cost. Belgrave Square, and the magnificent terraces of Carlton Gardens, Hyde Park, &c., owe most part of their elegance to the judicious application of stucco.

The insides, as well as the outides, of the houses have been greatly improved within the last 30 or 40 years; those now and lately built being far more conveniently constructed than formerly, and better suited to the accommodation, the comfort, and the health of their inmates.

It is frequently both a difficult and a dangerous matter to get across a crowded street, or one much frequented by carriages. This difficulty has, however, been in some parts a good deal lessened by constructing raised landing-places in the middle of the streets, protected by pillars and lamps, to which passengers may resort. But though these conveniences do not cause any sensible obstruction to carriages, their supply is scanty in the extreme; there not being, in fact, one where there should be ten.

It is much to be regretted that the Thames, which from its breadth and depth might be the greatest ornament of the city, as well as the principal source of its wealth and prosperity, is so closely pent up by wharfs, warehouses, and other buildings, that it is almost shut out from the view, except where it is crossed by bridges. It is, however, fronted by the Custom-house and Somerset house, the Adelphi Terrace, and by the Temple Gardens, and some private houses in Whitehall. But the most magnificent views of the river, and, indeed, in some respects, of the city, are obtained from the bridges.

Divisions.—The most popular division of London is into three parts: the city, the west end, and the borough; Temple Bar dividing the city from the west end, and the river separating both these portions from the borough. This division is necessarily vague, and, for specific purposes, different divisions are made. The city of London, strictly considered, is situated nearly in the centre of the metropolis, and is the seat of commerce on the largest scale. The city of Westminster, W. of the city of London, contains the royal palaces, the houses of parliament, the law courts, most of the public offices, and the town residences of nearly all the nobility and aristocracy. The cities of London and Westminster, however, do not comprise above an eighth part of the area, or a fourth part of the pop., of the whole of what may be considered the metropolis. For parliamentary elections, the metropolis is divided into 7 districts: the cities of London and Westminster, as above stated; the borough of Finsbury, N. of the city of London; the Tower Hamlets, E. of Finsbury and the city; Marylebone, N. of the city of Westminster; and 2 districts S. of the river, Southwark on the E., and Lambeth on the W. side.

The area of the city of London, which comprises only a small portion of the metropolis, is roughly estimated at about 570 acres. Its boundary line leaving the Thames at Temple Lane, passes northwards, crossing Fleet Street at Temple Bar, and Holborn at "Holborn Bars." Turning eastward, it thence takes an undulating course, including Smithfield, Finsbury Circus, and Bishopsgate Street S. of Spittal Square. It thence passes S.E. through Petticoat Lane, to Aldgate, from which point the boundary, pursuing a S.S.W. course, reaches the Thames by a very irregular line, excluding the Tower. The city is divided into 108 parishes, of which 97 are said to be "within," and 11 "without" the walls. This division is now merely nominal, the ancient city boundary having long disappeared, although the city gates, where the walls passed the great thoroughfares, were standing in the last half of the 18th century.

The E. boundary of the city of Westminster coincides with the W. boundary of London at the Thames and Temple; it thence runs N.W. to the junction of Tottenham-court-road and Oxford Street. The latter street constitutes the whole N. boundary as far as the W. extremity at Kensington Gardens. From this point a very irregular line, running to Chelsea Hospital, forms the W. boundary. It then turns to the S.W. along the Serpentine river, on leaving which it goes S. until it reaches the Thames near Chelsea Hospital.

The five metropolitan boroughs, being parliamentary only, and not municipal, need not be minutely described. Marylebone includes the three parishes of Marylebone,

Paddington, and St. Pancras; Finsbury comprises nine parishes, and the Roper's liberty; and the Tower Hamlets includes fifteen; Southwark embraces not only the municipal borough, but the parishes of Bermondsey and Rotherhithe; and Lambeth comprises Camberwell and Newington, as well as the parish of its own name.

Parks, Squares, &c. — The W. end of the town is beautified and rendered healthy by four extensive parks, appropriately called the lungs of London. They are open to the public; and, though each has a different character, they all afford ample scope for recreation and exercise. Hyde Park (once the manor of Hyde, and belonging to the Abbey of Westminster), lying W. of Piccadilly and Oxford Street, and between the roads leading therefrom, contains about 400 acres, and has a large and deep artificial lake, crossed by a handsome bridge of five arches. This lake, which is slightly bent, is, by an absurd misnomer, called the Serpentine river. The whole of this park was, till lately, an open field, dotted with trees, and traversed by carriage-ways, which, in fine weather, during the season, are crowded with gay and fashionable equipages. But a portion of it on the S.W. side of the Serpentine river has, within this short time, been taken off for the extraordinary fabric of iron and glass that is now being erected for the Grand Exhibition of next year. This fabric, which is to cover several acres of land, will be one of the principal "lions" of the metropolis. It is not yet, we believe, determined whether it is to be pulled down when the exhibition is over; but if not, the encroachment on the park will, we apprehend, go far to balance much of the advantage of which the exhibition may be productive. Kensington Gardens, lying W. of Hyde Park, and separated from it by a trench and wall, are open to the public. They are extensive, and are finely wooded. St. James's Park, between the Horse Guards and Buckingham Palace, is less than a fourth part of Hyde Park, and not so open; its site being low, damp, and marshy. Within these few years, however, the central part has been tastefully laid out, and what was a dirty straight canal, running through a marsh, has been converted into a varied sheet of water, interspersed with islands affording a secure retreat to numerous aquatic birds, and surrounded by lawns, shrubberies, and trees. The avenues on the N. side of this park are open to all pedestrians, but only to the horses and carriages of some privileged members of the aristocracy. The S. drive is open to all private and hackney carriages. The Green Park, a triangular piece of ground, about as large as St. James's, from which it gradually rises to Piccadilly, is open, well aired, and forms a sort of miniature Hyde Park. Along its E. margin are some of the most splendid houses in the metropolis, *inc.* those of Earl Spencer, the Duke of Sutherland, and the Earl of Ellesmere. The latter, in the Palladian style, is a noble palace, and will, when finished, be the most magnificent private residence in London.

The Regent's Park, which is nearly as large as Hyde Park, with an equally varied surface, was formed during the regency in the latter years of the reign of George III. It is sit. N. of Portland Place, on high ground, surrounded by elegant buildings. But it has a clay subsoil, is wet, and badly drained. Neither is it, what it professes to be, a place wholly appropriated to the accommodation and recreation of the public: on the contrary, the public is shut out from a considerable portion of its extent, and some even of its finest parts have been let to individuals who have built villas upon them! This is a gross abuse of the public property: and it is astonishing that it should have been allowed to be perpetrated, almost without

notice. The gardens of the Zoological Society are situated on the N. side of this park; and the central portion is occupied by the garden of the Botanical Society.

A portion of the advantages so long enjoyed by the W. end of the town in the possession of its four parks, has latterly been conferred on the E. parts of the city, where Victoria Park has recently been opened to the public. It comprises about 800 acres of land, which were bought by and laid out at the expense of government. It is much frequented by the adjoining pop., especially on Sundays. It is situated a little to the N.E. of Bethnal Green. Another new park is, also, about to be opened in Battersea Fields, W. from Lambeth.

On the E. side of the Regent's Park, near Park Square, is the large building inaply styled the Colosseum. It is a 16-sided polygonal structure, with a magnificent portico and cupola. It is principally used for the exhibition of panoramic views on a large scale; but it has, also, a spacious room for the exhibition of sculpture, with the trumpery of grottoes, a Swiss cottage, &c.

The squares of London are pretty numerous in all parts, but the largest and handsomest are in the W. end. In many, the houses are on a grand scale, and the central gardens well laid out. Grosvenor, Berkeley, and Hanover Squares, which lie between Oxford Street and Piccadilly, were formerly, and still are, favourite resorts of the aristocracy. Perhaps, however, Belgrave Square, in Pimlico, with the surrounding streets and squares, and Carlton Terrace, may at present be the most fashionable quarters. St. James's Square, between Piccadilly and Pall Mall, and Cavendish, Portman, and Manchester Squares, on the N. side of Oxford street, are mostly occupied by persons of distinction. Trafalgar Square has two fountains; but they are the reverse of ornamental. Further E. are Russell and Bedford Squares, and a cluster of squares to the N. of these, chiefly occupied by merchants and tradesmen. Lincoln's Inn Fields, S. of Holborn, is a large and well built square, and its enclosure is more tastefully laid out than any other in the metropolis. Finsbury Square lies N. of the city, and near it is Finsbury Circus. Other squares, formed of good houses, are to be found in all parts of the town and neighbourhood.

Statues and Public Monuments. — Several of the best squares are decorated with statues; among which may be remarked those of Charles II., William III., Anne, and George I. in Soho, St. James's, Queen's, and Leicester Squares; that of George I. in Grosvenor Square; of William, Duke of Cumberland, in Cavendish Square; of Pitt, by Chantrey, in Hanover Square; of Fox, by Westmacott, in Bloomsbury Square; of the Duke of Bedford, by the same sculptor, in Russell Square; and of George IV., by Chantrey, in Trafalgar Square. Other statues are placed in different parts of the metropolis, among which are the equestrian statue of Charles I., by Le Soeur, at Charing Cross; of James II., by Gibbons, behind Whitehall; of Anne, by Bird, in front of St. Paul's; of George III., by Wyatt, Pall Mall; of the late Duke of Kent, in Park Crescent; of William IV., in King William Street, city; of Canning, by Chantrey, in Palace Yard; of the Duke of Wellington, by Wyatt, over the grand arch at the junction of the street, at Hyde Park Corner, with the road leading by Constitution Hill to Buckingham Palace; and another statue of his grace, by Chantrey, opposite to the Bank of England in the city. Near the E. entrance to Hyde Park is a statue copied from a figure at Rome, said, but without any authority, to be that of Achilles. It is of brass, and was formed out of

cannon captured by the Duke of Wellington, in whose honour it was erected, and to whom it is inscribed, by the ladies of England! But with all due deference, it is not easy to imagine any thing more absurd. What has the Duke of Wellington, by far the most illustrious Englishman of his age, in common with a colossal gladiator, that a statue of the latter should be erected in his honour?

The Monument on Fish Street Hill, built in 1671-77, to commemorate the burning of London, is a fluted Doric column, 202 ft. in height, designed by Sir Christopher Wren. The pedestal is decorated by a representation, in relief, of the destruction of the city, sculptured by Cibber: at the top of the column is a gallery affording a view of the E. part of the metropolis, and on the summit is a blazing urn, recently regilt. It is a noble column, and had it been better situated would have been one of the greatest ornaments of the city. A short English inscription on the pedestal ascribed, without the slightest foundation, the conflagration it is designed to commemorate to the treachery and malice of a Popish faction. Pope alluded to this when he says,

"Where London's column points to the skies,
Like a tall bully, lifts the head and lies."

But, in 1830, this offensive inscription was obliterated, in pursuance of a resolution of the Court of Common Council.

The York Column is a plain Doric pillar of granite, surmounted by a bronze colossal statue of the Duke of York. The height of the column is 124 ft., and above the capital is an iron gallery, from which a good view is obtained of the W. end of the town. This column, erected in 1833, is situated on the N. side of St. James's Park, at the lower end of Waterloo Place.

A fluted Corinthian column, with a capital of cast metal, has been erected in Trafalgar Square in honour of Nelson. It is surmounted by a statue in stone of the hero; and on its pedestal are some spirited sculptures in *alto rilievo*, in bronze, representing his death, and some of the most striking events of his life. It is 176 ft. 6 in. high from the base to the top of the statue; but, on the whole, it has a poor effect.

Bridges.—The Thames, which, in its course through London, has a medium width of about 1000 ft., is crossed by 6 bridges for carriages, &c., and by a bridge for foot passengers only, built at an aggregate expense of above 5,000,000*l*. A wooden structure had been thrown across the river early in the 11th century; but the frequent and costly repairs indispensable for its maintenance led to the construction of one of more durable materials. A stone bridge, of pointed architecture, was completed in 1209, which, by means of occasional renovations, was kept standing till 1834. Down to the middle of last century, this was the only bridge between London and Southwark. The great inconvenience of a circuitous journey from the west end of the town to the city before the river could be crossed by carriages, induced parliament, in 1788, to make a grant for the erection of Westminster Bridge at the court-end of the metropolis. Blackfriars Bridge (intended by its projectors to have been called Pitt Bridge, in honour of the first great statesman of the name of Pitt), was built about 20 years after, the expense of its construction being defrayed by a toll exacted during 19 years. Westminster and Blackfriars Bridges were built of Portland stone, which, being too soft to resist the constant attrition of the water, and of the ice of winter, their piers were so much worn as to threaten their entire destruction: latterly, however, the piers of Black-

friars Bridge have been cased with granite, and it has been otherwise repaired at a heavy expense. Considerable progress has, also, been made in the repair of Westminster Bridge; and it is probable that it would ere now have been completely renovated, had it not been latterly proposed to take it down because, being in the immediate neighbourhood of the new Houses of Parliament, its height does not harmonise with their low elevation! The bridges erected within the present century have completed the connection between all the important districts on both sides the river. Two of these, Vauxhall and Southwark Bridges, have iron arches. The latter, the most splendid structure of its kind hitherto erected, has only three arches, the span of that in the centre being 240 ft., and the weight of metal in it 1,665 tons! Waterloo Bridge, which Canova said was "worth a visit from the remotest corner of the earth," is of granite, and has 9 elliptical arches, each 120 ft. in width. It was built by a joint stock company; but owing to the want of any great thoroughfare leading to or from it, and to the influence of the toll on the passengers and carriages that cross the river by its means, it is little frequented, and has been most unprofitable. The demolition of old London Bridge was owing less to its decayed state than to the defects of its construction. The piers and starlings between its numerous arches (21 at the period of its removal) occupied so large a portion of the waterway as to obstruct the course of the water both during the flow and ebb of the tide, especially the latter. At low ebb, indeed, there was a difference of nearly 5 ft. between the level of the water on the upper and lower sides of the bridge. This, by occasioning a dangerous fall and eddy in the water for a considerable time both before and after low water, interrupted the navigation, and occasioned every now and then fatal accidents. At length it was determined to abate the nuisance, by pulling down the old bridge, and erecting in its stead a new structure with arches of such a size as not sensibly to affect the flow of the river. New London Bridge, like the Southwark and Waterloo Bridges, was planned by the late John Rennie. It is built of granite, the span of the centre arch being 150 ft.; and whether we consider its magnitude, or the beauty and simplicity of its structure, it is certainly a noble specimen of bridge architecture. The heavy expense of this fabric has been partly defrayed by a duty on all coal brought into the pool, and partly from the revenues of property appropriated for the support of "London Bridge."

The following table comprises a statement of the principal particulars connected with the different carriage bridges belonging to the city. (*Leeds on the Public Edifices of London*, ii. 402.)

Name.	Date of Completion.	Cost.	No. of Arches.	Length.	Breadth.	Span of Central Arch.
London Bridge	1831	<i>£</i> . 2,000,000	5	980 ft.	50 ft.	150 ft.
Southwark	1819	820,000	3	700	41	240
Blackfriars	1770	350,000	9	1,000	42	100
Waterloo	1817	1,150,000	9	1,200	42	180
Westminster	1751	389,500	18	2,066	42	76
Vauxhall	1814	250,000	9	820	36	76

The Hungerford Suspension Bridge for foot passengers, between Westminster and Blackfriars Bridges, was opened in 1845. This handsome and convenient structure is supported by two towers in the river.

The Tunnel, which, unlike the bridges, passes

under and not over the Thames, effects a connection between its banks nearly 2 m. below London Bridge. The erection of a bridge in the centre of the port was of course impracticable, and the mode of uniting the two shores, without injury to the shipping interest, was long a difficult problem for engineers. It was at length solved by Sir I. Brunel, who designed and completed the tunnel. It consists of a hollow brick cylinder, or tube, subdivided into two road-ways, each 15 ft. high and 12 ft. broad. Notwithstanding the danger attending the execution of the work, owing to the perpetual cozing through and occasional bursting in of the river, the loss of life during the 15 years it occupied was very inconsiderable. But it has hitherto been a most unprofitable speculation; and how curious soever in other respects, we incline to think that the tunnel never will be of much practical utility. The difficulty of the descent will always be a formidable obstacle to its extensive use. It was begun by a private company, but it could not have been completed without the aid of grants from the public.

Palaces and Houses of Parl.—St. James's, at the W. end of Pall Mall, is an irregular mean-looking brick building, totally unworthy the name of palace: it was erected by Henry VIII., on the site of an hospital for female lepers, which existed in the 11th century. The interior, however, is handsomely fitted up, and it is well adapted for court levees and drawing-rooms, which are mostly held in it. The chapel attached to this edifice is that used for the ancient hospital.

Buckingham Palace, at the W. end of St. James's Park, occupies the site of Arlington House, pulled down by John Sheffield, Duke of Buckingham, who erected in its stead a plain, respectable mansion. Having been purchased by George III. in 1762, it became the favourite abode of Queen Charlotte. Under George IV., whose rage for building was as decided as his taste was equivocal, Buckingham House was entirely rebuilt; and became, in 1837, the town-residence of the Queen. Till recently the principal front to the E. consisted of three sides of a square, a marble arch (a miniature imitation of that of Constantine at Rome) being a little in advance of its narrow projecting wings. But this arch, which did not harmonize with the rest of the building, and was, at the same time, mean and paltry, has been removed in the course of the present year (1850).^{*} A new Eastern front has, also, been given to the building, which is now quadrangular. This new portion is of great magnitude; and though, perhaps, some of its details may be objected to, it is, on the whole, an imposing structure, and makes an important addition to the palace. The apartments in it are more lofty than those in the other portions of the building, and are better fitted for state-display. The garden façade, an elevation of the Corinthian order on a rustic basement, is the best part of the palace built by George IV. The gallery, about 160 ft. in length, contains some good pictures. Except in the new front, the rooms in the basement story are low, and some of them, with the greater number of the corridors and passages, are badly lighted.

The situation of this palace is not favourable. It is closely hemmed in on the S. side by inferior houses; while, on the W. side, the grounds are overlooked by the houses in Grosvenor Place. Improvements are now being made between the new front and St. James's Park, which, certainly, were much needed. Hitherto, the road in front of the palace, and along the mall, not being paved,

but covered with a compound of gravel and clay, became in wet weather a mere puddle.

The old Houses of Parliament stood upon ground formerly occupied by the palace of Westminster. Their appearance was far from imposing; but a certain degree of antiquated splendour, the associations connected with their history, and the importance of the purposes to which they were appropriated, made them respectable in the eyes of Englishmen. They were, however, wholly destroyed by fire on the 16th October, 1834. A building, which it was supposed would be one of the noblest ornaments of the metropolis, has for some years past been in the course of being erected on the same spot by Mr. Barry. It has a river front 900 ft. in length, and several towers, that at the S.W. angle, over the royal entrance, in the perpendicular English style, being intended to be 346 ft. high. It would, perhaps, be going too far to say that the expectations that were originally formed of this building bid fair to be wholly disappointed. But, in so far as it may be judged by its present appearance, we cannot help agreeing in great part with those who think that both externally and internally it will be an all but complete failure. Its site is too low, but this defect might easily have been obviated by artificial means. The elevation, also, of the greater part of the building is too low; and this is made the more obvious by contrast with the grand tower, which is to be of an extraordinary altitude. It is, also, overlaid with an endless profusion of minute ornaments, which detract from its simplicity, appear paltry, and are good for nothing, but to catch soot and smoke, and to form convenient receptacles for swallows' nests. The passages inside, being in the last degree complicated, are more like the mazes in a labyrinth than the corridors in a palace. The new House of Lords is as gorgeous and meretricious as gilding and painting can make it; and the new House of Commons is said to have all the faults such a building can have. It is of little consequence who is really responsible for all this. But it is much to be regretted that the opportunity, so unlikely to recur, of raising a structure worthy of the legislature of a great nation, has been thus thrown away; and that the enormous expense that has been, and will yet have to be, incurred in completing the present fabric, should not have been expended on some worthier building.

The *Government Offices*, inc. the Treasury, Home Office, and Board of Trade, on the W. side of Whitehall, have recently been much improved by the erection of a uniform and handsome palatial front. The Board of Control has an Ionic portico, but is, otherwise, a plain building. The Ordnance and Admiralty offices make no pretensions to display; and the "Horse Guards," which does pretend to it, is in very bad taste. Many of the public offices are in Somerset House, once a palace, occupied by Edward VI. and Elizabeth. The old building was taken down in 1776; and the present quadrangular structure, designed by Sir William Chambers, was completed in 1782, and distributed into government offices. The street front is only 200 ft. in length, but that facing the river is 800 ft. in length, and is one of the noblest elevations in London. An eastern wing was added by King's College, in 1880, in completion of the architect's design.

On the river's bank, in the E. part of the city, is the *Tower*,

^{*} With many a foul and midnight murder fed."

This rude fortress, about $\frac{1}{2}$ m. below London Bridge, was begun by William the Conqueror in 1078. The

^{*} It is now being rebuilt at Cumberland Gate, Hyde Park.

original building, now called the White Tower, was completed in 1088. Additions were made by Henry III. in 1240, by Edward IV. in 1465, and the whole was substantially repaired by Charles II. in 1668. The Grand Storehouse, a large building N. of the White Tower, begun by James II., and completed by William III., was burned down in 1841, when about 280,000 stand of muskets and small arms were destroyed. On the site of this Storehouse a large semi-Gothic structure, called the Wellington barracks, and serving partly as such, and partly as an armoury, &c., has been erected. It is fire proof, and is constructed so that it could not easily be taken, unless artillery were employed against it. The Tower was a royal palace during more than five centuries. It was long, also, and still in fact is, a state prison; and several royal personages, and some of our highest nobles, and most distinguished commoners, have perished in this edifice, some by the hands of public executioners, and some by the dagger and bowl of the assassin. It anciently contained several detached masses of building, most of which have now disappeared. The original tower, now called the White Tower, still remains the principal edifice. The Martin Tower is now called the Jewel Tower. The Lantern Tower, the Royal Palace, and the Mint, have been pulled down. Of the remainder of the old building vestiges may be traced under altered names. The present edifices consist, ex. the barracks, already referred to, of the church of St. Peter, the ordnance office, the record office, the jewel office, armories, &c. The whole is surrounded by a moat, filled with water from the Thames, and the outer bank has been recently turned into pleasure grounds. The Tower is open to visitors, who pay 6d. to see the armories, and a similar sum to inspect the regalia. The ménagerie, formerly the best in England, having been superseded by that belonging to the Zoological Society in the Regent's Park, was dispersed some years ago.

The Mint, formerly in the Tower, but now on Tower Hill, is a stone building of Greek architecture, consisting of a centre and wings. The workshops and offices occupy about 8,000 square yards, and the machinery for coining is complete and efficient. The selection and remuneration of the officers and workmen is in some respects anomalous, and will, probably, be soon changed. The money coined in 1847 consisted of 5,158,440*l.* in gold, 125,780*l.* in silver, and 8,960*l.* in copper. The gold is computed at the Mint price of 3*l.* 17*s.* 10*d.* per oz. troy, or 46*s.* 7 to the lb. troy; the silver at 5*s.* 6*d.* per oz., or 68*s.* to the lb. troy; and the copper at 22*d.* per ton, or 24 pence to the lb. avoird.

Post-Office.—The Post-Office, in the centre of the metropolis, near St. Paul's, a large, handsome building, completed in 1829, of Portland stone, is 390 ft. in length, 180 ft. in width, and 64 ft. high. The facade has three Ionic porticoes, over the central and largest of which is a plain pediment. Within this portico is the great hall, 80 ft. by 64 ft., divided into three compartments by rows of Ionic columns on granite pedestals: passages lead from it to the principal offices.

The business transacted in this building, embracing as it does the internal correspondence of this immense city, and its external correspondence with all parts of the U. Kingdom and of the world, is necessarily of vast extent; and is conducted with a degree of dispatch, regularity, and accuracy, that is quite extraordinary. There are about 200 houses for receiving letters within what is called the "town district" of the metropolis. The postage collected in London amounted in 1847

to 888,948*l.*, and in 1848 to 876,851*l.* The post-office revenue of Liverpool, which is next to that of London, amounted in 1848 to 57,678*l.*

Religious Establishments and Buildings.—London is a bishop's see, the highest in rank in the kingdom under the archbishops. The diocese till lately comprised 199 parishes in Middlesex, 898 in Essex, 56 in Hertfordshire, and 4 in Buckinghamshire, in all 650; but under the new ecclesiastical arrangements it comprises all the parishes of Middlesex, 23 in Surrey, 10 in Essex, and 9 in Kent, making a total of 241 parishes, and 318 benefices. The nett revenue of the diocese, at an average of the three years ending with 1831, was 13,929*l.* per annum, and owing to the building that has been and is now going on upon the bishop's estate, it will, at no distant period, amount to three or four times that sum; but on the death of the present incumbent, the income of the see is to be fixed at 10,000*l.* a year nett. There are in the city of London 118 parishes, of which 97 are within the walls, and 16 in the liberties: the 97 parishes are very small, and only 57 of them have churches; those belonging to the others either having been burned down at the great fire of 1666, and not rebuilt, or been since removed to make room for improvements. Some additional churches have been built in the liberties, making the whole number now in the city 75. Westminster contains 10 parishes, 4 of which were formed early in the last century, in consequence of the great increase of pop. at the W. end of the town, and 1 recently; 2 only of these parishes, St. Margaret's and St. John's, are considered to form the city of Westminster, the other 8 being denominated the liberties. Westminster was erected into a bishopric by Hen. VIII. in 1541, when the whole of Middlesex, exclusive of the city of London and the parish of Fulham, was assigned as its diocese; but this bishopric existed only nine years, at the expiration of which the ecclesiastical government reverted to its former channel. Within the present century, sundry district churches have been built. According to what appears to be an authentic statement, there are at present about 160 churches in the metropolis, exclusive of those in the city, or 285 in all; and to those have to be added about 85 episcopal chapels. It is needless, perhaps, to add that in addition to the churches and chapels belonging to the establishment, there are immense numbers of other places of worship in London. In it almost every class of religionists has its representatives, and its chapels. And some of these, as the Methodists, R. Catholics, Baptists, Unitarians, Foreign Protestants, Scotch Presbyterians, Jews, &c. are very numerous. The entire number of chapels, &c., belonging to dissenters, that is, to all parties not in communion with the Church of England, amounts to about 280.

St. Paul's, the cathedral church of London, is not only the great architectural glory of the metropolis, but of the empire. It stands in an elevated situation at the top of Ludgate Hill, on the site of the former cathedral, destroyed during the great fire of 1666. Its foundations were laid on the 21st of June, 1675; and Sir Christopher Wren, by whom it was designed, and under whose directions the work was carried on, lived to complete the stupendous edifice, the last stone of which was laid by his son in 1710. It is built in the form of a Latin cross, with an additional arm or transept at the W. end to give breadth to the front, and has a semicircular projection at the E. end for the altar, and semicircular porticoes at either end of the transept. It is 510 ft. in length, E. to W., the

length of the cross, exclusive of the circular porticoes, is 250 ft., the breadth of the W. façade with the turrets, 180 ft., and the height of the walls 110 ft. An immense dome, or cupola, rising over the centre, is surmounted by a lantern, ball, and cross, the latter being elevated 362 ft. above the level of the floor, and 370 feet above the pavement of the churchyard. The two turrets, or belfries, in the W. front, are each 222 ft. in height. The walls are decorated by two stories of coupled pilasters arranged at regular distances, those below being of the Corinthian and those above of the Composite order. The whole building is of Portland stone; and the excellence of its foundations, and the massive solidity of its walls and piers, warrant the inference that it will be as lasting as it is magnificent.

St. Paul's, it is frequently said, is copied, or at least closely imitated, from St. Peter's at Rome; and to some extent this is true. But it is a copy that bears the impress of transcendent genius; and may be said to be to St. Peter's what the *Æneid* is to the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. The fronts of both cathedrals are the parts, perhaps, in which they are most deficient; but in neither instance was the architect allowed to follow out his own conceptions. Bramante and Michael Angelo wished to have the portico of St. Peter's formed on the plan of the Pantheon, and Wren was obliged to modify his masterly designs so as to make them acceptable to those to whom he was obliged to defer. The belfries of St. Paul's give it a character very different from that of St. Peter's. Neither is the dome of the latter so spherical as that of the British cathedral, nor is it so striking a feature of the building, being placed so far behind the lofty façade as to be almost invisible to a person standing near the edifice. But in the vastness of its proportions St. Peter's is far exceeded. St. Paul's as the latter does the largest of the English churches. Perhaps, also, it is superior to St. Paul's in the harmony of its parts; the dome, though so grand a feature in the latter, being, it is very generally admitted, too large for the other parts of the building. But the English cathedral is, though *longo intervallo*, second only to St. Peter's; and is unquestionably the noblest of transalpine and of Protestant temples.

The interior of St. Paul's is chaste and imposing; but, owing to the want of ornament, it has rather a naked and austere appearance. Latterly it has been attempted to obviate this defect by placing within the cathedral monuments erected at the public expense to eminent individuals, among whom may be specified Marquis Cornwallis, Earl St. Vincent, Lord Nelson, Abercrombie, Earl Howe, Howard the philanthropist, Dr. Johnson, Sir William Jones, Sir Joshua Reynolds, &c. But these, with few exceptions, do no credit either to the artists or the country, and are totally unworthy of the temple which they only encumber.

The remains of Sir Christopher Wren are deposited in one of the vaults of the cathedral; and before the entrance to the choir is the following appropriate inscription to his memory:—

SUSTUL. CONDITOR. HUIUS ECCLESIAE. ET. URBS.
CONDITOR. CHRISTOPHORUS WREN. QUI. VIXIT.
ANNO. ULTRA. NONAGINTA. NON. SISI. SED.
BONO. PUBLICO. LECTOR. SI. MONUMENTUM. REQUIRAM.
CIRCUMSPICE.

ORBIT. XXV. FEB. ANNO. MDCCXXIII.
ÆTAT. 91.

Individuals ascend by an inside stair to the stone gallery which surrounds the exterior gallery above the colonnade; and by a more diffi-

cult ascent they reach the Golden Gallery, which crowns the apex of the dome, at the base of the lantern. The view from this latter point, on a clear day, is unrivalled. The entire metropolis, vast as it is, appears to be spread out at the spectator's feet. The broad and silvery line of the river, crossed by numerous bridges, and bearing on its bosom thousands of vessels, gives infinite grandeur and variety to the scene. At this height, the people, horses, and carriages in the streets, and every thing else on the surface, appear so greatly diminished, that the bustle of the crowd has been, not inaptly, compared to that of a swarm of emmets. Owing to the usual density of the smoke, this splendid view is seldom seen in perfection. It appears to the greatest advantage early in a clear summer morning, before the fires are lighted.

The more adventurous visitors not only ascend to the top of the cupola, but enter the lantern, and thence make their way into the copper ball by which it is crowned. The diameter of the latter is 6 ft. 2 in.

The whole cost of this noble structure amounted to only 747,954*l.*, less than a fourth part of the sum that will probably be required to complete the new Houses of Parliament! It was, as has been often remarked, finished in 35 years, under the superintendence of one architect, by one master mason (Mr. Strong), and during the incumbency of one Bishop of London (Dr. Henry Compton). St. Peter's, on the contrary, was 145 years in building, during which time no fewer than 12 architects were employed upon it, and 19 popes sat in the papal chair! (See *Brayley's Account of St. Paul's*, in the *Survey of London and Middlesex*, ii. 249—310; *Aikin's Essay on St. Paul's*; *Britton's Account of St. Paul's*; *Elme's Life of Sir Christopher Wren*, &c.)

It is greatly to be regretted that St. Paul's is so much hemmed in by the surrounding buildings. The view of the grand façade, with the dome rising above it, from the E. end of Ludgate Street, is, however, uncommonly fine; and a good view of a portion of the building is now obtained from the opening made at the S. end of the new Post-office. The dome appears to great advantage from the bridges and the river; and is seen at a great distance from all parts of the surrounding country, towering above the smoke by which the city is generally enveloped.

The effect of the smoke on the structure is not a little curious. In the parts protected from the weather it adheres, and the building has, in consequence, a black and sooty appearance; while, on the other hand, the parts exposed to the weather seem bleached or whitened. But this sort of pie-bald aspect has not the bad effect that might *a priori* be expected.

Westminster Abbey, which, next to St. Paul's, is the noblest ecclesiastical edifice in London, dates from the 13th century, though portions of the edifice, erected by Edward the Confessor, may still form part of the building. Great additions were made to it by Henry VII., who built the splendid chapel that still bears his name; and at the beginning of the last century the two towers of the W. front were added, from designs furnished by Sir Christopher Wren. In 1808 a considerable part of the building was destroyed by fire; but it has since been completely repaired, and Henry VIIIth's chapel renovated in its original style. It is 360 ft. in length, and 195 wide, within the walls. Though built at many different times between the reigns of Henry III. and Henry VII., and never quite completed, it offers one of the best specimens of the pointed style in Eng-

land. It is in the form of a cross, the shape of which, externally at least, at the E. end, is almost obliterated by 12 minor chapels, of which that of Henry VII. is the largest and finest. The great variety of the abbey renders any thing like a general description impossible. The N. side, with its beautiful gate, may be considered the principal front; but the view is much injured by the interference of St. Margaret's church, which ought to be removed. It presents a line of ornamental turreted buttresses and pointed windows, with a fanciful sculptured porch, decorated with immense flying buttresses, lofty pinnacles, and a large wheel window 32 ft. in diameter. The most striking view of the interior is from the W. entrance, where the lofty pointed aisles, clustered columns, rich tracery work, and monumental decorations, judiciously lighted by painted windows, present a harmonious effect well calculated to arrest the attention of the most insensible. Many of the most illustrious of the statesmen, orators, warriors, philosophers, divines, poets, and distinguished individuals of all sorts, celebrated in the annals of the empire, are buried within its precincts; and their monuments, which are distributed all over the Abbey, give it the highest interest, and deeply impress the mind with feelings of awe and veneration. Since its restoration, in 1820, Henry VIII's chapel has formed the most beautiful of the subordinate portions of the Abbey: it is universally considered a gem, and is, undoubtedly, a very choice specimen of its style.

The other churches of London have no pretensions to be compared with those last mentioned. Of those which escaped the great fire of 1666, St. Saviour's in the Borough, and the Temple Church, deserve special mention. The former, recently restored to much of its ancient freshness, is a good specimen of the architecture of the 14th century: the latter, which will be subsequently noticed, is still more ancient, and is remarkable for its peculiar architecture, and for the fine Norman arch forming the entrance to the building. After the fire, several churches were built by Sir Christopher Wren, but the fame of St. Paul's has obscured the lustre of his other works. Bow Church, in Cheapside, St. Bride's, Fleet Street, and St. Stephen's, Walbrook, are the most admired of Sir Christopher's churches. The latter, which has recently been renovated, is entitled to the highest praise. "He has not omitted a single beauty of which the design was capable; but has supplied them all with infinite grace." (*Dallaway's Anecdotes*, p. 142.) In the early part of last century several churches were erected, of which St. Martin's, St. George's, Hanover Square, and St. George's, Bloomsbury, have very fine porticoes, especially St. Martin's. Within the last 50 years, however, a complete change, and, which is worse, a great deterioration, took place in our ecclesiastical architecture. St. Pancras church, and some others, may, perhaps, be excepted from this censure; but an extreme poverty of architectural talent was shown in designing new churches, which are quite unworthy of those formerly erected, and of the city. More recently, however, the taste has been again improved; though the Gothic or mediæval style be now, perhaps, too universally followed. The places of worship for Dissenters are, with few exceptions, plain brick buildings, well arranged for the accommodation of large congregations, but constructed with little attention to ornament or taste.

Lambeth Palace.—One of the most extensive and imposing buildings S. of the Thames is Lam-

beth palace, on the river's bank, nearly opposite the new houses of parliament. The original building, erected in 1191, was first intended for a college of canons; but, as the pope refused his consent to its establishment, it was converted into an archiepiscopal palace, and has ever since been the town residence of the primate of all England. Great additions were made to it about 1250, and in the 15th century Archbishop Chichele built a square stone tower towards the river, called the Lollard's Tower, from the fact of some of those early reformers having been confined in it. Subsequent additions were made by Cranmer, Pole, Parker, Juxton, Sancroft, and Tillotson; but the whole, as seen from the outside, is a heavy dull-looking brick structure, little interesting except from its antiquity. The late additions, however, completed in 1833, at a cost, including internal fittings, of nearly 80,000*l.*, are executed in better taste. The new buildings, of Bath stone, stand in the gardens, E. of the old palace: the principal edifice is a splendid structure, the ornamental portions, which are particularly rich, being copied from Westminster and St. Alban's Abbeys. The entrance front, flanked with square towers, is 160 ft. in length, the opposite or garden front being 30 ft. longer. The principal rooms are of fine proportions, and richly though chastely embellished, the wood-work being almost wholly of oak. The library is perhaps one of the finest parts of the interior; and though remarkably plain in its decorations and furniture, produces, from its great size, a very imposing effect. It contains upwards of 25,000 vols., among which are sundry rare works in classics, divinity, &c.; and the MSS., some connected with the history of the see, and others of a miscellaneous character, are said to be very valuable. In the older parts of the building the chief rooms are the long gallery, containing a curious collection of paintings, chiefly portraits of former prelates, the great hall, with an open roof of oak, presenting one of the best specimens in the country of internal Gothic decorations; and the chapel, a small but extremely elegant apartment, fitted up with oak stalls, pews, and an exquisitely carved pulpit and screen. The altar-piece, however, ill accords with the rest of the fittings, being of the Corinthian order, painted and gilt! The park and gardens belonging to the palace occupy about 18 acres: they are completely walled round; nearly 4 acres are appropriated to the kitchen garden, the rest being planted, and laid out in shrubberies.

Cemeteries.—The crowded state of most of the metropolitan churchyards, and the growing conviction of their injurious influence over the health of the neighbourhoods in which they are placed, have, within these few years, suggested the establishment of public cemeteries at some distance from town. The first of these, at Kensal Green, occupying a piece of ground 48 acres in extent, tastefully planted and laid out, was opened in 1832. It is situated about 2 m. N.W. of London; and has chapels where the funeral service is performed according to the rites of the Church of England, and of other religious persuasions. The success of this undertaking, which was long opposed by ignorant prejudice, led to the construction of other cemeteries. That at Highgate, consecrated in 1833, and occupying about 20 acres, in an elevated situation N. of the city, commands a very extensive view. The Norwood cemetery, 6 m. S. of the city, is double the size of that last mentioned. Other cemeteries have been completed, at Abney Park, Stoke Newington; Earl's Court, Brompton; and at Victoria Park and Bow Common in the E. Hitherto, however, the new cemeteries have been

too far from town, and too expensive, to be used by the poorer classes. But others of a less costly description will, no doubt, be speedily provided for their use. The act of the 13 & 14 Vict. c. 52. (1850), providing for the abolition of intramural interment, provides, also, for the formation of new burial grounds in convenient situations, and at reasonable rates of charge.

Commerce.—London is not only the capital of a great empire, but is one of the first commercial cities of the world. Her intercourse extends to the remotest countries, and her merchants are not surpassed for wealth, enterprise, and integrity. The establishments connected with commerce are on a scale commensurate with the amount of business to be transacted. The public buildings for commercial purposes consist chiefly of the Bank of England, East India House, Royal Exchange, Custom House, Corn Exchange, and Coal Exchange.

The Bank of England, from its first incorporation in 1694 to 1784, transacted its affairs at Grocers' Hall, in the Poultry. The first stone of the present building was laid in 1782; 40 years afterwards the E. and W. wings were added, and in 1781 the church of St. Christopher was taken down to make room for further additions. Until 1825 this edifice exhibited a great variety of incongruous styles; but endeavours have since been made, and with some success, to produce uniformity. The building is insulated, and covers 8 acres: its shape is an irregular parallelogram, the longest side measuring 440 ft. Many of the rooms in the interior, such as the court-room, pay-hall, and dividend-office, are spacious and well-proportioned: the largest and loftiest of all is the rotunda, a circular hall, 57 ft. in diameter, and crowned by a handsome cupola and lantern. The chief transactions connected with the funds take place in this apartment. The affairs of the Bank of England are managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and 24 directors, elected annually. The business is conducted by about 800 clerks, whose salaries amount to about 190,000*l*. A valuable library, intended for their especial use, has recently been established in the Bank by the liberality of the directors.

In 1844 the charter of the Bank was continued till 1855, its capital being then also fixed at 11,015,100*l*. lent to government at 8 per cent. Branch banks in connection with the Bank of England have, since 1826, been established in most large towns, the chief business of which is to discount bills, issue notes, and transmit money to and from London. The profits of the Bank accrue from interest on exchequer bills, discounts of commercial bills, interest on the capital lent to government, an allowance of about 90,000*l*. a year for managing the public debt, and some other sources. The dividend received by the proprietors is 7 per cent.

Statement of the Liabilities and Assets of the Bank of England, on the 7th of September, 1850, that is, of the Bank Notes in circulation, and the public and private Deposits held by the Bank, on the one hand, and of the Securities and Bullion in her possession, on the other.

Liabilities.	Assets.
<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>
Circulation.	Public Securities - 14,430,847
Bank notes - 19,431,563	Private debt - 11,700,329
Post bills - 1,260,736	Bullion - 16,706,943
Deposits, public - 8,255,796	
Do, private - 9,106,576	42,235,519
28,674,805	Res. or excess of assets over Liab. - 3,310,944

Account of the Deposits in the different Metropolitan Savings' Banks on the 26th of November, 1843.

	<i>£</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>d</i>
Bloomfield Street, Moorfields	726,286	9	6
Broombury, Montague Street	481,723	3	0
Canterbury Town	15,567	17	1
Chelsea	136,977	17	3
St. Clement Danes	84,632	2	4
Covered Garden	36,786	0	10
Farringdon Street	76,212	13	9
Finsbury	181,224	3	9
Prinny Square, Upper Charlotte Street	118,231	13	11
St. Giles, Withington, Cripple-gate	47,583	17	1
Hackney	24,552	1	7
Hackney, Kingsland Road	7,770	0	11
Hampstead	12,749	14	4
Highgate	9,708	13	7
Hoxton	6,344	16	3
Islington	43,429	16	9
Kensington	39,458	0	7
Limehouse	39,753	9	6
St. Martin's Place	1,114,617	6	3
St. Mary-le-bone, St.	232,486	10	8
Puddington	47,328	6	1
Poplar	31,232	6	8
Roper	36,602	7	8
Westminster	5,907	1	1
Whitechapel	145,946	18	0
Chancery-lane, Peckham, &c.	43,734	3	8
Clapham	35,455	3	10
Kennington	7,083	11	11
Lambeth	66,091	3	11
Lambeth, St. John's	30,786	7	3
Redbourne	5,335	1	1
Southwark	237,134	4	10
Stoke Newington	11,964	13	11
Total	4,305,451	10	5

But it must not be supposed that anything like the whole of this immense sum has been deposited by those for whose especial behoof savings' banks were devised. On the contrary a very large proportion of the deposits belongs to parties in the middle ranks of life, who have been tempted to make use of savings' banks by the high rate of interest they have allowed. It is much to be regretted that artisans make so little use of these establishments; however high their wages may previously have been, they are usually found, when they happen to be thrown out of employment, to be all but destitute.

Of about 55 private banking houses at present in London, two at least were in existence before the Bank of England, viz. those of Messrs. Child, Temple Bar, and Messrs. Hoare, Fleet Street. Within the last few years numerous joint stock banking companies have been established in the city, on the model of the Scotch banks; and the presumption seems to be that they will gradually supersede the private bankers.

The Royal Exchange, originally erected by Sir T. Gresham, in 1566, was burnt down in the great fire. It was rebuilt within three years, and extensively repaired between 1820 and 1826. Having been again destroyed by fire on the 10th of January, 1838, it has been again rebuilt, from a design by Mr. Tite, and is now one of the colossal fabrics of the city. It is quadrangular, and has a colonnade and pediment fronting Cornhill. The court inside is surrounded by piazzas; but the merchants and others frequenting the building are not sufficiently protected from the weather, a defect which is much and justly complained of. In the quadrangle is a statue of Her Majesty by Lough, and it is further ornamented with statues of Queen Elizabeth, Sir Thomas Gresham, and Sir Hugh Myddelton. Lloyds, and the Royal Exchange Assurance, have their offices in the building. It was opened on the 28th of October, 1844.

The East India House, in Leadenhall Street, is the place where the East India Company's business is chiefly transacted: it was first built in 1726, but has been since so much altered and enlarged, that scarcely any part of the old edifice now remains. It has a stone front with a portico supported by six fluted Ionic columns, above which are a frieze and pediment ornamented with sculpture. The interior comprises numerous apartments, of which the largest are the court-room, the committee-room, and the two sale-rooms. In the E. wing are the library and museum: the former contains a pretty extensive collection of works connected with the arts, sciences, and literature of

Asia, and some rare Oriental MSS. The museum, which is open every Saturday, is furnished with a great variety of Indian curiosities, &c. The E. I. Company is now an exclusively political institution; the act 8 & 4 Will. 4., prolonging the charter till 1854, having debarred the company from the privilege of trading.

River and Port.—What is legally termed the port of London extends 6½ m. below London Bridge to Bugsby's Hole, beyond Blackwall; though the actual port, consisting of the upper, middle, and lower pools, does not reach beyond Limehouse. The whole of the latter space is generally covered with vessels; a channel, only 800 ft. wide, being left clear for craft passing up and down the river. The port having been long insufficient for the proper accommodation of the shipping resorting to London, and being often blocked up by fleets of merchantmen, the quays also being heaped with bales, boxes, bags, and barrels, in such confusion that the most barefaced robberies were committed with impunity, the necessity of further protection for merchandise became evident. Accordingly, at the close of last century, it was determined to excavate wet docks, capable of accommodating a large number of ships, with contiguous warehouses, the whole being inclosed by high walls. The West India Docks, the first of these establishments, and the largest belonging to the port, were opened in 1802. They are situated about 4 m. down the river: including the City Canal, a work intended for another object, but now a part of this establishment, they comprise about 295 acres, ¼ part of which is covered with water, the rest being occupied with quays and warehouses, the latter of great magnitude, and furnished with every convenience. They have an import and an export dock, with sufficient accommodation for 500 large merchantmen. The London Docks, about 1½ m. from London Bridge, were opened in 1805. They cover about 100 acres of ground, of which nearly a third part is water. The vaults beneath the warehouses have cellarage for 65,000 pipes of wine, and one of them has an area of 7 acres! The tobacco warehouses are very extensive. The East India Docks, smaller than those above described, and further down the river, were opened in 1808. Their water-area is 30 acres, and their great depth (23 ft.) enables them to accommodate vessels of very large size. The East and West India Dock Companies are now incorporated, and form only one association. The Commercial Docks, on the S. side of the river, consist principally of the old docks for the Greenland ships, enlarged and provided with warehouses for bonding foreign corn. They comprise 49 acres, 40 of which are water; and are principally used by vessels engaged in the Baltic and E. country commerce and the importation of timber. The St. Katherine's Docks, opened in 1828, are the nearest to London Bridge, being just below the Tower. They inclose 24 acres, of which 11½ are water. The warehouses, which are on a very extensive scale, are close to the quays, having the lower or basement story open for the purpose of receiving or delivering goods from and to vessels that are being laden or unladen; the arcades are supported by iron columns of great strength. These docks have all been constructed, at a vast expense, by joint stock companies; and have on the whole been profitable concerns, though they have redounded more to the advantage of the port than to that of their projectors.

The number of colliers frequenting the port has often suggested the idea of excavating docks for their accommodation in the Isle of Dogs, opposite Greenwich; but nothing has yet been effected

towards the execution of this plan. According to the present system, that part of the port below the lower pool serves as a place of anchorage for the colliers, only a certain number of which are allowed to be in the pool at once, and a flag is hoisted to notify when it is full. On the flag being hauled down, the first collier in rank enters the pool, and the others follow, until the number is completed, when the flag is again hoisted; the rest wait their turn. The following statement of the quantities of coal and culm brought into the port at different periods, from 1820 to 1849, both inclusive, shows the consumption of coal in London. The great increase within the last dozen years is chiefly owing to the introduction of steam navigation and gas lighting.

	Tons.		Tons.
1820 - - -	1,694,335	1845 - - -	2,628,290
1825 - - -	1,840,975	1846 - - -	2,490,910
1830 - - -	2,003,504	1847 - - -	2,403,989
1835 - - -	2,499,890	1848 - - -	2,953,735
1840 - - -	2,566,199	1849 - - -	3,280,120
1841 - - -	2,809,562		3,418,240
1842 - - -	2,745,900	1849 - - -	3,539,146

Account of the Coal imported into London in 1849; specifying the Ports whence the Coal was shipped, and the Number of Cargoes and Tons imported from each.

Ports whence shipped.	Cargoes.	Tons.
Newcastle - - -	4,545	1,422,670
Sunderland - - -	3,371	937,514
Stockton - - -	2,878	746,365
Blyth - - -	435	93,135
Scotland, ports of - - -	20	4,509
South Wales, &c. - - -	588	24,011
Yorkshire, &c., &c. - - -	978	26,740
Total of Coal - - -	19,018	3,339,067
Culm - - -	6	1,173
Cinders - - -	90	5,908
Total - - -	19,074	3,339,146

Exclusive of the above a small quantity of coal, amounting in 1849 to 41,640 tons, is brought to London by inland navigation and by railway.

The new Coal Exchange, in Lower Thames Street, is a magnificent, though rather incongruous, building. The great hall, which is circular, is 60 ft. in diameter, and 74 ft. to the apex of the glazed dome by which it is covered. The structure cost about 40,000*l*.

The Custom House, a large building by the river-side, between London Bridge and the Tower, was opened for business in 1817. The old one was burnt down in 1814, though not before the present building was begun, the former having been inconveniently small. The river-front, 480 ft. in length, is built of Portland stone, and, though rather plain, is decorated by 8 porticoes, each supported by 6 Ionic columns. The long room, where the public business is transacted, is 185 ft. in length, 66 ft. in width, and 55 ft. in height. Owing to the insufficiency of its foundations this structure became insecure, and had to undergo some very extensive repairs in 1825.

The immense extent of the trade of London will be apparent from the subjoined statement of the gross customs revenue of the port in the under-mentioned years:—

1835 - - -	11,773,616 <i>l</i> .	1847 - - -	10,597,482 <i>l</i> .
1840 - - -	11,068,053	1848 - - -	11,183,707
1845 - - -	11,083,905	1849 - - -	11,070,176
1846 - - -	10,888,136		

Now, as the total gross customs revenue of the United Kingdom amounted, in 1849, to 22,483,956*l*, it would seem from this statement that the import trade of London only equalled that of all the rest of the kingdom! This, however, would be a most fallacious inference. The imports into several of the other great ports, including Liverpool, Hull, Dundee, &c., consist principally of cotton, wool, flax, and other raw materials of

our manufactures, which are mostly admitted free of duty; whereas the imports into London consist principally of articles of consumption, inc. tobacco, sugar, tea, coffee, wine, timber, &c., on which high duties are paid. Hence it is that the amounts of the import duties collected in different ports afford no fair criterion, or, indeed, any criterion at all, of the real extent of their import trade. In regard to exports, the articles produced in London are intended more for the home than for foreign demand, and do not constitute any very large proportion of the shipments to foreign parts. These, however, are notwithstanding very large; for, owing to the extreme facility of communication between London and the manufacturing districts, and the low rates at which goods may be lodged in the dock warehouses, London has greater facilities than any other port for the making up of mixed or assorted cargoes, and has, in consequence, a large export trade. Thus, in 1849, the declared value of the goods exported from London amounted to 11,748,833*l.*, being, we believe, about the same as the value of the exports from Hull. But during the same year the declared value of the exports from Liverpool amounted to no less than 82,341,918*l.*, or to nearly three times the value of the exports from London. There can, therefore, be no doubt that as respects foreign trade London is surpassed by Liverpool, and, perhaps, also, by New York. But as regards foreign and home trade taken together, London is at least equal to any other place. She may be truly said to be *universi orbis terrarum emporium*; and owing to her being the grand mart of all the rich, extensive, and densely-peopled districts included within the basin of the Thames, we do not think, provided the country continue to prosper, that there is any ground for apprehending any falling off in the commerce of London. It is impossible to form any accurate estimate of the total value of the produce conveyed into and from London; but, including the home and foreign markets, we believe it will not be overated at the prodigious sum of sixty-five millions sterling.

Some idea, however imperfect, may be formed of the extent and distribution of the trade of London from the following statements.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of those Ships that entered the Port of London with Cargoes from Foreign Parts, in 1848, distinguishing the Countries whence they came.

Countries	British.		Foreign.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
Russia - - -	611	148,064	83	24,738
Sweden - - -	78	8,773	222	24,286
Norway - - -	8	805	207	27,447
Denmark - - -	115	14,949	718	54,697
Prussia - - -	494	78,195	125	31,967
German States - -	425	81,058	351	27,814
Holland - - -	550	115,823	336	27,128
Belgium - - -	80	48,264	180	27,487
France - - -	692	97,738	541	30,648
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira - - -	346	26,566	7	687
Spain and Italian States - -	229	23,061	54	3,390
Liechtenstein - - -	148	22,972	19	4,905
Liechten Islands - -	28	5,907	-	-
Greece - - -	64	9,530	-	-
Moldavia & Wallachia - -	6	997	1	150
Turkish Dominions - -	39	6,571	-	-
Syria and Palestine - -	2	210	-	-
Egypt - - -	58	25,563	1	189
Tunisia, Algeria, and Morocco - - -	11	1,295	-	-
Africa, Foreign Possessions - -	2	428	-	-
Asia, ditto - - -	30	8,559	4	1,973
China (exclusive of Hong Kong) - - -	53	24,118	-	-
West Indies, Foreign America, U. States - -	72	18,563	55	13,565
Ditto, Central and S. States - - -	211	11,192	101	62,984
Whale Fisheries - - -	12	4,512	17	4,141
Total - - -	4,436	839,130	3,050	498,745

Account of the Ships entering the Port of London from 1835 to 1845, both inclusive, distinguishing between British and Foreign Ships from Foreign Parts, and Coasters.

Years.	Foreign Parts.				Coasters.	
	British.		Foreign.		Vessels.	Tonnage.
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.		
1835	3,589	758,569	1,743	309,122	19,927	2,560,626
1836	3,493	675,926	1,586	215,364	20,439	2,441,746
1837	4,012	769,102	1,534	221,008	17,677	2,220,040
1838	4,084	767,218	1,303	195,929	-	-
1839	4,108	784,070	1,300	215,605	-	-
1840	5,910	744,229	1,568	207,500	No. of coasters not stated during these five years.	
1841	4,140	780,988	1,557	209,159		
1842	3,374	640,057	886	154,514		
1843	3,421	678,189	1,061	175,853	15,536	2,517,221
1844	3,786	735,028	1,280	216,083	20,069	2,523,857
1845	3,760	740,255	1,057	188,903	20,471	2,764,398
1846	3,845	773,040	1,465	250,875	20,763	2,810,878
1847	4,077	801,138	1,347	240,135	21,322	2,911,736
1848	4,066	803,925	1,727	277,909	21,024	2,608,416
1849	4,880	988,367	2,375	357,163	21,112	2,828,701
1850	4,547	934,650	3,241	534,456	21,419	2,850,813
1851	4,642	995,499	1,999	317,268	22,726	3,030,713
1852	4,767	1,009,453	1,640	281,468	21,967	3,029,567
1853	4,589	1,003,590	1,635	299,121	22,390	3,201,371
1854	4,741	1,009,453	2,114	353,346	24,738	3,290,396
1855	4,165	1,109,387	2,439	393,104	-	-

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Coasting Vessels that have entered the Port of London, in each Year from 1835 to 1844, both inclusive.

Years.	General Coasters, including Cutters.		Irish Traders.		Total.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1835	19,508	2,604,906	1,163	160,076	20,471	2,764,982
1836	19,717	2,656,860	1,018	154,009	20,765	2,810,878
1837	20,201	2,743,844	1,121	167,898	21,322	2,911,736
1838	20,353	2,747,741	1,259	180,435	21,612	2,928,176
1839	20,835	2,666,221	907	142,680	21,742	2,808,701
1840	20,412	2,701,038	1,008	147,755	21,420	2,848,791
1841	21,381	2,845,368	1,545	187,543	22,926	3,033,713
1842	20,858	2,759,584	1,069	159,583	21,927	2,919,567
1843	20,958	2,711,808	1,342	189,458	22,300	3,001,271
1844	21,494	2,706,743	1,444	185,635	22,738	3,200,396

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Ships that entered the Port of London in 1848, with Cargoes from the Colonies and Dependencies of England:—

Colonies.	Ships.	Tons.
Gibraltar - - -	-	7
Malta - - -	-	9
British Possessions in Africa - -	-	165
Ditto in Asia - - -	-	383
America, &c.:—		
British Northern Colonies - - -	344	143,224
Ditto West Indies - - -	328	97,438
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man -	608	66,467
Total - - -	1,943	546,195

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Coasting Vessels, distinguishing between Sailing and Steam Vessels, that entered the Port of London in 1848 and 1849.

	1848.		1849.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
Sailing Vessels - - -	31,561	2,977,126	30,155	2,731,519
Steamers - - -	1,023	315,444	969	304,465
Totals - - -	32,584	3,292,572	31,122	3,035,984

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels from Foreign Ports, distinguishing between Sailing and Steam Vessels, and between British and Foreign do, that entered the Port of London in 1848 and 1849.

	1848.		1849.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
Sailing vessels, British - - -	3,562	595,891	3,010	610,356
Steamers, ditto - - -	1,080	347,457	1,211	375,942
Sailing vessels, Foreign - - -	2,961	400,805	3,204	407,473
Steamers, ditto - - -	115	30,536	142	37,263
Totals - - -	7,718	1,374,689	8,167	1,430,992

On the 1st of January, 1850, the following ships belonged to the port of London, viz.:

	Under 50 Tons.		Above 50 Tons.		Totals.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
Sailing vessels	706	25,199	8,029	579,672	2,735	602,871
Steam-vessels	110	3,599	208	61,097	318	64,696
Total of sailing and steam-vessels	816	28,798	8,237	640,769	3,053	667,497

The crews may amount to about 85,000 men and boys. This, which is a greater amount of shipping than belongs to any other British port,* will appear the greater, when it is recollected that the colliers almost all belong to Newcastle, Sunderland, and other ports in the N. An immense number of barges are employed in the loading and unloading of colliers and other vessels in the river. The out-of-doors establishment of the customs, which is mostly all employed in the business of the port, comprises about 1,000 individuals.

The insurance of houses, ships, lives, &c. is carried on to a far greater extent in London than anywhere else. Marine insurances are mostly effected by private parties; but other insurances are generally made by joint stock companies. Some of these have been very successful, and have accumulated vast sums. It is believed, however, that not a few insurance companies are of a very questionable description; and the conviction seems to be gradually gaining ground, that some public regulations should be laid down for the formation and guidance of such companies, so as to protect the insured against the extravagance, mismanagement, and bad faith of the directors.

Manufactures, retail trade, and markets.—London presents itself under too many points of view to be called a manufacturing city; yet it is the seat of many, and of some very extensive, manufactures, several of which have their distinct quarters.

The silk manufacture is conducted on a large scale in Spitalfields, Bethnal Green, and Mile-end. It employed, in 1840, about 7,000 hands, which may, probably, be about the number at present engaged in it. The trade fluctuates extremely, owing chiefly to the caprices of fashion, and great numbers of workmen are often thrown out of employment; but the distress, so often said to prevail in this densely-peopled district, is owing at least as much to the drunken and improvident habits of many of the weavers as to any falling off in the demand for labour. The nett wages of plain silk weavers, when fully employed, range from 9s. to 11s. 6d., and those of velvet weavers from 15s. to 23s. a week. With respect to physical condition, this numerous body are, speaking generally, diminutive, impoverished, and feeble, unable to withstand disease, and not long-lived, circumstances attributable to close in-door employment, bad air, bad lodging, and bad food. We shall elsewhere notice the tendency to epidemic fevers in close and ill-drained neighbourhoods, and in no part of London are the fatal effects of lodging in close courts and cellars more visible than in Spitalfields and Bethnal Green. (See *Dr. S. Smith's Evidence before the Committee on Health of Towns*, pp. 1—7.)

Porter is the favourite beverage of the lower and also of a considerable proportion of the middle classes of London. The breweries in which this favourite liquor is prepared are mostly on a very large scale; and are, indeed, by far the greatest manufacturing establishments in the metropolis,

much exceeding any thing of the kind to be found any where else. In addition to the capital vested in buildings, machinery, horses, &c., a first-rate brewery has, also, a large amount of capital vested in public-houses in all parts of the town. The principal establishments produce from 200,000 to 270,000 barrels a year, principally porter, but partly also ale. It has been estimated, that about 1,200,000 barrels, or 43,200,000 gallons of porter and ale are brewed for consumption in London only, besides which great quantities are sent to different parts of the United Kingdom, and exported to the E. and W. Indies, the United States, and continental Europe. In 1848-49, the consumption of malt by the different brewers, victuallers, &c., in the London collection amounted to 6,299,908 bush. The splendid teams of horses in the drays belonging to the chief breweries are among the objects most worthy of admiration in the metropolis. There are several very extensive distilleries, vinegar-factories, chemical works, and soap-boiling houses, most of which are situated on the S. side of the river. In 1849, 44,548,865 lbs. of hard and 618,917 lbs. of soft soap were made in London. About 20 large engineering establishments employ several hundred workmen in making steam-engines and other machinery, chiefly in Lambeth and Southwark.

The principal sugar refineries are in Whitechapel, E. of the city. Clock and watchmakers, who are numerous, reside principally in Clerkenwell. The finest cutlery and hardware are produced, and the manufacture of metals of all kinds is carried on to a great extent. In 1847, 4,788 oz. of gold plate, and 860,799 oz. silver do. were assayed in London, being double the quantity of the gold plate, and four times the quantity of the silver plate, assayed in the rest of the U. Kingdom. Coach-building is an important business; and the carriages of London are not only the handsomest, but the best built and most durable of any in the empire. Great numbers are made for exportation. Many hands are employed in type founding, constructing musical instruments, and in engraving music. The tanning, currying and dressing of leather is carried on more extensively in Bermondsey than anywhere else in the U. Kingdom. And, notwithstanding large numbers of shoes are imported ready made from Northampton and other places, their manufacture and that of harness gives employment to an immense number of hands in the metropolis. In proof of this we may mention that of 187,943 shoemakers and 14,091 saddlers in England and Wales in 1841, no fewer than 28,574 of the former, and 2,171 of the latter belonged to London. Ship-building, and the infinite variety of trades connected with shipping, are extensively carried on E. of London Bridge. Owing to the extent to which the division of labour is carried, the tradesmen and artisans of London have attained to the greatest proficiency in their respective callings; and there cannot be a question that the jewellers, silversmiths, engravers, cabinet-makers, printers, tailors, shoemakers, book-binders, &c., of the metropolis are quite unrivalled.

There are no means of forming anything like even a rough estimate of the extent of the retail trade of London, but it must be immense. The trades, generally speaking, are mixed indiscriminately, though some remains may yet be traced of the ancient custom of particular trades congregating in particular places. Thus we still find coach-makers in Long Acre, stay-makers in Holywell Street, booksellers in Paternoster Row, and bankers in Lombard Street. A good deal of business used to be transacted by itinerant vendors; but these are now seldom met with. Fashionable

* We say British port, for it is surpassed by the shipping of New York, which amounted in 1819 to 796,492 tons.

shops attract attention by the magnificence and gorgeness of their wares: their windows are, in many instances, made of the finest plate glass, set in brass frames, and their interior is frequently lined with mirrors. All sorts of devices, some of them being occasionally not of the most creditable kind, are used by shopkeepers to attract customers.

Classified Account, taken from the Population Returns of 1841, of the Persons, distinguishing their Sex and Ages, that were then engaged in the principal Trades and Professions carried on in the Metropolis.

	Males.		Females.		Total.
	20 Years of Age and upwards.	Under 20 Years of Age.	20 Years of Age and upwards.	Under 20 Years of Age.	
Baker	7,626	925	306	11	9,110
Baksmith	6,925	756	32	5	8,716
Bookbinder, bookbinder, and publisher	5,354	615	1,109	241	5,499
Boot and shoemaker	22,400	2,427	3,137	560	28,574
Bricklayer	6,270	449	24	-	6,743
Brush and broom maker	1,461	222	372	100	2,155
Butcher	5,802	814	134	-	6,450
Cabinet maker and upholsterer	6,497	764	635	57	7,973
Carpenter and joiner	16,963	1,775	85	-	18,821
Clark (commercial)	17,499	3,056	55	7	20,417
Clock and watchmaker	3,700	623	63	4	4,390
Cochmaker (all branches)	3,921	378	54	5	4,358
Copper	3,036	219	22	-	3,277
Currier and leather-seller	2,095	195	37	-	2,327
Dressmaker and milliner	107	10	17,183	5,480	20,780
Dyer, silk	306	30	4	-	340
Engineer and engine worker	3,642	608	3	1	4,151
Fishmonger and dealer	1,604	120	119	4	1,846
Greengrocer and tea dealer	5,944	475	860	4	6,986
Hatter and hat manufacturer (all branches)	2,600	319	137	-	3,056
Jeweller, goldsmith, and silversmith	3,421	478	67	5	3,971
Laundry keeper, washer, and mangle	195	11	15,549	465	16,720
Mason, pavilion, and stonemason	3,118	88	7	-	3,471
Merchant (general)	2,451	59	20	-	2,530
Milkman and cowkeeper	2,003	75	670	18	2,764
Painter, plumber, and glazier	10,313	914	75	5	11,507
Plasterer	2,341	365	12	1	2,719
Porter, messenger, and errand boy	10,254	2,706	79	16	13,105
Printer	6,533	1,020	59	6	6,618
Saddler, and harness and collar-maker	1,423	169	80	9	1,711
Seamster	6,466	436	-	-	7,000
Servant, domestic	29,595	9,705	35,916	33,485	168,701
Silk manufacturer (all branches); see also silk dyer	5,595	440	2,566	550	7,151
Surgeon, apothecary, and medical student	3,909	312	-	-	4,221
Tailor and breeches-maker	18,513	1,752	2,795	457	23,517
Tavern-keeper, publican, and victualler	4,290	60	509	9	4,868
Tobaccoist, and tobacco and snuff manufacturer	1,596	309	533	21	2,060
Washwoman and woman	3,400	374	54	4	3,834
Wheelwright	2,189	162	14	-	2,365

The *Markets* of London are supplied at all seasons, and with all sorts of articles, whether produced in the U. Kingdom or in the most distant countries, with a facility and a regularity that are truly marvellous, and could not *a priori* have been deemed possible. And now that the freedom of trade has been fully established, all articles are sold at their necessary prices, or at the prices required to produce them under the most favourable circumstances and to bring them to market. We are now, also, for the first time in our history, in a situation freely to avail ourselves of all the peculiar products and advantages of climate, soil, and skill, with which Providence has endowed different countries. Inventions and discoveries made in China, the U. States, or elsewhere, which lessen the cost of producing any desirable article, or facilitate its conveyance, will henceforth most probably conduce as much to our advantage as if they had been made in England. The age of monopolies and preferences has passed away; and while combinations for the purpose of artificially raising prices are all but impossible, they could not fail, were they really entered into, to be instantly defeated. Hence the fair presumption that in time to come our markets will be furnished with a still greater variety of products, of a continually improving quality, and sold at lower prices.

In the great provision markets articles are sold, partly by wholesale, and partly by retail. Generally, however, the inhab. prefer purchasing at shops distinct from the markets. Smithfield is the great market for live stock, which is sold on Mondays and Fridays. No fewer than 1,514,130 sheep were sold here in 1849, with 223,560 head of cattle, and 26,422 calves. We may remark, by the way, that Smithfield market is situated in the very centre of the city; and this circumstance, by obliging the stock to be driven to and from it through crowded streets, makes it an abominable nuisance. Frequent

attempts have been made to have it removed to the suburbs, but hitherto without effect. London is also totally unprovided with proper slaughter-houses, or *abattoirs*, and is, in this respect, behind Paris and other continental cities. Exclusive of the stock brought to Smithfield market, a good many cattle and sheep are imported in steamers, and privately sold; and in the colder months slaughtered cattle and sheep are extensively imported, particularly from the ports on the E. coast. Newgate and Leadenhall markets, with the Whitechapel carcass butchers, supply most part of the butchers of the town and neighbourhood.

Covent Garden is the principal vegetable market, and the immense supply of the finest fruits and vegetables, and the beauty of the plants on sale, make it well worth a visit. Billingsgate is the great fish-market, whence fish of all sorts are distributed to the shops and markets in different parts of the town. Hungerford market is also a well-supplied fish *dépot*; but at this and Farringdon market butchers' meat, fruit, and vegetables are also sold. The corn market, held in a fine Doric building in Mark Lane, is attended almost exclusively by wholesale dealers.

Different statements have, from time to time, been put forth respecting the consumption of the principal products brought to London; but, with the exception of coal, and one or two other articles, there are no means by which to arrive at any thing like a correct conclusion. Allowing for the carcasses imported by steam and otherwise, the annual consumption of butchers' meat may, however, be, at present, estimated at about 240,000 bullocks, 1,700,000 sheep, 28,000 calves, and 85,000 pigs, exclusive of vast quantities of bacon and hams.

Leadenhall is the principal market for the sale of poultry and game; and, according to a curious and apparently authentic statement that recently

appeared in the Morning Chronicle, the sale of these articles in that market, in 1849, was as follows, viz.,

TAME BIRDS AND DOMESTIC FOWLS.			
Fowls	- Nos.	1,266,000	Turkeys - Nos. 69,000
Geese	-	888,000	Pigeons - 284,500
Ducks	-	325,000	
Total 2,742,500.			
WILD BIRDS, ANIMALS, AND GAME.			
Grouse	- Nos.	45,000	Plovers - Nos. 28,000
Partridges	-	84,500	Larks - 213,000
Pheasants	-	43,900	Wild Birds - 39,500
Teal	-	10,000	Hares - 48,000
Widgeons	-	30,000	Rabbits - 680,000
Snipe	-	60,000	
Total 1,381,900.			
Total of Birds and Animals. 4,024,400.			

But in addition to the above, very great quantities are sold in Newgate and other markets, and many poulterers, in all parts of the town, and private families, are supplied in whole or in part direct from the country, and not at second-hand from the markets. In severe winters there are large supplies of wild ducks, principally from Holland, woodcocks, &c. Snipes come principally from Ireland. Three-fourths of the pigeons come from France. Black-cocks are all from Scotland. Sometimes, after a grand *batue*, there is a glut of hares and pheasants in Leadenhall market.

Exclusive of those brought from the different parts of the U. Kingdom, from 70 to 75 millions of eggs are annually imported into London from France and other foreign countries! About 18,000 cows are kept in the city and its environs for the supply of milk and cream; and if we add to their value that of the cheese and butter brought to the city, the expenditure on dairy produce will appear to be enormous. The consumption of wheat may, perhaps, be estimated at about 1,600,000 quarters a year; and the vast number of horses in London, and their high keep, must occasion an immense consumption of oats. The imports of salmon from Scotland and other parts of the U. K. may be estimated at from 2,500,000 lbs. to 3,000,000 lbs. a year; and to this have to be added the large quantities that are now imported from Holland and the N. of Europe. The supplies of turbot, cod, lobsters, oysters and shrimps, are quite immense. The best cod is brought from the Dogger bank, and the greater number of the lobsters from Norway. The value of the fish, vegetables, &c., consumed in the city, has been set down by some intrepid calculators; but the data on which they formed their estimates were too loose and unsatisfactory to entitle them to any credit.

External and internal Communication.—The communication between London and foreign countries is carried on partly by sailing vessels, and partly by steamers, regular lines of packets of both descriptions of vessels being established with the principal foreign and colonial ports. These, also, are the media of communication between London and the various ports of Great Britain and Ireland. The intercourse with the interior is partly carried on by canals, partly by high-roads, and partly by railways. The latter, though of such recent date, already stretch from the metropolis to the most remote parts of the empire. They have multiplied the means and facilities of travelling in a degree which, but a few years ago, could not have been imagined. The journey to Dublin, Edinburgh, and Glasgow, is now regularly performed in about 12 hours; and it might be performed in considerably less time if such extreme speed were necessary. The cheapness of this rapid travelling, its comfort and security, are equally remarkable. What are called "pleasure trains," at extremely low fares for the accommodation of the lower classes, are

frequent in summer, and carry vast numbers of passengers. In addition to the great lines of communication, short lines are opened to Blackwall, Greenwich, Kew, Richmond, Windsor, and other places in the vicinity of town.

We may take this opportunity of stating that the Doric portico at the terminus of the Great North Western Railway at Euston Square, and the Hall inside, are amongst the most magnificent structures of their kind anywhere to be met with. The hall is 130 ft. in length by 62 ft. in width, and 64 ft. in height.

The Thames is, also, a grand line of communication; the intercourse between the E. and W. ends of the city, and with the different places above and below the bridges, such as Putney, Barnes, Kew, Richmond, Kingston, &c., on the one hand, and Greenwich, Woolwich, Gravesend, Margate, &c., on the other, being kept up by means of steamers. Of these about 70 ply, during the summer season, between the limits above referred to, those plying between the bridges passing and repassing almost incessantly. In fine weather, especially on Sundays, they convey vast numbers of passengers. According to a curious estimate that lately appeared (October, 1850) in the Morning Chronicle, the receipts of the river steamers amount in the season to nearly 10,000*l.* a week.

The port of London is connected with the Irish Sea by a chain of canals, of which the Regent's canal, passing along the N. of the city, is the first link. The N. Western and other railways are, also, connected with the port.

Hackney-coaches were introduced more than 200 years ago; and previously to the introduction of cabriolets, in 1820, were very numerous, but they are now all but wholly superseded by the latter. It is a singular and not easily explained fact, that, with but few if any exceptions, the hackney-coaches and cabs to be found in the streets of London are the dirtiest, shabbiest, and most uncomfortable carriages that are anywhere to be met with. The drivers are worthy of the carriages; the one and the other being a disgrace to the city, and such as would not be employed anywhere else.

Literature.—London ranks still higher as a literary than as a commercial city. Notwithstanding the factitious encouragement given to learning and science in Oxford and Cambridge, London is the favourite resort of literary and scientific men. Its immense population, the wealth and intelligence of its inhab., and the circumstance of its being the seat of government, attract aspiring individuals from all parts of the empire, especially those ambitious to distinguish themselves in literature or politics. The practical, common-sense character of the philosophy and literature of England is probably, indeed, in no small degree owing to its being principally cultivated in London, where the writers, by mixing with the world, learn to avoid those over-refined theories and fanciful distinctions in which reclusive speculators are so apt to indulge. With the exception of the provincial newspapers, the whole periodical literature of England centres in London. The number of persons engaged in this department, as authors, publishers, printers, &c., is very great. London has no fewer than 12 daily newspapers, ex. lists, and 80 that appear at other intervals. Many of these journals display great, and some consummate talent; and, considering the extreme rapidity with which articles for the daily journals must be written, and the want of time for revision, they are certainly extraordinary performances. So far as respects its newspaper press, London is infinitely superior to every other city; and how-

ever one-sided, prejudiced, and little to be depended on in party matters, it is not easy to imagine that it is likely to gain much in ability, variety, and interest.

It appears, from the *Stamp-office Returns*, that of 84,339,415 stamps, inc. supplements, issued to the different newspapers published in the United Kingdom during the year ended 31st Dec. 1849, no fewer than 49,006,730, or more than the half of the whole, were issued to those published in London! And when the superior ability and information of the London press is taken into account, its preponderance will appear still more striking. During the same year, the total amount of the duty on advertisements paid by the newspapers of the United Kingdom amounted to 168,211*l.* 1*s.* 4*d.*, of which 69,512*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.* was derived from the metropolitan journals.

A prodigious number of weekly, monthly, and quarterly magazines, reviews, and other publications, issue from the London press; and though many of these be of a very trashy and worthless description, a considerable number are of a widely different character, and are well fitted to amuse, instruct, and improve the reader. By far the greater number of these publications appear on the last day of every month, known among booksellers as "Magazine day;" when the great publishing houses make up and forward innumerable parcels, containing every variety of works, to their correspondents in all parts of the kingdom.

The magnitude and importance of the periodical press of the metropolis will be best seen from the following statement, compiled by Messrs. Longman and Co. for 1850.

Description of Periodical.	Number.	Price.
Weekly Magazines, &c.	35*	1 <i>d.</i> to 6 <i>d.</i>
Monthly parts of entire works	5	1 <i>lb.</i> to 2 <i>lb.</i>
Monthly Magazines, &c.	263	6 <i>d.</i> to 6 <i>s.</i>
Ditto parts of entire works	61	6 <i>d.</i> to 10 <i>s.</i>
Quarterly Reviews, &c.	56	6 <i>d.</i> to 7 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>
Ditto parts of entire works	5	4 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> to 6 <i>s.</i>
Transactions of Learned Societies	30	2 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> to 4 <i>s.</i>
Law Reports	28	
Total of Periodicals, &c. (not Newspapers)	450	
Newspapers, daily morning	7	average 6 <i>d.</i>
Ditto, daily evening	5	
Ditto, thrice a week	5	
Ditto, twice a week	5	
Ditto, once a week (including Sunday)	72	5 <i>d.</i> to 1 <i>s.</i>
Total of Newspapers and stamped Publications	99	

The greater number of the works written in Scotland are now published in Edinburgh; but nearly the whole of the myriads of works written in England and Ireland are published in London. The latter, in fact, is to the literature of Britain what Leipzig is to that of Germany, or Paris to that of France. The London publishers have agents all over the country, to whom they send new publications; so that in the few instances in which books are printed at Oxford or Cambridge, or other provincial towns, it is usual to send them to London to be published.

Education.—London, unlike most other European capitals, had no university empowered to grant degrees till 1836, when one was established by royal charter (renewed in 1837) for "the advancement of religion and morality, and the promotion of useful knowledge," without distinction of rank, sect, or party. This institution differs (and, as we think, advantageously) from all other universities, in its having nothing to do with the business of education, being constituted for the sole purpose of ascertaining the proficiency of candidates for academic distinctions. It is, in fact, a Board of

Examiners, empowered to grant degrees in science and literature to such candidates as are found, on examination, to have attained the required proficiency. The senate, or board, consists of a chancellor, vice-chancellor, and 35 other members. The faculties are those of Arts, Law, and Medicine, in each of which are several examiners, some of whom are members of the senate. The sittings are held in Somerset House, and the examinations are half-yearly. The greatest number of candidates for degrees has hitherto been furnished by the University and King's Colleges, both of which are proprietary establishments. The former of these, opened in 1828, is governed by a council and senate of professors: the course of education embraces classics, pure and mixed science, history, jurisprudence, and medicine, religion being wholly excluded. The success of the medical school, which has for some years been the largest in London, has led to the erection of a good hospital close to the college. The general classes have not been so well attended as the more sanguine friends of the establishment at first expected; but the attendance is likely to be increased by the addition to the institution of a well-attended junior school, the instruction in which forms a good preparation for higher studies. King's College is a similar establishment to that last mentioned, and is similarly conducted, except that religion is taught in it in accordance with the principles of the Church of England. The general classes are well attended, as is the junior school. The medical school is small. The buildings of these establishments are handsome and commodious: the portico of University College is one of the finest in London.

Among the literary and scientific establishments of the metropolis, one of the best supported is the Royal Institution in Albemarle Street. The building, the front of which is in good taste, with 14 Corinthian columns, comprises a good library and reading room, a theatre for lectures, capable of accommodating 900 persons, and a chemical laboratory supposed to be one of the largest and best supplied with apparatus in Europe. Lectures on various subjects are delivered by the professors and other gentlemen temporarily engaged; and the important investigations made here by the late Sir Humphry Davy, Mr. Faraday, and others, have conferred on the institution a well-merited celebrity. Next in importance to that just mentioned is the London Institution, in Finsbury Circus, Moorfields, the objects of which are very similar, though not so fully and scientifically carried out. Lectures are given on literature, the fine arts, &c. once or twice a week from November to May: the library is both large and well-selected, and the reading rooms are supplied with the greater number of English and foreign literary journals. The Russell Institution, in Great Coram Street, is similar in most respects to those just described; but, owing to a falling off in its funds, its usefulness is at present very much circumscribed.

Efforts have, also, been made to promote the welfare and improvement of the working classes, and of young men generally, by the establishment of mechanics' institutes in different parts of London. But, whatever may be the cause, these, of late years, have generally been declining. The earliest, called, *par excellence*, "The Mechanics' Institute," in Southampton Buildings, Holborn (opened in 1824), which formerly had about 1200 members, has, at present (1850), about 600. The subscription is 2*s.* a year, and 2*s.* 6*d.* at entrance. Classes are established for languages, arithmetic, geometry, &c., and the library, which comprises 6500 vols., is said to be well selected. The Western Literary Institution, the City Insti-

* This number (35, does not include the low class of periodicals, consisting chiefly from Wych Street and the parlours of St. Giles's.

tution, in Aldersgate Street, and other establishments of the same kind in various districts, have since been founded.

Among the many endowed schools in the metropolis, the most celebrated are: 1. Westminster School, founded by Queen Elizabeth in 1560, for the free instruction, clothing, board, and lodgment of 40 boys, called king's scholars. But, in point of fact, their education is not free, but, at present (1850), costs, with board and lodging, about 46*l.* a year. The school is attended by other boys, partly boarders and partly day-boarders, the number of whom varies according to circumstances. The king's scholars are selected for merit from the whole school. At the end of the 4th year, 8 or 10 of the senior boys are elected off, according to the vacancies occurring, as students to Christchurch, Oxford, or as scholars to Trinity College, Cambridge. The school forms part of the collegiate establishment of the abbey. Dryden and Locke were educated in it; and William Murray, the famous Earl Mansfield, was a king's scholar, and dux in 1728. 2. The Charterhouse (corrupted from *Chartreux*), founded in 1611, and endowed with property, the gross rental of which, in 1815, was 22,000*l.* a year. There are on the foundation boys of two classes, pensioners and scholars, both nominated by the governors, among whom are usually some of the most distinguished personages in the country. The number of pensioners is limited to 80, and that of scholars to 44. The former are boarded and lodged at the expense of the hospital, and have, in addition, a pension of 25*l.* a year (whence their name) and a gown: the scholars are educated wholly at the expense of the hospital, but have no pension. The exhibitions to the universities belonging to this school do not appear to be limited in point of number. Boys elected to them have their option both as to college and university; and are allowed 80*l.* a year for the first 8 years, and 100*l.* for proceeding to the degree of B.A. Gratuities of 100*l.* are given to those scholars who do not proceed to either university. Besides the foundation-boys, the school is attended by others, whose number fluctuates according to the reputation of the masters, &c. 3. Merchant-Tailors' school, founded in 1561, in Suffolk Lane, Thames Street. The statutes provide that a classical education be furnished gratis for 100 boys, and for 150 others at rates varying from 5*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* a quarter. The scholars are examined once a year, and the most advanced are sent to Oxford, where the school has 43 fellowships, of which 37 were founded in St. John's by Sir Thomas White: it has, also, 7 fellowships at Cambridge. This school is in a very efficient state. 4. St. Paul's School, established in 1509 by Dean Colet, and placed by him under the direction of the Mercers' Company, provides a free education for 153 boys, the most advanced of whom are sent to Oxford and Cambridge, with exhibitions varying from 50*l.*, or less, to 120*l.* in value. The present building was erected in 1824; the gross income of the school is upwards of 6,000*l.*, and it enjoys a high character. It has to boast of having had Milton for a pupil. 5. Christ's Hospital, more commonly known as the Blue-coat School, was incorporated by Edward VI. in 1553, and owes its origin to the active benevolence of some distinguished citizens. It was, whatever may be the case at present, originally intended to maintain, clothe, and educate the young and helpless; and 340 boys and girls were admitted soon after its foundation. A second charter from Charles II., in 1678, provided for the education of 40 boys in mathematics and other learning calculated to qualify them for the sea-service. The management of the institution is vested in a

body of governors (nearly 500 in 1850), who have each contributed, at least 400*l.*, to the funds of the institution; but recently the qualification for a governor has been raised to 500*l.* An individual, on becoming a governor, is entitled to present one boy; and he has usually a presentation once every succeeding three years. The present (1850) revenue of the hospital, arising from rents, and all other sources, amounts to above 60,000*l.* a year, and its expenditure to nearly as much. Its establishment in London, on the site of the Old Grey Friars' monastery, accommodates, at present, 920 boys; and it has attached to it a subsidiary establishment at Hertford, for the younger children, where there are usually about 450 boys and 80 girls; making in all about 1450 children, maintained, clothed, and educated by the establishment. There are schools for grammar, mathematics, writing, and drawing. The *Grecians*, or those most advanced in the grammar school, are sent with valuable exhibitions to Oxford and Cambridge, and those in the mathematical school are placed with commanders of ships, and equipped with clothing and nautical instruments, at the hospital's expense. Others are apprenticed to different trades. A magnificent building, called the Great Hall, erected by public subscription, and finished in 1829, opens towards Newgate Street, and is one of the finest ornaments of the city. The hall, in which the children breakfast, dine, and sup, is 187 ft. in length, 51 in width, and 46½ ft. high. Occasionally they sup, though with questionable propriety, in public, and on these occasions there is a great concourse of strangers to witness the spectacle. The interior arrangements deserve high praise; and every attention is paid to the health and comfort of the children. The well-known dress of the boys, which has not been changed since the formation of the institution, is, however, not merely antiquated, but inconvenient and uncomfortable; and it is certainly high time that it were modified. Presentations can only be obtained from the governors. 6. The City of London School, established in 1886, may be said to have resulted from the inquiries of the Charity Commissioners. A Mr. Carpenter had left an estate for a school, and the value of the property had greatly increased without any proper application of the funds. Repeated inquiries and remonstrances at length induced the corporation to establish a school on the site of Honey-lane Market, Cheapside. The system of instruction is good, and the school is attended by upwards of 500 boys. The buildings, occupying a space 180 ft. long and 80 ft. broad, are commodiously contrived, and have externally some pretensions to architectural elegance. Independently of these and other endowed schools, almost every parish supports a free school by voluntary contributions, and thus about 14,000 children of both sexes are clothed and educated. The number of private and Sunday schools is extremely great, but cannot be accurately estimated. The National Society, in connexion with the Church of England, has done much to diffuse education. In Middlesex only it supplies instruction in week-day and Sunday schools to no fewer than 80,000 children; of whom about 22,000 attend week-day schools only, and 19,000 Sunday schools only. The model school of this society is in the Sanctuary, Westminster. Great numbers of children are also taught in the Lancastrian method by the British and Foreign School Society. The model boys' school belonging to this society in the Borough Road has about 700 boys, and the model girls' school, about 300 girls in constant attendance. Both this and the National Society have normal schools for the instruction of school-masters and school-mistresses. Much, however, still remains

to be done towards giving a sound elementary education to the children of the industrious classes; though it must, at the same time, be admitted that the benefits of which it is expected to be productive have been ridiculously exaggerated.

The charges on account of education at most of the superior schools in London, except to boys on the foundation, are oppressively high, the most reasonable being three times as expensive as the High School of Edinburgh, which is quite equal to the best of them. This circumstance, combined with the want of schools in many districts, and the wish to improve their health, has led to the practice, so general in London, of sending children to the outskirts of the town to be boarded and educated. But the education in very many of these boarding establishments is of a very worthless description; and it is surprising that no effort should have been made by subjecting the masters to examination, establishing proprietary boarding-schools, or otherwise, to improve the quality of these suburban seminaries.

British Museum.—This national institution, established in 1753, is an immense repository of books, MSS., statues, coins, and other antiquities, specimens of animals and minerals, etc., and is, in most respects, one of the richest in Europe. It is principally deposited in buildings raised on the site of Montague House, formerly the residence of the Duke of Montague, Great Russell Street, Bloomsbury. The nucleus of the collection was purchased by government of Sir Hans Sloane's executors for 20,000*l.*, and the museum was first opened to the public in January, 1759. But Montague House, though spacious as a private residence, having been found inadequate to the proper accommodation of the vast and continually increasing collections that belong to the museum, a new quadrangular building, on a very extensive plan, was designed by Sir R. Smirke, and is now open to the public. In 1755 the Harleian MSS. were purchased, and the Cottonian library was removed from Dean's Yard, Westminster: in 1757 the royal library, founded by Henry VIII. out of the libraries of the suppressed monasteries, and enlarged by his different successors, was presented by George II. George III., in 1763, gave a valuable collection of pamphlets on the civil wars; and between 1806 and 1818 the Lansdowne, Hargrave, and Burney MSS. were purchased at an expense of 26,400*l.* Various presents have been made from time to time; the most valuable additions of late years having been the library of George III., collected at an expense of 200,000*l.*, and presented to the Museum by his successor*, and the sumptuous collection of Mr. George Grenville, valued at 60,000*l.*, and bequeathed by him to the nation. Modern English publications are added, free of expense, in consequence of a privilege which this establishment enjoys in common with the two universities, and some other bodies, of receiving *gratis* a copy of every book entered at Stationers' Hall. A considerable sum (it amounted, in 1848, to about 21,400*l.*) is expended in the purchase of old and foreign books, to which departments very extensive and valuable additions have been made of late years. The collection comprises in all about 460,000 printed books, and 31,000 MSS., exclusive of charters. The want of a catalogue *raisonné*, or rather, perhaps, of a series of such catalogues, is much complained of by the great majority of persons who resort to the library for study or research. The reading-rooms are open from 9 till 4 in winter, and till 7 in the evening during 4 summer months. Admission is procured

by a recommendatory letter either to one of the trustees, or to the chief librarian; and every facility is given by the numerous attendants for the most extensive research. No books are allowed to be taken out, it being supposed that such permission would lead to frequent and heavy losses; but, provided the value of the books were previously deposited, we incline to think that certain descriptions of works might be lent out with advantage. In the department of antiquities may be mentioned the collection of Egyptian monuments, including the famous Rosetta stone (see Vol. I. p. 751.), acquired at the capitulation of Alexandria, in 1801; the Townley marbles, purchased for 28,000*l.*; the Phigalian and the Elgin marbles, the cost of which was 35,000*l.*; the latter include the statues of Theseus and Ilianus, and the sculptures in *alto-relievo*, from the friezes of the Parthenon. Very recently the stock of antiquities has been much increased by the winged bulls and other interesting remains dug up from the ruins of Nineveh, and sent home by Mr. Layard. The collection of minerals was, for many years, deficient in various important particulars; but the additions purchased from Messrs. Hawkins and Mantell are extremely valuable; and now, both for size and classification, this department will bear to be compared with any mineralogical collection in Europe. The department of zoology is said to be rich; but we confess we do not see the advantage of filling the museum with stuffed representations of animals that may be seen alive in the zoological gardens and in every menagerie. The collection of medals, which has been accumulating since the foundation of the museum, consists of about 20,000 coins, above 6,000 being purchased with the Hamilton collection of Herculanean antiquities, in 1772. The coins can only be seen by an order from a trustee, or a private introduction to the officer to whose charge they are entrusted. The public days at the museum are Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, when all persons have free admission from 10 to 4, and in the summer months from 10 to 7. The building is closed during the first weeks of January, May, and September. The establishment is governed by 48 trustees, 23 of whom are official; and to these the officers are responsible. The chief acting trustees, with whom the appointment of the officers has hitherto rested, are the archbishop of Canterbury, the lord chancellor, and the speaker of the H. of C. But it is probable that in consequence of the late Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the affairs of the Museum, its governing body will be changed, and rendered more efficient.

The Royal College of Surgeons, in Lincoln's Inn Fields, has a fine portico. Its museum contains the anatomical collections of the celebrated John Hunter, bought by government and deposited in it.

The museum of Practical Geology, in Piccadilly and Jermyn Street, promises to be of much utility, not merely to scientific men, but to those practically engaged in the business of mining. The building was erected at the expense of government.

Literary and Scientific Societies.—Before the present century the learned societies of London were few in number, and very comprehensive in their objects. The great advancement of the physical sciences in recent times, and the increased ardour with which every branch of knowledge has been cultivated, have produced a corresponding increase in the number of learned associations, and in all recent instances each body has confined its operations within a limited sphere. The following list comprises some of the principal societies, with the dates of their formation, the objects contemplated by them, when not sufficiently indicated by their names, and the publications made at their expense:—

The Royal Society; physical and mathematical sci-

* It is much to be regretted that this library was not placed in an accustomable situation in the W. end of the town.

ences. Instituted early in the 17th century; incorporated 1663. "Philosophical Transactions," from the year 1665.

The Society of Antiquaries. Instituted 1717; incorporated 1751; but now split into two societies,—the Archaeological Institute of Great Britain and Ireland, and the British Archaeological Association. "Archæologia," from the year 1770.

Medical Society. Established 1773. "Vetusta Monumenta," from 1747.

Society of Arts. Established 1754, for the encouragement of the arts, commerce, and manufactures of Great Britain, by granting rewards. "Transactions," from the year 1753.

Linnean Society; natural history. Established 1788; incorporated 1802. "Transactions," from the year 1791.

Royal Institution. Established 1799, for the application of science to the ordinary purposes of life. "Journal," from 1810.

Horticultural Society. Established 1804; incorporated 1809. "Transactions," from 1812.

Royal Medico-Chirurgical Society. Established 1806. Chartered 1831. "Transactions," from the year 1806.

Geological Society. Established 1807; incorporated 1826. "Transactions," from 1811.

Society of Civil Engineers. Established 1817; incorporated 1838. "Transactions," from 1834.

Royal Astronomical Society. Established 1820; incorporated 1831. "Memoirs," from 1822.

Medico-Botanical Society. Established 1821. "Transactions," from 1834.

Royal Asiatic Society. Established 1822; incorporated 1834. "Transactions," from 1827 to 1835; "Journal," from 1834.

Royal Society of Literature. Founded 1821; incorporated 1827. "Transactions," from 1827.

Zoological Society. Instituted 1825; incorporated 1829. "Transactions," from 1833.

Royal Geographical Society. Chartered 1830. "Journal," from 1831.

Entomological Society. Established 1833 or 1834.

Statistical Society. Established 1834. "Journal," from 1837.

Architectural Society. Established 1831.

Royal Institute of British Architects. Established 1835; incorporated 1838. "Transactions," from 1836.

Royal Botanic Society. Chartered 1839.

Nearly all these societies hold meetings twice a month, from November to June inclusive; at which papers are read illustrative of matters connected with the objects of each association.

Picture Galleries.—The present national collection of pictures is of recent foundation, and, though valuable, can only be looked upon as the nucleus of one that may hereafter be worthy of the country. It occupies the W. wing of the National Gallery, erected 1834-37, at the public expense, on the N.W. side of Trafalgar Square, facing Whitehall and Parliament Street, unquestionably the finest situation in the metropolis. The building has a front of 460 ft., with a portico and dome in its centre, supported by Corinthian columns. But whether it were owing to the limited means at the disposal of the architect, or to some incapacity on his part, the fabric is neither worthy of its site, its object, nor of the country. Unfortunately, too, the defects of its exterior are not counterbalanced by any superiority of internal economy, the apartments for the exhibition of the pictures being miserably deficient in point of size, and ill-arranged. The pictures, which consist of the Angerstein collection, purchased in 1824, of Sir G. Beaumont's collection, given by him in 1826, and of others, partly presented and partly purchased, are arranged in five rooms, of such diminutive size, that they will contain only a few more pictures, and none of large size. About half the pictures belong to the Italian school; and of these the *Ecco Homo*, and the Mercury, Venus, and Cupid, of Correggio; the Raising of Lazarus, by Sebastian del Piombo; the Bacchus and Ariadne, of Titian; and the Holy Family, by Murillo, are reckoned the most valuable. The works of the two Caracci, N. and G. Poussin, and Claude, may be here seen in their highest perfection; and there are some fine specimens of the English school, by Reynolds, Hogarth, Gainsborough, Wilson, Wilkie, and Lawrence. The gallery is

open to the public on the first four days of the week: on Friday and Saturday students are permitted to copy the pictures. The pictures, mostly by native artists, bequeathed to the public by the late Robert Vernon, Esq., have been deposited in the meantime in Marlborough House. The Royal Academy, which at present (by permission of government) occupies the remainder of the National Gallery, was established in 1768, for the instruction of young artists: lectures are delivered in anatomy, painting, sculpture, and architecture, and daily instructions are given to the students by the keeper, and other academicians. The annual exhibition of this corporate society usually comprises about 1,200 specimens of art, and is one of the favourite lounges during the summer months. The profits of the exhibition, besides paying the expenses of the schools, contribute to form incomes for the most deserving artists, while studying at Rome. (See *Comm. Report on the Arts, &c.* of 1838.) The Society of British Artists exhibits annually a good collection of pictures; but, as a whole, they are very inferior to those exhibited by the Academy. The British Institution, and Society of Painters in Water Colours, have, also, exhibitions, and their rooms are crowded during the fashionable season. Many private individuals have splendid galleries, among which may be specified those of the Earl of Ellesmere, the Marquis of Westminster, the Duke of Sutherland, Sir Robert Peel, Mr. Hope, &c.

Theatres and Music.—The great theatres of modern London present a curious contrast to the rude and confined buildings called the Globe, Blackfriars, and Old Drury, in the time of Shakespeare, in which neither scenery nor the comfort of the audience was at all considered. The two patent theatres, Drury Lane and Covent Garden, contiguous to each other, have handsome exteriors, and very extensive and highly decorated interiors. They enjoy, or rather are supposed to enjoy, the exclusive privilege of representing tragedy and comedy, or the legitimate drama. But this monopoly is no longer of much, or, perhaps, of any value. Late dinner hours, the changes or caprices of fashion, the inferiority of the actors, and other causes, have contributed to weaken the taste for the regular drama. Concerts, operas, masked balls, and so forth, at present enjoy the largest share of public favour. But it is not, speaking generally, enough to make them profitable; and with few exceptions all varieties of theatres have, for a considerable time past, been unprofitable concerns. Tragedy and comedy have long ceased to be the staples of Covent Garden. For a while it was leased by the Anti-corn-law agitators: and more recently it has been converted into an Italian opera-house in opposition to Her Majesty's theatre. But, owing to the immense expense attending it, this has not been a successful speculation. The Haymarket theatre, which has recently enjoyed more than ordinary prosperity, is of smaller size, and therefore better adapted for hearing, than the immense houses above mentioned: it is open for about eight months of the year, including the recesses of the two patent theatres. Besides these, there are several minor theatres, the names, localities, and objects of the principal of which are given in the following table:—

Names.	Localities.	Objects.
St. James's	King St., St. James's	Operas and farces
Haymarket	Church Street	Drama & Eng. Opera
Excise	Strand	Operas and farces
Princes's	Oxford Street	Operas, &c.
Adelphi	Strand	Operas & ballets
Strand	Ditto	Ballets
Olympic	Wynd Street	Ditto
Queen's	Tottenham crt. Rd.	Ditto
City of London	Norton Folgate	Melodrama
Garrick	Goodman's Fields	Ditto
Sadler's Wells	Clarendon	Leg. Drama.
Adley's	Lambeth	Melod. & horseman.
Burton	Richmond Road	Melodrama.
Victoria	Waterloo Road	Ditto.

Among these, Adley's, or Batty's, deserves notice, for the excellent horsemanship displayed by the *corps d'astique*: it is equal, perhaps superior, to that exhibited in the Francoisi theatre at Paris.

The Italian Opera House, in the Haymarket, is the largest theatre in London. It scarcely, however, deserves the name of a national theatre, inasmuch as the singers, dancers, and musicians are chiefly foreigners,

and as it depends for its support chiefly on the patronage of the court, nobility, and higher classes, many of whom hold private boxes, at rents varying from 130*l.* to 500*l.* a year. All the patronage of rank and wealth, however, cannot, owing to the enormous cost of the performances, make it a good speculation for the manager. The established London concerts consist of the ancient, philharmonic, and sacred harmonic concerts, all of which are well and fashionably attended; many others are given by professional persons, for their own benefit, in the different public rooms in the W. end. Promenade concerts are, also, given in imitation of those of Paris.

Benevolent Institutions.—There are a vast many establishments in London for the cure of disease; consisting partly of hospitals properly so called; partly dispensaries, where medicine and advice are gratuitously administered; and partly of infirmaries for special diseases; with lying-in charities. Asylums for orphans and otherwise destitute persons, and other benevolent establishments, are, also, very numerous; and some of them are well endowed and liberally supported. The principal are the following:—

1. **St. Bartholomew's Hospital**, in West Smithfield, was first founded in the 12th century, and refounded by Henry VIII. in 1546. The building, a spacious quadrangular structure, is principally modern, having been finished in 1770. It makes up 560 beds. In 1848, 73,073 were relieved by this hospital, viz. 8,826 in-patients, 19,149 out-patients, and 46,598 casual do. Necessity is the only recommendation to this institution; and patients are received without limitation. The medical staff is equal to any in the metropolis. The staircase was gratuitously painted by Hogarth. 2. **Guy's Hospital**, St. Thomas's Street, Southwark, founded in 1721, contains accommodation for 560 in-patients, and has an excellent museum and theatre of anatomy. This magnificent hospital, which consists of two quadrangles and two wings, was founded and endowed by Thomas Guy, a bookseller, who expended 18,793*l.* upon the building, and left 219,419*l.* for its endowment—the largest sum, perhaps, that has ever been expended by any individual on similar purposes. Recently, however, Guy's hospital has met with another benefactor, but little inferior, in point of liberality, to its founder; a citizen, of the name of Thomas Hunt, having bequeathed to it, in 1829, the princely sum of 200,000*l.* The medical school attached to this hospital, while under the superintendence of the late Sir Astley Cooper, was one of the most extensive, and probably, also, the best in the empire. 3. **St. Thomas's Hospital**, in High Street, Borough, was formed out of two other charities by Edward VI., and rebuilt in 1693. Additions were made in 1732, and a large part was rebuilt in 1836. It contains 16 wards, and 428 beds. It has an income of about 25,000*l.* a year, derived almost wholly from rents of estates in London and the country. 4. **St. George's Hospital**, near Hyde Park corner, lately rebuilt, has a fine front, 300 ft. in length, facing the Green Park. It accommodates 460 in-patients. 5. **The Middlesex Hospital**, near Oxford Street, founded in 1745, has 285 beds, and relieves numerous out-patients. 6. **London Hospital**,

in Whitechapel, was founded in 1740. Its wards accommodate about 360 patients. 7. **Westminster Hospital**, rebuilt in 1833, near the Abbey, has 174 beds; but 3 wards, containing space for 80 additional beds, are unfurnished, notwithstanding there is a great demand for hospital accommodation (*Low*, p. 8). 8. **The Mary-le-Bone and Paddington Hospital**, opened in 1850, has 150 beds, which it is proposed to increase to 376, supposing the necessary funds to be forthcoming. This, and the four last mentioned hospitals, depend wholly, or almost wholly, on voluntary subscriptions, which are said to be very insufficient to meet the demands upon them. The University College and King's College Hospitals, and Charing Cross Hospital, are smaller establishments of the same nature, each accommodating about 120 patients, and there are other establishments of the same sort. Medical schools are connected with the above hospitals, in which lectures are delivered by the officers, and which are attended, altogether, by about 1,900 students.

Bethlehem Hospital, or **Bedlam**, is appropriated exclusively to the insane poor; it was founded in 1546, in Moorfields, whence it was removed, in 1815, to St. George's Fields. The present building received some extensive additions in 1839, and is now 697 ft. in length, and possesses, from its elevation and extent, an appearance approaching to the magnificent. The rooms are large and airy, well warmed, and ventilated, and are sufficient for the accommodation of above 400 patients. **St. Luke's**, Old Street Road, established for a similar purpose in 1781, accommodates 360 persons.

The Foundling Hospital, Brunswick Square, was founded by Capt. Coram, in 1739, but the building was not commenced till 1742. It was established for the indiscriminate admission of deserted children; but the numbers were found to increase so rapidly, that the funds failed, and in 1760 the mode of admission was so much altered, that it is now nominally only a Foundling Hospital. The number of children averages about 500, and they are maintained till the age of 12, when they are either apprenticed or otherwise provided for. The revenue is about 10,000*l.* per annum; which will increase according as the leases fall in of the houses built on its estate.

The Magdalen Hospital, Blackfriars Road, was established in 1748, for the reformation of females who have fallen into vicious courses.

The Philanthropic Institution, St. George's Fields, was founded, in 1788, for the reception and reform of young criminals discharged from prison. It instructs them with immediate means of subsistence, and instructs them in some trade, so as to prevent the otherwise almost inevitable necessity of their returning to their former habits.

It would far exceed our limits to attempt even to enumerate the names of the various charitable institutions in and about the metropolis. But those who wish for information respecting them will find the principal facts in regard to each institution, accurately and clearly stated in the comprehensive and valuable little work of Mr. Sampson Low on the Charities of London, published in the present year (1850). We borrow from this work a

Summary, exhibiting the leading Objects of the Charitable Institutions of London, the Number in each Class, the Periods when they were founded, and their Incomes, distinguishing between the Funds derived from voluntary Contributions, and from other Sources.

Objects.	Founded in present Century.	Founded in 18th Century.	Founded previous to 18th Century.	Total.	Income from voluntary Contributions.	Income derived from funded Property, or otherwise secured.	Total.
General medical hospitals	5	5	2	12	31,285	111,641	142,926
Medical charities for special purposes	38	11	—	49	27,374	68,690	96,064
General dispensaries	58	128	—	186	11,470	2,984	14,454
Revereration of life and public morals	11	1	—	12	8,730	2,773	11,503
Reclaiming the fallen, and staying the progress of crime	14	4	—	18	16,299	18,737	35,036
Relief of general destitution and distress	12	4	—	16	30,646	2,434	33,080
Relief of specified distress	9	2	1	12	19,473	10,408	29,881
Aiding the resources of the industrious	13	1	—	14	4,677	2,569	7,246
For the blind, deaf, and dumb	8	5	—	13	11,965	22,797	34,762
Colleges, hospitals, and other asylums for the aged	10	24	69	103	5,857	77,190	83,047
Charitable pension societies	14	1	—	15	15,790	5,199	19,989
Charitable and provident, chiefly for specified classes	56	15	3	74	19,905	83,321	103,227
Asylums for orphans and other necessitous children	16	15	—	31	55,465	25,549	81,015
Educational foundations	—	—	10	10	15,000	75,112	90,112
Charitable modern ditto	3	1	—	4	4,000	9,300	13,300
School societies, religious poor, Church alms, and Christian visiting, &c.	26	5	1	32	150,833	156,356**	318,189
Bible and missionary	27	8	—	35	494,494	63,006	557,498
Miscellaneous	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	294	109	88	491	922,264	741,869	1,664,133

* This is exclusive of Savings' Banks and Loan Societies.

† Exclusive of Chosen and Dispersed Hospitals.

‡ This amount of 83,321*l.* of course includes "members' payments."

§ Does not include libraries, modern colleges, or proprietary schools.

|| Exclusive of parochial schools.

** In respect of government grants or establishments.

*** This apparently large amount comprehends sale of publications, &c.

Hotels and Taverns.—There are about 30 great hotels, situated chiefly in the W. end of the town, in the neighbourhood of Piccadilly. "In these establishments," says Prince Puckler Muskau, "every thing is infinitely richer and more abundant than on the Continent." The commercial and other inns are scattered over all parts of the metropolis. They are generally respectable establishments, some of them being quite as commodious, if not so elegant, as the fashionable hotels. The establishments of licensed victuallers, meaning thereby all taverns and other places where wine and spirits are sold by retail on the premises, amounted, in 1849, to 4,323. Many, perhaps most part, of these are respectably conducted, though some are of an opposite character. The publicans furnish their guests not only with beer and spirits, but also with dining accommodation, &c. The gin or dram shops have been very much embellished of late years; and many of them are so handsomely, and even splendidly, fitted up, that they have acquired and are entitled to the name of "gin palaces." But notwithstanding the number and magnificence of these establishments, there is no real room or ground for the prevalent opinion, as to the increase of intemperance. No doubt it is much too widely diffused; but it nevertheless admits of demonstration, that, as compared with the pop., the consumption of spirits in the metropolis is not much less than in the reign of George II., and the greater part of that of George III.; and that there has been a corresponding improvement in the habits of the lower classes.

In 1849, 2,054 houses were licensed for the retail sale of beer only. The eating-houses and coffee-rooms, where spirits are not sold, are more numerous in the city than in Westminster. Many tradesmen let portions of their houses in lodgings, and thus, in fact, frequently de-tray either the whole or a considerable portion of the rent of their shops; and many families receive boarders. The expense of living in these establishments varies, of course, with the quality of the house and the means of the guest. A lodger at an inn can hardly be accommodated, on a moderate scale, below 10s. a day, including all expenses of board, food, and servants; the maximum of the scale will, of course, depend on the habits or caprice of the guest. Board and lodging in private houses may be obtained at a somewhat lower rate than at hotels; but single men in lodgings usually dine at an eating-house, and families generally prefer boarding at the same. A dinner (without wine) at an ordinary eating-house costs from 1s. 6d. to 2s. and seldom exceeds 3s. at the more elegant establishments. In most cases the guest may depend on every attention; and at the superior houses he will find all the luxuries of the season.

Clubs.—There are about 35 clubs in the metropolis. A few of these establishments, such as White's, Brookes's, Boodle's, and Arthur's, are of ancient date; but their present arrangements and constitution are of recent introduction. The accommodation they afford to gentlemen only occasionally visiting town, and to others desirous of enjoying the luxuries of a splendid establishment, at a moderate expense, and of meeting with a great variety of society, has made them popular among the upper classes. The club-houses are mostly edifices of a very superior character; and add much to the magnificence of the squares and streets in which they are situated. Each club consists of a limited number of members, varying from 700 to 1,500; they are admitted by ballot, pay a certain sum at entrance, from 10 to 25 guineas, and an annual subscription, varying from 5 to 10 guineas. The club-houses are fitted up with every luxury of a fashionable hotel, have excellent libraries, take in the best periodical publications, and provide dinners, coffee, wines, &c., at reasonable prices. Some of the clubs are avowedly of a political character, and others are devoted exclusively to certain classes. Among these may be specified the Carlton, Reform, City, Conservative, United Service, Oxford and Cambridge, Traveller's, Oriental, West Indian, Army and Navy, &c.; but most clubs are open, on election, to all gentlemen without reference to party or profession. Most part of the club-houses are in the W. end of the town, particularly in Pall Mall and St. James's Street. The building erected for the Reform Club, by Mr. Barry, is one of the finest structures belonging to this class of edifices; and is fitted up with equal taste and magnificence. The city of London has two club-houses, which, in point of elegance and luxury, may vie with those of the W. end. The number of members in the different clubs may be about 28,000.

Courts of Law.—The Courts of Chancery, Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer (the respective provinces of which are described in the art. ENGLAND AND WALES), occupy apartments on the W. side of Westminster Hall. This hall, built by William Rufus, was long supposed to be the largest in Europe unsupported by pillars. It measures 328 ft. in length by

66 in breadth, and is 110 ft. high; but these dimensions have been much surpassed by the great plate-glass hall of Ravenhead, which is 329 ft. long, and 185 ft. wide, with a proportional height. Westminster Hall has been used for coronation banquets, the last of which was given when George IV. was crowned. Parliaments have often met in it, and it is occasionally appropriated to important trials; among which may be specified that of Charles I., and more recently those of Warren Hastings and Lord Melville. Ordinarily, however, it is a mere promenade for lawyers during the sitting of the courts. The Lord Chancellor sits out of term-time in the hall of Lincoln's Inn. The Master of the Rolls sits in the Rolls Court, Westminster, and in the Rolls Court in the Rolls House, Chancery Lane. The Vice-Chancellors sit in Westminster Hall, and in Lincoln's Inn.

The Central Criminal Court, the jurisdiction of which extends to all places within 10 m. of St. Paul's, was established in 1834. Its sittings are held at the Old Bailey, a stone building close to Newgate, once a month, and generally last five or six days at a time. There are two halls, of confined dimensions, in both of which the judges are engaged in trying prisoners during the sessions. The Lord Mayor's Court, of which the Recorder of London is judge, and the Court of Bankruptcy, in the City of London, the Court for the relief of Insolvent Debtors, in Portugal Street, Lincoln's Inn Fields; the Ecclesiastical and Admiralty Courts, in Doctors' Commons, near St. Paul's, &c. The Marshalsea and Palace Courts and the Courts of Requests, have recently been abolished. The latter have been replaced by the County Courts, instituted to facilitate the recovery of debts under 50*l.*, of which there are 10 within the metropolis and its immediate environs. * No fewer than 86,631 plaints were entered before these courts in 1848. (Art. ENGLAND AND WALES, Vol. i. p. 783.)

Inns of Court.—The Inns of Court, originally colleges for legal study, are now little more than residences for lawyers, or indeed for any one who chooses to hire chambers in them. They are not incorporated, and cannot, consequently, make bye-laws; but, by prescription, their customs have obtained the force of laws. A law student, before being called to the bar, has now only to be entered as member of one of these Inns, and to dine a certain number of times in the common hall, in order to qualify himself for the exercise of his profession. This is termed "eating" his way to the bar.

Among the chief Inns are the Inner and Middle Temple, in the liberty or district so called adjoining Temple Bar, and between the Strand, Fleet Street, and the Thames. This district originally belonged to and took its name from the knights templars; and having, after their downfall, been held in lease by students of the common law, the property, which had come into the possession of the crown, was conferred by James I. on the two societies, and their successors, the Temple Gardens, which have some fine trees, and are well laid out, are skirted by the Thames. The Middle Temple Hall, 100 ft. in length, and the Temple Church, are especially worth notice. The latter consists of a circular and a rectangular portion. The former, which is a perfect circle, of three stories, in the Norman style, was erected in 1185; and the latter, in the early English style in 1340. This venerable structure was completely repaired and renovated in 1839-42, the original style of its different parts being carefully preserved, at an expense of about 70,000*l.* It is now, in all respects, one of the most splendid and interesting ecclesiastical edifices in London. Besides various monuments of the age of the crusades, it has some of a more modern date, inc. one in honour of the learned and excellent John Selden, buried within its walls. Hooker, the "Judicious" author of the Ecclesiastical Policy, was for six years, one of its preachers. Subordinate to the Temple are Clifford's, Clement's, Lyon's, and New Inns.

Lincoln's Inn is situated between Chancery Lane and Lincoln's Inn Fields. The Lord Chancellor holds his sittings during a portion of the year in the old hall; and the Vice-Chancellors sit in adjoining buildings. The society have recently erected, in the gardens, a magnificent hall and library, from the designs of Mr. Hardwick, opened by her Majesty, in person, in 1845. It is in the Tudor style, brick, with stone dressings. The Hall is 120 ft. in length, by 45 ft. in width, and 62 ft. in height; the library, 80 ft. in length, 40 ft. in width, and 44 ft. in height, is furnished with a valuable collection of books.

There are, also, Gray's Inn, on the N. side of Holborn, having attached to it Staple's Inn, and Barnard's Inn. Furnival's Inn is subordinate to Lincoln's Inn. Thavies Inn, and some others, are mere private residences.

* At Whitechapel, Shoreditch, Clerkenwell, Bloomsbury, Brompton, Mary-le-Bone, Westminster, Southwark, Greenwich, and Lambeth. There are, also, courts at Bow, Brentford, and Wandsworth.

Prisons.—There are about a dozen criminal prisons, of which 3 are in the city of London. 1. Newgate, under the control of the corporation, is a building, the architecture of which is singularly appropriate to and characteristic of its destination. It was a prison early in the 12th century; but the present edifice was erected in 1773, and again repaired after the riots of 1780. This, which may be called the great metropolitan gaol, may contain proper accommodation for 300 or 400 prisoners; but before the meeting of sessions it has sometimes as many as 1000 or more crowded within its walls waiting for trial; and it then, no doubt, deserves some portion, at least, of the reproaches which have been made against it. In front of this prison all the criminals of London and Middlesex, capitally convicted, suffer the last penalty of the law. 2. The Bridewell, near Blackfriars Bridge (once a royal palace), is a house of correction for vagrants, pilferers, or disorderly persons, summarily convicted before the lord mayor and aldermen. The number confined averages 100. The building is said to be inconvenient for the purposes of penal discipline. "The prisoners dine together in day-rooms without superintendence, and there is little or nothing in the discipline to deter either the old or young offender." (*Inspectors' Report, 1850.*) 3. Giltspur Street compter, opposite St. Sepulchre's church, a plain edifice with a stone front, is used as a place of confinement for all prisoners tried at the Central Criminal Court and the London sessions, and summarily convicted within the jurisdiction of the city magistrates; a house of correction is attached to it. It holds about 250. 4. Clerkenwell prison, belonging to the county of Middlesex, is one of a similar character with the last. It serves, also, as an auxiliary to Newgate, receiving prisoners remanded from the police courts, or committed for trial at the general sessions. 5. Cold-Bath-Fields prison, a very extensive brick building, near Gray's Inn Lane, is a house of correction for Middlesex; and contains felons, misdemeanants, rogues and vagabonds. It is an insulated brick building, containing spacious courts and airing grounds. The classification is good, and the silent system is followed, connected with hard labour. A large tread mill employs 320 prisoners at a time. This prison accommodates upwards of 1,200. 6. The Westminster house of correction, in Tothill-Fields, for criminals from all parts of Middlesex, begun in 1831 and finished in 1834, is surrounded by a lofty wall, with a complete roadway outside: it is built on the Panopticon principle, and has a court-yard in the centre 250 ft. in diameter, with prisons round it for 500 prisoners; but the average number confined is 250. The arrangement of the building is said to be excellent; and the window of the governor's house commands a complete view of all the day-rooms and yards, and of the 2 tread-wheels. Instruction is given to juvenile offenders. The silent system is adopted, and a good classification maintained. 7. The penitentiary, at Millbank, Westminster, built on the Panopticon principle, has no peculiar connection with the metropolis, but is intended for the confinement and reformation of criminals whose sentence of transportation or death has not been executed, or has been commuted. It contains accommodation for 1,100 prisoners; the number of inmates averaging about 600. The building is insulated, and is surrounded by a wall enclosing 18 acres of ground. 8. The Pentonville Prison, Pentonville, is appropriated to the confinement of male prisoners under sentence of transportation. 9. The Surrey county gaol is in Horsefonger Lane, Newington Causeway. It contains about 350 prisoners, and there is little classification. The top of the building is used as a place of execution. 10. The borough compter, in Mill Street, is a house of correction for female prisoners, and is said to be well managed; average number of inmates about 40. 11. The Brixton House of Correction is exclusively confined to prisoners sentenced to hard labour at the assizes and sessions, or by magistrates, under summary convictions. Hard labour and the silent system are rigorously enforced. A new prison is now being built at Holloway to accommodate 400 prisoners on, what is said to be, an improved plan. It is intended to receive convicted prisoners only. The principal prisons for debtors are, 1. The Queen's Bench, in the borough, chiefly used for debtors on process from the Court of Queen's Bench, but also for persons committed for libels, contempts, &c. It is a spacious healthy prison, containing 207 rooms, in which 500 persons have occasionally been confined at once. The 5 & 6 Vict. c. 22. abolished the former practice of granting day rules, and of permitting prisoners to reside within the rules, which comprised a space of nearly 1 sq. m. 2. White Cross Street prison, in the street of that name, in the city, is inconveniently built and managed. Its confined extent, when compared with the average number of the inmates, and the disorder prevalent in every part of it, are not a little discreditable to the corporation of London. The prisons for debtors have been comparatively deserted since the changes introduced within these few years into the law respecting imprison-

ment for debt. Formerly they were often very much crowded, and parties used to be confined in them for long periods of years.

A great deal has been effected, of late years, in regard to the improvement of prisons and of prison accommodation; but we doubt much whether the grand object of a prison has not been very frequently lost sight of in these and other reforms. A prison ought to be made a terror to, and not an asylum for, evil-doers; it should be a place of punishment as well as of safe custody; and if the inmates in prisons be lodged better and fed better than the generality of the poorer classes, they are perverted from their principal object, and become incentives to, instead of checks upon, crime. The efforts made to instruct and improve the grown-up occupants of gaols, of which we have heard so much, have, in truth, had little other effect than to turn them out more accomplished and dexterous villains than when they entered them.

Crimes.—The crimes committed in London are both grave and numerous; but the degree of demoralisation, as compared with the pop., is not greater than in other places offering the same facility for successful depredation, and having an equal amount of poverty. The Report of the Constab. Comm. gives the following statement of depredators known to the metropolitan police in 1838:—

Burglars and housebreakers	-	317
Highway-robbers	-	38
Pick-pockets and common thieves	-	4,430
Coiners and utterers of base coin	-	345
Forgers	-	3
Swindlers, &c.	-	326
Horse and dog stealers	-	127
Begging-letter impostors	-	126
Disorderlies, habitual	-	2,786
Vagrants	-	2,295
Street prostitutes	-	6,371

The annual average of convictions during several late years within the metropolis and its environs exceeds 4,500, more than half of which are for slight crimes, demanding six or three months' imprisonment. Capital offences, except murder, are now generally punished by transportation for life to Norfolk Island. The executions in London have lately not exceeded two or three a year. The serious crimes of the metropolis are, perhaps, on the decrease; and the frequent notification of them at present is more owing to the vigilance of the police, who detect and prosecute offenders, than to any actual increase of crime.

Police.—Till 1820, the police of London had the reputation of being the most defective establishment of the kind in Europe. A great reformation, however, has been effected within the last few years, and the metropolis is now, perhaps, superior to this respect to any other city in Europe. There are 13 police offices, 2 of which are in the city, and one in Southwark. These are—

The Guildhall, in the City.	Vincent Square, Westminster.
The Mansion House, do.	High Street, Marylebone.
Bow Street, near Covent Garden.	Great Marlborough Street, Oxford Street.
Clerkenwell, Bagnigge Wells Road.	Worship Street, Finsbury Square.
Hammersmith and Wandsworth, in Wandsworth.	Kennington Lane.
Greenwich and Woolwich.	Union Office, Southwark.
	Thames Police, Wapping.

The first two of these offices are regulated by the city authorities; the rest are under the control of the Secretary of State. Magistrates sit every day at each office, to hear and determine cases of misdemeanour and breach of the peace, as well as to examine and commit for trial all persons accused of felonies, to administer oaths, swear in constables, and perform other magisterial functions. A number of officers is appropriated to each establishment, and a river police is attached to the Thames office.

The chief instrument of preserving the peace of the metropolis is the metropolitan police, established by Sir R. Peel in 1829. This body is dispersed over the whole of London, excepting the city, which is protected by a distinct body, of similar character, but less effective and not so well disciplined. The city police is under the control of the corporation: the other force is governed by two commissioners, who communicate directly with the Secretary of State for the Home Department. The whole body is distributed into 18 divisions, each being under a superintendent, and having each a conveniently situated station-house. The force consists at present (1860) of 18 superintendents, 123 inspectors, 554 sergeants, and 4,805 constables. The sphere of their duties reaches beyond the metropolis; and comprises, with the exception of the city of London, the whole country within 15 m. of Charing

Cross. The expense is defrayed by an assessment limited to 6d. in the pound on the parish rates, the deficiency being made up by the treasury. The city, as before said, is not under the charge of the metropolitan police, but is protected by a body of men organised on the plan, and in imitation of the arrangements of that body, but placed under the city authorities. The city police, consisting in 1850, of 565 officers and men, is divided into six companies, to each of which belong inspectors, sergeants, and constables, and the whole is immediately under the control of a superintendent. All the constables, both of the city and metropolitan police, wear a blue uniform, with the number of each man, and a letter designating the division to which he belongs, on the collar of his coat. They are constantly on duty, day and night; but the force is increased at night.

Return of the Number of Persons taken into Custody by the City Police, and the Results, in each Year from 1844 to 1848 inclusive.

Results.	Number of Persons taken into Custody.				
	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.
Discharged by magistrates -	9,080	9,098	9,542	9,177	1,851
Summarily convicted or held to bail -	1,934	2,315	2,318	2,622	3,504
Trials and convicted -	294	354	327	509	396
Trials and acquitted -	42	78	56	58	61
Bills not found, or discharged by proclamation -	8	8	8	18	15
Drunken persons, discharged when sober -	3,906	3,549	3,958	3,963	2,810
Charges not entertained -	4,337	4,114	4,353	3,807	3,865
Discharged at stations -	-	67	60	64	89
Discharged by magistrates -	87	116	75	70	948
Committed to prison -	104	322	171	165	494
Sent to unions, &c. -	52	32	9	23	106
	12,116	12,640	12,874	12,476	13,419
In addition to the above offenders, the number of destitute persons was -	1,669	1,332	764	835	1,369

Return of the Number of Persons taken into Custody by the Metropolitan Police Force, and the Results, in each Year from 1844 to 1848 inclusive.

Year.	Taken into Custody.	Discharged by the Magistrates.	Summarily convicted or held to bail.	Committed for Trial.	Convicted and Sentenced.	Acquitted.	Bills not found, or not prosecuted.
1844	62,522	31,547	26,871	4,504	3,126	812	266
1845	66,132	30,317	25,900	4,916	3,548	867	281
1846	62,434	31,589	26,333	5,118	3,822	878	405
1847	62,181	31,272	24,689	5,090	4,251	917	452
1848	64,480	31,685	27,271	5,523	4,364	905	254
Total	311,140	156,208	129,057	23,775	19,417	4,499	1,859

Pauperism and Mendicity.—London, with all its wealth and its many societies for the relief of distress, contains much misery and indigence, of which a large proportion is attributable more to demoralisation than mere misfortune. Since the Poor Law Amendment Act, most of the metropolitan parishes have placed themselves under its regulations, only 11 parishes still adhering to the old system of maintaining their poor. The money raised by rates, and expended for the relief of the poor, in the metropolis in 1846-47, inc. Chelsea, Greenwich, Lewisham, &c., amounted to 634,598*l.*, assessed upon property valued at 8,820,518*l.* a year. The mendicants, a class almost wholly separate from the paupers, pursue their vocation almost as regularly and with as much success as tradesmen. The Mendicity Society have laboured usefully in exposing the impositions of mendicants; but neither their agents nor the police have been able wholly to suppress them. "Of the London beggars, nine out of ten are gross impostors and convicted vagrants; and of these the very worst are the blind and cripples. The records of the above Society afford surprising proofs of the profligacy of the regular street-beggars, and the inveteracy of their idle and dishonest habits. The metropolitan police, in 1837, apprehended 4,200 mendicants." (*Met. Police Off. Rep.* 1838.) The really indigent are relieved by an institution, entitled the Refuge for the Destitute, which provides a meal and a bed for those who give satisfactory proof of requiring such assistance. The private

lodgings of mendicants are crowded, unwholesome, and literally sinks of iniquity.

Water.—The supply of London with water was anciently procured from brooks running through the city. The increase of inhabitants made these sources insufficient; while, at the same time, they became less accessible, owing to the encroachment of buildings. To remedy this inconvenience, water was brought by leaden pipes in the 13th century from Tyburn, then a mere country village, into the city, where it flowed into conduits from which the inhabitant drew it at pleasure. In the beginning of the 17th century Sir Hugh Myddelton projected, and, despite the greatest difficulties, carried into effect, in 1613, his plan for bringing the water of two copious springs in Hertfordshire to London, by an aqueduct, called the New River, 40 m. in length, including windings. The Thames has long been one of the great sources of supply; and, as early as 1581, water-wheels and other hydraulic machinery were established at London Bridge. These wheels, which at one time raised 45,000 hogs. per day, were wholly removed when the old bridge was pulled down. The greater number, however, of the existing water-companies derive their supply from the Thames, the water being filtered in immense reservoirs. In 1834 the following account of the houses supplied with water, and of the quantity furnished to each, with the different rates of charge, was laid before the H. of C.:—

Water Companies.	Houses supplied.	Total yearly supply.	Daily per each.	Charge per 1,000 hds.
		<i>hogsds.</i>	<i>galls.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>
New River Company -	70,145	114,650,000	241	17 2
Chelsea do. -	13,292	15,753,000	168	29 0
Grand Junction do. -	8,750	21,709,567	353	35 6
W. Middlesex do. -	16,000	30,000,000	185	45 6
E. London do. -	46,451	37,810,000	121	28 0
S. London do. -	12,046	8,100,000	100	15 0
Lambeth do. -	16,614	11,300,000	124	17 0
Southwark do. -	7,100	7,000,000	100	21 0
Total water supply	191,066	237,014,761		

In every street in London there are fire-plugs or cocks, at any of which a copious supply of water should be obtained in a few minutes in case of fire; though it must be admitted that the supply has sometimes, through neglect, been very long delayed, to the great injury of property. Much water is also used in watering the streets and improving the drainage; indeed, scarcely a third part of the supply is used for purposes strictly domestic. Abundant springs of the finest water may be procured in all parts of London, by boring below the clay strata; but no public measures have yet been taken to ensure a supply from this source, or (excepting the New River) from springs at a distance. It is probable, however, that steps will, at no distant period, be taken to effect this object.

Sewers.—The sewers of London, which began to be constructed so early as 1492, constitute a system of drainage unknown to most modern cities; and, though out of sight and hardly appreciable except by engineers, they have excited the astonishment of all who have investigated the subject. Their depth is, in most cases, sufficient to drain the deepest cellars in each neighbourhood, and the size of the main branches rivals that of the celebrated Roman Cloacas. But notwithstanding what has been done, a vast deal still remains to be accomplished before the sewerage can be said to be on a perfectly satisfactory footing. In some low neighbourhoods, such as Wapping, Stepney, Bethnal Green, Bermondsey, Westminster, &c., it is still very imperfect, and wherever this is the case, malignant fevers and other epidemic diseases, make fearful ravages among the lower classes. The sewers were formerly under the direction of different boards of commissioners. Inasmuch, however, as these bodies frequently entertained conflicting views, it was resolved, to obtain that unity of view and of action which in such matters is so essential, to consolidate the different metropolitan boards into a single board. But though the new board comprises some very able men, their proceedings have not hitherto, perhaps, been very satisfactory. A good deal of allowance should, however, be made for the all but insuperable difficulties of the task they have undertaken. Hitherto the river has formed the grand outlet, the *cloaca maxima*, for all the sewers of the city. But the opinion has become very general that the Thames should no longer be employed for such a purpose; and that a vast subterranean canal should be dug on each side the river to receive the drainage of the sewers coming from the interior of the town, and to convey it to some considerable distance from the city where it may be converted to useful purposes, and hindered from polluting the waters of the river. Whether this grand project will ever be fully carried out, or whether if carried out

It will have the beneficial effects that have been anticipated, are questions more easily proposed than answered. But whatever may be done with this grand project, it is to be hoped that no further time may be lost in taking measures for the effectual drainage of those parts of the town where sewers are defective, or where they are wanting.

Paving.—The streets of London are not only well paved for carriages, but they have also on both sides, for the accommodation of pedestrians, smooth and usually wide flagged footways, raised some inches above the carriage way. This advantage it enjoys in common with most English towns; but few cities on the Continent are provided with a similar convenience, though Paris has in some measure followed the example, in streets wide enough to admit of it. The paving is under the control of numerous boards, each of which has its particular district. It is conjectured that the amount expended in paving the streets of London exceeds 200,000*l.* per ann. Pavement was first laid down in the metropolis in 1417, in Holborn. In 1615, the plan of having footways of broad stone was begun, but it did not become universal until the middle of last century. For some time past the principal streets have been paved with granite, mostly brought from Aberdeen. Very recently, indeed, some portions of them have been paved with wooden blocks; and how singular soever it may appear, this sort of pavement was found to be quite as durable as granite, while it lessened the wear and tear of carriages, the dust, and noise. Unluckily, however, it becomes so very slippery in wet weather that horses are very apt to stumble upon it; and as no means of obviating this serious defect have been discovered, it has been rather generally given up.

Lighting.—The metropolis is excellently lighted with gas, even in its most remote and secluded parts. Without going back to 1416, when lanterns were first hung out before citizens' houses, or even 3 centuries later, when an act passed to compel housekeepers to light up a lamp for 5 hours during the dark nights; many may remember the old oil lamps, which were said by a foreigner to "edge the streets with two long lines of bright little dots indicative of light, but yielding very little."

M. Simond somewhat exaggerated the deficiency; but still the difference between the old and present plan of lighting is immense. Gas was first tried in London in 1807, but with little success, as no means had then been discovered for removing its impurities. Pall Mall had been for some years the only street thus lighted, when, in 1816, a charter was obtained by a gas company, which slowly but certainly extended its operations. The profit of this speculation led to the formation of other companies; but it was not till 1830 that any considerable portion of the metropolis adopted gas. From that period, however, public bodies and private traders began rapidly to introduce it into their establishments, and parochial boards adopted the luminous gas jets in lieu of the sickly glimmering oil-lanterns. There are now 13 gas companies, who may probably produce, at an average, 12,000,000 cubic feet of gas every 24 hours. The number of lights is variously estimated. In 1828 it was stated before a committee of the B. of C., that the number was nearly 60,000; and there may now, probably, be three times as many or more. The cost of gas has been lately reduced. The price at present (1850) varies from 4*s.* to 6*s.* per 1,000 cubic feet.

Fires.—London has suffered from fire oftener, perhaps, than any other capital, except Constantinople: but the precautions taken in rebuilding the city, after the great fire of 1666, were calculated to prevent the recurrence of such a calamity. The streets were made much wider, bricks and stones were substituted for wood, and party walls were built between adjacent buildings. At a subsequent period the Building Act (14 Geo. 3. c. 74.) compelled the erection of thick party-walls between the separate tenements, and obliged each parish to keep one or more fire-engines always ready for service. The various insurance offices also began to maintain fire-engines at their own expense, attended by bodies of well-disciplined firemen; and in 1826 some of the largest of these establishments entered into an arrangement, by which all their force was put under one superintendent. The fire-brigade association was gradually joined by the other offices, and at present all the London insurance offices contribute to support this most efficient establishment. One superintendent now guides the whole, aided by about 100 foremen and engineers, who are placed at 18 different stations in all parts of the town and suburbs. The firemen, who are all numbered, wear a uniform of dark grey and a strong leather helmet; a third part of their body is always on duty, and they are provided with the best means of extinguishing fires, and rescuing persons in danger. The average number of fires for the 2 years ending with 1850, was 853 per annum; of which number 601 were slight, and 252 seriously destructive.

Health.—"The metropolis has in itself all the elements of a healthy city. If the tides leave the banks of the Thames exposed, that great river sweeps through the city from W. to E. and the winds rush fresh over its waters. The land rises in undulations to Hampstead Heath, and the Surrey hills; pure water is abundant, and would flow under almost every street; the artificial heat and gas, noisome as it sometimes is, ascends in a vast column to the sky, and is replaced by under-currents from the surrounding country." (*App. to Regist. Gen. 2d Rep.*)

But notwithstanding these favourable circumstances, London was long exceedingly unhealthy, and down to 1666 was hardly ever free from the plague. This excess of mortality was, no doubt, occasioned by the wretched state of the town. The streets were then narrow, crooked, many of them unpaved, and generally filthy: the houses, built of wood and lofty, were dark, irregular, and ill-contrived: each story projected over the one below, so that they almost met at the top, thereby precluding, as much as possible, the escape of foul and the access of pure air: the shops were also furnished with enormous signs, which being suspended cross-wise in the middle of the street, tended still further to prevent ventilation: the sewers were, at the same time, in a very imperfect state, the drains which conveyed away the filth not being arched over, but running above ground; and if we add to this the deficiency of water, and the prevalence of sluttishness in-doors, which then existed to an extent not easily to be imagined*, we need not wonder at the ravages made by the plague and other diseases. (See *Maitland's Hist. of London*, passim; and *Heberden's Tract on Diseases*, p. 71.)

In 1593, the deaths by the plague within the bills of mortality amounted to 11,503; in 1603 to 30,561; in 1623 to 35,403; in 1636, to 10,400; and in the dreadful pestilence of 1665 they rose to 68,596! And it is impossible to say how soon it might have again burst forth, had it not been for the severe but providential visitation of the great fire by which it was immediately followed, and which, by destroying the most crowded and ill-built parts of the city, afforded an opportunity, which was luckily embraced, of rebuilding them on a better and more commodious plan. Very severe regulations were then also laid down for the enforcement of cleanliness; and the supply of water being at the same time augmented and better distributed, and the drains greatly improved and arched over, London has not been again visited by any very destructive epidemics. Still, however, the mortality during the first half of last century was very great; and Short, Corbyn Morris, Price, and other well-informed writers of the period, indulge in bitter complaints of the severe drain on the country, occasioned by the waste of life in London. The pop. appears, indeed, to have declined between 1740 and 1750; and during the 10 years ending with 1768, the burials appear to have amounted at an average to 22,596 a year, while the baptisms did not exceed 15,710. (*Price*, vol. ii. p. 86.) A portion, however of this enormous discrepancy is apparent only, and may be accounted for by omissions in the registers of

* Erasmus, who visited England in the reign of Henry VIII., and was well acquainted with the country, ascribes the prevalence of the sweating sickness (a species of plague) and the plague to the inconmodious form and bad exposition of the houses, the filthiness of the streets, and the dirtiness within doors. In a letter to Cardinal Wolsey's physician he says, speaking of London,—"Contestis sola fire strata cum argilla, tum scriptis palustribus, vel sublate ole rosaceo, ut fundamur manus aliquoties annis viginti sub se ferre epula, vomitus, micrum tum cunctis de hominibus, proculam cunctis de piscium reliquiis, atque sic se non nominantur."

baptisms. But it is, notwithstanding, abundantly certain that the deaths very materially exceeded the births at the period referred to; and that they preserved this ascendancy down to a much later period. The mortality in 1765-1775 was estimated at about 1 in 20, or 5 per cent. of the existing population; but from this period a very material change for the better began to take place. In 1790 the baptisms, for the first time, exceeded the burials; and during the 10 years ending with 1820, there was an excess in the total number of baptisms of 51,000 over the total number of burials. This excess has since continued to increase. Hence it is plain, supposing no unfavourable change to take place, that London might go on adding indefinitely to her population, without drawing a single recruit from the country.

The mortality of London in the 7 ordinary years (1838-44), was at the average rate of 25 deaths annually out of every 1000 inhab. The mortality, in the same time, was 22 in 1000, over all England; and only 16 or 18 in 1000, in the healthiest districts of the country: in 11 of the 98 London districts the mortality was lower than in all England; in 6 of the districts, from 28 to 30 in 1000 of the inhab. died annually. The region round Smithfield, Blackfriars Bridge, and the Tower, is the most unhealthy; the healthier tracts include Lewisham, Hanover Square, Camberwell and Hackney. The mortality of Paris is about 33 in 1000 annually; being higher, consequently, than the mortality of the worst districts of London.*

The mortality of males in London is 27, of females 23 in 1000: so that out of equal numbers living of the two sexes, 5 males die to 4 females.

The mortality of boys under 5 years of age, is at the rate of 93 in 1000; of girls of the same age, 80 in 1000: the mortality then rapidly declines, and at the age of 10-15, is at the rate of 5 in 1000 in both sexes; at the age of 15-25, only 8 males and 6 females in 1000 die annually; at the age of 25-35, 11 men and 9 women in 1000 die annually. The mortality then rapidly increases, and 18 men and 14 women in 1000, of the age of 35-45, die annually. It is worthy of remark that at the corresponding age (35-45), the mortality of men and women, in all England, is equal, being at the rate of 12 in 1000 annually. The excess in the mortality of men in London continues up to an advanced age: and is partly accounted for by the fact that a great number of the women are domestic servants, while the men are artisans, and work in close, dirty, crowded rooms.

Of 519,757 deaths in London, during the 10 years 1840-49, the causes were returned in 516,708 instances, 9,146 being referred to small-pox, 13,161 to measles, 17,574 to hooping-cough, and 19,084 to scarlatina. These diseases, with water on the brain and convulsions, are chiefly incidental to childhood. So also are pulmonary inflammations, including bronchitis, pleurisy, and pneumonia, which were fatal in 57,924 cases. Of the diseases that attack adults, typhus and consumption are the most destructive; 19,695 deaths having been ascribed to the former and 69,414 to the latter malady. 4,164 women died in childbirth; 13,614 persons died violent deaths. Dysentery, which was formerly so common, caused only 1,961 deaths; diarrhoea 13,505, cholera 15,521. The three latter diseases prevail in summer, the inflammations of the chest in winter.

About 1 in 6 of the people of London die in workhouses, hospitals, or lunatic asylums.

Cholera broke out as an epidemic in 1832-34, and again in 1848-49, when it was fatal to above 14,000 persons. The mortality of this epidemic was greatest in low, badly drained, poor districts. It killed 66 in every 10,000 of the inhabitants; but was nearly three times as fatal on the S. as on the N. side of the Thames. The chief differences in the circumstances of the people N. and S. of the river are shown in the annexed table from the Registrar-General's returns.

London.	North Side of the River.	South Side of the River.	
39	51	5	Elevation of the ground in feet above Trinity high water mark.
30	52	14	Density, or number of persons to an acre, 1849.
7	8	6	Number of inhabitants to each house, 1841.
40	46	25	Annual value in pounds, of houses, assessed to Income Tax for year ending April 5, 1843.
13	12	18	Fence paid for relief of the poor to every 100 of houses rent annually, 1843-45.
66	44	127	Deaths from Cholera to 10,000 persons living in 50 weeks, ending Nov. 9th, 1849.
252	251	157	Deaths from all causes annually to 10,000 persons (5,000 males, 5,000 females), living during the 7 years 1836-44.

The deaths have been reduced from 5 per cent. of the inhabitants in the 17th century, to 2½ per cent. in the present day; and it is gratifying to find, upon looking into the causes of the excess of mortality which still prevails, that all of them may either be mitigated or counteracted. Measures will, no doubt, be speedily taken for removing Smithfield market and the houses for the slaughter of cattle from the centre of the city; and for interring the dead at a distance from human dwellings. If purer water be required it may be procured, and supplied in abundance. The houses and workshops of the poorer classes have been and may be further improved. The abuses of the inferior lodging-houses should, in as far as practicable, be corrected. And the sewerage should be perfected. And, were these things done, London, which is now less unhealthy than any other large city, would, probably, enjoy an immunity from epidemics, and be nearly as salubrious as the country in its vicinity.

"It is found, from a comparison of the several metropolitan districts, that, *ceteris paribus*, the mortality increases as the density of the pop. increases, and that where the density and the pop. are the same, the rate of mortality depends on the efficiency of the ventilation, and of the means employed for the removal of impurities." (*App. to Regist. Gen. 1st Rep.*) Epidemic diseases in the crowded parts of London are attended with nearly double the mortality that belongs to them in more airy districts; and diseases of the respiratory system are increased 50 per cent. in close neighbourhoods. Mr. Farr's statements in the Report of the Registrar General, in regard to the importance of ventilation and drainage, are fully corroborated by Dr. Smith, Dr. Arnot, and other authorities. The following table (next page) represents the mean annual mortality per cent. in the metropolis, and in England and Wales, from 12 classes of disease. (*2d Rep. App. p. 13.*)

Summer is the healthiest, winter the most fatal season: and this rule has prevailed since the beginning of last century. The deaths out of 100 living (1838) averaged in Jan., Feb., March, '85; in Apr., May, June, '70; in July, Aug., Sep., '60; in Oct., Nov., Dec., '66.

Classes of Disease.	Metropolis.	England and Wales.
1. Epidemic - - - - -	-	-
Endemic - - - - -	-	-
Contagious - - - - -	748	458
2. Nervous system - - - -	457	332
3. Respiratory Organs - - -	770	605
4. Circulating do. - - - -	045	084
5. Digestive do. - - - - -	160	119
6. Urinary do. - - - - -	013	011
7. Generative do. - - - - -	028	021
8. Locomotive do. - - - - -	021	018
9. Integumentary system - -	004	003
10. Uncertain - - - - -	085	025
11. Old age - - - - -	219	237
12. Violent deaths - - - - -	075	081
All causes of death - - -	2800	2303
Population to 1 square mile -	26,503	269

Increase of Population.—It is much to be regretted that there are no accurate accounts of the population of London previously to the census of 1801. The population of the city was, however, estimated by Graunt, the well-informed author of the famous *Treatise on Bills of Mortality*, at 384,000 in 1661, and adding 1-5th to this for the population of Westminster, Lambeth, Stepney, and other outlying parishes, he estimated the entire population at about 460,000. (*Observations, &c.* 5th ed. p. 82. and p. 105.) In all large towns, except (as in Petersburg) there be a great excess of military, the number of females is, in modern times, found invariably to exceed that of males; but, if we may depend on Graunt's estimate, the reverse was the case in the city of London at the epoch referred to, for he makes the number of males 199,112, and of females only 184,886. (p. 83.) In 1696 the population of the city and the out parishes was carefully estimated, by the celebrated Gregory King, at 527,560; and considering the great additions that had been made to the metropolis between the Restoration and the Revolution, this increase does not seem to be greater than we should have been led to infer from Graunt's estimate. The population advanced slowly during the first half of last century, and indeed, as already stated, it fell off between 1740 and 1750. In his tract on the population of England, published in 1782, Dr. Price estimated the population of London, in 1777, at only 543,420. (p. 5.) But there can be no doubt that this estimate, like that which he gave of the population of the kingdom, was very decidedly under the mark; and the probability seems to be that, in 1777, London had from 640,000 to 650,000 inhab.* Its population amounted, including Chelsea, as has been already seen, to 888,198 in 1801, and to 1,873,676 in 1841; and at present it is probably little short of, if it do not exceed, the prodigious sum of 2,100,000—the greatest number of human beings ever, we believe, congregated within the same space, in any age or country.

* Opulent, enlarged, and still increasing London! Babylon of old. Not more the glory of the earth than she, A more accomplish'd world's chief glory now."

London is, no doubt, principally indebted for her extraordinary rise and unexampled magnitude, to her admirable situation, on a great navigable river within a short distance of the sea, and in the centre of a rich and fertile country, of which she is naturally the emporium. Her river enables her to obtain abundant supplies of all the bulkier descriptions of products, not only of all parts of the United Kingdom, but also of the world, at the lowest possible cost. The advantages thence resulting have been great and obvious. A city in an inland situation never could

have attained to any thing like the colossal magnitude of London. Indeed, almost all great cities, in all ages of the world, have been built either on the sea-shore or on the banks of some great navigable river. Paris is probably the largest city that ever existed without any very great command of water carriage. But her advance has been slow compared with that of London; and notwithstanding the advantage she has long enjoyed, from being the capital of a powerful monarchy, and the residence of a polished and luxurious court, her population is not, at this moment, half that of London.

The extraordinary growth of the latter during the present century seems to be mainly attributable to the same causes that have increased wealth and population in other parts of the empire, that is, to the progress of arts, manufactures, and commerce. Though not in the manufacturing districts, London is now, by means of canals, railways, and other improved means of communication, intimately connected with them; and the many advantages she enjoys as a trading and commercial port, will always secure for her a large share of the shipments of manufactured products. London has also derived a vast accession of influence from her being the seat of government, the place where the dividends on the public debt are paid, where all transfers of stock are effected, and where all the important pecuniary transactions of the empire are ultimately adjusted. And how paradoxical soever it may at first sight appear, it is certainly true that the very magnitude of London is an efficient cause of her continued increase. The greater a city becomes, the greater is the scope she affords for the exercise of every talent and acquirement, and for the gratification of every taste and desire; and the more powerful, consequently, are the motives by which she attracts all sorts of individuals, whether aspiring or careless, industrious or idle, grave or gay, virtuous or profligate.

The brief but comprehensive account given by Seneca, of the motives which drew so great a concourse of people to imperial Rome, applies without the alteration of a syllable to London:—"Aspicis agendum hanc frequentiam, cui vix urbis immensa tecta sufficiunt. Ex municipiis et coloniis suis, ex toto denique orbe terrarum confluerunt. Alios adducit ambitio, alios necessitas officii publici, alios imposita legatio, alios luxuria, opulentum et opportunum vitii locum querens: alios liberalium studiorum cupiditas, alios spectacula: quosdam trahit amicitia, quosdam industria, latam ostendende virtuti nacta materiam: quosdam venalem formam attulerunt, quidam venalem eloquentiam. Nullum non hominum genus concurrit in urbem, et virtutibus et vitiiis magni premia ponentem."—*Consolat. ad Helviam*, cap. 6.

Vast as London is, the chances are, should the country continue to prosper, that she, also, will continue to increase in magnitude; and the progress she has already made, unprecedented as it has been, may, not improbably, be surpassed by that which she is yet destined to make.

Habits, Condition, &c.—The peculiarities of character belonging to the inhab. of London must be learnt from observing the manners of the middle and lower classes, especially the latter; for the higher classes, who reside in it only during four or five months of the spring and summer, can scarcely be called Londoners. Great activity, unwearied diligence in business, a shrewd perception of character, and an ever-watchful regard to self-interest, not unmingled, however, with generosity, are the chief characteristics of the native pop. Owing to the extreme subdi-

* See the Tracts of the Rev. Mr. Hewlett and of Mr. Wales, in answer to Dr. Price.

vision of employments, and the undivided attention which most individuals give to their own pursuit, the citizens are, for the most part, singularly expert in it, and proportionally ignorant of every thing else. This, however, is less so now than formerly; the extensive circulation of cheap publications having diffused information in regard to many topics of which the bulk of the pop. had formerly the most imperfect ideas. The principal merchants, bankers, and tradesmen, have generally houses in the environs of the town, or in the country, to which they retire after business during summer; and many indeed, though with little advantage to their business, occupy these houses during the whole year. Others again, who are, or pretend to be, of the highest class, have houses in the W. end of the town as well as in the country, and live in first-rate style. But the expenses in which they are thus involved frequently exceed their means, and are a principal cause of those wild speculations and disgraceful failures which, of late years, have been so very frequent. The wealth of London is not, in truth, to be found amongst those who make the greatest display, but among the quiet living, unostentatious, tradesmen.

The inferior shopkeepers and tradesmen, though sometimes very wealthy, abstain from all expensive indulgences. Sometimes, indeed, they resort to an over-crowded watering-place for a week or fortnight, trying, in vain, to rid themselves of the anxieties of business. But a far larger number may say, with Mrs. Gilpin,

"For twice ten tedious years, yet we
No holiday have seen."

The London tradesman, unlike the Parisian, is essentially domestic. He knows nothing of *table-d'hôte*. His visits to the sea-side, the country, his friends or club, are all exceptions to his ordinary regularity.

Most classes of skilled workmen receive high wages, which having been little, if at all, reduced since 1815, they are at present much better off than during the war. Their circumstances vary, of course, according to their prudence. Few save money; but all live well, using butchers' meat to an extent unknown anywhere else, and dressing, on holidays at least, in a style equal to that of the classes above them. Many, not contented with one holiday in the week, keep a second, known as "St. Monday," and not unfrequently a third, sometimes spent in revelry, but more frequently, perhaps, in country excursions with their families. Others, however, work unremittently from one year's end to the other, content with an Easter or Whit-monday's trip to Gravesend or Sheerness in a steamer, or to Windsor or Brighton by a pleasure train, or to Hampton Court, Richmond, Kew, Hampstead, or Blackheath, on a pic-nic excursion. In summer mornings large parties may be seen leaving town on some such expedition, in vans, well provided with good cheer, and not unfrequently, also, with one or more musicians; and in the evenings the same parties may be seen returning in a state of uproarious enjoyment. But it must, notwithstanding, be admitted, that beer shops and gin shops are the favourite resorts of the labouring classes of London.

The class of female domestic servants comprises a far greater number of individuals than any other business or occupation in London. Their wages are high, and they are in general extremely well off. Perhaps they are not as provident as they might be, and that money is frequently spent on useless flattery that had better be deposited in Savings' banks. Needlewomen, washerwomen, &c.,

especially the former, are not nearly so well off as indoor servants; and it would not, we think, be difficult to show, were this a proper place for such discussions, why this is the case. On the whole, however, it may be safely affirmed that nowhere in the U. K. are the industrious classes, provided they be well conducted, so comfortably situated as in London.

The lowest class of all, those whose means of existence are precarious, disreputable, or dishonest, have peculiar habits. They care little for appearances; and are all but unknown to the rest of the people, except when their wants or delinquencies intrude them on the public notice.

All classes of Londoners, from the highest to the lowest, are brought together on Epsom Downs on the "Derby," or grand race day. The assemblage is as motley as it is immense; but nowhere else in the world is there to be seen so vast a concourse of well-dressed people, splendid equipages, and high-bred horses. All the characteristic humours of the lower classes are displayed on the road and on the Downs.

Environa.—The metropolis is surrounded by a country of varied surface and great productiveness. The ground on the E., W., and S. extends in a flat along the river, which is prevented from inundating it at high water by extensive embankments, probably constructed by the Romans. On the N. the ground rises gradually to an elevation of 300 or 400 ft., and the flat on the S. is also bounded by grounds which attain to a like elevation. The picturesque hills of Surrey, near Dulwich and Norwood, are studded with the villas of citizens, who retire thither from the bustle of town. Blackheath, more to the E., and nearer the river, though not so fashionable as in the days when Greenwich had a palace and a court, continues to be a favourite resort in summer, and its buildings have increased since the access to it has been facilitated by the railway. N. of the metropolis lie Hampstead and Highgate, both of which command extensive views of Hertfordshire, Surrey, and other counties: these villages, with others on the N., and Dulwich, Camberwell, Clapham, &c., on the S. side of the river, consist, mostly, of the houses of tradesmen and others who daily visit the city in pursuit of business. This prevalent fashion among the Londoners of fixing their abode in the suburbs has been greatly encouraged by the easy communication afforded by the omnibuses and coaches which run to and from at all hours of the day, and till late at night. Owing to this circumstance, the pop. of the city proper has decreased since the commencement of the present century. It may now, indeed, be called a collection of shops and warehouses rather than of residences for families. The suburban villas vary in size and grandeur, according to the means or tastes of their proprietors; but comfort and neatness are their universal characteristics.

Corporation.—The City of London is under the government of the lord mayor, 2 sheriffs, 25 aldermen, 206 common-councillors, a recorder, and other officers, and is divided for municipal purposes into 26 wards, each of which is under the government of an alderman. The Saxon denomination for the governor of London was *portgraf* or *portreeve*, which, about a century after the Conquest, was changed to mayor. This officer was appointed by the Crown till 1215, when the citizens obtained the right of electing their own mayor. The mode of election now followed was fixed in 1476 by an act of common-council.

The lord mayor is annually chosen from the body of aldermen, at a court held at Guildhall on

Michaelmas day, and is sworn in to the duties of his office on the 9th of Nov. following. A grand pageant takes place on the occasion, followed by a dinner and ball at Guildhall. In most instances, though not always, the alderman next in seniority to the lord mayor is elected his successor. He is always free of one of the great city companies, and must have served the office of sheriff. The lord mayor is second only to the sovereign within the city, and at the sovereign's death he takes his seat, at the privy council, and signs before every other subject. His powers are similar to those of a lord-lieutenant of a county, and his authority extends over the whole city and a portion of the suburbs.

The division of the city into wards appears to have been made very early in the 13th century; there were twenty-four wards, which became twenty-five in the year 1393 by a division of the ward of Farringdon. In 1550 a great part of the bor. of Southwark was formed into a ward, and called Bridge Ward Without; but it is now merely a nominal ward, giving a name to the senior alderman, who on the occasion of a vacancy is removed to it from his own ward, and is then called "the father of the city."

The following is an alphabetical list of the names of the wards, with an indication of their situation, and the number of common-councilmen*:

1. Aldersgate, on both sides of Aldersgate Street, including the Post-office. Com. coun. 8.
2. Aldgate, at the E. end of the city. Includes the E. ends of Leadenhall Street, and Fenchurch Street, and Crutched Friars, called Alegate in the old list of 1285, given by Maitland. Com. coun. 8.
3. Bassishaw (corrupted from Basinge's-haugh) includes little more than Basinghall Street. Com. coun. 4.
4. Billingsgate, from Billingsgate Market to near Fenchurch Street. Com. coun. 8.
5. Bishopsgate, both sides of Bishopsgate Street. Com. coun. 14.
6. Broad Street, E. of St. Paul's, and S.W. of Cheapside. Com. coun. 8.
7. Bridge Within, London Bridge and Fish Street Hill, includes the Monument. Com. coun. 8.
8. Bridge Without, part of the Borough of Southwark.
9. Broad Street, between Bishopsgate Ward and Coleman Street, includes the Bank: this is apparently the Lodgingber of the ancient list. Com. coun. 8.
10. Candlewick, between Lombard Street and London Bridge, named from Cannon Street, which was formerly called Candlewick Street. Com. coun. 6.
11. Castle Baynard, from St. Paul's to the Thames. Com. coun. 8.
12. Cheap, both sides of the E. end of Cheapside and the Poultry, including Guildhall. This is probably Ward Fort in the ancient list. Com. coun. 8.
13. Coleman Street, includes Lothbury, part of London Wall and Finsbury Circus. Com. coun. 8.
14. Cordwainers, S.E. of Cheapside; includes Bow Church. Com. coun. 6.
15. Cornhill, a small ward on both sides of Cornhill, includes the Exchange. Com. coun. 6.
16. Cripplegate, reaches from Wood Street, Cheapside, to the boundary of the city on the N.; it includes Fore Street and the Barbican. Com. coun. 16.
17. Dowgate, between Southwark Bridge and London Bridge, includes Merchant Taylors' School. Com. coun. 6.
18. Farringdon Within, includes St. Paul's Cathedral, part of Cheapside, Newgate Street, and Ludgate Street, and reaches the river near Blackfriars Bridge; this and the following are the "Lodgate and Newgate" of the old list. Com. coun. 14.
19. Farringdon Without, includes Smithfield, the Old Bailey, the Fleet, part of Holborn, and the whole of Fleet Street. Com. coun. 16.
20. Langbourne, includes Fenchurch Street, and a part of Lombard Street. Com. coun. 8.
21. Lime Street, includes the East India House, and a small space around it. Com. coun. 4.
22. Portsoken, Eastward of Houndsditch and the Minories. Com. coun. 8.

23. Queenshithe on the River, W. of Southwark Bridge. Com. coun. 6.

24. Tower, from Tower Hill to Billingsgate, includes the Custom House. Com. coun. 8.

25. Vintry, on the Thames, and both sides of Southwark Bridge. Com. coun. 6.

26. Walbrook, S. of the Mansion House, includes the Mansion House, and the Church of St. Stephen's, Walbrook. Com. coun. 6.

The aldermen are chosen by such householders as are freemen, and pay an annual rent of 10*l*. Each alderman is elected for life, and has the direction of the business of his ward, under the superintendence of the lord mayor. They are all justices of the peace within the city. The sheriffs are elected every year, on Midsommer day, by the corporation and freemen, and are sheriffs of the county of Middlesex, as well as of the city of London: they enter on their duties, and are sworn in at Westminster on Michaelmas day. The common councilmen are chosen by the householders in all the wards except Bridge Without. The common councilmen are the representatives of the inhabitants in the "Court of Common Council," which is composed of the lord mayor, aldermen, and common councilmen. This court disposes of the corporation funds, makes laws for the regulation of the city, and nominates certain of the city officers. Its sittings are usually public, and its title "honourable."

It must, however, be admitted that here, as in most other great towns, civic dignities have been long declining in the public estimation. The principal bankers, merchants, and tradesmen, all but uniformly decline serving in any civic office, and rather than do this will submit to pay very heavy fines. In consequence, the offices in question have been filled, for some years past, by an inferior, though still very respectable class of citizens. It has been customary, on certain occasions, to advance lord mayors, and other city functionaries, to the rank of knights and baronets. But it were well that this practice, which has nothing save its antiquity to recommend it, were discontinued. It has sometimes made honours be conferred on very questionable parties.

The Livery consists of freemen of the city, who are also free of one or other of the city companies. Each of these companies was, at its formation, intended to comprise the different individuals within the city, properly so called, engaged in the peculiar department of industry called by its name; and had power to enact bye-laws, and to lay down regulations for the government of the trade. Thus, for example, no one could commence business within the city of London as grocer, mercer, or goldsmith, without being free of the grocers', mercers', or goldsmiths' companies. And this freedom could only be acquired by inheritance, serving an apprenticeship to a freeman, or paying a fine, or otherwise, as the company might choose to order; and after admission, all individuals had to conform in the conduct of their business to the rules and regulations laid down by the company. But the inconveniences of this system gradually became obvious; and it has, in consequence, been so much modified, that the privileges of the different incorporated companies no longer oppose any obstacle to individuals from distant parts of the country establishing themselves in business within the city, nor interfere in any degree with the management of their concerns. In fact, any one who pleases may now purchase at Guildhall a licence entitling him to trade within the city for 5*l*. without being free of, or having anything to do with, any company. The city companies have, in truth, become charitable rather than political, or even municipal, institutions. Some of them have a great deal of property. The principal

* At first each ward sent 2 councillors, but the number has been gradually increased, till it reached 240 in the whole; but by a regulation made in 1838, the number was reduced to 350.

companies obtained very large grants of land in Ulster during the reign of James I.; and most of them are trustees for sums of money and other property bequeathed by benevolent individuals. They expend their revenues partly in festivities, but principally in pensions to widows and decayed brethren, the support of schools, &c. There are in all 91 companies, of which 40 have halls, where they transact business, keep their records, and hold festivals. Some of these halls are very fine fabrics; that of the goldsmiths in Foster Lane, rebuilt since 1831, is a magnificent structure; and were it in a situation where it could be seen, would be one of the principal ornaments of the city.

The following 12 are called the *Great Companies*, and from one or other of them the lord mayor must be elected:—

Mercers.	Merchant Taylors.
Grocers.	Haberdashers.
Drapers.	Salters.
Fishmongers.	Ironmongers
Goldsmiths.	Vintners
Skinners.	Clothworkers.

There are about 12,000 liverymen, in whom, previously to the passing of the Reform Act, in 1832, the right of returning the 4 mems. of the H. of C. for the city was exclusively vested. A Common Hall is an assembly of the liverymen, called together at the requisition of a considerable number of their body: the lord mayor is the president by right of office.

The Guildhall, where the Corporation meetings, festivals, and common halls are held, stands at the N. end of King Street, Cheapside. Having been much damaged in the great fire of 1666, it was replaced by the present edifice, constructed of the materials of the old building. The front, added in 1789, is in a heterogeneous style. The great hall, 158 ft. in length, by 48 in breadth, and 53 in height, built and paved of stone, is capable of accommodating 6,000 persons; at least that number were present at the grand entertainment given by the corporation to the allied sovereigns in 1814. At each end of the hall is a magnificent painted glass window in the pointed style; but the roof is flat, panelled, and inappropriate; and the whole requires to be renovated and made consistent with the original character of the building. In the hall are statues erected by the corporation in honour of Lord Chatham and his son the Right Hon. William Pitt, Nelson, and Alderman Beckford. On the pedestal of the latter is inscribed the famous reply made, or rather said to have been made, in 1770, by Beckford, who was then lord mayor, and one of the mems. for the city, to the answer of his majesty (George III.) to an address and remonstrance of the common-council.* At the W. end of the hall are the two wooden giants called Gog and Magog, the subject of so many nursery tales. In the council-chamber, where the lord mayor, aldermen, and common-council hold their courts, is a statue of George III. by Chantrey; it has also a library containing books of reference, relative chiefly to the history of London, and the affairs of the city, and various other rooms for the use of the corporation.

The city has its peculiar courts of law, most of which are held in the Guildhall. The lord mayor's court, for actions of debts and trespass, and for appeals, is presided over by the recorder of the city. The sheriffs hold courts of record four days every week. The Chamberlain's court, held daily, decides disputes between masters and apprentices,

* It appears to be pretty well established that Beckford did not really make the reply ascribed to him.

and admits qualified persons to the freedom of the city. Courts of Petty Session for small offences are held daily at the Mansion House, by the lord mayor and an alderman, and at the Guildhall by two aldermen. There are also several minor courts.

The revenues of the corporation of London amounted, according to the commissioners' report, to 152,035*l.* in 1831, and to 160,194*l.* in 1832. These large funds are derived from rents of houses and land, market tolls, bequests, interest on government securities, and a few other sources. The expenditure in the year 1831 was 149,411*l.* and in 1832, 169,256*l.*: the chief items consist of salaries to municipal officers, maintenance of police and prisons, corporation entertainments, purchase of securities, and payment of debts. The lord mayor has 8,000*l.* a year allowed him to support the dignity of his office, and a splendid official residence, the Mansion-house, at the E. end of the Poultry, nearly opposite the Bank. This, which has been much, and in some respects, perhaps, not very justly censured, is a large structure, begun in 1789, and finished in 1798, with a Corinthian portico on a rustic basement. The grand or Egyptian Hall (in which, however, there is nothing Egyptian!), the ball-room, and the saloon, are magnificent apartments, but some of the private apartments, occupied by the lord mayor, are but indifferently lighted. The plate used at civic entertainments belongs to the corporation, and is very valuable.

The city of Westminster was anciently governed by the abbot; but since the reformation it has been under the authority of civil officers nominated by the dean. The chief magistrate is the high steward, generally a nobleman, who holds the office for life; the next is the high bailiff, chosen by the high steward, who also holds the office for life. There are 16 burgesses, whose offices are similar to those of aldermen, each having jurisdiction in a separate ward; out of these are elected two head burgesses, one for the city and the other for the liberties, who take rank after the high bailiff; each Burgess has an assistant; there is also a high constable, who has authority over the other constables. The Court of Quarter Sessions is held at the Westminster town-hall four times a year. The court of St. Martin's-le-Grand is held for the trial of personal actions relating to that part of the liberties. The court-leet is held under the authority of the dean, for choosing officers, removing nuisances, and similar matters.

Southwark was anciently governed by its own officers, but since the year 1827, it has been for many purposes subject to the lord mayor, who governs by a steward and bailiff, the former of whom holds a court of record every Monday at the Town-hall in the Borough High Street. Another court is held at Bankside for the Clink liberty, a mean densely-peopled district, to the westward of London Bridge.

Parliamentary Representation.—Down to the passing of the Reform Act, in 1832, the metropolis sent 8 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 4 for the city, elected by the liverymen; 2 for the city of Westminster, elected by scot and lot voters; and 2 for the bor. of Southwark, also elected by scot and lot voters. In addition to the above, the Reform Act created 4 new bors., out of parts of the metropolis not included in the former bors.; viz. those of Marylebone, Finsbury, the Tower Hamlets, and Lambeth, giving to each 2 mems. Hence the metropolis now returns 16 mems. to the H. of C. elected by the 104 householders, and those previously in possession of the franchise. Subjoined is an

Account of the Parliamentary Boroughs in the Metropolis, with the Number of their Representatives, and the Electors registered in each in 1849-50.

Places.	Members.	Electors, 1849-50.
London (City of) - - -	4	30,250
Westminster - - - - -	2	15,312
Marylebone - - - - -	2	18,079
Finsbury - - - - -	2	17,733
Tower Hamlets - - - -	2	21,131
Southwark - - - - -	2	3,510
Lambeth - - - - -	2	16,364
Total - - - - -	16	118,501

Historical Notice.— Nothing is known of London previously to the invasion of the Romans; and it may be doubted, from the silence of Julius Cæsar, whether it then existed, or, at all events, whether it had attained to any considerable magnitude. But, however this may be, it is clear, from the statement of Tacitus (*Annal.* lib. xiv. cap. 38.), already referred to, that so early as the reign of Nero it was an important emporium, though not distinguished by the title of colony; and it is doubtful whether it ever attained to that distinction.*

After the Romans had left Britain, and the Saxons had divided the country among themselves, London is supposed to have become the capital of the E. Saxon kingdom. On the introduction of Christianity into England, it was one of the first places to embrace the new faith, and early became a bishop's see. St. Paul's, and St. Peter's, in Westminster, were first founded about this time. In the paucity of intelligence concerning the period of the heptarchy, all we hear of London is, that it suffered severely from fire in 764, 798, and 801, on each of which occasions it is said to have been nearly destroyed. As soon as England had been united under one monarch, it appears to have become the metropolis of the empire; and, in 883, a wittenagemot, or parliament, was held in it to consult on the best means of repelling the Danes, who were ravaging the eastern counties. It was, however, sacked by the Danes in 889: in 982 it was nearly destroyed by fire; and in 994, the inhab. purchased a temporary remission from the attacks of the Danes, by paying them a high ransom.

At the Conquest, London submitted to William, and soon after received a charter in the English language, the original of which is still preserved. Within the 60 years following the Norman conquest it suffered severely by fire on five different occasions; but being then built principally of wood, it was easily repaired from the timber furnished by the extensive forests of Islington and Hornsey, which still existed when Fitzstephen wrote in the succeeding century. London was then unpaved, and, if we may believe the statement of contemporary historians, the rafters of the roof of Bow church, which were blown off by a hurricane in 1091, struck into the ground to a depth of 20 ft. The same hurricane caused so high a tide in the Thames, that the wooden bridge, which had stood 200 years, was carried away by the stream. On the accession of Henry I. in 1100 a new charter was granted to the city, which restored its ancient privileges, as they existed before the Norman conquest, relieved the inhab. from many oppressive services, such as compulsory entertainment of the king's household, and abolished several barbarous customs of the Saxon period. The citizens acquired by this charter the privilege of choosing their own ma-

gistrates. The Norman monarchs, it is true, seldom respected corporate privileges, even when conceded by themselves; but still this charter was valuable as furnishing a standard to which to refer in future disputes with the crown, and it is said to have served as the model from which Magna Charta was taken. About the middle of the 12th century, it was determined to build a stone bridge over the Thames. The first wooden bridge having, as already stated, been carried away in 1091, was replaced by another, which was burned down in 1186. The bridge erected instead of the latter became so ruinous in less than 80 years, that it was thought a stone bridge would be less costly in the end than the continual repairs required to keep up these unsubstantial, though cheaper structures. The latter, begun in 1176, and finished in 1209, was an extraordinary work for the time; and may be said to have been the very bridge taken down in 1832, though frequent alterations, additions, and repairs, had materially impaired its identity. Three years after its erection a dreadful loss of human life was occasioned by a fire on the bridge, described in Stow's Chronicle:—"The tenth of July at night the city of London upon the S. side of the river of Thames, with the church of our Ladie of the Canons in Southwarke, being on fire, and an exceeding great multitude of people passing the bridge, suddenly the N. parte, by blowing of the S. winde, was also set on fire, and the people which were even now passing the bridge, perceiving the same, would have returned, but were stopped with fire, and it came to passe, that as they protracted time, the S. ende was fired, so that people thronging themselves betwixt the two fires, there came to aide them many ships and vessels, into the which the multitude so undirectly pressed, that the ships being drowned, it was saide, there were destroyed about three thousand persons." About this time an order was made by the court of aldermen that no house should be built without party walls 8 ft. in thickness, and 16 ft. in height. This order, dated in 1191, was doubtless intended to obviate the recurrence of the fires by which the city had been often partially destroyed; but it was little, if at all, attended to, and is interesting principally from its being the first document in which the chief magistrate of London is designated Lord Mayor. He had hitherto been called Chief Bailiff.

In the year 1211 the citizens began to form a deep ditch, 200 ft. in width, without the city wall on all sides, as a means of defence against King John. In 1218 the forest of Middlesex was cleared, and the citizens of London were permitted to purchase land and build thereon. Thus was begun that part of the metropolis which stands N. of the city, and is now so populous. In 1221, Henry III. laid the first stone of the present Westminster Abbey. In 1236, water pipes began to be laid down in the city, which had previously been supplied with water from wells and rivulets running through it into the Thames, the names, at least, of some of which are still preserved. The pipes now referred to brought a copious stream from springs at Tyburn, a village on the site of the present Oxford Street, near its W. end, to the city of London. Various leaden cisterns, named conduits, were afterwards constructed for the reception of the water, whence it was drawn by the inhabitants. In 1282, during a great frost, such masses of ice were brought down the Thames, that 5 arches of London Bridge were destroyed. In 1804 the first recorder was appointed.

Early in the 14th century coal began to be im-

* In a note on this passage Broterius says: "Urbs opibus ingenuisque celebrissima. — Quod omnino in omni rebus memoriam unicum est exemplum, per tot secula crevit semper ejus celebritas, nunc ferme immensum."

ported into London; and a notion having got abroad that its smoke was injurious to the public health, parliament petitioned the king, Edward I., in 1316, to prohibit the burning of coal, on the ground of its being an intolerable nuisance! But experience served, in no very lengthened period, to dissipate this groundless prejudice. The imports of coal have continued progressively to increase; and its ample supply has been one of the circumstances that have contributed most to the unexampled magnitude of the city, and the comfort of the inhabitants.

In 1328, in consequence of the facility with which felons made their escape from London across the bridge into the adjoining village of Southwark, which, until then, was beyond the mayor's jurisdiction, Edward III. granted a charter assigning this village to the city for ever, and empowering the city magistrates to act in Southwark as in London.

In 1349 the kingdom was scourged by a pestilence which is said to have raged with extreme severity in London. The city was again visited by the plague in 1361; and it is worth notice, that this visitation was ascribed, and probably with good reason, to the corruption occasioned by the slaughter of cattle, sheep, &c., in the city. In consequence his majesty, Edward III., issued a proclamation, forbidding the slaughter of all animals nearer than Stratford and Knightsbridge. But the butchers, tavern-keepers, and others, interested in the support of the Smithfield nuisance, had then, as now, influence enough to set at nought the authority of the monarch, and to perpetuate their pestilential abomination. (*Stow's Survey*, i. 2, ed. 1754.)

In 1381 the rebellion of Wat Tyler, and his death by the hands of the lord mayor, occasioned the addition of the dagger to the city arms, where it still appears. During this century various reforms were effected in the cleaning and paving of the streets. But an effectual stop was put to these and all other improvements in 1392, when, in consequence of the refusal of a loan of 10,000*l.* to King Richard by the corporation, the mayor, sheriffs, aldermen, and principal citizens were imprisoned, heavy penalties exacted, the city franchises abrogated, and the courts removed to York. Heavy bribes effected a removal of several of these grievances; but the city did not recover its proper influence till the accession of Henry IV.

In the following century the progress of improvement was still more rapid. Lamps were introduced in 1416. Holborn, a part of the Strand, and other principal thoroughfares, were paved; additional conduits and water-pipes were laid down; and wooden houses began to be replaced by others of brick, made in Moorfields. Stocks, for the punishment of disorderly persons, were erected in the different wards. And Guildhall, Leadenhall, and Crosby-house, in Bishopsgate Street (a portion of which has recently been restored), were built.

In the 16th century the advance was much greater. An unusually long exemption from those civil wars which had, under the Plantagenets, inflicted great injury on London, and the kingdom generally, gave leisure to introduce those improvements which distinguish a modern town from a town of the middle age. The city watch was improved, various nuisances were removed, and street paving became more general. The removal of monasteries had also a great effect in improving London: 54 large and many smaller establishments made way for factories, schools, charitable asylums, and hospitals. St. James's Palace was built, the park was laid out, and many new build-

ings were erected in Westminster. The two cities were now first joined by a number of mansions of the nobility on the N. side of the river; one of which, Northumberland House, still keeps its place. The streets S. of the Strand indicate by their names the site of other mansions that have disappeared. The Royal Exchange was built, and commerce began to flourish. Towards the end of this century water began to be conveyed by machinery into private houses, and the New River was projected.

In the 17th century London assumed its present form, with the exception of the part destroyed by the great fire of 1666. Spitalfields was covered with houses; and before 1666 the space N. of the Strand as far as Holborn, and from Temple Bar to St. Martin's Lane, had been extensively built upon. The parts of Westminster, also, from Charing Cross to St. James's Palace, began to have the appearance of a town. The New River was completed, and many houses were supplied with water. Sewers were dug, smooth pavements were laid down for foot passengers, and hackney-coaches became general.

But, after all, these were but imperfect palliatives of all but incorrigible disorders. We have previously noticed the narrow, dirty, and filthy state of the streets and houses of the city in the 17th century, and the ravages committed in it by the plague, from which it was then rarely, if ever, wholly exempted. And it would have been extremely difficult, or rather, perhaps, impossible, to have introduced a different and improved state of things by legislative or municipal regulations. But what they could not effect was effected by widely different means. On the 2d of Sept. 1666, the great fire broke out in Pudding Lane, near the spot where the Monument was subsequently erected in commemoration of the occurrence. It raged till the 5th, when it ceased, rather by pulling down houses in the line of its course, than by the success of the exertions directly to extinguish the flames. The ruins, covering 836 acres, comprised 13,200 houses, 90 churches, and many public buildings; the property destroyed being estimated at 10,000,000*l.* Though productive of great loss, and of much temporary distress and suffering, this conflagration was, in its results at least, of signal advantage. Its destructive agency was required to get rid of the vast mass of old wooden houses, and narrow and filthy lanes and courts, that had for centuries been the permanent abode of the plague and other pestilential diseases. No doubt it must ever be regretted, that the designs of Sir Christopher Wren for the renovation of the city were not adopted. But notwithstanding the numerous defects of the new plan, it was a vast improvement on that by which it had been preceded. Though still too narrow, the streets were materially widened; the new houses were constructed of brick instead of wood; party walls were introduced; the old practice of making each story project over that immediately below was abandoned; obstructions and filth of all sorts were removed; and the sewerage and pavement of the streets were vastly improved. A fire which happened in Southwark ten years afterwards, afforded an opportunity for carrying similar improvements into that part of the metropolis. The pop. and trade of the city now increased more rapidly than before. The revocation of the edict of Nantes occasioned the immigration of a great number of French, who settled in Spitalfields and St. Giles's. The parishes of St. Anne and St. James were formed, the district called the Seven Dials was built, Piccadilly began to extend W., and Soho Square and Golden Square were laid out

St. Paul's Cathedral was almost completed; the parish of Wapping was formed E. of the city; the Penny Post-Office was instituted; and several miscellaneous asylums (such as Alsatia and the Mint), where robbery and crime had been protected, were abolished.

From this period the increase of London and the progress of improvement have continuously advanced. In the early part of the 18th century an act was passed for building 50 new churches in and about the metropolis, most of which were completed within a few years, and some of them are still among its ornaments. Houses sprang up on every side; and by the middle of the century the W. end of the town, as far as Hyde Park, became a compact mass of buildings, reaching beyond Oxford Street on the N., and extending E. from Portman Square, across Tottenham Court Road, past Montague House and Gray's Inn Gardens, through Clerkenwell, Finsbury Square, Spitalfields, and Whitechapel to Wapping. Before this time water-works had been formed at Chelsea in aid of the supply furnished by the New River. Sewers had become more general, lamps had been fixed in all the principal streets, the Bank of England and Westminster Bridge were built, St. Paul's completed, and Fleet ditch arched over. In the last half century Blackfriars Bridge was built, the houses encumbering London Bridge were removed, the Mansion House was finished, and Somerset House erected. At the same time, many unsightly and inconvenient buildings were removed; lamps were much increased in number, and lighted during the whole night; raised footways became universal, and the shops, which before were mere stalls, assumed a size and splendour evincing the wealth of their occupiers, and greatly contributing to the ornament of the town.

The citizens of London have, generally speaking, been distinguished by their orderly behaviour and respect for the laws. In 1780, however, the peace, and even, in some degree, the existence of the metropolis, were compromised by the excesses of the mob. Certain concessions made in the course of the previous year to the Roman Catholics, had provoked a good deal of religious excitement in all parts of the kingdom. The contagion spread to London; and the weakness of the government, and the folly, or rather madness, of Lord George Gordon, and other leaders of the ultra Protestant party, led to a dangerous riot. The mob were, in fact, for about two days masters of the city. They took possession of the prisons, and turned the inmates out of doors; destroyed the chapels of the ambassadors of the different Catholic powers; many private houses, including that of Lord Mansfield, were plundered and set on fire; a great distillery belonging to a Catholic firm shared the same fate; and an attack was made on the Bank, which, however, was happily repelled. At length, this formidable riot was effectually put down, though not till a considerable number of the rioters had been killed and wounded. Since this disgraceful epoch, the peace of the city has not been seriously endangered; and the troops in and about town, added to the effective police force that now exists, seem quite adequate, under ordinary circumstances to ensure the public tranquillity and the safety of the peaceful part of the community.

During the present century London has made great advances. Within that period four bridges have been built, extensive docks have been excavated, gas has been introduced into every street and alley; steam, on the river, the sea, and on railways, has given it an almost unlimited power

of intercourse with every part of the kingdom, and of the world; new and handsome markets have been erected; arcades lined with elegant shops have been formed; and wide lines of communication have been opened through close and densely crowded neighbourhoods. Two new parks have been laid out; an improved police has given additional security to person and property; abundant supplies of water have been furnished to every separate dwelling; and the formation of spacious cemeteries in the suburbs is leading to the disuse of interments within the town. At the same time the establishment of colleges and proprietary schools has increased the facilities (which are still, however, very deficient) for procuring good education; the formation of savings-banks, by affording a safe and convenient place of deposit for the smallest savings, has tended to diffuse habits of economy among the lower classes; while the institution of a National Gallery and School of Design has done something to improve the national taste, and to add to the intellectual pleasures of the people. The spirit of improvement, moreover, is still suggesting extensive and useful works. The nuisance of Smithfield market, notwithstanding the protection given to it by the Corporation, cannot fail of being abated; and no doubt, also, provision will be made for having all sorts of animals slaughtered at some distance from the city. And these, with the improvement of the sewerage and buildings, and the opening of new lines of streets, will at once increase the health of the citizens, and add to the convenience and beauty of the town.

London has been the subject of an immense number of publications. Of these the best by far is the *Survey by Stow* (originally published in 1598), with additions by Strype and others, 2 vols. folio, 1784. The *Account of the Metropolis and its Environs* by Brayley, Nightingale, and Brewer, 5 vols. 8vo., 1814-16, is, in some respects, a valuable work; but it contains a great deal of matter but slightly connected with the subject, and which might advantageously have been omitted. Cunningham's *Handbook* is a carefully compiled, amusing, and instructive manual of popular antiquities and street history. But, though there are several valuable works on detached topics, there is not, in point of fact, any good or even respectable general account of modern London.

LONDONDERRY, a marit. co. in the N. of Ireland, prov. Ulster, having N. Lough Foyle and the Atlantic Ocean. E. Antrim, from which it is separated by the Lower Bann and Lough Neagh; S. Tyrone; and W. Donegal. Area, 518,370 acres, of which 136,038 are unimproved mountain and bog, and 9,565 water, being mostly included in the portion of Lough Neagh, belonging to this co. Surface in some parts mountainous and uneven; but there is, notwithstanding, a great extent of low, fertile ground. With the exception of lands belonging to the church and to corporations, the entire property of this co. was granted by James I. to 12 of the principal London companies, from whom most part of the land is now held, partly under terminable, and partly under interminable leases. Farms vary in size from 3 to 200 acres; but the average may be from 5 to 20 acres. "Where there has been a perpetuity or a long lease, it is split; that is, the children are settled upon divisions of the father's farm; by which means leases of 40 acres come to be parcelled, in two or three generations, into patches of 4 or 5 acres. It seems as if the newly let lands were disposed of under some similar system of parceling. I could give instances where whole districts are subdivided into patches of 6 or 7 acres, and rarely can boast a farm of 12 or 14." (*Sampson's Survey of Londonderry*, p. 249.) Some landlords have exerted themselves to counteract this wretched system, but hitherto without much effect. It is almost superfluous, seeing the way in which the land is subdivided, to say that agriculture is in a very backward state. Later, however, some improvements have been effected. Oats, potatoes, and flax, are the principal crops; but a good deal of wheat is now also raised. Condition of the small farmers and cottiers very unprosperous. Average rent of land 11s. 6d. an acre. Various minerals have been discovered, but they are of no great importance. The linen manufacture was, a few years ago, widely diffused, but has latterly been a good deal contracted, the mill-spun yarn being cheaper and better than that spun by hand wheels. Exclusive of the Bann, the principal rivers are the Foyle, Faughan, and Roe. Principal towns, Londonderry, Coleraine, and Newton-Limavady. The co. is divided into 6 baronies and liberties, and 31 parishes; and sends 4 mems. to the H. of C., being 2 for the co., 1 for Londonderry, and 1 for Coleraine. Reg. electors for the co., in 1849-50, 5,056. In 1841, Londonderry had 38,587 inhab. houses, 41,114 families, and 92,317 inhab., of whom 106,826 were males, and 115,549 females. LONDONDERRY, or DERRY, a city, parl. bor., and river-

port of Ireland, cap. co. of same name, and a co. by itself, advantageously and beautifully situated on the W. bank of the Foyle, about 5 m. above where it falls into Lough Foyle, 131 m. N. by W. Dublin; lat. 54° 59' N., long. 7° 19' W. Pop. of par. bor. in 1841, 15,150. The city was originally confined to the hill on which the greater part of it still stands; and which, from its projection into the river, is called the "Island of Derry." This portion is surrounded by the old city walls, but it is now rapidly extending beyond its former limits, particularly along the river towards the Lough. There is also a suburb on the opposite bank of the river, called Waterside. The communication between the latter and the city is kept up by means of a wooden bridge, 1,068 ft. in length, and 40 ft. wide, erected in 1789 at an expense of above 16,000*l.* and rebuilt in 1814-15 at a further cost of 16,801*l.* Derry is well built; many of the houses in the main streets within the walls are old-fashioned, with high pyramidal gables; but many modern mansions have, of late years, been erected in this part of the town; and without the walls rows of mud cabins have been superseded by respectable houses. The principal city streets are broad and clean, well paved and well lighted; some of them, however, are inconveniently steep, and there are many narrow lanes and closes. In the centre of the city is an open square, called the Diamond, from each side of which handsome streets lead to one of the four city gates. The summit of the hill is crowned by the cathedral, court-house, and bishop's palace.

The cathedral, which is also the parish church, was built in 1683: it is a large, handsome, Gothic structure, 240 ft. in length, and has a tower and spire 228 ft. high, erected in 1778; but this having become dangerous, was taken down in 1802, and was soon after rebuilt, with the addition of Gothic pinnacles. The view from the top is very fine. In the interior is a handsome monument to the late Bishop Knox; and in it also are displayed the colours taken at the siege of Derry. The bishop's palace is a large plain building, with extensive pleasure grounds. There are two other Protestant episcopal places of worship, the chapel of ease and the free church. The latter, which is without the city, was built in 1830, by Bishop Knox, and was intended for the use of the poorer classes, but it is no longer confined to them. There is also a R. Catholic chapel, and places of worship for Presbyterians, Primitive and Wesleyan Methodists, Seceders, Covenanters, and Independents. Among the public buildings, exclusive of churches, and other ecclesiastical edifices may be specified the Corporation Hall, in the centre of Diamond Square; it was originally constructed in 1692, but received so thorough a repair in 1823, as to be tantamount to a re-erection. The court-house, adjoining the cathedral, erected in 1813, at an expense of 30,480*l.*, is a spacious and a fine building, partly constructed on the model of the temple of Erechtheus at Athens. The new gaol is a very extensive structure, being 243 ft. in front, by 400 ft. in depth; it is built on the radiating or pentagonal principle, and cost above 30,000*l.* Among the chief ornaments of the city is the futed column, erected, in 1827, in honour of the Rev. George Walker, its heroic defender. It stands on the central W. bastion, and is a well-proportioned pillar, 81 ft. in height, bearing a statue of Walker, 9 ft. high. It cost 4,200*l.*, raised by subscriptions.

The diocesan school, called Foyle college, stands on an eminence near the river; it is a plain but handsome building, erected in 1814, having accommodations for 80 resident pupils; it was built by subscriptions from the bishop of the diocese, the Irish Society, and other sources, and is maintained by similar means: the head master's salary, from these sources, is about 200*l.* per ann. There is a parish school connected with the church, for the education of 100 boys and 100 girls. The Presbyterian congregation also supports a free school: a school, called St. Columba's national school, was established by the R. Catholic bishop and clergy, but it is now under the National Board of Education. In 1829, a Mr. John Gwynn left the munificent sum of above 40,000*l.* for the education of as many boys (in 1850, 190) as the funds will afford in the useful parts of a good English education; and, exclusive of the above, there is an infant school, and a number of Sunday and other schools. Templemoyle Agricultural Seminary, founded in 1827, is within 5 m. of the city. The building is fitted to accommodate 80 boarders, and the farm attached contains 173 acres. The institution is said to be well managed. Among the charitable institutions, is the district lunatic asylum for the counties of Londonderry, Donegal, and Tyrone; it was opened in 1829, and cost 30,674*l.*; it can accommodate about 150 patients: the number admitted in 1845 was 214; the expense of the establishment for that year was 3,087*l.*, being 14*l.* 3*s.* 3*d.* each. Here is also an infirmary and fever hospital, a dispensary, a charitable loan fund, a mendicity association, and a clergymen's widows' fund, with several minor institutions of a similar description. The workhouse for Derry union, opened in 1840, has accommodation for

1,100 inmates. Among the literary institutions, is the Literary Association, with a reading-room and a pretty good library; the Literary Society, in which lectures are given, and discussions take place; a news-room; a mechanics' institute, &c. In 1850 the town had three newspapers. Races take place on a course in its neighbourhood. The citizens of Derry would seem to have but little taste for theatrical entertainments; at all events, the theatre has been converted into a coach-building establishment.

The walls or ramparts by which the city proper is surrounded remain nearly in their original state, except that the ditch has been filled up: they afford a fine broad walk all round the city.

Londonderry was originally granted by Edward II. to Richard de Burgh, earl of Ulster, but the late corporation held its privileges under a charter granted by James I. in 1613. The government of the city is now vested in a mayor, 3 aldermen, and 18 councillors. The city sent 2 mem. to the Irish H. of C.; and since the union it has sent 1 mem. to the Imp. H. of C. Previously to the Reform Act the right of voting was in the burgesses and freemen. Registered electors in 1849-50, 2,632. The mayor, and aldermen who have filled the office of mayor, are justices of the peace within the liberties. The mayor and recorder hold a court of record every Monday, for pleas, to any amount. A court of general sessions is held quarterly, once of petty sessions weekly; there is also a court of conscience, at which the mayor presides weekly, for debts under 40*l.*, and for suits of wages. The assizes for the county and city, and the general sessions for the county, are held here twice a year.

The revenue of the corporation, arising from the tolls of the bridge, and dues on tonnage, quayage, &c., amounted some time ago to about 7,000*l.* a year; but owing to the expense of improvements, mismanagement, or some other cause, the corporation became involved in difficulties, and their property has since been so reduced that in 1845 it produced only 632*l.*

Manufactures are not very considerable. There are, however, 2 flax spinning mills, several flour mills, 3 distilleries, 2 breweries, 2 foundries, with rope works, tan-yards, &c. There were here formerly a sugar-house and a glass-house, but these are now relinquished. Some table-linen is manufactured. A valuable salmon fishery is carried on in the river and in Lough Foyle.

The trade of Londonderry is very extensive, and is increasing. Its fine river makes it the emporium of a large extent of country; and it is to this that its extensive commerce is principally to be ascribed. Its exports, like those of most other Irish towns, consist principally of agricultural produce, but a good deal of linen is also exported. We subjoin an

Account of the Quantity and Value of the principal Articles exported from Londonderry, in 1835.

Articles Exported.	Quantity.	Estimated Value.
Corn, meat, and flour - cwts.	416,042	136,676
Provisions -	55,890	473,566
Sugar -	—	36
Flax and tow -	81,120	212,940
Feathers -	—	15
Spirits -	65,480	10,580
Linen -	5,055,992	314,749
Cotton manufactures -	—	84
Oxen and cows -	865	5,130
Horses -	73	1,440
Sheep -	313	965
Pigs -	11,103	15,480
Eggs -	35,026,000	55,094
Hides & calf skins untanned -	24,960	11,235
Other articles -	—	21,180
Total value -	—	1,040,918

Making allowance for the increase that has since taken place in the trade of the port, we may, perhaps, estimate the present (1850) value of the exports at 1,350,000*l.* or 1,400,000*l.* a year. The vast number and value of the eggs exported is a peculiar feature in the above account. The imports consist principally of manufactured goods and haberdashery; iron, sugar and tea, timber, wine, coal, glass, earthenware, &c. A great portion of the increase in the trade of the port may be ascribed to the establishment of steam packets, which now ply regularly between the city and Glasgow and Liverpool.

Derry is one of the principal ports for the shipment of emigrants; as many as from 5,000 to 7,000 individuals having of late years frequently sailed for the United States and Canada, in the course of a single season.

The gross customs' revenue collected at Londonderry in 1844, amounted to 163,830*l.*, and in 1848 to 104,591*l.*; the post-office revenue in 1845 was 2,437*l.*, and in 1848, 2,763*l.* The Bank of Ireland, the Belfast, Provincial, Northern, and Ulster banks, have offices here. A

savings' bank, established in 1815, had, in 1848, 18,571*l.* of deposits, contributed by 710 depositors.

Lough Foyle is properly the outer harbour of Londonderry. It is a triangular basin, about 18 m. long, and 10 m. wide; but a great part of it is occupied by sand-banks and mud-flats. The navigable channel stretches along the Donegal or Innishowen shore; and by following it, the largest men-of-war reach the anchorage at Moville, while merchantmen of 500 tons, without difficulty, ascend to the city quays, 5 m. above the lough and 23 m. from the sea. The river is navigable by barges from the city to St. Johnstone, and the Marquis of Abercorn has excavated a canal from the latter to Strabane. A portion of the wooden bridge at the city is constructed so as to open and admit the ascent and descent of vessels. It may be worth mentioning, that both the water and gas for the use of the city are conveyed across this bridge; so that the supply of both is intercepted whenever the bridge is opened. There belonged to Londonderry, on the 1st of Jan. 1850, 34 sailing vessels, of the agg. burden of 5,918 tons, and 8 steamers, burden 2,184 tons. The latter are principally employed in the cross channel trade with Glasgow and Liverpool.

But notwithstanding its increasing commercial prosperity, there is, we regret to say, great poverty in Derry. The contributors to the savings' bank are mostly menials, servants; and the mechanics, tradesmen, and labourers are, in general, very badly off. "Among the labourers great poverty prevails, from the want of steady employment, and their consequent exposure to dissipation, with the total absence of employment for their children. The better class inhabit huts which let for about 3*l.* a year; but the poorer frequently lodge in garrets or out-houses, chiefly in the Bogside, at a rent of about 1*s.* 3*d.* a week; and, even in these hovels, they contrive to let shares of their rooms at 6*d.* a week." (*Ordnance Memoir of Londonderry*, p. 194.)

Derry was colonised and fortified in the reign of James I. by the London companies, who had purchased large tracts of the confiscated estates of the Earl of Tyrone; at which period it took the name of Londonderry. It is famous in Irish history for the memorable siege it sustained in 1689 against the forces of James II. Though ill fortified, and without any disciplined troops, the heroism of the citizens, and the enthusiasm inspired by their brave leader, George Walker, enabled them to repel all the attacks of the enemy; and to sustain the more dreadful sufferings occasioned by the pressure of famine. The besiegers lost 8,000 men in the course of the siege, which was raised on the 10th day. Derry continued, for a lengthened period after this epoch in its history, to be, as it were, the head-quarters of Protestantism, or rather of Orangism in the N. of Ireland; but even in Derry the Catholics now outnumber the Protestants. (The reader will find, in the *Ordnance Memoir* referred to above, the most ample details as to all matters connected with the history and present state of Derry; see also the *Boundary and Municipal Reports*; *Railway Report*, &c.; and *Thom's Almanac*.)

LONG ISLAND, an island on the E. coast of the U. States, forming part of the state of New York, between lat. 40° 34' and 41° 10' N., and long. 72° and 74° N., being separated from the continent on the N. by Long-Island Sound, and on the E. by East River, New York Harbour, &c. Its length from S. W. to N. E. is about 120 m., its breadth varying from 10 to 20 m. Surface mostly a level plain, broken only by a range of hills in the N., extending for about 60 m., with an elevation varying from 100 ft. to 400 ft.; among these are Brooklyn, and other heights memorable in the revolutionary war. The soil of the plains is chiefly sandy or loamy. Long Island is not well watered; but in many parts it is well suited for raising corn, particularly maize, the climate being much milder than that of the adjacent mainland. The island has numerous bays and inlets, the principal being Sag harbour, in the N. E.; a great many smaller islands surround its shores. It is divided into 3 counties: Brooklyn, Bedford, Flatbush, N. Hempstead, River-head, and Jamaica are its chief towns.

LONG-ISLAND SOUND, a strait of the Atlantic between Long Island on the S., and the states of Connecticut and New York on the N. In the greater part of its extent, it is a noble expanse of water with bold shores, and many commodious havens on either side. But W. of the promontory called Lloyd's neck, the channel becomes rocky, and much interrupted by islets; and a few miles above New York is the dangerous pass of Hell-gate, where the flow and ebb tide form cataraacts and vortices, sufficient to dash to pieces or engulf large vessels. This formidable strait may, however, be passed with the greatest ease either at high or low water.

LONGFORD, an inland co. of Ireland, prov. Leinster, having N. Cavan and Leitrim, E. Westmeath, and W. Roscommon, from which it is separated by the Shannon. Area, 263,645 acres, of which 55,247 are unimproved bog and mountain, and 15,892 lakes. The arable soil is, for the most part, level and fertile. Property mostly in

large estates. Tillage farms small, the state of agriculture and the condition of the occupiers being much the same as in the adjoining cos. Grazing, however, is extensively carried on. Average rent of land 13*s.* 8*d.* an acre. It is divided into 6 baronies and 23 parishes; and sends 2 mems. to the H. of C., both for the cos. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 716. In 1841 it had 13,193 inhab. houses, 20,579 families, and 115,491 inhab., of whom 57,610 were males, and 57,881 females.

LONGFORD, an inland town of Ireland, cap. of the above co., prov. Leinster, on the Camlin, an affluent of the Shannon, 65 m. N. N. W. Dublin. Pop., in 1841, 4,966. It is "a well-built town, and is increasing rapidly in population and wealth. There is here a very large market for grain; great quantities being exported by the Royal canal, a branch of which comes to the town." (*Municipal Boundary Report*.) It has a par. church, a R. Cath. chapel, meeting-houses for Presbyterians and Methodists, a market-house, the co. court-house, prison, infirmary, and dispensary, with large cavalry and artillery barracks. The corporation, which, under a charter of Charles II. in 1657, consisted of a sovereign, 2 bailiffs, 12 burgesses, and a commonalty, sent 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C. till the Union, when it was disfranchised. The county assizes and general sessions are held here; and courts for petty causes are held on Mondays and Saturdays. It is a constant mart for corn. Some linen is manufactured; and there is a tannery, a brewery, and a distillery; but the great business of the town consists in its trade in corn and other raw produce. Markets on Wednesdays and Saturdays: fairs on March 25, June 10, Aug. 19., and Oct. 22. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 1,087*l.*; in 1836, 1,137*l.* Branches of the Bank of Ireland, and of the Agricultural and National Banks, were opened in 1834-35-36.

LONGOBUCCO, a town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Calabria Citra, 19 m. E. N. E. Cosenza. Pop. about 5,000, chiefly employed in working metals and burning charcoal. The horses for hunting in Naples are bred in the neighbourhood.

LONS-LE-SAULNIER, a town of France, dép. Jura, of which it is the cap., in a deep valley, 30 m. S. E. Dijon. Pop., in 1846, 8,417. It has no remarkable public buildings; but is generally well built, clean, and furnished with numerous public fountains, one of which, in the *Place d'Armes*, is ornamented with a statue of Pichégu, in white marble. At the N. extremity of the town is the salt spring from which it derived its ancient name of *Ledo Salinaria*; this spring continues to yield great quantities of table salt; four pumps are kept constantly at work, and the evaporating houses (*bâtimens de graduation*) are very extensive. Lons has a theatre, a public library with 3,000 vols., a gallery of paintings and antiquities, tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a communal college, &c. It is the entrepôt of the agricultural produce, iron goods, timber, wines, &c., of the dep., and has a fair on the 15th of every month.

LOO-CHOO, or LOO-KIEOU ISLANDS, a group tributary to the Chinese, in the N. Pacific Ocean, nearly midway between Japan and Formosa, and comprised within lat. 20° and 28° N., and long. 127° and 129° E. There are in all about 36 islands; but, excepting the Great Loo-Choo Island, towards the centre of the group, 70 m. in length, by from 12 to 15 m. broad, they are mostly of very inferior dimensions. These islands, which are but little known to Europeans, are reported to have a delightful climate, and a soil of great richness, producing the fruits and vegetable of countries the most remote from each other. Rice is cultivated with great care. Cattle, goats, and pigs, are said to be diminutive; but poultry are large and excellent. The islands yield sulphur and salt, and have, it is alleged, rich mines of copper and tin. Conflicting statements have been made by different travellers respecting the civilisation, political condition, jurisprudence, &c. of the natives. They appear, however, to be of the same race as the Japanese; and have not merely adopted the costume, but speak the language of that people. Their religion is a species of Buddhism; and their government, like that of other Asiatic countries, of a despotic character. They are friendly and hospitable; but it is now sufficiently ascertained that Captain Hall was totally mistaken in the estimate he formed of these islanders; who, had his statements been well founded, almost realised the poetical fictions of the golden age. The Loo-Choo Islands were for some time subject to Japan, but were conquered by China about 1372. Kintching, the cap., is about 3 m. from its port Napiang, near the S. W. extremity of Great Loo-Choo, lat. about 26° 14' N., long. 127° 52' E. (See *Hall, Macleod, and Beechey's Travels*, &c.)

LOOE (EAST AND WEST), two contiguous anc. bors. and market-towns of England, co. Cornwall, hund. West, on both banks and close to the mouth of the Looe, 12 m. S. E. Bodmin, and 210 m. W. by S. London. United pop., in 1841, 1,542. They are mean, wretched places, connected by a narrow, old bridge of 13 arches;

and would be unworthy notice, were it not that each of them enjoyed the privilege of sending 2 mms. to the H. of C. from the reigns of Edward VI. and Elizabeth down to the passing of the Reform Act, when they were both disfranchised.

LORCA (an. *Chocroca*), a considerable town of Spain, prov. Murcia, cap. of a partido of its own name, on the Guadalentin, a tributary of the Segura, 43 m. W.S.W. Murcia, and 116 m. E.N.E. Granada. Pop., according to Mifano, 40,366. The vale of Lorca is remarkable for picturesque beauty and great fertility; and the town, close under the Sierra del Cano that bounds it on the left, and the fine old castle on a rock hanging over it, adds greatly to the beauty of the picture. This has evidently been a considerable place; but, the lower part of the town being concealed by trees, nothing is seen on approaching it but a number of low houses crowded on the side of the mountain, and from the similarity of colour seeming almost to belong to it. This is the old or Moorish town, and is very irregular and mean in appearance: but the new town, on the plain, is much more regularly laid out, and better built. A collegiate (once episcopal) and seven parish churches, two hospitals, an episcopal palace, and a royal college, are the chief buildings and establishments. Saltpetre is manufactured on a large scale, and soap, thread, and linens, are produced in small quantities; but the chief resources of the town consist in its great September fair, its markets, and the produce of its neighbourhood, both in flocks and agricultural produce. Mr. Inglis gives a lively picture of the market and its attendants:—"All the women here wear a square white woollen shawl, worn like a mantilla: the men are dressed in short white drawers loose at the knees, and instead of stockings use sandals made of rope; and their heads are covered with close-fitting tapering black caps, others from the higher countries being enveloped in blankets of gaudy colours. Among the numerous things exposed for sale, were dried and shell fruits, Catalonian cloths and calicoes, shoes and rope sandals, quantities of Esparto rush, and rush-baskets, beads, rosaries, trinkets, &c., in short, every thing that one either eats or wears in Murcia. The show of pigs was extremely fine, and no where in the world are these animals found in greater perfection than in Spain, fed, as they are, on the flex nut. The price of a hog weighing 23 stone was 240 reals (2*l.* 8*s.*), and that of a sucking pig 14 reals. Mutton sells at 13 quartas, a fowl costs 20*c.*, a hare 10*d.*, and bread is 1*d.* per lb. The price of labour in the vale of Lorca is 5 reals or 1*s.* a day." (*Inglis's Spain*, II. 206.)

Lorca, supposed to be the *Chocroca* mentioned in Antonine's Itinerary, was exposed to frequent attacks during the contests between the Moors and the crown of Castile, and has at various times sustained sieges. It was nearly destroyed at the commencement of this century. In 1792, a speculator, with the permission of government, collected at a great expense all the waters of the district into a common reservoir (*panatano*) resembling that of Alcantar. The basin was said to be "superb," and capable of containing water sufficient to irrigate for years the entire vale of Lorca. Ten years afterwards (1802) the waters, which had for some time been undermining the reservoir, rushed out with an impetuosity that swept every thing before it, men and cattle, public buildings, and even trees and rocks. About 600 houses, a church, 3 convents, 2 hospitals, several mills and fountains, were at once swallowed up and disappeared, about 6,000 human beings, 24,000 cattle, &c. being at the same time destroyed. The agricultural districts were covered over with sand, rubbish, &c., and the total loss occasioned by the catastrophe is supposed to have exceeded a million sterling. A like disastrous event is said to have destroyed the ancient city of Merv in Arabia Felix, an account of which will be found in the *Modern Traveller*, Arabia, p. 28. (*Inglis*; *Laborde*, vol. II.; *Mifano*.)

LORETTO, a town of the Papal States, cap. of a commissariat of the same name, on a bold and commanding eminence, about 3 m. from the Adriatic, and 12 m. S.E. Ancona. Pop., with its suburbs, about 5,000. It is surrounded with walls, constructed by Sixtus V., in 1587. This celebrated but poor town is wholly indebted for its fame, and even existence, to its having the good fortune to possess the *Santissima Casa*, or house occupied by the Virgin Mary, in Nazareth, conveyed by angels, first to Teramo in Dalmatia, and thence, by the same agency, in 1294, to its present site! This miraculous edifice is a mean-looking hovel, about 30 ft. in length, by 13 or 14 ft. in width, and 18 ft. in height; apparently built of Apennine limestone, with a modern vault of timber-work. It is incased in a shell of marble, sculptured with bass-reliefs, representing the history of the Virgin; the whole being under the dome of a splendid church, built to protect the sacred edifice. In a niche within the latter, once fenced in with gratings of solid gold, but now with pieces of gilt wood, is the image of the Virgin, affirmed to be the work of St. Luke, to

whose talents as an artist it does little credit, being "a little old woman about 4 ft. in height, with the features and complexion of a negro." (*Moore*.) Her dress is tawdry, and in the worst possible taste: she literally glitters in jewels and brocade, and reigns "amid the continual glare and smoke of lamps and candles, held by figures of angels." The church, which encloses the *santissima casa* is said to have been designed by Bramante. According to Eustace, it is a "very noble structure;" but it is less favourably spoken of by Woods and others. Its gates, which are of bronze, are embellished with *basso-reliefs* of the most admirable workmanship; in the area before it, is a handsome marble fountain, and a large statue of Pius VI. The riches formerly accumulated within this sanctuary, were a subject of astonishment to all travellers; and were, most probably, much exaggerated. The popes are believed to have occasionally abstracted some of the gold offerings, and to have substituted false for real gems. But, when the French acquired possession of Loretto, they acted with less reserve; and, undismayed by the sanctity of the place, rifed its repositories, and carried off every article of value, applying them to secular and really useful purposes. It has since, however, received several considerable benefactions.

A lucrative trade was formerly carried on at Loretto in rosaries, crucifixes, *agnus Dei*, and such like articles, partly taken off by pilgrims to the shrine, and partly exported. But this trade has now much fallen off. The number of pilgrims, though still very considerable, has also greatly declined; and they are now mostly of the lowest and poorest classes. On their arrival in town, they are received into an hospital, where they are boarded and lodged for three days; and this privilege has probably as much to do as superstition in attracting them to Loretto. (*See Addison's Travels*, p. 94, ed. 1726; *Moore's Italy*, I. 291.; *Eustace's Classical Tour*, I. 200.; *Forryth*, 321., &c.)

L'ORIENT, a strongly fortified sea-port town of France, dep. Morbihan, cap. arrond., at the confluence of the Scorff with the Vair, at the head of the Gulf of Port Louis, about 3 m. from the Atlantic, and 29 m. W. by N. Vannes. Lat. 47° 45' 11" N.; long. 3° 21' 2" W. Pop., in 1846 (ex. suburbs), 19,108; but, according to recent statements, the pop. of the town and suburbs may now (1870) amount to 21,000 or 22,000, nearly 5,000 of whom are employed in the dock-yard and its appendages. L'Orient is clean, and regularly built: the streets are wide, straight, and well paved, and the houses well constructed and handsome. One of its public squares, the *Place Royale*, is planted with lime-trees, and has other good promenades. The principal church * is very large, and has a lofty spire, which is a conspicuous landmark. The prefecture, auction-hall, town-hall, and theatre, are handsome edifices. The public slaughter-houses (*abattoirs*) are remarkably clean; and the meat, fish, and bread-markets are, next to those of Rennes, the best constructed, and most extensive in Brittany. In the centre of the market-place is a granite column erected to the memory of the commander, Bisson. Some years ago, a bridge, also of granite, was commenced over the Scorff, but the design was abandoned, lest the clearance of the port should be thereby impeded.

The port of L'Orient, about $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile in length by nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in breadth, is secure, commodious, and of easy entrance. It is bordered by fine quays, on which are some extensive buildings and establishments connected with the government dockyard; an observatory 120 ft. in height, which serves also for a telegraph and a light-house, and a very handsome public fountain. The naval establishment is on a smaller scale at L'Orient than at Brest; it has no *bagne*, but it has a place of confinement for soldiers guilty of insubordination. More ships of the line are built in the dockyard of L'Orient than at any other in France, 16, of the estimated cost of 8,662,390 francs, having been constructed here in 1840. L'Orient has ships enough for the construction of 30 vessels of all sizes; frigates are, however, the class of ships chiefly built. Towards the end of 1840, 9 ships were occupied each with a frigate in course of active preparation; and, according to the report of an English traveller, 3,000 workmen were exclusively engaged on these 9 frigates. Many of the subordinate artificers get only 26 sous a day and few of the better workmen receive more than from 30 to 40 sous a day; but taking into account the cheapness of living in Brittany, they are, perhaps, fully as well off as the workmen in the English dockyards. The foremen (*chefs d'ateliers*) are not paid by the day, but receive from 1,500 to 2,000 fr. a year, according to circumstances. L'Orient has excellent sheers for masting vessels, &c., and good block sheds, the machinery in which, as well as a portion of that for cable-making, is wrought by steam. At the end of 1840, establishments

* Hugo says that this church was originally planned and begun in 1213, but that after 20 years had been spent in its erection, the builders, despairing of being able to finish the work as commenced, found it necessary to demolish a portion of it to complete the rest.

were in course of being erected for the construction of steam engines for ships of war, and new forges, &c., were about to be commenced. The buildings formerly belonging to the French E. I. Company, are now converted into barracks. The arsenal and naval stores are very extensive, and the artillery barracks are capable of accommodating 1,200 men. The lazaret is on a small island to the S., between L'Orient and Port Louis. L'Orient has a school of naval artillery and a spacious artillery ground near the town, a school of hydrography, established 1771, a large and well-arranged commercial college, a preparatory school for training for the government schools, a communal college, gratuitous schools of drawing, geometry, arithmetic, &c., a public and a pretty good naval library, museums of chemistry and mineralogy, an agricultural society, and various educational societies. It is the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a chamber of commerce, &c.

The manufactures of L'Orient, chiefly consisting of hats, linens, gold lace, earthenware, &c., are not very important. Its trade, though not so flourishing as in 1789, has latterly begun to increase. In 1830, only 6 merchantmen belonged to the port; it has now (1840) more than four times that number, some of them trading to the French colonies. The chief exports are wax, honey, butter, corn, cattle, and pichards, the latter being taken in great quantities on the adjacent coast, are sent to Nantes to be prepared for exportation.

Though at present so little eminent for trade, L'Orient owes its origin and former importance almost wholly to commerce. It was but an insignificant village when, in 1728, the French E. I. Company made it their principal naval *dépôt*; and such was the influence of the change, that in 1733 its pop. is said to have amounted to 14,001! On the dissolution of the Company in 1770, L'Orient was made one of the stations for the French navy, and a free commercial port. (*Hugo, art. Morbihan; Letter in the Times, 7th Oct., 1840.*)

LORRAINE (Germ. *Lotharingen*), one of the largest of the prov. of France, in the N.E. part of the kingdom, now distributed among the depts. of Meurthe, Meuse, Moselle, Vosges, and Bas-Rhin.

LOSTWITHEL, or LESTWITHEL, an an. bor. market-town, and par. of England, co. Cornwall, hund. Powder, on the W. bank of the Fowey, 5 m. S.S.E. Bodmin, and 211 m. W. by S. London. Area of bor., 120 acres. Pop., in 1841, 1,186. The houses are chiefly of stone, roofed with slate; but the streets narrow and ill-paved. The church, a curious old building, has a large E. window, and a fine tower and spire at the opposite end; the living is a vicarage, in the gift of Earl Mount-Edgcumbe. It has also places of worship for Independents, Wesleyans and Primitive Methodists, with attached Sunday schools. The corporation support a grammar and writing school; another school, for poor children, is slenderly endowed by the trustees of the late Rev. St. John Elliot; and there are a few money bequests. Near the church, an ancient building, supposed to have been either a palace of the Duke of Cornwall, or a court-house for the stannaries, was, till very recently, used as a prison during the winter and summer seasons, now removed to Loebein. There is a town-hall, where petty sessions are held, and under it is a small gaol. Tanning and wool-stapling are the principal trades, and the town derives some importance from its situation on the Fowey, by which iron and copper ore, &c. are exported. Lostwithiel was made a free bor. by Richard Earl of Cornwall, and incorporated by James I.: it sent 2 mems. to the H. of C., from the 19th Edward II. down to the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised. It is not included in the Municipal Reform Act; but is now, as formerly, governed by a mayor, 6 capital, and 17 inferior burgesses. Markets on Friday; cattle fair, July 10. Sept. 6, and Nov. 13.

About 1 m. N. of Lostwithiel, on the summit of a hill, is Restormel castle, the ancient seat of the baronial family of Cardinan, and subsequently of the earls of Cornwall; it was ruinous even so early as the time of Henry VIII., but was repaired and occupied during the civil war. (*Mem. Corp. and Char. Rep. &c.*)

LOT, a dep. of France, reg. S., chiefly between lat. 44° 15' N., and long. 1° 30' E., having N. Corrèze, E. and S.E. Cantal and Aveyron, S. Tarn-et-Garonne, and W. Lot-et-Garonne and Dordogne. Area, 625,280 hectares. Pop. in 1846, 294,568. The dep. is mountainous, with a general slope towards the S.W. Its mountains are ramifications of those of Cantal, and rise in the E. about 2,500 ft. above the sea. Its chief rivers are the Lot, and the Dordogne; from the first of which it derives its name. The Lot, which rises in Lozère, about lat. 44° 30' N., long. 3° 45' E., runs with a very tortuous course generally W., through Aveyron, the S. part of Lot, and the centre of Lot-et-Garonne and Gironde; uniting with the Garonne at Alguillon, about lat. 44° 18' and long. 0° 13' E. It is navigable, during 4 months of the year, for nearly 120 m.; Mendé, Cahors, and Villeneuve d'Agén

are on its banks. There are an immense number of narrow valleys, watered by small rivulets: these have frequently an alluvial soil of great fertility, but the soil in most parts is either calcareous, or stony and gravelly. In 1834, it was estimated that 252,533 hectares were arable, 25,855 in pasture, 58,537 in vineyards, 87,256 in woods, and 71,284 occupied by heaths, wastes, &c. Lot produces more corn than is required for its own consumption; but chestnut-flour forms an important article of food among the rural pop. The corn grown is principally wheat, maize, and rye; and the total annual produce of all kinds is estimated at between 1,500,000 and 1,600,000 hectol. Agriculture is extremely backward, and there is a great want of capital, a consequence mainly of the splitting up of the land into an immense number of small properties. In 1835, of 111,948 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 80,471 were assessed at less than 5 fr., 18,781 at from 5 to 10 fr., and 17,683 at from 10 to 20 fr.; while the number of properties assessed at 1,000 fr. and upward amounted to only 1,000. The plough employed is a fac simile of that described by Virgil, and is drawn by oxen: the spade or hoe is, however, used in the culture of thin soils. The produce of wine amounts to about 600,000 hectol. a year, a third part of which is consumed by the inhab., and the rest sold or converted into brandy. The wines known in the market as *vins de Cahors* are strong and very dark-coloured, and are principally employed to give body and colour to other wines, for which purpose they are principally sent to Bordeaux. Tobacco is grown in this dep., and in 1833 about 1,850 hectares were appropriated to its culture, and 933,330 kilog. produced. The climate is favourable for the mulberry, but the silk worm does not thrive. A few proprietors have flocks of Merino sheep, but the pastures are badly irrigated and attended to, and most kinds of live stock are indifferent. The goats' hair of the dep. is, however, highly esteemed. The produce of sheep's wool is estimated at 500,000 kilog. a year. A great many hogs are fattened for sale in the neighbouring depts.; and about 60,000 turkeys and geese are annually exported, preserved in their fat. A considerable proportion of the ruffles used in *poiles de Péripord* come from this dep. There are some iron and coal mines, but both mining and manufacturing industry are little attended to. A few copper and iron forges, woollen, cotton, and linen cloth factories, paper-mills, and tanneries, are the chief manufacturing establishments: these, however, are so few, that the inhab. are usually supplied with cloths and leather in exchange for their wool and skins from the adjacent depts. There are nearly 1,000 flour-mills in the dep. Lot is divided into 3 arrondis.; chief towns, Cahors, the cap., Gourdon, and Figeac. It sends 5 mem. to the Ch. of Dep. Number of electors (1838-39), 1,365. Total public revenue, in 1831, 4,765,627 fr.; but the expenditure in the same year amounted to 5,060,508 fr. (*Hugo, art. Lot; Official Tables, &c.*)

LOT-ET-GARONNE, a dep. of France, reg. S.W., formerly included in Guienne; chiefly between lat. 44° and 44° 40' N., and long. 0° and 1° E., having N. Dordogne, W. and S.W. Gironde and Landes, S. Gers, and E. Tarn-et-Garonne and Lot. Length and breadth about 50 m. each; area, 530,711 hectares. Pop. (1846) 246,360. The surface is mostly level, with a slope to the W. The Garonne intersects the dep. from S.E. to N.W., and receives at its centre the Lot from the E. The banks of these rivers may be classed among the most productive portions of France; but 265,496 hectares consist of a chalky soil, and about one eighth part of the surface in the W. of the dep. is composed of *landes*, or sandy plains, sprinkled with marshes, analogous to those in the adjoining depts. of Gironde and Landes. According to the official returns, it comprised, in 1834, 286,100 hectares of arable land, 42,232 do. meadow, 99,249 do. vineyard, and 68,618 do. woods. The soil is principally agricultural. The corn grown exceeds what is required for home consumption: it is chiefly wheat and maize on the richer lands, and rye on the poorer. The produce of wine is estimated at about 650,000 hectolitres a year, of which nearly a half is exported. The N. part of the dep. produces about 40,000 hectol. a year of chestnuts, from 7,000 to 8,000 hect. of which are sent to Bordeaux and the neighbouring depts.; 2,030 hectares are occupied with tobacco, which produced in 1833 746,526 kilogs., valued at about 660,000 fr. Excellent hemp is grown. The gums of Agén are highly esteemed, and are exported to the value of 600,000 fr. a year: the dried figs of Clairac are also celebrated. On the *landes* are many *br* plantations, which furnish about 800,000 kilogs. of resin, and 300,000 kilogs. turpentine a year, besides pitch, deals, &c. The cork tree grows in a few communes, and its produce is valuable. Artificial pasture lands are rare. According to the official tables, there were in 1830 in this dep. 198,000 head of sheep, and 107,000 head of black cattle. Large flocks of geese are reared, especially near Agén; they are fattened on maize, and preserved in their fat. In 1835, of 123,858 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 51,246

were assessed under 5 fr., and 19,780 at from 5 to 10 fr. Mining industry is insignificant; but some iron ore is smelted by means of charcoal, there being no coal mine in the dep.: there are numerous distilleries. At Tonneins is a royal tobacco manufactory employing 400 workmen, who produce 400,000 kilograms of tobacco a year, for the supply of the neighbouring depts. At Nerc, Meslin, Barbaste, &c., are cork factories, which together may employ about 700 hands, and produce 130,000 metrical quintals of corks a year. At Agen is a large sail-cloth factory, with 300 looms, for the service of the French navy; and there are also extensive ropewalks. Lot-et-Garonne has also manufactures of woollen thread, serge, linen and cotton cloths, gloves, paper, starch, glass, and earthenware, besides tanneries, iron works, &c. The dep. is divided into 4 arrond.: chief towns, Agen, the cap., Marmande, Nerc, and Villeneuve d'Agen. It sends 5 mems. to the Ch. of Dep. No. of electors in 1838-39, 3,771. Total public revenue (1831), 7,241,527 fr.; expenditure in the same year, 6,034,709 fr. (*Hugo, art. Lot-et-Garonne; Official Tables.*)

LOTHIAN, an extensive, fertile, well cultivated, and rich district of Scotland, lying along the S. shore of the Frith of Forth. It is divided into the cos. of East Lothian, or Haddington; Mid Lothian, or Edinburgh; and West Lothian, or Linlithgow. We shall make a few observations on each of these, beginning with

1st. *East Lothian.* This, which, as its name implies, is the most easterly division of the Lothians, has the Frith of Forth on the N., the German Ocean on the E., Berwickshire on the S., and Mid Lothian on the W. It is of an elliptical shape, and contains 174,080 acres, of which about 4-6ths are capable of cultivation. The S. portion of the co. is occupied by the Lammermuir hills, which divide the co. from Berwick; but with this exception, it is mostly level, or merely undulating; and when viewed from the adjacent heights, appears like an extensive, rich, and beautiful plain, gradually sloping to the sea. The district along its E. coast, comprising about 30,000 acres, has a reddish, loamy, and very fertile soil: the soil gradually becomes more clayey as it recedes from the sea; and, except in the district now referred to, its general character is that of a clay bottom. The climate is comparatively dry and early; but the E. winds, in April and May, are often very severe. This is one of the best cultivated districts of the empire, and is remarkable for the intelligence and skill of its farmers, and their superior husbandry. The best farming is seen in the district along the E. coast, the soil being there adapted alike to the growth of turnips and of wheat. The turnip culture, indeed, is carried on here to a greater extent, on more correct principles, and with better success than in any other part of the empire. In the clayey lands, or those that have a wet, retentive subsoil, summer fallow is extensively practised, and is found to be the best foundation of a profitable system of cultivation. During the late war, when the prices of corn were so enormously high, the raising of corn in this co. was carried to an improper extent; and in many parts the land was unduly forced. But since then it has been better observed. The fattening of cattle of all kinds for the butcher is now an important part of the economy of every well conducted farm; and a greater extent of land is kept in grass, and for a longer period. Exclusive of the Lammermuir district, which is principally devoted to the breeding of sheep, the farms in the other parts of the co. extend from 60 acres up to 500 acres, or more, the average being about 250 acres. Every farm has a thrashing machine; and of these about 80 are driven by steam, 7 by wind, 30 by water, and the rest by horses. Rents are commonly fixed in corn, convertible into money at the *fair* prices of the co. Eight bushels of wheat may, perhaps, be taken as the average rent of the wheat lands of the district, which, taking the wheat at 6s. a bushel, will be equivalent to a money rent of 48s. an acre. In 1843 the average rental of the co. was 25s. 5d. an acre. Notwithstanding its present highly advanced and improved condition, agriculture was in an extremely backward and depressed state in this co. even so late as 1770. The land was then not half tilled; a rotation of crops was comparatively unknown; the stock and implements of husbandry were alike defective; much of the land was injured by the want of drainage; the binds, or farm labourers, were badly fed and badly clothed; and the ague regularly made its appearance in spring in every hamlet and village, and almost, indeed, in every house. The change in the interval has been most striking and beneficial. Even within the last dozen years many important improvements have been made, principally by the introduction of furrow draining and bone manure, a better rotation of crops, and a more efficient and skillful management. The farm houses and offices are excellent; but we are sorry to have to add, that while every thing else has been vastly improved, the cottages have not, in the majority of cases, been sensibly ameliorated, and their condition is discreditable alike to the farmers and the landlords. Except, however, as respects their lodging, the labourers are well off; and the binds, or farm

labourers, now receive each 24 bushels of oats a year more than they did previously to the commencement of the improvements. Estates of various sizes; some very valuable. There are about 7,500 acres of wood. The W. division of the co. has valuable beds of coal; and limestone is very generally diffused. If we except some considerable distilleries, manufactures are all but unknown. The Tyne, which flows through the centre of the co., is the only considerable stream. The co. sends 1 mem. to the H. of C.; and the bors. of Haddington, N. Berwick, and Dunbar, join with Lauder and Jedburgh in returning 1 mem. Registered electors for the co., 1849-50, 662. In 1841 E. Lothian had 8,010 inhab. houses, and 35,986 inhab., of whom 17,379 were males, and 18,607 females. Valued rent, 168,574*l.* Scotch. Annual value of real property in 1843, 258,742*l.* (*Robertson's Rural Recollections, passim; New Statistical Account of Scotland.*)

2. *Mid Lothian*, or Edinburghshire, has the Frith of Forth on the N., E. Lothian on the E., Roxburgh, Selkirk, Peebles, and Lanark on the S., and W. Lothian on the W. Area, 226,560 acres, of which about 2-3rds are supposed to be arable. In some parts, especially along its S. border, it is rugged and even mountainous; the ridge of the Pentland Hills, which approaches within a short distance of Edinburgh, divides its low grounds into two portions, that unite towards the sea. Soil for the most part clayey, and not in general very fertile. Agriculture similar to that of E. Lothian, but inferior; its details being also good deal modified by the demand of the capital for oil, butter, potatoes, &c. Improvements of all sorts have been prosecuted with great zeal and industry. In 1727, a small field of wheat, within a short distance from Edinburgh, was reckoned so extraordinary a phenomenon that persons came from a great distance to see it! (*Robertson's Recollections, p. 267.*) But, at present (1850), wheat is the principal object of the farmer's attention; and there may be from 20,000 to 22,000 acres under that crop. There are a considerable number of rather large estates; but property is, on the whole, pretty well divided. Average rent of land, in 1843, 31*l.* 7*sd.* an acre. There are large beds of coal in this co. For details as to its trade, manufactures, literary establishments, &c., the reader is referred to the articles Edinburgh and Leith. This co. has, exclusive of Edinburgh, 37 parishes: it returns 4 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 1 for the co., 3 for the city of Edinburgh, and 1 for Leith and Musselburgh. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 2,032. In 1841 Mid Lothian had 38,927 inhab. houses, and 122,454 inhab., of whom 109,666 were males, and 122,788 females. Valued rent 191,054*l.* Scotch. Annual value of real property in 1843, 1,074,992*l.*

3. *West Lothian*, or Linlithgowshire, the smallest of the divisions of Lothian, has the Frith of Forth on the N., Mid Lothian on the E. and S., and Lanark and Stirling on the W. It is of a triangular shape, and contains 76,800 acres, of which about 3-4ths are arable. Surface varied with knolls; there are, however, but few hills, and no mountains. In the S. part of the co. the ground is moorish, and there are some morasses; but elsewhere it is comparatively level. Agriculture similar to that of Mid Lothian, with this difference, that more turnips are raised and fewer potatoes. Estates large; farms of a middle size. Average rent of land, in 1843, 22*l.* 1*sd.* an acre. Coal is found in most parts of the co. Manufactures of no importance. W. Lothian is divided into 13 parishes: it sends 1 mem. to the H. of C. for the co.; and the bors. of Linlithgow and Queensferry join with others in returning representatives. Reg. electors for the co., in 1849-50, 524. In 1841 W. Lothian had 5,333 inhab. houses, and 25,872 inhab., of whom 12,797 were males, and 13,075 females. Valued rent, 75,019*l.* Scotch; annual value of real property, in 1843, 109,392*l.*

LOUDON, a town of France, dep. Vienne, cap. arrond., on a hill, 31 m. N. N. W. Poitiers. Pop., in 1846, *ex com.*, 4,071. It was formerly of considerable importance, and has still many large houses and wide streets; but its inhab. being principally Protestants, it suffered much from the revocation of the edict of Nantes, from the effect of which it has never recovered. It has an hospital, a theatre, the remains of an ancient castle, a tribunal of original jurisdiction, and manufactures of woollen cloth, lace, &c. (*Hugo, art. France.*)

This town is famous, or rather infamous, in the history of fanaticism for a judicial murder committed in it, in 1634, when a curate, of the name of Grandier, accused and convicted of sorcery and magic, was burnt alive! The unfortunate curate appears to have had but little respect for that rule of the E. Cath. religion which enjoins the celibacy of the clergy; and he is said, and we presume truly, to have practised his arts with most success on the nuns belonging to an Ursuline convent in the town. (*See Biographie Universelle, art. Grandier; Histoire des Diocèses de Loudon, passim, &c.*)

LOUGHBOROUGH, a market-town and par. of England, co. Leicester, hund. W. Goswote, near the left bank of the Soar, 10 m. N. Leicester, and 98 m. N. by W. London. Pop. of township in 1841, 10,025. It is a clean and respectable-looking town, with several streets lined

with modern brick houses, meeting the principal avenue on the great London road. The market-place, in which is the town-hall, was formerly narrow and confined, but has been recently laid open by the pulling down of the old market-house. The church, a large and handsome structure in the perpendicular style, has a lofty and well-proportioned tower: the living is a rectory (value 1,442), in the gift of Emanuel College, Cambridge. There are places of worship, likewise, for Presbyterians, Independents, Baptists, Unitarians, Wesleyan and Primitive Methodists, and the Society of Friends, connected with which are 7 Sunday schools, furnishing religious instruction to between 2,000 and 3,000 children of both sexes. Besides a well-endowed grammar-school, Loughborough has a charity-school for clothing and instructing 80 boys; a subscription-school, attended by 250 boys, and a school of industry with 108 girls. A dispensary and several charitable societies confer essential benefits on the poor, and there is also a large public library and news-room. Fleecy-hosiery and bobbin-lace are the chief branches of industry, the former occupying nearly 1,000 hands in the town and neighbourhood; several persons are employed in making cotton hose and gloves; there are many makers of machinery, and a considerable number of shoemakers, working for the London market. In 1839 there were two worsted mills, giving employment to 213 persons. The prosperity of the town has been increased by the facility of transit afforded by the Leicester Navigation and Loughborough Canal; and it has derived still greater benefit from the opening of the Midland Counties railway, which brings it within 4 hours' distance of the metropolis. Petty sessions every market-day. Loughborough is the election town and principal polling place for the N. division of the co. Markets on Thursday: large fairs for horses, cattle, and sheep, Feb. 14., March 28., April 25., Holy Thursday, Aug. 12., and Nov. 12.: cheese fairs, Mar. 24. and Sept. 30.

LOUGHREA, an inland town of Ireland, co. Galway, prov. Connaught, on Loughrea Lake, 21 m. E. by S. Galway. Pop., in 1841, 5,453, mostly R. Cath. The town, which was formerly fortified, consists of several irregular streets and lanes. The public buildings are—the par. church, the spire of which was thrown down by lightning in 1832, 3 R. Cath. chapels, several large schools, and a barrack. General sessions are held twice a year; petty sessions on Thursdays. It is a constabulary and revenue guard station. Markets on Thursday: fairs on Feb. 11., May 26., Aug. 20., and Dec. 5. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 668*l.*; in 1836, 824*l.* A branch of the National Bank was opened in 1836.

LOUIS (ST.), a town or city of the U. States of N. America, being, though not the cap., the principal place in the state of Missouri, and the cap. of the judicial district and co. of its own name; admirably situated on the Mississippi, 18 m. below the mouth of the Missouri, and nearly 200 m. above the mouth of the Ohio; lat. 38° 36' N., long. 89° 56' W. Pop., in 1830, only 5,552; but so extraordinary has been its progress in the interval, that it amounted, in 1843, to 63,491. It extends for 3 or 4 m. along the margin of the river, from which the ground rises by a gentle ascent to a level plateau, about 40 ft. above the level of the river. Fortifications were erected on this terrace at an early period in the history of St. Louis, but these have been removed to make way for the town's buildings; and their site is now in many parts occupied by streets and houses. In the older part of the town, by the brink of the river, which is the chief seat of trade, the streets are narrow and inconvenient; but of late they have been much improved. The more modern sections, on the high grounds, are laid out in broad avenues and streets, in which are most of the residences of the merchants and professional men. A few years since St. Louis was chiefly built of wood; but a large portion of these having been burnt down in a great fire in 1849, they are now being constructed of a kind of limestone found on the spot, which is soft when first quarried, but becomes very hard and durable after exposure to the air. Many of the warehouses in the lower town have 3 or 4 stories, and there are some large castellated private mansions.

St. Louis has a handsome Rom. Cath. cathedral, founded in 1681, 120 ft. in length, 81 ft. in breadth, with a tower 90 ft. high surmounted by a spire, &c. This edifice is of the Doric order, and is roofed with copper. It has several bells, cast in Normandy, one of which weighs 2,600 lbs., and some paintings, which are well spoken of, one of them being said to be by Paul Veronese. There are churches belonging to the Baptists, Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Methodists, Unitarians, &c., most of them large and commodious buildings. There is also an African church, under a black pastor. St. Louis R. C. university, founded and conducted by Jesuits, had, in 1848, 160 students. It is intended chiefly for the study of the classics and *belles-lettres*, but has also a medical department. Its library comprises 12,000 vols. St. Louis has a convent, an hospital, an orphan asylum, a

female charitable association, several primary and grammar schools, &c. Among the most ornamental public buildings are the court-house and market-house, with the town-hall above it. It has also two theatres. Nearly all the houses are supplied separately with water from a large reservoir. Vessels of the largest class come close up to the quays; and St. Louis has become the grand emporium of the countries on the Missouri and the Upper Mississippi. The value of the produce received at her quays in 1849 was estimated at 10,395,456 doll.; and it is not easy even to imagine what it is likely to be a few years hence, when the vast countries on the Missouri come to be settled. There belonged to the port on the 30th June, 1849, 32,335 tons shipping, mostly steamers. She is, also, the principal seat of the American fur trade, and of the overland trade with Mexico. The inhab. are now chiefly Americans; but till lately they were principally descendants of the French, by whom the city was founded, in 1764. (*Murray's Encyc. of Geog.*, American ed.; *Encyc. Americana*; *Hunt's Com. Mag.*, &c.)

LOUIS (St.), a town of Western Africa, and the cap. of the French possessions in Senegambia, on an island of its own name in the Senegal, about 7 m. from its mouth; lat. 16° 21' N., long. 16° 12' 44" W. Pop., in 1836, exc. garrison, 11,606, of whom 6,006 were slaves. It is laid out on a regular plan, nearly a mile in length, by about 300 yards broad. Fort St. Louis, with its esplanade, occupies the centre of the town; and from two of its opposite faces, a street is prolonged, and crossed at right angles by several others. The town has about 300 brick houses, half of which have only a ground floor, and the other half rarely more than an additional story; the other dwellings are mere huts of mud and straw. The chief public buildings are the governor's residence, the barracks, and the new hospital. The last is a superior edifice of its kind for a colony of such inferior rank, and has 123 beds, a number sufficient to accommodate the greatest average number of sick. There is good anchorage in the river on both sides the island, but especially in the E. channel, where ships may lie quite close to the quay. There are neither brooks nor ponds, but the town is in St. Louis; and the water for daily use, which has to be brought from the river, is brackish. St. Louis is the seat of a tribunal of primary jurisdiction and of commerce, and a council of appeal. It is also the residence of the apostolic prefect of the colony, and the chief officers of the colonial government. Boat-building and a little weaving are its principal branches of industry. (*Eng. art. Senegal*; *Dict. Geog.*)

LOUISBOURG. See **Cape Baston**.

LOUISIANA, one of the U. States of N. America, in the S. portion of the Union, between lat. 29° and 33° N., and long. 89° 40' and 94° 25' W., having N. Arkansas and Mississippi, E. the latter state, W. Texas, and S. and S. E. the Gulf of Mexico: length N. to S. 240 m., breadth varying from 100 to 210 m.; area estimated at 49,600 sq. m. Pop., in 1840, 352,411, of whom 168,452 were slaves. The surface, which is generally level, and slopes gradually towards the S., is traversed in its N. part by a few hill-ranges of inconsiderable height. Its shores, especially those of the delta of the Mississippi, are so very low that they are apt to be inundated by high spring tides. The delta, which comprises an alluvial flat of about 13,000 sq. m., is no where, indeed, raised much more than 10 ft. above the level of the gulph. Beyond the salt marshes and cypress swamps of the coast the land is heavily timbered; but most part of the interior, and the W. portions of the country, consist of immense prairies, generally without timber. In the N. W., and to the E. of the Mississippi, the surface is much broken, and covered with extensive pine forests. Besides the Mississippi (see that art.), which forms the E. boundary of Louisiana for 150 m., and traverses it for 220 m. more, the chief rivers are the Red River (which see), Washita, and Teche, tributaries of the former; the Atchafalaya and Sabine rivers fall separately into the Gulf of Mexico; and Pearl River, flowing to the Atlantic, forms part of the E. boundary of the state. Lakes of considerable size are numerous in the low country: that of Pontchartrain is 40 m. in length by 24 in breadth. Lakes Borgue, Pontchartrain, and Maurepas compose a continuous water communication, though navigable only for small vessels, being shallow, except in the centre. The coast has numerous bays and inlets, but owing to their insufficient depth, it has no good harbour. There is, however, a good roadstead on the W. side of the Chandeleur Islands, in which the larger vessels of the English fleet lay during the expedition against New Orleans. Besides Chandeleur, sundry islands are scattered along the coast, as Barataria, Thomas, St. Croix, Ascension, &c. It is rather a curious fact, that these islands are a good deal more elevated than the mainland, being from 30 to 100 ft. above the level of the sea: they are covered with dense forests, abounding with deer and game.

The soil of Louisiana is of every quality, from the

most productive to the most sterile. Some portions of the great alluvial plain, and of lands on the banks of the rivers, are as fertile as any in the Union; but the prairies consist for the most part of second-rate lands. The red colour of the soil on Red River, and some of the other streams, is owing to an admixture of oxide of iron, which, with salt, is very largely dispersed through it. Iron is found in the W. and coal in the N.; but, except these, the mineral products are insignificant.

Both heat and cold are experienced in a greater degree than in the other states in the same lat. The orange and sugar-cane, which are cultivated on the Atlantic coast as high as 32° 30' N., are not met with here much above the 31st deg. In the S. the winter is usually characterised by a short period of N.W. winds and white frosts at night; but in the N. and central parts sharp frosts and sometimes falls of snow, occur. In summer the climate of the N. is mild and comparatively healthy; while in the S. intense heats last for a long time, thunderstorms and hurricanes are frequent, and the yellow fever and other pestilential diseases are prevalent.

Cotton and sugar are the great staples of Louisiana: rice, maize, and tobacco come next in order; but the raising of these has been neglected for that of cotton, and the culture of indigo is now almost abandoned. The crop of cotton, which is of various kinds, is estimated to amount at present (1855) to 300,000 bbls. a year. It is raised principally in the N.E. part of the state. Sugar is the principal product as far N. as the 31st deg. of N. lat., except on the lands immediately adjacent to the Mississippi, which, being easily irrigated, are appropriated to rice. The cane, however, though more precarious, is raised still farther N., and its culture has latterly extended in the higher parts of the country. The crop for 1845-46 amounted to 186,550 hhd., but, at an average, it may be taken at about 160,000 hhd. Maize yields sometimes 70 bushels an acre, and barley and oats thrive pretty well; but the climate is not suitable for wheat and rye. The vine arrives at perfection, and many kinds of wild fruits are met with, but the apple does not succeed, and the cherry is wholly unproductive. (*Darby*.) Neither the palmetto nor the long-leaved pine, which grow in the other Atlantic states, are met with. Pine-tilmber is, however, an important article of export, and the pine-forests afford great quantities of pitch, tar, and turpentine. Some cotton is grown in different parts of the prairies, but these tracts are mostly appropriated to the breeding of large herds of cattle and horses. The sheep supply good mutton, but their wool is coarse. Vast herds of elk, deer, and buffaloes wander wild over the prairies on the banks of Sabine River. Louisiana is almost wholly an agricultural state, its manufactures being quite unimportant. The commerce of this state is wholly centred in New Orleans (which see). The exports to foreign parts amounted during the year ended the 30th of June, 1849, to 36,957,118 doll., being a larger amount than the exports from New York or any other state of the Union. But, in point of fact, only a comparatively small portion of these exports really belong to Louisiana; the far larger proportion being the produce of the states of Arkansas, Mississippi, Tennessee, Kentucky, Missouri, Illinois, and other states bordering on the Mississippi, sent to New Orleans for shipment. To facilitate internal water communication, various canals have been cut between the Mississippi and the lakes of the low country. Railways have also been completed from New Orleans to Lake Pontchartrain and Carrollton, and others of much greater extent are in progress.

Louisiana is subdivided into 2 great districts, — the E. and W.; the former comprising 22, and the latter 10 parishes, equal in point of extent to the counties in the other states. New Orleans is by far the most considerable town in the state, and is, indeed, one of the greatest emporiums, not of the Union merely, but of the New World. Baton Rouge, also on the Mississippi, is the seat of government. The latter is vested in a governor, with a salary of 6,000 dollars, a senate, and House of Representatives. The senate consists of 22 members, chosen every four years, each of whom must be resident in the district, and possessed of landed property of the value of 1,000 dollars. The House of Representatives consists of 96 members, chosen every two years, each of whom must be 21 years of age, and have landed property worth 500 dollars. The right of election is in every free, white, male citizen, who has resided in the county for which he claims to vote for the year next preceding the election, and has paid a state tax in the last six months. The members of the House of Representatives receive each four dollars a day during the session. The governor is chosen, by the joint ballot of both houses, for four years, and is ineligible to office during a similar succeeding term. The resolutions of 2-3ds of the members, in both houses of the legislature, become law without the concurrence of the governor. The legal code of Louisiana is a modification of the old French and Spanish laws, interwoven with those in force

in other parts of the Union. Justice is administered in a supreme court, circuit courts, and inferior tribunals, presided over by judges appointed by the governor, with consent of the senate, and who hold office during good behaviour. The judges of the supreme court have each 3,500, and those of the circuit courts 2,500 dollars a year. Education is not conducted on any uniform plan in this state; but it has a large extent of valuable reserved school lands, and three colleges, Louisiana College at Jackson, Franklin College at Opelousa, and Jefferson College, par. of St. James. To each of which the general assembly voted, in 1835, a grant of 15,000 dollars a year for 10 years, exclusive of 48,775 dollars to Jefferson College, to assist in payment of its buildings. In 1849, 550,000 dollars were appropriated for the support of the free public schools of the state, and 1,000 dollars for schools for coloured children. The debt of this state amounts to about 16,000,000 dollars, partly absolute, but principally contingent, that is depending on the returns of canals, railways, and other public works.

The region W. of the Mississippi was first explored by Europeans in 1512; but no effective settlement was made in it till about the end of the 17th century, when it was, in part, colonised by the French. The latter ceded it to Spain in 1763; but again recovered its possession in 1800. At that period, the whole territory, from the Gulf of Mexico to the river, and the range of N. lat., and through the Mississippi on the E. to the Rocky Mountains on the W., was comprised under the term Louisiana: and the whole of this immense territory, the possession of which was of such vast consequence to the United States, was purchased by them, in 1803, from France for 15,000,000 dollars. In 1804, the present state of Louisiana was constituted a territory under its existing limits; and, in 1812, it was admitted into the Union as an independent state. It sends 4 representatives to congress. (*Finis*) *Geog. of the U. States*; *Darby's View of the U. States*; *Murray's Encyc.*, American ed.; *American Almanack*, 1849, 1850.)

LOUISVILLE, a flourishing commercial town or city of the U. States, being the largest and most populous in Kentucky, cap. co. Jefferson; on the Ohio, above, but contiguous to the rapids, 50 m. W. Frankfort, and 85 m. S.W. Cincinnati. The pop., which in 1800 amounted to only 600, had in 1830 increased to 10,336, and in 1840 to 21,210. The town, which is in a picturesque situation, is regularly laid out. Three broad and well-paved streets, running parallel to the river, are intersected by others at right angles. The houses are compactly built of brick and stone, and, though generally of an ordinary description, many are in very good taste. In 1835, the chief public buildings were the court-house, gaol, 8 or 9 churches, a theatre, a free school, the U. States branch bank, the union-hall, an asylum for disabled boatmen, and some warehouses. The free-school, built in 1829, has accommodation for 700 or 800 pupils. A medical school has been recently instituted. There are also some excellent hotels, one of which, according to H. Mann, is equal to any in New York. (*Winter in the Far West*.)

Louisville has manufactures of cotton-yarn and stuff, woollen goods, cotton bagging, iron, cordage, hats, &c., in which steam-power is largely employed, and several type and brass foundries, tanneries, flour-mills, &c. The falls of the Ohio are no serious obstruction to navigation, at least when the river is full, the whole descent being only 22 ft. in 2 m. To avoid them, however, the Louisville and Portland canal has been excavated, in part through a solid ridge of limestone, to the depth of 19 ft. This canal is 2 m. in length, in some places 40 ft. deep, and of sufficient width to admit the largest class of steamers. There belonged to Louisville, on the 30th June, 1849, 13,956 tons shipping, being all, or mostly all, steamers. The commercial transactions of the town are very large; and it has, in fact, with the exception of New Orleans and St. Louis, a more extensive trade than any town in the western part of the Union. It was founded in 1780, and incorporated as a city in 1828. (*Stuart's Three Years in America*, i. 290-292.; *Hagmann's Memory*, &c.)

LOUTH, a marit. co. of Ireland, on its E. coast, being the most northerly in the prov. of Leinster, having E. the Irish Sea; N. Carlingford Bay, which separates it from Down and Armagh; and W. and S. Monaghan and Meath. Area, 206,261 acres, of which 14,916 are unimproved mountain and bog. Surface rugged in the N., but in other parts generally flat or undulating. Soil generally fertile. Estates of a medium size. Farms of all sizes, but the great majority small. Its crops, agriculture, &c., are similar to those of Meath, which see. Average rent of land, 37s. an acre. Minerals unimportant. The linen manufacture is carried on to a considerable extent, especially at Drogheda, but the business has materially declined. Principal rivers Boyne and Dee. Principal towns Drogheda, Dundalk, and Ardee. Louth is divided into 4 baronies, and 61 parishes; and sends 4 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 2 for the co., and 1

each for Drogheda and Dundalk. Registered electors for co., in 1849-50, 642. In 1841, it had 22,556 inhab. houses, and 128,340 inhab., of whom 62,597 were males, and 65,943 females.

LOUTH, a mun. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Lincoln, in the Wold div. of Louth-Eske hund., parts of Lindsey, 22 m. E.N.E. Lincoln, and 127 m. N. London. Pop. of bor., in 1841, 8,935. The town, agreeably situated in a fertile valley S.E. of the wolds of N. Lincoln, has of late been much improved, and is well paved and lighted with gas; it has several handsome, and a few elegant buildings, the houses generally being of brick, roofed with slate. The principal public buildings are the mansion-house, town-hall, sessions-house, and a small theatre. The church is a large Gothic structure, with a beautiful E. window, and one of the finest towers in the country, above which rises a light octagonal spire, to a height of 290 ft. from the ground. The living is a vicarage attached to a prebend, in Lincoln cathedral. A second par. church, once existing, is now destroyed; but its site is marked by the cemetery still used as a place of interment. A new district church has also been erected within the last few years. There is a Rom. Cath. chapel; and the Wesleyan and Primitive Methodists, Baptists and Independents have each places of worship; to which, as well as the church, are attached well-attended Sunday schools. The free grammar-school, founded in 1552 by Edw. VI., is endowed with landed property producing 700*l.* a year; the half going as salary to the master, the fourth to the usher, and the residue to the support of 13 poor women. A school, established in 1677, provides instruction in English and mathematics to 20 free boys, and 50 pay scholars. There is also a well-attended national school; and among the charitable institutions are almshouses, a dispensary, Benevolent Society, and Bible Society.

"Louth contains little or no manufacture, there being only one establishment of any importance, a carpet and blanket manufactory. The river Ludd flows round a considerable portion of the town: it is not navigable, but feeds a canal beginning at the N.E. extremity of Louth, and communicating with the Humber. It is in a very prosperous state: the principal traffic outwards is that of corn for London, and the W. riding of Yorkshire, the inland freight being chiefly coal, most of which comes down the Humber from York. There is a paper-mill and flour-mill on the river, in addition to wind-mills; and two other mills, one worked by steam, are employed in grinding bones." (*Mem. Bound. Rep.*) The town has also a soap-boiling establishment, and is famed for its excellent ale. Louth was incorporated in the 5th of Edward VI., whose charter was confirmed by other subsequent monarchs, and, lastly, by Geo. IV. Under the Municipal Reform Act, the bor. is divided into 2 wards, and is governed by a mayor, and 3 other aldermen, with 12 councillors; it has a commission of the peace under a recorder. Corporation revenues, in 1830, 1,240*l.* (exclusive of 183*l.* accruing from the sale of property). Louth is also one of the polling-places for the N. or Lindsey div. of the co., and the quarter-sessions for the co. are held here in Jan., July, and Oct., the April sessions being at Spilsby. Markets on Wed. and Sat.: considerable horse fairs, April 20., 2d Monday after Easter, Aug. 5., and a large cattle fair, Nov. 23. (*Mem. Corp. and Bound. Reports.*)

LOUVAIN (Dutch *Leuven*), a town of Belgium, and formerly one of the most populous and industrious in that country, prov. S. Brabant, cap. arrond. and cant., on the Dyle, a tributary of the Scheldt, and on the railway between Brussels and Liege, 14 m. E.N.E. the former; lat. 50° 53' 26" N., long. 4° 41' 46" E. Pop., in 1845, 25,694. It is partly surrounded by walls, and partly by an earth rampart from 80 to 100 ft. high, with a deep fosse outside, the total circuit of both being about 7 m.; a great part of the inclosed area consists, however, of fields and gardens. But its fortifications are now cut through by different roads, and are mostly converted into boulevards. The castle, now in ruins, on a hill near the Dyle, is of considerable, but uncertain, antiquity; it was long the residence of the counts of Louvain. The town, which, though regularly laid out, is not generally well built, has several interesting public edifices. The town-hall, begun in 1440, and completed about ten years afterwards, one of the finest specimens of the florid Gothic in Europe, has been recently repaired, or rather restored, with great skill, at the joint expense of the town and government. It is lofty, has six light and elegant minarets, and is most elaborately ornamented. The collegiate church of St. Peter, a curious old edifice probably of the 14th century, with some good paintings, has a finely carved pulpit, and had, formerly, a steeple, blown down in 1604, which is said to have been of the extraordinary height of 533 ft., with two magnificent lateral towers. The university of Louvain was founded by John IV. Duke of Brabant in 1289; but it was not till 1631 that it obtained the privilege of teaching theology,

for which it was afterwards so celebrated. It had, in the days of its prosperity, more than 40 colleges, some of which were established in halls that had previously belonged to the clothiers. This famous seminary, after being suppressed by the French in 1797, was re-established in 1817. It has at present 20 colleges, some of which are handsome buildings. Its library, originally the drapers' hall, is richly decorated with antique wooden carvings. Edward III. of England resided for a year, and the Emperor Charles V. was brought up, in the castle of Louvain. The town has 5 churches, 5 nunneries, 8 hospitals and charitable asylums, a royal college, and a college for ecclesiastics; and is the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a chamber of commerce and manufactures, a board of forest inspection, &c.

In the 14th century Louvain was one of the great seats of the woollen and linen manufacture, which supported, it is said, no fewer than 150,000 individuals within the city! (*Busching*) though this, most probably, is a gross exaggeration. But the manufacturers having revolted, in 1382, against the Duke of Brabant, many of them emigrated, on the revolt being suppressed, to foreign countries, and among others to England; where, being hospitably received by Edward III., they assisted in laying the foundations of the woollen manufacture. Louvain seems never to have recovered from this disaster. It has still some inconsiderable woollen fabrics; but it is now principally celebrated for its beer, said to be the best in Belgium. The different breweries produce about 200,000 barrels a year, a large proportion of which is sent to Antwerp and into Flanders. Louvain has also manufactures of lace and cotton yarn, and several dyeing and cotton-printing establishments, with tanneries, distilleries, and glass works, and numerous oil and flour mills. It is connected with the Demer near Mechlin by the canal of Louvain, navigable for vessels of 150 tons; and has a considerable trade in corn, clover seed, flax, hemp, &c., the produce of the surrounding country. Under the French it was included in the dep. of the Dyle. (See the *Dictionnaire de Martinière*, for an elaborate article on this city; see also *Busching*; *De Cloet*; *Murray's Handbook*, &c.)

LOUVIERS, a manufacturing town of France, dép. Eure, cap. arrond., on the Eure, and on the road from Rouen to Evreux, 12½ m. N. the latter, and 16 m. S.E. the former city. Pop. in 1845, 9,970. It consists of an old and new town; the former, consisting of three or four principal, united by many smaller streets, is built chiefly of wood; the latter, which is the residence of the principal manufacturers, has a broad and elegant main street, and many well-built brick and stone houses. The Eure, which is navigable from the Seine as far as Louviers, is here crossed by several good bridges. A large church, supposed to have been constructed during the early crusades, a hall built by the temple towards the end of the 12th century, a theatre, and a public library are the chief public buildings. Louviers was formerly a fortress of some strength; and portions of its wall still exist. It is now, however, distinguished wholly by its industry; and ranks as one of the first seats of the woollen manufacture of France. Fine broad cloths and woollen yarn are its chief products; but of late years, other fine woollen goods have been introduced. Cotton yarn, linen thread, soap, &c. are made; and there are many dyeing establishments, and bleaching grounds, tanneries, sugar refineries, and factories for looms and other machinery. The woollen manufacture in 1834 employed 6,000 hands; and, according to Berghaus, produced, in 1840, goods of the value of between 3,000,000 and 4,000,000 fr. The work-people, according to Villermé, are in pretty much the same condition as at Elbeuf; perhaps their wages are a little lower, but at any rate they are in a tolerably prosperous state, and of pretty correct general habits. In 1838, spinners earned from 1 fr. 69 c. to 3 fr. 58 c. a day; women, as winders, from 1 fr. 55 c. to 1 fr. 94 c.; and children *rattacheurs* (*drawers*), from 50 c. to 80 c. A family of three persons, one of each of the above classes, may gain together 1,600 fr. a year, or 64*l.*, certainly sufficient to maintain them in a state of comfort.

The peace between Philip Augustus and Richard I., in 1196, was concluded at Louviers. The town was taken and sacked by Edward III. and Henry V. (*Hugo*, art. *Eure*; *Villermé*; *Tableau des Ouvriers*, &c.)

LOWELL, a considerable and rapidly increasing town or city of Massachusetts, U. States, co. Middlesex, on the Merrimack, where it is joined by river Concord, considerably below Fawcett Falls, 24 m. N.W. Boston. The pop., which in 1830 was only 5,474, and, in 1845, reached 28,841! The rapid rise of Lowell is wholly owing to the great extension of its cotton manufactures. Though founded so late as 1813, it is now, next to Pittsburgh, the most important manufacturing town of the Union. Its situation is healthy and picturesque; it is well laid out, with wide streets, neat and often elegant houses, and numerous and well built public edifices. The Merrimack

affords an ample supply of water-power to the cotton and other mills. A canal, $1\frac{1}{2}$ m. in length, 60 ft. in width, and 8 ft. in depth, extends from the head of Pawtucket Falls to Concord River, whence water is conveyed by lateral canals to the different factories. This canal is the property of a company with a capital of 600,000 dollars, which owns a large establishment for the manufacture of machinery, and by which the mills at Lowell are usually built. Including this extensive factory, there were, in 1850, 80 mills at Lowell, mostly built of brick and from 4 to 7 stories in height, besides machine shops, print works, &c.; and 13 companies, with an aggregate cap. of 13,210,000 dollars, were engaged in the cotton manufacture. It was estimated in 1850, that 319,946 spindles, and 9,885 looms, were continually employed; that 106,500,000 yards of cotton cloth were annually produced, 1,022,350 yards woollen do., and 32,650,000 lbs. of raw cotton wrought up. The goods principally manufactured are of a coarse description, consisting of sheetings, shirtings, drillings, printed cloths, calicoes, negro cloth, &c. Great quantities of cotton yarn also are spun. Including machinery for mills and railway engines and cars, the annual value of the goods made in the mills of Lowell was estimated in 1850, at 18,000,000 dollars. Lowell has also a manufacture of gunpowder, glass, fannels, cards, whips, harness, carriages, boots and shoes, brass, copper, and iron wares, plating and reed machines, bleaching works, &c. employing about 1500 hands: 12,010 hands were employed in the cotton, &c. mills, in 1850, of whom 8,260 were females, and 3,744 males. The average wages, clear of board, are females, 2 dollars a week; males 4 dollars, 80 cents per do. A large proportion of the wages received by the workpeople is said to be paid into savings' banks, one of which had, in October, 1849, 799,351 dollars deposited. The morals of the weavers is affirmed to be equal to that of any portion of the community. A railroad 26 m. in length connects Lowell with Boston. Lowell was incorporated as a town in 1824, and erected into a city in 1835. Under the amended constitution of Massachusetts of 1840, it sends 9 members to the H. of Rep.

The progress which the cotton manufacture has made and is making at Lowell, appears to have led many persons to suppose that it is destined to become, at no distant period, a formidable rival to Manchester and Glasgow. But we are not of the number of those who entertain any such notion. The manufacture of Lowell and of America, in general, will necessarily, for very many years, be confined to the coarser fabrics, in which, indeed, most nations have long had the advantage over us; but it is visionary to suppose that they should, under existing circumstances, be able to come into competition with us in the production of the finer descriptions of goods. The wages of labour are higher in the U. States than here; and, which is of equal importance, machinery is also more expensive, and the profits of stock higher. In fact, the only advantage on the side of the Americans is the greater cheapness of the raw material; and this, in the case of Lowell, and, indeed, of New England generally, is next to nothing; for all the cotton used in its manufacture must be brought from the S. States; and we doubt whether the cost of conveying cotton from Charleston or New Orleans to Lowell be not quite as great as the cost of conveying it to Liverpool or Glasgow.

Our manufacturers may, therefore, be of good cheer. What they have really to fear is not foreign competition, but the spread of agitation and disturbance at home. So long as these are averted, foreign competition will, by whetting ingenuity, and making the manufacturers avail themselves to the full of our superior science and resources, be productive only of advantage. (*Hayward's New England Gaz.* 1839; *Pittkin's Statistics of the U. States*, pp. 529-530; *Mitchell's U. S. American Almanack* for 1841, &c.)

LOWESTOFF, or LOWESTOFT, a market-town, sea-port, and par. of England, E. coast co. Suffolk, hund. Melford and Lotheringham, 22 m. S.E. Norwich, and 104 m. N.N. London; lat. $52^{\circ} 39' 0''$ N. long. $10^{\circ} 45' 11''$ E. being the most easterly land in England. Area of par. 1,260 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4647. The town consists of one principal street, which has a gradual descent from N. to S.; and from this main avenue proceed several other streets towards the W.; but though well paved and lighted, they are narrow and irregular. In the market-place is a building open below, the upper part of which is used for assembly-rooms and other purposes; and there is a small theatre. The church is a handsome Gothic building, with a tower and steeple 138 ft. high, the living being a vicarage, in the gift of the Bishop of Norwich. There is also a chapel of ease; and the Independents, Baptists, and Wesl. Methodists, have each their places of worship, with attached Sunday-schools. A free-school furnishes instruction for 40 boys, and there is a good national school. A friendly and benevolent society, a lying-in charity, and dispensary, are the principal charities. Several handsome lodging-houses have been built for visitors coming here for

bathing in the summer months; and there are warm baths, reading-rooms, libraries, &c. At the S. end of Lowestoff is a battery, with 13 pieces of cannon, and two others are placed at the N. end, near which latter, on a high point of land, stands a round tower, the upper lighthouse (first built in 1676, and rebuilt in 1778). On the beach, below the cliff, is another lighthouse; and by keeping both in a line, vessels are directed safely through the sand banks, which render this coast especially dangerous. The harbour, or rather road, is defended on the E. by the Corton Sand; the channel between the latter being marked by a light vessel, and well buoyed. This, which till lately was little better than a little fishing town, engaged in preparing red-herrings for the London market, will probably rise to considerable commercial importance. Since 1827, an artificial harbour has been formed on a grand scale at Lowestoff, which communicates with the lake Lothering to the W. of the town; and then, by a short canal, with the Waveney, which is navigable to Beccles. Another canal joins the Waveney with the Yare, which has been rendered navigable for vessels drawing 10 ft. water as far as Norwich. Owing to the flatness of the ground, no locks, except the sea-lock at Lowestoff, are required on either line of navigation. This impeded communication must be of great service to the country which it intersects, and especially to Beccles and the city of Norwich, on which, indeed, it has conferred most of the advantages of a sea-port. (*Priestley on Canals, &c.*, 513.)

Still, however, the chief consequence of Lowestoff, as a port, is owing to its herring fisheries: the quantity of fish annually taken and cured is very large; while, at the same time, their quality is considered superior, and they fetch higher prices in the London market than those sent from Yarmouth. Sail-making, boat-building, and the manufacture of rope and twine, are extensively carried on; and several hands are employed in making barrels in which to pack the cured fish previous to their being sent to market or exported. Markets on Wednesday: fairs, May 13. Mich. Day, and Oct. 10.

The only historical celebrity of Lowestoff is derived from the fact, that on 2d June, 1665, a sanguinary naval engagement was fought off the coast between the English and Dutch, the fleet of the former being commanded by the Duke of York, afterwards James II.; and that of the latter by Admiral Opdam, who was killed in the battle.

LOXA, or LOJA, a town of Spain, in Andalusia, prov. Granada, on the Xenil, 26 m. W. Granada, and 93 m. E. by S. Seville. Pop., according to Mifano, 12,866. It stands on the S. side of a rocky gorge, by which the Xenil escapes from the fertile *vega* of Granada; and "its situation is peculiarly picturesque, the town being built on a steep acclivity, embosomed in groves of fruit trees, and overlooked by a towering mountain, forming one of the offsets of the Sierra Nevada." It contains a small and shabby parish church, with 3 hosts; and, on an eminence at its S. extremity, is a ruined Moorish castle, once of great strength and celebrity, but now the residence of a few hermits. "Loja is proverbially noted for the fertility of its gardens, olive-grounds, and orchards, the abundance and purity of its springs, and the loose and hard features of its rural inhab." (*Scott's Romaña and Granada*, li. 358, 359; *Mifano*.)

LOZERE, a dep. of France, reg. S., between lat. 44° and 45° N., and long. 8° and 4° E., having N. Hante-Loire and Cantal, W. the latter II., and Aveyron, S. Gard, and E. Gard and Ardeche. Length N.W. to S.E. 65 m.; greatest breadth nearly 50 m. Area, 514,795 hectares. Pop. (1846), 143,231. This dep. lies chiefly on the N.W. slope of the Cevennes, with the ramifications of which it is mostly covered. The surface varies from 3,500 to 5,000 ft. above the level of the sea; but its average elevation may be estimated at 2,900 ft. The dep. derives its name from the mountain Losere in the S.E., one of the principal summits of the Cevennes, 4,968 ft. in height. The range of Tarn, Ailier, and Gard, have their source within this dep., which is not, however, watered by any stream of magnitude. There are several small lakes, one of which appears to occupy the crater of an extinct volcano. The climate is cold; snow remains on the mountains during the greater part of the year, and fogs are frequent. The soil is mostly stony in the N. and S., and calcareous in the centre. In 1834, the surface is said to have been distributed as follows, viz. arable land 308,650 hectares, meadows 85,166 h., forests 44,569 h., and heaths, wastes, &c. 179,000 h. Agriculture is very backward, and little likely to improve, from the sterility of the soil, the remoteness of most parts of the dep. from great roads, the great subdivision of property, and smallness of the farms. Rye and wheat are raised, but not in sufficient quantities to supply the consumption. In the Cevennes potatoes are pretty extensively cultivated, and form, with chestnuts, the chief food of the inhabitants. About 80,000 hectolitres a year of inferior wine, and some oil and silk are produced; the sharp winds experienced in the dep. are,

however, unfavourable to the silk-worm. Hemp and flax succeed well; but the culture of madder and saffron has been abandoned. The mountain pastures are excellent, and feed many sheep: coarse woollens and serges are made in almost every peasant's family. In 1835, of 43,847 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, very nearly a half were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 6,635 at from 5 to 10 fr., only 7 properties being assessed at more than 1,000 fr., and 53 at from 500 to 1,000 fr. The dep. is said to be rich in mineral products, but the mines are but little attended to. Løssere is divided into 3 arrondis: 1. chief towns, Mende, the cap., Florac, and Marvejols. It sends 3 mems. to the Ch. of Dep. Number of electors in 1838-39, 712. Total public revenue in 1831, 2,566,376 fr.; expenditure in the same year, 1,777,870 fr. (*Hugo, art. Løssere; Of-ficial Tables, &c.*)

LUBECK, a city and republic of N. Germany: the city, which is the cap. of the Hanseatic towns, and the seat of their high court of appeal, is sit. on the Trave, about 10 m. (direct distance) from Travemünde, at its mouth in the gulph of Lubeck, in the Baltic, 36 m. N.E. Hamburg, and 38 m. S.E. Kiel; lat. 53° 52' N., long. 10° 41' E. Pop. in 1840, 28,329, of town and territory, 47,197. The town is built on a gentle ridge, on one side of which runs the Trave, and on the other the Wackenik. The environs are well wooded, and enlivened with cheerful villas, particularly those along the banks of the Trave. The streets, which are steep, are wider than those of Hamburg. The houses generally appear to be old, and mostly built of stone; like those of Hamburg and Antwerp, their gables end face the street. They are in general very lofty, 6 or 7 stories not being uncommon. Round the ramparts of the city, in which there are 3 handsome gates, is a promenade shaded with fine trees. The principal buildings are the cathedral, 4 churches, and the town hall. The cathedral is a curious old building, the spires of which being much out of the perpendicular, momentarily threaten to fall, which also is the case with the towers of St. Mary's and St. Peter's. The church of St. Mary is handsome in the interior, and well worthy a visit, were it only for the sake of the paintings, many of which are curious and of ancient date. Among them is the celebrated picture of the Descent of Death (usually attributed to Holbein, but which belonged to the town for at least 35 years before Holbein's birth). In the same edifice may be seen some fine specimens of sculpture, particularly a representation of the Lord's Supper, carved in white marble, finely designed and beautifully executed." (*Barrow's Excursions in the N. of Europe, p. 22-34.*) Behind the high altar is an old astronomical clock, constructed in 1405, which is the grand curiosity of the place. According to one of the guide-books, it exhibits at a certain hour figures representing the emperor and the seven German electors; but, according to Mr. Barrow, the figures are meant for the Twelve Apostles, who "at mid-day sally forth and march in regular succession, passing a figure of our Saviour, to whom they each face round, and having made a quick and familiar nod of the head, they then march onwards to a door on the opposite side, which closes upon them the moment the twelfth apostle has entered." (P. 34.)

The cathedral, begun in 1170, and finished in 1241, has many monuments of the senatorial families of Lubeck, some of which are well executed, and, among others, a remarkably curious old picture, by Hans Hemling, dated in 1471, the subject of which is the Passion of Christ, treated in 23 distinct groups. The town-hall, a turreted Gothic building, faces the market-place. It was the place of assembly for the deputies from the cities formerly comprised in the Hanseatic League; but the hall in which they held their meetings was unfortunately destroyed in 1817. Lubeck has a Calvinist and a R. Cath. church, an exchange, arsenal, and mint, several hospitals and benevolent institutions, a gymnasium, a city-school, which in 1832 taught 653 pupils, ecclesiastical and teachers' seminaries, schools of surgery, midwifery, navigation, drawing, swimming, and numerous other schools, a public library of 35,000 vols., a society of useful sciences and arts, a bible society, a house of correction and prison, a theatre for operas, &c.

Lubeck, though by no means so prosperous and important as formerly, is still a thriving commercial town. Many of its modern-built houses are on a grand scale. Their basement-stories are used as magazines or warehouses, and they have commonly large court-yards into which the carriages of the proprietors are driven. (*Barrow, p. 25.*) In Lubeck and its territory are numerous breweries, distilleries, iron forges, and linen yarn factories; besides manufactures of hats, vinegar, starch, tobacco and snuff, wax lights, paper and cards, musical instruments, with numerous oil and other mills, several printing establishments, and a few woolen, cotton, and golden and silver lace factories. Its trade is principally confined to the N. and W. of Europe. Berghaus states that upwards of 1,600 vessels a year enter and leave its port; they are principally Danish,

the rest being Russian, Swedish, Lubeck, Dutch, English, and Prussian. Lubeck communicates by means of the Trave and a canal with Hamburg (which see), with which it has an extensive intercourse. The principal article of export is corn: the principal articles of import are wines and silks, from France; cottons, hardware, and other manufactured goods, from England; colonial products, dye stuffs, &c. It has an extensive commission and transit trade, and considerable markets for wool, cattle, horses, &c. Vessels of considerable burden load and unload by means of lighters at Travemünde, at the mouth of the river, which is properly the port of Lubeck. Two steam-boats, of small draught of water, ply on the river between the city and its port. Steam-packets sail at fixed periods from the latter for Petersburg, Stockholm, and Copenhagen.

Lubeck has several fire and life insurance companies. Accounts are kept in marks of the value of 12. 2-67d. each, divided into 16 schellings of 12 pfennigs. The Lubeck *rix-dollar*, equivalent to 3 marks, is worth 4s. 6-72d. The lb. = about 18 oz. avoird.; 112 lbs. = 1 centner.

The territory subject to Lubeck consists of a district of about 100 m., immediately adjacent to the city, surrounded by the territories of Mecklenburg, Holstein, and Oldenburg, and the Baltic; of numerous small detached portions of surface enclosed by Holstein; and of the *Vierländer*, and town of Bergedorf, the sovereignty over which it shares with Hamburg. United area, about 127 sq. m. Pop., in 1845, 47,197, all Lutherans, except about 300 Calvinists, 400 Rom. Caths., and as many Jews. The land is very productive, yielding good crops of corn, fruit, and kitchen vegetables; but the rearing of live stock is the chief occupation of the rural pop. The government is vested in the senate and house of burghesses (*bürgerschaft*); the former consists of 4 burgo-masters, holding office for life, 2 syndics, and 16 councillors; and the latter of 12 colleges or companies, only 7 of which have, however, the privilege of voting. The house of burghesses has the initiative in all deliberations relative to the public expenditure, foreign treaties, &c.; the senate is entrusted chiefly with the executive duties, but its sanction is necessary to the passing of new laws. Public revenue, in 1850, 881,681 marks; expenditure about equal. In 1849 the public debt amounted to 5,606,578 marks; but it is, and has been, in process of reduction. Lubeck has one vote in the full council of the German Confederation, and along with the other Hanse Towns, a vote in the committee. It furnishes a contingent of 407 men to the army of the Confederation.

It is uncertain when or by whom this city was founded; but no doubt it existed as early as 1140. Early in the 12th century, the Emperor Frederick II. made it one of the free towns of the empire; and from 1560 to 1669, Lubeck was the repository of the archives of the powerful association of cities included in the Hanseatic League, and the station of the confederated fleet. The dissolution of the League marked the epoch of the decline of Lubeck. After the battle of Jena, Blücher threw himself into Lubeck, which, after a severe engagement, was taken by the French, and sacked. In 1810, it was made the cap. of an arrond. in the *dép. Bouches de l'Elbe*; but was restored to its rank, as a free city, by the Congress of Vienna in 1815. Sir Godfrey Kneller, the painter, Meibomius, the historian of the Christian religion, Meibomius, and H. Müller, were natives of Lubeck. (*Martinière, Dictionnaire Géographique; Berghaus; Allg. Länder, &c. iv. 486-489; Barrow's Excursions in the N. of Europe.*)

LUBLIN, a city of Russian Poland, cap. of the palatinate of Lublin, in a marshy situation, on the Bistrzya: a tributary of the Wieprz, 97 m. S.E. Warsaw. Pop. estimated at 16,500, half of whom are Jews. It is subdivided into the old and new town, the former situated on an eminence, and the latter on the right bank of the river. Lublin was fortified by a wall and ditch, till these works were destroyed in the civil wars towards the end of the 18th century. It has still, however, a citadel standing on a high rock, and, according to Stein, the ruins of a castle built by Casimir the Great. Its streets are irregular and filthy, and its houses mostly of wood. The principal edifices are a handsome town-hall, the Sobieski palace, the cathedral, the churches of the Dominicans and Carmelites, and that formerly belonging to the Jesuits. There are in all 16 churches and 19 convents, 6 nunneries, a specious synagogue, an episcopal seminary, a Friarist college, several civil and military hospitals, an orphan asylum, and a theatre. Lublin is a bishop's see, and the seat of the second court of appeal in Poland. It has manufactures of coarse woollens; considerable trade in woollen cloth, corn, and Hungarian wines; and three large yearly fairs, each lasting a month, and attended by German, Greek, Armenian, Arabian, Russian, Turkish, and other traders. (*Dict. Géog. p. 126, &c.*)

LUCCA (DUCHY OF), a state of Central Italy, being, excepting San Marino, the smallest of the Italian states, between lat. 43° 46' and 44° 14' N., and long. 10° 9' and

10° 42' E.; having (except a few small detached portions) N.W. and N. the territories of Modena and the Tuscan Lunigiana, E. and S. Tuscany, and W. the Mediterranean. Length (N. to S.) 26 m.; greatest breadth, 31 m. Area (incl. Montignone, &c.), 480 sq. m. Pop. (1839), 168,198. The Apennines skirt the N. part of the duchy, 2-3ds of which they cover with their ramifications; but none of these rise to the height of 4,000 ft. The rest of the surface is a low but fertile plain, which becomes marshy towards the coast. The general slope of the country is from N. to S., in which direction it is traversed by the Serchio near its centre. This river is not navigable, but is of great use for irrigation; most of the other streams in the duchy are its tributaries. Near the shore are some small lakes. The mean annual temperature is about 52° F. ab., in the summer it rises to 80°; in winter it rarely freezes in the plain of Lucca. The soil, which is calcareous and stony in the N., is sandy in the S., and rich in the intermediate region. The pop. is chiefly agricultural, but the corn produced is not sufficient for home consumption; the deficiency being principally supplied by beans, which are largely cultivated, and partly, also, in the mountainous districts, by chestnut flour. The latter is sometimes exported to the neighbouring states, the price varying from 6s. 8d. to 10s. a sack. The culture is extending, and all the arts and occupations of which the soil and climate afford facilities. The number of mulberry trees has rapidly increased since the peace, and the manufacture of olive oil has been materially improved. The latter is esteemed the best in Italy, and fetches the highest price, especially that grown on high grounds. It is exported to the value of about 32,000*l.* a year; the market price being from 4*d.* to 5*d.* the Lucca pound of 12 oz. Wine is said to give a fair return to the cultivator; hemp and flax are raised, and the produce of silk is very considerable. Lucca, in fact, was early distinguished by her proficiency in the silk manufacture; and in 1319 the culture of the mulberry became an object of public attention. Rice is grown near the coast, in which neighbourhood also most of the cattle in the duchy are reared. There are nearly 25,000 landed proprietors, of whom a large part have necessarily very small properties, and belong to the class of agricultural or manufacturing labourers. The principal causes which have led to this subdivision of the land, as well as to the rapid increase and great density of the pop., appear to be the division of leasehold property equally among the males of a family, the suppression of monasteries, and the abolition of entails.

The *métayer* system of agriculture is not so prevalent here as in Tuscany and elsewhere; but Sismondi represents the peasantry of Lucca as being, notwithstanding, in a very depressed condition. "Every day the husbandman is reduced to buy the day's provision. Very rarely has he a reserve of corn; still more rarely, of oil or wine. The former has been sold in the press, and the latter in the tub. He has rarely any provision of salt meat, butter, cheese, or vegetables. All the kitchen utensils are of earthenware; and the whole furniture consists of a table and some wooden chairs, one or two chests, and an indifferent bedstead, on which the father and mother sleep, with their feet in one direction, and the children with their feet against the head-board. When the division under General Viatrain ravaged the districts of the Val di Nievola, in 1799, the peasantry derived this advantage from their indigence, that when they had conceded their estates, and the gold trinkets of their women, they had scarcely any thing left to lose." (Sismondi, *Tableaux de l'Agric. Toscane*, &c., pp. 213, 214.) But, according to Dr. Bowring, this statement must be either too highly coloured, or the condition of the peasantry must have improved in the interval; for he affirms that the labourers, in addition to articles of prime necessity, consume salt provisions, and sometimes fresh meat and colonial products. The ordinary wages of country labourers vary from 6*d.* to 6*d.* a day, with food; farm labourers, who dwell with their masters, get from 4*s.* to 5*s.* ft. a year. The mountaineers, who depend almost entirely upon the culture of the chestnut, are said to be in a better condition than the peasantry of the hills and plains. The inhabitants of the districts of Pontito and Scelappa are in particular distinguished by their robust and healthy appearance, and by the beautiful complexion and regular features of the women. This last circumstance is the more remarkable, as, during a great part of the year, these women have to bear the whole burden of domestic labour; while their husbands, fathers, and brothers emigrate to the Tuscan maremme, and the States of the Church, in search of harvest and other work. During winter, about 2,600 labourers set out for these territories, Corsica, &c.; and return in summer, bringing with them their small savings, the aggregate of which may amount to 10,000*l.* Most of the Italian image and plaster cast-makers, in other countries of Europe, are emigrants from Lucca. Mining is little or not at all pursued, though

copper, iron, and lead ores are met with. Statuary marble, and other fine marbles, are found in great abundance. From 5,000 to 6,000 hands are employed in the manufacture of silk, wool, and cotton; and there are in the duchy about 30 paper factories, and others of linen cloth, straw and beaver hats, leather, glass, and iron goods. The capital is the chief seat of manufacturing industry.

The value of the exports amounts to about 4 million *fr.* a year, more than 1-4th part of which is derived from oil and silk. These articles go chiefly to other parts of Italy, and to France, England, and the Levant. Grain, seeds, wine, liqueurs, live stock, lamb-skins, and fresh fish, are sent to Tuscany; and woollen goods to the rest of Italy and the Levant. The imports, which mostly come from Tuscany through Leghorn, consist principally of grain, seeds, rice, fine wines, hemp, flax, cotton, colonial products, salted provisions, pig-iron, &c. British cotton woollen and linen fabrics pay an import duty of 10 per cent. *ad valorem*, cotton twist pays 3 lire, pig and bar iron, 5 lire 15 soldi, and glass wares, 6 lire per 100 lbs. The importation of tobacco and salt is prohibited, except on account of government, which has a monopoly of those articles. The lb. (libra) of Lucca is somewhat less than the lb. Troy; the peso grosso=11 lbs.; the copo of oil=34 pest grossi, the stajo of corn=54 copo grossi. Accounts are kept in lire of 20 soldi, and 240 danari. The lira=7*d.*; the scudo=4*s.* 5*d.*; the gold doubloon or pistole=1*4s.* 5*d.* English. Lucca has only one seaport, Viareggio.

The government is a limited monarchy, under a duke, who exercises the executive power, nominates the ministers, and all other public officers, &c. But an estimate of the amount of the public expenditure is annually laid before the senate, and must be sanctioned by it. This body consists of 35 mems., elected from among the four classes of merchants, artisans, scholars, and landed proprietors, called together by the duke for at least a month every year; and without its consent no tax or other public burden can be imposed. The council of state consists of the 2 state ministers and 6 additional councillors. Justice is administered by a local commissioner in each commune; and a tribunal of original jurisdiction, a civil and criminal court of appeal, and a court of cassation in the cap. A permanent senate, as a court of revision, sit to decide in military causes. The military force comprises about 750 men, costing about 10,800*l.* a year. The naval force consists of only a goelette of 12 guns, and 3 gun-boats. The regular and secular clergy amount together to about 1,900 persons, under the archbishop of Lucca. There are about 190 communal and other public and private schools, educating 3,000 pupils, or 1 in 53 of the pop. The principal establishments of this kind are the college of Charles Louis, with 140 students, the archbishop's seminary, the ducal lyceum with 300 students, and the conservatory of *Le Conti* (Chiusi) with 40 female scholars. There are some extensive charitable institutions, costing the state annually about 12,500*l.* The public revenue and expenditure are about 83,000*l.* a year each. The civil list costs about 25,300*l.* Lucca has no public debt, except that due for pensions, &c.

Lucca, like the rest of Italy, experienced many changes in the middle ages. The cap. attained its liberty after the decease of the Countess Matilda, in 1115, when it became an independent republic. In the next century it again fell under feudal authority, and afterwards belonged successively to Louis the Bavarian, and to noble Genesee, Parmesan, Veronese, and Florentine families. In 1370, it again obtained its liberty, by purchase, from the emperor Charles IV., for 100,000 crowns; and from that date to 1805, it was governed by its own *gonfalonieri*. Napoleon united Lucca with Piombino in a principality; the congress of Vienna, in 1814, erected it into a duchy. But in virtue of arrangements consequent on the death, in 1847, of the Archduchess Maria Louisa, the greater part of Lucca has been added to Tuscany, and the rest to Modena.

LUCCA (anc. *Luce*), a city of Italy, cap. of the above duchy, in a plain near the left bank of the Serchio, 11 m. N. E. Pisa, and 28 m. W. Florence; lat 43° 50' 49" N., long. 10° 30' 40" E. Pop. in 1839, 24,092. The city is surrounded with walls; which would form, however, but a very feeble defence against an enemy. The towers of the churches, rising above the ramparts, have a fine effect in the rich and beautiful landscape, the view being bounded by vine-clad hills spotted with villas, over which tower the craggy Apennines. On a nearer inspection, the public buildings are less pleasing in their architecture than in their distant effect; yet many of them are very curious structures. According to Mr. Woods, "The churches are all, more or less, imitations of the cathedral at Pisa; smaller, indeed, in size, but some of them are decidedly superior in the proportion and disposition of the parts." (*Letters of an Architect*, ii. 410.) Most of the churches are built of Carrara marble. The cathedral, mostly constructed in the 11th century, has much carved, inlaid, and mosaic work; a rich display of

stained glass; a Madonna, by Fra Bartolommeo, and some pictures of the Venetian school. The churches of San Michele, and San Frediano are both ancient. The latter belonged to a monastery restored and enriched towards the close of the 7th century. Frequent notices, both of the monastery and the church, occur in the succeeding centuries, but nothing, it is said, indicates that the latter has been ever rebuilt, or materially altered. Its curious architecture is described by Woods, *ib.* 411. The dual palace is a large structure, the exterior of which presents nothing remarkable; but its interior is superbly furnished with articles of Lucena manufacture, the ceilings and walls being also adorned with frescoes by Lucenese artists. The *Palazzo Pubblico*, the residence of the *gonfaloniere*, in the days of the republic, is described by Forsyth as an immense and august edifice, which makes the city round it look little. There is a small, but handsome theatre. Lucena is generally well built: many of the private houses are very good, though their pointed roofs, gable ends, &c. give it the aspect rather of a Flemish than an Italian city. The streets, though crooked, are broad and well-paved; and the ramparts, planted with trees, form pleasing promenades. It has several colleges, a seminary, founded by Eliza, Princess Bacciocchi, sister of Napoleon, for 100 young ladies, a botanic garden, a dual library with 31,000 vols., a university library with 16,000 vols., a *depot des mendicants*, a *moulin à pitié*, and a savings' bank. Forsyth, who visited this city in 1802, speaks of it as sickly, dull, and gloomy; it enjoys, however, the title of *Favutius*, and is one of the principal inland commercial towns in Italy. Its manufactures mostly consist of silk and woollen fabrics. The usual wages paid to men vary from 1 to 2 fr. a day; women and boys earn about $\frac{1}{2}$ fr. a day. The city has also a considerable trade in olive oil, &c. About 13 or 12 m. up the valley of the Serchio are the baths of Lucena, picturesquely situated, and frequented by numerous visitors. The temperature of the hottest spring is about 180° F. Lucena was colonised by the Romans A. D. c. 578. It was a municipal town, and frequently the head quarters of Cæsar, during his command in Gaul. Traces of a Roman amphitheatre are still discoverable. This city was taken by the French in 1793; and, in 1805, Napoleon made it the cap. of a principality he erected for his sister's husband, Bacciocchi. (*Hampoldt*; Woods; Forsyth; *Cramer's Anc. Italy*, i. 178.)

LUCENA (an. *Elitana*), a town of Spain, in Andalusia, prov. Cordova, 31 m. S.E. of Cordova, and 52 m. E. Seville. Pop., according to Mifano, 19,716. It stands on the slope and at the foot of a hill, comprising some respectable streets, lined with good houses; two squares, and agreeable suburbs. The neighbourhood is distinguished for the abundance of its produce in fruit and grain, which chiefly contributes to the support of the pop.; but the processes of tillage are of the rudest description, and the resources of the soil are little tried.

LUCERA (an. *Luceria*), a city of S. Italy, Neapol. dom. prov. Capitanata, cap. canton, on a height abrupt towards its N. side, 12 m. W.N.W. Foggia. "The city contains 12,000 inhab., apparently in easy circumstances. The houses, which are not built generally good, but the streets are narrow, ill-paved, and dirty. Some ancient walls, in very bad condition, inclose it; and 5 gateways open from them to an outward road, which winds entirely round the town. A few gardens and convents are scattered about, and these, with some olive plantations and vineyards, in which the natives have small country houses, contribute greatly to enliven and diversify the prospect. The vines are trained low; and supply the proprietors with a good strong white wine, and a still stronger, but less pleasing red one." (*Cresca*, 46.) About 1 m. from the city, on the edge of the same eminence, is the Castle of Lucera, ruin of Gothic fortress, erected by the emperor, Frederick II. The extent of its walls would almost lead to the belief that they surround a second city; but they at present encircle only an empty area, overgrown with grass. Craven believes that there can be no doubt, from the Roman inscriptions, and pieces of sculpture found within the area of this building, that its situation is identical with that of the citadel of the anc. *Luceria*, taken by the Samnites after the defeat of the Romans at the Caudine Forks, and afterwards re-taken by the Papirians. (*Town of the S. Pross.* of Naples, 38.) This castle is a very conspicuous object; it has a deep moat, a drawbridge, 3 large round towers, one supporting the telegraph which communicates with Foggia, and the other a piece of masonry, built with consummate skill; in the interior of its area are traces of extensive cisterns. The cathedral of Lucera was formerly a Saracenic mosque, and preserves, on the exterior, some marks of its origin. It has a pulpit adorned with that kind of Byzantine mosaic, of which the cathedral of Salerno offers no less a specimen; but its principal ornaments are 12 beautiful pillars of verd antique originally found under the cathedral itself, and supposed to have belonged to

a temple of Apollo: the capitals are modern. Facing this church is the bishop's palace, considered the finest piece of architecture in Apulia. The tribunal and other public edifices, render the appearance of this part of the city somewhat imposing. The *Trisennale* includes the criminal and civil courts for the prov., the register-office, the notarial chamber, the residences of the president and judges, and the public prisons. Lucera has a royal college, and an extensive private collection of coins, medals, and antiquities. Great numbers of cattle are kept in its neighbourhood; and its cheese is held in great repute.

Lucera is said to have been founded by Diomed, and was the cap. of Daunia under the Greeks; it afterwards became a Roman colony. Having fallen into decay, it was renovated in 1239, by Frederick II., who transported thither a colony of Saracens from Sicily, to whom he gave great privileges. In 1369, however, Charles of Anjou expelled from the Neapolitan dominions such Moors as refused to embrace Christianity, and converted the mosque of Lucera into a church. Numerous antiquities of various ages have been discovered in and about Lucera. (*Cresca's Tour*, &c., pp. 48—51.; *Swinhurne*, i. 137—160.; *Cramer's Ancient Italy*, ii. 286, &c.)

LUCERNE (CANTON OF), a canton of Switzerland, ranking third in the Confederation, between lat. 46° 47' and 47° 17' N., and long. 7° 50' and 8° 29' E.; having N. Solothurn and Aargau, E. Zug, Schwyz, and Unterwalden, and S. and W. Bern: length N.E. and S.W. 36 m., breadth varying from 8 to 20 m.; area 887 sq. m. Pop., in 1850, 123,546, all R. Catholics, except about 1,570 Calvinists. The surface in the N. is generally plain, undulating in the centre, and rising gradually towards the S., where are several mountain-ranges of considerable height. The principal of these is M. Pilate, between Lucerne and Unterwalden, its highest summit, the Tomlihorn being estimated at 7,198 ft. above the level of the sea. The S. and E. parts of the canton are watered by the Reuss and Little Emmen; the other rivers are the Wigler, Sur, Limon, &c., all having a N. course, and joining the Aar in Aargau. The Lake of Lucerne (which see) forms part of its E. boundary, and the cant. comprises several small lakes, as that of Sempach, 4 m. in length, and memorable for the battle fought on its banks 9 July, 1386 (see *Sempach*), those of Baldegg, 3 m. in length, Mäuen, &c. The climate is mild, and the soil more favourable to agriculture than that of most of the neighbouring cantons. According to Ebel, more corn is grown than is required for home consumption. Inglis, however, affirms that the surplus is very trifling, and that the greater part of the grain brought to the corn-market in the town of Lucerne comes from the canton of Aargau. "I have never seen," says he, "any where more abundant crops than are produced in Lucerne, where time and industry are bestowed upon the lands. In no part of Switzerland might the inhab. be more at their ease than in this canton; and yet there is not a commune in which paupers are not to be found." Industry is not nearly so active as in the neighbouring cantons of Bern and Zurich. The vine flourishes in some parts, fruit is plentiful, and wine and cider are produced; but the chief occupations of the people are cattle breeding, and dairy-husbandry. The Emmenthal, or valley of the Emme, about 25 m. in length, affords pasturage for about 7,000 head of cattle, and 11,000 sheep and goats: the inhab. make large quantities of cheese, which, though not so good as that of the Emmenthal in Bern, is exported as the produce of the latter district. The inhab. of this valley are remarkable for their vigour, intelligence, and independent spirit, and are usually richer than those of the rest of the canton; but they are neither so well clothed nor have such neat cottages as the peasantry of the Emmenthal. (*Cresca's Letters on Switzerland*, lett. 22.) Traces of various metals, coal, &c., are to be found in the cant. but the mines are wrought. Manufacturing industry is unimportant, and is mostly confined to domestic linen weaving and spinning. The inhab. are more occupied in the transit trade from N. Switzerland across the St. Gothard, than in any commercial dealings of their own.

The government is vested in the Council of One Hundred, 50 of whose members are chosen from among the citizens of the cap., and 50 from the inhab. of other parts of the canton. The 18 arrondissements into which the cant. is subdivided, and the three municipalities of Sursee, Sempach, and Villigen, send 1 mem. each to the council, and the remaining 29 mem. from the rural districts, are chosen by the council itself. The council also nominates 40 of the depts. from the town of Lucerne, the remaining 10 being sent by that municipality. The right of election belongs to every native (bourgeois) of the canton 30 years of age, having property to the amount of 400 fr., and who has not been penally condemned, or is bankrupt. Members of the council must be 25 years of age, and pay taxes on property to the amount of 4,000 fr., or have rendered important services to the state. A body of 35 members, 30 years of age, is chosen from among the council, and residing office for life, forms the senate, to which is confided all the executive power. The council

meets regularly three times a year, but may be convoked oftener, at the pleasure of the senate. Two *avogers*, or presidents, are chosen annually from among the senate, by the council, one to preside at the council and the other in the court of appeal. The latter tribunal is composed of 13 *legals*, chosen from the senate, and has authority in all legal causes, except in cases of capital punishment, when the senate is assembled to pronounce judgment. The council of state for the Swiss Confederation is chosen from among the senate, when Lucerne has the directoral power, which occurs once every three years. In ecclesiastical matters, Lucerne is subordinate to the bishop of Basle; but being at the head of the Rom. Cath. cantons of Switzerland, it was the permanent residence of the papal nuncio till 1835, when, in consequence of a dispute with the government, the nuncio removed into the canton of Schwytz. Public instruction is under the direction of a commission of senators: it has been till lately indifferently conducted, but is improving. The public revenue amounted in 1832 to 366,189 Swiss fr., the public expenditure to 359,283 fr. A contingent of 1,734 troops is furnished to the army of the Confederacy, and 26,000 Swiss fr. money.

LUCERNE, a town of Switzerland, cap. of the above canton, and one of the three seats of the Swiss diet, on both sides the Reuss, where it issues from the W. extremity of the lake of Lucerne, 35 m. S. S. W. Zurich, and 43 m. E. N. E. Berne. Lat. $47^{\circ} 3' 27''$, long. $8^{\circ} 18' 35''$ E. Pop. 7,600. Its situation is highly picturesque, and its environs abound with pleasant promenades. The town is surrounded by a circle of watchtowers, and on the land side is inclosed by a continuous wall. It is pretty well built, and has several fine public edifices. The cathedral, founded in 696 (*Ebel*), has a painting of Christ on the Mount of Olives, by Lanfranc, and an organ with nearly 3,000 pipes. The churches of St. Peter and the Jesuits are handsome buildings; and there are several convents, that of the Jesuits has, however, been happily converted into a lyceum. The most remarkable objects in Lucerne are the 4 bridges over the Reuss, connecting the great and little towns. Some of these are of considerable length; all of them are covered and ornamented with pictures illustrative of Swiss and Scripture history, or copied from the "Dance of Death." The town-hall, where the diet and cantonal council meet, erected in 1606, is, though small, a handsome building. In the arsenal are several suits of ancient armour, including the coat of mail worn by Leopold of Austria, killed at the battle of Sempach. Lucerne has 2 hospitals, an orphan asylum, a mint, a jail, a theatre, public libraries belonging to the town, the Jesuits, Cordeliers, Capuchins, &c., and a lyceum, with 14 professors of theology, law, natural and moral philosophy, history, mathematics, and the fine arts. Attached to the lyceum is a large public school. "Into this school every child until the age of 12 is admitted, upon payment of 6 francs a year, and is taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and the first principles of Latin; and this privilege of acquiring, in early years, the rudiments of learning, is not confined to the city of Lucerne, nor even to the canton; persons may claim admittance from any other of the Swiss cantons, and even from foreign countries. The college and the school are one establishment; and every one who has received his education in the school is immediately received as a pupil of the college, and pays nothing for his instruction there. The original fund for this establishment amounted to 400,000 fr., but has subsequently been greatly increased by donations." (*Anglia*, 116, 117.) The institutions for the intellectual and moral improvement of the inhab. are on a scale of great liberality, though education be far from being widely diffused either in the city or the canton generally. In the town is the celebrated model in relief of Switzerland, made by General Pflyffer; and in the Pflyffer Garden, outside the walls, is a monument, from a design by Thorwaldsen, to commemorate the Swiss guards who fell at Paris in the memorable attack on the Tuilleries, on the 10th of August, 1792. "It represents a lion of colossal size, wounded to death, with a spear sticking in his side, yet endeavouring with his last gasp to protect from injury a shield bearing the fleur-de-lis of the Bourbons, which he holds in his paws. The figure, hewn out of the sandstone rock, is 23 ft. long, and 18 ft. high, and its execution (which is by Ahorn of Constance) merits great praise." (*Murray's Handbook*.) The weekly corn market held here is one of the most extensive in Switzerland. Lucerne has a casino and a theatre open in winter. Dancing is prohibited by the authorities, except during the last three days of the carnival and on a few other special occasions. This prohibition is strictly enforced in Zurich; but it appears less absurd there than in a Catholic canton.

The city of Lucerne was given by Pepin in 768 to the abbots of Murbach in Alsace; to whom it belonged till towards the end of the 13th century, when it was sold to the House of Hapsburg. But in 1332, the citizens, impatient of the Austrian yoke, rebelled, and joined the

three primitive cantons of the Swiss Confederacy. In less than 30 years they conquered the territory which now forms the canton. The town was taken by the French May 1, 1798, and was for eight months the cap. of the Helvetic government.

LUCERNE (LAKE OF) (Germ. *Waldstätter See*, or the Lake of the Four Forest Cantons), a lake of Switzerland, in nearly the centre of that country, between the cantons of Lucerne on the W., Schwytz N., Uri E., and Unterwalden S. It is the largest and decidedly the finest lake in the interior of Switzerland, and one of the most picturesque in Europe. It is of a singular cruciform shape, with an addition to its E. end, termed the Lake of Uri. Its greatest length is about 35 m.; but the breadth of any of its arms is seldom more than 2 or 3 m. Area estimated at 43 sq. m.; height of its surface above the level of the sea, 1,380 ft.; depth varying from 300 ft. near Lucerne to 900 ft. near its E. end. The Reuss traverses this lake in its entire length, emerging from it near its W. extremity. Its banks exhibit every gradation of scenery, from a gently rising and fertile country at its W. end, to rugged and savage sublimity on the Lake of Uri. Its E. and S. parts are surrounded by mountains rising to many thousand feet above the sea, the chief of which are Mounts Pilate and Righi. Its shores abound in localities memorable in early Swiss history. At the N. extremity of what is called the Lake of Uri is the little town of Brunnen, where, in 1315, a treaty was entered into by Uri, Schwytz, and Unterwalden, which gave birth to the Helvetic Confederacy. Like all mountain lakes, it is subject to violent tempests; and in consequence of the different positions of its different arms, and the influence of the surrounding mountains, different winds seem to prevail in different parts of its extent at the same time. A steam-boat plies 8 times a week in summer, and 4 times at other seasons, between Lucerne at its W. and Frieslen at its E. extremity, calling at the intermediate ports. (*Ebel's Voyageur en Suisse*, 368-381; *Picot's Statist. de la Suisse*, 313-323; *Cone's Switzerland*; *Anglia's Switzerland*, &c.)

LUCIA (ST.), one of the British W. India islands, belonging to the Windward group; in lat 14° N., and long. 61° W., about 90 m. N. N. E. St. Vincent, and 25 m. S. Martinique. It is of an oblong shape, being nearly 52 m. in length by about 12 m. in its greatest breadth. Its area has been differently estimated, but may amount to about 300 sq. m. Its population, last census, 23,045, of whom only 1,109 were whites. The central and E. parts of the island are occupied by the table-land, called Capisterre; the W. part, which has a much less elevation, is called Basseterre. These two districts differ widely in physical aspect; but each, in an eminent degree, is subject to the operation of those agencies which are supposed to exert a baneful influence on the health of Europeans in tropical climates. St. Lucia has, in fact, always been noted for its unhealthiness. At an average of the 20 years, ending with 1856, the annual deaths amounted to upwards of 122 per thousand of the white, and 43 per thousand of the black troops.

"Basseterre, the best cultivated portion of the island, abounds in swamps and marshes. Capisterre consists of a succession of abrupt mountains of the most picturesque and fantastic shapes, covered to the summit with forest trees and dense underwood, and intersected by numerous ravines, which, being too narrow to admit of free ventilation, are at all times replete with moisture, and choked up with decayed vegetation in every stage of decomposition. "The climate is principally characterised by extreme moisture and variability. During several months, but particularly in Oct. and Nov., rain is incessant and showers are frequent for at least 9 months of the year. Cool dry weather generally sets in about Christmas, and continues 3 or 4 months, at which time the climate is exceedingly pleasant, though not more healthy, since it is at that period of the year that the greatest mortality prevails. During the rest of the year the weather is sometimes dry and sultry, at others cold and damp, exhibiting a difference of 10 or 12 degs. of temperature in a few hours." (*Tulloch's Report on Morbidity*, &c. in the *W. Indies*.) The range of the thermometer is much the same as at Dominica. Nearly 9,500 acres are under crops, and 4,700 in pasture. The mountains are feathered to the top with tall forest trees, and the valleys at their feet abound with excellent timber.

St. Lucia has several good harbours, the chief being the Carénage on the W. coast, within which 80 ships of the line may lie in perfect security, without even, as is stated, being moored. The wish to convert this admirable harbour was, in truth, the motive which made the island be formerly so much coveted by the European powers.

The quantities of the principal articles imported into the United Kingdom from St. Lucia in 1846 and 1849, were:—

Years.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.	Cocoa.
	Cents.	Galls.	Cents.	Lbs.	Lbs.
1848	81,154	18,900	5,519	51	16,917
1849	67,395	9,473	10,037	-	7,928

The total value of native exports from St. Lucia, in 1848, was only 45,212*l.*; but their value in that year being unusually reduced, it may, at a medium, be estimated at 80,000*l.* or 100,000*l.* The exports from the U. K. to St. Lucia, in 1849, amounted to 16,572*l.*

The island is divided into 9 parishes. Castries, the cap., lies in a low and marshy situation, at the extremity of a long and winding bay of the same name. The fort, where most of the troops in the island are stationed, is built on the summit of a steep hill, called *Morne Fortuné*, about 14 m. from Castries, and 880 ft. above the level of the sea. Near it is the principal hospital. Another hospital, and some barracks, are erected on Pigeon Island, a small, conical, and extremely unhealthy islet, near the N. extremity of the island. St. Lucia is governed by a governor and council, acting under orders from England. The mutual jealousies of England and France prevented, for a lengthened period, a permanent settlement being made on the island, which was then regarded as a sort of neutral territory. At length it was ceded to the French in 1763. But being taken by the English in 1803, it was definitively assigned to us by the Treaty of Paris. (*Parl. Reports*, &c.)

LUCIA (STA.), a town of Sicily, intend. and distr. of Messina, cap. canton, in a healthy situation on the declivity of Mt. Dinanmare, 7 m. S. by E. Milasso. Pop., in 1831, 5,270.

LUCKIPOOR, a town of Hindostan, prov. Bengal, distr. Tipperah, a few miles from the mouth of the Brahmaputra, with which it communicates by a small river, 156 m. N.E. Calcutta; lat. 22° 56' N., long. 90° 49' E. Coarse cotton cloths of a substantial kind are made here; and the neighbourhood is so fertile and productive, that Luckipoor is one of the cheapest towns in British India.

LUCKNOW (Hind. *Lakhanowah*), a large city of Hindostan, prov. and kingdom of Oude, of which it is the cap., on the Goomty, a tributary of the Ganges, about 140 m. N.W. Benares, and 365 m. S.E. by E. Delhi; lat. 26° 51' N., long. 80° 50' E. Pop. formerly estimated at 208,000; but now probably under 300,000. This city is interesting from its being the cap. of one of the most powerful native states in Hindostan, with which the British power in its rise and progress in India, has been more intimately connected than any other; and it is also one into which European habits have been very extensively introduced by the late returning sovereign of Oude, Saadet Ali. "When viewed from the summit of a lofty edifice, Lucknow presents a confusion of gilded cupolas and pinnacles, turrets, minarets, and arches, bounded by the winding Goomty, and so thickly interspersed with the richest tropical foliage, as apparently to realise the most fantastic visions of oriental splendour. A nearer inspection, however, does not fulfil the anticipations which a bird's-eye survey is calculated to excite. This capital may be divided into 3 quarters. The first is the city, properly so called, containing the shops and private dwellings of the inhab. connected with the court and residency. The streets here are sunk 10 or 12 ft. below the surface, and are so narrow that two carts cannot pass; besides being filthy in the extreme. The chowk, and one or two bazars in its vicinity, are good streets; but on the whole, this extensive quarter is more meanly built than, perhaps, any city of the same rank in Hindostan.

"The second quarter of Lucknow was built mostly by the late nabob, Saadet Ali. It stands near the Goomty, towards the S.E., and consists of one very handsome street, after the European fashion, above a mile in length, with bazars striding out at right angles, and a well-built new chowk or market-place in the centre, with a lofty gateway at each extremity, which presents a Grecian front on one side, and a Moorish one on the other. The houses that compose the remainder of this street belong to the king, and are occupied by members of his family, or officers of his household. These are, for the most part, in the English style; but with a strange occasional mixture of Eastern architecture. The same remark applies to the palaces, &c. that occupy the space between this street and the river. All these palaces are filled with European furniture and pictures, and may rank with comfortable English houses; but none is on a scale of royal magnificence. The king's peculiar residence only excels the others in being approached through 6 spacious courts, with reservoirs, fountains, and innumerable pieces of cast statuary, China figures, and other toys that decorate its area. The adjacent buildings of the British residency terminate the great street to the N. At its opposite extremity is the entrance of the *Dakshina* park, an artificial wilderness

of high grass, with which Saadet Ali clothed the arid tract between Lucknow and Constantia, and well stocked with deer, antelopes, and peacocks.

"The third quarter of the city adjoins the Goomty to the N.W. being only separated by a wretched bazaar from the second. It consists chiefly of palaces and religious buildings; and being in a style more purely oriental than the modern portion of the city, is by far the most interesting quarter to a stranger. The magnificent pile of *Imam-ul-darakh*, with its noble gateway, called the *Rosum-dervaseeh*, the new palace built, but never finished, by Saadet Ali, the *Dowlet-khama*, &c. are the chief ornaments of this division of Lucknow." (*Hamilton's E. J. Gaz.*, ii. 130, 131.)

There are many stately *khanas*, and some handsome mosques and pagodas scattered in different parts of the wretched alleys, of which the city chiefly consists; but the most striking buildings, as in other Mohammedan capitals, are the royal tombs and mosques. Of these the *Imam-ul-darakh*, or tomb and mosque of Asaphud Dowlah, is the chief. It is said by Lord Valentia to be the most beautiful building he had seen in India. "The approach to the building is through a very large quadrangle to a garden, elevated a small height; on one side of which is a very beautiful mosque, and on the other the *Belec* palace. The *Imam-ul-darakh* itself is built on an elevated terrace, and consists of 3 long and finely-proportioned apartments, running parallel to each other; in the middle one is the tomb, level with the ground." (*Valentia's Trav.*, i. 157.) The central room is, according to Hamilton, 167 ft. in length, by 83 ft. in breadth, with an octagon room at each end; and in the rear of the centre, a third set of rooms, or open arches, with fountains and basins of water under each arch. Lord Valentia says, that a range of silver temples or cenotaphs also extends from one end to the other of the rooms, raised on platforms about 3 ft. from the ground, and each valued at from 50,000 to 100,000 rupees. The *Rosum-dervaseeh*, so called from being supposed a copy of one of the gates at Constantinople, is in a light and elegant, though fantastic style, and a mixture of Gothic and Moorish architecture. A good engraving of it and a part of the city, is given in Lord Valentia's Travels, (i. 174.) Near it is the Buford palace, a large fortified building, appropriated to the wives of the deceased sovereigns.

Two bridges have been erected over the Goomty at Lucknow; one a heavy bridge of masonry, the other a bridge of boats. The erection of an iron bridge was projected by Saadet Ali, but the materials arrived from England too late for the accomplishment of the work during his lifetime; and his heir, conformably to a prejudice universal among the Mohammedans of Hindostan, declined the unlucky task of completing the unfinished undertaking of a deceased predecessor. About 3 m. from Lucknow is Baroun, a country seat, dentia says, named chief, built by himself. It is in a Grecian style of architecture, and has, as might be expected, many faults; but it is ornamented by a very fine portico, rising the whole height of the house in front. Near the city is also Constantia, the former residence of a general in the E. I. Company's service, and erected at an expense of 7 lacs of rupees; but this building is in wretched taste, and only imposing at a distance. It has, however, or had, some fine gardens attached to it.

Lucknow is traditionally said to have been founded by *Lakhanoo*, the brother of *Rosou*; who had his residence here, to extinguish the recollection of which Aurungzeb erected a mosque with 3 minarets on its site. After the battle of Buxar, Shuja ud Dowlah removed his court from Lucknow to Fyzabad; but on his death, in 1775, his successor made this city again the cap. of Oude. (*Lord Valentia's Travels*, i. 135-175; *Mod. Trav.*; *Hamilton's Hindostan* and *E. J. Gaz.* &c.)

LUCKPUT-BUNDER, a town of Hindostan, prov. Cutch, of which it is the chief port after Mandavee, on the Khoree, or most easterly branch of the Indus, on the high road from Mandavee to Hyderabad and Taata, 83 m. S.E. by S. the last-named city, and 67 m. W.N.W. Bhoo. It is defended by a good fort. Early in the present century, it had but 2,000 inhab., and owing to the shallowness of the river, could only be approached by very small craft; but, by an earthquake in 1819, the Indus was deepened at Luckput to more than 18 ft. at low water, and there is now 30 ft. water in its channel from the ocean to Busta, 8 m. below this town. (*Geog. Journal*, iii. 119.) This must, no doubt, have contributed to the commercial prosperity of Luckput-Bunder, though we have not learned the particulars.

LUDLOW, a mun. and parl. bor., market town, and par. of England, co. Salop, hund. Munslow, on the Teme, 24 m. S. Shrewsbury, 22 m. W. by S. Birmingham, and 126 m. W.S.W. London. Pop. of parl. bor., in 1841, 5,171. The town is neat and well built, and the streets are generally wide, well paved, and lighted. On a bold rock, overhanging the river, at the N.W. angle of the town, stands the castle, supposed to have been built in 1130. The walls and towers which still remain present a mass

of extensive and magnificent ruins; and round the castle are public walks shaded with trees, from which there is a fine prospect of the surrounding country. Near the centre of the town is "the Cross," a handsome stone building, with rooms over it used as a school; and in Castle Street is the market-house, the lower part of which is open, and serves as a corn-market, the upper part comprising several large rooms, used for corporation meetings, assemblies, public balls, &c. The guildhall, where the quarter sessions and court of record are held, is a neat and commodious modern structure; and there is a prison called Gaeolford's Tower. Performances are given in a small theatre during the races, which are held in the neighbourhood. The church, which stands at the upper end of the town, is a large cruciform building of perpendicular architecture, surmounted by a square embattled tower, rising from the intersection. The interior is very beautiful: lofty pointed arches divide the nave from the aisles; and at the E. end of a very spacious choir is a noble window, entirely filled with painted glass: the whole church is ceiled with fine oak, and embellished with carving. The S. entrance is peculiar, consisting of a hexagonal porch richly ornamented. The living (valued at 1604, a year) is a rectory, in the gift of the archbishop of Cologne. There are three places of worship for dissenters, and to both the church and chapel Sunday schools are attached, furnishing religious instruction to upwards of 500 children. The grammar-school, founded in the reign of Edward VI., is intended to give free instruction, in English and classical learning, to the sons of all residents within the bor. The pupils comprise about 30 free boys, and nearly the same number of pay scholars boarding with the master, who receives a yearly salary of 100*l.*, and is assisted by a usher. The master holds, also, the office of preacher, with a salary of 48*l.* a year. A national school, under the superintendence of the rector and a committee, is well attended by boys and girls; and is liberally supported, partly by contributions, and partly, also, by the funds of a blue-coat charity recently merged into it.

Ludlow, as a place of trade, is of little importance. The glove trade formerly employed several hundred hands; but of late years it has greatly diminished. A small flannel-mill employs about 20 hands, and there is a considerable paper-mill. Maltng and tanning are also carried on to some extent; but the chief business is confined to the retailing of goods consumed in the town and neighbourhood. The corporation charter was granted by Edward IV., and has been subsequently confirmed by 9 different monarchs. Under the Municipal Reform Act, the government is vested in a recorder, 4 aldermen, and 12 councillors. Corporation revenues in 1847-48, 1,286*l.* The bor. has returned 3 mems. to the H. of C. since 1832. Edward IV. gave the right of election, previously to the Reform Act, being nominally vested in the resident burgesses (made so by birth, marriage, or gift); but subsequently in the lord of the manor, Earl Powis. The electoral limits were enlarged by the Boundary Act, so as to include, with the old bor., the township of Ludford, and the par. of Stanton Lacey. Registered electors in 1849-50, 446. Market (well attended) on Monday fairs, chiefly for horses, cattle, and pigs. Mon. before Feb. 12, Tues. before Easter, Wed. in Whitnau week, Aug. 31, Sept. 28, and Dec. 6; on the two last of which large quantities of hops are exposed for sale.

The history of Ludlow is closely connected with that of its castle, which, being erected by the barons of Montgomery in the 12th century, continued in a habitable state till the suppression of the council of the Marches of Wales by William III. To all lovers of English poetry this castle is interesting, as having been the scene where Milton's "Comus" was performed in 1631, by the family of the Earl of Bridgewater.

LUDWIGSBURG, a town of Württemberg, circ. Neckar, of which it is the cap., on rising ground, about 1 m. W. of the Neckar, and 6 m. N. Stuttgart. Pop. in 1837, 6,900. It is one of the best laid out and handsomest towns of the kingdom; but is dull. Charles Street, by which it is traversed from end to end, is 1 m. in length, and, like most of the other streets, is lined with rows of trees. From 1737 to 1753, Ludwigsburg was the chief residence of the court; its palace, though now deserted, is one of the largest and finest in Germany; and it has a gallery of old German, Dutch, and Flemish pictures; and a theatre. The palace-gardens, formerly celebrated for their beauty, are now falling into disrepair from neglect. Ludwigsburg has a Lutheran parish church, three other churches, an arsenal, a military school for 30 officers' sons, a lyceum, an orphan asylum, and workhouse, house of correction for females, school for poor children (*Kinderrichtungsanstalt*), a cannon-foundry, and manufactures of woollen cloth, earthenware, and buttons. In the neighbourhood are the royal summer palaces of Favourite and Monrepos, and the fine statue of Count Zeppelin, erected by King Frederick of Württemberg. About 6 m. distant is Marbach, the

birthplace of Schiller, and the mathematician Mayer. (*Memminger's Beschreibung von Württemberg*, 523-34; *Berghaus's Stein*.)

LUGANO (TOWN AND LAKE OF). The town of Lugano, being with Bettinsoro and Locarno, a cap. of the Swiss canton of Teasin, stands on a bay on the W. bank of the lake of same name, 15 m. N.N.W. Como. Pop. 4,800. It is a well built, handsome town, finely situated round the curve of a beautiful bay, surrounded by an amphitheatre of hills, having their slopes studded with villas, vineyards, gardens, and forests; while in the distance are seen the snowy pinnacles and craggy masses of the Alps. Among the principal public buildings are the church or cathedral of San Lorenzo, on an eminence above the town, commanding a fine view, with a finely sculptured portal and a façade, said to be by Bramante; the church of the Franciscan friars, remarkable for two paintings of first rate excellence by Bernardo Luini. It has also some pretty extensive silk manufactures, a large theatre, and an hospital; several establishments for the printing and sale of books newly published or prohibited in Italy; and no fewer than 3 newspapers, which occasionally advocate doctrines that are but little to the taste of the Austrian and Sardinian governments. Perhaps, however, the town may derive its principal support from its being on the route, and one of the entrepôts of a considerable portion of the trade carried on between Italy and Switzerland, and Germany, by the pass of St. Gothard. Though nominally and politically Swiss, the Luganese are Italians in dress, language, manners, and appearance; in every thing, in short, but their greater activity and enterprise; and for this distinction they are mainly indebted to their comparatively free institutions and free press. Monte Caprino, near Lugano, has a great number of natural caverns or grottoes, which, on account of their coolness, are used by the inhabs. in summer as cellars in which to keep their wine, meat, and other provisions.

The Lake of Lugano (formerly the *Lacus Ceresius*), is principally within the canton of Teasin, in Switzerland, but partly also in Lombardy, between the Lago Maggiore and the Lago di Como. It is of an extremely irregular figure: its greatest length from Forlresa at its N.E. to Porto at its S. extremity, is about 16 m.; but in addition to its main body, it has two great arms, one stretching S.S.E. to Lago, and the other N. to Agno. It is nowhere above 3 m. in width, and is mostly surrounded by high mountains, overhanging woods, and bold abrupt precipices. One of the mountains, San Salvador, on a promontory, washed on two of its sides by the lake, rising to the height of nearly 2,000 ft. above its level, is a sublime object from the lake, and commands from its summit a most magnificent and varied prospect. In some parts, however, the banks of the lake slope gently down to the water's edge, and are covered with villages, vineyards, gardens, &c. The bay of Lugano on its W. side, with its surrounding amphitheatre of hills, is particularly fine. Its waters are quite transparent, and so very deep, that in some places no soundings are said to have been attained. It is about 190 ft. above the level of the lakes of Como and Maggiore, into the latter of which the Tresa conveys its surplus waters. (*Condac's Italy*, i. 314; *Eustace*, iv. 60; *Cocce's Switzerland*, iii. 368; *Murray's Handbook*, &c.)

LUIGERSHALL, or LUDGERSHALL, a decayed bor., market town, and par. of England, co. Wilts, hund. Amesbury, 25 m. N.E. Salisbury, and 68 m. W. by S. London. Area of par. and bor., 1,560 acres. Pop. in 1841, 564. The town, now in a wretched and decaying state, contains nothing worth mention, except an old ruinous church, and a place of worship for Baptists; the inhabs. are chiefly supported by agricultural labour. Formerly, however, it must have been a place of more importance; for a large castle existed here soon after the Conquest: it was also one of the most ancient parl. bors., and notwithstanding its insignificance in modern times, sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. down to the passing of the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised.

LUGO, a town of Spain, prov. Galicia, and a bishop's see, in the Minho, 47 m. E.S.E. Coruña, and 142 m. N.N.E. Oporto. Pop., according to Miñano, 7,309. It occupies an eminence on the E. bank of the river, and is surrounded by an ancient wall of great thickness, with circular projecting towers. The streets are mean and irregularly built: the chief buildings are a Gothic cathedral, 4 convents, 2 hospitals, a singular-looking prison, a founding asylum, and public seminary. The climate is alleged to be colder than that in other parts of Galicia: snow is frequent, and N. winds are common during the winter months. The place appears to be in a languishing condition; the only fabrics are those of thread stockings and Morocco leather. In the neighbourhood are bred great numbers of cattle, horses, mules, sheep, and hogs, which meet with a ready sale at the monthly fairs, and the great fair in October.

Lugo is a place of great antiquity, having been the cap. of a *conventus*, or district, under the Romans, who called it *Lucus Augusti*. Many monuments of Roman art were

existing in the time of Pons; but they have nearly all been since destroyed. The Roman medicinal baths are still, however, used, and the works formed to protect them from the floods of the Minho may yet be traced. Alonso the Catholic wrested Lago from the Moors, and re-established its bishopric. (*Mémoires, Mod. Trav.*)

LUND, a city of Sweden, near its S. extremity, prov. Malmö, 50 m. N.E. Malmö. Pop. 4,130. It is open, and irregularly built, but clean. It is an arch-bishopric, and has a cathedral, an ancient irregular building, raised at different periods. But it is chiefly remarkable for its university, founded in 1666. This institution has 22 regular and 7 assistant professors, and is attended by about 600 pupils. In 1834 it had 586 pupils, whereof 108 were students of divinity, 120 of law, 80 of medicine, and 160 of philosophy, the sciences, &c. It has a library of 20,000 printed vols. and 1,000 MSS., with museums of natural history and mineralogy, antiquities and medals, &c.; an observatory, a chemical laboratory, and a botanical garden. Pufendorf, who, next to Grotius, is the grand authority in matters of public law, was appointed Professor of the Law of Nature and Nations in this university in 1670; and here, in 1673, he published his great work *De Jure Naturæ et Gentium*. "Without," to use the words of a distinguished authority, "the genius of Grotius, and with very inferior learning, he has yet treated this subject with sound sense, with clear method, with extensive and accurate knowledge, and with a copiousness of detail sometimes indeed tedious, but always instructive and satisfactory." (*Macintosh on the Law of Nature and Nations*, p. 21.) Linneus was for some time a pupil in the University of Lund. The town has manufactures of woollen cloths and tobacco, tanneries and sugar refineries, a discount bank, and some foreign trade. The ancient kings of Scanla were chosen on the hill of Lybers, near the town. (*Steds; Cose's Travels*, iv. 298; *Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

LUNEBURG, a town of the kingd. of Hanover, cap. of the district, and principality of Lüneburg, on the Elmsa, 67 m. N.N.E. Hanover, and 27 m. S.E. Hamburg. Pop. in 1846, estimated at 11,800. It is surrounded by walls of no great strength, and entered by 6 gates. It has dark and narrow streets, and old-fashioned houses. The castle, or palace of the prince, the town-hall, council-house, military academy for young nobles, gymnasium, exchange, and cavalry barracks, are the principal public buildings. The military academy has a library of 14,000 vols., and in the town-hall is another library. Lüneburg has 4 churches, in one of which are the tombs and monuments of many of the ancient dukes of Lüneburg; several superior schools, an orphan asylum, and a *mendicant-pedagogium*.

Lüneburg was formerly a Hanse Town, was governed by magistrates of its own selection, and had an extensive trade. It took part in the Baltic herring-fishery, and had numerous breweries and manufactures of woollen stuff, &c., now much fallen off. Lime-burning and the making of salt are at present the chief branches of industry. A large and singular rock of gypsum, rising nearly 170 ft. above the Elmsa, in the immediate vicinity of the town, furnishes abundant materials for the former business. About 20,000 tons of lime are sent to Hamburg, Altona, and Holland. About 150,000 centners a year of salt are procured from some adjacent salt-springs: the evaporation is effected by means of turf, and is conducted under a special commission, the government having a monopoly of the article. The price of the undried salt is 40 dollars, and of the dried, 46 doll. the last of 400 lbs. (*Berghaus*.) Lüneburg has some fabrics of woollen and cotton and linen goods, tobacco, paper, cards, and soap; with distilleries, breweries, &c. It also trades in horses; and is the seat of a transit trade between Hamburg and the Elbe, and the interior prov. of Hanover. About 200,000 centners of merchandise are said to have passed in transitu through Lüneburg in 1838. (*Von Reden's Hannover*, ii. 87., &c.; *Berghaus*; *Stein*; *Hodgskin's N. Germany*.)

LUNEL, a town of France, dép. Hérault, cap. cant., on the canal of Lunel, 14 m. E.N.E. Montpellier. Pop. in 1846, ex. com., 8,797. It has a fine promenade, infantry and cavalry barracks, numerous liqueur and brandy distilleries, and a brisk trade in corn, wine, and raisins. The muscadine wine, produced from vineyards situated on gently rising grounds to the N. of the town, and bearing its name, is reckoned by some connoisseurs as the best of its class, and is rivalled only by the Frontignan. "It is a very delicate wine, of a bright yellow colour, with a less distinct flavour of the grape, and less cloying than the Frontignan. The vineyard called the Clos-Maset, which has been long known to afford the first-rate growth, makes about 100 hds. a year, being one third of the total quantity supplied from the territory of Lunel. Several of the more ordinary muscadine wines, however, come into the market as Frontignan and Lunel; but they may be easily detected by their deeper colour, and the want of the characteristic flavour and perfume."

(*Henderson on Wines*, p. 177.) According to Julien, the wines of Lunel, "*Sont plus précoces et plus fins que ceux de Frontignan; mais ils ont moins de corps, un goût de fruit moins prononcé, et ne conservent pas aussi longtemps.*" (*Topographie de Vignobles*, p. 260.)

LUNÉVILLE, a town of France, dép. Meurthe, cap. arrond., on the Vesouze, and on the road from Paris to Strasbourg, 16 m. S.E. Nancy. Pop. in 1846, ex. com., 12,164. It is generally well built, and has a good square, a château erected by Leopold, duke of Lorraine, early in the last century, and near the residence of Stanislaus, king of Poland, a handsome par. church, very extensive cavalry barracks, a parade ground of 200 hectares, a large covered riding arena, two hospitals, a synagogue, theatre, and manufactures of woollen cloth, woollen and cotton yarn, gloves, &c. Lunéville is one of the principal cavalry stations in France. The origin of the town is uncertain, but its name seems to indicate that Diana was anciently worshipped here; and several Roman medals, with the impress of that divinity, have been found near a fountain in the neighbourhood. The peace between France and the German Confederation, in 1801, by which the former acquired the territory on the left bank of the Rhine, was concluded in this town. (*Hugo, art. Meurthe*; *Berghaus*; *Guide du Voyageur*, &c.)

LURGAN, an inland town of Ireland, co. Armagh, prov. Ulster, about 3 m. from the S. border of Lough Neagh, and 18 m. W.S.W. Belfast. Pop. in 1841, 4,677. It is neat, clean, and well-built town, consisting principally of one wide street. It has a par. church, a R. Cath. chapel, meeting-houses for Presbyterians and Quakers, a court-house, and a bridewell. A manocourt is held every three weeks, and general sessions and petty sessions every Friday. It is a constabulary station; and has 2 schools on the foundation of Erasmus Smith, and a subscription school. The linen manufacture, particularly that of diapers and damasks, is extensively carried on, as is that of tobacco: there are 3 breweries and an extensive distillery. Markets on Fridays; fairs, August 8. and November 22. The nearness of the town to the point where the Lagan and Lough Neagh navigation joins Lough Neagh, affords great facilities for inland traffic. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 402*l.*; in 1836, 592*l.* Branches of the Belfast, Northern, and Provincial Banks were opened in 1834, and of the Ulster Bank, in 1837.

The town is on the estate and in the immediate vicinity of the residence of the Brownlow family, to the head of which it gives the title of baron.

LUTON, a market town and par. of England, co. Bedford, hund. Flit, 16 m. W. N.W. Hertford, and 22 m. N.W. London. Area of par., 15,500 acres. Pop. in 1841, 7,748; do. of township, 5,827. The town pleasantly situated between two hills in the Chiltern chalk range, is irregularly built with three long streets, running from a market place (in which is an old town-hall), in the form of the letter Y. The church is an interesting specimen of Gothic architecture, with a square embattled tower surmounted at the angles by hexagonal pinnacles, and a handsomely decorated W. door: the interior contains, besides some painted windows, a curious carved font, and some fine old monuments. There are also places of worship for Wesleyans, Methodists, Baptists, and the Society of Friends. Three well-attended Sunday schools, a national and Lancasterian school, furnish instruction to the children of the poor; and there is a well endowed hospital for lodging and clothing 24 aged widows. The inhab. are principally engaged in the manufacture of straw hats, and especially of the variety called the Tuscan grass-plait. Lace-making used also to be carried on to a considerable extent; but this business has been all but extinguished by the rise of the Nottingham same-lace trade. Two miles E. of the town is Luton Hoo Park, formerly a seat of the Bute family, erected by Lord Bute, the favourite of George III. Markets on Monday: large cattle fairs, April 18. and Oct. 18.

LUTTERWORTH, a market-town and par. of England, co. Leicester, hund. Gouthlaxton, 12 m. S. Leicester, and 79 m. N.W. London. Area of par., 1,800 acres. Pop. in 1841, 2,531. The town, situated on the Swift, a tributary of the Avon, comprises one main and well built street, with others of inferior size: there are some good houses, but a large proportion of the tenements are mere mud-walled thatched cottages. The church is a large and very handsome structure, in the pointed style, with a high square tower having turrets at the angles: the interior is elegantly fitted up. But it is principally remarkable from having been the scene of the pastoral labours of John Wycliffe, and from its containing his pulpit and portrait. This early and illustrious reformer and eminent divine was appointed rector of Lutterworth in 1374, where he expired 10 years afterwards, on the 31st of December, 1384. Luckily, however, his doctrines did not die with him. In 1418, the Council of Constance vainly endeavoured to gratify their impatient rage against his memory, by ordering his remains to

be disinterred and cast upon a dunghill. This disgraceful sentence was carried into effect: for, the bones of Wycliffe being taken up were burned, and the ashes thrown into the Swift. "Thus," as Fuller has ingeniously expressed it, "this brook (the Swift) has conveyed his ashes into Avon, Avon into Severn, Severn into the narrow seas, they into the main ocean: and thus the ashes of Wycliffe are the emblem of his doctrine, which now is dispersed all the world over."

Lutterworth has 3 places of worship for dissenters, 4 Sunday-schools, an endowed free-school, attended by 100 boys, and 3 smaller subscription schools. Its chief manufacture is that of coarse hosiery, but it is not extensive. It has a considerable trade in farm and dairy produce, chiefly carried on at its 7 annual fairs. Markets on Thursday: fairs Thursday after Feb. 19., March 10., April 15., July 22., and Oct. 10.; also on Holy Thursday.

LUTZEN, a town of the Prussian states, prov. Saxony, circ. Merseburg, 12 m. S.W. Leipzig. This town, the pop. of which is under 1,500, would be unworthy notice were it not that its environs have been the scene of two of the most memorable conflicts of modern times. The first, which occurred on the 16th of November, 1632, took place between the Imperialists, under Wallenstein, and the Swedes, under their heroic monarch, Gustavus Adolphus. The latter were victorious; but the victory was dearly purchased by the death of their king, who fell (it has been alleged by treachery) in the action. Besides their king, the Swedes lost about 3,000 men; but the loss of the Imperialists amounted to double that number, and their artillery fell into the hands of the conquerors.

The other great conflict took place nearly on the same ground on the 3d of May, 1813, between the French, under Napoleon, and the allied army, encouraged by the presence of the emperor Alexander and the king of Prussia. The struggle was most obstinate and bloody; but in the end victory declared in favour of the French. The allies lost 20,000 men, killed and wounded, and that of the French was also very severe.

LUXEMBURG (GRAND DUCHY AND PROVINCE OF), a territory of W. Europe, between lat. 49° 25' and 49° 50' N., and long. 5° and 6° 30' E.; having N. the Belgian prov. of Liege, W. that of Namur, E. Rhenish Prussia, and S. France. Greatest length and breadth about 55 m. each. Area, 2,700 sq. m. Pop., in 1849, 372,879. By the treaty of the 19th of April, 1839, this territory was definitively partitioned between Holland and Belgium; the E. portion, with an area of about 1,000 sq. m., and a pop. of 186,500, being assigned to the former, and the W. portion, with an area of 1,700 sq. m., and a pop., also, of about 186,500 to the latter. The title of the Grand Duke of Luxembourg, with the suffrage in the councils of the German Confederation, are enjoyed by the king of the Netherlands.

A chain of hills, branching from the Ardennes, traverses the country from S.W. to N.E. It no where rises to more than 2,000 ft. above the sea; but it forms the dividing line between the basins of the Meuse and the Moselle. The last-named river and the Sur form the E. boundary of the grand duchy; the other principal streams are the Ourte, Our, Alzette, Semoir, &c., tributaries of either the Meuse or the Moselle. The valleys are fertile, but the rest of the country has mostly a stony and barren soil; and in some parts, especially about the centre of Belgian Luxembourg, a good deal of the surface is occupied with marshes, heaths, and poor waste land. The entire surface is estimated at 690,000 *bonniers* (a measure nearly answering to hectares), of which about 240,000 are supposed to be in tillage, 211,000 in woods, 127,000 in heaths, wastes, &c., and 112,000 altogether unproductive, or occupied by roads, rivers, &c. It is mostly divided into small properties. Rye, barley, oats, and wheat are the principal corn crops; and potatoes, with fax, hemp, and beet-root, are raised. The agricultural course almost invariably occupies 3 years; the first year, wheat, maslin, or rye is sown; in the second, oats, barley, or potatoes; and in the third, the land is left fallow. The vine is grown on the banks of the Moselle; and the annual produce of wine was estimated, in 1837, at 75,503 hectol. The chief branch of rural industry is, however, the rearing of cattle for exportation. The sheep yield indifferent wool, but their flesh is excellent. Horses are good. A great many hogs are reared, and in the first half of 1836, 36,700 were exported to France. The meadow-lands, especially in the valleys of the Alzette, Chiers, and Semoir, are carefully irrigated and manured. The woods are an important source of wealth, the annual produce of timber and fire-wood being estimated, according to Vandermaelen, at nearly 1,100,000 *steres*. Nearly 93,000 hectares of woods belong to communes, there being scarcely a commune without a certain portion of forest land. There are few countries in which iron is more abundant; and about 9,300,000 kilog. of metal are produced annually: from the want of coal, it has to be smelted with timber.

Since 1837, however, coal has been admitted into Bel-

gian Luxembourg (where this branch of industry is principally conducted), from Rhenish Prussia at the reduced duty of 1 fr. per 1,000 kilog., and the production of iron is probably on the increase. The slate of Luxembourg is of a superior quality. Viel-Salm, in the N. of Belgian Luxembourg, furnishes about 4 millions of slates a year; and in the S., the quarries of Herbenmont and Geripont produce about 10 millions a year, mostly exported to the neighbouring countries. Slate-pencils, marble, and a little lead, zinc, copper, and manganese are the other chief minerals produced. Next to forges and potteries, woollen cloth, lace, leather, and glue factories, distilleries, and breweries, are the most numerous manufacturing establishments. The commerce of Luxembourg, however, except in iron, slate, and cattle, is insignificant. The inhabs., partly of Saxon extraction, and partly Walloons, are all R. Catholics. The whole territory is subdivided into 3 districts; those of Luxembourg, Diekirch, and Grevenmacher: each has in it a tribunal of original jurisdiction; and the first, which is identical with the Dutch prov. of Limburg, has a Prussian military governor, and a Dutch civil commissary. Belgian Luxembourg is governed in the same way as the other Belgian provs. Dutch Luxembourg has the 11th place in the German Confederation, with 3 votes in the full council, and one in the committee. It has, since 1839, furnished a contingent of 1,850 men to the army of the confederation; the contingent previously to the division of the duchy having been 2,656 men.

LUXEMBURG (Germ. *Luxemburg*), a town belonging to the kingdom of the Netherlands, the cap. and only place of any importance in the above Grand Duchy, and one of the strongest fortresses of Europe; on the Alzette, a tributary of the Sur, 32 m. S.W. Treves, and 77 m. S.S.E. Liege; lat. 49° 37' N., long. 6° 7' 5" E. Pop., in 1848, 12,200. It is built partly on a steep rocky height, and partly in the valley beneath; being, consequently, divided into the upper and lower towns, which communicate by flights of steps, and streets running zigzag, so as to be passable for carriages. Both towns are fortified; and the works, which are partly excavated in the solid rock, have been greatly strengthened by the successive possessors of the town—Spaniards, Austrians, French, and Dutch. Great improvements have recently been made in them; and since 1837, a new fort has been constructed outside the Treves gate. The casemates of that part of the fortifications called *Le Bosu*, resemble those of Gibraltar, and are capable of accommodating 4,000 men. Luxembourg is tolerably well built, but has no remarkable public buildings. It has some iron forges, and manufactures of linen fabrics, leather, and tobacco. It is at present garrisoned by 3,000 Prussian troops.

The territory of Luxembourg was governed by its own counts from the time of the Carolingian Franks kings to 1354, when the Emperor Charles IV. erected it into a duchy. It was taken by the French in 1794, and subdivided among the depts. of Forêts, Ardennes, Sambret-Meuse, and Ourthe; but, in 1814, it was erected into a grand duchy, and given to the king of Holland, in exchange for the renunciation of his claims upon Nassau. (*Vandermaelen's Luxembourg; Berghaus, &c.*)

LUXEUIL (an. *Luxovium*), a town of France, dép. Haute-Saône, cap. cant. on the Breuchin, 18 m. N.E. Vesoul. Pop. in 1836, ex. com., 3,698. It is well built and clean, and has a good town-hall, a large hospital, a communal college, and manufactures of hats, leather, tin and iron goods, &c.; but it is chiefly remarkable for its hot or thermal springs, which are usually frequented by from 500 to 600 visitors. The hot baths of *Luxovium* were known to the Romans, who are said to have decorated them with fine buildings. (*D'Ancelle, Notice de la Gaule*, p. 430.) The traces of several Roman roads, aqueducts, and edifices, with various statues, medals, &c. have been discovered in and round the town. (*Huge, art. Haute-Saône; Dict. Géog.*)

LUTON, the largest and most N. of the Philippine Islands, which see.

LYME-REGIS, a parl. and mun. bor., market-town, sea-port, and par. of England, co. Dorset, in Bridport div. of lib. Lodors and Bournemouth, 204 m. S.S.E. Taunton, and 132 m. W.S.W. London. Area or parl. bor., which comprises the two parishes of Lyme and Charmouth, 1,980 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,376. "Lyme is a small and irregularly built town, situated among hills, which, by rendering it difficult of access, effectually preclude it from becoming a place of importance. This place, as well as Charmouth, is frequented in the summer as a watering place, and many respectable families are settled in the neighbourhood, but the streets are very irregular, and not lighted, so that, on the whole, it has the appearance of a poor and inconsiderable place." The pier or cobb (originally erected in the reign of Edward III., and greatly lengthened in 1836, at the expense of government) is 680 ft. long and 12 ft. broad, furnishing good shelter for shipping between Start Point and the Isle of Portland; and close to the pier is the

custom-house. "The regular trade of the place, however, appears to be altogether inconsiderable; and it is chiefly valuable as a port of refuge for small vessels in bad weather." (*Parl. Boundary Report*.) In 1560 there belonged to the port 18 vessels of the burden of 1,180 tons; the custom's revenue in 1866 amounted to 2,142*l.* indicating a great diminution since the close of the last century, when they amounted to about 16,000*l.* This change is ascribed partly to the decay of its once considerable Newfoundland fishery and Mediterranean trade, and partly also to the separation of Bridport, united with Lyme till 1833. An old church, three places of worship for dissenters, a house used for assemblies, and an old town-hall, are the chief public buildings. Two schools for poor children are supported by subscription, and there are almshouses and other charities for the sick and aged.

The bor. of Lyme is undoubtedly very ancient, and claims to be one by prescription. Its first charter is dated 12 Edward I.; and its early consequence as a port is shown by the fact, that in the war with France under Edward III. it furnished four ships to serve at the siege of Calais. The mun. bor. is now governed by a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 12 councillors, but has no commission of the peace. Corporation revenue, in 1847-48, 184*l.* The bor. sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the reign of Edward I. down to the passing of the Reform Act, which deprived it of one mem.; post-cumulo to that act the right of election was vested in the cap. burgesses and freemen. The Boundary Act enlarged its limits, so as to include the entire par. of Lyme and Charmouth. Reg. electors in 1849-50, 317. Markets on Friday; large cattle fairs, Feb. 13. and Oct. 2.

LYMINGTON, a parl. and mun. bor., sea-port, and market town of England, co. Hants, in the E. division of the New Forest, close to the mouth of a river of its own name, which falls into the Solent, 23 m. S. S. W. Winchester, and 61 m. W. S. W. London. Pop. of parl. bor. (comprising the par. of Lymington and a part of the par. of Boldre), in 1841, 4,926. The town, situated on the W. bank of the river, is well paved and lighted with gas, and consists of one well-built and wide street, crossed by two others of an inferior description. On the E. bank is the village of Undershore, comprising several villas and houses of a superior kind, inhabited by persons of independent fortune; it is connected with the town by a bridge, and clearly forms a suburb of Lymington. Among the public buildings are a town-hall, a neat theatre, and a custom-house; the port, though sufficient for vessels of 300 tons, and provided with wharfs and storehouses, is subordinate to that of Southampton. The church is an irregular building of brick and stone, the living being a curacy dependent on the vicarage of Boldre. There are likewise three places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists and other dissenters. A free school for both sexes, a girls' national school, and an infant school, provide instruction for the children of the poor, and there are several minor charities.

"The town is considered to be in an improving state, and several large outlays of capital have taken place in the last few years. A company has been formed for the purpose of supplying steam navigation to and from Portsmouth and the Isle of Wight; 3,000*l.* have been subscribed for the formation of gas-works, and the same sum for the erection of baths; dwelling-houses, also, have been and are now being built on an improved scale, the principal object of these improvements being to induce visitors to resort to the town during the summer. Little or no commerce is carried on here; and the only manufacture of the neighbourhood is that of salt, which some years ago was carried on to a very large extent, but latterly has decreased. A large yearly fair is held for the sale of cheese, exported to various places along the Sussex coast." (*Mun. Corp. Rep.*)

Lymington is a bor. by prescription, its corporate officers since the Municipal Reform Act being a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 12 councillors; but it has no commission of the peace. Corporation revenues in 1847-48 (chiefly from quay and river dues), 108*l.*

Lymington has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the 27th of Elizabeth, the right of election being vested, till the Reform Act, in the resident burgesses, of whom there were only 28 in 1831. The Boundary Act enlarged the limits of the bor., so as to include the entire par. of Lymington with a part of the par. of Boldre. Registered electors in 1849-50, 387. Lymington is also a polling place for the S. division of Hampshire. Markets on Saturday; large fairs for cheese, bacon, and cattle, May 12. and Oct. 2.

LYNCHBURG, a town of the U. States, cap. Campbell co., in Virginia, on James River, here crossed by two bridges, about 20 m. below its great falls, and 90 m. W. S. W. Richmond; lat. 37° 30' N., long. 79° 22' W. Pop., in 1840, 6,308. It is mostly on the declivity of a hill, and has a court-house, a gaol, a market-house, several churches, a Friends' meeting-house, a Lancas-

trian school, &c. A large proportion of the houses are of brick, and of 2, 3, and 4 stories. Lynchburg is one of the most flourishing commercial towns in the state, as, from its situation, it commands an extensive trade not only with the W. part of Virginia, but with N. Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, and Ohio. It is one of the largest marts for tobacco in the Union, from 10,000 to 16,000 hhds. having been inspected in it annually for the last 10 years. (*Bradford*, 1837.) It has many tobacco factories, and warehouses for dry goods; and manufactures of cotton and woollen goods are carried on, and there are extensive flour-mills in its vicinity. The chief articles brought to its markets are tobacco, wheat, flour, hemp, butter, peach and apple spirits, whiskey, elder, beef, live hogs, lead, iron, &c., a considerable proportion of which is sent down the river to Richmond for further exportation. (*Except Americans*; *Danversport's Gazetteer*, &c.)

LYNN-REGIS or KING'S LYNN, a parl. and mun. bor., sea-port and market town of England, co. Norfolk, locally situated in hund. Freebridge-Lynn, at the mouth and on the E. bank of the Ouse, 38 m. W. by N. Norwich, and 90 m. N. by E. London. Lat. 52° 48' N., long. 2° E. Area of parl. bor., 2,620 acres. Pop., in 1841, 18,781. The town, about 1 m. in length, by $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in breadth, comprising two principal, with other smaller streets, "is, generally speaking, well built, and contains many excellent houses, and extensive premises for the trade." It is well paved, lighted with gas, supplied with good water, and very clean. The public walks, also, in the E. part of the town deserve notice, for their extent, and the neatness with which they are kept." (*Mun. Bound. Rep.*) Lynn was formerly encompassed on the land-side by a wall and deep wet ditch, defended by 9 bastions: these fortifications yet remain, but the wall and bastions are much dilapidated; it is also divided into several parts by 4 small streams here called *Acets* (from the Dutch *acet*) over which are 11 bridges. The market-place, called by way of distinction the Tuesday's market-place, is an area of 3 acres, situated at the N. end of the town, having a sculptured stone cross in its centre, and surrounded by good houses. A smaller market is held on Saturday in an open space near St. Margaret's church, and outside the town is a cattle-market. The custom-house, built in 1683, and intended for a merchant's exchange, is a handsome building of freestone, with an ornamental front, and a statue of Charles II.: the guildhall is an old-fashioned building of stone and flint, with suitable apartments for the transacting of municipal business, &c.; and next to it is the borough gaol, a respectable stone structure, which "seems to be on the whole well regulated, and admits, to a certain extent, of the classification of prisoners." (*Mun. Corp. Rep.*) A new theatre has recently supplied the place of an older one, now converted into warehouses. The parl. bor. comprises 2 pars., that of the St. Margaret's (the living of which is a perpetual curacy in the gift of the dean and chapter of Norwich), and that of All-Saints (a vicarage in the patronage of the Bishop of Ely). St. Margaret's church in N. Lynn, built in the 15th century, is alleged to have been destroyed by the English, past church, and had formerly a lofty steeple blown down by a tempest in 1741: its W. end is still distinguished by 2 square towers of dissimilar architecture, the upper parts of which are of modern construction. St. Nicholas, a Gothic structure, with a bell-tower and light octangular spire 170 ft. high, is a chapel of ease to the above parish church. All-Saints' church, in S. Lynn, is a well-built cruciform edifice, occupying the site of an old convent of White-Briars. On the opposite side of the Ouse in W. Lynn, but not within the bor., is another parish church, that of St. Andrew, a fine building, and a Rom. Cath. chapel; and the Wesleyan Methodists, Independents, Baptists, Unitarians, and the Society of Friends, have their respective places of worship, with large attached Sunday-schools. The grammar-school is in the patronage of the corporation, from which its master receives a salary of 6*l.* a year: it has two or three small exhibitions in the University of Cambridge. Various charity-schools have likewise been established, which, with a well-conducted Lancastrian school, furnish instruction to numerous children of both sexes. Gaywood's hospital provides lodging, and a weekly stipend of 1*l.* to 33 poor widows; there are also 3 other well-endowed sets of almshouses, and many minor bequests, &c. for the relief of the aged poor.

"Lynn contains an iron-foundry and 4 building-yards for ships from 400 tons downwards; but there are no other manufactures. A considerable and increasing trade is carried on, coast-wise, in exporting corn, with other natural products of the fens; and importing principally coal: there is also a direct trade with Canada and the Baltic in timber; as well as with Portugal in wine, fruit, &c.; but this is of much less extent and importance than the coasting-trade." There belonged to the port, in 1850, 175 ships, of the aggregate burden of 30,021 tons; besides which, upwards of 2,000 coasters

chiefly colliers, come thither, each year, from other parts. Gross customs' revenue, in 1846, 49,613*l*. The harbour is capacious; but the approach to it is rendered both difficult and hazardous by numerous and perpetually shifting sand-banks, occasioned by the action of the tide on the light silt and sand forming the bed of the river. The estuary of the Ouse is nearly 1,000 ft. broad, and there is accommodation in the port for about 300 merchant-ships. Spring-tides rise about 18 ft., and during the prevalence of N. and N.E. winds, are thrown in with such violence and rapidity as sometimes to damage the shipping. "The harbour has also been injured since the completion of the Beau-tille cut, which has caused a great accumulation of alluvial soil along the King's stailth and other quays lining the E. bank of the river; but this evil is now somewhat lessened by the erection of jetties on the opposite shore, which direct the course of the river more to the E. bank, by means whereof these deposits are scoured away." (*Mem. Bound. Rep.*)

King's Lynn, (called Bishop's Lynn before Henry VIII. conferred on it its present name,) received its first charter from King John, in return for valuable services done him by its inhabitants during the baronial wars. Its corporate privileges were confirmed and enlarged by several monarchs, and lastly by Charles II. The bor. is now divided into 3 wards, the municipal officers being a mayor and 5 other aldermen, with 18 councillors. Quarter and petty sessions are held under a recorder; and it is the seat of a county-court, before which 937 plaints were entered in 1848. Corp. rev., in 1847-48, 9,757*l*. Lynn has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the 6th of Edward II., the right of election down to the Reform Act being vested in freemen by birth, servitude, gift, or purchase. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 1,100. Lynn is also a polling-place for the W. division of Norfolk. Markets, principally on Tuesday, but also on Saturday. Large fairs for London goods, Feb. 14, and five succeeding days, also for cheese a week after mid Michaelmas, lasting two days.

LYONS (*Fr.* *Lyons*; an. *Lugdunum*), a large city of France, being the principal manufacturing town of that kingdom, in the dep. of the Rhone, of which it is the cap., 276 m. E.N.E. Bordeaux, 172 m. N.N.W. Marseilles, 345 m. S.E. Paris, and 70 m. S.W. Geneva; lat. 45° 45' 58" N. long. 4° 49' 34" E. Pop. of the city proper, in 1846, 159,783; but, including its suburbs, the pop. is above 200,000. It is situated at the junction of the Rhone and the Saône, chiefly on a tongue of land or peninsula between those two rivers, the length of which is nearly 3 m. and its average breadth about 3 furlongs, though in the N. part of the city increasing to upwards of 1 m. Some extensive and important quarters, as St. Just, St. George, St. Irénée, Vaise, &c., are, however, situated on the W. or right bank of the Saône, on and round the hill of Fourvières; and in the S., on the left bank of the Rhone, are the *Faubourg Guillotière* and the *Quartier des Brotteaux*. S. of the city, the handsome and regular suburb of *Perache* is rapidly extending towards the extremity of the peninsula; while on the N., beyond the fortifications, on the declivity of a hill extending from one river to the other, is the municipal commune of La Croix Rousse, comprising the suburbs of Serin and St. Clair. A tower on the hill of Fourvières, 680 ft. above the Saône, commands a landscape which combines the rich and the grand in the highest degree. At the spectator's feet is Lyons, with its two noble rivers; its bridges, squares, quays, and public edifices, the vessels that crowd the Saône, and the busy activity that pervades its streets, announcing a highly civilised, prosperous, and opulent community. "Unlike Paris and many other French towns, which stand isolated, as it were, in the country, with ploughed land and meadows coming close up to the barriers, Lyons appears as the nucleus of a vast population, melting gradually by its suburbs into clusters of villages, which break up into smaller villages, hamlets, villas, and manufactories. Even at the distance of 10 m., the country is pretty thickly dotted with buildings, some of which are seen sweetly perched on the S. and W. declivities of the hills which enclose the plain. The high and mountainous land on the W. side of the city is scarcely an exception; for sterile as it seems, it is enlivened by country-houses, villages, and manufactories. Beyond the hills which bound the plain on the N.E., is seen Mount Jura; on the E. we have part of the Alps; above which, at the distance of 100 m. from the town, Mont Blanc is distinctly seen like a white cloud or a mass of snow." (*Maclear's Notes*, p. 35.)

The interior of Lyons exhibits little regularity, and chiefly consists of narrow, winding, and dirty streets, rendered dark by the extreme loftiness of the houses. These, though of stone, and solidly built, are old and *triste*, and several of the streets leading up steep declivities are inconvenient for carriages. The *quartier St. George* is disgustingly filthy, and greatly inferior in appearance to the suburbs of Croix Rousse and des

Brotteaux, which, like it, are chiefly inhabited by the working classes. But the wretched aspect of some parts of the city is in some degree counteracted by the magnificence of others. Three ranges of quays, two on the Saône and one on the Rhone, interspersed with 17 bridges, nearly all of modern construction, with the glacis and hill of Fourvières, encompass all that is situated between the two rivers, and form a noble and imposing outline. The Saône, which is far more useful to Lyons in a commercial point of view than the Rhone, is lined with numerous wharfs and landing-places; and along the Rhone from the Faubourg St. Clair to Port Persache, a distance of a league, is a line of elegant public and private edifices, and a public walk, planted with a double row of trees, commanding a fine prospect over the fertile plain to the E. The waters of the Rhone are rapid, cold, and clear, and it forms in every respect a remarkable contrast to the Saône, which has a sluggish current, and a muddy stream. The Rhone is very liable to sudden inundations, to prevent the devastating effects of which some extensive embankments have been raised on its left bank. Still the river, when swollen, frequently does much damage, as was fully evinced in the autumn of 1847, when the inundations of the Rhone, by breaking the bridges, laid a considerable portion of Lyons, and of the surrounding country, under water, and occasioned great damage. There were previously 10 bridges within the city, 3 of which crossed the Rhone. These were the *Pont de la Guillotière*, originally built in 1190, 530 yards in length by 24 feet wide, with 17 stone arches, but of these only 8 are over the water; the *Pont Morand*, constructed of wood in 1774, 224 yards long by 14 wide; and between the two the *Pont Lafayette* (formerly *Charles X.*), a handsome bridge, 286 yards in length, the piers of stone, and the upper part of wood. The bridges over the Saône vary in length from 120 to 140 yards; the principal is the *Pont de Tilsit*, leading from the centre of the city, a stone bridge of 5 arches, 120 yards long by 15 wide, erected at a cost of 2,000,000 fr., or 120,000*l*. sterling. (*Hugo*.) Lyons has 55 places or squares, some large and regular, but, as may readily be inferred from their number, the great majority are very much the reverse. The *Place Bellecour* (formerly *Louis-le-Grand*), one of the largest and handsomest in France, and perhaps in Europe, in the very heart of the city, has two of its sides nearly 240 yards in length, the two others measuring 246 and 218 yards. One of the principal streets forms part of its N. face; its two shorter sides consist of symmetrical ranges of handsome buildings; and on its S. side is a fine plantation of linden trees. This square is ornamented with an equestrian bronze statue of Louis XIV., and forms, with the quays, the favourite promenade of all classes. The *Place Louis XVIII.* leads into the *Cours du Midi*, a broad and fine thoroughfare, planted with trees, which separates the city from the new town of *Perache*. The other principal squares are the *Place des Terreaux*, containing the town-hall and *Palais des Arts*; *des Cordeliers*, with a fluted column upwards of 60 feet in height, supporting a colossal statue of Urania; *de Comédie*, in which is the entrance to the *Grand Théâtre*; *Sathonay*; the *Place Louis XVI.*, in the quartier des Brotteaux, &c. In the N. part of the city a covered arcade has been formed, called the *Galerie de l'Argue*, nearly 500 feet in length, and containing many good shops. Lyons is supplied with water from the Rhone, and has numerous public fountains, but none worth notice.

The town-hall holds the first rank among the public buildings. This edifice, the finest of its kind in France, was erected between 1646 and 1655. It has a front nearly 160 ft. in width, flanked with a square tower and dome at either end. Its ballustrade is ornamented with two large statues of Hercules and Minerva, and in the centre is a clock tower, surmounted by a cupola, which rises to the height of 137 ft. above ground. The depth of the building is 263 yards, at the end of which another handsome front faces the *Place de Comédie*. Its interior contains a vestibule, in which are two colossal bronze groups emblematical of the Rhone and Saône; a fine staircase, and a saloon, 87 ft. long by 40 wide, which formerly contained many fine paintings, destroyed during the Revolution. Of the 18 churches, none is very remarkable either for size or elegance. The cathedral of St. John, on the right bank of the Saône, was begun in the 7th century, but not completed till the reign of Louis XI. It is a Gothic edifice, having at its four corners, 4 heavy square towers, in one of which is a bell, weighing 35,000 French lbs. The W. entrance is very much ornamented; the interior is characterised chiefly by simplicity. In this church is a remarkable clock, constructed at the end of the 18th century by a native of Basle, which formerly indicated besides the year, month, day, hour, minute, and second, the sun's place, the phase of the moon, and the saints' day, as they occurred. This curious piece of mechanism has been suffered to fall into decay. The church of Ainay, erected on the site of an ancient temple dedicated to the emperor Augustus, has a granite cu-

lunatic and a bas-relief, originally forming parts of that edifice. Several of the churches date from the time of Charlemagne. Here is also a Protestant church and a synagogue.

The hospitals are the largest public buildings in Lyons. The *Hôtel-Dieu*, the most ancient and finest establishment of its kind in France, was founded by Childebert and his queen at the beginning of the 6th century: the present edifice consists of a continuous range of building, extending along the Rhone. It has a noble front, a fine staircase, and two domes, which, as well as the distribution and arrangements of its interior, are generally admired. This establishment receives annually 12,000 in-patients, besides affording medical aid to many persons without its walls. The *Hospice de la Charité*, also on the banks of the Rhone, apparently occupies little less space than the former, and is an asylum for 400 infirm persons of both sexes, besides many orphans, foundlings, and women *encomités*. The *Hospice de l'Antiquaille*, for syphilitic and insane patients, stands on the hill of Fourvières, on the site of the Roman palace in which the emperors Claudius and Caracalla were born. The *Hospice de la Providence* has established numerous schools of instruction with the view of checking mendicity, &c.

The prefecture occupies a spacious building, formerly a Dominican convent: its interior is well adapted to its present purpose, and attached to it are some fine gardens. The hall of justice, and the archbishop's palace, present little deserving of notice. The *Palais des Arts*, formerly the Benedictine convent of St. Pierre, consists of 4 large piles of building, enclosing a square court: different portions of this edifice are devoted to the exchange and chambers of commerce, the museum of painting, antiquities and natural history, a cabinet of medals, gallery of casts from the antique, *dépot* of machinery for the silk manufacture, the academy, schools of drawing and natural history, society of agriculture, &c. The collection of paintings comprises some works of great excellence; and that of antiquities is rich in Roman and middle age specimens of art found in and about Lyons, mosaics, and Egyptian antiquities. The public library, and library of Adamant (so called from having been presented by a citizen of that name), are deposited in the royal college, and together comprise 100,000 vols. (*États*) among which are some valuable oriental works, and old MSS. The prefecture, mint, grand theatre (an elegant structure), theatre des *Célestins*, court of justice, archbishop's palace, new prison, *condition**, salt-magazine, &c., are among the other chief edifices. The botanic garden is situated within the city, and is a favourite place of public resort. About 1½ m. above Lyons is the beautiful *le Barbe* in the *Saône*, connected with its left bank by a handsome new suspension bridge.

Manufactures and Commerce.—Lyons is in France what Manchester is in England. And notwithstanding the active competition of Zurich, Basle, Crefeld, and other places on the Continent, and of Coventry, &c., in England, she still maintains her rank as the first silk manufacturing city of Europe. Her position is peculiarly favourable: she is situated at the point of junction of two large navigable rivers, and has a ready communication with the Mediterranean, on the one hand, at the same time that she is the *entrepôt* of a vast extent of inland country. The districts of France which produce the largest quantities of silk, are immediately adjacent, while Lyons is the natural *dépot* and place of transit for the silk of Italy, in its way to the great manufacturing countries. Added to which, the manufacture has here had, for centuries, its principal seat: the pop. have been thoroughly trained and habituated to it; so that, though frequently disturbed by political events, and once or twice nearly annihilated, it has never failed, on tranquillity being restored, to return to its former locality. The silks manufactured here, are distinguished by the equality and perfection of the fabric; the brilliancy, though perhaps not the durability, of their dyes; and by the unrivalled superiority of their patterns, and the taste displayed in the designs. This superiority has been ascribed, with what justice we shall not stop to inquire, to the School of Arts (*Institution de la Martinière*), and the liberal encouragement of this branch of science by the city authorities, and the government. About 180 students are gratuitously instructed in the various branches of drawing and modelling, and there is a professor, who teaches the "*mise en carte*," that is, the adaptation of designs to the loom. The trade of Lyons, like that of all manufacturing towns, is subject to frequent crises, and periods of distress: a very serious one occurred in 1836-37, which led to formidable riots. But though many workmen implicated in the insurrections have settled in the rival towns of Switzerland, &c. there never, perhaps, were so many looms at work as at present, nor was the manufacture

ever more flourishing. The gross produce of the Lyonsese looms, in 1838, was estimated at 125 millions of francs, being considerably more than half the estimated value of all the silk goods manufactured in France. (See FRANCE, Vol. I. p. 587.)

According to M. Villermé, there were, in 1833, in Lyons and its neighbourhood, 40,000 silk looms; 17,000 in the city-proper, 9,000 in the suburbs of la Croix Rousse, la Guillotière, and Vaise, 8,080 in the neighbouring parts of the dep. Rhone, and 8,930 in the adjacent parts of Loire, Saône-et-Loire, Ain, Isère, and Drôme. Dr. Bowring was furnished with an estimate in 1834, which made the number of looms in the city 16,000, of which 4,000 were for figured stuffs; in the suburbs 9,000, half for figured silks; and in the country, for 12 or 15 leagues round, 7,000, almost wholly for plain silks: making in all 32,000 looms. According to an official estimate in 1835, the master weavers (*chefs d'atelier* or *maître-ouvriers*) in Lyons and its suburbs amounted to about 8,000; and the journeymen, or *compagnons*, to 20,000; in all, 28,000 weavers; but the *compagnons* include the wives and children of many of the master weavers. The number of individuals employed in accessory occupations, that is, in the culture of silk, the manufacture of looms, &c., cannot be ascertained; but it has been estimated by M. Villermé and M. Girod de l'Ain at 37,000 to 30,000. Hugo says that, altogether, 80,000 persons in or about Lyons are supported, directly or indirectly, by the silk manufacture.

Silk weaving at Lyons is not conducted in large buildings or factories belonging to the silk merchants (*fabricans*)†; but on the domestic system, in the dwellings of the master weavers, each of whom has usually from 3 to 6 or 8 looms, which, with the greater portion of their fittings, are his own property. Himself and his family keep as many of these looms at work as they can, and employ *compagnons* for the remainder. The latter are not settled in Lyons; but visit it, and stay a longer or shorter time according to the demand for their labour. Apprentices and *lanceurs* make up the remainder of the working classes. The former are usually apprenticed from the ages of 15 to 18; the latter are children from 9 to 14, who prepare bobbins, and weave fabrics demanding less nicety than others. About 3-7ths of the looms are wrought by master weavers, nearly an equal number by *compagnons*, and the remaining 7th by apprentices and children. The *fabricans*, or silk merchants, of whom there are between 500 and 600 in Lyons, supply the patterns and silk to the owners of looms, to whom is entrusted the task of producing the web in a finished state. Half the wages paid by the silk merchants go to the owner of the loom, and half to the labouring weaver. A master weaver may gain by his own labour from 2 to 3 fr. a day; and he who has 3 looms is supposed to receive from the two at which he does not himself work, about 900 fr., or 35*s.* a year. His wife may be about 150 fr.; the cost of lodging his two journeymen 80 fr.; and there remains besides his own labour a surplus of 670 fr. Those weavers are, of course, the most prosperous, who having 3 or 4 looms, employ their children to weave on them, and thus receive the whole wages paid by the manufacturer. 3 looms will clear to a family from 1,500 to 1,600 fr. (60 to 64*l.*) a year.

Wages have risen considerably of late years. In 1838, the price per ell paid for common plain velvets was 54 fr. *gross de Naples* 80 to 90 c., and for common figured silks from 1 to 1½ fr. A master weaver who made 2 fr. a day in 1834, could make at least 2½ fr. in 1838; and the journeymen need never earn less than 1fr. 75 c., and may frequently get 2 fr. The hours of work usually vary from 12 to 16 hours; but when the demand is brisk, they reach to 16, 18, and even 20. The weaving pop. is ill lodged, the master weavers generally having but two rooms at most, and these kept in a disgracefully filthy state. But they live very well; that is, they have abundance of nourishing food, much more than the pop. of other manufacturing towns in France. Most of the journeymen are boarded by their employers at from 15 to 50 c. a day; and have about 1½ lb. of good bread, 1 litre of wine, a dinner of soup, butchers' meat, &c., with cheese or salad at supper. They rarely save money, and few of the *compagnons* raise themselves to become *chefs d'atelier*. The weavers, speaking generally, are very ignorant; some years since not 1-4th part of the children in Lyons could read or write. But after all, according to M. Villermé, there is less profligacy in Lyons than in many other of the French manufacturing towns. (See Villermé, I. 268-69.) The proportion of illegitimate to the total number of births in 1835 was indeed as high as 1 in 3; but, in point of fact, a good many of the connections out of which these births arise are really, but little different from matrimonial connections. The weavers, to escape the *catrois*, frequently visit the *cabarets* beyond the barriers,

* This is an establishment where, by the agency of heat, the untwisted silk is reduced to an equable weight and dryness. In 1831, the weight of silk, submitted to the *condition*, amounted to 266,266 kilograms.

† There is one exception: on the bank of the *Saône*, opposite the *le Barbe*, is a factory called *le Saunier*, employing from 400 to 500 hands in the same shop in building on payment of 300 sous a month, and board there also at a low rate.

to drink their wine, play billiards, &c., on Sundays and Mondays; but they are not addicted to intoxication or rioting, and it is affirmed, and we believe truly, that they are at present improving in morals, manners, and cleanliness; and certainly they have much room for amendment. Notwithstanding their good wages and liberal supplies of food, the best French authorities admit that the Lyonsese weavers are physically an inferior and degraded race, remarkably subject to scrofulous and scorbutic complaints, spinal diseases, and rheumatism; and according to M. Charles Dupin, half the young men in Lyons liable to military service are exempted on account of weakness, deformity, or deficiency of height, though the standard for recruits or conscripts in the French is considerably below what it is in the English army. (See Vol. I. 864.)

Happily, however, the upper and middle classes of Lyons, the latter comprising most part of the shopkeepers, and many of the master weavers, are eminently comfortable, rich, and thriving. Mr. MacLaren states that there are three times more villas than round Paris; and the number of private and public works erected in and near the city during the last 20 years sufficiently evince the rapid increase of wealth and enterprise. The want of coal is the greatest obstacle to the improvement of the manufactures of the city, and to the extension of its industry. But despite this disadvantage, Mr. MacLaren states that the district of which Lyons is the centre is "advancing with great strides." (P. 36.)

Lyons has numerous dyeing establishments and printing offices, and manufactories of jewellery, liquors, &c.; but all these are insignificant compared with its chief branch of industry. It is the seat of a royal court, of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a chamber of commerce, one of the five royal libraries of the kingdom, a university, academy, royal college, and academy of sciences, &c.; and has schools of theology, medicine, veterinary medicine, and rural economy; a royal society of agriculture, &c.; societies of medicine, jurisprudence and literature, a Protestant Bible society, deaf and dumb asylum, a *mont-de-piété*, savings' bank, maternity, and many other charitable institutions.

The early history of Lyons is involved in much obscurity. But it appears certain, from the statement of Dion Cassius, that Munatius Plancus, about 40 a. c., settled in it fugitives from some adjoining towns. (lib. xlv.) Augustus made Lugdunum the cap. of a prov., and being embellished and enlarged by succeeding Roman emperors, it became one of the principal cities of the Roman world. The old city was principally built on the hill of Fourvières, which, in fact, is merely a corruption of its ancient name of *Forum Verus*. (*D'Assolvi, Notice de la Gaule*, p. 128.) Among the Roman antiquities which still exist at Lyons are the remains of 4 aqueducts, several cisterns, a theatre, traces of a palace, and a naumachia, recently discovered within the limits of the botanic garden.

From the 5th to the 13th century, Lyons belonged successively to the Burgundians, Saracens, Franks, its feudal archbishops, and its municipal council. In 1312 it was annexed to the crown of France; and in the same century, owing to the immigration of many merchants from Italy, it began to be distinguished by its manufactures. It suffered much during the religious wars of the 16th century; but far more from the revolutionary frenzy of 1793. Its ancient fortifications were then destroyed; but it has been since enclosed on the N. by a line of earth ramparts. Among the distinguished individuals, natives of Lyons, were, in antiquity, the emperors Claudius and Caracalla, and Sidonius Apollinarius; and, in modern times, Jussieu, the botanist; J. B. Say, the economist; Jacquard, the inventor of the loom which bears his name; Degerando, the author of the able and elaborate work *Sur la Bienfaisance Publique*, &c. (*Hugo, art. Rhone*; *Lyons, a French Official Guide*; *Bourgeois and Symonds's Reports*; *Vallérin*; *Tableaux Physique et Moral des Ouvriers*; *Ingis*; *MacLaren*, &c.)

M.

MAAD (Hung. *Mada*), a town of Hungary, co. Zemplin, in the Hegyalja mountains, about 6 m. N.W. Tokay. Pop. 5,640, partly Lutherans and partly R. Caths. It is one of the places in which the Tokay wine is grown in the greatest perfection, and near it is the imperial vineyard of Theresienberg.

MAASSLUIS, or MAASLANDSLUIS, a town of S. Holland, on a branch of the Maas, 9 m. W. by N. Rotterdam. Pop. 4,500. It has manufactures of sailcloth, cordage, leather, &c., and some building docks; and its inhab. take an active share in the herring and cod fisheries.

MACAO, a sea-port town and settlement of the Portuguese in China, prov. Quang-tong, on a peninsula pro-

jecting from the S.W. corner of the island Macao, on the W. side of the estuary formed at the mouth of the Tigre or Canton river, 84 m. S. by W. Canton; lat. 22° 11' 30" N., long. 113° 32' 30" E. The pop. is stated in the "Chinese Repository" to amount to upwards of 30,000; but we incline to think that 20,000 is nearer the mark, of whom about 15,000 are Chinese, and the rest chiefly Portuguese and slaves imported from Timor, &c.

The peninsula on which Macao stands is less than 2½ m. in its greatest length from N.E. to S.W., and not 1 m. in its greatest breadth. It is connected with the rest of the island by a long, low, and sandy neck, in one part 400 yards broad, but generally less. Across this isthmus a wall is erected, having in its middle a gate and a guard-house, called *Casa branca*, for Chinese soldiers; by means of which barrier, all communication between the peninsula and the rest of the island is cut off at the pleasure of the Chinese authorities. The Portuguese inhab. of Macao are rarely permitted to pass beyond this wall. The town has a very imposing appearance from the sea. It is built chiefly on the declivities of two hills, meeting each other at a right angle, in front of a small semicircular bay forming the harbour. A handsome row of houses faces this bay, with a parade in front embanked with stone to resist the encroachments of the sea, and interrupted once or twice by granite quays with steps leading down to the water. Behind this terrace the houses are arranged in a confused manner, and the gable ends of European residences and the steeples of the churches appear curiously intermixed with Chinese houses and temples. Macao has 12 churches, one of which, that of St. Joseph, is collegiate. There are few other edifices of any note. A spacious senate-house, in the heart of the town, forms a termination to the principal street. The Portuguese governor's residence, near the landing-place, is nowise remarkable, and the contiguous English factory is a plain commodious building. The Chinese live chiefly together in the central and back parts of the town, and along the inner harbour: some of them have well furnished shops, and they principally supply Europeans with provisions. Besides the college of St. Joseph, there are at Macao a royal grammar school, and several other Portuguese schools, a female orphan asylum, and other charitable institutions. It is defended by 6 forts, two of which are placed on a lofty height at either end of the harbour, and it is usually garrisoned by about 400 Portuguese soldiers. At one extremity of the town is a mansion called the *Casa*; in the grounds belonging to which is the celebrated cave of Camoens, sheltered on one side by a lofty rock, and on the other by a grove of bamboos, above which a tower commanding a fine view has been erected. In this sequestered retreat Camoens is said to have composed great part of the *Lusiad*, while holding the office of Portuguese judge at Macao. The land immediately without the town is fertile, and is appropriated to vegetable gardens and rice-grounds.

The harbour is on the W. side of the town, between it and Priests' Island, a small circular island, which formerly belonged to the Jesuits; but it has not depth enough to admit large ships, which accordingly anchor in the roads on the other side of the peninsula, from 5 to 10 m. E. of the town. All foreign vessels coming into the roads send their boats to the custom-house and pay a duty for all goods landed, however trifling. When a ship arrives among the islands, she is generally boarded by a pilot, who reports to the Chinese custom-house officer the nature of her cargo, and obtains a chop or permit allowing her to enter the Bogue or Bocca Tigris, with the understanding that she has nothing on board that is contraband. All females must, however, be landed at Macao, as the ship will not be allowed to proceed to Whampoa with them on board. The Chinese regulations do not allow any vessels, except such as belong to Portuguese or Spaniards, to trade at Macao. But the Portuguese inhab. lend their names for a trifling consideration to such foreigners as wish to be associated with them for the purpose of trading from the port; and vessels of other nations seldom experience any difficulty in obtaining the connivance of the Chinese officers to the landing or receiving of goods in the roads by means of Portuguese boats. Vessels of other nations, if in distress, and not engaged in the contraband trade, are admitted into the harbour for repair, on application to the senate. The latter is composed of the bishop, the chief justice, the military commandant, and several of the chief Portuguese inhab.; but a Chinese mandarin has substantially the supreme authority in the town. Except during the period of the year when the merchants of Canton are obliged to leave that city and repair to Macao, the latter is said to be dull and uninteresting. At that season, however, the carnival is celebrated with more than its usual sumptuousness in Catholic countries; and balls, masquerades, and concerts follow each other in rapid succession. Macao was given to the Portuguese by the Chinese emperor in 1586, in return for assistance afforded by them against pirates that had infested the

coast. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*; *Commerc. Dict.*; and *Private Information*.)

MACASSAR. See **CELEBES.**

MACCLESFIELD, a large manufacturing town, parl. and mun. bor. of England, co. Chester, locally situated in Prestbury div. of the hund. of its own name, on the Bollin, 16 m. S. by E. Manchester, and 143 m. N.N.W. London. Pop. of parl. bor., which includes, with the old bor., parts of the townships of Hursfield and Sutton, 33,522 in 1841; and at present, 1850, the pop. is estimated at 40,000. The town, which is pleasantly situated on a slope near the borders of Macclesfield forest, has greatly increased in size during the last 20 years, and is now about 14 m. long by 1 m. in breadth, consisting of one principal thoroughfare on the London road, crossed by two others leading to numerous subordinate streets. The buildings, in the more conspicuous parts of the town, are of superior construction: the streets also are well lighted, and the inhab. have plentiful supplies of good water, conveyed from springs in the adjacent hills. An open market-place, with excellent shambles, and a covered corn-market, stand near the centre of the town, and the newly erected town hall is a commodious and handsome building, tastefully decorated, and containing, besides courts of justice, offices, &c., a large assembly and concert room. The old church is a large structure, partly Gothic, with a handsome tower, formerly surmounted by a lofty steeple: it was originally erected by Edward I., in 1273, but has, at different times, been almost rebuilt, so that few parts of it can lay claim to any great antiquity. It affords accommodation for about 1,700 persons, and has an adjoining chapel containing several interesting monuments: the living is a perpetual curacy, till very lately in the gift of the corporation, but now in private patronage. Christ-church was erected, in 1775, at the private expense of Charles Roe, Esq., who endowed it with 100*l.* a year: it is a regular building, with a neat tower, having, in the interior, an elegant marble monument of the founder, by Bacon. Trinity church, in Hursfield, a very recent erection, is beautifully situated on an eminence, and may accommodate about 900 persons. St. George's in Sutton (built in 1832) has accommodation for 1,500, and in the S. suburbs of the town, is a fifth church, recently erected in the most construction, and light spire. There are also several places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists, and other dissenters. A free grammar-school, originally founded in 1562, was endowed by Edward VI. with property then producing only 25*l.*, but now estimated at 1,200*l.* a year, and rapidly increasing in value. A head and under-master, who have salaries of 300*l.* and 175*l.* a year (the former having a house and school-field, free of rent and taxes), give instruction in classics, elementary mathematics, history, geography, &c., the average number of scholars being about 60. This school enjoys certain advantages at Brasenose College, Oxford, and it has been proposed to set aside a portion of its property to found 4 exhibitions of the annual value of 50*l.* each, tenable for 4 years at any college either in Oxford or Cambridge. The wishes of the trading classes have likewise been consulted by the very recent establishment of a separate school, called the "Modern Free School," endowed with 360*l.* a year, and furnishing good instruction in those branches of knowledge best calculated to enable the scholars to carry on the trades, and support the commerce of Macclesfield. A charity school, national school, and several Sunday schools, with others maintained by voluntary subscription, furnish instruction to the children of the poor: and there are almshouses, various money charities, a dispensary, lying-in charity, and provident society.

"The silk manufacture of Macclesfield affords employment to the largest part of the pop.; a few, however, are employed in the cotton factories that have been lately established. This place participated deeply in the general distress occasioned by over-trading in 1823, and for several years subsequent to that period the silk trade was in a most depressed state. The effects of that shock, however, seem at length to have subsided, and business has resumed a healthy aspect." (*Man. Board. Rep.*) The trade has greatly increased since the date of this report, but is subject, more than other branches, to sudden shocks, productive of great distress to the working classes. There were at work in the par. of Prestbury (and chiefly in Macclesfield and its immediate vicinity) in 1839, 16 cotton mills and 48 silk-mills, employing 10,963 hands. The wages of the work-people employed in these mills varied, in 1841, from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 1*s.* a week. About 4,500 hand-loomers are engaged in weaving silk fabrics, chiefly silk handkerchiefs and scarfs of every description, saracets, Persians, silk-ferret, and galloon, with a few gros-de-Naples, giving employment altogether to about 9,000 persons, whose wages amount to from 6*s.* to 1*s.* a week; but there are a few industrious and expert weavers, who earn weekly as much as 2*s.* when in full work. The cotton manufacture, which was

introduced only a few years ago, is in a thriving condition, employing a pop. of about 3,500 in factories only; and hat-making is carried on to some extent. Numerous mechanics, makers of machinery, &c., depend indirectly on the staple trade of the town. The Bollin turns several mills, and the neighbourhood furnishes abundant supplies of excellent coal. Stone and slate also are quarried near the town, and form a considerable object of trade with the surrounding districts. The transit of heavy goods is facilitated by the Macclesfield canal, which connects it N. and S. with the great canal lines of England. There are two private banking establishments, with a savings' bank. A newspaper is published weekly, and there is a good news-room.

Macclesfield, which was incorporated by a charter of Prince Edward, son of Henry III., and subsequently by various sovereigns of England, has been divided by the Mun. Reform Act into 6 wards, and is now governed by a mayor and 11 other aldermen, with 26 councillors. Corp. revenues in 1849, 3,450*l.* It enjoys also a commission of the peace, with petty sessions, under a recorder. This important manufacturing town had no voice in the legislature, till the Reform Act conferred on it the privilege of sending 2 mems. to the H. of C. Registered electors in 1849-50, 1,066. Macclesfield is also one of the polling places for the N.E. division of Cheshire. Markets on Tuesday and Saturday: cattle, wool, and cloth fairs, May 6., June 23., July 11., Oct. 6., and Nov. 11. (*Parl. Reports*, &c.)

MACERATA, a city of Central Italy, Papal States, cap. deleg. of same name, on a hill between Chieti and Potenza, 21 m. S. by W. Ancona, and 170 m. N.E. Rome. Pop., in 1832, 15,600. It is well built, surrounded with walls, and entered by 6 gates. In the centre of the town is an irregular open space ornamented with several good buildings, including the cathedral, the palace of the delegate, and the theatre. Including the cathedral, there are 7 churches, in one of which are some good paintings, 13 convents, several literary associations, and a secondary university for theology, philosophy, and medicine, founded by pope Leo XII. in 1824. This city presents nothing antique, and its most interesting feature is the fine view it commands of the Adriatic, and occasionally of the mountains of Dalmatia.

"Macerata," says Forsyth, "contains a number of *palazzi*, and therefore a swarm of provincial nobility. The peasants observe an established uniform in dress, of which orange appears the prevailing colour. So constant are the women of this class to local costume, that the female head becomes a kind of geographical index. At Macerata they adhere to the ancient mode of plaiting and coiling the hair, which they transfix with long silver wire tipped at both ends with large knobs, evidently the antique *acus crinalis*—

"*Figuræ acus tortis crinalisque comas.*"

MARY.

Macerata is a bishop's see, and the seat of a court of appeal for the delegs. Macerata, Camerino, Ancona, Ascoli, Fermo, and Urbino. Its manufactures and commerce are insignificant. Under the French, Macerata was the cap. of the dep. Musone. About 3 m. to the N., on the Potenza, are the remains of a theatre of considerable size, with vaults and foundations of other edifices, supposed to indicate the site of *Helvia Ricina*, colonized by Septimius Severus, and destroyed by the Goths. (*Forsyth's Italy*, p. 320; *Rampoldi*.)

MACHYNLLETH, a market town and parl. bor. of N. Wales, co. Montgomery, near the Dyff, 80 m. W. Montgomery, and 175 m. W.N.W. London. Area of parl. bor. about 500 acres. Pop. of the town in 1831, 858. Machynlleth is an ancient, well-built town, superior to most in N. Wales for cleanliness and respectability, the streets being remarkably broad and regular. The town-hall, a plain building, was erected by the Wynn family, in whom the manor is vested: the co. sessions are held alternately here and at Montgomery, and the magistratus sit here occasionally in petty sessions for the hundred. The church is a handsome structure, was rebuilt in 1827: the interior is conveniently fitted up, and the W. tower is embattled, and surmounted with crocketed pinnacles. There are places of worship for Independents, Calvinists, and Wesleyan Methodists, with attached Sunday schools, and a well-endowed national school furnishes instruction to poor children of both sexes. There is also a savings bank. "The flannel trade has long existed at Machynlleth, being chiefly carried on at farm-houses: the fabrics are sent for sale to Newtown. Weavers' wages (when on full work) vary from 7*s.* to 9*s.* a week, and with respect to their moral condition, it is remarked as being much higher than that of operatives in general, in other districts, but yet neither better nor worse than that of the labouring classes generally within the par. The truck system is partially practised in this vicinity, being fostered by the improvidence of the weavers, few of whom make any provision for emergencies. The prices of provisions are as follows:—Four 1*s.* for 5 lbs., potatoes

2s. for 40 quarts, mutton 5d. per lb., bacon 9d., butter 11d., and oatmeal 2d. per lb. This town formerly possessed an excellent shipping trade, and was, in fact, the port of Montargis; but since the canal was brought to Newtown, and facilities were opened direct between Wales and the commercial districts of England, the carrying trade is in barges, and few ships now come to Machynlleth." (*Hand-loom Weavers' Report*, part 5.) This bor. unites with Montgomery and others in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors in 1839-40, 78: ditto in the entire district, 1,021. Machynlleth is celebrated in the history of the principality as the place in which Owen Glendwr, in 1402, convoked a parliament, where he was inaugurated Prince of Wales.

MACON (an *Antioche*), a town of France, dep. Saône-et-Loire, of which it is the cap.; on the Saône, here crossed by a bridge of 13 arches, 38 m. N. Lyons; lat. 46° 18' 27" N., long. 4° 50' 8" E. Pop. (1846), 11,784. It is pleasantly situated, but is generally ill built; the streets are narrow, crooked, and paved with rounded pebbles, painful to walk upon; the squares, though clean, are mostly small, and destitute of ornament; and the houses, though mostly of stone, are *bristes et mequines*. It was once partially fortified, but the works were never completed, and they are now laid out in public walks. A handsome quay borders the Saône, and is continuous with a planted promenade at either extremity. The ancient *hôtel de Montrevil*, now occupied by the town hall, theatre, and public library, with 9,000 vols.; the general hospital, two *hospices*, some of the churches, the prefecture, and the new prison, are the chief public buildings. Mâcon is the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a communal college, schools of mutual instruction and linear design, and of a society of agriculture, arts, and *belles lettres*; and has manufactures of coverlets, clocks and watches, copper and earthenware, pump machinery, barrels, &c. But Mâcon is principally dependent on its wine trade. The same chain of hills that overhang the rich vineyards of the Côte d'Or extends through the dep. of the Saône-et-Loire, and the part of the dep. of the Rhone called the Beaujolais. But whether it be from some difference of exposure or of soil, or other unknown cause, the wines produced in the district now mentioned are, though in many respects excellent, inferior to those of the Côte d'Or. In commerce the wines both of the Mâconnais or district round Mâcon, and of the Beaujolais, are known by the name of Mâcon wines, from Mâcon being the emporium where they are mostly sold. They are strong and durable, *corats*, *spiritueux*, *quelque fois trop jumeux*, et *soujours agréables* (Julien); and in general may be regarded as ranking next to the Beaune wines. The best growths are those of Torina, Romanèche, Chenas, and Pouilly. (*Henderson on Wines*, p. 166.) Many Roman antiquities have been found at Mâcon, and the ruins of its cathedral, destroyed during the revolutionary frenzy in 1793, form a very picturesque object. On the opposite bank of the Saône is the flourishing suburb of St. Laurent, the seat of a large corn-market. (*Hugo*, art. *Saône-et-Loire*; *Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

MACQUARRIE RIVER. See AUSTRALIA, Vol. I. p. 222, 223.

MACROOM, an inland town of Ireland, co. Cork, prov. Munster, on the Sullane, 30 m. W. Cork. Pop., in 1831, 3,068. It is a poor, mean place, consisting of a single street, mostly of cabins. It has a par. church, a R. Cath. chapel, a large school, a court-house, market-house, and a constabulary barrack. A manor-court for the recovery of debts to the extent of 2l. is held every three weeks. General sessions are held in Dec., and petty sessions on alternate Tuesdays. Markets on Saturdays. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 236l.; in 1836, 325l. Near the town is a large cavern, the interior of which has not been thoroughly explored.

MADAGASCAR, a large island of the Indian Ocean, off the E. coast of Africa (from which it is separated by the Mozambique Channel), between lat. 12° 2' and 25° 40' N., and long. 44° 30' and 51° 30' E. Length, 930 m.; average breadth, 300 m. Area estimated at about 234,400 sq. m., being somewhat greater than that of France. This country, of which only a few years ago we had scarcely any knowledge, has recently been visited and explored by missionaries and other travellers; so that we now possess very satisfactory information respecting the island and its inhabitants. The coast is generally flat and low; but the interior is considerably diversified, and, though it is not traversed by any continuous chain, many parts, especially the E., N., and S. districts, may be called mountainous, the highest point, Ankaratra, in lat. 19° 40' N., long. 47° 30' E., is about 11,000 ft. above the sea. These mountains consist of granite, sienite, and quartz, covered in the lower parts with clay-slate, primitive limestone, and old red sandstone; volcanic rocks occur in several places, and coal strata, abounding with iron, are widely distributed through the island. Rock-salt and nitre occur near the coast; and iron pyrites, oxide of manganese, and plumbago, have

been found in some districts. The rivers of Madagascar are numerous, and many of considerable size, the greater number flowing into the sea on the W. side; but most of them are choked with sand, have frequent falls and rapids, and are almost entirely unnavigable. There are likewise numerous lakes, not only in the central parts of the island, but also in the low alluvial districts near the sea, some of which are remarkable for their size and beauty. The most fertile parts are the valleys, most of which produce rice or other vegetables, or else are clothed with a rich and luxuriant verdure. The climate of Madagascar is extremely diversified; that of the coast being oppressively hot, while in the interior the temperature seldom exceeds 85° Fahr. The heat at Antananarivo, the cap., fluctuates between 40° and 85°; the middle of the day in summer is often extremely sultry, but the mornings and evenings are always pleasant. From May to October (the winter months of this island) the ground is often covered with hoar-frost, and the heat seldom exceeds 44°. At other seasons, however, the fluctuations between heat and cold are extreme and sudden, the temperature in the morning being seldom more than 40°, whereas, in the same day, the afternoon heat often exceeds 80°. The climate of Madagascar is extremely prejudicial to Europeans, in consequence chiefly of the effluvia rising from stagnant lakes and swamps near the coast; but in the central parts, and especially in Ankova, the metropolitan prov. of the island, the marsh-fever does not exist. The weather on the coast is usually hot and damp or rainy; but in the interior the rains are periodical, in a great measure regulating the divisions or seasons of the year. The trade winds from the E. and S.E. prevail during the greater part of the year; but the rains are often accompanied by violent gales from the N.W., W., and S.W. Earthquakes are occasionally felt, and the capital has more than once suffered considerable damage from such visitations.

Among the animals peculiar to Madagascar, may be mentioned five varieties of the monkey, foxes, wild dogs and cats, hogs, goats, a peculiar kind of cattle and sheep similar to those of the Cape of Good Hope: crocodiles swarm in nearly all the rivers and lakes, and are objects of great dread to the natives; serpents, also, some of large size, abound in the woods, and lizards, scorpions, and centipedes, are very numerous and troublesome. Birds also, of various kinds, are found in the forests, the principal of which are the parakeet, the kingfisher, falcon, kite, turtle-dove, pigeon, turkey, and different varieties of land and water fowls. The sea abounds with fish of various kinds, and oysters are numerous on the coast. The soil in many parts is prolific and highly susceptible of improvement, and the island produces numerous and highly valuable plants. The forests yield abundance of trees of varied durability and value; some used as dye-woods, others in building, with ebony, betel, mangrove, dragon-tree, bamboo, sugar-cane, locust-tree, *Urena* species, caoutchouc tree, plantain, banana, or (*Eugenia*), *Artocarpus*, bilim, miconia, castor-oil plant, longosia (*Cassia saccoraria*), cotton, indigo, and tobacco plants, allspice, pepper, ginger, turmeric, and rice. Various other vegetable productions have been introduced, such as the cocoa-nut, bread-fruit, fig, manioc, lemon, orange, peach, mulberry, guinea, and pomegranate. Several varieties of the Cape vine have been found to thrive well, the coffee-plant has been brought from the Mauritius, and the potato is largely cultivated as well as highly esteemed; but the common European *cerealia* have met with little encouragement. The Flora of the country is abundant; but the brilliant aspect usual to the gardens of tropical countries is here missed, in consequence of the rapid alternations of heavy rains and extreme drought.

The husbandry of Madagascar, pursued by a distinct class, consists, in a great measure, of the cultivation of rice, which is conducted with great care and success. Seed time is in September; at which season the grain, after being steeped in water, and subsequently kept in a warm place till it begins to sprout, is very thickly sown in a fine mould, almost covered with water artificially introduced into the fields. The water is afterwards drained off, manure is thrown over the seed, and as soon as the sprouts appear above the surface, moisture is again applied. The average produce in inferior grounds is said to be about 50 for 1; but the best cultivated grounds are alleged to produce seventy and even one hundred fold, the harvest being in January and February. Each rice field is separated from those adjoining by banks rising about 6 inches above the field, and affording great convenience to the labourers. Neither waggon, cart, sledge, nor beast of burden, is used in getting in the harvest, and the threshing is conducted either against a stone, or on the floor, by simply beating the ears with the hand. The secure storing of the grain, however, is an object of special attention; the Orgha, the prevailing tribe of the island, have underground storehouses, made with extreme ingenuity; but other tribes have granaries above ground, bee-hive shaped, about 16 ft. high, made

of thick, clay-built walls, and entered only from the top. Manioc is another great object of farming industry; it is raised from cuttings, and about 18 months elapse between the planting and harvest. The roots, usually about 10 inches in length by 3 in diameter, are prepared for use by scraping and boiling, and are sometimes made into cakes. Cotton is cultivated to a considerable extent; and the pigeon-pea (*cyrtus capia*) is raised for the purpose of rearing silkworms. The European cereals have been introduced by the missionaries; the plough and harrow have likewise been brought into use, and oxen broken in to cultivate the ground; but the natives prefer their old and imperfect methods of preparing the soil, to the adoption of readier plans, and superior implements. Next to the cultivation of the soil, the working of iron is the most important occupation of the people. In some parts the iron ore is found in large quantities on or near the surface, whence it is gathered in baskets and smelted for use; but when it is dug out of the ground, numerous small pits are made about 6 ft. in depth, and no further attempt is made to explore the riches of the interior. The ore is first crushed, then broken into small pieces, and afterwards submitted to the action of a charcoal fire in a rude furnace of stone-work, built up to the height of 2 or 3 ft. without mortar, and thickly plastered with clay on the outside, the blast being obtained by means of wooden cylinders, in which a rude sort of piston is fitted to drive the air through a bamboo cane into the fire. The native forges are equally simple; the anvil, about the size of a sledge hammer, is fixed in the ground near the fire, the water-trough is close by, and the smith, when at work, squats on a piece of board while his attendants surround him, armed with large hammers, and ready to strike the metal according to his directions. The articles thus manufactured comprise spears and javelins, knives, hatchets and adzes, chisels and hammers, a rude sort of plane-irons, files, pots, spoons, lamps, and nails; besides which they have been taught by the English to make hinges, screws, and locks, as well as to draw copper and iron wire. The manufacture of swords and fire-arms was introduced by the French a few years ago, and the native goldsmiths and silversmiths evince considerable ingenuity in making rings, chains, and other gold ornaments, silver dishes, mugs, spoons, &c. The felling of timber (which appears to be a monopoly of the government) employs about 700 men; the pit-saw has been brought into general use, and the native carpentry has been so much improved by the application of European tools, that their work may be justly styled "strong, neat, and well finished." (*Edin.* vol. i. p. 317.) The art of turning wood is practised by the best workmen of the capital; earthenware is made with considerable skill and taste, and many hands are employed in making rope and twine, as well as in tanning leather. The chief occupation of the people, however, next to the cultivation of rice, is the spinning and weaving of silk, cotton, and linen fabrics; but all the processes are so extremely simple, imperfect, and tedious, that it is a matter for surprise that the threads of their cloth are even and well-twisted, the weaving regular, and the patterns regular, and exhibiting fancy and good taste. The art of dyeing is also practised, and several of the native dyes produce bright and durable colours.

The pop. of Madagascar consists of 4 chief political divisions, the numbers of which are estimated to be as follows:—

The Ovahs (in the central table-land)	-	800,000
Sakalavas (W. side of the island)	-	1,300,000
Betsiloes (S. of the Ovahs)	-	1,500,000
Betaninana and Betsimasarka (on the E. coast)	-	1,300,000
		4,700,000

It is said, also, that this amount of pop. is considerably less than it was a few years back, owing chiefly to wars between the different tribes, the prevalence of the slave-trade, &c. It is, also, supposed that the practice of infanticide, which is alleged to have prevailed from time immemorial, has contributed to reduce the population. But most probably the influence of this practice is greatly overrated; and it is evident it cannot at all account for the recent decrease. The inhabs. differ materially in appearance and character, nor is there any doubt, though the people are nominally comprised in one political empire, and speak one language, that they include several distinct and peculiar nations. The distinction of colour separates the pop. into two great classes, the Ovahs, and a few other tribes, having olive complexions, handsome features, graceful persons, and lank dark hair, whereas the inhabs. of the shore, and indeed the majority of the people greatly resemble the Papuas, being short and stout, almost black, with low foreheads, broad flat faces, large eyes and mouth, and long crisped hair. There are differences also in the languages spoken by various sections of the pop., and many of their customs vary so much, as to make it clear

that, however amalgamated, they are not one nation, but a combination of several distinct races. With the exception, however, of the Ovahs, they are little better than barbarians, run almost naked, despise a fixed life, are extremely superstitious, and practice most of the vices so generally prevalent among the savages of the neighbouring continent. Circumcision is universal, marriages are formed in very early life, and divorces are very common, and easily effected. The law permits polygamy, restricting the husband to 19 wives, but few have more than two, or at most three. Fidelity to the marriage-engagement, however, forms no part of the female character, and modesty is a virtue almost unknown. Their houses are usually of rude construction, except in the cap. of the Ovah country, where European improvements have been partially introduced. The diet of the people consists, in great part, of rice and manioc, with smaller portions of beef, poultry, &c., and the cookery is extremely simple.

Fedders and hawkings are favourite, though not profitable, occupations. The markets are favourite places of resort for all classes; and not only is there a daily general market at Tananarivo, but 4 or 5 large markets are held in different parts of the province, and well attended by a vast concourse of people from the adjoining districts. Animal and vegetable productions, native and foreign manufactures and cattle are exposed promiscuously; and in no nation are there more clever and persevering bargainers than in Madagascar. The slave-trade, also, which a few years ago was nearly extinct, is now said to be pursued on a large scale. Money has not been coined on the island: dollars are more or less known in all parts, through communication with Europeans; but the trade is more generally carried on by barter. Most goods are sold by measure: rice by the bushel, meat by the *cpr*, snuff by the spoon, fuel by the bundle, &c. Rice, which may here be considered the standard of value, costs about 1s. a bushel; 20 ducks or fowls may be purchased for a dollar, geese cost about 9d. each, and a fine turkey may be got for 1s. A bullock costs from 3 to 8 dollars, sheep average about 1s. 6d. each, and 20 good fine apples may be had for 2d. Labour is also extremely low, many working for mere food, and others gaining only 2d., or at most 4d. a day. An intercourse has long been carried on with Madagascar by Arabs from Muscat, Indians from the presidency of Bombay, Europeans from the Cape of Good Hope, and Americans from Brazil and the United States. The taste of the people for foreign goods was also on the increase a few years ago; and horses, saddles and bridles, scarlet cloth, gold lace, red satin, purple, green, and yellow silk, silk handkerchiefs, sewing silk, calico and printed goods, hosiery, gloves, finger rings, watches and musical boxes, hardware, salt, and, above all, arrac and rum, fetched very high prices in the markets of Ankova; but since the death, in 1838, of Radama, the most enlightened monarch that ever held sway in Madagascar, the foreign trade has greatly declined, and the policy of the present government seems to threaten the entire cessation of all trade with Europeans.

Madagascar is divided into 38 provinces, all of which have their separate chiefs; but for some years past the Ovahs have been reckoned the prevailing tribe, the chief of which, in effect, the king of the island, receiving tribute from, and exercising sovereignty over, all the rest. The government is despotic, and the succession to the throne is commonly hereditary, the monarch having the right not only to appoint his immediate successor, but also to settle the line through future generations. He is the father of his kingdom, appoints every subordinate officer, enacts laws and orders their execution, decides cases and raises armies; but he often convokes assemblies of the people, for the purpose of obtaining consultation or advice on matters requiring mature deliberation, or in cases where the wishes of the aristocracy have to be consulted. The royal family is highly honoured, and no people can be more tenacious of etiquette, and the respect due to rank. The judges, who rank next to the blood royal, hear causes, decide disputes, and are exclusively privileged to communicate between the sovereign and people. Subordinate to these are the *farantsia*, the police and tax-gatherers of the country; the *ambovin-jets*, or local magistrates; the *maroserana*, or military governors of provinces (a very powerful and important body; and the *andafany*, or royal courtiers, who not only carry government dispatches, but constitute a general patrol for the country. The king receives tithes of all produce, enjoys the monopoly of timber, and is exceedingly rich both in slaves and cattle, receiving also a considerable *ad valorem* duty from the possessors of these valuable articles. The sovereign is also high-priest of the realm, and presides over the great national sacrifices. The religion of the country is a rude species of polytheistic idolatry, and the people almost without exception believe in witchcraft and the efficacy of charms. Christianity was introduced with temporary success by English missionaries, in 1816—1830; but it is believed that at present

it is almost powerless, in consequence of the royal edict of 1835, which not only forbade its public profession, but legalised the persecution, and even enslavement, of all natives becoming its adherents.

Madagascar, the earliest accounts of which were given by Marco Polo, from the narrative of others, was discovered, in 1506, by the Portuguese, who established a settlement close to the S. end of the island, and soon after tried, though with little success, to introduce the Rom. Cath. religion. It was at first resorted to merely as a place of refuge and provisioning station for ships; but in 1642 an attempt was made by the French to make it one of their colonies, which however proved futile, in consequence of its extreme unhealthiness; and in 1664 most of the colonists removed to the neighbouring island of Bourbon. The Jesuits meanwhile continued to exert themselves in the establishment of Christianity; but owing to the injudicious zeal of Father Stephen, the superior of the mission in Madagascar, the natives were exasperated at the innovations of the foreigners, some of the missionaries were massacred, and the rest were glad to escape from the island. Various attempts have subsequently been made by the French to establish a permanent settlement, and since the general peace of 1815 they have formed four small colonies on the E. coast, as well as on the contiguous island of Madame-St.-Mary. The English missionaries were allowed to visit Madagascar in 1818—1825, with full permission to disseminate their moral and religious views, and the sovereign Radama was favourable to the establishment of schools and the introduction of first-class methods both of agriculture and manufactures. Since his death, however, there has been a stagnation in the trade with England, the missionaries have been forbidden to approach the island, all possible means have been adopted to destroy the effects which the exertions of Europeans had accomplished in eight years, and Madagascar may now be ranked among the barbarous countries of E. Africa. (*Rochem's Voyage to Madagascar*; *Ellis's Hist. of Madagascar*, vol. i. *passim*; and *valuable private information*).

MADDALONI, a town of S. Italy, king. of Naples, prov. Terra-di-Lavoro, cap. canton, 14 m. N.N.E. Naples. Pop. 10,500. It has several churches and convents, a house of refuge, a royal college, and a noble aqueduct, which conveys water to the royal palace at Caserta.

MADERA, a great river of S. America, a tributary of the Amazon (which see).

MADEIRA, a famous island in the N. Atlantic Ocean, belonging to Portugal, Funchal, its cap., on its S.E. side, being in lat. 32° 38' N., long. 16° 54' 36" W.; length of Madeira, about 46 m.; breadth about 7 m. Area, estimated at above 300 sq. m. It is a mass of basaltic rock, presenting to those approaching its N. coast, numerous disjointed crags, and tall isolated peaks, interspersed here and there with less elevated spots of verdure, the whole being based on enormous, dark-looking columns, rising perpendicularly several hundred ft. from the sea; which is usually so deep, even close in shore, that soundings are not found in less than 50 fathoms and upwards, except in Funchal, where ships anchor in from 30 to 35 fathoms. The cliffs on all sides are very lofty; the *Pico d'Ageria* (eagle's rock) on its N. coast, a black cubic-shaped mass of rock, is upwards of 1,000 ft. high; and C. Fargo, at the N.W. extremity of the island, rises 4,000 ft. above the sea; but the most curious feature on the coast is the Punta S. Lorenzo, at its E. extremity, a ledge of rock 6 m. in length by 1 m. in breadth, which, though less lofty than other parts, is remarkable for its bold projection into the sea, and its fantastically-broken cliffs and peaks. The rapid declivities of the island are furrowed by the S. E. gullies, the bottom of which flow rills of pure spring water; and up their sides vineyards are formed by means of successive terraces, to the height of 2,800 ft. above the sea. The mountain scenery of the interior is bold, and highly romantic; one part, a few miles N.W. of Funchal, being called, by way of distinction, "the Switzerland of Madeira." Here is a deep valley, or crater, inclosed on all sides, except seaward, by a range of magnificent precipices, rising upwards of 1,000 ft. above the vale, the summits and sides of which are broken into every variety of dark beetling pinnacle, or flattened and tree-clad buttress; while far below smiles a fair region of cultivation and fruitfulness, rich in every species of vegetation, though itself rather more than 2,000 ft. above the sea-level. The culminating point of the island is Pico Ruivo, rising 5,450 ft. above the sea, and covered with vegetation to its summit. Three rivers, or rather torrents, rise on its sides, and cross the island in several directions, contributing greatly to its fertility. The streams are carefully collected, and rendered more available for the purposes of agriculture, by means of artificial channels, or *levadas*, or *levadas*, constructed with vast labour. At present (1840) a great work of this kind is in the course of being completed, by which a copious stream, which is precipitated from the top of a cliff 1,000

feet in height, will be made subservient to the purposes of irrigation.

The climate of Madeira fluctuates less than that of any country N. of the equator: its mean annual temperature having been found, in a period of 18 years, not to exceed 65° Fahr., that of the hottest months (Aug. and Sept.) being 74°, and that of the coldest (Dec. and Jan.) 53°, the glass seldom falling below 55° even in the severest weather. The heat of summer, however, is considerably higher, being increased from 100 to 150° during the prevalence of the hot and parching E. winds (the *scirocco*) that blow off the African continent. The temperature of Funchal, however, is considerably higher than that of the island in general: there dews are slight, and the rains few and far between; but in the higher parts of the island, a cool climate is rendered more delicious by frequent dews and rains enriching vegetation, and rendering the air fresh and salubrious. This remarkable equality of climate, not only through the year, but during the day and night, constitutes the chief recommendation of Madeira to invalids. Persons subject to chronic pulmonary complaints, unattended by any material disorganisation, have derived much benefit from a voyage to Madeira; as have others afflicted with diseases of the windpipe; and a still greater number who are the victims of dyspepsia, or other maladies of the stomach, the cure of which is hastened by the regular habits and exercise usually taken by invalid residents in the island. The efficacy of the climate, however, in cases of confirmed *tubercular* consumption has been absurdly exaggerated. It may, indeed, lengthen life a little; but it cannot effect a cure. During the last half century, vast numbers of invalids, of whose recovery no rational hope could be entertained, and who should have been left quietly to expire at home, have been hurried off to this island, at an expense which they could often but ill afford, for no purpose unless it were to amuse them with false hopes, or that they might occupy a place in Funchal church-yard. Invalids should not attempt the voyage before the middle of June, nor later than the end of September; spring is a trying season, owing to the prevalence of N.E. winds; and October is the first month of the rainy season of autumn.

Every part of Madeira, not encumbered with rocks, is extremely fertile; the hills are covered with luxuriant vegetation, and the most delicate flowers grow on their summits, which are constantly moistened with dew from the clouds overhanging the island. Trees and shrubs of the finest kinds are every where abundant, and tropical plants which have strayed from the garden soon become naturally acclimated to the soil. "Here," says Mr. Wilde, "all is sunshine: the green bananas, with their beautiful feathery tops, tell the visitor, that he has bid farewell to Europe; the orange trees hold out to him their branches, laden with golden fruit. Plantations of coffee trees fill the spaces between the houses, the splendid coral tree hangs over his head, and the snowy bells of the tulip tree mingle with the scarlet hyacinths. If he wish for exercise, he has the most inviting walks, and the most tempting shades to shelter him; wide-spreading plane trees, and willows of gigantic growth, bend their slender arms over the streams that murmur from the hills. As he begins to ascend from Funchal, the beauty increases, and the sea-view opens to his sight. The roads, though steep, are well paved, and the horses trained to an easy pace. He rides through a perfect vineyard, where in many places the vines are carried on trellises over the road, and large bunches of grapes hang within his reach. Hedges of geraniums, fuschias, and heliotropes, border those narrow paths, and shade him from the sun; the *Ficus indica* clothes the steep slopes, the *Sida*, *Juglans*, and *Guernsey* are sprinkled over the vineyards, and the *Cassia japonica*, with its delicate white flower and waxy leaf, adorns every quinta. Higher up grow the yam, prickly pear, dragon-tree and cedar, the aloe, agave and hydrangea, the sweet potato, and the *Phormium tenax*; and heaths and pines crown the highest summits of the island." (*Narrative*, i. 89—91.) Thus it appears, that below the elevation of 1,900 ft., many of the most useful tropical plants, as the date, palm, guava, banana, coffee-plant, &c., are found, with numerous others peculiar to the warmer part of the temperate zone. Up to 2,800 ft., the fruits and grains of Europe, especially maize and corn, are raised; and nearly the whole of this district is covered with vineyards. The chestnut, which is extremely abundant, the beech, and other European trees, with the mahogany, attain an elevation of 3,400 ft., above which rise pines, heath, ferns, and grasses. Pasture is scanty: few cows are kept, and the products of the dairy are here expensive luxuries. Horses are little used, their place as beasts of burden being supplied by mules and asses of the Spanish breed. Goats and hogs are very numerous, and are allowed to run wild on the mountains, where also are found large quantities of rabbits. Poultry is abundant, and cheap; and small birds of magnificent

plumage occupy the groves. Myriads of finely variegated lizards crowd the gardens and vineyards, occasionally doing much damage to the grapes; but there are no venomous reptiles, and the inhabs are free from that insect plague that is usually one of the drawbacks of warm countries. The honey bee is abundant, and produces fine honey. Many varieties of fish are caught on the coast, especially tunnies and eels, which are the favourite food of the inhabs.

Agriculture is chiefly confined to the raising of vines. Land is usually let out in small holdings, varying from 10 to 40 or 50 acres, and the rent is estimated, on the *metayer* principle, at half the produce, according to a yearly valuation of the crops. Wheat, barley, and rye are produced; but the crops average little more than a third part of the annual consumption. The wheat grown in 1837 is said, though we attach little credit to such statements, to have amounted to 6,787 qrs., the barley to 2,664 qrs., and the rye to only 570 qrs. Wheat is sown in Oct., and reaped in June, this crop being followed by another of beans or sweet potatoes. Rice is cultivated more as an ornamental grass than for any useful purpose; and Indian corn, which is admirably adapted to the climate, and is much used as an article of food, has till very lately been little grown.

Considerable attention has lately been devoted to the cultivation of the coffee plant, which should the demand for wine not increase, may perhaps, become of considerable importance. Fruits and vegetables are raised with little trouble, and the show in the fruit-market of Funchal, in a grove of noble palm-trees, would astonish any untravelling European, even from Italy or Spain. Here, besides all the ordinary fruits and garden vegetables of S. Europe, as oranges and lemons, green figs, grapes, pomegranates, water and Valencia melons, pumpkins, &c., one may see bananas and guavas, finer even than those grown in the W. Indies, custard-apples, alligator pears (the fruit of the *Leurus Pears*), numerous tribes of cucurbits, the exquisitely flavoured fruit of the *Cactus triangularis*, the Cape gooseberry, sent as a preserve to Europe, and the *tscho-tscho*, said to be "delicious." But its wine is the great glory of Madeira. The grape is not indigenous to the island; and it is said to have received its first plants from Crete, carried thither by order of the famous Prince Henry of Portugal, under whose auspices it was settled by the Portuguese in 1421. Many other varieties of the grape have since been carried to the island, its mild climate and volcanic soil being especially suitable for their growth.

The steepness of the hill-sides, on which the vines chiefly grow, and the necessity of economising valuable space, have led to the practice of raising the vine-beds on successive terraces, supported by retaining walls. The vines are trellised on bamboo and other supports for the purpose of exposing the grapes to the ripening influence of the sun, and the benches are frequently of enormous size. The usual method of cultivation is to trench the ground round the vines, deep, according to the soil, and to a quantity of loose or stony earth at the bottom, to prevent the roots from reaching the clayey soil beneath, which would otherwise hinder their growth. The ground is watered three times, if the summer be very dry, and each time it is thoroughly saturated; but the less it is watered the better is the wine, though the quantity, of course, be diminished.

The N. side of the island, though sufficiently fertile, being the most exposed to cold winds and fogs, is not so favourable to the culture of the vine as the S., where all the finest growths are raised. The best Madeira-malmsey, or *Macholia*, is produced on rocky grounds exposed to the full influence of the sun's rays, the grapes being allowed to hang till they be dead ripe. The *Sercial* grape will, also, only succeed on particular spots. The wine made from it, when new, harsh and austere, and requires to be long kept. The best Madeira wine is produced on the S. side of the island; but it is alleged that not less than two-thirds of the wine grown even in this quarter is of secondary quality; so that in Madeira, as in all wine countries, the first growths (*premier cru*) are both scarce and dear. The process of making the wine is very simple. The grapes are picked from the stalk, thrown into a vat, pressed, first with the feet, and afterwards with a weighted wooden lever. The proprietor of the land, and the collector of taxes for the crown, both attend at the press; the latter takes out of the tub his *smith* of the whole *must*, the remainder being equally divided between the landowner and the tenant. Each takes with him a sufficient number of porters to carry away their respective shares, sometimes in barrels, but more frequently in goat skins, *bovachas*, to the cellars in Funchal, where the English merchants have extensive yards and vats for storing the wine, and carrying it through the different processes of fermentation, mixture, &c. They usually advance money beforehand to the growers, to enable them to defray the expenses of cultivation. (*Barrow's Voyage to Cochon China*, p. 22.)

Though naturally strong, a quantity of brandy is added to Madeira wine when racked from the vessels in which it has been fermented, and another portion is added when it is about to be exported. The demand for Madeira wine in the E. and W. Indies, where it is highly esteemed, first led to a knowledge of the improvement it derives from being carried to a warm climate; and it has long been customary for ships outward bound for India and China to touch at Madeira, and take large large quantities of wine on board, which they bring home to England. But it must not be supposed that all the Madeira wine that has gone to Calcutta and Canton is necessarily better than any brought direct from the island, as much must obviously depend on the quality of the wine sent to the East. But, if due care be taken in the selection of the wine sent to India and China, it is very much improved and matured by the voyage; and it not only fetches a higher price, but is in all respects superior to the direct importations. Most of the adventitious spirit is dissipated in the course of the Indian voyage, and the full flavour of the wine is evolved.

Madiera wines may be kept for a very long period. "Like the ancient vintages of the Surrestine hills, they are truly *Armistice* wines, retaining their qualities unimpaired in both extremes of climate, suffering no decay, and constantly improving as they advance in age. Indeed they should not be produced for the exportation until they have been kept for ten years in the wood, and afterwards allowed to mellow nearly twice that time in bottle; and even then they will hardly have reached the utmost perfection of which they are susceptible. When of good quality, and matured as above described, they lose all their original harshness, and acquire that agreeable pungency, that bitter sweetness, which was so highly prized in the choicest wines of antiquity; uniting great strength and richness of flavour with an exceedingly fragrant and diffusible aroma. The nutty taste, which is often very marked, is not communicated, as some have imagined, by means of bitter almonds, but is inherent in the wine." (*Henderson*, p. 263.)

The wines of Madeira have fallen of late years into disrepute in England. The growth of the island is very limited, not exceeding 15,000 or 18,000 pipes, of which a considerable quantity goes to the East and West Indies, and America. Hence, when Madeira was a fashionable wine in England, every sort of deception was practised with respect to it, and large quantities of spurious trash were disposed of for the genuine vintage of the island. This naturally brought the wine into discredit; so that sherry has been for several years the fashionable white wine. It is difficult, however, to imagine that adulteration should ever have been practised to a greater extent upon Madeira than it is now practised upon sherry. It is not, therefore, improbable that a reaction may take place in favour of Madeira, which has sunk to a much lower place in the public estimation than it deserves to hold. In 1827, 308,295 gallons Madeira were entered for home consumption, whereas the quantity entered in 1849 amounted to only 71,097 gallons, being less than 3 per cent. of the sherry entered for consumption in the same year! Such is the power of fashion, for there cannot be a question that really good Madeira is one of the very best of wines.

The commerce of Madeira is very considerable; the exports consist principally of wine. Among the minor articles of export are fruits, both fresh and preserved, dragons' blood (the gum of the *Calamus draco*), honey and wax, orchil (a white lichen used in purple-dyeing), tobacco, and provisions for ships. Its imports comprise manufactured goods, sheep, salt, provisions, fish (especially herring and cod), oil, corn, and some tropical productions. We subjoin a statement of the vessels, and their tonnage, which arrived at and left Funchal in 1837; specifying the countries whence they came, and for which they cleared out, with the value of their cargoes:—

Countries.	Arrived.			Departed.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Value of Cargoes.	Ships.	Tons.	Value of Cargoes.
Gt. Britain	130	29,432	55,225	121	29,270	151,005
Portugal	75	5,479	34,472	75	5,859	6,555
U. States	35	3,284	27,301	26	6,408	71,335
Martinique	33	4,536	30,451	33	4,998	515
Denmark	10	1,994	6,864	9	1,795	15,080
France	7	945	6,162	6	1,305	305
Holland	8	507	1,540	8	507	11,100
Other countries	14	1,364	9,090	14	1,364	1,300
Total	306	50,721	159,264	307	50,723	240,300

The imports from England, in 1838, comprised cotton, woollen and linen fabrics, and haberdashery, to the value of 22,370*l.*, with coal, earthenware, butter and cheese, salt meat, rice, sugar, &c., making in all a total value of 35,000*l.* The Americans send timber, whale-oil, salt fish

and meat, permaccet candles, with other articles, in small quantities, to the value, in 1838, of 41,057 dollars.

The government of Madeira has at its head a lieutenant-governor, whose power is so extensive that the comfort and happiness of the inhab., especially the British, are greatly dependent on his character and acquaintance with the island. Justice is administered by a tribunal in whose favour little can be said, from which there is an appeal to the courts at Lisbon. The crown revenues are derived partly from a duty of 30 per cent. on all imports, except provisions; but the most productive source is the tithe of wine, with an additional duty per pipe on the quantity exported. A revenue is also derived from the monopoly of snuff, cards, and soap. The revenue is sufficient to defray the expenses of the civil, military, and ecclesiastical establishments; considerable sums are likewise expended in public works, roads, &c., and frequently there remains a surplus which is remitted to Portugal. The number of clergy, including monks and nuns, is stated to be somewhat under 300: they are partly supported by the crown revenues, the tithe wine being originally intended for their maintenance; but the present government allowance, which they receive in lieu of it is extremely small; so that the monks and clergy traffic in wine, or engage in other secular business, while the nuns gain a considerable income by making artificial flowers of wax and feathers, which are justly admired for their delicacy and beauty, and purchased by visitors and shippers at high prices. It would be well, however, were both monks and nuns suppressed. According to Sir John Barrow, who is by no means disposed to be over-ensoricose, "The clergy are not very rigid in exacting from others the duties of religion, nor in settling an example of pious conduct in their own persons. On the contrary, the loose manners, the intemperate mode of life, and the free conversation of many of the monks, are a disgrace to the sacred office which they hold." (P. 14.)

The pop. of Madeira, which, including Porto Santo (see post), was ascertained by a late census to amount to 12,500, is a mixed race, spring principally from Portuguese and Moors; but in Funchal many of the labouring classes show, by their English faces and complexions, that there has been a considerable intermixture with British settlers. Negro slaves, also, are still numerous; but they seldom intermarry with those of European origin. On the whole, the natives are a finer and more comely race than the Portuguese; they are of the middle size, well formed, and strongly knit, with masculine features, hair, and complexion. The women are almost universally under the standard height, and, when young, display handsome features, which, however, soon become coarse and unattractive, owing to their laborious field occupations. The men are dressed, somewhat in the costume of English sailors, with large full leather boots, and a little funnel-shaped cap on their heads. This curious head-gear is worn also by the women over the white muslin handkerchief, which covers the head and hangs down over the shoulders; and their gay chitons gowns and scarlet pelerines give them a light and picturesque appearance. "It is delightful," says Mr. Wilde, "to see groups of these peasantry in companies of eight or ten sitting in some places with the labouring classes, eating their morning's meal, or completing their toilet, before entering the town, while others are hastening along, loaded with the various produce of their gardens, consisting of bunches of yellow bananas, strings of crimson pomegranates, &c., or carrying fowl, firewood, and fish to the market of Funchal, each little party preceded by its mandolin-player, who at times accompanies the wire-strung instrument with his voice, and is joined at intervals by the hearty chorus of the whole group." But the condition of a people is not to be learned from such holiday descriptions; and the truth is, that the native inhabitants of Funchal are meagre, sallow, and short-lived. "This," as Sir John Barrow has stated, "is not to be attributed to the climate, but to the poverty of their food, which chiefly consists of pumpkins, sour wine, or pernicious spirits; to a life of drudgery and exposure to the great vicissitude of climate, by daily ascending the steep and lofty mountains in search of fuel; and, above all, to a total disregard of cleanliness." In fact, almost all the natives of the island are infected with a species of Itch, which they regard as incurable, and which is accompanied with a great degree of inflammation. (Barrow, p. 11.) Among the richer inhab. are many Portuguese *fidalgo*s; but by far the larger part are merchants and private residents belonging to almost every commercial country, especially Great Britain. These hold little intercourse with the other inhab., but live either in their town-houses at Funchal, or at their villas or *quintas* higher up the island, where they exercise the most liberal hospitality. A small tax on wine sent to England is levied by our consul, to form a fund for charitable purposes, which is further increased by the benevolent contributions of the merchants, who also support an English episcopal church, the present

minister of which (Mr. Lowe) is at once a zealous clergyman, and a scientific naturalist.

Funchal, the only town of Madeira requiring any special notice, is situated on the S.E. side of the island, and stretches nearly a mile along the margin of the bay. It is irregular, inconvenient, and meanly built, with narrow, crooked, steep, and dirty streets, some of which being paved with sharp-pointed pebbles, are extremely painful to walk upon. Streamlets of water run down some of the streets from the overhanging mountains; but when Sir John Barrow was here, the inhabitants washed their clothes, cleaned their fish, and threw their filth, offals, &c. into these streamlets; so that, in fact, they were rendered rather a nuisance than any thing else; but it is stated in late works on the island, that these inconveniences have been in part obviated, and the filth of the town materially abated. The houses are commonly low, not often exceeding one story in height, with white outside. Those belonging to the *fidalgo*s or rich merchants are comparatively large and handsome, having at the top a *terrace* or terrace commanding a view of the harbour, used for reconnoitring vessels as they arrive in the offing. The governor's castle is a large clumsy-looking Gothic structure, near the beach. The cathedral, has a *parvis*, or open space, before its W. door; and beyond it is the *Terreiro da Sé*, a pleasant promenade under several parallel rows of trees, enclosed by a low wall, and overlooked by pretty houses with balconies. In one of the wings of the Franciscan convent is a chamber, the walls and ceiling of which are formed or covered with human skulls and thigh-bones! The English church in the suburbs is an elegant and commodious building, literally embosomed in ever springing roses and white daturas. The convent of *Nossa Senhora do Monte*, amid groves of chestnut-trees half way up the mountain, commands a very fine view. Funchal roads labour under several disadvantages: the anchorage is in 35 or 40 fathoms; land squalls are often extremely violent; a heavy surf on the beach, especially in spring, makes a landing at all times unpleasant, and sometimes unsafe, except in the shore-boats, in managing which the natives are very skillful. Even the autumnal to the vernal equinox, when strong southerly gales throw in a heavy sea, the roads are peculiarly dangerous, and many accidents have then occurred.

A few inconsiderable islands in the vicinity of Madeira are included under its government. Of these Porto Santo, 35 m. N.W., is the only one that is inhabited. It has a parched barren aspect, and has but one fountain of good water. Its products comprise wine of an inferior quality, good barley, water-melons, and other fruits; but it is wholly destitute of wood. The town is insignificant, and is occasionally used as a place of exile from Madeira. The entire pop. of the island may be about 1,400. The little islands called the *Desertas*, are occasionally visited by a few fishermen and smugglers, and the rest are mere rocks.

Madaira is said to have been discovered in 1344, by Macham, an Englishman, who was wrecked, and cast on its shores. But this story is very doubtful; and it seems most probable, that Juan Gonzales, who had been despatched on a voyage of discovery by Prince Henry of Portugal, and who fell in with this island in 1419, was its real discoverer. When discovered, it was uninhabited, and covered with wood, and was on that account called *Madaira*, that being the Portuguese term for timber. It was settled by the Portuguese in 1421, and has since continued in their possession. (*Robertson's America*, book 1.) Its occupation by the English during the late war with France, being merely in order to prevent its falling into the hands of the French, it was restored to Portugal at the peace of 1814.

MADELEY, a market town and par. of England, co. Salop, formerly Wemlock, on the banks of the Severn, 13 m. E.S.E. Shrewsbury, and 14 m. W. London. Area of par. 2,750 acres. Pop., in 1841, 7,368. The town, which is of considerable antiquity, and celebrated in history as having given refuge to Charles II. after the battle of Worcester, derives its present importance from its proximity to the great coal and iron district of Coalbrookdale. The church is a handsome modern structure, the living being a vicarage in private patronage. The Rom. Caths., Wesleyan, and Primitive Methodists have also their respective places of worship, and there is a meeting-house for the Society of Friends. A national school is connected with the church, and there are four Sunday schools. The iron trade, carried on here to a considerable extent, is much facilitated by means of the Shropshire canal, which joins the Birmingham and Liverpool junction canal, and connects Madeley and the Ketley Ironworks with the great manufacturing districts of Dudley, Wolverhampton, Birmingham, &c. About 3 m. W. of the town, and near the romantic village of Coalbrookdale, is a cast-iron bridge, erected in 1780, of one arch, 100 ft. in span, 40 ft. above the river, and containing 375 tons of metal, being the first structure of the kind raised in the kingdom. This beautiful rural district, embosomed

between high and well-wooded hills, has within the last half century been converted into one of active mining and manufacturing industry, the furnaces now (1850) at work in this vicinity being estimated to produce 50,000 tons of iron a year. At Coalport, about 2 m. from the above-mentioned bridge, is a considerable manufactory of china. Markets on Friday: fairs May 20. and last Tuesday in Oct.

The neighbourhood of Madeley is remarkable for an extraordinary convulsion of the earth, that took place in 1773, when about 80 acres of land were shifted from their site, and broken into irregular chasms, large oak trees were uprooted, and the Severn, blocked up for more than 200 yards by the displaced soil and fallen trees, was compelled to find a new channel, in which it now flows.

MADRAS (PRESIDENCY OF), an extensive division of British India, being the second in rank and the most southerly of the three presidencies. It comprises, with its tributary states, the whole of Hindostan S. of the river Krishna, the N. Circars, and Canara. It extends from 8° to 20° N. lat., and from 74° to 85° E. long. It is of a triangular shape; the base of the triangle being formed by a line drawn from Ganjam, on the coast of Coromandel, to Sadashapur, near the 15th degree of lat., on the coast of Malabar, the sides by their coasts, and the apex by Cape Comorin, at the southern extremity of India. It is consequently bounded on two of its sides, the E. and W., by the ocean, while on the third, or N., it has the dom. of the Nizam and the Rajah of Berar, parts of the presids. of Bengal and Bombay, and the Portuguese territory of Goa. Its greatest length, N. to S., is about 550 m. Its area, pop., subdivisions, &c. are specified in the following Table:—

Districts.	Area in sq. m.	Pop. 1856-7.	Pop. to 1856-7.	Land Revenue.
Ganjam	3,700	588,079	118	953,967
Vizagapatnam	5,600	1,047,414	167	1,406,008
Rajahmundry	4,400	574,890	101	1,077,137
Madraspatnam	4,810	239,759	69	844,977
Guntur	4,960	19,318	104	1,378,036
Nellore and Ongole	12,000	845,572	115	1,309,814
Arcon, N. division	8,800	806,821	30	1,475,466
S. division	4,200	560,339	47	1,075,208
Chingelput	2,325	356,219	109	875,359
Madras	6,518	650,000	31	65,262
Salem	5,599	807,964	112	1,644,713
Chinnestoor	3,169	554,740	175	1,408,855
Tanjore	8,625	1,198,730	131	3,467,765
Madura	7,656	1,153,411	148	1,750,791
Tinnevely	5,590	820,891	152	1,660,439
Belary	12,705	1,112,639	87	2,170,004
Cuddapah	12,735	1,063,164	83	1,919,415
Malabar	6,832	1,140,916	198	1,614,692
Canara	7,477	729,776	94	1,071,315
Total British territ.	150,888	16,804,851	115-8	31,897,449
<i>Tributary States.</i>				
Mysore	29,400	3,271,754	77	
Travancore and Cochin	9,400	1,138,600		
Goorg	2,540	30,000		
Grand Total of Madras Presid.	179,728	18,211,605	106-4	

Physical Geography. Mountains.—The surface consists of a central table-land, surrounded on all sides by an undulating or plain country gradually diminishing in elevation as it approaches the sea. The mountain-ranges bounding the table-land on either side are the E. and W. Ghauts, which diverge from each other at the knot of mountains termed the Nelgherries, in about 11° N. lat., and from 70° 30' to about 77° E. long. The W. Ghauts approach much nearer to the sea than the E., so that there is a much greater extent of plain country in the E. than in the W. portion of the presid. The Nelgherry Hills, which may be considered the nucleus of the mountain system in S. Hindostan, extend 34 m. E. to W. by 15 m. N. to S., having numerous peaks rising to between 5,000 and 6,000 ft., and one, Dodabetta, estimated at 8,760 ft. above the level of the sea. The W. Ghauts are more continuous and generally more elevated than the E.: the latter, even in the district of Salem, where they are highest, seldom attaining to an elevation of 6,000 ft., while the former frequently rise 2,000 ft. higher. The table-land above or between the Ghauts averages in Coorg nearly 5,000 ft. in elevation, and, in Canara, Balaghat varies from 3,000 to 5,000 ft., but it decreases rapidly in height as we proceed E. and N.; and even in Mysore, Bangalore is only 2,807 ft., and Hyderabad only 1,831 ft., above the sea. S. of the Nelgherries is the Paighautcherry Pass, in Coimbatore, 16 m. in width, extending from sea to sea, and forming a complete break in the mountain-system of S. India. S. of this pass, a mountain-chain, little inferior in height to the Nelgherries, stretches nearly due S. to Cape Comorin. This chain separates Cochin and Travancore, on the W., from the district of Madura and Tinnevely, on the E. The Ghauts elsewhere form the chief line of separation between the British territories and those of the subsidiary states.

The principal rivers are the Godavery and Krishna, with their tributaries; and the Pennar, Palaur, Punna, Cavery, Coleroon, and Vighy. These have all an E. course, and disembogue on the Coromandel coast. The three principal have been already described. (I. 871—913., II. 136.) The only other river worthy any particular notice, the Coleroon, is the N. branch of the Cavery, which, having separated from the latter, opposite Trichinopoly, bounds the district of Tanjore on the N., and falls into the sea about lat. 11° 30'. The streams running W. have short courses; the longest is the Ponnai, which traverses the Paighautcherry pass, but it is of little use for navigation, being very shallow in the dry season. There are no lakes of any importance: that of Colair, in Masulipatam, is the principal. There are numerous salt lagoons, or inlets of the sea, on the Coromandel coast, but they are of little use for navigation; and the whole of the Coromandel coast has a shelving shore, and is best by a surf, as to be at all times difficult to reach, and during the monsoon it is quite unapproachable. The inlet of Cochin, on the Malabar coast, is not within the British territory. The Malabar coast within this presidency is also very destitute of good harbours.

The Climate.—differs widely in the different portions of this presidency. The W. coast is exposed to all the fury of the S.W. monsoon, during which the rains are excessive, and often accompanied by heavy squalls and thunder storms. On the opposite coast, the rains are, on the contrary, brought in by the N.E. monsoon, a circumstance explained by the fact, that the Ghauts are elevated enough to intercept the passage of the clouds. The N.E. monsoon lasts from October to March; but the monsoon rains are over in December; and much less rain falls on the Coromandel than the Malabar coast, where, as in Canara, the annual fall of rain is sometimes 114 in. The quantity falling in Coimbatore, in 1836-7, was only 9 in., and in 1837-8, 22-1 in. The heat is much more oppressive on the E. than the W. side of S. India, owing to the greater prevalence of dry weather and parching winds. If we may depend on the statement of Berghaus, the average annual temperature of Pondicherry, lat. 11° 56', is no less than 86° 7' Fah. (29° 6 centig.), that of Madras being 89° *Alt. Lander*, &c., i. 220. At the mouth of the Krishna, in the N. Circars, in about 16° lat., the thermometer has been known to stand at 108° Fah. at midnight! (*Hamilton's E. I. Gas.* i. 418.) The plain country, in the E. part of the presidency, is frequently very unhealthy; but on the Malabar coast this is not the case. The country above the Ghauts, which has a mean temperature many degrees below that of the plains, is decidedly salubrious; it derives rain from both monsoons, having an equable climate, and an atmosphere usually clear, serene, and highly invigorating.

The Geology.—of S. India has been noticed with that of the rest of Hindostan. (I. 93.) Sienite, granite, quartz, greenstone, mica, and hornblende are among the chief primitive rocks, in the Ghauts, Nelgherries, &c. The upper soil on the coasts is usually sandy, and not very productive; but in the valleys of the interior, it frequently consists of a rich alluvium or loam. The soil of the Balaghat districts, N. of Mysore, consists principally of the red and black earth, so prevalent in the Deccan.

Natural products.—Many portions of the soil in the table-land are highly impregnated with carbonate of soda, nitre, and other salts; iron is generally plentiful, and the iron ore of the district of Salem is extremely rich. Copper is found in Nellore, and a few other districts, and diamonds near Cuddapah. The presidency yields no other mineral products of much value. A considerable extent of surface, especially in the upper part of the country, is covered with forests, comprising teak, sandal, ebony, and other valuable timber trees. Tea grows on the E., as well as the W. Ghauts; but that of the Malabar coast is the most available, and best known, in the market: a good deal being floated down to the coast by the small rivers, and sent to Bombay and elsewhere for ship-building. The toddy-palm (*Borassus flabelliformis*), cocoa-nut tree, the products of which form important articles of export from the W. districts; and other palms flourish on the sandy coast lands, which supply few other useful articles. The sugar cane, areca, yam, plantain, tamarind, jack, mango, melons, and various other fruits, ginger, turmeric, cotton, hemp, &c., some of which are indigenous, are pretty generally grown; pepper is an important article of culture on the Malabar coast, and Coimbatore is celebrated for the excellence of its tobacco. Rice, paddy, wheat, barley, maize, and all the other grains common in India, both wet and dry, are here cultivated: the first is grown chiefly on the plains of the coast; but it forms also the chief export of Coorg, though a high country, and is the great staple of Canara. The Balaghat districts are almost wholly appropriated to dry grain cultivation.

Animals.—The elephant, tiger, chetah, bear, bison, elk, spotted deer, antelope, jackal, wild hog, jungle sheep, &c., inhabit this as well as other parts of India; tigers, however, are not so numerous as in the countries watered by the Ganges, and other low and jungly portions of Hindostan. Ivory is a product of some consequence in Coimbatour; from 700 to 800 elephants being destroyed in that prov. between 1832 and 1836. Domestic animals are most numerous in the E. and S. districts; Guntoor is celebrated for its cattle; and Coimbatour for its sheep, which are not hairy and long-legged like those of the Carnatic, but small, yielding good mutton and coarse wool, made into common sorts of clothing, carpets, &c. Live stock, above the Ghauts, is scarce and inferior.

Land-tax.—With the exception of the N. Circars. (see CIRCARS, NORTHERN), the greater portion of the territories included in the Madras presidency, are assessed for the land-tax on what has been called the *ryotwar* system. It is unnecessary, however, after the copious details we have already given in the article on British India (see *anté*, p. 22.), to enter, in this place, into any further investigations with respect to the nature and operation of that settlement. It is sufficient to say that the land-tax in Madras is oppressive in amount; and that the system under which it is assessed, being subject to perpetual change, is subversive of the security of property, and consequently of all industry, except what is indispensable to meet immediate wants. We do not mean to impeach the motives, or to depreciate the talents, of Sir Thomas Munro, and the other individuals most instrumental in the establishment of this system; but we do not well see, supposing they had set about devising a scheme for paralysing enterprise, and creating an insuperable obstacle to all improvement, how they could have hit upon one better fitted to accomplish such objects than the *ryotwar* assessment. It appears to have every quality that an assessment should not, and not one that it should, have; and it were idle to expect that either the revenue of the presidency, or the industry and condition of the inhabitants, should be materially improved, so long as it is permitted to shed on all sides its withering influence.

Agriculture, &c.—The imposition of an oppressive assessment is the more severely felt, as the land in the Madras presidency is generally much less fertile than in Bengal and many other parts of British India. Tanjore may be said to be the granary of the presidency, and produces the greatest land revenue. The widest breadth of cultivated land is met with in Rajahmundry, Tanjore, and Coimbatour. The modes of agriculture pursued in the different provinces will be found briefly noticed in the articles which have especial reference to them. Generally, however, it may be said that agriculture is at a very low ebb; that the occupiers, ground down by oppressive taxes, are for the most part miserably poor, and their implements and stock alike bad; irrigation is extensively practiced; and wherever a sufficient supply of water (whether from rivers, tanks, or wells) can be commanded, as in the delta of Tanjore, S. Arcot, &c., the crops of rice are very heavy. The land under dry grains is generally manured; and cow dung used as fuel in this presidency being subject to a tax, it is generally used as manure. Opium is rarely or not at all grown; and indigo only in small quantities, principally in the N. districts. Coimbatour exports annually upwards of 4,000 candelis of tobacco to Malabar, Cochín, and Mysore. The superiority of the tobacco grown in this province is attributed to the soil containing much saltpetre and peroxide of iron, as well as to the attention bestowed on its culture. The exhaustion of the land, from its cultivation, is, however, very great; the ground consequently requires frequent and regular manuring, and is cultivated every other year with dry grains. Tobacco costs on the spot where produced about 25 rupees per candy. Cotton is a staple product of Tinnevely; and it and sugar are raised in various other places.

Manufactures, &c.—The chief are those of cotton cloth; and formerly cotton fabrics and other piece goods were largely exported, especially from the N. Circars; latterly, however, the lower price and better quality of British piece goods have enabled them, to a great extent, to supersede those of India in most foreign markets; though the latter are still exported, especially from Tinnevely to the W. Indies and America. The natives have recently turned their attention to the imitation of English cottons, and, in some instances, it is said, with considerable success. The muslins of Chicacole, the woollen carpets of Ellore, and the silks of Berhampore (Ganjam), are of old celebrity; but in general manufacturing industry flourishes most in the S. districts, and the cloths of Madura are highly esteemed for their fine red dye. The state of manufactures appears to depend in a great degree on the state of the roads, and means of communication.

In the S. provs. the government has completed several good carriage roads, and in the N. they are also pretty good. Canara, on the other hand, may be said to be wholly without roads, and vehicles are unknown. The Malabar coast has a singular paucity of manufactures; its chief wealth arises from its large exports of rice to Arabia and Bombay, and of pepper and other spices, areca, cocoa-nuts, &c. A good deal of iron is made in Tinnevely; and saltpetre and salt are made in various parts; but the latter are inferior to those of the Bengal presidency. Above the Ghauts the arts are in a very rude state.

Weights and Measures.—At Madras, the *maund* of 40 seers or 8 *lis* = 25 lbs. avoird.; the *candy* of 20 maunds = 500 lbs.; the *garre* for grain = 12½ mds. At Trichinopoly, the *seer* for metals = 9 os. 8½ dr. In Malabar, the *loam* of 40 seers = 23 lbs. 3 os.; the foot = 10·46 in. At Madras, the *mauney* = 3,400 sq. ft.; the *cannay* of 24 mauney = 1·3223 acres. (*Madras Almanack*, 1836.)

The government is vested, as in Bombay, in a governor, subordinate to the governor-general of India. He is assisted by a council of 3 members, one being the commander in chief, and 3 secretaries, placed over the revenue and judicial, political, and military departments. In each of the 20 districts there is a European collector, who exerts also the chief magisterial power. Zillah Muzars are held in the principal towns of most of the districts; and there are four provincial courts of appeal at Chittoor, Masulipatam, Trichinopoly, and Tellicherry. In Madras is a court of Sudder and Foujdary Adawlut, an admiralty court, and the high court of judicature for the presidency. The Church of England ecclesiastical establishment consists of the bishop and archdeacon of Madras and 19 chaplains, in different parts of the presidency. There are numerous Protestant-dissenting and Rom. Cath. chapels, Madras being the see also of a Rom. Cath. bishop. According to the government returns of 1836, about 188,600 children were receiving instruction at the schools within the presidency. The Madras military force, according to recent returns, consists of 50,257 men, of whom about 9,900 are Europeans.

Account of the Revenues of the Presidency of Madras during the Four Years ending with 1848-49

Heads of Revenue.	1845-46.	1846-47.	1847-48.	1848-49.
	<i>Rupces.</i>	<i>Rupces.</i>	<i>Rupces.</i>	<i>Rupces.</i>
Mint duties	10,841	4,305	1,06,829	49,015
Post-office collections	4,0,066	3,94,580	4,15,783	3,99,274
Stamp duties	2,39,510	2,48,123	3,01,306	3,68,344
Miscellaneous (civil receipts)	54,565	3,39,813	54,346	
Judicial fees and fines	9,25,618	9,27,803	9,75,759	1,64,951
Land revenue	3,46,01,048	3,68,99,104	3,62,18,058	3,64,56,935
Albany, and small farms and fisheries	23,05,482	21,95,253	24,86,316	24,51,578
Moturpha	11,50,850	11,14,721	11,43,941	11,29,444
Miscellaneous receipts in the revenue department	2,27,414	2,66,467	3,04,286	3,09,555
Customs, sea, and inland	16,51,054	15,10,404	15,59,816	9,98,764
Sale of tobacco	9,00,759	8,85,854	8,95,965	9,13,900
Ditto of salt	47,06,411	45,56,533	48,27,218	45,07,977
Marine duties	78,850	84,358	71,999	70,553
Subsidies from Mysore, Travancore, and Cochín	34,46,430	34,46,431	34,46,430	34,46,431
Interest on arrears of revenue, &c. (including interest on debt due by the Nizam's government)	-	1,07,048	36,668	8,14,878
Total gross revenue	5,00,60,481	5,13,40,447	5,21,03,672	5,15,14,537
Deduct allowances and assignments, &c. payable out of the revenue	57,85,286	59,98,682	63,53,368	58,34,912
Charges for collecting the revenue	4,48,75,195	4,55,41,765	4,57,50,404	4,56,79,625
Total nett revenue, after payment of allowances and assignments, and charges of collection	3,82,84,936	3,97,40,499	3,88,11,618	3,91,17,169
Total revenue and receipts	3,82,84,936	3,97,40,499	3,88,11,618	3,91,17,169
Rate	3,82,84,936	3,97,40,499	3,88,11,618	3,91,17,169

Expenditure of the Presidency of Madras during the
Four Years ending with 1848-49.

Heads of Ex- penditure.	1845-46.	1846-47.	1847-48.	1848-49.
	Report.	Report.	Report.	Report.
Civil and polit- tical charges -	36,46,567	37,12,536	37,98,912	38,80,729
Judicial do. -	34,48,042	35,09,531	31,76,699	34,25,803
Military and miscellaneous do.	2,96,78,756	2,88,78,761	2,81,13,579	2,65,51,704
Interest on debt	7,51,683	6,55,097	5,74,237	5,94,972
Total charges	5,75,85,048	5,67,55,925	5,59,83,417	5,43,62,612
Do. -	3,73,96,501	3,679,592	3,598,541	3,436,261
Surplus of re- venue over ex- penditure				
Rep.	6,80,888	19,44,574	28,26,196	47,51,557

History.—In the art. INDIA, BARTIN, will be found a table, showing the dates of the successive augmentations to the British possessions in the East. The city of Madras, with a territory 5 m. along shore by 1 m. inland, granted us in 1639, formed the first nucleus of our Eastern Empire. But we may here notice the chief successive acquisitions under the Madras presid. The Jaghire, or Chingleput, was obtained by the E. I. Comp. from the nabob of Arcot, in 1730 and 1763. In 1729, Malabar, Canara, Coimbatour, Dindigul, Salem, the Barramahli, &c., were acquired by conquest from the sultans of Mysore; in 1800 the Balahaut districts were ceded; and in 1801, the remainder of the nabob of Arcot's territories were added to the foregoing. (*Madras Almanac for 1848-49; Part. Reports and Papers; Hamilton's Hindoos and E. I. Gazetteer.*)

MADRAS, a marit. city of Southern India, cap. of the above presidency, in the distr. of the same name, on the Coromandel coast, 680 m. (direct distance) S. E. Bombay, and 870 m. S. W. Calcutta; lat. 13° 4' 43" N., long. 80° 16' 15" E. The area of the district or collectorate of Madras is only 30 sq. m.; but its pop. in 1836-37 amounted to 630,000; and the pop. of the city and its immediate environs, within a radius of perhaps 2½ m. round Fort St. George, is usually estimated at upwards of 400,000.

Madras is in all respects badly situated: it is almost wholly unapproachable by sea. There being no indentation on the coast, the vessels are obliged to anchor in a heavy swell rolls in throughout the year. Vessels anchor in the open roads; the large ones keeping a mile or two from shore. The swell keeps them pitching and rolling as uncomfortably as when at sea. The danger is so great during the S.W. monsoon that vessels are not allowed to lie here for several months, and the anchorage seems deserted. Cargoes are loaded and unloaded by boats adapted for passing through the surf: these, called *catamarans*, consist of three flattened timbers, 8 or 10 ft. long, tied together horizontally, and sharpened a little at the point. One or two men propel it with a paddle, fatted at both ends, and dip first on one side and then on the other. When no boat could live five minutes, these catamarans go about in perfect safety. The men are often washed off, but instantly leap on again without alarm. A waterproof cap, for the carriage of letters to and from newly arrived vessels, is almost their only article of dress. The boats used are large and deep, made without ribs or timbers, of thin wide planks, warped by fire to a proper shape, and fastened together by strong twine. Against the seams straw and mud are fastened strongly by the twine, which ties the planks together. No nails are used, for none would keep a boat together with such thumping. The boatmen display energy and skill scarcely to be surpassed. Keeping time to a rude tune, they now take long, and now short pulls, as the waves run past; they at length push the boat forward on a foaming surf, and she is thrown upon the beach." (*Malcolm's S. E. India*, l. 53.) There being no pier of any description, passengers and merchandise have all to be landed in the rough way now described.

Madras presents, from the sea, nothing to create great expectations. Only a few public buildings are visible, and not much of the town, as the site is quite level. It is, however, a noble city, and has many fine streets. Fort St. George may be considered the great nucleus and centre of Madras. It is neither so large nor so regular as Fort William at Calcutta; but it is strong, and has the advantages of requiring a smaller garrison, and of being easily relieved by sea. It occupies a semicircular area, rather more than ½ m. in length, by from 2 to 3 furlongs in width, in a commanding situation, immediately on the beach; and is surrounded by an esplanade traversed by roads, and shaded public walks. Within it were formerly, besides many public offices, some streets of private European dwellings, shops, and stores; but these have been mostly cleared away, and the Fort now contains only the barracks, arsenal, a bazaar for the sup-

ply of the garrison, the council-house, the old church, the exchange, on which a light-house with a lantern 90 ft. high is erected. The merchants and tradesmen have mostly removed their establishments to the new streets, opened in the N.E. quarter of the Black-town, and along the skirts of the esplanade. The Black, or native town, which is N. and N.E. the fort and esplanade, is well laid out, and is defended by a substantial brick wall. "The houses are far better, at an average, than those of the natives in Calcutta. Though there are not so many fine residences of rich *bonhos* as in that city, there are some scarcely surpassed in elegance by any in America." (*Malcolm*, l. 54.) It has probably been improved of late years. Hamilton, in his *E. I. Gazetteer* says, it is irregular and confused, being a mixture of brick and bamboo houses, and makes a better appearance at a distance, than when closely inspected. A fine range of public edifices, including the custom-house, office for the Board of Trade, court-house, granary, and many store-houses, &c. forms its frontage towards the beach, protected from the fury of the surf by a breakwater of massy stones. The front of this terrace, and the drives on the esplanade, form the chief promenades of the inhabitants.

Madras differs from Calcutta, in having properly no European town, except the few houses within the fort. Most of the European settlers reside in suburban houses, and repair in the morning to their offices in the Black-town, returning in the afternoon. Their residences are chiefly on the Choultry plain, a large extent of surface, S.W. of the fort, and separated from it by the river Triplicane, which, in the neighbourhood of the city, is crossed by numerous bridges. The houses all stand in large plots of ground, shaded by trees, and divided by hedges of bamboo or prickly pear. Few are of more than one story, but they are in a pleasing style of architecture, having their porticoes and verandahs supported by stuccoed pillars. According to Heber, the houses are quite so large as the houses in either Calcutta or Bombay, but they are more elegant and agreeable. On the Choultry plain, near Fort St. George, is the governor's residence, a large building, with a spacious banquetting-hall; but opinions vary greatly as to its architectural merit. Heber says, it has some bad paintings of Coote, Cornwallis, Meadows, &c., and one good one of Sir R. Strange, but all are fast going to decay from the moisture of the sea-breeze. Near it are the Chepauk Gardens, in which is the residence of the Nabob of the Carnatic; and adjacent to these, is a mosque of grey-stone, with 5 arches in front, and 3 handsome minarets, the only Mohammedan structure of any note at Madras. The descendants of the former Portuguese inhabitants chiefly reside at San Thomé, a suburb on the shore, about 3 m. S. from the fort, with a small cathedral, and 3 neat chapels under the charge of a Portuguese bishop, and a few priests from Goa. The Protestant places of worship are St. George's cathedral on the Choultry plain, 4 other episcopal churches and chapels, Scotch and an Armenian church, houses independent, Wesleyan, and Unitarian chapels. There are also 3 Rom. Cath. churches. The number of native Christians is, however, stated to be very small, though increasing. There are male and female orphan asylums, many schools, and other charitable institutions, conducted in a manner that has been highly eulogised; and numerous missionary establishments, both European and American.

Madras is the seat of all the chief government offices for its presidency, of the supreme court, a board of revenue, marine board, &c. In consequence of its unfortunate maritime position, it has less foreign trade than the capitals of either of the other presidencies. Its commerce is still, however, considerable, as it is the principal emporium of the Coromandel coast, and trades direct with Great Britain, and other European countries, the United States, the South American States, China, the Eastern Islands, the Birman Empire, Calcutta, and Ceylon. The principal articles of import are rice and other grain, chiefly from Bengal, cotton piece-goods, iron, copper, spelter, and other British manufactures; raw silk, from Bengal and China, with betel or areca nut, gold dust, tin, and pepper, from the Malay countries; and rice and pepper from the coast of Malabar, with teak timber from Pegu. The exports consist of plain and printed cottons, cotton-wool, indigo, salt, Ceylon pearls, chank shells, tobacco, soap, natron, some dyeing drugs, and coffee, from the tableland of Mysore, the quantity of which is increasing. The great staples of sugar, rice, opium, salpêtre, and lac dye, of such importance in Bengal, are hardly known as exports here. The importation of sugar from foreign countries is prohibited at Madras. (*See Report on E. India Produce*, 1840.)

In Madras roads, large ships moor in from 7 to 9 fathoms, with the flagstaff of the fort bearing W.N.W. 2 m. from shore. From Oct. to Jan. is generally considered

the most unsafe season of the year, in consequence of the prevalence of storms and typhoons. On the 15th of Oct. the flagstaff is struck, and not erected again till the 15th of Dec., during which period a ship coming into the roads, or, indeed, any where within soundings on the coast of Coromandel, violates her insurance. The light within the fort may be seen from the deck of a large ship at 17 m. distance, or from the mast-head at a distance of 26 m. By the port regulations, no articles are to be shipped or landed without a permit, or after 6 P.M. Any merchandise attempted to be landed without the prescribed forms, or that is not entered in the manifest, is liable to double duty; and where a fraudulent intention shall appear, to confiscation. All goods (except on account of the E. I. Company) are to be shipped or landed at the wharf opposite to the Custom-house, or pay double duty. Goods exported in British or native vessels are exempted from duty, but they must, nevertheless, pass through the customs' books.

Meat, poultry, fish, and other provisions, are to be procured for shipping at Madras, but they are neither so good nor so cheap as in Bengal. Wood and fuel are rather scarce, and dear in proportion. Water is of very good quality. On account of the dearth of provisions, wages are considerably higher than at Calcutta, and comparatively few servants are kept. The style of living is much the same in Madras as at Calcutta, but visiting is not carried on upon so extensive a scale. In the cool season monthly assemblies are held in the Pantheon, a building erected in the suburb of Vepery, and occasional balls take place throughout the year. During the cool season, also, races are held at St. Thomas's Mount, about 7 m. from Madras. The road to the racecourse is certainly the finest in India, and shaded by trees through its whole length. At the foot of Mount St. Thomas is the principal cantonment for the artillery of the Madras army, with a noble parade ground, considered one of the best military stations in S. India.

Madras experiences less extreme heat than Calcutta, taking the average of the year, though so much nearer the equator. The minimum temp. in Jan. 1837, was 60° Fah.; the maximum in May of the same year, 99°; the mean annual temp. was 81°70. Several extensive tanks and some swamps surround the city and its territory, but Madras is not said to be particularly unhealthy.

The territory on which Madras is situated formed the first acquisition made on the continent of India by the British, who obtained it by a grant from the rajah of Bijanagar in 1639, with permission to erect a fort thereon. The latter, which was forthwith built, was besieged in 1703 by one of Aurengzeb's generals; and in 1744 by the French under M. de la Bourdonnais, to whom it surrendered after a bombardment of three days. It was restored to the English at the peace of Aix la Chapelle, and sustained, without credit, the thermometer, at the siege by the French under Lally in 1782-3; since which it has experienced no hostile attack. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*; *Modern Traveller*, x.; *Malcolm's Travels in S. E. Asia*; *Madras Almanack*; *Parl. Reports*; *Commercial Dict.*, &c.)

MADRID, a celebratèd city, and the modern cap. of Spain, in the centre of the kingdom, on the Manzanares, a tributary of the Tagus, 93 m. N. by E. Toledo, the former cap. 320 m. E. N. E. Lisbon, and 260 m. S. W. Bayonne; lat. 40° 26' N., long. 3° 33' 15" W. The estimates of the pop. differ very widely; but Madras, who has carefully inquired into the matter, states that it may be taken as amounting in 1847 to about 225,000, (*Diccionario Geografico*, &c. x. 568). This city, which till the time of Philip II. was little more than an obscure country town, stands in a stony barren district, more than 2,000 ft. above the sea, having no navigable river near it, and scarcely any potable water, and being, at the same time extremely cold in winter and unbearably hot in summer; the thermometer, at the former season, falling to 18°, and during the latter, rising to 110° or 115° Fahrenheit. The variability of temperature, combined with the prevalence of piercing E. and N. E. winds, during the greater part of the year, renders the climate very unhealthy, and especially prejudicial to persons threatened with pulmonary complaints, some thousands of whom are said to have died during the winter of 1829-30. (*Cook's Sketches*, l. 176.) All authors, indeed, agree that it would have been difficult to fix on a more unfavourable site. "From the Somosierra," says Inglis, "to the gates of Madrid, a distance of nearly 20 m., not a tree, garden, nor country house, is to be seen, scarcely an isolated farm-house or cottage, and only three or four very inconsiderable villages. The land is chiefly uncultivated, and even that part under tillage and producing grain is mostly covered with weeds and stones. In the midst of this desert stands Madrid, which is not visible more than two leagues' distance. From this side it appears small and not striking; and although we may count upwards of

50 spires and towers, none are so elevated or imposing as to awaken curiosity, like that felt on first discovering the towers of churches in other Spanish cities. Even 4 m. from the gate, the traveller might still believe himself to be 100 m. from any habitation: the road stretches away, speckled only by a few mules; there are no carriages, no horsemen, scarcely even a pedestrian; there is, in fact, not one sign of vicinity to a great city." (l. 53.)

It occupies a space of nearly 4 sq. m., on a slope inclining S. S. W. towards the Manzanares, usually an insignificant stream crossed by two magnificent bridges, the size and beauty of which contrast so strongly with the river beneath as to have given rise to the saying that "the kings of Spain should sell the bridges, and purchase water with the money." The river, however, sometimes swells to a great height, and pours down a magnificent volume of water. (*Swinburne*, ii. 184.) The town is surrounded by a shabby brick wall, in which are 15 stone gates, the handsomest being those of Alcala, San Vicente, and Toledo. The interior comprises an old and a more modern quarter, the former, built before Madrid, was the metropolis of Spain. The E. and more modern part is certainly not devoid of beauty; and its wide and well-paved streets, lined with handsome and lofty houses, chiefly built with brick and grey granite, the extensive and well-planted walks, the squares with their elegant fountains, and the many large and well-built public edifices, remind the traveller that he is in one of the finest, though perhaps the dullest, capitals in Europe. The best entrance to the city is by the Saragossa road, through the gate of Alcala, a noble Ionic structure, with three arches, the central one being 70 ft. high. Within the walls, right and left is the long, wide *Prado*, with its rows of trees stretching in fine perspective for more than 4 m., and in front is the *Calle de Alcala*, reaching into the heart of the city, 4 m. in length, wider than Regent Street, and flanked by a splendid range of unequal buildings, but all of large size, and good proportions. At its end is the great centre, in which most of the better streets terminate, and now at least rather inappropriately, designated the *Puerta de Sol*. Here, close to the *Bolsa*, or exchange, is the great morning rendezvous, either for business or pleasure. The best streets uniting in this point are the *Calle Mayor*, the *Calle de la Moneda*, and the *Calle de las Correos*, all busy thoroughfares, with good and showy shops. The *Calle del Arzobispo* leads to the palace, and the *Correra de San Geronimo* is the direct road to the gardens of the Buen Retiro. Among the squares of Madrid, the largest, with the exception of the space fronting the palace, is the *Plaza Mayor*, a rectangular area, 430 ft. in length, and 320 ft. broad, surrounded by a uniform range of stone buildings, 5 stories high, the lower part being open in front, and supported by pillars forming a handsome colonnade. The chief streets running into it are those of Alcala and Toledo, the latter passing through the *Plaza de Caceres*, formerly the place of execution for criminals, and through the gate to the bridge of its own name. None of these streets, however, will bear any comparison with the *Calle de Alcala*: many are good, and very many respectable, tolerably wide, and formed with lofty and well-built houses; but there is no other magnificent street. The bye-streets are narrow and crooked, especially in the S. W. quarter, where decay of material, closeness of building, and extreme filth, are the almost unvarying characteristics.

Among the public buildings, the most conspicuous is the royal palace, occupying, with its gardens, a space of nearly 80 acres, on the E. bank of the river. It stands on the site of the old Alcazar of Philip II., burnt down in 1734, and has 4 fronts of white stone (each 470 ft. in length and 100 ft. high), enclosing a spacious quadrangle. The interior is fitted up in a style of costly magnificence, perhaps not surpassed in any palace of Europe. The ceilings are *chefs-d'œuvre* of Mengs, Velasquez, Corrado, and Tiepolo; the richest marbles of Spain adorn its walls, and the rooms are painted by the best masters, and noble mirrors from the manufactory of St. Ildelfonso. (*Swinburne*, ii. 168-177.) Many of the best pictures, however, have been removed to the royal picture-gallery in the Prado. Its armoury is especially curious, and presents numerous specimens of arms and accoutrements taken from the Moors by Ferdinand the Catholic and his victorious generals. (*Sir C. Brooke*, ii. 295.) The other chief public buildings are—the custom-house, a handsome range of building, 320 ft. in length; the Buena-vista square, now used as a museum of civil engineering; and the palace of the council of Castile, in the *Calle de Alcala*; the post-office, in the *Puerta del Sol*; the king's printing-office, in the *Calle de las Carretas*; the duke of Liria's palace, containing a fine collection of pictures, near the gate of St. Bernardino, in the N. quarter of the city; the palace of the duke of Berwick; and the national gallery, in the Prado. Madrid, though a bishop's see, has no cathedral; but there are 67 churches; among which, however, the churches of San Isidro and the

Visitation are alone worthy of notice, the rest being externally and internally barbarous. "No mad architect," says Swinburne, "ever dreamt of a distortion of members to capricious, of a twist of pillars, cornices, or pediments so wild and fantastic, but that a real sample of it may be produced in some one or other of the churches of Madrid. They are, with two or three exceptions, small and poor both in marbles and pictures. Their altars are piles of wooden ornaments heaped up to the ceiling and stuck full of wax-lights, which more than once have set fire to the whole church." (*Swinburne*, ii. 164.) Previously to 1834 there were 66 convents; but several have since been pulled down to widen the streets, while others have been converted to different and, no doubt, more useful purposes than the maintenance, in pampered idleness, of hundreds of dissolute monks and nuns. The great walks constitute another grand feature of the city. The *Prado*, or public promenade, is as fashionably attended, especially on Sunday, as Hyde Park in London. It is nearly 3 m. long, and comprises a broad walk, called the *salon*, flanked by several of less width, thickly shaded with elm trees: contiguous to it is the garden of the *Buen Retiro*, the palace of that name having been demolished; and still further S. are the shady gardens called *Las Delicias*, leading to the Canal de Manzanares, which was the scene of the last great Madrid with the Tagus at Toledo. These walks, in the afternoon of autumn, are crowded with the most respectable inhab., nor can any better idea of the out-of-door appearance of the pop. be got than by observing them on the Prado. In the spring, however, the scene is varied by visits to Aranjuez, a beautiful park near the Tagus, forming a verdant oasis in the midst of a desert. "The ladies," says Quin (p. 114.), "wear, with few exceptions, black silk dresses and shawls, or rather mantillas, of various colours, while their head-dresses consist of a slight veil attached to the hair by a comb, and falling on the shoulder; and the graceful manner in which they wear the mantilla and veil gives to them all a smart and attractive air. The dress of the men is in every respect similar to that of the French or English; but they usually cover their persons with large cloaks, which, from the manner of wearing them, have rather a graceful appearance."

The state of education in Madrid cannot be satisfactorily ascertained. Milano, indeed, mentions the existence of 166 primary schools and 2 colleges; but nothing can be inferred from such a statement, as every thing depends on the sort of instruction and the number of the pupils. The schools being generally, however, at least till very recently, under the guidance of the priests, there can be no doubt that the education they afforded was of the very worst description; and that, instead of expanding and improving the mind, it was only fitted and intended to imbue it with the grossest prejudices. Schools on the Lancastrian system have recently been introduced; but they are opposed by large classes, and at this moment the bulk of the pop. is involved in the grossest ignorance. *Voltaire*, *Voltaire*, and *Voltaire*, the *seminario de Nobles*, the two schools or colleges frequented by the better classes, are but little superior to the others: no choice is, however, left to parents as to the education of their children, the only alternative being the government school or no school. The instruction given to females is most superficial: reading, writing, and a little geography are taught, in connection with music and other accomplishments; but few ladies attain to any thing like literary distinction, and the majority are "ignorant almost beyond belief." Closely connected with the educational establishments are the various literary and scientific societies, most of which are under the protection of the crown. The Academy of History, which has a handsome mansion in the Plaza Mayor, was instituted in 1735, for the purpose of collecting authentic materials for the history and geography of Spain and her possessions, and has published, amongst other useful works, an historico-geographical dictionary of Spain and Navarre. The *Academia de la Lengua* has for its object the perfection of the Castilian language, and with this view has published a dictionary, grammar, and other works on Spanish philology. There are also academies of science, the fine arts, medicine, and rural economy, all of which are more or less useful in promoting their respective objects. The public collections comprise,—1. the royal library, with 300,000 printed volumes, besides many valuable Arabic and other MSS., and a fine collection of coins; 2. the library of San Isidro, formerly belonging to the Jesuits, and containing upwards of 60,000 vols.; 3. the museum of natural history, in which, besides other good specimens, is the great *megatherium*, described by Cuvier; 4. the botanical garden and library; and, 5. the national picture-gallery, equal in extent, and perhaps little inferior in excellence, to the largest in Europe. "To the lover of the Spanish school," says Inglis, "this gallery possesses attractions which no other can offer. Besides 42 pictures of Murillo, it contains 55 of Velasquez, 29 of Espanoletto, 17 of Juanes, 6 of Alonso Cano,

and many by other native painters; there are also nearly 800 pictures of the Italian schools, and about 300 of the Flemish school; and in the *Sala Reservada* are several *chef-d'œuvre* of Titian and Rubens. A full description of these pictures is given by Inglis in ch. vi. of his valuable work; also by Cook, vol. i. 166-170.

Several newspapers are now published at Madrid, many of which are violent and abusive in the expression of their political sentiments; but few are sufficiently well conducted to exercise much influence on the public mind. The reprinting of Spanish works has been during some years conducted with great spirit, and translations have been made of popular English and French novels, scientific and elementary works, &c.; and many light writings, with a few more solid productions of unquestionable talent by Castilians of our own day, indicate a gradually increasing taste for literature, which, however, is far from general, even among the better classes.

The theatrical amusements of Madrid are confined to two small establishments, managed by the ayuntamiento or city council. At these theatres, called the *Teatro de la Cruz* and the *Teatro del Principe*, Spanish comedy and Italian operas are indiscriminately represented: the musical department is on the whole well conducted: the plays are of the most trifling description, more resembling *low farces* than regular comedies; but, at any rate, they represent pure and unadulterated portions of the intrigues and low life of Spain, and exhibit a truth and spirit unknown on any other stage. A large theatre, begun some years ago near the palace, has not been completed. The great and all-absorbing amusement, however, of the people of Madrid (called by their countrymen *Madridinos*), is the bull-fight, held on the Monday afternoons during the season, in a large open amphitheatre, outside the gate of Alcala. Monday in Madrid is always a kind of holiday, and in the afternoon all the avenues leading to the bull-ring are in commotion: the street of Alcala is filled throughout its whole extent with a dense crowd of all ranks, some on foot and others in carriages, all hastening to the same point. The amphitheatre will accommodate 17,000 spectators: the central area has a diameter of 230 ft., and is surrounded by a double fence, behind the exterior of which the benches rise tier above tier to the outer wall, where, at the top of all, and shaded with awnings and blinds, are the boxes occupied by persons of rank and property. The intense interest which the spectators of all classes, women as well as men, feel in this butcher-like sport, is visible throughout, and often loudly expressed; and, says Inglis, "it is certainly a fine spectacle to see thousands of spectators rise simultaneously, as they always do when the interest is intense: the greatest and most crowded theatre in Europe presents nothing half so imposing as this." The expenses of these exhibitions are very heavy; but the receipts are greater, leaving a handsome sum for the General Hospital, which, it is said, draws from them a revenue of 300,000 reals, or 3,000*l.* sterling.

Inglis says there is less wretchedness in Madrid than in Paris, London, and other great towns of France and England; but the condition of the lower orders has been since much altered for the worse, by the suppression of the convents, on which they were greatly dependent: many of the ecclesiastics have also fallen into the most abject distress, though distress arising from this source, in so far at least as the public are concerned, can only be temporary. There are numerous benevolent institutions for the relief of indigence, and the cure of disease, many of which are supported by handsome endowments. The royal hospital of San Fernando, a very large establishment somewhat like an English workhouse, and the mendicity institution for the reception of beggars, formerly the greatest nuisance in Madrid, are doing much good; and the General Hospital not only gives relief to the sick poor, but serves as a practical school for the students of the Academy of Medicine. A *mont de pitié*, like that in Paris, lends money on security, with this difference, that at Madrid no interest is taken, the expense of the establishment being borne by the government.

Madrid has scarcely any manufacturing industry, nor is it possible, from its situation, at a distance from any navigable river, and in the midst of a stony unproductive desert, that it can, in this respect, materially improve, even if that love of the *dolce far niente* should be given up, which seems to be the *summum bonum* of the Madridien. As it is, the workmen of the city are Catalans, Valencians, Aragonese, Asturians, and Gallicians: in short, every article in Madrid, whether of manufacturing or farming industry, is exotic. Its fruit comes from a distance of 50 m., butter from Aragon, oranges and lemons from Valencia, and dates from Murcia. A manufactory of porcelain and another of carpets are carried on at the expense of the government, and most probably, with as little profit as the mirror manufactory at St. Ildelfonso and the saltpetre works described by Townsend, as entailing a heavy annual loss (vol. i. p. 269-278.). The consumption of Madrid, in

district, on the Vihay, 136 m. N.N.E. Cape Comorin, and 370 m. S.W. Madras: lat. $9^{\circ} 55' N.$, long. $78^{\circ} 14' E.$ It is surrounded by a bastioned but dilapidated stone wall; streets wide and regular, public edifices magnificent, but private dwellings mean and wretched. It has some of the most extraordinary specimens of Hindoo architecture extant. The palace is a vast pile, with a dome 90 ft. in diameter; but it is much dilapidated; the great temple, with its spacious aia, choultry, and 4 colossal porticoes, each a pyramid of 10 stories, covers an extent of ground almost sufficient for the site of a town. In front of the latter is a celebrated choultry, or inn, 312 ft. in length, ornamented with polished green stone columns, and grotesque sculptures. During the Carnatic wars, from 1740 to 1760, Madura underwent many sieges. The British civil station, and seat of the collector, &c., is in a pleasant situation, about 11 m. S. the town. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*; *Madras Almanac*, 1838-39.)

MADURA, an island of the Eastern Archipelago, immediately adjacent to the N.E. coast of Java, with which island it is politically included, under the Dutch government. (See *JAVA*.)

MAESE. See *MUSEE*.

MAESTRICHT (an. *Trajectus ad Mosam*), a fortified town of Holland, prov. Limburg, of which it is the cap., on the Maese, 14 m. N. by E. Liege, and 57 m. E. Brussels: lat. $50^{\circ} 51' 7'' N.$, long. $5^{\circ} 41' E.$ Pop., in 1848, 32,000. It is one of the strongest towns in Holland, being defended by numerous bastions, trenches, &c.: it is well built, with wide, clean, and well-paved streets. The market is held in the great square, the centre of which is occupied by the *Hôtel-de-ville*, built in 1652, and said to be one of the finest structures in the kingdom: the *place d'armes* is also a fine open space planted with rows of trees, and much frequented as a promenade. Among the other public buildings are comprised the exchange, the church of St. Servais, the *ci-devant* college of Jesuits, the arsenal, and the theatre; and in the town are 10 churches, 2 hospitals, 2 orphan-asylums, a lazaretto, atheneum, fine public library, and society of agriculture. Maestricht is the residence of the governor of the prov. and the seat of a court of assizes and primary jurisdiction, as well as of a chamber of commerce, and it sends 6 deputies to the States of the prov. The industry of the town comprises the manufacture of woollen cloths and fannels, cotton and woollen yarn, fire-arms, pins, starch, and tobacco; besides which there are soap-factories, tanneries, breweries, and dye-houses. A considerable trade is carried on with various places on the Maese by means of barges, and packets ply daily between Maestricht, Liege, Namur, &c. Three large fairs are held here during the year for horses and cattle. On the other side of the river (crossed here by a stone bridge) is the citadel or fort of Petersburg, in the suburb of Wyk, famous for its extensive subterranean stone quarry, containing numerous intricate galleries and passages, and abounding with curious marine and saurian fossils, some specimens of which may be seen in the museum of the Jardin des Plantes at Paris. (*Vandermaelen, Dict. de Limbourg*, &c.)

MAGDALENA, a river of S. America, and next to the Orinoco the principal in the republic of New Granada, through the centre of which it flows. It is S. N., through 3 deg. of lat. It rises in the small lake of Papias, in the Andes, about lat. $9^{\circ} N.$, and long. $76^{\circ} 25' W.$, and runs for at least 500 m. between the middle and E. chains of the Cordillera. Its entire course may be estimated at about 800 m.: it enters the Caribbean Sea about 65 m. N.E. Cartagena, and 40 m. S.W. Santa Marta. Its principal tributary, the Cauca, flows between the central and W. chains of the Cordillera, and joins it from the W., between 150 and 200 m. from its mouth. Its other affluents are the Sogamosa, Sesar, and Bogota. The towns of Naya, Honda, and Kopy, &c., are on its banks. The descent of the Magdalena is said to be as much as 30 inches a mile (*Dict. Géog.*); and the strength of its waters is such, that they preserve their freshness to a considerable distance from its mouth. The Magdalena is navigable as far as Honda, in lat. $8^{\circ} 14' N.$, near which the navigation is interrupted by cataracts; but its rapidity is such, that a distance of 10 leagues a day is reckoned very good progress in ascending the river, for a *champoon*, or flat-bottomed boat, manned by 24 *bogas*, or rowers. The oppressive heat of the climate, the abundance of caymans, and the swarms of muscitos and other insects that infest the river, contribute to render the navigation both dangerous and unpleasant; but the Magdalena is, notwithstanding, the main route for the commercial and other intercourse of the inland prov. of New Granada with the ocean.

MAGDEBURG, a fortified city of Prussian Saxony, of which prov. it is the cap., on the Elbe, 74 m. S.W. Berlin, and 50 m. E.S.E. Brunswick, lat. $52^{\circ} 8' 4'' N.$, long. $11^{\circ} 39' 46'' E.$ Pop. in 1846, with its suburbs (ex. garrison), 56,516. Magdeburg is a fortress of the first class, and, from the augmentation and improvement of its defences since the war, it is now considered one of the

strongest in Europe. The citadel, on an island in the Elbe, serves also as a state prison, Baron Trenck and Lafayette having, among others, been confined in it.

Magdeburg is divided into the Old town, with the suburb Friedrichstadt, together composing the ancient fortress; and the New town and suburb of Sudenburg. The latter, however, has been for the most part surrounded with walls, and the fortifications are now so extensive that it is said it would require an army of 50,000 men to invest the city. Magdeburg has one good and one spacious street, called the Broadway; but all the other streets are narrow and crooked. There are two large public squares, in one of which is the cathedral. This, which is one of the finest Gothic structures of N. Germany, was erected between 1311 and 1363, and has been recently repaired at a cost of 300,000 dollars. It has two towers, each 340 ft. in height, a lofty vault, a handsome high altar, and numerous tombs and monuments, among which that of Otto the Great and his empire.

Magdeburg has in all its churches, one of which is for R. Catholics, a synagogue, an ecclesiastical seminary, a female high school, or royal boarding house for the education of girls, a teachers' seminary, with schools for agriculture, commerce, surgery, &c.; 5 hospitals, a lunatic asylum, a workhouse, a humane institution, a savings' bank, and various charities; an arsenal, extensive barracks, and other military establishments; several public libraries, and a theatre. It is a bishop's see, and is the seat of the government, of the board of taxation, the superior courts of justice, the council, and the military commandant of Prussian Saxony. From its position on the Elbe, it is an important entrepôt for the merchandise imported into and exported from the central parts of Germany by that river. In other respects, also, it is very favourably situated for commerce. A canal, commencing about 20 m. below the city, connects the Havel with the Elbe, giving Magdeburg a direct water communication with Berlin and Frankfort on the Oder; and it is also the centre of a number of great roads which lead to all the cities and towns of importance within a radius of 80 m. Its manufactures, which are pretty considerable, consist of silk, linen, cotton, and woollen fabrics; oil-cloth, hats, gloves, tobacco, soap, earthenware, refined sugar, chocolate, vinegar, &c., with numerous tanneries, breweries, and distilleries. A large quantity of salt is made in its neighbourhood. It has several native banking establishments, and a branch of the royal bank of Berlin. Several newspapers are published in the town; which has uniformly an air of bustle and activity.

Magdeburg was repaired by Charlemagne, and improved and enlarged by Otto the Great. It has suffered numerous sieges. In 1631 it was taken by assault by the Imperialists under Tilly, by whom it was given up to military execution, and was nearly burned to the ground. It is the birthplace of the celebrated natural philosopher Otto de Guericke, and of the poet Schultz. (*Von Zedlitz, Der Preussische Staat*, iii. 304, 206.; *Berghaus, Allg. Länder*, &c. iv. 655, 656.; *Stein Handb.*)

MAGELLAN, or MAGELHAENS (STRAIT OF), a strait at the S. extremity of S. America, separating Patagonia from Tierra del Fuego, Clarence Island, and the Isle of Desolation. It extends from Capes de las Virgins and Espíritu Santo, on the Atlantic, to Capes Victoria and de los Pilares, on the Pacific Ocean, a distance of about 300 m., having a breadth varying from 14 to 40 m. It has an additional communication with the Pacific by Cockburn Channel and Magdalen Sound. Its shores are lofty and generally rugged, and its depth is in some parts very great, no bottom having been found with upwards of 1,500 ft. of line. Some safe and excellent bays communicate with it; but, generally speaking, its passage is extremely dangerous, both from the violence of the currents and the sudden and heavy tempests to which it is subject. It was discovered by Magellan, a famous Portuguese navigator in the service of Spain, in 1520. Drake traversed it in his voyage round the world; and it has since been frequently explored by British navigators.

MAGGIORE (LAGO DI), or Lake of Locarno, (an. *Lacus Verbanus*), a famous lake of N. Italy, lying partly between Piedmont and Lombardy, and partly within the Swiss canton of Tessin. It is long and narrow, stretching above 40 m. from Magadino at its N. to Besso-Calende at its S. extremity, while in its widest parts, opposite to the mouth of the Toce, it is about 6 m. across, but its ordinary breadth does not exceed from 2 to 3 m. Its general direction is S.S.W. and N.N.E., and it may, in fact, be considered as an expansion of the Tessino, which enters it at its N. and leaves it at its S. extremity. In addition to the Upper or N. Tessino, it receives on its W. the waters of the Toce, and on its E. side those of the Tresa, flowing from the Lago di Lugano. Its only outlet is the Lower or S. Tessino. In some places it is not less than 300 fathoms deep; its waters, which are clear and of a greenish tinge, are well stocked with fish; and, like all Alpine lakes, its navigation is dangerous from sudden squalls.

The scenery of the Lago Maggiore is very varied. That of the upper part is bold and mountainous, its northern branch opening into one of the most beautiful valleys of the Rhetian Alps, which form a magnificent amphitheatre in the background. Towards the E. and S., the mountains gradually decline to the plain of Lombardy; and the lower part of the lake is of a more quiet and softened character, yet still very beautiful. Its immediate shores are richly fringed with wood, occasionally broken by picturesque crags, topped with castles and churches, and with numerous villages stretching along the water's edge. Though inferior in wildness and sublimity to the lake of Como, and perhaps, also, to that of Lugano, the softer beauties of this lake are generally allowed to be the more attractive, contrasted, as they are, with the distant grandeur of the Alpine chain. (*Corder's Italy*, i. 313.)

The Borromean Islands, from which this lake has derived a great portion of its celebrity, are situated in a bay, on its W. side, opposite to the mouths of the Toce. Of these the *Isola Bella* and the *Isola Madre*, are the most famous. They are of small size, and, previously to the middle of the 17th century, were little better than bare rocks; but being the property of Count Vitaliano Borromeo, a descendant of the celebrated St. Carlo Borromeo, he resolved to make them his residence, and to convert them, according to the taste of the time; into a sort of Italian paradise. They were consequently covered with earth brought from the adjoining mainland, formed (especially the *Isola Bella*) into splendid terraces, lined with trees and statues, and ornamented with superb palaces. Unluckily, however, nothing is natural, all is art.

"On every side you look, behold the wall!
No pleasing intricacies intervene,
No artful wildness to perplex the scene;
Grove nods at grove, each alley has a brother,
And half the plattform just reflects the other.
The suffering eye inverted nature sees,
Tress cut to tresses, statues thick as trees!"
Pope's Moral Essays, iv. l. 114.

For a lengthened period, however, these islands were the theme of universal admiration; but as a simpler and purer taste began to prevail, they came to be regarded with very different feelings, and have latterly, perhaps, been too much despised. These are now usually looked upon by Englishmen, at least, as little better than "quarries above ground;" and as evincing only the wealth, extravagance, and bad taste of their founder. (*Estace's Italy*, vol. iv., 8vo. edit.; *Simons's Italy*, p. 2, &c.)

MAGINDANAO, or MINDANAO, the most S. of the Philippine Islands, which see.

MAGNESIA *ad Sipylum* (now MANISA), an ancient town, of some celebrity, in Asiatic Turkey, 28 m. N.E. Smyrna. Pop. according to Elliott about 30,000, of whom 4,000 are Greeks, 2,000 Armenians, and a few Jews. It is situated near the Kodus, or an *Hermus*, embosomed in hills long noted for the production of loadstones, and is one of the cleanest and neatest towns of Asia Minor, being in the width of its streets, and other respects, far superior to Smyrna. The principal buildings are two mosques, with double minarets, indicating a royal foundation, and the interior of each is adorned with paintings, lamps, ivory balls, ostriches' eggs, &c., such as are to be seen in the mosques of Constantinople. There are 28 other mosques, and the Armenians, Greeks, and Jews have their respective places of worship. A Jewish college, lunatic asylum, and the mausoleum of Amurath II are the only other public edifices, except the khans, which are numerous, and well built. The manufacture of cotton and silk goods, and goats' hair shawls, employs many of the inhab., and the town derives some importance from being on the great road between Smyrna and the interior of Asia Minor. (*Elliott*, ii. 56-64.; *Chandler*, i. 308.)

Magnesia was in all probability colonised by the Magnesiads of Thessaly, not long after the foundation of Cyrene and Smyrna, two other Eolian cities. It is celebrated as the scene of a signal victory obtained by the Romans, under the two Scipios, over the forces of Antiochus the Great, who was consequently obliged to retire beyond the chain of Taurus, and leave Asia Minor at the disposal of the conquerors. The inhab. afterwards displayed great bravery in defending their town against Mithridates. In the reign of Tiberius, A.D. 17, Magnesia, in common with 11 other cities, was all but destroyed by an earthquake, and owed its restoration in a great measure to the emperor's generosity. *Duodecim celebres Asiae urbes collapsas nocturno motu terræ; quod improvisum, gravissimæ pestis fuit: neque solitum in tali casu effugium subveniebat in aperta prorsumpendi, quia diducia terris hauriebantur. Asperissima lues in eodem microrodiam traxit: cædentes exterium pollicitus Cæsar et quantum arario pendebant in quinquevnum remisit. Magnesia a Sipylum proximi damna ac remedio habuit.* (*Tac. Ann.* ii. 47.)

It was a flourishing city at a late period of the Roman

MAIDA.

empire, but at the commencement of the 14th century passed into the hands of Sarkhan, sultan of Ionia, and finally was annexed, in 1443, to the dominions of Mahomet II., the conqueror of Constantinople.

The above city must not be confounded with *Magnesia ad Macandrum*, close to the modern Inek-bazar, and about 50 m. S.S.E. Smyrna, which, though a place of some consequence, was greatly inferior to the *Magnesia ad Sipylum*. It is remarkable, however, for the ruins of a theatre, stadium, and magnificent octastyle Ionic temple, said to have surpassed in the harmony of its proportions even the temple of Diana at Ephesus. (*Leake's Asia Minor*, p. 245.)

MAHALIPIPOORAM, or MAVALIPOORAM, a village and a curious assemblage of rock temples in Hindostan, on the Coromandel coast, distr. Chingleput, about 33 m. S.S.W. Madras; lat. 12° 36' N., long. 80° 16' E. The temples in their general character closely resemble those at Ellora and elsewhere, on the W. side of Hindostan; but, from their being cut in a granite rock, they are in better preservation. They have been chiefly consecrated to Vishnu, whose worship appears to have predominated on this, as that of Shiva on the opposite coast of India. At the foot of a hill N. of the village is a pagoda, about 26 ft. high, nearly as long, and about half as broad, hewn from a single rock, and covered with sculptures. Near this temple, the surface of the rock, about 90 ft. in extent, by 30 in height, is covered with bas-reliefs, including a gigantic figure of Krishna, another of his favourite Arjoon, and representations of a number of animals. Opposite to this, and surrounded by a stone wall, are 2 brick pagodas of great antiquity; adjacent to which are 2 excavations in the rock, one supported by pillars, in a manner somewhat like the cave at Elephanta, and the other fronting a sculptured group, supposed to represent one of Krishna's adventures. Still proceeding S., the traveller crosses a rocky hill, in which is a spacious excavation, in the middle compartment of which is a figure of Shiva between Brahma and Vishnu; while at one end of the temple is a gigantic figure of Vishnu sleeping upon a cobra-de-capello, and at the other an eight-armed goddess, mounted on a lion, rescuing a human figure from a buffalo-headed demon. Several of the figures are executed in a very superior style. About a mile further S. are other sculptures, said to surpass those already noticed. One pagoda is about 40 ft. in height, by 29 in length and breadth; and another 49 ft. in length and breadth, and 25 ft. in height, but rent, as by some violent convulsion, from top to bottom; besides which there are three smaller structures, and large figures of a lion and an elephant, the last extremely true to nature. E. of the village, and washed by the sea, is an ancient stone pagoda, within which, also, are several sculptured figures. The sea has obviously encroached on this part of the coast, and it has probably submerged many temples that formerly existed here. Mahalipiporum is believed to have been anciently of considerable importance as a metropolis of the kings of the race of Pandion, in Hindoo mythology. (*Goldingham in Asiat. Researches*, v.; *Heber, &c. passim*.)

MAHADEO TEMPLE, a celebrated place of Hindoo worship in British India, prov. Gundwanah, on the Nerubudda, 60 m. S.E. Hussingabad; lat. 22° 22' N., long. 78° 35' E.

MAHANUDDY (*Maha Nadi*, the great river), a considerable river of Hindostan, having its source in the prov. of Gundwanah; lat. 21° 30' N., long. 81° E., and flowing mostly E. to the Bay of Bengal, which it enters by numerous mouths, about lat. 20° N., and between long. 85° 30' and 87° E., after a course of more than 500 m. At Cuttack, about 70 m. from the sea, the river, in the rainy season, has a breadth of about 2 m.; but it is, notwithstanding, fordable at this point from Jan. to June. During the rains it is navigable for a distance of almost 300 m. from the sea. Its deposits consist of a coarse sand, hostile to vegetation, but frequently containing diamonds of the first quality, and which are occasionally of considerable size. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gas.*)

MAHE', a sea-port town of Hindostan. It belongs to the French, and was formerly their principal settlement on the coast of Malabar, but is now of little importance. It is admirably situated on rising ground, beside a small river, navigable for boats to a considerable distance inland, 40 m. N.E. Calcutt. Pop. in 1835, 3,358, nearly all of native races. The town is well built, and has several handsome houses, 3 churches, &c. Its commerce is, however, small; and mostly confined to cocoa-nuts, pepper, arrack, &c. (*Official Returns*.)

MAHIM, a town of Hindostan, prov. Aurangabad, on the island of Bombay, near its N. extremity, in lat. 19° 2' N., and long. 72° 58' E. It has a Portuguese church and a R. Cath. college, and, in 1816, its pop., with that of some adjacent villages, amounted to 15,600.

MAIDA, a small town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Calabria Ultra II., 8 m. S. by E. Nicastro. It is chiefly noted for an engagement fought in its vicinity, on the 4th July, 1806, when an English army under Sir John

Stuart entirely defeated a greatly superior French force under Regnier.

MAIDENHEAD, a mun. bor. and market town of England, co. Berks, hund. Bray, on the S. bank of the Thames, 1½ m. E. by N. Reading, and 27 m. W. London. Pop. of the bor., in 1841, 3,315. The town consists almost entirely of one street extending from the river about 1 m. along the high road to Oxford, and lined with numerous respectable and a few handsome houses: it is tolerably well flagged and macadamised, but only partially lighted with gas. The guildhall, in the market place, is a spacious stone building: there is also a handsome chapel of ease, and the Wesleyan Methodists and Baptists have their respective places of worship. A national and infant school, with 3 Sunday schools, furnish instruction to the children of the poor, and there are almshouses and other charities for the sick and aged. The Bristol, Bath, and Exeter branch of the great western road is here carried over the Thames by a handsome stone bridge of 15 arches, about 500 yards S. from it is another bridge of 3 arches, forming part of the Great Western Railway, which skirts the town in its whole extent. Maidenhead appears to be in a thriving condition: it has no manufactures, but is in the centre of an opulent neighbourhood, and derives considerable trading importance from its position on one of the most frequented roads of the empire. The bor. was first chartered by Edward III., and the corporation now comprises a mayor and three other aldermen, with 12 councillors. Corporation revenue, 1847-48, £800. Markets on purchases of hides and cattle fairs, Whit-Wednesday, Sept. 29, and Nov. 30.

MAIDSTONE, a parl. and mun. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Kent, hund. of its own name, in the E. div. of the lathe of Aylesford, on the E. bank of the Medway (crossed here by a bridge of five arches), 20½ m. E.S.E. London, and 35 m. W. Canterbury. Area of par. and parl. bor., 4,420 acres. Pop., in 1841, 16,920. The town, which is about 1 m. in length from N. to S., and ½ m. in breadth, consists principally of a well-built street, leading N. E. from the bridge to a lengthened narrow street, along the road from Rochester to Canterbury, but exclusive of these there are many smaller streets. Among the principal public buildings are the co. hall, a modern structure, well adapted for the business of the assizes, the new gaol, an immense structure, erected, in 1818, at an expense of 200,000*l.*, covering more than 12 acres of land, and ranking as one of the largest and best arranged in England, the barracks near the gaol, the county ball-rooms, and a small but pretty theatre. The market-house, the lower part of which is appropriated to the sale of corn, stands in the centre of the town, and behind it is a new market-place, conveniently arranged for the sale of provisions. The church, one of the largest in the kingdom, is an extremely handsome embattled edifice, with a lofty tower, formerly surmounted by a spire, destroyed by lightning in 1730: it was made collegiate in the reign of Richard II., and attached to an ecclesiastical college, destroyed with many others at the Reformation: the living is a perpetual curacy, in the gift of the Archbishop of Canterbury. There is also a new district church, erected, by the church-building commissions, at an estimated cost of 12,000*l.*, the incumbency of which is in the gift of the curate of Maidstone. Places of worship are also supported by the Wesleyan Methodists, Independents, Baptists, Unitarians, and the Society of Friends. A free grammar-school was founded, in the reign of Edward VI., by the corporation, which has two exhibitions at University College, Oxford: freemen have the privilege of sending their sons here gratis, for classical instruction, the master making a charge for other branches of education. The school is not in a very flourishing state, and its inefficiency has led to the establishment of a proprietary school, which is well supported and attended. A blue-coat hospital was founded, in 1711, for the clothing and education of 53 boys and 43 girls, and there are three other endowed charity schools, and a Lancastrian school. Four sets of almshouses furnish lodging, clothing, and money allowances to 30 old women, and various bequests and charities exist for the relief of the sick and aged poor. A philosophical society was instituted here in 1824, a good library and reading-room is established, and a newspaper is published once a week.

"Maidstone is in a very prosperous state, and there is no want of employment. There is a demand for houses of a superior class, and many have been built since the census of 1831: but many of the cottages are unoccupied, owing to the completion of public works, which had been going on for some years. The only manufactory of any importance is that of paper: there are six paper-mills in the par., employing about 800 hands. The felt, blanket, and bag-manufactories are of much less extent. There is a considerable trade on the river, which has been for many years gradually increasing; and the annual tonnage of vessels passing through Hal-

lington lock, about 2 m. from the town, is, at present, supposed to average 120,000 tons, on which tolls are paid to the amount of about 2,600*l.* The principal articles of merchandise brought up the river, are coals and timber for the supply of the neighbourhood, and also of Tonbridge, Seven-Oaks, and the whole weald of Kent. A portion of the latter article is imported direct from the Baltic and America. The neighbourhood is celebrated for its abundant produce in hops and fruit, both of which are carried down the river with paper and stone." (*Mass. Corp. Report.*)

Maidstone received its charter of incorporation from Edward VI., in 1549, but forfeited it in the following reign, owing to the connection of its inhab. with the insurrection of Sir Thomas Wyatt. Queen Elizabeth granted another charter, with increased privileges; but this also became void, by a *quo warranto*, soon after the Revolution of 1688; and a new charter was granted in 1748, by George II. Under the Mun. Reform Act of 1837 the borough is divided into 3 wards, the corporate officers being a mayor and 5 other aldermen, with 18 councillors. Corp. revenues in 1847-48, 3,953*l.* The Lent and summer assizes are held here, as also the quarter-sessions for the W. division of Kent. The recorder holds quarter and petty sessions within the borough; and a county court is established in it, before which 1,580 plaints were entered in 1848. This borough has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the 6th of Edward VI. Down to the Reform Act, the right of election was vested in the freemen (by birth, apprenticeship, and purchase) not receiving alms. The limits of the borough were not altered by the Boundary Act. In 1849-50, it had 1,732 registered electors. Maidstone is also the chief place of election for the mems. for the W. division of the county. Large markets on Thursday for hops, corn, horses, and cattle: fairs for cattle, &c., 1st Tuesday in each month, Feb. 13., May 12., June 20., and Oct. 17.

MAILCOTTA, a town of Hindostan, prov. Mysore, and a celebrated place of Hindoo worship, on a rocky hill, 17 m. N. Seringapatam lat. 12° 38' N. long. 76° 46' E. The town, which is open and paved, has about 400 good houses, mostly occupied by Brahmans, and several rich pagodas, choultries, &c. The most striking edifice is a temple dedicated to Narasingha (the man-lion), which stands on the highest pinnacle of the mountain, and is approached by a staircase cut in the rock, and ornamented at intervals with smaller temples and arches. It has, besides, a temple to Krishna, a square building of vast dimensions, entirely surrounded by a colonnade, and which is said to be extremely rich in jewels and other articles of value; and held in such esteem that Tippoo did not venture to outrage the prejudices of his Hindoo subjects by plundering it. There is also a large and fine reservoir at Mailcotta, surrounded by numerous buildings for the accommodation of devotees. Near this town the Mahrattas defeated Hyder Ali, in 1772. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gazetteer.*)

MAINE, one of the U. S. of N. America, being at once the most northerly and easterly state in the Union extending between lat. 43° 7' and 47° 30' N. and between 67° and 71° W. long., having N.W. and N. Lower Canada, E. New Brunswick, W. New Hampshire, and S. and S.E. the Atlantic. Its area and pop. could not formerly be accurately determined; since about a third part of its surface, as claimed by the Americans, formed a territory in dispute between the U. States and Great Britain; but this question was happily settled in 1843; and its area may now be estimated at about 30,000 sq. m., and the pop. in 1840, at 500,000. Maine has a greater extent of coast, and more good harbours, than any other state of the Union. Its shores are all along indented by deep bays; and the opposite is studded with numerous fine islands, of considerable size. Near the coast the surface is level, but it rises on proceeding inland, and most part of the state is hilly. In the N.W. a mountain chain forms the watershed between the streams that join the St. Lawrence, and those that fall into the Atlantic; and a lateral branch from this chain, between lat. 46° and 46° 30', separates the basins of the Kennebec, Penobscot, &c., on the S., from that of the St. John's on the N. Several of the summits in Maine reach an elevation of 4,000 ft.; and Mount Katahdin, near lat. 46°, which rises to 5,236 ft., is reckoned the highest ground between the Atlantic and the St. Lawrence. It has been estimated that 1-6th part of the surface of Maine consists of water: there are numerous lakes, chiefly in the N., the largest of which, Moosehead, is 50 m. in breadth. The St. John's river is elsewhere noticed (*ante*, p. 89.): the Penobscot, Kennebec, Androscoggin, St. Croix, &c., have all a general S. direction, and several are navigable for the greater part of their length. The climate is cold: ice and snow last, in the N. and central parts, from October to April, and the summer is short: but the atmosphere is generally clear, the weather uniform, and the country salubrious. The soil on or near the coast is sandy and poor, but improves greatly as it recedes inwards, especially along

the banks of the rivers. The greater portion of the state was originally covered with dense forests of fine fir, beech, &c. In the S., and some of the central parts, these have been mostly cleared; but they are still nearly unbroken in the N., though the value of the lumber cut down annually in the state is estimated at 10,000,000 dollars. Wheat, maize, rye, barley, potatoes, pease, beans, and flax, are among the chief agricultural products. Apples and pears grow to perfection; and cherries, plums, and grapes grow in the woods E. of the Kennebec, and among that river, are some excellent arable lands; and between Kennebec and Penobscot are some of the finest grazing lands in New England. Till lately the rearing of sheep has been the most important branch of rural industry, the annual value of the clip of wool being estimated at about 2,000,000 dollars. Good marble is found in some districts, and lime-burning is extensively carried on. Iron ore is abundant, and some lead has been discovered. Maine has manufactures of cotton and woollen cloths, hats, shoes, leather, cordage, mills, spirits, maple sugar, &c. The annual value of its manufactures has been estimated at 10,000,000 dollars. Its exports consist chiefly of lumber, great quantities of which are shipped for the West India islands, as well as for the neighbouring states; dried fish, pickled salmon, beef, pork, butter, wool, grain, hay, pot and pearl ashes, marble, &c. In 1847, the value of the exports amounted to 1,634,303 dollars, and that of the imports to 874,050 dollars. A canal 204 m. in length, from Portland to Segabog Pond, was completed in 1829; and the railway from Bangor to Orono, 30 m. in length, in 1836. Other railways have been projected, and some have been incorporated. In 1833, Maine had 50 banks, with an aggregate capital of 4,969,000 dollars. The legislative power is vested in a senate of 35 mems., and a house of representatives of 187 mems., who, together with the governor, are chosen annually by all the white male citizens above 21 years of age, who have resided in the state during the 3 months preceding the election, and paid taxes. The governor is assisted by an executive council, of 7 mems., elected by the legislature. The general assembly of the 3 houses convenes annually at Augusta. The Supreme judicial court has all the usual powers of a court of chancery. The judges are appointed by the governor with the consent of the council, and hold office during good behaviour. All judicial offices are, however, vacated at the age of 70 years. Each town is required by law to raise annually a sum equal to 40 cents for each inhabitant, which is distributed among the town schools in the ratio of the number of scholars in each. The state has 30 academies, a Baptist college at Waterville, theological seminaries at Bangor and Readfield, and Bowdoin College, with a medical school at Brunswick, established in 1794, and which, in 1839, was attended by 113 students. Maine is divided into 10 counties. Augusta is the political cap., but it is inferior in point of size to several other towns, as Portland (which see), Bangor, &c. Bangor, at the head of the tide-water, has lately become the most important place on the Penobscot. In 1840, its pop. amounted to 8,627, having nearly trebled since 1830; and it was then said to export annually between 300,000,00 and 400,000,000 ft. of lumber. The militia of the state, which is in 8 divisions, consisted, in 1838, of 49,900 men. Maine has a smaller public debt than any other state of the Union, Georgia excepted, the amount in 1839 having been only 554,976 dols. This state sends 8 mems. to congress. Maine was first permanently settled by the British in 1635, previously to which it had only been transiently occupied by the French. It subsequently became a proprietary government; but in 1652 it was annexed to Massachusetts, to which it remained attached as a subordinate district till 1820, when it was constituted a separate state of the Union.

The N.E. territory, disputed between Great Britain and the U. States, consisted of the upper valley of the St. John river, chiefly between lat. 49° 30' and 48° N., and long. 67° and 70° W., including an area of above 10,000 sq. m. The limits claimed, as well by the British as by the Americans, are laid down in the map of the British possessions in N. America, prefixed to the article CANADA in the former edition of this work; and there, also, is indicated the line between the possessions of the contending parties, as laid down by the late king of the Netherlands, to whose decision as arbiter the question was once referred. It will be seen by an inspection of the map, that the arbiter did not adopt the views of either party, but decided on an intermediate boundary. The question was subsequently settled by negotiation on fair and equitable terms. The disputed territory was very fertile, and was well watered; but it was obviously more valuable from its position, than for any thing else. Had not the negotiations with respect to it come to a pacific termination, it would have made but a miserable compensation to the successful party for the mischiefs that would have been occasioned, even by a single campaign.

MAINE, a river of W. Germany. See MAYN.

MAINE, one of the old provs. of France, now distributed between the depts. Mayenne and Sarthe.

MAINE-ET-LOIRE, a dep. of France, reg. W., formerly comprising the greater part of the prov. of Anjou, chiefly between lat. 47° and 47° 50' N., and long. 0° and 1° W., having N. the depts. Mayenne and Sarthe, E. Indre-et-Loire, S. Vienne, Deux-Sèvres, and Vendée, and W. Loire-inférieure. Greatest length, E. to W., about 70 m.; breadth usually about 40 m. Area, 722,165 hectares. Pop. (1846) 504,963. Surface undulating. The Loire intersects the dep. from E. to W., dividing it into two nearly equal parts; and is joined within its limits by the Maine, Anthion, Thonot, Layon, &c. The Maine is a continuation of the Mayenne, which changes its name after it has been joined by the Sarthe. It passes by Angers, and unites with the Loire about 8 m. below that city. Its entire length is 8 m., throughout which it is navigable. In 1835, 440,196 hectares of the surface of this dep. were estimated to be arable, 80,023 in pasture, 98,260 in vineyards, 61,833 in woods, and 48,271 in heaths, wastes, &c. More corn is produced than is required for home consumption. Nearly 2,128,000 hectolitres are said to have been harvested in 1836, of which 1,005,000 were wheat, and 547,680 rye. Agriculture, as in the contiguous departments, is very backward; the lands in lease are all held on the *metayer* principle, the rent being a certain proportion, usually about half the produce: the occupiers are poor, uneducated, and, of course, strongly attached to routine practices. Hemp and flax, prunes, pions, walnuts, apples, and various other fruits, are said to be of superior quality. The produce of wine is estimated at about 500,000 hectol. a year. Some of the white wines are rather well esteemed; but the greater portion of the vintage is either converted into brandy or vinegar. The latter, which enjoys a high reputation, is known in commerce as *vinaique de Saumur*. Exclusive of wine, this dep. produces annually from 50,000 to 60,000 hectol. of cyder. The industry of the rural pop. is, however, chiefly exercised in rearing and fattening cattle for the Paris markets, and in breeding horses. In 1830 there were stated to be 223,530 head of cattle in Maine-et-Loire—a greater number than in any other dep. of the W. of France; but, on the other hand, the stock of sheep (180,000) was comparatively small. In 1835, of 140,411 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 69,596 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 21,645 at from 5 to 10 fr. At the same time 333 properties were assessed at more than 1,000 fr. This dep. has the largest and most important slate quarries in France. These are situated near Angers, and are extensive excavations, in one place to the depth of 450 ft. below the surface. They employ more than 3,000 workmen, and several steam-engines, and are said to yield about 80 millions of slates a year. At Chollet (which see), and other parts, some extensive woollen, cotton, and other manufactures are established, employing a large number of hands, and producing goods of the estimated value of 30,000,000 fr. a year. At Angers is a large sail-cloth factory; wooden shoes are made at Moullichere; and the dep. has numerous sugar refineries, breweries, distilleries, paper-mills, dyeing-houses, &c.; and at Angers is one of the two royal schools of arts and trades established in France (the other is at Châlons-sur-Marne), at which about 450 pupils are supported partly or wholly at the expense of government. Maine-et-Loire is divided into 5 arrond.: chief towns, Angers, the cap., with 26,293 inhab., Baugé, Beaupréau, Saumur, and Segré. Total public revenue (1844), 13,183,971 fr. (*Hugo, art. Maine-et-Loire; Official Tables, &c.*)

MAINLAND. See SHEETLAND ISLES.

MAJORCA (Span. *Mallorca*), the largest of the Balearic Islands in the Mediterranean Sea belonging to Spain, from the E. coast of which it is distant, Palma, the chief town, being in lat. 39° 38' N., long. 9° 35' E. Greatest length, 48 m.; do. breadth, 43 m.; estimated area, 1,340 sq. m. Pop., according to Minano, 181,806. Its shape is that of an irregular four-sided figure, the angles of which are formed W. by Cape Tramontana, N. by Cape Formentor, E. by Cape Peri, and S. by Cape Salinos. The surface is extremely uneven, and is divided into two pretty equal parts by a range of mountains, the highest of which, the Silla de Torlillos, rises 5,114 ft. above the sea. These mountains are not volcanic, but consist chiefly of granite, sienite, and porphyry, over which lie beds of gneiss, clay, slate, and coal: lead and iron are found, but not in sufficient abundance for mining purposes. The rivers or rather torrents of Majorca are short, rapid, and very numerous, affording great facilities to irrigation. The climate is exceedingly mild, salubrious, and agreeable; the thermometer during winter scarcely ever falls below 49°, its average height being 69°, and cold and strong N. winds are of rare occurrence. The temperature of summer varies between 84° and 88° Fahr.; but the heat is seldom oppressive, owing to the constant sea-breezes. The red,

loamy soil of the mountains, though stony, is extremely rich, producing spontaneously great numbers of wild olives, grapes, &c.; in the plains it is much less fertile, owing to the superfluity of moisture, and the absence of any system of drainage. Agriculture is in a very rude and debased state; and the growth of corn, which in wet years totally fails, meets only half the consumption of the island, the annual imports of this article being about 6,000 fanegas, chiefly from Catalonia and Valencia. Olives are raised in very large quantities, the crops averaging about 100,000 arrobas yearly; the fruit is smaller than that of Andalusia, but as juicy as the best of the growth of Provence. Wine, both red and white, is abundant, especially near Banabufar and Falsaniche; considerable quantities are exported, and much is likewise used in the distillation of brandy. Fruit and vegetables, especially oranges, figs, melons, carobs, pumpkins, and cauliflowers, grow plentifully, and attain a large size. Large quantities of saffron also are produced, of preferable quality to that of La Mancha. There is no want of fine pasture in the island; but little attention is paid to cattle-breeding. The sheep are large, and hogs sometimes attain the weight of 600 lb. or about 38 stone. Mules and asses are reared in great numbers, and sent to Valencia and other parts in the S. of Spain. Hares and rabbits, partridges, quails, snipes, &c. are abundant, and the coast swarms with fish of various kinds and good quality.

The trade of Majorca is, relatively to its size, very considerable, chiefly with Spain, France, and England; its exports comprise oil, wine, brandy, oranges, and other fruits, capers, saffron, wine, mules, and asses, with smaller quantities of home-made goods, as palm brooms and baskets, turned ware, and water-proof hats for sailors, its imports consisting of wheat, salt beef, iron, sugar, groceries, woollen and cotton goods, hardware, &c., chiefly from France, England, and the N. of Europe; but the precise amount of the trade of Majorca cannot be ascertained.

The inhabitants are described by Fischer as bearing a striking resemblance, "both in their external appearance and general character, to the Catalans, being equally hardy and courageous, equally blunt and jealous of their honour, equally industrious and ingenious, equally good farmers and skilful farmers, with their continental neighbours; and their language is, in fact, nothing but a corrupted dialect of the Catalan."

Majorca comprises only two towns of any importance, and 28 villages, the rest being mere hamlets. Numerous detached farms and country houses, however, are scattered over different parts of the island; and in all the fine valleys one may meet with numbers of elegant villas, in which the higher classes, who are usually much attached to a country life, spend the greater part of the year. The roads have also been considerably improved within the last eight years, and there is a tolerably good communication between different parts. The cap. of Majorca is Palma (sometimes also called Majorca), situated in a bay, of its own name, on the S. side of the island, and having a pop. (according to Miliano) of 34,343 persons. It is agreeably placed in a delightful country, and is pretty strongly fortified; the houses are large and well built; but the streets, being narrow, dark, and ill-paved, give it a wretched and mean appearance. The chief public buildings are the governor's palace, a large structure with extensive gardens, a cathedral, exchange, town-hall, and theatre. The inhab. are active, enterprising, and laborious; and almost the whole trade of the island is concentrated in its port. The road of Palma affords excellent protection for shipping, except during storms from the S.E.; but the little harbour, called Puerto-Pi, is more secure, and furnishes anchorage for the largest frigates: the port is defended by two well-fortified castles. Among the other towns of Majorca, the largest, with their respective pops., are Llu-mayor (6,500), Campos, remarkable for its mineral waters and sakpana (4,800), Santanyá, celebrated for its stone-quarries (3,600), Falsaniche, where is made the best brandy of the island (6,800), Manacor (8,905), Pollensa (7,222), and Soller (5,614). The small island of Cabrera lies 8 m. S.S.W. of Cape Salinas: it is covered with trees, and wholly uninhabited, except by convicts, of whom there is here a small depot.

The *Balearic Islands*, of which Majorca is the chief, were more anciently known as the *Xapétas*, so called, probably, from rising out of the sea, like the backs of hogs. The Phœnicians made settlements in them at a very early period; and they were succeeded by the Carthaginians under Hanno, who founded *Mago* (Mahon), and *Jamson* (Ciudadela), both towns of Minorca. The islanders were celebrated as the most expert sailors in the Carthaginian service during the Punic wars, and were afterwards equally noted as successful pirates, till Quintus Metellus subdued them, and hence obtained the surname of *Balearicus*. He was the founder also of two cities in Majorca, *Palma*, the present cap., and *Pollen-tia*, now Pollensa. Under the Roman empire, these

islands belonged to the judicial district (*conventus juridicus*) of New Carthage in Tarracoensis, and from the reign of Constantine I. to that of Theodosius I. they had their own government. On the breaking up of the W. empire, they became an easy conquest for the Vandals and Huns, from whom they were afterwards wrested by the Moors. The people becoming notorious as pirates and robbers on the coast of Christian Europe, Charlemagne headed an expedition against them, and succeeded, not only in taking the islands, but in keeping possession of them for six years, at the end of which, they were retaken by the Moors: nor were they finally expelled till 1263, when the entire group was formally annexed to the crown of Aragon.

MALABAR. This term is usually applied to designate the whole W. coast of Hindostan from Cape Comorin to Bombay, but, strictly speaking, Malabar only extends as far N. as the Malabar language is spoken, or to lat. 12° 30'. The British prov. of Malabar is a district or collectorate under the Madras Presidency, extending between lat. 10° 12' and 12° 15' N., and long. 75° 10' and 76° 50' E., comprising several portions of territory, as Wynad, &c., not belonging to Hindoo Malabar; and having N. Canara, Coorg, and Mysore, E. Colabaator, S. Cochin, and W. the Indian Ocean. Length, N.W. to S.E., about 150 m.; average breadth about 42 m. Area, 6,262 sq. m. Pop. (1836-37) 1,140,916, of whom 844,186 were Hindoos, 283,027 Mohammedans, and 14,408 Rom. Catholics. In the E. the surface is mountainous, comprising a portion of the range called the W. Ghats: the coast is low, and indented by many shallow inlets. Between these two regions the country mostly consists of undulating hills separated by narrow valleys in general watered by a rivulet. Nearly all the rivers have a W. course. The chief are the Cochin, Bepoor, Ballapatam, Ponany, &c.: the bar of the first is navigable for ships drawing 15 ft. water; and the mouth of the second will admit vessels of 300 tons. Lakes and tanks inconsiderable. The year is divided into three seasons; the hot, from February to May; the wet, from May to October; and the cool, during the remaining months. Dense fogs are rare on the coast, but they usually envelope the ghats from April to the end of the year. The soil on the coast is sandy, but well adapted for the culture of the cocoa-nut, jack, areca, plantain, cinnamon, and other trees, pepper, coffee, the sweet potato, and other farinaceous roots, garden vegetables, &c. In the interior the soil is of the red kind common in the S. of India, and highly favourable for rice, which frequently yields two and sometimes three crops a year. The rice lands are sown after the first rains in April, and in four months the grain is ripe for the sickle. The second crops are raised by the transplantation of plants a month old, and are reaped in three months. The third crop is assisted by small reservoirs and tanks, and by turning water from streams about 788 m. m. are estimated to be under rice, and 190 in gardens and inclosures of productive trees. The sides of the hills are often formed into terraces for cultivation. The rest of the surface, especially in the uplands, is chiefly covered with forests, among which the teak-tree is very prevalent, and an important source of wealth to the district, the teak of Malabar being considered, upon the whole, superior to every other variety. Besides the above articles of culture, the mulberry, mango, tamarind, sugar-cane, ginger, turmeric, mustard, arrow-root, hemp, cotton, &c., are grown, and wheat and barley on the hills. There are few cattle. The elephant and wild hog do great damage on the borders of the forests they inhabit: the tiger, bison, elk, deer, &c., are also met with. Towns are rare in the interior, and villages there are spread over a large space, families usually living separate from each other within gardens inclosed by ditches and high banks. Iron is pretty generally found, and gold, though in small quantities, in the sands of some of the rivers. Coarse cotton cloths are manufactured in a few places from the raw produce of the district: coir is made from the fibres covering of the cocoa-nut; oil from its kernel, and arrack from the toddy in very large quantities. The chief exports consist of the products of the cocoa-palm, amounting to about 805,500 rupees annually. From 10,000 to 15,000 candles of pepper, betel-nut to the value of 560,000 rupees, and cloth from the districts to the E. to the value of from 1,700,000 to 2,300,000 rupees, are annually exported. At Calicut, Tellicherry, Cananore, and Ponany, the chief commercial towns, there are numerous Parsees and other opulent merchants. The roads throughout the district are in good order, and have convenient bungalows every 10 or 15 m. Public revenue (1836-37), 310,362, of which the land-tax amounted to 161,162. In Malabar, as in S. Canara, inheritance goes by the female line, among the Nairs and other Hindoo castes which inhabit the country. On the coast, a large proportion of the inhab. are Mohammedans, and many Moplaes, a people originally derived from Arabia. The Christian religion appears to have been planted in this part of India at a very early period, and many churches were found existing by the Portuguese. Ma-

lahar was governed by various Nair dynasties, previously to its conquest by Hyder Ali, in 1761; on the fall of Tippoo Sahib, it became subsidiary to the British, and was incorporated with the Madras Presidency in 1803. (*Madras Almanac* for 1838 and 1839; *Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.* vol. ii.)

MALACCA AND NANING, a British colony, on the W. coast of the Malay peninsula, between lat. 2° and 3° N., and long. 102° and 103° E.; having N.W. the territory of Singapore, N.E. those of Rumbow and Johole, S.E. that of Johore, and S.W. the straits of Malacca. Area estimated at 1,000 sq. m. Pop., in 1826, 37,706, of whom about 21,000 are Malays, 4,000 Chinese, and 2,400 Europeans, chiefly English, Dutch, and Portuguese. Surface mostly undulating; the hills are covered with jungle, and the valleys rendered swampy by the rains. The coast also is swampy S. of the town of Malacca, but to the N. it is generally bold and rocky. There are several rivers; but the largest is only navigable by small vessels for 10 or 12 m. from its mouth. Opposite the coast are many small granitic islands, which serve for burial places to the Malay inhab. of the colony. The country is geologically composed of a granitic formation, overlain by laterite, and this again by a layer of vegetable mould, which becomes thicker the nearer the coast. The soil near the sea-shore is very productive, but in the interior it is otherwise; and Naning is much more valuable for its tin mines than for the products of its agriculture. The climate is more salubrious perhaps than that of any other British coast settlement in the East. It has been found that during a period of seven years, the deaths among the troops stationed here amounted to less than 2 per cent.; and instances of longevity are frequent among both Europeans and natives. The mean annual temperature is about 77° F.; and there is but little change throughout the year in the barometer, which stands at about 30". Rain falls continually at intervals of a few days; but as rather more occurs between September and January than at any other time, that period is termed the wet season. Tolerant squalls and storms of lightning, &c. occur during the S.W. monsoon. The produce of Malacca consists chiefly of rice, jaggery, sago, pepper, rattans, timber, cocoa-nuts, a few nutmegs, cloves, dammer, gambier, gum lac, ivory, gold dust, tin, fruits, poultry, and cattle. A few years ago the rice raised in the colony was scarcely sufficient for four months' consumption, the additional supply being brought from Acheen, Java, and Bengal. A principal cause of this was the former policy of the Dutch, who, while Malacca belonged to them, prohibited the raising of any kind of grain. In the view of rendering the inhab. wholly dependent for their supplies on Java. The British government, however, has given every encouragement to native agriculture; and, in 1835, the crop of rice amounted to two-thirds the annual consumption. Cocoa-nuts form a considerable portion of the food of the lower classes of natives, who also subsist partly by fishing. For the trade of the colony, see *post*.

This settlement is included in the presidency of Bengal, and is governed by a resident, with an assistant resident at Malacca, and a superintendent at Naning. The Dutch drew from its surplus revenue; but since it came into our possession, the expenditure has always exceeded the income by about 100,000 rupees a year. In 1837-38, the revenue only amounted to 53,543 rupees, or 5,354*l*.

MALACCA, a town on the W. coast of the Malay Peninsula, cap. of the above British colony, at the mouth of the river of the same name, lat. 2° 14' N., long. 102° 12' E., about 100 m. N.W. Singapore, and 220 m. S.E. Pinang. Pop., in 1832, 12,120, of whom about 4,000 were Chinese, 3,000 Malays, 2,000 Chullahs, and 2,000 Europeans. "The town of Malacca is divided by the river above mentioned into 2 parts, connected by a bridge. On the E. bank rises the hill of St. Paul, surrounded by vestiges of an old Portuguese fort. Around its base lie the barracks, lines, and most of the houses of the military; the stadhous, court-house, gaol, church, civil and military hospitals, the site of the old Inquisition, convent, the police-office, the school, post-office and master attendant's office. On its summit stand the ruins of the ancient church of our Lady del Monte, erected by Albuquerque, and the scene of the labours and miracles of that 'Apostle of the East,' St. Francis Xavier; also the light-house and flag-staff. A little to the S. rise the hills of St. John's, and in the rear rises that of St. Francis. On these eminences are the remains of batteries erected by the Portuguese and Dutch, commanding the E. and S. entrances to the town. Smaller knolls intervene, covered with the extensive cemeteries of the Chinese. The tombs are white, and constructed with much care, and surrounded by low walls of brick and chunan, in shape resembling a horse-shoe. The bazars, and by far the greatest part of the town, are situated on the right bank of the river. The anchoring grounds in the roads are secure; and though large vessels are obliged to lie at a distance of 2 m. from the shore, accidents have been rarely known to happen. Native craft anchor much

nearer, under the lee of one of the islets close in-shore." (*Newbold's Malacca*, i. 109-111.)

The principal public institution at Malacca is the Anglo-Chinese College, established in 1818. Its main objects are the cultivation of Chinese literature by Europeans, and of European literature by the Chinese, Malays, and surrounding nations, and the diffusion of Christianity. The college has a library, well stocked with European and Chinese books, Siamese MSS., &c.; and attached to it is an English, Chinese, and Malay press. This college was founded by Dr. Morrison, the Chinese scholar, from whom, also, it received a small endowment. But at present it depends almost wholly on the fees paid by the pupils; and its funds are by no means in a prosperous state. Such an institution would, however, appear to be deserving of public support. There are also in the town Chinese schools, with about 100 scholars, besides several Hindoo and female schools, and schools established by the Malays, for their own instruction in English. A full account of the mode of education in the Chinese schools may be seen in Newbold's work on Malacca.

Malacca was formerly a place of considerable trade; but, owing to the superior advantages of Pinang and Singapore, its commerce has rapidly decreased within the last 10 years, and it is now very limited. It exports small quantities of gold dust, balachong, hides, hogs, fowls, jaggery, pepper, dammer, cordage, a little ebony and ivory; iron implements, fire-arms, &c., and manufactures by the Chinese smiths at Malacca, with rattans, lac, and aloe-wood. The gold and tin are not the produce of the British territory, but of the adjacent native states, whence they are brought to Malacca by native boats, or overland by coolies. The principal imports are earthenware, iron, rice, sago, opium, nankeens, European and Indian piece-goods, woollens, paper, provisions and liquors, for the European and Chinese inhab.; salt, sugar, tea, tobacco, &c., partly for home consumption and partly for re-shipment. The total value of the imports, in 1834-35, amounted to 467,459 dollar; total do. of exports 234,325 do.

Malacca is said to have been founded in 1552, by Iskander Shah, a chief from Singapore, and it soon became a large and flourishing city, its influence extending over all the peninsula and the adjacent islands. It was first visited by the Portuguese in 1508, and captured by them in 1511. In 1641 it was taken by the Dutch, and in 1736 by the English. The latter held it till 1818, when it was restored to the Dutch; but in 1826 the latter finally exchanged it with us for the settlements of Bencoolen, &c., on the coast of Sumatra. But we much doubt whether its possession be of any material advantage, or, at least, whether the advantage be at all adequate to counterbalance the expense it occasions. (*Newbold's British Settlements in Malacca*; *Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.* &c.)

MALACCA (STRAITS OF), a channel of the Eastern Seas, extending from lat. 1° and 6° N., and long. 98° and 104° E., between the Malay Peninsula on the N.E. and the island of Sumatra, on the S.W. Its length, N.W. to S.E., may be estimated at about 520 m.; its breadth varies from 25 m. opposite the Naning territory, to nearly 300 m. at its N. extremity. It is the best and most frequented passage from the Indian Ocean to the China Sea.

MALAGA, an important city and sea-port of Spain, k. Granada, and prov. of its own name, at the bottom of a deep bay, on the Mediterranean, 68 m. N.E. Gibraltar, and 254 m. S. by W. Madrid: lat. 36° 43' 30" N., and long. 4° 25' 17" W. Pop., according to Mifano, 51,889; but little dependence can be placed on this statement, and the pop. is believed to amount to near 60,000. It is built along the shore, at the foot of mountains gradually descending towards the sea: westward is the Vega, a fertile plain, by the great river of Malaga, which delivers a large body of water from the E. into the Bay of the Ronda; and on the other side rise naked rugged mountains, overhanging the shore, and scarcely leaving room for the town. But the most imposing view of Malaga is from the sea. "It stands in the centre of a wide bay, flanked by lofty mountains, and by the picturesque ruins of its ancient fortifications and castle, which cover the hill rising immediately to the E., and seem, from their great extent, like the remains of a former state." (*Anglia*, i. 136.) The streets, as in all the Spanish towns, are very narrow, many being only 8 ft. wide, with others still narrower, badly paved, and dirty to a proverb; the houses are high and large, built round a court, the interior having a clean and neat appearance, owing to the abundant use of whitewash. There is only one square in the town, and the churches, as well as convents, are so crowded among the houses, that their beauty, if they have any, is effectually concealed. "Indeed," says Mr. Inglis, "the only handsome feature of the town is the Alameda, or public walk, the buildings round which are certainly magnificent; the other parts present a labyrinth of narrow intricate streets, inhabited by the tradespeople." (*vol. ii. p. 129*.) The chief public buildings, and establishments are a cathedral, with a chapter, 4 par. churches,

a bishop's palace, 4 hospitals (one of which is for military), a legal seminary, royal college of medicine and surgery, a founding asylum, a large *dépot* for convicts, a custom-house, and 2 endowed schools. Among these, however, the only edifice worth notice is the cathedral, a large building, having a spire 270 ft. in height: like that of Granada, it is in the transition style, between the Gothic and classic; the roof, instead of being groined, is divided into numerous small circular domes, somewhat like the marigold windows of Gothic architecture; and the modern additions to the building, though not quite in keeping, are on the whole designed with good taste. (*Cook's Sketches in Spain*, ii. 100.) The high altar and the pulpit are of flesh-coloured marble; "but the part which most rivets the attention is the choir, called by the biographer Palomino the eighth wonder of the world, and admirable for the perfection of its carved works, representing in very bold relief the twelve apostles, and most distinguished of the saints." (*Tourneron*, iii. 12.) On a sharp point of rock commanding the city stands a fine old Moorish castle, in good preservation, called the *Gibraltarero* (prob. *Gebel-al-faro*, the great watch-tower), built on the site of a Roman fortress, but still wholly of Arabic architecture: it is altogether, both from its shape and situation, a very curious structure, and, if fortified on the modern system, might be rendered impregnable. Another Moorish building, in tolerable preservation, was formerly the *darasna* or *darik* for the ancient galleys, now used as a storehouse. (*Swinburne*, i. 322.) The *Alcazaba*, an Arabian palace, once occupied a site near the shore; but the greater part of it was pulled down to make room for the custom-house. At a short distance from Malaga is one of the magnificent but unfinished undertakings of Charles III., a bridge and aqueduct over the great river of Malaga, which flows about a league distant from the city; but this work, on which a great outlay was incurred, was rendered useless a few years afterwards by a work undertaken by a bishop, who, at his own expense, brought water into the city by a much shorter line. (*Cook*, vol. i. p. 19.)

Malaga is probably entitled to rank as the third or fourth port of Spain; but owing to the want of official returns, and the prevalence of smuggling, it is impossible to obtain any accurate account of its trade. The principal articles of export are wines and fruit, particularly raisins, almonds, grapes, figs, and lemons: there is likewise a considerable, though smaller, exportation of olive oil, with brandy, anchovies, cummin-seed, aniseed, basil, soap, &c. Lead is also brought thither for shipment from the mines of Alora in Granada. The imports comprise salt-fish, iron hoops, bar-iron, and nails; cotton fabrics, hides, earthenware, &c.; with woollen cloths, all sorts of colonial produce, butter and cheese from Holland and Ireland, linens from Germany, &c. The trade with England has been for some time diminishing, owing to our small demand for Malaga wine; but the trade with America has considerably increased, owing to its pretty large consumption both of the fruit and wine shipped at this port. Mr. Inglis has given the following details with respect to the trade of this port, which may be interesting to some of our readers:—"The wines of Malaga are of two sorts, sweet and dry; and of the former of these, there are three varieties: 1st, the common 'Malaga,' known and exported under that name, in which there is a certain proportion of burnt wine, which communicates its peculiar taste to the 'Malaga'; the grape from which this wine is made is white, and every butt of Malaga contains no less than 11 galls. of brandy; 2dly, 'Mountain,' made from the same grape as the other, and, like it, containing colouring matter and brandy, the only difference between the two being, that for 'mountain' the grape is allowed to become riper; 3dly, 'Lagrimas,' the richest and finest of the sweet wines of Lagrima; it consists of the droppings of the ripe grape hung up, and is obtained without the application of pressure. The dry wine of Malaga is produced from the same grape as the sweet wine, but pressed when greener: in this wine there is more brandy than in the sweet wine; at least 1-12th part of the dry Malaga being brandy. The whole produce of the Malaga vineyards is estimated at from 36,000 to 40,000 butts, owing to the increasing stock of old wine in the cellars, it is impossible to be precise in this calculation. The export of Malaga wines may be stated at about 27,000 butts. The principal markets are in the United States and the states of S. America, to which countries the exports are rather on the increase. The average price of the wines shipped from Malaga does not exceed 35 dollars per butt; but wines are occasionally exported at so high a price as 170 dollars. Many attempts have been made at Malaga to produce sherry, but not with perfect success. The Xeres grape has been reared at Malaga, upon a soil very similar to its native soil; and the sherry made at Malaga might be introduced into the English market as sherry, nor, from its cheapness, could it fail to command a sale. One reason of the very low price of the wines of Malaga, is the cheapness of labour; field labour is paid by 2½ reales a

day (4d.), wages during the fruit and vintage time being about double.

Next to its wines, the chief exports of Malaga are fruits; as raisins, almonds, grapes, figs, and lemons. During Sept. and Oct. 1830, the export of raisins amounted to 268,845 boxes, and 21,916 smaller packages. Of this quantity, 125,234 boxes were for the United States; 45,513 for England; the remaining quantity being for France, the West Indies, the Spanish Ports, S. America, and Holland. The raisins are of three kinds, muscatel, bloom, or sun raisins and lexis. The muscatel raisin of Malaga is the finest in the world, and in its preparation no art is used, the grape being merely placed in the sun, and frequently turned. The bloom, or sun raisin, is a different grape from the muscatel, but the process of preparing it is the same; like the other, it is merely sun dried. The lexis acquires this name from the liquor in which they are dipped, and which is composed of water, ashes, and oil; these, after being dipped, are also dried in the sun. All muscatel raisins are exported in boxes, and also part of the bloom raisins. In 1829, the number of boxes of muscatel and bloom raisins exported amounted to 220,000, each box containing 25 lbs.; 8,000,000 lbs. in all. This quantity is independent of the export of bloom raisins in casks, and of lexis, the annual export of which does not exceed 25,000 arrobas. The export of raisins to England has fallen 37 per cent. since 1825, but the export to America has constantly increased. In 1834, 75 ships cleared from Malaga for England, with fruit. In 1830, up to the 1st Nov., 34 vessels had cleared out. Of the other fruits exported from Malaga, grapes, almonds, and lemons, are the most extensively exported. In the months of Sept. and Oct., 1830, 11,612 jars of grapes were sent to England; 6,429 to America; and 1,660 to Russia. During the same period of time 5,235 arrobas of almonds (133,375 lbs.) were exported to England; and this constituted nearly the whole export; and during these months, also, there were exported to England 3,749 boxes of lemons; to Germany, 4,201 boxes; and to Russia, 840 boxes. There is also a large export of oil from Malaga." (*Spain*, ii. 145-149.)

Malaga has an excellent harbour, formed by a fine mole, 700 yds. in length, at the end of which is a lighthouse, furnished with a powerful light, revolving once a minute. A shoal that had grown up round the mole-head has been removed by dredging. The harbour, which will accommodate more than 450 merchant ships, may be entered with all winds, and affords a perfect shelter. The port dues to a Spanish ship of 300 tons amount to about 11l. 10s.; those to an English vessel of the same burden being about 31l. Goods may be warehoused for any time not exceeding 12 months, on paying 2 per cent. *ad valorem* in lieu of all charges; but at the end of the year they must be either entered for consumption or re-shipped. (For weights and measures, commercial details, &c., see *Com. Dict.*, art. *Malaga and Spain*.)

Malaga, independently of its export trade, has manufactures of linen and woollen cloths, sail-cloth, ropes, paper, leather, hats, and soap; an iron foundry and cigar manufactory; but excepting the latter, they are all on a small scale, and insufficient for the consumption of the inhab. Pilehard and anchovy fisheries also give employment to a considerable number of the lower classes. The market is well supplied, the show of fruit in particular being unequalled in Spain. Mr. Inglis quotes the prices of several leading articles, as follows: Beef and mutton, 10 quartos (about 3d.) per lb.; pork, 14 quartos; a fowl, 7 reales (13d.); a duck, 15 reales; a turkey, from 20 to 30 reales; a rabbit, 10 reales; and a partridge, 4 reales. Poultry, however, is here not only exposed whole, but also cut up into joints, like butchers' meat. A barrel of anchovies may be bought for 3 reales (4d.), and many other varieties of fish are remarkably cheap and plentiful. Potatoes are sold for 7 quartos the 6½ lbs.; and excellent wine may be procured for 2 reales a bottle. Bread, one of the dearest articles of food, fetches 13 quartos (3d.), per lb., and eggs are sold for 1d. each. Melons, pomegranates, and prickly pears, with fish, constitute the principal food of the lower orders, as are cheap as scarcely to form an article of expenditure.

The appearance and aspect of the pop. of Malaga is even more Moorish than that of Seville, and affords innumerable pictures of idleness. Hundreds of the lower classes appear in the streets doing nothing, sitting on the ground, loitering against a wall, or lying on the steps of church doors, wrapped in brown, ragged, and patched cloaks. In fact, Malaga is noted for idleness and demoralisation. The necessities of life being so cheap, there are few motives to industry: begging is very common, and has been encouraged by the ill-judged bounty of the monasteries, which, however, were suppressed in 1835; but, when deprived of their legitimate resources, the *mala gente* (such being the sobriquet of these people) are at no loss to find, owing to the inefficiency of the police, a few quartos in some other way. The whole of them, indeed, are thieves; and in so degraded a state is public justice in this city, that crimes of the darkest hue pass unpunished.

The clasp-knife is in frequent use to gratify revenge, and murders often follow acts of robbery. (Compare *Inglist*, ii. 128, with *Townsend*, iii. 18.) This degraded state of morals is attributed, by Sir C. Brooke, partly at least, to the fact that convicts, called *predatorios*, are detained here previous to their departure for, and after their release from, the penal settlement of Ceuta, in Africa, which see. (i. 574.) An efficient government would, however, speedily change the whole aspect of society; the impunity that crime has so long enjoyed in this miserable country being the great cause of its prevalence. The more respectable classes of the people are described as agreeable, hospitable, and generally fond of society, the ladies being equally witty and high-spirited with those of Seville, quite as showy in dress, and not a whit more strict in morals. The Italian Opera is a favourite resort, and many ladies are good musicians. Numerous foreigners also reside in Malaga, especially English and Americans, who constitute, with a few of the government officers and merchants, the *élite* of society. Most of these have country seats in the environs, the beauty of which is not surpassed in any part of Andalusia. The weather during summer is intolerably hot, and at this season, especially during the prevalence of the hot S. winds, the inhab. exclude the sun as much as possible, and remain at home during the day; but when the heat is succeeded by the refreshing coolness of the evening, the whole pop. is astir, and after midnight the young people bathe for hours in the sea, a practice quite as conducive to health as pleasure. Nervous and epidemic fevers are still, however, very prevalent, and sometimes carry off great numbers of people.

Malaga, like most other cities of Spain, has had various masters. Built by the Phœnicians, and called by them *Malaka*, it came successively into the hands of the Carthaginians and Romans, both of whom procured from it considerable supplies of salt-fish and provisions. It then passed into the hands of the Goths; and from them, in 714, to the Moors, who were at length driven hence by Ferdinand the Catholic, in 1487. The yellow fever carried off nearly 22,000 of its inhab. in 1803, and reappeared, though attended with less fatal consequences, in 1813. Malaga was taken by the French in 1810, after an obstinate conflict with a body of Spaniards, officered by monks, and commanded by a Capuchin friar; and remained in their possession till 1813. (*Inglist's Spain*, ii. 126-133.; *Townsend's Journey*, iii. 10-42.; *Cook's Sketches*, i. 18-24.; *Swinhurne*, i. 320-327.; *Sir A. de Capell Brooke's Spain and Morocco*, ii. 309-307.)

MALAY PENINSULA, a long and narrow territory, forming a part of India beyond the Brahmputra, and the most S. portion of continental Asia, lying chiefly between the 1st and 8th degs. of N. lat., and the 98th and 104th of E. long.; it has N. Lower Siam, with which it is connected by the Isthmus of Kra; and is on all other sides surrounded by the sea, called on the W. and S. the Straits of Malacca and Singapore; and on the E. the China Sea and Gulf of Siam. Length, N.N.W. to S.E., 450 m.; breadth varying from 50 to 150 m. Area estimated at 45,000 sq. m. As far as lat. 6° S. the country is claimed by the Siamese; but beyond that point the peninsula is subdivided among indep. native states and British colonies, which may be enumerated as follows, with their probable pop., as estimated by Lieutenant Newbold:—

Exterior Native States.	Pop.	Interior Native States.	Pop.
Quedah and Ligor	50,000	Rumbow	9,000
Perak	35,000	Bunge-jalong	3,500
Selangore and Calang	15,000	Johole	3,000
Johore (including Se- jamat and Muar)	25,000	Jempole	2,000
Pahang	40,000	Srimenati	8,000
Kevanan	1,000	Abrigates scattered over the Peninsula	9,000
Kalantan	50,000		
Tringgan	30,000		
Pasani	10,000		
	325,000		36,680
British Possessions.			
Malacca and Nanning (1836)	- - -	37,706	
Province Wellesley (1835)	- - -	46,880	
Total Population, 574,866		84,586	

Physical Geography.—The central and longest of the mountain chains, passing S. from the table land of Yunnan, through the Ultra-Gangetic peninsula, traverses this territory in its entire length. This mountain chain diminishes in height as it approaches the equator; and its highest peaks in Rumbow and Johore probably do not exceed 3,000 ft. in elevation; while many peaks in the N. part of Quedah are supposed to rise to upwards of 6,000 ft. above the sea. M. Ophir, a detached mountain in about lat. 3° 30' N., and long. 102° 30' E., has been roughly estimated at nearly 5,700 ft. in height, but it is much more lofty than any other summit in the S. part of the peninsula. Between the above mountain chain and the coast, the surface is undulating, covered with dense

primeval forests, or interspersed with grassy plains, which are by far the most numerous and extensive in the N. An abundance of rivers descend to either coast, in their progress frequently forming marshes and lakes, some of which are of considerable size. Their banks are generally low, swampy, and covered with mangrove and other thickets; and though several of them are broad, and moderately deep, the sand-banks, coral reefs, &c. at their mouths, usually preclude their navigation by vessels of any magnitude. A number of verdant islets stud the coasts, especially the north-western and the south-eastern.

Geology and Minerals.—The Malay mountain chain, as far as it has been hitherto explored, consists chiefly of grey stanniferous granite and clay-slate. At its S. extremity, porphyry occurs; hornblende is met with near Malacca; and quartz is very abundant around M. Ophir, and elsewhere. The geology of the E. coast is almost wholly unknown; but along the W., laterite, similar to that of the Malabar coast, is a very prevalent formation. Clay-slate, sandstone, argillaceous schist, Jasper, limestone, greywacke, and limestone, are the other most prevalent rocks. Limestone composes a portion of several of the islands off the W. coast, while those off the S. coast are chiefly of granite or senite. The Elephant rock in the Quedah territory is a mass of calcareous rock, containing many small, irregular, and scattered, and spersed with abundance of fossil remains. At the S. extremity of the peninsula are evident traces of volcanic action; and numerous thermal springs, scattered over the country, testify the activity of subterranean heat at no great distance below the surface. These are sulphureous and saline. The springs at Ayer-pannas, near Malacca, were found by Newbold to have a temp. of 120° Fahr. at noon, and of 113½° at 6 A. M.

The Malay peninsula produces tin, gold, and iron: tin is, in fact, among its principal articles of export. Mr. Crawford observes, that tin, whenever found, has a limited geographical distribution; but that, where it does exist, it is always in great abundance. The tin of India has, however, a much wider range of distribution than that of any other region, being found in considerable quantity from long. 98° to 107° E., and from lat. 8° N. to 3° S. (*Indian Archip.*, iii. 450.) It has been latterly stated that it is found in abundance at Sakina, in the interior of Tavoy, lat. 19° 40', and in Siam even as far N. as 14°. At any rate the Malay peninsula appears to be the centre of the tin region in the eastern seas in which tin is distributed; and including the island of Junk-cyeon, it has been roughly estimated that its annual produce of this metal amounts to 34,600 piculs of 133 lb. avoird. The ore of the peninsula is extremely pure, being that which is called stream. The ore of Sunjio-jong, Nanning, and Perak, is reported to yield 76 per cent. metal, whereas the ores of Cornwall, with all the advantages of European science and ingenuity, do not yield more than 75 per cent. But the process of smelting, as conducted by the Malays, being very defective, and adulteration frequent, the peninsula fetches only from 14 to 15 dollars the picul; while the tin of Banca, wrought by Chinese, sells at from 16 to 16½ dollars. The export of peninsular tin may amount to about 2,000 tons a year, including from 400 to 500 tons received from the Malacca Straits and Banca. A large portion is brought to England, Malay tin being now very extensively imported for warehousing; large quantities are also carried to Holland, where there are refining houses.

The Malay peninsula does not by any means so well merit the term *Arcis Ceylonensis*, which has been before applied to it, as the neighbouring island of Sumatra. The exports of gold from the S.W. coast of that island amount, according to Marsden and Hamilton, to 36,400 os. a year, while the annual produce of the peninsula is roughly estimated at less than 20,000 os. It comes chiefly from the E. coast, and M. Ophir, where it occurs disseminated through quartz, in thin granular veins, and in alluvial deposits. Iron is found in Quedah, but only in small quantities.

The climate is remarkable for its continual moisture, to which circumstance the perpetual verdure of the peninsula is mainly owing. The year is divided into the wet and dry seasons; but the term "dry season," must not be understood in the same sense as when applied to the climate of Hindostan; for, during its continuance, even three successive days rarely pass without a shower. On the W. coast the dry season comes in with the S.W. monsoon in May; the wet season, with the N.E. monsoon in October. Thunder storms, whirlwinds, water-spouts, and other atmospheric phenomena are frequent, especially during the S.W. monsoon.

Vegetable Products are both numerous and valuable. They include a host of trees, the timber of which is adapted for house and ship-building; the finest fruits of tropical climates, bamboos, canes, rattans, &c., of which the jungles are in great part composed; the areca, sago, and gomuti palms, the catechu, dragon's blood, and India

rubber plants, the opas of the Javanese, &c. It has been denied that teak is indigenous to the country; but, according to Newbold, the inland Malays affirm that it is occasionally found, and is known under the name of *Jati*. The wild nutmeg is a native of the country. The true nutmeg, cinnamon, and clove have been long introduced, and thrive well. Tobacco, coffee, sugar, cotton, and the true indigo (*Indigofera tinctoria*), are cultivated with much success. Mr. Crawford (*Embassy to Siam*, &c., i. 178.) estimates that the Malay peninsula produces 28,000 piculs of pepper a year, or about 1-13th part of the total produce of the E. India, and other kinds of grain, are not grown in quantities sufficient for home consumption, and are therefore imported chiefly from Bengal and Sumatra.

Elephants roam over the peninsula in great numbers; the rhinoceros, tapir, wild hog, the royal and the spotted black tiger, 2 kinds of bears, and 2 species of bison, the axis, plandok, musk-deer, and several other kinds of deer, the vampire, and many varieties of bats, and numerous monkeys, are among the wild animals. The buffalo is a native, and is domesticated; but neither the cow, camel, horse, nor ass, are met with in a state of nature. The great density of the jungles is considered unfavourable to the increase of feathered game; but waterfowl are plentiful, and there are a great many pheasants of the richest plumage. Crocodiles, alligators, and several kinds of formidable serpents, are met with. The dugong, many turtles, and a plentiful supply of fine fish, are caught in the surrounding seas.

People.—The Malays have been ranked by some authors as one of the five great families, or varieties, of the human race. But this opinion, by no means generally entertained. Newbold says, "Both their features, and those of the aborigines in the native states around Malacca are decidedly characterised by the Mongol stamp." (i. 422.) And independent of the Malays having no peculiarity of form or feature to entitle them to be called a distinct variety, there appears to be sufficient evidence to show that they are a mixed race, of comparatively recent origin. Antecedent to the 12th century of our era, the coasts of the peninsula, and the adjacent islands, were inhabited, though thinly, by a tribe of *ichthophagi*, and the interior by a race of negro savages, whose descendants it is still occupied. In the course of the above century, a body of colonists, the ancestors of the present race of Malays, arrived on the continent, from Menangkabow, in Sumatra; and whether by intermarriage (as traditionally reported) or by conquest, extended their dominion over the whole peninsula. During the succeeding centuries they conquered Sumatra, the Sunda, Philippine, and Molacca Isles, with many smaller groups; and are now found in all those regions, and in Borneo, &c.; but without any centre of unity or power. The chief physical characters of the Malay race consist in a brown colour, varying from a light tawny to a deep brown; black hair, more or less curled, and abundant; the head rather narrow; the bones of the face large and prominent; the nose full, and broad towards the apex; and the mouth large. The average height of the men is about 5 ft. 3 in. A general character can hardly be assigned to a people so widely distributed.

The Malay inhab. of the peninsula are, however, active, restless, and courageous; but their courage is not of a steady, deliberate character, but is rather a sudden ungovernable impulse, arising from a paroxysm of rage. "To their enemies they are remorseless, to their friends capricious, and to strangers treacherous." (*Hamilton*.) Perhaps, their treachery to strangers may, in part at least, be occasioned by the behaviour of the latter, or the antipathy excited against them by the behaviour of former strangers. Malcolm, who remained for some time in this region of Asia, says, that "in their intercourse with each other, domestic and private virtues prevail to as great an extent as among the adjacent nations. A propensity to gambling is a distinguishing trait in the Malay character; and more especially a taste for cock-fighting, to which sport the Malay is so passionately addicted, that his last morsel, the covering of his body, his wife and children, are often staked on the issue of a battle to be fought by his favourite cock." Malcolm admits that a "disregard of human life, revenge, idleness, and piracy, may be considered common to Malays. The universal practice of going armed makes thoughts of murder familiar. The right of private revenge is universally admitted, even by the chiefs; and the taking of life may be atoned for by a small sum of money." (*Travels*, ii. 134.) In the arts of peace they are greatly inferior to their neighbours of Java, Japan, Cochinchina, and Siam. The Malay language coincides with monosyllabic tongues in its general construction and analogies, but is properly polysyllabic in its form. It consists chiefly of Polynesian, an intermixture of Sanscrit and Arabic, and a dialect purely Malayan, which last, however, constitutes little more than 1-4th part of the written and spoken language. The literature of the Malays is almost entirely

derived from Hindostan, Persia, Arabia, Java, and Siam. Arabic is exclusively their sacred language; and their religion also has been derived from Arabia, all the Malays, with trifling exceptions, being Mohammedans.

The negro tribes which inhabit the interior of the peninsula are called by the Malays *Orang Borneo*, men of the soil. They appear to be a distinct variety, differing from and being inferior to both the African and Papuan negro. The average height of the men is only 4 ft. 8 inches. The Malay negroes are thinly spread over a considerable extent of territory in and behind Malacca, and thence N. to Mergul; but they probably amount in all to only a few thousand. They are divided into several tribes, some of which are said to dwell altogether in trees or cliffs in the mountains. A few have learned a little Malay, and occasionally venture among the adjacent Malay tribes, to purchase tobacco and utensils; but of letters they know nothing. Copious accounts of both the Malays and this people may be found in *Newbold's Malacca*, &c., vol. ii. ch. 12, 14, 15.; and various details respecting the races inhabiting the Malay countries are given in the art. E. ARCHIPELAGO in this Diet. (i. 149.). For the Commerce of the British settlements, see MALACCA, SINGAPORE, &c.

The principal articles of export from the native states are tin, gold-dust, spices, elephants' teeth, pepper, sago, sugar, canes, timber for ship and house building, dammer, ebony, bees' wax, betel nut, sapan, and eagle-woods, hogs, poultry, buffaloes, tiles, and an immense variety of fruits; in return for which, opium, salt, cotton, cloths, tobacco, rice, and some European manufactures, are the chief imports. The trade is principally with the British and Dutch settlements in the East, Siam, China, and the adjacent parts of the E. archipelago.

In the 16th century a large proportion of this peninsula appears to have been under the sway of the Siamese, but since that time it has been mostly divided into the petty states before enumerated, the historical details of which are destitute of interest. The successive settlements made by the Portuguese, Dutch, and British at Malacca, &c., are elsewhere noticed. The only recent event worthy of mention has been the subjugation of Quedah (or Keddah) by the Siamese, begun in 1821, and completely effected within about 10 years afterwards. (*Newbold's Malacca*; *Crawford's Malcom*; *Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*; *Lawrence's Lectures on Malacca*, &c.)

MALDA, a town of Hindostan, prov. Bengal, district Dinagepore, on the Mahanunda, built chiefly of the ruins of Gour, from which it is distant about 12 m. N. Early in the present century it had 3,000 houses huddled together along the bank of the river, which, during the rainy season, nearly insulates the town. The E. I. Company established a factory here as early as the 17th century; and there were formerly some prosperous French and Dutch silk and cotton factories in the town; but the trade of Malda has now sunk into irreparable decay, its manufactured goods being unable to withstand the competition of those introduced into India from Europe.

MALDIVE ISLANDS, or MALDIVES, a chain of islands in the Indian Ocean, extending between the 1st deg. of S. and the 7th of N. lat., a distance of about 560 stat. m.; and between 72° 48' and 73° 48' E. long. The Laccadive Islands, to the N. of the Maldives, may not improperly be considered a continuation of this island-system. They are of coralline formation, arranged in round or oval groups called *atolls*, separated by several channels, which may be safely navigated by ships of the largest size. The different groups are surrounded by coral reefs, on which the surf beats violently; but between the islands the sea is perfectly smooth, and forms safe harbours for small craft. These islands have been rarely visited by Europeans, though lying in the direct route to India. All that are of any extent are richly clothed with palms and other trees; but no edifice has been seen in sailing past them, whence it may be concluded that none are higher than a cocoa tree. The Maldives produce millet and other small grains, of which they have two harvests a year; but they are unsuitable for rice and wheat, which are imported. Esculent roots and fruits are found in the greatest profusion; and poultry are extremely abundant, and bred with little or no attention. There are neither horses nor dogs, and but few horned cattle. Fishing is an important occupation, especially that of cowries, a species of shells used as money in small payments in Hindostan and other Asiatic countries, and in extensive districts of Africa. The inhab. trade with Hindostan, Sumatra, &c., arriving at Belasore and other ports of British India during the S.W. monsoon with cowries, coir, the produce of the cocoa-tree, salted fish, tortoise-shell, &c.; and sailing homeward with the N.E. monsoon, taking rice, sugar, manufactured goods, tobacco, &c. The people of the Maldives are Mohammedans, and probably of an Arabic stock. They live under a sultan, who, according to Hamilton, resides in Male, an island about 3 m. in circuit, fortified by walls and batteries,

on which above 100 pieces of artillery are mounted. The Sultan, however, considers himself dependent on the British government of Ceylon, to which he sends an annual embassy. (*Geog. Journ.* ii. 72-73; *E. J. Gaz.*)

MALDON, a pari. and mun. bor. river port, and market-town of England, co. Essex, hund. Dengay, on the Chelmer, 14½ m. S.W. Colchester, and 37 m. E.N.E. London. Area of pari. bor. (which includes the par. of Heybridge with the old bor.) 4,719 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,968. "The town, which is neither paved, lighted, nor watched, and does not appear to be in a flourishing condition, occupies the ridge of a hill on the S. side of the Chelmer, and consists principally of one long street, running parallel to the river, the E. end of this street forming the portion called 'the Hythe'; two other streets, one from the centre of the town, and the other from its W. end, unite at the bottom of the hill, and extend across the Chelmer into an almost insulated flat called 'Potman's Marshes.'" (*Mun. Bound. Rep.*) The town-hall is an old building near the junction of the streets at the W. end of the town, and not far from it is an extensive range of barracks: there is also a small bor. gaol. Maldon had formerly 3 parishes; but two of them have been now consolidated. The largest church, that of All Saints, near the town-hall, is an ancient and very large edifice, with a square tower surmounted by a curious triangular spire. St. Mary's is a spacious building, at the lower end of the town, said to have been founded before the Norman conquest; but the tower and W. end were rebuilt in the reign of Charles I. The united vicarage of All Saints and St. Peter's is in private patronage, the rectory of St. Mary's being in the gift of the dean and chapter of Canterbury. St. Peter's tower is the only part now standing of that disused par. church, and annexed to it is a building formed of the old materials, which has long been used as the depository of a valuable library containing 5,330 vols., bequeathed to the town, in 1704, by Archdeacon Plume, founder of the Plumian professorship of astronomy in the university of Cambridge: the tower part, which has since been much enlarged, is occupied by the national school, furnishing instruction to about 270 poor children of both sexes. The grammar-school, founded in 1531, received an additional endowment from Dr. Plume, who also gave it an exhibition in Christ's College, Cambridge. The estates vested in the hands of trustees yield about £32, which, after slight deductions for land tax, and repairs, are paid over to the head-master: 5 free-scholars receive classical instruction gratis, paying a fee for other branches; and there are, besides these, about 12 pay-scholars. Dr. Plume left also a considerable property (the annual produce of which amounts to about £804) for the clothing and instruction of 15 poor boys, and the foundation of a week-day lecture in the church; besides which, he built a workhouse, lately sold under the provisions of the Poor-law Amendment Act. There is also a large Lancasterian school, with two or three minor charities, and money-bequests. (*Char. Comm.*—32d Report, p. 1.) The R. Catholics, Wesleyan Methodists, and Baptists, have their respective places of worship; attached to which, as well as to the churches, are respectably-attended Sunday-schools. Maldon is not a manufacturing town; but it carries on a considerable home trade in coal, iron, chalk, and timber, which it exchanges for corn, and other farming produce. There belonged to the port, on the 1st Jan. 1850, 184 ships, of the aggregate burden of 7,353 tons. Gross customs revenue, in 1846, 1,850*l.* The trade of the town, however, is said to be stationary or declining; and the principal cause assigned is the new navigation to Chelmsford, which has been carried 1½ m. N. of Maldon along the adjacent village of Heybridge to the Blackwater. (*Mun. Corp. Report.*)

Maldon claims to be a bor. by prescription; but its first charter dates as far back as 1155, and was confirmed by Edward I. and subsequent monarchs. The present municipal officers comprise a mayor and 3 other aldermen, with 12 councillors; a commission of the peace is held under a recorder. Corporation revenues in 1848-49, 6,674*l.* Maldon has sent 3 mems. to the H. of C. since the reign of Edward I. Down to the Reform Act the franchise was vested in the resident and non-resident freemen, by birth, marriage, servitude, gift, or purchase. The Boundary Act enlarged the limits of the bor., by including in it the par. of Heybridge. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 819. In cases of succession to burgage tenures, the custom of borough-English prevails here. Markets, well attended, on Saturday; cattle-fairs, Sep. 13 and 14. (*Parli. Rep.*, &c.)

MALDONADO, a fortified sea-port town of the Banda Oriental in S. America, on the N. bank of the Plata, not far from the mouth of the estuary, and 85 m. E. Monte Video. Its harbour is sheltered from S.E. winds by the small island of Gorriti, but it has little depth. Pop. uncertain. "Maldonado is a quiet, forlorn, little town, built with the streets running at right angles to each other, and having in the middle a large plaza or square, which, from its size, renders the scantiness of the popu-

lation more evident. It possesses scarcely any trade, the exports being confined to a few hides and live cattle. The inhabs. are chiefly landowners, with a few shopkeepers, and the necessary tradesmen, such as blacksmiths and carpenters, who do nearly all the business for a circuit of 50 miles round. The town is separated from the river by a band of sand-hillocks about a mile broad: it is surrounded on all other sides by an open, slightly undulating country, covered by one uniform layer of fine green turf, on which countless herds of cattle, sheep, and horses graze." (*Darwin's Voyage of the Adventure and Beagle*, vol. iii. p. 45.)

MALLOW, an inland town and pari. bor. of Ireland, co. Cork, prov. Munster, on the Blackwater, and on the high road between Cork and Limerick, 18½ m. N. by W. the former, and 37 m. S. the latter city. Malloy, properly so called, is built on the N. side of the river, being united by a bridge of 15 arches, to its suburb of Ballydaheen on the S. side of the river. The latter is included in the pari. bor. as fixed by the Boundary Act, which comprises an area of 578 acres, and had, in 1841, a pop. of 6,851. It consists principally of one main and well-built street, nearly parallel to the river; and has a handsome parish church, a R. Cath. chapel, 2 Methodist chapels, an independent non-conformist court-house, a bride-well, barracks, and infirmary, with commodious baths, a public reading-room, library, &c. On its W. side are the ruins of its old castle, the property of the lord of the manor. There are here two schools, one attended by about 300 boys, and the other by about 130 girls, both under the control of the Board of Education. The town is surrounded by thriving plantations, and is situated in a peculiarly rich and well-cultivated part of the country.

"Though the river be not navigable, and that Malloy has no manufactures, it is yet considered one of the best country towns of its sort in Ireland. It is resorted to in summer on account of the mineral waters that it possesses, the properties of which are much the same as those of Clifton, and in the neighbourhood there is a very unusual number of country gentlemen's houses, occupied by families of the first respectability." (*Parli. Boundary Report.*) Several flour mills have been established on the Blackwater, and there is a brewery in the town, and a salt work and some quarries in its immediate vicinity; but the great dependence of the inhabs. is on its extensive retail trade, and on the resort of visitors to its Spa. Branches of the Protestant and Roman Catholic churches were opened here in 1835. Post office revenue in 1848, 6,567*l.* The union workhouse, opened in 1843, accommodates 1,450 inmates. Malloy was incorporated by charter of James I. in 1612, which vested the right of sending 3 mems. to the Irish H. of C. in the provost and 13 burgesses. But this charter fell, in no very long time, into disuse; and for above a century, the corp. has been extinct, and the right of electing the mems. for the bor. vested, down to the Reform Act, in the *freeholders of the town*, which comprised 1,136 acres. Since the union, Malloy has sent 1 mem. to the Imperial H. of C., and the Boundary Act altered the limits of the pari. bor., as already stated, by inc. in it the suburb of Ballydaheen, and exc. the country part of the manor. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 212. The bor. has a court leet twice a year, and a court for debts under 2*l.* every third Wednesday. General sessions are held in April, and petty sessions every Tuesday. Markets on Tuesdays and Fridays; fairs on 1st Jan. (for pigs), Shrove Monday, 11th May, 26th July, and 28th Oct.

MALMEDY, a town of Rhénish Prussia, gov. Aix-la-Chapelle, cap. circ. on the Warge, close to the Belgian frontier, and 30 m. S. Aix-la-Chapelle. Pop. in 1838, 4,312. It has a noble church, formerly belonging to a rich Benedictine abbey, a fine private cabinet of medals, antiques, &c., and is the seat of the council for the circle, a police court, and board of taxation. It has some mineral springs, similar to those at Spa, and manufactures of fine woollen cloth, glue, and soap; but it is chiefly noted for its manufacture of leather for boot soles, with which it supplies a considerable portion of Germany. There are said to be 50 tanneries in active employment: hides are imported principally from S. America, and bark from the forest of Ardennes. (*Berghaus; Schriber, Guide du Rhin*, &c.)

MALMESBURY, a pari. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Wilts, hund. of same name, on the Avon, 17½ m. N.N.W. Bath, and 86 m. W. London. Pop. of pari. bor. (which includes, with the old bor., two out-paras.) and the several par. of Brokenborough, Charlton, Garadon Lea, Great and Little Somerford, Foxley, and Bremhillham, in 1841, 6,674. The town, formerly fortified and more extensive, is pleasantly situated on a hill close to the Avon, by which it is nearly encircled, and which is here crossed by six bridges. It consists of three principal streets, two of which running parallel are intersected by the third. In an open space near the centre of the town is the market-cross, an octagonal turreted structure, with flying buttresses and highly carved, supposed to have been erected in the reign of Henry VIII. There appear to have been formerly se-

veral churches in Malmesbury; but it now contains only one, the living being a vicarage in the gift of the lord chancellor. The Wesleyan Methodists, Baptists, Unitarians, and Moravians, have likewise their respective places of worship, and there are three Sunday schools. Two free-schools, one of which is conducted on the national system, and well attended, furnish instruction to poor children of both sexes, and there are two sets of almshouses. Malmesbury is not a place of any trade, nor is it even a considerable thoroughfare. No new buildings are rising in the suburbs, and it contains few houses appearing to be occupied by persons in independent circumstances: indeed, it has altogether the air of a place on the decline, and must now be considered as entirely an agricultural town. (*Parl. Board. Rep.*)

The bor., which is of high antiquity, received its governing charter from William III.; and it was considered too insignificant to be included in the provisions of the Municipal Reform Act. It has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the 13 Edw. I.; the franchise, previously to the Reform Act, being in the high steward, alderman, and 12 chief burgesses. The Boundary Act enlarged its limits, by including with it the two out-par., as above mentioned. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 316. Markets on Saturday, and a cattle market on the last Tuesday of each month, except March, April, and June. Horse and cattle fairs, March 26. April 28. and June 5.

A nunnery was founded here at the close of the 6th century. Other monasteries were formed here in the two following centuries; and it was a place of considerable size and rising consequence at the retreat of religious recluses, including, among other establishments, an abbey, which afterwards attained to high celebrity. The Danes destroyed the town at the close of the 9th century; but monastic wealth and the beneficence of princes soon restored its prosperity, which it enjoyed almost without interruption till the Reformation. The chief monument of Malmesbury's departed greatness is its abbey, the entire buildings of which, with the church, covered about 45 acres. Little, beyond mere foundation walls, is now left except the choir, which appears to have been a very magnificent structure, and presents some fine specimens of different eras of architecture, but chiefly of the early English. It was cruciform, with a tower rising at the intersection of the transepts, and another at the W. end, the front of which was exquisitely finished and adorned with sculpture, having also a very fine window filled with painted glass. During the civil wars, however, when Malmesbury was repeatedly besieged, both by the royalists and parliamentarians, the church, already partly dismantled, suffered great injury; both its towers were battered down, its cloisters demolished, and now only a fourth part of the building is standing; but the ruins are highly interesting, and the S. porch is one of the finest specimens of its kind in England. In the town are several other remains of ancient monastic and ecclesiastical buildings; and about 1 m. from it is a field called Cam-bills, in which are evident vestiges of a Roman encampment.

Malmesbury claims the honour of having given birth to Aldhelm and Johannes Scotus, William of Malmesbury, second only to the Venerable Bede among our early historians; and Hobbes, so eminent by his metaphysical and political speculations, was a native of Malmesbury, where he first saw the light in 1588. (*Parl. Rep.; Briton's Arch. Antiq. of G. Britania*, vol. 1.)

MALMO, a strongly fortified sea-port town of Sweden, esp. the lan. Malmöhus, on the Sound, nearly opposite Copenhagen, and 110 m. S.W. Christianstadt. Pop. (1836) 8,769. It is irregularly built, but has wide streets and a fine market place. It has a citadel, two churches, two hospitals, manufactures of woollen cloth, stockings, prepared skins, carpets, hats, gloves, tobacco, starch, soap, looking-glasses, &c. and a brisk trade in the products of these establishments, and in corn; its port, however, admits only small vessels.

MALO (ST.), a fortified sea-port town of France, dép. Ille-et-Vilaine, cap. arrond., on the British Channel, 40 m. N.N.W. Rennes, and 300 m. W. by S. Paris. Lat. 48° 29' N., long. 2° 0' 51" W. Pop. (1846) 8,479. The town is built at the mouth of the Rance, on the peninsula of Aron, connected with the mainland by a causeway. It is defended by strong walls with four bastions constructed by Vauban, and a castle built by Anne Duchess of Brittany. On the N. side it is inaccessible; but, from the want of outworks, it could not hold out against a regular siege. The town is in many parts well built, and has some excellent houses. Its chief public edifices are a cathedral, bishop's palace, town-hall, theatre, hospital, foundling asylum, communal college, and exchange. The port, on the S. side of the town, is commodious and secure, but is rather difficult of entrance, and dries at low water; though at high water springs it has a depth of above 40 ft. In 1836, however, the French Chamber passed a resolution for the construction here of a floating dock or basin. It has a

good roadstead N.W. of the town, and opposite the mouth of the Rance, which is defended by various forts; the principal, La Conchée, being constructed on an all but inaccessible rock, a considerable distance off shore. St. Malo is the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a board of artillery, &c., and is the residence of various foreign consuls. It has a hydrographical school of the first class, a chamber of manufactures, a royal tobacco factory, naval rope walks, and dry docks for the building of vessels of various sizes. It has also manufactures of fishing-nets and hooks, pulleys, and other marine fittings, soap, &c.; a considerable trade in provisions with the French colonies, a brisk coasting trade, and numerous vessels employed in the mackerel, cod, and whale fisheries. St. Malo has given birth to several distinguished persons; among whom may be mentioned the brave admiral Duquesne de Trouin, Jacques Cartier, Maupertuis, La Bourdonnaye, &c. (*Hugo, art. Ille-et-Vilaine*, &c.)

MALPAS, a market-town and par. of England, co. Chester, hund. Broxton, 13 m. N.N.W. Chester, and 163 m. N.W. London. Area of par., 25,140 acres; ditto of township, 2,110 acres. Pop. of township in 1841, 1,022. The town, which stands on an eminence near the S. extremity of Cheshire, and on the E. side of the valley of the Dee, comprises 3 tolerably built and well-paved streets. The living is divided into 2 rectories, in the patronage of the Egerton and Drake families. The church (formerly the chapel to a Chinsac monastery), a structure of unheun stone, consists of a nave and chancel without either aisle or steeple; it is highly ornamented, and some of its decorations are supposed to belong to the Saxon era. There are also 3 chapels of ease within the par., and several denominations of dissenters have their respective places of worship. A grammar school was founded here in the 17th century; but the free instruction is limited to 6 boys, appointed by Lord Cholmondeley. The master's salary from the endowment is 25*l.*, with a good house, &c.; and he is also permitted to receive pay scholars, of whom there were 18 in 1836. Alport's school (founded in 1719) has property yielding an income of 119*l.*, and furnishes good plain instruction to boys, girls, and recently also, to infants, with clothing for 14 boys. In 1836, there were in attendance 49 infants, 87 boys, and about 50 girls. The other charities comprise an almshouse for 6 poor women, with an allowance of bread and money; and large sums have been left, at different times, for the relief of the poor. (*Char. Comm., 31st Rep.*) Malpas is an agricultural town, and derives its chief importance from its large market for cheese, and its position in the centre of a great dairy-farm district. Markets on Monday: cattle and cheese fairs, April 8, July 28, and Dec. 8.

MALPLAQUET, a small village of France, dép. du Nord, 16 m. N.N.W. Avesnes. This place is celebrated as the scene of one of the bloodiest and most obstinate conflicts of modern times. On the 11th of September, 1709, the allied army, under the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene, attacked the French army under Marshal Villars in their entrenched camp near Malplaquet. The combat was maintained on both sides with undaunted courage and resolution; but in the end the allies succeeded in forcing the entrenchments. The victory, however, was purchased by the sacrifice of above 20,000 men, killed and wounded. Though vanquished, the loss of the French did not exceed half that number, and they effected their retreat in good order. According to Voltaire (*Siècle de Louis XIV.*, cap. 21.), who derived his information from Marshal Villars, the army of the allies amounted to 80,000, and that of the French to 70,000, though other accounts represent each army as about 100,000 strong; but, whichever be the more correct statement, there are certainly very few, if any, instances of so great a carnage in an engagement where the defeated army effected an orderly retreat.

MALTA (an. *Melita*), an island of the Mediterranean Sea belonging to Great Britain, 68 m. S.S.W. Cape Passaro, in Sicily, and 198 m. N. Tripoli, in Africa, Valetta its port and cap. being in lat 35° 54' 6" N., long. 14° 31' 10" E. Extreme length, 17 m.; do. breadth, 9 m.; area, 98 sq. m. Estimated pop. in 1848 (exclusive of Gozo), 113,000; pop. of Gozo, 17,000; the number of British in both islands being estimated at 5,000, and that of the other foreigners at 4,000. It is of an irregular oval shape, rising precipitously from the water's edge on the S. and S.W. The surface presents the appearance of an inclined plane, sloping gradually from its highest elevation (about 1,300 ft. in the S.W.) to the more level land on the N.E. side, where it dips into the ocean. The substratum con-

sists of soft calcareous sandstone only scantily covered with soil, great parts of which has been carried thither from other countries, or artificially created by breaking the surface of the soft rock into small fragments, which crumble by exposure to the air, and in the course of two or three years become good soil. It has neither lake nor river; and from its geological formation, and the absorbent nature of the soil, has no marshy or swampy ground, except, indeed, two spots of very limited extent at the head of the Great Harbour and St. Paul's Bay, where the sea has receded and left an accumulation of moist soil, from which noxious exhalations have been supposed to emanate. There is no exuberant vegetation, brushwood, or forest; the verdure is scanty, and the greater part of the surface is an arid rock. The climate of Malta, from its being exposed to the winds blowing from the African and Syrian deserts, is unusually hot, especially during summer, when the heat almost equals that experienced in tropical regions. This heat not only lasts during the day, but, owing to the radiation of the caloric absorbed while the sun is up, it continues, with little abatement, throughout the night; so that, by an excess of heat, for months together, a feeling is induced among the inhabitants of extreme lassitude and oppression. The medium temperature of the three coolest months (Dec., Jan., and Feb.) is 57° F., the maximum 61°, and the minimum 53°; while the medium of the four hot months (June, July, Aug., and Sept.) is 78°, the maximum 82°, and the minimum 73°. Frequent showers occur in Sept., increasing in frequency during Oct. and Nov.; but from Dec. to Feb. the rain falls with nearly the same violence as in the tropics, and the atmosphere continues surcharged with moisture till March, when the weather begins to clear; and during the five following months scarcely a drop falls, the sky being generally without a cloud. The most prevalent winds in Malta are from the S.E., S., and N.W.; the first of which, well known as the *scirocco*, is at once the most prevalent (especially in autumn) and the most disagreeable in its effects on the human frame; neither are there any regular land and sea breezes, as in some southern countries, to modify the temperature. With respect to the salubrity of Malta, the most favourable opinions have been entertained by some writers; but it appears from the following facts, deduced from medical observations and records during sixteen years, that the average deaths between 1819 and 1834, inclusive, amounted to 3,552 a year, being about 1 in 39, or nearly 2·5 per cent. for all ages; whereas in England the mortality, at an average of the same years, was only 1 in 47, or 2·2 per cent.; so that, even as regards the indigenous inhabitants of both countries, Malta would appear to be less healthy than Britain, and seems only to enjoy the average salubrity of the S. of Europe, in which the mortality varies from 1 in 35 to 1 in 40 of the pop. annually.* The mortality, moreover, is sometimes increased by the prevalence of epidemics, and on two late occasions by plague and cholera, the former of which, in 1813, cut off 4,500 of the inhabitants, being 80 per cent. of those attacked. For further particulars as to the climate of Malta, we beg to refer the reader to Major Tulloch's elaborate *Report on the Sickness, Mortality, &c., of Troops in the Mediterranean*.

Cultivation in Malta is pursued with equal diligence and success. In former times the entire surface was but one mass of barren rock; but continued industry has not only rendered a large part of it capable of tillage, but given it fertility. The rock having first been levelled in terraces, the small particles were pulverised and mixed with soil, while the larger masses were employed in erecting walls to sustain these artificial beds. Soil was, also, at first, brought from Gozzo, and even Sicily; but after a time this was found unnecessary. Owing to this laborious perseverance, Malta is now, on the whole, a fertile island, and cultivated parts yield an annual and often double crop without a fallow, and frequently 80 or 90 fold." (*Sir R. C. Hoare's Tour*, ii. 286.) Cotton is the principal product both of Malta and the neighbouring island of Gozzo, the annual crops of which average about 4,000,000 lbs. It is sown in May, and gathered before sunrise in Oct., the chief vent for it being in the ports of Trieste, Leghorn, Genoa, and Marseilles. The corn crops suffice for the supply of the island, with bread during four or five months a year: the remainder is imported from Sicily and the Black Sea, the duties on its importation making it rather high-priced. The grass of the island, called *malta*, is similar to sainfoin, and some, though small crops, are raised of cummin and aniseed. The vine has been cultivated with some care; but its produce is very inferior, and wine, as well as oil, is imported from Sicily. Figs and oranges are very abundant, and of superb flavour. Brydson says, that "the Maltese oranges are deservedly considered the finest in the world. The season con-

tinues upwards of seven months, from Nov. till the middle of June, during which time the trees are covered with an abundance of delicious fruit. Many of them are of the red kind, and these are certainly the best. They are produced from the common orange bud engrafted on the pomegranate stock, and the juice of the fruit is red as blood." (*Brydson's Tour*, p. 181.) Some good springs of fresh water are made available for the purposes of tillage; and numerous large cisterns and aqueducts are constructed for the purposes of irrigation. Still, however, Malta imports the principal necessities of life. Sicily and Odessa supply her with corn, oil comes from the ports of Italy, and wine from Naples and Sicily; from which latter, also, snow and ice are brought, no trifling luxuries in an arid climate like that of Malta. Horses and oxen come chiefly from Barbary, but also from Greece and Albania.

Port and Trade.—The central position, excellent port, and great strength of Malta, make it an admirable naval station for the repair and accommodation of the men-of-war and merchant ships frequenting the Mediterranean, and render its possession a material importance to Great Britain. It is also of considerable consequence, particularly during war, as a commercial *dépôt*, where goods may be safely warehoused and from which they may be sent, when opportunity offers, to any of the ports belonging to the surrounding countries. Malta likewise presents unusual facilities for becoming the *entrepôt* of the corn-trade of the Mediterranean and Black Seas. Her *caricatori* for corn are, like those of Sicily and Barbary, excavated in the rock, and are, perhaps, the best fitted of any in Europe for the safe deposit of the grain. The base of Valetta, which lies on the N.E. side of the island, is divided into two sections by a promontory or tongue of land on which stands the cap., defended by the castle of St. Elmo. The S.E. side, called the Grand Port, is the most frequented, having an entrance about 250 fathoms in width, with an average depth of 10 or 12 fathoms: it runs inwards about 1½ m., has deep water and excellent anchorage throughout, the largest men-of-war coming close up to the quays. N.W. Port St. Elmo is Port Marsamuscetti, which is but a noble harbour, and used exclusively by ships performing quarantine; near its centre is an island on which are built a castle and lazaretto. The Custom-house and storehouses are in the Grand Port, and furnish every facility for landing and warehousing goods. An excellent dock-yard, victualling office, naval hospital, &c., have been constructed for the use of the navy. As a trading port and *entrepôt*, Valetta rose to high distinction during the war with France; but at the general peace, when commerce reverted to its natural channels, the other ports of the Mediterranean took from Malta a large portion of its trade, which was also depressed by the imposition of various oppressive discriminating duties. In 1819 this vexatious system was partially obviated; but it continued to exercise a very pernicious influence till 1837, when, in consequence of a commission of inquiry, the then existing tariffs of customs-duties and port charges were wholly abolished, and a new tariff was substituted, imposing moderate duties, for the sake of revenue only, on a few articles in general demand, without regard to the country whence they came, at the same time that it equalised the wharfage duties, and reduced the warehouse rent on articles in bond to the lowest level.

The custom-house obstructions to the natural advantages enjoyed by Malta for becoming one of the great emporiums of the Mediterranean, being thus happily removed, her trade has latterly been much extended. She is particularly well situated for becoming a principal seat of the corn trade; and the fact, that notwithstanding her deficient warehouse accommodation, her imports of foreign corn in 1847 were valued at 718,000, and her exports at 260,000, tend to explain to what the trade may be expected to arrive after that enlargement of the warehouses which is now in progress has been completed. In 1847, the agg. burden of the vessels which entered the port of Malta amounted to 541,696 tons, and in 1848 to 594,806 tons.

There belonged to Malta, in 1838, 171 vessels, of the agg. burden of 17,500 tons, and since Malta-built ships were admitted into the ports of the United Kingdom on the same terms as British-built, the trade of ship-building has somewhat increased. In 1847 and 1848, 33 vessels were built at Malta, of the agg. burden of 5,751 tons. The vessels, which rank among the best in the Mediterranean, are built with oak timber from Dalmatia; the Maltese are diligent expert shipwrights; and their wages being moderate, Valetta is a favourable place for careening. Owing, however, to the want of a dry dock, all ships, above the size of a sloop-of-war, requiring to have their bottoms examined, are obliged to come to England for that purpose. The articles of export comprise British and foreign manufactures, with colonial produce, chiefly to the ports of the Mediterranean, cotton, both raw and manufactured of island growth, wool, cigars, grain, and pulse, sail-cloth, wine, spirits, &c. The im-

* This is the statement given by Major Tulloch; but to make the comparison between England and Malta quite accurate, allowance should be made for the rapid increase of pop. in the former, which makes the mortality appear less than it really is.

ports comprise manufactured goods (chiefly from Great Britain), colonial produce, wheat from Sicily and the Black Sea, wine and spirits, tobacco, and salt-fish, with numerous minor articles. At an average of the six years, ending with 1838, the value of the exports of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom to Malta, amounted to 164,632*l.* a year. Latterly, however, the exports have increased. They amounted in 1845 to 387,744*l.* and are likely to increase with the general resort of foreign shipping to the island. Malta has, within the last few years, become the centre of a very extensive steam-packet system, the steamers from and to England, the Ionian Islands, Alexandria, &c. touching here. The French steamers, between Marseilles, Alexandria, and other parts of the Levant, usually perform quarantine at Malta. The industry of the island comprises the manufacture of cotton fabrics, the annual value of which may amount to from 70,000*l.* to 90,000*l.* Cabinet work is made for exportation to Greece and the Ionian Islands; soap, leather, macaroni, iron bedsteads, &c. are made on a smaller scale; and the Maltese goldsmiths are remarkable for the elegance of their gold flag-iron-work, neck chains, &c., the exports of which are valued at about 7,000*l.* a year. The currency of Malta consists partly of British silver and copper, introduced in 1825, but partly also of Maltese scudi of the value of 1*s.* 6*d.* English, of Spanish dollars valued at 4*s.* 4*d.*, and of Sicilian dollars at 4*s.* 2*d.* each. The weights most in use are the *rotolo* or pound = 12.16 English grains, and the *castaro*, comprising 100 *rotoli* or 147*½* *lbs.* avoird. Corn is measured by the *salma* = 8.221 Winchester bushels, and oil is sold by the *capso*, which contains $\frac{1}{4}$ English gallons. Bills on London are usually drawn at 30 and 60 days' sight; and the deputy commissary-general must, at all times, grant bills on the treasury of Great Britain for British silver tendered to him, at the rate of the 100*l.* bill for every 101*l.* 10*s.* silver, receiving the silver of other countries at a fluctuating rate of exchange. There are two joint-stock banks in Malta, the united capital of which may amount to 20,000*l.* They discount good bills, of short date, at 6 per cent., keep cash without charge, and issue notes payable at sight, which was current through the island, except in transactions with the government. Any person may establish himself as a merchant, and numerous Englishmen, Frenchmen, and Sicilians carry on an extensive commerce; while among the native traders, perhaps the wealthiest of all are those who speculate in articles of consumption for the island, buying a great variety of goods, in small quantities, for ready money, and realising large returns by retail as well as wholesale trade. (For further particulars as to the trade, port regulations, and tariff, see *Commercial Dictionary*, art. MALTA.)

Government and Garrison.—Malta is a crown colony, the local government of which is conducted by a governor, immediately responsible to the secretary of state for the colonies. In legislative matters, however, he is assisted by a council of seven persons, appointed by the crown, and at present consisting of the Rom. Cath. bishop of the island, the military officer second in command, the chief justice, and chief secretary, with three unofficial members, appointed by the governor. All orders in council have the force of laws. The principal administrative departments are the chief secretary's office, quarantine department, custom-house, land-revenue department, and audit office. There are numerous courts of justice, in all of which the procedure is both intricate and expensive; besides which, the laws themselves are frequently contradictory, and generally require revision. The public revenue amounted in 1848 to 117,308*l.* derived from the rents of government property, customs and quarantine dues, and internal taxes; and this notwithstanding the reduction of the public debt, but without conceding the recommendations of the late commission of inquiry. The expenditure during the same year was estimated at 103,066*l.* inc. not only the salaries of the various government officers, but the expenses attending the maintenance of the public roads, as well as liberal contributions for the support of schools and public charities. The military force of Malta consists almost entirely of British troops, varying between 2,000 and 2,500 men. There is also an engineer and artillery corps, the entire maintenance of which, as well as of the army generally, falls on England. There is likewise a native regiment, comprising about 500 men, called the Malta fencibles; but their duties being exclusively local, and rather of a civil than military nature, the maintenance of this body (costing about 11,000*l.* a year) is defrayed out of the revenues of the island.

Religion and Education.—The national religion of the Maltese (secured by the English government) is Rom. Catholic, to which the people are strongly attached, scrupulously observing its rites, and elevating its festivals, but without conceding their sincere adherence to the church of Rome, they entertain little or no jealousy of the Protestants; both parties observe the greatest moderation and deference

for the religious opinions of each other. There are in all no fewer than 1,000 Rom. Cath. clergymen, the church property producing about one fourth part the rental of the island. The Protestant places of worship comprise the governor's chapel, naval chapel, Church missionary chapel, and Wesleyan mission chapel; besides which, a church has recently been erected at Valetta, for the exclusive use of the English garrison. The total number of Protestants does not, however, exceed 5,600. Education till recently has been much neglected; but within the last 15 years several new schools have been established, the principal being the Normal free schools at Valetta, Senglea, Notabile, in Malta, and Rabato in Gozso, giving instruction in 1836 to about 1,500 children. Other primary schools are scattered through the villages, and there are about 80 private schools. The university of Valetta, founded in 1771 by the grand master, Pinto, and now occupying the convent of the suppressed Jesuits, is supported by the government, at an expense of between 1,000*l.* and 1,200*l.* a year, and has (including the lyceum) 375 students in 1836. The bishop has an ecclesiastical seminary at Notabile, giving religious instruction to about 50 boys. Instruction is commonly conveyed in these schools in the Italian language, the mother-tongue of the Maltese (a *patois* of Arabic, mixed with a little Italian), being wholly unwritten, and never applied to the purposes of literature. English is spoken by many of the higher classes, and is making considerable progress even among the lower orders in the cities. In the rural districts, however, Maltese is spoken almost without exception.

Manners of the People.—The Maltese are as dark as the natives of Barbary, but without the Arab features, the men being of middle height but erect stature, robust and active; while the women, though small, and of dark complexions, are graceful, with regular and sometimes handsome features. The working classes are described as laborious and frugal, living on very slender fare, the great bulk of them being employed either in agricultural labour, or quarrying and cutting stone for exportation to Constantinople and Alexandria. The Maltese are celebrated all over the Mediterranean for their good and intrepid seamanship. The dress of the higher orders is similar to that of other Europeans; but among the inferior or working classes the dress of the men is a short loose waistcoat, covering a cotton shirt; short loose trousers leave the leg bare from the knee, and on the feet are worn *koraks*, a kind of sandals, nearly resembling those of the ancient Romans. The women wear short cotton shifts, blue striped petticoats, corsets with sleeves, and a loose jacket covering the whole. A black veil, called the *faletta*, is the out-of-door head-dress of the women; whereas the men wear woollen caps in winter, and straw hats during summer. (*Sir A. C. Hoare's Tour*, li. 288.) The morals of all classes are much higher than in most parts of S. Europe; and if there be less refinement of manners in the Maltese than among their continental neighbours, there is less vindictiveness and intrigue, while drunkenness and gambling are almost unknown. A few of the aristocratic families, ennobled by the knights of Malta, yet remain, but they form a very small portion of the pop., and few of them possess large property.

Cities and Towns.—The principal towns are Valetta, built in 1566, by the famous grand master, John de Valetta, as being more conveniently situated for a cap. than the old inland city called Citta Vecchia, the former cap. of the island, and identical with the ancient Melita. Valetta, on the N.E. coast, in the centre of a fine double harbour, in lat. 35° 54' 6" N., long. 14° 31' 10" W., has a pop. incl. the garrison, and its suburb, Vittoriosa (on the S.E. side of the great harbour), of about 60,000. It is very strongly fortified, and from its position on a hill, as well as the almost impregnable works and trenches that surround it, has a most imposing appearance; nor is the visitor less struck with its internal beauty. The streets, though generally steep, are wide and well paved with lava, while the public squares and quays along the harbour, are of noble proportions, indicative of the former wealth of the knights of Malta. The governor's palace and gardens, lying outside the walls, were formerly occupied by the grand-master; a public library (once belonging to the Order) contains upwards of 40,000 vols.; and the general hospital is not only used for the reception of sick troops, but has ample room for stores, and other purposes; the Floriana hospital is also a large building, occupying two sides of a quadrangle; and in the suburb of Vittoriosa is a third military hospital. Other hospitals are open for the relief of the native sick, and among the other public buildings may be mentioned the barracks, prison, theatre, university, collegiate church of St. John, and 19 other churches, including those in the suburbs. Valetta has a bustling animated appearance, from its being the great centre of the industry and commerce of Malta. Citta Vecchia stands on very high ground, overlooking nearly the whole island, about 7 m. W. of Valetta. The rock on which it is built is excavated into

large catacombs, "some of which are said to extend 15 m. under ground!" (*Brydone*, p. 188.) This old and decayed city is strongly fortified, and the cathedral is an extremely large and lofty structure, underneath is a grotto in which, as the monks inform us, St. Paul concealed himself for some time after his shipwreck. They have equally authentic legends respecting other localities close to the city. The towns are mere villages, besides which there are about 40 hamlets, chiefly remarkable for their picturesque and well-built churches. The roads, generally speaking, are good, many of them having been recently much improved; but the inland transport is, notwithstanding, chiefly by horses, mules, and asses, nor do the few carts lately introduced meet with much favour from the natives.

Neighbouring Islands.—About 4½ m. W. of Malta is the small island of Gozso. It produces considerable quantities of cotton, the cultivation of which constitutes the chief occupation of the islanders, who differ in no essential respect from the Maltese. An English garrison is stationed at Chambray, a strong fort elevated about 800 ft. above the sea, and there are other military works well adapted for the defence of the island. Between Gozso and Malta is another, though very small island, called Cumina, which belongs to a proprietor, who derives from it the title of a prince palatine.

History.—Malta was probably first discovered by the Phœnicians, who communicated to the Greeks its oldest known appellation of *Μελίτη*.^{*} From the Phœnicians it passed to the Carthaginians, from whom it was taken by the Romans in the first Punic war, and made a prefecture subject to the prætor of Sicily. St. Paul, during his voyage from Palestine to Rome, was wrecked here; and being kindly received by the people, performed some miraculous cures, which made him be "honoured with many honours, and, when he departed, laden with such things as were necessary." (*Acts*, xxvii. 39—44; and xxviii. 1.—10.) On the decline of the Roman empire, Malta fell under the dominion of the Goths, and afterwards of the Saracens. It was subject to the crown of Sicily from 1190 till 1525, when the emperor Charles V. conferred it on the knights hospitaliers of St. John of Jerusalem, who had a short while previously been expelled from Rhodes, giving them power to levy taxes, import duties, &c. for the maintenance of the Order, on condition that they should be exempted to war against the Turks and Corsairs. It was besieged by a powerful Turkish armament for 4 months, in 1565, but without success; the knights, under their heroic grand master, John de Valette, founder of the city called by his name, having succeeded in repelling all their attacks, and compelling them in the end to retreat with vast loss. During more than 150 years, the island maintained itself against the Ottoman power; but the Order was never sufficiently wealthy to attempt foreign conquests, or equip numerous fleets. At length, however, the inexpediency and the continuance of the piratical contests, in which the knights had been so long engaged, became obvious; and, in 1724, they concluded a truce with the Turks, which secured for the Maltese in Turkey the same privileges as the French. The subsequent history of Malta till its surrender to the French has little worthy of notice. In 1798, a French fleet of 18 ships of the line, with 18 frigates, and 400 transports, arrived off Valetta, having Napoleon on board; and the treachery of the French knights, who desired to be the subjects of France rather than Russia, rendered the capture of the island, with its cap., no very tedious or difficult task; and accordingly, after some fighting, the island capitulated 12th July, 1798, one month after the arrival of the fleet, when the Order of Malta was virtually extinguished. In consequence of the irregular practices and oppressions of the French, the Maltese rose *en masse* to expel them; and compelled them to take refuge in the towns, where they were closely blockaded for upwards of two years. At length, the French, being reduced to extremities, surrendered on the 4th September, 1800. The English immediately took military possession of Valetta, and have since retained it; the treaty of Paris, in 1814, having definitively annexed it to the crown of Great Britain. (*Reports of Commissioners of Inquiry*; *Brydone*, *Sir C. Moore*, and *other Travellers*; and *Private Information*.)

MALTON (NEW), a parl. bor., market-town, and par. of England, N. riding co. York, wap. Ryedale, on the Derwent, 16 m. N.E. York, and 181 m. N. by W. London. Area of parl. bor., which comprises the pars. of St. Leonard and St. Michael in New Malton, with the pars. of Old Malton and Norton, 6,640 acres. Pop., in 1841, 6,870. The town, which occupies an eminence on the W. bank of the river, is very irregularly laid out; but the buildings,

chiefly of stone, are decidedly improving in quality: on the opposite side of the Derwent, crossed here by an ancient bridge, shaped somewhat like an inverted Y, is the suburb of Norton in the E. riding, a thriving and increasing place; and about 1 m. N.E. of the town is the village of Old Malton, formerly of some consequence, but now exhibiting all the symptoms of decay. (*Parl. Bound. Rep.*) The public rooms, theatre, and workhouse, are handsome modern buildings; and near the bridge stand the remains of a castle, built by the Vesci family, and destroyed by Henry II. There are two churches, one of which is surmounted by a tall unfinished spire: the livings are curacies, dependent on Old Malton, and in the gift of Earl Fitzwilliam. The Wesleyan Methodists, Presbyterians, and the Society of Friends have their respective places of worship; and there are 3 well attended Sunday schools. New Malton has 2 subscription schools for children of both sexes; but the grammar-school, founded by Archbishop Holgate, is at Old Malton. The Derwent being navigable up to New Malton bridge, is made available for the shipment of large quantities of corn, hams, bacon, and other farm produce. Malting and tanning are carried on to a considerable extent, and there are two large porter breweries; but the chief dependence of the town is on its retail trade with the opulent gentles of the neighbourhood. New Malton is a bor. by prescription, governed by a bailiff. It has returned 3 mems. to the H. of C. since the 22d Edward I. Previously to the Reform Act, the franchise was vested in the burgrave holders and inhab. rated to church and poor. The limits of the bor. were enlarged by the Boundary Act so as to include the entire pars. of New Malton, and the pars. of Old Malton and Norton. Registered electors, 1845—50, 232. New Malton is also one of the polling-places at elections for the N. riding; and the petty sessions are held here for the E. div. of wap. Ryedale. Markets on Tuesday and Saturday, but chiefly on the latter for horses and cattle, corn, bacon, and farming implements. Very large cattle fairs, Monday before Easter, day before Whit Sunday, and Oct. 11.

MALVERN, GREAT, a town, par., and celebrated watering-place of England, co. Worcester, hund. Pershore, 7½ m. S.S.W. Worcester, and 104 m. W.N.W. London. Area of par., 5,090 acres. Pop., in 1841, 2,511. This town, which for many years has been a place of fashionable resort, in consequence of its delightful situation in

"The vale of Severn, Nature's garden wide,
By the blue steep of distant Malvern wall'd,
Solennly vast ——" *Drum's Poem.*

stands on the E. declivity of the well-known hills bearing its name, and is neat and well built, comprising, besides good houses for the tradespeople, several hotels and substantial private residences for visitors. The church, a fine cruciform structure of Anglo-Norman and pointed architecture (lately renovated in excellent taste), is 171 ft. in length, with an embattled and pinnacled tower rising 124 ft. above the intersection of the nave and transepts. It formerly belonged to a Benedictine monastery, founded here in 1083, and long one of the wealthiest and most important religious establishments in England. At the dissolution of the monasteries, when the rest of the property was sold, the church was bought by the inhabitants and made parochial. Malvern has long been noted for two medicinal springs, the chief of which (St. Anne's well) is bituminous, and enjoys a good reputation for the cure of nervous and cutaneous diseases; the other is a simple chalybeate, and little frequented.

About 3 m. S. is the village of Little Malvern, the road to which skirts the Malvern Hills, an extensive range composed of greenstone and quartz covered in parts with blue limestone, and running from N. to S. about 10 m., with an average breadth of 3 m. The acclivities in many parts are very gentle; but the summit of the ridge, which attains a height of 1,444 ft., commands magnificent views over Wales and the cos. of Hereford, Worcester, and Gloucester.

MALWAH, a prov. of Hindostan, chiefly between lat. 25° and 26° N., and long. 74° and 80° E., having N. Rajapootana and Agra, W. Gujrat, E. Allahabad, and S. Guzerat and Candesh, from which it is separated by the Nerbuddah. The central part of this prov. is a table-land, extending from the Vindhyan mountains on the S. to the Chittore and Mokundra ranges on the N. and E. and W. from Bhopal to Dohud; but which seldom rises to more than 2,000 ft. above the sea. It declines gently towards the N., in which direction flow most of the principal rivers, as the Chumbul, and its chief affluents, the Kall-Sind and Betwah, tributaries of the Jumna, and the Mhya, which falls into the Gulph of Cambay. The climate is usually mild and salubrious, except for about two months after the rains, when fevers are very prevalent. The total fall of rain from June to September has been estimated at 60 inches. The soil consists either of a loose black loam, or a more compact ferruginous mould, both noted for their fertility. Wheat, grain, peas, jowares,

* There are, however, no good grounds for believing that the island was known to the Greeks in the time of Homer, and we regard the notion that either Malta or Gozso was the island of *Calypso*, referred to in Homer's *Odyssey*, as unworthy credit. Several German critics on the *Odyssey* have written learned essays on this subject, but a glance at the island, which of course was below their notice, would have sufficed to show the futility of their elaborate trifling.

barley, mung, and maize, are among the chief grains cultivated; the first two furnishing the largest export. Rice is raised only in small quantities sufficient for home consumption; but opium, sugar, tobacco, cotton, linseed, garlic, turmeric, and ginger, are grown to a considerable extent. A little indigo, and the root of the *Morinda citrifolia*, which supplies a red dye, are also raised, and fruits, including grapes, flourish in great abundance.

Opium is by far the most valuable product of Malwah, the soil and climate of which appears singularly well adapted for the cultivation of the poppy. The Malwah opium is considered by the Chinese, for whose consumption it is chiefly grown, superior in strength, in the proportion of 7 to 5, to that of Bahar and Benares, though inferior in flavour. Since the pacification of central India, the quantity of opium produced in Malwah has increased very rapidly, so much so, that while the total exports of Malwah opium to China, in 1821, did not amount to 3,000 chests, they amounted to about 31,000 chests in 1836, worth above 3,000,000*l.* (*Documents relating to the Opium Trade*, p. 79.) In Malwah the culture of opium is freely carried on; the cultivator paying a proportionally heavy land-tax for the land occupied in its culture. Previously to 1830, the Bombay government endeavoured to obtain a monopoly of the sale of opium exported from the ports under that presidency, but with little success; for 2-3*ds* of the Malwah produce were carried to the Portuguese settlement of Damann and elsewhere, to be exported. But at the above period, the attempted monopoly was abandoned, and a permit, or transit-duty, similar to that imposed in other states through which the opium passes, was laid on in its stead. Since then 9-10*ths* of the Malwah opium have been shipped at Bombay; and in 1832, the trade yielded to the British government an annual revenue of 200,000*l.* (see *Reports on E. I. Affairs*, 1830-32), which has since been materially augmented. The tobacco of the prov., especially that of the Bilah district, is also, beyond all comparison, the best in Hindostan.

Malwah is the chief seat of the Bheel race, as it was of the Pindarry and Mahratta powers. It is almost wholly divided among the dominions of native princes, the chief of whom are Scindia, Holkar, and the rajahs of Bhopaul, Kotah, Dewass, &c. Except the Maharajah of the Punjab, Scindia is the only prince in Hindostan who can be called independent of British authority; but his independence has more of semblance than reality, for the power of his dynasty has been completely broken by a succession of reverses: his dominions are surrounded by the territory of the British, or of the Marathas, who are bound to negotiate with foreign states only through the intervention of the British. A stationary British camp is kept up in his neighbourhood; and he is obliged to receive an English resident at his court, and to furnish a contingent of 15,000 men to the Anglo-Indian army. The dominions of Scindia are estimated to comprise 22,940 sq. m., with a pop. of nearly 4,000,000; and to yield a gross annual revenue of 2,208,000 rupees, out of which the chief derives a net subsidy of 1,561,000 rup. yearly. The chief cities belonging to Scindia are, Gwalior, his modern, and Cochin, his ancient, capitals. The states of the other chief native princes of Malwah have been briefly noticed under INDORA, BHOPAUL, KOTAH, &c. (*Parli. Reports*; *Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*)

MAMERS, a town of France, dép. Sarthe, cap. arrond., 24 m. N.N.E. Le Mans. Pop. (1846) 5,965. It is indifferently built, but has of late been greatly improved. It is a town of great antiquity, and was surrounded with entrenchments by the Normans, some remains of which are called the fossés du Robert le Diable. It has a handsome Gothic parish church, a college, a prison, some public baths, a theatre, manufactures of hosiery, and woollen fabrics, pearl buttons, &c. and several tanneries and breweries. (*Guide du Voyageur*.)

MAN, ISLE OF (an. *Mona*, *Monapia*, or *Monada*), an island belonging to the United Kingdom, in the Irish Sea, between lat. 54° 4' and 54° 27' N., and long. 4° 17' and 4° 34' W.; its N.E. extremity (the Point of Ayre), being 17 m. from Burrow-head, in Wigtownshire, its E. coast 34 m. from St. Bee's head, in Cumberland, and the town of Peel, on its W. side, 30 m. from Ballyquintin Point, in Ireland; greatest length, 35 m.; greatest breadth, about 13 m. Area, 280 sq. m., exclusive of the Calf-of-Man, a small disjointed fragment of the island, at its S. extremity. Pop. in 1841, 47,976. Its general aspect, as viewed from the sea, is bold and precipitous; a ridge of mountains runs through its whole length, and three of the highest points reach an elevation of more than 1,600 ft. above the sea; Snafield, the loftiest, being 2,004 ft. high. Several rills and streams flow from the high ground in different directions; but there are no rivers nor lakes of any considerable size. The prevailing feature in the scenery of the island is clay-slate, interpersed with mica-slate; and covered, near the coast, with grauwacke and old red sandstone. Limestone also is found on the S. side, near Castleton, intersected in some parts by veins of trap. The clay-slate is quarried

at a place called Spanish-head, near Castleton; and stones are raised in blocks averaging about 7 ft. in length, by 1 ft. in breadth, and 6 inches in thickness. Drawing and roofing slates are quarried on the W. side of the island, not far from Peel. Close to Castleton, on the shore, are limestone and marble quarries, which have been worked for many years, and furnished a part of the stone for St. Paul's Cathedral, London. The island also produces lead, zinc, and copper, raised in considerable quantities by the Chester mining company, and by private parties. But mining and quarrying are in a very depressed state; the tools employed are of the rudest description; and not even a common crane is to be seen in the quarries. (*Head's Home Town*, vol. iii. p. 19.)

The climate of Man is considered milder during winter than that of the adjacent parts of Great Britain and Ireland. Frost and snow are rare; and when they do occur, they are seldom of long continuance. Owing, however, to the frequency of fogs and dews, as well as to the prevalence of E. winds, during many weeks of spring, the summers are deficient in heat, and the harvest is generally rather late. The climate however is, on the whole, favourable to health: cases of longevity are frequent, epidemics rare, and agues unknown. The soil is extremely various. Clay and marl, covered with white sand, predominate in the N. and N.W. extremity of the island, which is covered with scanty herbage, affording sheep pasture; but, proceeding S. and E., the quality of the soil improves, and, in the valleys especially, are some tracts, partly sand and loam, and very fertile. No part of Man is, however, very productive; nor are any great pains taken to improve its natural resources. The mountains, commons, and other waste lands, include about 54,000 acres, leaving above 100,000 acres for tillage. Agriculture has considerably improved since the diminution of the herring fishery has made the men turn their attention to farming, which used to be exclusively the occupation of women: wheat, barley, and potatoes are raised in sufficient quantities for exportation, and within the last few years, the turnip husbandry has been introduced with some success by the English and Scotch settlers. The implements, however, are very rude; and the division of land into small farms has combined with the herring fisheries and smuggling to retard improvement. The extent of land under white crops, and the average produce of each in 1835, were estimated as follows:—

Wheat	8,000 acres, at 24 qrs. per acre	21,200 qrs.
Barley	5,000 " 4 "	20,000
Oats	12,000 " 3 "	36,000

This was supposed to leave a surplus of about 5,000 qrs. of wheat, and 3,000 of barley over the consumption. Peas are cultivated in the N. parts, clover is a favourite crop, and flax is raised by almost all the farmers for domestic use. The cattle of Man, which at present consist of a mixture of Irish and British breeds, are small and short-horned, running to fat, and not yielding milk till they are six years old. Ayrshire cows have, however, been recently introduced with much advantage. The native sheep, which are small, hardy, and usually of a white or grey colour, are slow feeders, long in coming to maturity, and very coarse-wooled; they are now, however, confined to the hills, the lowlands being mostly stocked with improved breeds. The island yields a race of hardy ponies, capable of much labour, and requiring little food; but for draught and farming purposes other breeds, chiefly Irish, have been imported of larger size and strength. Man had formerly a peculiar breed of hogs, now totally extinct, the animals at the present day being of various kinds, some of which resemble the Chinese variety. Red-deer formerly ranged in the mountains but the game at present consists of hares, rabbits, partridges, snipes, and woodcocks. Foxes and polecats are not found, neither are there any poisonous animals on the island; but weasels and rats are very numerous, and detrimental to the farmers. The Manx tenures are remarkable: the different para. (of which there are 21), are divided into *trecus*, each comprising 4 quarterlands, varying in size from 60 to 180 acres, and rising in yearly value from 10*l.* to 125*l.*; there are 760 quarterlands, and they are esteemed by the islanders as property of the highest nature, in fact strictly entailed estates. Other lands, called *intacks* and cottages, are divisible by will, and on the whole considered to be of a far inferior nature. The yeomen are very proud of these little freeholds, which range from 10 to 200 acres, and usually comprise portions of pasture as well as arable land; "but there can be no doubt," says Lord Teignmouth, "that the system is practically vicious, diminishing the wealth both of the farmers themselves, and of the public at large, containing indeed within itself the seeds of its own dissolution." (*Skeetches of Scotland and the Isle of Man*, vol. ii. p. 302.) Most of the yeomen have large and expensive families, which the law of Man compels them not only to rear and educate, but to provide for; and hence their estates soon become encumbered, and they are effectually prevented from pursuing any im-

proved system of management, even if they felt inclined to its adoption, which is seldom the case; there being no more obstinate adherents to routine, and ancient practices, than the Manx husbandmen. Many of them thus become involved in debt, and mortgage their property, the redemption of which being seldom in their power, they are dispossessed of it, and compelled to leave the island, or to resort to trade or predial labour.* Hence the class of small proprietors is gradually disappearing; numbers of them having been swallowed up in the extending estates of the Scotch and English residents.

Man used to be one of the principal seats of the herring-fishery; but for several years past it has been comparatively deserted by the herring-shoals, and the fishery has, in consequence, become quite inconsiderable, though even now it is the frequent practice of the farmers to purchase a boat, and share in the excitement and profit of the season. This diminution, however, is not to be regretted, as the fishery was carried on from July to October, exacting then the services of the yeomen and others engaged in it, were most necessary at home. Being also a kind of lottery, in which, by a few weeks' labour, large sums were occasionally realised, it attracted crowds of adventurers, without either capital or skill; while the irregular life led during these pursuits tended to encourage intemperance, and was a main cause of the indolence for which the Manx have been long notorious. There has, in fact, been a material improvement in the habits and industry of the people since the decline of the fishery; and there are, perhaps, few things less to be desired for the island than its revival. The herrings appear off the coast of Man in June, remaining till September, when they seek the E. coast of Ireland to deposit their spawn. The fishing vessels now built are much larger than formerly; they are half-decked, with very short keels, and are good sea-boats, though apt to pitch to a dangerous extent in rough weather: they vary from 18 to 30 tons burden, and are manned by 8 or 10, and sometimes 12 men. Cornish, Welsh, and Irish fishers also visit Man; and, according to Sir J. Bennet's estimate, it appears that out of 250 boats, and 2,000 men employed in 1835, only 110 boats with their crews belonged to the island, 100 being Cornish or Welsh, and about 50 Irish. The cod-fishery has been neglected, owing to the want of adequate capital for the supply of proper vessels and lines.

The manufactures are chiefly domestic, and carried on by women, most of whom, when not in the field or farmyard, are employed at their looms or spinning-wheels, producing woollen, linen, and cotton cloth, not for the home and foreign supply, as well as nets for the use of the fisheries. Bleaching is conducted on a large scale in Laxey Glen, stuffs being sent thither from all parts of the island. A paper-mill and brewery are also established in the same neighbourhood. A woollen manufactory is established at Douglas; and hats, made of coarse wool, which cost about 2s., are said to wear extremely well. The exports consist principally of corn, potatoes, eggs, lime, and limestone, lead and copper ore, horse-linen, and other manufactures. Owing to the Isle of Man having been formerly independent, a discrepancy has, for a lengthened period, existed between the duties on commodities in it and in Great Britain, the former being considerably lower than the latter. This distinction which still subsists, has occasioned, at different times, a great deal of smuggling, particularly on those articles on which high duties have been imposed in this country. This, however, is now materially reduced by adopting the plan of allowing only certain quantities of those goods on which the Manx duties are lower than those of England, to be exported into the island (viz. wine, 110 tons; spirits, except British, 80,000 gallons; tea, 75,000 lbs.; coffee, 8,000 lbs.; sugar, 10,800 cwt.; and tobacco, 60,000 lbs.); and by maintaining an extra number of customs officers and revenue cruisers for the suppression of smuggling. Nothing, however, can be more impolitic than the continuance of such a system. The public has, at a very heavy expense, purchased all the feudal rights of the Atholl family; and that being the case, it is high time that an end should be put to the anomalous absurdity of having a considerable island lying, as it were, in the very centre of the empire, and in the direct line between some of the principal trading towns, with discriminating duties on many important articles. In making any change, it would, of course, be necessary to make the inhabitants some compensation for the temporary inconvenience that it would occasion; but this might be done with advantage to the natives, and without expense to the public, by modifying and improving the internal regulations and legislative policy of the island, which would eventually lose nothing by the change. In 1836 there belonged to the

* The mortgages on land, held chiefly by the English, amounted, it is said, in 1835, to 800,000*l.*, which at 5 per cent. would amount to 40,000*l.* a year.

island 342 vessels of the burden of 7,329 tons, being a considerable increase on previous years; and as it lies in the line of the steamers plying between Liverpool and Glasgow, most of which touch at Douglas, it has begun to be largely frequented by visitors from these cities and other parts of the empire, whose influx has materially contributed to the improvement of its principal towns. To this cause, indeed, the present improved state of Man may be chiefly ascribed. It is also the residence of numerous half-pay officers, and others, who are induced to live here in consequence of the lower duties on many articles of domestic consumption.

The condition of the labouring pop. is moderately prosperous. Ordinary labourers receive about 1*s.* a day; and skilled labourers, if we may so call their clumsy tradesmen, get about 3*s.* a day, which, considering the low price of provisions, is certainly ample. There is no legal provision for the poor, who have to depend wholly on voluntary charity. Generally speaking, the cottages are of very inferior description: they are frequently built of earth or sod, and thatched with straw, having a funnel of sail-cloth, as a substitute for a chimney. There are, however, a few improved cottages, and their number will, no doubt, increase with the spread of improvement.

The feudal sovereignty of Man, which was a *kingdom* prior to 1504, was held by the Stanleys, afterwards Earls of Derby, and their successors, the Dukes of Atholl, from 1436 to 1768, when parliament, conscious of the injury which the revenue and the public generally received from the contiguity of an island only feudally subject to the crown, and hence affording refuge to debtors, criminals, and smugglers, purchased from the Duke of Atholl for 70,000*l.*, his civil and military rights and patronage, but with certain reservations as to fiscal matters and titular dignity. A further arrangement was made in 1826, and Great Britain now enjoys all the rights and privileges of sovereignty of the island. The constitution, however, was left untouched; and for many years, at least, the legislative power has been vested in the House of Keys, a body comprising 34 members, now self-elected, but formerly chosen by the talemens, or owners of entailed estates. Their acts are binding in all cases, and the laws are so few and brief as to admit of being included in a small volume. Attorneys occasionally plead in the courts; but the suitors quite as frequently defend their causes in person: law is cheap, and, as was to be expected, litigation is very common. There are two supreme judges in the island called *deemsters*, or "awards of the law," officers of high antiquity, and exercising jurisdiction over all civil and criminal cases; being the presidents (under the crown and governor) of the two courts of chancery and exchequer, each of which is held eight times a year. The former of these has little more to do than to confirm or annul the decisions of the deemsters, who hold a primary court of judicature; and the exclusive business of the latter is to punish offences against the revenue laws. The common-law courts are held at different places for the 6 different *sheedings* into which the island is divided, and may be considered as courts of "common pleas," in which all actions, personal or real, may be tried, as in the deemsters' court, by a jury of 6 in real, or of 4 in personal actions. The members from this court are first to the House of Keys, afterwards to the governor, and finally to the Queen's Privy Council. A half-yearly gaol-delivery is made compulsory, and bailiffs act in the five chief towns to hear and determine cases of debt under 40*s.* (*Fettham's Tour*, pp. 35-44; *Lord Teignmouth*, li. 237-241.)

The established religion is that of the Church of England; all sects, however, enjoy full toleration. The clergy are under the bishop of Sodor and Man, suffragan to the archbishop of York, but holding no English baronies and hence, having no vote in the House of Lords, though privileged to sit in the House of Lords. This see has been held by several highly celebrated divines; and among others, by Barrow, Wilson, and Ward. An ecclesiastical court is held twice a year, either by the bishop or his vicars-general, and an arch-deacon regulates the fabrics and minor concerns of the 17 parishes. These cures are commonly well attended to by respectable clergymen; but their stipends do not average 90*l.* a year; and the churches, though externally pretty are miserably deficient in accommodation. The dissenters have made considerable progress in the present century; but the Methodists comprise even now only one tenth of the pop., and the other bodies of dissenters are unimportant. Bishop Wilson and other prelates have done much to promote education, not only by establishing schools, but also by translating the Scriptures and other books into the Manx language. Each parish has its school more or less richly endowed; and while elementary instruction is given in the Manx, every exertion is made to instruct the natives in the English language. Indeed there can be no doubt, that, at no distant period, the pop. will be familiarly acquainted with our language; and this will be the surest method to disabuse them of the prejudices

which so many entertain against a union with England. A collegiate school was established a few years ago, through the exertions of the late Bishop Ward; and though the funds were far too small for the expected outlay, the establishment, being well conducted, attracted numerous students, and has, on the whole, been successful.

The Manx, like the Welsh, and Scotch Highlanders, belong to the great Celtic family, which probably occupied the whole United Kingdom previously to the immigration of the Belgæ. Their Celtic origin is clearly evinced by their language, which is a mere dialect of the Irish, Erse or Gaelic. They have a swarthy complexion, stout, with an air of melancholy pervading their countenances. Indolence, and a love of litigation, are distinguishing characteristics of the male part of the pop. Even, at present, workmen rest for two hours in the middle of the day, when they may be seen stretched under hedge-rows by the road-sides. The women, however, are extremely industrious; and on them devolve not only the production of domestic manufactures, but also a large share of the labours of agriculture. They are hospitable, superstitiously attached to existing institutions and religious forms, and treat bishops and clergymen as beings of an exalted nature; but they are, notwithstanding, drunken, indelicate, dirty, and addicted to pilfering. Their old habits and prejudices are now, however, gradually giving way; the increasing influx of visitors, during the summer season, having, in this respect, effected an important and beneficial change. The élite of society is composed of the government officers and the large landholders, with a few church dignitaries; the other clergy, the attorneys, and medical men being too poor to mingle with the first circle.

The rocky islet, or Calf of Man, already alluded to, at the S. extremity of the island, was formerly the resort of vast numbers of puffins (*Procellaria puffinus* Lath.). At present, however, the bird is there entirely unknown. It was supposed to have been driven from this favourite haunt by the too great destruction of its young. These were held in considerable estimation; and Pennant mentions that, in his day, great numbers of them were taken every year by the person who farmed the islet. It appears, however, that rats that had escaped from a vessel wrecked on the coast, were the real exterminators of the birds. (*Quaggle's Survey*, p. 8.)

The early history of Man is obscure. It was the Mona of Cæsar, and the Monsipia of Pliny; and we know little more of it beyond mere traditions of its being held by the Druids, and subsequently by Norwegian monarchs, till, in 1264, it was purchased by Alexander III. of Scotland, who appointed a viceroy, and made it tributary. The Scotch were soon afterwards expelled by the English, but the power of the latter was not established till the reign of Henry IV., who granted it to the Percys, from whom it fell, by attainder, and thence passed by gift of the same monarch to the Stanley family, by whose heirs it was sold to the British crown.

The chief towns of Man are: 1. Castletown, in which is the college above mentioned, the seat of legislature, and the residence of the governor (pop. in 1841, 2,283); 2. Douglas (which see), the chief trading town, with 8,647 inhab.; 3. Peel, formerly celebrated both as the residence of the earls of Derby and the cap. of the kingdom, but now decayed, and having only a pop. of 2,133 persons, which is about the same as that of Ramsey, one of the steam-packet stations between Liverpool and Glasgow, on the N.E. side of the island. (*Quaggle's Survey*, and *Fellham's Tour*; *Lord Teignmouth's Scotland and L. of Man*, li. 181-202, and appendix, &c.; *Head's Home Tour*, li. 1-90.)

MANAAR (GULPH OF), an inlet of the Indian Ocean, dividing Ceylon from the S. extremity of Hindostan; extending between lat. 7° 30' and 9° N., and long. 78° and 80° E. It is in general too shallow to be navigated by vessels above the size of sloops; and is separated by the islands Ramissiram and Manaar, and the chain of rocky islands and sandbanks called Adam's Bridge, from another inlet of the sea called Palk's Strait, also between Ceylon and the continent. The island of Manaar is 18 m. in length, by 2½ m. broad; but has little importance of any kind. For further particulars, see CEYLON (I. 375).

MANCHA (LA), a prov. of Spain in the S. part of New Castle, bounded S. by Granada, E. by Cuenca and Murcia, and W. by Estremadura. Area about 7,500 sq. m. Pop. 250,000. This district consists chiefly of lofty and barren plains, upwards of 2,000 ft. above the sea, and is, without exception, the least picturesque and productive in the whole peninsula. But it produces corn, wine, olives, and saffron; the Val-de-Pedra a light red wine, is highly esteemed all over Spain. The mules of this prov., also, are the largest and strongest in the peninsula. La Mancha, however, derives its chief celebrity from the inimitable work of Cervantes; and many of the customs he has depicted are still prevalent in the province. The cap. of La Mancha is Ciudad Real, once a flourishing city, but now decayed, and having at present a pop. of only 8,000 persons.

MANCHA (REAL), a town of Spain, in Andalusia, prov. Jaen, 8 m. E. the city of Jaen. Pop., according to Miñano, 4,508. It is situated in a spacious plain, and comprises some regular-built streets and handsome squares; its chief buildings being a par. church, Carmelite convent, and hospital. Woollen and linen cloths, bed-ticks, and sackings, are made here, with bricks and tiles in large quantities, for the supply of the prov. The neighbourhood is both picturesque and fertile, producing, with little tillage, abundant crops of olives, with smaller quantities of wine and grain.

MANCHE (LA), a marit. dep. and peninsula of France, formerly included in the prov. Normandy, between lat. 48° 40' and 49° 40' N., and long. 0° 40' and 2° W., encircled on the W. and N. sides, and partly on the E. by the English Channel (Manche), whence its name; and elsewhere bounded, on the E. by the depts. Calvados and Orne, and S. by Mayenne and Ille-et-Vilaine. Length N. to S. about 85 m.; greatest breadth nearly 40 m. Area, 593,776 hectares. Pop. (1846) 664,021. Surface is generally undulating. A chain of hills, of no great elevation, runs through the dep. in a N.W. direction, dividing it into two nearly equal parts. Near its N.E. and S.W. extremities are some marshy tracts. The chief rivers are the Vire and the Ouve. The coast is mostly abrupt and rocky, especially in the N., but it has several good roadsides and excellent harbours, of which Cherbourg is the finest. In 1838, about 390,400 hectares were estimated to be arable, 94,000 in pasture, 34,000 in woods, 20,200 in orchards, and 46,390 in heaths, wastes, &c. Agriculture is better conducted than in many other depts. The produce of corn, which is chiefly wheat and barley, exceeds the home consumption; potatoes are an important substitute for grain; and, in 1835, the crop amounted to nearly 607,400 hectolitres. Beans, peas, and a good deal of hemp and flax, are raised. The dep. is beyond the limits of the vine-culture; but about 1,000,000 hectolitres of superior cider are annually produced, and some perry. In 1830 there were about 189,000 black cattle in the dep.; and fat cattle and butter are among its principal products. It had also, in the same year, about 291,000 sheep, estimated to yield annually 411,500 kilogr. of wool, though chiefly of inferior quality. There is a considerable traffic in horses and mules. Poultry are reared in great abundance; large quantities of eggs being exported from Cherbourg and Valognes to England and the Channel Islands.

In 1835, of 192,038 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 62,792 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 26,559 at from 5 to 10 fr. The oyster and other fisheries on the coast are important; but, according to Hugo, fish are less plentiful than formerly. Among the mineral products are iron, lead, coal, marble, slate, and granite; which last is found of excellent quality in the *Chausey* isles, a group of small islands off the coast of this dep. Salt-works are established at several places on the coast. Manufacturing industry is employed on iron, copper, zinc, woollen, linen, cotton, and various other materials. Cutlery, glass, paper, hair fabrics, lace, &c. are produced; and in some cantons, baskets, panniers, willow sieves, &c., are made, and sent into other parts of Normandy, and into Brittany. But its principal trade is in agricultural produce and fish, fresh or salted. Manche is divided into six arrondis.; chief towns, St. Lô, the cap., with 8,239 inhab., Cherbourg, Coutances, Avranches, Valognes, and Mortain. Total public revenue (1844) 17,922,162 fr. This dep. is rich in Celtic and Roman antiquities. (*Hugo*, art. *Manche*; *Official Tables*, &c.)

MANCHESTER, a parl. bor. and par. of England, the great centre of the cotton manufacture of Great Britain, and the principal manufacturing town in the world, co. Lancaster, hund. Salford, on the Irwell, an affluent of the Mersey, 31 m. E. Liverpool, 35 m. S.W. Leeds, 70 m. N. Birmingham, and 163 m. N.N.W. London; lat. 53° 29' 50" N., long. 2° 15' W. The entire par. of Manchester includes an area of 34,260 acres, comprising 30 townships, and had, in 1841, a total pop. of 353,390 persons. The following table exhibits the area, pop., and rate of increase in the contiguous parl. bors. or Manchester and Salford, the limits of which pretty correctly define the extent of the town and its suburbs:—[See top of next page.]

From this table it appears, that the rate of increase in the two boroughs, during the 40 years ending with 1841, was 224·8 per cent.; and in the bor. of Salford, 299·6 per cent., a rate exceeded only by Preston, and one or two other towns. In 1773, the pop. of the township of Manchester was estimated by Dr. Percival at 22,461, and that of Salford at 4,766, making together 27,227; that is, about one-eighth part of the pop. in 1841. The

Township.	Pop. in 1801.	Pop. in 1831.	Pop. in 1851.
<i>Div. of Manchester.</i>			
Manchester Town -	70,409	142,026	163,856
Ardwick -	1,763	5,584	9,916
Heavick -	6	248	543
Bradford -	94	166	911
Cheetham -	722	4,093	6,182
Chorlton upon Medlock -	673	20,569	28,336
Harpurhey -	118	463	438
Hulme -	1,677	9,621	26,582
Newton -	1,295	4,577	6,127
Total (Manchester) -	76,788	187,072	242,983
<i>Div. of Salford.</i>			
Salford Town -	13,611	40,786	53,800
Fendleton -	3,611	9,435	11,032
Other districts included in the borough -	1,303	5,145	2,398
Total (Salford) -	18,525	55,366	66,634
Manchester and Salford -	95,313	232,398	309,607

present (1850) pop. of the par. bors. of Manchester and Salford is estimated at 364,000.

Manchester and Salford, which, being separated only by the small river Irwell, form a single large town, covering 3,000 acres, with a dense mass of buildings, stand in a large plain, encompassed by hills on every side except the W., and dotted with towns and villages, the inhab. of which are all engaged in the production of woven fabrics and other branches of industry. The Irk and the Medlock join the Irwell close to the town, and all three are made extensively useful in moving machinery, and for other purposes. Eight bridges connect Salford with Manchester; the handsomest being Albert Bridge, having a single arch of 110 ft. span, opened in 1844. The streets are irregularly laid out, and many are narrow and inconvenient, especially in the more central parts. Great improvements, however, have been made within the last 30 years: narrow lanes have been pulled down to make way for broad avenues; noble public buildings, which would be ornamental to any capital in the world, have been erected in the chief thoroughfares; factories and warehouses of gigantic proportions have arisen in every direction; confined and mean-looking shops have been replaced by superior establishments, some of which will bear to be compared with the best in London; the paving of the streets, though still in parts very defective, has been much improved; and flagging has been generally introduced, with macadamising, in the principal streets. The whole town is lighted with gas; but in the poorer districts the lamps are but thinly dispersed, and are extinguished at too early an hour. It is well supplied with water, sufficiently drained (except in some poor districts) by an underground sewerage, and well watched by a day as well as night police. There are three main lines of street, which run in a curve S.E., nearly parallel to each other. The central line, which is the principal thoroughfare of the town, comprises Market Street (formerly a narrow lane, but now vastly improved, having some of the finest shops in town), Piccadilly, and the London Road: more to the N., joined to the last mentioned line by Oldham Street, is Great Ancoats Street, with its continuations; and S. is the avenue known in different parts as Quay Street, Peter Street, and Oxford Road, connected with Piccadilly by a handsome line called Mosley Street, and a long narrow street called Deansgate.

The public buildings of Manchester are too numerous to admit of individual description; but the following are the largest, best built, and most important. The Exchange, which stands in the centre of the town, at the W. end of Market Street, commenced in 1846, is a noble structure, with a lofty Doric portico. The Grand Hall, on the lower floor, is 185 ft. in length, by 92 do. in width, and of a corresponding height, being one of the most capacious apartments in the empire appropriated to commercial purposes. The other rooms, used for various purposes, are on a suitable scale. The establishment is supported by subscription. The chief business day is Tuesday, on which, about noon, all the principal manufacturers of Lancashire may be seen in or near this building. The Town Hall, in King Street, is of Ionic architecture, and extremely elegant, being formed on the model of the Temple of Erectheus at Athens, with a central octagonal cupola, resembling Andronicus's Tower of the Winds. It cost upwards of 40,000*l.*, and comprises, besides rooms for the police business, ga.-offices, &c., a spacious and well proportioned public room (ranking amongst the finest in Europe), 131 ft. long, and 28 ft. broad. The fresco paintings, however, with which some of the walls are covered, are said to display little taste, elegance of design, or correctness of execution. Smaller town halls are situated in Salford and Chorlton, the former of which townships has its separate corporation, police establishment, &c. The Corn Exchange, in Hanging Ditch, is a handsome building,

erected from a design adapted to it from the Temple of Ceres at Athens. Six Ionic columns support the central pediment; and on each side are wings, very slightly projecting, and ornamented with pilasters; between which are the entrances to a square hall, inclosing an area of about 6,000 sq. ft., and affording standing room for 2,000 persons. The branch bank of the Bank of England, in King Street, nearly opposite the Town Hall, in the Doric style, from the designs of Mr. Cockerell, one of the finest buildings in the town, was opened in 1847. Of the buildings devoted to charitable purposes, to literature, or to public amusement, the following deserve notice, from their architectural beauty. 1. The Royal Infirmary and Lunatic Asylum, in Piccadilly, built of stone, and now constituting one of the chief ornaments of Manchester. 2. The Athenæum, in Bond Street, a peculiarly elegant structure, designed by Barry, in the Italian style, and completed at an expense of about 13,000*l.* 3. The Royal Institution, in Mosley Street, built at a cost of 30,000*l.*, from Barry's designs, having a portico in the Ionic style, and comprising, besides other apartments, a handsome gallery for the exhibition of pictures, and a theatre for lectures capable of accommodating 800 persons. 4. The Portico New-room, in the same street as the Institution, having an Ionic portico. 5. The Union Club House, also in Mosley Street, a fine stone building, with internal accommodations equal to those found in the best London establishments of the same description. 6. The Natural History Society's Hall in Peter Street, a large square building, having in the principal front a portico supporting a pediment and comprising a fine hall, lighted from a cupola, and different apartments stored with numerous specimens of birds, insects, fossils, shells, &c., and a few quadrupeds. 7. The Concert Hall, near the last-mentioned building. 8. The Theatre Royal, in the same street, having a handsome stone front with a portico partly in the Corinthian style. 9. The Asylum for the Blind, and the school for the Deaf and Dumb, at Old Trafford, designed by Mr. Richard Lane, in the Elizabethan style, having a fine frontage of stone, consisting of two wings and a projecting centre, formed by the chapel of the two institutions. 10. The Free Trade Hall, in Peter Street, has nothing but its great size to entitle it to attention. It is an ungraciously brick building, without windows, or any other architectural beauty.

Among the sacred edifices of Manchester, the cathedral church far surpasses the others, both in size and architectural beauty. It stands close to the Irwell, near Victoria Bridge; and was erected in the 15th century, in the perpendicular Gothic style, having been frequently since repaired and in part rebuilt. The interior is about 180 ft. in length by 60 ft. in breadth. The nave and aisles are paved. The private chapels, which adjoin them, were thrown open some years since. The Sunday services are performed in the nave, and are extremely well attended. The choir is one of the finest in England, and the tabernacle-work is unrivalled: the monuments are numerous and full of interest: the carved figures, with which the church is liberally adorned, are as quaint and grotesque as an antiquary could desire; and there are several beautiful stained-glass windows, with inscriptions and paintings. The college was founded in the reign of Henry VI., dissolved by Edward VI., and again chartered in 1578, by Q. Elizabeth, who directed that the establishment should comprise a warden, 4 priests, 4 chaplains, and 8 chorists. This charter was, for the most part, confirmed by Charles I. by a charter dated Sept. 30. 1638. This, which had formerly been a collegiate church, was made a cathedral in 1848, when the bishopric of Manchester was established. The diocese comprises the co. of Lancaster, excepting the hundred of W. Derby, which continues to be included in the diocese of Chester. The bishop has a revenue of 4,300*l.* a year. The dean (formerly warden) and 4 canons divide among them a net revenue of 4,025*l.*, of which 1 part goes to the dean, and the other 3 in equal parts to the canons. A chapel of ease was erected in Salford in 1634; this, St. Anne's, erected in 1719, and St. Mary's, erected in 1755, being the only places of worship in the town till 1760, between which and 1800 eight additional churches were built. Many other churches, two of which (St. Luke's, Cheetham, and St. George's, Hulme), are very elegant, and cost 30,000*l.* each, have been erected in the present century. The R. Catholic church of St. John, recently erected, in Chapel Street, Salford, is one of the finest edifices devoted to religious purposes in Manchester. It is a cruciform structure, in the decorated English style, 300 ft. in length, the breadth in the transept being 130 ft. and the apex of the spire 240 ft. in height. Some of the other R. Catholic churches are also deserving of notice. The Independents have a very fine chapel, with a magnificent spire, in Stretdorf New Road, to which are attached the handsomest schools in the city. It will be sufficient farther to add, that almost every religious sect known in the U. Kingdom has its representatives in Manchester, and most part

of them have at least a chapel or meeting-house. It appears from the Police Returns, that 102 places of worship were open in the bor. of Manchester in 1849: so that the number in Manchester and Salford together may be taken at from 125 to 135. The Independents opened a chapel in 1762, and the Wesleyan Methodists in 1740. Three cemeteries have been laid out in Chorlton, Ardwick, and Harpurhey; and the noxious practice of interring bodies within the town is slowly but gradually going out of use.

Education.—The means existing in Manchester, in 1834, for the diffusion of elementary instruction, may be learned from the following summary, drawn up from the report of the Manchester Statistical Society:—

Description of Schools.	Manchester.			Salford.		
	Schools.	Scholars.	Per cent. to Pop.	Schools.	Scholars.	Per cent. to Pop.
I. Sunday schools:						
Bapt. Church	25	10,394	5.14	9	2,741	4.99
B. Cath.	9	3,380	1.94	2	613	1.11
Dissenters	52	19,052	9.52	20	6,400	11.61
Total of Sun. schools	86	35,196	16.60	31	9,754	17.75
Children returned as day scholars	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-	10,011	5.01	-	3,410	6.20
Total of day scholars	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-	25,185	11.59	-	6,344	11.55
II. Free or subscription day schools	26	4,177	2.05	16	1,778	3.23
III. Evening schools	26	1,458	.75	28	996	.96
IV. Schools supplied by the children's Payment:						
Primary	409	11,624	5.81	107	3,557	6.11
High	114	5,234	1.47	29	882	1.60
Total	731	65,378	31.65	211	12,885	23.45

It would appear from this statement that, in 1834, about 26,000 children were receiving daily instruction in Manchester and Salford, and that 30,000 were taught on Sundays. But doubts have been entertained in regard to the accuracy of these returns; and of the day scholars, nearly 19,000 were reported to be educated in private schools and families' schools, in two thirds of which the instruction is extremely defective. Within the last dozen years considerable additions have been made to the better class of schools supported by the church and the manufacturers. But there can be no doubt that the education of the working classes is still, speaking generally, both limited in amount and inferior in quality.

Among the schools deserving particular notice, the first place is due to the grammar school, founded in 1530, by Hugh Oldham, Bishop of Exeter. Its revenues amount to upwards of 4,500*l.* a year; and in consequence of a decree of Chancery, in 1832, its usefulness was increased by the opening of a lower school, and a general augmentation of the establishment. The decree of 1832, however, was *ex parte*, and as it did not effect all the alterations that were necessary, a suit was instituted to obtain further reforms, in which a judgment was given by the lord chancellor on 10th Nov. 1840, from which it appears that "the income in 1833 was 4,560*l.* and the salary awarded to the head master was 600*l.* per annum; and the salaries of all the masters together was 2,850*l.*, whilst the number of scholars, including boarders, was only 196." The lord chancellor concluded his judgment as follows:—"I propose, therefore, to declare, that in all future appointments of feoffees and trustees regard should be had to the qualification required by the statutes; that all children of an age capable of instruction are entitled to be admitted into the school; that no part of the funds of the charity are hereafter to be applied towards paying premiums for exhibitions to boys who are or have been boarders in the houses of any of the masters; and that no money is to be paid for exhibitions already granted; and that such boarders are not in future to derive any benefit from the funds of the charity in any manner by which the expenditure of such funds may be increased; and with these declarations, I shall refer it to the master to approve of such alterations in the scheme contained in the report of 1838 as may be necessary to carry the same into effect, and as the master shall find to be proper for the purpose of more effectually carrying into effect the objects of the charity." Few establishments in England confer so many university advantages on their scholars. It has 16 exhibitions of 60*l.* a year, tenable for 4 years; 16 Somerset scholarships at Brasenose College, Oxford, averaging 20*l.* a year; and several others of less value both at Oxford and Cambridge; besides which it derives great, though not exclusive, advantages from the valuable Hulme's exhibitions, connected with Bras. Coll., and tenable for 8 years after the degree of B.A. The instruction is efficient; and it is said to rank amongst the best grammar schools in the kingdom. The College, founded by Humphrey Cheetham, in 1666, is likewise a

wealthy scholastic establishment, comprising, besides lodgings and school-rooms for boys, a valuable library of 20,000 vols.; but it is said that the modern part of this library is deficient, and that it is better suited for the scholar and the antiquary than for men of business: this college has also a museum of curiosities of little real value, but much visited by strangers and holiday people. The number of scholars is restricted to 80, 40 of whom must belong to Manchester and Salford, the rest belonging to Bolton, Turton, Droyloden, and Crumppall. A plain education is furnished, and the scholars are afterwards apprenticed and fitted out in trade. The Commercial Schools, established in 1845, are intended to furnish a good education to the children of the middle classes. Other endowed charities for instructing children are amalgamated with national and other schools, very liberally supported, and conducted in the most efficient manner; and besides these, the town has an asylum for the blind, erected by public subscription, and supported by an endowment bequeathed by Thomas Henshaw, Esq., of Oldham, and a deaf and dumb school, established in 1823, and remodelled in 1836: there are 90 scholars on the establishment. The Independents, Wesleyans, and Unitarians have all collegiate institutions, either in the town or in its immediate vicinity. The instruction given in them is, of course, conformable to the peculiar views of the founders.

A School of Design, assisted by government, has been founded in Manchester. It is attended by about 800 pupils; and though it has not hitherto had much success, it may reasonably be supposed that it will ultimately exercise a favourable influence in improving the quality of patterns, and the taste of the manufacturers and the public.

Probably, however, the new or Owen's college will become the principal seminary in Manchester. It has originated in the munificence of Mr. John Owen, who left a large amount of property (of which 75,000*l.* has been already realised) for founding a college in this his native town. The buildings have not yet been constructed nor the professors chosen: but we have no doubt the trustees will take such measures as may be most likely to give effect to Mr. Owen's princely liberality, by establishing the new college on an enlightened and liberal footing.

The Royal School of Medicine and Surgery, in connection with the infirmary, was founded in 1825. It has museums of human and comparative anatomy, a chemical laboratory, library, &c., and is said to be well conducted. It is on the same footing as the metropolitan medical schools.

The charitable institutions of Manchester, for the relief of the sick, disabled, and destitute, comprise an infirmary, to which large additions are now being made, partly from the produce of concerts given by Madlle. Jenny Lind; a dispensary, a fever hospital, or "house of recovery," lying-in hospital, an eye institution, a leprosy hospital, a night asylum for the destitute poor, a female penitentiary, a provident society, a dispensary for children, a dispensary for diseases of the skin, and four other dispensaries, relieving altogether about 36,000 patients annually, and supported by funds from bequests and subscriptions, amounting to 18,000*l.* a year; besides which, there are various minor charities belonging to Manchester and Salford, the aggregate income of which exceeds 5,000*l.* a year: so that upwards of 23,000 are annually expended in the relief of the poor, over and above the sum raised by rates, which amounted in 1847 in the par. of Manchester to 61,267*l.* assessed upon property of the estimated value of 759,862*l.* a year. The sum raised by rates, and expended on the relief of the poor, in the par. of Salford in the same year amounted to 11,416*l.*; and in Chorlton to 2,546*l.*

The literary and philosophical establishments of Manchester are very numerous. They include, among others, a philosophical society, instituted in 1781, and which has reckoned among its members Dr. Ferriar, the three Henrys (father and sons), Dalton, and other eminent men, whose science and discoveries have been of material advantage, not only to the town, but to the world generally: indeed, few provincial societies of the kind have earned so high a reputation; its memoirs (in 16 vols.) have been translated into both the German and French languages; a geological and mining society, founded in 1836; a botanical and horticultural society, established in 1827, possesses gardens that cover 16 acres; a zoological society has spacious gardens on the Bury road, tastefully laid out, and containing a good and increasing collection of animals; a society of natural history has a good museum, and is supported by a large body of subscribers. The Royal Institution was founded in 1823, for the promotion of literature, science, and the fine arts. We have already noticed its fine building, the principal hall of which has a statue of Dalton by Chantrey. The Athenæum, established in the view of affording to the middle classes a suitable resort for reading, study, and conversation, is supported by about 1,300 members, who contribute each 3*s.* per

annum; it has a lecture room capable of accommodating 1,000 persons, and a library of 5,000 vols. The Chesham Society, founded in 1843, has for its object "the publication of historical and literary remains connected with the counties palatine of Lancashire and Cheshire." It is limited to 350 mem., who pay an annual subscription of 1*l.*, which entitles them to a copy of all the works published during the year. There are two mechanics' institutes, one in Manchester and one in Salford; they are well provided with libraries, museums, apparatus, &c., and are very well attended. They have numerous evening classes for instruction in the various branches of a useful education, inc. French, German, &c. Subscription 5*s.* a quarter. There are three lycæums, specially intended for the improvement and recreation of the working and other classes. The Royal Victoria Gallery has an exhibition of objects in mechanics and science, and courses of lectures. A temperance society, formed in 1835, was the first to inculcate total abstinence from all intoxicating beverages.

In 1846, 3 fine parks were opened in the vicinity of the town for the recreation of the inhabs. The principal of these, called Peel Park, in honour of the late great statesman, Sir Robert Peel, about a mile W. from the Exchange, is tastefully laid out. The Salford library and museum, open to all ranks and orders of the people, is in a house in this park. The other parks, though not quite so accessible, are largely resorted to, especially on Sundays.

Banks.—The banking establishments of Manchester, which are numerous, and conducted on a scale corresponding to the commercial importance of the place, comprise, besides three private banking-houses, of great wealth and respectability, a branch of the Bank of England, and three joint-stocks: viz., the Manchester and Liverpool District Banking Company (1829); the Union Bank of Manchester (1836); the Manchester and Salford Banking Company (1836); and branches of the National and Provincial Bank of England, &c. A savings' bank, opened in 1818, had, on the 30th Nov. 1818, 555,988*l.* of deposits.

Four newspapers are published in Manchester; three of which, the *Guardian*, *Evening*, and *Spectator*, advocate whig and radical politics, the *Courier* being conservative. The *Guardian*, which has the largest circulation, and the *Evening*, are published on Wednesdays and Saturdays; the others appear on Saturdays only.

Prisons, Police, &c.—Manchester possesses several large establishments connected with its internal economy. The workhouse, which occupies an eminence N. of the town, is a very extensive and well-conducted establishment, fitted to accommodate 1,000 inmates. The Salford workhouse, in Greengate, has accommodation for about 400 inmates. Another workhouse, on an improved plan, has recently been erected in the township of Chorlton. The New Bailey prison in Salford, close to Albert Bridge, commenced by Howard in 1787, has since been greatly enlarged: it has accommodation for about 800 prisoners, and is well conducted; but, owing to the great increase of population and crime, it is inadequate to the wants of the hund. and has been frequently so overcrowded, that three persons had to sleep in one cell! To remedy this inconvenience, a new prison, the Manchester bor. gaol, was opened in 1850. It is conducted on what is supposed to be the most approved system, each prisoner being confined in a separate cell. It has accommodation for between 400 and 500 such inmates. A police-office court is held daily by a stipendiary magistrate, appointed by the chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, with a salary of 1,000*l.* a year. The police was formed in 1842, and is completely under the control of the corporation, the regulations in regard to its government being embodied in the Manchester Municipal Act. In 1849, the force in the bor. of Manchester consisted of a chief constable and chief superintendent, 75 other officers and clerks of different grades, and 370 constables, making in all a force of 447 officers and men; to which about 40 officers and men have to be added for the bor. of Salford.

In Manchester, in 1849, the police took into custody 4,687 individuals;

whereof 1,796 were admonished and discharged by the magistrates,
3,211 — summarily convicted or held to bail,
and 680 — committed for trial.

Of the 680 committed for trial,

823 were sentenced and punished,
4 — ordered to plead if called upon,
58 — acquitted,
15 — bill not found,
10 — not prosecuted, not tried, and absconded.

In Salford, during the same year, 1,634 individuals were taken into custody;

whereof 573 were admonished and discharged by the magistrates,
300 — summarily convicted,
149 — committed for trial,
and 2 died.

Of the 149 committed for trial,

125 were convicted and sentenced,
15 — acquitted,
and the remainder not prosecuted, &c.

The police fire-engine establishment is perhaps the most effective in the kingdom, after that of the metropolis: it comprises, inc. both bors., 13 engines, completely furnished with every necessary implement, fire-escapes and water-barrels, and a body of 78 firemen, commanded by a superintendent. The Manchester gas-works are the property of the town, and the profits are applied towards its improvement: the works were established in 1817, but the streets were not generally lighted with gas till 1824. The main pipes extend, in various directions, upwards of 120 miles, and the gas costs 4*s.* 9*d.* per 1,000 cubic feet. The Salford gas-works are on a much smaller scale.

Water.—The Manchester and Salford Water-works Company, originally established in 1808, had two reservoirs, one at Beswick, 110 ft. above the level of the town, and the other at Gorton, 140 ft. above that level, and supplied about 2,000,000 gall. a day. But the capital, works, &c. of this company having been purchased by the corporation, the latter have constructed new and far more extensive water-works in the neighbourhood of Mottram, in Longdendale, 10 m. E. Manchester. There, when finished, will cost a very large sum, probably little short of half a million sterling, and will be one of the most gigantic undertakings of the kind effected in modern times, rivaling in extent and magnificence the aqueducts of ancient Rome. There are reservoirs at Woodhead, Torridge, Rhode's Wood, Armfield, Hollingworth, and Godley; the total capacity being 567,689,797 cubic feet. The Mottram tunnel is 2,773 yards in length, or about a mile and two thirds, about 6 ft. wide, and rather more than 6 ft. high. The supply of water will amount to 27,700,000 gall. per diem! In August (1850) 65 m. of piping, varying in bore from 3 to 38 inches, for the new works, had been laid down in Manchester only, and it is supposed that the whole bor. will require at least 80 m. of piping.

The markets of Manchester are not such as a town of great wealth and magnitude might be expected to possess; and this circumstance is most probably owing to the fact, that the tolls are not the property of the town, but belong to the lord of the manor. There are no general markets, like those of Liverpool, Birmingham, and Newcastle; but several are scattered in different parts of the town. In Victoria Street, Swan Street (Smithfield), Camp Field, and Deansgate, are markets for butchers' meat and vegetables; and a fish-market was erected near the exchange in 1838. The cattle-market is held every Wednesday, in Cross Lane, Salford; a large area on its sides is fitted up with stalls, filled with various articles both of farming and manufactured produce.

The following table, drawn up from the *Reports of the Manchester Statistical Society*, shows the consumption of butchers' meat in Manchester and its environs (estimated pop. 243,500) in 1836:—

Description of Meat.	Average weight of Carcasses.	Number of		Quantity to each Person.
		Carcasses.	Pounds.	
Cattle - -	560 lbs.	80,820	22,859,300	68 lbs. 8 oz.
Sheep - -	67 -	108,608	7,281,136	22 - 7
Lambs - -	37 -	96,668	3,575,716	10 - 7
Calves - -	90 -	11,791	1,061,190	3 - 1
Offal (edible) - -	- -	254,519	34,709,358	101 -
	- -	- -	1,367,308	4 - 9
Total - -	- -	- -	36,097,160	106 - 9

The market-days are Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday, the first named being the manufacturers' day, and the last the chief market for agricultural produce and provisions. The fairs are held in Easter and Whitweek the first week in Oct. and on Nov. 17. The first of these called Knott-mill fair, is a more popular festival, and the rest are cattle fairs.

Machinery.—Manchester, though situated close to an almost inexhaustible coal-field, and deriving great advantages from the vicinity of three streams, available for machinery, would never, in all probability, have attained to her present magnitude and importance, as the first manufacturing town of the world, but for the invention of the steam-engine, and the wonderful improvements made since 1760 in the manufacture of cotton twist and fabrics, through the genius and discoveries of Hargreaves, Arkwright, Crompton, Cartwright, and others. How astonishing the revolution effected by the ingenuity and enterprise of a few obscure individuals! Before the spinning frame, which was invented in 1767, came into operation, the imports of cotton wool did not amount to 4,000,000 lbs. a year, and the value of the exports hardly exceeded 300,000*l.* Arkwright's patent was set aside in 1785, and since then the progress of the cotton manufacture of Great Britain, and especially of Manchester, has been rapid beyond all precedent. Previous to 1788, the imports of cotton wool had not reached 15,000,000 lbs. in any single year; but in 1787 they amounted to 22,350,363 lbs. The progress of the manufacture was

not impeded by the late war, to the successful termination of which it contributed more, perhaps, than any thing else; and what is not less extraordinary, it has increased in a nearly eightfold proportion since the peace! The imports of cotton wool, in 1819, amounted to the prodigious quantity of about 754,000,000 lbs., of which no fewer than 630,000,000 lbs. were manufactured! In 1803, the value of the exports of cotton goods equalled that of the exports of woollens, the long-established and staple manufacture of the country; and they now amount to about 37,000,000*l.* a year, while the exports of woollens do not exceed 8,000,000*l.* Indeed, the cotton manufacture now forms, next to agriculture, the principal business carried on in the country, affording an advantageous field for the accumulation and employment of millions upon millions of capital, and of thousands upon thousands of workmen! About 1½ millions of people are supported by spinning and weaving cotton, and the different supplementary employments of the trade; and fabrics of great beauty and excellent quality, which a few years ago were out of the reach of all except the wealthy, have been so much reduced in price as to be within the command of all but absolute beggars. (For further details, see ENGLAND AND WALES, Vol. I. p. 772.) Of this gigantic manufacture Manchester is the grand centre, absorbing, with its neighbourhood 10 m. round, fully three-fourths of the trade, and comprising, besides spinning-mills, most extensive power-loom factories, and large dyeing and printing establishments. The manufacture of silk goods, also, which was introduced in 1816, has generally been in a flourishing state since the removal, in 1825, of the oppressive import duties on raw silk. In the infancy of the trade, silk handkerchiefs and mixed goods were principally made; in 1822, gros-de-Naples and figured sarsonets were introduced; and at present (1850) nearly every kind of silk, from the rich brocade to the filmy Perseian, is manufactured, consuming large quantities of raw silk, and employing 4,000 hand-loom, besides 3,000 persons in throwing-mills, and 600 in dyeing and printing-houses. Mixed goods of silk and cotton, silk and woollen, and cotton and woollen, occupy many hands; and many hundred persons are engaged in various branches of handicraft subordinate to the principal object of industry. In some cotton-factories the process of spinning only is carried forward; but in others the whole process is carried on, from the first carding to the ultimate dressing of the woven and bleached fabric. Many of them are buildings of extraordinary size, comprising 7 or 8 stories, erected at a heavy expense, and filled with machinery costing 30,000*l.* or 40,000*l.* The rooms are kept in the most perfect state of cleanliness, and the strictest order, regularity, and silence prevail throughout the establishments. Several thousands of spindles are at work in each of the principal factories; and in many of them upwards of 600 power-loom are in action, each producing from 15 to 20 pieces of fabric, of 24 yards each, per week. Besides the pop, connected with the factories, which almost absorb the plain-goods of trade, including jaconets, twilled cloths, and fustians, upwards of 9,000 hand-loom weavers are employed in Manchester and the neighbourhood in weaving cotton, silk, and mixed goods. "The cotton fabrics are quiltings, figured waistcoatings, twilled shawls and handkerchiefs, checked and striped gingham, tape-strips, dimities, apron-checks, checked handkerchiefs, buff-checks and buffs, coarse shirtings and sheetings. The silk fabrics comprise velvets, figured sarsonets, figured and plain levantines, plain satins, plain serges, sarsonets and gros-de-Naples, checked sarsonets, string-perseian, ducape handkerchiefs, satin checked cravats, Brussels handkerchiefs, black bandanas, Welsh shawls, romuls, turbans, Barcelona handkerchiefs, and grey bandanas. The mixed are chiefly for waistcoatings, handkerchiefs, cravats, shawls, &c. The weaving of each of these fabrics, with a variety of others, may be regarded as a separate branch of the weaving trade; and the earnings of the weavers employed on each are as various as the fabrics." (*Hand-loom Weavers' Rep.*)

We subjoin a statement which, though now rather antiquated, may still be of some interest, of the amount of steam power employed in the various branches of manufacture within the par. bors. of Manchester and Salford in 1838 (see next col.) :—

The manufacture of machinery, inc. locomotive engines and tool-making, is conducted on a most extensive scale, and is, in fact, next to the cotton trade, the most important business in the town. The machinery for carding, spinning, and weaving cotton, is all of the most delicate kind, and requires to be adjusted and finished with the greatest care. Steam-engines are made of different sizes, varying from 8 to 400 horse power; and the castings are often of gigantic size, weighing from 30 to 50 tons. The iron-planing and riveting machines are curious specimens of mechanical ingenuity, and have greatly tended to facilitate the manufacture. Many of the workmen receive from 2*l.* to 3*l.*, and few less than 30*s.* weekly wages. The largest establishment for loco-

Branch of Manufacture.	Horse Power.		
	Man- chester.	Salford.	Both Bors.
Cotton-spinning and weaving -	5,872	704	6,536
Bleaching, dyeing, printing, &c. -	756	591	1,277
Machine-making, foundries, &c. -	508	825	1,253
Silk-spinning and weaving -	3374	104	3411
Cotton thread and small wares -	270	36	306
Collieries -	106	100	206
Saw-mills -	141	14	155
Engraving for calico-printing, &c. -	75	6	81
Fustian shearing -	46	24	80
Breweries -	16	63	78
Flax spinning -	-	70	70
Chemical works -	55	11	66
Woollen -	56	22	58
Various, all of minor importance -	408	28	436
Total -	7,992	1,998	9,994

motive engine and tool making is that of Messrs. Sharp, Brothers, and Co.; but there are others of hardly inferior importance, at each of which several hundred men are employed, and the arrangements in every way are most complete and systematic.

The following very interesting return, prepared officially by the police, exhibits the number of the principal manufacturing establishments in the bor. of Manchester in January, 1848, how they were employed, and the number of hands in each.

Mills, Factories, &c.	State of Mills, &c., whether working on full Time, short Time, or stopped.				
	Total No. of Mills, Works, &c.	No. working full Time with full Complement of Hands.	No. working full Time with only a Portion of Hands employed.	No. working short Time.	No. stopped.
Cotton mills -	94	67	9	6	12
Silk mills -	8	8	-	1	-
Worsted mills -	3	3	-	2	-
Small-ware mills *	17	11	-	4	-
Print works -	4	3	1	1	-
Dye works -	24	8	-	16	-
Machinists -	27	9	14	2	1
Foundries -	18	8	4	5	1
Total -	203	115	28	48	14
No. of Work people usually employed, and whether working full Time, short Time, or out of Employment.					
Total No. of Hands.					
No. working full Time.					
No. working short Time.					
No. out of Employment.					
Cotton mills -	28,517	22,801	666	4,850	
Silk mills -	3,010	3,010	-	-	
Worsted mills -	225	155	-	64	
Small-ware mills -	1,132	1,137	635	40	
Print works -	1,137	865	350	80	
Dye works -	8,260	1,660	2,660	3,940	
Machinists -	6,694	3,293	1,841	1,560	
Foundries -	1,427	609	253	265	
Total -	44,581	32,718	4,711	7,152	

The works corresponding to the above in the bor. of Salford employed at the same period about 6,000 hands.

It will be seen from the subjoined table of buildings, &c., in Manchester on the 31st of December, 1849, that the number of cotton-mills, print-works, dye-works, &c., had increased considerably during the course of the two years ended at that date. And, perhaps, we shall not be far wrong if we estimate the number of persons employed in the above departments at the present time (December, 1850) in the bor. of Manchester at about 50,000, and in Manchester and Salford together at about 60,000. The other trades, warehouses, &c., are supposed to employ about as many more hands, making 120,000 in all. (See Table on next page.)

Canals, Railways, &c.—The speedy and cheap communication established with the port of Liverpool, and other places, has been at once a cause and a consequence of the increase of manufactures in Manchester. It became, at the close of the last century, a great centre of internal navigation. Brindley constructed the Duke of Bridgewater's canal, uniting with the Mersey at Runcorn, in 1761; the Bury and Bolton canal was projected in 1791; that to Ashton and Oldham in 1792; and that to Rochdale in 1794; and these communicate with other canals, in such a manner as to establish an easy commu-

* Small-ware mills are those which manufacture sewing cotton, knitting cotton, tape, thread, and the various *et ceteras* found in a lady's workshop.

† This return was compiled by Captain Willis, of the Manchester police; and we gladly embrace this opportunity of stating, that the information in regard to Manchester annually published by that gentleman is most valuable. We have been much indebted to it.

General Return of all Buildings, specifying the Numbers of each, within the Borough of Manchester, on the 31st December, 1845.

Description of Buildings.	Numbers.	Description of Buildings.	Numbers.
Cotton mills -	102	Barracks -	1
Silk mills -	6	Banks -	12
Worsted mills -	5	Markets -	10
Spoolware mills -	18	Theatres -	7
Print works -	7	Railway stations -	2
Dye works -	35	Gas stations -	4
Hat manufactories -	15	Workhouses -	2
Machinists -	49	Infirmary, fever hospitals, dispensaries -	8
Foundries -	38	Night asylums -	1
Lead works -	4	Lock hospital -	1
Paper works -	15	Penitentiary -	1
Saw mills -	23	Public institutions -	14
Corn mills -	11	Baths and wash-houses -	35
Miscellaneous workshops in various trades and manufactories -	752	Breweries and distilleries -	6
Warehouses -	1,628	Slaughter houses -	175
Dwelling-houses -	45,410	Buildings used as offices -	180
Shops used as dwelling-houses -	5,376	Livery stables -	52
Shops not used as dwelling-houses -	751	Miscellaneous buildings, such as sheds, &c., but not workshops -	1,277
Places of worship -	102		
Public and private schools -	566		
Gross total of all buildings -			56,907

nication with the eastern, central, and southern counties, including the ports of Hull, London, and Bristol, as well as that of Liverpool, which is, *par excellence*, the port of Manchester. Large sums were sunk in excavating these canals; but the returns far exceeded expectation, and the profits to the shareholders were in some cases immense.

The Mersey and Irwell Navigation Company having deepened the river Irwell, vessels of 80 tons burden may now navigate the whole distance from Manchester to Runcorn. As soon as this had been effected, the inhabitants applied to have Manchester made a port (!), and to be allowed the privilege of bonding goods. But as sea-going vessels do not as yet come up to Manchester, this concession was strongly opposed, and was only, after a great deal of canvassing, granted under certain conditions. We subjoin a statement of the gross customs duties received at Manchester from 1845, when it acquired the privilege of bonding, down to 1850.

1846	-	£ 76,519	1849	-	£ 249,668
1847	-	187,990	1850	-	319,300
1848	-	177,417			

The railway between Manchester and Liverpool was opened in 1830; and since that period the former has become (the metropolis not excepted) the greatest centre of railway travelling in the kingdom. It would be useless to attempt to specify the various lines that have their termini in the town. Suffice it to say that Liverpool has been brought within an hour's distance, Hull within less than 3 hours, and London and Bristol, Glasgow and Edinburgh, within about 6 hours each! This extraordinary facility of conveyance is of the greatest importance to the town, inasmuch as it enables its produce to be conveyed with the utmost expedition, and also very cheaply, to all parts of the country; and as it gives equal facilities for the importation of the various products required for the subsistence of the inhabitants, or on which they exercise their labour and ingenuity.

Government, &c.—Manchester has been incorporated; and the mun. bor. is divided into 15 wards, the government being vested in a recorder, mayor, 15 aldermen, and 48 councillors. Quarter sessions are held by the recorder; and there is a court of record for the recovery of debts under 50*l.*; and a county court, before which 13,169 plaints were entered in 1848. There is also a court of record for the trial of civil actions in Salford up to 50*l.*, or by consent to any amount. Its jurisdiction is coextensive with the hundred of Salford, except the bor. of Manchester, and its jurisdiction extends even into Manchester, if the debt or damage be under 40*l.* There is also a county court for the 5 districts comprised in the Salford division, the number of plaints heard between April, 1837, and Dec. 1850, having been 10,619.

Notwithstanding its vast importance, Manchester did not enjoy the privilege of sending representatives to parliament till the Reform Act gave to the manufacturing interests of the country that influence in the legislature to which they had been long entitled. Manchester was then erected into a parli. bor., with power to send 2 mems. to the H. of C.; its boundaries including, besides Manchester, the eight other townships enumerated at the commencement of this article. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 11,841. The same act conferred on Salford the privilege of sending 1 mem. to the H. of C.; its limits comprise two other entire townships, and part of a third. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 2,427. Manchester has also

been formed into a Union under the Poor Law Amendment Act.

Condition of the People of Manchester.—The increase of wealth in Manchester, during the last half century, has been quite unprecedented, and it has at present, in proportion to its size, a greater number of opulent capitalists than any other town of the empire. The capital vested in mills, machinery, and stocks of goods, is immense; and, in addition to the vast sums that are thus employed in their peculiar business, the capitalists of Manchester, and the adjoining districts, have been the great promoters of railways in all parts of the empire, and hold a very large proportion of the stock embarked in these undertakings. To achieve such great results, a combination of all those qualities that go to form accomplished men of business has been required; and no where do we find the persevering attention to details, added to the sagacity to distinguish between the doubtful and the certain, and the enterprise to embark in remote and apparently hazardous, though really safe schemes, that characterise the highest class of commercial men, so generally diffused as in Manchester. It is, in fact, the grand arena of industry and enterprise. Every one is striving to raise himself to distinction, and to outstrip his neighbour in the accumulation of wealth. But there are no mean jealousies, or unfair jostlings: there is more than room enough for every one; and every one knows that his success is wholly dependent on his own efforts.

The shopkeepers and middle classes of Manchester are more attached to old habits than those of most other towns. In proof of this we may mention, that by far the greater number of them continue to dine at the primitive and unfashionable hour of one. At no very distant period, indeed, they were accustomed to shut their shops from one till two; and though that be no longer the case, the banks will not, at present, with one or two exceptions, cash cheques sent to them at such a time, or allow their clerks to be interrupted when at dinner!

But it is not so easy to arrive at any very definite conclusions with respect to the condition of the lower classes in this great workshop. On the whole, however, we are inclined to consider it as tolerably satisfactory. No doubt, the condition of the English part of the population has been most injuriously affected by the prodigious influx of Irish immigrants, of whom and their descendants there are probably not fewer than 85,000 in the town. The Irish, it is but fair to say, are neither peculiarly disorderly nor peculiarly dishonest; but their competition has depressed wages, or hindered them from rising, and their example has been most pernicious, by accustoming the English to a lower standard of food and comfort. But despite the influence of this fruitful source of degradation, the work-people of Manchester seem, when employed, with the exception of the hand-loom weavers, to be really well off. Unluckily, however, a number of individuals, partly belonging to the town, but mostly new comers from Ireland and other parts of England, are usually without employment, and in a state bordering on destitution. It is unfortunate, too, that so many of the workmen's wives should be employed in factories, as this takes them away from their families, and prevents them from bestowing sufficient pains on the training of their children, and their household affairs. It is singular, indeed, how ignorant workmen's wives, engaged in factories, and brought up as factory girls, are of most matters connected with domestic economy; and how

much more comfortable their families might be were they familiar with such details, even though their earnings were less. It is not true, however, that the condition of the workpeople has been deteriorated, and, in point of fact, it has, on the contrary, been materially improved. Most descriptions of labourers receive good wages; and such skilled labourers as are temperate and industrious are, speaking generally, in comfortable circumstances.*

The following table, drawn up by the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, exhibits the average rates of wages per week paid to the different classes of labourers in and out of factories in Manchester in 1846, since which period no material alteration has taken place:—

		s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Spinnars, men (by hand)	-	4	10	0	3	0	0
" women	-	0	17	0	0	19	0
Stretchers -	-	0	5	0	0	10	0
Parcours (boys and girls)	-	0	5	0	0	10	0
Scavengers -	-	0	2	6	0	5	6
In the Card-room:							
Men -	-	0	10	0	0	1	0
Young women -	-	0	8	0	0	10	0
Children -	-	0	2	0	0	6	0
Throat-splitters -	-	0	10	0	0	0	0
Readers -	-	0	8	0	0	9	0
Weavers by Power:							
Men -	-	0	10	0	0	16	0
Women -	-	2	0	0	0	0	0
Drawers' men -	-	0	9	0	0	11	0
Winders and warpers -	-	1	7	0	0	12	0
Mechanics -	-	0	8	0	0	11	0
Weaving by Hand:							
Quality, fancy	men	0	8	0	0	15	0
" women	children and women	0	5	0	0	7	0
" best	men	0	7	0	0	10	0
" common	children	0	5	0	0	7	0
Cambries -	all ages	0	6	0	0	8	0
Chilpings -	men & women	0	12	0	0	10	0
Machine cutters -	men	0	8	0	0	9	0
Machine-makers -	do.	1	6	0	0	10	0
Iron-founders -	do.	1	8	0	0	11	0
Press and drawers -	do.	1	0	0	0	average.	
Do. do. do.	young men	0	8	0	0	0	
Do. do. do.	boys	0	15	0	0	1	0
Do. do. do.	men	0	14	0	0	10	0
Tailors -	do.	1	0	0	0	13	0
Furriers -	do.	0	12	0	0	13	0
Shoemakers -	do.	0	7	6	per day.	0	
Wholesalers -	do.	1	4	0	0	11	0
Sawyers -	do.	1	10	0	0	1	0
Carpenters -	do.	1	10	0	0	1	0
Navigation -	do.	0	18	0	0	1	0
Beckleyers -	do.	0	18	0	0	1	0
Beckleyers' labourers -	do.	0	18	0	0	1	0
Painters -	do.	0	18	0	0	1	0
Slaters -	do.	0	6	0	0	per day.	
Plasterers -	do.	1	0	0	0	1	0
Spindlers -	do.	0	15	0	0	0	18

The lower classes of Manchester live principally in houses above ground, consisting for

the most part of cottages, of which many lengthened streets have been built of late years; but, in addition to these, great numbers inhabit cellars or underground floors, sometimes below the cottages, and sometimes below other houses. Some important particulars in regard to these and other matters will be learned from the following returns prepared by the Manchester police.

It is greatly to be regretted that effectual provision had not long since been made in Manchester and other large towns for their proper drainage and pavement, and for laying down rules as to the erection of houses. The authorities in Manchester have done all in their power, under the existing laws, to improve the streets; but there is no general building act for the town, and except in certain districts, where the magistrates have been entitled to interfere, each proprietor built as he pleased. Hence cottages have sprung up row behind row, without the streets or alleys between them being of sufficient width, or drained or paved; in some places, the streets have been, till very recently, full of pits filled with stagnant water, the receptacles of all sorts of filth. (*Report on Health of Towns*, p. 10.) Such a state of things was discreditable alike to the local authorities and the government: and no measure appears to be more imperatively required, seeing the vast and rapid increase of towns, than the enactment of such regulations as may be required to provide for the proper construction of the streets and houses, and consequently for the health and comfort of the population.

Cellars, however damp and unhealthy, are preferred by a large proportion of the lower classes both here and in Liverpool, not so much from their cheapness, as because they afford facilities for dealing in various sorts of articles, and because their inmates either are or believe themselves to be more independent than if they resided as lodgers in houses rented by other parties.

It is unhappily true, that many of the dwellings of the lower classes, especially those of the Irish, exhibit a great want of furniture, of cleanliness, and of comfort. This, however, is not owing, as many have supposed, to the growth of the factory system, but partly to the poverty, and still more to the perverse habits of the occupiers. In a tract written in Manchester, and published by authority in 1755, long before the factory

Totals, as given in the Police Returns, of the Houses, Cellars, and Population of the Borough of Manchester for the Years 1841, 1845, 1846, 1847, 1848, and 1849.

Dwelling Houses and Shops used as Dwellings.					Dwelling Cellars.				
Years.	Gross Number of Habitable Houses.	Uninhabited when taking the Returns.	Inhabited when taking the Returns.	Population of Dwelling Houses.	Gross Number of Habitable Cellars.	Uninhabited when taking the Returns.	Inhabited when taking the Returns.	Population of Dwelling Cellars.	Gross Population of the Municipal Borough of Manchester.
1841	44,462	3,732	40,690	235,507	-	-	-	-	235,507
1845	46,478	861	45,617	299,696	5,265	304	5,061	22,984	294,277
1846	47,923	845	46,178	274,836	5,133	295	4,838	21,801	299,389
1847	49,023	2,657	46,486	274,973	4,927	549	4,278	20,697	299,445
1848	49,305	3,473	46,430	274,973	5,074	451	4,603	20,697	299,445
1849	50,504	2,198	49,406	278,575	5,018	259	4,659	20,599	298,168

system had an existence, the houses of the poor are said to be "most wretched," "filthy and nasty" in the extreme, and "noisome and infectious." (See extract from tract in *Manchester as*

it is, p. 36.) There is really, therefore, no room or ground for saying, that any portion of the poor are worse lodged now than formerly; while, on the other hand, of 37,724 dwellings of the

* One of the most prolific sources of physical and social evil in this and other manufacturing towns consists in the fact that married women, from the necessity of attending to their work in the mills, are compelled to leave their infants in the charge of old women and girls to nurse during their absence. The latter are in the habit of administering to the infants, for the purpose of keeping them quiet, large quantities of Godfrey's cordial and other noxious potions containing opium and other narcotics; in consequence of which not only is the mortality of infants greatly increased, but they are comparatively stunted in their growth and proportionally unhealthy. It is

impossible to dispense with the work of females in the factories, for the manufacturer requires the nimble little fingers of women, not the large rough hands of men.—In fact, *matris digitus pectus*, not *matris mœnia pectus*. With a view to remedy this evil, a public meeting was held in September, 1850, under the auspices of the mayor, for the purpose of establishing public nurseries on the plan of the crèche of Paris, but with this difference,—the Manchester nurseries have not been established as *charities*, but as a means of nursing infants in an improved manner and at a very small cost. (Com. from Manchester.)

labouring classes, examined by the agents of the Statistical Society, no fewer than 27,281 were decidedly "comfortable;" and as respects the clothing and other accommodations of the poor, they are superior at present to what they have ever previously been. Their prosperous condition is evinced by the great average consumption of butchers' meat.

Owing to the immense number of factories, and of steam engines at work in them, there is generally a dense cloud of smoke hanging over the town; and such buildings as are not frequently cleaned have a dirty, blackened appearance. Attempts have latterly been made to obviate this inconvenience by compelling the mill-owners to adopt means for consuming or destroying the smoke arising from their works. And if this could be effected without imposing any very serious burden on the industry of the town, it would be a most desirable improvement.

But despite the disadvantage arising from the prevalence of smoke, Manchester is not unhealthy. No doubt a good deal of fever prevails at most periods of the year, in the poorer districts, especially in those where the streets are ill-paved, and the sewerage defective. But, on the whole, Manchester is less unhealthy than Liverpool, or Glasgow, or the old town of Edinburgh, which has no manufactures. The burials in the bor. of Manchester amounted in 1845 to 6,022, in 1846 to 7,810, in 1847 to 9,540, and in 1848 to 7,255.

The idle and absurd stories that were so industriously propagated with respect to the influence of factory labour on health and morals, are now pretty well exploded. Latterly, indeed, there would appear to be a considerable increase of crime; but this increase is, perhaps, more apparent than real, and is mainly a consequence of the improved state of the police, and of trivial offences that formerly escaped notice being (whether wisely or not we shall not stop to inquire) now visited with fine or imprisonment. The truth is that in respect of morality, the labouring population of Manchester has but little to fear from a comparison with that of any large town in the empire. The Rev. R. Parkinson, canon of the cathedral church, Manchester, in a speech at a public meeting in Feb. 1839, said, "I have no natural predilections for my present opinions. My birth and early education put me in a very different position from that which I now hold; but being at present an inhabitant of this town, having enjoyed ample opportunities of observing and judging, and being in a position which gives me no motive for a partial judgment, I maintain that, taking an average of all classes of our population, and that of other districts, we shall find the morality of this district not below that of the most primitive agricultural pop. I have the best authority for saying, that the streets of Manchester, at ten o'clock at night, are as retired as those of most rural districts. When we look at the extent of this par., containing at least 350,000 souls, being more than the pop. of half our counties, can we be surprised that there is a great amount of immorality? But a great proportion of that immorality is committed by persons who have been already nursed in crime in districts supposed to be more innocent than our own, and who swell our police reports, not so much because we hold out greater facilities for rearing them, as that they are apprehended through the superior vigilance of our police." This is pretty conclusive; and we may add, that the regard paid by females to decency, both of language and

deportment, is stated by intelligent witnesses before the Factory Commissioners of 1833-34 to be greater in Manchester than in most rural districts. It is a fact, too, that the proportion of illegitimate to legitimate children in the county is only 1 in 13, a low ratio for so dense and varied a pop., and not greater than in some purely agricultural cos.

We believe that the doctrines of chartism and ultra-radicalism have made less progress in Manchester than in most other great towns, the metropolis excepted, certainly less than in Glasgow. Stagnations of trade, by occasioning a want of employment and reducing wages, necessarily, also, occasion discontent and dissatisfaction; and in such periods, demagogues are not wanting to recommend political nostrums of all sorts as infallible remedies for the grievances under which they labour. But the great bulk of the pop. are, notwithstanding, attached to the principles of the constitution, orderly, and opposed to violence. And in this, no doubt, their opinions are in accordance with their own obvious interests; for, were they to become disorderly, or to cease to respect and uphold the rights of property, the prosperity of Manchester would be terminated; capitalists would withdraw from and shun her as if she were infected with a pestilence, and the mass of the pop. would sink into a state of squalid and irremediable poverty.

It is needless to observe that the interests of the employers of labour and those of the labourers, though apparently conflicting, are, at bottom, the same; and that neither party can prosper without that prosperity redounding to the advantage of the other. But, notwithstanding this identity of interests, there is, it must be admitted, but little sympathy between the great capitalists and work-people in this or any other large manufacturing town. This is occasioned by the great scale on which labour is now carried on in factories; and by the consequent impossibility of the manufacturers becoming acquainted with the great bulk of the people in their employment. They do not, in fact, so much as know their names; they look only to their conduct when in the mill; and are wholly ignorant of their mode of life when out of it, of the condition of their families, &c. The affections have nothing to do in an intercourse of this kind; every thing is regulated on both sides by the narrowest and most selfish views and considerations; a man and a machine being treated with precisely the same sympathy and regard. It is not to be denied that this is a state of things fraught with considerable danger; and that no society can be in a really sound or healthy state where the bond of connection between the different ranks and orders is such as now prevails at Manchester and other great towns. Indifference, on the one hand, necessarily produces disrespect, insubordination, and plotting, on the other. However, it is easier to point out a condition of this sort, than to suggest any means by which it may be obviated. We doubt, indeed, whether it admits of any effectual remedy. The whole tendency of society, in modern times is to make interest, taking the term in its most literal and sordid sense, the link by which all classes are held together; and should any circumstances occur to make any considerable portion of society conclude that their interest is separate from or opposed to that of the others, there would, we apprehend, be but few other considerations to which to appeal to hinder the dissolution of such society.

In 1849 there were in the bor. of Manchester 1,320 beer-shops, and 480 public-houses, many of the establishments for the sale of spirits vying in splendour with the gin-palaces of the metropolis. Intemperance, however, is not on the increase. Great numbers of coffee-shops have recently been opened; and the influence of the temperance societies, though much exaggerated, has, on the whole, been highly beneficial.

Climate, &c.—The mean annual quantity of rain falling in Manchester (at an average of 23 years) is 36.140 inches, whilst the mean annual quantity falling in Lancaster (at an average of 20 years) is 36.714 inches: the comparatively slight variations in the temperature likewise contribute greatly to the healthiness of the town.

According to Whitaker, the historian of Manchester, "the Roman invaders of this country fixed a military station in a place since called Castledid, to which they gave the name Mancunium," whence Manchester has been derived. In the time of the Saxons the old town was deserted, and about 677 another was built on its site. In 990, according to Dr. Aikin, the Saxon king, Edward the Elder, ordered Manchester to be fortified. In Domesday Book the town is called a manor, and is described as having two churches. In the 14th and 15th centuries it received great additions and improvements, so that, in Leland's time, it was reckoned "the finest, best built, swiftest, and most populous town of Lancashire." Camden also mentions it as being famed in his time for the manufacture of woollen cloths, then called "Manchester cottons," that is, coatings. The first authentic mention of the cotton manufacture in England is made by Lewis Roberts, in his *Treasure of Traffic*, published in 1641, where it is stated, "The town of Manchester in Lancashire must be also herein remembered, and worthily, for their encouragement, commended, who buy the yarn of the Irish in great quantity, and, weaving it, return the same yarn into Lancashire to sell. Neither doth their industry rest here; for they buy cotton wool in London that comes first from Cyprus and Smyrna, and at home work the same, and perfect it into fustians, vermilions, dimities, and other such stuffs; and then return it to London, where the same is vented and sold, and not seldom sent into foreign parts, who have means, at far easier terms, to provide themselves of the said first materials." (*Orig. ed. p. 32*.) In 1650, the inhabs. of Manchester were reckoned the most industrious in the N. of England. The town was stated to be a well built, quicken, and clean streets, and good buildings; and, in 1790, it is described as "the largest, most rich, populous, and busy village in England, having about 24,000 individuals within the parish." Fustians were the earliest article of manufacture, and other fabrics were made soon afterwards; but the great increase of pop. and commercial prosperity did not take place till 1770, when machinery was first introduced into the town. From that year down to the present time Manchester has been a scene of rapidly increasing industry, and has been distinguished by the invention and enterprise of its citizens in working up supplies every quarter of the world with clothing; and wealth, the reward of successful labour, flows in from all sides in a large, rapid, and uninterrupted current. (*Baines's Hist. of Lancaster* (4th ed.), II. 149-292; *Wheeler's Manchester; Manchester as it is; Police Rep.*; but principally *Priv. Inform.*)

MANCHOORIA (Chin. *Kirin-oolo*), an extensive region of N.E. Asia, belonging to China, and the original seat of the present ruling dynasty (Ta-tsing) of the Chinese empire, lying between lat. 41° and 57° N., and between long. 119° and 140° E., bounded N. by the Russian gov. of Yakoutsk, E. by the Gulph of Tartary and Sea of Japan, S. by China Proper, and W. by the Russian gov. of Irkutsk and Mongolia, from which latter it is separated by a wooden palisade, connected with the great wall of China, and by a line running down the Songari and other rivers to the Daourian range, on the S. of Siberia. Estimated area, 700,000 sq. m. Pop. unknown. The S. provinces are the only parts of the country that have been visited by Europeans; our knowledge of the remainder being derived only from the doubtful statements of a Chinese geographer. It is, therefore, more than probable, that, should any events lead to the admission of competent travellers into the country, it will be found necessary to make considerable alterations in our maps and descriptions of what is now little better than a *terra incognita*. Manchooria lies chiefly in the great valley formed by the Amur and Songari, with their numerous tributaries, and is bounded by three principal mountain chains, 1. one on the E., running from the peninsula of Corea along the whole line of coast to the N. boundary, and ending in a probable elevation of 5,000 ft. 2. the Daourian mountains (called, by the Chinese, the outer Hing-an-ling), which form the entire N. boundary of Manchooria, but also send out minor offshoots into the centre of the country; 3. the inner Hing-an-ling, or Sialok chain, which appears to be a continuation of the Shan-sew mountains, and to extend, with little interruption, over a great part of Mongolia. Besides the above principal ranges, there are, to the N. of Corea, some chains of inferior importance, bearing several different names; but this part of the country, near the coast, though nominally a part of Manchooria, is inhabited, almost exclusively, by Ainca, a people similar to those inhabiting Jesso and Tarakal, in the empire of Japan. The chief river of Manchooria is the Amur, Sagalien or Kwentung (for it is thus variously called), which, measured along its windings, is about 2,200 m. in length, and, with its tributaries, drains a territory of about 900,000 sq. m. Several of these streams afford pearls; but the principal pearl-fishery is on the E. coast, in the channel of Tartary. It is a government monopoly, and is carried on by Man-

choo soldiers, who are required, annually, to deliver into the Imperial coffers, a fixed quantity of pearls. The chief lakes are the Hinkai-see, a large sheet of water near the source of the Onsourai, in the prov. of Kirin, and the Hoorun and Pir, which give their names to the most W. district of the prov. Taitshar: there are a few others in different parts of the country, but only of small size.

The nature of the Manchoo soil, and its mineral productions generally, are little known. The people in the N. being chiefly nomads, subsisting by the produce of the chase, pay little attention to tillage; but agriculture is common in the S. districts, and the *cerealia*, as well as hemp and cotton, are extensively cultivated. The staple productions, however, are ginseng and rhubarb, the former being an exclusive government monopoly. The province of Shing-king, on the gulph of Pecheles, produces corn, millet, and peas, large quantities of which, with ginseng, are sent by sea to the S. provinces of China. The forests, which clothe the sides of most of the mountains, comprise oaks, pines, fir, and birch, lime-trees, maples, oleanders, acacias, &c. being found on the plains towards the S. The domestic animals of Central Europe are common in the more cultivated districts; but the cattle are small, and the breed of sheep peculiar to this country, called *argali*, is small, and coarse-woolled. Near the Yablonoi range, rein-deer are kept, and camels are to be seen in many parts of the S. provinces. The wild animals comprise the ermine, sable, fox, and bear, hunted for their furs, which are a considerable article of trade with the Russians. Fish, especially salmon, and remarkably fine sturgeons, are abundant in the rivers, and held in high estimation by those living near the banks.

The Manchoo territory is divided into three provinces, 1. Shing-king, (comprising the anc. Leao-tung), near the borders of China; 2. Kirin, occupying the country E. of the Songari; and, 3. Taitshar, comprising the whole country W. and N.W. that river. The government of the first of these provinces is conducted by civil officers, on the same plan as in China; but the other provs. are under a government more strictly military than any other portion of the Chinese empire. The governors and magistrates are all military men; and the law makes all males, above 16 years of age, liable to serve under the standards to which they belong by birth, of which there are 8, each being distinguished by its peculiar flag. Kirinoolo is the metropolis of the country, and the residence of the supreme governor. Ningoola, on the Hooka, a tributary of the Songari, is also held in high esteem. In consequence of its having been the residence in former times of the reigning family of China. With respect to trade, however, both are inferior to Fung-hwang-ching, on the borders of Corea. The sea-ports frequented by the Chinese junks are Kin-tchou, at the N. end of the gulph of Leautung, and Kaitchou, on the same gulph. E. of that last mentioned. The other cities of Manchooria, except Moukden, the old cap., and still denominated "the affluent metropolis," have no claim to rank higher than villages, though most of them are surrounded by walls, and garrisoned by small bodies of soldiery.

The general history of the Manchoo, or Eastern Tartars, with an account of their physical conformation, has already been given at some length in the article ASIA, in the work (I. 192-194), to which the reader is referred for further particulars. (See, also *Moscow's Ritter's Asien*, I. 88-118. II. 210-320; *Klaproth's Magazin Asiatique, and Asia Polyglotta, Appendix; Chinese Repository*, vol. I. p. 118-118; and also vols. v. and vi.)

MANDAVEE, a town and sea-port of Hindostan, being the most populous town, and principal emporium of Cutch, on the S. coast of which it stands, 36 m. S. S.W. Bhooj; lat. 22° 50' N., long. 69° 25' E. Pop. probably 50,000, of whom, upwards of 15,000 are Bhatias, 10,000 Banyans, 5,000 Brahmins, and the rest Lohannas, of hammedans, and Hindoos of low caste. "The town is within gun-shot of the beach, and is surrounded with fortifications in the Asiatic style. Its environs are laid out in gardens well stocked with cocoa-nut and other trees. The bed of a river, nearly dry, except in the rains, covers the E. face, and joins the sea, forming the only harbour which Mandavee has. Small boats, laden, can cross the bar at high tides; larger vessels unlade in the roadstead. A brisk trade is kept up with Arabia, Bombay, and the Malabar coast, in which upwards of 800 boats, of from 40 to 500 caddies tonnage are employed. The exports are chiefly cotton, muslin of silk and cotton thread, piece goods of a coarse kind, alum, and glue. The imports are, bullion from Mocha; ivory, rhinoceros' horns, and hides, from Powahil; dates, cocoa-nuts, grain, and timber, from Malabar and Damaun. There is a considerable inland trade, by means of *cherons* and other carriers with Marwar and Malwah." (*Bombay Transac.*, II. 217; *Geog. Journal*; *Malhatten's E. I. Gaz.*)

MANDURIA, a town of the Neapolitan dom., prov

Otranto, cap. cant., in an arid plain, 22 m. E.S.E. Taranto. Pop. about 5,000. It is a straggling but well built town, with wide unpaved streets, many handsome churches, several convents, an orphan asylum, and a large palace, formerly belonging to the Francavilla family. The town during the middle ages, and until 1790, was called Casalnuovo; but at the latter epoch it re-assumed, by royal privilege, the name of the ancient city, on the site of a part of which it is built. When Swinburne visited it, it was noted for nothing except the taste of its inhabitants for dog flesh, the skins of the slaughtered dogs being, at the same time, tanned into an imitation of Turkey leather for the supply of the neighbourhood. It had no other trade or manufacture. The remains of Manduria, destroyed by Fabius Maximus in the second Punic war, consist of its walls, standing several feet above ground, and double, except on the S. side, where the fortifications appear to have been left incomplete. The outer wall, and its ditch, measure 8 yards in breadth; behind this bulwark is a broad space, and then an inner wall, which together measure 14 yards. According to Craven, the walls are 20 where most thick, 8 ft. in the rest, having probably been lowered to furnish materials for the construction of the modern town. In the vicinity is a well, mentioned by Pliny, as constantly preserving the same level, whatever quantity of water be added to or taken from it; *lucus ad marginem plenus, neque exhaustis aquis minuitur, neque infusus augetur.* (Hist. Nat. lib. ii.) This singular well still exists, and was visited by Swinburne and Craven. (*Craven's Tour*, &c., pp. 165-169; and *Swinburne's Trav.* i. 222, 224.)

MANFREDONIA, a sea-port town in the kingdom of Naples, prov. Capitanata, on a bay of the Adriatic, about 19 m. S.W. the promontory (Testa di) of Gargano, and 20 m. N.E. Foggia; lat. $41^{\circ} 37' 53''$, long. $15^{\circ} 55' 40''$. Pop. 6,000. ? "In point of symmetry, it may vie with any town in Europe, having been constructed on a regular plan, which never underwent any alteration; and which, notwithstanding the unfinished state of some of the edifices, and the dilapidated aspect of others, gives it an air of grandeur and uniformity very remarkable. It is walled towards both land and sea; from the last a regular ledge of rocks, almost at right angles, divides its bulwarks. One long and wide street runs throughout the city, from one gate to the other; for there are but two gates on the land-side, though two others open to the port, which is protected from the effects of the N. wind by a small mole, and commanded by a strong castle, defended by a ditch and drawbridge. The walls are fortified with large round bastions. The harbour is reckoned safe; but its want of depth renders it fit for small vessels only." (*Craven's Tour*, 68, 69.) Four streets run parallel with the principal thoroughfares, and are intersected at right angles by smaller ones. Though narrow, the streets are well kept; and the inhab. are both cleanly and industrious, in a degree not at all usual in S. Italy.

Vegetables and fish are good, plentiful, and cheap at Manfredonia, but water and wine are indifferent, as are oranges, which form an important article of commerce throughout Apulia. It exports considerable quantities of salt, obtained from the salt lagoons which border the coast of the bay to the S. of the town. It has also a considerable trade in corn, quantities of which are shipped from its port.

About a mile S.W. of the town stood the ancient Sipontum, once a considerable city of *Magna Græcia*, and traditionally said to have been founded or colonised by Diomed. Its site is now principally occupied by a low marsh, abounding with wild fowl, and productive of the malaria which infects Manfredonia. The only remains of the ancient city are its cathedral, and two columns of cipolino marble, both in a dilapidated condition. The former is a small Gothic edifice, with a handsome portico, but little ornamented within. It is still the seat of archiepiscopal see, founded in 1511. Sipontum, which was colonised by the Romans A. U. C. 558, had fallen into such irreparable decay in the 13th century, that Manfred, king of the Two Sicilies, having founded, in 1266, the town which bears his name, but which he called *Novum Sipontum*, removed thither the few inhab. of Sipontum, bestowing on them many valuable privileges and exemptions. But, though it has always enjoyed some commerce, Manfredonia never attained to the property or celebrity of its ancient predecessor, and has long been stationary. (*Swinburne's Travels in the Two Sicilies*, i. 149-151; *Craven's Tour in the S. Provs. of Naples*, 67, 70; *Craven's Ancient Italy*.)

MANGALORE, or CORÉAL BUNDER, a sea-port town of Hindostan, prov. Canara, of which it is the cap., on a sandy promontory between a salt lake and the Indian Ocean, 440 m. S.S.E. Bombay; lat. $12^{\circ} 53' N.$, long. $74^{\circ} 57' E.$ Early in the present century it had 30,000 inhab. The town is well built, and has a fort, now dismantled, which opposed a gallant and successful resistance to Tippu, in 1782. The port does not admit vessels drawing more than 10 ft. water, except at

spring tides; but there is good anchorage in the roadstead, in from 8 to 7 fathoms. The exports are chiefly rice, to Muscat, Goa, Bombay, and Malabar; betel nut, black pepper, sandal wood, cassia, and turmeric. Raw silk and sugar are imported from China and Bengal, and oil and ghee from Surat. Mangalore was at an early period much resorted to by Arabian traders; and most of its present inhab. are of Arabian descent. The vessels employed in its trade belong chiefly to other ports. Salt is made at Mangalore, but it is of bad quality. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gas.*; *Parli. Report*.)

MANILLA, *Sp. Manila*), a fortified sea-port city of the Philippine Islands, and the cap. of the Spanish settlements in the East, on the E. side of the Bay of Manila, island of Luzon, and on the river Passig, about 4 m. from its mouth; lat. $14^{\circ} 26' 8'' N.$, long. $120^{\circ} 53' 30'' E.$ The pop. of the city and its suburbs was said to amount, in 1818, to from 70,000 to 80,000; and is at present variously estimated at from 100,000 to 180,000, including, besides Tagalas, or natives, from 4,000 to 5,000 Spaniards and other Europeans, with Chinese, Negroes, the descendants of the foregoing races, and a few from all parts of the world. The bay and city of Manila have a very picturesque and imposing aspect from the sea. The former is surrounded by mountains covered with verdure, which, on the E., decline gradually towards the shore. At their feet, on this side, is a small plain, on which the city stands; its buildings consisting almost entirely of the volcanic tufa, of which the plain and its vicinity are geologically constituted. Manila comprises the city-proper and ten suburbs. The former is on the left or S. bank of the Passig, across which it communicates by a handsome stone bridge of 10 arches, with its important suburb of Bidondo, and those of Tondo, Santa Cruz, &c. This bridge, which is about 149 Castilian *varas* (or yards) in length, by 8 in breadth, was founded in 1630; but it has been rebuilt since 1814, when it was for the most part destroyed by an earthquake.* The city-proper, little more than 2 m. in circ., is surrounded with strong walls, and a broad ditch, and has not more than 10,000 or 12,000 inhab. At the mouth of the river is a small battery, and the town is further protected by the citadel of Santiago, near its N.W. extremity; but Manila could not make any effectual resistance to a European force. The city, which is entered by six gates, is regularly laid out; and, according to Meyen, by whom it was visited, in 1831, it is superior in point of appearance to either Lima or Santiago. (*Reise um die Erde*, ii. 207.) The streets have carriage-ways, composed of a mixture of loam and quartz, and are provided with footpaths, and lighted at night. The houses in the city are solidly constructed, though, on account of earthquakes, they are seldom more than one story above the ground-floor. The houses in the suburbs, however, are not so substantial. In Bidondo, for example, they are almost wholly composed of bamboo, and are raised from the ground, to the height of 8 or 10 ft., on thick poles, as is customary among ultra-Gangetic nations. Most of the houses are furnished with balconies and verandahs; the place of glass in the windows is supplied by thin semi-transparent pieces of shell, which, though more opaque, repel heat better. Bidondo is the most interesting portion of Manila, and that in which its trade mostly centres. It is principally inhabited by Chinese and Tagalas, and looks very like a Chinese town.

The public edifices are mostly within the walled city. The new *aduana*, or custom-house, is a large fine building, constructed at a great expense; but, like the Dublin custom-house, its size is out of all proportion to the business to be transacted in it. The residence of the Captain-General, and the principal government offices, are also in a large edifice, occupying one of the sides of the *Plaza Mayor*, or principal square. This square measures about 100 paces either way, and has, in its centre, a bronze statue of Charles IV., on a marble pedestal, presented to the city by Ferdinand VII. in 1824. There are, in Manila, a vast number of churches and ecclesiastical establishments; and the number of clergymen is said to exceed that of the garrison, which is estimated at about 7,000 men! We need not, therefore, be surprised to learn that religious observances are here scrupulously complied with, while real piety and sound morality are at the lowest ebb. The city was erected into an archbishopric in 1598; and the cathedral and archbishop's palace are among its most conspicuous structures. The Augustine, Franciscan, Dominican, and Jesuit convents, the arsenal and cannon foundry in the citadel, the university (founded in 1645), the missionary college, the various schools for natives and Europeans, the hospitals, orphan asylums, and other charities, and the royal cigar manufactory, in which 380 males and 3,000 females are said to be employed, include the other principal public buildings

* *Meyen, Reise, &c.*, ii. 210. The *Did. Gêog.* says that the bridge was restored in 1814, *mais en grande partie reconstruit par le tremblement de terre de 1824.*

and establishments. The promenades round the city are frequented in the evening by the more opulent classes, on horseback, or in their carriages. The neighbourhood is interspersed with orange, araca, tamarind, and mango groves; gardens; coffee, cocoa, and cotton plantations; rice grounds, &c.

The Pasig is navigable for vessels of 600 tons in ballast, or for laden vessels of from 250 to 300 tons, as far as the bridge; and for large shallow boats, drawing from 3 to 3 ft. water, as far as the lake in which it rises, about 9 m. inland. There are 13 ft. water, at low ebb, in the channel through the bar at the entrance of the river; for the further deepening of which a steam dredging-boat has been employed since 1837. The rise and fall of the tide in the river is from 2 to 3 ft. A lighthouse, at the end of the pier, marks the entrance of the Pasig on the left-hand side. Ships of all sizes anchor in Manilla roads, at from 1 to 3 m. off shore, except during July, Aug., and Sept., when the S.W. monsoon throws in a heavy sea, which extends quite to the entrance of the river. At this season,

therefore, small vessels load and unload in the river, and large vessels at Cavite, an anchorage sheltered by a neck of land to the S.W., and about 6 or 7 m. by water from the mouth of the river; their cargoes being conveyed, to and from Manilla, in secure dredge boats, of from 50 to 70 tons burden.

Manilla is the only port in the Spanish Philippines with which Spanish vessels to or from Europe, or foreign vessels from any quarter, are allowed to trade. Spanish vessels trading to China, Singapore, &c. are, however, allowed to proceed to various outports, and there take on board their outward cargo. The principal articles of export are sugar, which is by far the most important; hemp, and stuff made of hemp; rice, of which large quantities are sent to China, Indigo, sapan and other woods, tobacco, cigars, coffee, cotton, tortoise-shell, hides, ebony, &c. The tobacco of the Philippine Islands is excellent, and might be produced in any quantity; but its growth is comparatively limited by its being made a government monopoly. (See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.)

The following is an Account of the Quantities and Values of the Principal Articles exported from Manilla in 1837.

Articles.	By Foreign Vessels.	By Spanish Vessels.	Total.	Price.		Gross Value.	
				Dols.	Rls.	Dols.	Rls.
Sugar	195,552 pic.	25,531 pic.	221,083 pic.	1	2	931,277	6
Sapan-wood	14,691	2,091	16,782	1	2	25,699	6
Hemp	27,365	3,104	30,469	1	2	22,734	6
Cotton	3,850	2,814	6,664	1	2	84,060	6
Coffee	6,995	632	7,627	1	2	88,394	6
Indigo	1,551	3,124	4,675	1	2	37,715	6
Mother-of-pearl-shells	1,001	11	1,012	1	2	14,210	6
Pieces of molave (number)	4,368	4	4,372	1	2	34,024	6
Lard	1,653	99 cys.	1,752	1	2	118,303	6
Tortoise-shell	3,706 cys.	142	3,848	1	2	24,693	6
Rice	45,007	76,996 cys.	121,993	1	2	157,303	6
Faddy	16,364 pic.	19,018 pic.	35,382	1	2	17,806	6
Yams	19,395 in nos.	324 in nos.	19,719	1	2	24,330	6
Cigars	5,141 boxes	1,457 boxes	6,598	1	2	114,950	6
Manilla hemp cloth	130,000 pieces	10,000 pieces	140,000	1	2	10,803	6
Cocoa-nut oil	875 casks	2	877	1	2	3,410	6
Tea	8,084	1	8,085	1	2	1,738	6
Rum	6,934 gallons	131 gallons	7,065	1	2	9,656	6
Cotton canvas	560 pieces	560 pieces	1,120	1	2	6,750	6

The greatest portion of the foreign trade of Manilla is in the hands of the U. States. We subjoin

An Account of the Exports of Sugar and Hemp in the under-mentioned years to the U. States and to Europe.

HEMP.			
Year.	To U. States.	To Europe.	Total.
	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.
1845	71,107	14,590	85,697
1844	89,132	8,534	97,666
1843	95,258	7,808	103,066
1842	92,496	16,500	108,996
1841	108,335	16,739	125,074

SUGAR.			
Year.	To U. States.	To Europe.	Total.
	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.
1845	54,548	175,196	229,744
1844	70,106	147,430	217,536
1843	71,000	175,000	246,000
1842	85,000	175,000	260,000
1841	91,435	111,447	202,882

Subjoined is a statement of the Import trade of Manilla in 1838, which we procured direct from that city; but it is right to bear in mind that the official accounts from which it has been drawn up are so defective, that the amounts specified can only be considered as rough approximations; and are, no doubt, under the mark.

Account of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles exported from Manilla in 1838.

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
		Dollars.
Iron	21,474	37,496
Cannon, grey	4,645	280,486
Do. white	1,128	171,050
Shrapnels	225	65,308
Mortars	385	86,445
Miner's tools	87,361	134,712
Prints	195,346	24,530
Woolens and worsteds	167,597	118,197
Muslins	551,015	157,754
Unstamped	25,308	16,708
Claws and earthenware	778	37,740
Hondras	-	214,805
Total value in Sp. dollars	-	1,655,265

Of the above, goods to the value of 1,145,000 dollars were imported, in Spanish vessels, from China, Singapore, and elsewhere. About 130 ships entered the port of Manilla in 1838; of which, 46 were Spanish, 36 British, 28 American, and 11 Chinese.

The port charges on foreign vessels consist of a tonnage-duty of 3 reals, or a quarter-dollar, per register ton; and fees, varying from 15 to 20 dollars, according to

the size of the vessel, for port-captain's and health officers' visits, passport, &c. The tariff is bottomed on a custom-house valuation, fixed every 5 years. Most foreign commodities, imported in foreign vessels, pay an import duty of 14 per cent. *ad valorem*, except wines and spirits, which mostly pay a duty of from 30 to 60 per cent., unless the produce of Spain. Cotton-twist of certain colours, cutlery, ready-made clothes, European certain colours, cutlery, and vinegar, pay 40 per cent. If imported in Spanish vessels, and 50 per cent. if in any other. British and other foreign cotton and silk manufactures made in imitation of native cloth, Madras and Senegal cottons, &c., pay 15 per cent. if imported in Spanish, and 25 per cent. if in other ships. Machinery of all sorts for the promotion of industry, cotton-twist of certain colours, gold and silver, plants and seeds, are imported duty free; but tropical products, the same as those of the Philippines, gunpowder, swords, and other warlike stores, &c., are prohibited, unless landed in bond for re-exportation. Exports of nearly all descriptions, by Spanish vessels, pay only from 1 to 2 per cent. *ad valorem*, and by foreign vessels double this duty; but manufactured tobacco, rope from Manilla, hemp, and gold and silver, coined or uncoined, if exported to Spain, go duty free. The principal currency of Manilla consists of Spanish dollars, of 8 reals and 96 grains; but 8. American dollars are also current. The weights in use are the Spanish lb., which is nearly 2 per cent. heavier than the English; the arroba = 25 Eng. lbs. nearly; the quintal = 102 lbs.; and the picul of 5 arrobas, or 12 cwt. 2 Eng. The cocon is a measure for rice, &c., varying from 96 to 136 lbs. According to a recent list there are in Manilla 47 Spanish merchants and 11 foreign firms. The Spanish merchants have a chamber of commerce and a joint-stock insurance society. The U. States, France, and Belgium have consuls, and each of the Canton marine insurance companies has an agent here. There are, however, neither fire nor life offices nor agencies; nor is any newspaper, price-current, or other periodical publication issued in Manilla.

Manilla existed as a native town prior to the Spanish invasion; it was taken by the Spaniards, and made the cap. of their E. dominions, in 1571. It has frequently suffered very much from earthquakes, especially in 1645 and 1762, and 1824. In 1762, it was taken by the English; but ransomed by Spain for 1,000,000. sterling. (Meyn, *Reise um die Erde*, ii. 203-213.; Hamilton's *E. I. Gazetteer*; and valuable Private Information.)

MANNEHEIM, or MANNEHEIM, a town of W. Germany, grand duchy of Baden, lower circ. of the Rhine (Unter-Rhein), of which it is the cap., on the Rhine, where it is joined by the Neckar, 33 m. N. Carlsruhe, and 37 m. S.E. Mayence; lat. 49° 29' 15" N., long. 8° 28' 7" E. Pop., in 1845, 17,000. It was once strongly

fortified, and has at different times suffered severely from sieges and bombardments; but towards the end of last century its defences were levelled by the French, and their site is now laid out in gardens and public walks. Mannheim is a regularly-constructed, handsome town; though it is, notwithstanding, monotonous and tiresome. It consists of 11 streets, crossed at right angles by 10 others, all perfectly straight, broad, well paved, and equidistant; and its houses being uniform, it is difficult for any one, not resident, to distinguish one part of the town from another. It has several handsome public squares, which, though the town be deficient in good parks, have mostly fountains. The spacious *Promenades* and *Plazas*, or principal thoroughfare, both planted with trees, afford pleasant promenades. The principal public edifice is the palace, a huge structure of red sandstone, built by the elector palatine when he made Mannheim his cap., in 1720, but more remarkable for size than elegance. A part of it is inhabited by the dowager grand duchess Stephanie, the adopted daughter of Napoleon and Josephine; and in one wing are museums of antiquities and natural history, the picture-gallery, with some fine Dutch and Flemish paintings, collections of plates, medals, and coins, and a library; said to consist of 100,000 vols. (*Horschmann's Stein*); but the other wing, comprising the old theatre, was mostly laid in ruins during the bombardment of Mannheim in 1795, in which state it remains. The new theatre, a handsome fabric, is neatly fitted up, and is rich in scenic decorations: it is said to have one of the best theatrical companies and orchestras of Germany; and is celebrated as being the place at which Schiller's tragedy of the Robbers was originally produced. Opposite the theatre is the house in which Kotschube was assassinated. Mannheim has about an equal number of Lutheran and Rom. Cath. churches, of which that formerly belonging to the Jesuits is the finest. It has also a synagogue, an observatory, with a tower 115 ft. high, and a good collection of instruments, an arsenal and cannon foundry, an exchange, surrounded by arcades, several hospitals, a savings' bank, a lyceum, with schools of drawing, painting, sculpture, surgery, &c. The Rhine is bordered by a fine terrace in the spacious grounds belonging to the palace, whence an extensive view of the surrounding country is obtained; and, like the Neckar, is crossed by a bridge of boats. Mannheim has some public baths, and a club called *"The Harmony"* with a reading-room, &c. The cheapness of living has attracted a good many English residents.

This town is the seat of the supreme court of justice for the grand duchy, and of one of the four subordinate courts of appeal in Baden. It was formerly a manufacturing town of some importance; and, among other articles, trinkets, of a compound called Mannheim-gold, were made in large quantities, but this branch of industry is nearly extinct. It still, however, produces carpets, and good and cheap tobacco, liquours, starch, glue, pasteboard, and sealing-wax; and has several coach-building establishments, tanneries, breweries, and bleaching-grounds. Its neighbourhood produces hops and garden stuff in large quantities; and, besides its traffic in cattle and agricultural products, it has a considerable transit trade by the Rhine and the Neckar. Previously to 1806, when it was fortified by the Elector Frederick IV., Mannheim was a mere village. It soon after received numerous Flemish and other immigrants. In 1777, it was ceded to Bavaria; but, since 1802, has been again united to Baden. (*Schreiber, Guide du Rhin*, 68, 69; *Berghaus*; *Allg. Lander*, &c., iv. 313; *Sicis*; *Germany and the Germans*, &c.)

MANRESA (*Minorita*), a town of Spain, prov. Catalonia, 34 m. N.W. Barcelona. Pop. 13,000. It stands on a rocky height, in the midst of a country irrigated by the Llobregat and its tributaries; is walled and strongly fortified; has good streets, and comprises among its public buildings and establishments a collegiate church, with a chapter, 4 parish churches, 3 oratories, a well-endowed asylum for female orphans, infantry barracks, free school, and hospital. The inhab. rank among the most industrious in Catalonia, and are pretty equally divided between agriculture and manufacturing pursuits. Cotton and silk fabrics, cotton thread, fine broad-clothes, tapes and ribands, paper, brandy, and gunpowder, are made in considerable quantities for exportation to Cuba and the W. Indies. The neighbouring district, one of the best cultivated in Spain, produces corn, hemp, oil, and wine, which, with the goods above mentioned, find a ready sale at the weekly markets, and the two fairs held here Sept. 1. and Nov. 30.

MANSFIELD, a market-town and par. of England, co. Nottingham, in the N. div. of wap. Broxtow, 12 m. N.W. Nottingham, and 118 m. N. by W. London. Area of par. 9,070 acres. Pop., in 1841, 9,788. It is situated in the forest of Sherwood, near the small river Mann, from which it takes its name; and, though old-fashioned, and irregularly laid out, it contains many good modern houses, and is paved and lighted with gas. The chief buildings are the moot-hall, a structure well

adapted for county meetings; a theatre, and the church, a commodious Gothic edifice, containing some curious monuments, and fine specimens of painted glass. The Presbyterians, Wesleyan and Calvinist Methodists, and the Society of Friends, have their respective places of worship; to which, as well as the church, are attached well supported Sunday schools. A grammar-school was established here in 1567, by Queen Elizabeth, who endowed it with a part of the church-land of the par., and founded for it 2 scholarships, of 10*l.* each, at Jesus College, Cambridge; but the management appears to have been unsatisfactory, and it had, in 1833, only 27 scholars, including the master's boarders. (*Walker*, *Mansf.*, 25th May.) There are two other charity-schools; one of which was founded in 1725, for teaching and clothing 50 boys and 20 girls, and for paying apprentice fees with the former. Besides the above, there are several other charities and money-bequests. The inhabs. are chiefly engaged in the hosiery and lace trade, and in cotton spinning; it had, in 1835, 5 cotton-mills, which employed above 400 hands. There are some large iron foundries, for light castings; and the town has also a considerable trade in corn and malt, as well as in the valuable building-stones and quarried in the neighbourhood, and with the Fintox canal; and, from its proximity to the N. Midland railway, it seems probable that it will, at no distant period, be united with that line. Petty sessions for the hund. are held here; and it is the election-town for the N. division of the co. Markets on Thursday; large cattle fairs, 6th April, 10th July, and the 2d Thursday in Oct.

About 14 m. from Mansfield is the village and township of Mansfield-Woodhouse (pop., in 1831, 1,838), near which are some curious and pretty perfect remains of a Roman villa. Within a few miles are *Wakerley Manor*, formerly belonging to the Duke of Norfolk, but now the property of the Duke of Newcastle, who has decided on pulling it down; Clumber, the seat of the latter; Thoresby, of Lord Newark; and Welbeck, of the Duke of Portland. Hence, in popular language, this part of the co. is called the dukery.

MANS (LE) (an. *Swindrum* and *Cenomania*), a town of France, dep. Sarthe, of which it is the cap., on the Sarthe, here crossed by three bridges, 80 m. N.E. by N. Angers, and 120 m. S.W. Paris. Pop. in 1846, excl. 31,056. It stands partly on the declivity of a hill, and partly beside the river. The latter portion is very ill-built, and has narrow crooked streets, impassable for carriages; but the upper town, though irregular, is open, and tolerably well built, its houses being of stone, roofed with slate. A handsome new quarter has been laid out, having a large square in its centre; and there are two good public promenades, one along the bank of the Sarthe. The Romans surrounded the ancient city with walls, a portion of which, on the N.N.E. side, remains nearly perfect; but the modern town is of no strength. Le Mans has several remarkable ecclesiastical structures. Its cathedral, begun in the 9th, but not finished till the 16th century, is a fine Gothic edifice, 416 ft. in length, with a large square tower, 212 ft. in height, the supports of which in the interior are ornamented with numerous statues. The choir is inferior in elegance only to that of Beauvais; and the stained glass window in the S. arm of the cross is much admired for its richness. The church of St. Julian is an interesting edifice of the 11th century. Another church, built in the 13th century, presents a combination of the Gothic and antique style. The new prefecture, the town-hall, and the theatre, are handsome buildings. Le Mans has two hospitals, a seminary, with a library of 15,000 vols., a public library, with 45,000 printed vols. and 500 MSS., in excellent preservation; several other libraries, museums of natural history, antiquities, and painting, the latter having several works by Guido, A. Durer, Teniers, Vandyk, &c.; a royal society of arts, a communal college, schools of drawing, midwifery, &c. It has manufactures of linen and coarse woollen stuff, wax candles, &c.; and a considerable trade in the, and in rap, iron, salt, and brandy. The agricultural produce of Le Mans has suffered much from the ravages of war at different periods; and, in 1793, it was the scene of the last struggle between the Republican and Vendean forces. (*Hugo*, art. *Sarthe*; *Guide du Voyageur*, &c.)

MANTINEIA, a celebrated city of ancient Greece, in Arcadia, the ruins of which, close to the wretched hamlet of *Palatopolis*, in a marshy plain watered by the Ophias, and enclosed S.E. by the rugged heights of Parthenion and Artemision, are about 7 m. N. Tripolissa, and 17 m. W. by S. Argoe. The walls, probably built soon after the battle of Leuctra (a. c. 371), are similar to those of Messene, and enclose an oval space in which the city stood; they have square towers, and the whole exhibits an interesting specimen of Grecian fortification. A ditch, or fosse, round the walls is supplied by the Ophias; which, at certain seasons, would inundate the plain were it not absorbed by a chasm (*νεκράβατος*), through which its waters find a subterraneous vent. Mantinea had eight

temples, besides a theatre, stadium, hippodrome, and several other monuments enumerated by Pausanias (*Arctia*, ch. 8-11.) Some imperfect remains of the theatre are still visible, but no other ancient building can be identified; and every thing, except the enclosing walls, is in a state of total dissipation. (*Dodwell*, ii. 223.)

But Mantinea is wholly indebted for its long-continued celebrity to the great battle fought in its vicinity, *anno* 362 a. c., between the forces of Sparta and Thebes, and their allies; in which Epaminondas, the leader of the Thebans, and the most illustrious, perhaps, of all the warriors of Greece, fell in the moment of victory. Xenophon is very brief in his account of the battle; but it may be collected from his statement that, on the whole, the plan of the Theban general succeeded in all its parts. The charge of the Theban and Thessalian cavalry, which commenced the attack, was completely successful, and prepared for the deeper impression made by the column of Theban and Arcadian infantry. But, in the critical moment, when the phalanx of the Lacedæmonians had been broken, and a decisive victory appeared to be secured, Epaminondas received a mortal wound; and, being carried to a rising ground, whence he might view the scene of combat, would not allow the weapon to be extracted till assured that the victory had been won, when he almost immediately expired. But his fall, and the consternation thence arising, paralysed the successful army. They kept the ground they had gained, but did little or nothing more. Hence it was that the result of this great contest disappointed the expectations of those who had supposed that it would be decisive of the fate of Greece. "The Gods," says Xenophon, "decided otherwise. Each party claimed the victory, and neither gained any advantage; territory, town, and dominion was acquired by neither; but indecision, trouble, and confusion, more than ever before prevailed throughout Greece." (*Acro. Hæd.* i. vii. c. 8. *ad. facem*.) This, however, is the statement of a partisan of Sparta, and is not quite fair. The Theban confederacy was, on the whole, decidedly successful. They effectually broke the power and humbled the pride of Sparta; and, by re-establishing the independence of the Mædonians, the old and inveterate enemies of the Lacedæmonians, they obtained a new guarantee against any dangerous increase of their power in future. (*See Milford's Greece*, sect. viii. cap. 28.)

Mantineia was taken and sacked by Antigonus during the wars of the Achaean league; and its name was changed, in honour of the conqueror, to Antigonia, which it retained till the time of Adrian, who restored its original appellation.

MANTUA (Ital. *Mantova*), a fortified town of Austrian Italy, prov. Lombardy, cap. deleg. Mantua, on both sides the Mincio, 31 m. S.S.W. Verona, and 37 m. E. by N. Cremona; lat. $45^{\circ} 9' 16''$ N.; long. $10^{\circ} 49' 10''$ E. Pop., in 1837, 26,263. Its situation is peculiar, being in fact nearly surrounded by lakes, partly natural, and partly formed by damming up the waters of the river. The mounds, or dams constructed for this purpose, are sometimes called bridges, from their being perforated with arches, to allow the superfluous water to escape; and by these the town is connected with the *Borgo di Portesze*, or strong citadel of Porto on the N., and with the *Borgo di San Giorgio*. The latter, as well as the town itself, is surrounded by strong walls; to the S.E. is the outwork of Pradelta, and to the S. the fortified island of Cereso, or T. from its alleged resemblance to that letter. The fortifications, though not imposing in their appearance, are very strong, and kept in excellent order; and their strength and the position of the place render it one of the bulwarks of Italy. Mantua has some good streets and squares, but, on the whole, it is ill-built and dirty. Many of the inhab. live in cellars, its pop. has declined, and it has a decayed appearance. Its best part is the Piazza Virgiliana, a large square, surrounded with trees, and open to the lake. The climate is subject to great extremes, and in summer the exhalations from the surrounding swamps make it very unhealthy; though, of late years, the Austrian government has exerted itself, by draining part of the marshes, and opening a passage for the stagnant waters, to lessen its insalubrity. Several of the public edifices in Mantua were designed or adorned by Giulio Romano. But the cathedral, planned by that great artist, is said by Woods to be a bad imitation of the church of Santa Maria Maggiore, at Rome; it has double ranges of side isles, and the columns stand very wide apart. The church of St. Andrea, begun in 1470, but not completed till 1782, was designed by Alberti, and is said by Woods to be very superior to the cathedral, and to be, indeed, one of the handsomest churches in Italy: it has fine statues of Faith and Hope, by Canova. The old ducal palace (*Palazzo Vecchio*) is a large imposing building; and, were it perfect, would be one of the finest palaces in Europe. It is beautifully strewed with porcelains, and was formerly splendidly adorned with Flemish and Mantuan tapestry and rich

furniture; and, though repeatedly despoiled, it has still to boast of a room painted in fresco, by G. Romano. But the most celebrated fresco of Romano, "the Fall of the Giants," is in the palace of the T. At the extremity of one of the bridges is a handsome gateway, attributed to Romano, who also erected the open arcade on the bridge over the Mincio, in the heart of the city. Romano inhabited a house opposite the church of St. Barnabas, in which is his tomb. There are numerous convents, a Jews' synagogue, a civil hospital, two orphan asylums, a *monte-di-pieta*, a workhouse, an asylum for 50 poor Jews, an arsenal, cavalry barracks, a large prison, a new and a summer theatre, an imperial academy of arts and sciences, a lyceum, a gymnasium, a public library with 60,000 vols. and many MSS., attached to which are a museum and a fine gallery of sculpture, which has a celebrated bust of Virgil, a botanic garden, and various other scientific and literary institutions. Mantua is a bishop's see, the residence of an Austrian delegate, and the seat of the council, and civil, criminal, and commercial tribunals for the delegation. In the days of her prosperity, and when governed by her own dukes, Mantua is said to have had a pop. of 50,000, and extensive manufactures; and, though the latter be greatly fallen off, she still produces limited quantities of silk, woolen, and linen fabrics, with leather, parchment, paper, cordage, &c., and carriages, and bows for the navigation of the Po. Mantua is very ancient, her foundation being probably antecedent to that of Rome. She derives her principal celebrity from her being the native country of Virgil, that great poet having been born in her immediate vicinity, *anno* 70 a. c.

Mantua Mantuan domus, statue ad sidera cœna
Evecta Adria, et Mantuanis amula plebs.
Silvæ Italicæ, lib. viii. lin. 385.

Mantua appears, from the contrast, in the first Eclogue, between her and Rome, not to have been a place of much importance in Virgil's time; and Martial applies to her the epithet of *pœvra*. (*Ep.* xiv. 193.) Her unlucky vicinity to Cremona made her territory be divided among the veterans of Augustus. (*See* art. *Canossa*, in this work.)

After the conquest of N. Italy by Charlemagne, Mantua became a republic, and continued under that form of government till the 13th century, when the Gonzaga family acquired the supreme direction of its affairs. They were subsequently raised to the title of dukes, and held possession of Mantua till 1707, when it was taken by the Austrians. Under the French, it was the cap. of the dep. of the Mincio. (*Forcath*; *Essence*; *Woods*; *Okenerr. Nat. Ess.*, &c.)

MANZANARES, a town of Spain, prov. La Mancha, 94 m. E. by N. Ciudad Real, and 100 m. S. Madrid. Pop. 9,100. It stands in the loftiest and bleakest part of the prov., on the high road between Madrid and Seville; being, according to Ingis, "a place of considerable size, and proportionate poverty." A par. church of Gothic architecture, a castle, hospital, and cavalry barracks are the only public buildings; the private houses are better built than in most towns of Spain. The inhab. are chiefly employed in the production of saffron, for which the neighbourhood is celebrated, and of the *Vino de Peris* wine, highly esteemed all over Castile; the only other branches of industry being the manufacture of coarse woollens and linens for home supply. Not far from Manzanares are the ruined walls and tower of the ancient *Murus*; a city described, in Antonine's *Itinerary*, as being on the road from *Leminium* (Alhambra) to *Toletum* (Toledo).

MANZARES, a small river of Spain, tributary to the Tagus, and flowing by MADRID, which see.

MARACAYBO, MARACAIBO, or NUEVA ZAMORA, a fortified city of Venezuela, cap. dep. Zulia, and prov. Maracaybo, on the W. shore of the strait connecting the lake of Maracaybo with the sea, 175 m. S.E. Santa Marta, and 330 m. W. by N. La Guayra. Lat. $10^{\circ} 29' 29''$ N., long. $71^{\circ} 45' 40''$ W. In 1801, its pop., including a number of Spanish refugees from St. Domingo, was estimated at 24,000; and it may still, perhaps, amount to 30,000. It stands on an arid and sandy soil, partly on the shore of a small inlet of the strait, and partly on a tongue of land which projects into it. Several of its houses are built of a compound of lime and sand, without stone, but they are nearly all thatched with reeds; and, at the greater number consist wholly of reeds and straw, the town has a mean appearance, and is very subject to fires. A handsome par. church, a chapel, a Franciscan convent, and an hospital, are the only public buildings of which modern travellers make mention. The harbour of Maracaybo, within the bar at the entrance of the straits, has deep water; and is defended by the 3 castles of San Carlos, Zapara, and Bajo Seco, situated on the islands of the same names, among the shoals forming the bar. The *Bajo Seco*, or dry shoal, is in advance of the other islands; and the best channel to the harbour, on the N. W. side, has 13 f. water. The climate of Maracaybo is oppressively hot; during a part of the year water is scarce;

and in the summer, when violent thunder-storms and earthquakes occur, the city often suffers greatly from very heavy rains. This port has superior facilities for ship-building, and its shipwrights have produced some fine schooners. A brisk traffic is carried on with the interior by the numerous vessels which navigate the lake. The inhabs. are said to be good sailors, and they have generally a taste for a sea-faring life. Many, however, devote themselves to the care of cattle, large herds of which are reared in the vicinity. (*Geog. &c. Account of Colombia*, i. 217-225.; *Mod. Trav.* xvii.; *Encyc. Amer.*; *Encyc. of Geog.*, American ed.)

MARACAYBO (LAKE or LAGOON OF), a large lake, or inlet of the sea, in the N. part of S. America, repub. Venezuela, dep. Zulia, prov. Maracaybo. It extends between lat. $9^{\circ} 5'$ and $10^{\circ} 30'$ N., and long. 71° and $73^{\circ} 30'$ W., and is of an oval, or rather "decanter-like" shape; communicating, at its N. extremity, with the Gulph of Maracaybo, by a strait nearly 20 m. in length, and varying in breadth from 5 to 10 m. Length of the lake, N. to S., nearly 100 m.; greatest breadth, about 70 m.; circ. probably about 280 m. Inside it has water enough to float the largest vessels; and, being easily navigated, a great area for the conveyance to Maracaybo of the produce of the interior intended for consumption in, or exportation from, that city. But a shifting bar, at the mouth of its strait, where it unites with the sea, in lat. $11^{\circ} 2'$, having only 14 ft. water, renders it inaccessible to large ships. It receives several considerable rivers, so that its waters are perfectly fresh, sweet, and fit for drinking, except in the spring, when strong N. winds impel inwards a swell from the gulph, which renders them brackish. The lake is not very subject to violent tempests. It abounds with fish and waterfowl; but tortoises, elsewhere so common in Colombia, are not met with in it. Its banks are in many parts sterile, and only cultivated on the W. side; and they are, in general, so unhealthy, that the Indians prefer mounting their huts on iron-wood posts in the water, to fixing them on the shore. It was from the Indian villages or towns, built in this way, that the whole country is said to have derived from the Spaniards the name of Venezuela, or Little Venice. Four of these towns are still standing on the E. part of the lake, at unequal distances from each other; the iron-wood on which they are founded having become a mass of stone, from the petrifying quality of the water. (*Geog. Account of Colombia*, i. 215, 217.)

Towards the N.E. border of the lake is a remarkable mine of asphaltum (*pix montana*); "the bituminous vapours of which are so easily inflamed that, during the night, phosphoric fires are continually seen, which, in their effect, resemble lightning. It is remarked that they are more frequent in great heat than in cool weather. They go by the name of the 'Lantern of Maracaybo,' because they serve for light-house and compass to the Spaniards and Indians, who, without the assistance of either, navigate the lake." (*Depos. Trav.* i. 70.; *Mod. Trav.* xxvii. 209-211.; *Geog. Account of Colombia*; *Blunt's American Coast Pilot*.)

MARAGA (an. *Gamarag*), a city of Persia, prov. Azerbijan, 50 m. S. by W. Tabreez, and 305 m. W.N.W. Teheran. Pop. about 15,000. It is a well-built walled town, in a low valley, at the extremity of a fertile plain, opening to the lake Urumea, which lies 10 m. W. Maraga. The chief buildings are a large and handsome bazaar, spacious public baths, and the tomb of Holaku, one of the most able princes of the dynasty of Jenghiz-khan. Maraga is also celebrated for its beautiful and highly productive gardens and plantations, watered by canals drawn from a small river, over which are two bridges, erected in the 11th century. The town has a large manufactory of glass; but the inhab. are chiefly employed in the cultivation of the fertile country round the town.

On the top of a mountain rising behind Maraga are the remains of an observatory, built by Holaku, for the use of Nazer-A-Deen, one of the most famous Oriental astronomers; and at the foot of the hill are several cave-temples, similar in form though not equal either in size or beauty, to those of Hindostan. (*Kameli's Persia*, p. 166, &c.)

MARANHAM, or SAN LUIS, a city and sea-port of N. Brasil, cap. of the prov. Maranhon, on the W. coast of the island of the same name, in the bay of Marcos, 300 m. E. by S. Para. Lat. $2^{\circ} 31'$ $30''$ S., long. $44^{\circ} 16'$ W. The inhab. are variously estimated at from 12,000 to 80,000, of which a large proportion are negroes. The city is built on unequal ground, extending inwards about 1½ m. from the water's edge. It is laid out in a straggling manner, with numerous squares and broad streets, the latter being only partially paved. There are many neat and good-looking houses; the better sort consist of a ground floor, and a story above; the lower part being usually employed as a shop, and lodging for servants, and the upper as the apartments of the family. These houses have mostly balconies, and are handsomely fitted

up. In the poorer and unpaved streets the houses consist of only a ground floor, and having thatched roofs and unglazed windows, their appearance is extremely mean and shabby. Adjoining the shore is an open space, one side of which is nearly taken up with the governor's palace, town-hall, and prison, which occupy a long, uniform, and handsome stone building, of one story in height; another of its sides is occupied by the cathedral. This, which was formerly the Jesuit's church, is said to be the finest of any in the maritime cities of Brazil, except that of Para. The Jesuits' college is now the episcopal palace. There are a great number of other churches and convents, a treasury, two hospitals, various public schools, and a custom-house, which, though small, was till recently quite large enough for the business of the place. Latterly, however, its commercial importance has been much increased; and it is the principal port of the empire for the shipment of cotton and rice; the other articles of export consist principally of hides and horns, catouchou, lainglass, sarsaparilla, cocoa, &c. We subjoin an

ACCOUNT of the Number and Tonnage of the Ships which cleared out from the port of Maranhon in 1837 and 1838, specifying the Countries to which they belonged, and the Value of the Cargoes:—

Countries.	1837.			1838.		
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value of Cargoes.
British	18	6,091	214,493L.	23	7,035	196,807L.
Brazilian	54	1,484	173	37	4,545	92,212
Portuguese	19	5,896	57,257	17	3,905	42,516
Spanish	16	5,104	54,971	11	866	21,983
French	10	2,100	2,061	6	683	5,505
American	10	1,887	2,717	4	729	3,005
Belgian	1	119	5,252	3	306	5,158
Hamburg	2	376	1,764	4	472	1,106
Danish	2	184	2,468	1	819	
Sardinian	-	-	-	1	207	
Prussian	-	-	-	1	207	
Total	132	23,541	386,753	108	19,166	308,552

We have no authentic information as to the Importation of slaves into Maranhon; but there can be no doubt it is very considerable, and may, perhaps, be estimated at above 8,000 a year.

The harbour of Maranhon is rather difficult of access. It is usual for vessels arriving on the coast to make the light-house on the island of St. Anna, about 40 m. N.E. Maranhon. The harbour of the latter consists of a narrow creek, defended by some indifferent forts. It is so beset with shoals and islets, as to render a pilot always necessary, but with such there is no real danger. It has about 18 ft. water at low ebb; but it is said to be filling up, and that the probability is that the port will, at no very distant period, be transferred to Alcantara, on the opposite side of the bay. The latter, indeed, is in all respects a preferable port, being more easily accessible, having deeper water, and greater facilities for getting to sea. The island of Maranhon is fertile, and densely peopled; having a number of villages, which uniformly consist of four large timber huts, from 300 to 500 paces in length, and about 30 or 30 ft. in depth, each capable of accommodating from 200 to 300 inhab. This city was founded by the French in the early part of the 17th century. (See BRAZIL, in this Dict.; *Mod. Trav.* xxx. 279, 281.; *Encyc. Americana*; *Blunt's American Pilot*, &c. p. 515.)

MARAZION, or MARKET-JEW, a decayed bor., sea-port, market-town, and township of England, St. Hilary par., co. Cornwall, E. div. of hund. Penwith, 43 m. S.S.W. Bodmin, and 252 m. W. by S. London. Pop., 1,263. It is situated on the shore of St. Mount's Bay, on the side of a hill, which shelters it from the cold N. winds. The par. church is 3 m. distant; but it has a chapel of ease, and places of worship for Wesleyan-Methodists and other dissenters. An endowed school is held in the guildhall; a national school and three Sunday school for female instruction to the children of the poor; and there are a few charities. Its principal trade consists in the importation of timber, coal, and iron, for the supply of the town and neighbouring mines. The market, held on Saturday, is well supplied, especially with ready-made shoes; and 2 large cattle fairs are held 2d Thursday in Lent and Sept. 29.

Though a bor. by subscription, this town was chartered by Queen Elizabeth; the corporate officers being a mayor and 8 aldermen, with 12 cap. burgesses, whose privileges were not interfered with by the late Mun. Reform Act. It is supposed to have sent members to the H. of C. at a former period, but certainly not subsequently to 1656. Its name, Market-Jew, has been supposed to be derived from its having been, in the period of its prosperity, a great trading place for the Jews, but the presumption is unsupported by history; and it appears more rational to conclude that it is a corruption of its ancient name Marghasson, or Marghaslewe.

MARBELLA (an. *Siduban*), a sea-port town of Spain, in Andalusia, prov. Malaga, 30 m. S.W. Malaga, and 36 m. N.E. Gibraltar. Pop., acc. to Miñano, 4,362. "It stands slightly elevated above the sea; and its turreted walls and narrow streets declare it to be thoroughly Moorish. The town is particularly clean, and respectably inhabited; the fishing portion of the pop. being located more conveniently for their occupation, in a large suburb on its E. side." A church, two hospitals, and an old Moorish castle, are its principal public buildings. The trade of Marbella is only trifling: its valuable mines of lead and iron, which formerly secured for it a certain degree of prosperity, have been for many years totally abandoned, its sugar-refinery and tan-yards have disappeared, and fishing now forms the chief occupation of the inhabs. There is no harbour, but vessels find excellent holding-ground, in deep water, near the shore. The landing also is good, on a fine hard sand; and a small pier has lately been constructed. (*Scott's Ronda and Granada*, li. 578.)

MARBURG, a town of Hesse Cassel, cap. circ. Upper Hesse, on the Lahn, a tributary of the Rhine, 50 m. S. W. Cassel, and 98 m. N.E. by E. Coblenz; lat. 50° 45' 41" N., long. 8° 49' 12" E. Pop., incl. the suburb of Weidenhausen, on the opposite bank of the Lahn, 7,700. It is built on the slope of a hill, crowned by a ruined castle; and has narrow and dirty streets, and indifferent houses. Its only building worth notice is the church of St. Elizabeth, an elegant edifice, and one of the earliest existing specimens of the pointed Gothic style, having been commenced in 1230, and finished within the succeeding 48 years. The tomb of St. Elizabeth, in this church, has been long resorted to by pilgrims, and was formerly adorned with numerous gems and articles of value, mostly carried off by the French in 1810. In the transept are several curious monuments of the Landgraves of Hesse. The university of Marburg, founded in 1527, has 40 professors, and a good library of 70,000 vols. In 1833, it was attended by 422 students, but, in 1840, the number of pupils had declined to 185. Marburg has also the Wilhelm's Institute, a school of surgery; and a philological seminary, teachers' seminary, botanic garden, school of veterinary medicine, Lutheran and Catholic orphan asylums, a workhouse, a free-school of industry, &c. The inhabs. derive their principal support from the university, and from the manufacture of linen fabrics, stockings, hats, tobacco, and tobacco-pipes, &c. It is the seat of the chief judicial and other state establishments for Upper Hesse. (*Bergkows; Strass.*)

MARBURG, a town of the Austrian empire, being next to Grätz, the principal in the prov. of Styria, cap. circ. on the Drave, and on the road from Grätz to Laybach, 36 m. S.E. the former city. Pop., in 1837, 4,376. Mr. Turnbull says, it is "a good town, and surrounded by a beautiful country, richly planted with vines. The climate here is far more congenial to their growth than on the N. side of the hills, and excellent wine is produced." (*Trav. i. 379.*) Near it, the Archduke John has a vineyard and villa; and Marburg has three suburbs, an old castle, a church, in which are several good pictures, an hospital, theatre, gymnasium, military school, swimming school, &c. It is the seat of the council for the circ., furnishes leather and rosoglio, and has some trade in corn, wine, and iron; but its inhabs. derive their chief subsistence from the active transit trade between Hungary and Croatia and Illyria. (*Turnbull's Austria; Bergkows; Oesterr. Nat. Encycl.*)

MARCH, a market-town, township, and par. of England, belonging to Doddington par. Isle of Ely, hund. Wichford, on the Old Nen, 13 m. N.W. Ely, and 74 m. N. London. Area of township, 20,440 acres. Pop., in 1831, 3,117. Excepting the church, which is large and handsome, the town contains nothing worthy of remark; the streets being generally narrow, and the houses, for the most part, low and meanly built. Its situation on the Nen, which is navigable, makes it the centre of a considerable trade; corn, hemp, flax, cheese, &c., being shipped here; and coal, timber, and London goods imported. Markets on Friday; fairs, Monday before Whitsuntide, First-Monday, and 3d Tuesday in Oct., chiefly for horses, cattle, and cheese.

MARENGO, a village of N. Italy, Sardinian States, near the Bormida, in an extensive plain, 31 m. E. by S. Alexandria. This village will be ever memorable for the great battle fought here, on the 14th of June, 1800, between the French under Napoleon, and the Austrians under Melas. Napoleon, believing that the Austrians had withdrawn from the neighbourhood of Marengo, had, on the day previously to the battle, despatched Desaix with a strong corps to Rivolta. By this means, his army was reduced, when attacked by the Austrians on the following morning, to little more than 20,000 men, whereas the Austrians had nearly 40,000 troops in the field. The contest was most obstinate and bloody; but, despite a desperate resistance, the Austrians carried the village of Marengo, broke the left wing of the French,

and compelled them to retreat. But, at this critical moment, when the fate of the day appeared all but decided, Desaix, who had returned by a forced march, came upon the field. This gave the French new strength, and inspired them with new courage. The Austrians, exhausted by their previous efforts, were immediately attacked at all points, forced back, and completely defeated, with the loss of all their cannon and baggage, and of a vast number of men left dead on the field and taken prisoners. Desaix, whose opportune arrival turned the fortune of the day, was killed, charging at the head of his division.

MARGARITA, an island off the N. coast of S. America, belonging to the repub. of Venezuela, and attached to the dep. Cumana. It lies in about lat. 11° N., and long. 69° W., separated from the continent by a channel, 30 m. in width, through which all ships coming from Europe, or windward of Cumana, Barcelona, or La Guayra, must pass in going to those ports. Length of the island, E. to W., 37½ m.; breadth varying from 8 to 30 m. Pop. estimated at 15,000. Viewed at a short distance from the N. it appears like two islands, there being a tract of low swampy land in its centre, which is in some parts not more than from 10 to 13 ft. above the level of the sea; but other parts of the island rise to a considerable elevation; and Maracano, near its W. extremity, a mountain of basaltic schist, is upwards of 2,000 ft. in height. The coast-lands are arid and barren, but the interior is comparatively fertile, producing maize, bananas, and various fruits, with sugar, coffee, cocoa, and other W. Indian products, though not in sufficient quantities for the demands of the inhab. A good deal of poultry, and other live stock, is reared, and exported to the continent; and Margarita has an active fishery, and some salt-works. It was formerly much celebrated for its pearl-fishery; but this has greatly declined, and the pearls now found are said to be of inferior size and quality. The pearl-fishery was principally conducted at the rocky island of Coche, between Margarita and the main land. The inhabs. have some manufactures of cotton stockings and hammocks, of very good quality. Assumption, the cap., and residence of the governor, in the centre of the island, is pretty well built. There are three sea-port towns or villages; one of which, Pampatar, on the S.E. coast, has a pretty good harbour, with anchorage in 7 or 8 fathoms water. (*Beaut's American Coast Pilot*, p. 440.) This island, which is of little value in any other point of view, might, were it occupied by a European power, be of considerable service as a depot for the supply of the adjacent continent. It is better situated for such a purpose than Trinidad. It was discovered by Columbus, in 1498. (*Geog. Account of Colombia; Humboldt's Personal Narrative*, &c.)

MARGATE, a sea-port town and much-frequented watering-place of England, co. Kent, in the Isle of Thanet, lathe St. Augustine, 16 m. E.N.E. Canterbury, and 66 m. E. London. Area of par., 3,810 acres. Pop., in 1841, 11,080. The town is finely situated, partly along the shore, and partly on the declivities of two hills, one of which presents a bold cliff towards the sea. The older houses are narrow and irregular, but with a superior-looking houses; but in the upper parts and outskirts of the town are several handsome streets and squares formed by houses which for size and regularity of construction would not disgrace the metropolis. The whole is well paved, lighted with gas, and plentifully supplied with good water. The town-hall and market-house is a plain but substantial building of recent erection, supported on cast-iron pillars, and fronted by a Tuscan portico. The assembly-rooms in Cecil Square have long ranked among the largest and most elegant in England; a neat theatre stands on the E. side of Hawley Square, where also is a large public library. Numerous bathing-houses line one side of High Street, and near the Parade E. of the town, is a very complete establishment formed in the cliff, and furnishing hot and cold baths of a very superior description. There are two churches; one an old heavy-looking building, with a low square tower; the other at the opposite side of the town being a very handsome modern Gothic structure, with a light octagonal tower, built at an expense of 36,000. The R. Catholics, Independents, Baptists, and Society of Friends have each their respective places of worship, to which are attached well-attended Sunday-schools. A national school furnishes instruction to about 250 boys and 180 girls, and there are 2 other large day-schools. Drapers' almshouses, founded in 1709, a dispensary, and lying-in charity, are the principal charitable institutions; and in the immediate vicinity, close to the beach, is a large sea-bathing infirmary, founded in 1793, and since so much enlarged as to furnish accommodation for about 130 patients. The harbour dries at low water. To obviate this defect a stone pier, projecting 800 ft. into the sea, was erected from the designs of the late John Rennie; still, however, this was insufficient for the purpose, there not being more than from 2 to 5 ft. water at the pier head at low ebb. Since 1824, however, a wooden jetty, con-

nected with the pier, has been constructed, which projects into deep water, and may be approached by steamers or other vessels at any time of the tide, except when it blows a gale from the N. or N.N.E. The pier is a favourite promenade for the town's folk and visitors.

Margate enjoys a considerable coasting trade, and has some commerce with Holland and Germany; but neither these nor its fishery are of any importance compared with the advantages that accrue to it from the thousands of visitors who annually resort thither from the metropolises. The town, indeed, like many others, owes its present importance to the invention of steam; for though prior to 1817 it was a respectable and well-frequented watering-place, the means of access to London were so difficult and tedious, that none but those who could afford a week or two of uninterrupted leisure were ever induced to visit it. But within the last fifteen years the water-communication with London has been so greatly facilitated, that Margate may now be considered as within five or six hours of the metropolis. Several handsome steamers ply regularly between London bridge and Margate; and for some years past the number of persons landed from these steamers at Margate is supposed to have averaged above 90,000 a year. The fares being extremely reasonable, Margate is frequented chiefly by the families of tradesmen and others belonging to the middle classes, for whose amusement there are numerous bazaars, libraries, &c., with the Tivoli Gardens, in the suburbs, very similar to the well-known, but now extinct, Vauxhall of London. Great numbers of persons engaged in business during the week join their families here late on the Saturday, returning to London early on the Monday morning; and it is from the flying visitors that the steam-packet companies derive their chief revenue.

Margate is within the jurisdiction of Dover, by the lord-warden of which the constable of the town is appointed; and as a port, it is subordinate to Ramsgate. It is the chief place of a poor-law union, comprising all the par. in the Isle of Thanet.

MARIA-THERESIANOPOL, or THERESIEN-STADT (Hungar. *Szabotka*), a royal free town of Hungary, co. Bacs, in the great plain between the Danube and Theiss, 25 m. S.W. Segedin, and 100 m. S.S. E. Pesth. Pop. said to be about 35,000, chiefly Hungarians and Servians. Its territory, or commune, comprising an area of 300 sq. m., is larger than that of any other town of the Austrian dominions. (*Bergkess.*) The town is surrounded by a wall, and is well built, and has numerous handsome public edifices; including several churches, a gymnasium, large barracks, a town-hall, &c. It has manufactures of linen cloth, leather, and tobacco, and a large trade in horses, cattle, sheep, raw hides, and wool.

MARIANNA, an episcopal city of Brazil, prov. Minas Geraes, of which it is the cap., on the Carmo, a tributary of the Doce, 8 m. E.N.E. Villa Rica. Its pop., in 1822, was estimated at from 6,000 to 7,000. (*Mace's Brazil*, 258.) It stands on a small plain, bounded by rocky hills, the small knolls, and projections of which are crowned by its churches. The city itself is nearly square, and consists principally of two well-paved streets, regularly laid out, and conducting to a kind of square. The houses are whitened, and have a neat appearance. The supply of water is ample, and is of material importance in the cultivation of several extensive gardens; but, being surrounded by lofty eminences, the air is close and hot, and the town unhealthy. There are several churches and a large cathedral. The Carmelite and Franciscan convents, the ecclesiastical college, which has sundry privileges, the bishop's palace surrounded with fine gardens, and the town-hall, are among the other chief public buildings. It has very little trade, and depends chiefly on the mines and farms in its vicinity. (*Mace's Brazil*; *Dict. Géog.*)

MARIAZELL, or MARIANZELL, a village of the Austrian empire, prov. Styria, in a mountainous district, about 55 m. S.W. Vienna. Pop. about 1,000. It would be unworthy notice in a work of this kind, but for its celebrated shrine of the Virgin, which renders it the "Loretto" of the Austrian empire, and a principal place of Christian pilgrimage. The town, which stands at an elevation of about 2,200 ft. above the sea, is small and mean-looking; and consists principally of inns and ale-houses for the accommodation of the visitors, the influx of which only ceases when the roads are impassable by snow. The only building of note is the church, rebuilt, since 1827, on the site of one erected in 1363, by Louis I., king of Hungary, over the chapel, in which the image of the Virgin is placed. The church, as it now stands, is of Roman architecture, except the porch, which is Gothic. It is a spacious edifice, 286 English ft. by 59 inside, and is surmounted by a spire, 275 ft. in height. Some of the side altars and chapels are handsomely decorated; but its principal object of curiosity and devotion is the small stone chapel, erected by a margrave of Moravia, in 1202, instead of the wooden hut in which the

Gnaden Statue, 'Statue of Grace,' had stood from about 1150, when it was luckily brought thither by a Benedictine monk. This image, like that of Loretto, is ascribed to St. Luke; and, like it also, is but an indifferent specimen of the apostle's skill in statuary. It is a rudely-carved wooden figure, only 18 in. in height, representing the Virgin, with the Saviour on her knee. Both are as splendid as brocade, gold, gems, and bad taste can make them; their faces are of a negro hue; the effect, perhaps, in part, of the smoke of the solitary lamp kept constantly burning in the dark and gloomy recess in which they are cooped up. The altar and other decorations of the shrine are said to be of solid silver, and the chapel is surrounded by a costly fence of the same metal. A thousand acres of land were assigned for the support of the church; and its treasury was very rich previously to the reign of Joseph II., having received many valuable donations from preceding sovereigns, princes, and private individuals. But Joseph, though he succeeded to the dominions of his mother, inherited none of her superstition: unmoved by the sanctity of the place, he did not hesitate to strip the shrine of the greater portion of its wealth; and profanely threw the silver angels that guarded the high altar, and even the figures of the father and mother, into the melting-pot! The present emperor and empress have, however, made a propitiatory visit to the cell; and have endeavoured, by their pious liberality, to atone, in some measure, for the sacrilegious depredations of their less scrupulous predecessor.

The ecclesiastical establishment of Mariazell consists of about 30 resident priests, deputed from the Abbey of St. Lambrecht, who here form a kind of subsidiary Benedictine college, under a pro-rector. During half the year all find abundant employment among the penitents, who arrive here from all parts of the empire. Shortly after the erection of the church, the pope granted the same indulgences to the shrine of Mariazell, as were attached to St. Peter's at Rome; and thenceforward it became crowded with pilgrims. Previously to the reign of Joseph, the pilgrims are stated to have amounted to about 100,000 annually; and it is alleged that, at the celebration of the 16th jubilee of the miraculous image, in 1787, no fewer than 380,000 individuals did homage to the sable Maria! We confess, however, that we do not attach implicit credit to this statement; but it is, at all events, certain that the number was very great. The *Austrian Encyclopedia* says that the shrine is, at present, annually visited by 100,000 pilgrims; and, according to Mr. Turnbull, the number is fully 80,000. (*Austrian*, i. 196.) It is customary for the pilgrims from different places to set out together; and formerly, it was no unusual circumstance for a band of pilgrims from one province or city to have a contest for precedence with those from another; so that disturbances, which frequently ended in bloodshed, were perpetually occurring. The government has however put an end to these unseemly brawls, by ordering that the pilgrimages from different places should take place at different times. Accordingly, most of the towns of any importance in Upper and Lower Austria, Styria, Bohemia, and Moravia, and some in the W. parts of Hungary, have their stated days on which the devotees assemble, and form their processions of plety and pleasure after the manner described by Chaucer in his Canterbury Tales. In all, about 80 processions take place annually from different parts of the empire. Vienna furnishes 4 distinct parties, 3 in June or July, and one in August; the last, which is also the largest, generally consists of about 3,000 persons of both sexes, and all ages, travelling chiefly on foot, and performing the journey in days. In their progress they are jumbled together without any regularity, until they come within about a mile of the shrine. Here they halt; and some hours are generally occupied in marshalling the confused assemblage into regular devotional order. Banners are unfurled; sacred emblems exposed to view; the maidens and youths are placed in the van of the procession, after whom follow the elder pilgrims, male and female, in distinct parties; and thus they advance to the church, by slow and measured steps, stopping at certain appointed stations on the way, and chanting in their native tongues, whatever it may be, some one of the litanies, in general chorus. Arriving by thousands in a day, they fill to suffocation every inn and house of accommodation within the town; but the larger portion are, notwithstanding, obliged to bivouac in the fields around; where they spend the night in jollity, drinking and singing songs, which are frequently of a kind not especially suited for virgin ears. (*Turnbull*, i. 197—199; *Russel*.) It is needless to add, that by far the largest proportion of those who join these processions are but little influenced by religious motives. The enlightened portion of the community despise them as miserable nummeries; and the motley crowd principally consists of the ignorant, the idle, the frolicsome, and the profligate. They are, in fact, an outrage upon religion and morality.

The holy image has been but an indifferent protectress of the village of Marianszell. Six times has it been destroyed by fire, and its pop. temporarily reduced to ruin. The last conflagration occurred in 1837; when the roof and towers of the church were destroyed, and out of 111 houses, only 30 escaped. The inhabitants are generally poor. They depend principally on the supply of necessaries, and of rosaries, tapers, relics, and such like articles, to the pilgrims.

The iron-foundries, 2 or 3 m. distant from Marianszell, are the most important of the Austrian empire. Every species of casting is executed in them, from the largest cannon and steam-engines, down to trinkets, which are sold to rival those of Berlin. Marianszell has also some copper and sulphur works; a great deal of timber is sent from its neighbourhood, to Vienna and the Black Sea. (*Gerstner, Nat. Ence. ; Thurnell's Austria*, i. 185, 189; *Germany and the Germans*, ii. 391-395; *Horschmann's Strin. &c.*; *Russell*, p. 346-354.)

MARIE-GALANTE, one of the French W. India Islands. (See *GUADALOUPE*.)

MARIENBURG, a town of the Prussian dom., prov. W. Prussia, cap. circ. Marienburg, on the Nogat, an arm of the Vistula, here crossed by a bridge of boats, 27 m. S.E. Danzig. Pop. (1846) 6,600. This little town is chiefly interesting as having been the seat of the grand masters of the Teutonic Order for nearly two centuries. To the S.E. of the town, and on the summit of a small hill, 50 ft. above the level of the Nogat, and an equal number of feet from the bank of the river, stand the ruins of the Teutonic Castle, so often mentioned in the history of chivalrous times. The whole mass is at once imposing and picturesque, bespeaking the grandeur of its former occupants, and the purposes to which it was destined.

Most probably this castle had been commenced towards the end of the 12th, or the beginning of the 13th, century. In 1281 it was greatly enlarged, by the addition of that part which was afterwards known as the Old Castle; and, about the same time, the residence of the grand master was transferred to Marienburg from Venice. Succeeding grand masters built the middle and lower castle (erected, according to Zedlitz, chiefly between 1306 and 1309), and the church of Notre-Dame, in the immediate vicinity, which is still in existence, and forms a very prominent feature in the landscape of these ruins. In 1544, the Old Castle was burnt to the ground; but the rest of the building escaped; and, after undergoing many vicissitudes, was put in complete repair by the present king of Prussia, when crown prince. It comprises a chapel, in which are numerous monuments of the grand masters, cells of the knight-monks, with their halls, dormitories, refectory, subterranean caverns, chapter-house, &c., in tolerable preservation. The chapter-house, by far the most interesting part of the edifice, is a large square apartment, with 20 windows, displaying the arms of the successive grand masters in stained glass. (*Gravelle's Tour to Petersburg*, i. 341, 342.) An antiquated tower, called the *Buttermilchthurm*, and some singular water-mills in the neighbourhood, are among the other curiosities of the town. It has a Roman Cath. and a Calvinist church, a teachers' seminary, a deaf and dumb school, and numerous other schools; a workhouse, hospital, &c. It is the seat of the council for the circ.; and has manufactories of woollen and cotton cloths, stockings, and hats; various breweries, distilleries, and tanneries, and some trade in corn and timber. Marienburg fell into the hands of the Poles by their conquest of the Teutonic knights, in 1457, and was ceded to Prussia at the treaty of Thorn, in 1466. (*Zedlitz, Der Preuss. Staat ; Berghaus*.)

MARIENWERDER (Slav. *Kwidzin*), a town of the Prussian dom., prov. W. Prussia, cap. of the gov. and circ. of Marienwerder, on the Little Nogat, a tributary of the Vistula, 44 m. S.E. E. Danzig, and 54 m. N.N.E. Thorn. Pop., in 1846, 7,600. It stands on elevated ground, is well-built, and has 4 suburbs. Its cathedral, erected in the 13th century, has a steeple 170 ft. in height; and in its interior are the tombs of many church dignitaries and grand masters of the Teutonic order, and some curious mosaics. What remains of the old castle is now appropriated to the judicial courts for the circle and town, and a school of arts. Marienwerder is the seat of the head court of justice, the provincial court, and of the provincial council, and agricultural union for W. Prussia. It has a gymnasium, a royal school of agriculture, a school for the improvement of neglected children, an hospital for blind soldiers, to which is attached the *Louiseum*, an institution for the blind widows of soldiers, a large printing establishment, &c. It has, however, few manufactures, and little trade, except in retail; the inhabs. being principally employed in the supply of necessaries to the various public establishments. (*Zedlitz ; Der Preussische Staat*, ii. 483, 484.)

MARIGLIANO, a town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Neapolitano, cap. cant., 13 m. N.E. Naples. Pop. estimated at 5,000. It has some ruins, which have been supposed to have formed part of an ancient palace of the Maril.

MARINO (SAN), a town and republic of Italy, under the protection of the Pope; being about the smallest, as well as the most ancient, state in Europe. The territory of the republic, enclosed on all sides by the location of Urbino, in the Papal States, consists of a craggy mountain, about 2,300 ft. high, and some detached hillocks, with 1 town and 4 villages; comprising an area of about 22 sq. m., and a pop. of 7,600. The town stands on the side of the mountain above mentioned, about 15 m. S.W. Rimini, and 26 m. N.N.W. Urbino. Lat. 43° 56' 21", long. 12° 37' 5". Pop., 5,500. It is accessible by only one road, and is irregularly built. It has a principal square, in which is the town-hall; 5 churches, in one of which are the tomb and statue of St. Marino, the founder of the town; 4 convents, and 3 castles. Its inhabs. are chiefly occupied in agriculture and cattle-breeding, or in the manufacture of silk. Most of the wealthy inhabs. of the republic reside in the village of Borgo, at the foot of the hill on which the town is situated.

The legislative powers of the government are vested in a senate, or council, of 60 members, elected for life; 30 from among the nobles; 20 from the citizens, and 20 from the rural pop.; and in a lesser council, or tribunal of appeal, composed of 12 senators. The executive powers belong to *capitani reggenti*, chosen, every 6 months, by the inhabs. at large, and 25 *consiglieri*; the *capitani* preside in the council of 60; and justice is administered by a *commissario*, who must not be a foreigner. Every family is obliged to furnish an individual capable of bearing arms to the military force of the republic, amounting, in all, to between 800 and 900 men; but only about 40 men are ordinarily kept on duty. The state supports an hospital, and 4 superior and 2 elementary schools. Public revenue about 6,000 *scudi* or crowns a-year, which is sufficient to meet the expenditure. The town grew up round a hermitage formed here by an individual of the name of Marino, or Marione, belonging to Delmado, afterwards enrolled in the calendar of saints, in the 8th century; and the insignificance and uninviting character of its territory appear, by making it unworthy of attention, to have enabled it to preserve its independence during the disturbed periods of the dark and middle ages. It was occupied by Caesar Borgia, but for a short period only; and was taken, in 1739, by Cardinal Alberoni; but the pope disavowed the proceeding, and restored San Marino to its privileges. In 1796, Napoleon offered to increase the territory of the republic; but, this being wisely declined, he presented it with 4 pieces of cannon. (*Serristori, Stat. d'Italia ; Addison's Tour in Italy &c.*)

MARKET-BOSWORTH. See *BOSWORTH* (MARKET).

MARKET-DRAYTON, a market-town and par. of England, partly in N. Bradford hund., co. Salop, and partly in N. Pirehill hund. co. Stafford, on the Tern, a trib. of the Severn, 18 m. N.E. Shrewsbury, and 135 m. N.W. London. Area of par., 13,080 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,580. The town, which stands on the W. side of the river, and in the co. Salop, having been recently much improved, is now clean, and well built, with tolerably wide streets. The church, originally built in the reign of Stephen, was all but rebuilt in 1787. There are also places of worship for R. Catholics, Wesleyan Methodists, and Independents, with attached Sunday-schools. The charitable institutions comprise a free school, founded in the reign of Queen Mary, a national school, and a set of almshouses and dispensary, with a few small money bequests. Drayton was formerly a place of more consequence than at present; its market having been among the largest in England, till the formation of the Liverpool and Birmingham Junction Canal gave superior advantages to Stone, in Staffordshire. There are two paper-mills and two horse-hair manufactories close to the town; but most of the inhabitants are engaged either in retail trade or farming pursuits.

Drayton is a bor. by prescription, governed by a mayor and two constables, chosen at a court-leet by the lord of the manor; and petty sessions are held here for the Drayton div. of Salop. Markets on Wednesdays, chiefly for corn; fairs, for horses and farming-stock, Wednesday before Palm-Sunday, Sept. 19, and Oct. 24.

About 1 m. from Drayton, on Sept. 14, a battle was fought between the partisans of the house of York and Lancaster, on the 22d of Sept. 1459. Lord Audley, the Lancastrian general, was slain in the engagement; the spot where he fell being marked by a stone, close to the Newcastle road.

MARKET-HARBOROUGH. See *HARBOROUGH* (MARKET).

MARKET-JEW. See *MARAZON*.

MARKET-RASIN, a small market-town and par. of England, Lindsey div., co. Lincoln, wap. Walshcroft, on the river of its own name, a trib. of the Ancholme, 14½ m. N.E. Lincoln, and 130 m. N. London. Area of par., 1,229 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,023. This town deserves notice, chiefly on account of its large cattle and sheep fairs, which are attended by persons from almost all parts of

the co. The church, an ancient structure, with an embattled tower, has peculiar windows, resembling those of the church at Louth. The living is a vicarage in the gift of the Lord Chancellor. The R. Catholics and Wesleyan Methodists have also their respective places of worship; and its only charities are a free school (now incorporated with the national school, and a set of almshouses. Markets on Tuesdays; and fairs on alternate Tuesdays, between Palm Sunday and Sept. 25. About 14 m. W. Market Rasen is the village of Middle Rasen, remarkable for a small church presenting a most beautiful specimen of early Norman architecture.

MARLBOROUGH, a pari. and mun. bor. and market-town of England, co. Wilts, hund. Selkley, on the Kennet, 27 m. E. Bath, and 70 m. W. London. Area of pari. bor. (which includes, with the old bor., the par. of Freshute), 4,380 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,139. The town consists of one broad main street, crossed by others of inferior dimensions. The houses are irregularly built, and apparently of great antiquity, having high and curiously carved gables; a portion of the High Street also has a kind of colonnade projecting from the houses. The guildhall is supported on pillars, the lower part being open for the accommodation of the people frequenting the market; above are the council-chamber, sessions-hall, and assembly-rooms. There is also a handsome market-house, the upper part of which is used as a national school. The prison, which serves as a bridewell and house of correction, was built in 1787; but it is too small to admit either of separate confinement or proper classification, and there is no provision for hard labour. There is also a very large hotel, partly built with the materials of the old castle, which once stood at the S. end of High Street. The old church of St. Mary the Virgin, near the guildhall, is of early Norman architecture, with a low square tower: the living is a vicarage, in the gift of the Dean of Salisbury. The other church, which stands at the W. end of High Street, is of more modern construction, and distinguished by its light pinnacled tower: the living is a rectory, in the patronage of the Bishop of Salisbury. The Independents, Wesleyan and Calvinist Methodists have likewise their respective places of worship, with attached Sunday-schools. The national school furnishes gratuitous instruction to 100 boys and the same number of girls; besides which, there are two church Sunday-schools. It has also a free grammar-school, founded by Edward VI., and endowed with estates producing about 700 l. a year: the instruction is almost exclusively classical; and the school has the privilege of sending an exhibitioner, on the Somerset foundation, to Brasenose College, Oxford.

Marlborough, which has little trade, derived its chief importance from being on the great road between London and Bath; but it has lost this advantage, as the Great Western Railway runs through a line of country considerably N. of the town. Malting and rope-making are extensively pursued. Large quantities of corn and cheese are sent to London and Bristol; their carriage being greatly facilitated by the Kennet and Avon Canal, which commences at Newbury, and joins the Avon near Bath, having an entire length of 57 m. "The town has likewise several excellent inns and shops, possesses a large market for the agricultural district, and may be considered in a prosperous state, and highly respectable." (*Mss. Board. Rep.* p. 2, *Marlboro'.*)

The bor., which received its first charter from King John, in 1205, and a subsequent one, in 1577, from Elizabeth, is governed, under the Mun. Reform Act, by a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 12 councillors; but it has no separate commission of the peace. Corp. revenue, in 1844-49, 1,041 l. Marlborough has sent 3 mems. to the H. of C. since 24 Edw. I.; the right of election, down to the Reform Act, being vested in the mayor and burgesses; but it was, in fact, a mere nomination bor., belonging to the Marquis of Salisbury, the proprietor of the large estate in the vicinity. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 254. Markets on Saturday; large fairs, 10 July, 1 Aug., and 23 Nov. (*Mss. Corp. Rep.*; *Parl. B. Reps.* vol. vi.; *Oxford Calendar*; *Priv. Inform.*)

MARLOW (GREAT), a pari. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Bucks, hund. Deoborough, on the N. bank of the Thames (here crossed by a handsome suspension-bridge), 29 m. W. London. Area of pari. bor., which includes the several pars. of Great Marlow, Little Marlow, Medmenham, and Bisham (the last being in Berks), 14,910 acres. Pop., in 1841, 6,527. The town, formed by several streets, meeting in a large open market-place, is irregularly built; but is well paved and lighted, and contains many substantial houses, and a good town-hall. The par. church, opened in 1835, is a handsome structure, surmounted by a spire. The living is a vicarage, in the gift of the dean and chapter of Gloucester. There are, also, places of worship for Wesleyan-Methodists and Baptists, with attached Sunday schools. A charity-school, for 24 boys and 12 girls, a national school, for children of both sexes, and a set of almshouses, are the principal benevolent foundations.

Great Marlow has little trade, except what results from its position, in the midst of a rich and productive country, inhabited by wealthy land-owners. On the Loddon, however, are several paper-mills; and, "on the whole, the town is slowly recovering from a state of great depression, consequent to the removal, some years ago, of the military college." (*Parl. Board. Rep.*) The bor. has returned 1 mem. to the H. of C., with some interruptions, since 28 Edw. I.; the right of election being vested, down to the Reform Act, in householders, paying scot and lot. The Boundary Act extended the limits of the pari. bor., by including with the old bor. 3 out-par. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 267. Market, well attended, on Saturday; fairs, for cattle and farming produce, May 1-3 and Oct. 29. (*Parl. Papers*, &c.)

MARMANDE, a town of France, dep. Lot-et-Garonne, cap. arrond., on the Garonne, here crossed by a bridge of one arch, 30 m. N.W. Agen. Pop. (1846), ex. com., 5,159. It is regularly laid out, well built, and clean; has several good public edifices, and is nearly surrounded by an esplanade, planted with trees. It has a small port, suitable for steam-boats, which ascend the Garonne as high as Marmande. It is the seat of courts of original jurisdiction and commerce; and has manufactures of woollen and linen fabrics, cordage and sailcloth, and several brandy distilleries. (*Hugo*, art. *Lot-et-Garonne*, &c.)

MARNE, a dep. of France, reg. N.E., formerly included in the prov. of Champagne, chiefly between lat. 48° 30' and 49° 30' N., and long. 3° 30' and 6° E., having N. Ardennes and Aisne, W. the latter dep. and Seine-et-Marne, S. Aube, and E. Haute Marne and Meuse. Length, E. to W., about 70 m.; greatest breadth, nearly as much. Area, 617,087 hectares. Pop. (1846) 367,209. The hills in this dep. do not rise to more than 1,300 ft. above the sea; its general slope is from S.E. to N.W., in which direction nearly all its rivers flow. It derives its name from the Marne, which divides it into 2 nearly equal parts. This river rises in the dep. of Haute-Marne, about 3 m. S. Langres; it flows, at first N.W., and afterwards generally W., through the dep. of Haute-Marne, Aube, Seine-et-Marne, Seine-et-Oise, Seine, and Seine; and falls into the Seine at Charenton, about 1 m. S.E. Paris, after a course of about 300 m., for 215 of which it is navigable. It has some considerable affluents; and Vitry, Châlons, Château-Thierry, and Meaux are on its banks. About 2-3ds of this dep., including all its central portion, has an arid barren soil, composed principally of chalk, covered with a thin layer of vegetable mould. But on the borders of this sterile tract the vineyards which produce the celebrated champagne wine; and surrounding it is a country with a deep and rich alluvial soil. In 1834, the cultivated land was estimated at 614,835 hectares, pastures at 38,454 ditto, vineyards 18,495 ditto, woods 78,901 ditto, and heaths, wastes, &c., 13,961 ditto. Considerably more corn is grown than is required for home-consumption. Its average annual amount has been estimated at 3,000,000 hectol.; but, according to the official tables, 4,570,000 hectol. were harvested in 1835, chiefly wheat, oats, and rye. The culture of the vine is, however, by far the most important branch of industry. The dep. is supposed to furnish annually from 650,000 hectol. of wine. Of this quantity, however, the finest growths produced in the arronds. of Epervay and Rheims, make but a small portion. The red wines "*se distinguent par beaucoup de finesse, de délicatesse, et d'agrément; ils occupent un rang distingué parmi les meilleurs vins fins du royaume.*" (*Jullien*, 21.) But the white wines, which include the finest varieties of champagne, are by far the most celebrated. They are of three sorts, *still, mousseux, and grand mousseux*. The *grands mousseux* prefer the first, or still wine, of which Silly (which see) is the best; but the grand mousseux prefer the second, or sparkling wine, being that variety of the sparkling wine which merely creams on the surface: the *grand mousseux*, or full frothing wines, are less esteemed. The wine of Ay, the best of the mousseux variety, is an exquisite liquor, worthy, according to the President De Thou, of being called *Vinum Dei*! The best of the red wines are those of Verry, Verzenay, Mailly, Bouzy, St. Basle, Cote-Thierry, &c. The vineyards round Epervay are valued at from 4,000 to 10,000, and even 20,000 fr. the arpent; and about 5,400 pieces of vines of the finest growth are produced annually in its arrond. and that of Rheims, about a half of which is exported to foreign countries. Rheims, Epervay, and Avize are the chief seats of the wine trade. Epervay has extensive vaults, excavated in tufa, and admirably fitted for the preservation of wines. (See *EPERVAY*.)

Agriculture, according to Hugo, is in a tolerably advanced state. Near St. Menesould orchards are numerous. More cattle are reared than in any of the adjacent depts., the number, in 1830, being about 130,000. In the same year the dep. was estimated to have 505,000 sheep, the breeds of which have been much improved by crossing with Merino and English varieties. In 1833, 68

179,318 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 90,523 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 24,807 at from 5 to 10 fr.; 124 were assessed at 1,000 fr. and upwards. *Il y a de l'aïeance dans le pays, mais il n'y a pas de grandes fortunes. On n'y voit point le contraste affligeant de l'extrême opulence et de la misère; la mendicité n'y règne point.* (Hugo.) Marne has but one iron mine; but it furnishes excellent mill-stones, potter's clay, &c. Manufactures of various kinds of woollen fabrics, woollen yarn, &c. are established at Rheims; and hats, silk goods, paper, glass, earthenware, cordage, leather, candles, and soap are made in different places. Marne is divided into five arrondis: chief towns, Chalons-sur-Marne the cap., Épernay, Rheims, St. Menesbould, and Vitry-le-François. It sends 6 mems. to the Ch. of Dep. Number of electors (1838-39), 2,308. Total public revenue (1831), 12,229,536 fr.; expenditure, 8,998,985 fr. (Hugo, art. *Marne*; *Official Tables*; *Judicial, Topographie des Départements*; *Henderson on Wines*, p. 152, &c.)

Marne (Haute) a dep. of France, reg. N.E., between lat. 47° 35' and 48° 40', and long. 4° 40' and 6° E., having N. the depts. of Marne and Meuse, E. Vosges and Haute Saône, S. the latter and Côte d'Or, and W. Côte d'Or and Aube. Length, N.N.W. to S.S.E., 80 m.; average breadth, about 20 m. Area, 622,048 hectares. Pop. (1846), 262,079. The plateau of Langres and the Faucilles mountains traverse the S. and E. parts of this dep., covering the greater part of its surface with their ramifications. They, however, do not where rise to any great elevation; Mont-aigu, the highest point in Haute Marne, being only 1,620 ft. above the sea. The chief rivers, are the Marne, which intersects the dep. lengthwise; its affluents the Ornain, Blaise, Meuse, and Aube, rise in this dep., and have, more or less, a N. course. Surface mostly stony or calcareous; there not being more than 11,000 hectares of rich soil. In 1824, however, the arable land was supposed to comprise 825,511 hectares; pasture land, 35,528 do.; vineyards, 13,359 do.; woods, 174,275 do.; and heaths, wastes, &c., 27,959 do. The farmers devote their attention to the growing of corn, the culture of the vine, and the rearing of live stock. The produce of corn exceeds the demand for home consumption: the annual supply is estimated at nearly 1,800,000 hectolitres, chiefly wheat and oats. The produce of wine amounts to between 400,000 and 500,000 hectols. a year; but the quality is very inferior to that of the wines of Marne. Cherries and walnuts are grown in considerable quantities. The pasture lands are excellent; and, in 1830, there were 84,000 head of cattle, and 221,000 sheep in the dep.; the annual produce of wool is estimated at 150,000 kilograms. In some cantons of the arrond. Vassy, a good many turkeys are reared. Bees are numerous, and wax and honey are valuable products. This is one of the best wooded depts. in France, and St. Dizier has a considerable trade in timber, sent in large quantities to Paris by the Marne. Iron is the only metal found in the dep., but the working of the iron mines, and the manufacture of their produce, hold a high rank among the occupations of the people. The dep. has upwards of 50 smelting furnaces (*hauts-fourneaux*), and 100 ordinary forges. Iron plates, rasps, files, and hammers are made. Marne has long enjoyed a high reputation. Chaumont has manufactures of gloves and haberdashery. Linen and cotton thread, wax, candles, leather, brandy, and vinegar are the other chief articles made in the dep. In 1835, of 194,714 properties, subject to the *contribution foncière*, 72,624 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 16,700 at from 5 to 10 fr. Haute Marne is divided into three arrondis: chief towns, Chaumont the cap., Langres, and Vassy. It sends 4 mems. to the Chamber of Deputies. Number of electors (1838-9), 1,054. Total public revenue (1831), 6,786,953 fr. (Hugo, art. *Haute Marne*; *Official Tables*; &c.)

MAROS-VASÁRHELY, or SZÉKELY-VARSAHELY (Germ. *Newmark, Wallach. Oscherky*), a royal free town of Transylvania, the cap. of the Szekler-land, and of the *státule*, or presidency, of Maros; on the Maros, 53 m. N.N.E. of Hermannstadt. Pop. 7,000. "Although there is nothing very imposing in the wide streets and small houses, of which Maros-Vásárhely is mostly composed, it is rather an important place; and in winter, many of the gentry in the neighbourhood take up their residence within it. Moreover, both Protestants and Catholics have colleges here; the Protestant has 800, and the Catholic 200, scholars; and these institutions give something of a literary air to its society. Maros-Vásárhely is also the seat of the highest legal tribunal in Transylvania, the Royal Table; and it is, in consequence, the great law-school of the country. Almost all the young nobles who desire to take any part in public business, as well as all the lawyers, after having finished their regular course of study, think it necessary, under the name of *juraten*, to pass a year or two here in reading law, and attending the court."

"The great pride of the town is the fine library of

the Teleki, founded by the Chancellor Teleki, and left to his family, on the condition of its being always open to the public. It contains about 80,000 vols., which are placed in a very handsome building, and kept in excellent order. It is most rich in choice editions of the Latin and Greek classics." (*Paget's Hungary and Transylvania*, li. 363, 364.) The town has a Rom. Cath. gymnasium and seminary, a reformed college, with a library and printing-office, two convents, a flourishing casino, or literary club, and considerable trade in agricultural produce, particularly tobacco, which is grown in large quantities in its vicinity. (*Paget*; *Berghaus*; *Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.*)

MARSALA (an. *Lilybæum*), a city and sea-port of Sicily, at its W. extremity, adjacent to Cape Boeo (the *Promontorium Lilybæum*), in the intend. of Trapani, 16 m. S. S. W. of Trapani; lat. 37° 48' 10" N.; long. 22° 28' 10" E. Pop., in 1831, 22,388. It is of a square form, and is surrounded by an old wall, flanked at the angles with bastions, but destitute of a glacis. It might be easily rendered a strong military post; but, at present, it is without ordnance, quarters, or bomb-proof stores. The town, which is pretty well built, is bisected by a broad and regular street, called the *Cassaro*, on one side of which is the cathedral, a large edifice, ornamented with 16 fine marble columns of the Corinthian order. It has 16 churches, numerous convents, a *retiro*, or place of retirement under monastic regulation, 8 abbays, a gymnasium, a seminary, an hospital, with 70 beds, 2 *monie-diperte* barracks for cavalry, an old castle, &c. Among its curiosities is a bell-tower, which vibrates perceptibly when the bell is rung.

Lilybæum was famous for its port; but, though secure, and well adapted for the use of the gallees of the ancients, it would not have accommodated the larger ships of modern times. Captain Smyth says, that where deepest, the ancient port could not have had more than 14 ft. water. The Romans, in their struggles with the Carthaginians, attempted over and over again to fill up the port, but uniformly without success. This, however, was effected, in 1570, by Don John of Austria, who, to prevent the Barbary corsairs from taking refuge here, filled up the port with rubbish. The modern is not therefore, identical with the ancient harbour, but is about 1 m. S. from the town. It has a mole, constructed by Mr. Woodhouse, for the convenience of the shipment of his wine: large ships anchor S.W. from the city, about 2 m. off shore, in from 8 to 11 fathoms water. The entrance to the port is a good deal encumbered with rocks and reefs; the knowledge of which is as indispensable to the modern, as it was to the ancient, mariners. (*Smyth's Sicily*, p. 233.)

Marsala is indebted for its importance in modern times to its wine trade; which has grown up, within the last half century, through the skill and intelligence of the Messrs. Woodhouse, Englammen, who began business here in 1789. The wine, however, did not begin to come into much repute till 1802, when it was supplied, by order of Lord Nelson, to the Mediterranean fleet. It is a dry wine, the best qualities closely resembling the lighter sorts of Madeira; but the extensibility demand for it in this country is, no doubt, ascribable more to its cheapness than to its quality. It is, however, in all respects, superior to Cape Madeira, with which it principally comes into competition. The success of the Messrs. Woodhouse has led others to embark in the business; and Mr. Ingham and Mr. George Wood have, also, very large establishments at Marsala. The entire produce of the district is estimated at about 30,000 pipes, of which from 18,000 to 20,000 are exported, partly to the U. States and the W. Indies, as well as to England. In 1823, the entries of Marsala for home consumption in the United Kingdom amounted to 68,730 galls.; whereas, in 1849, they amounted to 144,441 galls. But for some years past, the consumption has been pretty stationary.

Besides wine, Marsala exports corn, cattle, oil, salt, and soda; but in no great quantities. In 1839, 37 British and 9 American ships, of the aggregate burden of 6,500 tons, cleared out from Marsala. (*Macgregor's Report on the Commercial Statistics of the Two Sicilies*, passim - *Commercial Dict.*; *Official Accounts*, &c.)

Lilybæum, from its proximity to Carthage, and the excellence of its port, was, for a lengthened period, the capital of the Carthaginian possessions in Sicily. It was a place of great strength, being fortified by strong walls and a deep ditch, into which the sea appears to have flowed (*Polybius*, lib. i. cap. 42.); indeed, a portion of the ancient ditches still exist in tolerable preservation. (*Hoare's Classical Tour*, li. 73.) The size of the city may be inferred from the fact of its requiring a garrison of 10,000 men, exclusive of the citizens, for its defence. The successful resistance it opposed to Pyrrhus, by whom it was attacked with great fury, and its defence against the Romans, sufficiently evince its strength and importance. After having ineffectually attempted to carry it by assault, the Romans converted the siege into a blockade; and the city only surrendered at

the end of *five* years, when the defeat of Hanno made farther resistance unavailing. (*Ancient Universal History*, xvil. 531., &c., 8vo. ed.) Under the Romans it was the residence of a questor; and is called by Cicero, *civitas splendidissima*. (In Verrem, v. cap. 5.) Very few remains now exist of its ancient grandeur; vases, coins, &c., are, however, occasionally dug up; and in the town-hall is a group of two lions destroying a bull, said to be worthy the best period of Grecian art.

MARSEILLES (Fr. *Marseille*, an. *Massilia*), a large commercial city and sea-port of France, dep. Bouches-du-Rhône, of which it is the cap., on the E. side of a bay of the Gulf of Lyons, 30 m. W.N.W. Toulon, about 170 m. S.S.E. Lyons, and 4.0 m. S.E. Paris; lat. 43° 17' 49" N., long. 5° 22' 15" E. Pop. of the city, ex. suburbs, in 1846, 133,216; and, inc. suburbs, 160,000; but this statement is said to be under the mark, and it is alleged that, including strangers, the pop. is now (1850) at least 180,000. (*Conducteur dans Marseille*.)

"The situation of Marseilles," says Mr. Maclaren, "is one of the most beautiful I ever saw. It occupies the centre of a basin about 6 m. or 7 m. broad, bounded by lofty precipitous hills. The whole space from the city, back to the hills, is adorned with villas and hamlets; for every merchant or respectable shopkeeper here has his *maison de campagne*. These buildings are showy, sometimes large and splendid. They are called *Basitides*, and I learn that their number is not less than 5,000." (*Notes on France and Italy*, p. 39.) The country around is, however, extremely arid; and the wind called the *mistral* is blighting and noxious in the extreme. The city is somewhat of a horse-shoe shape, and built round its port.

It is divided into two parts:—The first, or old town, occupying the site of the ancient Greek city, on rising ground, on the N. side the harbour, is confined, ill-built, with narrow dark streets, or rather lanes, not half ventilated, and inconceivably filthy. The second, or new town, constructed in the modern style, with regular streets, and handsome squares and houses, stands on the S. and E. sides of the port; being separated from the old town by a magnificent street, which extends in a right line from the Porte d'Aix to the Porte de Rome, traversing the city in its entire length N. to S. The middle part of this street, called the *Cours*, is sheltered by trees; the houses on either side are good; it has some handsome fountains, and is one of the chief places of public resort; but the favourite public promenade is the *Rue Cannetière*; a fine broad street, running at a right angle from the foregoing to the inner extremity of the harbour, and completing the line of demarcation between the old and new town. Marseilles has been fortified at different periods; but its walls were finally destroyed in 1600; and their place is occupied by boulevards planted with trees, beyond which the city is rapidly extending, particularly towards the E. and S. It still, no doubt, is defended by the fort of *Notre Dame de la Garde*, on a steep eminence to the S.; but it is more remarkable for the beauty of its situation than for its strength: the harbour (see *post*) is protected by a fort on either side its entrance, by the Château d'If, on the island of the same name, and by some additional works on the islands of Ratoneau, Pomègues, &c., nearly opposite its mouth.

Marseilles has numerous public edifices, but none merits any detailed notice. The cathedral occupies the site of an ancient temple of Diana; it is extensive, but heavy-looking. Its interior is a mixture of various orders; and its ornaments, which are mostly of the 11th and 12th centuries, are in bad taste. In fact, none of the churches within the city have any considerable claims to notice. The church of St. Madeleine (formerly *des Chartrons*), in the suburbs, an edifice constructed in the 17th century, is far superior to any one else; it has a handsome façade, and 3 steeples (*campaniles*), remarkable for their light appearance. There are in all about 20 Rom. Cath. churches, several chapels, 2 Greek churches, a Protestant church, and a synagogue. The Prefecture is on the finest of the public buildings. The town-hall, on the N. quay, is a heavy edifice, composed of two separate piles of building, connected by a light and elegant arch on the first story. Its ground floor is appropriated to the exchange. There are numerous hospitals, and other charitable institutions. The Hôtel Dieu, one of the first established hospitals in France, was founded in 1188; it has usually from 500 to 600, and is capable of accommodating 750 patients. The *Hôpital de la Charité*, founded in 1640, an asylum for aged persons, and for orphans, foundings, &c., has usually from 800 to 850 inmates. The *Lazareto*, one of the largest and most perfect establishments of the kind in Europe, is situated to the N. of the city, and is surrounded by a triple wall. Ships may clear from it while in quarantine. Marseilles has also a lying-in hospital, a *bureau de bienfaisance*, asylums for poor children, a *mon-de-piété*, and a savings' bank. One of the largest public edifices, formerly a Bernardine convent, accommodates the Royal College, which has between 300 and 400 students; the Royal Society of Science, Literature, and Art; the public library

of 60,000 printed vols., and 1,300 MSS., with cabinets of natural history, medals, and antiquities, &c. and a gallery of paintings, comprising works by Carracci, Salvator Rosa, Rubens, Vandyk, Jordains, and other artists of the Italian and Flemish schools. The observatory, on the highest point of the old town, has apartments appropriated to schools of navigation, geometry, &c. The Grand Theatre, built after the plan of the Odéon in Paris, is spacious and handsome. It has 6 tiers of boxes; but is in general ill-attended. The *Théâtre Français*, a small building, open on Sundays for vaudevilles, and on other days for occasional concerts, is more frequented. The other chief public buildings and establishments are the hall of justice, the new prison, the custom-house, arsenal, barracks, mint, bishop's palace, various public halls, the fish market, &c. Marseilles has a botanic garden, and some excellent public baths. It is well supplied with water from fountains and public wells, but it is not introduced into the houses. At the extremity of the Rue d'Aix is an unfinished triumphal arch, of the Corinthian order, originally erected in honour of the Duc d'Angoulême, after his invasion of Spain in 1823; but it is now intended to commemorate the Revolution of 1830, one of the effects of which was to expel the Duc d'Angoulême from the kingdom! Marseilles has but few remains of antiquity. Except a fountain, with an inscription in Greek, an obelisk, and the remains of an aqueduct, none is worthy of mention. It is doubtful, indeed, whether Marseilles possessed any grand or remarkable edifices in antiquity; and if she did, the corroding influence of the sea air, which proves so detrimental to the modern buildings, has been a powerful agent in their destruction. But the Marseillais, for a lengthened period, took little interest in the preservation of the relics of past ages; and, says Hugo, "lorque l'esprit de conversation entra dans les mœurs, il n'y avait plus rien à conserver."

Marseilles is the see of a bishop, suffragan under Aix; the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce; a chamber of commerce; the residence of a commissary-general and a treasurer of marine; and the headquarters of the 8th military division of the kingdom. Consuls from all the principal states of Europe and America are resident in it. Besides the public institutions before noticed, it has a diocesan seminary, a royal society of medicine, societies of agriculture and *belles lettres*, a statistical society, an atheneum, and several commercial and other clubs. 3 newspapers (2 of them daily), and several literary journals are published in the city; the principal of the former are the *Semaphore de Marseille* and the *Gazette du Midi*.

The port, to which Marseilles is wholly indebted for her early and long-continued prosperity, is a fine basin, stretching from W. to E. about 1,000 yards, into the very centre of the city. It has from 16 to 18 ft. water at its entrance, and from 12 to 24 ft. within; so that it is extremely well fitted for moderate-sized merchantmen, of which it will accommodate from 1,000 to 1,200. The ships come close to the quays, by which it is surrounded on all sides, except at its entrance; which is defended on its N. side by the tower of St. John, a work of the 18th century, and on its S. side by Fort St. Nicolas, constructed by Louis XIV. The careening basin, on the right side of the harbour, occupies the site of the ancient necropolis.

Unluckily, this fine basin becomes, from its position, the common sewer, as it were, or receptacle for all the filth of the city; and, as it is not agitated by tides, which are here hardly perceptible, nor by storms, from which it is screened on all sides, nor swept by any current, the water is completely stagnant; and, unless the mud were removed by dredging-machines, it would in no very long time be entirely filled up. But in hot weather, the stench arising from this torpid reservoir, and from the detestably filthy streets of the old town, is absolutely intolerable, at least to those not habituated to it; and has doubtless been the cause of Marseilles having suffered so dreadfully on various occasions from the plague, and, more recently, from the cholera. Such a state of things is a disgrace to a civilised country. And we agree with Mr. Maclaren in thinking, that, next to the enforcing of proper sanitary regulations in the old town, the best thing that could be done to improve the city would be to cut a canal from the *Anse de Joliette*, on the coast, to the harbour, which would at once create a current, and freshen and agitate the water in the latter. In its present state, Marseilles has been truly described as a "vast cloaca." We doubt, indeed, whether there be a single water-closet in the city.

There is excellent anchorage ground for men of war and other large ships, about 3 m. W.S.W. between the isles of Ratoneau and Pomègues, which have been connected by a mound. Ships from the Levant perform quarantine at Pomègues; and on Ratoneau Island is an hospital for those whose health is dubious. A lighthouse, with a revolving light, 131 ft. in height, is erected on the Isle de Flanier, about 10 m. from the city, and there is an-

other in Fort St. Jean. Ships having got within 4 or 5 m. of the Isle d'If, usually heave to for a pilot. The charge for pilotage is 4 sous per ton in, and 2 sous per do. out, for French vessels and vessels belonging to powers having reciprocity treaties with France. With the exception of the above pilotage charges, and the charges on vessels performing quarantine, there are no port charges on ships entering or clearing out from Marseilles.

The trade of Marseilles is very extensive, and is rapidly increasing. She is the grand emporium of the S. of France, and the centre of 5-10ths of her commerce with the countries bordering on the Mediterranean. The exports consist principally of silk stuffs, wines, brandies, and liquors; woollens and linens; madder, oil, soap, refined sugar, perfumery, stationery, verdigris, gloves, and all sorts of colonial products. Among the principal imports are sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; dye stuffs; corn, from the Black Sea and the N. coast of Africa; cotton, from Egypt and America; coal, linen thread, and various descriptions of manufactured goods, from England; hides, wool, tallow, timber, &c. &c. Marseilles engrosses almost the whole trade between France and Algiers. She is now also the principal station for the intercourse carried on by steamers with Malta, Alexandria, and Constantinople; and, besides the steamers employed by the government as packets, she had, in 1838, 12 steam packets belonging to private companies. Mr. Maclaren says that most of the private steamers have English-made engines, and English engineers; and that they burn English coal, sold here for about 30s. a ton.

Account of the Number, Tonnage, and Crews of the Ships that entered the Port of Marseilles in 1848 from Foreign Ports, specifying those from different Countries.

Countries.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Crews.
Russia-Baltic	47	17,645	687
Russia-Black Sea	82	18,990	900
Sweden	44	11,521	518
Norway	5	925	31
U. Kingdom	253	38,215	2,415
Hanseatic Towns	10	879	49
Netherlands	20	12,378	432
Belgium	19	10,467	186
Portugal	19	10,475	186
Spain	350	39,171	3,533
Antaria	101	11,154	1,214
Nardinia	464	3,237	5,420
Tuscany	115	11,074	1,179
Papal States	58	98	458
Two Sicilies	290	4,107	4,522
Greece	7	95	63
Turkey	350	71,554	6,120
Egypt	74	14,143	1,312
Barbary States	152	11,118	1,653
West Coast of Africa	42	87	431
English India	4	110	61
United States	6	113	768
Venezuela	4	68	44
Brazil	42	47	488
Rio de la-Plata	18	18	185
Haiti	6	66	160
Spanish America	85	10,114	1,022
Island of Bourbon	15	4,665	216
Martinique	29	17	415
Guadeloupe	24	77	228
Algeria	289	10,072	4,638
Senegal	44	6,353	496
All other Countries	15	4,086	328
Totals	3,110	492,576	37,555

The total value of the imports into Marseilles may be estimated at about 900,000,000 fr., or 8,000,000; and that of the exports at about as much.

The customs' revenue of Marseilles is greater than that of Havre, or any other French port: it amounted in 1849 to 31,012,000, and in 1846, when much depressed, to 24,075,000 francs. A joint stock bank, established here in 1835, is said to have been eminently successful.

Though principally distinguished by its commerce, Marseilles has several important manufacturing establishments. Its soap-works, which are numerous and extensive, employ about 700 workpeople, and consume large quantities of olive oil; but, though soap is exported, by far the greater portion of that produced here is destined for home consumption. The artists of Marseilles prepare and fashion coral into a great variety of articles. Among its other manufactures are woollen stockings and caps, *sacons de Tunis*; hats, of which from 20,000 to 50,000 fine, and from 10,000 to 15,000 coarse, are annually exported; morocco and other leather (but the tanneries have fallen off), and sail-cloth. Marseilles has likewise refineries for sugar, sulphur, wax, and borax, with breweries, oil-works, glass-works, brick and tile works, &c., and furnishes large quantities of vinegar and *liqueurs*. Another branch of industry is the salting and curing of meat, and the pickling and preparing of capers, olives, and other fruits, and of anchovies and other fish. It has, also, a great variety of trades connected with the building and fitting out of ships, steamers, &c.; and is, in fact, a very prosperous and rapidly increasing town.

There are but few great capitalists in Marseilles.—

"Here, as in Paris," says Mr. Maclaren, "it is the custom to retire altogether from business as soon as a trader has realized a competency. I was told that there are not a hundred men in Marseilles worth 20,000*fr.* each; but there are a great many worth half that sum. The people generally seem stout and well-fed. I went into the Place Royal when it was filled with 400 or 500 of the middle classes, meeting for business. I thought them the tallest, stoutest men I had ever seen. The sailors, porters, and carters, are more tanned than at Paris; but the shopkeepers are not sensibly darker than in the capital. Black eyes, however, are more common; a change invariably observed as we approach the equator. The houses and mode of living resemble those of Paris; but in the new streets, houses with front-doors like our own are common; while in Paris they adhere to the old plan of vast tenements, with a grand gate and open court in the centre."

Marseilles is very ancient, having, according to the best authorities, been founded by a colony from Phocæa, a city of Ionia, about 600 years a.c. The Massilians, as the inhab. were then called, speedily distinguished themselves by their skill as seamen, and the extent of their commerce; and were celebrated for the wisdom of their political institutions, and their civilisation. They became, at an early period, allies of Rome; but having espoused the party of Pompey, their city was besieged, and, after an obstinate resistance, taken by Cæsar. But though Marseilles lost her liberty, she preserved her commerce and superior civilisation under the Romans; and was highly distinguished as a school of *Belles Lettres* and philosophy. She is spoken of by Cicero in the highest terms of eulogy. (*Oratio pro L. Flacco*, cap. 36.) At a later period, Agricola was sent thither to be educated; and Tacitus calls her *arctica ac magistra studiorum*. (*Vit. Agricola*, cap. 4.) After the fall of the Roman empire, she underwent many vicissitudes. In the 10th century she was taken and sacked by the Saracens. She was afterwards governed by dukes and counts, and sometimes by her own magistrates, and more recently by the counts of Provence. She was finally united to the crown of France in 1482. During the middle ages she rivalled Venice and Genoa in her trade with the Levant. In 1720 she suffered dreadfully from the plague, which is said to have destroyed from 40,000 to 50,000 of the inhab. She also suffered considerably from the revolutionary phrenzy and the anti-commercial policy of Napoleon; but, as already seen, she has risen superior to all these disasters, and is now more populous and flourishing than ever.

Marseilles has given birth to many very distinguished individuals, among whom may be specified Pytheas, one of the most illustrious navigators and astronomers of antiquity, who flourished in the 4th century a.c., and Petronius Arbiter, *Auctor parvissimi imperialis*. Among its modern citizens have been Dumas, the grammarian, Mascarón, the celebrated preacher, Personnel, the author of a treatise on the commerce of the Black Sea, and of several other works on the Levant, and Puget, celebrated as a sculptor, painter, and architect.

The famous revolutionary song and air, called the *Marseillaise*, did not originate in Marseilles, as might be inferred from the name: this was derived from the tune having been played by a body of troops from Marseilles, on their entry into Paris, in 1791. (Besides the authorities already referred to, we have consulted *Hugo*, art. *Bouclier du Rhone*; *Julien*, *Essai sur le Commerce de Marseille*; *Dictionnaire du Commerce*; and *Private Information*.)

MARTABAN, a town of the Birman empire, cap. of the prov. Martaban, on the Than-Iweng (Saluen) river, near its mouth, 10 m. N.W. Moulmain, and 92 m. E.S.E. Rangoon; lat. 16° 28' N., long. 97° 30' E. Pop. uncertain: in 1826, it was estimated at 9,000; but many of the inhab. were then preparing to emigrate into the British territories, and Mr. Crawford (*Embassy to Siam*, ii. 222.) estimates its ordinary pop. at only 1,500. It stands on the E. declivity of a high hill, is more than a mile in length, consisting of two long streets, and is surrounded by a stockade, which separates it from some suburbs. The houses are of wood; it has several conspicuous temples, one of which is upwards of 150 ft. in height. Martaban has an imposing appearance from the water, facing which is a battery on a rocky mound, and a deep wall of masonry with embrasures for cannon, &c., behind the stockade. It was formerly a place of considerable trade; but, early in the course of last century, its navigation was injured by the sinking of vessels in the river by the Birman in their wars with Pegu; and Moulmain (which see) is at present the emporium of all the adjacent provs. Martaban was taken by the British in 1824. (*Crawford's Embassy*; *Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*; *Mod. Trav.*, xi. 179—181.)

MARTHA, or MARTA (SANTA), a sea-port town of Columbia, New Granada, dep. Magdalena, cap. prov. Santa Martha, on the Caribbean Sea, 106 m. N.E. Cartagena, and 175 m. W.N.W. Maracaybo. Lat. 11° 19'

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N., long. 74° 18' W. Pop. estimated at 6,000. It has some good houses, a cathedral, which is a conspicuous object in approaching it, both by land and sea, some convents, &c.; but it suffered much from the attacks of the Indians during the revolutionary war, and does not appear to have regained its previous importance. Its harbour, which is one of the best on this coast, having sufficient depth of water and good holding-ground, is defended by several batteries, and by a castle on an insulated rock, commanding both the town and the harbour. Santa Marta was founded in 1525, and made an episcopal city four years afterwards. Before the revolution it had risen to considerable importance as a commercial city, and was the port into which manufactured goods for Bogota were almost exclusively imported. (*Cochrane, in Mod. Trav. xvii. 297, 298; Blunt's American Coast Pilot.*)

MARTIGUES (LES), a marit. town of France, dép. Bouches-du-Rhône, on an island in the channel between the lagoon of Berre and the Méditerranéen, on either bank of which channel are its suburbs of Ferrières and Jouquieres, 18 m. W. N.W. Marseilles. Pop. (1836), including its suburbs, 7,299. Its situation, amid pools and canals, has made it be called the Venice of Provence. It is well built, and has several good streets and quays, and handsome buildings; but it is ill supplied with water. Its port is much resorted to by fishing-boats. Merchant vessels are built here; and it has an active trade in olive oil, fish, wine, and salt. (*Hugo, art. Bouches-du-Rhône, &c.*)

MARTIN (ST.), one of the Virgin Islands, in the W. Indies, belonging partly to the French and partly to the Dutch; about 18° 4' N., and 109° 58' W.; between Anguilla and St. Bartholomew, 12 m. N.W. the latter, and 75 m. N. N.W. Barbuda. Area estimated at 30 sq. m. Though hilly, it has no eminence 2,000 ft. in height. It is watered by numerous rivulets; and in the S. are numerous lagoons, from which great quantities of salt are obtained by the Dutch. The coasts, which are deeply indented, afford several good roadsteads, of which Philipsburg and Marigot are the best. The soil is light, strong, and frequently arid; but it is tolerably healthy. The northern, and larger portion of the island belongs to France, forming a commune of the colony of Guadeloupe; and having an area of 5,371 hectares, of which, 1,841 are cultivated, 241 in pasture, 674 in woods, and 2,616 unproductive. The annual produce of sugar averages about 900,000 kilograms, syrup about 11,000 kilograms, and rum about 50,000 gallons: a good many cattle are also reared. Pop. of the French division about 3,600, five sixths of whom are slaves. The southern, or Dutch, division of the island is less fertile and richly wooded than the French, but more profitable, on account of the salt it produces, which is sent to the neighbouring islands, and to N. America. It is also estimated to yield annually about 25,000 cwt. of sugar, and 130,000 gallons of rum. (*Stein's Handbook, iii. 838.*) The Dutch portion is said to be about as populous as the French. Nearly all the white pop. of St. Martin are of English descent. The Spaniards first colonised this island, but abandoned it in 1650; after which it became a subject of contention between the French and Dutch, who subsequently divided it between them. It has been frequently taken by the English. (*Hugo, iii. 309; Notices Statist. sur les Colonies Françaises; Stein, &c.*)

MARTINIQUE, one of the Windward Islands, in the W. Indies, belonging to France; between lat. 14° 23' 43" and 14° 52' 47" N., and long. 60° 46' and 62° 15' W., about 25 m. S.E. Dominica, and 20 m. N. St. Lucia; length, N.W. to S.E., 38 m.; average breadth, about 10 m. Area estimated at 98,782 hectares. Pop., in 1836, 117,502, of whom 40,000 were white, or free coloured, and 77,500 slaves. The surface gradually rises on proceeding inland, and mountain-ranges occupy the centre of the country. Their loftiest summits are the *Montagne Pelée*, towards the N. extremity of the island, and the *Piton de Carrié*; the former rises to 4,126 ft., the latter to 3,960 ft., above the sea. These and other mountains, are evidently extinct volcanoes; having their characteristic conical form, and abounding with lava, and other volcanic products. The flanks of the mountains are mostly covered with a dense and luxuriant forest vegetation, and are in many parts under culture to an elevation of 1,300 ft. About a third part of the island consists of pretty level land. It is watered by numerous rivulets; but of these only three or four, which disembogue on the W. coast, are navigable in any part of their extent. At the S. extremity of the island is a small salt-lake. The coasts present many bays and inlets, but the harbours on its E. side are difficult of access, being obstructed by numerous islets, and extensive banks of madrepore. On the S. side is the bay of Marin; and on the W. is that of Fort Royal, forming one of the best harbours in the Antilles: in the N.W. is the roadstead of St. Pierre, where ships ride safely, except during W. winds. The mean annual temp. in the plains is about 81°, the maximum in the shade being 95°, and the minimum 69° Fah.; but the heat is tempered by sea breezes

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during the day, and land-breezes at night. The moisture of the atmosphere is excessive; and it is estimated that at the level of the sea 85 inches of rain fall annually. Most of this rain descends from July to Oct., a period of the year termed the *hiernage*; when the hurricanes, from which the island has often suffered severely, are most frequent. The weather for the remaining 9 months is generally fine; but Martinique, like the neighbouring island of St. Lucia, is very unhealthy. Mineral springs are abundant, of a chalybeate, saline, or siliceous nature, and useful in cutaneous and liver complaints. The surface consists chiefly of disintegrated pumice-stone, intermixed with vegetable mould, forming a light and very fertile soil. In 1835, it was estimated that 38,230 hectares were under culture; that savannahs and pasture lands occupied 21,773 do.; woods and forests, 23,387 do.; and unproductive lands, 15,303 do. The following official account has been given of the distribution of the cultivated lands, their produce, &c., in 1836:—

Articles.	Hectares cultivated.	Slaves employed in Culture.	Produce.
Sugar-cane	25,777	34,840	Raw sugar - kil. 33,960,997 Do. - - - 198,783 Syrup & molas. litr. 6,259,139 Rum - kil. 1,669,920 Do. - kil. 699,807
Coffee	2,917	8,897	Do. - - - 14,705
Cotton	249	-	Do. - - - 125,610
Cocoa	464	-	Do. - value, fr. 2,586,853
Mulberry	12,706	8,677	
Various	4	5,607	
Total	40,117	55,421	

Of late years, agriculture has made considerable progress in Martinique. The plough has come more into use, and manuring is more extensively practised; and the culture of the sugar-cane, to which the colonists have turned their chief attention since 1820, has been greatly improved. The cane is of two kinds: the Otahelien variety, and the yellow cane of Batavia. It was first naturalised about 1650. The coffee plant was introduced in 1723; but its culture, like that of most other products, is diminishing in favour of sugar. A few cloves, and some other spices, are grown; and the government has attempted, though hitherto with little success, to introduce the culture of indigo. Martinique formerly produced a pretty large supply of tobacco, but it is now quite insignificant. Manioc, bananas, sweet potatoes, maize, &c., are the principal farinaceous vegetables. The island has about 40,000 head of live stock, of all sorts; about 18,000 being black cattle, and 9,000 sheep. In 1836, there were three earthenware and tile factories, and 10 lime-kilns, employing 352 slaves; these are, however, the only manufacturing establishments in Martinique. Carpenters, masons, and such-like workmen are pretty numerous; but there are few of any other description. Most part of the skilled workmen belong to the free coloured class, and only work when they have expended their wages, and are in want of necessities. A number of hands, both free and slaves, are employed in fishing; and between 400 and 500 are occupied in navigation and the coasting trade. Subjoined is an

ACCOUNT OF THE QUANTITIES AND VALUES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES EXPORTED FROM MARTINIQUE IN 1836.

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
Raw sugar	- kilogr.	22,994,754
Molasses	- litres	2,181,493
Raw Cocoa	- kilogr.	135,737
Coffee	- - -	519,507
Dye-woods	- - -	1,289,018
Rum	- litres	1,643,837
Cashia	- kilogr.	53,006
Copper	- - -	40,547
Gold and silver	- - -	-
Other articles	- - -	-
Total	- - -	16,425,428

The imports consist chiefly of salted meat, butter, and fish, corn, flour, pulse, oil, timber; cotton, linen, and other manufactured goods; wines, soap, candles, hardware, jewellery, apparel, &c.; chiefly from France and the French colonies. In 1836, the value of the imports amounted to 19,480,598 fr. In the same year, 368 French vessels, of the aggregate burden of 48,861 tons, entered, and 353 left, the ports of the island; in addition to which, 496 foreign vessels entered, and 487 cleared out.

The government is vested in a governor, assisted by a privy council, composed of the military commandant, the 3 principal civil officers of the colony, and 3 privy councillors nominated by the king; and in a colonial council of 30 members elected for 5 years. Every individual of French descent, 25 years of age, born or having resided two years in the colony, and paying taxes to the extent of 300 fr. a year, or having property worth 30,000 fr., may be an elector; and inhab. paying taxes, or pos-

possessing property of double the above amount, are eligible to the colonial council. In 1836, there were 819 electors, and 507 individuals eligible to the council. Martinique is divided into the arrondis. of Fort Royal and St. Pierre, 4 cantons, and 26 communes. Justice is administered by a royal court at Fort Royal, court of assize and primary jurisdiction in each arrondissement, a justice of the peace in each canton, and a functionary, uniting both the civil and military jurisdiction, in most of the communes. The military force amounts to 2,900 men, besides which there is a militia of 4,108 men. There are 3 schools of mutual instruction, 2 in the cap., and 1 in St. Pierre; and primary schools in almost every commune. At St. Pierre is a superior female seminary. There are orphan asylums, and various other charities, in the two principal towns; and 2 newspapers are published, both at St. Pierre. The total expenditure of the colony, in 1837, was estimated at 4,387,966 fr., the local receipts to meet which amounted to only 2,265,711 fr.

Martinique has only three towns worthy of mention. Fort Royal, the cap. and seat of government, on the N. shore of the bay of same name, in the S.W. part of the island. Pop., inc. com., about 11,500. It is well built, its chief public edifices being the par. church, government offices, naval storehouses, arsenal, barracks, hospital, two prisons, and the residence of the *préfet apostolique*, the superior ecclesiastic of the island. It is defended on the N. by Fort Bourbon, and on the S. by Fort Louis, on a small peninsula, by which it is shut off from the port; but it communicates with the harbour, by a canal, cut within a few years. Near Fort Royal are numerous pleasant country residences. St. Pierre (which see), also on the W. coast, is the largest town in the French W. Indies. La Trinité, on the bay of the same name, on the E. side of the island, has a pop. of about 4,600, large warehouses, a prison, some barracks, an hospital, and a handsome church. Its roadstead and harbour are secure; the latter has good holding-ground, but it is difficult of access. Its entrance was formerly protected by a fort, now in ruins.

This island was discovered by the Spaniards in 1498. In 1636 it was settled by the French. In 1763 the English took it from the latter, but restored it in the succeeding year. In 1794 it was again taken by the English, who gave it back in 1803; it came a third time into our possession in 1809, and was finally restored to France in 1815. The Viscount Beaulieu, and his wife Josephine, subsequently espoused by Napoleon, were natives of Martinique. (*Notices sur les Colonies Françaises*, i. 27-124; *Official Publications*; Hugo, *art. Martinique*.)

MAEWAU, a native state of Hindostan. See JOURN-ROON.

MARYBOROUGH, an inland town of Ireland, Queen's Co., of which it is the cap.; prov. Leinster, on a branch of the Barrow, 46 m. S.W. Dublin. Pop., in 1821, 2,677; in 1841, 3,633. "It is a town of very little importance or wealth, possessing a very inconsiderable market, compared to Mount Mellick and other towns in the co.; but within the last few years the quantities of grain brought to market have increased." (*Mss. Bound. Report*.) It is straggling and mostly built. The new co. prison has 36 other prisoners' rooms held here; and the district lunatic asylum has accommodation for 104 patients. It has 3 schools, one for boys, another for girls, and one for both, partly supported by and connected with the Educational Board, which, in 1839, were attended by 743 children. When the territory of Leix was made shire-ground, at the close of the reign of Philip and Mary, this place, previously a border fortress, was fixed on as the assize town, and named from the reigning queen. It changed masters several times during the war of 1641. It has several good public buildings, among which are the par. church, Rom. Cath. chapel, a convent, Presbyterian and Methodist meeting-houses, the infirmary for the co., the district lunatic asylum lately erected for King's and Queen's Cos., Westmeath and Longford, the new co. court-house and prison, with barracks, schools, &c. It is a constabulary station. The corporation, under a charter of Elizabeth, in 1570, consists of a burgomaster, two bailiffs, and an indefinite number of burghesses and freemen. It returned 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C. till the Union, when it was disfranchised. The assizes are held here; and general assizes in April and October, and petty sessions weekly. Rathleague, the seat of Lord Conington, and Ballinacorney, the seat of Sir Charles Coote, are in the immediate vicinity of the town.

MARYLAND, one of the U. States of N. America, on both sides Chesapeake Bay, between lat. 38° and 39° 40' N., and long. 75° and 79° 20' W., having N. Pennsylvania, W. and S.W. Virginia, E. Delaware, and S.E. the Atlantic. Area estimated at about 10,800 sq. m. (*Pop.*) Pop., in 1840, 470,019, of whom 85,737 were slaves. The two portions into which Chesapeake Bay divides the state are called the E. and W. shores; the former being low, undulating, and alluvial, while that on the W. side, though at first of the same character, gra-

dually rises on proceeding westward; and the N.W. part of the state is traversed by some offsets of the Alleghanies, which have an elevation of about 2,000 ft. The Potomac, which divides the state from Virginia, and the Susquehanna, which falls into the innermost extremity of Chesapeake Bay, are the only considerable rivers. The climate of the hill country is healthy and agreeable; but along the coast the heats in summer are sometimes oppressive, and destructive fevers frequently prevail. The mean annual temp. at Baltimore is about 55° Fahr. The soil is particularly fertile in the valleys between the mountain ranges of the W.; but elsewhere it is of very various qualities, and towards the coast is often sterile. Large quantities of excellent wheat, of a variety supposed to be peculiar to this state, is raised, especially on the E. shore; the crop, however, is rather precarious; and Indian corn is probably the principal produce. (*Encyc. of Geog.*, Amer. edit., iii. 513.) Tobacco is the other great staple, and is grown almost exclusively on the W. shore. (For an account of the quantities of these staples inspected in Maryland, see BALTIMORE, in this Dict., i. 385.) Most part of the products of the more N., and some common to the more S. states, are cultivated. Fruits and sweet potatoes are grown in abundance; a little cotton is raised for domestic purposes; and hemp and flax are grown in the W. The forests abound with trees, producing mast, which feeds great numbers of hogs. Beef and mutton are also plentiful, and large quantities of provisions are shipped from Baltimore. The fisheries are actively carried on in the bay and along the coast, and, in 1835, upwards of 40,000 barrels of herrings, 5,500 do. shad, and 16,000 do. mackerel, were inspected at Baltimore. Coal of good quality is found in the W. part of the state, in two principal fields, one of which extends over an area of 400 sq. m. Iron is every where abundant; and the bog-ore wrought on the E. shore yields at an average from 40 to 50 per cent. of metal. Sulphuret of copper, chrome and alum earths, green vitriol, and various fine marbles, are among the other mineral products. The manufactures consist principally of coarse cotton fabrics, and of hardware, salts, earthenware, &c. The principal articles of export are flour and tobacco; and, next to these, lumber, iron, Indian corn, pork, flax seed, and beans. Exclusive of her very extensive trade with other parts of the Union, the total value of the exports from Maryland to foreign countries, during the year ending June, 1849, amounted to 8,000,660 dollars, and of that of the imports, during the same year, to 4,976,731 dollars.

The canals and railways of Maryland are on a large scale. The Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, intended to unite Georgetown in the district of Columbia, with Pittsburgh on the Ohio, was commenced in 1828, and, in 1839, 136 m. had been completed. It is generally from 60 to 70 ft. wide; though in parts it is contracted to 50 and expanded to 150 ft.; its depth is 6 ft. The rise to William's Port, 105 m. from Georgetown, is 253 ft., which is "overcome by 44 locks 100 ft. long by 15 ft. wide. There are in this distance 119 culverts, and 6 aqueducts, one of which is 1,714 ft. long; the culverts, aqueducts, and locks, are all built of solid stone masonry; the cost of the work, thus far, is estimated at about 4,100,000 dollars. The legislature of the state has also appropriated 1,000,000 dollars, for the construction of branch canals to Baltimore and Annapolis." (*Bradford*.) The aggregate length of the railroads in Maryland, in 1849, was between 260 and 370 m.; and the Baltimore and Ohio railway is the most stupendous national work undertaken in America. Its length, when finished, will be at least 300 m., within which a rise of 985 ft. must be overcome. In 1849, 178 m. of the work had been completed. In 1849, there were in the state 21 banks, 2 branch banks, with an aggregate capital estimated at 8,704,711 dollars. The legislative government is vested in a senate and a house of delegates, together styled the General Assembly of Maryland. The H. of Deleg., comprising 83 mems., is chosen every second year by the votes of the free white male citizens above 21 years of age, who have resided a year in the state, and 6 months in the county for which votes are tendered. The senate is composed of 31 mems., and is elected every 6th year. The governor and executive council are elected annually by the people, and appoint all subordinate officers of state.

Annapolis is the seat of the state government; but Baltimore is the commercial capital, and, in pop. and importance, the fourth city of the Union. (*See BALTIMORE*.) Maryland is divided into 30 counties, Frederick, Hagerburg, and William's Port, are the other principal towns, and 6 judicial districts, each comprising 2, 3, or 4 counties. Each of these districts has a chief judge and 2 associates; the 6 chief judges constituting the court of appeal for the state. Judges hold office during good behaviour. The militia, in 1838, consisted of an aggregate of 46,864 men. Maryland has a fund for the support of free schools, which, in 1831, amounted to 142,063 dollars, and possesses several large and important colleges, including Maryland University and St. Mary's College,

with a library of 12,000 vols., at Baltimore; St. John's College, at Annapolis; Mount St. Mary's, at Emmitsburg, &c. In 1849, the aggr. state debt amounted to 15,900,000 dollars, now well provided for. The inhab. are mostly Rom. Catholics or Methodists.

Maryland was first colonized by Lord Baltimore, and about 200 Rom. Catholic emigrants in 1634. It remained a proprietary government until the revolution of 1688, when it became a royal prov.; but in 1716 it was restored to the descendants of its original possessor, and retained by them till the independence of America. Its constitution was formed in 1776, and dates next in order to that of Virginia; it has, however, received several important alterations and amendments at different periods. (*Darby's Views of the U. States; American Almanack, 1849-50; Encyc. of Geog. Amer. edit.*)

MARYPORT, a sea-port town of England, co. Cumberland, par. of Cross Canoby, Allerdale Ward, on the Solway Frith, close to the mouth of the Ellen, 25 m. S.W. Carlisle. Pop., in 1841, 5,311. It is neat and well-built, and, from its salubrity, is much frequented by summer visitors. A modern townhall, and sundry places of worship, are its chief public edifices. A national school furnishes instruction to children of both sexes, and there is a school of industry for girls. The present importance of Maryport, which, in 1750, was a mere hamlet, is attributable to the rise of an extensive coal-trade with Ireland and Scotland, no fewer than 197,061 tons of coal having been shipped here in 1849. It has also ship-building yards; and sail-cloth, ropes, blocks, &c., are made on a pretty extensive scale. A pier has been erected, and there are commodious quays and staiths; but the harbour dries at low water, and has only 12 ft. at high water springs, and 8 at neaps.

MASCALL, a town of Sicily, intend. Catania, cap. canton, at the E. base of Mount Ætna, on a small river about 2 m. from the sea, and 10 m. S.W. Taormina. Pop. in 1831, 3,068. Its district is exceedingly fertile, and the town was formerly flourishing, but it is now rapidly decaying, while several of its dependent villages are proportionally thriving and increasing, particularly Giarre and Riposto.

MASSA-CARRARA (DUCHEY OF). See **MODENA**.

MASSACHUSETTS, one of the U. States of N. America, in the N. part of the Union, in the distr. known by the name of New England; and which, though comparatively small, is one of the most important and flourishing states belonging to the Confederacy. It extends between lat. 41° 12' and 42° 52' N., and long. 69° 50' and 73° 30' W. having N. Vermont and New Hampshire, W. New York, S. Connecticut and Rhode Island, and E. the Atlantic, the islands of Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket in that ocean being comprised in this state. Greatest length, W.N.W. and E.S.E., 190 m.; ordinary breadth, between 40 and 50 m.; area, 7,900 sq. m. Pop., in 1830, 610,408; in 1840, 727,699, or 93 to the sq. m., being the most densely peopled state of the Union. Generally speaking, the country ascends according to the distance inland, the general slope being from W. to E. The coast presents a deep and admirable bay, between Cape Ann and Cape Cod; from which the state has derived its name. A sandy, and in some parts marshy plain extends several miles into the interior: this is abruptly succeeded by a hilly country, which occupies all the central parts of the state, abounding with valleys of various extent, numerous rivers, and extensive pine plains. The valley of the Connecticut river separates this region from the third, or mountainous, or most westerly division of the state. It is well watered, but no large river rises within it. Next to the Connecticut, the chief river is the Merrimack, which runs through its N.E. parts, and falls into the sea near Boston. There are no large lakes, but numerous ponds. The climate varies according to elevation; but is generally dry and healthy, and the atmosphere serene. The thermometer, it is said, in the plains, during summer, often exceeds 77° Fahr., and sometimes rises to 100°. In some of the central and W. districts the soil is strong and rich; but in general it is poor rather than otherwise; though the active perseverance of its inhab. and good cultivation have rendered it highly productive. In no part of the U. S. have greater advances been made in agriculture; but lately the pre-eminence of Massachusetts in this respect has not been maintained, and her crops have declined. Maize, rye, wheat, oats, barley, peas, beans, buckwheat, potatoes, hops, flax, and hemp are the chief agricultural products. Great quantities of cider also are made, and fruits and garden vegetables extensively grown. But notwithstanding, Massachusetts is indebted to the southern states, especially to N. York, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, for by far the largest portion of her supplies of flour and corn; and to these and the other states she is indebted for cotton (about 340,000 bales), staves, coal, &c. Beef, pork, butter, and cheese, are of excellent quality, and so abundant as to form a considerable article of export; the W. part of the state is

especially distinguished for its extensive dairies. Mr. Stuart speaks in high terms of the cheerful appearance and flourishing condition of the rural districts of Massachusetts. "The whole of the villages, from Northampton to Boston, Belchertown, Ware, and Worcester, are handsomely laid out, and comfortable places; and every thing about them is so neat, and so much in order, that it is delightful to see them. About Northampton there is more appearance of real comfort and beautiful village scenery than I have seen any where else." (l. 294.) Agriculture is here, however, of inferior importance to manufactures and commerce, in which Massachusetts ranks second perhaps to no state in the Union, unless it be New York. Nearly 60 millions of dollars are said to be invested in manufacturing stock; of which a large proportion is employed in Lowell, which, next to Pittsburgh, is the chief manufacturing town in the U. States, and may be styled the Manchester of America. (See **LOWELL**.) Next to cotton goods, boots and shoes are the chief manufactured articles; from 3 to 4 million pairs are annually made at Lynn and other places in this state, principally for export to the southern states and the W. Indies. Spirits, leather, cordage, wrought and cast iron, nails, woollens, paper, straw bonnets, hats, oil, and muskets, are the other principal manufactures. There is a large national establishment for the manufacture of arms at Springfield. There are numerous iron mines, and some also of lead. Excellent marble and granite, slate, limestone, &c., are obtained. The whale, cod, and other fisheries of the U. States centre principally in Massachusetts, and are at once a principal employment and a most productive source of wealth. The chief exports of this state, exclusive of its manufactures and the produce of its fisheries, are beef, pork, lumber, spirits, fax seed, &c. During the year ending the 30th of June, 1849, the value of the foreign produce imported into Massachusetts amounted to 24,748,917 dollars, while the value of her exports to foreign countries amounted to only 10,264,822 dollars; the excess of the value of the former over that of the latter being defrayed by bills on New York, Philadelphia, and other states, which are always largely indebted to Massachusetts. The aggregate burden of the ships belonging to Massachusetts in the same year amounted to 636,599 tons, being more than 1-5th part of the tonnage of the Union, and more than that of any other single state, New York excepted. (For further details as to the trade of Massachusetts, see **BOERON**.) The internal communications are very extensive and important. In 1849 it had 21 railways of the aggregate length of 844; the revenue from which in 1848, amounted to 8,900,657 dollars. Of these, Quincy railway, the first work of the kind finished in the U. S., was completed in 1827; but the principal are those from Boston to Providence, Worcester, and Lowell, that from Worcester to Springfield, and the Western railway, now completed from Boston to Albany, New York. There are also several canals of considerable length: that connecting Boston harbour with the Merrimack (completed in 1808) was the first canal of any size undertaken in the Union. Massachusetts had, in 1850, 119 banks with a united capital of 34,638,011 dollars, and in 1848, the aggregate deposits in which amounted to 11,970,445 dollars.

Till lately the legislature of Massachusetts had a greater number of members than that of any other state of the Union: but the amended constitution of 1840 reduced the senate to 40 mems.; and the number of representatives to 356, elected by towns of more than 1,300 inhab. Of the representatives, Boston, the cap., sends 26; Lowell, 9; Salem, 6; and Charlestown and New Bedford, 5 each, &c. The right of election is in every male citizen 21 years of age who has resided within the state for 3 years, and within the town or district for which he desires to vote for 6 months preceding the election. Elections take place annually for senators, representatives, the governor, lieutenant-governor, and a council of 9 mems., intended to assist the executive, and chosen from among the people at large by a joint vote of the senators and representatives. The salary of the governor is 2,500 dollars a year. The supreme court of justice sits at Boston; it consists of a chief justice, 4 assistant judges, and other officers. There is a court of common pleas, and other courts are established in each co.; the different judges of all the courts are appointed by the governor and council, and hold office during "good behaviour." Every able-bodied white male citizen between 18 and 45 (with certain exceptions) is required to enrol himself in the militia; but the active militia consists of only 10,000 men, called out at different times. Education is very widely diffused. In 1848-49, the number of scholars attending public schools in winter was about 185,000. There are 67 corporate and 1,096 unincorporated academies and superior private schools. In 1848-49, the sum of 784,943 dollars, was raised by taxes for the support of schools. The principal educational establishments are—Harvard university, near Boston; Phillips, Dummer, Leicester and Derby academies; William's and Amherst colleges;

several theological seminaries, and other special schools. Learned societies, mechanics' institutes, lyceums, reading societies, and public libraries, are numerous. The number of churches as compared with the pop. is greater in this than in any other state of the union; and the inhabs. are distinguished by their industry, sobriety, and good morals. The public debt at the close of 1839 amounted to 5,000,000 doll.

This state was first permanently settled by a party of emigrants from England, who landed at Plymouth in 1620. Another settlement was formed at Salem in 1638, and both were united by charter under the same government with Maine in 1692. The first engagement with the forces of the mother country occurred at Lexington in this state, 19th April, 1775. Massachusetts sends 12 mems. to congress. (*Mitchell's United States; Darby; Ameri-cum Almanack*, 1834-41.

MASSA-DUCALE, or DI-CARRARA, a town of N. Italy, belonging to the Modenese dom., cap. duchy of same name, on the road between Genoa and Leghorn, 3 m. from the Mediterranean, and 29 m. N.W. Lucca. Pop. estimated by Rampoldi at 7,000. It is distinguished by the beauty and salubrity of its situation, and is clean and well built, but has few remarkable edifices. Its ancient cathedral was pulled down by Eliza Bacciocchi, sister of Napoleon, when queen of Etruria, on account of its being too near the royal palace. It has an academy of sculpture and architecture, a seminary, college, hospital, public library, and an old castle now used as a prison. It is the see of a bishop; and has manufactures of silk stuffs, and some trade in soap, oil, and other agricultural products, and in the fine marble of its vicinity, as to which see CARRARA in this Dict. (Vol. I. p. 546.)

MASSAFRA, a town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Otranto, cap. canton, on the road from Bari to Taranto, 10 m. N.W. the last-named city. Pop. about 7,000. "Massafa is prettily situated on the slope of a hill interspersed with tufts of trees and shrubs; but when near it, it assumes a most singular appearance. The rock on which it stands is perforated and worked into a thousand fantastic shapes. The houses stand on the brink of a narrow valley, or rather chasm, worked through the rock by the action of running water." (*Burgess's Greece*, &c. i. 22.) The town is walled, and is conjectured by some authors to occupy the site of the *Messapia* of antiquity; but others contend that Messagna, between Oria and Brindisi, is the modern representative of that ancient city.

MASSAT, a town of France, dép. Ariège, cap. cant. in a fertile valley, 14 m. W. S.W. Foix. Pop. in 1836, 7,180. There are in its vicinity numerous iron mines, the working of which employs a considerable portion of the people.

MASUAH, the principal sea-port of Abyssinia, on the Red Sea, on an island separated from the continent by the narrow but deep channel of Adowa, 260 m. N.E. Gondar, and 430 m. S. by E. Djidda: lat. 16° 30' 45" N., long. 39° 34' E. Pop. 2,000. The island in which Masuah stands is only about ½ m. in length, and ¼ m. in breadth, one-third of its extent being occupied by houses. The town has several stone houses, two stories high; but most of them are in ruins. The other dwellings are mere huts, built, as in Arabia, with poles and bent grass. The only public buildings are four mosques, of small size and rude architecture. Owing to the total absence of springs, water is very scarce, and is collected in large public tanks, that occupy nearly a third part of the island. The harbour, though having a narrow entrance, can accommodate about 50 vessels; and is safe, deep, and easily accessible. The trade carried on between Masuah and the ports of Arabia is of considerable importance. From Djidda are brought many articles of European manufacture, embroidered velvets, arms, glassware, silks, and satins; while Mocha furnishes Indian

fabrics of every quality, from the finest muslins to the coarse Surat cloths, used as articles of dress in a great part of Africa. The exports comprise a considerable numbers of slaves, gold-dust, ivory, rhinoceros' horns, and corn, brought from the interior by a large caravan, which arrives in Feb. The Nabye demands 10 per cent., and *saladim* on all exports and imports, and the same amount of duty is levied by the Imâm. (*Valentin's Travels*, ii. 46-63.)

MASULIPATAM. See CIRCARS (NORTHERN). MASULIPATAM, a fortress and town of British India, presid. Madras, cap. of the above distr., on the Coromandel coast, 230 m. N.N.E. Madras; lat. 16° 15' N., long. 81° 14' E. The fort is of an oblong figure, 800 yds. by 600, in the midst of a salt morass, and close to a canal communicating with the Krishna. By means of this canal the surrounding country may be entirely inundated, a circumstance constituting the chief strength of the place. The *pettah*, or native town, is about 1½ m. to the N.W.; it is very extensive, and, for a Hindoo town, tolerably well built. Masulipatam stands on the only part of the Coromandel coast which is not beat with a heavy surf. Its port receives vessels of 300 tons; and it was for a lengthened period a place of considerable trade with Bengal, China, Birmah, Persia, and Arabia. Its commerce is now, however, greatly fallen off, and scarcely extends beyond Calcutta on one side, and Bussorah on the other. Its chief exports are piece-goods and tobacco. The chintees of Masulipatam, though not equal to those of Europe, have been long, and deservedly, celebrated, and are very generally worn in some parts, especially in Persia. This town is the residence of the district collector and judge. It was conquered by the Bhamenee sovereigns of the Decca, in 1480, ceded to the French in 1751, and taken by the British in 1769.

MATANZAS, a sea-port town of Cuba, ranking next to the Havannah, in commercial importance, on the N. coast of the island, at the bottom of a deep bay, 52 m. E. Havannah; lat. 23° 2' 28" N., long. 81° 37' 44" W. Pop. in 1837 (incl. garrison and strangers, estimated at 3,000), 14,241: of the resident pop., 6,333 were whites, 1,141 free people of colour, and 3,067 slaves; but, at present (1850), the pop. is, probably, not under 50,000. It is pretty well built, has some good streets, and about one third part of its houses are of stone. It has a large hospital, a good par. church, barracks, theatre, 3 market-places, 2 printing-offices, a bathing-establishment, &c.; and in the neighbourhood is a considerable sugar-refinery, belonging to an English firm. The bay of Matanzas, defended by the castle of San Severino, is extensive and is exposed only to the N.E. wind. The harbour, in front of the city, is protected by a ledge of rock 4 ft. below the surface, which serves as a natural breakwater, to defend the vessels at anchor within it from the swell. There are two channels by which to enter, the one by the N., the other by the S. end of the ledge; but the S. channel is fit only for coasting vessels. There are two rivers, one on each side of the town, which deposit so much mud at their mouths as greatly to diminish the extent of the anchorage-ground, and render it necessary to load and discharge the shipping by lighters and launches. (*Turkey's Cuba*, 217-219.; *Comm. Dic.*, &c., passim.)

Matanzas, though situated in one of the most fertile districts of this noble island, was an inconsiderable place till within the last 40 years. Under the old colonial government, it was merely a subsidiary port to the Havannah, and was not allowed to carry on any direct intercourse with foreign countries; but this impolitic restriction being removed in 1809, Matanzas immediately became the centre of a considerable trade; and the town and its commerce have since continued to increase, with the rapidly increasing cultivation of sugar and coffee, and other colonial staples in the adjoining districts. The great importance of the trade of Matanzas will be seen from the subjoined account of the

Shipments of Sugar, Coffee, and Molasses, from Matanzas in 1847, Vessels cleared out, &c.

Destinations of Exports.	Sugar.	Coffee.	Molasses.	Ships cleared out.		
				Flags.	Ships.	Tonnage.
North America - - -	Basee, 115,102	Loe, 400,480	Blade, 39,308	American - - -	515	59,057½
England and Dependencies - -	124,801	246,273	12,001	English - - -	118	30,697½
Hamburg and Bremen - - -	24,383	5,009,145		Spanish - - -	77	15,044½
The Baltic - - -	16,332	350		French - - -	4	1,287
Holland - - -	7,403	150	2,500	German - - -	34	11,320
Belgium - - -	14,295		1,096	Russian - - -	4	1,210
France - - -	8,865	201,250		Prussian - - -	3	1,092
Spain - - -	16,419	176,554	96½	Swedish - - -	6	2,419
Other places - - -	51,334	800,835		Norwegian - - -	8	786
				Brazilian - - -	3	850½
Total - - -	387,174	4,991,837½	55,021½		667	153,339

MATARO (an. *Iluro*), a sea-port town of Spain, in Catalonia, 20 m. N.E. Barcelona. Lat. 41° 23' N., long. 2° 30' E. Pop., according to Mifano, 12,949. The more ancient or Moorish portion of the town stands on a slight eminence, at a short distance from the shore, and is surrounded by walls: its streets are narrow and crooked, with the exception of the Riera, which is wide and straight, lined with rows of trees, and forming an agreeable promenade. The new town, which stretches eastward along the sea-shore, is much larger and more regularly built, with wide streets, and respectable houses. A parish church and a general hospital, with 2 or 3 large buildings, formerly used as monasteries, are the only public edifices. The town is celebrated for the excellence of its red wine and brandy, much of which is exported to the U. States. Its cloth fabrics, which were favourably noticed by Townsend (l. 102.), have much declined; and, since the emancipation of the colonies, its exports of cotton-prints, ribbands and lace, have become quite inconsiderable. The port has a ship-building yard; and there is good anchorage for merchant-ships close in shore. "The neighbourhood is very picturesque, and the country-houses and cottages have an air of greater neatness and comfort; the windows are raised, and the inmates of the dwellings display a good stock of furniture. No beggars and fewer ragged people are seen; industry is evidently active; the ground is better cleared, fences (made of the American aloë) are more general and more neatly constructed; nobody is seen basking in the sun. In short, there is altogether a new order of things, quite different from that seen in any other part of Spain." (*Ingles*, ii. 304.)

MATHURA, or **MUTTRA**, a celebrated town and place of pilgrimage in Hindostan, prov. Agra, on the Jumna, 20 m. N.W. Agra. lat. 27° 31' N., long. 77° 23' E. It is highly venerated by the Hindoos, from its being the birthplace of their deity Krishna, and consists chiefly of one continued street of temples and ghauts, which, though they do not exhibit the architectural magnificence of similar structures in S. India, have, nevertheless, considerable elegance and richness. Mathura was taken in 1019 by Mahmoud of Ghiznee, who despoiled it of an immense quantity of gold, silver, and gems, threw down many of its temples, and desecrated others by converting them into mosques. Under Acbar and his successors, however, the Hindoos were permitted to rebuild and improve the city and a temple, erected about that period, is said to have cost 60 lacs of rupees. But this splendid edifice was destroyed by Aurungsebe, who built on the spot a mosque with the materials. Another large mosque, built by a Mohammedan governor, is now in a state of decay. Some extensive cantonments are separated from the town by an interval of broken ground covered with ruins. Mathura has a fort, in which is an observatory, founded by the rajah Jey-Singh of Jyepoor. At the end of the last century it was the head-quarters of the commander of Scindia's infantry; but it was, however, taken, without opposition, by the British in 1803. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*)

MATLOCK, a village and par. of England, celebrated for its mineral waters, hund. Wyrksworth, co. Derby, on the Derwent, 14 m. N. by W. Derby, and 125 m. N.N.W. London. Area of par., 3,960 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,782. The town is beautifully situated, partly in a valley and partly on the slope of a hill rising E. from the Derwent, here crossed by a neat stone bridge: the houses are chiefly of stone. The church, picturesquely situated on the brow of a rock, rising perpendicularly above the river, and embosomed in trees, is a small edifice, in the perpendicular English style, with a square tower at its W. end: the living is a rectory (ann. val. 320l.), in the gift of the Dean of Lincoln. There are also four places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists, Independents, and other dissenters, with attached Sunday-schools, providing religious instruction for between 400 and 500 children of both sexes. There is also an endowed school, for clothing and educating 300 boys. In 1839, a cotton-mill employed about 300 hands; it has, also, a large paper-mill; and the lead mines in the neighbouring hills employ about 150 hands. A museum of mineralogy, established here a few years ago, contains a great many valuable specimens of ore, &c., peculiar to this district. Visitors purchase considerable quantities of Derbyshire spar. But the chief dependence of the inhab. is on the supply of those

who come here during summer, to use the mineral waters; which are considered beneficial in cases of glandular affections, scrofula, bilious disorders, pulmonary complaints, and diabetes. The springs, which first attracted notice, for their medicinal qualities, in 1698, when the first, or old bath, was built, are about 14 m. S. of Matlock, on the W. bank of the river; and here are the hotels, libraries, and lodging-houses, to which the visitors chiefly resort. Other two springs have been discovered, each of which is now enclosed, with a handsome edifice, conveniently fitted up with baths and pump-rooms. The waters have a temperature of about 66° or 68° Fahr., and hold in solution only a small quantity of carbonate of lime, their specific gravity being less than that of ordinary water: it would hence appear, though having a lower temperature, greatly to resemble the Buxton and Bristol waters.

The scenery of Matlock-dale is peculiarly picturesque and romantic, diversified with rugged beetling crags, strongly contrasted with the fine verdure of the valley; the most prominent objects being the High Tor and Masson Hill. The former rises almost perpendicularly about 300 ft., the upper half of which is a broad mass of naked brown rock, from which fragments often fall into the river which flows immediately below, obstructing the channel, and greatly increasing the impetuosity of the stream after heavy rains. Opposite the High Tor, but of a less bold, though loftier, character, is Masson Hill; on the summit of which are the heights of Abraham, rising about 750 ft. above the river, and not only overlooking the whole dale, but commanding an extensive prospect over a considerable part of Derbyshire. Willesley Castle, the seat of Mr. Arkwright, son of the great founder of the cotton manufacture, stands on a commanding eminence E. of the Derwent. (*Parl. Rep.; Priv. Inform.*)

MAUCHLINE, a neat village of Scotland, co. Ayr, on an eminence 1 m. N. from the river Ayr, 37 m. S. by W. Glasgow. Pop., in 1841, 1,336. The only public buildings are the par. church, Free church, and a chapel of the Associate Synod. It has a woollen mill, which employs about 25 hands; and hand-loom weaving and tamboouring for the Glasgow manufacturers employ about 200 hands. It has also a manufacture of beautifully jointed and varnished wooden snuff-boxes, similar to those made at Cumnock and Laurence Kirk. There are 4 schools in the town, of which 3 are endowed: 2 subscription libraries, and a savings' bank. The village of Catrine (l. 563.), is 3 m. S.E. from the town.

This place, trifling as it is, has been "married to immortal verse." Burns lived for nearly 9 years at the farm of Mossiel, ½ m. N. of the village; and M. uclhine was the birthplace of "bonnie Jean," and is the scene of two of his inimitable poems, "The Jolly Beggars," and "The Holy Fair."

MAULMAIN, or **MOULMEIN**, a sea-port town of India, situated on the Ganges, near British prov. Mahratta, at the mouth of the great river Than-yeung, having N. the Birmeese town of Martaban, on the opposite side of the river, and W. the island of Balu, which serves as a natural breakwater to defend the port from the heavy seas than would otherwise be thrown in from the W., 100 m. S. S. E. Rangoon, 27 m. N.N.E. Amherst; lat. 16° 29' 36" N., long. 97° 25' 6" E. It was founded so late as 1825, when the site was selected by Sir A. Campbell, as eligible as well for a commercial as a military station. It is about 200 ft. above the level of the river, and extensive and fertile plains stretch eastwards from it towards the mountains. Its port is good, and, from its extensive command of internal navigation, it promises to become a considerable emporium. The principal articles of export are teak timber, and rice; but there is also a considerable export of Pegu cutch, stic-lac, betel-nut, ivory, cocoa-nut, sapan wood, rice, &c. The imports consist principally of European cotton goods, and marine stores. The principal trade of the place has hitherto been carried on with Calcutta, Madras, Rangoon, and Pinang; but, in 1837, a direct trade was commenced with London. Ship-building is carried on to a considerable extent. We have no very recent accounts of the pop.; but, in 1848, it was estimated at 25,000. An English newspaper (*the Maulmain Free Press*), from which we borrow the following details, is published once a week:—

Imports, 1847.				Exports, 1847.			
European goods	-	-	139,398 8 0	European goods	-	-	180,765 0 0
Indian ditto	-	-	69,199 3 0	Indian ditto	-	-	100,231 2 5
China ditto	-	-	71,743 0 0	China ditto	-	-	40,194 0 0
Burmese ditto	-	-	135,010 0 0	Burmese ditto	-	-	8,270 0 0
Rice and paddy	-	-	850 0 0	Rice and paddy	-	-	107,468 0 0
Miscellaneous	-	-	304,997 10 0	Timber	-	-	881,917 14 0
				Miscellaneous	-	-	144,642 19 0
Cof's Re.	-	-	707,508 6 0	Cof's Re.	-	-	1,399,755 14 5

"The principal article of commerce at Maulmain is teak timber, with which from 25 to 30 ships annually load for England. The quantity of teak exported to that country from 1840 to 1847, and its estimated official value, was as follows:—

Year.	No. of Tons.	Price per Ton.	Value.
		Rs.	£
1840	4,958	25	12,340
1841	6,399	25	15,998
1842	11,617	25	29,042
1843	16,599	30	31,598
1844	14,445	40	49,375
1845	13,360	50	53,448
1846	15,798	45	75,591
1847	7,573	50	39,365

"Maulmain is a free port, on the same footing as Singapore, &c. There is no custom-house and no duties on warehouse goods; but foreign sugar, and sugar from Singapore and Malacca, is contraband.

"The opium in use are the Company's opium and its subdivisions, the same as current in Calcutta. The English sovereign is generally valued at 11 rupees, and the British dollar at 130 rupees per 100 dollars.

"The weights are the Madras (viz equal to 5,055 lbs. avoirdupois, or say 5 lbs.); in this there are 100 tola. The Bengal bazar measure of 84 lbs. is also occasionally used.

"The measures principally used are called *kalas*; they are of uncertain size. A basket of cleaned rice is about 65 lbs. in weight; of mixed, about 60 lbs.; paddy, 51 lbs.

"Ship-building is well adapted to the place, and some of the finest teak ships in the world have been built here. There are several dry docks, though not of a very efficient description, for repairing vessels. Her Majesty's government bought here, during 1847, upwards of 5,000 tons of teak for the royal dock-yards in England.

"The Tenasserim Provinces are about 80 m. long and 40 to 80 broad, forming an area of 30,000 sq. m. They extend from 1° 30' to 10° 10' between the parallels of longitude 92° 30' to 92° 20'. The population of the provinces exceeds 150,000. The towns of Tavoy and Mergui, to the southward of Maulmain, are the only other places of importance in the provinces. Their trade is confined to country craft. A constant intercourse is carried on between Maulmain and Rangoon (the commercial capital of Burmah), and a vessel arrives and departs from one port to the other almost daily.

"Maulmain is subject to Bengal in civil matters, and to Madras in military. It is ruled by a commissioner and several assistants.

"From May to Sept. are the rainy months, and perhaps in no other part of the world does it pour down so vigorously. In the 4 months of July, August, September, and October, 195 inches of rain have been known to fall, of which 70 inches was in the single month of July. Notwithstanding this excessive moisture, the climate is exceedingly favourable to the European constitution, and is considered about the healthiest in Asia. The number of deaths in an European regiment of 800 men averaged 3 per cent. per ann. in a range of 5 years." (*Maulmain Free Press*, 20th Oct. 1848.)

MAURA (SANTA) (an. *Leucas*), one of the Ionian islands, off the W. coast of Greece, and separated from it only by a channel about 100 yards broad, and so shallow, as in some places to be fordable: 46 m. S. E. Corfu, and 7 m. N. Cephalonia, its cap. Amaxichi being in lat. 23° 50' 15" N., long. 20° 43' E. Length, 23 m.; average breadth, 8 m. Area, about 180 sq. m. Pop., including troops, in 1836, 17,283. It is intersected by a chain of mountains, running N. and S. through its whole extent, and rising in some places to the height of 3,000 ft., whence secondary ridges branch off in various directions, forming a few small valleys admitting cultivation; but most of the produce is raised on a narrow strip of land, stretching about 20 m. along the N. W. side of the island, and comprising the residences of the greater part of the pop. The soil is generally very scanty; and many parts of the surface exhibit nothing but bare rock, interspersed with small patches of verdure: indeed, only about 1.8th part of the surface is capable of cultivation. In the valleys, the soil is either alluvial, or a red loamy earth, tenacious of moisture. There are no rivers; and, though numerous torrents flow from the mountains during the winter months, their channels are quite dry in the summer. There is a winter lake, if we may so call it, about 6 m. S. of Amaxichi, in the bottom of a valley, surrounded by lofty mountains, which dries in summer, and produces rich crops. At the S. end of the island is a shallow lagoon called the Venetian harbour, now rapidly filling up by the accumulation of sand and mud, the banks of which are said to be exceedingly unhealthy. The temperature of Santa Maura, like that of the other islands, is extremely variable: the thermometer in autumn often rising or falling 20° in 24 hours. In the valleys it seldom falls to the freezing point; but occasionally there is snow on the hills. The quantity of rain, and the seasons in which it falls, are much the same as in the adjacent islands. The low grounds are very un-

healthy; and fever usually prevails at Amaxichi during summer, attended with a mortality in some years of 1 in 19 of the pop.: indeed, most of the natives, except those living on the mountains, present a very sickly appearance. (*Major Tulloch's Reports*.) The quantity of corn raised in the island is barely sufficient for half the consumption of its inhab.; but wine, olive oil, and several varieties of fruit, are produced in great abundance. The sides of the hills afford excellent pasture, and are grazed by large numbers of sheep and goats. Game is plentiful, and bees form an object of rural economy. The salt-pans near Amaxichi produce annually from 5,000 to 6,000 tons of basalt, which, as well as wine, oil, and cotton, are the chief articles of export. The inhab. are of Greek origin, and belong to the Greek church. Many of them are employed as fishermen and sailors; while others, especially at harvest season, cross to the neighbouring continent in quest of agricultural employment.

It has several good ports, and some towns; but none is of any importance, except the cap. AMAXICHI (which see).

The ancient *Leucas* once formed a part of the continent; for Homer expressly terms it *Ἀνὰ Ἴθρυς*, in opposition to *Ιθάκη* and *Cephalonia*. So late as the time of Thucydides, the Peloponnesian fleet was more than once conveyed across the isthmus; and *Levy* informs us that it had its peninsular shape even in the Macedonian war. *Leucadie, vanc insula et vadoso freta quod perfusum manet est, ab Acarnania drisis, tum peninsula erat occidentis regione arctis faucibus coherentis Acarnania. Quingentos ferme passus longe saucera erant: lata haud amplius centum et viginti. In his angustis Leucus posita est, collis applicata verso in orientem et Acarnania.* (*Hist. lib. xxxii. 17*.) The cut here mentioned, called *Dioryctus*, was 3 stadia in length, and, in *Sirabo's* time, was crossed by a bridge. The famous *Leucadian promontory* (now *Cape Ducato*) is a long ridge of white marble rocks, projecting S. about 2 m., terminating in a precipice 30 ft. high. It was surmounted by a temple of *Apollo*, and *Virgil* represents it as an object of dread to mariners:—

Mors et Leucadii rimbos caeruleum monitis.

Et formidatus nautæ aperitur Apollo. *Æn. lib. 7. 74.*

but it is wholly indebted for its immortality of renown to its being

The *Lover's refuge, and the Lesbian's grave.*

—the spot whence *Sappho* precipitated herself into the ocean, resolved either to recover the affections of *Phaon*, or to die in the attempt. (*See Ovidii Epist. Sappho Phaoi*, lin. 165., &c.)

Not far from the promontory stood the very ancient town of *Nericum*, mentioned by *Homer* as *Νηρικόν* *ἑταίρην*, "a well-built city," and of which there are still some small vestiges. The position of the ancient *Leucas* is fixed by *Levy* in the above passage close to the narrow strait which divides the island from *Acarnania*; and *Dr. Holland* mentions the ruins of an ancient town about 2 m. S. of *Amaxichi*, exhibiting the remains of massive old Greek walls, ascending a narrow ridge near the sea, and of numerous sepulchres, which appear among the vineyards covering its declivity. (*Travels in Greece*, p. 63.) The modern history of *Santa Maura* is closely connected with that of the *IONIAN ISLANDS* generally; and to that article the reader is referred. (*Holland*, lib. 34: see also *Dodwell's Greece*, i. 62., &c.)

MAURITIUS (THE), or ISLE OF FRANCE, an island in the Indian Ocean, belonging to Great Britain, situated between 19° 58' and 30° 32' S. lat., and 57° 17' and 57° 46' E. long., from 70 to 80 m. N. E. the Isle de Bourbon, and 500 m. E. Madagascar. It is an irregular oval; length, N. E. to S. W., about 36 m.; breadth varying from 18 to 27 m. Area estimated at nearly 600,000 acres. Pop., in 1844, 161,069, of whom 49,355 were apprentices (slaves) and their children, 65,245 immigrants, and 1,577 military sailors, &c. From whatever quarter it is approached, the aspect is singularly abrupt and picturesque. The land rises rapidly from the coast to the interior, where it forms three chains of mountains, from 1,800 to 2,000 ft. in height, intersecting the country in different directions. Except towards the summit, these are generally covered with wood, and in many parts cleft into deep ravines, through which numerous rivulets find their way to the low grounds, and terminate in about 30 small rivers, by which the whole line of coast is well watered, from the foot of the mountains to the sea. Though, from its mountainous and rugged character, a great part of the interior is not available for any useful purpose, yet extensive plains, several leagues in circumference, are to be found in the high lands; and in the valleys, as well as along the coast, most of the ground is well adapted either for the ordinary purposes of agriculture, or for raising any description of tropical produce. Extensive forests still cover a considerable portion of the districts of *Mahébourg*, the *Savanna*, and *Flacq*, and in the centre of the island are several small lakes. The soil, in many

parts, is exceedingly rich, consisting either of a black vegetable mould, or a bed of stiff clay of considerable depth; occasionally the clay is found mixed with iron ore and the *effluvia* of volcanic rock. In the neighbourhood of Port Louis, and generally in the immediate vicinity of the sea, there is but a scanty covering of light friable soil over a rocky surface of crystalline formation. The whole coast is surrounded by reefs of coral, with the exception of a few openings, through which vessels can approach the shore; and at these points the different military posts for the defence of the island have been established. There is a marked difference in the climate of this island in different situations: the windward (or S.E.) side enjoying a lower temperature by several degrees than the leeward (N.W.), owing to the cooling influence of the S.E. breeze, which prevails during most part of the year.

"In so far as regards temperature, rain, physical aspect, and diversity of climate, this island exhibits a very striking resemblance to Jamaica; though, being S. of the line, the seasons are reversed; summer extending from Oct. to April, and winter during the rest of the year. The principal rainy season is from the end of December to the beginning of April, but showers are frequent at all times. Hurricanes are of frequent occurrence, and create great devastation, with much loss of life: they principally occur in January, February, and March. So far as can be ascertained from the statistical returns of the island, the climate does not exert any prejudicial influence on the health of the white resident pop., though it is by no means favourable to the negro race." (*Tulloch's Report on the Sickness, &c., of the Troops in W. Africa, &c., p. 3, 4, c.*)

Previously to 1823, the sugar and other articles imported from the Mauritius into Great Britain were charged with the same duties that were laid on such articles when imported from India. But at the epoch now alluded to, the produce of the Mauritius was admitted into our markets at the same duties as W. Indian produce, which were then materially lower than those imposed on the produce of our Eastern possessions. This alteration of the duties gave a great stimulus to cultivation in the Mauritius, particularly to that of sugar, which has since been raised, to the almost total exclusion of coffee, cotton, and indigo, that were previously produced in considerable quantities, the coffee especially being of excellent quality. Wheat and maize are raised in small quantities, viz. yams, mace (introduced by the French), potatoes, bananas, and other vegetables. But the island is almost wholly indebted for its supplies of provisions to Hindostan, the Cape of Good Hope, Madagascar, the Ile de Bourbon, &c. Next to sugar, blackwood, or ebony, of which there is an immense supply, and tortoise-shell, are the principal articles of export.

The produce of sugar in the Mauritius amounted, in 1812, to less than one million lbs. In 1814 it amounted to 1,084,254 lbs.; and in 1818, to about 8,000,000 lbs. Since then, but especially since the modification of the duties in 1823, there has been a most extraordinary increase in the growth of sugar in this island. It amounted in

No.		No.	
1829	to - 72,955,877	1843	to - 114,353,807
1835	- 84,400,199	1846	- 112,491,722
1840	- 81,265,399	1847	- 114,245,748

Most part of the sugar produced in the island is sent to England, the imports thence into the U. K. having been, in 1847, 1,194,216 cwt., in 1848, 886,876 cwt., and in 1849, 898,569 cwt. But, in addition to the supplies sent to England, certain quantities are shipped for Australia, the Cape, and other places. The extraordinary extension of the sugar culture has diverted the attention of the planters from the culture of the other great colonial staples. The imports of coffee into the U. K. from the Mauritius, in 1848, amounted to only 45,975 lbs., and in 1849, they sunk to 1,649 lbs. The exports of ebony and pepper, though much fallen off, continue to be pretty considerable. The declared value of the exports from the U. K. to the Mauritius, in 1848, amounted to 169,308*l.*, and in 1849 to 234,022*l.* Manufactured cottons are the great article of export; and next to them, but at a great distance, are iron and steel, hardware and cutlery, beer and ale, apparel, shops, &c. Rice is a large article of import; it is brought, as well as a considerable quantity of wheat, principally from India. Provisions are imported partly from the Cape, and partly from Madagascar. Latterly, however, the blacks have been land as they have been able to acquire.

It is probable that the culture of sugar in the Mauritius has attained to a maximum. Indeed, the presumption seems to be that, in future, it will decline rather than increase. We found this opinion partly and principally on the greater natural facilities enjoyed by India

for the culture of the cane, and partly, also, on the influence of the abolition of slavery, in lessening the supply of compulsory labour in the island.

The emancipation of the slaves in the Mauritius does not appear to have been nearly so prejudicial to agriculture as in the W. India. This arose from the circumstance of its being comparatively easy to fill up the deficiency in the supply of labour caused by this measure by importations of hill-coolies and other Indians; and, in fact, very large numbers of them have been so introduced, the Indians in the colony, on the 31st August, 1849, having amounted to 55,795. It has been said, we know not how truly, that, despite the regulations under which the Indians have been introduced, they have been, in truth, little better than slaves. But, admitting this statement to be true, it would be easy to show that their condition has notwithstanding been materially improved. A few Chinese settlers have, also, been introduced.

The government is vested in a governor, with a salary of 7,000*l.* a year, and a colonial legislative council, subordinate to the orders of the sovereign in council. The governor is aided in his duties by an executive council, composed of the military officer second in command, the colonial secretary, and the advocate-general. The legislative council is composed of 15 members, 7 of whom hold no official situation. Justice is administered in a supreme civil and criminal court, with three judges, a petty court, from which there is no appeal, and such other minor courts as the governor may see fit. Several provisions of the old French law continue in force. The troops employed in the island amounted, in 1847, to 1,861 rank and file. The public revenue, in 1847, amounted to 361,233*l.*, and the internal colonial expenditure to 289,194*l.*, leaving a surplus of about 72,000*l.*, which was to be paid over in aid of the expenditure incurred in Great Britain, in the same year, on account of the colony. The greater portion of the revenue is derived from the customs' duties received at Port Louis.

Port Louis, or N.W. port, the cap. and seat of government, is on the N.W. side of the island, in lat. 20° 9' 6" S., long. 57° 28' 41" E. Pop. 33,000. It is situated at the bottom of a triangular bay, the entrance to which is rather difficult. Every vessel approaching the harbour must hoist her flag and fire 2 guns; if in the night, a light must be shown, when a pilot comes on board, and steers the ship to the entrance of the port. It is a very convenient port for coasting and trading, but provisions of all sorts are dear. In the hurricane months, the anchorage of Port Louis is not good, and it can then only accommodate a few vessels. The streets are tolerably regular; but the houses are low, and are principally built of wood. It has extensive, but generally very filthy suburbs. It suffered severely from fire in 1816, and from the cholera in 1819. The town and harbour are pretty strongly fortified. At the W. extremity of the town are some extensive and commodious barracks; and about 8 m. distant is the hospital, on a peninsula of coral rock, jutting into the sea. Mahébourg, in a healthy situation on the S.E. coast, with an excellent harbour, was opened to ships from distant countries in 1836.

The Mauritius has numerous small dependencies between lat. 3° and 20° S., and long. 50° and 70° E. The chief of these are the Seychelles Islands, between lat. 4° and 5° and about 930 m. N. from the Mauritius; one of which, Mahé, is 16 m. long, by from 3 to 4 m. broad; fertile, well-watered, very healthy, and having a pop. of about 7,000. Mahé, its chief town, has on its N.E. side about 100 wooden houses, and a garrison of 30 men.

The Mauritius was discovered, in 1506, by the Portuguese. The Dutch took possession of it in 1598, and named it Mauritius, in honour of Prince Maurice. They made a settlement in it in 1644, which, however, they abandoned early in the next century. The French having, in 1657, occupied Bourbon, sent occasional settlers to the Mauritius, and, on its evacuation by the Dutch, they established a regular colony in the island in 1715, of which, however, they did not take formal possession till 1731. But the real founder of this important settlement was the justly celebrated M. de la Bourdonnaye, appointed governor in 1734. The Isle de France had hitherto been neglected for that of Bourbon, and was, at the arrival of the new governor, in the most impoverished and disordered state imaginable. But M. de la Bourdonnaye immediately perceived the importance of the island, which its two excellent harbours rendered of the greatest consequence to any European power having, or wishing to have, possessions in India; and he set about its improvement with a zeal, capacity, and success that have rarely been equalled, and never surpassed. Besides extending the culture of the sugar cane, coffee, cotton, and indigo, he introduced the manioc from S. America, and cinnamon, cloves, pepper, &c., from the Dutch islands; though the latter, with the exception of cloves, have not answered his expectations. He fixed the seat of government at Port Louis

* These are French lbs., and are about 8 per cent. heavier than English lbs.

which he may be said to have created as well as fortified; and constructed numerous roads, aqueducts, and other useful public works. His administration continued only for 11 years; and in that short space he contrived to change the whole aspect of the country, and rendered it a most prosperous and valuable colony. Even after the possessions of France in India had all fallen into our hands, the Mauritius continued to be of importance to her, and proved how justly M. de la Bourdonnaye had appreciated its capabilities as a naval station. It was estimated that, during the first 10 years of last war, the value of the British ships captured by privateers and other cruisers from the Mauritius amounted to 2,560,000*fr.* At length, a formidable armament being sent against it in 1810, it surrendered to our arms, and was definitively ceded to us in 1813.

Every body knows that this island is the scene of St. Pierre's inimitable tale of Paul and Virginia. The wreck of the *St. Geran*, so striking and affecting an incident in the story, is a real event, which took place on the 18th of August, 1744. (See *Almanac de l'île Maurice pour 1857*; and *Parl. Papers*.)

MAYBOLE, a bor. of barony and market-town of Scotland, co. Ayr, distr. Carrick, of which it is the cap., on the slope of a hill with a S. exposure, 8 m. S. Ayr, and 26 m. S. by W. Glasgow. Pop. of par. in 1841, 7,027. The town consists mainly of an antique well-built street, interspersed with numerous modern buildings. The superiority of the old houses is owing to Maybole having been, in ancient times, the town residence of the aristocracy of Carrick; and the remains of sundry baronial mansions are still more or less entire. Of these the most imposing is "the Castle," once occupied by the Earls of Cassilis, ancestors of the Marquis of Ailsa, and now (1850) by the factor of the latter. It has recently been completely repaired and renovated. The bor. has a par. church, a Free do. and a U. Presbyterian chapel. Handloom weaving, in connection with Glasgow, is extensively carried on, employing from 600 to 800 hands. The weavers are mostly Irish; boys and females engage in the work, and perpetuate the poverty inseparable from the business. A weekly market is held in the town; and it has 2 branch banks, and a savings' bank. The parish school and the other schools bear a good character. There are 2 subscription and 3 circulating libraries. The assessment for the poor amounted, in 1847, to 600*l.* Some of the best farming in Scotland may be seen in the vicinity of Maybole, especially on the estates of Mr. Kennedy of Drummellan.

Maybole, being the cap. of the bailiery of Carrick, was the seat of the courts of the district previously to the abolition of hereditary jurisdictions in 1747. The remains of Crossraguel Abbey are situated near the town, on the W. A celebrated disputation, which lasted three days, between Quintin Kennedy, one of its abbots, and John Knox, took place, in 1561, in a house in Maybole, now "the Red Lion Inn;" it is needless to add, that it ended, as is universally the case with such disputes, in a drawn battle, each party claiming the victory, and conceiving that he had rendered his antagonist. (*M. Cris's John Knox*, p. 241, ed. 1829. *New Statistical Account of Scotland and Appendix*, p. 348.)

MAYENNE, a dep. of France, reg. N.W., formerly comprised in the prov. of Maine; between lat. 47° 45' and 48° 24' N. and long. 0° 5' and 10° 20' W., having N. Manche and Orne, E. Sarthe, S. Maine-et-Loire, and W. Ille-et-Vilaine. Length, N. to S., 56 m.; average breadth about 30 m. Area, 514,898 hectares. Pop. (1846) 368,489. A mountain chain, though of no great height, bounds Mayenne to the N. from which two ranges strike off to the S., one forming the E., and the other a part of the W. boundary of the dep. It slopes gradually from N. to S., in which direction it is intersected near its centre by its principal river the Mayenne. The latter rises in the dep. of Orne, about 12 m. W. Alençon, running at first S.W., and afterwards generally S., through the dep. of Mayenne and Maine-et-Loire; in the last of which, after receiving the Sarthe and Loire, it assumes the name of the Maine, and falls into the Loire, after an entire course of nearly 180 m. (See also Maine-et-Loire.) Mayenne, Laval, Château-Gontier, and Angers are on its banks. There are numerous small lakes in this dep. In 1824 it was supposed to comprise 354,326 hectares of arable land; 69,236 do. pasture; 35,379 do. woods; and 24,429 do. heaths, wastes, &c. More corn is grown than is required for home consumption. In 1835, the total produce was reckoned at upwards of 3,000,000 hectolitres, chiefly wheat, oats, and rye. The annual produce of cider is said by Hugo to be about 500,000 hect. Some inferior wine is produced, but in small quantities only. Flax, hemp, chestnuts, and some other fruits,

The glacial services rendered by M. de la Bourdonnaye here and in India met with most unequal success. He returned to France, in 1743, he was thrown into the Bastille, where he was imprisoned for more than three years, without, as it turned out, there being the smallest foundation for any one of the charges made against him; He died in the 1750s, of this disastrous treatment, in 1755. (See *Biographie Universelle*, art. *Mémoires de la Bourdonnaye*.)

are the other principal products. Property is very much subdivided; and many of the farms, or rather patches called *cloveries*, are so very small that they do not admit of the use of the plough, and are cultivated by the spade only! In 1826, of 86,803 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 37,137 were assessed at less than 5 *fr.*, 13,009 at from 5 to 10 *fr.*, and 13,231 at from 10 to 20 *fr.*, and only 17 were assessed at 1,000 *fr.* or upwards. We need not, therefore, be surprised to learn that the occupiers are generally destitute of either capital or enterprise, and strongly attached to routine practices. In 1830, there were about 314,000 head of cattle and 144,000 sheep in the dep.; the produce of wool being estimated at 175,000 kilogr. a year. The woods yield excellent timber, a good deal of which is appropriated to ship-building. Some extensive manufactures of linen stuffs and yarn were formerly established at Laval and Château-Gontier. But though these have fallen off, the linen and cotton fabrics, including printed handkerchiefs, &c. of the dep., still enjoy a high reputation. The iron trade of Mayenne is of considerable importance; and it also furnishes superior paper. It is divided into 3 arronds.; chief towns, Laval, the cap., Mayenne, and Château-Gontier. Total public revenue (1844), 7,368,963 *fr.* (Hugo, art. *Mayenne*; *Official Tables*.)

MAYENNE, a town of France, in the above dep., cap. arrond., on both sides the Mayenne, 18 m. N.N.E. Laval. Pop. (1846) 5,270. The town-proper stands on the right, or W. bank of the river; the portion on the opposite bank, though comprising a third of the entire pop., being only a suburb. They are connected by a bridge. This is an ill built town; its streets are steep, irregular, and inconvenient, and its houses old and odd-looking.

Mayenne has a ruined castle, two par. churches, two hospitals, a good town-hall, &c.; and manufactures of linen and cotton fabrics; the former of which has, however, greatly declined of late years, while the latter has increased. (Hugo, art. *Mayenne*; *Guide du Voyageur*.)

MAYN, or **MAIN**, a river of central Germany, which has its source in Bavaria. It is formed by the union, about 24 m. N.W. Bayreuth, of the White and Red Mayn; the former rising in the Fichtelberg, and the latter in the Frankenjura, about 8 m. S.E. Bayreuth. The resulting river flows, with a gentle current, generally W., but with a very tortuous course; first traversing the circles of Upper and Lower Franconia, in Bavaria, then dividing Hesse-Cassel and Nassau, on the N. from Hesse-Darmstadt, on the S., and intersecting the territory of Frankfurt; till it ultimately falls into the Rhine, nearly opposite Mainz, after an entire course of about 220 m. Though shallow, it is of equal depth, and is navigable throughout 7-ths of its extent, as far as the confluence of the Regnitz, near Bamberg. The Mayn is of considerable importance as a means of traffic; and Frankfurt, especially, owes all its consequence, as a commercial city, to this river. But few rivers, at least in civilized countries, presenting such facilities for improvement, have been more neglected; and, in addition to its other inconveniences, the number and amount of the tolls levied on the Mayn oppose serious obstacles to its navigation. A vessel, in passing from the Rhine to Wertheim, in Baden, has to pay tolls amounting to 22 kreutzers per cwt., or 1*4s.* a ton, besides fees, &c. A commission has, however, been recently appointed, for examining the state of the river, and introducing some improvements. The Mayn will, probably, at no distant period, form a part of the line connecting the Rhine and the Danube; a canal having been already commenced, which is to run from Dietfurt, on the Altmühl, to Bamberg, on the Regnitz. Besides the Regnitz, the Tauber, Mümling, and Gersprenz are its chief affluents from the S., and the Rodach, Saale, Kinsig, and Nidda from the N. Bayreuth, Bamberg, Würzburg, Aschaffenburg, Hanau, Offenbach, and Frankfurt are either on, or immediately adjacent to, the banks of the Mayn. (*Dict. Géog.*; *Berghaus's Private Inform.*, &c.)

MAYNOOTH, an inland town of Ireland, prov. Leinster, co. Kildare, on the Liffey Water, an affluent of the Liffey, 14 m. W. Dublin. Pop. in 1841, 2,152. It is without trade, and depends principally for its support on the contiguous college. It has a par. church, a Rom. Cath. chapel, and the ruins of a large castle, once occupied by the family of Kildare.

The Royal College of St. Patrick, Maynooth, was founded in 1793, for the education of persons designed for the Roman Catholic ministry in Ireland. It is vested in a board of trustees, of whom the Roman Catholic archbishops are members *ex officio*, the remainder being selected from the Catholic hierarchy and nobility, in the proportion of 7 of the former to 6 of the latter. The government of the college is administered by a board of visitors, partly chosen by election, and partly nominated by the Crown, under the provisions of the late act; but the powers of the visitors in general do not relate to or interfere with any matter having refer-

ence to the tenets, discipline, or authority of the Romish church. These important matters are entrusted to the care of the elected visitors, who must be members (and usually dignitaries) of the Roman Catholic church. The chief functionaries of the establishment are the president, vice-president, and 3 deans; besides whom, there are 3 professors of Divinity, and 7 others, giving instruction in various branches of literature and science. The number of students, on the first opening of the classes, in 1793, amounted only to 50; but it has since progressively increased to 450, to which it was limited, by the inadequacy of its funds, to admit of further augmentation. But under the new regulations provision is made for 620 students. These are to be comprised, 350 in four junior classes, and 250 in three senior do., with a class of 20 superior students, who each derive, exclusive of other allowances, an income of 55*l.* a year from a fund left by a Lord Dunboyne for that purpose. The funds for defraying the expense of the establishment were derived, previously to 1845, from an annual parliamentary grant (usually of 8,928*l.*) and from bequests and fees. These, however, were quite insufficient for the proper support of an institution having to provide for the education of the Catholic clergy of Ireland. The salaries of the professors and the accommodations of the students were alike inadequate and paltry; while, despite this miserable economy, the institution was getting into debt, and the number of pupils was unequal to the wants of the priesthood. It is needless to say that the consequences of such a state of things were most injurious to the public interests; and to obviate these, and to place the institution on a footing more suitable to its important object, the annual parliamentary grant (of 8,928*l.*) was changed in 1845 to a permanent grant of 26,360*l.* a year, a sum of 10,000*l.* being, at the same time, voted for the repair and enlargement of the buildings and library. The trustees of the college have been also authorized to hold such land and other fixed property as may be left for its behoof, up to the value of 3,000*l.* a year.

In consequence of this liberal addition to its funds, the emoluments of the professors, and the education and accommodation of the pupils, have been materially improved; so that the most beneficial effects may be expected to result from the measure,—directly, by the greater allurement it holds out to professors of superior merit and attainments to enter the college; and indirectly, by the grateful sense which they and the pupils cannot but feel, of the liberality and munificence of the government. Hitherto the students have belonged, with but few exceptions, to the middle and lower classes of E. Catholic farmers and occupiers. Public examinations are held twice a year. The site of the establishment is a tract of 84 acres, adjoining the town; and the buildings, which form three sides of a quadrangle, comprise a chapel, refectory, library, lecture-rooms, dormitories, and professors' residences. The library contains about 10,000 vols., chiefly on theological subjects.

There certainly has been much to object to in the course of education that has been followed at Maynooth; and the priests, which has sent forth have, for the most part, contrasted very unfavorably with those educated at foreign seminaries. We, however, are inclined to think that this untoward state of things has been principally ascribable to the poverty and destitution in which the college was so long permitted to languish. Its professors could be no object to men of ability; and the teachers and students must have been equally disgusted when they compared the pittance allowed them by the state, with the vast sums lavished on the established church, though supplying only the wants of a small minority of the population. But a great change for the better may be now fairly anticipated. The new endowments will make chairs in Maynooth be sought after by men of superior attainments; while the better education, and the greater comfort in which the students will be supported, will make it be resorted to by a higher order of pupils, and will tend to soften prejudices and asperities, and to make the priests less indisposed to the English connection.

Considering that Maynooth had received an annual grant of nearly 9,000*l.* a year since its foundation in 1793, the intolerant opposition made to the wise and liberal measure of 1845 could hardly have been anticipated. Happily, however, it was not allowed to thwart its success, which was important not on its own account merely, but also as being (as we trust is the case) the first step towards that endowment of the Catholic clergy of Ireland, which is, in all respects, so indispensable to the well being of the country.

MAYO, a marit. co. of Ireland, prov. Connaught; of which it occupies the N.W. portion; having N. and W. the Atlantic, E. Sligo and Roscommon, and S. Galway. Area, 1,358,048 acres; of which 425,124 are unimproved mountain and bog, and 57,940 water, consisting principally of Loughs Maak, Conn, Carr, &c. The coastline is extremely irregular, from its being more deeply indented with bays and arms of the sea than any other

part of Ireland. On the W. it is fenced with numerous islands, and it has several fine harbours, of which, however, very little use is made. It has every variety of surface, rising, in parts, into high mountains and rugged wastes; but comprising, also, a large extent of comparatively flat and fertile land. The substratum is generally limestone; and, from the thinness of the soil and the humidity and mildness of the climate, it is better suited for grazing than for tillage. Property in a few hands. There were formerly some very extensive grazing farms in this co., but their number and size have been very greatly diminished within the last half century. Land being here indispensable to existence, the competition for small patches is quite intense; and it is said that any amount of rent that may be asked is sure to be promised! It was formerly usual to let land on the village, or partnership, system; but of late years this practice has luckily been getting into disuse. Unfortunately, however, the co.-acre system seems to be rapidly extending; and this is, if possible, worse than the other. (See *saide*, p. 40.) If the ground be very rich it is usual, on this system, to begin by planting potatoes on the grass; but the far more common practice is to prepare for potatoes by paring and burning the surface and sowing on the ashes as manure. Hence, notwithstanding the increase of cultivation, the condition of the land, and of the great bulk of the occupiers of land, has deteriorated, and is as bad as possible. A average rent of land 6*l.* 1*q.* per imp. acre; but the best grazing lands fetch above 40*l.* per Irish acre. Iron used to be made in this co.; but it is now, however, been long abandoned, on account of the want of fuel. It has, also, some valuable slate quarries; but its mineral riches have been but very imperfectly explored. The linen manufacture, which had been pretty widely diffused, has materially declined, and its place has not been occupied by any other department of industry. Principal rivers, Moy, Gulsheen, Deal, Owenmore, and Robe. Principal towns, Castlebar, Ballina, and Westport. Mayo is divided into 9 baronies and 68 parishes, and sends 3 members to the N. of Persia for the co. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 1,014. In 1841 Mayo had 68,425 inhabited houses, 70,910 families, and 384,987 inhab., of whom 194,198 were males, and 194,699 females.

MAZAMET, a town of France, dep. Tarn, cap. cant. on the Arnette, a tributary of the Tarn, 32 m. S.S.E. Albi. Pop. 1846, 6,626. Its pop. and prosperity are increasing; it has some manufactures of woollen cloth; several dyeing establishments and paper-mills, and considerable annual fairs for cattle, wool, &c. MAZANDERAN, a prov. of the N. of Persia (an. a part of *Hyrcania*), separated from Irak-Adjemi by the lofty ridge of Riburg, and bounded N. by the Caspian Sea, E. by Khorassan, and W. by Ghilan. Length from W. to E., 200 m.; average breadth, 50 m.; area 10,000 sq. m. Pop. 150,000 (exclusive of the nomad tribes of Kadjars, Kodjaveds, and Modanlus). The S. parts of the prov. are mountainous, abounding with oak timber and full of swamps; but the valleys are fertile, producing the finest rice in vast quantities. Besides many smaller streams, the Mazanderan has two principal rivers, both having their sources in the Riburg mountains, and falling into the Caspian Sea. With respect to temperature, the prov. may be divided into a warm and cold climate, the former being that of the flat country near the sea, and the latter that of the mountain region; in all parts, however, the climate is extremely variable with respect both to temperature and moisture. (Frazer's *Caspian Sea*, p. 48.) Winter and spring are the healthiest seasons; for during the summer and autumnal heats, such exhalations arise from the swamps and marshes overspreading this part of Persia, as to render the air most insalubrious. Agues and dropsies, rheumatism and eye diseases, are the prevalent disorders, and the natives have generally a sallow and bloated appearance. Heavy rains fall in Oct., Nov., and Dec.: snow also falls, but never lies long on the ground; and in spring the rivers almost invariably overflow. The cultivation of rice is the most important branch of agriculture. Cotton and sugar, also, are raised; but the canes are small, and the produce is dark, moist, and of very inferior quality. Tobacco does not succeed, nor is opium much cultivated, though the poppy grows abundantly. Barley is sown occasionally in spring as a green crop for horses and cattle; it is cut about the middle of May, after which the ground is ploughed, and planted with rice. Wheat is little cultivated, and is of bad quality; but excellent flour is imported from Astrakhan. Unhusked rice is used as dry food for horses and mules. Silk was formerly raised only in small quantities, but it appears that since the government monopoly ceased some few years ago, more attention has been paid to it, and its price has fallen. The trade of the prov. is chiefly with Russia in rice, silk, and cotton, which is exchanged for silk, cotton, and woollen fabrics, corn, tobacco, cutlery, &c.

The inhabs. are described as "vain, ignorant, and arrogant, considering themselves as persons of mighty im-

portance, superior to all strangers. Their ignorance of every thing beyond their own prov. is profound to a degree hardly credible. Their bigotry in religious matters is excessive, though chiefly confined to forms; for there are few who do not transgress every article of inhibition: all of them drink strong liquors and eat opium." In their appearance and dress they greatly resemble other Persians, but swarthy and almost black men are of more frequent occurrence than elsewhere. The natives are regarded as the most warlike of the Persians; and, in the time of Timour Bec, they defended their retreats and castles with so much courage and ability, as to secure their independence. This prov. is also said to have been the grand seat of the war between the Sefeed Deere (or White Demon) and Rustom, prince of Zablestan; and the relief of his sovereign, who had been besieged in the city of Masanderan, is one of the most glorious exploits recorded in the life of the Persian hero. The chief cities are Sari, Barfash, Ferabad, and Amud. The streets and villages are open, well built, and delightfully situated either on verdant hills or in fertile and well-watered valleys. Among the numerous public works of Shah Abbas the Great, is a magnificent causeway of great length, running nearly parallel to the Caspian. The pavement, even now, is perfect in many places, though it has hardly ever been repaired. In some places it is above 30 yards wide, with ditches on each side; and on it are many bridges, under which the water is conveyed to the rice-fields. (*Fraser's Trav. on the Shores of the Caspian; Kinastir, &c.*)

MAZZARA (an. *Emporium*, or *Mazzara*), a sea-port town of Sicily, on its W. coast, intend. Trapani, cap. distr., on the Salemi (an. *Mazzara*), at its mouth, 11 m. S.E. Marsala, lat. 37° 39' 56" N.; long. 12° 24' E. Pop., in 1831, 8,365. It is surrounded by an old wall of Saracenic construction, flanked by small square towers, and has an old ruinous castle at its S.W. angle. The domes of its churches give Mazzara an imposing aspect from the sea; but the contrast, on entering the town, is no less striking. The streets are narrow, unpaved, filthy, and swarm with pigs; the public buildings, for civil purposes, are large, heavy, and mean; and those for ecclesiastical purposes, being very numerous, we need not wonder that it should have become a common saying, "that every house in Mazzara has a priest and a pig; the latter being by far the more useful animal of the two. The principal square has a singular appearance, from the antiquated style of its architecture; probably of the 11th century, from its having an equestrian statue of Count Roger destroying a Saracen, over the cathedral gate. Besides the cathedral, an edifice, remarkable for its fine cupola, the principal buildings in this square are the bishop's palace, the senate-house, and the residence of Count Gazzi. "In the cathedral porch are preserved three sarcophagi; the finest of them bears a bas-relief, representing the battle of the Amazons; the second, the rape of Proserpine; the third, and most inferior, the Calydon hunt. At the convent of St. Michael is a Roman tomb, and some marble inscriptions; these, with a small collection of Punic, Saracenic, and Roman coins, are nearly the sum of the antiquaries' remains. Nor are there any modern specimens of the fine arts." (*Smythe's Sicily*, 226.) Mazzara has an hospital, a college, and a theatre. Its port, which now, as in antiquity, is formed by the mouth of the river Salemi, is convenient enough for boats and small craft, but larger vessels are obliged to anchor in an exposed roadstead, in from 8 to 10 fathoms water. The entrance of the port is ornamented by a statue of St. Vitus, the tutelary saint of the town, in whose honour a festival is held here in August. Notwithstanding the badness of its port, Mazzara enjoys some trade. It has a *confraternita*, or *scuola*, for the warehousing of corn, of which it exports considerable quantities; and it also exports pulse, wine, fruit, fish, barilla, madder, oil, and soap. (*Smyth's Sicily*, 224—228, &c.)

Mazzara, or Emporium, was taken by storm by Hannibal, previously to his commencing the siege of Selinus; but it does not appear to have been a place of much importance in antiquity. There can, however, be no doubt, were Sicily subject to a vigorous and enlightened government, capable of developing its gigantic resources, that Mazzara would rise to very considerable distinction as a shipping port. It was here that the Saracens landed when they invaded and conquered Sicily. (*Smythe, ubi supra*; *Ancient Universal History*, xvii. 360. 8vo. ed.; *Hoare's Classical Tour*, &c. i. 75—77.)

An extraordinary phenomenon, called the *Marobro*, being a violent agitation of the sea, is witnessed on this part of the Sicilian coast. "Its approach is announced by a stillness in the atmosphere, and a lurid sky; when suddenly the water rises nearly 2 ft. above its usual level, and rushes into the creeks with amazing rapidity; but, in a few minutes, recedes again with equal velocity, disturbing the mud, and occasioning a noisome effluvia: during its continuance, the fish float quite helpless on the turbid

surface, and are easily taken. These rapid changes generally continue from half an hour to upwards of two hours, and are succeeded by a breeze from the S., which quickly increases to heavy gusts." Captain Smyth has some speculations as to the cause of this singular phenomenon, for which we beg to refer to his work. (*Smyth's Sicily*, pp. 224—228.)

MEATH, a marit. co. of Ireland, on its E. coast, prov. Leinster, having N. the co. of Louth, Monaghan, and Cavan, W. Westmeath, S. King's Co. and Kildare, and E. Dublin and the Irish Sea. Area, 867,127 acres, of which only about 5,600 are said to be unimproved or waste. Surface mostly flat, or only slightly undulating; soil, clay or loam, on limestone or gravel, and generally very fertile. Grazing used formerly to be the principal occupation; but, since the close of the American war, tillage has been gradually extending, and is now spread over more than 4-5ths of the co. Notwithstanding the richness of the soil, and the favourable situation of Meath, the state of agriculture, and of the great bulk of the occupiers, are alike bad. A rotation of crops is only beginning to be introduced; corn frequently follows corn for a long series of years; when fallows do occur, they are in general wretchedly executed, so that the land is in general foul and in bad order. Latterly, however, a better system has begun to make its way into the co., and the stock and implements of husbandry have been a good deal ameliorated. Even the better sort of farmers are, for the most part, very badly lodged; and the cabins of the cottiers and labourers are in the last degree filthy and wretched. Potatoes constitute 8 of the food of the bulk of the people; oatmeal and chummed milk are sometimes added, but they rarely taste butchers'-meat, the pig being usually sold to assist in paying the rent. There are some large estates; but property is better divided than in most Irish co. Tillage farms vary from 5 to 50, and some few extend to 100 acres. Average rent of land, 18s. an acre, which is higher than that of any other Irish co., except Dublin. Minerals and manufactures of no importance. Irish language pretty generally spoken. Principal rivers, the Boyne, the Foyne, Liffey, Navan and Kells. Meath is divided into 12 baronies and 147 par. In 1831, it had 29,796 inhab. houses, 31,632 families, and 176,826 inhab., of whom 88,993 were males, and 87,833 females.

MEAUX (an. *Jattum*, afterwards *Meldi*), a town of France, dep. Seine-et-Marne, cap. arrond., on both sides the Marne, which is here crossed by an old stone bridge, 24 m. E.N.E. Paris. Pop., in 1844, 7,774. It is pleasantly situated, and is tolerably well built. Its ramparts have been laid out in public walks; and it has some good promenades along the river, and a spacious public square. The cathedral, one of the most remarkable Gothic edifices in France, was begun in 1282, but not finished till the 16th century: it is 328 ft. in length, 137 ft. in breadth; the height of its vault being 150 ft., and that of its tower 213 ft. Its choir and sanctuary are extremely elegant; but it derives its chief interest from its containing the remains and monument of Bossuet; who, having been raised to the bishopric of Meaux in 1641, continued in possession of the see till his death, in 1704. The controversial writings of this great glory of the Gallican church display extraordinary learning and acumen; but it is to his *Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle*, and his *Oraisons Funèbres*, that he is mainly indebted for his imperishable renown. Exclusive of the cathedral, the public buildings comprise the episcopal palace, in which is the writing-table of Bossuet, a public library, with 14,000 vols., the college, town-hall, theatre, two asylums, a Protestant and two par. churches, and cavalry barracks. Meaux has manufactures of cotton stuffs, earthenware, and glue. Numerous flour-mills are constructed on the Marne, the produce of which is sent to Paris, and the town has a good deal of trade in this and other articles of farm produce: its traffic is greatly facilitated by the canals of Ourcy and Cornillon. Meaux is very ancient: it was made a bishopric in 375; was twice sacked by the Normans in the ninth century; and was annexed to the French crown by Philippe-le-Bel. The French Protestants first preached publicly in this town, and it was the first to abandon the league, and submit to Henry IV. (*Hugo, art. Seine-et-Marne*, &c.)

MECCA, one of the most famous cities of the eastern world, the birth-place of Mohammedanism, and the great centre of attraction to all the pilgrims or *hadjis* of the Mohammedan faith, in Arabia, prov. El Hedjaz, 51 m. E. from the port of Djidda (which see), on the Red Sea, and 370 m. S. by E. Medina; lat. 21° 29' 17" N., long. 40° 15' E. Pop. 28,000. "This celebrated city, which, being forbidden ground to Christians, was known to Europeans only through indirect and suspicious information from Mohammedans or African renegades, was a few years ago visited, in disguise, by Burckhardt; who has given a very full though rather tedious description of the localities, climate, inhabitants, government, religious ceremonies, and pilgrim visitors, not only of this city, but also of Medina (which see). Mecca

(literally meaning "the place of assembly," but pompously entitled by the Arabs *Om-el-Kora*, "mother of towns," and *Bet-el-diney*, "region of the faithful") stands in a long, narrow, barren, sandy valley, running N. and S., called in the Koran "the valley without seeds." It is a straggling town, nearly 3 m. in length, but nowhere more than about 600 paces in breadth; the streets, which are irregular, unpaved, and dusty, are generally wider than those of other eastern cities. The handsome entrance is from Djidda, the S.W. quarters comprising some of the best houses; but on the other side of the great mosque, which is the nucleus of Mecca, there are 3 or 4 other good streets; the best of which, perhaps, is the Mesaa, the great resort of the Turkish pilgrims, and the wealthiest, as well as most frequented, part of the town. "Indeed," says Burckhardt, "the Mesaa resembles a Constantinopolitan bazaar. Many shops are kept by Turks from Europe and Asia Minor, for the sale of swords, watches, copies of the Koran, and second-hand Turkish dresses; and there are numerous vendors of pies, sweetmeats, &c. Here, too, are numerous coffee-houses, crowded during the Hadj from 3 in the morning till 11 at night; barbers' shops, auction rooms, &c. W. of the Mesaa branches off a street called Soucyga, or the Little Market, which though narrow, is the nearest street in Mecca, being regularly cleaned and sprinkled with water. Here the rich India merchants offer for sale their piece-goods, Cashmere shawls, muslins, perfumes, Mecca balsam, aloe-wood, civet, &c., strings of coral, necklaces of carnelian, seal-rings, and various kinds of China ware, and Abyssinian slaves. In fact, the Soucyga, being the coolest spot in the town during mid-day, is on the account the most frequented; and here all the elements *adaja* take their morning and evening lounge, smoke their pipes, and hear or tell the news." (*Burckhardt's Arabia*, i. 212-219.)

The quarter called Shamys is likewise well built, being chiefly inhabited by merchants or *olamas* (clergy) attached to the mosque, and frequented at the pilgrimage by merchants from Damascus; in whose shops are found silks, cambrics, gold and silver thread, handkerchiefs, carpets, dried fruits, pistachios, &c. Near those last mentioned, also, is another respectably-built quarter, called Gass, inhabited by some of the wealthiest native merchants. These are certainly the best parts of the town, comprising lofty stone houses, often 3 stories high, surmounted by handsome terraces, and (what is unusual in eastern towns) having rows of windows fronting the streets. The town, however, is not lighted, is scantily supplied with water, and contains many quarters, which, in filth and closeness, might vie with the dirtiest parts of Constantinople. Though once walled on 3 sides, Mecca is at present entirely open; but the neighbouring mountains are sufficiently high to form a tolerably strong barrier against an enemy; and on the rising ground S. of the city stands the great castle, a massive square structure, with thick walls and solid towers, comprising a bomb-proof magazine, a reservoir for water, and accommodation for 1,000 men. With this exception, Mecca may be said to be almost destitute of public buildings; for the houses belonging to the sherifs, though handsome, are merely private, and not large dwellings, and the *medreses*, or colleges, are now converted either into store-houses or lodgings for pilgrims. This circumstance is, no doubt, attributable to the veneration of the people for their holy house, and this feeling prevents them from erecting any structure which might seem to rival the great object of their affection.

The *Beimallah*, otherwise called *El Haram*, the chief glory of Mecca, and the resort of every pious Mussulman who regards the injunction of the Koran*, is a building by no means remarkable either for size or beauty; standing on low ground, in an oblong enclosure about 350 ft. in length and 300 ft. in breadth, formed by colonnades, roofed with numerous small plastered cupolas supported by 450 pillars, about 30 ft. in height, of marble, or Mecca stone. The temple has been so often ruined and repaired, that it has no traces of remote antiquity. The walls, arches, and minarets at the angles of the building are gaudily painted in stripes of yellow, red, and blue; but paintings of flowers in the usual Mussulman style are nowhere seen, and the colonnades are very clumsily paved. The

* "They who shall disbelieve and obstruct the way of God, and hinder men from visiting the holy temple of Mecca, which we have appointed for a place of worship unto all men, - the inhabitant thereof and the stranger, - have an eternal right to visit it, and whoever shall seek implicitly to profane it, we will cause him to taste a grievous torment. Call to mind, when we gave the site of the house of the Kaaba for an abode unto Abraham, saying: 'Do not associate any thing with me; and cleanse my house for those who compass it, and who stand up and bow down to worship. And proclaim unto the people a solemn pilgrimage, let them come unto thee on foot, and on every beast, coming forth from every distant road, that they may be witnesses of the advantages which accrue to them from the visiting, and may commend the name of God on the appointed days.' *Saif's Koran*, ch. 22.

Kaaba, or Holy House, which occupies the centre of the enclosure, and is the great attraction for all pilgrims, lays claim to a far more remote origin than that of Mohammedanism; and, though we may safely doubt the alleged fact of its having been built by Abraham and Ishmael, assisted by the angel Gabriel († there can be no question that its genuine antiquity ascends beyond the Christian era. In all probability, the Kaaba is alluded to by Diodorus Siculus, when speaking of a temple held in superior sanctity by all Arabians. In the second century Maximus Tyritus attributes to the Arabs the worship of a stone; and this, if not identical with, is, at any rate, analogous to the "black stone" of Mecca, which, as Gibbon justly remarks, is deeply tainted with the reproach of an idolatrous origin. (*Gibbon*, ix. 347.) The Kaaba, which was all but rebuilt in 1637, after having suffered great damage from fire, is an oblong massive structure, 18 paces in length, 14 do. in breadth, and from 35 to 40 ft. in height; its door being coated with silver, and embellished with gold ornaments. At the N.E. corner, near the door, is the "Black Stone" previously alluded to, obligingly brought by the angel Gabriel as his contribution to the building; it forms part of the shankle of the structure, and is 5 inches above the ground; being oval-shaped, 7 inches in diameter of a dark brown colour, somewhat resembling lava; and surrounded by a border of cement and silver, to prevent its being worn away by the kisses and touches of the pilgrims. Round the building is a broad marble pavement; and at the S.E. corner is another stone, much revered by all visitors, but of a less noble origin, and less holy than the other. The 4 sides of the Kaaba are covered with a curtain of embroidered black silk stuff, called the *siema*, annually brought from the Cairo sultan by the Hadj, and renewed with some very decorous ceremonies. The holy fountain of Zem-zem, (said to be that so opportunely found by Hagar, when her son Ishmael was dying of thirst, which supplies the town with water for *drinking or ablution* (its use for other purposes being forbidden), is enclosed in a substantial square building, having a handsome marble-faced entrance, with marble basins for ablution, and a room appropriated to the pilgrims, who come here in crowds to taste the miraculous fountain. From before dawn till near midnight, the well-room is constantly filled with visitors; all of whom, if not disposed to buy the services of the attendant, may themselves draw freely from the well. Various stories are ascribed respecting the origin and virtues of this sacred spring, which, of course, are all believed by orthodox visitors, few of whom leave Mecca without carrying away some of the water in copper or tin bottles, to give away to their friends, and for their own use during illness, and their ablution after death. These are the chief buildings within the enclosure; but none of them can be considered as consecrated, except during the hour of prayer for at other times, barbers, and all kinds of retail vendors, porters, klers, &c., are to be met with at every turn. (*Burckhardt*, vol. i. p. 278.) In several parts of the colonnade, public schools are held for the instruction of young children; while, in other parts, a few professors deliver theological lectures, which meet, however, with little patronage from the pilgrims, who, with all their anxiety to visit the holy house, are, like all Turks, too much attached to the *dolce far niente* to trouble themselves with the doctrines either of theologians or men of science. The exterior of the mosque is adorned with seven quadrangular minarets, from the summits of which a view is obtained of the busy scene around. There are 19 gates, distributed without any order or symmetry; and the outside walls are formed by the surrounding houses, which during the pilgrimage are let, at enormous rents, to the wealthiest *hadjis*, with whom it is a grand object to be as near as possible to the holy house. The windows of these houses overlook the inclosure; and hence their occupants are enabled to join in many of the mosque services without stirring from home. The service of the mosque occupies a vast number of people, as the *Imams*, *Mufitis*, officers of the Zem-zem, *Mueddins*, *Olemas*, lamp-lighters, and menial servants, all of whom receive regular pay, besides sharing the presents made by the pilgrims. The revenues of the mosque were formerly very extensive; but its wealth has greatly declined, nor does it now possess any treasures except a few golden lamps, the establishment being kept up almost wholly at the expense of the sultan. The first officer of the mosque is the *Nayb el Haram*, or warden, who keeps the keys of the Kaaba, receives the pilgrims' contributions, and directs the repairs of the building. Next to him is the *Aga* of the enclosure, a body of about 40 negroes who perform the duty of police officers in the temple; preventing disorders, and washing and sweeping the pavement round the Kaaba. In the

† The curious reader is referred for a very full account of the traditionary notions entertained by the Mohammedans respecting the origin and antiquity of the Kaaba, to Burckhardt's error on the Arabic words of well-known authority. (*Travels in Arabia*, i. 238-311.)

time of the Ramadan, or great festival, the mosque is particularly brilliant; not only from the number of pilgrims of every age, rank, and nation within the enclosure, but also from the thousands of lamps which illuminate the colonnades. On the termination of the Hadj, however, the temple assumes a very different appearance. Disease and mortality, caused by fatigue, unhealthy lodgings, bad fare, and, in some cases, by absolute destitution, fill the mosque with the sick and dying; all of whom are anxious to have the satisfaction of expiring in view of the Kaaba, of receiving the Imam's prayers, and of being sprinkled with the sacred water of Zem-zem. Whoever enters Mecca, whether pilgrim or not, is enjoined by the law to visit the temple immediately, and not to attend to any worldly concern before he has discharged that solemn duty. Certain religious rites, such as walking seven times round the Kaaba, and reciting certain prayers, are performed in the interior of the mosque; then comes the ceremony of walking seven times between the hill of Safa and Merona; and, lastly, the pilgrims must submit to have their heads shaved by the barbers of the mosque. All these ceremonies must be repeated by every Mussulman, who enters Mecca from a journey farther than two days' distance; and they must be again more particularly performed at the time of the pilgrimage to Arafat, a hill about 15 m. E. of Mecca, to which Mohammed used to retire to pray, and which, on this account, is esteemed particularly sacred by all Mohammedans.

The concourse of pilgrims to the holy mount is often immense: Burckhardt says he counted about 3,000 tents dispersed over the surrounding plain; but the greater number of the pilgrims were without tents: between 20,000 and 25,000 camels were to be seen scattered among the pilgrims, whose numbers, he concludes, must have exceeded 70,000. The camp was from 3 to 4 m. long, and between 1 and 3 m. in breadth. But we suspect that these returns are very decidedly beyond the mark; and the taste for pilgrimages is now rapidly declining throughout the Mohammedan world. A visit to Arafat is indispensable to the pilgrims; none by any chance omit it; nor can the title of Hadj be assumed except by those who have been present at the ceremony. Mecca, like Jerusalem, boasts of many places rendered sacred by tradition. The birth-place of Mohammed and his daughter Fatima, the tomb of his wife Hadja, and the cell where the prophet wrote the Koran, are shown to the pilgrims, who are expected to make contributions for their maintenance. But a visit to these places forms no item of religious duty; and but few depart in any way from the prescribed routine, as such acts would interfere with their profits either as merchants or beggars, and thus frustrate a very important, if not chief, object of the expedition.

The inhab. of Mecca are, with the exception of a few Hedjaz Bedouins, either foreigners or the offspring of foreigners. The ancient tribe of Koreysh, to which Mohammed belonged, is almost extinct; and there are now in Mecca only three or four Koreysh families, the head of one of which is the Nayb, or keeper of the great mosque. The neighbourhood, however, of the great mart of Djidda, the annual arrival of immense caravans, and the holy house, attract thither vast multitudes of strangers; a portion of whom remain behind, and settle permanently in the city, adopting Arabian habits, and intermarrying with the native pop. The most numerous are the descendants of Arabs from Yemen and Hadramaut; next to them in numbers are those of Hindoo, Egyptian, Syrian, African, and Turkish origin; besides whom there are Persians, Afghans, Kurds, and people, in short, of almost every Mohammedan nation, all of whom are careful in preserving a traditional knowledge of their original country. The inhab., however, though differing so much, nationally considered, wear the same sort of dress, have the same customs, and care much less for national costume and manners than in any other part of the East. Their colour is a yellowish brown; and in features they closely resemble the Bedouins: the lower classes are generally stout, with muscular limbs, while the higher orders are distinguished by their meagre emaciated forms and black piercing eyes. All classes are fond of dress, and the earnings of the poor are mostly spent on clothes. The women wear Indian silk gowns, with large blue striped trousers reaching to the ankles, and a white kind of hood to cover the face. There are few families in moderate circumstances that do not keep slaves, most of whom are Nubians and Abyssinians, brought thither from the port of Suakin: many African females are kept as concubines; and, in case of their having issue, the masters usually legitimate the offspring by marrying them. The sale of concubines is confined to the middle and lower classes; the more wealthy regarding the practice as disgraceful. The inhab. of Mecca, as also of Djidda and Medina, are far more lively and communicative than either the Syrians or Egyptians, and in this respect they resemble the Bedouins. Indeed, vivacity of temper, acute intellect,

sagacity, and suavity of manner, are characteristics of almost all the native inhab.; while, at the same time, their proud, independent spirit, for which they are equally remarkable, is infinitely preferable to the cringing servility of the Turks of Anatolia and Syria. Religion exercises little control over them; and, though they are proud of aping the manners recorded of Mohammed, and thoroughly versed in the Koran, few Mussulmen are so inattentive to the moral duties inculcated by the Prophet. For the most part, indeed, they exhibit great profligacy of character. Drunkenness, gambling, cheating, false-swearing, and the grossest sensuality, are of every-day occurrence; and it is a common saying among the people, "Forbidden things abound in this city forbidden to infidels." Learning and science, which once flourished in Mecca, are now almost wholly neglected. The many *medresas*, or colleges, for which the city was formerly renowned, are turned either into corn-magazines or lodging-houses for pilgrims; its large libraries have disappeared; the great mosque is at present the only place where teachers of eastern learning are to be found; and the Meccawys themselves, who wish to improve in science, go to Damascus or Cairo.

The employments of the people are the trade and the service of the Beitullah; but there are few employed in the mosque who do not, clandestinely at least, engage in commercial affairs. There are but few artisans, and these much inferior in skill to the same class in Egypt; a few potteries and dye-works are the only manufactories, and the town is wholly dependent on other countries for its necessary supplies. Hence there is a large foreign trade; and the holy city is crowded, during the month of Dhalhaja (the latter end of June and beginning of July), not only with zealous devotees, but opulent merchants, who thus make use of the permission granted them by the prophet: "It shall be no crime in you, if ye seek an increase from your Lord by trading during the pilgrimage." (*Sala's Koran*, ch. ii.) During the whole twelve days that the pilgrims are allowed to remain, a fair or market is held in Mecca and its vicinity; and though the number of pilgrims has greatly declined of late years, it is still a crowded and bustling scene. "Few pilgrims," says Burckhardt, "except the mendicants (a very numerous class), arrive without bringing some productions of their respective countries for sale; and this remark is applicable as well to the merchants, with whom commercial pursuits are the main object, as to those who are actuated by religious zeal; for to the latter the profits derived from selling a few articles at Mecca diminish in some degree the heavy expenses of the journey. The Mogrebins (pilgrims from Morocco and N. Africa) bring their red bonnets and woollen cloaks; the European Turks, shoes and slippers, hardware, embroidered stuffs, sweetmeats, ambers, silkens, &c.; the Turks of Anatolia bring carpets, silks, and Angora shawls; the Persians, Cashmere shawls and large silk handkerchiefs; the Afghans, tooth-brushes made of the spongy boughs of a tree growing in Bokhara, beads of yellow soap-stone, and plain coarse shawls manufactured in their own country; the Indians furnish the numerous productions of their rich and extensive region; the people of Yemen, snakes for Persian pipes, sandals, and various other works in leather; and the Africans bring various articles adapted to the slave trade. The pilgrims are, however, frequently disappointed in their expectation of gain, for want of money often obliges them to accept very low prices." The most respectable of the mendicant pilgrims are negroes (called here *Tekourrys*), and these apply themselves to labour immediately on their arrival at Mecca: some serve as porters, for the transport of goods and corn from the ships to the warehouses; some hire themselves to clean the court-yards, fetch wood, carry water, &c.; while others manufacture small baskets and mats of date leaves, or prepare the intoxicating drink called *bouza*. The pilgrims are accommodated in lodgings, for which the inhab. charge a most exorbitant rent; and all, except those of the highest and lowest ranks, live together in a state of freedom and equality, keeping but few servants, and generally dividing among themselves the various duties of housekeeping. The two principal caravans which rendezvous at Mecca are those of Damascus and Cairo; both of which always arrive at fixed periods, generally a day or two before the departure of the Hadj for Arafat. The former of these is very large, and is, at the same time, very well regulated. The caravan of Cairo is much smaller, and its route, along the Red Sea, is more dangerous and fatiguing; but many of the Egyptian and African merchants now come by sea from Suez, Cosseir, and Suakin to Djidda, and thus avoid the weariness of a long land journey. The Persian caravan sets out from Bagdad, and crosses the desert; but it is now of little importance, as all but the poorest Persian pilgrims come round by sea from Bussorah, between which place and Djidda there is a large and steadily increasing trade.

The climate of Mecca is sultry and unwholesome; especially in August, Sept., and Oct., when a hot suffo-

cating wind prevails. The wet season is in Dec.; but the rains are not so continuous as in other tropical countries. Intermittent and inflammatory fevers, dysentery, elephantiasis, and stone, are common diseases; and, with respect to the general health of the town, Burckhardt says, "I seldom enjoyed perfect health while in Mecca. I was twice attacked by fever, attributable chiefly to bad water, and, even on those days when I was free from disease, I felt great lassitude, depression of spirits, and total want of appetite." (vol. i. p. 450.)

The territories of Mecca, Tayf, Gonsafe, and Yembo, were, previously to the Wahabees and Egyptian conquests, under the command of the Sherif of Mecca, who held his authority from the Grand Seigneur; but when the Porte was no longer able to send large armies with the Hadj caravans to secure her power in the Hedjaz, the Sherifs became independent. The Wahabees (who are to the Mohammedan religion what the Protestant churches are to Christianity) took possession of Mecca in 1802, and retained it till 1813, when Mehemet Ali restored the holy cities to the nominal protection of the Porte, while at the same time he placed them effectually under his own control. (*Burckhardt's Arabia*, i. 171., *ad finem*, and ii. 1-86.)

MECHLIN (Fr. *Malines*), a city of Belgium, prov. Antwerp, cap. arrond., on the Dyle, a tributary of the Scheldt, and on the Brussels and Antwerp roads, 14 m. S. S. E. the former, and 14 m. N. N. E. the latter. Pop., in 1845, 97,734. The Dyle divides Mechlin into two parts. It is regularly laid out with broad, well-paved, and clean streets. Houses grotesque, antiquated, and frequently of a large size; but, being painted in front, they look clean and cheerful. The fortifications were demolished by the French, in 1804. The most remarkable public building is the cathedral, a Gothic edifice, commenced in the 12th century. The body of this building is by no means commensurate with the present altitude of the morisco tower attached to it, and still less with the height to which it was originally intended to be carried. This massive tower, with its truncated steeple, begun in 1452, is 370 ft. above ground, being the height of the cross of St. Paul's, London; and, had it been completed according to the original design, it would have been 610 ft. high. The Last Supper, the altar-piece, is by Rubens: the heads of the apostles and style of drapery are said to be in his best manner; but the Christ is a failure, and the picture is mildest. The church of the Récollets has the famous picture of the Crucifixion, by Verelst, &c. "This," says Sir Joshua Reynolds, "is, perhaps, the most capital of all his works, in respect of the variety and extensiveness of the design, and the judicious disposition of the whole. It may be considered as one of the first pictures in the world, and gives the highest idea of Vandylke's powers." (*Reynolds's Works*, ii. 273. ed. 1819.) There are pictures by Rubens in the cathedral, and some of the other churches, of which the Adoration of the Magi, in the church of St. John, is, probably, the best. After the churches, the bishop's palace, town-hall, arsenal and cannon foundry, the Franciscan convent, and the *Béguinage*, a large asylum for 800 widows, or aged women, are the principal public buildings. Mechlin is the see of an archbishop, who is primate of Belgium, and has a revenue of about 4,000*l.* a year. It is the seat of a tribunal of primary jurisdiction, and the residence of a military commandant. It has an ecclesiastical seminary, a college, an academy of painting, a society of the fine arts, and a *mont-de-piété*. It has been long celebrated for the manufacture of lace, of a coarser and stouter kind than that of Brussels; but this has latterly been, to a considerable extent, superseded by the Nottingham lace, and it is said that only eight houses are now engaged in the business. Among its other fabrics are those of cashmere shawls, and gilt leather chairs: the latter were at one time an article of export, and it is said that upwards of 400 workmen are still engaged in their manufacture.

Mechlin furnishes a peculiar species of beer, of a light, body, which acquires, by keeping, a vinous flavour and quality. Another delicacy peculiar to this city is the *Défilée de Malines*, "a dish much admired by travellers as well as natives, into which pigs' feet and ears enter as important constituents.

Mechlin has an extensive trade in flax, corn, and oil. The tide ascends the Dyle to a league above the city, which is accessible for vessels of considerable burden from the Scheldt. Mechlin is connected with Louvain by a canal navigable by vessels of 160 tons: it would also, but for the absurd opposition of its magistrates, have been the central *dépôt* of the Belgian railways; but this has been fixed without its boundary, a circumstance which those by whom it was occasioned now deeply regret.

As early as the 6th century, Mechlin appears to have

been a place of importance, and the cap. of a lordship. It suffered severely from war, plague, and fire in the middle ages; and in modern times has been repeatedly taken by the Spaniards, Dutch, English, and French. (*De Cloet*; *Heusching*; *Belgium*, by Emerson Tennent, Esq., M. P.; *Murray's Handbook for N. Germany*, &c., passim.)

MECKLENBURG, a territory in N. Germany, between lat. 53° and 54° 30' N., and long. 10° 35' and 13° 57' E.; having N. the Baltic, E. and S. the Prussian dom., and W. Hanover, Denmark, and Lubeck. Area, 5,343 sq. m. Pop. about 572,500. It is divided into

1. MECKLENBURG-SCHWERIN (GRAND DUCHY OF), a state of N. Germany, between lat. 53° 7' and 54° 30' N., and long. 10° 37' and 13° 19' E.; having E. Pomerania and Mecklenburg-Strelitz, S. Brandenburg, W. the Hanoverian and Danish provs. of Luneburg and Lauenburg, the principality of Ratzeburg, belonging to M.-Strelitz, and the territory of Lubeck, and N. the Baltic. Length, E. to W., about 110 m.; average breadth nearly 45 m. Area, 4,833 sq. m. Pop., in 1849, 534,284. Mecklenburg belongs to the great plain of N. Germany; it is not, however, a dead level, but has an undulating surface, interspersed with some ranges of low hills, one of which, the Rühneburg, rises to nearly 600 ft. above the level of the Baltic. It has several rivers of some size, as the Recknitz, constituting its W. boundary, the Warnow, Stepenitz, &c., flowing to the Baltic, the Elbe, a tributary of the Elbe, and others; and a great number of lakes, that of Muriitz, which has an area of more than 50 sq. m., and is elevated 216 Rhinish ft. above the sea, being by far the largest lake in N. Germany; next to it is the lake of Schwerin, having the cap. of the duchy on its banks. Notwithstanding its high lat., this grand duchy has a milder climate than most parts of Germany. The mean temp. of Germany being taken at 51° Fahr. (9° R.), that of Mecklenburg will be about 50° F. (9° R.). But the winter is severe, the average temp. of that season being little above the freezing-point; the atmosphere, also, is particularly humid, which, added to the moisture of the soil, renders catarrhs and consumptions frequent. The surface and soil are very various. On either border of the principal range of hills a poor sandy tract extends, covered with heath; and few parts of Germany are worse cultivated or more thinly inhabited than that between Schwerin and Gustrów, a distance of nearly 40 m. To the S. of this district the soil is somewhat better; and beyond Gustrów, towards what was formerly Swedish Pomerania, the sand gradually changes into a fertile loam, well adapted to the growth of rye and wheat. Near the Baltic the soil is, for the most part, a meagre sand, intermixed with stripes of loam. With the exception of the sandy heaths, the face of the country is cheerful and pleasing; the land is mostly enclosed; the woods, which are extensive, are scattered over the country, and on the borders of the lakes good meadow lands occasionally present themselves. Mecklenburg is essentially an agricultural country. It is generally divided into large estates, the demesnes of the sovereign comprise 4-10ths of the land, and those of the nobility, knights, &c., nearly 5-10ths; leaving about 1-10th in the possession of the municipalities and a few monastic institutions. Farms are generally very extensive; they vary from 300 to 1,000 or 1,200 acres. About one fourth part of the prov. is cultivated by proprietors resident on their own estates, and who are frequently very intelligent and well-informed; about a half is occupied by farmers, and a quarter by peasants or boors. The severity of the winter makes it necessary to have farm buildings sufficient to accommodate the live stock, in addition to the corn, hay, &c.; and hence a gentleman's house has near it, besides labourers' cottages, more than five times the extent of barns, stables, cow and sheep houses, &c., that would be required in England for the same extent of land. Farms, when let, are usually held by tenants on leases, varying from 7 to 21 years. The rent varies, of course, according to the quality of the soil, situation, &c. It is uniformly almost paid in money, and the rotation of crops prescribed in the lease must be strictly adhered to. The best farms brought, in 1827, according to Mr. Jacob, about 1*2s.* an acre; the medium lands from 6*s.* 4*d.* up to 8*s.* 4*d.*; and the sandy districts in the S. from 2*s.* to 3*s.* 2*d.* an acre; but he thinks that the larger portion of land in the grand duchy did not then produce more than 5*s.* an acre. Taxes are lower than in most parts of the Continent. The various taxes and other out-goings borne by the proprietor may be estimated at about 1*d.* an acre. The stock on the larger farms usually belongs to the tenants; but that on the smaller farms, held by peasants, usually belongs to the landlords.

The cultivation of wheat (especially the red variety) has increased greatly of late years, and Mecklenburg is now one of the principal countries of Germany for the export of wheat. Rostock wheat is, however, inferior to either English or Danstisch wheat; so much so, that while wheat is being shipped from Rostock at 18*s.* a quarter, it

* This is Sir Joshua Reynolds's statement. Mr. Murray, on the contrary, says that this is the altar-piece of the cathedral! *Non nobis, &c.*

will fetch 37s. or 38s. at Dantzig. Next to corn, peas, beans, potatoes, and turnips are principally grown. Hemp and flax are reared, but in no great quantities; and the culture of tobacco has very much diminished. Of late years horses, instead of oxen, have been employed in field labour. The system of cultivation corresponds with that of Holstein and Silesia. After a year's fallow three corn crops, usually rye, barley, and oats, are taken in succession, the land being sown down with grass seeds; along with the 3d corn crop, a crop of hay is taken in the 4th year, and the 5th and 7th years the fields are in pasture. (Jacob's Second Report.) The climate is too cold for the vine, though lately it has been raised to some extent at Crevitz, and some bad wine has been produced. The horses and horned cattle, which are both numerous and excellent, find a ready sale in every part of Germany, and are a source of great profit to the landed proprietors. The breed of horses has been much improved, by means of the grand ducal stud at Redefin and several private studs. Sheep have been a good deal increased of late: the stock in the grand duchy is now estimated at about 1,300,000, and wool has become a principal article of export. Herds of hogs and flocks of geese are met with in every part of Mecklenburg. The former wander, nearly wild, through the forests, feeding on acorns and roots, and the geese literally cover the banks of the lakes and rivers. The latter supply a considerable part of Europe with quills; and their breasts, smoked and cured like bacon, are much esteemed as a delicacy.

The pop. has increased very rapidly within the last 25 years, a consequence partly of the breaking up of the old feudal system, and partly of the introduction of the potato, &c. The number of inhab. in 1818, was 377,934, whereas, in 1837, it was 476,499, being an increase of 26 per cent. During the 10 years previous to 1838, the deaths amounted to 10,060, and the births to 16,070 a year. Mecklenburg is still, however, the least populous portion of Germany; there being only 99 inhab. to the English sq. m. Till within the last 20 years the peasants were in a state of mitigated slavery. They could acquire, enjoy, and transmit property, but they were *adscripti glebe*, and bound to the soil, so as to be sold or let with it. The government took measures, on the restoration of peace, to abolish this relic of the feudal ages; and, about 1830, all the peasants who still remained in the condition of serfs (for many of the proprietors had previously emancipated those on their estates) were declared free, though their actual manumission did not take place till about 1826. They are now, however, quite free, and may labour where and under whatever conditions they please to stipulate with their employers. Previously to the emancipation of the peasantry, a man was estimated to cost during harvest 1s. 4d., during hay-making 1s. 1d., and at other periods from 6d. to 1s. a day. Probably but few changes have yet taken place, either in the condition or appearance of the peasantry. The country, at a passing view, seems, from the magnitude of the farm-buildings and the number of enclosures and woods, to be more prosperous than, on a closer examination, is found to be the case. "On a nearer approach, it is scarcely possible to avoid feeling disgust at the miserable filthiness and apparent poverty of the peasants' dwellings and of their clothing; though a difference may be discerned on the several properties, according to the greater or less degree of prudence and kindness of the various proprietors." (Jacob's Rep. on Agric.)

The condition of the peasants, of whom a large proportion are noble, appears, in fact, to be much depressed. The author of *Germany and the Germans*, in 1835-36, says, "The landsman, unlike his neighbour in Holstein, is poor. I sought in vain for the appearance of comfort and plenty which had delighted me in Holstein; and yet, like the latter, Mecklenburg is one of the most fertile provinces in the Kingdom of Germany, and exports provisions in large quantities to Prussia and Hamburg, while the natives are obliged to content themselves with potatoes, horse-beans, and *sauer-kraut*. During my tour through the more remote villages, I found it impossible to procure a comfortable dinner. Fresh meat was entirely out of the question; the general bill of fare at the inns consisted of potatoes, bread, butter, and eggs, and those of a superior class added bacon and *sauer-kraut*. My drink was confined to wretched beer or schnapps; and, when I demanded wine, they looked at me as if my intellects were deranged. My bed was not unfrequently a straw palisade, and the only covering a feather bed, enveloped in a gay-coloured cotton cover; the whole supported on a bedstead, 5 ft. long, composed of deal boards nailed together, in form not unlike a packing-box. These miserable arrangements are common to all the remote districts of Mecklenburg, Pomerania, and Prussia.

"As Germany supplies Europe with princes and princesses, it would appear as if Mecklenburg alone were sufficient to furnish it with nobles; for it is reckoned that the nobility include the half of the pop.,

the possessions of 6-8ths of these dignified persons being limited to their genealogical trees. During my progress through the country, I met with a *Herr* (baron) who exercised the profession of relieving men's chins of what is sometimes considered an incumbrance; and at one of the inns I found a *Herr graf* (count) for a landlord, a *fräulein gräfin* (countess) for a landlady; the young *herren grafen* filled the places of ostler, waiter, and boots, while the fair young *fräulein gräfinnen* were the cooks and chambermaids. I was informed that, in one village, the whole of the inhab. were noble except four, and these were married to noble *fräuleins*." (Germany, &c., l. 43, 44.)

In Mecklenburg the general principle is, that every place shall provide for its own poor, either separately or in common with others. All proprietors are bound to provide for the poor on their estates; and, in furtherance of that object, are entitled to levy a sum of about 8d. a year from the day-labourers, and 4d. from the maid-servants, &c., on the estate, though but few avail themselves of this privilege. When crown lands are let, there is always a clause in the contract regulating what the farmer, the dairy farmer, the smith, and the shepherd are to pay for behoof of the poor. The higher classes, public officers, &c., should pay 1 per cent. of their income to the poor's funds. All poor persons have a legal claim to assistance, and such work must be found them as they can perform.

About 80,000 cwt. of salt are obtained annually; but, with the exception of lime, minerals are of little importance, and mining is quite neglected. Manufactures are not of considerable value. The principal are those of woollen and linen fabrics; but the former employed, in 1834, only 1,128 hands, who produced goods of the value of about 371,000 doll., about 1-5th part of which was exported. Mecklenburg is famous, even in Germany, for the distillation of corn spirits. Every one may carry on the business of distiller, without tax or restriction of any kind; and this facility has, no doubt, tended to increase that taste for ardent spirits which, unhappily, distinguishes the peasantry. A few cotton, paper, glass, tobacco, soap, and wax-light factories, with breweries and tanneries, complete the list of manufacturing establishments. The government is, however, devoting a good deal of attention to the improvement and diffusion of manufactures, and at least one school of arts and trades is now established in every town. Mecklenburg has an extensive trade in farm produce, which is facilitated by the proximity of the Elbe and the Baltic, especially the former, the principal part of the foreign commerce of the duchy being carried on through Hamburg. The value of the exports is estimated, at an average, at about 4,000,000 doll. a year: of which, corn, pulse, &c., furnish 2,300,000, wool 500,000, butter and cheese 400,000, and cattle 250,000 doll. The import trade is also considerable; but no accurate statement can be made, either of the exports or imports, from the want of custom-house accounts. The commercial policy of Mecklenburg is as liberal as can be desired: she has no duties on imports, except a trifling excise at her ports; nor any frontier-dues beyond a trifle in the shape of a road-toll, which does not, however, appear to be strictly enforced. The only commercial towns and ports of any consequence are Rostock and Wismar. The other towns have merely a retail trade, a large part of which is in the hands of Jews. In the S. Prussian measures and measures are current: but the Hamburg measures of length and the Lubek measures of capacity are in use, in most parts of the grand duchy. The Mecklenburg rod is larger than the Rhenish, in the proportion of 1 to .809; the *sworga* varies from 300 to 400 sq. rods. The pound is to that of Hamburg as 401 to 400; the centner = 8 liepsfund = 112 lb.; but in Rostock the liep, has 16 lb.

The government is intimately connected with that of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. Each grand duchy has its separate states, which, also, meet separately; but the states of both grand duchies assemble once a year, alternately at Sternberg and Malchin. The joint assembly has the right, in conjunction with the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, to make laws for and impose taxes on the whole of Mecklenburg: it consists of the landed proprietors among the nobility, and of deputies from towns, &c., in all amounting to between 500 and 600 members. When the states are not assembled, a committee sits at Rostock. The executive power is entrusted to a *directorium*, consisting of 8 grand-ducal councillors, 3 heads of noble families (*Erblandesräthe*), and a deputy from the town of Rostock, which is itself a sort of little republic, or *imperium in imperio*. The grand duchy is divided into 5 principal districts—the duchy of Schwerin, or circ. of Mecklenburg; the duchy of Güstrow, or circ. of Wenden; the district of Rostock; the principality of Schwerin, and the lordship of Wismar; besides which, there is a small extent of territory, which sends no representatives to the states, and over which 3 conventional establishments have jurisdiction.

Justice is administered in primary courts in the towns

and villages, in patrimonial courts on the estates of the nobility, with courts of secondary jurisdiction at Schwerin, Güstrow, and Rostock, and a high court of appeal at Parchim, which is the supreme legal tribunal for both grand duchies. With the exception of between 2,000 and 4,000 Jews, the inhab. are nearly all Lutherans. There are upwards of 1,000 primary schools, about 40 superior public schools (*Bürgersehulen*), 5 gymnasia, and the University of Rostock, with several ecclesiastical and other special seminaries. Previously to 1826, there was but one bookelling establishment in the grand duchy; but, since that period, the diffusion of education and the cultivation of literature has led to the establishment of 11 others, besides 12 printing-offices. (*Berghaus*.)

The public revenues of the grand duchy amount to 4,600,000 fr. per annum, and the public debt to 18,000,000 fr. The dukes of Mecklenburg had formerly 8 votes in the College of Princes, in the Diet of the Empire. Since 1815, Mecklenburg-Schwerin has held, with Mecklenburg-Strelitz, the 14th rank in the Germanic Confederation. They have conjointly 2 votes in the general assemblies, but only one in the Committee of the Diet. Mecklenburg-Schwerin furnishes a contingent of 3,580 men to the army of the Confederation.

Schwerin is the political cap.; but Ludwigslust, a town with a pop. of about 5,000, 14 m. S.W. Parchim, is the usual summer residence of the grand duke. The palace, which is a large fine edifice, has a cabinet of pictures and a collection of alaronic antiquities; the surrounding grounds are well laid out; but the neighbourhood is dull and not very healthy.

3. MECKLENBURG-STRELITZ (GRAND DUCHY OF), a state of N. Germany, consisting of 2 separate territorial divisions; the first and largest, or the duchy of Stargard, lying between lat. 53° 9' and 53° 47' N., and long. 13° 40' and 13° 57' E., having W. Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and surrounded on all other sides by the Prussian territories; and the second, or principality of Ratzeburg, between lat. 53° 40' and 53° 51' N., and long. 13° 30' and 13° E. United area, 327 sq. m. Pop. in 1848, 95,023. The general features of the country are the same as those described in the above art.; its mean elevation is, however, somewhat less than that of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, though the Hinterpberg, near Woldek, rises to 640 ft. above the sea. The chief river in Stargard is the Havel, and in Ratzeburg the Stoppnitz. The land is divided among the sovereign, the nobility, and the towns, in the proportions of about 7-10ths to the first, 3-10ths to the nobles, and 1-10th to the municipalities. Nearly 1-4th part of the grand ducal property consists of forest lands. Agriculture and cattle-breeding are the chief branches of industry here, as in Mecklenburg-Schwerin. The manufactures are even more insignificant than in the latter grand duchy, and almost confined to leather, beer, and spirits, with copper wares in Ratzeburg. There is a brisk trade in rural produce. New Brandenburg is, next to Güstrow, the largest wool-market, and Old Strelitz the largest mart for horses, in Mecklenburg. Fürstenburg has some trade in timber and butter.

The government is a limited monarchy, as in Mecklenburg-Schwerin. Justice is administered in 8 courts of primary jurisdiction, the superior courts of Ruckwisch and Ratzeburg, and the court of chancery in New Strelitz, from which appeal lies to the supreme tribunal at Parchim. The principal public schools are, the *Gymnasium Carolinum* at New Strelitz, the high schools at New Brandenburg, Friedland, and Ratzeburg, and the school of arts (*Bildungsanstalt*), at Mirow. New Strelitz is the cap. and residence of the grand duke. The other chief towns are New Brandenburg, Friedland, and Old Strelitz. Mecklenburg-Strelitz holds, with Mecklenburg-Schwerin, the 14th place in the German Confederation, and has also, with it, 1 vote in the committee, having in the full diet 1 vote independently. It furnishes 718 men to the army of the Confederation.

Mecklenburg has been several times conquered and disposed of by foreign powers; as by Henry the Lion, in the 12th century by Ferdinand II., who gave it to Wallenstein, and by Napoleon; but it has always reverted to its original dynasty. The reigning family is the only sovereign house of Slavonian origin, and is one of the most ancient in Europe, with all the principal reigning families of which it has been allied. The separation of Mecklenburg into two states took place in 1701, and both were recognised as grand duchies in 1815. (*Berghaus, Allg. Länder. &c.* iv. 365-411.; *Strin, Handbuch der Geog.*; *Jacob's Second Report on Agriculture*; *Parl. Papers*, 1836; *Almanack de Gotha*, 1841; *Germany and the Germans, &c., passim*.)

MEDINA, or MEDINET-EL-NABI, "the town of the prophet," one of the sacred cities of Arabia, the burial-place of Mohammed, and, next to Mecca, the great centre of attraction to Mohammedan pilgrims. In the prov. el-Hedys, 100 m. N.E. its port of Yama on the Red Sea, and 300 m. N. Mecca. Lat. 25° 13' N., long. 40° 3' 18" E. Pop. of town and suburbs, according to

Burchardt, 18,000. This celebrated city stands in a plain, close to a chain of hills which bounds the great desert westward. It is not open, like Mecca, but surrounded by a wall about 40 ft. high, and flanked by 30 towers; it was additionally fortified with a ditch by the Wahabees; but this is in most places nearly filled up. It is entered by three fine gates; one of which, towards the S., called Bab-el-Masry, is said by Burchardt to rank second only to the noble gates of Cairo; a fourth gate in the S. wall, was closed by the Wahabees, and has not since been re-opened. The houses are well built, of a dark grey stone; but it has a desolate appearance, owing to the lessened resort of pilgrims. Ruined houses and tottering walls are seen in every part of the town; and "Medina presents the same disheartening view as most of the eastern towns, which now afford but faint images of their ancient splendour." (*Burchardt's Arabia*, ii. 156.)

The principal street, in which are most of the shops, leads from the Cairo gate to the great mosque; another, of respectable size and breadth, runs from the mosque to the Syrian gate; but many of its houses are in ruins, and there are few shops. No shops or bazars, however, are found in other parts of the town; and, in this respect, Medina differs from Mecca, which is one continued market. The suburbs cover more ground than the city itself, from which they are separated by an open space, narrow on the S., but widening on the W., before the Cairo gate, where it forms a large public place called *Mawdika*, always crowded with camels and camoules. Provisions are sold here in sheds erected for the purpose, and the numerous coffee-huts are best the whole day with visitors. The greater part of the suburbs consist of large court-yards, built round with low houses, tenanted chiefly by the humbler classes. Each *kash*, or court-yard, contains 30 or 40 families; the cattle belonging to the little community occupy the centre of each; and the only gate of entrance is regularly closed at night. Opposite, however, to the gate of Cairo are several regular and well-built streets, with houses similar to those within the town; one of these, called *El-Ambary*, comprises some of the handsomest residences in Medina, besides two rather large mosques, all now remaining, except the great temple, out of 14 mentioned by the Arabian historians. The town is supplied with good water, both from wells and open streams.

The glory of Medina, and that which places it, as a sacred city, almost on a level with Mecca, is the possession of the tomb containing the remains of the Prophet. This tomb, with the tombs of Abou-Beker and Omar, the friends, and immediate successors of the prophet, are enclosed within the great mosque, situated at the E. end of the town. Though smaller than the mosque at Mecca, it is built upon the same plan, with minarets at the angles, and forms an open square, surrounded on all sides by covered colonnades. The tombs are enclosed within a curtain, in a square building of black stone, detached from the walls of the mosque, and surrounded by a close iron railing. People of rank are admitted gratis within the sacred precinct, called *El Hedys*; and any one, indeed, who has money to spare, finds but little difficulty in being admitted. The ridiculous stories, long current in Europe, as to Mohammed's coffin being suspended in the air by a loadstone, are unknown in the East; and most part of the statements that have been put forth, as to the richness and magnificence of the tombs and the great mosque, have been absurdly exaggerated. The tomb of Fatima, the favourite daughter of the Prophet, and the wife of Ali, is also within the great mosque; but it is doubtful whether it really encloses her remains. The lofty dome, which rises above the tombs, is seen at a great distance from town. The ceremonies observed by persons visiting Medina are somewhat distinct from those customary at Mecca; nor is it absolutely required of the *hadjis* to visit the prophet's tomb; and hence is it that the enjoined religious duties are considerably less tedious. The building is lighted at night with lamps and candles, sent either from Cairo or Constantinople. The mosque has four gates, of which the principal, by which the pilgrims first enter, called Bab Merouan, is certainly very superior in beauty to any of the gates at Mecca. The police, cleansing and lighting of the mosque, are entrusted to about 20 eunuchs, somewhat similar to those of the *Eschallas* at Mecca, supported, like them, by salaries from Constantinople, and by fees and presents from the *hadjis*. Besides these, and the *Imams*, *Mueddins*, and *Olema*, who are as indispensable here as at Mecca, there are upwards of 400 inferior servants. The mosque, founded by Mohammed himself, immediately after his flight from Mecca, on the spot where his camel first rested in the town, was enlarged by Omar after the prophet's entombment, and surrounded with walls by Othman. Subsequent caliphs and nobles of Arabia greatly embellished it; but the whole edifice was burnt down in 1597, and re-completed, with the destruction, that only the interior of the tomb was spared. The present building was erected,

in 1514, by Kayd Beg, then king of Egypt; since whose time only a few immaterial improvements have been made by the Ottoman emperors of Constantinople. (*Burckhardt's Arabia*, II. 161—305.) The burial ground of Medina, called *El Bekya*, is another object of extreme veneration, in consequence of its containing the tombs of Ibrahim, Othman, Abbas, the sunts of Mohammed, &c. Another place of pilgrim-resort is Djebel-Ohod, about 2 m. from the town; the scene of a conflict between the small army of Mohammed and a very numerous band of idolatrous Koreysh, under Abu Sofyan. The Prophet's uncle, Hamse, fell in the engagement, with 75 others, all of whom are buried on this mountain, the exact spot being marked by a mosque.

The people of Medina, like those of Mecca, are chiefly either foreigners or of foreign extraction, drawn thither by the prophet's tomb, and the gains which it ensures to its neighbours. The number of Sherifs, indeed, descended from Hassan, the Prophet's grandson, is very considerable; but most of them come from Mecca, or elsewhere, and nearly all are olemas, or clergymen. The pop. presents, therefore, as motley a race as that of Mecca, and Arabs of every district, Egyptians, Africans, Syrians, and Turks of Anatolia, are found here, more or less naturalised by intermarriage; those long settled being characterised, as at Mecca, by the Arab face, expressive cast of features, and stout thick-set person.

With respect to commerce, Medina widely differs from Mecca; for, while the latter is enriched by a transit trade scarcely inferior to that of any great city in the East, the trade of the former is merely for the consumption of the town and its neighbourhood, the articles being chiefly received from Egypt, by the way of Yembo. The provisions trade is a lucrative branch of traffic; and the richer merchants often realise enormous profits when the caravans stay for any considerable time, and exhaust the stores of the smaller dealers. The Bedouins supply the town with sheep, butter, honey, and charcoal, taking in return corn and clothing; but the trade is subject to great fluctuations, in consequence of continual enmities between the tribes. The date and lotus fruit are produced in large quantities in the neighbouring gardens, the former of these being the prime article of trade, and brought thither from all the surrounding country. As respects manufactures, Medina is as ill situated as Mecca; wanting the commonest mechanics, and not even possessing a pottery. Weaving, dyeing, and tanning are arts wholly unknown, nor is there a single person in the whole city capable of making either a nail or a horse-shoe, unless it be at pilgrim-time, when many of the poorest hadjis endeavour by hard labour to earn the money necessary for their journey homewards.

The climate of Medina is, during the winter, much colder than at Mecca. Rain falls irregularly at that season; often in violent storms, lasting for 2 or 3 days, but in some years so sparingly as to cause a general dearth, from the want of proper irrigation. The summer-heat is alleged to be greater than in any other part of the Hedjaz; and the salt-marshes, stagnant pools, and exhalations from the neighbouring date-groves, are powerful agents in producing those intermittent fevers, which are so common, and often fatal, in the city, especially to visitors. The deaths, indeed, are reckoned by Burckhardt (though, no doubt, very vaguely) at 1,300 annually; which, assuming the pop. at 18,000, is 1 in 15; and if this be near the truth, it is clear it must long ago have been depopulated, but for the continued supply of inhabitants from other countries!

Medina, though, probably, not entitled to rank as one of the cities of what, by the best authorities, is considered the Hedjaz, has always, since the establishment of Mohammedanism, been considered as a separate principality, and independent even of Mecca. The governor has, till recently, been appointed by the Grand Signior; but, in the absence of precise information, it is believed that Mehemet Ali now exercises supreme power over both the holy cities of the Mohammedan world. (*Burckhardt*, vol. II. 145—292.; *Mod. Trav.*, &c.)

MEDINA DEL CAMPO, a town of Spain, kingd. of Leon, prov. Valladolid, on the Zapardiel, a trib. of the Douro, 37 m. S.S.W. Valladolid, and 83 m. N.W. Madrid. Pop. 2,000. The town on both sides the river (crossed here by a stone bridge), has a neat square, with a handsome sculptured fountain in its centre. The houses are mostly very old, and many of them quite in ruins. A collegiate and 6 other churches, several monasteries (now uninhabited), and 3 hospitals, one of which has considerable architectural merit, are its chief public buildings; but most of them show, by their dilapidated appearance, the degraded condition of the place. The inhab. are chiefly employed in agriculture. It has 2 weekly markets, and a fair in February, well attended by traders from Toledo, Segovia, Cuenca, &c.

Medina del Campo occupies the site of the ancient *Methymna Campestris*, and was formerly a place of considerable importance; but in the 17th century, after the

discovery of America, a large part of its pop. emigrated, and its decay has since been hastened by the internal troubles of the country. (*Memo.*)

MEDINA DE RIO SECO, a town of Spain, kingd. of Leon, prov. Valladolid, on the Segullio, a trib. of the Douro, 23 m. S.S.E. Leon, and 123 m. N.W. Madrid. Pop. 4,700. It stands in an open plain, W. of the river, crossed here by 3 bridges, and has narrow, badly-paved streets, and shabby decaying houses: there are 3 churches, 4 monasteries, 3 hospitals, and a castle; but with the single exception of the church of St. Maria, all the public buildings are in a ruinous condition. The inhab. were once so celebrated for their industry and the variety of manufactured goods exhibited at its fairs in April and September, that the district acquired the name of *India chica* (the Little Indies); but every trace of its former prosperity has now disappeared, and the pop. ranks at present among the most degraded and least industrious in Spain. (*Memo.*)

MEDINA SIDONIA, a town of Spain, in Andalusia, prov. Cadiz, 22 m. E. of Cadiz, and 65 m. S. Seville. Pop., according to Mifano, 9,237. It is an old walled town, beautifully situated on the brow of a rocky eminence, looking eastward over a fine champagne country. A castle, 3 par. churches, 6 monasteries (now unoccupied), and 3 hospitals, are the only public buildings. The chief employment of the inhab. is the manufacture of earthenware, which is conducted on a large scale, furnishing the principal supply for Cadiz, Seville, and, indeed, the whole of Andalusia. The neighbourhood is celebrated for its fine pastures; and the rearing of cattle forms the chief occupation of the rural pop.

MEDITERRANEAN SEA (the *Mare Internum* of the ancients, and more recently, the *Mare Mediterraneum*), a large and very important inland sea, bounded N. by Europe, E. by Asia, and S. by Africa, communicating at its W. extremity, by the Straits of Gibraltar, with the N. Atlantic Ocean, and at its N.E. extremity, by the Dardanelles and Bosporus, with the Black or Euxine Sea. It extends, in a general sense, from lat. 30° to nearly 46° N., and from long. 8° 54' W. to 26° 8' E. Greatest length, 2,300 m.; do. breadth, from Venice to the Bay of Sidra, 1,900 m.; estimated area (acc. to Stein), nearly 600,000 sq. m. of an oblong, but very irregular, shape, especially on its N. side, into which project southward the two large peninsulas of Italy and Greece, which thus divide the Mediterranean into three basins, the most westerly of which is included between the Straits of Gibraltar and the passage, only 72 m. broad, between C. Boeo in Sicily and C. Bon in Africa; the central part extending eastward from the last-mentioned points to the meridian of C. Matapan in the Morea; while the E. basin, called the Levant, comprises the Grecian Archipelago and the sea that washes the coasts of Karamania, Syria, and Egypt. The principal inlets of the W. basin are the bays of Lyons, Genoa, and Naples; it contains also the three large islands of Corsica, Sardinia, and Sicily; the Lipari, and other islands on the W. side of Italy; and the Balearic group, off the coast of Spain. The central basin has a large arm projecting N. under the name of the Adriatic Sea; its smaller inlets being the Gulphs of Taranto in Italy, Lepanto in Greece, and Cades and Sidra (an. the two *Syrtes*) in Africa; Malta, the Ionian Isles, and the numerous rocky islets skirting the shores of Dalmatia, are its chief islands. The portion of the E. basin or Levant, which stretches N. from the tale of Candia to the coast of Macedonia, is called the Archipelago, and is remarkable, not only for the extreme irregularity of its coast-line, but for the numerous clusters of volcanic islands and rocks that stud its surface; its chief gulphs are those of Egina, Salonika, Contessa, and Smyrna; and its largest islands are Lemnos, Mytilene, Thasos, Scio, and Naxia. The great island of Cyprus lies in the angle between the coasts of Asia Minor and Syria.

The coast of the Mediterranean is as remarkable for dissimilarity of altitude as for variety of outline. Its N. shores, as might be inferred from their jagged outline, are generally steep and bold; but in parts, as in Spain and France, near the mouths of the Ebro and the Rhone, and in Lucca, Tuscany, the Papal States, and Naples, as far S. as C. Campanella, the shores are low and gently shelving, varied only by a few bold rocky headlands; the S. side of Sicily and the W. shores of the Adriatic, are, also, with a few exceptions, flat and sandy; but in Istria, Dalmatia, and, in short, all along the E. side of the Adriatic, the coast is bold, broken, and irregular, often presenting a cliff rising between 600 and 700 ft. in perpendicular height, with deep soundings close to the shore. The shores of the Archipelago partake, more or less, of the same bold character, except in a few bays, where rivers, by the constant deposition of alluvial soil at their mouths, have formed low beaches, extending considerably beyond the high rocks usual to this coast.

The S. coast of Anatolia, which has a less indented line of shore, though by no means low, is much less

craggy and precipitous; extremely high promontories here and there stretch out into the deep sea; but beaches, more or less shelving, of shingle, gravel, or sand, are by far the most common on this coast. The cliffs about Iskenderoon are of great height, running round the bay, and furnishing complete security for shipping, except from the E., or land, breezes, which are both violent and dangerous. The shores of Syria are mountainous between Tripoli and Tyro, but present, in many places, a large extent of low and flat coast, especially towards the S. extremity.

Near the mouth of the Nile the country presents a low uninteresting flat, with rocky reefs and shoals, projecting from 5 to 7 m. from the shore; and this continues as far W. as long. 27° E., beyond which a series of not very high cliffs, varied here and there by sandy bays (the largest being those of Sidra and Cabe), marks the whole African coast as far as C. Sparte. Submarine rocks and projecting shoals of mud and sand, not less than the roving practical habits of the Moslems, render the navigation of these shores both difficult and dangerous; and, in this respect, the S. side of this sea presents a striking contrast to the N., where, generally speaking, deep soundings may be had close in shore; while, in parts, particularly between Nice and Genoa, and near Gibraltar, no soundings can be found under 1,000 fathoms and upwards. The in-shore navigation presents some difficulties. In consequence of a few hidden rocks; but the chief skill of the mariner is required in the Archipelago, where, though there be few hidden dangers, it requires first-rate experience of its shifting winds and currents to guide him safely through its many intricate channels. (*Purdy's Sailing Dir. for the Med.*, part ii. p. 61.; *Lyell's Geology*, i. 347.)

It is a curious fact, that, though the Mediterranean generally be so deep that soundings, even where possible, are of no practical utility, except in some of its bays and harbours, the depth of the channel between Sicily and Tunis, according to Sonnini and Smythe, no where exceeds 30 fathoms, the average not being greater than the depth of the Straits of Dover between England and France. (*Smythe's Hyd. Maps of Sicily and Africa*, and *Memoir*. The temperature of its water is, at an average, from 75° to 76°, or 34° Fah. higher than the W. part of the Atlantic Ocean; but it does not appear, from the experiments of Marcet and Woollaston, that its density exceeds that of many ordinary samples of sea-water. (*Lyell's Geology*, ii. 17.) The chief feeders of the Mediterranean are the Ebro, Rhone, Po, and Nile, with the various waters brought from the Black Sea by the strong current that sets W. through the Dardanelles. But, notwithstanding this vast supply, the evaporation is so rapid that water constantly passes in through the Straits of Gibraltar, to restore the equilibrium. The Mediterranean has long been considered a tideless sea; but this is not strictly true: for, in the Adriatic, as well as between that sea and the coast of Africa, tides rise from 5 to 7 ft., and their influence is felt, more or less, along the shores of Sicily, and on the W. side of the Morea. The existence of this tide, indeed, may suggest an explanation of the loss of so many vessels in that region of mist and terror, the Gulph of Sidra, where there is always a loft swell, and accumulation of waters during the prevalence of N.W. winds. A tide of 8 or 9 ft. also ebbs and flows at pretty regular intervals in the smaller gulph of Cabe, on the same coast. In the Straits of Messina and Bonifacio, at Naples, in the narrow channel of the Euripus, and on both shores of the Straits of Gibraltar, there is an ebb and flow amounting to 3 ft. and upwards; but whether these movements are to be attributed to lunar influence, or to other causes, has not been determined. (*Purdy*, part ii. p. 9.; *Lyell*, i. 375.) The currents peculiar to this great inland sea vary in its different parts: a current sets E. along the African shores, which is turned northward along the coast of Sicily, and then westward along that of Cyprus and Karamania; the current in the Archipelago sets almost continually to the S., being increased or retarded, according to the winds; in the Adriatic, the current runs N.W. up the coast of Albania, and S.E. down the Italian shores, bringing with it the waters of the Po. A strong current runs through the Faro of Messina (the Scylla and Charybdis of antiquity), and, by meeting a lateral current, causes numerous eddies and whirlpools. (*See* SCYLLA and CHARYBDIS.)

But this strait, notwithstanding the statements in the classics, presents no real danger; and, in the late war, it was traversed by the fleet under Lord Nelson. (*Smythe's Sicily*, pp. 110–113.) In the Straits of Gibraltar, the main current sets eastward, at a rate varying from 3 to 6 m. an hour: it is true that an under-current has long been supposed to run in an opposite direction; but the fallacy of this hypothesis has been fully shown by Mr. Lyell; and it seems that the only outlet for the superfluous water is by the lateral current, which runs westward close to the African shore. (*Geology*, ii. 19.) With respect to the winds of the

Mediterranean, it may be observed that the prevalent winds, except during spring, vary between N.W. and N.E., while those in spring are from S.E. to S.W. But the winds are extremely variable, and it is said that 3 or 4 vessels may occasionally be seen carrying different, and sometimes opposite, winds at the same time. The *Bora*, a violent N.E. wind in the Adriatic, the *Etesian*, or N.E. winds (called also *Tramontana*), which blow for several months together in the Archipelago, and the *scirocco*, or *solan*, are peculiar to this sea. The last of these is described by Capt. Smythe as being extremely troublesome, and producing great dejection and lassitude. "At its commencement," he observes, "the air is dense and hazy, with long white clouds floating just above, and parallel to, the horizon. The thermometer rises to 90° or 95°, sometimes 100°, and the barometer gradually sinks to about 29.60". It generally continues during three or four days; during which period, such is its influence, that wine cannot be fined, or meat effectually salted; oil-paint laid on during its continuance will seldom harden. But, though blighting in its general effects during summer, it is favourable to the growth of many useful plants in winter, when, indeed, it has few disagreeable qualities." (*Sicily*, p. 6.)

Waterspouts are of very common occurrence, especially on the coast of Asia-Minor, where as many as sixteen have been seen at one time. Many volcanic phenomena have also been observed in this sea; among which may be mentioned the sudden appearance, in 1831, of an island, about 30 m. S.W. of Sciacca in Sicily, and its equally sudden disappearance, three years afterwards. These movements may result from the close proximity of the large igneous region of Italy and Sicily. The presence of electric fluid in the atmosphere is also proved by the play of flame round the mast-heads, called by sailors "the fire of St. Elmo." Several springs of fresh water rise in different parts of the Mediterranean: the largest of these is in the port of Taranto, near the mouth of the Galesus, where the fresh water ascends in such a volume, and with such impetuosity, that it may be taken up at the surface without the least impregnation of salt; but the most celebrated of these fountains is that of Arethusa, in the harbour of Syracuse. (*See* ARETHUSA, i. 152.)

The Mediterranean abounds with fish of many different varieties, as well as with mollusca. The tunny and anchovy fisheries are a source of great profit on the coasts of Italy and Sicily: the sword-fish is very common; and the *murex purpurea* supplies the fine Tyrian dye, now, as anciently, celebrated for the brightness of its red colour. Coral is found on many parts of the Barbary coast, and in some of the bays on Corsica and Sardinia. The chief fishery, however, is in the Straits of Messina, where there is a coral-ground upwards of 6 m. in length.

In the Scriptures, the Mediterranean is called "the Great Sea" (Num. xxiv. 6.). Herodotus calls it (i. 185.) "the Sea;" and Strabo, "the Sea within the Columns" (Σάλας ἡ ἐν τῶν κολωνῶν). It is probable that it witnessed the first rude attempts at navigation. "Having," as Dr. Smith has justly observed, "no (perceptible) tides, nor, consequently, any waves, except such as are caused by the wind only, the Mediterranean was, by the smoothness of its surface, as well as by the multitude of its islands, and the proximity of its neighbouring shores, extremely favourable to the infant navigation of the world; when, from their ignorance of the compass, men were afraid to quit the view of the coast, and, from the imperfection of the art of ship-building, to abandon themselves to the boisterous waves of the ocean." (*Wealth of Nations*, book i. cap. 3.) At all events it was navigated, and its islands occupied, in the remotest antiquity: it subsequently was traversed in all directions by the ships of the Phœnicians, and their descendants, the Carthaginians; and, at a later period, by those of the Greeks and Romans. During the middle ages, and down to the discovery of America, it was the grand centre of the commerce and navigation of the old world; and the Venetians and Genoese, by whom its trade was for a while principally engrossed, attained, in consequence, to great wealth and consideration. The discovery of America, and of a route to India by the Cape of Good Hope, opened new and far more extensive channels for maritime enterprise. But we incline to think that the depression of the Mediterranean trade, in the 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries, was principally owing to the circumstance of the countries round the Black Sea, the Levant, and the whole N. shore of Africa, having been shortly before subjugated by the Turks, the implacable foes of art, civilisation, and refinement. Happily, however, their empire has been, to a considerable extent, dismembered; and, within the course of the present century, the trade of the Mediterranean has begun to resume something like its former importance. The opening of the Black Sea, and the rise of Odessa and other towns on its shores, the renewed intercourse with India by Alexandria, the occupation of Malta by the English, and of Algiers by the French, the independence

of Greece, and the establishment of steamers between the principal ports of the sea, have prodigiously extended its commerce and navigation. And when the old, worn out, imbecile despotism of the Turkish government has been overthrown, and the fine and fertile countries, now under its degrading yoke, have been emancipated, a vast additional stimulus will be given to its commerce; so that the fair presumption seems to be, that the ancient importance of the Mediterranean as a field for the successful prosecution of commercial navigation, is destined, at no very distant period, to be again equalled, and, possibly, surpassed.

The Mediterranean has on its shores the capital cities of Naples, Palermo, Athens, Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers. Among its principal emporiums may be specified Marseilles, Genoa, Leghorn, Civita Vecchia, Venice, Trieste, Syra, Smyrna, Alexandria, Malaga, and Barcelona. Its most important naval stations are those of Malta and Toulon: Gibraltar is, as it were, the key of the sea.

To the scholar and classical traveller the Mediterranean has the most powerful attractions. Her shores were the earliest seats of art, science and civilisation. She has been surrounded and occupied by the most renowned nations of antiquity; and her coasts and islands have still to boast the ruins of some of the noblest and most splendid cities of the ancient world. In short, to use the language of Dr. Johnson, "the grand object of all travelling is to see the shores of the Mediterranean. On those shores were the four great empires of the world; the Assyrian, the Persian, the Grecian, and the Roman. All our religion, almost all our law, almost all our arts, almost all that sets us above savages, have come to us from the shores of the Mediterranean." (*Purdy and Noris's Sailing Directions; Smyth's Sicily, and Hydro. Charts; Beaufort's Karamania, and Charts; Dict. Glog., &c.*)

MEDWAY, an important river of England, which has its embouchure in the estuary of the Thames. It rises in the S.E. corner of Surrey, between the N. and S. chalk ranges; being joined at Penshurst Place by streams from the S. of Sussex. Its course is thence N.E. to Maidstone, and then N. to Rochester and Chatham, about 3 m. below which it turns nearly E., expanding at the same time into a wide estuary, interspersed with islands. After prosecuting an easterly course for 8 or 10 m., it turns once more to the N., uniting with the estuary of the Thames at Sheerness. The tide is interrupted by locks, otherwise it would flow up the river to Maidstone. In consequence of works begun in the reign of Charles II., and resumed at different periods, it has been rendered navigable as far as Tonbridge; affording a channel of communication of much importance to the surrounding country. From Sheerness to Chatham there is water to float the largest ships; and the ground being soft, and the reaches short, it forms an admirable harbour for men-of-war, many of which are usually laid up here when out of commission. (*See CHATHAM, 1.563.*) The Medway was called by the ancient Britons *Vaga*, to which the Saxons prefixed the syllable *Mad*, signifying mild or middle, because it ran through the middle of the kingdom of Kent; hence it came to be called Medweg, and latterly Medway. Considering the shortness of its course, the Medway is one of the deepest of European rivers. (*Hasted's Kent, 1. 278, 8vo ed.; Statistical Account, &c., 1. 33.*)

MEERUT, a district of British India, presid. Agra (Benгал), chiefly between lat. 28° 30' and 29° 30' N., and long. 77° and 78° E., having N. the collectorate of Muzaffernuggur, E. that of Moradabad, S. Boolundshahur, and W. Paniput, &c. Area, 2,260 sq. m. Land revenue, in 1822, 14,04,316 rup. The chief towns are Meerut, Sirdhuna, Katouli, and Hussinapoor.

Masauri, a town of British India, presid. Agra, cap. of the above district, in an extensive grey granite N. of Delhi. This, which like Cawnpore, is a military station, is a much more agreeable residence than the latter. The town is surrounded by a dilapidated brick wall, and has a ruined fort or citadel. The streets are narrow and mean, and the houses mostly of mud; but it has some good architectural remains of mosques and pagodas; and without the walls are various Mohammedan tombs, built of red stone. A small stream, which swells into a river during the rainy season, is here crossed by a handsome bridge. The cantonments are at some distance N. of the town, from which they are separated by a long and busy bazaar. The barracks are one story in height, and disposed in regular ranges, at intervals, along a space about 3 m. in length: the bungalows of the officers are surrounded with gardens, enclosed by tall hedge-rows. The church of Meerut is probably the largest in British India, being 150 ft. in length, by 84 ft. in breadth, and capable of accommodating 3,000 people. There is a good free school here, with about 100 native pupils. Meerut was a city of some consequence before the Mohammedan invasion of India. It was taken by Mahmoud, of Ghilani, in 1018, and by Timour in 1395. It was occupied, with

its district, by the British in 1803, and is now the residence of a revenue collector and a judge, and the headquarters of a force of about 20,000 men, of whom about 2,200 are Europeans. (*Hamilton's E. J. Gaz.; Modern Trav., x. 5, 2.; Pari. Reports, &c.*)

MEININGEN (SAXE), or SAXE-MEININGEN-HILDBURGHAUSEN (DUCHY OF), an indep. state of Central Germany, consisting of a crescent-shaped territory, between the 50th and 51st degs. of lat., and long. 109° 10' and 110° 30' E.; enclosed on the S. by the territories of Cobourg and Bavaria, and on the other sides by the dominions of Cobourg, Schwartzburg, Prussia, Hesse-Cassel, and Weimar. Area, 968 sq. m. Pop. (1849), 162,333. This duchy comprises a portion of the Thuringian forest mountains; one of which, the Dollmar, rises to 2,370 ft. above the sea. The remainder of Saxe-Meiningen is chiefly comprised in the vale of the river Werra, by which it is traversed in a N.W. direction. This last portion of the duchy, though one of the most fertile districts in Germany, does not, however, produce enough of corn for the consumption of its inhabitants. Tobacco, turneps, and fruit are staple products; and the forests and cattle of the duchy are among the most important sources of wealth. Mining is pretty actively pursued; iron, a little copper, coal, alum, vitriol, &c., being produced; it has also marble quarries, and furnishes about 130,000 cwt. of salt a year. The manufacture of hardware and the weaving of linens and woollens are the chief remaining branches of industry; but a number of hands are also employed in making wooden articles, toys, &c. The government is a limited monarchy, and, in nearly all respects, similar to that of Saxe-Weimar (which see). The high court of appeal in Jena is the supreme tribunal for this duchy. The inhab., who are nearly all Lutherans, are quite as well educated as those of the rest of Saxony. Primary schools are numerous; there are superior schools, or colleges, in all the towns, and the state has a considerable share in the direction and patronage of the University of Jena and of the Prussian gymnasium at Schlensingen, near Erfurt. Public revenue, in 1849, 1,440,000 fl., which was about equal to the expenditure. The public debt, at the same time, amounted to 1,317,000 fl. Saxe-Meiningen has one vote in the full council of the German Confederation, and a vote in the committee, conjointly with Saxe-Weimar, Cobourg, and Altenburg, together with which it holds the 14th place in the diet. It furnishes 1,150 men to the army of the Confederation.

Her late Majesty, Queen Adelaide, was a princess of Meiningen.

MEININGEN, a town of Central Germany, cap. of the above duchy, on the Werra, here crossed by two stone bridges, 31 m. S.N.E. Fulda. Pop. about 5,300. It is encircled by wooded hills, is well built and laid out, and surrounded with ramparts and ditches. In the palace, which has been the residence of the dukes since 1681, are collections of paintings, engravings, natural curiosities, the archives of Meiningen and Weimar, and a library of 34,000 vols. The house of assembly for the states of the duchy, the *bernardinum*, or gymnasium, the female seminary, riding-school, theatre, and hospital, are the other principal edifices. It has some manufactures of woollen, linen, and mixed fabrics, with tanneries, breweries, &c., and has some of the best public gardens in Germany. (*Bergeng., Allg. Länder, &c., iv. 261-9.; Stein's Handb. der Gesch., Allg. d. Goth., 1841.*)

MEISSEN, a town of the kingd. of Saxony, prov. Meissen, on the Elbe, here crossed by a handsome bridge, 14 m. N.W. Dresden. Pop., in 1845, 8,080. "The castle, the Gothic church, and the lofty towers, perched high upon a rocky eminence, have a most imposing effect as you approach Meissen; but the streets are narrow, and the town has internally a gloomy appearance, which is considerably increased by the smoke constantly issuing from the porcelain manufactory." This establishment occupies the castle, built, it is said, by the emperor Henry I. "The beautiful pottery ware that goes by the name of Dresden China, is all manufactured here; and though the Meissen potteries are now rivalled by those of Berlin and Vienna, they were at one time the first, and may still be considered the most celebrated in Europe." (*Strang's Germany in 1831, 1. 84, 85.*) The Gothic cathedral is remarkable for the fine open-work of its spire and the elegance of its interior. In it are several antique monuments of the Saxon princes, and some fine old paintings by Albert Durer and Cranach: the latter has introduced into the altarpiece the portraits of Luther, his wife, and his friend, the Elector of Saxony. The neighbouring convent of Afra has been converted into a royal school. The chapter-house, 3 hospitals, and the orphan asylum, are the other chief public establishments. Besides the porcelain factory, founded by a chemist named Böttcher, in 1710, Meissen has manufactures of hats, stockings, leather, colours, &c., though none is very considerable. (*See Saxony, 1. 362, &c.*)

MELBOURNE. *See SUPPLEMENT.*

MELCOMBE-REGIS. See WYTHMOUTH.

MELFI, a town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Basilicata, on a lofty and remarkable volcanic mountain, overlooking the plain of Capitanata, 34 m. S. Foggia. Pop. about 7,000. Like most other towns in an elevated situation, Melfi loses somewhat on a nearer approach. It is encircled by old ruined walls. The streets are narrow, ill-paved, and dirty; and most of them, as the town is built on the side of a steep acclivity, are impracticable for carriages. Many of the houses, however, have a respectable appearance; which they owe more to the solidity of their masonry than to their magnificence. The principal object is its castle; which, though partly fallen to decay, and partly restored in very bad taste, retains a venerable and imposing aspect. It stands at the higher extremity of the town, from which it is separated by a kind of platform, commanding a view of the opposite slopes of Mount Vulture. Considerable historical interest is attached to it from its being the principal, and probably the first, fortress built by the Normans after their conquest of this portion of the kingdom. The large hall in which the meetings of the Norman confederates were held, and which afterwards accommodated the council of prelates, held here in 1069, and the parliament summoned by Frederick of Swabia, has been converted into a theatre. One only of its towers remains entire; but it affords, in height and solidity, a good specimen of the general structure.

The cathedral has attached to it a high tower, erected in 1181, which, like most of our English belltowers, has small Saxon arches for windows. There are 8 other churches, with numerous convents, a magnificent bishop's palace, some excellent public cisterns, and a good private collection of the minerals of the neighbourhood. The atmosphere is damp, and the town is said to be at times unhealthy. "The pop. appears lively, industrious, and active; though there are no particular manufactures. Many of the inhabs deal in cattle and fine, which last is somewhat less numerous and better than the produce of the surrounding towns; it constitutes an abundant article of commerce with the whole of the adjoining prov. of Capitanata, where, under the name of *Vino di Melfi*, it is sold, and held in general use." (*Cressen's Abruzzi*, &c., ii. 294.; *Switzerland*, i. 409.)

MELFORD, LONG, a market-town and par. of England, co. Suffolk, hund. Babergh, 17½ m. W. Ipswich, and 81 m. N. E. London. Area of par., 4,250 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,567. The town is very pleasantly situated in a picturesque and wooded country, and consists chiefly of one main street, nearly 1 m. in length. A handsome Gothic church, two places of worship for dissenters, and an almshouse (founded in 1573) for 12 poor men and 3 women, are the only public buildings. Spinning, woollen weaving, and retail trade, are the chief occupations of the inhab. The weekly market once held here has been discontinued for some years. Cattle and sheep fairs, Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday, in Whitson-week.

MELKSHAM, a market-town and par. of England, co. Wilts, hund. Melton, 26 m. W. Salisbury, and 86 m. W. London. Area of par., 10,750 acres. Pop., in 1841, 6,236. The town, formerly much more important than at present, on an acclivity rising from the Avon, consists principally of one long street, with stone houses. The church is a large, old, embattled building, with a central tower and two transepts, both on the S. side; the living is a vicarage, in the gift of the Dean and Chapter of Salisbury. There are, also, places of worship for Independents, Baptists, and the Society of Friends. Two mineral springs, one a strong chalybeate and the other a saline aperient, have been discovered about ¼ m. from the town; but, though they are reported to be as efficacious as those of Cheltenham, they have not led to any great accession of visitors. The staple business of Melksham is the manufacture of woollen cloth; but it has greatly declined, in consequence of the superior facilities enjoyed by the clothing district of Yorkshire. In 1829, 3 woollen mills employed 162 hands; besides which there are about 80 hand-loom weavers, whose weekly wages vary from 8s. 2d to 1s. (*Hand-loom Weavers' Rem.*) Petty sessions for the hund. are held here. Markets for cattle, &c., on alternate Thursdays; fair for horses, cattle, and farming stock, July 27. (*Parl. Papers*, &c.)

MELROSE, a village of Scotland, co. Roxburgh, beautifully situated at the N. foot of the Eildon Hills, on the Tweed, 31 m. S. E. Edinburgh. The village had only, in 1841, 959 inhabs., and would be unworthy notice, were it not for its possessing the finest monastic ruin in Scotland. The abbey of Melrose, originally founded by David I., in 1136, for Cistercian monks, was destroyed by the English forces under Edward II., in 1322. The structure, of which the mutilated remains still attest the grandeur and magnificence, was founded by Robert Bruce, the hero of Bannockburn, in 1286. It was finally completed, in the perpendicular Gothic style, in the reign of James IV.; and must, when entire, have been one of the noblest structures of the kind in the kingdom. This splendid edifice was well nigh demolished by the

barbarous zeal of the early reformers. In fact, with the exception of a part of the cloister walls, the abbey has been wholly destroyed; but fortunately a considerable part of the church has been preserved. The great altar or eastern window, 36 ft. in height by 16 ft. in width, is unrivalled for its fine proportions, the richness of its tracery, and the beauty and delicacy of its workmanship. It has been admirably described by Scott:—

The moon on the east crisi shone,
Through slender shafts of shapely stone,
By foliaged tracery combined;
Then would'st thou have thought some fairy hand
"Twist poplars straight the cedar wand,
In many a freshkin knot had twined;
Then flung'st a spell when the work was done,
And chang'd the willow wreaths to stone.

Minstrel, canto 5. st. 11.

The south transept window and door is, perhaps, the most perfect part of the ruin. It is in the decorated style, with crockets and creeping foliage. The compartment of the nave, from the screen work to the cross, was roofed over, and fitted up, in 1618, for the parish church. But this roof does not harmonise with the rest of the fabric; and it is obvious that the stones of which it consists had been quarried from other parts of the building. A great tower rose from the centre of the cross, of which a portion, 84 ft. in height, still remains; but the spire by which it was surmounted is entirely gone. The decorated work and masonry of the building have been most admirably executed; the mouldings are still as sharp as if they were fresh from the chisel.

In the centre of the village is a cross, said to be coeval with the abbey: a small property in the village is held on condition of the proprietor keeping up this fabric. The abbey is no longer used as the parish church, a handsome new edifice having been constructed for that purpose some years ago. Abbotford, the seat and residence of Scott, is situated about 3 m. W. from Melrose; and Dryburgh Abbey, where the great master is buried, is about 3 m. E. from the village. (See *Monastic Annals of Teviotdale*, a learned and able work; *Border Antiquities of Scotland*, &c.)

MELTON-MOWBRAY, a market-town and par. of England, co. Leicester, hund. Framland, on the Wreak (a trib. of the Soar), crossed here by three stone bridges, 14 m. N. E. Leicester, and 92 m. N. by W. London. Area of par., 5,610 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,537. The town has of late years been much improved and enlarged; the houses are generally well built, the streets are well paved, watched, and lighted, and there are some excellent hotels. The church is a large and somewhat striking cruciform Gothic building, with a highly ornamented pinnacled tower, rising at the intersection of the nave and transepts; the living is a vicarage, in private patronage. There are places of worship, also, for Wesleyan Methodists and Independents. Three Sunday schools give religious instruction to upwards of 500 children; and 2 free-schools, supported from the town's estate, are attended by about 100 children of both sexes. (*Educ. Rep.*, 1836.) Melton-Mowbray enjoys a small share of the hosiery and bobbin-net trade, which furnishes employment to many thousands in the co.; but the chief business and celebrity of the town is attributable to its situation in the centre of a fine hunting country, and to its being, as it were, the hunting metropolis. The hunting season lasts from the beginning of Nov. to the end of March; and during this time the town is frequented by the leading sportsmen of England, who resort thither from all parts of the country, and a few even from the Continent. The stabling is excellently arranged, as well as very extensive, there being accommodation for upwards of 800 horses, with their grooms, helpers, &c. The town supports a good subscription library and news-room; and there is a temporary theatre, in which performances are held during the hunting season. Melton has water-communication with Leicester by the Wreak and Soar, and with Oakham by a canal. Petty sessions are held here; and this town is one of the polling-places for the N. division of the co. It is likewise the chief place of a poor-law union, comprising 84 pars., and has a very large and well-arranged workhouse. Markets, well attended, for cattle and provisions, on Tuesday; horse fairs, Monday and Tuesday after Jan. 17.; cattle fairs, March 13, Holy Thursday, Whit Tuesday, Aug. 21., and Sept. 7. (*Parl. Papers*; *Sporting Review*, 1840, &c.)

MELUN (an. *Melodunum*), a town of France, dép. Seine-et-Marne, of which it is the cap.; on an island in and on both sides the Marne, 25 m. S. E. Paris. Pop., in 1846, 6,750. It is badly laid out, but is tolerably well built; and, being pleasantly situated, has a prepossessing appearance from without. The different parts of the town are connected by 3 bridges, one of which admits of the passage of boats. The part of the town built on the island is the most ancient; it has a large central prison for 5 depts., the most conspicuous edifice in the town; and on its E. side are the remains of a palace, inhabited by several of the French kings.

The portion on the right or N. bank of the Memel, called St. Aspalis, is the most extensive: it is built on the declivity of a hill, and has a spacious square, an old Gothic par. church, with some fine stained glass, the prefecture, formerly a Benedictine abbey, a theatre, some vapour-baths, and the remains of the Abbey of St. Pierre, founded under the Merovingian dynasty. The portion on the left bank of the river is less than either of the others; it comprises the cavalry barracks. Memel has a communal college, a public library, with 10,000 vols., a society of agriculture, arts, and sciences, a school of drawing, &c., with manufactures of woollen cloths, printed cotton and linen goods, and glass, and some trade in corn and other products destined for the Paris markets. Melodum is mentioned by Caesar in his Commentaries: it was taken by his lieutenant, Labienus. In the middle ages, it was several times captured by the Normans and English, and was held by the latter from 1419 to 1430. (*Hugo, art. Seine-et-Meuse, &c.*)

MEMEL, a fortified sea-port town of the Prussian dom., being the most northerly of any size in the kingdom, and one of the principal shipping ports on the Baltic, prov. Prussia, gov. Königsberg, on the N.E. side of the entrance to the gulf of Riga, in the Baltic, is the Kurische Haaf; but within the bay 50 m. N.W. Tilat, and 74 m. N.N.E. Königsberg; lat. 56° 43' 7" N., long. 21° 6' 2" E. Pop. in 1848, 9,700. It consists of the portions called the Old Town, New Town, and Frederick's Town, and has several suburbs. It is surrounded by walls in the time of the Teutonic knights, and has a citadel, founded in 1290, now partly used as a prison. It has 4 churches (2 Lutheran, 1 Calvinist, and 1 Rom. Cath.), a synagogue, arsenal, exchange, theatre, high school, school of industry, female seminary, school for neglected children, an hospital, and various charitable institutions. It is the seat of a council for the circle (Landraths-amt), of judicial tribunals for the circle and town, a board of taxation, police commission, &c.; and has manufactures of woollen cloth and soap, with docks for ship-building, sawing-works, distilleries, &c. The harbour is large and safe, with deep water: but the bar, at the mouth of the Kurische Haaf, has seldom more than 17 f. water, and sometimes not more than 12 or 14 f.; so that ships, drawing more than 15 or 16 f. water, are frequently obliged to load and unload a part of their cargoes in the roads, where the anchorage is but indifferent, particularly when the wind is at the N. or N.W. A light-house, originally 75 f. high, but now 100 f. high, has been erected on the N.E. side of the entrance to the harbour. The light, which is fixed and powerful, may be distinguished, in clear weather, at more than 20 m. distance. Timber, particularly oak-plank and fir, of the very finest quality, is the great article of export from Memel; but corn, staves, flax and hemp, linseed for crushing, hides, bones, bristles, wool, &c., are also largely exported. Timber, flax, and hemp, and most other articles shipped from this, and, indeed, from most Baltic ports, are *bracked*; that is, they are inspected, and assorted into three qualities, according to their degrees of goodness, by persons appointed by government for the purpose. (*See art. PRUSSIA*, in this Dict.) We have a pretty considerable intercourse with Memel, especially when there is a demand for foreign corn in England.

We send to it small quantities of colonial produce, cotton stuffs and yarn, and cutlery, and considerable quantities of coal, which, however, is reckoned merely as ballast. The trade of ship-building has recently been carried on to a considerable extent at Memel; and, in 1830, 64 vessels, of the aggregate burden of 12,773 lasts of 4,000 lbs. each, belonged to the port. The present average export of timber is reckoned at about from 75,000 to 80,000 loads of fir timber, 5,000 loads of oak timber and plank, 700 mill-oak pipe-staves, and about 600,000 fir planks. The exports of other articles are so very fluctuating as hardly to admit of their being reduced to an average.

MEMMINGEN, a town of Bavaria, and formerly a free city of the empire, circ. Swabia, cap. distr. on a tributary of the Iller, 40 m. S.W. Augsburg. Pop. 7,000. It is walled, and has a handsome town-hall, an arsenal, barracks, a lyceum, an academy of instrumental and vocal music, &c. It has manufactures of woollen, cotton and linen stuffs, stockings, ribbands, oil-cloth, copper and iron wares, &c., with tanneries, linen and cotton printing and dyeing establishments; and an active trade in the products of these, and in salt, wool, corn, hops, &c., which it sends to Switzerland and Italy. (*Bergkuss, Allg. Länder, iv. 185.*)

MENAI STRAIT, a strait or channel of N. Wales, separating the island of Anglesea from Caernarvon: it runs N.E. and S.W. about 14 m., varying in width from about 200 yards to about 2 m. Parliament having contributed a sum of money to assist in improving its navigation, the dangerous rocks, by which it was formerly encumbered, have been removed, so that

vessels of moderate burden are able to pass without difficulty through the strait, when it would not be possible for them to double Holyhead.

The Menai Strait is now principally celebrated for the magnificent bridges by which it has been recently crossed. Holyhead being the nearest port to Ireland, and the most convenient place at which to ship and receive the Dublin mails, it became of great public importance that the access to it should be rendered as safe and expeditious as possible. The usual ferry across the strait was in the vicinity of Bangor; and this being frequently attended with both danger and delay, it was resolved to erect, nearly at the same place, a chain bridge, elevated sufficiently above the water to allow ships to pass freely underneath. This undertaking was begun in 1819, and completed in 1825. There are seven stone arches, each of 52½ ft. span; and the length of the catenary, or chain part, is 579 ft. The bridge cost in all 211,791*l.*; and its elegance and solidity reflect great credit on the engineer, Mr. Telford.

But this great work has been far surpassed by the tubular bridge, erected in 1848-50, forming a portion of the railway between Chester and Holyhead. It consists of two tubes of cast tubes of wrought iron, each tube being 1,813 ft. in length, stretching across the strait, one for the railway carriages going to, and the other for those returning from Holyhead. The tubes rest on abutments and towers on each side the strait, and on a tower in the middle of the latter; the water-way, or length of the tube, or bridge, on each side the central tower, being 460 ft. Like the hanging bridge, it is elevated 100 ft. above the level of high water, and consequently gives no interruption to the navigation. This stupendous work, the construction of which forms a new era in engineering, was projected and erected by Robert Stephenson, Esq., at a cost of above 600,000*l.*

MENDE, a town of France, dép. Lozère, of which it is the cap., on the Lot, 48 m. E.N.E. Rodez. Pop. in 1846, 4,619. It is badly built and laid out, but is well supplied with water by numerous public fountains, and surrounded by a boulevard, forming a public promenade. The cathedral, a Gothic building, has two light spires. The old episcopal palace, now the prefecture, has a gallery and hall, enriched with many paintings by artists of the French school. It has also a public library of 6,600 vols., a communal college, a court of primary jurisdiction, a society of agriculture, science, and art, a chamber of manufactures, &c. Its inhabitants fabricate coarse woollen cloths, called *serges de Mende*, which are sent into Spain, Italy, and Germany.

MENIN (Flemish *Meeuwse*), a town of Belgium, prov. W. Flanders, cap. cant. on the Lys, immediately within the Belgian frontier, and 64 m. S.W. Courtrai. Pop. in 1846, 8,662. It is well fortified, and tolerably well built; is the residence of a military commandant; and has manufactures of woollen yarn, and table and other linen cloths, lace, soap, linseed and other oils, &c., with tanneries, breweries, and large bleaching grounds. It has also a considerable trade in horses, cattle, and agricultural produce, and 2 large annual fairs.

MENTZ, or MAINZ (Fr. *Meyence*, an. *Moguntiacum*), a strongly fortified city of Germany, the bulwark of the German Confederation towards the W., in the grand duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt, prov. Rhenish Hesse, of which it is the cap., on the left or W. bank of the Rhine, nearly opposite its junction with the Mayn, 18 m. W. S.W. Frankfurt, and 28 m. S.E. Coblenz; lat. 50° 0' 2" N., long. 8° 16' 41" E. Pop., estimated at 22,000, incl. its garrison of about 8,000 men. It is built partly on level ground, and partly on the declivity of a hill, in the form of a semicircle, the Rhine forming the basis of the arch. It is surrounded by strongly-built bastioned walls; and is further defended by extensive outworks, including a citadel, lunettes, and 6 forts. A bridge of boats across the Rhine, 1,666 Rhenish ft. in length, projected by *de la pout*, connects Metz with its fortified suburb of Castel, a town of 2,300 inhab., in fact, that of an island in the river, that is also strongly fortified. A garrison of 30,000 men would be required for the proper defence of the various works. The city is entered by 10 gates, 5 on the land side, and 5 along the river; all which, except on special occasions, are closed at 10 p. m. It has several good streets and squares, which present various indications of improvement; generally, however, it is in most parts irregular, and the streets, which are narrow and dirty, are rendered darker by the loftiness of the houses, many of which have strongly-stanchioned windows: the appearance of the town is, in fact, that of an ancient city, converted into a modern fortress; but it is, notwithstanding, interesting from its antiquity, and its numerous public edifices. The cathedral, built in the massive round-arched Gothic style, was commenced in the 10th, and finished in the 12th, century. Like the cathedral of Worms and Spire, it has a double choir, and a high altar at both the E. and W. extremities. It was nearly destroyed by fire in 1190, and suffered greatly during the siege of the town by the Prussians, in 1793; but, of late years, extensive repairs have been made upon it, by the

aid of voluntary contributions; the nave has been newly roofed with slate, and the great E. tower has been surmounted with an iron cupola, 70 ft. in height. The interior has numerous monuments of the former archbishops of Mentz, who were sovereign princes, and electors of the empire. It has also monuments of various other historical personages. The side chapels abound in fine old carving: the doors, of solid brass and great height, opening to the market-place, were cast by the founder of the cathedral, and have engraved on them the charter given to the city by Archbishop Adalbert, in 1136. There are 6 other R. Cath. par. churches, several conventual churches, and a Calvinist church, most of which deserve notice. On the quay beside the river are two large red buildings; one of which, the ancient electoral palace, has been converted into the custom-house; and the other, the Teutonic House, once occupied by Napoleon, is now the residence of the military governor. The former palace of the Prince Dalberg, nearly destroyed by fire in 1793, is used for the courts of justice. The arsenal, on the bank of the Rhine, the theatre, a new and handsome edifice, and the episcopal and vice-governor's palaces, are among the remaining principal public buildings. But Mentz derives its principal celebrity from its having been the residence of Gutenberg, and the cradle of the art of printing. The house in which Gutenberg lived and has been taken down, and its site is occupied by a casino, belonging to a literary club. In an adjacent court is a statue of Gutenberg, in bronze, from a model by Thorwaldsen; but this work is said (by Chambers) to be clumsy, gigantic, and tasteless; and it is proposed to raise a monument more commensurate with the signal merits of the individual in whose honour it is to be erected. Mentz has a gymnasium, an ecclesiastical seminary, schools of medicine and veterinary surgery, a public library of 90,000 vols., in which are preserved some of the earliest extant specimens of printing; a museum of natural history, antiquities, coin, &c. Outside the walls are some fine gardens along the bank of the river.

Mentz, formerly the first ecclesiastical city of the empire, is now of importance chiefly as its strongest fortress and principal military post. A mighty revolution has taken place since the visit of Dr. Moore, towards the end of last century, when the abbés, with their handsome equipages, lorded it over the well-behaved troops. The chapter and the grenadiers have now precisely changed places. You no longer see occupants of the stalls skulking to mass in threadbare *soutanes*, their looks proclaiming them no longer the monopolisers of the old book of the neighbourhood; while the Austrian and Prussian soldiers are parading about in the insolence of military superiority. The cafés, the billiard-rooms, the promenades, are thronged with these smoking and swaggering guests, who impart a sort of unhalloved vivacity to the gloomy haunts of superstition and monachism. The university building is converted into barracks, and hospitals and guard-houses strike one at every turn. (*See also Mentz on the Rhine*, p. 5.) Mentz is garrisoned by a nearly equal number of Prussian and Austrian troops, and is commanded by a governor, elected alternately every five years from either nation. It is the seat of a military tribunal, and the high court of justice for Rhenish Hesse; its civil authorities being appointed by the government of Hesse-Darmstadt. The town is so environed, on the river side, by its fortifications and other erections, that the Rhine is but little available for commercial purposes, and the accommodation for craft is inferior. Nevertheless, Mentz is the chief commercial town in the grand duchy (*see also Hesse-Darmstadt*, I. 990.), and, next to Cologne, the chief mart for Rhenish produce in Germany. It has a considerable trade in corn, wine, timber, &c., and manufactures of leather, soap, hats, glue, vinegar, tobacco, musical instruments, &c.; steam-communications with Mannheim and Holland, and a steam-navigation assurance-company.

Though Mentz abounds in historical associations, its existing vestiges of antiquity are very few. Agrippa, the general of Augustus, established an entrenched camp on the site where Drusus Germanicus, about a.d. 10 B.C., erected a fort called *Moguntiacum*. Drusus afterwards founded a second fort (*Castellum*) on the opposite bank of the Rhine; and the two were at a subsequent period connected by a Roman bridge, portions of some of the piers of which may still be seen when the water is low. (*Schreiber*.) In the citadel is the Eichelstein, a stone tower, alleged to have been erected by Drusus. At Zehlbech, not far from Mentz, are the remains of an ancient aqueduct; and, between the two, Roman cemetery has been discovered. The city, which was almost wholly destroyed in the wars at the fall of the Roman empire, was restored by Charlemagne, who erected a church, and rebuilt the bridge with timber. In the 13th and 14th centuries Mentz was a place of some note for literature and the arts. In 1631, it was taken by the Swedes; in 1644, 1688, and 1792, by the French; it was bombarded and taken by the Prussians in 1793; but,

being re-taken by the French in 1797, it became, during their ascendancy, the cap. of the dep. Mont-Tonnerre. (*Schreiber, Guide du Rhin*, p. 126-136.; *Autumn near the Rhine*, p. 1-13.; *Bergkass. Allg. Länder*, &c., iv. 368, 369.; *Chambers's Tour*, &c.)

MERQUINEZ, a large city of Morocco, and one of the residences of the emperor, 70 m. E. Salee, and 225 m. N.N.E. Morocco; lat. 33° 56' N., long. 5° 56' W. Pop., differently estimated, at from 50,000 to above 100,000. It stands in a beautiful, well-watered, and very fruitful valley; and is surrounded by a wall about 6 ft. high, built for a defence against the marauding Berberbers. It owes its present extent and consequence to the late sultan, Muley Ismael; who, after having secured to himself the undisputed sovereignty of the kingdoms now forming the empire of Morocco, made Mequinez one of the caps., considerably enlarged it, and erected a fine palace, which, owing to its having only one story, is of great apparent extent. In the centre of the enclosure, which contains several well laid-out gardens, is the emperor's harem, formed by a four-sided colonnade, above which are various apartments for the women, eunuchs, and female attendants. The rooms are each about 30 ft. long, by 12 ft. broad, and 18 ft. high; the walls are inlaid with red and blue tiles, and the light is communicated by means of 2 large folding-doors. Between the chief apartments are courts of chequered marble, in the centre of most of which is a fine marble fountain. The houses of Mequinez are neater than those of Morocco; but the streets are not paved; and hence in rains they are infested with mud, and in dry weather with dust. The millah, or Jews' quarter, is walled round, extensive, and in good repair; but the Negroes' quarter is now a mere ruin. About a century ago a convent was formed here by the King of Spain, for the relief and spiritual comfort of Rom. Cath. captive and Christian travellers; but it was deserted by the monks, previously to the accession of the late emperor, Muley Soliman. The Inhab. are described as being more courteous than those more to the S.: they are hospitable to strangers, invite them to their gardens, and entertain them sumptuously. The women are beautiful, and have fair complexions, with black eyes, white teeth, and dark hair; and have a suavity of manners rarely to be met with even in the most polished nations of Europe. (*Jackson's Morocco*, pp. 128-129.; *Geog. Jour.* vi. 1.)

MERDIN (*am. Marid*), a city of Asiatic Turkey, at the N.W. extremity of the pach. of Bagdad, 50 m. S.E. Diarbekir, lat. 37° 19' N., long. 40° 30' E. Pop. about 11,000, of whom 1,500 are Armenians, and 200 Jews. It is situated on the slope of the Karadja-dagh, or ancient *Mount Masius*, and overlooks a very extensive and fertile tract of country. It is commanded by a castle, crowning the summit of a rock, and is very difficult of access, the best road to it leading up a steep about 1½ m. in length. The houses are all built of hewn stone, and appear to be very old; the walls are thick, and built with iron, the streets narrow, and the buildings, being on an acclivity, seem to rise one on the top of the other. The walls are kept in tolerable repair, and a few old pieces of cannon are mounted on the towers of the castle. Merdin is the frontier town of the pachalic towards Constantinople, and the residence of a mutselli appointed by the pacha. The industry of the inhabs. is confined to the manufacture of cotton fabrics and Turkey leather; but it has little external trade, in consequence of not being on any of the great caravan-routes. The neighbourhood produces an abundance of cotton, grain, and fruits, which find a ready sale in the market of Merdin. (*Olivier*, tom. iv. p. 242-245.; *Kinncir*, p. 265.)

MERE, a small market-town and par. of England, co. Wilts, hund. its own name, 30 m. W. Salisbury, and 96 m. W. by S. London. Area of par., 7,400 acres. Pop., in 1841, 2,139, of whom 1,482 belong to the town-tything. The town is very indifferently built, having in its centre an ancient cross, the interior of which serves as a market-house. The church is large, with a square tower at its W. end; the living is a vicarage in the gift of the Dean of Salisbury. The Wesleyan-Methodists, also, support a place of worship and attached Sunday-school. A silk-mill has recently been erected, and, in 1839, employed 71 hands. Dowias, also, and bed-ticking, are made here on a small scale; but the town (formerly of considerable importance, having a castle on an adjacent eminence) is now in a miserably decayed condition.

MERGUL, a town of the Tenasserim coast, in India, beyond the Brahmaputra, cap. of the British prov. of Mergul, on the river Tenasserim, at its mouth, in lat. 12° 12' N., long. 96° 25' E. Pop. probably from 6,000 to 7,000, including natives and British residents, with Chinese, Siamese, Peguans, and descendants of Portuguese. It is built along the declivity and skirts of a steep hill, and, when taken by the British, was surrounded by a wooden stockade. But it is not a place of any strength, being accessible to ships, and commanded by a high island in front. The streets are wide, but badly paved; and they

would be much slier than they are but for the situation of the town on a slope, which facilitates their being slamed by the rain. The houses are nearly all of bamboo, reeds, matting, and other fragile materials. A mean brick gateway stands at the entrance to the town from the river side, which, with some bastions at the angles of the works, a few small pagodas, and some houses erected by Europeans, are the only structures of any solidity. The harbour is safe for small vessels, having 12 ft. water over the bar at low water, with 18 ft. rise at springs. The climate is mild and salubrious; European invalids, sent thither from Bangalore during the war, speedily recovered their health. Mergul was taken by storm by the British in 1824. (*Low. Hist., &c., in Journ. of the Royal Asiat. Soc. li. 266-269; Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*)

MESQUIT ARCHIELAGO. See TERNASERRIN PROVINCES.

MERIDA (an. *Augusta Emerita*), a town of Spain, in Extremadura, on the N. bank of the Guadiana, 29 m. E. Badajoz, and 176 m. N.E. Madrid. Pop., according to Mifano, 4,590. It is situated close to the river, on a slight eminence, in the midst of an open and gently undulating country, naturally very fertile, but almost uncultivated, and unhealthy in summer. Its chief public buildings are 3 par. churches, 8 ruined monasteries, 2 hospitals, and a prison: it is, in fact, one of the most decayed towns in the Peninsula, and is wholly unimportant except for its antiquities. But the remains of the power and magnificence of its Roman masters render it an object of great interest. These are scattered in all directions: in the walls, the houses, the churches, and even in the pavement of the streets are discovered fragments of columns, bases, capitals, friezes, statues, and inscriptions. Similar vestiges, and in a more perfect condition, are to be seen in the suburbs. The principal ruins comprise an amphitheatre (used also as a naumachia), circus, theatre, triumphal arch, baths, &c. The seats of the amphitheatre appear quite perfect; the vaulted dens for the beasts are uninjured; and the conduits by which the arena was filled with water are still distinctly visible. In one of the streets may be seen a large triumphal arch, 180 ft. high, but without any inscription or sculptures. The baths are surprisingly perfect, but not large; and round the top of the bathing-rooms runs a cornice of most curious and delicate workmanship, almost as perfect as if it had recently been executed. The bridge over the Guadiana is of stone, and portions of it may be of Roman architecture; but the greater part of the Roman bridge was swept away by a flood in 1610, and the present bridge has been constructed since. Two arches of this structure were blown up, in 1819, by the British troops under the Duke of Wellington. There are likewise 2 aqueducts, one of Roman, and the other of Moorish architecture, of brick and granite, the former having three, and the latter two tiers of arches.

Augusta Emerita was founded by order of Augustus, anno 25 a.c., who planted in it some of his veterans, called *emeriti*, whence its ancient and modern names. Though its ancient magnitude appears to have been greatly exaggerated, it was, no doubt, one of the largest Roman cities in the peninsula, and the streets may be seen of Lusitania. From the Romans it passed, in 713, to the Moors, who destroyed and altered many of its old buildings. In 1228 it opened its gates to Alfonso IX., after his signal victory over the Moors in the contiguous plain of Matanzas; and from this period downwards it has been attached to the kingdom of Castile and Leon. (*Recollections of the Peninsula*, p. 178-181; *Cook's Spain*, i. 142-144; *Mifano; Ancient Universal History*, xiii. 493 8vo. ed.)

MÉRIDA, a town of S. America, repub. Venezuela, dep. Zulia, cap. the prov. Merida, on the Chama, 330 m. S. W. Caracas, and 328 m. N.E. Bogota. Previously to 1812, when it was destroyed by an earthquake, this was the largest city in Venezuela, and had a pop. of 12,000. It continued, for some years, to be little better than a heap of ruins; but it has been again rebuilt, and is now, probably, become more populous than before. It has a cathedral, several chapels, convents, &c., an ecclesiastical seminary, a college for philosophy, civil law, &c. The inhab. are said to be, for the most part, in good circumstances. The colours, rees dye works, and manufacture carpets and other woollen and cotton fabrics. (*Geog. Account, &c.* 370-74; *Mod. Trav.* xlv.)

MERIONETH, or MERIONYDD, a marit. co. of N. Wales, having N. the cos. of Caernarvon and Denbigh, E. and S. those of Montgomery and Cardigan, and W. St. George's Channel. It is of a triangular shape, and contains 424,290 acres. This, next to Caernarvon, is the most mountainous co. in the principality. Among the principal summits are those of Arran-Fowdy, Cader Idrys, and Arenig; respectively 3,955, 2,914, and 2,809 ft. above the sea. It has, however, some fine valleys, especially that of Festiniog, celebrated for its romantic scenery. There are some considerable tracts of low swampy land along the sea coast; and in parts consider-

able tracts have been gained by embankments. The soil is very various; but, generally speaking, it is poor, and suited only for pasturage. Oats is the grain principally cultivated; but wheat and barley are also raised, though in no great quantities. Agriculture is in a very backward state; little or no attention is paid to a rotation of crops, and it is a frequent practice here, as well as in Denbigh, to burn the surface for manure. In some parts of the co. potatoes are pretty extensively cultivated. The principal dependence of the farmer is, however, on his cattle and sheep; of which great numbers are fed on the mountains, and in the valleys not fitted for husbandry. The small native Welsh ponies, called *Merlins*, are now rarely met with, except in this co. and Montgomery. They are sure-footed and exceedingly hardy. Dairy farming is carried on to a considerable extent. Farms usually small; and being mostly held at will, without any conditions as to management, the low state of agriculture need not be wondered at. Average rent of land, in 1810, 3s. 11d. an acre. Speaking generally, the cottages are wretched; the extreme; though happily they have been a good deal improved in some parts of the co. The minerals seem to be of less consequence than might have been supposed; lead and copper are raised, though in small quantities; large quantities of lime are produced at Corwen, and slates are quarried in different places. The manufactures, which also are unimportant, consist principally of coarse flannels, produced on the domestic system, at Dolgelly, Towy, and a few other places. The Dwy has its source in this co.; and it is also watered by the Dyff, Maw, Dyffryn, &c. Flowing W. Bala, the largest lake in the principality (see BALA) is in this co. Harlech is the co. town. Merioneth is divided into 6 hundreds and 37 parishes. It sends 1 mem. to the H. of C. for the co. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 1,055. In 1841, the co. had 8,480 inhabited houses, and 29,332 inhab.; of whom 10,279 were males, and 20,053 females. Sum expended for the relief of the poor, in 1846-47, 15,314*l.*

MERSEBURG, a town of the Prussian dom., prov. Saxony, cap. reg. Merseburg, on the Saale, 56 m. S. S. E. Magdeburg, lat. 51° 22' 17" N. long. 12° 0' 38" E. Pop., in 1845, 10,500. It is walled, and is old and irregularly built. It has several suburbs, a cathedral, a castle, a gymnasium, an hospital, and various other public institutions. Merseburg is the seat of government for the regency, of the council and court of justice for the circle and town, a board of forests, &c.; and has manufactures of woollen and linen cloth, paper, tobacco, and vinegar. The beer of Merseburg is celebrated as the best in Saxony. (*Von Zedlitz, Der Preussische Staat*, iii. 223; *Berg-Zeitung*, &c.)

MERSEY, a river of England, which has its embouchure on the W. coast of the island, in the Irish Sea. Though not large, the Mersey has, from its flowing through the principal manufacturing district of the empire, and giving its name to the gulph or estuary between Lancashire and Cheshire, become, in point of commercial importance, second only to the Thames. It has its sources in the great central ridge, or Pennine chain, on the confines of Yorkshire, Cheshire, and Derbyshire. After receiving the Goyt from the S., and flowing W. through Stockport, it is joined by its important affluent the Irwell. The latter, which has its source in the Lancashire moors, near Haslingden, flows S. through Bury to Manchester, where, being joined by two smaller streams, it takes a westerly course, till its confluence with the Mersey. After being still further increased by the Boden from Macclesfield, the Mersey passes Warrington, a little below which it expands into a magnificent estuary, having the great commercial port of Liverpool on its N. side, near its junction with the Irish Sea. The Mersey and Irwell have been rendered navigable from Sankey Bridge to Manchester; and projects are now on foot for improving and deepening the navigation. (See MANCHESTER.)

MERTHYR-TYDVIL, a par. bor., market-town, and par. of S. Wales, co. Glamorgan, bund. Caerphilly, on the Taff, 19 m. N. by W. Cardiff, and 140 m. W. by N. London. Pop. of par. bor., which includes nearly all the par. of Merthyr-Tydvil, and the entire par. of Aberdare, with a small portion of the par. of Valer, 42,917 in 1841, but now (1850), probably, 52,000. "The town lies on the E. side of the valley, down which the Taff descends to Cardiff, scattered in detached masses about the valley and on the hills, sending forth branches in different directions; and fresh groups are continually rising in the neighbourhood of the great iron-works, so that it is somewhat difficult to point out where any collection of houses ends or begins." (*Bowd. Rep.*) The houses, generally speaking, are mean-looking, comprising "labourers' cottages, or small ale-houses, beer-shops, or retail shops;" but in the centre of the town there are three tolerably respectable streets forming a triangle, at one point of which is the parish church, a modern and well-built structure: the living is in the gift of the Marquis of Bute. There is, also, a

chapel-of-ease, besides several places of worship for dissenters; and the various Sunday-schools of the town give religious instruction to nearly 6,000 children of both sexes. National, Lancastrian, and other subscription schools, have likewise been formed, and are well attended. A philosophical society and several book-clubs have been established; and there is abundant proof that education is advancing among all classes. A theatre has been built within these few years, and there are two good hotels. In the environs are many handsome seats, belonging to the wealthy iron-masters; and 3 m. N. of the town, on an insulated hill, stand the ruins of Morlais Castle, a very ancient building, demolished during the late civil wars.

The rise of Merthyr has been rapid, almost beyond belief. Towards the middle of last century it was an insignificant village: in proof of this, it is sufficient to state, that, in 1766, the lands and mines for several miles round the village, the seat of the great works now erected, were let for 99 years for 300*l.* a year. It is wholly indebted for its prosperity to its rich mines of coal, iron-ore, and limestone. The stratum of coal, which is of excellent quality, is accompanied by parallel veins of argillaceous iron, penetrating to a great depth, and yielding, at an average, about 35 per cent. of metal. The iron-works are on a vast scale; those of Sir John Guest and Co. at Dowlais, of the Messrs. Crawshaw at Cyfarthfa and Hirwaun, having actually raised up very populous townships; the Pen-y-darraig and Plymouth iron-works are also very extensive. In all, about 150,000 tons of iron a-year, are produced in the immediate vicinity of the town. Of this, a large proportion goes through the various processes of refinement and rolling into bars, previous to being shipped at Cardiff. The furnaces, refinerries, and rolling-mills employ a great many persons; the wages for men ranging from 12*s.* to 60*s.*; of women, from 6*s.* to 10*s.*; and boys, 7*s.* to 11*s.* per week. The trade is of a very fluctuating character, and great numbers of workmen are often thrown out of employment by the stoppage even of 2 or 3 furnaces. Distress, however, is less permanent here than in many other districts, as "the work is one requiring less experience than many other manufactures; so that a demand for labour is readily met by a supply; while, on the other hand, the labourers feel no great reluctance to transfer themselves to fresh employments." (*Bound. Rep.*) It is said by Mr. Nicholson, in the last edition of the *Cambrian Guide*, that "there is a marked improvement in the houses of the workmen; most of them have good oak chests of drawers, bright as silver; cupboards, with a display of family china cups and glasses; some of the younger women have a veneered work-box; and all these little things display an attention to the lesser comforts and luxuries of life, of which, a few years ago, they had no idea. On the whole, there is a decided improvement in the general condition and circumstances of our workmen." (*P.* 421.)

But, notwithstanding their comparatively comfortable condition, and the great increase of temperance societies, it would seem that Chartist doctrines have made a very considerable progress among the labourers in this district, a circumstance for which it is not very easy to account. A large portion of the Chartists engaged in the outbreak at Newport, on the 4th of November, 1839, were understood to be from Merthyr and the adjoining iron-works. It is to be hoped that the severe, but wholesome, castigation they received on that occasion may not have been thrown away; and that it may help to disabuse them of their prejudices, and hinder them from again becoming the dupes of designing demagogues.

The communication with Cardiff is effected by means of the Glamorganshire Canal (completed in 1794), which commences at Merthyr, and ends, after a course of 25 m., in the tideway of the Taff, near its entrance into Penarth harbour, the entire descent being 611 ft., and by the Taff Vale railway. (*See* CARDIFF, *L.* 537.) The late improvements of the Marquis of Bute in the port of Cardiff have also been of essential advantage to the export trade of Merthyr-Tydvil. The railway connecting the mining district of Merthyr, Aberdare, &c., with Cardiff, has given a fresh stimulus to the trade of the former, by facilitating the shipment of coal and iron, and the imports of the various articles required for the subsistence of the pop. The exports, foreign and coastwise, of the iron brought down by the canal and railway, exceed, at present, (1850) 350,000 tons a year.

The Reform Act created Merthyr a pari. bor., with the privilege of sending one mem. to the H. of C.: the electoral limits comprising the par. of Merthyr-Tydvil, except the hamlets of Forest and Taff and Cynon, the entire par. of Aberdare, and the hamlet of Cefn Coed-y-Cumner, in the par. of Vainor. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 790. Merthyr is also one of the polling-places at elections for the co. Petty sessions are held here for the upper div. of hund. Caerphilly; and a court of requests sits monthly for the recovery of debts not exceeding 5*l.* A county court has, also, been established in the town, before which 1,464 plaints were entered in 1848. An act was

passed in 1830 for the better security of life and property in this district: and the three par. of Merthyr-Tydvil, Aberdare, and Gellygare are under the superintendence of a stipendiary police magistrate, having a salary of 800*l.* a year, half of which is levied on the furnaces within the limits of his jurisdiction, and half on the inhabitants of Merthyr alone. Markets on Wednesday and Friday; cattle fairs May 14, 1st Monday in July, and 1st Monday in Aug.

MESAGNE, or MESSAGNA, a town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Otranto, cap. cant., 8 m. S.W. Brindisi. Pop. 5,000. It has several convents, a hospital, and a fine palace, belonging to the Francavilla family. It manufactures kitchen utensils; and has some trade in oil and grain, considerable quantities of which are grown in its vicinity. Mesagne is supposed by many Italian authors to be the representative of the an. *Mesapia*, but this is doubtful.

MESHEH, a city of Persia, the cap. of Persian Khorassan, and esteemed as "holy" from its containing a very superb sepulchre, enclosing the remains of Imâm Reza and the caliph Haroun al Raschid, 456 m. E. by N. Tcherran; lat. 36° 17' 40" N., long. 69° 38' E. Pop., according to Klnneir, 50,000. It stands in a rich and well-watered plain, is surrounded with a strong wall, and is divided into 12 quarters, of which 5 are in ruins. The houses are meanly built of sun-dried bricks, and the ark or palace is worthy of its name. It has some 16 medresas or colleges; but most of them are either deserted or in ruins. Indeed the city has now little worth notice, except its fine and well supplied bazaar, and the mausoleum of Imâm Reza, the magnificence of which, with its silver gates, jewelled domes, walls once of solid gold, glittering domes and minarets, and handsome arcades, is almost unequalled in Persia. It has, however, been often plundered; and its resources are said by Mr. Fraser to be greatly reduced. Meshed carries on a considerable trade with Bokhara, Balkh, Candahar, Yezd and Herat; and many of the inhabitants are employed in weaving velvet and making fine pelisses, both of which are much esteemed throughout Persia. (*Klnneir's Persia; Fraser's Khorassan*, &c.)

MESSINA (an. *Zancle* and *Messana*), a celebrated city and sea-port of Sicily, cap. Intendency, near the N.E. extremity of the island, on the strait of its own name, 8 m. N.W. Reggio, 664 m. N.N.E. Catania, and 130 m. E. by N. Palermo; lat. (of its lighthouse) 38° 11' 30" N., long. 15° 34' E. Pop., in 1681, 16,000, finding that of its canton, 83,773.* The city has a most imposing appearance from the sea, forming a fine circular sweep, about 3 m. in length, on the W. shore of its magnificent harbour, from which it rises in the form of an amphitheatre; and being built of white stone, it strikingly contrasts with the dark forests that cover the mountains in the background. Prior to 1783, the harbour was fronted by a magnificent terrace of lofty houses, called the *Palazzata*, having in front a broad quay decorated with statues and fountains. But the great earthquake of 1783 laid the city almost entirely in ruins, and though the terrace still exists, it is shorn of its former grandeur. The quay in its front, called the *Marina*, has now, as formerly, numerous fountains, and is the favourite promenade. Ruined buildings, and other vestiges of the earthquake, occupy a considerable portion of the city; and few houses have now more than 2 stories. Swinburne, who visited Messina before 1783, complained that its interior was dirty, with narrow streets, gloomy houses, little bustle of trade, and still less show of luxury. According to Smyth, however, the modern city is regularly built, well paved with square blocks of lava, and several of its streets are wide and handsome, ornamented with numerous churches, convents, statues and fountains. The square in front of the cathedral, and that of *San Giovanni di Males*, are both well-built and handsome. The fountain in the centre of the former ranks with the finest in Sicily. The cathedral, erected soon after the conquest of Sicily by the Normans, has been repeatedly damaged by earthquakes. It is a Gothic building, with a heavy and gloomy exterior: the interior, though devoid of taste, is richly ornamented. The principal entrance is handsome; and the nave is supported by immense granite columns taken from the ruins of a temple of Neptune. The great altar and the roof of the choir are set off with mosaics and precious stones: the carved work of the pulpit is said to be a *chef-d'œuvre* of the Sicilian sculptor Gagini. The church of Monte Giorgio is some good paintings in fresco, and that of St. Giorgio is very rich in marbles and inlaid work, and has some tolerable pictures. Adjacent to the viceroy's palace, a noble building at the S. extremity of the city, is a large open space planted and laid out in public walks. The other public buildings include a large hospital, several asylums of various kinds, 3 theatres, town-hall, exchange, bank,

* According to the official returns the pop., in 1796, was only 46,000, so that it would appear to have nearly doubled in the interval.

colleges, &c. Messina is surrounded by an old irregular wall, finished by Charles V. The citadel, a pentagonal fortress, erected on the S. side of the harbour, is constructed according to the principles of Vauban; but though well provided with bomb-proof quarters and stores, it is badly situated and commanded in almost every part. Two strong and well built forts have, however, been constructed on eminences above the town, that would greatly annoy and harass an enemy during any operation against the citadel. The town is further defended by a fort placed so as to command the mouths of the Fiumare, which are the only places where an enemy could land with cannon. The port, to which Messina is wholly indebted for her prosperity, and even existence, is formed by a lengthened curved tongue of land, that might almost be supposed to be an artificial circular mole, projecting first N.E. from the main land, and then bending round to the W. in the form of a sickle.* The entrance on the N., about 700 yards across, is defended on the W., or main-land side, by the bastion of Porto Reale, and at the extremity of the curved promontory by Fort Salvatore. A light-house has been constructed on the extreme E. verge of the promontory. The noble basin thus enclosed is about 4 m. in circuit, and, having deep water throughout, is capable of accommodating the largest fleets. It is, in fact, not only the finest harbour in the Mediterranean, but one of the finest of which we have any certain knowledge. Men-of-war moor in the centre of the basin in about 35 fathoms; but merchantmen lie alongside the quay, and have every facility for loading and unloading. The praetor's-office, the fish-market, and the custom-house, are all on the Marina. The lazaretto, the best establishment of the kind in Sicily, is in the E. angle of the harbour. The situation of Messina, on the strait between Italy and Sicily, and her admirable port, give her great advantages as a commercial emporium; and were Sicily and Naples subject to an enlightened government, able and willing to put down abuses, and to call into activity their long dormant energies, Messina would certainly be one of the greatest emporiums of the Mediterranean. Even as it is, her trade is very considerable. Her exports consist principally of oranges and lemons, olive oil, silk, linseed, wines and spirits, shumac, liquorice, rags, corn, salted fish, &c. Almost all the silk exported from Sicily is shipped here. The imports consist of colonial produce, and cotton and woollen fabrics, hides, hardware, &c. We subjoin an Account of the Quantities and Value of the principal Articles exported from Messina in 1847.

Articles.	Weight or Measure.	Quantities.	Total Value.
Argols and cream of tartar	cwts.	5,400	7,090
Barilla	—	4,600	12,500
Cambrone	—	50,000	15,200
Coarbitides	—	35	770
Cheese	lbs.	1,500	1,950
Essences	lbs.	155,500	36,600
Fish, salted	cwts.	5,100	5,925
Fruits, dried, &c.	—	21,500	36,750
— oranges and lemons	boxes	335,000	84,500
Grain and pulse	—	5,000	5,700
Lemon juice	galls.	465,300	6,945
Linseed	qrs.	4,150	7,302
Liquorice paste	cwts.	2,050	5,587
Manna	—	140	5,990
Oil, olive	galls.	85,500	17,100
Rags	cwts.	6,800	6,120
Sewals	—	820	410
Shumac	—	14,400	6,120
Silks	lbs.	72,800	54,600
Skins	Nos.	80,000	2,640
Wine and spirits	galls.	98,000	91,500
Other articles	value	—	35,000
Total	—	—	515,689

(Macgregor's Reports on Sicily: Smyth's Sicily, pp. 113—123; Russell's Sicily, pp. 250—301, &c.)

Messina is the see of an archbishop, and the residence of a Greek protopapas, with authority throughout Sicily, but who is nominated by the pope. It is the seat of a royal court of appeal, and of criminal, civil, and commercial tribunals; and has a municipal bank, several *monti di pietà*, or government loan banks, and other benevolent institutions. Next to commerce, its inhabs. are chiefly occupied in the tunny and other fisheries; and in the manufacture of silk stuffs, especially damasks and satins. It has an ecclesiastical seminary, a lyceum, a royal college for law and medicine, and an extensive public library; but Simond says that Messina appears to have made slow progress in refinement, compared with Catania or Palermo. "The education of young people is more neglected; very few in the lower ranks can read; and the nobility do not in general reside in Messina: in short, it is neither fashionable, nor learned, nor rich; nor is it, I think, particularly hospitable." (Simond's Italy,

* This, in the old Sicilian language, was called *Zaccala*, whence the original name of the town. (Thaurydeses lib. vi. cap. 5.)

&c., 535.) But, how deficient soever in these respects, Messina has advantages of another sort that entitle her, in the estimation of her citizens, to look down with contempt on most other places. These consist in the possession of an autograph letter of the Virgin Mary, addressed to the Messinians, and assuring them of her especial protection; and what is, if possible, still more precious, a lock of the Virgin's hair, given by her to the persons entrusted with the conveyance of the letter! To question the genuineness of these valuable relics would, in Messina at least, be rather hazardous; and, under such circumstances, we need not wonder that it is firmly believed that, on one occasion, the city was saved from famine by the opportune arrival of a supply of corn, sent by the Virgin. The only wonder is, that she has allowed it to be so often brought to the brink of destruction by earthquakes, and devastated by the plague. A splendid *fête* is annually given in the great square in honour of the exalted protectress and benefactress of the city. Very few vestiges of the ancient city remain; a consequence, no doubt, of the numerous earthquakes by which it has been visited.

The accounts of the origin and early history of Messina differ considerably. It is admitted on all hands to be very ancient; and most probably derived the name it has so long borne from a settlement having been made in it by a body of emigrants from Messene, in Greece. Having been seized by the Mamertini, it became, under them, one of the most populous, wealthy, and powerful cities of Sicily. It was the first town of the island that came into the possession of the Romans. (Cellarii Orbis Antiqui, l. 973; *Ancient Universal History*, lib. 513., 8vo. ed.)

The principal political events in the history of Messina, in modern times, are its successful resistance to Charles of Anjou, by whom it was besieged, after the Sicilian Vespers; and its revolt against the Spaniards in 1674, followed, in the ensuing year, by the defence of the latter in its vicinity by a French force. In 1743 the plague broke out in Messina, with the most destructive violence, sweeping off the greater number of the inhabs.

METZ (an *Diocœsurum*, afterwards *Mediomatrici* and *Metis*, whence its present name), a strongly fortified city of France, dèp. Moselle, of which it is the cap., at the junction of the Moselle and Sælle, 80 m. W.N.W. Strasbourg, and about 180 m. E.N.E. Paris: lat. 49° 7' 5" N. lon. 6° 50' 10" E. Pop., in 1846 42,376. "Metz is a fine old city; but, like most fortified cities, the streets are narrow, and the houses lofty. Near the river it is more open, the quays are broad, and the bridges magnificent. The river is clear and rapid, and swells to an expanded stream where not confined by the embankments, as it is within the fortifications." (Jacob's *View of Germany*, &c., p. 436.) Metz was fortified by Marshals Vauban and Belleisle; it has several strong outworks, and a citadel on the Moselle; but the latter was partly dismantled during the Revolution, and its esplanade has been laid out in public walks, which command a noble view of the valley of the Moselle and its bounding hills. The city has 9 gates and drawbridges, but only 6 are in use. The most conspicuous public building is the cathedral, a vast pile, commenced in 1014, but not finished till 1546. It is about 390 ft. in length, the height of the nave being about 140 ft., and that of the tower about 400 ft.† The latter, which is a fine specimen of Gothic architecture, has in it a bell weighing 36,000 lbs. The whole edifice is remarkable for lightness. Mr. Jacob says that the cathedral of Metz was the most perfect Gothic structure he saw on the Continent; and that, though not so old as Westminster Abbey, it may vie in external beauty with that venerable pile. The military hospital, built in the reign of Louis XV., is a noble edifice, consisting of two ranges of building, and capable of easily accommodating 1,500 patients. The *Hôtel du Gouvernement*, a large, though rather heavy fabric, fronts the esplanade; it is appropriated to the courts of justice and the city library; the latter has above 80,000 vols., among which are numerous works printed in the 15th century, and about 800 MSS., some of the 10th century. (*Gazette de Voyageur*.) The barracks, military magazines, prefecture, town-hall, and mint, several of the churches, the new market, the theatre, with a portico of the Tuscan order, &c., are among the other edifices. The Moselle and the Sælle, in and near the city, are crossed by at least 30 bridges. The principal school of artillery and military engineering (*École de Génie, or d'Application*) in France is established here. Its library has a choice collection of about 10,000 vols. of military and scientific works, with sundry MSS. of Vauban and other distinguished persons. Exclusive of the above, Metz has two other public libraries, with several convents and charitable asylums, a Protestant church, a synagogue, a royal college, a university academy, an ecclesiastical school, and other seminaries; a school for the fine arts, a royal society of arts and *belles lettres*; an agricultural society, a society for the encouragement of primary in-

† There is some discrepancy in the authorities as to these measures; but the above must be nearly accurate.

struction, and collections in natural history, mineralogy, and chemistry; a botanic garden, a lying-in hospital, a savings' bank, a *mont-de-piété*, &c.

Metz is the see of a bishop, and the seat of a royal court for the depts. of Moselle and Ardennes, and of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, and a chamber of commerce, and the head-quarters of the third military division of France. "It is also a manufacturing city, in which are made woollen goods of various kinds, hosiery, cotton goods, table-linen, printed paper, musical instruments, starch, and gunpowder; it has, besides, several extensive tanneries. Much trade originates here from the produce of the vines, some portion of which is converted into wine, but more into brandy and vinegar; and Metz is celebrated for the preparation of various kinds of confectionery. It is encircled by hills, covered from the bottom to the top with fruit-gardens and vineyards. The vineyards are mostly in small divisions, and principally cultivated by small proprietors, who are extremely poor, and almost all involved in debt to the capitalists of the city, who take from them their wine, brandy, and vinegar as soon as it is made." (*Jacob's View of the Agric. of Germany*, &c., 436—438.)

The royal gunpowder factory, on an island in the Moselle, near the city, is superior to most others in the kingdom. Metz has also a royal cannon foundry, a saltpetre refinery, and produces leather, cotton yarn, military and other hats, muslins, beet-root sugar, chicory, nails, and other articles of hardware, cutlery, buttons, glue, &c.

This is a very ancient city. It still possesses several ruins belonging to the Roman period, among which are the remains of an aqueduct, that appears to have conveyed water to a *natumachium* near the S. extremity of the city. The site of the latter is now occupied by outworks belonging to the fortifications. Parts of an amphitheatre and of a Roman palace are still traceable in the city. It suffered considerably, about *anno* 70, from some excesses of the troops of Vitellius (*Taciti Hist.*, lib. i. cap. 73.), and was nearly destroyed by the savage barbarism of Attila in 452. It had, however, recovered a large portion of its former prosperity in the Middle Ages, and became the cap. of the kingdom of Anstrasia. From the 11th century to 1552, when it was taken by Henry II., it was an independent flourishing city. In the same year that it was taken by Henry, it was besieged by the Emperor Charles V., with an army of 100,000 men, but the Duke of Guise successfully defended the town, and Charles was obliged to relinquish the siege. It was finally annexed to the French crown by the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648. (*Hugo, art. Moselle; Guide du Voyageur*, &c.)

MEURTHE, a dep. of France, reg. N.E., formerly part of the prov. of Lorraine, between lat. 48° 30' and N., and long. 49° 40' and 72° 20' E., having N. the dep. Moselle, E. Bas Rhin, S. Vosges, and W. Meuse. Length, E. to W. 74 m.; average breadth, about 35 m. Area, 608,922 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 445,991. The Vosges mountains run through the E. part of the dep., the surface of which is mostly covered with their ramifications, though these rise to no great elevation. The dep. belongs almost wholly to the basin of the Moselle, which river intersects its W. part from S. to N., and is joined, within its limits, by the Meurthe. The latter rises in the dep. Vosges, runs generally in a N.W. direction, and after a course of between 70 and 80 m., unites with the Moselle about 5 m. below Nancy, to which it is navigable. Besides Nancy, St. Dié and Lunéville are on its banks; and it receives the Mortagne, Vezouze, and Mezulle. The Seille and Sarre are the other chief rivers of the dep. There are numerous small lakes, one of which occupies an area of 622 hectares. In 1834, it was estimated that 309,636 hectares of the surface were arable, 71,851 in pasture, 16,371 in vineyards, 116,229 in woods, and 6,236 in orchards, &c. The soil is very unequal in points of fertility, and is very differently farmed; but more corn is grown than is required for home consumption. The total produce of the harvest of 1835, was estimated at 3,434,500 hectolitres, chiefly wheat and oats; in the same year, the crop of potatoes was estimated at 2,142,000 hectolitres. Before the Revolution, the culture of the vine was limited to the declivities of hills with a southern aspect; but its culture has since been very much extended, the quality of the produce being less regarded than the quantity. About 300,000 hectolitres of wine are supposed to be produced annually, of which the greater part is consumed in the dep. The wines are generally inferior, though the growths of Pagny, Thiaucourt, Arncliffe, Baudonville, and others, may be classed among the secondary qualities of *vins ordinaires*. (*Jullien, Topographie*, p. 46.) Dried plums and preserved apricots form important articles of commerce; and the forests, which are more extensive than in most depts., furnish a good deal of timber. The pastures are naturally good, but receive little attention from the farmer. In 1830, there were estimated to be 84,000 head of black cattle, and 167,000 sheep, in the dep., but both are of indifferent

quality. The breed of horses has been improved by the stud of Rosières. Hops of an improved breed are numerous, and their flesh and lard are sent to distant parts of France. A great many poultry are reared. Property is much subdivided. In 1835, of 171,892 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 100,343 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 34,437 at from 5 to 10 fr. Turf and lime are among the chief mineral products; there are some quarries of marble and alabaster, and a few iron mines; but the latter have been abandoned. The salt mines and springs at Dieuze, Vic, Moyencourt, &c., yield about 45,000,000 kilogr. of salt, and 1,000,000 do. of soda a year. About 32,000 hands are said to be employed in the manufactures of cotton cloth and yarn, woollen stuffs, glass, and earthenware, and in embroidery, dyeing cotton stuffs, tanning, &c. At Baccarat is a large glass manufactory, employing a great many hands.

Meurthe is divided into 5 arrondis.: chief towns, Nancy the cap., with 38,569 inhabs., Toul, Château-Salins, Sarrebourg, and Lunéville. Total public revenue, in 1844, 20,116,580 fr. (*Hugo, art. Meuse; Official Tables*.)

MEUSE, a dep. of France, reg. N.E., formerly part of the prov. of Lorraine, chiefly between lat. 48° 25' N., and 49° 35' N., and long. 52° and 62° E.; having N. Dutch Luxemburg and the depts. Ardennes and Moselle, E. Moselle and Meurthe, S. Vosges and Haute Marne, and W. Marne and Ardennes. Length, N. to S., 80 m.; greatest breadth, about 40 m. Area, 620,555 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 325,710. Surface generally hilly, the hills being ramifications of the Vosges and Faucilles mountains, with an average height of from 1,000 to 1,200 ft., though they sometimes reach an elevation of 1,500 ft. The Meuse traverses the dep. in its entire length; the other principal rivers are the Ornain, Chiers, and Aire. The plateau, in the E., separating the basins of the Meuse and the Moselle, and other portions of the surface, are not very productive; but there are, notwithstanding, about 225,000 hectares of rich soil in the dep., chiefly in the valleys of the Meuse and Ornain. In 1834, according to the official tables, 635,190 hectares were arable, 49,472 do. in meadows, 15,440 do. in vineyards, 7,287 do. in orchards, &c., and 157,755 do. in woods. The produce of corn in 1845 was estimated at 2,440,000 hectolitres, of which 1,192,000 were wheat. Potatoes, oleaginous plants, hemp, and flax, are among the other articles of culture. Gooseberries are extensively cultivated in the gardens round Bar and Ligny, and enter largely into the confectionary, for which those towns are celebrated. The produce of wine is estimated at about 400,000 hectol. a year. The wines of Bar-le-Duc, Bussey-la-Côte, Preuilly, Ligny, &c., are delicate light wines, ranking in the first class of *vins ordinaires*; but they do not keep above two years, and do not bear carriage. (*Jullien*, &c.) Along the Meuse are rich pasture lands; and at Vold, cheese, similar to that of Gruyère, and excellent butter, are made. A good many cattle and sheep are reared in the dep.; but live stock is in general indifferent. The produce of wool is estimated at upwards of 140,000 kilogr. a year. In 1835, of 157,180 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 89,566 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 32,169 at from 5 to 10 fr. Iron, slates, and good building-stones, are the chief minerals of the dep. There are between 20 and 30 iron furnaces (*hauts fourneaux*) in the dep.; and the establishments at Thionville and Stenay produce each about 1,500,000 kilogr. of iron a year. About 500,000 kilogr. a year of cotton yarn are made at Bar-le-Duc, which, also, has fabrics of paper, glue, &c., and is the *entrepôt* of a large trade in timber from the forests of the dep. There are numerous glass-works, with lime-kilns, potteries, beet-root sugar factories, &c. Many working cutlery, shoemakers, and other artisans, emigrate for a part of the year from this into other parts of France, and even to the adjacent foreign countries, with the products of their industry, or in search of employment. Meuse is subdivided into 4 arrondis.: chief towns, Bar-le-Duc, the cap., with 12,673 inhabs., Commercy, Montmédy, Verdun. Total public revenue (1844) 10,412,024 fr. (*Hugo, art. Meuse; Official Tables*, &c.)

MEUSE or MAASS (Dutch *Maas*, an. *Mosa*), a river of W. Europe, flowing through the N.E. part of France, Belgium, and the S. of Holland; its basin being situated between those of the Marne and Scheldt to the W., and of the Moselle to the E. It rises in the dep. of Haute Marne, in France, 10 m. N.E. Langres, in about lat. 48° N., long. 5° 20' E., and runs at first generally N. through the depts. of Haute Marne, Vosges, Meuse, and Ardennes. Near Charlemont it leaves France, but it continues its previous direction to Namur, where it receives the Sambre from the W. It here makes a sudden bend to the N.E., in which direction it continues through the provs. of Namur, Liège, and Limburg, to about lat. 51° 30' N. It afterwards curves to the S., flowing between N. Brabant and Guelderland, and finally at Woudrichem, in lat. 51° 40', and long. 5°, enters the Rhine or Waal, which loses its own name to assume that of the Maas. (*See RHINE*.) Its entire course

may be estimated at 400 m.; nearly the half of which is in France. It is navigable for 3-4ths of this extent, or as far as Verdun, dép. Meuse. Its chief affluents are the Bar in France, the Lesse, Sambre, and Ourte in Belgium; and the Roer and Niers in Holland. Proceeding from its source to its mouth, the chief cities and towns on its banks are Neufchâteau, Verdun, Sedan, Mézières, Charlemont, and Givet in France; Dinant, Namur, and Liège in Belgium; and Maastricht, Roermond, Venloo, and Grave in Holland, before its junction with the Rhine.

The Meuse communicates with the Alsne, and thence with the Seine and Somme by the canal of Ardenne; with the Scheldt, by means of the Sambre and the Charleroy canal; and with both the Scheldt and the Rhine by the various branches of the Great North Canal; in addition to which, many other canals connected with it are in progress. (See also BELGIUM, I. 325-6, 327.)

MEXICO (UNITED STATES OF), a federal republic of N. America, lying between the 15th and 33d parallels of N. lat. and 97° and 113° W. long., being bounded N.E. and N. by the W. districts of the United States of N. America, including New California, E. by the Gulf of Mexico and the State of Texas, S. by Guatemala, and W. and S.W. by the Pacific Ocean. The line dividing Mexico from Texas commences with the Rio Grande del Norte, which it follows up to the 33d deg. of lat. and the 105th deg. of long., whence it stretches N.W. till it joins the Gila, an affluent of the Colorado, and then W. till it reaches the Pacific in about 33d deg. lat. The line of separation on the side of Guatemala is very irregular. If Yucatan be inc. in the confederation, the boundary will run along the N. side of British Honduras, Vera Paz, and Guatemala, till it joins the Pacific on the S.E. side of the Gulf of Tehuantepec. The area has been estimated at 1,000,000 sq. m. But nothing can be more unsatisfactory than our acquaintance with this vast country: few even of the principal towns and rivers are correctly laid down, except, indeed, within the small circle personally visited by Humboldt, so that not even the elements of a good map exist; and, with respect to pop., and other statistics, the unsettled, disorderly, and almost lawless state of the country, makes inquiry all but impossible. The following table has been printed in the American edition of *Murray's Encyclopedia of Geography*, and some other works, and though little dependence can be placed on it, it is probably as near an approximation to the truth as can, at present, be arrived at:—

States.	Extent in sq. m.	Pop. in 1857.	Pop. to sq. m.	Capital Cities.
Chihuahua	18,750	92,000	4.9	Ciudad de las Casas
Chihuahua	107,400	190,000	1.8	Chihuahua.
Durango	54,500	150,000	2.8	Victoria.
Guanajuato	8,000	500,000	62.5	Guanajuato.
Mexico	25,450	1,500,000	49.3	Tenacucan.
Michoacan	32,450	450,000	29.5	Yalladolid.
New Leon	21,000	100,000	4.8	Monterrey.
Oaxaca	22,650	650,000	29.2	Oaxaca.
Puebla	15,440	300,000	18.8	La Puebla.
Queretaro	7,500	100,000	13.5	Queretaro.
San Luis Potosi	19,000	300,000	15.8	S. Luis Potosi.
Sonora and Sinaloa	254,700	300,000	1.2	Villa del Fuerte.
Tlaxcala	14,650	75,500	5.1	Villa-hermosa.
Tamaulipas, or New Santander	35,700	150,000	4.3	New Santander.
Vera Cruz	27,660	150,000	5.4	Xalapa.
Xalisco	70,000	870,000	12.4	Guanajuato.
Yucatan	79,500	570,000	7.2	Merida.
Zacatecas	19,950	200,000	10	Zacatecas.
Federal district	-	200,000	-	Mexico.
Total of States	1,030,443	7,557,000	7.3	
Terrestrial.	-	-	-	-
Colima	-	240,000	-	Colima.
Tlaxcala	-	266,000	-	Tlaxcala.

The most populous cities are Mexico (150,000), Guadalupe (60,000), San Luis Potosi and La Puebla (55,000 each), Oaxaca and Queretaro (40,000 each), Guanajuato (34,000), and Merida (28,000).

Of this great tract of country, which is about 1-3d as large as Europe, the portion lying S. of the tropic of Cancer, and comprising a large part of the long and narrow isthmus that connects the American peninsulas, and separates the Atlantic from the Pacific Ocean, is by far the most populous and rich, both in mineral and vegetable productions; and nearly all the information gained respecting Mexico has been collected in that part, to which consequently it is primarily applicable. The regions N. of the tropic become less populous as we proceed northward; and many large districts claimed by the republic, and divided into states and territories, are almost unknown, being inhabited only by wild Indian tribes, baffling all the attempts of their nominal masters to civilise or subdue them.

The surface of Mexico is extremely varied; and to

this circumstance, nearly as much as to the difference of latitude in so extensive a country, may be attributed that singular variety of climate by which it is distinguished from most other regions. The Cordillera, or chain of mountains, generally regarded as a portion of the great chain of the Andes, that enters Mexico on the S., where it borders with Guatemala, diverges, as it proceeds N., into two great arms, like the upper part of the letter Y, following the line of the coast on either side. The most westerly of these chains, or that parallel to the shores of the Pacific Ocean, has some very high summits; and preserves its mountainous character till it joins, on the border of the United States, with the Oregon, or Rocky Mountains. The other, or eastern arm of the Cordillera, begins to subside after reaching the 21st or 23d deg. of lat., and ultimately subsides, about the 36th or 27th deg. of lat., into the vast plains of Texas. Now, the whole of the vast tract of country between these two great arms, comprising about three-fifths of the entire surface of the republic, consists of a central table-land, called the *Plataeu* of Anahuac, elevated from 6,000 to upwards of 8,000 ft. above the level of the sea! Hence, though a large portion of this plateau be within the limits of the torrid zone, it enjoys a temperate climate; in fact, indeed, more to cold than to excess of heat. Some very high mountains are dispersed over the surface of the central table-land; and it is also traversed in parts by pretty well defined ridges, which divide it into extensive sub-plateaus, to which different names have been given. But the surface is interrupted by few transverse valleys; and in some directions it is quite unbroken, either by depressions or by hills. Thus, it is mentioned by Humboldt, that carriages proceed from the capital, in the centre of the plateau, to Santa Fe, in New Mexico, a distance of 1,400 m., without any important deviation from an apparent level. (*Essai sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, I. 264.) The most remarkable tract in this elevated region is the plain of Tenochtitlan (in which is the cap.), surrounded by ridges of porphyritic and basaltic rocks, running S.E. and N.W. It is of an oval form, 50 m. long, and 37 m. broad, occupying an area of 1,700 sq. m., of which about 160 sq. m. are covered with water. Its S.E. side is that most elevated, and here are seen towering above the plain the volcanoes of Popocatepetl 17,716 ft., Iztaccihuatl 15,700 ft., Citlaltlapetl or Orizaba 17,380 ft., and Naucampapetl or the Cope de Perote 13,416 ft. above the sea. The waters of the valley are deposited in 5 principal lakes situated on different levels: that of Texcoco, which is near the centre of the valley, and covers 70 sq. m., is the least elevated. Further N. are the lakes of St. Christoval and Tonantla; while S. is the lake Chalco, occupying an area of 50 sq. m.; and these three are 5 ft. higher than lake Texcoco. The most elevated, however, of the whole, which is 30 ft. above the lake Zimapanco, the level of which is 30 ft. above that of Texcoco. These lakes are fed by small rivers, and having no natural outlet, are drained by the Desague of Huachuco, an artificial canal cut through the rock, 12 m. in length, 150 ft. deep, and 300 ft. wide; having its embouchure in the river Panuco, which flows into the Gulf of Mexico. This great work, completed in 1789, at an expense of 1,292,000*l.*, was undertaken to obviate the frequent inundations, some of which did great damage to the capital. The water of lake Texcoco is salt, that of the rest is fresh; but from those to the S. sulphuretted hydrogen gas is copiously disengaged, the smell of which is often perceptible at Mexico.

Besides the volcanoes already noticed, those of Tuxtla, Jorullo, and Colima, in the table-land, are at present in a state of activity, and there are several others now extinct. Jorullo, which stands W. of the city of Mexico, first broke out in 1769; when a tract of ground, from 3 to 4 m. square, swelled up like an inflated bladder, emitting flames and fragments of rock through a thousand apertures. These active volcanoes seem to be connected with others parallel to them, and obviously of similar origin. Earthquakes are frequent in Mexico, but they seldom do much mischief.

The geological formation of the Mexican Cordilleras differs considerably from that of the great mountains of Europe and Asia, in which granite is overlaid by gneiss, mica, and clay-slate; for here we seldom meet with granite, as it is covered with porphyry, greenstone, amygdaloid, basalt, obsidian, and other rocks of igneous origin. Granite, however, appears on the surface in the chain bordering the Pacific, and the port of Acapulco is a natural excavation in that species of rock. The great central plateau of Anahuac, between lat. 14° and 20° N., is a mass of porphyry, characterised by the constant presence of hornblende, and the entire absence of quartz; and in it are contained large and valuable deposits of gold and silver. These ores, however, are found in various rocks; in the mines of Comanja rich veins of silver occur in sienite; in those of Guanajuato, which are the richest in Mexico, the metal lies in a primitive clay-slate passing into talc-slate; and those of Real del Cardenal, Xcala, and Lomo del Toro, are situated in a bed of transition limestone. Humboldt says, that there were at the

time of his visit 3,000 mines of gold and silver in Mexico; but the ignorance and misrule which prevail in the country have greatly diminished their importance as a source of wealth.

Rivers.—Mexico suffers serious disadvantages from the want of water, and the rivers, as compared with the extent of territory, are few and unimportant. The Rio Grande del Norte, indeed, has a course of more than 1,800 m., and the Colorado runs about 700 m. into the Gulf of Mexico. The Rio Grande de Santiago, called by the natives Tolutlan, rises in the centre of Mexico, not far from the capital, and, after traversing the lake Chapala, falls into the Pacific at San Blas. The Balsas, or Zacatula, and the Yopex, are the only other rivers on the W. side of the plateau, and on the E. side are the Tula and Tampico and the Tabasco, flowing into the Gulf of Mexico; but they have bars at their mouths, which prevent the entrance of large vessels. The other rivers are short, and might more properly be called torrents. The lakes are numerous and extensive; and the principal, besides those in the plateau of Tenochtitlan, already mentioned, are Chapala, in Xalisco, which, according to Humboldt, covers an area of 1,300 sq. m.; Pascuala in Michoacan, Mexitlan, Cayman and Parras, the two last being in the tract called the Bolson de Mapimá.

Climate.—The temperature and climate of Mexico is, of course, extremely various; owing, not only to its great extent from N. to S., but also to the rapidity of the slope both on the E. and W. side. The climates, especially on the E. side, are most distinctly marked by the vegetation. On the ascent from Vera Cruz, says Humboldt, climates succeed each other in layers; and the traveller passes in review, in the course of two days, the whole scale of vegetation, from the parasitic plants of the tropics to the pines of the arctic regions. (*Essai Pol. sur la Nouv. Espagne*, i. 270—289.)

Mexico is divided, as respects climate, into the *tierras calientes*, or hot regions, the *tierras templadas*, or temperate regions, and the *tierras frias*, or cold regions. The first, or the *tierras calientes*, include the low grounds, or those under 2,000 ft. of elevation, on its E. and W. coasts, comprising the greater part of the states of Tamaulipas, Vera Cruz, Tabasco, and the peninsula of Yucatan, on the former. The *tierras calientes*, on the W. coast, are less extensive, the eastern arm of the Cordillera approaching nearer to the sea. The mean temperature of this region, or, at least, of that portion of it between the tropics, may be estimated at about 77° Fahr., being from 14° to 16° above the mean temperature of Naples. It is especially suited for the growth and cultivation of sugar, indigo, cotton, and bananas, which flourish in the utmost luxuriance.

This region labours under the serious disadvantage of being nearly inaccessible by sea for half the year, and of being extremely unhealthy during the other half. The winter, on the E. coast, extends from about Oct. to the vernal equinox; and during this season, in the Gulf of Mexico, N. or N.W. winds (*los nortes*) are extremely prevalent, blowing with more or less violence. Frequently, especially in the month of March, the N. winds approach to the strength of a hurricane, and continue to blow with the utmost violence, and without intermission, for 3. and, sometimes, even for 10 or 12 days together. During the whole of this season the navigation of the gulf is exceedingly dangerous; but on shore the heat is moderate, and the coast free from fever and tolerably healthy. Unluckily, however, it so happens, that during the other half of the year, or from the vernal equinox to October, when the N. winds are comparatively rare, and the ports are easily accessible, the heat is oppressive, a great quantity of rain falls, and the coast becomes the seat of pestilential fevers. A European arriving for the first time at Vera Cruz, or any other part of the coast between the tropics, in August, September, or October, has but little chance of escaping the *somno prieto*, or yellow fever; and individuals who have merely landed at Vera Cruz, and posted on immediately for Xalapa, have, notwithstanding, caught the infection. The scourge, however, does not extend its ravages beyond the low grounds on the sea-coast; and at the height of 2,000 or 2,500 ft. above the sea it is wholly unknown. The ports of Acapulco and the low grounds along the W. coast are also extremely hot and unhealthy; and, owing to the prevalence of strong gales, approaching to hurricanes, during the months of July, August, September, and down to October, the navigation is then extremely dangerous.

The *tierras templadas*, or temperate regions, which are of comparatively limited extent, occupy the slope of the mountain chains, or barriers, which bound, on either side, the central table-land. It extends from about 2,500 to about 5,000 ft. of elevation. The mean heat of the year is from 58° to 70° Fahr., and the extremes of heat and cold are here equally unknown. The Mexican oak, and most of the fruits and cereals of Europe, flourish in this genial climate. The cities of Xalapa, on the E., and of Chilpancingo, on the S.W. slope, are in this region, and are famous for their salubrity and for the abun-

dance of their fruit trees. The frequency of fogs, and the consequent humidity of the atmosphere, is the greatest drawback on the climate of the *tierras templadas*; but this, how injurious soever in some respects, produces great beauty and strength of vegetation.

The *tierras frias*, or cold regions, include all the vast plains elevated 5,000 ft. and upwards above the level of the sea. In the city of Mexico, at an elevation of 7,400 ft., the thermometer has sometimes fallen below the freezing point. This, however, is a rare occurrence, and the winters are there usually as mild as in Naples. In the coldest season the mean heat of the day varies from 55° to 70° Fahr.; while in summer the thermometer seldom rises in the shade above 75°. The mean temperature of the city is about 64°, and that of the table land generally may be taken at about 63°, being nearly equal to that of Rome. But, wherever the table land rises to more than 8,000 ft. above the sea, it has, though between the tropics, a rude and disagreeable climate. Under the parallel of Mexico the limit of perpetual snow varies from about 12 to near 15,000 ft. Vegetation in the central plateau is not, owing to the rarity of the air, so vigorous as on the *tierras calientes*, or along the coasts, and the plants of Europe seldom succeed so well as in their native soil. In the tropical and central region of Mexico, and as far N. as lat. 36°, there are only two seasons; that of the rains, lasting from July to the middle of Sept., and the dry season, continuing from Oct. to the end of May. From the 24th to the 30th parallel the rain falls less frequently; but this deficiency is compensated by the abundance of snow during Jan. and Feb.

The climate of the table-land is, on the whole, favourable to human life. But, though intermittent fevers be of rare occurrence, the natives are occasionally visited by a peculiar epidemic, called by them the *malaria chasqui*; but it owes its origin more to the habits of the people than to any other cause. Indeed, famine, and its concomitant privations, have thinned the pop. more than epidemic complaints. The indolence of the natives prevents all exertions to raise more food than requisite for the wants of a single ordinary season; and no one ever thinks, when there is a surplus, of laying up a stock against future contingencies. Hence, when droughts and severe frosts occur, they are compelled to seek their subsistence in the forests, where roots and wild berries constitute their sole diet; and multitudes are often carried off by hunger and unwholesome food.

Animals.—The zoology of Mexico is but imperfectly known. The domestic animals introduced by the Spaniards have so much increased, that vast herds range wild through these thinly inhabited regions. The wool of the sheep is of inferior quality; but this is attributable more to neglect and mismanagement than to nature; mules are much used in the mining districts. Buffaloes abound in the prairies bordering on the Arkansas and Red River, and during winter they migrate westward, in quest of pasturage, to the milder climate of the plains along the lower part of the Rio Grande del Norte. Carnivorous animals are not numerous. Bees abound in the low country of Yucatan.

Agriculture.—Mexico, not only from its extent through 21 degrees of latitude, but also from the varying elevation of its surface, and consequent variety of climate, produces most of the plants peculiar to the tropics, as well as those belonging to the temperate regions of S. and middle Europe. "Indeed," says Humboldt, "there is scarcely a plant in the rest of the world which is not susceptible of cultivation in one or other part of Mexico; nor would it be an easy matter for the botanist to obtain even a tolerable acquaintance with the multitudes of plants scattered over the mountains, or crowded together in the vast forests at the foot of the Cordillera." (*Essai*, tom. ii. p. 370.) The soil also is, in most parts, extraordinarily fertile; and wherever water can be procured for irrigation, the most abundant crops may be raised with very little labour. This, however, is very far indeed from being an unmixed advantage; and it is, in fact, more than doubtful, whether a very fertile soil and a genial climate, that makes warm clothing and comfortable lodgings of comparatively little importance, be consistent either with active industry and exertion or with a high state of civilisation. In most parts of Europe, culture of the soil is indispensable to existence; but it is otherwise in Mexico and many other countries, and it is found that industry is uniformly proportioned to the strength of the motives by which it is occasioned, and that, wherever the ordinary necessities and comforts of life may be procured with little labour, the mass of the people are invariably indolent. To suppose, indeed, that they should be otherwise, is to suppose what is contradictory and absurd. This effect of the peculiar nature of the soil and climate was less sensible in Mexico under the Spanish government, because it was then daily receiving adventurers from Europe, imbued with European notions, and anxious to accumulate a fortune. But now that the influx of such parties has nearly ceased, and that there are no such extrinsic and

solid foundation; but these were mostly gone into without due consideration, and without any practical knowledge of the country, of the practices that had been followed, and the difficulties to be overcome. We need not, therefore, be surprised at the enormous losses the companies sustained at the outset, and of their want of success in the first instance. But, had the Mexican government been able and willing to repress disorder, and to enforce the observance of contracts, it is probable that the produce of the mines would have been very different at this moment from what it really is. Unluckily, however, no government has yet been established in Mexico with power, even if it had the desire, sufficient to put down disturbances or to enforce engagements. So long, indeed, as the companies were struggling to put their mines in order, they sustained comparatively little inconvenience from this circumstance; but, as soon as they had succeeded in bringing them once more into a productive state, and were beginning to have some prospect of a return for their enormous outlays, they were annoyed by questions as to title, and by the setting up of claims on the mines of which they had never heard before. Owing to these causes, as well as the general insecurity of property, the bad condition of the roads, and imperfect mining processes, the results have, on the whole, been very unfavourable, notwithstanding the reduction of the export duty on specie from 10 to 3 per cent.

The following statement of M. Chevalier, as to the insecurity of the miners, in 1835, discovers a state of things disgraceful to the government; and such, indeed, as could hardly have been credited on any inferior authority. "How," asks he, "can the mines be worked with any feeling of security, when it requires a little army to escort the smallest portion of the precious metal to its place of destination? Between the mine of Real del Monte and the village of Tezeyuco is a mountain pass, where a grand battle was fought between the miners and the banditti of the country. The former were defeated, overpowered by numbers; but not without having sold their lives as dearly as possible. The mine is now guarded by artillery and grape-shot, and the Englishmen employed there are regularly drilled in the use of the musket." In such a state of things the wonder is, not that the produce of the mines has declined, but that it continues to be so great as we find it to be. The mineral riches of the country are, however, inexhaustible; and there wants only a government able and willing to afford security to make the produce of the mines greater than ever. The subjoined statement, which cannot, however, be altogether depended on, exhibits an

Account of the Coinage of Gold and Silver in the Minis of the Mexican Republic in 1848.

	Gold.	Silver.
Mexico - - - - -	\$ 94,576	\$ 1,616,709
Zacatecas - - - - -	526,000	2,660,000
Guanaxuato - - - - -	392,000	2,707,100
Durango - - - - -	-	1,117,120
Chihuahua - - - - -	175,014	1,336,126
San Luis Potosi - - - - -	-	1,400,787
Guadalajara - - - - -	4,284	647,720
Guadalupe y Calero - - - - -	199,142	425,664
Quiliccan - - - - -	211,558	619,714
	\$1,367,194	\$18,229,560
Total - - - - -	\$19,506,754	\$5,901,351

The theory of mining is little understood by the Mexicans, the oldest modes of working being still generally practised, notwithstanding the improvements that have been introduced by the English; and the machinery for draining the mines and raising the ore is of the most primitive description, and many of the mines have been abandoned, owing to the imperfections of the machinery, which, under more favourable circumstances, might be again worked with profit. The ignorance of the miners is only equalled by their obstinate adherence to old, and elsewhere long exploded, practices. But this should not be matter of surprise, if the testimony of M. Chevalier respecting the education of engineers may be depended on. The school of mines (*Misericia*), the mere building of which cost 120,000, is at present in the most pitiable condition. It is unprovided with the means even of the most elementary instruction. It contains a vast chemical laboratory, but without the instruments requisite for the most simple experiments. The collection of minerals is in disorder, badly classed, and very incomplete; the library and the mechanical cabinet are deplorable. The school seems to have shared the fate of the public treasury — of having been pillaged three or four times over. The very building seems on the point of falling to pieces. But it cannot surely be supposed that the anarchy which has led to such deplorable results is to continue for ever. If nothing may be hoped for from within, it is to be wished that foreign interference may rescue this fine country from the barbarism in which it is now involved.

The quantity of silver annually extracted from the mines of Mexico very much exceeds that furnished by all the mines of Europe; but, on the other hand, the gold is not much more abundant than in Hungary and Transylvania; the proportion which the gold of Mexico bears to silver being as 1 to 96 nearly. Little native silver is found in any of the mines: sulphuretted and black prismatic silver is both very common and exceedingly productive in the veins of Guanajuato and Zacatecas, two of the richest mining districts: the muriate abounds in the mines of Catorce and San Pedro, near San Luis de Potosi; and the martial pyrites of Pachuca yield three marks to the hundred weight. The Mexican ore, however, is poorer than that of Europe, 1,000 os. of ore yielding only about 4 os. of silver. The gold is produced by washing the earth and sand in some few places; but in the province of Oaxaca occur veins of native gold, usually mingled with the silver veins: the returns, however, seldom exceed 1½ os. to the cwt. (*Poinsett's Notes on Mexico*, p. 226.) Slave labour is not tolerated in the mines; but it would be difficult to find workmen so ignorant, brutalised, and wholly worthless as the native miners. Indeed, the ill success of the English mining companies is owing, in part at least, to the want of honest and efficient labour. The business of the mine is followed by the native tribes from generation to generation: they lead a migratory life; removing, with their families, to districts where they expect the greatest profit from their labour: they are always paid by a share in the produce; regular wages, however high, being invariably rejected. The principal mines are in the states of Guanajuato, Zacatecas, San Luis Potosi, Chihuahua, Durango, Guadalupe, and Mexico. The richest mineral tract lies between the 21st and 25th parallels of N. lat. Many of the mines have been very imperfectly wrought; and by far the larger part of the richest veins is yet unexplored. It is worthy of remark, also, that the ores appear to increase in richness on proceeding N. The mines in the confines of Durango and Sonora are peculiarly rich, lie near the surface, and hold out, wherever they have been tried, a promise of riches superior to any that Mexico has yet produced.

Iron is found in great abundance in Guadalupe, Mechoacan, and Zacatecas; but no mines of that metal were worked before 1825. Copper is raised in Mechoacan and Guanajuato. Large quantities of copper money have been coined in the mint of the city of Mexico, the total value, during the seven years ending with 1837, having amounted to 4,712,000 dollars, or 942,400*l*. Tin is obtained partly from mines, but principally from washings in the ravines. The lead mines, though rich, are quite neglected. Zinc, antimony, and arsenic have been found; but neither cobalt nor manganese. A quicksilver mine is wrought in the state of Querétaro. Carbonate of soda, used for smelting the silver ore, is found in great abundance crystallised on the surface of several lakes.

Manufacturers. — The selfish policy of Old Spain, by which she endeavoured to keep her colonies as much as possible dependent on her own markets, or on supplies furnished by her, led to the enactment of laws prohibiting the rearing of silk-worms, and the cultivation of flax, and of the vine and olive. Coarse woollen and cotton fabrics, worth about 1,500,000*l*, were formerly made; but these have greatly diminished since the revolution. The system on which the cloth and other factories are conducted is disgraceful to persons having the smallest pretensions to civilisation, and is wholly subversive of all improvement. Each factory is, in fact, a prison, in which the work-people are treated with the greatest rigour, and from which there is no escape; the proprietor, instead of paying his workmen in money, supplies them with spirits, tobacco, and food, at prices fixed by himself. An intelligent German, who resided at years in Mexico, states, that the high walls, strong double doors, barred windows, and severe corporal punishments common to these factories, make them as bad as the worst-conducted gaol in Europe. Criminals and insolvent debtors are condemned to work in the factories as a punishment. This state of things existed before the Revolution, and we regret to say that it has not been at all improved by the free intercourse which the Mexicans have now for several years enjoyed with the manufacturers and capitalists of Europe and the United States. "One might," says M. Chevalier, "have supposed that when the ports were thrown open to the commerce of Europe, manufactures would soon have been established in a country where manual labour is cheap, where the workmen are submissive and skilful at imitation, where the soil produces the raw cotton, where the Spaniards had multiplied their flocks of sheep to a great extent, and where the rearing of the silkworm might be carried on with astonishing facility. The native Mexicans are, however, destitute of all spirit of enterprise, and strangers cannot attempt any permanent establishment in a country from which, during every session of congress, they are periodically threatened with expulsion. A more than ordinary display of industry would excite the jealousy of the natives; for nothing exas-

perates a Mexican more than to see Europeans and North Americans growing rich before his face. A flourishing factory, established by a foreigner, would be very likely to be pillaged during the first popular tumult. Instances of the kind have already occurred. The only European manufactory existing at Mexico, is one founded by M. Duport, a French merchant, for making *mantas*, a coarse cotton stuff much worn in the country. The looms were made at Patterson, near New York. When the Mexicans had achieved their independence, and were organising their government, they created a fund for the encouragement of national industry (*banco de seis*), and endowed it with an additional duty of 2½ per cent. on foreign importations. In this way a few hundred thousand piastres were soon procured, which were expended in the vain attempt to establish manufactories. At present, the receipts for this fund are thrown into the abyss of the national deficit, which every year increases in depth, and where they are lost like a drop of water in the sea. Cigars, hats, glass, and earthenware, are produced on a large scale; but the factories are, for the most part, extremely ill-conducted. Mexican leather is very indifferent; paper is of bad quality, and exorbitantly dear: the making of cutlery and hardware is scarcely attempted, and what is done, is badly executed; the use of cast-iron and tin for culinary utensils is almost unknown, and a very few years ago there was only one manufacturer of watches and optical instruments in the whole of Mexico. "The Spaniards," says Chevalier, "are bad mechanicians, and no efforts of foreigners have been able to prevail on the Mexicans to deviate from the routine of their forefathers. All their tools are wretched; the common wheelbarrow even is unknown. Some merchants had imported two models, to be used in moving the bales of goods at the custom-house, but the workmen refused to make use of them."

Commerce.—An individual, looking at a map of the world, would be apt to conclude that Mexico is one of the most favourably situated countries for commerce; and, in some respects, this is true. But her trade-labours, notwithstanding, under some serious disadvantages. Though washed by the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, neither of her coasts is accessible for several months of the year. On the E. coast, or that bordering the Gulf of Mexico, there is not a single good harbour; and during the season when the coasts are accessible they are extremely unhealthy. Owing, also, to the rapid ascent from the shores to the interior, the construction of roads, and the transport of commodities to and from the inner provinces, is alike difficult and expensive. No doubt, however, an efficient government and an industrious people would speedily, in a great measure, overcome these obstacles to an extensive intercourse with the foreigner. But Mexico has neither the one nor the other; and, at present, her trade is confined within the narrowest limits. Down to 1778, when the Spanish government relaxed the old prohibitive system, the foreign goods legally imported into Mexico comprised only a few Chinese and European manufactures; the former brought annually in one galleon of about 1,400 tons, and the latter sent once in three years exclusively in ships chartered by government from Seville or Cadiz! On the opening of the trade in 1779, private capitalists engaged in it, and after that period, at an average

of 12 years before and after, the returns for exports alone rose from 11,000,000 to 19,000,000 of dollars, the difference being chiefly in the quantity of specie. How much greater would the increase have been, if the trade had not been fettered with vexatious duties, first on articles of Spanish produce in the markets of Seville and Cadiz; 2. on shipping for Mexico; 3. at Vera Cruz; and, 4. with an *alcavala*, or transfer duty, at every step, from the merchant to the consumer? On the breaking out of the civil war, the ports of Tampico, Mazatlan, and San Blas were opened by the new government; and soon afterwards foreign vessels were admitted into all the ports on the same terms as Spaniards. The Spanish capitalists retired to Cuba or Spain; and their places were supplied by British and American merchants, who established themselves in the interior, and supplied the inhabs. in return for dollars with manufactured goods, the superior quality and cheapness of which has, no doubt, had some influence in depressing native manufactures. The jealousy of the natives, however, and the absurd threats of the government against foreign artificers and traders, has tended to prevent their settling in the country, and engaging in any considerable undertaking, other than the mines; and the depressed state of the latter, which have always furnished the principal article of export, has tended still further to depress and paralyse commerce. The roads, too, instead of being improved, have been suffered to fall into a state of almost irreparable decay. In this respect, the evidence of M. Chevalier is decisive. "The splendid road which, during the domination of the Spaniards, was constructed across deserts and precipices, by the merchants of Vera Cruz, to the summit of the upper country, is a melancholy instance of the carelessness with which the public interests of the country are directed. During the war of independence, this road was cut up in various points; and, down to this day, the enfranchised Mexicans have not replaced a single stone, nor filled up a single trench, nor even cut down one of the trees, which, in the absence of any considerable traffic, and under the influence of a tropical sun, are rapidly growing up to a magnificent size in the very middle of the road. In the upper country nothing would be more easy than to open noble means of communication. The soil is naturally level; and basaltic rocks, particularly adapted for the construction of roads, are found in great abundance. But even where there are roads, the Mexicans make little use of them. They carry to a yet more extravagant length the inconceivable predilection of the Spanish race in favour of transporting their goods on the backs of animals. You expect to meet with carts and waggon: no such thing; every thing is conveyed on the backs of mules or Indians. Troops of little consumptive donkeys bring into the city in parcels, not much bigger than a man's two flats, the charcoal required for the culinary operations of the inhabs. The price of every bulky article is thus increased to an enormous degree. The interior districts are as inaccessible as if they were cut off by an enemy's army, and famine frequently ensues." The following table furnishes an official Account of the Ships, with their Tonnage and the Value of their Cargo, which entered at and cleared from the principal Ports of Mexico in 1844, 1845, and 1846.

		1844.				1845.			
		Entered.				Cleared.			
		<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Crews.</i>	<i>Val. of Cargoes.</i>	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Crews.</i>	<i>Val. of Cargoes.</i>
Vera Cruz	-	25	4,576	272	467,400	37	4,499	274	In Ballast.
Tampico	-	9	923	70	198,000	8	829	70	22,910
San Blas	-	4	1,171	69	68,000	4	1,171	69	68,000
Mazatlan	-	5	1,331	94	81,000	10	3,374	179	90,680
Total	-	43	8,460	485	994,400	49	10,563	592	156,590
		1845.				1846.			
Vera Cruz	-	17	2,138	124	468,800	16	2,676	136	In Ballast.
Tampico	-	8	836	66	164,000	8	836	64	2,800
San Blas	-	4	1,123	59	64,000	4	1,123	59	8,900
Mazatlan	-	4	1,115	59	54,000	4	1,165	68	7,500
Total	-	33	5,234	308	687,000	32	5,800	329	87,900
Vera Cruz	-	6	964	51	188,760	7	1,068	58	In Ballast.
Tampico	-	6	671	49	180,000	6	671	49	400
San Blas	-	8	2,696	127	60,000	7	2,099	105	10,400
Mazatlan	-	11	2,865	199	127,800	12	3,544	206	355,010
Total	-	31	7,196	426	556,560	32	7,192	418	365,890

The above statement, though not complete, shows the comparative import and export trade of Mexico. The declared value of the exports from the U. K. to Mexico in 1849 amounted to 779,059*l*. The nature of the direct

trade with this country will be seen by the following statement of the different articles of home and colonial produce sent to Mexico in 1848:—

Articles.	Quantities.	Declared Value.
1. British Produce and Manufactures:—		
Cotton fabrics:—		
bounty	80,736,309 yds.	498,850
yarn and twist	795,100 lbs.	27,785
Linen fabrics	7,323,921 yds.	26,309
Woolen do.	28,502 pieces	253,732
Do.	261,168 yds.	85,697
Silk goods	—	18,494
Hardware and cutlery	5,976 cwt.	33,476
Iron wares and iron	531 tons	5,461
Machinery	—	23,807
Tin and pewter wares	—	5,251
Earthenware and glass	385,044 pieces	4,655
Other articles	—	19,536
		945,937
11. Colonial and foreign Produce:—		
Quicksilver	172,305 lbs.	—
Cinnamon	148,432 lbs.	—
Raw silk	69,732 lbs.	—
Cocoa	121,967 lbs.	—
Wine	15,115 galls.	—
Total of British and C. exports to Mexico in 1848	—	—

These returns show a great apparent increase of trade since 1831, when the exports from Great Britain to Mexico amounted only to £60,752; but, instead of going direct, as at present, the exports then were mostly indirect, through Jamaica and other places. The foreign trade is in truth quite insignificant, regard being had to the extent and resources of the country and its pop.

The Mexican congress has fixed a tariff regulating the duties on the chief articles of import, and all articles not specified pay an *ad valorem* duty of 40 per cent.; quicksilver, wooden frames for houses, printed books, maps, and music, philosophical and musical instruments, artificers' tools, agricultural and mining implements, seeds, and plants, are admitted duty free. All articles which are the growth and produce of Mexico may be exported duty free, except gold, in coin or wrought, which pays 2 per cent. *ad valorem*, and silver, the duty on which is 24 per cent. *ad valorem*. Gold and silver ore, ingots, or dust, are prohibited under penalty of seizure.

Government.—On the resignation of Iturbide, the Mexicans determined on establishing a federal government. The present constitution, dated Oct. 4, 1824, is modelled on that of the United States; the republic was then divided into 19 states, each of which is permitted to manage its own local affairs, while the whole were cemented together in one body politic by fundamental and constituent laws. The powers of the supreme government are divided into 3 branches—legislative, executive, and judiciary.

The legislative power was vested in a congress consisting of a house of representatives, a senate, and a president. Representatives, elected by each state at the rate of one member for 80,000 inhab., hold their places for two years. The qualifications requisite are 25 years of age, and 8 years' residence in the state. The senate consists of 2 members, for each state, of 30 years of age each, who are elected by a plurality of votes in the state congress. The members of both houses receive salaries of 2,000 doll. a year. The president and vice-president are elected by the congress of the states, hold office for four years, and cannot be re-elected for four years after. Congress sits annually from January 1. to April 15. A council of government, consisting of the vice-president and half the senate, sits during the recesses of congress. The city of Mexico is the seat of government. The legislatures of the 19 states are similar to that of the republic in general. But the federal has lately been consolidated into a central government with a single legislative body for the entire republic, the states being formed into departments with subordinate councils.

These arrangements appear, however, to be disliked by a large proportion of the people; at all events Mexico has continued, since the establishment of the federal government, to be little better than a theatre for insurrections. The testimony of M. Chevallier is conclusive with respect to the condition of the country in 1835, and there has been no material improvement in the interval. "I have only been two months in Mexico, and already I have witnessed five attempts at revolution. Insurrections have become quite ordinary occurrences here, and their settled forms been gradually established, from which it is not considered fair to deviate. These seem almost as positively fixed as the laws of backgammon or the recipes of domestic cookery. The first act of a revolution is called *pronunciamiento*. An officer of any rank, from a general down to a lieutenant, announces himself against the established order, or against an institution which displeases him, or against any thing else. He gets together a detachment, a company, or a regiment, as the case may be, and these, generally, without more ado, place themselves at his disposal. The second

act is called the *grito*, or outcry, when two or three articles are drawn up, to state the motives or objects of the insurrection. If the matter is of some importance, the outcry is called a *plan*. At the third act, the insurgents and the partisans of government are opposed to one another, and mutually examine each other's forces. At the fourth act they come to blows; but, according to the improved system lately introduced, the fighting is carried on in a very distant, moderate, and respectful manner. However, one party is declared victor, and the beaten party *disprovinces*. The conquerors march to Mexico, and their triumphal entry into the capital constitutes the fifth act of the play; the vanquished meanwhile embark at Vera Cruz or Tampico with all the honours of war."

The laws are alleged to be mild and just, but they are almost powerless; for nothing can well be conceived more appalling than the state of anarchy described by the very intelligent traveller just quoted.

"With tranquillity, unfortunately, every thing else is also lost. There is no longer any security. It is a mere chance if the diligence from Mexico to Vera Cruz proceed the whole way without being stopped and robbed. It requires whole regiments to convey the *conductos* of plasters to Vera Cruz. Travellers who cannot afford to pay for an escort go armed from head to foot, and in little caravans. Here and there, rude crosses erected by the side of the road, and surrounded by heaps of stones, thrown by passers by, in token of compassion, point out the spot where some wayfarer, and almost always a stranger, has perished by the hand of robbers." "The immediate environs of the most populous cities are infested by malefactors, and even in the interior of cities, not excepting the capital, there is no longer any security. There are numerous instances of people being robbed on a Sunday, and at the hour even when the greatest number of people are abroad, within a league of Mexico. An English chargé d'affaires was lassoed on the Alameda, the public walk, in the middle of the day. In the evening, after sunset, notwithstanding the numerous guardians of the night (*serenos*), notwithstanding the videttes of cavalry at every corner of the streets, notwithstanding the law prohibits the riding on horseback through the streets after eight o'clock, in order to prevent the use of the *lasso*, a man is not safe in Mexico, not even in his own house. If, in the evening at 8 or 9 o'clock, you visit a friend, before the porter consents to open the enormous gate lined with iron or bronze, there pass as many formalities as if it were a question of letting down the drawbridge of a fortress. Persons on whose words I think I can rely have assured me that as many as 900 dead bodies are yearly deposited in the morgue of Mexico."

Revenues.—The amount of the revenue at different dates has been as follows:—

	Doll.		Doll.
1700	5,000,000	1827	10,485,429
1750	8,000,000	1828	12,232,365
1800	30,300,000	1829	14,485,189
1825	10,490,608	1830	18,925,299
1846	15,289,681	1831	16,415,069

About half the receipts proceed from the customs' duties: the other sources are, the mint, monopolies of tobacco, salt, pulque, and gunpowder; lotteries, post-office, stamps, tolls, and privileges. "The produce of the state lands, none of which have been yet put up to sale, is estimated to be capable of producing from 2 to 4 millions of dollars."

Army.—The army consisted, in 1839, of about 20,000 men, exclusive of an active militia of about 30,000. But the troops are without science or a proper feeling of honour, so that they are really worth very little. The military, however, is a favourite service, from the high pay and privileges of the soldier. There are 5 for-
pulo, and San Blas.

Religion.—The Roman Catholic is the only publicly recognised religion, but others are tolerated. The church establishment consists of the archbishop of Mexico and 9 bishops, having an aggregate income of 539,000 doll., with 3,677 parochial clergy. There are also 10 cathedrals, having 168 canons and other dignitaries, and 1 collegiate church. The regular clergy comprise 3,979 monks, chiefly Franciscan; and there are 156 convents. Ecclesiastical property is free from taxation, and they have the sole management of all money bequeathed for pious uses. The annual income of the ecclesiastics is valued at about 12,000,000 dollars. The Spanish monks and priests were expelled during the revolution; and their places are filled by creoles, whose morals are at the lowest ebb. Religion has little influence over the white pop., and the hold of the church over the Indians, never complete, is now fast lessening; for they are all more or less, inclined to idolatry. (*Edwards's History of Texas.*)

Education.—The necessity of education is recognised by the new constitution, which requires that the priests

should teach all persons to read and write; but the regulation has little practical effect. Under the old government, botanical pursuits were much encouraged: chemistry and mineralogy were taught in the school of mines; but the progress of science, literature, and the arts have all been checked by the unsettled state of the country since the revolution.

"In fact," says M. Chevalier, "elementary instruction remains what it was in the time of the Spaniards. The clergy had then the exclusive management of it, and having so still, show but little inclination to enable the poor to read the books published under the régime of a free press. There are even fewer schools than there were, in consequence of the diminution in the number of the clergy. Education of a superior kind is even worse provided for. Under the Spaniards, there existed at Mexico a school for the fine arts, richly endowed: I have been unable to discover its existence now. There is a building called a museum, where I found nothing of interest except a collection of the portraits of the viceroys since the time of Cortes, and a few Aztec manuscripts. Some years ago, the establishment of a polytechnic school was decreed, but the decree has yet to see the commencement of its execution. There is not even a military school, though the attention of the government is almost exclusively devoted to the army. There is nothing deserving the name of a school of law or medicine; and it may be well imagined that schools of industry or commerce are wholly unknown."

Population.—The amount of the pop. has been estimated at different periods, both before and after the revolution; but, owing to the jealousy of the old government, and the distracted state of the country since the declaration of independence, very little credit can be attached to these estimates. The following are those by the best authorities:—

1794	• • •	Humboldt	• • •	5,300,000
1808	• • •	Do.	• • •	6,500,000
1813	• • •	Poissuet	• • •	5,500,000
1825	• • •	Do.	• • •	6,500,000
1827	• • •	Ward	• • •	8,000,000
1836	• • •	Chevalier	• • •	7,000,000

The lower estimate of Chevalier may be explained by the emancipation of Texas and California, and by the continuance of the disturbances. The classes of the pop. are singularly varied, and are characterised by distinctions more striking than those in any other country. Four distinct and rival classes may be enumerated: 1. the *Chapetownes*, or pure Spaniards, never exceeding 80,000 in the palmy days of New Spain, but now hardly amounting to 34,000, and, politically considered, a degraded class; 2. the *Creeoles*, or native whites of European descent, forming the wealthiest and most powerful part of the pop., estimated by Chevalier at 1,300,000; 3. the *Indians*, or native Mexicans, constituting the great mass of the rural labourers, and supposed to amount to 3,800,000; 4. the mixed castes, comprising *Mestizos*, *Mulattoes*, *Zambos*, *Quadratoes*, and *Castizatoes*, somewhat exceeding 1,800,000.

The king of Spain formerly exercised a right of conferring the exclusive privileges enjoyed by the white pop. on individuals of any shade by a decree of the *audiencia*, *Que se tenga por blanco*—that he be deemed white. These distinctions of colour have been done away with, as far as political privileges are concerned, by the revolution, which admits persons of all colours to the equal enjoyment of civil rights; and hitherto, indeed, this has been by far its best if not its only good effect. The mulattoes and zambos principally reside in the low country, the whites on the table land. The Indians are divided into numerous tribes, speaking upwards of twenty languages, totally distinct from each other, and of which fourteen grammars and dictionaries have been published. Their character remains much the same as it is alleged to have been at the time of the conquest. Indolence, blind submission to their superiors, and gross superstition, are as much their characteristics now as formerly. The form of their religion is changed, and that is nearly all: they take the same childish delight in the idle ceremonies and processions of the Catholic church as they once took in the fantastic mummeries of their aboriginal idolatry. They are scattered over the country as labourers, distributed in villages, or else live in the towns as artisans, workmen, or beggars. In a few instances they have accumulated property, and acquired respectability; but, in general, they are indolent, ignorant, and poverty-stricken. We believe them to be wholly incapable of any high degree of civilisation; but they might, perhaps, be improved, were measures taken to enforce their education, and to make a fair distribution among them of the many thousands of acres which have been thrown out of cultivation by the consequences of the revolution. They are classed in two great divisions: 1. *Mansos*, comprising those who have a fixed residence, cultivate the land, adopt the habits of civilised society, and maintain an amicable intercourse with the other races; 2. *Bravos*, comprising those who live a wandering life, sup-

porting themselves by hunting, and avoiding all intercourse with the other classes, with whom many of their tribes are in a state of perpetual warfare. The latter principally inhabit the N. states along the river Gila, and the extensive and little known mountain ranges on the upper part of the course of the Rio Grande del Norte and the N. W. of Texas, called the Bolor de Maptim, from the lake of Man. An independent tribe, called Mayas, inhabits the tract between Yucatan, Tabasco, and central America. It has made some progress in civilisation, cultivating maize and cocoa, and wearing garments made of cotton prepared from cotton and the bark of the caoutchouc tree.

"Mexico," says Chevalier, "is a country so rich, that famine scarcely visits even the most indolent. In the *terracas calcinadas*, and even on the plateau, the natives are content to dwell with their families in a cabin of bamboo trellis-work, so slight as scarcely to hide them from the stranger's gaze, and to sleep either on mere mats, or at best on beds made of leaves and brushwood. Their dress consists simply of a pair of drawers, or petticoats, and a *serape* (a dyed woollen garment), which serves for a cloak by day, and a counterpane by night. Each has his horse, a sorry beast, which feeds at large in the open country; and a whole family of Indians is amply supplied with food by bananas, chilli, and maize, raised, almost without labour, in a small enclosure round the hut. Labour, indeed, occupies but a trifling portion of the Indian's time, which is chiefly spent in drinking *pulque*, sleep, or singing to his wretched mandolin hymns in honour of Notre Dame de Guadalupe, and occasionally carrying votive chaplets to deck the altar of his village church. Thus, he passes his life in dreamy indifference, and utterly careless of the ever-reviving *femmes* by which the peace of Mexico is disturbed. The assassinations and robberies which the almost impotent government allows to be committed with impunity on the public roads, and even in sight of the capital, are to him only matter for conversation, the theme of a tale or ditty. And why should he trouble himself about it? Having nothing in the world but the dress in which he stands, his lance, spurs, and guitar, he has no fear of thieves; nor will the poniard of the assassin touch him, if he himself, drunk with pulque or chingarito, do not use his own."

Antiquities.—Humboldt, Bullock, and other European travellers, have furnished excellent descriptions of numerous ancient monuments, which show that the native Mexicans, before the loss of their independence, had been in some respects a comparatively civilised and ingenious people. Among the most extraordinary are pyramids, somewhat similar in exterior form to those of Egypt, and in some instances even of larger dimensions. The base of the pyramid of Cholula is a square of 1,432 ft. on each side, and its height is estimated at 177 ft. A far more elegant building, of similar shape, is situated in the N. part of the state of Vera Cruz; it is formed of large blocks of porphyry, highly polished, and arranged in six stages, diminishing in size according to the elevation, and having all its materials most nicely adjusted. The base is a square of 82 ft. on the sides; it is 65 ft. high; and the ascent to its top is by a flight of 57 stairs: the front is richly adorned with hieroglyphics and curious sculptures. The mountains of Tescuco are nearly covered with the remains of ancient buildings and cities. The ruins of Palenque, near the Rio Chacamas, a branch of the Usamasinta, extend upwards of 20 m. along the ridge of a mountain; and their architecture resembles more that of Europe than Mexico. The remains of an Aztec city, called by the Spaniards La Casa Grande, are to be seen about a league S. of the river Gila, in the state of Occidente. They are spread over a space of more than a square league. In the centre is a teocalli, laid down according to the cardinal points, its sides being 445 ft. by 276 ft. It has 3 stories and a terrace, but no stairs. Within are 5 apartments, each 37 ft. long, 11 broad, and 11 high. A wall with towers surrounds the main building. The traces of an artificial canal to the river are visible. The neighbouring plain is strewn with fragments of red, blue, and white earthenware, and pieces of obsidian, which prove that the Aztecs had passed through a country abounding with this volcanic substance before they dwelt on this spot, previously to their final settlement in Mexico. In the W. part of the state of Chihuahua are similar ruins of great extent, which are also considered to have been the site of one of the temporary stations of the Aztecs during their migration southwards. Besides sculptures, traces of elegant forms have been found, similar to those of Etruria and Egypt. Roads formed of large hewn blocks of stone may be traced, not only in the neighbourhood of those ruined cities, but at great distances from them.

History.—The first settlers in Mexico are believed to have been the Toltecs, a tribe of Indians from the rocky mountains, who fixed themselves, after several migrations, near the present city of Mexico, and flourished there for nearly four centuries. Drought, famine, and pestilence

at length exterminated them, but not till they had imparted some degree of civilisation to the barbarous Chichimecas, who were the next possessors of the soil, and were in their turn displaced by the Aztecas, who, in 1160, migrated southward from a country N. of the Gulph of California, and first fixed themselves in the city of Zumpango, in the valley of Mexico, but afterwards in some islands in the lake Texcoco. Here they maintained themselves by fishing and agriculture, till, in 1325, they founded their chief city on the island of Tenochtitlan, and called it *Mexico*, in honour of their martial deity Mexitli. This nation rapidly increased in power, and, if the remains of monuments and large cities were a just test of civilisation, the Aztecas might claim to rank pretty high among the nations of antiquity. But they had invented no alphabet, and had nothing better than a rude species of picture writing to record events, and were ignorant even of the useful metals. Their barbarism is sufficiently shown by their custom of sacrificing great numbers of human victims on coronation fêtes. Montezuma I., the greatest of their sovereigns, extended the Aztec dominions on one side to the Gulph of Mexico, and on the other to the Pacific Ocean; but it must be stated at the same time, that many tribes within this tract yielded only a reluctant obedience, and some even retained their independence. Such, briefly, was the state of Mexico when Munces de Balboa first landed on its shores. Its conquest was effected by Fernando Cortes, who sailed thither in 1519 with a small force, comprising, on the whole, only about 700 men. He was met at Vera Cruz by ambassadors from Montezuma the younger, sent to discover his intentions, and to command him to withdraw from the country. But Cortes having refused to return till he had communicated in person with the emperor, at once proceeded to the capital. Here having got possession of the person of Montezuma, Cortes endeavoured by his intervention to effect the subjugation of the empire. But the Mexicans having recovered from the surprise into which they were at first thrown by the seizure of the emperor, resolved at all hazards to attempt the expulsion of the Spaniards. Montezuma was soon after killed in a conflict in the city; and Cortes was compelled to retreat to Tlascala. Here having re-organised his small force, secured the co-operation of a large body of Indians, and built brigantines to be employed in the navigation of the lake Texcoco, he again pushed forward to the city; and having recommenced the siege, took it after an obstinate resistance of 75 days. The fate of the cap. decided that of the empire. Province after province submitted, and the power of Spain was extended from Vera Cruz to the Pacific. Cortes, on his return to Spain, was received at first with high honours and liberal rewards; but his court favour soon declined: the emperor refused to appoint him captain-general of Mexico; and, after some adventures, suited to his ardent and determined spirit, he died near Seville, in 1545, at the age of 63.

Under the Spanish arrangements Mexico was a subordinate kingdom, governed by a viceroy, with powers nearly equal to those of the sovereign, checked only by the *residencia*, or court of investigation, before which he was liable to be called to account for his administration, on his return home, by the *audiencia*, or court of final appeal in Mexico. By these arrangements, also, the natives were to be considered as freemen and vassals of the crown; and the Spanish discoverers, settlers, and their posterity, were to have a preference in all civil and ecclesiastical appointments. The natives were were thus, in fact, excluded from holding all offices of trust or profit. The great object of the Spanish government was to keep the country in the hands of the European or white population; and the means adopted to effect this object were, 1st, to discourage native manufactures, for the benefit of those belonging to the mother-country; 2dly, to make all the ecclesiastical establishments wholly dependent on the king, without any interference of the pope. The growth of flax, hemp, and saffron was prohibited under severe penalties; that of tobacco was made a government monopoly. The cultivation of the vine and olive was likewise prohibited; that of coffee, cocoa, and indigo tolerated only under certain restrictions, and in such quantities as might suffice for the demands of the mother-country. This system was maintained nearly three centuries; during which Mexico continued to be a blank in the history of nations, and known only by the issue of the precious metals. In 1808, however, the news of the abdication of Charles VI. of Spain gave a shock to the royal authority which it never recovered. The natives and coloured population embraced this opportunity of asserting their claim to the rights of freemen, which was opposed by the audiencia, who also sided on the viceroy, Hurligary, and sent him prisoner to Spain, where he was confined till the general amnesty. An open insurrection against the European authorities broke out in 1810, at the head of which were Hidalgo and Morelos, two priests of New Spain; and under the auspices of the latter the first national congress assembled at Chilpancingo in 1813. One of its

earliest acts was a declaration of the independence of Mexico.

For several years the history of the revolution is only that of a sanguinary guerrilla warfare, leading to no permanent results. At length, in 1821, Iturbide, who had previously been a royalist, declared suddenly in favour of the liberals, and published his celebrated manifesto of Iguala in favour of a constitutional monarchy. His cause was embraced with such enthusiasm by the whole population, that he succeeded not only in putting down the Spanish government, and forming a national congress, but also prevailed on that body to make him emperor of Mexico, under the title of Augustin I. His dissolution of the congress, however, by military force, raised a feeling against him, which, finding it impossible to repress, he abdicated the throne. He was not only allowed to withdraw from the country, but rewarded for his past services by an annual allowance of 5,000*l.*, accompanied by an edict of outlawry in case of return. In spite, however, of this prohibition, he returned clandestinely, and was soon discovered, apprehended, and executed.

On the expulsion of Iturbide the congress was re-assembled, a provisional government formed, and an executive appointed consisting of Victoria, Bravo, and Negrete, all persons of proved patriotism. The government was modelled on that of the United States; but the hopes then formed of its stability have proved fallacious. Since this epoch repeated attempts at revolution have convulsed the country. During the whole of the struggle for independence, the population had been split into two parties: at first distinguished by the names of Imperialists, who adhered to the mother-country, and Republicans, who asserted its independence; but these parties afterwards merged into those of Centralists and Federalists; the former advocating a single superintending government, and the latter that of the independent government of states, only federally connected. This struggle between the rival parties has now continued for about 17 years, and been a fertile cause of insurrection. Texas and California have already separated from the confederacy, and it is probable that their example will be followed by other states. In fact, there can hardly be said to be any thing like regular government. The Centralists are lords of the ascendant to-day; but a successful *insurrección* (as the Parisians term it) may dash all their prospects to-morrow. Meanwhile, all the bonds of society are loosened, property has become almost worthless from its utter insecurity, and life is not safe from assassination and violence. Whether the proposal of the S. American republics to unite their interests with those of Mexico, and form together one grand federation, will be accepted, and whether, if accepted, it would contribute to the improvement of Mexico, is matter for speculation only; but certainly that country, as it exists at present, affords one of the most melancholy examples that modern history has presented of an extensive, fertile, and well-situated region being reduced, through anarchy and misgovernment, to a state bordering on barbarism.

MEXICO, or MEXICO (Mex. *Tenochtitlan*), the cap. of the United States of Mexico, and anciently the chief city of the empire of Montezuma, 7,435 ft. above the sea, lat. 19° 25' 40" N., long. 101° 25' 30" W. Pop. 150,000. It stands nearly in the centre of an elevated plain, or plateau, surrounded by mountains, and having an area of about 1,700 sq. m., 1-10th of which is covered by 4 lakes, the largest of which (Texcoco), nearest the city, has an area of 77 sq. m. The old city of Mexico, or that taken by Cortes, was built on a group of islands in the lake Texcoco; but though the modern city occupy its site, it is, owing to the diminution of the waters of the lake, partly originating in natural and partly in artificial causes, situated about 24 m. W. from the lake. The ground on which it stands is, as might be anticipated from the statement now made, low and swampy; the largest buildings are erected on piles, and the roads leading to it are raised 6 or 8 ft. above the surrounding flat. Though within the tropics, it is so elevated that its mean temperature is only 65° Fahr., coincident with that of May in England. It is said, by Humboldt, to be "undoubtedly one of the finest cities ever built by Europeans in either hemisphere; being inferior only to Petersburg, Berlin, London, and Philadelphia, as respects the regularity and breadth of its streets, as well as the extent of its public places." The architecture is generally of a very pure style, and many of the buildings are of noble construction, though usually of somewhat plain exterior. Two sorts of hewn stone, porous amygdaloid and porphyry, are used in the better parts of the city. The balustrades and gates are of Blazey iron, ornamented with bronze; and the houses, which are 2 or 4 stories high, have flat-terraced roofs, like those in Italy and other S. countries. (*News. Espagne*, li. 51.) The streets are wide, well-paved and flagged, but not lighted or watched at night; so that robberies and assassinations are scarcely less common than in Spain. They run al-

most uniformly at right angles to each other, many of them being nearly 2 m. in length, perfectly level and straight, and offering, from every point, a view of the mountains that surround the valley. Nearly all the houses are hollow squares, with open courts surrounded by colonnades, and ornamented with plants, &c. The stairs to the interior front the outer gate, and the best apartments, which are showily painted in mosaic and arabesque, generally face the street. (*Forrest's Notes on Mexico*, p. 66.) Numbers of houses are covered with glazed porcelain, in a variety of elegant designs and patterns. The *Plaza Mayor*, or grand square, is one of the finest to be seen in any metropolis: its E. side is occupied by the cathedral and *segregaria*, or par. church, and its N. side by the palace, while on the other sides are handsome rows of shops and private dwellings. In its centre is a colossal statue of Charles IV., said to be the finest work of its kind in the new world. The effect of this square, however, is much impaired by the introduction of a paltry building, called the Parian, a large ungainly pile, in one angle, used as a market or bazaar, appropriated to the sale of miscellaneous articles, and the resort of the idliest portion of the inhabitants. The palace, or government-house, a fine building, nearly square, with a front several hundred feet in extent, comprises 4 large courts, in which are the public offices, barracks, prison, and a large botanic garden; but almost every part of it is falling to decay: the massive tables, staircases, and chandeliers have disappeared, and all is now in the most appalling disorder. (*Latreille's Rambles in Mexico*, p. 168.) In this building also, is the mint of the state of Mexico. The coinage has greatly decreased; for whereas, before the revolution, it amounted to 16 or 18 millions of dollars, it was estimated, in 1829, at 1,380,000 dollars, and, in 1835, at only 547,145 dollars. The cathedral, on the N. side of the square, on the site of the great temple of the god Mexitli, is a heterogeneous edifice; one part of the front is low, and of bad Gothic architecture, while the other and more modern part is in the Italian style, and displays much symmetry and beauty: its two towers are ornamented with pillars and statues. The interior is imposing, lofty, and magnificent; but the grandeur of the effect is much diminished by the ponderous erections in different parts, and a profusion of massive carved ornaments, pictures, and painted statues. The high-altar and its appendages are inclosed by a massive railing of mixed metal; so valuable, on account of the gold it contains, that a silver-smith of Mexico is alleged to have offered the bishop a new silver rail of equal weight in return for the old metal! (*Bullock's Mexico*, l. 143.) In the interior, also, are some curious remains, including several idols and a "stone of sacrifice," that is, a stone on which the human victim was placed when the priest tore out his heart! On the outer wall is fixed the *Kellenda*, a circular stone of basaltic porphyry, covered with hieroglyphic figures, by which the Aztecs, or native Mexicans, used to designate the months of the year, and which is supposed to have formed a kind of perpetual calendar. (*Latreille*, p. 171-175; *Ward*, l. 48.)

Few monuments of antiquity, however, remain; and we may echo the exclamation of Antonio de Gamá, the first among Mexican antiquaries, "*¿Cuántos preciosos monumentos de la antigüedad, por falta de inteligencia, habrán perecido en esta manera?*" "How many remains of antiquity have thus perished through ignorance of their value." The church services are celebrated with great magnificence; nor even in Rome herself is greater attention paid to the external minutiae of religious observances. Besides the cathedral, there are said to be from 50 to 60 other churches, most of which display, more or less, the barbarous mixture of style that characterised Spanish architecture during the 16th and 17th centuries; there are, also, numerous religious houses, two of which, viz. the Franciscan and Dominican convents, are extensive and wealthy establishments. Opposite to the latter of these is the Palace of the Inquisition, now applied to other, and, it is hoped, more useful ends. Bullock describes it as "very elegant, exhibiting little or no appearance of the purposes for which it was intended." This tribunal was abolished by Iturbide, in 1822. The Papal religion, however, still maintains its ascendancy; few buildings, whether public or private, are without their patron saint; and the traveller every where meets with shrines, pictures, and processions. The *Mineria*, or college of engineers, was originally a large and handsome building; but, owing either to a want of care in making the foundations, or to the effect of earthquakes, the walls have settled in several parts, and the front is visibly out of the perpendicular. Lectures are given occasionally on the sciences connected with mining; and in one of the rooms is a tolerably good collection of minerals, though generally very inferior to those in European museums, and, as respects a country like Mexico, quite insignificant. In fact, not only the *Mineria*, but the Academy of Fine Arts, the university, founded in 1526, and public library, are in a state of neglect, disgraceful alike to the government and the people; and we are afraid that the diffusion of elementary

instruction since the revolution has not been such as to compensate for the decline of the institutions for the higher branches of instruction. We have seen, in the previous article, the statements of M. Chevalier as to education generally in 1835, than which nothing can be more deplorable. The *Acordada*, or public prison, is a large substantial structure, fitted to contain about 1,800 prisoners; the barracks, also, formerly used as an hospital, are very extensive and well constructed. The theatre is a respectable building, of considerable size; but the establishment has for some years had so little success that it is very seldom opened. The *Plaza de Toros*, for the exhibition of bull-fights, consists of a great circular inclosure, fitted up exactly like that of Madrid, and fitted to accommodate from 2,000 to 3,000 spectators. The great cigar manufactory, which belongs to the government, stands at the S.W. angle of the city, and comprises a very extensive establishment, which supplies the whole legitimate demand of the confederation for cigars. The Alameda, or public walk, at the W. end of the city, somewhat resembles a park, but has the stiff formal appearance of Dutch and French grounds. In the centre is a fountain, supplied with water from the great aqueduct leading from Santa Fé to the city. Another open space, called the Paseo, about 2 m. in length, planted with double rows of trees, is much frequented, on holidays, by persons in carriages and on horseback. In the city, also, are several *Portales*, or covered colonnades, lined with shops and stalls, and forming a favourite evening promenade long after the Alameda and Paseo have ceased to be frequented. The environs, also, present, on fine dry evenings, a very lively scene of bustle and gaiety: hundreds of canoes of various sizes, mostly with awnings, and crowded with native Indians or *Mestizos*, are seen passing in every direction along the lake and canals, each boat with its guitar-player at the stern, and some of the party either singing or dancing.

The manufactures are not generally remarkable, either for extent or fineness of workmanship. Nothing is exposed in the shop-windows, and most of the articles are made in the places where they are offered for sale. Gold and silver lace, trimmings, epaulets, &c., are made in great perfection, and are sold at a much lower rate than in England. Silversmiths' work is also done on a pretty extensive scale: the ornaments are finished by hand; the chasing is sometimes well executed, but in general the articles are clumsy and heavy. Jewellery employs a few hands; but all precious stones, except rubies, are scarce, and the work is much dearer than in Europe. Cabinet-work is extravagantly dear, and of very inferior quality, made with clumsy tools, and of bad wood; the saw is scarcely known, and the turning-lathe is of the most primitive construction. Coach-making is much better understood: the Mexican vehicles are firmly put together, of handsome shape, and well finished; and, in respect of painting, gilding, or varnishing, they are but little inferior to those made in Europe, whence the handles and metal furniture are procured. There is a considerable manufacture of hard soap here, at Puebla; but it has greatly fallen off since the time of Humboldt, who states the quantity made in Mexico, in 1802, at 290,000 arrobas. Beaver and felt hats and cotton cloaks are made on a large scale, for the supply of all parts of the Union, these being important articles in the internal trade of the country. Woollen clothes are three times as dear as in England, and are uniformly ill-made. Men, not women, are milliners; and it is not uncommon to see some 20 or 30 fellows, who should be porters or coalheavers, employed in decorating ladies' dresses, making flowers, and trimming caps and boucles. (*Bullock*, l. 202.) The bakehouses are large establishments; and the bread, which is excellent, is made exclusively by slaves, who also perform the work in the cloth factories. (See *Manufactures*, in art. MEXICO, UNITED STATES OF.) Shops for the sale of *pulque* (a kind of beer made from the aloe), and native and Spanish brandy, are very common, and have a gay appearance. The markets are well supplied with animal and vegetable productions, brought along the lake and canal of Chalco by crowds of canoes, usually navigated by women. Turkeys, fowls, pigeons, and many varieties of wild waterfowl, are very abundant and cheap; as are hares, rabbits, tortoises, frogs, and salamanders, all of which are esteemed good eating by the inhabs. The meat-market is well supplied with beef, mutton, and pork, but veal is prohibited. The meat, however, is not of the best quality, though, perhaps, this may be owing to its bad preparation by the butcher and cook. There is great variety of vegetables and fruits, and a most enormous consumption in proportion to the pop. The vegetable market is larger than Covent Garden, but yet unequal to the daily supply; and the ground is entirely covered with bananas, plantains, citrons, shaddocks, melons, pomegranates, dates, mangoes, tomatos, and other vegetable productions of tropical countries.

The greater part of these are cultivated on the *chinampas*, or floating gardens, of which there are two sorts;

one moveable, the other fixed, and attached to the shore. On the marshy banks of the lakes of Xochimilco and Chalco, the water, in the time of the great floods, carries away pieces of earth covered with herbs, and bound together by roots. These, being driven about by the wind, sometimes unite into small islands, which, being taken possession of, are planted with flowers and roots. Artificial *chinampas*, or islands, are also frequently formed, of reeds, rushes, roots, brushwood, &c., well compacted together, and covered with black mould: these sometimes contain the cottage of the Indian who acts as guard. They are towed or pushed with long poles, and are thus removed from one side of the banks to the other. The fixed *chinampas* are parallelograms from 300 to 400 ft. in length, and from 10 to 20 ft. in width. They rise about 3 or 4 ft. above the water, and afford, from their command of water, beans, small peas, pimiento, potatoes, artichokes, cauliflowers, and a great variety of other vegetables.

The pop. of Mexico is of an extremely mixed character, comprising about 68,000 creoles, or descendants of Spaniards; 35,000 Mexicans, or half-castes between Europeans and Indians, but many of whom are scarcely distinguishable by colour from the former; about 35,000 copper-coloured natives; 10,000 mulattoes; and only about 6,000 Europeans. There is, or at all events, used to be, an extreme disparity of wealth in this city. Many of the nobles and successful speculators in mines were excessively rich; but the bulk of the pop. were at once indolent and indigent. The lower orders are filthy, despise labour of every kind, and are constantly seen lying in the church porches, leaning against the walls, and loitering about the markets. In many respects they bear a striking resemblance to the lassaroni of Naples, but the latter are not stained with the crimes of robbery and assassination, for which the *lazzaroni* of Mexico are disgracefully notorious. There is here, also, a general torpor of the faculties, and the *dolce far niente* seems to be the *summum bonum* of all classes. The dress of the higher orders of men closely resembles that of Europeans, the large cloak being as common here as in Spain. The costume of the ladies is universally black, with the veil and mantilla; but, on holidays and public occasions, their dresses are remarkable as well for gayness of colour as for extravagance of ornament. Indeed, when in their carriages on the Paseo, they contrast somewhat strangely with the same persons, when seen at home in complete *déshabille*, without stockings, squatting on the floor, and either pursuing their favourite amusement of cigar-smoking, or eating cakes and capscum out of the dirty earthenware basins of the country. (*Larousse*, p. 150.) The ladies seldom go out during the day; but, after sunset, young and old come forth from their hiding-places, and the Alameda, Paseos, and Portales swarm with the *damas* and *sigoritas* of the city, chattering and smoking with the gallantry of many gentlemen belonging to the higher classes are intelligent, and a few even fond of literature; but the city is so badly supplied with libraries, and other means of study, as to give little encouragement to such pursuits. There are three or four newspapers; but they are miserable productions, containing little besides the merest chat-chit, copiously interspersed with advertisements. The white creoles are distinguished by their mildness, courtesy, and hospitality; their besetting sin is gambling. Female virtue is on the same low level as in Old Spain; but the Mexican ladies are better educated, and would be agreeable but for the practice of smoking, which is bad enough in men, and intolerable in women. (*Poinsett's Notes*, p. 160.)

The original city of Mexico, or, as it was called, Tenochtitlan, built, as already stated, on a group of islands in the Lake Texcoco, was founded in 1325: it was connected with the main land by three principal causeways of stone and earth, about 30 ft. in breadth, and extending from 3 to 6 m. over the surrounding marshes. These dikes still exist, and their number has since been increased. They form, at present, paved causeways across the marshy grounds, which were formerly covered with water, and, being of considerable elevation, are useful in securing the city from inundations. The better to preserve the city from the chance of this calamity, the great drain alluded to in the previous article, was commenced in 1607, which has now reduced the lakes of Ximipango and San Christoval within comparatively narrow limits, and prevented their waters in the rainy season from flowing into the lake of Texcoco, and threatening, as they sometimes did, to submerge the city.

Mexico, when first discovered by the Spaniards, was a rich and populous city; the seat of government, religion, and trade. According to Cortes, it was as large as Seville or Cordova, was well built, and well supplied with various products; but these are the statements of parties naturally disposed to magnify their own services, and should be received with considerable modification. It was taken by the Spaniards in 1521, after a protracted siege, in the course of which it was nearly destroyed. (See previous article.)

Mexico (*GULPH OF*), a large inland sea connected by

the Florida channel with the N. Atlantic Ocean, and by the channel of Yucatan with the Caribbean sea, sit. between lat. 18° and 31° N., and between long. 81° and 98° W. Length from E. to W. 1,200 m., average breadth, 650 m.; area, about 800,000 sq. m. This sea, which is of an irregular circular shape, is, unlike the Caribbean sea, almost clear of shoals and islands, none being found except on the coasts of Yucatan and Florida. Along the coast of Mexico its soundings are very regular, with 100 fathoms at a distance of 30 m. from the shore. On the N. side, and especially opposite the mouths of the Mississippi, the depth is considerably diminished, and at its E. extremity the navigation is rendered intricate and dangerous by the Tortugas bank, Florida reef, and various other keys, shoals, and islets, including the great Bahama bank, which surround the N. coast of Cuba. The E. trade winds prevail from April to October, this being usually the wet season: the *Nortes* begin in October, but are not violent till the middle of November, from which time till the end of February they blow with great fury, and are objects of much dread to navigators. These gales last for four or five, and occasionally even ten, days, but their extreme violence is usually spent in the first 48 hours. At these times the larger vessels, which cannot enter the shallow harbours of the Mexican coast, are obliged to slip their anchors, and keep as far as possible off shore. Examples are not wanting, also, of *nortes* happening between May and August, at which time they are particularly furious. Luckily, however, the hurricanes and tornados of the gulph are by no means so fierce and destructive as those in the Caribbean Sea.

The principal current of the Gulph of Mexico, and the only one worth mention, is that which sets N.W. between Cape St. Antonio and Cape Catoche; this runs from 12 to 30 m. a day, and is perceptible even during the *nortes*, except close along the shores of Mexico. At the N.W. extremity of the gulph its course gradually changes, till, at the mouth of the Mississippi, it turns E., and afterwards S.E., as it again rushes out into the Atlantic Ocean, at the rate of 80 m. in the twenty-four hours. (This remarkable current, commonly known as the *Gulph stream*, is described in the article ATLANTIC OCEAN, l. 212. of this work.) The tides of the Gulph of Mexico are of no great importance, they nowhere exceed 3 or 4 ft., but their average rise is not more than 2 ft. The colour of the water is a deep indigo, darker or more intense than that of the ocean: phosphorescent lights shine on it with great brilliancy, and between the coasts of Yucatan and Louisiana great quantities of *sucus marinus* occur in parallel lines from S.E. to N.N.W., and are carried out in large masses through the straits of Florida. (*Bland's American Pilot*; *Perry's Atlantic Ocean*; *Darby's Geogr. of United States*; *Humboldt's Pers. Narr.*, l. 50-53.)

MEZÈ, a town of France, dép. Hérault, cap. cant., on the lagoon of Thau, 5 m. N.W. Cotte. Pop. (1836) 4,240. It has a small port, capable of receiving 60 vessels of 40 tons each, and manufactures of brandy and liqueurs. Near it is the abbey of Vallemagne, an edifice of the 13th century, well worth the traveller's notice. (*Guide du Voyageur en France*.)

MEZIERES, a fortified town of France, dép. Ardennes, on the Meuse, which mostly surrounds the town, and is here crossed by two stone bridges, 80 m. N.W. Metz. Lat. 49° 45' N., long. 49° 43' E. Pop. in 1836, 3,817. It is walled, and is further defended by a strong citadel. It is ill built, and has few edifices worth notice, except the town-hall, the prefecture, the hospital, founded in 1412, and a par. church of considerable antiquity. Mezières, though the nominal cap. of the dép., has no court of primary jurisdiction, that tribunal being seated at Charleville (which see): it is, however, the seat of boards of taxation, artillery, and forest inspection, a society of agriculture, &c.; and has tanneries, breweries, and some trade in leather, coarse woollens, and linens. The Chevalier Bayard, with a garrison of only a few thousand men, successfully defended Mezières, in 1520, against a powerful Austrian army; and, in 1815, the town held out for two months against the Prussians. (*Hugo, art. Ardennes*, &c.)

MIAKO, a large city, and the ecclesiastical cap. of the Japanese empire, in the island of Niphon, on the Yedo-gawa, 320 m. W. by S. Yedo; lat. 35° 24' N., and long. 139° 30' E. Pop. (according to the Dutch traders, on whom, however, little reliance can be placed,) 600,000, exclusive of the *Dei*, or Mikado's court, supposed somewhat to exceed 50,000. It is situated in a spacious plain, enclosed on all sides by high mountains, and almost entirely formed into fine gardens, interspersed with temples, monasteries, and palaces. It is nearly 4 m. in length, and about 3 m. broad, with narrow but regular streets, lined by houses two stories high, built of wood, lime, and clay, most of them being very slightly and poorly constructed. The sacred Mikado, or supreme emperor, emphatically termed, "the Son of Heaven," has his residence on the N. side of the city, in a quarter

comprising about a dozen streets, and separated from the rest of the buildings by walls and ditches; but, owing to the great diminution of the revenues furnished by the *glogas*, or viceroy (the substantial sovereign), the whole is reported to have a very shabby and dilapidated appearance, little in accordance with the rank of a being more divine than human! On the W. part of the town is another palace, built of stone, and strongly fortified: it belongs to the *glogas*, who resides in it when he comes to pay his respects to the emperor. This practice, however, has long been discontinued, and the building is now used for the accommodation of certain functionaries, sent thither from Yedo to watch the proceedings of the *Dairi*. The members of this court, who view themselves as a species of superior beings to the rest of the Japanese, are chiefly engaged in the study of literature and science, the *Dairi* being, in fact, the highest college in Japan for the cultivation of theology, and various other branches of learning. The almanacks, formerly imported from China, are now constructed, including the calculation of eclipses, in the *Dairi* college; and, at least, $\frac{1}{2}$ of all the works, published in Japan, are produced by the *literati* of Miako, some of whom, however, are connected with other colleges and high schools, wholly independent of the *Dairi*. This city is likewise the principal manufacturing depot of the empire, every kind of handicraft known in Japan being carried to the greatest perfection. Nearly every house has its attached shop well provided with every description of goods, and the Japanese wares, carved ornaments, &c. of Miako, are unequalled either in Japan or China. Miako is one of the places visited by the Dutch traders, when they, once in four years, pay their respects to the *shogun* at Yedo: they usually spend some days here, which are chiefly occupied in making purchases of Japanese manufactures. Various celebrated temples (of which there are many, though not described,) are freely exhibited to them; and in the gardens attached to one of these buildings, tents are pitched for the purpose, not only of giving a sumptuous entertainment to the *Captain Holanda* (as they term the Dutch president of the mission), but also of gratifying the curiosity of the natives with a sight of a few strangers from a distant land. (For further particulars, see JAPAN; see also, *Manners and Customs of the Japanese*, p. 140—157; *Scribner*, I. and II.)

MIAYA, a market-town of N.W. Hungary, co. Neutra, on the Miava, a tributary of the Morava, 48 m. N.N.E. Presburg. Pop. 8,560, mostly of Slavonian origin, and Lutheran. It has manufactures of woollen stuff and bagging, several distilleries, and some trade in hemp and flax.

MICHAEL (ST.), an inconsiderable bor. and market-town of England, co. Cornwall, in para. Newlyn and Roder of hund. Pyder. This, which is said to have been a town of some importance, previously to the Norman conquest, is now like others, the Cornish bor., an inconsiderable village. It returned 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the 6 Edward VI. down to the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised. The market has long been extinct; but sheep fairs are held here July 28. and Oct. 15.

MICHIGAN, one of the U. States of N. America, in the N.W. part of the Union; its territory, consisting of two distinct peninsulas, comprised between lat. $41^{\circ} 30'$ and $47^{\circ} 30'$ N., and long. $82^{\circ} 26'$ and $90^{\circ} 30'$ W. Area, estimated at about 95,500 sq. m.; of which, 89,850 are supposed to be included in the Lower, and 5,650 in the Upper, or N.W. Peninsula. Pop., in 1845, 304,378. The Upper Peninsula is, for the most part, inclosed between Lake Superior to the N., Lake Michigan to the S.E., and the Wisconsin or N.W. territory to the S. and W. Its surface and soil are very various, a considerable portion consisting of sterile sand ridges and marshy tracts; while the other, or hilly tracts, are generally covered with dense pine forests. The whole region is, however, known but imperfectly, being inhabited principally by wild Indians and only occasionally visited by traders in furs and peltry. The climate is severe; little or no corn is grown, and the fur trade and fisheries are at present the only sources of wealth in this part of the state.

The Peninsula-Proper, or Lower Michigan, is enclosed by Lake Michigan on the W., and Lakes Huron, St. Clair, and Erie, and their communicating rivers on the N. and E., and is in a much more advanced state of civilisation than the other. Its shores are in some parts rocky and broken, and along Lake Huron, high and precipitous; but its surface is mostly level, or merely undulating; the central region consists of a table-land little elevated above the level of the surrounding lakes, to which it slopes in every direction. There are many rivers, some of which are navigable for a considerable distance. Grand River, St. Joseph's, and the Saginaw, are the largest: the first two fall into Lake Michigan, and the last into Lake Huron. Small lakes and ponds are also numerous.

The land in the N. is covered with dense forests of pine-trees, &c.; and some parts in the S. are richly wooded. Fewer prairies exist in this than in any other of the N.W. states, and the largest is only a few miles in circuit. They are principally in the W. and S.W., and are divided into the wet and the dry. The dry prairies have a rich soil from 1 to 4 ft. deep, are easily cultivated, and yield abundant crops; the wet afford early pasturage and hay for wintering stock, and with little labour may be converted into excellent artificial meadows. The winters are long, and often severe, but the atmosphere is more humid, and the climate, upon the whole, milder than that of the states more to the E. The soil is very various; but there is a great deal of good land, especially in the S. Nearly all kinds of corn are raised, oats being the most abundant. Turnips and other field vegetables, are a good deal grown. All kinds of garden vegetables, and the fruits of temperate climates, thrive with care; and many flourish wild. Hemp and flax have been recently introduced, and succeed well. Pasturage is good; but the live stock are generally inferior. Horses and mules are less employed than in the states more to the S., oxen being mostly used for field labour. Sheep are few; but hogs are very numerous. Large masses of native copper, lead, iron, bituminous coal, gypsum, &c. are met with, and salt springs are both many and abundant.

The arts and manufactures of Michigan have hitherto been limited, for the most part, to those of prime necessity; both steam and water-mills are, however, now in use. Grinding flour, sawing timber, distilling, carding wool, and making woollen cloth, are the principal branches of manufacturing industry. In summer some trade is carried on from the E. shore of the state with Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York; but for 4 or 5 months of the year the navigation is closed by the ice. A fund for the construction of railroads and canals, and the improvement of river navigation, has been established; and an important railway has been completed, stretching across the S. portion of the state from Detroit to N. Buffalo, at the S.E. extremity of Lake Michigan.

In 1840, Michigan comprised 42 organised counties. The seat of government, formerly at Detroit, was removed to Lansing, Ingham co., in 1847. The legislative authority is vested in a senate of 17 mems. and a H. of Reps. of 52 mems.; the senators being elected every 2 years, and the representatives annually, all the white male citizens above 21 years of age, who have resided in the state for 6 months preceding the election. The executive power is in the hands of a governor and lieutenant-governor, who are chosen by the people, and hold office for 2 years. Justice is administered in a supreme court, a court of chancery, 3 circuit courts, and inferior tribunals, established at the pleasure of the legislature. The judges of the Supreme Court are nominated by the Governor, with the consent of the Senate, and hold office for 7 years. In each of the 3 circuits a judge is held twice a year. The constitution provides that neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall be introduced into the state, except for the punishment of crimes. A university was established at Ann Arbor, in 1827, which, in 1845, had 77 students, in 6 branches. Colleges have also been founded at Marshall and at St. Philip's, near Detroit; and a system for the foundation of primary schools has been adopted by the legislature, though not yet put in operation. In 1838, 21 periodical publications were issued in this state. It sends 1 mem. to congress.

Michigan was discovered and settled by the French, who founded Detroit in 1670. In 1763, this territory, with other possessions conquered from the French, became subject to Great Britain. In 1805, the Lower Peninsula was erected into a territorial government, distinct from the rest of the N.W. territory; and, in 1836, Michigan with its present limits was constituted a state of the Union. (*Blod's Michigan Gazetteer*, 1838; *Blod's Geography of the U. States*; *Darby*; *American Almanack*, 1846, 50, &c.)

MICHIGAN (LAKE), one of the five great lakes of N. America, in the basin of the St. Lawrence, being the third, in point of size, and intermediate, in position between Lakes Superior and Huron, with which last it communicates, at its N. W. extremity, by the Straits of Michilimackinac. Unlike the other great lakes, it is wholly surrounded (except at the above strait) by the territories of the U. States; having N. and E. the state of Michigan, S. Indiana, and W. Illinois and Wisconsin. Its shape is an elongated oval. It is usually laid down as extending between lat. $41^{\circ} 40'$ and $45^{\circ} 10'$ N., and long. $85^{\circ} 10'$ and $87^{\circ} 30'$ W., and is stated by Darby to have a mean length of nearly 300 m., with an average breadth of about 50 m., and an area of 15,000 sq. m. But, according to the more recent statement of Bradford, it "has hitherto been erroneously delineated upon our maps; late surveys having shown that its W. shore extends along the meridian of 89° W. long., thus giving it a width of from 80 to 100 m.; its length is about 360 m., and it has an area of about 26,000 sq. m." (*Encyc. of*

Geog., Amer. edit. iii. 568.) Mr. Stevenson gives it an area of 16,300 sq. m. (*Sketch of Civil Engineering*, p. 53.) Its mean depth is estimated by Darby at 900 ft., or about the same as that of Lakes Superior and Huron; it is elevated 600 ft. above the tide level, being 14 ft. under the level of Lake Superior, and 4 ft. above that of Lake Huron. In general, it is remarkable for the absence of bays, harbours, and islands: on its N.W. side, however, is Green Bay, an inlet of about 25 m. in width, accessible to vessels of 200 tons, near which are the Manitow and Beaver Islands. Lake Michigan receives numerous rivers on every side, but they are not very important. The countries all round the most southerly portion of this lake are rapidly settling; and it has already become the centre of a very extensive commerce, being connected by railway with Lake Erie and New York, on the one hand, and by canal with the Mississippi and New Orleans on the other. The flourishing towns of Milwaukee, Chicago, N. Buffalo, &c. stand on its banks. The waters of this lake are clear and salubrious, and it abounds with fish. It is navigated by vast numbers of large steam-boats, schooners, and brigs. (*Encyc. Americana*; *Darby's Geog. View*, &c.; *Encyc. of Geog.*, Amer. edit.)

MIDDLEBURG, a town of Holland, prov. Zealand, of which it is the cap., nearly the centre of the island, of Walcheren, 4 m. from Flushing and 47 m. S.W. Rotterdam; lat 51° 30' 6" N. long. 3° 37' 30" E. Pop. 16,500. Though no longer fortified, it preserves its circular mound of earth, divided into bastions and surrounded by a broad and deep ditch. The approaches to Middleburg are somewhat more varied than to most Dutch towns, the roads passing through a number of small plantations and country houses. It is nearly circular; some of its streets are wide and handsome, and the whole are tolerably regular. The market-place forms a spacious square; and part of the town is traversed by canals, crossed by draw-bridges. The whole is extremely clean; the private houses are uniform, and some of the public buildings capacious, particularly the town-house and the Oostkerk (east church); the former is in the Gothic style, and has several statues and paintings. The other objects most worthy of notice are several of the churches, a high spire, commanding a prospect over the whole island, the public walks along the bastions, and the Molenwater, an extensive reservoir or backwater. The chief literary institution is the Athenaeum, or academy, which affords nearly the same course of instruction as a university, but without the privilege of conferring degrees. It has also a Latin school; a school of science; the Zealand society of literature, arts, and sciences, which possesses a good library, a collection of medals, &c.; and a society of agriculture.

Middleburg has manufactures of starch, glass, and paper, a cannon foundry, and several saw-mills, and salt refineries. The soil, though 4 m. from the sea, it has a share of considerable extent, and formerly had a considerable share in the Dutch E. India trade. Its other branches of commerce are the importation of wine, chiefly from Bordeaux, and the exportation of corn, brought to its market from the fertile tracts to the eastward of the island. It was the head-quarters of the British army in the unfortunate expedition of 1809. Its atmosphere, like that of the rest of Zealand, is loaded with moisture, which tends to engender agues and bilious complaints, particularly in autumn.

Middleburg is of considerable antiquity, having been first surrounded with walls in 1132. It was taken by the Dutch from the Spaniards in 1574. In 1795 it was ceded to the French, under whom it was the cap. of the dép. Bouches-de-l'Escaut. It sends 8 deputies to the Provincial Assembly of Zealand.

MIDDLESBOROUGH, a river-port, town, and par. of England, N. Riding co. York, hund. Langborough, on the Tees, about 34 m. from its mouth, 16 m. E. by N. Darlington, and 215 m. N. London. Area of par. 2,300 acres. Pop. of township, in 1821, only 40; in 1831, 154; but in 1841 it amounted to 5,463, an increase attributable to the rapid rise of its coal trade, consequent on the opening of the Stockton and Darlington railway from the collieries of S. Durham. It consists of a main street facing the river, and of another wide avenue running at right angles to it, at the corner of which are the commercial hotel and reading-rooms, surmounted by an observatory. There are also several other respectable streets; and on the whole the town is regularly and substantially built, under the superintendence of a joint-stock building company. The church, erected at an expense of 3,500*l.*, raised by subscription, and opened in 1840, is a neat Gothic structure, with a rather elegant spire. A national school has been formed, and the church has likewise a well-attended Sunday school. The Wesleyan Methodists, Baptists, and Primitive Methodists, have also their respective places of worship, with attached Sunday schools, furnishing religious instruction to about 600 children of both sexes.

Middlesborough, the site of which only twenty years ago was occupied by a solitary farm-house, has already become the most considerable port of the Tees, though still regarded as subordinate to Stockton, from which it has taken most part of its coal-trade, and a large portion of its ship-building. Its rapid rise is owing to its convenient position near the bar of the Tees, and the spirited conduct of Messrs. Pease, Backhouse, and other wealthy coal-owners, who, in connection with other shareholders, have built excellent staiths for loading colliers at the wharfs, and constructed a railway leading from it to the important coal-field near Bishop's Auckland, a distance of 23 m. The export of coal from Stockton, being principally from Middlesborough, in 1848, amounted to 566,950 tons, and in 1849 to 402,225 tons. The entire cost of the railway was about 450,000*l.*, and the gross annual income was some time since about 70,000*l.*; the average dividends being about 10*l.* per cent. The staiths, which are 450 yards in length, and worked by two large steam-engines, are capable of shipping 4,000 tons of coal per diem. Docks have been excavated, which comprise a water area of several acres. Steam tug boats are constantly employed in bringing in and taking out vessels over the bar of the river; steamers run twice or three times a week during summer between this port and Sunderland and Newcastle; and there is a weekly steamer to and from London. There are also extensive pottery, and some sail-cloth and rope-manufactures are in active operation. The commerce of Middlesborough, independent of coal, is already important; and its inhabitants have distinguished themselves by their activity and industry. (*Irish Railway Comm. Rep.*; *Str G. Head's Home Tour*; *Granville's Spas of England*; *Priv. Inform.*)

MIDDLESEX, a co. of England, containing the greater part of the metropolis, having E. the river Lea, which divides it from Essex, N. the co. Hertford, W. Buckingham, and S. the Thames, which separates it from Surrey and Kent. It is one of the smallest of the English counties, comprising only 180,480 acres; surface very various. The highest eminences are Hampstead, Highgate, and Harrow-on-the-Hill. In some parts along the Thames there are extensive tracts of rich loam; but the higher grounds are mostly gravelly and clayey, and not naturally fertile. There are numerous unenclosed commons in different parts of the co., and Hounslow Heath, on its S.W. angle, is a poor and unimprovable tract called Common Heath. The climate is temperate, though it has been expected, agriculture is but little advanced in this co.; and, although considerable improvements have been made, the implements and processes of husbandry are still very inferior. But by far the largest portion of the co. is in grass, and the business of haymaking is as well understood here as in any part of the kingdom. The rich tract of land along the Thames from Kensington to Isleworth is principally occupied by market gardeners, who send a large supply of fruits and vegetables to the London market. The cows, which are the supply of London with milk, are all short-horned. Property is very much divided, and in several districts it is mostly partitioned out into villas and pleasure-grounds; farms seldom exceed 900 acres, and their average size is supposed to be about 100. Leases pretty common, and mostly for 14 and 21 years. Average rent of land in 1843, 42*s.* 11*d.* Minerals of no importance: but in the vicinity of London in many places vast quantities of land have been dug up and converted into bricks. Middlesex is well watered; besides the Thames and the Lea, by which it is bounded, it is intersected and partly bound on the W. by the Colne; and it is also intersected by the Brent, and by the Grand Junction Canal, &c. It is divided, exclusive of the metropolis, into 6 hundreds, and 75 parishes. It returns 14 members to the H. of C.,—viz. 2 for the co., 4 for the city of London, 2 for Westminster, 2 for the Tower Hamlets, 2 for Finsbury, and 2 for Mary-le-bone. Registered electors for the co. in 1849-50, 14,129. In 1841, Middlesex had 307,629 inhabited houses, and 1,376,636 inhab.; of whom 734,904 were males, and 687,738 females. Sum expended for the relief of the poor in 1846-47, 620,687*l.*

MIDDLETON, a manufacturing market-town and par. of England, honor of Clitheroe, hund. Salford, co. Lancaster, 5 m. N.N.E. Manchester, and 163 m. N. by W. London. Area of par., 11,510 acres. Pop. of par. (comprising 8 townships) in 1841, 15,488; pop. of township, 7,740. This town, which in 1775 was an inconsiderable village, containing only 800 inhabs., has, owing to the extension of the cotton-trade, become a large place, with several good streets and well-built houses. The church, rebuilt in 1524, has a low tower, partly of wood, and some fine carving and painted windows; the living is a rectory, in the gift of Lord Suffield, the lord of the manor. Within the par. are, also, 3 episcopal chapels, and 7 places of worship for different denominations of dissenters, with 17 attached Sunday schools, furnishing religious instruction to about 2,400 children. A free grammar-school was founded in 1572; and within the last few years, 3 subscription schools have been formed for the education of the children of the working classes.

The principal employments of Middleton are silk and cotton weaving, cotton spinning, calico and silk printing; there are, within the township, about 2,000 silk-weavers, and 1,000 persons employed in the cotton-mills; besides nearly 500 engaged in subordinate trades. The Rochdale Canal, the Manchester and Leeds Railway, and the Bolton Railway pass through the par., and afford the greatest facilities for the conveyance both of passengers and goods. The town is governed by the county and manorial constables; and courts leet and baron are held twice a year. Markets on Saturday, 1st Monday after 10th March, ditto after 15th April, and 2d Thursday after 29th Sept. (*Butterworth's Stat. of Lanc.; Baileys's Lanc.*, &c.)

MIDDLETON, a market-town of Ireland, co. Cork, prov. Munster, at the confluence of the Curra and Lewis rivers, at the N.E. extremity of Cork harbour, 14 m. E. Cork. Pop., in 1841, 4,561. Middleton, so called from being midway between Cork and Youghal, has a par. church, a Rom. Cath. chapel and convent, an endowed grammar-school, and 3 schools partially supported by the commissioners of education, a fever hospital and dispensary, a market-house, court-house, and bridewell. It is built in a very straggling manner, and is neither lighted nor paved; but it contains several respectable dwelling-houses, and good shops: it is increasing, and is generally admitted to be in a thriving condition. It has two extensive distilleries, and a brewery; and it has the advantage of being in the immediate neighbourhood of the harbour of Ballinacurra, where the merchants ship their commodities, especially flour and agricultural produce. (*Mun. Bound. Rep.*) The corporation, consisting of a sovereign, 2 bailiffs, 12 burgesses, and commonalty, returned 3 mems. to the Irish H. of C. till the Union, when it was disfranchised. Quar'cr sessions are held in June and Nov.; and it is a constabulary station. Duty was paid, in 1836, on 96,192 bush. malt, and 697,583 galls. whisky. Markets on Saturday; fairs on the 14th Feb., 14th May, 5th July, 10th Oct., 10th Dec., and 23d Nov. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 2984; in 1836, 4884.

MIDDLEWICH, a market-town and par. of England, bund. Northwich, co. Chester, at the confluence of the Dane and Croke, 18 m. E. Chester, and 151 m. N.W. London. Area of par. (which comprises 14 townships), 13,230 acres; pop. of do., in 1841, 4,758; pop. of township, 1,342. The town, though small, is neat and regularly built, its principal public edifices being a large church, three places of worship for dissenters, and a free school. Middlewich has long been celebrated for its brine springs, the water of which is alleged to yield 4 lbs weight of salt (muriate of soda). The manufacture of salt is hence the chief employment of the inhab.; but some additional advantages have been derived, within the last 30 years, from the introduction of the cotton trade: there is also a silk-mill, which employed, in 1839, about 40 hands.

Middlewich has an extensive internal navigation by means of the Grand-trunk Canal, which passes through the town, and by a branch connecting the town with the Chester Canal. It is distant only 24 m. from the Winsford station, on the Grand Junction Railway, and about 34 m. from the yet unfinished Manchester and Birmingham Railway. Petty sessions are held here for the bund. of Northwich. Markets on Tuesday; cattle fairs, May 1, Holy Thursday, and Aug. 5.

MIDHURST, a par. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Sussex, bund. Eastbourne, and rape Chilchester, near the Arun, 10 m. N. by E. Chilchester, and 46 m. S.W. London. Pop. of par. bor. (which includes the entire par. of Midhurst, Easebourne, Heyshot, Chilchurst, Grafham, Didding, and Cocking, with portions of pars. Steep, Bignor, Wool-Lavington, Bpton, Woodbeding, Lynch, Stedham, Sping, Trotton, Seilham, and Lodsworth), in 1841, 6,578. The town is small, but particularly clean-looking, and has several good detached houses in its immediate neighbourhood. The church is a small stone building, with a square tower surmounted by a diminutive steeple: the living is a curacy in private patronage. A free grammar-school was founded here in 1673, and there is a national and Sunday school for poor children of both sexes. "Midhurst has very little trade, except in corn, large quantities of which are sold at its weekly markets. The surrounding district is entirely agricultural, though formerly iron-works existed within a few miles of it." (*Bound. Rep.*) It is a bor. by prescription, and sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the reign of Edward II. down to 1832, the right of voting being in the holders of burgage tenements. The Reform Act deprived it of one of its mems.; the electoral limits being, at the same time, so much enlarged as to include, in addition to the par. or old bor. of Midhurst, 6 entire pars., and portions of 11 others: as above specified. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 301. Petty sessions are held here for the bund. of Easebourne. Markets on Thursday; cattle fairs 5th of April and 29th of Oct.

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About 4 m. E. of Midhurst, and close to the Arun, are the ruins of Coudry House, formerly the residence of the family of Montague, destroyed by fire, with its costly furniture, pictures, books, &c., on the 24th Sept., 1793; the same day that its noble owner was drowned in an attempt to sail down the Falls of the Rhine at Schaffhausen.

MIDNAPORE, a dist. of British India, presid. Bengal, properly belonging to the prov. Orissa, but which has long been attached to that of Bengal; principally between lat. 21° 40' and 23°, and long. 86° and 88° E.; having N. the Jungle Mehals, E. the Hooghly district, and river, S. Cuttack, and W. some semidaries, tributary to the British. Area, 8,260 sq. m. Pop., in 1822, 1,914,060. Notwithstanding this amount of pop., a considerable portion of the surface consists of jungles, partially inhabited by a very low caste of Hindoos called *sontals*. The land is generally very fertile, and most part of the articles grown in Bengal are cultivated here; the people, however, are poor and depressed, and it is doubtful whether they ever enjoyed a much higher state of prosperity and civilisation than at present. Midnapore has some manufactures of fine calico and gauzes, but of late these have greatly declined. Land revenue, in 1829-30, 1,307,614 rup. Chief towns, Midnapore, Jelloara, and Pipley. Midnapore, the cap. and residence of the Judge, collector, &c., of the district, is in lat. 22° 35' N., long. 87° 25' E. Its chief buildings are the goal, hospital, and barracks. (*Hamilton's E. Ind.*)

MIHIEL (S.T.), a town of France, dép. Meuse, cap. cant., on the Meuse, 20 m. N.E. Bar-le-Duc. Pop., in 1836, 6,706. It was formerly surrounded with walls, but these were demolished in 1635. It is well laid out, and has several remarkable churches, in one of which is a fine piece of sculpture, representing Christ laid in the sepulchre, the work of L. Richier, a pupil of Michael Angelo. It is the seat of the court of primary jurisdiction for the arrond. of Commercy, and of the court of assize for the dept.; and has a college, a city-proper, but but, and manufactures of cotton cloth and yarn. (*Hag. art. Meuse*, &c.)

MILAN (Ital. *Milano*, Germ. *Mailand*, Lat. *Mediolanum*), the principal city of N. Italy, and the cap. of the Austrian dom. S. of the Alps, in a fertile and highly cultivated plain, between the Olona and Lambra, with which rivers it is connected by the *Naviglio Grande* and other canals, 150 m. W. Venice, and 79 m. E.N.E. Turin; lat. 45° 28' 10" N., long. 9° 11' 20" E. Pop., in 1837, 146,800, including only the inhab. of the city-proper, but but, and the immediate suburbs, 171,268; and including the garrison and strangers, about 184,000. (*Bergkand.*) It is nearly circular; and is surrounded, except on the N.W., by a bastioned wall of little strength, and broad ramparts, planted with trees, and about 10 m. in circuit. The area thus enclosed comprises, however, not only the city and its suburbs, but a number of gardens and orchards. The city-proper, or closely peopled part in the centre, is surrounded by a canal nearly 6 m. in circ. Like other old cities, it is irregularly laid out, and most of its streets are narrow and winding; but it has a college, a city-proper, but but, and is generally extremely well paved. Upon the whole, it is one of the finest and most pleasing cities of Europe. "Milan," says Von Raumer, "stands in a sea of green trees, as Venice in a sea of green waters. In the latter city every thing reminds you of the past, as the great and important period; here, on the contrary, the present is full of life, and all that belongs to antiquity is thrown into the background. Every thing reminds one that Milan is a great central point of wealth and activity. No signs of decay, no uncultivated people, unless in the upper classes, where the possession of fortune invites to the *far niente*, which, in Venice, goes hand in hand with wretchedness and want. In Venice, and also in Verona, each house is built according to individual fancy or convenience, and the greatest variety of architecture, and the most wanton deviations from all law, order, or harmony, are seen. In Milan, on the contrary, every building is perfectly symmetrical, and scrupulously kept in repair; and not the least symptom is to be seen of a poor or declining pop., so evident in everywhere the progress of improvement." (*Italy and the Italians*, i. 100.)

The principal public edifice is the cathedral; an immense and imposing Gothic structure, inferior in size only to St. Peter's, Rome, and St. Paul's, London. It stands in the centre of a spacious square, nearly in the middle of the city, and is built wholly of white marble. It was begun by John Galeazzo, 1st Duke of Milan, in 1386; but on so large a scale, that it is not yet quite finished; and, from having been continued by many different architects, of adverse tastes, it has a great admixture of styles. Its principal *facade* has a fine general effect; but it presents the incongruity of Grecian doorways and windows introduced into a Gothic front. The entire building is in the form of a Latin cross; its length internally is 493 ft.; width, 177 ft.; total length of the transept, 283 ft. 10 in.; height of the nave, 151 ft. 11 in.; height to the top of the lantern, 247 ft.; do. to

the top of the spire and statue, 356 ft. There are 53 piers, 56 pinnacles, and, inside and out, no fewer than 4,400 statues. (*Wood's Letters of an Architect*, p. 207.) In fretwork, carving, and statues, it goes beyond all churches in the world, St. Peter's itself not excepted. "Its double aisles, its clustered pillars, its lofty arches, the lustre of its walls, its numberless niches, all filled with marble figures, give it an appearance novel even in Italy, and singularly majestic." (*Classical Tour*, &c., iv. 7, 8.) In this cathedral there is no screen, and the chancel is entirely open, and separated from the nave only by its elevation. Neither are there any chapels, properly so called; and the high altar stands, as in the Roman *Basilica*, and, indeed, in all ancient churches, before the choir, and between the clergy and the people. The pillars, or rather clusters of pillars, which support the vault, though above 90 ft. in height, are only 8 ft. in diameter, from which comparative thinness they scarcely conceal any part of the interior from the eye. The pavement is of different coloured marbles, disposed in various figures. The dome is surmounted by a tower and obelisk, which last was erected about the middle of the 18th century, adding, however, little to the beauty or magnificence of the edifice. On the top is the figure of the Virgin, to whom the church is dedicated. In a subterranean chapel immediately beneath the dome is the shrine, enclosing the remains of St. Charles Borromeo, archbishop of Milan in the 16th century, to which numerous pilgrims resort. On the whole, however, the cathedral is, both internally and externally, overlaid with ornaments; and there can be no doubt that the removal of 3,000 or 3,000 of its statues would be a signal improvement; but, with all its faults, it is certainly the finest Gothic edifice in Italy; and, in the opinion of some travellers, the finest church after St. Peter's.

Several other churches in Milan are worthy of notice. The first is that of St. Ambrose, the scene of many ecclesiastical councils and civil conflicts, and in which the German emperors usually received the Lombard crown. It is of high antiquity, and the remains of the original edifice, erected by St. Ambrose towards the end of the 4th century, may form part of the modern building; but the bronze doors, and the court in front, surrounded by arcades, are acknowledged to belong to the 9th century; and the most ancient part of the building, having any character of architecture, appears to be of the same period. This church is divided by arcades into a nave and two aisles, and vaulted in nearly the same manner as the church of the Carthusians at Rome (the great hall of Diocletian's baths). Among its curiosities are the tombs of St. Ambrose and other saints, some Greek mosaics, old paintings in stucco, sarcophagi of considerable antiquity, and a large brazen serpent, said to be that fabricated by Moses in the wilderness! The churches of St. Victor, St. Mark, San Celso, St. Eustorgio, the Madonna della Grazie, &c., are among the handsomest or most remarkable in Milan, and some of them are adorned with rare works of art. Eustace, however, notwithstanding his disposition to eulogise, says that many of the churches "lose much of their majesty, and even of their beauty, by the profusion of rich and splendid decorations that encumber them. The materials of all are costly, the arrangement of most is tasteless; yet there are few which do not present some object of curiosity worthy of a visit." (*Classical Tour*, iv. 27.) The steeple of St. Gotthard is a curious specimen of the architecture of the 14th century.

In the old Dominican convent is the famous *Cenacolo*, or "Last Supper," by Da Vinci. This magnificent work has suffered severely from damp and age, and, also, as is alleged, through the antoniness of the French soldiers and prisoners when they were quartered in the building. But what better could be expected from common soldiers, when a superior of the convent did not hesitate to cut away the feet of the principal figure, that a doorway might be lightened! It occupies one side of the refectory, and is about 30 ft. in length, by 15 in height. It has been so often repaired and retouched, that it is now nearly in the condition of Sir John Culler's silk stockings: three of the apostles' heads are said to be all that remains of the original work, and even they owe their colouring to the pencil of restorers. Morghen's admirable engraving gives now, perhaps, the best idea of the picture and of the genius of the painter. On the wall opposite the "Last Supper" is a fresco, by Mototarra, an artist of the 16th century; more curious on account of its age, than remarkable for beauty.

The Royal Palace (*Palazzo del Corte*), now the residence of the viceroy of Austrian Italy, a noble structure fronting the square of the cathedral, was erected by the French on the site of the old Sforza palace. It has numerous spacious apartments, and some admirable frescoes by Apolloni. The floors are beautifully inlaid, and some of the rooms are hung with Gobelin tapestry; but the magnificent paintings, representing the exploits of Napoleon, that formerly decorated the two large saloons, have been removed. The government, judicial, and

archiepiscopal palaces, the city-hall or mansion-house, the mint, and the custom-house and treasury, are among the other principal edifices. The large hospital (*Ospedale Grande*), is of much greater extent than Bethlehem Hospital in London; being about 890 ft. in length, by 360 ft. in depth, and inclosing several open courts. It is not remarkable for its architecture, but is under excellent regulations. It was founded by Francis Sforza in the 15th century, and was left by one individual 4,000,000 livres (about 150,000*l.*), and by another three fourths of that amount. It is open to all applicants, whatever their country, religion, or disorder: attached to it is a dispensary, whence medicines are distributed to the poor gratis, on the specification of any physician. The most extensive building in Milan is, however, the Lazaretto, beyond the walls, also founded in the 15th century, for those infected with the plague. It consists of four ranges of building, about 1,300 ft. each in length, inclosing an area of more than 30 acres. The city abounds in charitable institutions, including several other hospitals, four asylums for poor children, two workhouses, a government loan-bank, in a magnificent edifice built in 1496, &c. (*Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.*)

One of the principal attractions of Milan, especially to strangers, is the famous *Teatro della Scala*. This, which is the largest theatre in the Austrian empire, and, next to San Carlo at Naples, the largest in Italy, has 6 tiers of boxes, exclusive of the pit, which accommodates 800 visitors! Simond gives the following account of his visit to this theatre. "The house, which is certainly very fine, exceeds perhaps any in Paris or London, and the full band in the orchestra filled it well. Soon, however, the flapping of doors, incessantly opening and shutting, the walking to and fro over that part of the pit which is without seats, and, above all, the universal chattering, overpowered the music. Disappointed in our expectations of hearing this, and finding our attention to what was passing on the stage altogether fruitless, we turned to the spectators, and observed that the boxes, which are little more than very neatly fitted up sheds, by the green, filled with company, and the lights in some of them (for there were none in the house except the row of lamps on the stage) enabled us to see the people receiving company, taking refreshments, gesticulating in earnest conversation, and laughing. In those boxes where there were no lights, the company remained invisible, and a sort of *chiaro-scuro* pervaded the fore part of the house. But, when the ballet began, the general hubbub at once ceased, and heads suddenly popped out, cards and conversation being suspended to look at the dancing. This though much inferior to that of Paris or London, evidently possessed attractions superior to those of music, which was no sooner resumed, after the ballet, than the noise began again as before. A box at the opera, holding 6 persons, of whom 4 only can see, costs 11 francs; and 3 additional francs are paid by each person for his ticket of admission." (*Travels*, p. 17, 18.) There are 8 other theatres, 2 of which are open for performances in the day-time.

Milan contains many spacious and extensive barracks, nearly all of which are in the W. suburbs. The largest, or *Caserna Grande*, occupies an area of about 900 ft. in length, by 700 ft. in width, having in front, and on either side the Foro (*Foro Bonaparte*), an esplanade, planted with trees, and laid out in elegant public walks. Behind the Caserna is a large open space, called the Place of Arms (*Piazza d'Armi*), from which the Simpson road opens by the *Arco della Pace*, one of the finest monuments erected in modern times. This arch, commenced in 1807 and finished in 1837, designed and principally completed by the Marquis Cagnola, is altogether of marble, richly adorned with statues and bas-reliefs. It is nearly 73 ft. in length, 43 ft. in depth, and 74 ft. in height; but to the summit of the principal statue is 98 ft. Four fluted Corinthian columns decorate either front; and on the top a bronze herald of victory stands at each angle; and facing the city is a colossal bronze statue of Peace, in a car drawn by 6 horses. On another side of the *Piazza d'Armi* is the amphitheatre, built by the French in 1806, a poor imitation of the antique structures of the same kind. It is nearly 300 yards in length, by 169 in breadth, and is capable of accommodating 20,000 spectators. It may be made an amphitheatre, a circus, or a *maschietto*, "for charioteers to drive, and athletes to wrestle, and a navy to give battle on an ocean 4 ft. deep; for the area could be laid under water at pleasure. The walls of this counterfeit of Roman work are scarcely 25 ft. high; and their thin facing of stone, already giving way, shows the rubbish underneath. But the palace annexed to this circus is adorned with columns of red granite, of great size, and each made of a single block. It is, in every respect, as beautiful as the rest is paltry and contemptible." (*Simond*, p. 19.)

The private palaces of Milan have received little notice from travellers, but some have considerable elegance, as the Palazzo Belgioioso, formerly the villa of Napoleon, and afterwards the residence of Prince Eugene Beau-

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harbours, the Serbelloni, Vittli, Marino, and Visconti palaces, &c. Besides the *Arco della Pace*, the city is entered by 10 gates, of which the Porta Orientale is the richest and most remarkable.

Milan, though less striking in its general appearance than Turin or Genoa, is much richer in objects of varied interest, art, and science. The Ambrosian Library, founded in 1609 by Card. F. Borromeo, consists, according to the Austrian Encycl., of 95,000 printed vols. and 15,000 MSS. Many of the latter are highly valuable, including the note-book of Leonardo da Vinci, some MSS. supposed to date as far back as the 4th century, containing fragments of Cicero's lost orations discovered by Mail. Attached to the library is a hall of painting, with several fine works by Titian, Da Vinci, Luni, Albano, &c., and sketches by Raphael, Pietro da Cortona, Carravaggio, &c. The *Brera*, formerly the principal establishment of the *Univ. Hassli*, is now converted to the use of the Royal Academy of Arts and Sciences. It has a noble collection of pictures by almost all the first and second-rate masters of Italy, collections of casts and engravings, rooms for the exhibition of the produce of the useful arts, a well-furnished observatory, a good library, and a botanic garden. Many of the private collections in art and literature are excellent; in the Trivulzio palace is a library of 30,000 printed vols. and many MSS., a considerable collection of coins, and many curious relics of antiquity.

Milan is the seat of government for Austrian Italy, and of the provincial assembly, the court of appeal, and high criminal court of Lombardy. It is the residence of a delegate, and an archbishop's see; and has 2 lycæums, 6 gymnasia, a teachers' seminary, a high female school, many primary schools, a deaf and dumb school, colleges of medicine, midwifery, veterinary surgery, and architecture, a military geographical institute, various societies of literature, agriculture, &c.; and a tribuna of commerce.

This city is the centre and most important emporium of the silk trade of Lombardy. Not only do the transactions of the Lombardo-Venetian provinces in silk centre here, but many of the neighbouring states either sell their silk in Milan, or remit it thither in transit to foreign countries; and this is the case, not for raw silk alone, but also for organzine and tram. English houses, in particular, frequently make their advances at Milan to the consignees of silk. The spinning and throwing of silk is also extensively carried on in the city and its immediate neighbourhood, and many of its throwing-mills have steam-engines. (*Bouring's Reports*.) Velvets, silks, ribands, lace, cotton stuffs, carpets, artificial flowers, paper, goldsmiths' wares, glass, felt hats, leather, earthenware, chocolate, &c., are exclusively made in Milan, and it has a royal tobacco manufactory. In addition to silk, Milan has an extensive commerce in rice and Parmesan cheese, and is, next to Venice, the largest book mart in Italy. As a place of residence, it has the advantages of cheap and plentiful provisions, every facility for study and amusement, a well-regulated police, and polite society. Among its drawbacks, are the heats of summer, and the fogs of the autumn; the climate is, however, considered healthy.

Mediolanum, supposed to have been founded by the Insubrian Gauls, was annexed to the Roman dominions by Scipio Nasica, anno 191 a.o. In the 4th century, it held the rank of the sixth city in the Roman empire; and is one of the few, in Italy, which have survived the devastations of the Middle Ages, and brought down its celebrity to modern times. It retains, however, but few antiquities; the only good specimen of ancient Roman architecture remaining being a range of 16 beautiful Corinthian columns, with their architrave, before the church of San Lorenzo. In the 12th century, Milan was the capital of a republic, and it subsequently became the capital of a duchy, in the families of Visconti and Sforza. After the battle of Pavla it was held by Spain, until, in 1714, it was ceded to Austria. The French took it in 1796, and again in 1806, after the battle of Marengo. Under their government it was at first the capital of the Cisalpine republic, and, from 1805 to 1814, it was the capital of the kingdom of Italy. Milan has given birth to many distinguished individuals, among whom may be specified the illustrious painter Leonardo da Vinci; the mathematician Cavalieri; Beccaria, the author of the celebrated treatise on Crimes and Punishments; Signora Agnesi, famous for her mathematical and scientific attainments; the poets Parini and Manzoni, &c. There appears to be no foundation for the statement that Valerius Maximus was a native of Milan. (*Encyclopædia*; *Classical Tour*, iv. 1-36; *Simond's Travels in Italy*, 3-22; *Wood's Letters of an Architect*, 205-231.; *Forryth*; *Von Raumer, Italy and the Italians*, i. 100-123; *Cramer's Anc. Italy*, i. 51, 52.; *Berghaus's Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.*, &c.)

MILAZZO, or MELAZZO (an. *Myla*), a fortified sea-port town on the N. coast of Sicily, intend. of Mes-

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sina, cap. canton, on the E. side of an elevated narrow promontory, at the bottom of a bay 25 m. W. by S. the Faro point of Sicily; lat. of lighthouse 36° 16' 58" N., long. 15° 14' 10" E. Pop., in 1831, 9,308. It is divided into the upper and lower towns, both of which are irregularly built; and though it has a number of large edifices, none of them are remarkable. "The churches, with the exception of that of St. Francis, are generally mean, and the convents poor and dirty; the prison is a filthy sink; the public hospital is badly provided; and the *monne-di-pieta* languishes in bad hands." (*Smyth's Sicily*, p. 103.) The town is principally distinguished by its fortifications; being so strong, by nature and art, that it may be regarded as the Gibraltar of Sicily. Besides subordinate fortifications, it has a citadel on the highest point of the promontory, 320 ft. above the sea, commanding the town and the port. Beneath it is a spacious grotto, called the Cave of Ulysses. The promontory is bounded on all sides by steep rocks, inaccessible from the sea; and might, according to Capt. Smyth, be easily rendered impregnable. In the lower town is the fountain of Mylas, one of those alluded to by Pliny (*Hist. Nat.*, lib. xxii. cap. 4.) as existing in this part of Sicily, the waters of which (in consequence, perhaps, of the melting of snow) are most abundant in summer.

Milazzo is the residence of a military commandant. Its inhab. are chiefly in the tunny fishery, and in the export of wine, silk, fruit, rags, soap, white and red argols, corn, olive and linseed oils, and *vinco olio*; the last is a cordial made by boiling must with potash. Its trade is principally with Marseilles, Leghorn, and Genoa. Its bay is large and the water deep. Ships may anchor abreast of the town in from 10 to 35 fathoms stiff mud, about 4 m. from the shore.

The Gulph of Milazzo (an. *Basilicus Sinus*), between the peninsula on which the town stands and Cape Rascacchio, has been the theatre of some important naval conflicts. The first of these occurred anno 261 a.c., when the consul Duillius defeated a Carthaginian fleet, and showed his countrymen how to conquer by sea as well as by land. Another and far more important contest, which influenced, indeed, in no small degree, the fate of the Roman world, took place in this gulph anno 31 a.c., when the fleet of the younger Pompey was entirely defeated, and all but destroyed, by Octavius Cæsar, or rather by his general, Agrippa. (*Ancient Universal History*, xlii. 469. 6vo. ed., and the authorities there referred to.) A third action took place here in 880, between the fleet of the Saracens and that of the Greek emperor Basilus.

MILBORNE-PORT, a decayed bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Somerset, hund. Horethorne, on the Ivel, 26 m. E. by S. Taunton, and 106 m. W.S.W. London. Area of par. 2,150 acres. Pop., in 1831, 2,073. The town, though considerably enlarged and improved within the last few years, is very irregularly built, consisting chiefly of detached houses, and having the appearance of several villages. An ancient gildhall stands in the High Street, near it is the market-house, now converted into warehouses. The church, an ancient cruciform structure, is surmounted by a massive square tower, supported by two pointed and two semicircular arches; the living is a vicarage, in the gift of the Marquis of Anglesey. The Wesleyan Methodists and Baptists have likewise their respective places of worship, with attached Sunday-schools. Milborne-port had formerly considerable manufactures of dowlas, ticking, and sail-cloth, but they have long ceased to exist. The glove trade, however, was introduced here from Yeovil about 25 years ago; and it is stated in *Hull's History of the Glove Trade*, published in 1834 (p. 74.), that about 25,000 dozen pairs were then annually produced; and that great efforts had been made by several intelligent and persevering manufacturers to equal the French in this department, and that in some kinds of gloves they had succeeded. The market is diseased; but fairs are held for cattle and pedlary June 8. and Oct. 25.

Milborne-port, which, at the time of the Norman conquest, had a market and 56 burgesses, is a bor. by prescription, and sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. with some interruption, from the reign of Edward I. down to the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised. It had been for a lengthened period a mere nomination bor.

MILDENHALL, a market-town and par. of England, hund. Lackford, co. Suffolk, on the Lark, 33 m. N.W. Ipswich, and 63 m. N.N.E. London. Area of par. 12,710 acres. Pop., in 1831, 3,267. The town is of considerable extent, and well built, consisting of several detached streets, or *rows*, that form, as it were, a series of little villages. The church is a large and handsome structure, with a rich carved roof and lofty tower; the living is a vicarage, in the gift of Sir H. Bunbury, the chief landowner of the par. The inhab. with the exception of a few retail traders, are chiefly engaged in agricultural pursuits. Petty sessions for the hund. are held here. Markets on Friday; fair for wool, Oct. 10.

MILETUS, (Gr. *Μίλητος*), a once famous but now ruined city of Asia Minor, the cap. of Ionia, near the mouth of the Mæander (hod. Menderes), 65 m. S. Smyrna. This is a very ancient city, and had borne several names before it received that of Miletus, given to it by Neleus, son of Codrus, king of Athens, who conducted thither a colony of Ionians, anno 1120 B.C. Few cities have been more celebrated for their population, wealth, commerce, and civilisation. The citizens of Miletus early distinguished themselves by their skill in navigation, and still more by the number of the colonies they established along the coast of the Hellespont, the Propontis, and the Euxine; which enabled them to engross the greater part of the trade in slaves, which, in antiquity, were principally furnished by the country round the Euxine, as well as the trade in corn, fish, and furs. She was also famous for her numerous works of art, the magnificence of her festivals, and the luxury, refinement, and opulence of her people. Among her most illustrious citizens were the venerated names of Thales, one of the sages of Greece; Hecataeus, one of the great ancient historians; the philosophers Anaximander and Anaximenes; Cadmus, the first who wrote in prose, and Timotheus, a famous musician and poet.* She also gave birth to Aspasia, the most accomplished and celebrated of courtesans; and Venus had nowhere more numerous and beautiful priestesses. Miletus was, in fact, the Athens of Ionia, *verum quondam Ionia totius belli pacisque artibus principem*. (Mela, lib. i. cap. 17.)

Near the *Ποσειδώνιον Προνόμιον* (hod. Cape Arhora), about 12 m. S. by W. Miletus, was an oracle and splendid temple of Apollo, surnamed Didymæus. This temple having been burnt down by Xerxes, was rebuilt on a still more magnificent scale, by the Milesians. Part of the ruins yet remain; and "the columns are so exquisitely fine, the marble mass so vast and noble, that it is impossible, perhaps, to imagine greater beauty and majesty of ruin." (Chandler.) Miletus had also within her territory, Mount Latmos, famous for the loves of Eryndion and Diotis; and Mount Mætilis, so called from the unhappy sister of Apollo, who here expired of love and grief. (*Quidam Mætil. lib. ix. lin. 454, &c.*)

But *quantum mutatus!* Miletus is now a mean deserted place, which still, however, bears the name of Palat, or Palatia, the *Palaces*. The principal existing memorial of her ancient grandeur is a ruined theatre, which must, when entire, have been a magnificent structure. It is 457 ft. in front, and is visible at a great distance. The site of the ancient city is encumbered with heaps of rubbish, and overrun with thickets, interspersed with fragments of walls, broken arches, fallen columns, and pedestals. It is evident, from the remains of a number of mosques, that Mohammedanism had once flourished here; but, with a single exception, the ruins seem to have belonged to mean and paltry structures.

In antiquity, Miletus underwent many vicissitudes. Having joined in the revolt of the Ionian cities, she was besieged and taken by the Persians, in the reign of Darius Hystaspes, anno 493 B.C., when the inhab. were obliged to evacuate the city, and to retire towards the Taurus. But being afterwards allowed to return, Miletus again rose to great wealth and distinction. She opposed a vigorous resistance to Alexander the Great; but, instead of punishing, the conqueror magnanimously restored the city to her ancient freedom. She appears to have been indulgently treated by the Romans; and continued to be a considerable city, till she fell, in an evil hour, under the ferocious and brutal sway of the Turks, who first sacked, and subsequently destroyed, this ancient glory of Ionia! To complete her misfortune, her port is now almost filled up.

The government of Miletus, and of the other cities of Ionia, was usually popular and republican; but, like their mother cities, they were distracted by faction, and frequently subjected to oligarchs or tyrants. Of the Milesian tyrants, the most celebrated was Thrasylbulus, whose answer to the inquiry of Periander of Corinth may be seen in *Aristotle's Politics*, lib. iii. cap. 10.

Miletus and the principal states of Ionia, including the islands of Chios and Samos, being connected by the ties of a common origin and interest, were in the habit of sending deputies to a general council or assembly, to debate and determine upon measures for promoting their union and security. This council met at Panionium, so called from the circumstance, on the N. side of Mount Mycale, opposite Samos, about midway between Ephesus and Miletus; the place was regarded as sacred, and was put under the especial protection of Neptune, the chosen guardian and favourite divinity of the Ionians. (*Id est Panionium, sacra, &c. ubi id eo nomine appellata, quod eam communiter Iones colunt.* — Mela, ubi supra; see also Pliney, *Hist. Nat.* lib. v. cap. 19.; and Herodotus, lib. i. cap. 148.)

* This Timotheus must not be confounded with his namesake whom music embellished the *Great Greece*; the Great Greece whose wonderful powers are the subject of Dryden's noble ode. The latter belonged to Thales. (*Biographie Universelle*, art. *Timothee*.)

Thales, who saw that, without a more intimate union, the Ionians could make no effectual resistance to foreign aggression, advised his countrymen to establish a really federal system of government, and to concert and execute their public measures in common. (*Herod. lib. i. cap. 170.*) But this judicious advice was not acted upon; and it was only on urgent occasions, such as the invasion of Ionia by the Persians, that a sense of common interest and danger prevailed over their mutual jealousies and antipathies, and made any considerable number of the cities act in union.

Most commonly the debates and decrees of the assembled deputies seem to have referred only to matters connected with religion, precedence, or ceremony. This appears evident from the circumstance of the deputies meeting at Panionium, when the Ionian cities were subject to the Persians and others, as well as when they were independent. (For farther information as to Miletus, see *Herodotus*, lib. i. caps. 142, 143, 148, &c., and lib. vi. caps. 18. and 31.; *Strabo*, lib. xiv.; *Cassander's Travels in Asia Minor*, caps. 42, 43, and 45.; *St. Croix, de l'Etat et du Sort des Anciennes Colonies*, pp. 222—229, &c.)

MILFORD HAVEN is an extensive basin, or inlet of the sea, deeply indenting the S. part of the co. Pembroke, in S. Wales, and forming one of the most capacious and safest asylums for shipping in the British dominions. St. Anne's Head, forming the N.W. extremity of the entrance to the Haven, lat. 51° 41' N., long. 5° 10' 20" W., is 145 ft. in height, and is surmounted by two light-houses, with fixed lights, respectively 15 and 45 ft. in height. The entrance is about 1½ m. in width; what may be called the Haven is from 10 to 11 m. in depth; but it branches out into an immense number of deep bays, creeks, and roads. The water is deep; and being completely land-locked, and the anchorage-ground of the very best description, ships ride within the Haven as safely as if they were in dock. At springs the tides rise from 25 to 30 ft., affording unusual facilities for the repair of ships, enabling them to get to sea with comparative little difficulty, and to sail even though the wind should be contrary. It may be entered without a pilot as well by night as by day.

MILFORD TOWN, on the N. side of the basin, 6 m. W. by N. St. Anne's Head, was founded in 1784. It is finely situated; is especially remarkable for the mildness of its climate, and has some good buildings, including a handsome church. A dockyard constructed here in 1790 has, however, been removed to Pater-Dock, on the S. side of the haven, and the town has not increased in the degree that was anticipated. It is probable, too, that the advantage of having the rendezvous for the fleets in stations better adapted for watching the coasts of France will always prevent Milford, or any other port on the haven, from attaining that importance as a naval dépôt which the excellence of the haven might seem to insure; while the barrenness of the surrounding country, and the want of all internal communication with any considerable manufacturing district, have prevented, and most likely will continue to prevent, any of the places of the coast from becoming of great consequence in a commercial point of view. The mail-packets for Waterford sail from Pater. (*Stat. of the Brit. Empire*, l. 61.; *Nicholson's Cambrian Guide*, p. 425.)

MILHAU (an. *Emilianum*), a town of France, dép. Aveyron, cap. arrond., on the Tarn, 30 m. S.E. Rodez. Pop. in 1836, 9,437. It is generally well built, and its streets, though narrow, are regular. It has several squares and public fountains, and a good bridge over the Tarn. Few vestiges exist of its ancient castle and walls; the latter were demolished by Louis XIII. in 1629, after which, says Hugo, *La ville cessa de s'occuper des affaires politiques ou religieuses, et tourna tous ses efforts vers le commerce et l'industrie, qui en ont fait la ville la plus riche et la plus peuplée du département*. It produces woollen cloth, leather and leather gloves, silk twist; and has a considerable trade in cheese, timber, cattle, wool, almonds, wine, and other agricultural products. It is the seat of a court of primary jurisdiction, a tribunal and a chamber of commerce, a communal college, society of agriculture, &c.: it was one of the strongest holds of the Calvinists in the French religious wars.

MILLEDGEVILLE, a town of the U. S. of N. America, state Georgia, of which it is the cap. and seat of government, on the Oconee, at the head of the steamboat navigation. Lat. 33° 0' N., long. 83° 40' W. Pop. between 3,000 and 3,000. Its state-house, penitentiary, and arsenal, are large and conspicuous buildings; and it has several churches, academies, and printing-offices. It is a place of deposit for cotton, and has some trade; but in this respect it has been in a great measure superseded by Macon, a village about 30 m. S.W. (*Encyc. Americana*, &c.)

MILO (an. *Melos*), an island of the Archipelago, belonging to Greece, in the group of the central Cyclades, the summit of Mount St. Elias; in its S.W. angle, 1,086 ft. above the sea, being in lat. 36° 40' 29" N., long. 24° 28' 14"

E Pop. 2,500.† This island is said by Pfiny to be circular (*Osmum rotundissimum*, lib. iv. cap. 12.); but it is really of an oblong shape, being about 13 m. in length from E. to W., and where broadest about 7 m. across: it is indented on its N. side by a spacious bay, stretching N. W. and S. E. about 6 m., which has deep water throughout, and forms one of the best asylums for shipping in the Levant. This island is obviously of volcanic origin: Mount Calano, indeed, is at this moment a semi-active volcano, emitting smoke and sulphureous vapours; in many places the earth is hot, and there are numerous hot springs, one of which, in a natural grotto, is used by the natives as a sudatory. It also furnishes abundant supplies of iron, alum, sulphur, and salt.

A considerable portion of the surface is rugged and mountainous, and has a naked and sterile appearance; but the valleys and low grounds are extremely fertile, such small portions of them as are cultivated producing corn, wine, oil, cotton, oranges, and other fruits in the greatest profusion. In point of fact, however, Milo is now almost depopulated, and nearly a desert; a result that is partly to be ascribed to the ravages of the plague, the badness of the water, which is generally brackish, and the prevalence of malaria; but far more to the influence of that brutalising despotism under which it has groined for centuries. Milo, the capital, situated near the bottom of the bay, is rendered unhealthy from the vicinity of salt marshes, and is an inconsiderable, wretched place.

Castro, another town, near the entrance to the harbour, on its E. side, is built on the summit of a conical hill, the houses appearing to rise above the roofs of each other. A little to the S.W. of Castro, near the shore, are the ruins of the ancient city. The remains of a theatre, built of large masses of the finest marble, and fragments of solid walls have been discovered. In the vicinity are numerous catacombs, cut in the porous rock. (*Tournefort, Voyage du Levant*, lettre iv.: *Olivier, Empire Othomane*, II. cap. 8.; *Tournefort, Tour in the Levant*; *Perry's Sailing Directions for the Gulph of Venice*, &c., p. 97.)

Such is the present state of this once famous island. Melos is said by Thucydides to have been independent 700 years before the Peloponnesian war. The most probable opinion seems to be that the Melians were descended from the Lacedæmonians; but, however that may be, they declined taking any share in that contest, and though pressed by the Athenians to espouse their cause, declared their neutrality. Thucydides, however, having the command of the sea, determined to coerce the Melians into submission to their mandates; and though the first expedition sent against them failed of its object, the second was more successful. Thucydides gives the substance of the speeches made by the Athenian commanders to the Melians previously to their commencing hostilities; and on no occasion has the robber's plea, that whatever the powerful may please to command, the weaker are bound to obey, been more broadly and unequivocally asserted. The sequel of their conduct was worthy of the principle thus laid down; for the Melians having, after a stout resistance, surrendered at discretion, the Athenians put all the full-grown males to the sword, and carried the women and children to Attica, where they were sold as slaves! This detestable atrocity was perpetrated shortly before the Athenians engaged in their expedition against Syracuse; and is related by Thucydides, without note or comment, as if it had been a legitimate and ordinary occurrence! (*Thucyd. lib. vi. ad finem*.) The fortune of war having, however, soon after turned against the Athenians, the captive Melians were restored to their native country; and the island continued to be comparatively prosperous till, after innumerable vicissitudes, it was seized upon by the Turks, under whom it has been reduced to the abject state in which we now find it. It seems to have retrograded materially between the visit of Tournefort, in 1700, and that of Olivier, at the end of the century. It is now, however, included in the kingdom of Greece, and will, most probably, recover some portion of its former prosperity.

MILTON, or MILTON-ROYAL, a fishing town and par. of England, lathe Scray, co. Kent, hund. its own name, 11 m. N.E. Maidstone, and 36 m. E. by S. London. Area of par., 2,340 acres. Pop., in 1841, 5,588. The town, on the declivity of a hill sloping down to a creek which opens into the channel between the Isle of Sheppey and the coast of Kent, is old and irregularly built. It has a market-house and shambles near its centre; and at its N. end is an old court-house. The church, which stands at a considerable distance from the present town, is a spacious fabric, with a square tower of flint stone laid in even rows. The living is a rectory, in the gift of the dean and chapter of Canterbury. There are places of worship, also, for Wesleyan Methodists and Baptists, with attached Sunday schools; a free school was founded in 1718.

Milton has, for many centuries, almost entirely de-

pended on its oyster fisheries, the produce of which is highly esteemed, and distinguished as the "Milton natives." The right of the fishery, within certain limits, formerly belonging to the abbey of Faversham, and afterwards to the crown, is now held on lease from the lord of the manor by a company of free dredgers, composed of the principal fishermen of the town; and in 1851 there were 119 families immediately dependent on the trade in oysters, which is principally carried on with the metropolis. The town has four wharfs; and besides oysters, considerable quantities of corn and farm produce are shipped for the London market. Both the town and port are under the jurisdiction of a portreeve, elected annually by the inhabs, paying poor's rates.

Milton disputes with Richborough the honour of having furnished the Roman epicures with the oysters alluded to by Juvenal:—

"Retraqueve edita funde
Ostræ." *Sat. iv. 141.*

MILVERTON, a market-town and par. of England, co. Somerset, hund. its own name, ¼ m. W. Taunton, and 12½ m. W.S.W. London. Area of par., 6,400 acres. Pop., in 1841, 2,184. The town, situated in a rich and well-cultivated country, is small and ancient, consisting chiefly of three irregular streets, with the church, a large building, standing on an eminence in the centre. An extensive manufacture of serges and flannels is carried on here; and there is a silk-mill, which, in 1850, employed 54 hands. Milverton was formerly a bor., and is still governed by a portreeve, appointed by the lord of the manor. Petty sessions for the hund. are held here. Markets on Friday; cattle fairs, Easter Tuesday, July 25. and Oct. 16.

MINCHIN-HAMPTON, a market-town and par. of England, co. Gloucester, hund. Longtree, 12 m. S. by E. Gloucester, and 39 m. W. by N. London. Area of par., 4,380 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,360. The town, on the W. escarpment of the Cotswold hills, consists of a long irregular street, extending N. to S. along the road from Gloucester to Chippenham, and crossed by another leading to the par. church, near the market-house. The church is a large cruciform structure, surmounted by an octagonal embattled tower, rising from the intersection of the nave and transepts; the living is a rectory in private patronage. The Wesleyan Methodists and Baptists have also their respective places of worship, with attached Sunday schools; and there is a well-attended national school, for children of both sexes, besides a respectably endowed grammar-school. Minchin-Hampton, which is only 4 m. S.E. of Stroud, the centre of one of the largest clothing districts of the co., has numerous cloth-factories on the banks of the numerous brooks in the vicinity; and in 1850 it had 12 woollen-mills, furnishing employment to 785 hands. Nearly 100 hands were then, also, engaged in hand-loom weaving. Trade, however, has for some years been on the decline, and its fluctuations have caused great distress among the weaving pop.: the average earnings of each family when in full work amount to 10s. per week, of which 6s. 10d. may be assumed as the produce of hand-loom labour. Markets on Tuesday: fairs for cattle, horses, and cheese, Trinity-Monday and Oct. 29. *See* STRAUND. (*Hand-loom Weavers' Reg.*, &c.)

MINCIO (an. *Mincius*), a considerable river of N. Italy, which has its source in the Lago di Garda; and which, flowing S., with many windings, by Mantua, unites with the Po 13 m. S.E. that city. In the upper part of its course, till it approaches Mantua, it is rather rapid; but from Mantua to the Po it has a sluggish current, and is navigated by the boats that ply on the latter. Virgil, who first saw the light on the banks of this river, has celebrated its praises:—

"tardis ingens ubi fluctibus æret
Mincius, et temera præteritis arundine ripas."
Georg., lib. III. lin. 14.

MINDEN, a strongly fortified town of the Prussian states, prov. Westphalia, cap. reg. of its own name, on the Weser, here crossed by a bridge 600 ft. in length, near the Hanoverian frontier, 60 m. N.E. Münster, lat. 52° 17' 47" N. long. 9° 53' 36" E. Pop. (1846) 9,808. It is irregularly built, and has no remarkable edifices, except a handsome cathedral, and new and good barracks. Minden has a gymnasium or college, a normal school, an orphan asylum, 4 hospitals, and other public institutions, and is the seat of a court of justice for the town and district, and of a board of taxation; but the court of appeal for the regency is at Paderborn. Manufactures considerable: consisting of woollens, stuffs, linen, hosiery, hats, gloves, tobacco, soap, refined sugar, &c. A number of saw-mills are employed in the preparation of the wood brought down the Weser, and it enjoys a considerable share of the transit trade on this river between Bremen and Prussian Westphalia, Hesse-Cassel, &c. In the neighbourhood are coal mines and salt springs, both very productive. The fortifications of Minden have been much improved since 1815. This

town was the residence of several early German emperors, and various diets were held in it.

The French were defeated in the vicinity of Minden in 1793, by the Prussians under Prince Ferdinand, brother to Frederick the Great, and the British under Lord George Sackville. The non-compliance of the latter with the orders of the former is said to have saved the French from a complete rout, and gave rise at the time to a great deal of acrimonious discussion. (*Bergbau, &c.*)

MINEHEAD, a sea-port, decayed bor., and market-town of England, hund. Carhampton, co. Somerset, on the Bristol Channel, 20 m. N.W. Taunton, and 149 m. W. by S. London. Area of par., 3,780 acres. Pop., in 1841, 1,489. The town comprises 3 distinct masses of building, forming a triangle, the sides of which are about $\frac{1}{2}$ m. long; the best part, which contains some good houses and inns, being about $\frac{1}{2}$ m. from the sea. The church, which is large and handsome, stands on the slope of a hill N. of the town; there is also a place of worship for Wesleyan Methodists, and a well-attended Sunday-school. A free school for 30 boys is supported by the lord of the manor; besides which, there are several bequests of money-charities for the relief of the poor. Minehead formerly had a considerable share in the herring fisheries; and had a large trade with Ireland, as well as with the Mediterranean and N. America. Its commerce, however, as a port, has greatly declined, notwithstanding its commodious harbour and pier; but it has lately been much frequented as a watering place, and the inhabs. are at present mainly supported by the influx of visitors. Minehead received its charter of incorporation in 1. Eliz., from which time down to the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised, it returned 2 mems. to the H. of C., the right of election being vested in the resident housekeepers in the pars. of Minehead and Dunster.

MINEHOTA, a territory of the U. States. See SUPERINTENDENT.

MINORCA (*Balearis Minor*), the second in size of the Balearic Islands, belonging to Spain, in the Mediterranean, off the E. coast of Spain, from which it is distant about 140 m. Mahon its cap. being in lat. $39^{\circ} 51' 10''$ N., long. $4^{\circ} 18' 7''$ E.; it is of an oblong shape, extending from W.N.W. to E.S.E., but somewhat concave on its S. side. Length, 32 m.; average breadth, 9 m.; area about 290 sq. m. Pop., according to Mifano, 44,147. The coast is indented on every side, but particularly on the N., with small bays, or coveys, and is surrounded with islets, rocks, and shoals. Surface very uneven, with abrupt hills and knolls; but there are no mountains, except El Toro, near its centre, which rises 4,793 ft. above the sea. Iron, lead, and copper have been found, though in too small quantities to be wrought; but marble is extremely abundant, and of many beautiful varieties, as is seen in the churches and houses of Port Mahon. Water is scarce, and the climate is less mild and agreeable than that of Majorca. The air in winter is damp and raw, owing to the frequency of N. winds; but such is seldom seen. The temperature during spring is mild, and the air pure, though somewhat moist; the summer heat is very oppressive, and the autumn is remarkable for its frequent and heavy rains. The soil is in most parts poor, sandy, and unproductive; but on the hill-sides are several fertile tracts, on which good crops of corn and wine are raised with little labour. Excepting a few evergreen oaks near the centre of the island, Minorca is almost destitute of trees; a circumstance attributable partly to the devastations of war, and partly to the violent N. winds, which are extremely injurious to plantations. Wheat and barley are the grains chiefly cultivated; both being of middling quality, and scarcely sufficient to supply two-thirds of the consumption of the island. Red and white wines are made in large quantities, and about 10,000 arrobas a year are exported, but the olive will not thrive in consequence of the cold N. winds. Capers grow spontaneously, and form an important article of export. Flax, hemp, saffron, and the cotton plant succeed well, but are little attended to. Fruits of various kinds are abundant, though much inferior in flavour to those of Majorca. Vegetables, also, are plentiful, and of good quality. The island is well suited for pasturage, and is well supplied with cattle, sheep, goats, and mules; wool is exported in considerable quantities; and the cheese of Minorca is considered by the Italians as equal, if not superior, to Parmesan. Bees, also, are reared in great abundance, and furnish large supplies of excellent honey and wax. Partridges, quails, and other game, are plentiful. Lizards swarm, and there are several varieties of venomous reptiles, but no beasts of prey. Fish, especially anchovies, abound on the coast, and the oysters of Minorca are held in high estimation by the Catalonians.

The trade of Minorca, chiefly carried on at Port Mahon, consists in the export of wine, wool, cheese, capers, honey, and wax, chiefly to Spain, but also to Genoa,

Leghorn, and the ports of France. The imports comprise wheat, oil, linen, cotton and woollen fabrics, wood, tobacco, and a variety of manufactured goods and colonial products from Spain, France, and Italy. The possession of Minorca by the British during the greater part of last century did something to awaken a spirit of activity and enterprise among the inhabitants. Since its restoration to Spain, however, its industry and commercial importance have greatly declined. Accounts are kept in Spanish money; but some of the inhabs. still retain the English mode of accounting.

"The inhabs. of Minorca," says Fischer, "are ardent, courageous, ingenious, and make excellent sailors. That activity of mind which distinguishes the Mallorcans, they possess, perhaps, in a still higher degree; for they are extremely lively, sociable, and even convivial. As the climate and soil of Minorca are greatly inferior to those of Majorca, the people of the former island are much less opulent than the Mallorcans; but they bear a close affinity to each other in language, manners, and religion." (*Pict. of Valencia*, p. 289.) They are enthusiastically fond of religious processions, and are as bigoted and ignorant as possible. Dancing and playing on the mandolin are their chief amusements. The modern inhabs. are said to be as expert as their ancestors in the use of the sling.

Minorca is divided into the four districts, or *terrenos*, or Mahon, Ajaccio, Meride, and Ciudadela, which bear the names also of the four largest towns. Mahon the cap. (an. *Portus Magonis*), at the E. end of the island, with a pop. of about 19,000, is, on the whole, well built, chiefly in the English style; but the older streets are narrow, crooked, and badly paved. The harbour is one of the best and most capacious in the world; three large squadrons have, more than once, been at anchor in it at the same time, and there is excellent mooring ground in five and six fathoms, sheltered from every wind. It has three rocky islets: on one stands an hospital, on another the lazaretto, and on the third is an arsenal, with several store-houses, all built by the English. Ciudadela (which see) is the ancient capital, but its pop. is not above 8,000. The other towns are little more than mere villages.

The ancient history of Minorca is nearly identical with that of Majorca. In 1285 the Moors were finally expelled from both islands, which were then formally annexed to the crown of Arragon. In 1703, during the war of the Spanish succession, the English took possession of the island, with the intention of making it a naval station. It was confirmed to the British by the peace of Utrecht, and remained in their possession till 1756, when it was taken by a French fleet and army, after the failure of the attempt to relieve it by Admiral Byng, which led to the memorable trial and death of the latter. At the peace of 1763 Minorca was restored to Great Britain, but in 1782 it was retaken by the Spaniards. It was once more taken by the British in 1798, and was finally ceded to Spain at the peace of Amiens in 1802. (*Fischer's Valencia*, p. 290—299; *Sir G. Scudamore's Excursions in the Mediterranean*, i. 13—15; *Mifano*.)

MINSK, a government of Russian Poland, comprising the former palatinate of Minsk, and portions of the palatinates of Polock, Wilna, Novogrodek, &c. It is principally included between the 52d and 56th degs. of N. lat., and the 26th and 30th of E. long., having N. and E. the gova. Wittepsk and Moghilev, S. Kief and Volhynia, and W. Grodno and Wilna. Area about 42,000 sq. m. Pop., in 1845, 1,048,406, of whom about 100,000 were Jews. Surface mostly level, but in the N. a chain of hills separates the waters flowing towards the Black Sea from those that fall into the Baltic. In the S. is a large extent of marsh land, along the banks of the Pripiet. Exclusive of this river and the Dnieper, the other principal rivers are their affluents, the Beresina, Stry, Gorla, Pechiza, &c.: the Dvina forms, for a short distance, the N. and the Niemen the W. boundary of the government. There are a number of small lakes, and in spring a great portion of the country is inundated, so as to form a vast sheet of water. Though one of the poorest and least cultivated parts of the empire, Minsk produces more corn, principally rye, than is required for home consumption. Hemp and flax are important products, as are potash and tar. The forests are very extensive; and, next to agriculture, sawing and trading in timber is the principal occupation of the pop., and numerous large rafts are floated down the rivers to Kheron on the one hand, and to Riga and Konigsberg on the other. The rearing of live stock is mostly ill-conducted; pasturage is good in some parts, but the sheep yield only inferior wool. A great many bees are reared. Some little iron is obtained. Linen weaving and distilling are pretty general; a little woollen cloth is made; there are some iron forges and glass factories; and at Pinsk, in the S.W., Russia leather is prepared. The trade of the gov. is chiefly conducted by strangers. In 1832, only 2,109 children were receiving public instruction, and

There were but 3 printing establishments in the gov. Chief towns, Minsk the cap., Boubrounisk, and Sloutak.

MINSK, a town of Russian Poland, cap. the above government, and one of the largest in Lithuania, about 400 m. W. S. W., and 180 m. W. by S. Erodno. Lat. 53° 54' 59" N., long. 27° 52' 18" E. Pop. 14,600. Its streets are narrow, irregular, and dirty, and its houses nearly all of wood; but the town has, upon the whole, a respectable appearance, and some good buildings, among which are several Greek, Greek-united, and Rom. Cath. churches, a synagogue, a gymnasium founded in 1773, and a handsome theatre. It is the see of a Greek archbishop, and a R. Catholic bishop, and has manufactures of woollen cloths, hats, and leather. Under the Poles, Minsk was the cap. of the palat. of same name. (*Schnitzler's Russ. p. 402*—408.)

MIRANDOLA, a town of N. Italy, duchy of Modena, cap. cant., on the Burana, 18 m. N.N.E. Modena. Pop. 4,600. It is walled, and has a castle, but its fortifications have fallen into decay. Among its principal edifices are a handsome cathedral and numerous churches, an hospital, and a palace belonging to the Cico family. It has manufactures of silk stuffs and twist, and woollen and cotton yarn, and an active trade in these articles and in rice, a good deal of which is grown in the neighbourhood. (*Rampoldi; Dict. Géog., &c.*)

MIRECOURT, a town of France, dép. Vosges, cap. arrond., on the Moselle, tributary of the Meuse, 16 m. N.W. Epinal. Pop. in 1838, 5,567. It is ill-built, and has no remarkable public edifice: it is, however, the seat of tribunals of original jurisdiction and commerce, and has a public library of 6,500 vols., &c. It is principally noted for its manufactures of violins, guitars, barrel organs, and other musical instruments, which occupy most part of the male pop., while the females are employed in making lace. (*Hugo, art. Vosges.*)

MIREPOIX, a town of France, dép. Ariège, cap. cant., on the Sena, tributary of the Ariège, 16 m. N.W. Foix. Pop. in 1838, 4,069. It is well built and clean, and has a large hospital, a par. church, a town-hall, and a bridge over the Lers, all handsome structures. Its inhab. manufacture coarse woollen and cotton cloths.

MIRZAPORE, a distr. and town of British India, presid. Bengal. The district is included in the prov. of Benares, and is in about lat. 26° N., and between long. 82° and 85° E. Area, estimated at 3,550 sq. m. Pop. uncertain, but probably about 1,000,000. Land revenue (1850-51), 1,089,291 rupees. The cap. Mirzapore, is on the Ganges, 30 m. S.W. Benares. Lat. 25° 10' N., long. 83° 25' E. It has numerous handsome European and native houses, Hindoo temples and ghauts, and is the chief mart for silk and cotton goods in the British middle provs. Cotton stuffs and carpets, of a superior kind, are made here; and there are some iron works in the vicinity. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*)

MISITRA. See SPARTA.

MISKOLCZ, a large market-town of Hungary, co. Borsod, of which it is the cap., on the great road from Pesth to Upper Hungary, 23 m. N.E. Erlau. Pop. acc. to the *Austrian Encyc.* nearly 27,700, principally Protestants. It is well built, and has numerous churches, a Protestant and a R. Catholic gymnasium, a Greek national school, a synagogue, a Minorite convent, &c. The wine grown in the vicinity is the chief article of traffic at Miskolcz.

MISSISSIPPI, one of the U. States of N. America, in the S.W. part of the Union, between the 30th and 36th degrees N. lat., and the 88th and 91st of W. long., having N. Tennessee, E. Alabama, W. Arkansas and Louisiana, and S. the last-named state and the Gulf of Mexico. Length, N. to S., 325 m.; average breadth, about 140 m. Area, estimated at about 47,000 sq. m. Pop., in 1840, 375,651; of whom 195,211 were slaves. North of lat. 31° the W. boundary is wholly formed by the river Mississippi; the country along which is a continued swamp, occasionally interspersed with patches sufficiently elevated to admit of cultivation. From this low plain the surface gradually rises towards the E., where a tract of moderately high land, stretching from S.W. to N.E., forms the watershed between the rivers joining the Mississippi in this state, and those flowing separately into the Gulf of Mexico. Many other hill ranges, of no great height, traverse the state, giving to the greater part of it an undulating surface. Next to the Mississippi, the Yazoo, Pearl, and Pascagoula rivers are the principal, and lie wholly within this state. The Yazoo, a tributary of the Mississippi, has a general S.W. direction, and an extreme length of 240 m., 50 m. of which are navigable. The Pearl and Pascagoula rivers have a general S. direction, and both flow into the Gulf of Mexico. Both are navigable, also, to a considerable distance from their mouths.

Mississippi has about 30 m. of sea-coast, but no harbour except Pascagoula. A few low islands lie along the coast, but they are generally sterile, and of little

consequence. The climate nearly resembles that of Louisiana, but it is said to be healthier. But, during summer, fevers and bilious affections are more or less prevalent in all parts of the state. A large proportion of the soil is fertile, and covered with timber; oak, hickory, black walnut, maple, and pine being the principal forest trees.

The sugar-cane grows in the S., and the orange on the lower banks of the Pearl and Pascagoula rivers; in the central region, maize, rice, tobacco, indigo, figs, grapes, melons, sweet potatoes, &c., attain to excellence; while apples and pears thrive in the N. Tobacco and indigo were formerly the staples of Mississippi; but cotton is now the principal product, and its culture engrosses by far the greater portion of the attention of the planter. The crop of 1837 amounted to nearly 320,000 bales, and there has been a considerable increase in the interval. Most estates raise enough of Indian corn for their own consumption, and breed hogs sufficient to supply them with bacon. The trade of the state centres in Natchez.

In 1837, Mississippi had 56 organised counties. Jackson, on Pearl River, is the seat of government; but its pop. is small, and it has no recommendation other than its central situation. Natchez is by far the most important town in the state. The legislative power is vested in a senate of 23 members, chosen for four years, and a House of Representatives, elected for two years, by the whole male pop. 21 years of age, who have resided a year in the state. The governor is elected for two years, and the General Assembly meets also biennially at Jackson. Justice is administered in a high court of errors and appeals, a superior court of chancery, 11 district courts, and circuit courts in each co., which last have original jurisdiction in civil causes above 50 dollars. Imprisonment for debt has been recently abolished, and the Penitentiary system adopted. In 1838, the state had 23 banks and 16 branch banks, with a united capital of 21,500,000 dollars. In 1840, 80 m. of railroad had been completed in the state. There are colleges at Washington, Oakland, and Clinton; though only the first, established in 1802, and called Jefferson College, seems to have made much progress: it has usually about 100 students. In Natchez, Woodville, Monticello, &c., are flourishing public schools; but no general system of primary education was in force till 1846. In 1838, 36 periodical publications were issued in Mississippi.

This territory was first settled by the French about 1716, and originally formed part of Louisiana. It was ceded to Great Britain in 1763. It was united in a territorial government with Alabama in 1801; and, in 1817, was admitted as a separate state into the Union. It sends 3 representatives to congress. (*Pitt's Geog. of the U. S., Appendix; Darby; American Almanack, 1837*—1851, &c.)

MISSISSIPPI (from an Indian word, meaning "Father of waters"), a great river of the United States of N. America; forming, with its various tributaries, one of the most extensive water systems in the world, and draining about 1-1/2th part of the N. American continent. It extends N. and S. between the 36th and 48th parallels of N. lat.; and from the sources of the Alleghany, eastward, to those of the Missouri, westward, is a distance of 1,830 m., measured in a straight line between the 77th and 111th meridians of W. long. Length, from Lake Itasca, the source of the Mississippi Proper, 3,200 m.; but, from the sources of the Missouri, the true head of this mighty river, 4,400 m. Estimated area of the country drained by it and its tributaries, about 1,100,000 sq. m. The Mississippi divides the territory of the Sioux Indians with the states of Missouri and Arkansas, lying on its W., from the Huron territory and the states of Illinois, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Mississippi, on its E. side; but the entire basin receives the drainage, not only of these districts, but also of Ohio and Indiana, with parts of Pennsylvania and Alabama, besides that of an immense extent of hitherto unsettled country in the "Far West." The lake Itasca, in which the river rises, and which was first discovered by Schoolcraft in 1833, at a level of 1,320 ft. above the sea, is a beautiful sheet of water, about 8 m. in extent, lying among pine-covered hills of diluvial formation, based on primitive strata. The river flows thence N.N.E., about 180 m., to Lake Cass, where it takes a S.S.E. course, and pursues it, with some deviations, to the junction of the Ohio. (*Geog. Journal, iv. 243*—251.) Its velocity during its passage through the lake-region, bordering on British America, is in many parts very considerable. There are several falls, the largest being the Big Falls, at a place where the stream divides, and forms several islands; about 60 m. lower down, also, are the Falls of St. Anthony, 9 m. above the confluence of St. Peter's River; and here the stream, flowing in two channels, each between 200 and 300 yds. broad, is precipitated over a limestone rock, 16 ft. in perpendicular height. At this point ends the upper course of the Mississippi; though rapids occur for several miles farther down, and even as low as the junction of the *Rivière des Moines*,

in lat. $40^{\circ} 20' N.$ It is here about a mile broad, with transparent light blue, though not very deep, water; numerous islands stud its surface; and the current averages 2 m. an hour. Its banks are in many places bounded by broken and precipitous bluffs, ranging from 150 to 750 ft. in height, intersected here and there by deep ravines, and covered with forests of pine, birch, maple and cedar; but in some parts are rather extensive prairies, covered with the *Zizania aquatica*, a species of the cerealia, commonly, though incorrectly, called wild rice, which forms a considerable article of food among the native Indians. (*Darby*, p. 311.) Its principal affluents here are the St. Peter's, St. Croix, Chippeway, Wisconsin, Rock, riv. des Moines and Illinois; the last being by far the most important, and admitting of boat-navigation as far as the rapids, 250 m. above its mouth. The waters of the Missouri join those of the Mississippi in lat. $38^{\circ} 56' N.$, and long. $90^{\circ} W.$, from which point the latter entirely changes its character. It is here about $\frac{1}{4}$ m. broad; and the Missouri enters from the W., nearly at right angles, not being more than $\frac{1}{4}$ the breadth of that into which it empties itself.* "At this point," says Capt. Hall, "such is the impetuosity of the Missouri, that it fairly divides the Mississippi, even to the left, or E. bank; nor were there above 10 or 12 yds. of clear water on that side of the river, while all the rest was muddy. The line of actual contact was particularly interesting: it seemed as if the dirty Missouri had insinuated itself under the clear Mississippi, for we saw it boiling up at a hundred places. First, a small curdling white spot, no bigger than a man's hand, appeared near the surface, which rapidly swelled and boiled about, till, in a few seconds, it became as large as a steam-boat, spreading itself on all sides in gigantic eddies and whirlpools, in a manner astonishingly grand and striking. At other places, the two currents ran along, side by side, without the least intermixture, like oil and water; but this separation was never of long continuance, and the contaminating Missouri soon conquered the beautiful Mississippi: indeed, the stain is never for one moment got rid of during the 1,200 m. that the stream runs over, before it falls into the Gulf of Mexico." (*N. America*, iii. 329.)

The addition of the Missouri waters, however, has not the effect, that might naturally be expected, of widening the surface of the main stream; for the united waters have only, from their confluence to the mouth of the Ohio, a medial width of about $\frac{1}{4}$ m. The junction of the Ohio seems also to produce no increase, but rather a decrease, of surface; and the river, in its natural state, is still narrower at New Orleans, which is only 120 m. from its mouth. (*Lyell's Geology*, i. 268.) Its depth, however, is so much increased, that, at the shallowest places, there are usually 6 ft. water, when the river is lowest. The rapidity of the current is more than doubled; and it presents, except in the dry season, a turbid and dangerous mass of waters, passing between jagged and continually falling shores, and leaving, wherever its waters have receded, large deposits of mud. Accidents and circumstances often shift the current on to the islands or bends of the river, and every season makes great revolutions in the course of the channel. Sometimes entire bends are broken through by the impetuosity of the waters; sometimes large islands are entirely melted away; at other places, they have been united to the main shore by myriads of logs, that have floated down, and become cemented together by mud and rubbish. Thus, by continually shifting its course, the river sweeps away, during a great portion of the year, considerable tracts of alluvium, which were gradually accumulated by the overflow of former years; and the matter now left during the spring floods will be, at some future time, removed. (*Hall*, iii. 361; *Lyell*, i. 271.) About 190 m. below the confluence of the Missouri, it receives the Ohio, or *La Belle Rivière* of the French, flowing, with its light green stream, from the E. bank, bringing with it also the waters of its great tributaries, the Wabash, Cumberland, and Tennessee. At this point, not only does the stream turn S.W., but the bluffs on both sides retire, and a fine, well-timbered plain extends on both sides the river, ranging (except at the Iron-banks and Chickasaw Bluffs, on the E. banks) from 30 to 50 m. in breadth; still expanding as it approaches the mouth, where it is probably three or four times that width. About 380 m. below the influx of the Ohio, is the junction of the Arkansas and White River, which enter the main stream close to each other, on the W. bank. Thence to the confluence of the Red River, is a distance, S. by W., of 360 m., measured along the stream, and below this latter point, the river bends S.E., and enters the Gulf of Mexico, after a course of 335 m. from the Red River, of 1,075 m. from the confluence of the Ohio, and of 1,270 m. from that of the Missouri. The lower part of the Mississippi is so much flooded after the rainy season,

* This is Plin's account; but Capt. B. Hall says that the two rivers are nearly equal in breadth, each being somewhat more than $\frac{1}{4}$ m. wide.

that there is often a space of inundated woodland from 30 to 100 m. in width: large swamps, also, are found, during the whole year, on both sides the river; and indeed the whole country nearly as far up as Natchez, 427 m. from its mouth, presents nothing but a swampy tract, the abode of alligators, and subject to epidemic and other diseases most calculated to shorten and destroy human life. The lower part of the Mississippi, for 30 m. above the mouth, as far as the head called Plaquemines, is a reedy marsh, without trees, and containing only a few fishermen's huts and a residence for pilots at Balize: in fact, nothing can well be conceived more dreary than the aspect of the river, even as far as 70 m. above the mouth. The principal entrances for vessels are the N.E. pass, lat. $29^{\circ} 7' 25''$, about $\frac{3}{4}$ m. S.E. of the light-house on Frank's Island; the S.E., or main pass, lat. $29^{\circ} 8'$, $\frac{1}{4}$ m. S.S.E. from the light; and the S.W. pass, about 22 m. S.W. of that land-mark. On all these passes there are bars at the outlets, with comparatively shallow water: the main pass has about 13 ft., the S.W. pass 12 ft.; but the rest are much shallower. The tide rises only from $\frac{1}{4}$ to 2 ft. at Balize, and is not perceptible more than 30 m. above the mouth, (*Blunt's Amer. Coast Pilot*, p. 270.) The Mississippi has four other outlets; one, called the Iberville, on the E. bank, flowing through the lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain; the others being on the W. bank, viz., La Fourche, which leaves the main stream 186 m. from its mouth; Plaquemines, about 31 m. higher up; and the Atchafalaya, which deflects south-westward, in lat. $31^{\circ} N.$, and long. $91^{\circ} 42' 30'' W.$: the last-mentioned branch partly empties itself into the bay of its own name, but also returns a portion of its waters into the main current, with which, indeed, all the minor branches of the delta are more or less interlaced. A great raft, or accumulation of drift-timber, in the Atchafalaya, varying in length from 8 to 12 m., and about 230 yds. wide by 8 ft. in depth, is covered with vegetation; and, as it rises and falls with the river, is, in fact, a floating island. Occasionally breaches occur in it, and immense masses separate, but they soon lodge again, in consequence of the pressure and entanglement of the trees. The prodigious quantity of timber annually drifted down the Mississippi and its tributaries is so great as to be a subject of geological interest; not merely as showing how vegetable matter becomes imbedded in submarine and fluvial deposits, but likewise attesting the constant destruction of soil and transportation of matter to lower levels, by the tendency of rivers to shift their courses. Each of these trees must have required many years or even centuries to attain its full size: the soil, therefore, whereon they grew, after remaining long undisturbed, is ultimately torn up and swept away; but still, notwithstanding such constant destruction of land and timber, the region which yields the supply is densely covered with forests, and almost unrivalled in its resources for the support both of animal and vegetable life. (*Lyell's Geology*, i. 271—273.)

By the largest of all the tributaries of the Mississippi is the Missouri (or "mud river"), which, indeed, brings down more water than the main stream itself; and, from its prodigious length of course, uncommon turbidness, impetuous and wild character, as well as the singular country through which it runs, possesses a natural grandeur, nearly approaching the sublime. Its sources, discovered by Lewis and Clarke in 1812, are in the Rocky Mountains, and nearly under the same parallel as that of the Mississippi. The river rises in two branches, which collect all the water flowing from the Rocky Mountains, between 42° and $45^{\circ} N.$ lat. The most northerly of these sources, called the Missouri, rises in about lat. $45^{\circ} N.$, and long. $110^{\circ} 30' W.$, taking an easterly course, inclining to the N. for about 620 m., receiving in its course many considerable affluents, and having a stupendous fall of 170 ft., about 300 m. from its source: the other branch, called the Yellow-stone River, rises by several heads between lat. 43° and $44^{\circ} N.$; and, after a N.E. course of more than 900 m., joins the Missouri in lat. $48^{\circ} 10'$, and long. $104^{\circ} 0' W.$; where its stream is 850 yards wide, or nearly treble the breadth of the Thames at London Bridge. The united river flows hence through a fine open prairie; and, after reaching its utmost N. bend, in lat. $48^{\circ} 30'$, curves southward past Fort Mandan, maintaining the same course to the confluence of the White River, in lat. $43^{\circ} N.$, below which it takes a general S.S.E. course, by Council Bluff, to the junction of the Kansas, and then runs nearly E. to its union with the Mississippi; its entire length, from the source of the Yellow Stone to this point, being 3,130 m. Its largest tributaries are the Platte (1,800 m.), Kansas (1,200 m.), and Osage (680 m.), all rising on the E. offsets of the Rocky Mountains, and joining the Missouri on its W. bank: the E. affluents, except the Grand River and Chariton, are quite inconsiderable. The navigation of the Missouri, from the Mississippi to the falls, a distance of 2,375 m., may be

generally deemed good; though the season be short, and the boats run only during day-light. It seems probable, however, that, as the country becomes more settled, steamers will be found, not only to carry up merchandise, but to take return-cargoes. The main difficulties of navigation (*Wisner's Geog. of Missouri*, p. 35.) arise from its falling banks, the timber imbedded in the mud of its channel, its sand-bars and rapids, and the rapidity of its current, which ranges from 5 to 8 m. an hour. All these may be overcome by using the necessary precautions; but the falls entirely interrupt the navigation, and a portage becomes necessary at the point where, for about 2½ m., the Missouri rushes down a succession of tremendous cataracts and rapids.

Above the falls, the current is frequently interrupted by shoals and rapids; and, as the river issues from the Rocky Mountains, its banks are shut in on both sides for more than 5 m., by rocks rising perpendicularly from the water's edge to the height of nearly 1,200 ft., and forming a sublime and extraordinary spectacle. This stupendous range of rocks was denominated by Lewis and Clarke "the Gates of the Rocky Mountains."

In the lower parts of the river well-wooded valleys occur, varying from 4 to 6 m. in breadth, and, as far up as 400 m. from its union with the Mississippi, the country is partially settled; but above the flats open prairies develop themselves, stretching indefinitely on either side in naked grass plains, forming the home of buffaloes, elk, white bears, antelopes, and mountain sheep; regions that are traversed only by the Red Indian, the huntsman, and the trapper. (*Flint's Geog. of U. States*, i. 300-305; *Darby*, p. 320-324.)

The Ohio, though of far less magnitude than the Missouri, is certainly more beautiful, and, at present at least, more important in a practical sense. It is formed by the junction, at Pittsburg, of the Allegheny and Monongahela (the former rising 13 m. E. of Coudersport in Pennsylvania, while the latter has its source about 40 m. S.E. of Clarksville, in Virginia). Its level at this point is stated by Darby to be about 530 ft. above the Atlantic, its breadth somewhat exceeds 600 yards; and it immediately assumes that broad, placid, and beautiful aspect which it maintains, except at the rapids of Louisville, all the way to its confluence with the Mississippi. Its valleys are of great depth and fertility, generally high, dry, and healthy; and the country on both sides presents the appearance of a rich and fertile plain. It is found in the Mississippi valley. It varies in breadth from 400 to 1,400 yards. At Cincinnati it is nearly 600 yards, which may be regarded as its mean breadth. At Louisville, at the rapids, the descent of the river, in 2 m., is 22½ ft.; but the current is not so broken but that boats have, in many instances, ascended the falls. A canal, however, 2 m. in length, and 300 ft. wide, with a depth sufficient for large steam-boats, was completed in 1831, by which the rapids are avoided. The rise of the Ohio, during the floods, which occur between March and July, varies from 5 to 10 ft. but in the dry season it may be forced in several places, near Louisville. Its higher parts are annually frozen over, and the navigation is usually suspended 8 or 10 weeks, during winter, by floating ice. Its current, when at mean height, is estimated at 2 m., and when very low, at 2 m., an hour. It has many islands; but there are none between the states of Ohio and Kentucky. The principal towns on the Ohio, below Pittsburg, are Wheeling, Gallipolis, Cincinnati, Louisville, and Jeffersonville. The length of the Ohio, from Pittsburg to the Mississippi, including its windings, is about 950 m. It enters that river nearly in a S. E. direction. "In ordinary seasons, and under ordinary circumstances," says Mr. Stuart, "these rivers are nearly 2 m. wide, and with a volume of water pretty much alike at the point of junction. When floods take place, and the Ohio is the highest, it was no easy matter, before the introduction of steamers, to accomplish its ascent at the confluence; but when the Mississippi is the highest, the Ohio is often, as it were, dammed up for several miles. On the one side, you perceive the Mississippi, presenting a vast agitated and turbid body of water, and on the other hand, the Ohio, comparatively clear and calm, descending from the N. The point where their streams unite, though rising 20 ft. above them when at an average height, is not visible in great inundations, when their united waters form a prodigious lake." (*Stuart's America*, ii. 283.)

The Ohio separates Virginia and Kentucky, on the S., from Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, on the N. Its N. affluents are the Big Beaver, Muskingum, Scioto, and Wabash, the last of which is navigable for 400 m. from its mouth; the S. tributaries are the Kenhawa, Sandy-river, Green-river, Cumberland, and Tennessee, all rising on the W. side of the Alleghenies, and flowing, by very tortuous courses, through some of the richest districts of the United States. The last two rivers are navigable for steamers, during spring, upwards of 300 m. from their mouths; and the Ohio, with its tributaries, cannot have less than 5,000 m. of navigable waters. It

is traversed, in all directions, by an immense number of steamers; and, taking all circumstances into account, few rivers can vie with it, either in utility or beauty. (*Flint*, p. 399; *Darby*, p. 299-308; *Murray's Encyc.*, American ed., iii. 554.)

The Arkansas, which, in point of magnitude, ranks next to the Missouri, joins the Mississippi, on its W. bank, in lat. 34° N. Its length has been estimated at above 2,000 m.; and in summer it pours a broad and deep stream over dry sandy plains, which so absorb the water, that, several hundred miles below the mountains, it may be crossed, in summer, without wading as high as the knees. During the floods, however, it is navigated by steamers, far above the limits of the state which has assumed its name. (For further particulars, see ARKANSAS, i. 154.)

The Red River, and its branch, the Washita, join the Mississippi from the W., in lat. 30° 57' N., 30 m. above Baton-rouge. The most remote sources of the former are in the range of mountains called Sierra del Sacramento, skirting the E. bank of the Rio Bravo del Norte, in New Mexico. It runs E., through a mountain-country, for about 800 m., and then turns S.S.E., which direction it pursues till its junction with the Mississippi; its total length being 1,500 m. It is navigable by steamers for about 300 m.; but the existence of a low, swampy district, clogged with drift-wood, about 100 m. N. of Natchitoches, is an effectual bar to its further navigation, except for small boats. It is believed, that the Washita rises in the Masserne mountains of Arkansas, and pursues a general course S. by E., having a length of about 350 m. Both the Red River and Arkansas have their spring-floods, and supply an immense volume of muddy water, to swell the vast lagoon which is formed at the mouth of the Mississippi during its inundation. Their waters, owing to saline impregnations, and the suspension of ochreous earth, are at once brackish and nauseous to the taste; indeed, that of the Red River is so bad at Natchitoches, as to be wholly unfit for culinary purposes. The Yaxoo and Big Black River are the only E. tributaries of the Mississippi below the Ohio; and are not of sufficient importance to require a separate notice. (*Murray's Encyc.*, Amer. ed., iii. 550; *Flint*, i. 280; and *Darby*, p. 316.)

Inundations.—This mighty river, the recipient of all the waters flowing eastward from the Rocky Mountains, and westward from the Alleghenies, is subject to periodical inundations, the effect of which is greatly heightened by the flatness of the country in the lower part of its course. It is intersected, also, in every direction, by numerous natural canals, or *bayous*, which, during the floods, are constantly in motion, and render it impossible to carry on any internal intercourse, except by means of boats. The waters, however, which are thus sent down from the colder regions of the W. and N., and the temperate region of the Ohio valley, are not supplied simultaneously; the southern rivers sending down their floods early in the year, while the northern furnish their supplies as late as Midsummer. Hence the Mississippi appears to have two annual floods; the first, in ordinary seasons, beginning with the new year. Few years pass without a swell about this season. This first flood is uniformly succeeded by a depression, previously to the great spring inundation, which begins in April, commencing with the first flood of the Missouri, in March, on the breaking up of the ice; this is followed by that of the Upper Mississippi, and afterwards by those of the Ohio, Illinois, and all the other tributaries. The great flood of the Missouri begins in June; about the middle of the same month, the Mississippi attains its greatest height at Natchez, about 400 m. from its mouth; and in the first week of July the flood at New Orleans is generally at its height. Considerable variations, however, occur in the periods, as well as extent, of the inundation. In the years 1800 and 1801, the river did not overflow its ordinary channel.

The swell of the Mississippi during the inundations is, near the mouth, only 3 ft.; at New Orleans (130 m. from its mouth), 12 ft.; at Baton-rouge, 138 m. higher, 25 ft.; at Fort Adams, and generally thence to the Ohio, 45 ft.; and in the Upper Mississippi, the rise is from 18 to 23 ft.; the diminution near the mouth being a consequence of the large expanse of the country over which the waters are spread. To secure the land from these inundations, immense embankments, or *levees*, as they are sometimes called, have been formed along the Mississippi and the canals, (or *bayous*, as they are called), through which its waters overflow. The principal of these commences at the head of the island of Orleans, and extends down the river for about 180 m. The water, however, not unfrequently bursts through this embankment, and submerges the adjoining country.

Depth, and Fitness for Navigation.—The Mississippi differs from most of the other great American rivers, in the uniformity of its width and depth for many hundred miles. Indeed, it is navigable, at every period of the year, considerably above the junction of the Mis-

scour, and at least 2,000 m. above its mouth. The width of the main river averages about 900 yards below the Ohio, and its medial depth varies from 90 to 130 ft. (*Stuart's America*, II. 247.) The current of the Lower Mississippi, though strong, does not equal that of the Missouri. Its velocity may be ascertained from the progress made by boats in descending the stream. When the water is low a boat will float from 45 to 50 m. a day; when in a middle state, from 60 to 70 m.; and, during the inundation, from 90 to 100 m. This, however, applies only to that part of the river above the Arkansas; for, below this, a small dilatation occurs, and the swamps also receive a vast body of water, by which means the current becomes less rapid. As soon as the river enters the Delta, its rapidity is farther slackened through the diffusion of its waters into various subordinate channels. From this point to New Orleans no variation is perceived; but, between the Arkansas and the Delta, the velocity of the current is diminished nearly a third; and thence to the sea about a half. Outside the bar the current sets eastward; but there are counter-currents, which, in no small degree, perplex the mariner on entering or leaving the river. The white waters of the Mississippi do not readily mix with the sea, and may be readily distinguished from 9 to 14 m. from Balise.

By far the most dangerous obstruction to the navigation of the Mississippi arises from the multitude of large trees precipitated from its banks into the water. These frequently become firmly fixed in the bed of the river. Some of them are called *planchers*, because they are immovable, and constantly expose their pointed shafts above the water. Others are denominated *sawyers*, from their alternately rising above and falling below the surface. It is dangerous for boats to run against either of these; and the best way of avoiding them is to keep in the mid-channel, where they seldom make their appearance; and, for farther security, the steamers have now frequently double bows. The number of trees visible to the eye is greater or less, according to the high or low state of the water. But within the last few years steam-boats have been fitted up with machinery for removing these obstructions to navigation; and it is believed that, in no very lengthened period, this impediment will no longer exist, at least in any dangerous degree. (*Capt. Hall's N. America*, III. 362; and *Wetmore's Gaz. of Missouri*, p. 34.)

Navigation and Trade.—The facilities afforded by the Mississippi and its various tributaries for internal navigation are wholly unequalled, except, perhaps, by the Amazon and its tributaries, in S. America. In so far, indeed, as navigation is concerned, the Mississippi should be regarded, from its great depth and comparative freedom from shoals and cataraets, not so much a river as a vast internal sea, a Mediterranean in fact, extending through all the central and most fertile portion of N. America; and enabling its remotest recesses, though 2,000 or 3,000 m. inland, to maintain a direct communication, by water, with the most distant quarters of the globe. It is but yesterday, as it were, since the valley of the Mississippi began to be occupied by civilised man, and reclaimed from the wilderness; and its astonishing increase in population and wealth is principally ascribable to the facility afforded by this noble river for its intercourse with the other parts of America, and of the world. The trade and navigation of the Mississippi is already, indeed, incomparably greater than that of the Ganges, the Danube, the Elbe, or any other river of the ancient continent. And yet civilisation has hitherto done little more than take root in its basin; by far the largest portion of which is at present not merely unoccupied, but, in a great measure, unexplored. Let, then, the reader, who compares the commerce and importance of the Mississippi at this moment with its state only half a century ago, imagine, if he can, what it must be when all the vast country between the Rocky Mountains and the Alleghanies has been fully peopled, when New Orleans has become a second London, and large cities have been built on its most distant affluents!

Vast as are the natural capacities of the Mississippi for navigation, they have been, and, no doubt, will continue to be, greatly extended by canals and artificial means. It is already united with the grand chain of lakes and the basin of the St. Lawrence; and goods taken on board at New York may at present be conveyed to New Orleans without being unshipped, and conversely.

Sailing-boats are totally unable to stem the current of the Mississippi above Natchez, and are obliged to have recourse to oars and long poles; nor is it easy to give any adequate idea of the laborious and tedious operation of propelling them against the stream, from 12 to 16 days being usually consumed in ascending from New Orleans to Natchez (320 m.). The navigation, however, has been prodigiously facilitated by the introduction of steamers, which stem the current at a rate varying from 5 to 6 m. an hour: indeed, a family in Pittsburg considers it a light

matter to visit relations on the Red River, at the distance of 2,000 m.; nor is it a difficult matter to accept an invitation to breakfast at a distance of 70 m. down the stream. "In fact," says Mr. Stuart, "it is refreshing to see the large and beautiful steam-boats scudding up the eddies, as though on the wing. Where they have run out the eddy and strike the current, it is a still more noble spectacle. The foam bursts in a sheet quite over the deck; the boat quivers for a moment with the concussion; and then, as if she had collected her energies, she resumes her stately march, and mounts against the current five or six miles an hour." (*Stuart's America*, II. 256.)

The steamers built for, and employed in, the navigation of the Mississippi are said to have amounted, in 1839, to 378, of the average burden of about 300 tons each. The following is an

Account of the Tonnage of the Principal Ports of the Mississippi Basin in June, 1849.

Ports.		Aggregate Tonnage.
Pittsburg	on the Ohio	35,771
Cincinnati		16,498
Louisville		12,555
Nashville	on the Cumberland	1,011
Miami		979
New Orleans, on the Mississippi	-	340,305
St. Louis	-	32,355
Total of tonnage		344,925

With the exception of N. Orleans, which has a great many sailing vessels engaged in the trade to other parts of the Union, the West Indies, &c., almost the whole of this tonnage consists of steamers.

The principal drawback on the navigation of the Mississippi consists in the fool-hardiness of the captains of the steamers (nearly all of which are propelled by high-pressure engines), which too often results in explosions and other accidents, that frequently occasion great loss of life and property. But the salutary act of congress, passed 7th July, 1838, has gone a good way to prevent these catastrophes. The passage prices (including board) are, from Pittsburg to Cincinnati, 10 dollars; to the mouth of the Ohio, 20 dollars; and to New Orleans, 25 dollars; but the prices for deck-passengers amount only to 1-4th part of the above fares. The common and only safe rate of these steamers is about 13 m. an hour with the stream, and 6 m. against it. The number of flat-bottomed keel-boats worked by manual labour is rapidly decreasing; and the probability is that steam-navigation will very soon supersede every other medium of communication on the Mississippi, whether for passage or commerce. (*Darby's View of the United States*, pp. 296—326; *Plant's Geog.* passim; *Amer. Almanack*; *Stuart's Amer.*, vol. II.; *Murray's Encyc. of Geog.*, Amer. ed. vol. III.; *Pratt's Gaz. of Illinois*, &c.)

MISSOURI one of the U. States of N. America, and, in point of extent, the second in the Union, in the W. part of which it is situated, between lat. 36° 30' and 40° 30' N., and long. 89° and 95° 30' W.; having N. Iowa, W. unsettled Indian territories, E. the Mississippi river, by which it is separated from Illinois, Kentucky, and Tennessee, and S. Arkansas. Length, N. to S., 280 m.; average breadth, 230 m. Area, estimated at 64,000 sq. m. Pop., in 1840, 363,702; of whom 35,340 were slaves. Pop. in 1845, 511,587.

No part of this state can be called mountainous, though its S. W. portion has some elevated land. The country in the S.E. is a morass, forming a portion of the great Arkansas swamp; the rest of the surface consists principally of rolling prairies continuous with those of Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio. It is watered by the two largest rivers of the American continent, which, notwithstanding its internal situation, afford it facilities for communicating with the most distant countries: the Mississippi has a course of 550 m. along its E. boundary; and the Missouri intersects the state near its centre, and joins the Mississippi within its limits. There are numerous tributaries of the above rivers, which are navigable to some distance; as the Osage, Gasconade, Grand River, Chariton, Merrimac, &c. The Osage is navigable for keel boats for above 200 m. On the banks of the rivers, especially the Missouri, the soil is deep, and extremely fertile, and, also, in the alluvial prairies of the N. The hill country is much less productive, a considerable part of it being either barren or covered with pine woods. But in those parts where the soil is the least fertile, mineral products are abundant, and, in fact, these at present constitute the chief wealth of the state. Great quantities of iron ore and coal exist throughout the Missouri valley; and lead, antimony, zinc, manganese, cobalt, arsenic, plumbago, nitre, salt, Jasper, and marble, are found elsewhere. The great mineral district of Missouri extends over about 3,000 sq. m. to the S.W. of

St. Louis. This region is principally celebrated for its lead mines. Potomac may be considered its centre; in 1839, upwards of 75 lead mines had been opened within 16 m. of that town. The ore is the galena or sulphuret of lead, and is found in detached masses, yielding from 60 to 85 per cent. of metal.

Copper, tin, gold, and silver are met with in some places, but the precious metals are not in sufficient quantities to pay for their working.

The agricultural staples consist of hemp, flax, tobacco, and corn of various kinds. Common and sweet potatoes, turnips, garden vegetables, and artificial grasses are plentiful. Cotton is cultivated in the S., but not to any great extent. Large herds of cattle, horses, and hogs are reared; and beef, pork, tallow, hides, and live stock constitute, together with lead, furs, buffalo hides and tongues, lumber, and maize, the principal articles of export. The prairies are excellent natural pastures, "and the business of rearing cattle is almost reduced to the simple operation of turning them upon these prairies, and letting them fasten upon the weeds which proper to claim the tribute of their flesh." Some of the prairies appear peculiarly fitted for sheep walks; but sheep are not yet reared in any great numbers. The principal manufacturing establishments are smelting works, forges, shot factories, &c., in the mining district, and flour and sawing mills on the various rivers. A good deal of shot is annually exported from Herculaneum and other towns.

In 1840, Missouri comprised 63 organised counties. St. Louis, on the Mississippi, is the chief commercial town, and was formerly the cap., but the seat of government has been removed to Jefferson city on the Missouri, nearly in the centre of the state. The legislature consists of a Senate of 18, and a H. of Representatives of 49 mems., both being elected by the white male citizens 21 years of age, who have resided in the state for a year previously to the election; but the electors of representatives must, also, have resided for 3 months in the co. for which they vote. The senators are elected for 4 years, and the representatives for 2: the General Assembly convenes every 2 years. The Governor, who has a salary of 2,000 doll. a year, and Lieut.-gov. are chosen by the people every 4 years, and are not again eligible till after the lapse of a similar period. The state is divided into 4 judicial districts, in each of which the supreme court sits twice a year. There are 11 circuit courts, with civil and criminal jurisdiction, and a superintending control over the county courts. The judges are nominated by the governor, and confirmed by the senate. They hold office for 8 years; but not beyond 65 years of age. The constitution provides trial by jury for the slaves; and otherwise enforces humanity on the part of their owners.

1-16th part of the land of every township is appropriated by Act of Congress for the support of primary schools; and the *saline fund*, derived from the sale of salt springs, &c., and other special funds, have been devoted to purposes of public instruction. St. Louis has a Catholic university, which, in 1848, was attended by about 160 students; St. Mary's college, in Perry co., is well attended; there are some other colleges, and flourishing private seminaries in the state; and the Missouri university had, in 1849, 53 students. A railway from Marion to New Palmyra has been commenced, and several others have been projected. Missouri sends 5 representatives to the Congress of the U. States.

At the beginning of the 18th century, a brisk traffic in furs and minerals being maintained between the Europeans and Indians, induced the former to settle in this territory. About the middle of that century, St. Louis, St. Genevieve, and other towns, were founded by the French; but in 1763 the country was given up to Spain. In 1800, it was restored to the French, who ceded it to the U. States in 1803. Missouri became a State of the Union in 1821. It sends 3 representatives to Congress (*Missouri Gazetteer* for 1836; *Dorby's View of the U. States*; *American Almanack*, 1834-1850.)

MISSOURI (RIVER). See MISSISSIPPI.

MISTRETTA (an. *Amastira*, or *Mystristrum*) a town of Sicily, intend. Catania, on a high hill, 5 m. S.W. Caronia. Pop. about 8,000.

MITCHELSTOWN, an inland town of Ireland, prov. Leinster, co. Cork, on an affluent of the Funcheon, 26 m. N.N.E. Cork. Pop. in 1841, 4,181. It consists of a well-built square, and 9 principal streets. It has a par. church, and Rom. Cath. chapel, both handsome modern structures; a college, which maintains 12 poor Protestant gentlemen, and 18 gentlemen, endowed by the Kingston family; a small barrack, and a market-house. A manor court for pleas of the amount of £. is held every third Monday, and petty sessions every Wednesday. It is a constabulary station. Markets on Thursdays: fairs on the 10th Jan., 26th March, 23d May, 30th July, 12th Nov., and 2d Dec. Post-office revenue in 1830, 2644; in 1836, 3944. Adjoining the town, on the W., is the magnificent seat of the Earl of Kingston, erected in 1823.

MITTAU, a town of European Russia, cap. Cour-

land, on the Aa, 26 m. S.W. Riga, lat. 56° 30' 10" N., long. 22° 43' 30" E. It is said by Schmitzer to have had, in 1830, a pop. of 12,693; which, if we may depend on subsequent statements, had increased, in 1846, to 26,100; but we incline to think that either or both of these statements must be erroneous. It is but indifferently built; the houses being mostly of wood, and the streets, with a few exceptions, unpaved. It has a castle, erected in 1759, which served in 1796 as an asylum for Louis XVIII. of France, and is now the residence of the governor and the official authorities. It has a gymnasium and a good library; a theatre, capable of accommodating 3,000 spectators, an hospital, a literary society, &c. The nobility and gentry of the prov. assemble here at stated times for the despatch of business connected with the administration of the prov., and many of them reside in town during the winter, when it becomes unusually gay. Its situation is low, sandy, and exposed to inundation. (*Schmitzer, La Russie*, &c., p. 583; *Grassville's Travels*, i. 379.)

MOBILE, a city and sea-port of the U. States of N. America, State of Alabama, cap. of its own name, at the mouth of the Mobile river, in Mobile Bay, 173 m. S.S.W. Tuscaloosa, and 115 m. N.E. by E. New Orleans. Lat. 30° 40' N., long. 88° 21' W. Pop. in 1840, 12,672, and now (1850) probably above 18,000. It is situated on dry and elevated ground; but, being surrounded by a low swampy tract, it was formerly very unhealthy. But this has been in part obviated by a system of drainage, and Mobile is now tolerably salubrious. Among the public buildings are the court-house, gaol, and churches of the R. Catholics, Episcopalians, Presbyterians, and Methodists. A Rom. Cath. college was founded in 1830, at Spring Hill, about 6 m. from town. It is supplied with excellent water, conveyed in pipes a distance of 2 m.

Within the last few years Mobile has become one of the principal ports in the Union for the shipping of cotton. It is, in fact, the entrepôt for nearly the whole of Alabama, and for parts of Georgia and Mississippi. A light-house with a fixed light, having the lantern elevated 55 ft. above the sea, has been erected on Mobile point, at the E. entrance of the bay. There are 18 ft. water over the bar at low ebb; by shoal within the bay prevents vessels drawing more than 5 or 6 ft. water coming to the town at ebb tide. In 1849 there belonged to the town 25,068 tons of shipping, of which above 16,000 tons were steamers. In the year ending June, 1850, the export of cotton from Mobile amounted to 325,541 bales, of which 214,089 were shipped for foreign ports, and 111,452 coastwise. The total value of the exports from Alabama during the year ending 20th June, 1849, almost the whole of which was shipped here, amounted to 12,832,725 dollars: the imports are comparatively trifling, amounting only in the same year to 687,147 dollars. (*See ALABAMA*, in this Dict., i. 47; and *American Official Returns*, &c.)

MOCHA, the principal port in the Red Sea frequented by Europeans, in that part of Arabia called Yemen, about 40 m. N. from the Strait of Bab-el-mandeb; lat. 18° 19' 30" N., long. 49° 30' E. Pop. variously estimated; but may, perhaps, amount to from 5,000 to 7,000. It is encircled with walls, and indifferently fortified. Its appearance from the sea is imposing, but internally it is poor and mean.

Mocha is situated on the margin of a dry sandy plain. It is built close to the shore, between two points of land, which project and form a bay. Vessels drawing from 10 to 12 ft. water may anchor within this bay at about a mile from the town; but large ships anchor without the bay in the roads, in 5 or 7 fathoms water; the grand mosque bearing E. S. E., and the fort to the S. of the town S. by E., distant about 2 m. from the shore. The great article of export from Mocha is coffee, which is universally admitted to be of the finest quality. It is not possible to form any very accurate estimate of the quantity exported; but we believe it may be taken at 10,000 tons, or perhaps more. The greater portion is sent to Djidda and Suez; but there is a pretty large export to Bombay and other parts of India, whence some is sent to Europe: occasionally, however, the exports from Mocha and Hodeida, direct for Europe, are very considerable. Besides coffee, the principal articles of export are, dates, adjuce, or paste made of dates, myrrh, gum Arabic, oilbalm, senna (*Cassia Senega*), sharks' fins, tragacanth, horns and hides of the rhinoceros, balm of Gilead, ivory, gold dust, civet, albes, agapapum, &c. The principal articles of import are, rice, piece goods, iron, and hardware, &c. The ivory, gold dust, and civet, met with at Mocha, are brought from the opposite coast of Abyssinia; whence are also brought slaves, ghee, &c.

MODBURY, an old bor., market-town, and par. of England, hund. Ermington, co. Devon, 29 m. S.W. Exeter, and 181 m. S.S.W. London. Area of par. 5,910 acres. Pop. in 1841, 2,048. The town, very irregularly laid out, has four principal streets, meeting in a large open market-place. The church is large and well built, having a spire 184 ft. high: the living is

a vicarage, in the gift of Exon college, to which Hen. VI. gave the estates of an alien priory of Benedictines that formerly stood near the church. The Wesleyan-Methodists, Independents, Baptists, and the Society of Friends have their respective places of worship; and there were, in 1835, three Sunday schools, furnishing religious instruction to about 300 children. A Lancastrian school is attended by 70 boys; and about 80 children receive instruction in two infant schools.

Modbury had formerly a considerable share in the manufacture of serge, plush, and felt hats; but these branches of industry have long decayed, and the present inhab. are mostly engaged in agriculture and retail trade. The town, which is a bor., though without an act of incorporation, is governed by a portreeve and other officers; and in the reign of Edward I. it sent 3 mems. to the H. of C.; but it afterwards was divested of this privilege, because of its inability to bear the expense! Markets, for corn and other provisions, on Thursday; large cattle fairs, the second Tuesday in each month, and an annual fair, May 14.

MODENA (Duchy of), called by the Italians *Stato Estense*, a state of N. Italy, consisting of the united duchies of Modena and Massa Carrara, principally included between the 10th and 11th degrees of N. lat. and the 44th and 45th of E. long.; having N. Austrian Italy; E. the N. delege. of the Papal States; W. Parma, and a portion of the Sardinian dom.; and S. Tuscany and the Mediterranean. Area estimated at 2,317 sq. m., and the pop. at 562,678. The N. part of this duchy consists of a portion of the great plain of Lombardy; the S. is traversed from W. to E. by the Appennines, one of the summits of which in this duchy, M. Cimone, rises to upwards of 6,800 ft. above the sea. The Po constitutes the small portion only of the N. boundary; next to it the principal rivers are its affluents, the Panaro, Secchia, Crostolo, Enza, &c.; which have their sources on the N. slope of the Appennines, and flow N. to the Po; and the Magra and Serchio, which rise on the S. slope of the Appennines, and fall into the Mediterranean. The climate differs on the different sides of the mountains. On the N. it is similar to that of Parma and the Lombardo Venetian kingdom; snow falls and cold weather lasts for several weeks in the winter; while to the S. of the mountains the climate is like that of Genoa; and the olive and orange flourish in the open air. The plain country is very fertile, and abundantly watered by rivulets and canals. In the mountains there are many peasant proprietors, but not in the plains. A great evil here, as in other parts of Lombardy, is the practice of the lords and the possessors of lands in mortmain letting to middlemen, who relet to metayers; under which tenure are all the lands of the duchy. The tenant furnishes half the cattle, and the landlord the other half. Apparently there is not a labourer's house in the country, all being metaying farmers. (*Arthur Young's Travels*, i. 187.)

The distribution of the land is much the same as in the rest of the plain of Lombardy, where, according to Chateauxvieux, very few farms exceed 60 acres. The metayers should receive half the produce for their labour and attention, but the actual quantity falling to their share varies considerably according to circumstances, and in many cases is not more than 1-3d part of the crops produced. The custom of sharing the produce is, however, almost universal; and a lease at a fixed rent being extremely rare, we need not wonder at the low state of industry. (*Chateauxvieux, Italy and its Agric.* p. 17., &c.) Rice, wheat, maize, fruits, wine, oil, and hemp are the principal articles of culture; but the supply of corn is notwithstanding inadequate for the consumption. The wine of the duchy is strong, but not of superior quality; the oil S. of the mountains is equal to that of Genoa, but that produced in the N. plains is very inferior. Bees, poultry, and hogs are numerous. Cattle breeding is not very extensively pursued, except in the valley of Garfagnana, where it is almost the sole occupation of the inhabs. The pasturages on the mountains are excellent; but only the duke and a few of the larger proprietors possess any considerable flocks of sheep. Horses few; oxen of the Lombard and Swiss breeds, and asses, supplying their place for draught, &c., on almost every farm. The declivities of the Appennines are clothed with fine woods of oak, beech, pine, and chestnut; indeed, chestnut flour forms the principal food of the peasantry in the upland region for a considerable portion of the year. The labouring classes, even in the more productive parts of the duchy, live very sparingly; soup of Turkish wheat, or *polezza*, salads, and beans or other pulse, fried in oil, are their ordinary food. Butcher's meat scarcely ever appears except on the tables of the more opulent farmers, and their best beverage is refuse wine, or wine of the second pressure.

Next in importance to rural husbandry, is the culture and manufacture of silk, though the products be of indifferent quality. The other manufactures are on a small scale. They consist principally of canvases, leather, paper, glass, and earthenware. In Garfagnana some iron is

forged. The finest statuary marble is found in inexhaustible quantities at Carrara; and amber, petroleum, sulphur, &c. are met with elsewhere.

This duchy is divided into 6 districts, Modena, Reggio, Guastallo, Frignano, Garfagnana, and Massa Carrara. Exc. Modena, the cap., the other principal towns are Reggio, Carrara, Massa, and Finale. The government is an absolute monarchy, and perhaps the most despotical in its form of any in Europe. The duke monopolises both the legislative and executive power; but he avails himself of the services of a prime minister, 2 secretaries of state, and a privy council. The Austrian civil code of laws have been adopted since 1815. There are tribunals of primary jurisdiction in Modena, Reggio, and Massa, and a high court of appeal in Modena. A college is established in each of the principal towns, and the capital has a university and some superior schools; but owing to the jealousy of the government and the restraints laid on the press, public instruction is in a very backward state. The military force consists of 3,500 men. It is recruited by volunteers; the recruit receives a premium, and the family of which he is a member is exempted from all personal taxes. The public revenue is estimated at about 1,700,000 ducats annually.

The greater part of this territory was erected in 1489 into a duchy, under Borso d'Este, son of Pope Nicholas III. It was taken by the French in 1797, and subdivided into the d-eps. of Panaro and Crostolo. In 1814 it was given to the present ducal family, a collateral branch of the House of Austria.

MODENA (an. *Mutina*), a city of N. Italy, cap. of the above duchy, in a fine plain between the Panaro and the Secchia, 34 m. W. N. W. Bologna: lat. 44° 38' 35" N., long. 10° 55' 13" E. Pop., about 57,500. Modena has a citadel, and is surrounded with ramparts, which, however, conduce less to its strength than to its beauty. It is regularly laid out, well built, and clean. It has been much improved and embellished within the last fifty or sixty years, and is divided into the new and the old city by the *Strada Maestra*, a part of the Emilian way, which intersects it from end to end. The general architecture of Modena is striking and agreeable; almost all its streets are bordered with arcades over their footways. The ducal palace is the finest public building; it stands at the end of the great square, and, unlike the palace of Parma, it has been completed, and is properly furnished, and kept up in suitable style. It had formerly a noble collection of paintings; but some of its *chefs d'œuvre* were purchased by the elector of Saxony, and conveyed to Dresden in 1746, and others were taken away by the French; still, however, it is one of the best collections in Italy; it includes works by Raphael, Carlo Dolce, Andrea del Sarto, Guido, Guercino, the Caracci, and Procaccio, the Crucifixion by Pomarancio, a copy of the famous *Vote* by Correggio, &c. The ceiling of the gallery is painted in fresco by Francesco, and in one of the rooms is a recumbent Cleopatra by Canova. The ducal library, known as the *Biblioteca Estense*, is a valuable collection of 60,000 vols. Two of the best scholars, and most laborious, diligent, and able writers of whom Italy has to boast, Muratori and Tiraboschi, were successively librarians during the last century. In the square before the palace is a fine statue of Duke Francis III., the founder of the university. The cathedral is a Gothic edifice of considerable antiquity and imposing appearance, but not in a pure style. It is principally remarkable for a square marble tower, one of the loftiest in Italy, in which is kept the famous bucket, once the cause of a serious feud between Modena and Bologna, and which has been immortalised by Tassoni in the *Scotch rapita*. One of the most celebrated works of Guido, the Presentation in the Temple, formerly adorned the cathedral, but it was carried off by the French, and has not been restored. (*Concise Italy*, ii. 45.) The churches are numerous; but few deserve notice, except those of Vicenzo, St. Agostino, and St. Domenico, which, with some colossal statues. The city has several hospitals and asylums, a theatre, some public baths, better inns than most Italian towns, various good scientific collections, and a public library of 80,000 vols., comprising many rare editions of the 15th century, and some valuable MSS. It is well supplied with water by numerous subterranean cisterns; and is united to the Panaro by a canal navigable by boats of 30 tons. Its inhab. depend principally on the supply of necessaries to the court and government functionaries. Weaving and spinning silk were formerly important branches of industry; but these have greatly declined; and manufactures of hemp, woollen cloths, leather, hats, and glass have, to a great extent, taken their place. It has a large weekly market for agricultural produce, provisions, &c.

Mutina is supposed to have been founded by the Etruscans. It is said, by Livy, to have been colonised by the Romans, A. D. C. 569. (xxxix. 56.); and it is styled by Cicero, *Arminium cum splendida civitate, pupa domat coloniam*. (Phil. v. 9.) A few Roman anti-

quities, mostly tombs, still exist at Modena. It suffered many disasters in the times of Attila, Odoacer, and the Lombard kings; and was afterwards governed successively by its bishop and magistrates, and belonged to the Popes, Venetians, and the dukes of Milan, Mantua, and Ferrara, before it became the property of the house of Este. Under the French it was the cap. of the dep. Pararo. The learned antiquary Sigonius, the poets Males and Tassoni, and the celebrated anatomist Fallopius, were natives of Modena. (*Condor's Italy*, II. 42-46.; *Cramer's Anc. Italy*, I. 86, 87.; *Thomson; Starke*, &c., passim.)

MODICA (an. *Motycas*), a town of Sicily, intend. Syracuse, cap. district of its own name, on the Scicli, 31 m. S.W. Syracuse. Pop., in 1831, incl. cant., 25,834. It is situated among craggy rocks, and generally ill built. According to Smyth, it has some fine edifices; but it appears to possess few conveniences, for a recent English traveller could find only one inn in the town, which was wretched and dirty in the extreme. Among the public buildings are a castle, numerous churches and convents, a ducal residence, a town-hall, 2 hospitals, several public schools, and a government loan-bank. The Franciscan convent is said to possess some fine mosaics. In the adjacent valley of Ipsica are numerous troglodytic caves, fully described by Smyth (*Sicily*, p. 190.) and Russell (*Tour in Sicily*, pp. 134-137.) In 1633, a good many houses and upwards of 100 persons were buried by an earthquake near Modica.

The district of which this town is the cap., has an area of nearly 120,000 acres, with several towns, and a pop. of about 80,000. It was endowed with peculiar privileges by Roger, king of Sicily, the principal being that its courts of justice should be independent of those of Sicily. These privileges would appear to have been productive of a good effect. "There is a very superior spirit of activity and industry among the natives, attended by greater affluence and comfort than any other agricultural part of Sicily displays, though it is not naturally so fertile as the rest. Modica is, in general, rocky and hilly, with very bad roads; but it boasts several fine plains, and romantic ravines. The soil is mostly loose, calcareous, and dry; but many successful agricultural efforts are made to render it productive, as is testified by the abundant produce of corn, tobacco, oil, wine, soda, hemp, canary-seed, cheese, butter, and carobs; while, from the attention paid to pasturage, the cattle are in great request. This co. also produces bitumen and salt; and there is a great quantity of game, as to form any article of export. The trade is principally with Malta, which is supplied from hence with the above necessities, in exchange for cloth, spirits, hardware, and colonial produce." (*Smyth's Sicily*, p. 191.)

MOFFAT, a village of Scotland, celebrated for its mineral springs, co. Dumfries, delightfully situated on the Annan, at the head of an extensive valley, and bounded, almost immediately on the N. by an amphitheatre of hills, the highest in the S. of Scotland, 46 m. S. Edinburgh, and 20 m. N. by E. Dumfries. Pop., in 1841, 1,413. It is situated in a well-built town, the principal consisting principally of a wide street along the line of road from Dumfries to Edinburgh. Latterly, however, or since the opening of the Caledonian railway, which has a station at Beattock bridge, within 2½ m. of the village, it has been much enlarged; a great number of new houses having been built, partly for the accommodation of fixed residents, and partly of visitors to the wells. In fitness of situation and purity of air, it is superior to most watering-places in the kingdom. It has a par. church, a free church, a dissenting chapel, and some very good inns. The mineral springs, which are sulphureous and chalybeate, rise at no great distance from the town, on the slope of the adjacent hills. One of these springs was discovered in 1633, the other in 1749.

MOGADORE, or **MOGODOR**, called by the Moors *Shocra*, a sea-port town, and the principal emporium of Morocco, on the Atlantic, about 108 m. W. Morocco; lat. 31° 50' N., long. 32° 30' W. Pop. estimated at 10,000. It stands on a patch of granular sandstone rock, which, at high water, is nearly insulated by the sea. The country around is low, flat, and unproductive; so that vegetables have to be brought from gardens from 4 m. to 12 m. inland, and cattle and poultry from a still greater distance. Water is also scarce, and rather dear; being either rain water collected and preserved in cisterns, or brought from a river about 2 m. distant. The white stone buildings give the town an imposing appearance from the sea. It is divided into 2 contiguous portions, both surrounded by walls; that called the citadel, comprises nearly half the entire town, with the royal palace, the houses of most of the governors and chief officers, the custom-house, the foreign consulates, and a street of well-built shops of red sandstone, formerly occupied by European traders. Beauclerk says, that the houses in this part are well-built and lofty, that the streets are swept, and that it was cleaner than any other town he had seen in the Moorish dominions. It is shut off

from the rest of the town by a high wall, with a strong gate, which is closed at 9 o'clock every night. The other portion of Mogadore is not so well laid out, nor so clean, the Jews' quarter, in particular, being excessively filthy; it has, however, a very extensive mosque, with a high square tower, and other public buildings. It is entered by 2 principal gates; which, with many in the interior, are closed at sunset. To the S. of the citadel is what is called the port, being an inner roadstead, protected by a rocky island, about ¼ m. in length, 3 m. from the shore. It has not more than 10 ft. or 12 ft. water at ebb tide, and 23 ft. when deepest; it is therefore fit only for small vessels, large ships anchoring outside the harbour, the long battery bearing E., distant ¼ m. The island bounding the harbour is appropriated exclusively to a state prison; and is supposed to be defended by a few crazy pieces of ordnance, ensconced behind mud-wall embasuries. The landing-place is a long stone slip, near the arsenal, protected on the W. by a long battery, mounting several brass cannon, and containing a large tank, and a number of prison cells. The arsenal, with which this battery communicates, is a really handsome structure, consisting of a large range of bomb-proof casemates, flanked at either end by an elegant square tower, with turrets at their angles, connected by a battery of 2 tiers, having in its centre a lofty arched gateway. The long battery defending the whole town on the W., is an extensive range along the shore, crowned with brass ordnance, and having beneath a range of bomb-proof casemates capable of containing 4,000 or 5,000 men. On the land side, Mogadore is protected from the attacks of the Arabs by a round tower, furnished with brass cannon. All the fortifications were erected under the superintendence of a European engineer in the last century, and, to an unskilful eye, they appear strong, and well executed; but Beauclerk says they are too flimsy to bear 5 minutes' breaching. The long battery offers, however, a fine promenade for enjoying the fresh air of the ocean.

The trade of Mogadore was formerly very extensive; her port was open to the ships of the different European countries, most of whom had consuls here. Most part of the commerce between Europe and Morocco is still carried on through Mogadore; but England and Sardinia are the only states that retain consuls. The principal imports are English woollen and cotton stuffs and hardware, German linens, tin, copper, earthenware, mirrors, glass, sugar, pepper, paper, &c. The exports principally consist of sweet and bitter almonds, gum Arabic, and other gums, bees' wax, cow and calf skins, ivory, ostrich feathers, gold dust, olive oil, dates, &c. Accounts are kept in *satueels* of 10 ounces; the ounce being divided into 4 *blankets*, of 24 *suces* each. The blanket may be valued at 1d., the ounce at 4d., and the nutkeel or ducat, at 2s. 4d. The corn measures are, for the most part, similar to those of Spain. The quintal = 119 lbs. avoird. The market lb., for provisions = about 1½ lb. avoird. The canna, or cubit, = 21 in. English inches, and long pieces of long measure, a fine promenade for enjoying the fresh air of the ocean.

The mutton of Mogadore is of a very inferior quality, and the beef but poor. Kids form a great part of the consumption of those who indulge in meat; fowls are very cheap, and a dozen eggs may be bought for 1d. Red-legged partridges are always to be had in abundance. The climate is decidedly healthy, the heats being moderated by the sea breezes. Agues are, however, sometimes prevalent (*Beauclerk's Journey to Morocco*, 22, 23-27. *Jackson's Morocco*).

MOGHILEF (Pol. *Mohylow*), a town of Russian Poland, gov. Podolia, cap. circ. on the Dniester, 86 m. E. S. E. Kaminnietz, and 180 m. S. W. Kief. Pop. nearly 7,000, of whom many are Jews. From its situation, sheltered on every side by mountains, its climate is milder than that of the rest of Podolia; its fruits are excellent, and the silk-worm thrives well. It has several Greek, Rom. Cath., and Armenian churches, and a Greek convent; it is the residence of an American bishop. It has a brisk trade with Wallachia, and the adjacent provs., in raw produce, and some well-attended fairs.

MOHACZ, a mean but large village of Lower Hungary, on the Danube, co. Barany, 25 m. E. by S. Fumfikirchen. Pop. 8,300. Near this village, on the 29th of August, 1856, the Turks, under Solymán the Magnificent, obtained a great victory over the Hungarians. Louis, king of Hungary, 2 archbishops and 6 bishops, many nobles, and about 25,000 private soldiers, are said to have been killed in the battle and the pursuit. In 1687, the Turks were themselves defeated in the vicinity of this village by the Imperialists, under the Duke of Lorraine.

MOHILEF, or **MOGHILEV** (Pol. *Mohylow*), a gov. of European Russia, formerly included in the gov. of Vittepek, between the 52d and 54th degs. of N. lat., and the 20th and 33d of E. long.; having N. Vittepek, E. Smolensk, S. Tchernigov, and W. Minsk. Length, N. to S., 310 m.; average breadth nearly 86 m. Area about 17,470 sq. m.

Pop., in 1846, 981,300. The only physical difference between it and the gov. Vitpeak is, that it belongs to the basin of the Dniepr, while the latter gov. belongs to that of the Dwina. In the N. of the government is a low chain of hills, separating the two river basins; but the rest of the surface is an extended plain, partly covered with forests, and in many parts marshy. The course of the rivers is mostly S.; the principal, next to the Dniepr, are its tributaries, the Soja and Drouetz. Small lakes are numerous. The climate is milder and drier than that of Vitpeak. The soil is generally fertile; and though agriculture be extremely backward, nearly four million *cheteritz* of corn are annually grown, a quantity considerably exceeding the home demand. Rye, barley, oats, hemp, and flax are the principal products; and in the gardens, hops, pulse, &c. The breeds of cattle and horses are very inferior; but latterly the sheep have been improved, by crossing with the breed of Saxony. Goats and hogs are numerous. This is one of the most richly wooded of the Russian governments; and its forests, the produce of which are floated down the rivers to the Black Sea, furnish the building-yard of Nicolaïev, Odessa, Sevastopol, &c., with timbers and masts for the largest ships. Only a small proportion of the forest land belongs to the crown. Bog iron is plentiful, but it is dug only by the poorest classes. In respect of manufactures, Mohilef is behind almost all the other governments of the empire. There is no capital, and the inhab. are without enterprise. The condition of the mass of the pop. appears to be most wretched. According to Schultze, *le régime Polonois et l'établissement des Juifs, qui ne sont pas adonnés à habiter l'intérieur de l'empire Russe, ont produit les tristes fruits.* Except a few tanneries, all the manufactures are in the hands of the Jews; but, with the exception of some distilleries, and soap and potash works, they are quite unimportant, and did not, in 1830, employ 1,000 hands! It is divided into 12 districts; Mohilef, the cap., and Mstislavl are the principal towns. The inhab. are mostly Russians and Jews, with some Poles, Lithuanians, Moldavians, and Wallacks: their religion is partly that of the Greek and partly of the Roman church, each of which has an archbishop in the gov. Moutsur, a town of European Russia, cap. of the above gov., on the Dniepr, 85 m. S.W. Smolensk, and 110 m. E. by S. Minsk: lat. 53° 53' 49" N., long. 36° 24' 45" E. Pop. estimated, in 1846, at 24,100, of whom about 3,000 were Jews. It has a better appearance than most Russian towns, many of its houses being of stone or other solid material. It is divided into four quarters, one of which consists of the *krem* or castle, built on an eminence, and two of the other quarters are surrounded by ramparts. In the centre of the town is a large octagonal area, with neat stone buildings, including the residence of the Greek archbishop. It has at least 20 churches, three fourths of which are Greek; there are also several convents, a Lutheran church, and two synagogues. The government offices and magazines are handsome edifices. Mohilef is the head quarters of the Russian "army of the west," and the seat of Greek and R. Catholic archbishops, the latter having authority over all the R. Catholics of Poland and Russia: it has two episcopal seminaries, a gymnasium, a town-school, and various charitable institutions. The business of tanning is extensively carried on; it has an extensive trade with Riga, Königsberg, Dantzic, and Odessa, to which it sends leather, hides, lard, wax, honey, especially the latter, potash, hemp, flax, oil, corn, and other raw products; receiving, in return, among other foreign goods, a good deal of thrown silk. The fairs of Mohilef are well frequented. The epoch of its foundation is unknown. After several times changing masters, it was finally annexed to Russia in 1772. (*Schultze, in Russie*, pp. 385-400.)

MOISSAC, a town of France, dep. Tarn et Garonne, cap. arrond., on the navigable river Tarn, crossed here by a handsome stone bridge, 14 m. W.N.W. Montauban, and 97 m. S.E. Bordeaux. Pop., in 1846 (ex. com.), 5,163. It is tolerably well built, and has an elegant fountain in its principal square. The most remarkable feature of the place, however, is a ruined abbey founded in the 11th century, formerly possessing great wealth and importance; the buildings are of great extent, but are for the most part either in ruins, or converted into private dwellings. The church-porch is of high antiquity, and has some curious sculptures; the cloisters also are highly interesting; but the church itself is more modern, and of a heavy style. A good deal of corn is ground here for the use of the colonies; and the town has a considerable trade in wheat, oil, saffron, wine, &c.

Moissac, founded in the 5th century, appears from its walls to have been formerly much larger than at present. It suffered severely from the religious wars. (*Hugo, art. Tarn et Garonne*, &c.)

MOLA DI BARÌ, a sea-port town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Bari, on the Adriatic, 13 m. S.W. Bari. The pop., which at the beginning of last century amounted to 13,000, is now reduced to about 6,000. It consists of an old and a new division; the former, which has a

castle and is surrounded by a wall and ditch, has narrow, crooked, and gloomy streets, and poor houses. The other, or more modern division, is, on the contrary, comparatively well built along the sea-side, and has 8 creeks, where the small vessels which frequent the port load oil, cotton, and carobs. The traces of an unfinished mole show that this was formerly a place of some commercial importance. The port, between this mole and a rocky reef to the N., is insecure; but there is an open roadstead on either side the town, where vessels may anchor in 10 fathoms water with a sandy bottom. (*Crace's Tour*, &c., pp. 154, 155; *Perry's Sailing Directions*.)

MOLD, a market-town, and parl. bor., contrib. to Flint, hund. of its own name, co. Flint, 10 m. W. by S. Chester, and 171 N.W. London. Pop. of par., in 1841, 10,653, ditto of township and parl. bor., 3,557. The town, situated in a valley, close to the Alyn, and surrounded by lofty hills, is small and irregularly built; but there is a very handsome town-hall, and, in the environs, are numerous handsome seats and elegant mansions. The church, a large structure of the 15th century, has a highly ornamented embelished tower, and contains some curious monuments. The Wesleyan Methodists, Calvinists, and Baptists, have, likewise, their respective places of worship, with attached Sunday schools. A cotton-mill, in the town, gave employment, in 1839, to 296 hands; but "there is no other particular branch of trade carried on here, nor is it likely, judging from its present appearance, that it will increase either in size or importance; within the par., however, there are extensive coal-pits, lead and iron mines, which, in 1831, employed 629 labourers." (*Board. Rep. and Parl. Census*.) Mold was constituted, by the Reform Act, a parl. bor. contrib. (with six others) to Flint. Registered electors in district, in 1849-50, 765. The co. assizes are held here. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday. Fairs, Feb. 13, March 21, May 12, Aug. 2, and Nov. 22.

About 1 m. W. from the town is a noted spot called Maes-Garmon, the scene of a victory gained in the 5th century, by the Welsh over the Picts and Saxons: a pillar, with an inscription, commemorates the event. About 1 m. S. from the town, on the Great Western, are some remains of Offa's Dike, the ancient boundary between Wales and England. (*Hemingway's Pan. of N. Wales; Parl. Papers*, &c.)

MOLDAVIA. See WALLACHIA and MOLDAVIA. **MOLDAU**, a river of Bohemia, and, next to the Elbe, the principal in that kingdom, through the S. and central parts of which it flows. It rises in the Bohemian Forest, about lat. 49° N. and long. 13° 35' E.; runs at first S.E. to Rosenberg, and thence generally N. to its junction with the Elbe at Melnik, in about lat. 50° 20' N., long. 14° 30' E., after a course estimated at somewhat more than 200 m. It is properly the head stream of the Elbe, being continuous with the latter in a direct line, and carrying more water to it than the river called the Upper Elbe. It receives the Woltawa, Luchnitz, Sazawa, and Beraun: Rosenberg, Budweis, and Prague are on its banks. The Danube and Elbe have been united by a railway 75 m. in length, completed in 1829, from Linz, in Upper Austria, to Budweis, where the Moldau becomes navigable for boats of from 10 to 15 tons. This railway consists of one line only, and the carriages on it are drawn by horses. The line was rendered unacceptably expensive through an ill-judged economy, inasmuch as it became necessary to take up the original wooden rails, which were covered with metal plates, and substitute others of cast iron in their stead. The traffic on this road has hitherto chiefly consisted in salt sent from Upper Austria into Bohemia. The nett revenue derived from it amounted, in 1837, to 8,130*l.* It belongs to about 13,000 shareholders, at 50*l.* a share; but, however, the river, though it has derived no profit from the undertaking. (*Oester. Nat. Encyclop.*)

MOLFETTA (an. *Nepe*), a sea-port town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Bari, cap. canton, on the Adriatic, 16 m. W.N.W. Bari. Lat. 41° 13' 32" N., long. 16° 36' 36" E. Pop. about 12,000. Its appearance from the sea is imposing; and though its streets be narrow and dirty, it has many good houses, among which Mr. Burgess remarked some elevations in a chaste style of architecture, and of a stone almost equal in beauty to white marble. (*Greece*, &c., p. 13.) It has a cathedral, several other churches, a college, &c., and is the see of a bishop. Its port, formed by a mole, is sheltered from all winds except the N. Opposite to it is a sand-bank, which serves as a natural breakwater; the entrances to the harbour being at either extremity of the bank. It has some linen fabrics, a saltpetre manufacture, and some slips for ship-building; and has a considerable trade in the shipping of corn, oil, almonds, &c. (*Rampanelli's Schurz, Alg. Erdkunde; Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

MOLTON (SOUTH), mun. bor., market-town, and parl. div. hund. of its own name, co. Devon, on the Mole, 24 m. N.W. Exeter, and 164 m. N. by S. London. Area of par., 6,160 acres: pop., in 1841, 4,774.

The town, occupying an eminence W. of the river, at the union of several high roads, comprises a large market-place, and several well paved and lighted streets, the whole having a peculiarly clean and neat appearance. The guildhall is a handsome and commodious building, near which is a small gaol. The church, adjacent to the market-place, is built in the perpendicular style: the living is a perpetual curacy in the gift of the dean and canons of Windsor. The Independents and Wesleyans have also their respective places of worship, and there are 3 Sunday-schools, attended by about 600 children of both sexes. A grammar-school, founded in 1614, is respectably conducted, and there are 3 other schools supported by endowments and subscriptions. S. Molton has a manufacture of serges, shallons, and felts, employing about 70 families, besides which there is a woollen mill, which, in 1839, employed 79 hands. The lace manufacture has lately been introduced, but with no great success. The bor. is governed (according to the Mun. Reform Act) by a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 12 councillors. It is one of the polling places at elections for the N. division of the co. Quarterly and petty sessions are held here, and a court of record sits once in three weeks. Markets on Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday; that on Saturday being one of the largest in N. Devon. Great markets (not chartered as fairs), Saturday after Feb. 13. and April 27., Wednesday before June 22., and after Aug. 30., Saturday before Oct. 10. and Dec. 12., chiefly for cattle. (*Parl. Papers*, &c.)

MOLUCCAS, or SPICE ISLANDS. See **AMBONTA**. **MOMPOX**, or **MONPOX**, a city of S. America, repub. New Granada, and next to its cap., the most important in the prov. Cartagena; on the Magdalena, about 25 m. above the confluence of the Cauca; lat. 9° 14' 30" N., long. 74° 27' 30" W. Pop. estimated at 10,000, or, with the neighbouring villages, 15,000. "At a distance, on ascending the river, the white houses, with their red roofs, have a neat and clean appearance; but, on a nearer approach, this is exchanged for the general distressed look of Spanish cities." The town is above a mile in length; the streets are of a good breadth, crossing each other at right angles, and some are even furnished with footways. The only decent-looking houses, however, are in the centre of the place, the rest being mere sheds." (*Mol. Nov.*) It has a custom-house and a fine quay, built very high, on account of the floods which take place in Dec. Several gun-boats are stationed here, for the protection of the navigation. Mompox is a place of some commerce. The chief exports are corn, hides, and Brazil wood. Pamplona and Cuenca transmit some tobacco, sugar, and chocolate to this *emporium*. Antioquia sends gold, and Bogota the produce of the Upper Magdalena. Mompox is surrounded by swamps, and liable to inundations; and alligators come up to the very banks of the river to feed on the offal thrown from the city. "The climate, in the daytime, is burning, the thermometer ranging from 25° to 30° Réaumur; the inhabs. consequently pass the evenings seated in the streets, to breathe the fresh air, and to escape the stings of the mosquitoes. The sky is constantly cloudy, and scarcely a day passes without showers. The nights, on the contrary, are beautifully clear, and truly delicious. It is then a great pleasure to promenade the streets and observe the lively parties which present themselves before the doors of the houses. Loud bursts of laughter are heard on every side, in which the passenger takes part without the least ceremony. Far from this familiarity being offensive, it gives great satisfaction, for the frankest cordiality presides at these meetings. These passes the life of the inhabs. of Mompox. The day is spent in their hammocks, the night in the street." This manner of living differs little from that which the inhabs. of the other hot countries in S. America have adopted. All classes in Mompox are said to be much addicted to ardent spirits. The surrounding country is wholly in a state of nature. (*Mollins*, &c., in *Mod. Trav.* xlii. 301-3. *Geog. Account of Colombia*.)

MONACO, a town and small principality of N. Italy. The principality, which is under the protection of the king of Sardinia, is about 10 m. in length by 6½ in breadth, having W. the div. of Nice, E. that of Genoa, and S. the Mediterranean. Area, 52 sq. m. Pop. about 7,000. Being sheltered on the N. by lofty mountains, its climate is very mild, and it produces large quantities of oranges, lemons, and other fruits, from which the revenue of the prince, amounting to about 5,000*l.* a year, is mostly derived. The pastures are tolerably good, and cattle numerous. Its inhabs. are occupied almost wholly with agriculture, fishing, and petty coasting trade.

Monaco, the cap. (*an. Pervus* or *Ars Herculis Monaci*), is built on an elevated promontory stretching into the sea, about 9 m. E.N.E. Nice. Pop. 1,300. It is walled and defended by a fort; and has an appearance of strength, but is entirely commanded by an adjacent hill. The largest town in the princip. is Mentone, about 6½ m. E.N.E. Monaco, with a tolerable port and 3,000 inhabs.

This principality was founded in the 10th century, and has remained ever since in the Grimaldi family. The reigning prince is a peer of France, with the title of Duc de Valentinois, and usually resides in Paris. (*Almanack de Gotha*, &c.)

MONAGHAN, an inland co. of Ireland, prov. Ulster, having N. Tyrone, E. Armagh, S. Louth and Meath, and W. Cavan and Fermanagh; area, 337,048 acres, of which 9,286 are unimproved mountain and bog, and 7,844 water. Surface hilly, but the hills are mostly arable; soil moderately fertile. There are some large, and a great many small, estates. The land is very much subdivided; so much so, that it is said by Mr. Wakefield that the larger class of farms do not average 26, nor the smallest 6 acres! (1. 270.); and but little change has taken place, in this respect, in the interval. Commerce is very general here, and agriculture is in the most depressed state. Principal crops, oats, potatoes, and flax, the latter being very extensively cultivated; but a good deal of wheat is now grown, and its culture is extending. Considerable improvements have latterly been effected in the breed of cattle; and a good deal of butter is made, though there are no large dairies. Goats are very generally kept by the cottiers for the sake of their milk. A great deal of work is done by the spade. Average rent of land, 12*s.* 3*d.* an acre. The linen manufacture was at one time very widely diffused over the co., most of the small farmers having looms; but this combination of employments, which has been injurious alike to agriculture and manufactures, is now, owing to the great cheapness of machine-made yarn and fabrics, greatly diminished. The value of the bleached linen sold in the co. in 1834, was estimated at 136,000*l.* (*Railway Report*, *Append.* B. p. 31.) The co. has vast beds of limestone; and lead ore, and indications of coal have been discovered. There are no rivers of any importance. Monaghan has 5 baronies, and 19 parishes; and sends 2 mems. to the H. of C., both for the co. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 1,215. Principal towns, Monaghan, Clones, Carrickmacra, &c. In 1841 th. co. had 35,078 inhabs. houses, 25,934 families, and 300,443 persons; of whom 98,071 were males, and 102,371 females.

MONAGHAN, an inland town of Ireland, prov. Ulster, co. Monaghan, of which it is the cap. on the main road from Dublin to Londonderry, nearly half way between them. Pop., in 1841, 4,130. The town, consists of a central square, called the Diamond, with several diverging streets. Its public buildings are the par. church, Rom. Catholic chapel, three Presbyterian, and two Methodist meeting-houses; the co. gaol on the radiating plan, court-house, diocesan school for the sees of Raphoe, Kilmore, and Clogher, a national school, a cavalry barracks, a market-house, and the co. infirmary. "It does not appear to possess any important advantages or consequence, except as a market-town, chiefly for the sale of agricultural produce, linen, &c." (*Mem. Board. Report*.) The corporation, consisting of a provost, 12 burgoesses, and commonalty, sent 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C. down to the Union, when it was disfranchised. The assizes for the co. are held here, with general sessions 4 times a year, and petty sessions on Thursdays. It is a consubstantial station. It has a considerable linen trade, a large brewery, and is a great mart for agricultural produce. Markets on Mondays, Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Saturdays; fairs on the 1st Monday in every month. The Ulster canal passes near the town. Post-office revenue in 1830, 75*l.*; in 1836, 918*l.* Branches of the provincial and Belfast banks were opened in 1831 and 1835.

MONASTIR, or BITOLIA, a town of European Turkey, prov. Macedonia, cap. sanjak of same name, on the Vostizza, 82 m. N.N.E. Yanina, and 90 m. W.N.W. Salonika. The pop. has been estimated at 15,000, but we incline to think that this is much beyond the mark; it is the principal entrepôt for merchandises passing from Albania into Roumelia. It suffered great injury from fire in 1806; and was plundered by Ali Pasha. (*Dict. Geog.*, &c.)

MONDONEDO (*an. Brivione*), a city of Spain, in Galicia, cap. prov. same name, 20 m. N.N.E. Lugo, and 76 m. W. Oviedo. Pop., according to Milana, 6,074. It is situated on the N. side of the Asturian chain, and is old and irregularly built: its principal public buildings are a cathedral, with 11 dignitaries and 24 canons, a par. church, 2 convents, now converted into hospitals, and a royal seminary and college. Linen-weaving, tanning, and brick-making are the only branches of manufacturing industry in the town; two large fairs are held in May and Oct., and the oak-timber of the neighbourhood is better adapted for building than any other in Spain. (*Milana*.)

MONDOVI, a town of the Sardinian dom., div. Coni, cap. prov. Mondovì, on and round a hill near the Ellero, 12 m. E. by S. Coni. Pop., in 1838, inc. com., 15,521. It is divided into four parts; the town proper, called the Piazza, on the hill, at an elevation of 1,700 ft. above the

level of the sea; and the three suburbs of Carassone, Bred, and Piano della Valle, built at its foot. The distance between the upper and lower part of the town is considerable; and the road by which they are connected is inconveniently steep. The town proper has a small citadel, and is surrounded with walls, of no great strength, instead of ramparts. It has a great number of religious houses and churches; the latter including a cathedral, with a handsome altar and sacristy. Its inhab. are chiefly clergy and country gentry, and it has very little commerce or wealth. The suburbs, on the contrary, are entirely devoted to trade, and have manufactures of woollens and cottons, with tanneries and iron forges; but the chief branch of industry is the spinning of silk. Mondorì is the see of a bishop, and has several seminaries of education. It is comparatively modern, having been founded, according to an inscription on one of the chapels in the cathedral, in the year 1222. It was taken and sacked by the French, under Marshal Soult, in 1799. Beccaria, the natural philosopher, was a native of Mondorì; but he must not be confounded with the Marquis Beccaria, author of the famous treatise on Crimes and Punishments, who was a native of Milan.

MONGHIR, or MUNGGER, a town of British India, prov. Bahar, distr. Bhaugulpore, 80 m. E. Patna; lat. 25° 23' N., long. 86° 25' E. Pop. estimated at 30,000. It is finely situated on a bend of the Ganges, and is of great extent, its ramparts being about 1½ m. in length by 1 m. in width. The houses, however, are much scattered, and in one quarter only are so close as to resemble a town. Monghir, while a British frontier town, was a station of considerable importance; and when Heber visited it, was in a better condition than most native towns. Though the houses are generally small, there are many with an upper story; and the roofs, instead of the flat terrace or thatch, as in Bengal, are generally sloping and covered with red tiles. The principal edifices are an old Hindoo temple, now occupied by some invalid soldiers; an elegant small mosque; the residences of the commandant and other military officers; barracks for 3 companies of sepoys; and the remains of a palace built by a brother of Aurangzeb. The shops are numerous; "and" was surprised," says Heber, "at the neatness of the kettles, tea-trays, guns, pistols, toasting-forks, cutlery, and other things of the sort, which may be procured in this tiny Birmingham. I found afterwards that the place had been from very early antiquity celebrated for its smiths, who derived their art from the Hindoo Vulcan, who had been solemnly worshipped, and was supposed to have had a workshop here. The only thing which appears to be wanting to make their steel excellent is a better manner of smelting, and a more liberal use of charcoal and the hammer. As it is, their guns are very apt to burst, and their knives to break; precisely the faults which, from want of capital, beset the works of inferior artists in England. The extent, however, to which these people carry on their manufactures, and the closeness with which they imitate English patterns, show plainly how popular those patterns are become among the natives." (i. 290-293.) Monghir has also excellent gardeners and tailors. A great deal of clothing for the native army is made up, with a few articles of the native and European fashion, furniture, palanquins, carriages, &c. There are several native schools, and the town is a station of the Baptist Missionary Society. (*Hamilton's E. I. Ges.*; *Heber's and Valentia's Trav.*; *Mod. Trav.* ix.)

MONGOLIA, an extensive tract of country in the N. E. part of Asia, and one of the colonial possessions of China, between the 36th and 53d degs. of N. lat., and the 83d and 126d of E. long.; being bounded N. by the gov. of Irkutsk, N.E. and E. by Manchuria, S. by China, and W. by Chinese Tartary. Length from E. to W. about 1,700 m.; greatest breadth, 1,000 m.; area, about 1,400,000 sq. m. The limits, however, are subject, in consequence of wars among the tribes, to constant and great variation. Pop. conjectured by Timkowsky to be about 2,000,000. Mongolia may be generally described as an elevated plain, almost destitute either of wood or water, enclosed southward by the mountains of Thibet, and northward by various offsets belonging to the great Altai Range. The central part of Mongolia is occupied by the great sandy desert, or the Gobi, which stretches from S. W. to N. E. about 1,500 m., with a breadth, in some parts, of from 500 to 700 m. (*See Asia*, i. 169.) The most desolate part of the Gobi is called, by the Chinese, the Shamo, or sand sea, from its surface consisting of moveable sand. The desert is, however, intersected by some comparatively fertile tracts, and in other parts a few stunted trees are met with. The chief mountains of this region are, 1. the Altai and its various subordinate chains, extending eastward, under the names of Tängon, Khangai, and Kente, as far as the banks of the Amour; by which the range is deflected northward and joins the Yablonoi-khreibet; 2. the Thchastacolia and Inchan ranges, which commence in lat. 45° N., long. 107° E., and curve N.N.E. and north-

ward as far as the Amour in lat. 53° N., where they join the Altai. The mountains of Inner Mongolia are very little known. The rivers are numerous, chiefly in the N., belonging to the basins either of the Irish or Amour. Connected with the former are the Selenga, Orkhon, and Tula, which unite their streams and flow into lake Baikal; the Keroulun and Onon, which are tributaries of the Amour, rise near each other on opposite sides of the Kente range, and, taking a N.E. course, unite in lat. 53° 30' N., and long. 121° E. In the S. are the Lesou-ho, rising on the E. slope of the Inchan range, and falling into the gulph of Lesou-tong, and several rivers in the region of Koko-nor, some independent, and connected only with lakes, but others tributary to the Hoang-ho. The chief lakes S. of the great Gobi desert are the Koko-nor, the Oring, and Dzaring, the two latter being near the sources of the Hoang-ho. Inner Mongolia has no lakes of any importance, and those in the N. region, inhabited by the Kalkas, are of inferior size; but Koko, the N.W. district, is a country of lakes as well as mountains, the principal being Upsa-nor, Altai-nor, and that called the Ika-aral-nor, which receives the waters of the Djabkan, the largest internal river of Mongolia. The air of this country is cold, owing chiefly to its great elevation, but also to the abundance of sulphate of natron, with which the steppes are in many parts covered. Timkowsky reports that the temperature, during Oct. and Nov., ranged between 2° and 10° Fahr.; but he was assured that this was an unusually severe season. Great quantities of snow and rain fall in the Kalkas country; where, also, fogs and heavy dews, with cold mornings, are common in the height of summer. There is no great diversity of soil throughout this vast territory, which is generally sandy, stony, and barren. The banks of the rivers and the mountain valleys abound in good pastures, and in some places there is land fit for tillage. The N. part of the Kalkas region, in particular, is well wooded, and would be very suitable for agriculture; but the people are wholly nomad, and averse to the formation of permanent settlements. The S. slope of the Altai abounds with gold and silver; but the Mongols are entirely destitute of the knowledge necessary for the working of mines. S. of Ourga, in lat. 47° N., begin the arid steppes of Gobi: the soil is gravelly, pasturage and water are rare, the grass is short and poor; and yet in these tracts, so little favoured by nature, are to be seen numerous herds of large camels, vigorous horses and oxen, with flocks of sheep and goats, all in good condition. The steppes abound in salt, and the atmosphere is dry and bracing; but there is a total absence of wood, and the ground is quite unfit for agriculture. Caravans are liable to great hardships in passing through the great desert, owing to the want of water and pasturage: the valleys, hills, and mountains offer nothing to the view but a yellow sand. S. of the 39th parallel the arid soil ceases, and is succeeded by lands well watered by rivers, and pretty well adapted to agriculture. Wheat is raised by the Mongols of Koko-nor, and also by those living more eastward, in the fertile districts near the great wall of China. The people however, generally speaking, are too indolent to be good cultivators; they sow wheat, barley, and millet, but in small quantities, and in the most careless manner. Most of them, indeed, pass their whole lives in the open air, on the steppes, and disdain the laborious occupation of cultivating the ground.

"When we asked them," says Du Halde, "why they did not raise even a few vegetables in small enclosures, their prompt reply was, that herbs were the food of animals, whose flesh was the only proper support of man." (*Desc. de la Chine*, iv. 38.) In fact, so great is their love of idleness, that, even in those countries which abound with wood and pasturage, they never make any provision for the winter, except, perhaps, a few stacks of hay; and consequently when there is a heavy fall of snow, and the cold is severe, they sometimes lose 9-10ths of their flocks and herds. The quadrupeds of Mongolia are the wild horse, wild boar, stag, goats of various kinds, bears, wolves, hares, foxes, sables, and squirrels: the birds are cranes, wild geese and ducks, moor-fowl, quails, and swans. Of the domestic animals it may be remarked that the horse, though small and shabby-looking, is strong and spirited; that the camels have two humps, and that the sheep are white, with long black ears, and furnish very delicate meat. The Mongols have dogs, but very few cats; and mules, as well as asses, are bred in large quantities by the tribe of Karatchin immediately N. of the great wall.

Mongolia is composed of 36 aimaks, or principalities, all recognizing the sovereignty of the emperor of China, and each governed by one of its oldest princes, called *taiachis*. The division of the Mongol hordes is founded on the necessity of a military administration; but all the officers

* Du Halde mentions some tin-mines in the Kalkas country; and Malte-Brun says that there are iron-foundries about 50 versts from Kishida; but Timkowsky doubts their existence. (*Comp. De Malte*, iv. 12; *Malte-Brun*, ii. 424; and *Timkowsky*, ii. 241.)

superintend likewise the direction of civil affairs. According to this military division (introduced by the Manchoes), the whole nation is divided into 186 banners, which are again subdivided into regiments and companies. Each Mongol is bound to serve as a horseman from his 18th to his 60th year. The property of the soil is in the princes, to whom their subjects pay a moderate contribution of cattle, supplying them also with servants and shepherds for guarding their flocks and herds. These princes decide in the last instance all disputes between their subjects, according to the laws established to preserve order in their armies; but the supreme administration is confided to the tribunal of foreign affairs at Peking, which appoints inspectors-general for the different principalities; these are always chosen from the Manchoo nation. With respect to the attachment of the Mongols to the present Manchoo dynasty of China (Ta-Shing) it is difficult to speak positively. The Mongols still maintain their ancient hatred of the Chinese; and, though the latter have been enabled to subdue the warlike spirit of these nomads, and to declare them tributary, the court of Peking sends to Mongolia about 10 times the value of the tribute received from it, under pretext of rewarding the zeal and fidelity of its princes and military officers. Thus, the slaves, Mongol chiefs are bribed into subjection and obedience; but they are, at the same time, vigilantly watched by the Manchoo inspectors, and any misconduct, or show of opposition, is speedily visited by an abridgement or deprivation of their usual presents. The religion of the Mongols is Buddhism, supposed to have been introduced in the 17th century. The temples are not numerous, nor are the lamas much distinguished from the common people by their knowledge and morals. They learn to read Tibetan, because the sacred books and services are copied in this character; but few of them are even tolerably acquainted with the language, or know the origin and meaning of the religious ceremonies. The lamas observe celibacy, and follow a strictly monastic life: there are also female recluses, who submit to an austere and holy life; but some are married.

The proper or E. Mongols are divided into three great nations: the Kalkas, northward, the Tshakhars, near the wall of China, and the Sunnits, who range over the great desert of Gobi. Their physical conformation, language, general habits, and history, have already been described at some length in the article Asia, in this work (Vol. I. pp. 192-194.), to which the reader is referred for these particulars. The dress of the men is very simple, consisting of a long dark-blue robe, either of cotton or cloth, secured by a leather girdle; their shirts and under garments are of coloured nankeen, their boots of leather, and very thick: in winter they wear pelisses of sheepskin, and fur caps. The costume of the women resembles, in many respects, that of the men. The saddles and bridles of the Mongols are furnished with copper or silver. A bow and arrow, with short sword or the arms of a soldier, and muskets or rifles are used only in the chase. Their tents consist, like those of the Khirgis, of a skeleton of oler, covered with felt, of which there are in winter three layers: the door commonly faces the S.; the hearth is in the centre; and the right side, near the entrance, belongs to the women. The tents of the common people are low, close, and disagreeable; but those of the richer Mongols are spacious and lofty, comprising two or three distinct apartments, the best of which is covered with a Persian or Turkish carpet. Milk, cheese, and butter, with a little mutton and game, form the chief food of this robust and active nation: brick-tea is the principal beverage of the rich as well as the poor. In summer, also, they drink *airak*, a fermented liquor made from milk, besides *koumiss* and brandy, purchased from the Chinese. Hunting, horseracing, wrestling, and archery are their chief amusements: they seem to have no idea of dancing, but their songs are poetical and highly characteristic. The Mongols marry young; a plurality of wives is not forbidden, and divorce is frequent, the least discontent on either side being deemed a sufficient reason for the step. They generally bury their dead, but sometimes burn them, and occasionally even leave them exposed to the birds and wild beasts. Almost every Mongol is a skilful warrior and huntsman; but there are very few workmen or artificers; and, on examining his dress, furniture, and saddle, we find that he is supplied with every thing by the Chinese, who give in exchange for horses, camels, oxen, and sheep, large quantities of brick-tea, tobacco, brandy, silk, cotton, and woollen fabrics, boots, and various utensils in iron, tin, and copper. To carry on this trade, the Chinese go to Mongolia to the towns of Dolon-nor and Kalgan, or to the great entrepôts of Kiakhta and Ourga, in the country of the Kalkas. The Mongols receive considerable profits from the conveyance of goods through their country: payment is made by the Chinese sometimes in silver, but more frequently in articles of merchandise. (*Tinkovsky's Travels through Mongolia*, II. 267-336; *De Halde, Desc. de la Chine*, IV. 31-38; *Chinese Rep.*, I. 117-121, &c.)

MONMOUTH, a mark. co. in the W. of England, adjoining Wales, having N. the cos. of Brecknock and Hereford; E. Gloucester, from which it is separated by the Wye; S. the Bristol Channel; and W. Glamorgan, from which it is separated by the E. boundary. Area, 317,460 acres, of which 370,000 are supposed to be arable, meadow, and pasture. It is divided into 3 not very unequal parts by the Uak, which flows through it from N. to S.; the tract to the W. of that river being comparatively rugged and mountainous, and that to the E. comparatively level, and well-wooded. The S. part of both divisions along the Bristol Channel, contains large tracts of marshy land; in some parts of a deep, rich, loamy soil; and in others, of a black peat earth. Large embankments have been raised in different places along the shore, to protect the marsh land from inundation. In other parts of the co. the soil, which is in general good, mostly consists, in the elevated grounds, of a red sandy loam, and in the valleys of a red clay; the substratum is frequently limestone. The arable land is generally clean, and in good order; but the rotation of crops might be a good deal improved. Draining is extensively practised. Cattle principally of the Hereford breed; and inferior only to the same breed in their native co. There are numerous orchards; and, in a few places, hops are cultivated. Stock of the co. consists of 170,000 to 180,000. There are some large estates; but property is, notwithstanding, a good deal subdivided. The size of farms varies from 60 to 300 acres, 140 acres being supposed to be about the average. They are generally held at will; and the want of lease is much and justly complained of. Average rent of land, in 1843, 18s. 3d. an acre. Principal minerals, coal, iron, and limestone. The abundance of these has led to the establishment of many very extensive iron works, especially in the N. and W. parts of the co.; which were estimated to produce, in 1850, about 200,000 tons of iron. The access to the mines has been facilitated by the formation of canals and railways. A good deal of flannel is made in different parts of the co. Besides the Wye, Uak, and Rumney, it is watered by the Avon, Sirhowey, and Elbow. Monmouth has 6 hundreds, and 127 parishes; and sends 4 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 3 for the co., and 3 for the bor. of Monmouth. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 5,079. In 1841, 40,000 males, and 44,644 in the bor., and 14,285 persons of whom 70,606 were males, and 63,749 females. Sum paid for poor-rate, in 1848-49, 35,061. Annual value of real property, in 1815, 286,931.; ditto, in 1843, 591,162.

MONMOUTH, a parl. bor., market-town, and par. of England, cap. of the above co., hund. Skerthorpe, on the Wye, 25 m. N. by W. Bristol, and 113 m. W. by N. London. Pop. of parl. bor. (which includes the par. of Monmouth, and a part of that of Dinton), in 1841, 5,822. The town, which is well built, well paved, and lighted with gas, comprises principal avenues, with other smaller streets, one of which leads to an old stone bridge over the Wye. The guildhall, in the market place, is a neat and commodious edifice; and at the N. end of the town is a prison, which, though externally of imposing appearance, is much too small for the wants of the district. The par. church, partly rebuilt in 1740, has a spire 300 ft. in height: the living is a vicarage in the gift of the Duke of Beaufort. Another small church stands at the S.W. angle of the town, besides which, there are four places of worship for Dissenters, with attached Sunday-schools. A free grammar-school has founded here in the reign of James I.; an infant-school has recently been opened, and there is a large almshouse for 90 old men and women. "The town is not flourishing in appearance, and, in point of prosperity, is said to be almost stationary. Independently of the conversion of pig-iron into bars, and of tin plates, the chief trade of Monmouth consists in the export of bark and timber to Bristol and Ireland, and the general supply of the neighbouring agricultural districts. Coal, for the use of the town, is obtained from the forest of Dean, by means of a railroad: but it is alleged to have been an unprofitable speculation to the projectors." (*Mun. Corp. Rep.*) Monmouth is also a considerable thoroughfare; and from its situation on the romantic banks of the Wye, is likely to maintain its respectability, its neighbourhood having been selected as the residence of numerous persons of independent fortune. Woollen caps were once largely manufactured in Monmouth. They are referred to by Shakespeare (*Henry V.* act V. scene 7.); and it was ordered, by the act 13 Elizabeth, cap. 19, that they should be universally worn on Sundays and holidays.

Monmouth, which was first incorporated in 1550, has been governed since the passing of the Mun. Reform Act by a mayor and 3 other aldermen, with 19 councillors: it has likewise a commission of the peace, under a recorder. The bor., in conjunction with Uak and Newport, has sent 1 mem. to the H. of C. since the 27th Henry VIII., the right of election down to the Reform Act being vested in burgesses residing within 7 m. of the bor. The electoral limits were left unchanged by the

Boundary Act; and in 1849-50 Monmouth, with its contrib. bors., had 1,869 registered electors. It is also the principal polling-place and election-town for mems. of the co., as well as the chief town of a poor-law union. Markets on Saturday; wool fairs, Whit-Tuesday, June 18., and Sept. 4.

MONOPOLI, a sea-port city of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Bari, on the Adriatic, 27 m. S.E. by E. Bari, and 32 m. N.N.E. Taranto; lat. 40° 57' 19", long. 17° 18' 58" E. Pop., in 1833, 15,535. It stands on an eminence surrounded by a wall, and is defended by a castle. Swinburne calls it "a dark, disagreeable town, with narrow crooked streets, and very lofty flat-roofed houses;" but the account given by Craven is quite so unfavorable. It is approached from the N. by a newly-built suburb, the small but regular houses of which have each a neat garden. The city has several churches, including a cathedral, which has a fine painting of St. Sebastian by Palma, and a chapel dedicated to the Virgin, and enriched with inlaid marbles of all colours. The town has 2 ports capable of accommodating vessels of large size; but the deepest is open to the N., and is consequently exposed to the *Bora*, or N.E. wind, which often blows with such violence, that the city of Monopoli has manufactures of cotton and linen cloths, and some trade in wine and olives. It is not very ancient, being probably built by the Greeks of the lower empire, partly with the ruins of *Egnatia*, which stood about 3 m. S.E., and some traces of which still exist. (*Swinburne's Craven's An. Italy*, &c.)

MONREALE, a city of Sicily, intend. Palermo, on a steep hill, 4 m. S.W. Palermo, with which city it communicates by a fine road and causeway, supported by strong buttresses, ornamented with many seats, fountains, urns, &c., laid down at the expense of a late archbishop of Monreale. Pop., in 1831, 12,903. Monreale, though not a fine town, has several remarkable edifices. The cathedral, a large edifice founded in 1174, ranks next, after that of the cap.; for though heavy, and without symmetry, it has an imposing appearance. Its architecture is a mixture of Lower Greek and Saracenic, and its interior, above the pillars and arches, is wholly incrustured with mosaic work, representing different subjects from the Bible. A destructive fire, in 1811, did great injury to the structure; but the portions destroyed have since been rebuilt exactly in the former style. An adjoining Benedictine convent has a magnificent cloister, a large library, a collection of coins, and numerous paintings, including one of the finest pictures, of the Sicilian artist, Novelli Monrealese. Near the town is also another rich Benedictine establishment, founded by Pope Gregory the Great. (*Smyth's Sicily*, pp. 90-92.) Monreale is healthy, and commands fine prospects. Its vicinity is very fertile, corn, oil, and fruit being exported from it to Naples, Genoa, and other parts of Italy. (*Oriolani, Diction. della Sicilia*; *Smyth's Sicily*, &c.)

MONS (Flem. *Berghem*), a town of Belgium, prov. Hainault, of which it is the cap., on the Trouille, by which it is separated into 2 parts, 32 m. S.W. Brussels, and 30 m. E.N.E. Valenciennes. Lat. 50° 27' N.; long. 3° 57' 30" E. Pop., in 1846, 23,165. The town is built partly on level ground, and partly on the declivity of a hill, crowned by a lofty tower, rebuilt in 1662 on the site of an ancient castle, said to have been built by Julius Caesar. Mons has been, since 1818, when its works were considerably augmented and strengthened, one of the principal Belgian fortresses. Its walls are flanked with 14 bastions, and on its E. sides are two extensive pools, by the aid of which, and the river, its ditches may be easily filled, and the environs laid under water. Without the walls are several suburbs. The town is entered by five gates; several of its streets are steep and winding, but they are in general wide, clean, well paved, and bordered with good houses, many of which are of stone. It has several good squares; of those the *Place d'Armes*, or great market-place, is the principal, and has in it the government-house, and the hall of the provincial council. The ramparts are planted with trees, forming pleasant promenades; and within the precincts of the citadel is a garden open to the public. The Trouille is here crossed by three bridges, and numerous stone pumps supply the town with water. The town-hall, erected, according to Vandermaelen, in 1440, is a large Gothic edifice, surmounted by a fine cupola. The church of St. Waudrud, on the site of a chapel founded by that saint in the 7th century, is a fine specimen of Gothic architecture; and the church of St. Elizabeth is also handsome in some of its parts, but it has the incongruity of Gothic pillars supporting Corinthian capitals. The court-house, the new college, the military hospital designed by Vauban, the arsenal, the new barracks, the theatre, and the academy of arts, are among the most conspicuous public buildings. There are civil, orphan, founding, and other hospitals, a house of correction, a workhouse, two asylums, a government loan-bank, and other charitable institutions.

MONTAUBAN.

Mons is the residence of a civil governor, and of a provincial and a municipal military commandant, and the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a chamber of commerce, &c. It had formerly a flourishing manufacture of lace, now much decayed, and several sugar refineries, which have been abandoned. It still, however, produces some woollen and cotton stuffs, gloves, cutlery, hardware, soap, and vinegar; and has copper and lead foundries, flour-mills, &c.; but its chief source of wealth is in the numerous and productive coal mines by which it is surrounded, and which employ a great number of workmen and steam-engines. There are also extensive bleaching grounds in the vicinity. The coal from Mons is sent in part to Paris, by a long line of internal navigation, of which the canal from Mons to Condé forms a part. This canal, commenced by the French in 1807, and finished in 1814, is perfectly straight, 15 m. in length, with 7 locks, and at Condé joins the Scheldt. The greater part of it is in the Belgian territory; but a new branch of the *Canal d'Antoine* has been recently cut from it, avoiding France altogether, and entering the Scheldt not far from Tournay. Mons has sustained many sieges. It was taken in 1691, by Louis XIV., after an obstinate siege, and was occupied by Eugene and Marlborough in 1709. The emperor Joseph II. demolished its former fortifications in 1784. During the French ascendancy it was the cap. of the dep. of Jemmapes. (*Vandermaelen, Dict. Geog., De Hainault*, &c.)

MONTAGNANA, a town of Austrian Italy, deleg. Padua, cap. distr. on the Frassinia, 23 m. S.E. Padua. Pop. 6,337. It is walled; and has a castle, several churches, an hospital, and a high female school. It has manufactures of woollen and linen stuffs, hats, and leather, and a brisk trade in agricultural produce. It has several annual fairs, one of which lasts from Nov. 26. to Dec. 24. The hemp grown in the vicinity of this town is esteemed the best in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. (*Berghaus*, &c.)

MONTARGIS, a town of France, dép. Loiret, cap. arrond., at the confluence of the canals of Orleans, Briare and Loing, 39 m. E. by N. Orleans. Pop., in 1846, 7,372. Though ill laid out, it is pretty well built; it is in part surrounded by old walls, and has the ruins of a large castle, in which the French king often held his court. The par. church is remarkable for the elevation and boldness of its pillars and nave. Montargis has 2 hospitals, a small theatre, and manufactures of coarse woollen cloths. (*Hugo, art. Loiret*.)

MONTAUBAN, a town of France, dép. Tarn-et-Garonne, of which it is the cap., on an eminence on the banks of the Tarn, crossed here by a brick bridge of 7 arches, 123 m. E.S.E. Bordeaux; lat. 44° 1' N., long. 1° 30' 45" E. Pop., in 1846, ex. comm., 16,265, 1-3d of whom are Protestants. The town, of property so called, is small, and irregularly laid out, with narrow ill-paved streets, lined by old houses having projecting gables; but the suburbs, which are of considerable extent, present a totally different appearance, having straight, wide, and regular streets, with new, large, and elegant mansions. It has three public squares; that of the Prefecture, the *Place d'Armes*, and the *Place Royale*, the last of which is spacious, and has many handsome houses. The chief public buildings are the cathedral, a cruciform structure with 3 towers; the town-hall, a large and fine square edifice; the church of St. James, with a lofty brick tower and steeple; the prefecture, bishop's palace, the public library, with 11,000 vols., a small theatre, and several hotels. Near the prefecture commences a noble avenue, shaded with 6 rows of acacias, leading to the terraces of some adjacent promenades, which command extensive prospects of the surrounding country. The beautiful situation of Montauban, the purity of its atmosphere, the good quality, as well as abundance of its water, and the cheapness of the necessaries of life, render it a pleasant and favourite residence, even to persons of small fortune. It is the seat of a tribunal of primary jurisdiction, and has a chamber of manufactures, a society of agriculture and science, and a communal college. It has manufactures of serges, flannels, coarse cotton fabrics, and silk stockings, earthenware, soap, brandy, starch, leather, and beer. It likewise carries on a considerable retail trade, and is a large entrepôt for corn.

Montauban was built in the beginning of the 14th century, and owes its foundation to the protection afforded by the Count of Toulouse to the oppressed vassals of certain barons, who claimed, among other privileges, that of *prohibition*. It afterwards acquired celebrity on account of its early adherence to the cause of the Huguenots, and its great sufferings in their behalf. In 1621, it successfully resisted an army under Louis XIII.; but a few years subsequently, after the siege of Rochelle, it was compelled to open its gates to that monarch. A few years after it was exposed to the *dragonades*, that disgraceful reign of Louis XIV. This was the last disastrous event connected with the town, which has since

gradually risen to its present importance. (Hugo, art. *Tour-et-Garonne*, *Guide de France*, p. 63.)

MONT-BLANC, in Savoy, at once the highest mountain of the Alps and of Europe. (Vol. I. p. 68.)

MONTBRISON (an. *Mons Brion*), an ancient town of France, dep. Loire, of which it is the cap., 337 m. S.S.E. Paris; lat. 45° 36' 41" N., long. 4° 4' 23" E. Pop., in 1846, 4,963. It was formerly fortified; and is irregularly laid out with narrow streets, and low shabby houses. A cathedral, founded in 1206, and still in an unfinished state, a prefecture, hospital, college, with a library of 15,000 vols., theatre, coin-exchange, and infantry barracks are the principal buildings; but the cathedral only has any architectural beauty. Though the cap. of a dep., and the seat of a tribunal of primary jurisdiction and commerce, and of a society of agriculture, Montbrison is very unimportant, having no manufactures, and only a limited retail trade: indeed, it has been proposed to make the large manufacturing town of St. Etienne, 11 m. S. by E. Montbrison, cap. of the dep.

MONT-DE-MARSAN, a town of France, cap. dep. Landes, 64 m. S. Bordeaux. Pop., in 1846, 4,394. It is situated on the side of a declivity close to the navigable river Midouze (crossed here by a stone bridge of two arches), and is clean, well-paved, and regularly laid out, the principal buildings being the par. church, town-hall, court of justice, college, public baths, barracks, a small theatre, and a library with 1,300 vols. The suburbs are planted with trees, and laid out in walks. It has manufactures of coarse woollen cloths, blankets, and sail-cloth; and some trade, with Bayonne, in wine and brandy. It is the seat of a tribunal of primary jurisdiction, and of a society of agriculture and commerce.

MONTFALCONE, a town of central Italy, Papal States, deleg. Viterbo, on a mountain, 9 m. N.N.W. Viterbo. Pop. about 5,300. It has a fine cathedral, and many other religious edifices, but is celebrated principally for its light, white, muscadel wines; but these, as they do not bear carriage, are seldom met with out of the country where they are produced.

MONTFLEONE (an. *Hippium* and *Vitis Falentis*), a town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Calabria Ultra II., cap. of a distr. on a mountain, 274 m. S.W. Catanzaro. Pop. from 3,000 to 10,000. Its commanding situation, with its fine old castle, gives it a fine appearance from without; but its streets are crooked and ill-paved, and the houses mostly low and of wood. There are several churches, in which are some good pictures; a royal college, &c. The inhabs. are principally engaged in the tunny fishery, and in trading in silk and oil. According to Strabo (vi. 285.), Hippium was founded by the Lœvi Epithyrri. After many vicissitudes it became a Roman colony; and Cicero calls it *vilastre et nobile municipium*. It had a fine temple of Proserpine, demolished by Count Roger of Sicily, who applied the materials to the construction of the abbey at Mileto, 6 m. distant. (Cramer's *Anc. Italy*, ii. 419—421.; *Cramer's Tour*, p. 419—421.; *Rampoldi*, &c.)

MONTFLEIMART (an. *Acunum* ?), a town of France, dep. Drôme, on the Jabron, near its confluence with the Rhone, 70 m. S. Lyon, lat. 44° 32' N., long. 4° 45' E. Pop., in 1844, 4,750. It is surrounded with walls, and is generally well-built, the chief street being wide and paved with basalt. It has four handsome gates, and a well-planted public walk along the walls, which adds greatly to its beauty. Near the town is a mineral spring, highly esteemed for its medicinal qualities, and the neighbourhood is remarkable for the abundance and variety of its fruits, &c. The manufacture of figured silks is the only important branch of industry; but it has a considerable retail trade, and is the chief entrepôt of an extensive and highly productive district. It was unsuccessfully besieged by Coligny in 1567. (Hugo, *France Pitt.*, ii. 6.; *Guide de France*, &c.)

MONTFULCIANO, a town of central Italy, grand duchy of Tuscany, prov. Arezzo, on a lofty hill, 37 m. S.E. Siena. Pop. from 2,000 to 3,000. It is surrounded by a wall with battlements, and has numerous ecclesiastical establishments, a college, an hospital, and manufactures of soap, oil, and wine flasks. It is celebrated for its dessert wine, which, with excusable partiality, is preferred by Redi to all other wines:—

"Montfulcianum et apud vino è il re." *Bacco in Toscana*.

MONTREAU (an. *Condatis*), a town of France, dep. Seine-et-Marne, at the confluence of the Seine and Yonne, each of which is crossed here by a stone bridge, 42 m. S.E. Paris. Pop., in 1826, 4,379. It has a fine open market-place, and is well built, clean, and respectable: a par. church, town-hall, hospital, and three hotels, are the only public edifices of any importance. It is the seat of a tribunal of commerce, and has an extensive manufacture of earthenware, with some tan-

yards, and a considerable trade with Paris, chiefly in corn, flour, and wood for fuel.

MONTÉVIDEO, a fortified sea-port city of S. America, cap. of the repub. of Uruguay, on a peninsula extending into the estuary of the Plata on its N. side, 126 m. E. by S. Buenos Ayres; lat. 34° 54' 11" S., long. 56° 13' 18" W. Pop. variously estimated, but may probably be about 12,000. It is well fortified, and has a citadel. The houses, which are of stone or brick, are seldom above one story in height; they are flat-roofed; and timber is so scarce, that their floors consist, for the most part, of brick or bare earth. The streets being unpaved, are either clouded with dust, or loaded with mud, as the weather happens to be dry or wet. The city is ill-supplied with water, which has to be brought from a well ½ m. distant, or from pits dug near the sea side; or is else merely rain-water, collected in cisterns. There are but few public buildings, and those of no great importance; the cathedral is said to be a handsome edifice, but it is badly situated.

The port of Montevideo is the best on the Plata. It is a large circular basin, open to the S.W.; generally the water is shallow, not exceeding from 14 to 18 f.; but the bottom being soft mud, vessels are seldom damaged by grounding. It should, however, be observed, that the depth of water in the harbour, as well as throughout the whole of the Rio de la Plata, depends very much on the direction and strength of the winds. The harbour is exposed to the pamperos, or S.W. winds, which sometimes blow with so much force and continuance as to cause the rise of a fathom or more in the depth of water; but they rarely do any damage to vessels properly moored with anchors to the S.W. and S.E., and one to the N. On the opposite side of the bay is a mountain called Montevideo, whence the city has derived its name; on its summit is a light-house, having the lantern 475 ft. above the sea.

Montevideo has considerable commerce; the imports principally consist of British cottons, woollens, and hardware; flour, wine and spirits; linens, sugar, tobacco, boots and shoes, salt, &c. The great articles of export consist of animal products, of which the following quantities were exported in 1846 and 1847:—

	1846.	1847.
Dry hides - - - - -	973,101	1,756,118
Salted hides - - - - -	172,290	455,600
Sheep skins - - - - -	195,761	1,275,656
Horns - - - - -	318,042	1,407,117
Jerked beef - - - - -	50,976	569,913

The total value of the exports, in 1847, was estimated at 8,461,350 Sp. doll. The trade is principally with Great Britain, France, America, Sardinia, Spain, and Cuba.

This town was founded by a colony from Buenos Ayres, and its possession was a matter of dispute between the Spaniards and Portuguese. It was taken by the Brazilians in 1821; and became, in 1828, the cap. of the new republic of Uruguay.

MONTGOMERY, an inland co. of N. Wales, having N. Merioneth and Denbigh, K. Salop, and S. and W. Radnor and Cardigan. It is oval-shaped, and contains 536,360 acres. The Berwyn Mountains divide this co. from Merioneth; and, with the exception of some considerable valleys, of which that of the Severn is the most extensive, and that of Llangollen, partly in this co., the surface is, for the most part, rugged and mountainous. The soil is very various; but in the vales it is generally clayey, and in parts very fertile; on the whole, however, the land under tillage is not supposed to exceed from 70,000 to 80,000 acres. The Severn has its source at the extreme W. confines of this co., on the skirts of "huge Plynlimmon;" and runs in a N.E. direction, parallel to, and not very distant from, its S. boundary, till it unites with its important affluent the Vyrnwy, which also belongs to this co., on the borders of Salop. The agriculture of this co., especially in the vales and along the border of Salop, has been a good deal improved; but withal it is extremely similar to, and quite as backward as, that of Denbigh and Merioneth (which see). The climate, though moist, is mild and salubrious. The vales of this co. have been long celebrated for a superior breed of horses. Montgomery has, also, long been, and still continues to be, the best wooded co. in Wales. It was formerly regarded as one of the principal sources of the supply of oak timber for the navy; but many of its finest oak woods have been cut down; and though a good deal of new wood has been planted, it is doubtful whether it be sufficient to supply the place of that which formerly existed. Average rent of land, in 1845, 9s. 7d. an acre. There are a number of fine and commodious farm-houses and offices; but, in general, they are very defective, and the cottages are quite as bad as in Merioneth. Slate is generally diffused over the co., and forms, indeed, the basis of the mountains. Slates are quarried at Llangynog and other places; coal is raised on the borders of Salop; and there are some lead-mines, but none that are very productive. Montgomery

is the principal seat of the Welsh flannel manufacture, which is extensively carried on at Newton, Llanidloes, Machynlleth, and Welspool (which see). The co. is divided into 9 hunds, and 47 pars. It sends 2 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 1 for the co., and 1 for the town of Montgomery and its contributory bors. Registered electors for the co. in 1849-50, 3,219. In 1841, Montgomery had 13,646 inhab. houses, and 69,219 inhab., of whom 34,283 were males, and 34,936 females. Sum expended for the relief of the poor, in 1847-48, 28,172*l*.

MONTGOMERY, a pari. bor., market-town, and par. of N. Wales, cap. co. of its own name, 20 m. S.W. Shrewsbury, and 146 m. W.N.W. London. Pop., in 1841, 1,176. Though small, it is a clean well-built town, in a hollow at the foot of a high hill. The guildhall stands on an eminence near the ruins of an ancient castle, close to which is the co. gaol, a modern stone building, well adapted for its purpose. The church, a cruciform structure, in the early English style, has a handsome tower, erected in 1816, and an exquisitely carved screen, and some curious monuments; the living is a rectory in the gift of the crown. The Calvinists and Wesleyan Methodists have also their respective places of worship; and there are 2 Sunday schools, and a small endowed school. No trade or manufacture is carried on in the town; and it deserves notice merely from its being the cap. of a co. and a pari. bor. It was incorporated by Henry III. under a charter and 12 burgesses; who enjoyed till the passing of the Reform Act, the privilege of sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. This act, however, made Llanfylline, Llanidloes, Machynlleth, Newtown, and Pool, contributory bors. with Montgomery in the election of the mem. Registered electors for the entire district, in 1849-50, 1,048, of whom about 120 belong to Montgomery. The election for the co. takes place h-re; and sessions are held alternately with Newtown. Markets on Tuesday; fairs, March 26th, first Tuesday in May, June 7, Sept. 4, and Nov. 14.

Montgomery is an ancient, and its castle was built prior to the Norman conquest, and, from its size and strength, was frequently an object of contention during the wars between the English and Welsh. In 1354, it was in the possession of Roger Mortimer, from whom it passed to the crown. In the 15th century, the stewardship of the town and castle was granted to the Herberts of Cherbury. The famous Lord Herbert, celebrated alike for his chivalry, wit, and learning, was born here in 1581. It is the birth place, also, of the late Dr. Abraham Rees, the learned editor of the voluminous and valuable Cyclopædia which bears his name. (*Nicholson's Camb. Guide; Parl. Papers.*)

MONTILLA (an. *Montulia*), a town of Spain, in Andalusia, prov. Cordova, 19 m. S. by E. Cordova. Pop., acc. to Miñano, 12,800. It is well built, and has two par. churches, an orphan asylum, three hospitals, a royal school of Latin and rhetoric, and a bonding warehouse for wine. Its trade is considerable, chiefly with Cordova, both in manufactured goods and farm produce, particularly wine, horses, and wool. It has a good castle, which, though small and ungainly in appearance, are very hardy and servicable. An annual fair is held in Sept., and well attended.

MONTLUÇON, a town of France, dép. Allier, cap. arrond. on the Cher, close to the canal De Berri, in a valley bordered by vine-clad hills, 38 m. W. S.W. Moulins, and 171 m. S. by E. Paris; lat. 46° 20' N., long. 2° 40' E. Pop., in 1836, *cx* com., 4,380. It was formerly fortified, and is well built and situated. A par. church and hospital are the only public buildings. It produces some coarse woollen and linen fabrics; and has a considerable trade in corn, wine, cheese, and cattle.

MONTMARTRE, a town of France, dép. Seine, only a few furlongs N. of Paris, on a conical hill of the same name, commanding an extensive view of the French metropolis and its suburbs. Pop., in 1836, 6,234. It is the favourite resort of the Parisians on Sundays and holidays, and comprises several inns and other houses of entertainment, with some neat-looking villas and private residences. An asylum for 60 old men, a private lunatic establishment, and two schools, have been founded here, and it has all-cloth manufactures, scagliola-works, and woollen mills, with mines of gypsum, which supply the whole of Paris with plaster. In 1814, the hill was fortified by the Parisians, who defended it for a day against the allies.

MONTPELLIER (Lat. *Mons Pessulanus*), a city of France, dép. Hérault, of which it is the cap., on the Les, about 5 m. from the Mediterranean, and 77 m. W. by N. Marseilles; lat. 43° 36' 56" N., long. 3° 52' 45" E. Pop., in 1846 (in com.), 40,107. It is beautifully situated on the declivities of a low hill, commanding views of the Alps, the Pyrenees, the Cevennes, and the sea. It was formerly walled, and a place of considerable strength; but of its ancient fortifications, there are now only a few gates, a tower, and some portions of the wall on the N.E. side of the city. It still, however,

has, at one extremity, a citadel built by Louis XIII.; while, at its other extremity, is the *Place or Promenade de Peyrou*, one of the noblest public walks in Europe. This place is entered by a Doric arch, and ornamented with long lines of ballustrades, covered ways, various sculptures, a bronze equestrian statue of Louis XIV., and numerous fountains, including a magnificent hexagonal *château d'eau* of Corinthian architecture. This, like the other public fountains of Montpellier, is supplied by an aqueduct about 84 m. in length, constructed in the middle of the last century; and which, for a distance of 880 metres, or more than $\frac{1}{2}$ m., is raised on a double row of stone arches, and, in point of elegance, rivals the boasted *Pont du Gard*. Between the town and the ramparts of the citadel is the Esplanade, a fine open space planted with trees and ornamented with reservoirs, &c.; the boulevards surrounding the town also afford good public walks; and in the outskirts are many newly-built and handsome terraces. The city itself is very ill laid out; its streets are narrow, steep, and winding, and its squares small and irregular; but its houses are generally good, and, according to Hugo and others, it is kept remarkably clean. The public buildings are quite unworthy so considerable a city. Of eight churches, none demands any particular notice; the cathedral is distinguished from the rest only by being larger and uglier; a singular-looking porch, and a tower at three of the angles of the nave, are the principal external ornaments of this edifice. Adjacent to it is the School of Medicine, occupying what was formerly the bishop's palace, a large building with several fine apartments. This school, founded by the Arabs driven from Spain in 1180, enjoys a high and well-deserved celebrity, as one of the best conducted establishments of its kind in France; and is all that now remains of the once famous university of Montpellier. It has a new and fine amphitheatre; an examination-hall, in which is an antique bronze bust of Hippocrates; a council-hall, with portraits of professors from the period of the 13th century, including also a portrait of Rabelais; a library of 35,000 vols., including many editions of the 15th century, and 600 valuable MSS. in different European and Asiatic languages; a pretty extensive anatomical museum, several spacious laboratories, &c. The general hospital has accommodation for upwards of 600 patients; and there are large and well-conducted lunatic and lying-in hospitals. The botanic garden of Montpellier, which dates from the reign of Henri IV., was the first established in France, and, though small, comprises 8,000 species of plants; it is one of the four principal and best arranged botanic gardens in the kingdom, which distinction it owes to its having been the scene of the labours of the late celebrated M. de Candolle. But its greatest interest to Englishmen is derived from its possessing, in one of its most sequestered parts, the tomb of Narcissa, the daughter-in-law of Young, whose funeral the poet has vividly described in "Night the Third."* One of the principal attractions in Montpellier is the museum, founded, in 1825, by the Baron Fabre, a native of the town. It comprises four species and wall-figures halls, and comprises collections of paintings, engravings, statues, medals, and other objects of *virtù*, a library of 15,000 volumes, &c., the whole estimated to be worth 2,600,000 fr. The theatre, built in 1786, is well planned, and capable of accommodating 2,000 persons; it is, however, little frequented, and the pit, which is without seats, usually serves as an exchange. The palace of Justice, the town-hall, exchange, prefecture, admiralty, barracks, several prisons, including a central prison, with workshops, the Calvinist chapel, synagogue, &c. are the remaining principal buildings; but none deserves especial notice. There are several very good hotels; one of which is said by Ingils to be the best in the S. of France.

Montpellier is a bishop's see, the cap. of the ninth military division of the kingdom, and the seat of a royal court for the déps. Aude, Aveyron, Hérault, and Pyrénées-Orientales, a court of original jurisdiction, a tribunal, and a chamber of commerce, boards of taxation, customs, artillery, and engineering, an university, academy, and a royal college. It has schools of veterinary medicine, engineering, drawing, architecture, geometry, and music; societies of agriculture, arts and sciences, medicine, and archaeology, a government loan-bank; Protestant Bible societies, a prison society; and numerous other charitable associations; several asylums, &c. It has manufactures of woollen cloths, cotton handkerchiefs, muslins, table and other linens, hats, silk, cotton, and woollen hosiery; with cotton-thread factories, distilleries, sugar refineries, breweries, chemical works, &c. It is connected with its port Capestang, 17 m. S.W. by a railway, and has a brisk trade with it, and with other towns and villages, exporting large quantities of fresh and dried fruits, wool, and other kinds of rural pro-

* It is stated in Johnson's (Cruik's) Life of Young that Narcissa, or Mrs. Temple, died at Lyons, in her way to Nice; but she, in fact, died at Montpellier.

duce, in addition to its manufactured products. It was formerly a place of great resort for English invalids, on account of the alleged salubrity of its climate.

"About twenty-five years ago," says Inglis, "900 English families were sometimes resident here; but since fashion, caprice, or experiment, have sent consumptive patients to die in Madeira or Naples, instead of Montpellier, that number has been reduced to 40 or 50 families, who, indeed, resort thither less for the sake of health than economy. It is undeniable, however, that the air of Montpellier (however little that bustling city may resemble the retired spot pictured by the imagination) is dry and salubrious, possessing the mildness of a southern clime, and yet having its heat tempered by the sea-breeze. It is also a cheap residence, the more so from the diminished influx of strangers. Two well furnished rooms may be obtained for about 10s. a week; and living is not expensive. Beef and mutton fetch from 5d. to 6d. per lb., fish, of about 20 different sorts, may be had at prices varying from 6 to 20 sous: fruit and vegetables are both cheap and good; wine ranges between 1 and 2 francs the bottle."

Montpellier has given birth to many distinguished persons, among whom may be specified Chaptal the chemist, Cambaceres, the politician, &c. It appears to have been founded in the 8th century, and was for a while dependent on the kings of Majorca. It was acquired by Philip of Valois in 1349, but was not finally annexed to France till the reign of Charles VI. The Calvinists got possession of it under Henry III., and held it till 1624, when it was taken after a long siege by Louis XIII. (*Inglis's Swiss, and France*, p. 207.; *Frasard, Tableau Pitt. de Nîmes et de ses Environs*, li. 84.—63.; Hugo, art. *Hérault*; *Guide du Voyageur en France*.)

MONTREAL, a town and river port of British America, and the second city and chief seat of the commerce of Lower Canada; on the S. side of the island of Montreal, in the St. Lawrence, 142 m. in a direct line S. W. Quebec; lat. 45° 30' W., long. 73° 25' N. Pop., with its suburbs, in 1844, 40,137. Its site is not so commanding as that of Quebec, but it is in every other respect superior to that city. It is not so crowded; and some even of its older streets are of tolerable breadth. Montreal is divided into the Upper and the Lower Town, the difference in their elevation is but slight, but the former, being the more modern, is the handsomer division. It has several suburbs, including which it stretches along the river for 2 m. from N. to S., and has, for some distance, a nearly equal breadth inland. The battlemented wall, with which it was formerly surrounded, has long fallen into decay, and it is now entirely open, the wooded heights around being covered with villas and pleasure grounds. In the Lower Town, Paul Street, the chief commercial thoroughfare, extends parallel with the river the whole length of the city; and in the Upper Town several streets proceed in the same direction, communicating with Paul Street by cross streets. In the Upper Town and suburbs, which are mostly inhabited by the principal merchants, many of the houses are handsomely and solidly built in the modern style; but in the Lower Town they are principally of a gloomy looking grey stone, with dark iron window shutters and tinued roofs. Along the bank of the river is an extensive line of quays and warehouses. Many of the houses in the suburbs are built of wood, but there are no wooden buildings within the space now encompassed by the walls; and this city, and Quebec have more of the aspect of old European towns than any other towns in America.

The most remarkable public edifice is the Rom. Cath. cathedral, opened in 1829, and superior to any other church in British America. It is of Gothic architecture, 255½ ft. in length by 134½ in breadth. It is faced with stone, and roofed with tin, and has 6 towers, of which the three belonging to the main front are 220 ft. in height. On the roof is a promenade, 76 ft. in length by 20 in breadth, elevated 120 ft. The principal window is 64 ft. in height, and 32 in breadth. The interior is capable of accommodating from 10,000 to 12,000 persons, who may disperse by numerous outlets in 5 or 6 minutes. It comprises 7 chapels, and 9 spacious aisles. There are several other Rom. Cath. churches, mostly belonging to the order of St. Sulpice; to the members of which Montreal chiefly owed its foundation, and who still hold the seignory of the island upon which it stands.

The seminary of St. Sulpice, a large and commodious building adjoining the cathedral, occupies three sides of an oblong area, 123 ft. in length by 29 deep, and is surrounded by spacious gardens. A handsome additional building, 210 ft. by 45 ft., has been lately erected, at an expense of 10,000l. In these establishments, students in most of the higher branches of learning are taught at very moderate charges. The principal English church is a handsome building, in the Grecian style, surmounted by a high and beautiful spire. It has also a Scotch kirk, an American Protestant church, and chapels belonging to the Methodists and Scotch dissenters. The Montreal General

Hospital, erected in 1821-2 by voluntary subscription, a large and well-built edifice, is said to be one of the best regulated institutions of the kind in America. A large conventual structure, the *Hôtel-Dieu*, occupied by a superior matron and thirty-six nuns, is appropriated to the reception of the sick and indigent; and the convent of the Grey Sisters partly serves as an asylum for the aged and infirm, the insane, foundlings, &c.

The *Sœurs Noires* have an extensive convent, founded in 1650; its inmates consist of a superior and 60 nuns, whose duties are directed to the education of young girls. The court-house and prison are substantial buildings, occupying the site of the former college of the Jesuits. The government-house, bank, barracks, ordnance-office, and 4 market-houses, are among the remaining principal buildings. In one of the squares is a colossal statue of Nelson, placed on a Doric column, the pedestal of which has bas-reliefs representing his principal actions. Besides the educational establishments noticed above, Montreal has a college, with a principal and 4 professors, a royal grammar-school, parochial, union, national, Sunday, and other public schools; and many good private French and English seminaries. The university of McGill college, endowed by a citizen of Montreal, in 1814, with a valuable estate, and 10,000l. in money, and chartered in 1821, is connected on a liberal and enlarged scale. Montreal has a penitentiary, a house of industry, a savings' bank, a natural history society, a mechanics' institution, a central auxiliary society for promoting education and industry, Bible and tract, agricultural and horticultural societies; several public libraries, an excellent news-room, &c. Several newspapers and other periodical publications issue from the presses of the town. According to Mr. McGregor, there is a greater spirit of improvement in this city than in Quebec. There is much activity observable among all classes connected with trade. The position of Montreal at the head of the ship navigation of the St. Lawrence, and near the confluence of that river with the Ottawa, as well as its situation with respect to the U. States, necessarily make it one of the greatest emporiums of America. (*Brit. America*, li. 309.)

The harbour, though not large, is secure, and vessels drawing 15 ft. water may lie close to the shore. Its general depth of water is from 3 to 4½ fathoms. Its chief disadvantage consists in the rapid of St. Mary's, about 1 m. below, which vessels often find it difficult to surmount. To obviate the obstructions in the navigation above Montreal, the Lachine canal, 9 m. long, 20 ft. wide, and 5 ft. in depth, was undertaken in 1821, and completed at an expense of 130,000l. The communication with the opposite sides of the river is carried on by several steam and other vessels; and, during the summer, a regular steam-boat communication is kept up with Quebec. At this season, vast rafts of timber come down, and pass the city for Quebec; and, as caws, bateaux of about 6 tons, and Durham boats, bring to Montreal the produce of Upper Canada. Neither is the trade of Montreal interrupted in winter, like that of Quebec. Thousands of sledges may then be seen coming in from all directions with agricultural produce, frozen carcasses of beef and pork, firewood, and other articles. Montreal is the centre of the commerce between Canada and the U. States, carried on by Lake Champlain and the Hudson; and not only is it the depot of all the adjacent country, but most of the business done in Quebec is carried on by branches from the Montreal houses. In 1847, 876,127 bar. of flour were exported from Montreal, the total value of her exports during the same year being estimated at 697,794l. Formerly this city was the head quarters of the fur trade, but its interest in it has greatly declined. It has, however, cast-iron foundries; distilleries; breweries; soap, candle, and tobacco manufactories; several ship-building establishments; and machinery for steam-engines. Various articles of hardware, linseed oil, floor-cloth, &c., are made in the town. The markets are abundantly supplied with good butchers' meat, fish, poultry, fruit, vegetables, &c. Mr. McGregor says that better accommodations are to be found here than in Quebec; and the society is as good.

Montreal was, till lately, the seat of the united Canadian legislature. But the latter is now transferred alternately to Toronto and Quebec, the former seats of the separate legislatures of Upper and Lower Canada. This transference was occasioned by a disgraceful riot which occurred at Montreal in April, 1849, when the House of Assembly was burnt to the ground, with the colonial archives and public library. A city where such a gross outrage could be perpetrated was certainly no very fit place for the meetings of the legislative body; and it now, as stated above, meets alternately at Toronto and Quebec.

About 2-4ths of the pop. are of French descent; the remainder, consisting principally of emigrants from the U. Kingdom, Americans, and Iroquois Indians. Montreal, originally called *Ville-Marie*, was taken from the French, in 1760. (*McGregor's British America*, li. 300—317.; *Encyc. of Geog.*, Amer. ed.; *Parl. Reports*.)

MONTROSE, a royal and parl. bor. and sea-port town of Scotland, co. Forfar, at the mouth of the S. Esk, on the N. side of the river, on a projecting tongue of land, between the German Ocean, on the E., and the basin of Montrose, on the W., 60 m. N.N.E. Edinburgh; lat. 56° 49' 10" N., long. 9° 27' 15" W. Pop., in 1801, 7,974; in 1841, 14,352; but, including the suburbs of Inch (a small island formed by the river) and Ferryden, 15,096, exclusive of sailors, who amount to between 600 and 700. At present (1850) the pop. is supposed to exceed 18,500.

The town consists of one wide and regular street, extending from N. to S. upwards of $\frac{1}{2}$ m., with numerous closes and subsidiary streets. Many of the houses present their gables to the street, as in the Netherlands. It is a handsome town, well paved, lighted with gas, and supplied with water, conveyed in pipes, from a distance of 3 m. The public buildings are the town-hall, gaol, lunatic asylum, academy, trades' school, infirmary, house of refuge, parish church, with a handsome steeple, 200 ft. high; 3 Free churches, St. John's and St. George's; 7 dissenting churches, of which 2 belong to the United Presbyterian body, and the others to the Methodists, Baptists, Glasites, Independents, &c. The parish church is collegiate; and one of the two ministers is paid by a tax of 24 s. out of the rental of the bor. The narrow downs, provincially *links*, between the town and the sea, are most resorted to by the inhab. for golf-playing; a game which is in great favour here and in various other places in Scotland.

The most important public structure connected with Montrose is the suspension-bridge, completed in 1829, over the principal branch of the South Esk, and uniting the town with the Inch. The distance between the towers at the extremities of the bridge is 432 ft.; the height of each tower is 71 ft.; the width of the bridge is 25 ft. within the suspending-rods. The whole cost above 26,000*l.*; the postage levied amounts to about 1,300*l.* a year. The extent of the Inch is less than $\frac{1}{2}$ m., and the branch of the river on the opposite side is crossed by a drawbridge; so that the communication across the two channels of the South Esk is as perfect as possible. The town is now connected by a branch line with the Aberdeen railway.

Montrose has been long celebrated for its schools. It was the first place, in Scotland, in which Greek was taught (*Mr. Knor of the App. n. C.*). It has preserved the character which it so early (1534) attained. It has at present about 20 schools, and above 1,600 pupils, being nearly an *eleventh* part of the entire pop. Of the schools, two are entirely free; one, founded in 1816, by a Mr. White, educates 100 poor children; and another, founded in 1823, by Miss Stratton, educates 43 boys and as many girls. Five schools are partially endowed; the others are voluntary and unendowed seminaries. The academy, published in 1816, is an excellent seminary. Andrew Melville, who was educated in the neighbourhood, was educated at the grammar-school of Montrose. George Wishart, who suffered martyrdom, was also educated here, and subsequently held the office of teacher in the same school. The celebrated Marquis of Montrose, who made so distinguished a figure in the civil wars in the 17th century, was a native of the town. Archbishop Leighton was descended of a family whose seat was within 3 m. of the bor. There are various subscription libraries, one of which, founded in 1783, has above 10,000 vols.; a mechanics' institute, which has occasional lectures on different branches of science; a Natural History and Antiquarian Society, to which Lord Panmure has been a liberal benefactor; a Horticultural Society; various literary and philosophical societies, and 3 weekly newspapers.

In addition to the funds bequeathed for the support of schools, there are no fewer than 15 different bequests, amounting in the aggregate to about 11,500*l.*, left for the support of the poor, or for particular classes among them, exc. certain annuities. Poor's rates, however, were introduced in 1836; and the assessment in 1850-51 amounted to 2,486*l.* 6s. 9d. There is, also, an hospital fund, consisting of certain lands and tithes granted to the town by James VI., in 1587, amounting to about 170*l.* a year. The lunatic asylum, in an airy and healthy situation, was founded in 1779; and having been greatly enlarged and improved, it was incorporated by royal charter in 1811. It has usually from 140 to 150 inmates. The infirmary, a handsome new building, has attached to it a fever hospital, and a dispensary. Average number of patients in the infirmary and fever hospital about 21: do. of out-door or dispensary patients, who receive advice and medicines, about 550. A house of refuge was established and endowed in 1836, by a benevolent citizen, William Dorward, Esq.; total value of property and funds belonging to the trust, 21st Oct. 1850, 29,358*l.* 2s. 10d. It is intended to shelter and provide for old and destitute persons of both sexes, and for destitute children. The building is handsome and commodious, and the institution, which is said to be admirably conducted, has, at

present (1850), 105 inmates: the children are educated at the different charity schools. There is, also, a society for the relief of the destitute sick.

The principal business in Montrose is flax-spinning and weaving. At present (Jan. 1851) there are in the town and its immediate vicinity 5 flax-spinning mills driven by steam engines; and there are, besides, in connexion with the town, 1 mill at Craigo, 1 at Logie, and 1 at Kinnaber, driven by water from the N. Esk. The consumption of flax by these mills amounts to about 5,750 tons a year; and the produce of yarn to about 51,000 spindles a week, or 2,652,000 spindles a year. About 1,780 hands are employed in spinning, and 350 in heckling.

Here is also a power loom factory of 180 looms, driven by steam, and about 400 hand looms, 300 of which are in factories, employed principally on the finer and heavier linen fabrics, such as sheetings, dowels, ducks, &c. The weekly produce of these looms is about 1,450 pieces, or 75,400 pieces annually. About 1,300 hands are employed in weaving and manufactures.

Two large bleach-fields in the neighbourhood, one at Craigo, and another at Logie, employ about 300 hands.

Montrose has two rope and sail works, and a machine factory. Shipbuilding is carried on to a considerable extent, and at present 6 ships are on the stocks. There is a patent slip for repairing ships. There are 3 breweries, 3 tanneries, 2 distilleries, 3 starch factories, and a foundry. A meal and flour-mill are driven by steam.

The harbour is one of the best on the E. coast of Scotland. The channel of the river is narrow; but, as it has 15 or 18 ft. water over the bar at low ebb, middling-sized merchantmen may run in at any time of the tide; and, at high water, it is accessible to the largest ships. A wet dock has been excavated below the old harbour, at the cost of about 50,000*l.*; but it has been doubted whether the benefit it has conferred on the shipping of the port be sufficient to counterbalance the injury arising from the increase of the harbour dues it has occasioned. The basin, immediately W. from the town, has a fine appearance on the map, but is of little use. It is nearly circular, being about 3 m. in diameter: it is shallow, and, excepting the channel of the river, dries at low water. Vessels of 50 or 60 tons, however, reach Old Montrose, at the other end of the basin. The entrance to the harbour has, on its N. side, 2 lighthouses, with fixed lights.

On the 1st of January, 1851, there belonged to Montrose 115 ships of the aggregate burden of 14,796 tons. Customs revenue in 1850, 15,718*l.* The trade of the port has considerably increased of late years. The chief imports from foreign countries are flax, hemp, and timber. In 1850, there were imported at Montrose 5,345 tons flax and hemp, 39,436 tons coal, 4,384 loads timber, 14,302 barrels herrings, and 5,488 quarters wheat. The great articles of export are canvass and coarse linens, corn, cattle (1,147 in 1850), smoked haddocks, pork, potatoes, &c. Previously to 1833 3 or 4 ships sailed annually to the Greenland whale fishery; but this branch of trade has been abandoned. The majority of the ships belonging to the port are now engaged in the Baltic trade. The steamers that ply between Leith and the N. of Scotland regularly call at Usan, 2 m. S. of Montrose; and a steamer, belonging to the town, plies twice a week to Leith. A direct trade is carried on with London by the agency of schooners and smacks. There are five banks in the town; a savings' bank, the deposits in which, on the 30th Nov. 1850, amounted to 21,187*l.*, and two insurance societies.

Montrose was created a royal bor. by David I. in the 13th century. It was here that John Balliol, in 1296, surrendered the Scottish crown to Edward I. Montrose was the first port made by the French fleet, in 1715, with the Pretender on board; and the same personage sailed from it in February, 1716. Joseph Hume, Esq., the veteran reformer, is a native of Montrose, where he first saw the light in 1777.

The corp. consists of a provost, 3 bailies, and 15 councillors. Municipal revenue, 1851, 3,000*l.* Montrose unites with Arbroath, Brechin, Forfar, and Berrie, in sending a mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 488. (*Private Information.*)

MONTSEERRAT, one of the British W. Indian Islands, a dependency on Antigua, from which it is distant S. W. 27 m.; in lat. 16° 45' N., long. 61° 0' W. It is about 12 m. in length, and 5 m. in its greatest breadth. Area, estimated at about 30,000 acres. Pop., in 1844, 7,355, of whom above 9-10ths were blacks. Montserrat consists of a range of steep abrupt mountains, or, rather, perhaps, of one lofty mountain, 2,560 ft. high, the summit of which has been broken into a variety of deep precipices and chasms. The upper parts are altogether barren; but the base of the mountain slopes off to the sea by a succession of gentle ridges, admitting of cultivation; and the lower parts are well watered, and very productive. With the exception of the town of Plymouth, unfavourably situated near the S.W. beach, with an amphitheatre of hills in its rear,

intercepting the sea-breeze, the island enjoys a comparatively high degree of salubrity. (*Travels Report on the Salubrity, &c. in the W. Indies*, p. 25.) In 1849, only 63 cwt. sugar, 637 gall. rum, and 19 cwt. molasses, were imported from Montserrat into the U. Kingdom. The total value of the exports and imports amount to about 10,000*l.* each. Amount awarded to the colonial proprietors for the manumission of slaves, 103,568*l.* &c.; the average value of a slave from 1822 to 1830, having been about 37*l.* This island was discovered in 1493, by Columbus, who gave it its present name. It was colonised by the English in 1632. The French took it in 1668, but restored it at the peace of Utrecht. (*Parl. Papers*, &c.)

MONZA (an. *Mediolan*), a town of Austrian Italy, deleg. Milan, on the Lambro, here crossed by 3 stone bridges, 9 m. N.N.E. Milan. Pop., in 1837, 8,378. It is regularly laid out, paved with round stones, and tolerably well built. It is interesting from having been the seat of government during the time of the Lombard kingdom; and the iron crown of Lombardy is kept, with other relics, in its cathedral, an edifice supposed to date from the 7th century. The former residence of the Lombard kings is said to have been the building now occupied by the court of justice. Monza has a royal palace, with fine grounds, greatly embellished by Prince Eugene Beauharnois, and which is the usual summer residence of the Austrian viceroy; a gymnasium; 2 hospitals; a theatre; and manufactures of silk and cotton stuffs, shawls, hats, and leather. (*Dict. Geog.; Conder's Italy*, i. 347-8.)

MOOLTAN, or MOULTAN, a city of the Punjab, probably the *Malli* of Alexander's historians, cap. prov. of same name, on the Chinaub or Acesines, 190 m. S.W. Lahore. Lat. 30° 9' N.; long. 71° 7' E. Pop. about 60,000, one-third of whom may be Hindoos; the rest are Mohammedans, the Sikhs being confined to the garrison, which does not exceed 500 men. (*Burnes's Bokhara*, &c., i. 95.) The city is upwards of 3 m. in circ., surrounded by a dilapidated wall, and overlooked on the N. by a fortress of some strength. A considerable portion of the town evidently stands on the debris of more ancient buildings. The houses are of burnt brick, with flat roofs; they sometimes rise to the height of 6 stories, so that the narrow streets are dark and gloomy. The fortress of Mooltan is an irregular hexagon, with a wall of burnt brick, 40 ft. high on the outside, and flanked with about 30 towers. In its interior are numerous houses, now uninhabited and falling into ruin, several mosques, and a Hindoo temple of high antiquity. Mooltan has several elegant and highly venerated tombs. Its inhabs. are principally engaged in weaving and dyeing cotton cloths, and silks of a somewhat coarser texture than those of Bahawalpore, but which are largely exported into the adjacent countries. Many of the fabrics of Mooltan are, as of old, of a purple colour, and interwoven with gold. This city was formerly frequented by a great number of pilgrims, and afforded immense plunder to the Mohammedans in 712. It was captured by Mahmood, of Ghaznee, in 1010; by Mahomed Ghor, in 1176; by Timour, in 1398; and by Runjeet Singh, in 1818, since which it has belonged to the dom. of Lahore. (*Burnes's Bokhara*, i. 95-100; *Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*)

MOORSHEADBAD, a large city of British India, presid. and prov. Bengal, on the Bhagirathi, or most sacred branch of the Ganges, 115 m. N. Calcutta. Lat. 24° 11' N.; long. 88° 15' E. Pop. estimated by Hamilton at 165,000. In point of appearance Moorsheadbad cannot compare with either of the other great cities of Bengal, but it is not so mean as has been sometimes represented. The houses are principally of mud and straw; the city extends for 8 m. along both banks of the river, and a number of brick chimneys houses are interspersed among the rest, with terraces, small verandahs, flat roofs, &c. "on which you may see the owners, in their Moorish dresses, smoking their hookahs, playing chess, or walking sedately in small parties." A great many small mosques are scattered throughout the city; but a large and fine looking European residence, erected by the British government for the residence of the Bengal nabob, is the only public building worth notice. On the *moorie fheel*, a pool left by a former winding of the river, are the remains of the palace, &c., built by Alisider Khan, in the last century, partly with materials from the ruins of Gour. Within the gateway by which the grounds are entered, is a handsome mosque of fine stone, which the zealous frequenters have concealed with thick layers of whitewash. What were formerly gardens are now mere naked fields. Only one fragment of the palace exists, but this is an elegant ruin, consisting of 4 arches supported by 5 columns, the whole of beautifully polished black marble.

Moorsheadbad is considered unhealthy from the neglected state of the sewers, the closeness and filthiness of the streets, and the rank jungle intermingled with the huts and houses; and pestilential diseases have often

raged here with much violence. It is also exposed to the attacks of dacoits and other plunderers, never having been fortified except by an occasional rampart during the Mahratta invasion in the last century. It is the head quarters of one of the 6 courts of circuit under the Bengal presid.; the seat of a zillah court; the residence of the district collector and other British functionaries, and of the nabob of Bengal; and has a British College, founded in 1826, and endowed with an income of 16,500 rupees a year.

Moorsheadbad became the cap. of Bengal in 1704, and continued to be the seat of government till the conquest of Bengal by the British in 1756. It was then virtually superseded by Calcutta, to which the revenue-board, collector-general, &c. were transferred in 1781. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gazetteer; Mod. Trav.*, ix. 145-151.)

MORADABAD, a town and distr. of British India, prov. Delhi. The town, on the Rangungia, 105 m. E. by N. Delhi, is one of the most populous and flourishing seats of commerce in the upper provs. It has some good streets, but no public edifice of any importance. The district, or collectorate, is included between the 28th and 30th degs of N. lat., and 77° 40' and 79° E. long. Area, 5,800 sq. m. Pop., probably 1,500,000. It is well watered, and extensive tracts are very fertile, though a good deal of it be waste. Sugar, cotton, and wheat are the chief products; the latter is almost wholly exported, the food of the pop. consisting principally of jowaree, bajree, &c. At least one-fifth part of the land is held rent-free. Total land revenue, (1829-30), 565,110 rupees. (*Parl. Revenue Report*, 1832; *Hamilton, E. I. Gazetteer*.)

MORAT (Germ. *Murten*), a small town of Switzerland, cant. Freiburg, on the S.E. bank of the lake of the same name, and on the high road between Bern and Lausanne, 14 m. W. by S. the former city. Pop., with its suburbs, 1,586. It is partially walled round; and has an ancient castle, now the residence of the *oberamtman*, an hospital, and an orphan asylum, a Protestant college, a public library, superior, inferior, and commercial schools, and a brisk transit and general trade. The circumstance of several Roman antiquities having been discovered here has led to the supposition that Morat was anciently one of the suburbs of *Aventicum* (now Avenche). This otherwise insignificant town, owes its celebrity to the great battle fought under its walls on the 24th of June, 1476, in which the Swiss totally defeated the invading army of Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy.

"Morat! the proud, the patriot field! where man
May gaze on ghastly trophies of the slain,
Nor blush for those who conquer'd on that plain.
Here Burgundy's leagu'd host his tombless host,
A bonny heap through ages to remain;
Themselves their monument." *Childe Harold*.

The loss of the Burgundians was immense; as many as 15,000 soldiers having, it is said, been left on the field, exclusive of those drowned in the lake. The bones of the slain were afterwards collected, in memory of the battle, in a square building, called an ossuary. This singular monument, after standing for more than 300 years, was destroyed in 1798, by the soldiers from Burgundy, in the French army. But though nothing could surpass the gallantry and devotion displayed by the Swiss on this occasion, it is pretty certain that the defeat of Charles at Morat, as well as his previous defeat at Granson, was owing quite as much to his rashness and folly, as to the bravery of his enemies. The principal strength of the duke's army consisted in its cavalry; and yet, on both occasions, he engaged in defiles where they could not act. (*L'Ardre vérifier les Dates*, part ii. tom. ii. p. 96.)

MORAVIA (Germ. *Mähren*), an important prov. of the Austrian empire, which includes the Austrian Silesia, incorporated with it since 1773, extending between lat. 48° 46' and 50° 29' N., and the 15th and 19th degs. of E. long., having N. Prussian Silesia, E. and S.E. Galicia and Hungary, S. the latter country and Austria, and W. and N.W. Bohemia. It is of a rhomboidal shape; greatest length about 185 m.; average breadth, 55 m. Area, about 10,240 sq. m. Pop. in 1842, 2,293,477. In the N. part of the prov. is a mountainous ridge of no great elevation, stretching W.N.W. and E.S.E., between the Sudeten Bund on the W. and the Jablanka mountains, a branch of the Carpathians on the E., dividing the waters that flow N. into the Oder and the Baltic, on the one hand, from those that flow S. into the Mediterranean on the other. The E. and W. frontiers of the prov. are also defended by mountain ridges. Excepting in the N., the country is mostly level, or merely undulating, with a gentle slope to the S.; nearly all its great rivers, including the Morava, by which it is intersected from N. to S., and whence, also, it derives its name, the Iglawa, Thayer, &c., flowing in that direction. The Oder has its sources in the N. ridge. Being sheltered on the N., E., and W. by mountain ranges, and lying in general only from 500 to 1,000 ft. above the level of

the sea, Moravia enjoys a milder climate than most countries in the same lat. The mean temperature of the year at Olmutz is about 48° Fah. The wind is mostly from the S., and the atmosphere clear. A large proportion of the soil is very fertile, and if advantageous markets could be found, large quantities of corn might be raised for exportation; but, in consequence of the want of the latter, the attention of the inhabs. has been of late devoted more to manufactures than to agriculture, and Moravia is no longer a country whence supplies of corn might be drawn, at a short notice, on a very large scale.

An estate of mean size comprises from 850 to 1,400 acres of arable land, from 140 to 420 acres of meadow land, and 1,000 to 2,500 or more of wood, according to the situation. The estates conferring the right of representation in the assembly, and which are only held by knights or nobles, are of all sizes from a few acres to many sq. miles in extent. These estates can, strictly speaking, be also held by a commoner, but only on his paying a portion of the taxes twice over, and on his renouncing the right to all kinds of patronage and judicial authority. The estates of mean size may be estimated at 2-3ds of the whole; but about 30 estates exceed 32 English sq. m. in extent. In purchasing land, a profit of from 4 to 4½ per cent. per annum is generally looked for. The size of the peasant's holdings is very various; in the plains it may be about 28 English acres; but in the hilly parts, where the pop. is thinner and the soil less productive, it is 30, 40, and in some parts 70 acres. Half holdings, quarter holdings, as well as cottlers with small gardens, are also frequent. It is supposed that of the peasant families, 2-3ds hold land, and about 1-3d may be considered as mere labourers. The mode of cultivation adopted by the peasants in the low lands consists in a rotation of three crops, viz. wheat, rye, summer corn, fallow; the fallow being only partial. In the hilly parts, the fallows are used for potatoes, turnips, flax, &c.; in the mountains tillage is more irregular. On most of the small estates of the nobles, a better rotation of crops, with clover, green food, and meadows, prevails, according as the soil, or the local advantages of common grazing (which is very extensive) render it necessary. The following rotations, among others, are pursued:—1. Potatoes, with manure; 2. Barley, or oats, with clover; 3. Clover hay; 4. Clover as pasture; 5. Rye; 6. Oats. In heavy soils.—1. Winter corn with dung; 2. Barley, with clover; 3. Clover; 4. Wheat; 5. Green fodder, with manure; 6. Wheat; 7. Pease and beans; 8. Rye. In the low lands millet is a good deal cultivated; in the mountains flax. On the estate of a Moravian nobleman, which is cultivated in a superior manner, but is by no means of a superior quality of soil, as compared with other estates in the same prov., the following is the average produce of corn per acre:—

	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.
Wheat	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.
Rye	42	14	24½
Barley	49	104	24
Oats	46-2-3	17½	28
Potatoes	408	175	280

Distilleries, and even breweries, are commonly established on the low farms; and, within a few years, beet-root sugar manufactures have become frequent.

It is not usual to let lands on lease in this part of the Austrian empire. The few cases in which this mode of tenure occurs, must rather be considered as exceptions than as a rule. From the peasants' holdings the lord usually derives,—1st. All that was stipulated on the original cession of the land, whether in the shape of a rent charge in money or otherwise. 2dly. The *Ländessteuer*, or line on transfer, whether by sale or inheritance (usually 5 per cent.). 3dly. The *Robot*, or personal service, the maximum of which has been fixed by law. This consists generally in 3 days' work, with a waggon and horses, weekly, for the peasant's whole holding; the half-holding gives 1½ day's work, and the quarter-holding 2 or 3 days' labour, weekly; cottagers give from 10 to 13 days per annum. 4thly. The right of grazing on uncultivated fallows and stubble; which, however, the peasant may exercise upon the land of his lord. 5thly. The great and small tithes, which are often ceded to the church, or have been otherwise transferred. Domincal property (allodial estates) pays in general no tithes. The peasant may sode, or leave by will, his holding to whichever of his sons he pleases; but it is then usually charged with a sum for each of his brothers and sisters. The custom prevails of leaving it to the eldest son; but it is often ceded during the life of the father, who retains a certain proportion of the produce for his own use: this generally happens when the father wishes to free his son from liability to the conscription.

Flax is cultivated in considerable quantities by the descendants of German and Bohemian settlers, in the

circles of Brunn and Olmutz: it is celebrated for its fineness and length, and is second only to that of Silesia. In certain favourable situations, the soil and climate of Moravia are well adapted to the grape; and for some time after this was ascertained, the appropriations of land to this kind of culture were so considerable, that government supposed it necessary to interfere, and to issue, in 1803, an order prohibiting the laying out of new vineyards. Wine is mostly grown in the S. circles of Znaym, Brunn, and Hradisch: the average yearly produce is estimated at 436,600 *cimers*; a good deal of which is exported to the adjacent provs. Large quantities of brandy and beer are also made. Fruits of many kinds are so plentiful, that Moravia is usually styled the orchard of Austria. The forests, formerly much diminished by imprudent waste, are now better attended to. The pasture grounds are extensive in the mountains, and a large proportion of the Austrian heavy cavalry horses is furnished by this prov. Cattle are not very extensively bred; considerable numbers are sent thither from Poland to the markets of Olmutz, and from Hungary to those of Ausrütz. In 1837, of 90,007 head of oxen sold in Olmutz, 74,184 were from Galicia. Large flocks of sheep are depastured in the mountainous districts; their numbers having increased with the increase of the woollen manufacture. The breed, however, is materially improved by crossing with merinos, &c.; though, from want of proper care, the wool of Moravia is still inferior, and most part of the raw material required is imported from contiguous provs. Hogs and geese are bred in great numbers for exportation, and game is very abundant. There are valuable mines of iron, copper, lead, and coal; gold and silver mines were wrought previously to the troubles of the 16th and 16th centuries, when they were abandoned, and the works have not since been resumed. The best marble, and an excellent building stone are found: among other minerals is a species of stone, which, when first dug up, is so soft that it may be moulded with the hand, but which hardens on exposure to the air: a great many pipe-bowls are made from it.

Manufactures and Trade.—Notwithstanding its inland position, this prov. has made a very considerable progress in manufactures, and has become, since the close of last century, one of the most thriving portions of the Austrian empire. Woollens, linens, and cottons are all made on a large scale; the first two consuming not only all the wool and flax raised in the country, but requiring a large importation from other parts. Wool is brought from Hungary; flax from Silesia and Austrian Poland. The oldest woollen manufactures are in the neighbourhood of Iglau, in the W.; but those of Brunn are now the most extensive and important. Woollens are also extensively manufactured in other towns; and, exclusive of the goods produced in manufacturing establishments, large quantities are made by the peasants and others for domestic use. Linen and thread are also largely produced; and cotton factories, some of which are on a very extensive scale, have been established, though with but indifferent success, in many parts of the prov. Dyeing, especially fine Turkey red colours, is successfully and extensively carried on at Brunn, almost all the cloth made in Moravia being sent thither for that purpose. The other manufactures, such as those of silk, leather, paper, potash, glass, beet-root sugar, &c., are also of considerable importance; and their products are exported to the contiguous countries, and to Hungary, Austria, Italy, and the Levant. The imports consist chiefly of wool, oil, flax, raw cotton, silk, cattle, wine, and hardware. The only navigable river is the Morawa; and hitherto goods have been almost always conveyed in waggon. For these there are two great commercial roads, both leading from Vienna; the one passing by Prague, Znaym, and Iglau, in the west; the other by Brunn and Olmutz in the centre of the prov. But the facilities for trade are now in the course of being vastly augmented by the formation of the railway from Vienna to Bochnia, in Galicia, which passes through the valley of the Morawa in this prov. as far as Magpeld, having branch railways to Brunn and Olmutz. The completion of this great undertaking will be of signal advantage to the prov.

The government of Moravia, which is entitled a marquise, is administered by a governor with direct authority from Vienna. Like the other provs. of the empire, it has its States, or assembly of the clergy, nobility, knights, and citizens; but the power or influence of this assembly is very limited. It meets annually, not to determine the amount of the taxes, but their distribution and mode of collection. The prov. is subdivided into 8 districts or circles, each of which has one or two tribunals of original jurisdiction, and a high court of appeal sits in Brunn.

Education is very generally diffused in this prov., and the bulk of the people are comparatively civilised. In 1838, it had 1,896 elementary schools, which were attended by no fewer than 272,688 children, being about

the upper part of the pop.: there is also a great number of superior schools, and the prov. is well provided with the higher class of seminaries. Among others, it has a university at Olmütz, which, in 1839, was attended by 536 students; it has also faculties of science at Brunn and Nicholasburg : an academy of the provincial states at Olmütz : schools of rural economy at Brinn and Olmütz, attended, in 1839, by 130 pupils ; and 76 primary schools, containing 87 teachers and 366 pupils. But how creditable soever to the government, still it must be borne in mind, that the useful sciences, or those, rather, that are directly subservient to the progress of the arts, and in some degree, also, to the business of administration, are those only that meet with any encouragement, either here or in any other part of the Austrian dominions. All speculative studies, and especially those connected with the principles of political and moral philosophy, are almost everywhere proscribed. "Ce qu'on veut avant tout la politique Autrichienne," says M. Saint-Marc Girardin, "c'est le calme et le repos ; elle veut que le peuple soit tranquille, et pour cela elle veut qu'il soit heureux. Elle veut aussi qu'il ait de l'instruction, mais cette instruction qui apprend à l'homme à mieux se servir de ses forces et de celles de la nature, qui fait les bons ouvriers, les bons laboureurs, et non cette instruction qui agace l'intelligence, qui lui apprend à douter, à rêver, à philosopher." "Voulez-vous être médecin, manufacturier, agriculteur, architecte ? Vous trouverez à cet égard, en Autriche, tout ce qu'il vous faut : écoles, collèges, professeurs, laboratoires, collections. Voulez-vous être avocat, publiciste, homme de lettres, c'est-à-dire raisonner, discuter, douter ? Allez ailleurs, allez bien loin ; car n'est point en Autriche que vous trouverez de bonnes écoles pour de pareilles fantaisies. L'utilité plutôt que le beau, la pratique plutôt que la théorie, le soin du corps plutôt que le soins de l'intelligence, voilà ce qu'on aime en Autriche. On ne s'occupe que du méquinier des études classiques, et la prospérité des études universelles, le néant et l'obscurité profonde de l'université de Vienne, et la juste renommée de son institut polytechnique." (*De l'Instruction Publique en Autriche*, par son Diplomaté Etranger, 1841, p. 94.)

For a lengthened period after their conversion to Christianity, the Moravians were divided between the Latin and Greek churches; but the doctrines of the Reformation spread widely in this prov. in the 16th century. The intolerant proceedings of the Austrian gov. obliged, however, many Protestant families to emigrate into other countries, and many others to embrace the religion of the House of Hapsburg; so that at present the Roman Catholic faith prevails generally over all other religions; is now, however, the most perfect toleration for all sorts of creeds. The archbishopric of Olmütz is, next to the primacy of Hungary, the richest see in the empire; and the chapter of Olmütz enjoy the valuable privilege of choosing this high functionary from among their own members. The Calvinists have their superintendent at Brunn, and the Lutherans theirs at Inngowitz. The inhab. are mostly of the Slavonian stock, divided into two different nations, the Bohemians and the Germans, the former amounting to about 450,000 Germans, residing mostly in the towns, 300 Jews, and a few Bohemians in the quadrants. This territory was anciently inhabited by the Quadi and Marcomanni. These, or cognate, tribes are said, after the dissolution of the empire of Attila, to have founded a republic here, which maintained a precarious independence for some centuries, and was afterwards erected into a kingdom, extending, in the 9th century, over Bohemia, Brandenburg, Silesia, and part of Poland. The Bohemians and Germans were long mutually hostile, the Bohemians and Hungarians: it was finally annexed to Austria, together with Bohemia, in 1537. It was the great theatre of war between the French and Austro-Russian armies, in 1805. (*Gœstert. Nat. Encycl.; Berghaus; Allg. Landcr. &c. iv.*)

MORAY, or Elgin, a marit. co. of Scotland, on the S. side of the Moray Frith, being the middle district of the old prov. of Moray, having N. the Moray Frith, E. the co. Banff, S. Inverness, and W. Inverness and Nairn. It consists of a N. and principal portion, and of a smaller portion on the S., detached from the main body by the intervention of a part of Inverness; and comprises in all 477,340 a. The soil is fertile, and the climate is temperate, but of low light, arable land along the shore, the rest of the surface is rugged and mountainous. The climate on the coast district is comparatively mild for its latitude; and for a lengthened period wheat has been successfully raised in this district, which occasionally supplies some of the best samples to the London market. This district is also well suited for the turnip husbandry, which has been extensively introduced, and agriculture has been in other respects materially ameliorated; though, on the whole, the progress of agriculture is not so rapid as in this than in most districts of Scotland. Sheep-farming is not carried on upon a large scale; but the stock of cattle has been improved by crossing with the breeds of Skye and Argyle. Property mostly in large estates.

Farms of all sizes; the farm buildings were formerly wretched, but those on the principal farms have been mostly rebuilt, and are now substantial and commodious. Average rent of land, in 1843, 5s. 6½d. an acre. Manufactures unimportant. Lead, iron, lime, freestone, and slate are met with; but the first two are not wrought, and of the others only the freestone to any extent. It is partly intersected and partly bounded on the E. by the Spey, and on the W. by the Findhorn, and has the Lossie in its centre. The salmon-fisheries, especially those on the Spey, are important and valuable. This co. is united with Nairn under one sheriff and in returning 1 m. to the H. of C. Registered electors for the co., in 1845-50, 571. The bors. of Elgin and Forres unite with other bors. in sending 3 mems. to the H. of C. It is divided into 20 parss., and in 1841 had 8,154 inhab. houses, and 35,012 persons, of whom 16,090 were males, and 18,922 females. Valued rent of the co. 65,600*l*. Scotch. Annual value of real property, in 1815, 73,288*l*.

MORBIHAN, a marit. dep. of France, formerly a part of the prov. Brittany; between lat. 47° 15' and 48° 15' N. and long. 10° and 35° W.; having N. Côtes du Nord, E. Ille-et-Vilaine, and Loire Inférieure, W. Finistère, and S. the Atlantic. Length, E. to W., about 70 m.; breadth varying from 20 to 45 m. Area, 99,641 sq. miles. Pop., in 1846, 473,773. The coast-line is very irregular, and the bay of Morbihan, formed from one of which a capacious bay, called by the Bretons *Morbihan*, or the "Little Sea," the dep. derives its name. Several islands, including Belleisle and Groix, belong to this dep. The N. and centre parts of Morbihan are hilly; but towards the S. are some tolerably extensive plains. The principal rivers are the Vilaine, with the Oust in the E., and the Blavet, Scorff, &c. in the W. Some of them are navigable for some distance, but none are of any considerable importance. The port of V. from Hennebont to Pontivy, is wholly included in this dep., and a great part of the canal from Nantes to Brest is within its limits. The climate is mild, but damp. W. winds are most prevalent. The atmosphere is cloudy, and violent storms are frequent in winter. A large proportion of the soil is stony; the vegetable mould is every where scanty, but towards the coast it is remarkably fertile. In 1884, the dep. was estimated to contain 260,971 acres of land, of which 105,000 were pasture, 34,462 do. in woods, and 16,880 do. in orchards and gardens; while no fewer than 291,890 do. were occupied by heaths, wastes, &c. Agriculture is extremely backward; but more corn, principally rye, oats, and wheat, is grown than is required for home consumption; and a good deal of rye bread is made for exportation. The cultivation of the potato is on the increase. Turnips, hemp, flax, &c. are grown; and about 100,000 sheep are reared annually. The name of the Guer is the model farm of Coëtbo, where 300 pupils are instructed in the details of agriculture and the auxiliary sciences, at the expense of government. The rearing of cattle is an important business, and the breeds of both oxen and sheep are in the course of being improved. Butter, both fresh and salted, is an important article of commerce. The annual produce of wool is estimated at 230,000 kilogram. The horses, though small, are strong and good. The dep. exports annually reared and slaughtered calves 450,000 kilogram of honey 1,000,000 kilogram wax, are annually exported, worth together about 375,000 fr. In 1835, of 96,603 properties, subject to the *contribution foncière*, 45,234 were assessed at less than 8 fr., and 13,368 at from 5 to 10 fr.; 36 only were assessed at 1,000 fr. or upwards. The conger, oyster, and other fisheries are important; but especially that of pilchards, which employs in the season about 500 boats, manned by 1,500 fishermen. About 1-1/2 millions of fish are taken, of which the remainder being salted, make up about 15,000 barrels. The nett produce of the pilchard fishery is estimated by Hugo at 1,400,000 fr. a year. Manufactures are of considerable importance. The iron works are said to employ, directly and indirectly, from 1,500 to 2,000 workmen. The woollen cloth factories at Josselin and Malestroit employ together about 900 hands; and the tanneries are supposed to furnish products worth 1,000,000 fr. annually. A biglitz, or coarse linen stuff, cotton yarn, lace, hats, beer, chemical products, &c. are also produced; there are building docks at L'orient, Vannes, Quiberon, Port Louis, &c.; and salt is made on the coast and islands of the estimated value of 1,000,000 fr. a year. Morbihan is divided into 4 arrondis; chief towns, Vannes, the cap., with 11,356 inhabs., L'orient, Ploermel, and Pontivy. Total public revenue (1844) 9,686,127 fr. expenditure in 1853, 11,933,084 fr.; the government of the dep. has establishments for the management of the naval and military establishments in the department. (Hugo, art. *Morbihan*; *French Official Tables*.)

MOREA (an. *Peloponnesus*), a principal div. of Greece, and the most S. portion of continental Europe, consisting of a peninsula attached to N. Greece by the

Isthmus of Corinth, between lat. $36^{\circ} 15'$ and $36^{\circ} 20' N.$, and long. $21^{\circ} 5'$ and $22^{\circ} 20' E.$ area estimated by Thiersch, at 8,800 sq. m. Pop., in 1835, about 380,000. It is said to derive its modern name from the resemblance that it bears to a mulberry leaf; and its coast, which is deeply indented with gulphs and inlets, has numerous headlands, the chief of which are Cape Skillo, eastward; Capes Matapan, Gallo, and St. Angelo, southward, and Cape Torone westward. Its surface is extremely diversified, but may be generally described as a lofty table-land, traversed by a main ridge connected northward with the chain of N. Greece, and running southward to Cape Matapan, its culminating point (Mount Taygetos) rising 8,115 ft. above the sea. Three branches detach themselves from the main range; one running eastward into the peninsula of Argolis, and another, Mount Malero (an. *Parnon*), running S.S.E., skirting the shore of the *Ægean Sea*; while a third, known in different parts by the different names of Cyllene, Erymanthus, and Olenos, takes a westerly course to Cape Torone. Many of these mountains attain a height of 4,000 ft.: their geological constitution is of limestone lying on clay-slate, interspersed in a few places by primitive rocks; and their sides are, with few exceptions, plentifully clothed with pines, firs, oaks, and other deciduous trees. The plains are of no great extent: the largest are those of Tripolitza in Arcadia, of Nisi in Messenia, and of Gastuni in Elis. Numerous rivers and streams run from the mountain-regions in all directions; the Roupia (*Alpheus*) is by far the largest, having a general N.W. course of more than 70 m., and with its tributaries, the Ladon and Erymanthus, draining nearly 1-3d of the entire peninsula. Next in size is the *Ion* (an. *Peneios*), rising on Mount Erymanthus, and flowing, as well as the last-mentioned, into the Gulph of Arkhadia: the *Iri* (an. *Eurotas*), which is the principal river of Laconia, falls into the Gulph of Kolokythia: the other streams are mere mountain torrents, rapid in winter, but dried up in summer. Embosomed in the mountains are several lakes; but none deserves any particular mention except Zaraka (the ancient *Symphathus*), which has two remarkable *katsavthra*, or subterraneous caverns, to which its waters are almost confined during summer, and by which it was formerly supposed to connect itself with the little river Erasinus, falling into the Gulph of Nauplia near the Lernean Lake, now little more than a reedy marsh. (See *Herod.* vi. 76.) The atmosphere of the Morea is generally pure, and the climate mild, especially in spring and autumn. The heat of summer is very oppressive in the lower districts; and in winter the country is exposed to hurricanes, and liable to be inundated by heavy rains: fog, also, are common at that season, and the mountains are covered with snow from December to the end of February. Epidemics, originating in malaria, are common diseases in summer, especially in the neighbourhood of Argos, Corinth, and the whole of the W. coast from Patras to the mouth of the Roupia, which are the most unhealthy parts of the peninsula. The coldest, and, at the same time, the healthiest region, is the central table-land of Arcadia: the severity of its climate is noticed by many authors, and it probably gave to its inhabitants that robust habit of body which fitted them not only for the pastoral life but for the fatigues of war, and occasioned the old proverb recorded by Athenæus, that "a man should choose his slaves from Phrygia, but his allies from Arcadia." (*Deipn.* i. 37.)

The more elevated regions are devoted to the feeding of sheep and goats, the latter being to the former as about 1 to 4. The wool is coarse; but the ewes afford good milk, butter, and cheese. These flocks suffer much from jackals and wolves, as well as from a disease called the *catagris*, or plague. Colonel Leake states the number of sheep pastured in Elis to have been in his time, about 450,000. The uncultivated land serves also, for the pasture of cattle, which, however, are used only for draught, goat's flesh or mutton being universally preferred for food. The best breeds are said to be found in Corinth; and bulls from this district are often sent to improve the breeds in other parts of the Morea. The valleys and plains are, generally speaking, very fertile, and, with the most imperfect tillage, yield large crops. The produce of Elis comprises wheat, two kinds of *barley*, called *kalamakki*, maize, and flax. Wheat, on secondary land, is sown in Oct.; but on the richest, in Nov., Dec., and even so late as Jan.: harvest, on the plains, begins early in June, and is not entirely over till the middle of Aug. The *kalamakki* is sown in April, and gathered in Sept. Along the N. coast large quantities of the currant grape are raised, and the average yearly production of currants, in the neighbourhood of Patras, is stated by Colonel Leake to amount to 5,000,000 lbs., or about one half the amount of that raised in Zante. Argolis produces extensive crops of rice and cotton, the former being a considerable article of trade between Nauplia and Constantinople. Cotton is likewise raised in Messenia and Laconia, and olive oil,

highly esteemed all over Greece. Corn is raised in the irrigated parts of Arcadia; but the greater part of that central district is employed for pasturage. Agriculture, owing to the long-continued insecurity of property, the oppressions under which the peasantry have laboured, and to the obstinate adherence of the farmers to old and imperfect methods of husbandry, is in a most degraded state. Thiersch and Burgess, however, report a marked improvement in the condition of the rural pop. within the last few years. Land used formerly to be let on the *métayer* system; the proprietor bearing at all expenses, and receiving two thirds of the crop, clear of tax; but since Greece has been separated from Turkey, nearly nine tenths of the land has fallen into the hands of government, which offers it for tillage to any one who will agree to pay a quarter part of the produce for rent: the remaining tenth part of the land belongs to individuals, chiefly small proprietors, and is charged with a tax of one tenth of its produce, and the additional burden of obliging the labouring peasant to bring his tithe in kind from a great distance to the town in which it is collected. (*Burgess's Greece and Levant*, l. 131.) The annual produce of the Morea was, for many years, estimated by Col. Leake at 300,000 kilos of 55 oaks (each oak = 559 lbs.). The flora and fauna of the peninsula differ in few respects from those of N. Greece.

The manufactures of the Morea are unimportant in amount, but comprise coarse cotton and woollen goods, silk fabrics, leather, and salt. The export trade consists chiefly of wine, oil, currants, rice, fruit, and wool; its chief ports being Nauplia, Patras, Corinth, and Volo. The Morea, which under the Turks was divided into the 3 sandaks of Tripolitza and Mistra, is now distributed into the 5 nomos of Argolis and Corinth, Archæa and Elis, Arcadia, Messenia, and Laconia, these being again subdivided into 35 eparchies. Tripolitza was the cap. under the Turks, but recently it has greatly decayed; Nauplia, the modern cap., has about 10,000 inhabitants. The other principal towns are Patras (7,000), Modon (5,000), Corinth (5,000), and Koron (4,000).

The most interesting features, however, to the classical traveller are the remains of many ancient cities, existing in the rainy days of the present history. The principal are three, mentioned by Herod. (ii. 51.) Sparta is to be traced only in its ruins; but the beauty of its position, on five hills close to the Eurotas, still recalls the "pleasant Lacedæmon." Various remains of ancient architecture, in the form of dilapidated walls, temples, and forts, exist in different parts of the country, and are described by the general name of *Palaio-Castro*. Of the Cyclopean, or primitive mode of building with uncemented blocks of stone, the chief relics are at Mycenæ and Tiryns. At Mantinea the circuit of the walls is still visible, and the outlines of the celebrated field battle may be traced. The scene of the Olympic games, though not ascertained with complete certainty, was near the influx of the small river Cladeus into the Alpheus. These interesting ruins are described at some length under their respective heads, to which the curious are referred for further information. The reader will find also some notice of the present inhabitants of the Morea, &c., in the general article GREECE (l. 923-925.)

The Peloponnesus, which, before it received that name, was called successively Apia and Argos, received its appellation from the Phrygian Pelops, whose descendants were afterwards expelled by the Heracleids. Its ancient history forms a part of that of Greece generally. After the destruction of the Achaean league by the Romans, anno 146 a.c., it was formed, with the rest of Greece, into the Roman prov. of Achaia; and continued, either really or nominally, a portion of that empire during 1,550 years. It was taken from the Byzantine emperors by the Franks at the beginning of the 13th century. The circuit of the walls is still visible, and the outlines of the celebrated field battle may be traced. The scene of the Olympic games, though not ascertained with complete certainty, was near the influx of the small river Cladeus into the Alpheus. These interesting ruins are described at some length under their respective heads, to which the curious are referred for further information. The reader will find also some notice of the present inhabitants of the Morea, &c., in the general article GREECE (l. 923-925.)

MORLAIX, an ancient town and sea-port of France, dep. Finistère, 33 m. E.N.E. Brest, and 238 m. W. by S. Paris; lat. $47^{\circ} 52' N.$, long. $5^{\circ} 52' W.$ Pop., in 1844, 6,081. It is situated at the foot of 5 hills, and at the confluence of 3 small rivers, forming a considerable estuary and commodious harbour for vessels of 400 tons burden. At the bottom of the harbour stands a

well-fortified castle; and hills covered with gardens, formed into terraces, rise immediately above the town, the principal street of which runs parallel with the quays. The principal squares (built on arches over the river) comprises many good modern houses, with a very large town-hall, porticoed out into government-offices, and a public library. There are 3 large churches, one an elegant Gothic structure, with a fine tower. A large tobacco manufactory of modern construction, employing between 300 and 400 workmen, a hospital, school of navigation, theatre, and 2 hotels, are the other chief buildings. Morlaix is the seat of a subprefect, of a tribunal of primary jurisdiction on commerce, and of a society of agriculture: its principal manufactures are those of tobacco and linen cloth; and it enjoys a considerable trade in butter, corn, tallow, honey, and wax.

Morlaix lays claim to considerable antiquity, and was already an important town when taken by the English, near the close of the 14th century. During the two succeeding centuries it suffered greatly from the ravages of civil war.

MOROCCO (EMPIRE OF), (Arab. *Maghrib-ul-Aksa*, "the extreme West,") a tract of country in the N.W. of Africa, between the 36th and 39th degs. of N. lat., and the 3d and 12th degs. of W. long., comprising the *Maghrib* of the Mohammedans, and the straits of Gibraltar, E. by the Atlas range, which separates it from the Algerine territory and Biled-ul-Jerd, S. by the river Akassa, and Sahara desert, and W. by the Atlantic Ocean. Length of coast-line along the Mediterranean, 250 m.; ditto, along the Atlantic Ocean, 600 m.; estimated area, 219,300 sq. m., distributed into 4 kingdoms, the area and pop. of which are estimated as under:—

Kingdoms.	Provinces.	Area in sq. m.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Fes	7	98,697	3,300,000	Fes, Tangier, Mequinez.
Morocco	7	51,380	5,000,000	Morocco, Magador, Agadir.
Susa	2	25,634	700,000	
Tafila	3	50,697	1,000,000	
Total of empire		219,380	5,500,000	

Of the above population Gräberg von Hiesse states that 3,850,000 are Moors, 3,750,000 Berbers, and 90,000 (chiefly devoted to agricultural and pastoral pursuits), 740,000 Bedouin Arabs, 285,500 Jews, 120,000 negroes, and 500 Christians and renegades.

Surface, &c.—Morocco is mostly bounded on the E. by the stupendous chain of the high Atlas, which commences with Mount Beni-Ammer, S. of the desert of Agad, on the Algerine frontier, and extends S. as far as Capes Geer and Nun. The most elevated parts of the range occur between 30° and 33° lat.: the highest point, Mount Hentet, was estimated by Mr. Jackson at about 29,500 ft., but this is no doubt a gross exaggeration. Captain Washington measured a point called Miltain, in lat. 31° 12' N., and long. 7° 29' W., which he found to be 11,400 ft. above the sea, and this was the highest in the S. portion of the chain. It is probable, however, that the highest summits will be found more to the N. in the prov. of Tedia; but their height, which has never been ascertained by measurement, cannot much exceed 13,000 ft. (See *Geog. Journ.* i. p. 140.) A subordinate range, sometimes called the Little Atlas, branches N.W. and N.W. towards Ceuta, C. Sparte, &c.; and other chains, either continuous or detached, are thinly sprinkled over the country S. of Fes and Mequinez. The geological constitution of these mountains is granitic in the central ridges, on which are superimposed secondary and even tertiary formations in the less elevated parts of the chain. Silver, iron, and lead mines are wrought to some little extent. Mineral salt is found in great abundance throughout Morocco, and is a considerable article of export to Soudan. But notwithstanding the gigantic mountains by which it is in part bounded and in part overpread, Morocco has a large extent of comparatively level land. Some of the plains and valleys are of great extent, and extraordinary fertility, especially those of Shawiya, Temsena, Ducilla, and Terara between Fes and Morocco. The principal rivers are, 1. the Sebu, rising by several sources on the W. side of the Atlas range, falling into the Atlantic, close to Mehedja, having a probable length of 260 m.; 2. the Wad-Oum-er-Beg, rising by 2 principal branches in the high Atlas, and flowing W. and N.W. to its mouth at Azamor, after a course of about 300 m.; and 3. the Wad-Tensift, rising about 40 m. E. of Morocco, takes a general course W. by N. to lat. 32° 7' N., and long. 5° 19' W., where it falls into the Atlantic ocean. The climate of the country is healthy and genial; the heat is less intense than might be expected from its geographical position, and epidemics are of rare occurrence. The thermometer, even in the hottest season, except during the occasional prevalence of hot winds from the desert, seldom exceeds 28° Reaum. (94° Fahr.); the barometer averages throughout the year 29.30 inches;

and the annual fall of rain (chiefly confined to October and November), as calculated on a series of years, amounts to 29 inches. (G. von Hiesse, p. 28.) These observations, however, apply chiefly to the N. and W. portions of the empire, or E. of the Atlas range, the heat is intense, and rain seldom falls. The soil is now, as in antiquity, proverbial for its fertility. Mela says of it, *Ceterum solo etiam ditior et adeo fertilis est, ut frugum genera non cum serantur modo benignissime procreet; sed quædam profundius etiam non sata.* (Lib. iii. cap. 10.) In some favoured spots three crops of corn are reaped in the same year: the soil in many parts is purely alluvial, and in others of clay, sand, and loam, mingled in the most advantageous proportions. (G. von Hiesse, 29, 30.)

Agriculture, however, owing, perhaps, to the extreme fertility of the land, which produces luxuriant crops, with little care or attention, is in the most backward state: fallows and rotations of crops are wholly unknown: indeed, the system of culture has remained almost unchanged since the invasion of the Arabs in the 11th century; and it consists of little more, generally speaking, than grubbing up and burning the weeds before the autumnal rains, and afterwards ploughing the land about 6 inches deep, with a man and an ox, in the simple description, drawn by a heifer or ass, and in the S. provinces by a camel. Except in the gardens, the Moors never think of using manure or other means of assisting the soil, and consequently, the land near the towns is more impoverished than in less populous districts, where, from the abundance of unemployed land, it is allowed to remain in fallow 2 or 3 years, and in the mean time other parts are brought under the plough. The wheat is white, transparent, almost without husk, having a large and exceedingly hard grain, producing a flour superior in fineness and colour to that of the northern countries. A second crop is rarely obtained; but in the S. provs., when the harvest commences very early, a spontaneous crop springs up. According to Major Beauchert, "The plains of Duquella alone are capable of producing in one year as much corn as the united kingdoms of Great Britain. Immense crops of corn yearly overstock the market of Magador: a bushel of corn may be procured for a partridge, or a coin worth an English shilling; and such is the profusion of grain, that, in the whole of the empire, it does not require labour or harvesting." (*Journey to Morocco*, p. 295.) Yet, with all this productiveness, so little industry and providence are exercised, that the inhabs. are sometimes, in bad seasons, reduced to the greatest privations, and hundreds of Berbers often die of famine!

Barley is used chiefly for horses and cattle, oats not being raised in any part of the country. Maize and Turkish millet are raised near the towns and along the coast in the S. provs., and potatoes near Tangiers. On the whole, however, not more than a third part of the arable land is cultivated, and this in so superficial a manner, that the produce might be trebled, or even quadrupled, by a better system of tillage. Holme-oaks, cork and juniper trees are found on the mountains; and immense quantities of date-palms, vines, olive trees, sugar-canes, cotton, tobacco, and the fruits of S. Europe, are found in the level country. Throughout Morocco, however, there is a general scarcity of building timber: the white cedar grows to a tolerable size in the prov. of Refe; but when large timber is wanted, it is usually imported from Gibraltar. Land is usually rented by the number of oxen required for its cultivation, at the rate of about 7 dollars for the yoke of oxen; but in lands belonging to the sultan and allotted out to his soldiery, the same portion of land would be rented at about 4 dollars a year, and, if sold by auction, would fetch at Tetuan about 200 dollars. (Sir A. C. Bruce, *Spain and Morocco*, i. 400.) The pasture-grounds, also, are extremely rich, the grass often attaining a height unequalled except in the prairies of America. The horses in the country are estimated at 400,000; but the breed once so esteemed under the name of Barbs is greatly deteriorated. A few milk-white, small, and finely proportioned horses, with black manes and tails, are occasionally to be met with, belonging to the Arab chiefs; but the mass, though active, hardy, and with good action, are poor and meagre-looking: their exportation is entirely forbidden. Mules (of which there are upwards of 1,000,000) are equally well adapted for riding and draught: they are almost universally employed in long journeys, and a good mule, especially if of a bright chestnut colour with a black cross, is valued higher than a horse. Neither the asses nor mules, however, are at all comparable to those of Andalusia. It is said, though we suspect the statement is exaggerated, that about 40,000,000 sheep and 12,000,000 goats are reared; the wool of the former being of the finest quality, and the hides of the latter furnishing the celebrated Morocco leather. Oxen and camels also are bred in great quantities. A duty of about 16 dollars a head is imposed on the exportation of cattle, which being tantamount to a prohibition, the farmer is

discouraged from taking any pains further than to supply his own or his neighbour's wants. The wild animals comprise dogs, hyenas, lions, ounces, panthers, lynxes, gazelles, boars, and different varieties of game; the principal birds being ostriches, storks, quails, snipes, ducks, &c. Flocks of many varieties are found in most of the rivers; bees, wasps, and mosquitoes swarm throughout the country, and locusts of large size commit fearful ravages, occasionally devouring every green leaf, and leaving the ground over which they have passed absolutely barren.

Manufactures and Trade are confined within very narrow limits. Except in the principal towns, where the houses are large and square, with a central court and flat roof similar to those of Algiers, the people live almost universally in huts or moveable tents; comparatively destitute of furniture and accommodation. Every woman understands the art of spinning wool or cotton, and the men weave it into cloth. Domestic labour, in short, which is almost wholly performed by women, supplies the principal wants of the inhab. Tanning appears to be almost the only exception: leather is made in great quantities all over the empire, but especially in the large towns, that of Fex being red, while that of Tafilett and Morocco is respectively green and yellow. About 250,000 dozens of goat-skins are annually exported. The red caps, silk fabrics and girdles of Fex are highly esteemed; carpets, chip-baskets, and earthenware are manufactured in different provs., and in the principal towns may be found skillful sadlers, carpenters, locksmiths, and farriers.

The *Commerce of Morocco* is carried on, 1. with Europe; 2. with the Levant; and 3. with the interior of Africa. The exports of Europe comprise about 2,500 cwt. wax (chiefly to Marseille, Leghorn, Cadix, and Lisbon), 1,500 cwt. cow-hides, 160,000 dozens goat-skins, 2,500 cwt. olive-oil, and 4,300 cwt. gums, with smaller quantities of wool, dates, honey, indigo, shawls, carpets, &c., to the amount of about 1,000,000 piastres a year; while the imports, chiefly of manufactured and colonial goods, amount only to 750,000 piastres a year. The tariff is regulated by the whim of the sultan, and prohibitions and duties vary at every port. European vessels pay 6 piastres for harbour dues, and a tax of 10 per cent. is levied on all imported articles. In 1831, the imports were valued at 158,400*l.*, the exports at 121,360*l.*; and in the same year 64 European ships, of 3,870 tons, arrived at, and 98 ships, of 5,820 tons, departed from, the different ports of the empire. (*Gräberg von Hemsl.* p. 157.)

The trade with the Levant is carried on partly by pedlars, accompanying the pilgrim caravan to Mecca, and partly, also, by feluccas coasting the shores of Africa as far as Alexandria. The communication with the interior of Africa is effected by caravans proceeding from Tafilett, and crossing the Sahara desert to Timbuctoo, in the manner described in the art. *Arabic* (i. 31.), where the traders exchange salt, tobacco, cloth, caps, girdles, Turkish daggers, &c., for gold-dust, ivory, rhinoceros horns, assafoetida, ostrich feathers, and slaves. Their profits would seem to be immense; since, for 1,000,000 piastres, the value of goods exported, the returns amount at least to 10,000,000 piastres (*G. von H.* p. 146.); but a great part of this excess is swallowed up by the expense of the conveyance of the goods across the desert and back again. Interest on money is forbidden by law; but, notwithstanding, the Jews and others exact sums varying from 7 to 12 per cent. a month, on the security of merchandise. Paper money and bills of exchange are wholly unknown; nor is there any communication by post, for the purpose of facilitating commercial intercourse.

Government, Revenue, &c.—The government of Morocco is a pure despotism, the sultan being the head both of church and state, and the absolute owner of the property and lives of his subjects; his chief title is *Emir al-Muslimeen*, "absolute ruler of the true believers." There are not here, as in Turkey, an ulema, the depositary of the national religion, or a mufti, the head of the law, who possess privileges independent of the sovereign, and may interfere to check his determinations. There is not even a council or divan which he is expected to consult. He has no regular ministers: all is done by his single command, and no subject is supposed to have either life or property but at his disposal. The sultans would appear to consider an adherence to their engagements as an unconstitutional check on their power. "Takest thou me for an infidel," said one of them to a foreigner, "that I must be the slave of my word? Is it not in my power to say and unsay whenever I shall please?" (*Chénier's Morocco*, i. 308. Eng. trans.) But, after all, there are here, as in all countries, certain rights which the monarchs dare not touch, and certain duties they must discharge. The sultan cannot safely invade the domestic privacy of his subjects, nor shock any of those customs to which long establishment has given the force of law. He is expected also to give

public audience four times a week, when he administers justice to all, even the poorest. Yet prudent persons usually think it more eligible to acquiesce in the sentence of the caal, than to afford to the sultan any insight into their private affairs, of which he might afterwards make a not very agreeable use. On these occasions the sovereign appears on horseback, with an umbrella held over his head.

The crown is hereditary, descending to males only, but without the right of primogeniture; and hence it is not unusual for strife and civil war to arise among the children of a deceased sultan. The government has frequently, also, been overthrown by private or public treason. And hence, probably, has arisen the jealous and ferocious character by which the rulers of Morocco have been especially distinguished. Muley Ishmael, who ascended the throne in 1672, a bloodthirsty monster, though not without ability, introduced the system, since kept up, of employing a guard of negro mercenaries, on whose fidelity more reliance may be placed than on that of the Moors.

The most important state officers are the *Mula et-tet*, or tea-taster, usually the sultan's favourite, and the *Mula et-tessard*, or steward of the sultan's household. The sultan sits in public as a scribe, and receives the petitions which he administers justice. The *qoran* is here, as elsewhere in the Mohammedan world, the text-book of justice, and decrees are usually executed immediately after they have been pronounced. For the purposes of civil and military government, Morocco is divided into twenty-eight prefectures, some of which extend over large tracts of country, though others are confined to a single town. The chief provincial officers are the *kaid*s or prefects, who, although removable by the sultan, are despotic governors and commanders of the military forces within their districts. The agricultural tribes have also their respective sheiks; but these are commonly subject to the Moorish governors. The revenue of Morocco in 1822 amounted to 2,600,000 piastres; of which, nearly a half is derived from duties on land, houses, shops, mills, &c., and about a fifth from imported goods. The expenditure of the same year, chiefly for the maintenance of the army and the sultan's household, was only 990,000 piastres; and the yearly surplus goes to enrich the sultan's treasury, of which it is supposed to contain at least 50,000,000 piastres (*G. von H.* p. 222.) The regular army does not exceed 16,000 men; of whom, as already stated, fully a half are negroes. The sultan's body-guard comprises about 3,000 infantry, and 2,000 cavalry. The Moors are good horsemen, and endure hunger, thirst, fatigue, and every inconvenience. They might therefore make excellent soldiers if they were properly manœuvred and exercised; but they are ignorant of every part of discipline except submission to their superiors. Their standard is the customary banner of the Koran, by Sidek, the favourite imperial saint, whose book is deposited under a tent in the centre of the army, and is the signal by which they rally. Morocco has 34 fortified and garrisoned towns, the principal of which are Suira, Tangier, Azamer, Salee, and Masegan. The navy of the empire is quite inconsiderable, comprising only 3 brigs, mounting 40 cannons, and 3 shallops.

Population.—The inhab. may be divided into the classes of Moors, Arabs, Berbers or Berberes, Shellochs, Jews, and Negroes. The Moors are a mixed race, the descendants of the ancient Mauritanians, intermixed with their Arab conquerors, and with the remains of the Vandals, who once ruled over the country; and, with the Moors, expelled from Spain, in the 15th century; but these varieties have been long since obliterated, and the Moors are now moulded into a distinct, peculiar people. They principally inhabit the villages and cities. Their language, called the Occidental Arabic, contains, as might be expected, many words borrowed from the languages of the Berbers and Shellochs, and Baccari of Spain. The Arabs, as distinguished from the Moors, principally inhabit the plains, where, like their ancestors, they mostly lead a wandering life, and follow pastoral pursuits. They occupy *durwars*, or moveable villages, composed of tents; and whenever the pastures in the vicinity are exhausted, or the increase of fleas and vermin render the tents uninhabitable, they are struck; and placing them, their effects, and children, on panniers on the backs of camels, they set out in search of some other quarter in which to settle. Their women are not confined; but being subjected to hard labour, tanned by the sun, and sometimes even yoked in the plough with domestic animals, these habits of hardihood, with the loss of all traces of beauty, prove more effectual securities against intrigues than the bolts and bars used in the cities. The mountainous portion of the country is occupied by the Berbers and Shellochs, probably the aboriginal inhabitants of the country. The Berbers, who principally inhabit the country of the lesser Atlas, adjoining the Mediterranean, are nearly white, well formed, of middle size, and athletic; they live mostly in huts of stone and mud, but sometimes, like

the Arabs, in tents, and sometimes in caves; they are principally engaged in hunting and pastoral occupations. The Shellocks, who inhabit both sides of the greater Atlas, are less robust than the Berbers, but they are more advanced in civilisation, being principally agriculturists and artisans, and occupying comparatively good houses. A great discrepancy of opinion has been entertained as to whether the languages of those people be radically different, or merely different dialects of the same language; the latter opinion, though accompanied by several difficulties, seems to be, on the whole, the most probable.

The Berbers and Shellocks are sometimes called *amawarghis*, or freemen, a designation to which they have a not ill-founded claim. They have never, in fact, been fully subjected to the Moorish government; they often break out into rebellion; and have carried their arms to the gates of Morocco. Their internal government has even somewhat of a republican form, and they are well trained to the use of arms. The Jews, who are numerous, particularly in the cities, carry on all the mercantile and money transactions; they also act as interpreters, and perform, in the cities, the functions of servants, porters, scavengers, &c. Every species of oppression and contempt, however, is heaped upon them. They are not allowed to mount on horseback, until before a Moor with their legs crossed. The meanest Moors may insult or maltreat them in the streets, or enter their synagogues for the purpose. They must not read or write Arabic, which being the language of the Koran, is too holy for them! A worse evil is, that when the emperor, or men in power, happen to be in want of money, they hesitate not to relieve themselves by stripping the Jews of large portions of their wealth, however carefully it may be concealed.

The negroes, who are not very numerous, are imported from Soudan. Sometimes, however, they obtain their liberty; and, as already stated, the emperor has thought fit to select them for his body guard. (The learned and excellent observations of Shaw, as to the different classes of people in Algiers, may be applied, with little modification, to Morocco. See his *Travels*, passim.)

Religion and Education.—The prevailing religion is Mohammedanism, and nowhere are its tenets and observances more rigidly enforced. The Jews are universally despised, nor are Christians allowed to reside anywhere except in Tangier, Mogador, El-Ratch, and Tetuan. There is a Franciscan convent in Tangiers, being the only Christian establishment throughout Morocco.

The education of the Moors is, at present, greatly inferior to that of their forefathers in the Middle Ages, and is almost exclusively confined to learning the Koran by rote, reading, and writing. At the high school of Fes, however, more aspiring students may receive a sort of instruction in grammar, geometry, and the mixed sciences, logic, rhetoric, medicine, and theology. The art of printing is unknown, so that great numbers of persons are employed, in all parts of the empire, copying the Koran, &c. Arts and sciences are in the most barbarous state; the literature, and history of foreign countries are wholly unknown; and their only musical instruments are a rude pipe, and more barbarous drum.

Manners and Customs.—The Moors are generally a fine-looking race of men, of middle stature, and somewhat inclining to corpulence, owing, probably, to their inactive life. The women are pretty when young, blacken their eye-lashes and eye-brows, and stain the tips of their fingers with henna. The dress of the country is picturesque and graceful, comprising a shirt with large sleeves, ample drawers of white linen, a *kuffan*, or waistcoat, of yellow or blue cloth, a silk sash, *kauk*, or mantle, and slippers, or boots, of yellow leather. Women, however, wear red shoes. The Jews are not allowed to wear colours, and a black cap, with slippers of the same colour, marks their degradation. The usual food throughout the country is a dish, called *kuscaui*, composed of mutton or fowls, stewed with vegetables, and served up in large earthenware pans, accompanied with a savory kind of sauce. Coffee is not used; but tea is a general beverage, always presented to visitors, and highly esteemed by all classes. The Moors do not smoke tobacco, but take large quantities of snuff, and occasionally smoke the hemp-plant, which seems to partake of the intoxicating qualities of opium: a confection is also made from the hemp-seed, possessed of the same qualities, and to the use of this the natives are much addicted. The distinguishing features of the Moorish character are, a love of idleness, apathy, pride, ignorance, bigotry, and the grossest sensuality. The cities present the same gloomy aspect as in other Moorish states—that of strict seclusion, particularly of the female sex, while habits of gravity and silence prevail among the men, who meet only in the public coffee-houses. Unluckily, their high national pride, and contempt for all other people, is not combined with any sentiments of individual honour. They are not, however, wholly destitute

of good qualities, among which may be mentioned their hospitality, and fortitude under misfortune: *Allah-ird*, "God willed it," is their consolation in trouble. They are, also, healthy and long-lived, which could hardly have been expected, considering their habits. The climate is unquestionably good: but leprosy, ophthalmia, hydrocele, and syphilis, originating, most probably, in filthy habits, are not uncommon. Their medicines consist only of a few herbs, and their surgery is such as might be expected among a people without science or arts. The plague visits them about once in 30 years, and carries off thousands of the population. (*Geog. Journ.*, i. 146.)

History.—Morocco, anciently called Mauritania, was inhabited, under the Romans, by a hardy nomadic race, who were never thoroughly subdued by that nation. Early in the 7th century, the country yielded to the Saracens, whose different dynasties disputed for its possession nearly 300 years. At length, in the 11th century, a chief of Leptuma, having acquired so high a reputation for sanctity as to cause all the neighbouring tribes to flock to his standard, overturned the existing government, and extended his dominion all over N. Africa. His son, Joseph Ben-Tessal, extended the empire by the addition of Fes and the S. provinces. In 1148, however, a powerful army, headed by the Moors, and the Morabites, succeeded by the Almorabites, who, in their turn, yielded the empire to more successful adventurers. In this state of anarchy the country remained till the middle of the 16th century, when Mohammed-Ben-Achmet, a scherrif and descendant of the Prophet, ascended the throne, which his posterity has ever since continued to occupy. (*Jackson's Travels in Africa; Beauclerk's Journey to Morocco; Sir A. C. Broke's Spain and Morocco*, i. i. *Count Gräberg von Hemsö, Storia di Marocco*; *Geog. Journ.* i.)

Morocco (Arab. *Marrak'ah*), a large city of N.W. Africa, and the cap. of the above empire, 106 m. E. by N. Mogador, lat 31° 37' 20" N. long. 7° 36' W. Pop., acc. to Captain Washington, about 80,000, of whom 4,000 are Shellocks, and 5,000 Jews. We doubt however whether the population really exceeds 50,000, or at most 60,000.* It is beautifully situated about 4 m. S. from the river Tensift, on a plain elevated 1,430 feet above the sea, and is surrounded by a strong wall of lime and mud 30 ft. high and 6 m. in circuit, with square turrets at intervals of 50 paces, but the enclosed area, between Africa and Asiatic cities, comprises, besides houses and streets, many large gardens and open spaces from 30 to 30 acres in extent. The whole town, with slight exceptions, is in bad repair, many parts are in ruins, and it is everywhere filthy in the extreme. It is entered by 11 strong double gates; but the only one worth notice is the *Bab-el-Rom*, a Moorish horse-shoe arch, richly sculptured with Arabesque work. Extensive under-ground aqueducts, 10 or 12 feet deep, surround the walls, and reach across the plain to the foot of Atlas; at present, however, they are mostly in ruins. The houses, the habitable part of the town, a few of which are of stone, but the greater number of mud and lime, are, generally speaking, small, and only one story high, with central courts and flat roofs, the sides fronting the streets being plain and whitewashed, with here and there a narrow opening, unglazed, and scarcely deserving the name of a window. Their interior disposition greatly resembles that of Spanish houses,—the doors are of carved cypress-wood, the rooms long and narrow, with scarcely any furniture except a few mats, carpets, and cushions. Most of them, however, being old and in decay, swarm with vermin, especially bugs, scorpions, and snakes. The streets, which are unpaved, are frequently so narrow and crooked, that a horse can with difficulty pass through them; and they are in parts so heaved up with accumulations of filth, that the floors of the houses are some feet below the pathway. (*Beauclerk's Morocco*, p. 140.) These inconveniences are further increased by numerous low cross arches and gateways that connect the opposite houses. The city contains several public squares; but, like the streets, they are unpaved, and consequently very dirty when it rains, and covered with dust in dry weather. The sultan's palace stands on the S. side of the city, outside the main wall, but is itself enclosed within walls of equal strength. Its precincts consist of a large oblong space about 1,500 yds. in length and 600 in width, divided into squares and laid out in gardens, round which are several detached pavilions about 40 ft. square, forming the imperial residence. These have pyramidal roofs covered with glazed tiles, and lighted from 4 lofty and spacious doors, which are opened according to the position of the sun, the floor, being tessellated with variously coloured tiles, and the interior painted in the Arabesque style, and ornamented with square compartments containing passages from the Koran, written in a sort of Arabic short-hand. The luxury and convenience of tables, chairs, and curtains are unknown, and even the rooms occupied by the sultan are furnished

* All Bey estimated the pop. at only 30,000, while Jackson, by an absurd exaggeration, carried it up to 170,000!

only with a few mats, carpets, cushions, some china and tea equipage, a clock, and arms hung round the walls. The grand pavilion in the middle of the gardens is appropriated to the women; it is a spacious building fitted up in the same simple style as the rest. Near the palace, on the E. side of the enclosure, is the *mi shoor*, or Place of Audience, an extensive quadrangle, walled in, but open to the sky, in which the sultan gives audience to his subjects, hears their complaints, and administers justice. Attached to the palace, also, are 3 gardens, each about 15 acres in extent. In two of these the foreign merchants are allowed to pitch their tents when they visit the sultan, and the third, called *Jemâ el Afia*, "the Garden of Prosperity," is destined for the use of the sultanas. The city has many sanctuaries and mosques; one of these, called El Kontabâ, is conspicuous above all by a square tower, 221 ft. high, divided into seven stories, and surmounted by a small lantern. The mosque, Beni-Yusef, next in height and age, has an attached college and a saint's tomb, with a cupola delicately wrought in Saracenic tracery. El Moazin, also, said to be the most ancient mosque in the city, is of great size, comprising several courts opening into each other, and intersected in various directions by highly sculptured horse-shoe arches. Its gates are said to be those of Seville, brought thence by the triumphant Al-Manzor. The mosque of Bel Abbas, the patron saint of Morocco, is built in the shape of a pavilion, surmounted by a cupola covered with green varnished tiles. Attached to it is an immense hospital, said to have accommodation for 1,500 patients. Near the S. wall of the city is the *Madrese del Emshia*, a college and mosque, in which are the sepulchres of the sultans of the Moluc Saldia dynasty, once adorned with statues and busts, now defaced.

Morocco, like most other Moorish towns, comprises numerous fountains, several of which have traces of delicate sculpture; and one close to the mosque El Moazin has a cornice of white marble, still exhibiting the remains of former beauty. Outside the walls are several large cemeteries, one of which, on the E. side, upwards of 100 acres in extent: war, plague and famine, to which the town owes its present decay, have caused them to be thickly tenanted. In the N. part of the town is the *Kaissaria*, or bazaar, a long range of shops, or rather stalls, covered in from the weather, divided into compartments, and serving as a general lounge for all classes of the inhabs. Here are exposed for sale silk scarfs, shawls, and handkerchiefs from Fez; carpets and various articles of dress from Duquella; cloth, linen, hardware, tea, and sugar from England; almonds and raisins, henna and pure spirit from Suse; corn, beans, &c., from Shragna; dates from Tadlet; and an abundance of boots, slippers, saddles, earthenware, mats and cord, with gold and silver embroidery, in making which the inhabs. particularly excel. A large market is held every Thursday, near the N. gate of the city, and is well supplied with home-manufactures: outside the gate, also, is the market for camels, horses, mules, horned-cattle, sheep, &c.; but the display is very indifferent. The tanning of leather of the most important branch of industry in Morocco; and Captain Washington visited one tannery, which alone employed 1,500 persons. The establishment was extremely defective in order and arrangement; but, in spite of dirt and slovenliness, a bright yellow colour is produced, that has not been successfully imitated in Europe. (*Geog. Journ.*, i. 139.)

The *Millah*, or Jews' quarter, is a walled inclosure about 1½ m. in circuit, at the S.E. angle of the city, very densely peopled, and dirtier even than the parts inhabited by the Moors. The Jews pay a capitation-tax to the sultan, and are treated with the utmost contempt; but they are a servicable body, and are the only goldsmiths, tinsmen, and tailors in Morocco. Shoemaking, carpentry, masonry, smith's-work, and the weaving of baiks, are exclusively the occupation of the Moors. Provisions are cheaper even than at Tangiers; but there is very little trade, that which exists being, with the exception of the commerce in leather and salt, confined to the supply of the town. The air about Morocco is generally calm: the neighbouring mountains defend it from the scorching winds that blow from Tadlet and Sahara, while the snow with which the chain is covered nearly all the year, imparts an agreeable coolness to the surrounding atmosphere. In summer, however, the heat during the day is intense, though the nights are cool, and in winter the cold is pretty severe. On the whole, however, the climate is extremely healthy.

Morocco, which is supposed to be situated on or near the spot occupied by the ancient *Bocanum Hemorum*, was founded in 1052 by Abu Teassian, the first Moorish sultan of the Marabar dynasty, and in the following century, during the reign of Ali Ben Yusef, it is said, but no doubt the statement is grossly exaggerated, to have contained 1,000,000 of inhabs. In later times its population has greatly fallen off; and, owing to the devastations of successive conquerors, it retains little of its ancient magnificence. At present it is in many parts little

else than a desert; the ruins of houses heaped one upon another serve to harbour thieves and desperadoes of all sorts. Nothing but the wretched government of Morocco could have made so great a city so miserable and so deserted. (*Geog. Journ.*, vol. i.; *Beauchamp's Journey to Morocco*; *Chevier's Hist. of Morocco*, i. 66-63.; *Jackson's Morocco*, p. 121-124.)

MORON, a town of Spain, in Andalusia, prov. Seville, on a plain near the foot of a lofty hill, 23 m. S.E. Seville, and 60 m. W.S.W. Cordova. Pop., according to Milano, 7,894. It has some well-built houses, a par. church, and 2 hospitals. Its inhabs. are almost wholly agricultural, and nearly all the oil used in Seville is raised in the neighbourhood. The existence of Roman inscriptions and other antiquities has induced some authors to identify Moron with the ancient *Araceli*.

MORPETH, a mun. and par. bor., market-town and par. of England, co. Northumberland, ward of its own name, on the N. bank of the Wansbeck, crossed here by 2 bridges, 14½ m. N. by W. Newcastle. Pop. of par. bor. (which includes the par. of Morpeth, except one detached township, together with the par. of Bedlington), in 1841, 7,160. The town, which is pretty well built, though badly paved, and not lighted, consists principally of 2 streets, at the junction of which is the market-place, with a high square clock-tower, containing a chime of bells. A town-house, a stone structure fronted by a colonnade, and decorated with turrets at the corners, was erected in 1714, at the expense of Lord Carlisle, for the manorial courts, quarter sessions, local business, &c. The co. gaol, and house of correction, is an extensive and commodious pile erected in 1829 on the S. side of the river. The par. church, a plain brick building, is on Kirkahill, ½ m. S. the town; the living being a rectory in the gift of Earl Carlisle. There is also a chapel of ease. The Rom. Catholics, Presbyterians, and Wesleyan Methodists, have their respective places of worship, to which, and the church, are attached Sunday-schools. A formerly endowed grammar-school was founded here, by Edward the 3rd, in English free-school, and infant schools, are supported by the corporation, and there are 3 subscription schools for boys and girls. The other establishments of the town comprise a Provident club, dispensary, mechanics' institute, subscription library, and some minor charities. Morpeth has undergone little change in its condition during the last 50 years: no buildings are in course of erection, and in 1886 there were 115 uninhabited houses. A small woollen manufactory, iron-foundry, and 2 or 3 steam mills, are established here, but the chief dependence is on its cattle market, which is one of the largest in the N. of England. Freestone is quarried, and there are 4 collieries within the par.; but the railway connecting them with the town has been an unprofitable undertaking.

Morpeth is a bor. by prescription, and recognised as such by the charter of 15 Charles II.; its municipal officers, since the Mun. Reform Act, being a mayor, 8 other aldermen, and 12 councillors. Corp. rev., in 1848-49, 8744. 10s. It has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. Since the reign of Mary, the right of election, which was the Reform Act, having been nominally vested in the bailiff and free burgesses, but substantially in the Earl of Carlisle, lord of the manor. This act deprived it of one of its members, and the limits of the bor. were then also enlarged, as stated above. Reg. electors in 1869-70, 421. Petty sessions are held weekly, and quarter sessions alternately, with three other towns. A county court is established here, before which 2541 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. Large cattle fairs, the Wed., Thurs., and Frid. but one before Whit-Sunday. Races are held on Cottingham Common, early in Sept.

It appears from Camden that Morpeth was "burned down by its inhabitants in 1215, out of hatred to King John," that is, with the view of distressing him when on his march to punish the revolt of his barons; and it suffered again from fire in 1699. Its castle, built in 1358, and Cistercian monastery, both mere ruins, and several churches and baronial residences in the immediate vicinity, are well worth the notice of the antiquary.

MOSCOW (Russ. *Mooskwa*), a large city of European Russia, long the residence of the sovereigns, and still one of the capitals of the empire, on the navigable river Moskva, 100 m. S.E. Petersburg, lat. 56° 45' 13" N., long. 37° 32' E. Pop., in 1850, 280,000.

This city, which was founded in 1147, is one of the most singular in the world. It is of a circular form, and covers a large extent of ground. The central part, on an eminence on the N. side of the river, is occupied by the kremlin, or citadel, containing the palace of the caars, with cathedrals, monasteries, squares, &c., built at different epochs, and in the most incongruous styles of architecture. The other quarters of the city form this central nucleus, increasing in magnitude, according as they diverge from it. On the outside of all are the *slobodas*, or suburbs. The Moskva, which has a very tortuous course through the city, is crossed by various bridges, some of stone, but the greater number of wood.

Previously to the conflagration of 1812, which destroyed two thirds of the city, Moscow presented the most extraordinary contrasts—palaces alternating with huts, Asiatic with European buildings, and open fields and gardens with crowded streets. "If I was struck with the irregularity of Smolensk," says Mr. Cosse, "I was all astonishment at the immensity and variety of Moscow; a city so irregular, so uncommon, so extraordinary, and so contrasted, never before claimed my attention. The streets are in general exceedingly long and broad: some are paved; others, particularly those in the suburbs, formed with trunks of trees, or boarded with planks like the floor of a room; wretched hovels are blended with large palaces; cottages of one story stand next to the most stately mansions. Many brick structures are covered with wooden tops; some of the timber houses are painted, others have iron doors and roofs. Numerous churches present themselves in every quarter, built in the Oriental style of architecture; some with domes of copper, others of tin, gilt or painted green, and many roofed with wood. In a word, some parts of this vast city have the appearance of a sequestered desert, other quarters of a populous town; some of a contemptible village, others of a great capital." (*Travels in the North*, i. 383; see also *Clarke*, i. 60. 8vo. edit.)

There is no longer any question that the conflagration of 1812 was the act of the Russian government, in the view of rendering it impossible for the French to winter in the city. With the exception of the Kremlin, and the quarter (Biologorod) immediately surrounding it, on the N., the rest of the city was mostly destroyed; and in some quarters the destruction was so complete that the lines of streets could with difficulty be recognised. The Kremlin, too, though it escaped the conflagration, suffered severely from the mines sprung under its walls, by order of Napoleon, on its evacuation by the French. But this wide-spread desolation was repaired in a very few years. Like a phoenix, Moscow has risen from her ashes larger and more beautiful than ever. The streets are been widened, and the buildings are less singular and discordant; still, however, the old and distinctive character of the city is preserved, being at once "beautiful and rich, grotesque and absurd, magnificent and mean." according to M. Androsoff, there were in all 9,482 houses in the city in 1831; of which, 8,127 were of brick & stone, and the residue timber. The erection of a wooden house is an easy matter. A market, held in a large open space in one of the suburbs, exhibits a variety of materials for house building, consisting of trunks of trees cut, shaped, and morticed into each other. The chaser who wants a dwelling repairs to the spot, plains the number of rooms he requires, examines the best timbers, which are regularly numbered, and gains for what suits him. The whole is either paid on the spot, and taken away by the purchaser, or the contractor agrees to transport and erect it at the place he has wanted. The materials thus brought, hauled, rafted, and inhabited within a week! The Kremlin, which has been completely repaired in 1812, comprises the Imperial palace, the archbishop's palace, the cathedral of the Assumption, in which the Russian sovereigns are crowned, with the shrines of St. Michael, the Annunciation, &c. It also includes the belfry of Ivan Veliki, a tower 360 ft. in height, having within it, at different stories, 23 bells, of them of an immense size: on festivals they are rung without interruption, the Russians being passionately fond of bell-ringing. The great bell of Moscow, weighing 10,000 pounds, or 360,000 lbs. (1,600 tons Eng.), lying on the ground, at a short distance from the tower of Ivan Veliki. It is said to have been once used in a wooden building; but this taking fire, the tower thrown upon it, to extinguish the flames, occasioned the large rent now seen in the bell. But the tower ever having been suspended in doubtful, and it was probably occasioned by some defect in the bell. On festivals, the peasants resort to this bell as a sanctuary. Among the other public buildings, may be mentioned the Palace of Arms, in the N. the founding hospital; the bazaar, an immense building, containing a great number of shops; the theatre; the hall, for exercising the troops in their drill, built by the emperor Alexander (of vast size, being 560 ft. in length, 180 in breadth, and the roof not being supported on pillars); the palace of the senate; the university; the office; the Pashoff palace; the great military hospital; the number of churches, though lessened by still numerous. In the year 1831, they amounted, in all, which 7 were for Catholics.

The university, founded in 1755, is the most ancient. It had, in 1835, 120 professors and sub-professors 419 pupils. Among the other educational establishments, may be mentioned the gymnasium, the university; the theological academy, the principal in the empire; the medico-chirurgical academy; the military school, or *corps de cadets*, with 600 pupils; the commercial school, founded in 1804; the establishments of St. Catherine and Alexander, for the education of young ladies; the veterinary school; the institute of Lazarus, so called from its founder, with 80 pupils, and a library particularly rich in Armenian literature, &c. There is, however, a great want of elementary schools for the lower classes; Moscow being, in this respect, far below Petersburg, defective as is the latter.

There are a number of literary societies, libraries, &c. The best library belongs to Count Tolstol. The university library was partly destroyed in 1812; but it has since been enriched by fresh purchases and donations, and contained, in 1835, about 45,000 volumes. Several nobles have extensive collections of books, pictures, medals, &c.

The Foundling Hospital is a vast establishment, and is managed in the best possible manner. During the 10 years ending with 1831, the admissions were 52,549, and the deaths 34,713. In point of fact, however, a large proportion of the children brought to this, and to all similar establishments, are all but dead before they arrive; and the real objection to such institutions consists not so much in their great mortality, as in the encouragement they hold out to licentiousness, and the desertion of children. The great military hospital has above 1,800 beds; and an undoubted judge, Baron Larrey, has declared that its organisation is excellent. There is also the hospital of St. Catherine, the hospital of Galitzien, &c. The pop. of the hospitals attached to the city in 1830 amounted to 22,227 individuals.

Moscow is the favourite residence of many of the Russian nobles, who pass the winter in the greatest splendour; not being overshadowed, as at Petersburg, by the court. According to M. Lecomte de Laveau (*Guide des Voyageurs à Moscou*), there were reckoned in the city, in 1830, 8,336 shops, 476 inns and hotels, 944 restaurants, 131 kabuks, or places for the sale of spirits, 56 kabuks for the sale of beer, 135 cellars for the sale of wine, 115 bake-houses, and 25 apothecaries' shops.

Manufactures are prosecuted here on a much larger scale than in Petersburg; but a large proportion of the works on account of the manufacturers and capitalists of Moscow are not in the city, but in the adjoining towns and villages, sometimes at a considerable distance from the capital. The principal establishments are those for the manufacture of cotton, woollen, and silk fabrics, many of which are upon a very large scale, and are fitted up with steam-engines and other improved machinery. Hats, also, are extensively produced; and there are numerous tanneries, breweries, distilleries, &c.

Moscow is the grand entrepôt of the internal commerce of the empire. It has a water communication with Petersburg and Riga, on the Baltic, Astrakhan, on the Caspian, and Odessa, on the Black Sea. In spring, or after the breaking up of the ice, the Moskva is navigable for boats, but during the rest of the season it is navigable for rafts only. A great deal of the commercial intercourse between the city and the adjacent and distant provinces is carried on in winter by the sledge-roads.

The same causes which occasion a very great preponderance of males over females at Petersburg (which see), exist in Moscow, though to a less extent, and have a similar result. The total pop. of the city, in 1830, amounting to 306,631, was, according to M. Androsoff, classified as follows:—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Clergy	1,679	5,367	4,946
Nobles and superior officers	10,490	11,524	22,024
Ramshelers	10,167	9,379	19,546
Russian merchants	5,722	7,485	16,210
De. lesser traders	21,651	26,438	47,887
Artisans and workmen	8,035	6,416	14,451
Peasants, &c.	1,466	1,225	2,691
1. Of the crown	30,595	6,294	36,619
2. Of private individuals	37,794	5,789	43,583
3. Domestic servants	42,306	28,714	70,990
Inferior grades of the army—			
1. On active service	13,300	1,469	15,769
2. On leave of absence	5,385	10,292	15,714
Students, inmates of convents, &c.	4,411	4,940	9,351
Total	164,999	190,632	305,631

(Schmitzer, *La Russie*, p. 85.)

MOSELLE, a frontier dep. of France, reg. N.E., formerly a part of Lorraine, chiefly between lat. 49° and 49° 30' N. and long. 5° 20' and 7° 40' E., having N. and E. Luxembourg, Rhenish Prussia, and Rhenish Bavaria; S. the déps. Bas-Rhin and Meurthe, and W. that of the Meuse. Area, 532,796 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 448,067. The E. part of the dep. is covered with ramifications of the Vosges, and the W. with those of the Ardennes mountains; but neither rise to any considerable height. The general slope of the dep. is towards the N., which is

the direction followed by its principal rivers, the Moselle in the W., the Sarre in the E., and their affluents, the Ornes and Nied. Some portions of the surface are very marshy. Near the Vosges, where primary formations prevail, the soil is stony; elsewhere it is chalky or clayey, and, in general, of indifferent quality, only about 10,000 hectares being said to be rich land. In 1834, the arable lands were estimated to comprise 308,913 hectares; pastures, 46,567; woods, 32,226; and orchards, gardens, &c. 11,920 hectares. According to Hugo and the *Dict. Géog.*, agriculture has of late made considerable progress in this dep.; and certainly it would seem, from the statements of Mr. Jacob, by whom it was visited in 1819, that, both in this respect and in the condition of the pop., there was ample room for improvement. "Through the whole distance," says he, "of 60 m. from the Prussian frontier to Metz, there is not a single good house to be seen, except the convent, and the house of the iron master at Forbach. There is nothing in any of the villages, large and populous as they are, nor within sight of the road, though it is an open country, that looks like a decent farmer's or clergyman's house. All seemed of the same standard; each filthy, dilapidated, and small, with barns and stables adjoining, of corresponding appearance. The horses and wagons looked miserable; the cows, few and poor; and I did not see more than fifty sheep, which were of a bad race, and nearly half of them black. The inns. were ill clothed, and at every stoppage we were assailed by numerous beggars. The cultivators (near Metz) are all proprietors. They or their parents generally bought the land, at the revolution, for paper money; before which they were bound to their lords in certain feudal services and payments, and were supplied by them with the capital requisite for cultivation. In the worst parts of Germany, where the soil is poorest, and where the feudal power is still in force, the peasantry are better clothed, have more furniture in their houses, and display more new and repaired houses, than are seen in the districts from Metz to Verdun. Between those cities the towns and villages are miserable receptacles of filth and poverty." (*Jacob's View of Agriculture in Germany*, &c. pp. 435, 439.)

Besides wheat, oats, and barley, the other principal articles of culture are turnips, flax, hemp, and oleaginous plants.

Moselle furnishes about 180,000 hectolitres a year of second-rate wine, the best of which is the red wine produced in the arrond. of Metz. The white wines are mostly light, and *de peu de durée*. (*Julien*, 42.) Though the pastures are good, all kind of live stock, except hogs, are said to be inferior. Quills and honey are important articles of rural produce; cantharides are collected in summer near Metz. In 1834, of 153,968 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 84,651 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 22,218 at between 5 and 10 fr.; only 95 were assessed at 1,000 fr. or upwards. Iron, which is every where abundant, and usually of good quality, is extensively produced and wrought, especially in the arrond. of Thionville. There are many potteries and some glass-factories in the dep. Verdun is famous for its linens; but the value of those produced in this dep. does not exceed 1,800,000 fr. a year. Woollen cloths, lace, paper, glue, and leather are the other principal products. Manufacturing industry may, in fact, be said to have originated and grown up in this dep. since the revolution; but in the interval since that event, has made considerable progress. Moselle is divided into 4 arrond.: chief towns Metz, the cap., Briey, Thionville, and Sarreguemines. It sends 6 mems. to the Ch. of Dep. Number of electors, in 1838-29. 1721. Total public revenue (1831), 13,577,481 fr. (*Hugo*, art. *Moselle*; *French Official Tables*.)

MOSELLE (an. *Mosella*), a river of W. Europe, flowing through the E. part of France, and the S. part of Rhenish Prussia; its basin being situated between that of the Nahe to the E., and the Meuse to the W. It rises in the Vosges dep. and mountains, about lat. 48° N., long. 7° E., and runs generally in a N. N. E. direction, with a very tortuous course, to Coblenz, in lat. 50° 22', and long. 7° 33', where it joins the Rhine. Before entering the Prussian dom. it traverses the French depts. Vosges, Meurthe, and Moselle; and separates Dutch Luxemburg from Rhenish Prussia. Its entire course is estimated at nearly 300 m., for about half of which it is navigable. Its average breadth is about 170 yards; its mean depth 6 ft., and its ordinary rate of current about 1½ m. an hour. Its principal affluents are the Madon, Meurthe, Seltz, Sarre, and Sure; Epinal, Toul, Metz, Thionville, Treves, Traubach, and Coblenz are on its banks. The surrounding country is subject to its inundations, which do much damage; but it is of immense utility as a channel of internal communication, large quantities of timber, slate, coal, charcoal, brandy, salt, potash, oak bark, glass and earthenware, and wine being sent by it to the Rhine. (*Dict. Géog.*; *Schreder's Guide du Rhin*, &c.)

MOSTAR, a town of European Turkey, pach. Bosnia,

and sandjak Herzegovina, of which it is the cap., on the Narenta, crossed here by a Roman bridge, 48 m. S. W. Bosna Serai; lat. 48° 20' N., long. 17° 52' E. Pop., probably under 10,000. It is surrounded by crenellated walls, and its principal streets are on the right bank of the river, about 4d of the town being on the other side. It has a celebrated manufacture of swords and fire-arms, besides an extensive traffic in cattle, corn, and wine, brought thither from a great distance. (*Sciæ, Dict. Géog.*)

MOSUL, a city of Asiatic Turkey, pach. of Bagdad, chiefly interesting as being near the site of Nineveh, the celebrated cap. of the first Assyrian empire. It stands on the W. bank of the Tigris (here very rapid, 300 ft. broad, and crossed by a bridge of boats, as well as an older one of stone), 158 m. N. N. W. Bagdad, lat. 36° 21' N., long. 43° 11' E. Pop., according to Kinnier, 25,000; of whom, about 9,000 are Christians, 1,500 Jews, and the rest Arabs, Turks, and Kurds. The city is so near the level of the river, that its streets are often flooded; and, like almost every other town in Turkey and Persia, it is in a declining state, its walls being broken down, and its best buildings crumbling into ruins. It has seven gates, and the castle, now in ruins, occupies a small artificial island in the Tigris. Streets narrow and irregular. Houses built partly of stone, partly of plastered brick, with vaulted roofs and ceilings, surrounded by flat terraces. The mosques, of which there are several, that possess considerable beauty, the coffee-houses, khans, hammams, and bazaars, are handsomer than in most Turkish towns, and the market is well supplied with provisions from Kurdistan. The Greek Christians have nine churches, and there is a Dominican convent. The principal ornaments of the city are, a college, the tomb of Sheikh Addul Cassim, and the remains of a fine mosque, the minaret of which was built by Nouredin, sultan of Damascus. West of the Tigris, the environs are wholly uncultivated; and this circumstance, combined with the great extent of the cemetery close under the walls, gives it a gloomy and melancholy aspect.

Mosul is under the separate jurisdiction of a pachá of two tails: it formerly had a large caravan trade with all parts of Asia, but has lost much of its commercial importance; it still, however, carries on a trifling trade with Bagdad and Asia-Minor; to the former of which it sends, on rafts down the Tigris, gall-nuts and copper, from Kurdistan and Armenia, receiving in return Indian commodities, afterwards forwarded to Diarbekr, Orfa, Tokat, Alep, &c. its only manufacture, that of coarse blue cotton cloths, used by the lower orders of the pop.

The climate is proverbially healthy, the average temp. of summer not exceeding 66° Fahr.; but in spring, during the floods of the Tigris, epidemics are common, though not often fatal. Several sulphur springs are found within a short distance of the town, and are much resorted to for cutaneous diseases. The geological formation of its immediate vicinity consists, according to A. North, of solid beds of massive, compact, and granular calcareous gypsum, and a thin layer of strata, not fossiliferous, of a bluish white colour, and extensively quarried as marble. Superimposed on the gypsum is a thin formation of a friable limestone, abounding in shells, and forming the common building stone of Mosul, as it probably also formed that of the ancient Nineveh. (*Kinnier*; see also *NINEVEH*.)

MOULINS, a town of France, cap. dép. Allier, on the river of that name, which is here crossed by a handsome stone bridge of 13 arches, in a fertile plain, 159 m. S. S. E. Paris; lat. 46° 34' 4" N., long. 3° 20' 14" E. Pop., in 1846, 14,794. Streets narrow and irregular, but clean and well-paved; houses chiefly of brick, but a few also of stone, especially in the principal avenue, the *rue de Paris*. It has 3 public squares, that of the Allier being by far the largest and best built. It is well supplied with water from numerous fountains. The chief public edifices are the churches of Notre-Dame and the Visitation, the royal college, established in the suppressed convent of the latter, the town-hall, hotel of St. Cyr, and a recently erected hall of justice. It has also 2 large hospitals, barracks, a public library with 30,000 vols., a museum of natural history, and a small theatre. Several fine walks run in different directions out of the town; and in the neighbourhood are extensive vineyards, and mulberry-plantations for breeding silk-worms. Coal and limestone are wrought at a short distance from the town, and are articles of considerable trade. Moulins is the seat of a tribunal of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a chamber of manufactures, and a society of agriculture, science, and arts; it has a large manufacture of cutlery, especially scissors, which are highly esteemed, and smaller establishments for making coarse cotton and woollen fabrics, haberdashery, and hats, with steam corn-mills, glass-houses, and tanneries. It has a considerable trade in corn, wine, silk, timber, coal, and cattle, chiefly with Orleans, by the Loire navigation; but also with Bourges, Maçon, &c.

Month, which existed as a town so early as the 11th century, became the residence of the Dukes of Bourbon, in 1558. A famous assembly convoked here in 1665, by Catherine de Medici, was followed by long and sanguinary war of the league. (*Hugo, art. Alker, &c.*)

MOUNT-SORREL (properly, *Mout Sorrel*), a market-town of England, in E. Gloucestershire, co. Leicester, pars. of Rothley and Barrow-upon-Soor. Pop. of township, in 1841, 1,536. It derives its name from being situated close to a steep craggy hill of red granite, which rises immediately from the Soar. On its highest point there formerly stood a fortress, which, being taken by Henry III., was soon after entirely demolished. The town, built on the great road between London and Nottingham, consists chiefly of houses constructed of granite: the principal buildings are, the town-hall (in which the petty sessions for the hund. are held), a church, subordinate to that of Barrow, and three places of worship for dissenters.

Mount-Sorrel has some share in the hosiery trade of Leicester; and it has derived much benefit from its position on the Great-North-road; but this advantage it is likely to lose, from the recent opening of the Midland Counties Railway. Markets on Monday.

MOURZOUK, *Saï Fazzah*, 1. 830.

MOZAMBIQUE, a city and sea-port of E. Africa, cap. of a colony belonging to the Portuguese, lat. 14° 49' S., long. 40° 45' E. Pop. 3,000? It stands on a crescent-shaped island of coral, very low and narrow, and scarcely 1½ m. in length, near the entrance of a deep inlet of the sea, which forms its harbour. The fort, which has six bastions and eighty cannon, is in bad repair: the city comprises a large square, and several narrow, dirty streets lined with lofty houses fast falling to decay. The governor's palace is an extensive stone building, with a flat lead roof, and a square court in its centre. Three churches, an old town-hall, and hospital, are the only other public edifices. Black-town, at its S. extremity, is wholly inhabited by negroes, and consists of bamboo and ocher huts.

The administration of the colony is vested in the governor, aided by a council comprising the bishop, the commander of the troops, and the chief civil minister; but it is extremely corrupt, and nearly all the functionaries, both civil and military, are criminals exiled from Europe. Education, of about 300 Portuguese and Crookes, the pop. consists of free blacks and slaves, with about 800 Arabs and Banyans, chiefly engaged in petty trade and handicraft. The irregular life led by the Europeans, and the general insalubrity of the climate, prevent any increase in the white pop.; and, at an average, of 100 soldiers 7 only survive a residence of five years. The rural population is in the most degraded state; and, although the soil be naturally rich and productive, the culture of cotton, indigo, sugar, and other articles of cultivation, is wholly neglected. Rice, millet, and manioc, are raised almost without labour; furnishing, with cocoa nuts, almost the entire food of the slaves. The commerce of Mozambique has greatly decreased, in consequence of our exertions to suppress the traffic in slaves; but, though much diminished, the trade is still carried on to a considerable extent both with Brazil and Arabia. These slaves, who are chiefly of the tribe of Monjores, and brought from the centre of the continent, a distance of 40 or 45 days from the colony, are procured from the native merchants in exchange for salt, shells, tobacco, coarse cloths, &c.: goods costing about 2 dollars will bring in, as the case may be, either a slave, or an elephant's tusk, weighing from 60 to 80 lbs. of ivory; hippopotamus' tusks, gold-dust, colombo-root, gums, and amber, are the other chief exports; the imports comprise tea, sugar, coffee, cotton and woollen cloths, with other articles from Diu, Demau, and Goa. A duty of 16½ crusados is levied on every slave exported: all other imports and exports are free of duty. Mozambique was first visited by Vasco de Gama, in 1498; and in 1506 Albuquerque made it the centre of the Portuguese possessions in this part of the world, and the seat of the viceroy of the African colonies. When the Portuguese lost their Indian possessions at the commencement of the 17th century, Mozambique began to decline, and has ever since been in a languishing state. The territory, however, still extends from C. Delgado northward to Delagoa Bay southward, having a length of coast exceeding 1,400 m., and comprising, besides the cap., the several settlements of Ibo, Pombe, Condura, Mokamba, and Quilimane. The channel between the E. coast of Africa and Madagascar is called the Mozambique Channel. (*Ritter's Africa*, i. 302-204. &c.)

MULLHAUSEN, a town of the Prussian dom., prov. Saxony, reg. Erfurt, cap. circ., on the Unstrut, 29 m. N.W. of Erfurt. Pop., with its suburbs, in 1836, 12,080. (*Bergmann*.) It is surrounded by a high wall, flanked with towers, and environed by a ditch; has an antiquated appearance, several Lutheran churches, a gymnasium, 3 hospitals, and an orphan asylum; and is the seat of a judicial court for the town and circ. It has manufac-

tures of woollen and linen cloths, carpets, &c.; with dyeing-houses, fulling and oil mills, distilleries, breweries, and tanneries, and an active trade in corn and dyestuffs. (*Woon Zedler's Geschloss.*)

MULHAUSEN, or **MULHOUSE**, a town of France, dép. Haut-Rhin, cap. cant., on the Ill, 22 m. S. Colmar, and 16 m. N.W. Basle. Pop., in 1836, ex. com., 13,789; or with com., 16,598; exclusive of about 7,000 individuals, who come daily out of the neighbouring communes to work in the various factories. It is divided into the old and the new town. The former, entirely surrounded by the Ill (here crossed by several bridges), though irregularly laid out, has tolerably broad, well-paved, and clean streets, and some good houses. The Protestant and the R. Catholic par. churches, the synagogue, town-hall, college, arsenal, and hospital, are its principal public edifices. In one of its squares is a column erected to the astronomer Lambert, born here in 1728. The new town, which extends, on the S.E. as far as the canal uniting the Rhine and Rhone, is handsomely laid out, and has numerous handsome residences, with the hall of the Society of Industry, the exchange, the chamber of commerce, &c.; it has also a capacious basin on the canal.

Until about the middle of last century, Mulhausen had only a manufacture of woollen cloths; but in 1745 cotton printing was introduced, and it is now one of the principal seats of the cotton manufacture in France. The cotton prints and muslins of Mulhausen and its neighbourhood are second only, as respects the perfection and variety of their patterns, to the silk goods of Lyons. (*Bowring's Rep. on Switzerland*, p. 34.) The manufacturers have, in many instances, branch establishments in other parts of Haut-Rhin and in the neighbouring Alps; but Dr. Bowring states that many of their mills and factories are mortgaged to the banks of Basle; and, in fact, Switzerland furnishes considerable capital to the manufacturers of Alsace. (*See art. RHIN-HAUT in this work*.) Hugo says that about one fifth part of its cotton goods are sent out of France. The workpeople are badly clothed, dirty, and lodge generally in cellars, or other comfortless dwellings; but of late efforts have been made, by some of the more wealthy manufacturers, to improve the lodgings of the workpeople in their employ. Wages are good: cotton printers of the first class get from 2½ fr. to 3 fr. 20 c. a day; inferior workmen, from 1 fr. to 1½ fr.; women, an average of 1 fr. 20 c.; and children, from 25 to 35 c. a day. Weavers (men and women) and male cotton spinners get from 1½ fr. to 3 fr. a day; females engaged in cotton spinning, from 75 c. to 1 fr. 10 c.

Intemperance is not so prevalent here, as among the cotton weavers of the dep. du Nord; and, according to Villermé, the proportion of illegitimate children is but little above the general average of France.

The spinning mills of Mulhausen are not in a flourishing condition, owing, in part, to their being obliged to use cotton imported by way of Havre or Marseilles. In point of fact, however, they are totally unable to withstand the competition of the English; and since Manchester and Glasgow cotton twist has been admitted at a slight duty, as low as No. 170, they have ceased to spin any high numbers. Woollen cloths, hosiery, straw hats, morocco leather, and beer, are the other principal goods made at Mulhausen, which has also a brisk trade in iron, hardware, and agricultural produce. Before the Revolution, this town was the cap. of a small republic allied to Switzerland. It was annexed to France in 1798, and has rapidly increased since 1830. (*Hugo, art. Haut-Rhin; Villermé, Tableau des Ouvriers*, i. 14-50.; *Bowring's and Symonds's Reports*, &c.)

MULL. *See HURDIS.*

MULLINGAR, an inland town of Ireland, prov. Ulster, co. Westmeath, of which it is the cap., on the Broad 44 m. W. by N. Dublin. Pop. in 1691, 3,884; in 1841, 4,569. It consists of one principal street, running E. and W., with several diverging streets and lanes. It has a par. church, a very large R. Catholic chapel, a convent, a Presbyterian and a Methodist meeting-house, a large barrack, and the prison, court-house, and infirmary for the co. Though not an incorporated bor., it sent 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C. till the Union, when it was disfranchised. It has two schools, partly supported by the Educational Board, one attended by about 250 boys, and the other by above 400 girls. Courts meet add baron, for small debts, are held every Thursday; and a court of record, with jurisdiction to the amount of 100£. The assizes for the co. are also held here; with general sessions in Jan., April, July, and Oct.; and petty sessions on Saturdays. It is a constabulary and revenue police station. The co. prison, built on the radiating plan, contains 100 cells and 18 other rooms for prisoners. It is a large market-town for corn, butter, cattle, and other agricultural produce, having an easy communication by the royal canal, which nearly encircles it, with Dublin on the one hand,

and the Shannon on the other. It has two tanneries, and a brewery. Markets on Thursdays; fairs, inferior only to those of Ballinasloe, for the sale of cattle, on April 6, July 4, Aug. 29, and Nov. 11, the last chiefly for horses. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 872*l.*; in 1836, 1,036*l.*

MUNICH (Germ. *München*), a city of S. Germany, the cap. of Bavaria, highly interesting on account of its collections of the fine arts, on the Isar, crossed here by 3 bridges, about 230 m. W. Vienna, and 118 m. E. S.E. Stuttgart; lat. 48° 8' 20" N., long. 11° 34' 30" E. Pop., in 1846, 113,384, incl. military. The city stands in the midst of a plain, which is neither fertile nor picturesque, but is one of the most elevated in Europe, being nearly 1,600 ft. above the sea. In the last century it was only a second-rate fortified town, with castellated gates, and quaint ancient-looking houses; but since the beginning of the present century, new quarters and suburbs have so far extended themselves beyond the walls, that the buildings now occupy nearly double the extent of the old town. "Munich," says the author of Germany and the Germans, "has kept pace even with Vienna in the march of modern improvement. This is every where visible; for we see new and splendid streets extending in all directions, fine palaces and public edifices, many of them magnificent, surrounded by extensive pleasure-grounds with fine walks and drives: in short, every object shows that it is flourishing beneath the auspices of peace. Indeed, next to Berlin, Munich is the third city in the Germanic empire; for though Dresden, from its beautiful localities, is more captivating, yet this is the more striking: add to which, the one is dull and stationary, while the other is lively, attractive, and continually advancing in prosperity." (I. 319.) It has, however, an unfinished appearance, in consequence of the open spaces that intervene here and there between the numerous edifices, many of which are still incomplete. The old town comprises numerous streets diverging from a common central square, called the *Haupt-platz*, and running towards the walls, which form round it a species of irregular circle. A large and broad street runs from N.W. to S.E., called in different parts, the *Neuhauken Strasse*, *Kaufinger Strasse*, and the *Thal*. The *Sendlinger Strasse* is another leading avenue, and two narrow lanes, one of which passes through *Max-Joseph's-platz*, one of the finest squares in Europe, lead to a fine suburban line of streets. The *Ludwig's Strasse*, *Karl's-platz* and *Maximilian's-platz* skirt the town on its W. and N. sides. The different public edifices that form the principal glory of Munich are chiefly on its N. side. Here, also, is the *Carolinen-platz*, in the centre of which is an obelisk, 100 ft. high, formed partly out of cannon taken by the Bavarians in the late war. An equestrian statue of the elector Max. I., by Thorwaldsen, decorates the *Wittelsbacher-platz*. The cathedral, a large brick pile, erected at the close of the 15th century, has 3 towers, 333 ft. high, and a fine monument of the emperor Louis of Bavaria. The church of St. Theresa (so called from Caraffa, Bishop of Theate, the founder of the order) is a large structure in the Italian style, with a central dome flanked by 2 towers. The Jesuit's church, built at the end of the 16th century, is remarkable for its wide roof unsupported by pillars, as well as for 2 fine porticoes of marble, which form its grand entrance: it is 360 ft. in length, and 14 ft. wide; has 11 altars and a noble organ, with several monuments, one of which, by Thorwaldsen, to the memory of Prince Eugene Beauharnois, son-in-law of Napoleon, is one of the finest works of its kind. The church of St. Louis, in the Ludwig's-strasse, a brick building faced with marble, in the Byzantine Gothic style, has 2 towers, 230 ft. above the basement, and the nave is 250 ft. in length. The church of All Saints, recently finished, has some fine carvings and fresco-paintings; but is much smaller, and with fewer pretensions to architectural beauty than those before mentioned. There are several other churches, and 2 have very lately been opened in the suburbs, both on a large scale, and tastefully ornamented with pictures and painted glass windows. A Protestant church, recently built, has a lofty open tower, and is celebrated for a remarkably fine-toned organ. The public cemetery lies outside the S. gate, and is of vast extent; open alike to Protestants and Catholics. Not far from it is the General Hospital, a large building having accommodation for nearly 800 patients. The Royal Palace, or *Königs-residenz*, consists of an older part, built in the 16th century, and comprising a irregular court-yard, as well as a more modern part, called *Neueschloß*, planned on the model of the Pitti Palace at Florence, and fitted up in the most sumptuous style, though not yet completed. The apartments already finished are in the style of those seen in Pompeii, and comprise numerous fresco and encaustic paintings, bas-reliefs, richly carved cornices, &c. At the back of the palace is the *Hofgarten*, a large square planted space, surrounded by arcades, with cafés, shops, &c., not unlike those of the Palais Royal in Paris, the E. side being occupied by barracks. Connected with the

Hofgarten eastward, is a kind of park, called the English Garden. The new buildings of the palace face Max-Joseph's Square, on another side of which is the opera-house, opened about 14 years ago, one of the largest and most elegant theatres in Germany; it is fitted to hold about 2,500 spectators, and is equalled, as respects its performance, only by those of London, Naples, and Milan. Opposite the palace, in the same square, is the new post-office, copied from that of Rome, and in the centre is a statue of the late king, Max. Joseph I., by Rauch of Berlin.

The great glory of Munich, however, consists in its fine galleries of paintings and sculpture, called respectively the *Pinacotheca* (from *pinax*, a picture, and *theke*, a repository), and the *Glyptotheca* (from *glyphein*, a carving, and *theke*, a repository). The first of these, in the Bader Strasse, is in the Palladian style, with 2 wings, and has a front 500 ft. in length: the public entrance is at the E. end, the corridor is adorned with allegorical frescoes in compartments; and the collection, which, for specimens of the Flemish and Dutch schools, is one of the finest in the world, occupies 7 splendid halls and 23 adjoining cabinets on the first floor, the basement story being devoted to the reception of drawings, enameled mosaics, &c. The collection of drawings comprises about 9,000, including 3 by Raphael, 80 by Fra Bartolomeo, and several by Rembrandt, Albert Dürer, and other Dutch and German artists. The paintings are limited to 1,500, and consist of the *chef-d'œuvre* from the king's collections, including the galleries of Düsseldorf, Mannheim, Deux-Ponts, Schlesheim, and other galleries. Two of the apartments are devoted to the German school, and include the *étite* of the Bollersee gallery, purchased in 1827 for 375,000 florins, comprising specimens by Albert Dürer, J. von Eyck, Schoreel, Hans Hemling, &c. Three of the rooms contain pictures of the Flemish and Dutch masters, the principal of which are the "Murder of the Innocent," "A Fall of the Damned," and other splendid works of Rubens; the "Village Fête" of Téniers; the "Musical Party," by Netcher; the "Girl with the Pitcher" and "The Mountebank," by Gerard Dow; "The Wise and Foolish Virgins," by Schalken, besides numerous highly-coloured works of Vanderwerf and Rembrandt, with various portraits of Vandeyck. The specimens of the Italian school, comprised in two apartments, bear no comparison with the invaluable pictures just mentioned, but there are a few fine works by Raphael, Guido, Titian, Domenichino, Annibale Carracci, and Carlo Maratti. Belonging to the Spanish school, also, may be noticed "The Beggars" of Murillo, several works of Espagnoletto, and some portraits by Velasquez. There are also a few paintings of the English school, and among them is the well known "Reading of the Will," by Sir D. Wilkie. The Glyptotheca in the Königs-platz is a chaste and elegant structure, in the Ionic style, erected like the last by the Baron von Klenze, and has a noble central portico, the sides being adorned with statues in niches. The collection is distributed in 16 rooms, each of which is devoted to a distinct epoch in the art, and decorated in accordance with its contents. The walls are of scagliola-work, the floors of marble, and the ceilings richly adorned in fresco and stucco work. The marbles from the temple of Jupiter Panhellenius, in Egina, purchased by the present king for 10,000 sequins, occupy an entire room, and are particularly valuable, from their being the only extant specimens of the Eginetan school of statuary. The Ilioneus, however, is said to be "the gem of the collection," and one of the finest existing specimens of ancient art. The Roman hall far surpasses the rest in the splendour of its decorations; but the works that it contains are said to belong rather to the declining stage of the art. The hall of modern sculpture has, among other works, the Paris and Venus of Canova, copied from that at Florence; the Adonis of Thorwaldsen, and a bust of the king by the same artist.

The Leuchtenberg gallery, formed by the late Prince Eugene Beauharnois, comprises a choice, though not very extensive collection, including, among other *chef-d'œuvre*, Murillo's famous Virgin and Child, with several cabinet pictures, by Raphael, Vandeyck, Rembrandt, and Velasquez, with numerous works of modern French artists, and a few sculptures by Canova. The present king of Bavaria is certainly a liberal, and perhaps, also, a judicious patron of art; and nowhere is the modern German school of painting to be seen to greater advantage than in Munich. Several artists are kept in the king's employ, and an Academy of Arts has a triennial exhibition, supported by government, with salaried professors and pensioned students. This exhibition is encouraged and, in part, supported by a society which devotes annually about 6,000 fl. to the purchase of modern pictures. Munich was the birth-place of Sennefelder, the inventor of lithography; and it has many eminent professors of that art, who have transferred to stone some of the most celebrated works of the Pinacotheca and Glyptotheca.

The University of Munich, originally founded at In-

goldsmith in 1473, and removed thither in 1828, is the principal school of learning in Bavaria. It comprises 30 professors of four different faculties, with 1,300 students, almost exclusively Bavarians, besides a library of about 160,000 vols. Philological and theological seminaries, as well as two gymnasia, are attached to the university; and the town has polytechnic, central, and subscription schools. But however high the celebrity of Munich as respects music and the fine arts, the censorship of the press is fatal to the progress of literature, and to all the higher branches of philosophy. The royal library, lately removed to a noble building of great length, and 3 stories in height, is equalled only by that of Paris, the best authorities estimating its contents at 540,000 printed books and 16,000 MSS. The reading-room is open for five hours during three days of the week; but the books may not be withdrawn from the building. The collection of engravings amounts to 3,000; and there are about 10,000 Greek and Roman coins. The museum of natural history is small and poor, containing but few specimens of foreign plants or animals; and the Brazilian collection, made by Spix and Martius during their travels in S. America, though originally good and well selected, has been so much neglected as to be unworthy of notice. Munich has no very important manufactures, but comprises establishments for bronze-casting, iron-works, sugar-refineries, silk-throwing mills, and tobacco manufactories. Its telescopes are highly celebrated, and its porcelain is exported, like that of Dresden, to different parts of Europe. The last branch of industry is royal net-making, and is carried on in a large establishment at Nymphenberg, about 8 m. distant, where also is a handsome palace of the king, with parks, menageries, &c., completed at the end of the 17th century.

Munich owes its present distinguished position, as the Athens of S. Germany, principally to the patronage and encouragement of the late monarch. It is very doubtful, however, whether he deserves any considerable portion of the praise that has been lavished upon him on this account. The rich nobles, who are best acquainted with Bavaria, affirm that the embellishment of the capital has been effected at the expense and injury of the rest of the kingdom; and that the vast sums lavished on buildings and pictures would have been far better expended on the improvement of roads, and such like public works.

The immediate environs of Munich abound in taverns and gardens, which are the favorite resort of the middle classes. Beer is the favorite beverage, and waltzes are danced for 6 or 8 hours, without intermission. The beer-houses are exceedingly numerous, and beer is drunk in immense quantities. Some of the breweries are upon a very large scale. (See *BAVARIA*, I. 309.)

The inhabs. are likewise fond of good cheer in other respects, eating and drinking constituting with them the chief business of life. The morals of the inhabs. are alleged to be at a very low ebb; and, according to the government returns of 1834, there were in that year 1,291 natural, and only 1,330 legitimate children. These returns, however, are probably but little to be depended on; and the probability is that Munich is nearly, in this respect, on a level with the other caps of Germany, where large garrisons are kept. Seven newspapers and magazines are published in Munich, some daily, one or two weekly, and the rest at longer intervals; besides which several literary clubs and reading-rooms are established in the city. It has also a yearly festival (*Folk-fest*) in the early part of October, established by the present king for the purpose of encouraging agriculture, frequented by farmers and peasants, who bring with them the finest specimens of cattle in competition for prizes offered by government. Pony races and shooting matches take place at this fair; and a high sloping bank, running along the meadow in which it is held is cut, into steps, like a Roman amphitheatre, commanding an excellent view of the whole scene.

Munich was founded by Henry, Duke of Saxony and Bavaria, in 926, on a site belonging to the monks of Scheylar, from whom it takes its name. Otto IV. encircled it with walls in 1187, and in 1629 it surrendered to the Swedes and German Protestants, under Gustavus Adolphus. In the war of 1704, between the Austrians and Bavarians, it fell into the hands of the former, after the battle of Blenheim; and it shared also the vicissitudes of the war of 1740, when the elector made his unsuccessful attempt to attain the imperial crown. In 1796 the French army, under Moreau, approached Munich, and obliged the elector to make a separate treaty. The French again occupied Bavaria in 1806, and from the battle of Hohenlinden till 1813 the country remained in alliance with France. (*Murray's Handbook for South Germany*, pp. 37—49; *Strong's Germany*, li. 389—393; *Germany and the Germans*, li. 315—326; *Berghaus*; *Schaden*; *Wegweiser durch München*.)

MUNNEEPOOR, an indep. state of India beyond the-Brahmaputra. (See *CASSAY*.) The small town of

the same name, cap. Cassay, is in a fertile valley, about 400 m. N.E. Calcutta; lat. 24° 30' N., long. 94° 30' E.

MUNSTER, a city of the Prussian states, cap. prov. Westphalia, and of a reg. and circ. of the same name on the Aa, a tributary of the Ems. Pop., 1838, 19,763. It is pretty well built, is the seat of a R. C. archbishop, of the government, and of the tribunal of appeal for the prov. It has a seminary or college for the instruction of Catholics in theology, a gymnasium, a veterinary school, a botanical garden, and a public library. Principal public buildings, the cathedral, the church of St. Lambert, and the episcopal palace, now occupied by the governor. Münster has manufactures of woollen stuffs, and starch, with tanneries and breweries; and a considerable commerce in the products of these, and linen fabrics, hams, and other Westphalian produce. It is united by canals with the Ems, and also with the Vechte, flowing into the Zuider Zee. The treaty of Westphalia was signed in the town-house, in 1648. The famous fanatic Bocold, surnamed John of Leyden, the leader of the Anabaptists, made himself master of this place in 1534; but the town being subsequently taken by the bishop, John of Leyden and two of his accomplices were put to death, after being confined for a while in iron cages, still preserved in the church of St. Lambert. (*Bergaus*, &c.)

MUNSTER, one of the 4 great provinces into which Ireland is divided, comprising the S.W. portion of the island, and the cos. of Clare, Kerry, Limerick, Cork, Tipperary, and Waterford. (See *IRELAND*.)

MURCIA, a prov., and formerly a kingdom, in the S.E. of Spain, between lat. 37° 30' and 39° 25' N., and long. 0° 40' and 3° 5' W., bounded N. and N.W. by Castile, E. by Valencia, S. by the Mediterranean, and W. by Andalusia. Greatest length, 140 m.; do. breadth, 120 m. Area, about 8,000 sq. m. Pop., in 1833, 474,315. It is intersected by numerous ranges of mountains separated by extensive valleys formed by the Segura and its tributaries. The Sierras Segura and Pinoco skirt the country westward, and a chain of mountains runs northward from Carthagena, the highest point as far as the town being the Sierra Espada, which rises 5,800 ft. above the sea. The mountains are chiefly of limestone, interspersed here and there with other formations. Lead and copper abound; but no mines are wrought. The climate on the sea-coast, and among the mountains, is temperate and delightful, but oppressively hot in the plains. The heat in summer occasionally rises above 100° Fahr. in the shade; and the winters are so mild, that frost is almost unknown. Rain seldom falls, and the sky is usually so clear and blue as to have caused Murcia to be called *ciudad serenisima*. The soil, except on the banks of the Segura, is sandy, dry, and unproductive; above two thirds of the surface is incapable of cultivation, and only about one half is fit even for pasture: indeed Murcia is one of the most barren districts in Spain. The *huerta*, however, which lies close to the Segura, is extremely fertile, producing rich crops of wheat, barley, rye, rice, maize, vegetables and fruit, particularly oranges, lemons, pomegranates, and melons; mulberry and olive trees are found in great quantities, as well as evergreen oaks, as we call them, clothe the sides of the mountains. Silk and oil are extensively produced, with smaller quantities of saffron and wine. The *esparto* rush grows luxuriantly in the neighbourhood of Carthagena, and with *barilla*, forms a considerable article of trade. The cattle of Murcia are not numerous, consisting principally of sheep and goats, with only a few horned cattle: the pigs, owing to the abundance of oaks, are almost equal to those of Valencia. Game is abundant, and the coast swarms with a variety of fishes. Wolves, foxes, and wild boar, inhabit the mountains. The manufactures are unimportant, being principally limited to the production of coarse linens, silk-stuffs, and earthenware, and soap. Carthagena, its only port, has a considerable export trade in cutlery, hemp, ribbons, wine, soda, barilla, and saffron; but the roads of the interior are so bad as almost to prevent intercourse. Three large fairs are held in Sept. at Murcia, Lorca, and Albacete. The inhabs. are provincial, even in Spain, for pride, apathy, and indolence. Except at Carthagena, the principal inhabs. of which are of French, English, or Italian descent, all classes lead a dull monotonous life, spending their time either in eating and smoking, or else in total inactivity. Agriculture is pursued only from necessity, commerce languishes, and education and science are at the lowest ebb.

Murcia was the part of Spain first conquered by the Carthaginians, who founded *Nova Carthago*, anno 303 a.c. The country passed, with the rest of the peninsula, into the hands successively of the Romans, Goths, and Moors, the last of whom invaded it in the beginning of the 8th century. It formed a part of the caliphate of Cordova till 1144, when it was annexed to the kingdom of Granada, to which it belonged down to 1266, when it was taken by Alonso X. of Castile, and has since formed one of the provs. of Christian Spain. (*Milano*; *Mod. Trav.*; *Inglis*, li. 308—311.)

MURCIA, a city of Spain, cap. of the above prov., on the N. bank of the Segura (crossed here by a "magnificent" stone bridge of 3 arches), 31 m. N.N.W. Carthagena, and 350 m. S.E. Madrid, lat. 38° N. and long. 1° 14' W.; pop., acc. to Miñano, 35,350. It is situated in a vale which for beauty and fertility equals any part of Spain. It was formerly fortified, but is now open on every side, and has narrow though clean streets, lined with mean houses, sometimes ornamented with grotesque carved-work. Gardens often skirt the streets, as at Seville, and the walls in many parts are overtopped by the heavily laden orange trees and branching palms. There are 4 considerable squares, the largest of which is used for a bull-ring; the principal public buildings are the cathedral, 11 par. churches, the bishop's palace, 5 colleges, a town-hall, custom-house, and hospital. The cathedral is of mixed architecture, with a Corinthian portico and Gothic dome. It formerly possessed great riches in plate and jewellery; but these were abstracted during the late war, and it has now only a few pictures. The chief object of attraction at present is its tower, 260 ft. high, which, like that of Seville, may be ascended by a spiral walk or inclined plane, accessible even to horsemen. In the Plaza real is a fine marble column, formerly surmounted by a statue of Ferdinand V.; and there are four public walks, one of which is formed by mole or quay skirting the river. The botanic garden is small and ill-arranged. The silk manufacture of Murcia, which once employed some thousand hands, now requires only 400. The silk is prepared by hand labour, and cannot therefore come into competition with that of Valencia, which is for the most part produced by machinery. Considerable quantities of coarse cloth are made for the supply of the poor; and there is a manufactory of saltpetre farmed by government to a company, which makes about 1,300 arrobas yearly—only one tenth of the quantity produced at the close of the last century. About 3 m. from the city is a gunpowder mill, bound to furnish government with 60,000 arrobas a year; but the quantity produced seldom exceeds 32,000 arrobas a year. Most of the inhabs. are supported by agriculture: the land in the vale of Murcia produces two crops a year—wheat and lentils, wheat and maize, or wheat and beans—and may be estimated to return about 5 per cent. to a purchaser (*Ingils*, li. 314.). Provisions, owing to a heavy market-duty, are somewhat dearer than at Malaga and Seville. The price of labour is from 4 to 5 reals a day: female servants receive a dollar per month, and men from 1½ to 2 dollars.

Murcia is very ill provided with accommodation for travellers. Miñano mentions sixteen *posadas* or inns; but they are little better than wretched pot-houses, kept by *gitanos* or gypsies, a race very thickly scattered over all the S. provs. of Spain, and following the trade of a butcher, linker, or low innkeeper. The inhabs. of the cap. are equally sluggish, gloomy, and reserved, with those in the rest of the province. The African character is more strongly marked in them than in other Spaniards; and the cast of countenance is, in general, very different from that of the Andalusian Moors. (*Townsend*, iii. 152–159.; *Cook's Sketches in Spain*, i. 35.)

Murcia was little known before the invasion of the Moors, when it was besieged and taken, A. D. 714. It was subject to the caliphate of Cordova from 756 to 1144, when it was annexed to the new Moorish kingdom of Granada. In 1221 it again became subject to Cordova; and, on the dismemberment of that caliphate, was made the cap. of a separate kingdom by Huiel, from whom it was taken in 1266 by Alonso X. of Castile; since which time it has remained in the hands of the Christians.

MURVEDRO (*Muri veteres*, but more an *Saguntum*), a town of Spain, highly interesting on account of its Roman antiquities, prov. Valencia, on the Cantabres, about 2½ m. from the N.N.E. Malaga, and 15 m. N.N.E. Valencia. Pop., acc. to Miñano, 5,373. It stands at the foot of a mountain of black marble, and at the N.E. extremity of a large and well irrigated plain has long, tortuous, narrow streets, and is surrounded by walls flanked with small round towers. The houses in the interior have a mean and gloomy appearance; but the suburbs are more airy and agreeable, and perfectly level. Two churches, three old convents, and a governor's palace are its only public buildings. It was formerly exported considerable quantities of brandy; but its chief dependence, at present, is on the export of the oil, wine, wheat, barley, carobs, and fruit, grown in the adjacent district, sent coastwise to Valencia, and other ports of the Mediterranean.

"Murviedro," says Mr. Swinburne, "seems to occupy the same ground as the ancient Roman city; but, in all probability, the Saguntum of Hannibal was built on the summit of the hill. That the Romans, also, had a fortress on the top is clear, from the large stones and regular masonry on which the Saracens afterwards erected their castle. Half way up the rock are the ruins of the theatre, forming an exact semicircle, about 82 yards in diameter,

from outside to outside: the length of the orchestra, or inner diameter, is 24 ft. The seats for the audience, the staircases, and passages of communication, the vomitoria, and the arched porticoes, are still easily traced. The back part rests against the hill, and some of the galleries are cut out of the rock. Two walls, going off at an angle, serve to turn off the rain water that washes down from the cliff behind. As the spectators faced the N. and E., and were sheltered from the W. and S., nothing could be more agreeable in this climate than such a place of entertainment, open to every pleasant and salubrious breeze, and defended from all winds that might bring them heat or noxious vapours. It is computed that 9,000 persons might be present, without inconvenience, at the exhibitions in this theatre." An attempt was made, at the close of the last century, to repair this noble structure; and, in 1796, a Spanish comedy was represented within its walls; but the plan was never carried into execution. The remains of a circus, also, are still discoverable in the orchards outside the town. It extended to a small river, the bed of which only remains, and which was the chord of the segment formed by the circus. When the Saguntines exhibited their mock sea-fights, called *naumachia*, this bed was undoubtedly filled from the neighbouring canal, which still exists. A mosaic pavement, 94 ft. in length and 14 ft. wide, in a very perfect state of preservation, was discovered in 1753, at the entrance of the town; and Ferdinand VI. ordered it to be inclosed, but his orders were not carried into effect, and it was, consequently, soon despoiled. Its fragments may still be seen in several houses of Murviedro. "Indeed," says M. Bourgoing, "the city is full of the remains of its antiquity: the walls of the houses, the city gates, and the doors of the churches and inns, are covered with Roman inscriptions."

The ground occupied by the convent of the Trinitarians was formerly the site of a temple dedicated to Diana. A part of the materials served to build the church, and the rest were sold to build *San Miguel de los Reyes*, near Valencia. The castle on the top of the hill presents some interesting remains of Moorish architecture; the fortifications divide the hill into several courts, with double and triple walls, erected on huge masses of rock, called in regular courses by the Romans (*Swinburne*; *Pisicler's Valencia*, p. 44.; *Mod. Trav.* 298.).

The prevalent opinion seems to be that Saguntum was originally founded by colonists from Zacynthus, who were afterwards joined by Rutuli from Ardea. (*Strabo*, lib. iii.; *Silius Italicus*, li. 603.) It appears to have early attained to great wealth and distinction; and being zealously attached to the Romans, it became an object of hostility to the Carthaginians. It was besieged by Hannibal previously to his invasion of Italy; but the strength of the city, and the determined bravery of the inhabs., baffled for nearly 8 months all the efforts of this great general to effect its subjugation. At length, however, it fell into his hands, anno 219 a.c., the inhabs. being in part put to the sword and in part sold as slaves. They had previously thrown a great part of their wealth into the flames; but the booty was still ample enough to enable Hannibal to reward the valour and devotion of his soldiers, and to facilitate his designs against Italy. (*Polyb.* lib. iii.; *Livy*, lib. xxxi. cap. 9.) Having been built by the Romans, it was afterwards famed for its porcelain, mentioned by Martial (*xiv. epig.* 108.).

"*Sume Saguntum pocula feta luto.*"

MUSCAT, a city and sea-port on the E. side of Arabia, prov. Oman, of which it is the cap., about 96 m. N.W. Cape Ras-el-had, lat. 33° 38' N., long. 56° 37' 30" E. Pop., estimated by Fraser at from 10,000 to 12,000, of whom 1,000 are Hindoos, from Sind, &c.; and the rest a mixed race, the descendants of Arabs, Persians, Kurds, Afghans, Belooches, settled here for the purpose of commerce. The town is situated at the S. extremity of a small cove, whose sides like a horseshoe; and on either side hills, lined with forts, rise almost perpendicularly 300 ft. from the sea. It is built on a slope, rising gradually from the water, which nearly washes the bases of the houses. On this side it has no defence; but the other sides are protected by a wall 14 ft. high, with a dry ditch. Its mosques, minarets, and white terraced houses give it an imposing aspect when seen from a distance; but, on entering, narrow crowded streets, and filthy bazaars, wretched huts, paltry houses, and other tenements more than half fallen to decay, meet the eye in every direction. It has, however, some substantial and even handsome houses; the palace of the Imaum, those belonging to his mother, the governor's, and several others being of the latter description: their form differs considerably from what is usually seen in the towns of Yemen and the Hedjaz, partaking more of the Persian than Arabian style of architecture. Muscat is supplied with water by means of a deep and strongly guarded well, from which a newly constructed aqueduct conveys it to tanks in the different quarters. During July and August it is excessively hot; and the fevers

then prevalent are especially fatal to Europeans. The country in its immediate vicinity is extremely barren; but it improves as it recedes towards the coast. Dates and wheat are the principal articles of produce; the former being held in high estimation, and largely exported, chiefly to India. A date tree is valued at from 7 to 10 dollars, and its annual produce from 1 to 1½ dollars. The value of estates is measured by the number of date trees comprised within the property.

Muscat is a place of considerable importance, being at once the key to, and commanding the trade of, the Persian Gulph. The dominions of the Insaun are very extensive, and his government is more liberal and intelligent than any other in Arabia or Persia. He has some large ships of war; and his subjects have some of the finest trading vessels to be met with in the Indian seas. The part of Arabia near Muscat is too poor to have any very considerable direct trade; but, owing to its favourable position, and the superiority of its ships and seamen, it has become an important entrepôt, and has an extensive transit and carrying trade. Most European ships bound for Bussorah and Bushire touch here; and more than half the trade of the Persian Gulph is carried on in ships belonging to its merchants. But exclusive of the ports on the gulph and the coast of Arabia, ships under the Insaun's flag trade to all the posts of British India, to Singapore, Java, the Mauritius, E. Africa, &c. The pearl-trade of the Persian Gulph is now, also, wholly centered at Muscat. All merchandise passing up the gulph on Arab bottoms pays a duty of ½ per cent. to the Insaun. He also rents the islands of Ormus and Kishmee, the port of Gombroon, and some sulphur mines from the Persian government.

In the magazines of Muscat may be found every species of produce imported into, or exported from, the Persian Gulph. Various articles are also imported for the use of the surrounding country, and for the internal consumption of Arabia. Among these, the principal are rice, sugar, coffee from Mocha, cotton and cotton cloth, cocoas nuts, wood for building, slaves from Zanguebar, dates from Bushire and Bussorah, &c. Payment for these is chiefly made in specie and pearls; but they also export skins of various descriptions, ivory, gums, resins, ostrich feathers, horses, a sort of fish called marbuten, to Tranquebar, dried fish, an esteemed sweetmeat called *halakia*, and a few other articles.

The markets of Muscat are abundantly supplied with all sorts of provision. Beef, mutton, and vegetables of good quality may be had at all times, and reasonably cheap. The bay literally swarms with the greatest variety of most excellent fish. Water is excellent, and is conveyed to the beach in such a manner that the casks of a vessel may be filled in her boats while at anchor. Firewood is also abundant, and is cheaper than at Bombay.

Mohammedans pay a duty of 2½ per cent. on imports and exports; and all other nations pay 5 per cent.

Niebuhr thinks, that Muscat occupies the site of the Mosca of Arrian and other Greek writers (*Voyage en Arabie*, ii. 71. ed. Amst. 1780); a conjecture which seems to be confirmed, not merely by the resemblance of the name, but also by the terms applied by Arrian to Mosca being sufficiently descriptive of Muscat; and as the port is bounded on all sides by rocks, it must now present almost the same appearance as in antiquity. Dr. Vincent, however, though he speaks doubtfully on the subject, is inclined to place Mosca to the west of Cape Rassegate. (*Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients*, ii. 344–347. For further particulars, besides the authorities above referred to, see *Hamilton's New Account of the East Indies*, i. 68.; *Frazer's Journey to Khorrasan*, pp. 5–19.; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*, &c. The longitude given above is that of *Arrowsmith's Chart of the Persian Gulph*.)

MUSSELBURGH, a pari. bor. and market and sea port town in Scotland, co. Mid Lothian, on level ground, the mouth of the Forth of Forth, 6 m. E. Edinburgh. Pop. of pari. bor. in 1841, 6,116. It is well built: the main street runs nearly E. and W., with a slight curvature, parallel to the bay; and it has a great many subsidiary streets. It has numerous villas; which is accounted for by its vicinity to Edinburgh, and its salubrity. Fisher-row, which contains many modern buildings, and new streets, is separated from Musselburgh, properly so called, by the Esk, the communication between them being kept up by means of 1 wooden and 2 stone bridges, one of the latter being old and little used. The other stone bridge is a modern and handsome structure, after a design by Rennie. The only public buildings are a gaol, an ancient edifice surmounted by a spire, and the parish church of Inveresk (in which parish the town is situated). The latter, on an abrupt eminence ½ m. from the town, is a conspicuous object in every direction. On the shore immediately adjoining the town on the E., are extensive downs or links, used since 1817 for the Edinburgh races, and for the game of golf, which is much prized here.

Musselburgh has two flax-mills, which employ about 130 hands; and about 200 weavers of sail-cloth and other

fabrics. The manufacture of hats is, also, carried on to a limited extent; and there are brick-works, a pottery, extensive breweries and distilleries, tanneries, and flour-mills. Fisher-row, along with Newhaven, in the parish of North Leith, virtually monopolises the supply of Edinburgh with haddocks and other white fish. A branch of the Edinburgh and Dalkeith railroad has its depot at Fisher-row. The country all round the bor. abounds with coal, which, by means of the railroad, is conveyed to Edinburgh, and by another branch of the same railway is taken to Leith, for consumption and export. There are two banks in the town. The harbour dries at low water. The exports are coal, spirits, ale, and farm produce.

The schools are numerous and efficient. Gilbert Stuart, author of a history of Scotland and other works, resided at Musselburgh; and New Hallie, the residence of Lord Hallie, the assnailist and antiquary, is within ½ m. of the town. Poor-rates have been introduced: average annual assessment, 1,100*l*. In addition to the parish church, it has a *quoad sacra* church, and chapels belonging to the Episcopalians, Associate Synod, Relief, and Independent sects.

The chapel of Loretto, to the E. of the town, was, before the reformation, a place of great importance; pilgrimages were often made to it; and, in 1530, James V. performed a pilgrimage thither on foot. About ½ m. S. of Pinkie House was fought on the 10th Sept. 1547, the battle of Pinkie, in which the English, under the Duke of Somerset, totally defeated the Scotch. The battle of Preston Pans, on 21st Sept., 1745, between the forces of Charles Edward and the royal army, took place in this neighbourhood, when the latter were completely defeated.

Musselburgh had no pari. rep. till the passing of the Reform Act. It now unites with Leith and Portobello in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered voters in 1849 50, 212. Municipal income, 1848–9, 1,485*l*. Number of councillors, 12. (*Beauties of Scotland*, & *Edinburghshire; Boundary Reports; Chalmers's Catalogue; Private Information*, &c.)

MYSORE (*Maheshwara*), a prov. of S. Hindostan, forming a subsidiary to the British Government, lat. 11° 30' and 15° N., and long. 74° 40' and 78° 40' E., almost entirely surrounded by the territory of the Madras presidency. Its shape is nearly rhomboidal; greatest length, N. to S., 240 m. by an extreme breadth of about the same. Area, estimated at 29,750 sq. m.; and pop. at about 2,500,000. The whole country consists of a table land enclosed on the E., W., and S. by the Ghauts; and varying from 1,900 to 4,600 ft. in elevation above the sea, with a gentle slope towards the N. The Zoogabuddra, Pennar, Colar, Coierow, &c., all rise within this prov., which has, however, no river of much size. The climate is one of the most salubrious within the tropics; the air is temperate and bracing, and the deluging rains, which prevail on either side beneath the Ghauts, are here unknown. The soil, which is mostly of the red and black varieties common in the Deccan, is continually watered by refreshing showers; and produces not only most of the grains and vegetables of other parts of India, but also many of the fruits of Europe. Extensive tracts are overrun with jungle, especially of the date palm, and from the remains of villages, &c., the prov. appears at a remote period to have been in a much higher state of cultivation than at present, though it has recovered to a great extent, from its previous devastations, since the period of peace, commencing with the present century. Rice, sesamum, sugar, coffee, betel leaf, castor oil, and cocoas nuts, are the principal articles of produce. Though an inland country, the cocoas palm is almost everywhere abundant, great quantities of salt and soda efflorescing on the soil. About Colar the poppy is raised, both for making opium and for its seed. Potatoes are grown, and exported to Madras and elsewhere. Tobacco is of inferior quality, and is not much cultivated. From the great imperfection of agricultural implements, and the inferiority of the cattle, the fields are very imperfectly ploughed; but the soil is, in many parts, extremely productive, with the aid of little labour. The cottages of the peasantry are, on the whole, neater and more commodious than in most parts of India. They are almost universally constructed of the red soil of the country, and roofed with tiles; nor are the best habitations of different materials, or otherwise distinguished from the rest than by their size, and from being whitewashed. The inhabs. are nearly all Hindoos.

The Mysore dominions are subdivided into three great districts; chief towns, Mysore, the cap., Bednore, and Chittidroog. The government is nominally in the hands of a native prince, but actually vested in the British resident at Mysore, appointed under the Madras presidency. The subsidiary armed force furnished by Mysore to the British government is undefined, but may be estimated at 4,000 men. The present dynasty of the Mysore sovereigns are supposed to have originally emigrated to this province from Gujrat; but no authentic

records of them exist previously to the 16th century. From 1760 to 1799, Mysore was governed by Hyder Ali and Tippono Salb. After a protracted contest with the English, Tippono lost his crown and life at the taking of Seringapatam. (*Parl. Reports; Hamilton; &c.*)

Mysore, a town of S. Hindostan, the cap. of the above state, on a lofty hill, 9 m. S. by W. Seringapatam, lat. 12° 19' N., long. 76° 42' E. It was suffered to fall into decay by Hyder Ali and Tippono, but, under the present dynasty, it has been rebuilt, and restored to its ancient importance. It is enclosed by an earthen wall, and consists of the town (pettah) and fort. The latter, which is an extensive work in imitation of a European fortress, is separated from the pettah by an esplanade, and comprises, besides the rajah's palace, the dwellings of the principal merchants and bankers. The architecture of the town is similar to that of Seringapatam, but the houses are larger and better; they are ranged in regular streets, whitened, and intermingled with trees and temples. S. of the fort is a large and good suburb; and on rising ground, near the town, is the British residency. Mysore is well supplied with provisions, and is considered much more healthy than Seringapatam. (*Hamilton; E. I. Gazetteer.*)

MYTILENE, the ancient Lesbos (*insula nobilis et amena*, Tacit. Hist., lib. vi. cap. 3.), an island of Turkey in Asia, in the Egean Sea, opposite the coast of Asia Minor, to the north of the entrance to the gulf of Smyrna. It is about 33 m. in length from E. to W., by about 26 in breadth. The strait by which it is separated from the main land varies in breadth from 7 to 10 m. Though in part hilly and mountainous, it has notwithstanding a considerable extent of level and very fertile land; and, except in a few places infested with malaria, it is extremely salubrious. The principal products are oil, corn, wine, figs, and other fruits; cotton, timber and pitch, silk, honey, &c. The wines of Lesbos were amongst the most celebrated of the ancient world. They are said by Athenæus (l. 22.) to have deserved the name of ambrosia, rather than of wine, and to have been like nectar when old!

"*Hic innoxiosa poma Lesbii
Ducit sub umbra.*"—Her. Od. l. 17.

The wine of the island still continues to preserve some, though but a slender, portion of its ancient reputation; very little, however, is exported. The figs are excellent, and large quantities of oil of medium quality are annually shipped for Constantinople and other places. The produce of corn is insufficient for the supply of the island. The timber and pitch are derived from the pine forests, with which the mountains are covered. The town of Castro, on the site of the ancient Mytilene, stands on the E. coast of the island, on the strait separating it from Anatolia. It contains many fragments of pillars, capitals, friezes, &c., but no memorable ancient ruin; it may have from 5,000 to 6,000 inhab.; and has two harbours, but neither is good. The island can, however, boast of two of the finest harbours in the world, Port Jero, or Olivier, and Port Caloni. The former, in its S.E. angle, has a narrow entrance, but the water is deep, and within it expands into a noble basin, capable of containing the largest fleets. Port Caloni, on the S. side of the island, is a basin, similar to the last mentioned, but of more ample dimensions, nearly, in fact, intersecting the island. It has deep water throughout; but the entrance to it being very narrow, it is but little frequented.

Olivier estimated the entire pop. of the island at about 40,000, half Greeks and half Turks, with a few Jews; but later estimates considerably reduce the number of Turks. There can be no doubt that under an enlightened government Mytilene would speedily recover some portion of her ancient prosperity. Olivier mentions that the singular usage obtains in this island of the eldest daughter succeeding to the paternal property, to the exclusion of her brothers and younger sisters! (*Yagars dans L'Empire Ott.* ii. 99.) Most probably the custom has descended from a remote era; but some modifications have, however, been introduced in modern times in favour of the younger sisters.

Lesbos was one of the most celebrated of the Greek islands. It had several cities, of which Methymna and Mytilene were the most celebrated. The latter was distinguished alike by the magnificence of its buildings, the amenity of its climate, its proficiency in the *belles lettres* and philosophy, the number of its great men, and the luxury and refinement of the inhabitants. Epicurus is said to have read lectures in Mytilene; and Aristotle resided in it for two years to profit by the society and conversation of its learned men. At a later period it became, like Rhodes, a favourite resort of those Romans who preferred quiet enjoyment to the turmoil and bustle of Rome.

Laudantur illi clarum Rhodos aut Mytilenem. Her. Od. l. 17.

Among the illustrious persons who were natives of the city of Mytilene, or of other parts of the island, may

be specified—Pittacus, one of the seven sages of Greece; Theophrastus, the scholar and successor of Aristotle; Alcæus, so famous for his odes; Sappho, celebrated alike for her beauty, her poetical talents, her loves and her death; Terpander, who added a seventh string to the lyre; Diophanes, a famous rhetorician, tutor to Tiberius Gracchus, &c. At the same time, however, it must be admitted that the morals of the bulk of the inhabitants were exceedingly corrupt, so much so, that it was common in antiquity to say of a debauchee, that he lived like a Lesbian. (*Cellarii Orbis Antiqui*, li. 15.; Tournefort, i. 38.; Ancient Universal History, viii. 290. 8vo ed.)

Mytilene was taken and sacked by Julius Cæsar; but Pompey restored it to the full enjoyment of its privileges; and Trajan, who enriched it with several costly buildings, gave it the name of *Trajanopolis*, which, however, it did not retain. Molivo, on the N. coast of the island, is the modern representative of the ancient Methymna.

N.

NAAS, an inland town of Ireland, prov. Leinster, co. Kildare, 18 m. S.W. Dublin. Pop. in 1841, 3,571. "The town possesses considerable local advantages. Situated in a rich agricultural district, 18 m. from the metropolis, its communication with that city is facilitated by good roads that by means of the branches of the grand canal, that enters the town. Its main street, also, presents some appearance of activity, owing to its forming the place of junction of the leading roads from Cork, Limerick, Kilkenny, Waterford, &c., to Dublin. However, far from keeping pace in improvement with the market towns in its vicinity possessed of none of these advantages, its prosperity has been on the decline for the last 15 years. The appearance of the cabins on the outskirts of the town is poor and miserable, many being ruinous." (*Metropolitan Board. Report.*) The public edifices are the parish church, a Rom. Cath. chapel, a meeting-house for Independents, military and police barracks, a market-house, a fever hospital and dispensary, a court house, and a prison. The spring assizes for the co. are held here, and the summer assizes at Athy. Its trade in grain, flour, and provisions, is not so considerable, as might have been expected. Markets, especially for poultry, on Mondays and Thursdays. Post-office revenue in 1830, 452*l.*; in 1836, 647*l.*

NAKHITCHEVAN, a town of European Russia, on the Don, about 35 m. above where it falls into the sea of Azoff. Pop. above 10,000, principally Armenians. This and the contiguous town of Rostoff are, as it were, the entrepôts of the Don. Except timber, most part of the produce brought down that great river is landed at one or other of these towns, and is thence forwarded by coasters for Tanagerog. Nakhitchevan is built in the oriental style, and its inhab. are distinguished by their commercial enterprise. "The connections they have formed with Astrakhan, Mordok, and Kiassar, also colonies of Armenia, almost annihilates the distance that is between them. They draw from these countries rice, silk, a vast quantity of wine, and about 500 casks of Kiassar brandy, in great esteem in Russia. They receive, moreover, from the Caucasus, all the rough produce of the country. By constantly frequenting the fairs which, in the adjacent towns and villages are very numerous, even to the distance of some hundred versts, the Armenians have formed the means of making themselves masters of the trade of the interior of the S. part of Russia." (*Hagemeister on the Trade of the Black Sea*, p. 36. Eng. trans.)

NAGPOOR (*nagapura*, "the town of serpents"), a large city of Hindostan, prov. Gundwanah, cap. of the dom. of the Rajah of Berar, between the Wynegarra and Wurdah rivers; lat. 21° 9' N., long. 79° 11' E. Pop. of the city and suburbs in 1825 estimated at 115,000. Its site is low and swampy in the rains; and the principal streets, with one exception, are narrow, mean, dirty, and intersected by watercourses. The great number of trees intermixed with the huts and houses give it, at a distance, the appearance of a large wood. It presents few good specimens of architecture; the rajah's palace, though an extensive building, has no pretensions to beauty, and has crowded round it a multitude of mean huts of mud and thatch. Some of the principal chiefs and bankers have large houses of brick and mortar, with flat roofs; but these, for the greater part, are old and dilapidated. In 1825, of 27,000 houses in Nagpoor, about 1,300 were of mason-work, the rest being principally of mud, thatched or roofed with tiles.

The dom. of which Nagpoor is the cap., extends between the 18th and 23d degs. of N. lat., and long. 79° 30' and 83° 0', having N. the Bengal presid., E. Bengal and the presid. Nadras, and S.W. and W. the dom. of the Nizam. Area estimated, in round numbers, at 64,000 sq. m.; and pop. at somewhat less than 2,000,000. The general slope of this country is towards the S.E.; the

surface is generally mountainous and woody, interspersed with occasional tracts of cultivated land. Principal rivers, the Wardah, Wyegunga, and other tributaries of the Godaverry, and the Muanudhy. The land is assessed on the village system. Wheat, jowares, and rice; teak and saul timber; cotton, sugar, hemp, tobacco, arrow-root, betel leaf, wild silk, iron, and limestone, are the principal products; some of which are sent in considerable quantities to Bombay. In exchange for European manufactures. Nagpoor had always a large trade with Poona, though this has very much diminished since the breaking up of the Mahratta empire; and some trade with Benares and Mirzapore, in muslins, broadsides, &c. The pop. of the country is nearly all Hindoo, or composed of wild Gond, and other tribes; and very ignorant, the children of only Brahmins and the mercantile classes being educated. The government is better administered than that of the Nizam dom. The revenue, which is estimated at about 46 and 47 lacs rupee, a year, is collected under the superintendence of British officers. The rajah furnishes a contingent of at least 1,000 men to the Anglo-Indian army. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*; *Evid. of Mr. Jenkins in Parl. Rep.*, 1837; *Report*, 1840, &c.)

NAIRN, a small marit. co. of Scotland, on the S. side of the Moray Frith, having N. the sea, E. Moray, and S. and W. Inverness: it also includes the detached district of Ferintosh, in the centre of Inverness. Area, 124,800 acres, of which about a third is supposed to be arable. It is in all respects similar to Moray, with which it is united under one sheriff. Along the shore it has a belt of low, fat, sandy soil, mostly suitable for the turnip culture, but in parts barren, owing to the sand being dry and movable. The valley watered by the Nairn is generally fertile and well cultivated; but the rest of the co. is mostly rugged and mountainous. The statements as to the size of estates and farms, houses, tillage, stock, &c., in the article MORAY, apply equally to this co. Average rent of land, in 1843, 3s. 6d. an acre. Excludes of the Nairn, it is watered by the Findhorn (*see* Vol. I. p. 337.), and some smaller streams. Except Nairn it has no town of any importance; and it has neither mines nor manufactures. The co., which unites with Moray in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C., had 111 reg. voters in 1849-50: the bor. of Nairn unites with Inverness, &c., in sending another mem. to the H. of C. Nairn is divided into 6 parishes, and had, in 1841, 2,330 inhab. houses, and 9,217 inhabs, of whom 4,281 were males, and 4,936 females. Valuation in 1834: Scotch: annual value of real property, in 1815, 14,902.

NAIRN, a royal and parl. bor., sea-port, and market-town of Scotland, cap. of the above co., near the mouth of the river of the same name, on the public road between Aberdeen and Inverness, 15½ m. N.E. the latter, and 73 m. N.W. by W. the former. Pop., in 1841, inc. the par., 2,353. The river is here crossed by a substantial bridge, which, however, was greatly injured by the floods of Aug. 1829. "The principal street is tolerably spacious, but all the others are narrow and confined" (*Bozerman's Report*). The only public buildings are the court-house, gaol, established church, Free church, two dissenting chapels, and a large inn, built by subscription. The harbour is accessible only for small vessels; and grain, cattle, timber, salmon, herring, and other white fish are exported to London and other markets. Indeed, the fisheries may be said to be the staple branch of industry of the town. The means of education are ample. Here are no fewer than three banks. It joins with Inverness, Forres, and Fortrose in sending a mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors in 1849-50, 94.

Nairn was created a royal bor., by William I., in the 12th century. In the vicinity is Cawdor Castle, once a fortress of great strength, but now a ruin. It gave the title of "Thane" to Macbeth, and Shakespeare has made it the scene of the murder of the "gracious Duncan." It now gives the title of earl to a branch of the Campbells of Argyll. Lord Lovat found refuge in a corner of this fortress, after the battle of Culoden, in 1746.

NAMUR, (Flem. *Naemue*, Lat. *Namurcum*) a strongly fortified town of Belgium, cap. prov. of same name, on the Meuse and Sambre at their junction, 33½ m. S.W. Liege, and the same distance S.E. Brussels; lat. 50° 28' 30" N., long. 5° 0' 7" E. Pop., in 1846, 22,318. It is surrounded with good walls, and has been considerably strengthened since the last war: it has strong outworks on both sides the Meuse and Sambre, and is further defended by a citadel, erected in 1817, on the elevated site of a former citadel, demolished by Joseph II. It is well built; many of the streets are broad and clean, and the houses are mostly of bluish stone, roofed with tiles. The cathedral, a modern edifice, with a handsome Corinthian portico, and a dome, is principally remarkable for its containing the tomb of Don John of Austria, the conqueror of the Turks, at the famous battle of Lepanto. The church of St. Loup, a richly ornamented building, and that of Notre Dame, with some good sculptures; the new town-hall, several

hospitals, and a theatre are the other principal public edifices. A bridge crosses each river, that over the Meuse having nine arches; a dam has here also been thrown across the Sambre in the view of raising its waters so as to render it navigable; but this design appears to have only partially succeeded. Namur is a bishop's see; the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, with appeal to the superior courts at Liege, and the residence of the civil governor of the prov., a military commandant, a provincial receiver of taxes, &c. It has an episcopal seminary; an atheneum with a library and cabinets of mineralogy, chemistry, &c.; various public and superior private schools, a society for the benefit of the poorer classes, a deaf and dumb and many other asylums, a *mont de piété*, founded in 1619, &c. The situation of Namur is favourable for commerce. Its cutlery is much esteemed on the continent, and it has tanneries, potteries, and brass and iron works; but its manufactures are less flourishing than formerly. The coal and iron mines, and marble quarries of its neighbourhood, are, at present, the principal sources of employment and wealth to its inhabs. It has four annual fairs, one of which, beginning on July 2, lasts 15 days.

Namur is supposed to occupy the site of the *Oppidum Admaticorum*, mentioned by Cæsar. Like other cities in the low countries, it has frequently suffered from the ravages of war. In modern times it has sustained two memorable sieges, one in 1678, when it was taken by Louis XIV., and the second in 1693, when it was taken by the Anglo-Dutch under William III. The first is the subject of Boileau's famous ode *Sur la Prise de Namur*. (*Vandermaelen, Dict. de Namur; Dict. Géog.; Murray's Hand-book*, &c.)

NANCY, a town of France, dep. Meurthe, of which it is the cap., in a fine plain, near the Meurthe, 30 m. S. Metz, and 178 m. E. by S. Paris; lat. 48° 41' 55" N., long. 6° 10' 31" E. Pop., in 1846, ex. comm., 38,669. This is one of the handsomest towns of France. It was formerly surrounded with walls, but these were demolished under Louis XIII. and Louis XIV.; and the citadel is its only existing fortification. It is, however, still entered by several gates, some of which have much beauty. Nancy is divided into the Old and New Town. The first is, in general, irregularly laid out, though it comprises several good streets and squares, many superior private residences, and most of the principal public edifices. Among the latter, are the remains of the palace of the dukes of Lorraine, now converted into a barracks for the gendarmes; the church of the Cordeliers, a structure of the 15th century, in which are various interesting monuments; the church of St. Epre, and the ducal chapel. The royal court, the tribunal of commerce, and prefecture are in the *Place Carrière*, a square communicating with the *Place Royale*, in the new town, by a noble triumphal arch. The new town, which, however, is as old as 1608, is remarkable for the elegance and regularity of its streets, which mostly intersect each other at right angles. The *Place Royale*, or *Stanislas*, is a square surrounded by edifices, all built on the same plan, comprising the town-hall, the bishop's palace, theatre, &c. Its angles are ornamented with iron gateways and fountains; and in its centre is a bronze statue of Stanislaus, king of Poland and duke of Lorraine, erected by voluntary subscription throughout the duchy, in 1823. Stanislaus, to whom numerous establishments in the town, both scientific and charitable, owe their foundation, is buried, as well as his consort, in the church of *St. Saviour*, which has two marble monuments to their memory. The cathedral is a modern edifice of Corinthian and composite architecture. The remaining principal buildings are the university, with a library of 29,000 vols., the royal college, seminary, civil and military hospitals, a workhouse for the *déps*, Meurthe, and Vosges, and a house of correction. Nancy is a bishop's see, and the seat of a royal court for the *dép.* Meurthe, tribunals of original jurisdiction and commerce, a board of taxation, a chamber of manufactures, &c. It has an *académie universitaire*, a royal society of science and literature, a royal school of forest economy, a communal college, Protestant, Jewish, and other schools; manufactures of woollen cloth, bosley, lace muslins, cotton yarn, liqueurs, chemical products, &c.; with tanneries, dyeing-houses, and refineries of saltpetre for the gunpowder factory at Metz. Nancy is famous for its shot (*boules vulcanaires d'acier*). No record exists of this town previously to the 11th century, but in the 18th it became the cap. of Lorraine. It was twice besieged by Charles the Bold, of Burgundy, who was killed under its walls in 1477. (*Hugo, art. Meurthe; Guide du Voyageur en France*, &c.)

NANGASAKI, a large town and sea-port of Japan, on the S.W. side the island of Kiu-siu, and the only place in that empire accessible to Europeans, 600 m. W.S.W. Yedo; lat. 32° 42' 4" N., long. 130° 11' 47" E. Pop. from 60,000 to 70,000. It is situated on the slope of a hill, and, like every other Japanese town, is regularly built, with wide and clean streets. The houses, however, are

low, none containing more than one good story, to which is added in some a sort of cockloft; in others, a low collar; all are constructed of wood and a mixture of clay and chopped straw; but the walls are coated with a cement that gives them the appearance of stone. The height of the street-front, and even the number of the windows are determined by sumptuary laws. Oil-paper supplies the place of glass, and the windows are further protected from the weather by external wooden shutters and Venetian blinds: a verandah, into which the different rooms open, runs round the outside of the houses, to which are invariably attached curiously laid out gardens. Large detached fire-proof store-rooms belong to each dwelling, and are so constructed as fully to answer their purpose of preserving the valuables of the inhabs. from the conflagrations so common here and elsewhere in Japan. The chief public buildings are the palaces of the governor and grandees of the empire, some of which cover a considerable extent of ground: there are also in the town and neighbourhood 61 temples, or *gastros*, usually on commanding eminences, and enclosed in large parks, the habitual resort of pleasure parties. These buildings are as plain and little ornamented as the private dwellings, and comprise, also, apartments, which are let out to travellers, or used for banqueting rooms, and other purposes. The tea-houses or *bagnios* are another favourite resort of the natives; and of these, according to Siebold, there are 750 in Nangasaki. The artificial island of Desima, to which the Dutch merchants are rigorously confined, is about 600 ft. in length by 240 ft. in breadth, a few yards from the shore, to which it stands the town, connected with it by a stone bridge, closed by a gate and guard-house, constantly occupied by soldiery. Neither Dutch nor Japanese may pass the gate without being searched; the number of European residents is limited to eleven; and the menial service is performed exclusively by Japanese; all of whom, except courtisans, are compelled to leave the island at sunset. From this imprisonment the Dutch are allowed to escape twice or thrice a year, rather to be exhibited to the general as a curiosity than out of indulgence. A corps of constables and interpreters (the latter of whom form a regular guild, receiving salaries from the *shogun*,) are appointed to watch over their minutest actions; and the most degrading servilities are exacted even from the *opperhoofd*, or president of the mission, by the meanest officers of the Japanese government. As respects trade, the Dutch are placed under restrictions elsewhere unparalleled; but these and other particulars have already been detailed in the general article JAPAN, to which the reader is referred. The harbour of Nangasaki extends N.E. and S.W. about 7 m., being in most places less than a mile in width. Ships lie in 5 or 6 fathoms water within gunshot of the town, and protected from all winds. (Siebold, i. ch. 1. 2.; Crawford's Hist. of the Indian Archipelago, iii. 305-308.; Manners and Customs of the Japanese, 24-57.)

NANKIN, a city of China, in the district of Kiang-ning-foo, and prov. Keang-soo, near the S. bank of the Yang-tse-kiang, and about 110 m. from its mouth, lat. 28° 4' N., long. 118° 2' E. Pop. (acc. to Ellis) about 400,000. The walls, which are of limestone, cemented with sun-baked clay, enclose a very irregular triangular area of about 90 sq. m., and this circuit, as measured by the Jesuits, amounts to 57 *lis*, or nearly 30 m., a fact fully proving the absurdity of the Chinese statement that "if two horsemen should go out in the morning at the same gate and ride round in opposite directions, they would not meet before night!" This enclosure, moreover, comprises groves, fields, and even hills, of considerable extent; less than three fourths of it being covered by the town, which is sit. at the S. extremity, and about 6 m. from the river bank. The city has declined much both in size and splendour since the end of the 12th century, when Kublai-Khan removed the Imperial residence to Peking. It now consists of four rather wide and parallel avenues, intersected by 6 or 8 others of less width. The streets are not so broad as those of Peking, but are, on the whole, handsome, clean, well-paved, and bordered with well-furnished shops. A palace of the emperor which once existed, and many other monuments of grandeur, have now almost disappeared. Nor are the palaces of the mandarins in any respect distinguished from those found in the caps. of other provs. of China; indeed, Nankin possesses no public edifices corresponding to its rank as the second city of the empire, except its famous porcelain tower, belonging to one of the pagodas, several temples, and its gates, some of which are of extreme beauty. The Porcelain tower (called *Pao-wan-gan-ze*) "pagoda of gratitude," which is unquestionably finer than any similar structure throughout China, is an octagonal building, each side 15 ft. wide. It consists of 9 equal stories, communicating by a spiral staircase running up the centre of the building, and each comprising one saloon finely painted, gilt, and adorned with idols. The outside wall is white, made of the white

bricks commonly used in China: a kind of carved gallery or verandah, ornamented with lightly-tinkling bells, runs round each story, and the whole is surmounted by a gilt conical roof, the height of which from the base somewhat exceeds 200 ft. It was completed in 1432, at a cost of 600,000 taels. An observatory stands about a league N. ward of the pagoda, but though formerly well provided with instruments, &c., it is now almost in ruins. Nankin has extensive manufactures of satin and crape, the quality of the former, both plain and figured, not being equalled by that of any other city in China. The cotton fabric called *Nankin* receives its name from this city; but in fact it is made in every part of the prov., and scarcely a cottage can be found where the thrifty housewife has not a loom for weaving *Nankin*. (*China opened*, i. 79.) The paper of Nankin is highly esteemed; and Indian-ink (as it is called in Europe) is manufactured in large quantities both in the town and neighbourhood, forming an important article of commerce. Nankin is celebrated also for its manufacture of artificial flowers from the pith of an shrub, and so extensive is this branch of industry as to give rise to a large trade. The commerce of the city is very considerable, owing to its position in the centre of the empire, and on the Yang-tse-kiang, which is navigable for small boats to the ports of Soo-cheo-foo and Shang-hai, its great entrepôts for corn, manufactured goods, and other articles. Its communication with Peking is effected by the Imperial canal, which leaves the river about 40 m. below Nankin: the principal traffic with the cap. is during April and May, when fast boats, which accomplish the distance in about 9 days, are constantly employed in exporting to the Imperial court the produce of the Nankin fishery packed in ice. Nankin, according to Du Halde, is not less celebrated for literature than commerce: the arts and sciences are studied there with great diligence, and it furnishes more doctors and mandarins than many towns together; its libraries are also extensive and valuable. The booksellers' shops are well provided with the best native publications, and the editions published here are the most esteemed in the empire.

Nankin, which began to decline in the time of Kublai-Khan, was further diminished by the removal of the 6 great tribunals to Peking, which caused its name Nankin ("Court of the South") to be changed to Kian-nin in all the public acts: in common usage, however, it retains its old appellation. It is still the residence of one of the great viceroys called *Tsong-tsu*, to whose jurisdiction are committed all the judicial affairs, not only of this prov. but of that also of *Kiang-si* and *Gan-suey*. The Manchoo-Tartars have here an extensive military dépôt under a general of their own nation, and their quarters are separated from the rest of the town by a lofty wall. (*Du Halde*, i. 149-151.; *Ellis's Journal of a Mission to China*, 298-306.; *Ritter's Erdkunde von Asien*, iii. 681-686.; *Gusakov's China opened*, i. 76-79.; *Private Information*.)

NANTES (an. *Nannetes*, or *Civitas Nannetorum*), a large and celebrated commercial city and port of France, dep. Loire-Inférieure, of which it is the cap., on the Loire, where it is joined by the Erdre and Sèvre, about 24 m. from the mouth, lat. 47° 10' N., long. 1° 18' W., Paris; lat. 47° 18' N., long. 1° 23' 44" W. Pop., in 1846 (in. comm.), 88,250. "Nantes is a noble city, and its situation can scarcely be excelled. It stands upon the slopes and summit of a gentle hill, half encircled by the Loire, which is broad, clear, and tolerably rapid; and its beauty is greatly increased by several islets which dot the river exactly opposite to the town, and which are covered with pretty country-houses and gardens." (*Inglet*, p. 383.) The banks of the Erdre too are very agreeable, abounding with chestnut woods, gardens, and country houses. The declivities of the neighbouring hills are in great part covered with vineyards, which add much to the beauty of the scene, though their produce be very inferior. Nantes is built mostly on the N. bank of the Loire, but partly, also, on the islands *Feydeuse* and *Gloriette*, in which are some of the handsomest quarters. Both the N. bank and the islands are bordered by fine quays, one of which, *Quai de la Poesse*, full half a league in length, is broad, and shaded by fine elms, and bordered with balconied terraces and warehouses. The Quays *des Braces* and *Port Maillard* are also planted with trees, being at once well frequented promenades, and the principal seats of commercial activity.

Nantes was formerly fortified, but its ramparts have been mostly demolished, and it is now an open town communicating with 4 considerable suburbs. Towards the E. end of the city are the *Cours de St. Pierre* and *St. André*, two public walks planted with trees and separated by the square of Louis XVII., in which is a statue of that monarch surmounting a Doric column about 80 ft. in height. These *Cours*, with the *Boulevard*, W. of the Erdre, another fine promenade of the same kind, are on a portion of the site formerly occupied by the fortifications. There are, however, some remains existing of various fortresses erected in the middle ages.

In the E. part of the city, skirting the river, is the large and imposing castle of the ancient dukes of Brittany, a mass of irregular buildings, surrounded by thick walls flanked with solid round towers. It was founded in the 10th, but it was not till the 15th century that it became a place of any great strength. It is now chiefly dismantled, and is the residence of the military governor, and a powder-magazine. Between the Erdre and Loire are some remains of the Chateau de Bouffay, a structure also dating from the 10th century, consisting of some lofty walls surrounding a polygonal tower; and on the bank of the Loire are the ruins of the Tour de Pirmil, erected in 1365. The city is, in general, regularly laid out, and well built and paved. Most of its houses are of stone roofed with slate. There are between 30 and 40 squares, or rather open spaces, the principal of which, the *Place Royale*, is surrounded by handsome shops, and, together with the *quartiers Gratin* and *Feydeau*, may be compared with the best parts of the capital.

The different parts of the city communicate by numerous bridges, several of which are handsome, and one, the *Pont de Pirmil*, 277 yards in length, has 16 arches. The cathedral, though not imposing either without or within, has a front ornamented with good though mutilated sculptures, flanked with two towers, 170 ft. high; in its interior is a magnificent marble tomb, erected by Anne of Brittany, in memory of her father Francis II., the last duke of that prov. No other church demands particular notice. The finest building in Nantes is the Prefecture. It was erected between 1750 and 1777, and was formerly appropriated to the *Cour des Comptes*. It has two noble fronts of the Ionic order, a fine staircase, and several large halls and other good apartments: it is partly used as the depository of the departmental archives. The exchange is a large and convenient building, constructed chiefly within the present century; the theatre, in the *Place Gratin*, built in 1810, is, perhaps, the handsomest provincial theatre in France, after those of Bordeaux and Dijon. The town-hall was commenced in 1607, since which it has received several additions: it has three façades, ornamented with Corinthian pilasters, and over its principal front are sculptured figures, emblematical of the Loire and Sèvre. The remaining public buildings include the mint, corn exchange, and linen hall, the *Hôtel-Dieu*, on the Isle Gloriette, erected in 1654, with 670 beds; the *Hôtel de Santé*, or general infirmary and asylum, with 900 beds; the Hospital of Incubables; the Protestant church, formerly that of the Carmelites; mansion-house, chapter-house, the large prison, public slaughter-house, barracks, college; the museum, with an excellent mineralogical collection; the *Salpêtrerie*, a general dépôt for merchandise, &c.

Nantes is a bishop's see, the cap. of the 12th military division of the kingdom, the seat of a Lutheran consistory, of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a chamber of commerce, and is the residence of the consuls of many foreign powers. It has a royal college, an academical society, 3 episcopal seminaries, a public library with 30,000 printed vols., and many valuable MSS., collections of engravings, paintings, and an observatory, and botanic garden, schools of navigation, medicine, drawing, riding, &c., maternity and Protestant Bible societies, a savings' bank, a *monnaie de piété*, and a maritime insurance office. The bank of Nantes has a capital of 900,000 fr. in 200 shares.

Ships of 200 tons, in the ordinary state of the river, reach the city quays without difficulty; but vessels of a larger burden have to load and unload in the roads of Paimbeuf, about 24 m. lower down the river. But notwithstanding this disadvantage, the Loire, opposite the city, is crowded with inland craft, and vessels of all nations, but principally from N. Germany, Sweden, Denmark, and Russia. Nantes, Brest, Pontivy, Redon, and other towns in Brittany, will directly communicate with each other on the completion of the canal from Nantes to Brest, now in progress; and which, when finished, will have an entire length of about 230 m.

The manufactures of this city are various, and on the increase. Coarse woollen-cloths and flannels, cambrics, printed cotton goods, handkerchiefs, tickings, and hosiery, are made on a large scale, besides which there are extensive biscuit-baking houses, chemical works, potteries, rope-walks, copper-foundries, manufactories of iron-cables, cannon, and other stores, with breweries, distilleries, sugar-houses, tanyards, vinegar establishments, and ship-yards for the construction of merchant-ships, corvettes, and smaller vessels.

Nantes was formerly famous for her quick sailing vessels; but this is not the case at present, and more ships are now built at Bordeaux. At Indret, near Nantes, on an island towards the mouth of the Loire, the French government has lately founded an establishment for building steam-boats. In 1840, there were here 5 slips, on some of which, steam-boats of from 160 to 220 tons each were in course of being built; the establishment employed altogether 1200 workmen, and 4 marine engineers; and a sum of 2,000,000 fr. was

voted by the legislature for its maintenance. (*Port. &c. of France*, p. 152.) Large naval storehouses are established at Nantes, from which Brest, L'Orient, and Rochfort receive supplies both of provisions and ammunition. Previously to the revolution, the foreign trade of Nantes was much larger than at present; and during the time that the slave-trade was carried on, Nantes was more extensively engaged in it than any other French port. Now Marseilles and Havre both rank above her as commercial cities; but she is still the emporium of all the rich and extensive country traversed by the Loire, and has a considerable import and export trade, particularly with the French W. Indies, S. America, and the different ports of Europe. The exports comprise all sorts of French produce, but principally brandy, wine, and vinegar, silk, woolen, and linen goods, refined sugar, wheat, rye, ship-biscuits, &c. The chief imports are sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; cotton, indigo, timber, hemp, &c. Nantes is likewise a considerable entrepôt for the commerce of the salt made in the dep., chiefly at Noirmoutier and Crolaic. (See *LOIRE INFERIEURE*.) The customs' duties amount to about 15,000,000 fr. a year.

Subjoined is a statement of the French and foreign ships that entered and cleared from the port in 1836, specifying the departments in which the French ships were engaged, and the number in each.

Branch of Trade.	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
French ships in foreign trade	201	34,349	135*	18,517
— colonial do.	60	15,356	84	19,291
— coasting do.	4,003	185,180	4,303	90,187
Foreign ships	13	4,475	—	—
Steam-vessels chiefly to and from Bordeaux	176	36,355	126	22,706
	10	786	18	1,040
	4,463	204,380	4,672	151,543

* Of these, 40 vessels of 4,615 tons left in ballast.

Of the vessels engaged in the fisheries 10 came from the banks of Newfoundland, laden with 15,650 cwt. of cod-fish and 290 cwt. of oil; 3 whalers brought in, during the same year, 13,423 cwt. of whale-oil, and 806 cwt. of whalebone. The pilchard fishery is also carried on with great activity; and employs, in the season, 700 boats, manned by about 3,000 seamen. Nantes has 3 weekly markets, and 12 yearly fairs, one of which, beginning May 25th, lasts 16 days. Living is cheap; and fish of many varieties, as well as the fine fruits of the S. of France, are abundant in the markets. According to Hugo, there are annually killed in Nantes 2,700 bullocks, 20,500 calves, 94,200 sheep, and 9,000 hogs.

The era of the foundation of Nantes is unknown; but before the conquest of Gaul by the Romans, it was already a considerable city, and the cap. of the *Namnetes*, who distinguished themselves by their opposition to Julius Cæsar. In 445, it was unsuccessfully besieged by the Huns, and, in the middle of the 9th century, was sacked by the Normans. In 992, it was added to the possessions of the dukes of Brittany, with whom it remained down to the union of that kingdom with France, by the marriage of Anne of Brittany to Louis XII. But Nantes is chiefly distinguished in history from the famous edict issued here in 1598 by Henry IV., and hence called the Edict of Nantes, which secured to the Protestants the free exercise of their religion, and an equal claim with the Catholics to all offices and dignities. The revocation of this edict by Louis XIV., in 1685, is the grand blot in his reign; and by occasioning the emigration of great numbers of his most industrious subjects, was even more injurious to the kingdom than the victories of Marlborough and Eugene.

During the revolutionary phrensy, Nantes was the scene of the atrocities of Carrier, the most sanguinary of the republican agents in the reign of terror. Nantes has produced numerous distinguished individuals, including Anne, Duchess of Brittany; the Egyptian traveller, Caillaud; the physiologist, Lænnec; Fouche, minister of police, &c. Near it is the Chateau de Buron, celebrated as having been long occupied by Mad. de Sevigné. (*Hugo, art. Loire-Inferieure; Guide du Voyageur en France; Port. Reports; Commercial Dict.*, &c.)

NANTUCKET, an island of the U. S. of America, state Massachusetts, in the Atlantic, 26 m. S.E. the peninsula of Cape Cod, the port of Nantucket, being in lat. 41° 16' N., long. 70° 8' W. Pop., in 1840, 9,712. It is of triangular shape, about 15 m. in length, and from 4 to 10 m. broad, with an area of 29,240 acres. The land, which was originally conveyed, in 1659, by the Earl of Stirling to nine proprietors, and by them divided into 27 shares, is a joint-stock property to the present day; but the number of shares has increased to 3,000, held among the inhab., most of whom belong to the Society of

Friends. Little attention, however, is paid to agriculture, and both sheep and cows are fed on common pastures. The pop. is chiefly employed in the whale or other fisheries, and the seamen have acquired great celebrity for their enterprise, skill, and success. In 1838, 13 ships and 3 schooners arrived in port, from the whale fishery, laden with 91,730 barrels of sperm oil, and 6,900 of whale oil. The town of Nantucket is situated on the arm of a small bay on the N.W. side of the island: it comprises about 750 houses, chiefly of wood, several places of worship, 2 banks, 2 insurance companies, a woollen-cloth manufactory, and 30 spermaceti establishments, employing a capital of 600,000 dollars. Its harbour is nearly landlocked, tolerably deep, and well protected from all winds; a lighthouse stands at its S. extremity. In 1849, the aggregate burden of the vessels, belonging to this port, amounted, according to the official returns, to 30,137 tons, that of the ships engaged in the fishery being estimated at about 25,000. (*Official Reports; Desborough's Gaz.; Encycl. Amer. &c.*)

NANTWICH, a market-town and par. of England, co. Chester, and hund. of its own name, on the Weaver, crossed here by a stone bridge, 17½ m. S.W. Chester, and 146 m. W.N.W. London. Area of par. (comprising 5 townships), 3,490 acres. Pop., in 1841, 5,921; do. of township, 5,489. It is situated on a luxuriant vale near the borders of Staffordshire and Shropshire, irregularly laid out, and comprises 3 principal streets, badly paved and lined with mean-looking houses, uniting near the church, a very beautiful cruciform building of red sandstone, built in the early English style, and highly ornamental, with an octagonal tower rising from the intersection of the nave and transept. There are likewise several places of worship for Dissenters, with attached Sunday schools, which, in 1835, furnished instruction to 840 children of both sexes. There are 2 endowed day-schools attended by about 130 children; and there are several almshouses besides minor charities. A market-house and town-hall were built in the last century. Nantwich formerly owed its prosperity to the abundance of its salt springs; but only one spring is now worked, and nearly the whole trade has been removed to other places. Large quantities of excellent cheese are made in the town and its fertile neighbourhood; besides which, the manufacture of shoes for the London market forms an important branch of industry. Cotton goods, also, are made here in considerable quantities; and in 1830 there was a cotton-mill, employing 111 hands. The glove trade is carried on to some extent. Great facilities of intercourse are furnished by the Birmingham and Liverpool, as well as by the Chester and Ellesmere, canals; and the Grand Junction Canal passes at only a few miles' distance. Petty sessions for the hundred are held here; and it is the seat of a county court, before which 698 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. Markets on Saturday; and fairs, May 15, June 1, Sept. 4, any Sunday, &c. 4, 18, 19.

Nantwich, mentioned in Domesday simply as "Wich," was the scene, in 1069, of an unsuccessful attempt by the Cheshiresmen to resist the advance of the Normans. In 1438 and 1583, the town suffered considerably from fire; and during the parliamentary wars, it was besieged by the royalists under Lord Byron, but soon afterwards relieved by Sir Thomas Fairfax. It also deserves notice, from having been the birthplace of General Harrison, one of the regicides, and of Milton's widow, who died here in 1755.

NAPLES (KINGDOM OF), otherwise called the KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIAS, a European state of the second class, nearly identical with the *Magna Græcia* of antiquity, comprising the S. portion of Italy, with Sicily and the adjacent islands, included between the 36th and 43d degs. of N. lat., and the 12th and 19th of E. long. It has N. the Papal States, E. the Adriatic, and elsewhere the Mediterranean. Its total area may be estimated at about 42,000 sq. m., and its pop. at about 8,500,000.

The Neapolitan territory is divided into two principal portions, the continental and the insular, the first being called the *Dominij al di qua del Faro* (the country on this side the Faro, or straits of Messina) and the latter, the *Dominij al di là del Faro* (or the country beyond the Faro). The latter portion will be fully treated of under the head SICILY; we have now only to deal with the continental portion, the area, population, subdivisions, &c. of which are as follow:—[See top of next col.]

Physical Geography. The continental part of the kingdom of Naples, the limits of which have scarcely varied for the last 8 centuries, is about 400 m. in length, N.N.W. to S.S.E., and 130 m. in its greatest breadth, from Cape Campanella to the Garganian promontory. Its shape is very irregular; at its S.E. extremity are the two peninsulas of Calabria and Otranto, forming one the foot and the other the heel of the boot which Italy

NAPLES (KINGDOM OF).

Provinces.	Area in sq. m.	Pop. in 1845.	Chief Cities.
Naples (Napoleetano) -	185	780,434	Naples.
Terra di Lavoro -	2,341	721,971	Capua.
Benevento -	1,571	537,606	Benevento.
Principato Ultra -	1,894	361,507	Avellino.
Basilicata -	1,316	333,983	Canusinopolis.
Abruzzo Ultra -	1,687	307,746	Chieti.
Ultra I. -	1,192	216,466	Teramo.
Ultra II. -	2,195	307,708	Aquila.
Capitanata -	5,714	311,517	Foggia.
Terra di Bari -	1,711	491,371	Bari.
Otranto -	2,669	401,448	Lecco.
Basilicata -	3,263	481,988	Potenza.
Calabria Ultra -	3,532	414,533	Catanzaro.
Ultra I. -	1,486	306,339	Ragusa.
Ultra II. -	1,787	372,281	Catanzaro.
Total -	31,407	6,582,706	

is supposed to resemble, while to the N.W. of the latter is the conspicuous promontory of Gargano, extending into the Adriatic, representing the spur. On the W. coast also are many promontories and headlands, as those of Sorrento, Gaeta, Bala, Cape Vaticano, and others, which respectively bound the Bay of Naples, the Gulphs of Gaeta, Salerno, Policastro, St. Eufemia, &c. The peninsulas of Calabria and Otranto enclose the extensive Gulph of Taranto, N. and S. of which are the celebrated Gulphs of Manfredonia and Squillace. The coasts are for the most part bold and abrupt, but the W. and S.W. are much more so than the E. and N.E. On either side, however, the kingdom has several good ports.

The surface of Naples, like that of the greater part of Italy, is mountainous, but it contains extensive and beautiful plains and valleys, which under the influence of an invariably mild climate present a luxuriance of vegetation, and a beauty of scenery, hardly to be met with in any other part of Europe. The Apennines traverse the kingdom nearly in its centre from end to end. In the Abruzzi, where they reach their greatest altitude, they consist of three lateral ranges, but these unite near Isernia, and the main chain thence proceeds undivided to Monte Caruso, about 14 m. N. Potenza, where it finally bifurcates, the principal range running through Calabria to its farthest extremity, and a less elevated range through the S. part of Apulia. Many important ramifications are given off by the Apennines both before and after their bifurcation, that forming the lofty promontory of Sorrento, that of Gargano, the mountain knot of La Sila in Calabria, &c. The Apennines rise to a much greater elevation in S. than in Central Italy. The *Gran Sasso d'Italia* (M. Corno) in the Abruzzi, reaches the height of 10,185 Eng. ft., and M. Majella, in the same prov., that of 9,325 ft. There are some separate or detached groups of mountains, of which Vesuvius, though not the largest, is by far the most celebrated. It owes this distinction to its situation near the city of Naples, and still more to its having long been an active and sometimes a most destructive volcano, *Ætna ignis imitator*.

The largest of the Neapolitan plains is that of Capitanata, having Foggia in its centre. It is mostly appropriated to pasture, and is in part sandy and arid. (See *ante*, p. 57.) But the most celebrated plain is that of the Terra di Lavoro round Naples, anciently the *Campania Felix*, an epithet to which it is still well entitled. The choicest gifts of nature have been lavished upon this noble plain. It is above 40 m. in length by 15 m. to 30 m. in breadth, and, excepting Vesuvius and a ridge between Naples and Misenum, it is everywhere a dead level. The soil, which is deep and loamy, is of the most extraordinary fertility, frequently producing two crops in a season. It is carefully, if not skillfully, cultivated; the vegetation is most luxuriant; and being free from malaria, the air mild and genial, and the sky usually clear, it goes far to realise the poetical descriptions of the Elysian fields—*Omnia sunt modo Italia, sed tota orbe terrarum pulcherrima Campaniæ plagæ est. Nihil mollius calæ; æquior bis floribus vernat. Nihil uberius solo:ideo Liberi Cereri certamen dicitur.* (*Florus*, lib. i. cap. 16.; see also *ante*, p. 57.)

The rivers are numerous, but mostly inconsiderable. The principal are the Garigliano (an. *Liris*), and the Volturno flowing through Campania to the Mediterranean, the Pescara, Biferno, Candelaro, Cervaro, Ofanto (an. *Aufidus*), &c. falling into the Adriatic; and the Bradano, Basento, Crati, &c. which carry their waters to the Gulph of Taranto.

The only lake of any size is that of Celano or Fucino (an. *Fucinus*), in Abruzzo Ultra, 11 m. in length by 7 m. in its greatest breadth, in a basin surrounded by high mountains. This lake receives the waters of several considerable streams, and having no outlet is apt, occasionally, to overspread the surrounding country. To obviate this effect, the Emperor Claudius, in imitation of a similar undertaking at the Alban Lake (see Vol. I. 48. of this work), carried an *emissario*, or aqueduct, 3 m. in length, partly by tunnelling and partly by

excavating, from the Liris, through Monte Salviano, to the lake, by which its waters were at once reduced and prevented from again rising to a higher level. (See *Stato in Camp.* cap. 20.; *Opere Anon.* lib. xii. cap. 56, 57.) This great and useful work was, however, in later ages, suffered to fill up and become useless. Latterly, however, it has been renovated under the direction of Affan de Rivera, in whose work (*Considerazioni sul Mesi.* &c. i. 305.) the reader will find an account of the undertaking.

In respect of climate, S. Italy is artificially divided into three regions, according to the elevation of the surface. In the lower parts of the country, the winter is so mild that vegetation is never interrupted; and at the S. extremity of the kingdom, the aloe, palm, and other tropical plants flourish in the open air. In the plains and valleys, near the foot of the mountains, snow seldom falls, and remains only a short time on the ground; but in the higher portions of the Abruzzi, &c. the cold of winter is piercing and long continued. There is a marked difference in the climate on the E. and W. sides of the Apennines. In the plains of Apulia and Bari, for example, rain seldom falls; the ground is, in parts, arid, and almost bare, and, during summer, vegetation is parched up, and the heats are oppressive; but, on the W. coast of the kingdom, and especially in Campania, showers are frequent in summer, and in winter the ground is saturated with moisture. At an average of the kingdom, the annual fall of rain may be estimated at about 29 inches. Except in some marshy tracts on the coast, the climate is in general as healthy as it is genial. The heats of July, Aug., and Sept. are sometimes, however, rather hazardous, especially when the *sciocco*, from the Syria and Asia Minor, exerts its pernicious influence. Its enervating and suffocating blast, notwithstanding the cooling it has sustained in passing over the Mediterranean, becomes positively dangerous when it lasts more than 20 or 30 hours, and is not followed by a breeze from the N. In Naples and other large cities, the streets are deserted during the prevalence of the *sciocco*, the inhabitants shutting themselves up in their houses, and closing all the doors and windows to exclude the air as much as possible.

Geology. *Natural Products.* &c. Granite and gneiss, which are absent from the peninsules of Central Italy, again appear in the S., and are the predominant rocks in the main chain from the Abruzzi to the end of Calabria. They are intermixed with mica, talc, clay slate, serpentine, &c., and accompanied on either side by the calcareous formations, of which the Italian peninsula is mainly composed. Calcareous or sandy formations constitute the principal portion of the upper soil; but in some parts, especially in the neighbourhood of the capital, the ground consists of volcanic tufa, lava, ashes, &c., which contribute to its prodigious fertility. *Volcanism* is at present the only active volcano of continental Naples; but there are numerous extinct volcanoes, the craters of some of which supply sal ammoniac, sulphur, vitriol, alum, and other volcanic products. These, with pumice stone from the Lipari Islands, salt, lime, and crystals of several kinds, form the chief mineral wealth of the kingdom. Iron is dug up at Stilo in Calabria, and at Vesuvius, but in no great quantity. In Calabria Citra, veins of gold and silver have been detected, but not such as to pay for the expense of working. Salt is procured from salt lakes near Taranto.

The vegetable products have been already noticed with those of the rest of Italy (*ant.* p. 59.); but, in addition to the ordinary forest trees, shrubs, and fruits of Italy, the pistachio, date, sugar cane, &c. flourish, and in some places cotton is rather extensively cultivated. Immediately on entering the Terra di Lavoro from the Papal States, an increasing luxuriance of vegetation is perceptible, and many new plants common to tropical climates are added to the flora of other parts of Italy.

Bears, wild boars, and an enormous species of deer, inhabit the forests; and the crested porcupine is an animal said to be peculiar to this part of Italy. The shores abound with fish, and the Gulph of Taranto is celebrated now, as of old, for the number and excellence of its shell fish. Among these are the *Pinnas marina*, the silky fibres of which are woven into stockings, gloves, &c.; and the *Murex*, still used, as in antiquity, in dyeing wool. The tarantula and cantharides are met with in the S., which is also occasionally devastated by swarms of locusts.

State of Property, Agriculture.—Notwithstanding the backward state of Naples at the present day, in respect of agriculture and other branches of industry, it has made a very considerable progress during the last century, and especially during the last 30 years. When the Austrian dominion ceased, in 1783, the industry of Naples was at its lowest ebb. The abuses inherent in the feudal system had then attained to a maximum. The entire property of the country belonged to the crown, the church, the nobility, many of whom had vast entailed estates, and the corporations. The bulk of the people were in a state of predial slavery. Every feudal right

and service, however onerous and absurd, was rigidly insisted upon. The game laws existed in their utmost extent; justice, if we may so abuse the word, was administered in baronial courts; the services which the peasantry had to render to their lords were not defined, and they could hardly do any thing except with their consent. The roads were neglected, commerce despised; the country, notwithstanding its fertility, frequently suffered from famine; and the people, oppressed, fleeced, and without the means of improving their condition, mostly sank into a state of indolence and apathy, while the more adventurous spirits became bandits and robbers. (See the *Saggio Politico sul Regno delle Due Sicilie*, by *Dei* *Ré*, p. 18. and *passim*.)

The Bourbon government landably exerted itself to suppress some of the worst of these disorders; and it so far succeeded as to introduce a better system of administration, to improve the roads and towns, and to provide, in some degree, for the growth of manufactures and commerce. But the abuses with which the whole frame of society were infected, were too deeply seated to be eradicated by its feeble and timid hands. The wants of the country were set forth by Filangieri, and other able writers, but things continued nearly on the same footing until after the French had established their ascendancy in the countries on this side the Faro. We have already seen that Napoleon has an unquestionable title to be regarded as the best friend and benefactor of Italy (see *ante*, p. 63.); and this, perhaps, is more especially true of Naples than of any other part of the peninsula. In 1806, Joseph Bonaparte, then king of Naples, promulgated, no doubt with the approval of his brother, a law, which overturned the feudal system from its foundations, and produced an extraordinary and most beneficial change in the constitution of property and of society. "The feudal system," says this law, "and all feudal jurisdiction, are abolished; all towns, villages, hamlets, are subjected to the general laws of the country. All feudal dues to the exchequer cease, and feudal estates are subject to the same taxes as others. All feudal burdens, services, and dues of a personal nature, levied from communes or individuals, are abolished without compensation; as are all prohibitive rights or monopolies, wherever they did not originate in purchase. Rivers are public property. The feudality of offices and *feudocommissiones* are abolished."

This law was followed by others of an equally decisive and stringent character; and at the same time convents were secularised, the (profligate) drosses by which they were occupied were turned out, with only a small stipend, and their estates sold at very low prices. Happily, the changes that these laws had introduced into the distribution of property and the state of society, previously to the revolution that restored the Bourbons to the throne, were such as to render a return to the old state of things impossible. The nobility have, however, recovered some of their old privileges, and have been permitted to establish majorats. The attempts to restore the property and influence of the clergy have been prosecuted with greater zeal, and have been, perhaps, more successful. But, though many convents of monks and nuns have been again established, a comparatively small amount of property is now in their hands; and it is to be hoped that the growing intelligence of the people may at length put a final stop to this most wasteful and vicious mode of employing the public wealth.

The measure now noticed, coupled with the introduction of the law of equal succession in cases of intestacy, have had a much greater influence over the distribution of property than might, *a priori*, have been anticipated. It appears from the returns under the land-tax (*Contribuzione Fondiaria*), that in 1839 there were in continental Naples no fewer than 1,419,121 properties rated to the tax, and that these were held by 1,062,172 individuals, showing that there is, in fact, nearly a proprietor for every two families in this part of the kingdom. (*Dei* *Ré*, *Saggio Politico*, p. 63.) As houses, as well as land, are rated to the land-tax, and as there are no means by which to classify the contributors according to the sums paid by each, we are unable to hazard any estimate of the size and value of the different classes of properties. There can, however, be no doubt that the number of small and middle-sized properties has been prodigiously augmented since 1806. Indeed, the danger now is that the tendency to divide and subdivide estates should be carried too far. When all feudal privileges are abolished, and land is placed on the same footing as other property, the interests of society will be best promoted by adopting a system of primogeniture; and preventing, in as far as practicable, by indirect methods, the division of the land into minute portions.

The method of holding land by tenants differs in different parts of Naples. In some of the richest and most populous districts round the capital and elsewhere, the land, when not occupied by the proprietor, is mostly let in small lots of 4 or 5 acres, on the *wadepur* system; but in general, and this system is but little followed, and in most parts of the country the land is either occupied

by proprietors, or by tenants holding under a lease of some years' duration at a fixed rent. The size of farms varies in different districts; and in those where pasture predominates, they are sometimes very large. But notwithstanding the impetus given to industry of late years, agriculture is still extremely backward. The nobility, who are usually involved in debt, care little for agriculture, and the tenants are mostly without either adequate capital or skill. Drainage in some quarters, and irrigation in others, though of essential importance, are generally neglected; and the sowing of artificial grasses, and even the application of manure, are comparatively unknown. Farming implements, carts, ploughs, and tools of every kind are of the most wretched description." (*Macgregor*.) The more common kinds of grain are wheat, maize, or Indian corn, and, in the colder situations, rye. In Calabria, and the more distant provinces, grain is thrashed out by driving cars over it, or by trampling it with the feet of horses and oxen. In many parts few or no ploughs are used in tillage. In the *Campania*, for example, the soil is so very friable, that it is easily turned up, even by children; and such is its fertility that no fallows are required in its culture, and but little manure, the gathering in of one crop being followed by immediate preparations for another. According to Châteaueux, 6 crops are obtained round Naples in 5 years, exclusively of the produce of vine, fruit, and beans, which grow in the same land without prejudice to the corn crops. Most parts, indeed, of the kingdom, except where there is a deficiency of water, are extraordinarily fertile; the crops of wheat and maize are especially most abundant; and there can be no doubt that, with a skilful and careful system of agriculture, the kingdom might afford ample subsistence for 4 or 5 times its present population. But here, as elsewhere, the fertility of the soil, and the mildness of the climate, contribute, with bad government, to enfeeble the cultivators; and by lessening their wants, and enabling them to supply them with little labour, generate that indolence and apathy that are so universal. In the finest districts numerous families live in the meanest hovels, and in a state that in Great Britain would be reckoned to approach closely to absolute indigence. But under such a climate, and occupying such a soil, they do not often suffer the extreme of want. They rarely, however, partake of any of the enjoyments and luxuries of life, other than those which they share in common with the lowly animals. Without ambition, or the desire of rising in the world, and without any knowledge of the liberal, and but little of the mechanical arts, they pass their days in a state of brutish apathy and indifference.

The plain of Sorrento, according to Châteaueux, is almost the only part of the kingdom of Naples where agriculture may be said to be skilfully and actively carried on. The rotation of crops is there, 1st year, maize; 2d, wheat, succeeded by beans; 3d, cotton; 4th, wheat, followed by clover; 5th, melon, followed by pease or beans; making 8 crops in 5 years. Next to the above, rice, barley, rye, onions, and other kitchen vegetables, oil, wine, hemp, flax, tobacco, saffron, and fruits of various kinds, form the principal products; and each might be produced in quantities at least equal to twice the consumption of the inhab. The olive is found in all the low and temperate parts of the country, and its culture is widely extended. In Apulia, especially, a great extent of land is covered with olive-trees, which frequently reach the ordinary size of oaks; and throughout the prov. of Bari, and a part of that of Otranto, a broad belt of olives lines the coast for 100 m. In 1827, a good oil year, the produce of these provs. was estimated at 380,000 *salme* (3,314,000 galls.). In Calabria, also, from Rossano to Gioia, olives grow in great abundance; and the W. shore of the kingdom, from the last-named town to Gaeta, produces large quantities of oil. The average annual produce of Calabria is estimated at 100,000 *salme*. The culture of the olive, and the preparation of the oil, have of late years attracted a great deal more attention than formerly, and have been materially improved; and were it not for the anti-commercial policy of the government, would become of vast importance. At an average of the three years ending with 1829, the exports of olive oil amounted to 9,800,123 staja a-year; whereas, at an average of the three years ending with 1832, the exports were 3,008,887 staja a-year, or above 6,000,000 imperial gallons. (*Serristori*, p. 61.) Gallipoli is one of the greatest marts in Italy for oil; and that shipped from it is considered equal to that of Genoa or Lucca; a superiority for which it is mainly indebted to the influence of the tufa cisterna, in which the oil is purified before being shipped. (See Vol. I. p. 878.)

The Neapolitan wines are mostly full bodied, and some are of a good flavour; but the principle of the division of labour is very imperfectly understood, and, instead of being pursued as a separate branch, requiring the undivided attention of the husbandman, the culture of the

vine is commonly carried on upon the same farm with that of corn, olives, &c. In the Terra de Lavoro and other parts of the country, elms and poplars are seen, planted in rows for the support of the vines, the intermediate spaces being sown with corn, pulse, and other crops. In parts of the Abruzzi, however, the vines are cut low, and tied to canes, as in France; and in the prov. of Otranto, they are cut off to about 3 feet above the ground, which is hoed around them with a degree of care by no means general in S. Italy. The wines of Taranto, Gerace, and other parts of Apulia and Calabria, might become very superior by proper treatment. Round Vesuvius some fine growths are obtained, among which is the celebrated *lacryma Christi*: this, which is a red luscious wine, is little known except to visitors at the royal table at Naples, the quantity grown being small, and principally purchased for the court. On the whole, though the wines of Naples be probably superior to those of the rest of Italy, they are very inferior to those of France or Spain; are seldom met with out of Italy; and, except the sweet wines, are mostly converted into brandy.

Oranges and lemons are grown in large quantities in Capitanata and about Salerno and Reggio, from which latter town a good many are sent to France and Genoa; tobacco is pretty largely cultivated in Bari and Otranto, and saffron in Calabria Ultra, the Abruzzi, and Basilicata. But, excepting flax and hemp, which are extensively cultivated, few crops furnish materials for manufactures; these, generally speaking, being imported from abroad. Liquorice is grown in Calabria and the Abruzzi, and about 15,000 *cantari* a-year of juice are exported. Manna is a product of some importance in Calabria; it exudes from gashes cut in the bark of the manna-ash (*Fraxinus ornus*). The product is farmed by the crown; and the labourers who cut the bark and collect the manna are debarr'd, while so employed, from attending to any other occupation, though they receive only a small pittance, amounting to 3 *carlini*, or about 1s. for every *rotolo* of manna they collect. Manna is also produced near Salerno, where, however, about 5 *carlini* per *rotolo* are paid for its collection.

The forests might become an important source of national wealth; but, in consequence of the suppression of the feudal system, the sale of monastic and other domains, and the division of the communal property under the French, numerous woods were felled, and the ground they occupied was subjected to tillage; but, after a few favourite harvests, the soil was exhausted, and it was further exposed to the redoubled violence of inundations, which, by washing away the mould and stones from the mountain declivities, caused great injury to the lands below. For these reasons, in 1819, a special board of superintendence over forests, &c. was appointed; and it was forbidden to appropriate the ground occupied by woods to tillage, except where the site is level and fertile, or under certain other circumstances: neither is any proprietor allowed to fell timber without express permission. These regulations have checked the diminution of the woods; but their preservation has been next to useless; for although in many parts of the interior there is abundance of timber admirably adapted for ship-building, the roads and means of conveyance are so bad that its carriage to the coast would more than cover the cost of importing it into Naples from other countries. And, moreover, government discourages the efforts of individuals to improve the roads by prohibiting the export of timber, at the same time that it obliges it to be cut down by laying a heavy duty on the importation of coal.

If we except sheep, the rearing of live stock is not much attended to. There are estimated to be 4,000,000 head of sheep in the kingdom, a great number of which are migratory, being kept on the mountains in summer, and driven, in winter, into the valleys, and the *toschiere* of Apulia. The last-named region is a tract of about 96 sq. m. belonging to the crown, and which, a few short intervals excepted, has been wholly devoted to pasturing from the time of the Romans, its tillage having indeed been prohibited. Under the French, however, a law was passed in 1806, which, for a time, completely changed the state of the *toschiere*. Instead of the ground being farmed exclusively as pasture, a fixed rent was substituted; and every one was allowed to apply the land, as he pleased, to pasturage or tillage. But in 1817, this judicious law was repealed, and a new act passed, by the provisions of which (in order to keep up, as it was alleged, the due proportion between pasture and arable land,) no one was to till more than 1-5th part of his land, the penalty of paying a tenfold rent, &c. Latterly, however, we believe that this absurd enactment has been materially modified, it having fortunately been found impossible to enforce its provisions. The horned cattle are estimated at about 300,000 head, exclusive of about 50,000 buffaloes, which wander in large herds over the marshy plains in the N.W. The oxen are of different breeds, and excellent quality, being

used both for the plough and for carts. They are mostly stall-fed, on vine leaves, maize, stubble, &c., except in Apulia, or districts where the pasture lands are very extensive. The horses are but indifferent; but a fine small active breed, with dark frizzled hair, is peculiar to Calabria. Mules and asses are the most common beasts of burden. Hogs and goats are very numerous; the former, which are of a large, dark, hairless breed, wander wild in the forest; the milk of the latter is converted into cheese. The herdsmen throughout the kingdom are principally from the Abruzzi.

Except in the S., where the cottages are sometimes built of stone, it is rare that the agricultural labourers inhabit any thing but wooden huts, roofed with straw or tiles, in which three or four generations often live together. They live almost wholly on vegetable food; and into this, fruits and pulse enter more largely than corn. Their clothes are coarse, and the dress of the shepherds and poorer peasantry consists almost solely of sheep or goat skins, with the hair outside. The wages of an ordinary field labourer may average about 16 *grani* (or 6d.) a day.

The culture of silk is widely diffused, and it now forms a valuable article of export from the kingdom. The greatest quantity of silk is produced in the provs. of Lavoro, Principato, and Calabria, but especially the last. At Reggio, in particular, many families furnish houses expressly for rearing silkworms. The total produce of Naples was estimated, in 1833, at 800,000 lbs., of which 585,000 lbs., worth 2,005,000 ducats, were exported raw and wrought. (*Serristori*, p. 61.) The remainder is consumed in the country. The silk of Calabria is stronger and more compact than that of other parts of the kingdom; a consequence, it is supposed, of the worms being fed with the leaf of the red mulberry peculiar to that prov. Much less attention is, however, paid to the culture of the mulberry, both there and throughout the Neapolitan dom., than in N. Italy. In the vicinity of Naples, where two crops of cocoons are annually collected, the breeders of silkworms are accustomed to buy mulberry leaves at a dear rate, at the same time that they use the poplar as a support for the vines in their farms.

The fisheries rank next to the foregoing branches of industry. The tunny (*Scomber Regius*) frequents the W. coast in large shoals in the early part of the year, and the taking of the fish employs a large number of hands. Large meshed nets, perhaps 1,500 ft. in length, and divided into several compartments, are laid across the track of the shoals at a considerable distance from the shore, with which they are connected by strong lines and nets of still larger meshes. The fish, having got into the nets, are prevented finding their way out again by the number of compartments; and after the lapse of a day or two, men in flat-bottomed boats surround the nets with harpoons, and kill the larger fish, which are sometimes 9 ft. in length. The whole draught is afterwards hauled on shore. Anchovies are caught in abundance in the spring; and many mullets are taken, the roes of which are made into *bottarga*. A great many of the inhabs. of Taranto employ themselves in taking the shell-fish of the gulph, leaving the adjacent lands to be cultivated by natives of Calabria and Abruzzo. But the quantity of fish taken for food is by no means equal to the home demand, and salted fish is a principal article of import. Coral is raised on different parts of the coast.

Manufactures are, for the most part, domestic; and the majority of the goods made scarcely ever find their way out of the country. Of late years, however, manufactures have been considerably improved, and several considerable manufacturing establishments are now to be met with in different parts of the kingdom. Those of silk are the most extensive; and next to them are those of woollens, principally established in the capital and at Sorra and Isola. Linens are made in several of the provincial towns, and there are numerous saw-mills.

Naples has manufactures of gloves and straw hats, in imitation of those of Tuscany; and the princes of Butora and Gerace, with other partners, have established a considerable glass manufactory at Paullipito. Reggio has manufactures of gloves, waistcoats, and hosiery; and Avellino, of woollen cloth, sausages, and maccaroni. Campobasso is famed throughout the kingdom for its cutlery. The establishments in which it is made are on a very small scale. "Great was my surprise," says Mr. Craven, "at finding that the various articles of this nature are all fabricated in detached small workshops, containing little more than a common blacksmith's apparatus, and possessing so contracted an assortment of articles that I could with difficulty obtain a selection of a dozen knives and scissors. They all work by commission for dealers in the metropolis and other large towns, with such limited means and capital, that they are entirely incapacitated from executing and maintaining in their laboratories a collection exhibiting any thing like variety or choice." (*Excursions in the Abruzzi*, &c. ii. 142.) A miserable cotton factory, a sort of government monopoly established at Salerno, some time ago, and the iron mine

and forge at Stilo, comprise nearly all the remaining branches of manufacturing industry. (*Parl. Report*, 1840; *Chiffonier*, *Italy*, &c. pp. 187-238; *Von Roemer's Italy*, ii. 348-354; *Rampoldi*, *Simoni*, *Green*, *Scribner*, &c. passim.)

Commerce. — The extraordinary fertility of her soil, the variety and superior quality of her raw products, and her admirable situation, give Naples the means of carrying on a very advantageous and extensive commerce. But her natural advantages have been, in this respect, all but nullified by the perverse policy of her government. Her oils, silks, sulphur, corn, wines, &c., would all meet with a ready and advantageous sale abroad, provided the manufactured goods and other products which foreigners have to give in exchange for them, were admitted on reasonable terms into the Neapolitan dominions. Such, however, has not been the case, the importation of a great many foreign articles having been prohibited, and those that were admitted having been loaded with oppressive duties. But this was not all; for some of the most important articles of native produce, i.e. oil, argol, hemp, sulphur, skins, and wool, were subjected, on being exported, to heavy duties. But we are glad to have to say that of late years this *felix de se* policy has been considerably modified. The export duty on sulphur wholly ceased in 1846, and the discriminating duty of 30s. a ton on olive oil when exported on foreign bottoms has, also, ceased. Various reductions have been, also, made in the duties on imports; and but for the unfortunate disturbances by which Naples has latterly been agitated, the probability is that other and more considerable commercial reforms would have been effected. The *bonding* of goods is hardly permitted in any part of the kingdom; in other words, most foreign goods must pay duty on being imported, and no part of this duty is remitted, or drawn back, on their being again re-exported.

Under such multiplied difficulties the wonder is, not that the commerce of the country has been confined within comparatively narrow limits, but that it exists, and is so extensive as we find it to be. The great superiority enjoyed by Naples in the production of certain articles, and the wants of the people originating in the low state of manufactures, and the demand for colonial products, spices, dye-stuffs, and other indispensable articles, proved too strong for the anti-commercial policy of the government, and occasioned considerable intercourse with foreigners. No accurate accounts have, however, been published of the quantities and values of the principal articles imported into, and exported from, the Neapolitan dominions; but, according to the information obtained by Mr. Macgregor and others, the value of the exports from the continental portion of the country may be estimated at about 2,000,000*l.*, and that of the imports at about as much. The latter consist of cottons, woollens, linens, and other manufactured goods; sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; spices, dye-stuffs, salted fish, iron and hardware, &c. The exports consist principally of olive oil, silk, flax and hemp, wool, wine, corn, linseed, cream of tartar, rags, maccaroni, lamb and kid skins, liquors, coral, bones, &c. The trade of continental Naples principally centres in the capital; and the reader will find in the following article an account of the principal articles exported from it in 1847.

The principal weights in use are, the lb of 12 *oncie* = 11 oz. avoird.; the *rotolo* = about 31 oz.; and the *canaro* of 100 *rotoli* = 109 lb. avoird. The *tomolo* of corn = 145 Winch. bushels; the *barile* of wine, &c. = 94 imp. galls.; the *salma* of oil = 354 imp. galls. nearly. The *cassa* of 8 palmi = 6 ft. 11 in. Eng.; the *salmo*, di-

vided into 19 *once* = 10.28 Eng. in. The Neapolitan mile of 7,000 palmi = about 1½ Eng. m.; the *moggia* = 73 Eng. acres. Accounts are kept in *ducats* (3s. 5½d. each) divided into 10 *carlini* and 100 *grani*. (*Baldi*; *Serristori*, &c.)

The Government is a monarchy, hereditary in both the male and female line; and at present in the hands of a branch of the house of Bourbon. The monarchy in respect to the continental portion of the kingdom, was formerly quite unlimited, while Sicily had a parliament of its own. But in 1801 a *consulato* was established for each separate division of the Neapolitan dom.; that for the continental portion consisting of 16 mems., and that for Sicily of 8 mems., appointed by the government from lists of candidates named by the inhabs. of the different provs. Each *consulato* was presided over by a vice-president nominated by the king; and both assemblies frequently meet in one, termed the *consulato generale*, in which a state minister, also appointed by the king, sat as president. In 1837, these *consulati particolari* were permanently amalgamated into one parliament which sits at Naples. But the functions of this body are of the most restricted description; and, as is truly observed in the "Quadro del Governo," non *e' h'alt'ra suprema autorità legislativa che quella del monarca; essa è associata, ed in qualunque modo faccia egli conoscere la sua volontà debbono i sudditi obbedirli*. The king is, however, assisted by a cabinet of 9 ministers, and a privy council composed principally of noblemen.

Every province is governed by an *intendente* appointed by the king, to whom all the internal administration of the prov. is confided: at the head of every district (*circondario*) is a sub-intendant; and in every commune a syndic or mayor. Each commune has also a body of decurions elected from the heads of families paying taxes of from 12 to 24 *ducats* a year, according to circumstances, and who consult, under the presidency of the syndic, on the affairs of the commune, fixing the rates, and appointing municipal officers; but their resolutions do not acquire the force of law till they have received the sanction of the *intendente*. Every district is a council of 10 mems., and in every prov. is a council of from 15 to 30 mems., nominated by the communes, and chosen by the minister of the interior; which council assembles once a year to examine the proposals of the district councils, to draw up, under the direction of the intendant, the projects proposed for the prov., and to examine the provincial accounts, &c. The provincial council must not, however, consult upon any matters but such as are submitted to it; and the entire authority in the prov. remains with the intendant and his council, which consist of from 3 to 5 mems., and is formed after the model of the French *conseil de prefecture*.

Justice is administered in a supreme court of cassation in the capital; high civil courts at Naples, Aquila, Trani, and Catanzaro; civil and criminal courts in the capital of each province, by a judge *d'istruzione* in each district, with authority from the provincial criminal court; and by a *conciliatore* in each commune, who decide in cases to the amount of 6 *ducats*. In 1834, tribunals of commerce were in operation at Naples, Foggia, and Monteleone. Judges, as well as most other functionaries, usually hold their appointments for 3 years. Trials are public, and the code of laws, as well as the judicial forms, established by the French, have been generally adopted, except that trials by jury are unknown. Some late statistics and details show that the average of persons accused is as 1 to 1,090, and of those convicted as 1 to 1,438 of the pop. Of 5,813 accusations, in a given period, 104 were for offences against religion, 986 for homicide, intentional or otherwise, and 1,708 for violations of property. In Capitanata, 1 in 607 of the pop. was convicted; in Abruzzo Ultra, 1 in 361. The proportion of the accused, was 1 in 959 of the rural pop., 1 in 199 of artisans and servants, 1 in 508 of persons occupied in liberal arts, and 1 in 2,819 of landed proprietors. (*Von Raumer's Italy*, &c. II. 228—230.) According to these reports, Capitanata is a province distinguished for crime; and both it and Sannio have been, in fact, noted for brigandage on a large scale. Mr. Craven states, that even the favourite amusements of the children, in some districts in these provinces, consist in mock representations of attacks by brigands on travellers, &c., in which the former invariably gain the advantage. The country bordering on the Papal territories is also infamous for robberies. Under the French, the police was well organised, but it is now extremely corrupt and bad. Popular feeling, in the capital at least, is also generally in favour of an offender.

The established religion is the Rom. Catholic; but the S. provinces have about 75,000 Greeks, chiefly the descendants of Greek colonists, who settled in S. Italy after the destruction of the Greek empire by the Turks. Jews are few; and there are only about 800 Protestants in the kingdom. In the continental dominions of Naples, there are 30 archbishops and 66 bishops, each of whom receives an income of not less than 3,000 *ducats*. Ac-

cording to Serristori there were altogether, in 1837, 26,304 secular, and 20,906 regular clergy. Under the French, in 1807, about 280 convents were dissolved, their conventual property sold to pay the creditors of the state, and the monks, &c. allowed only a small stipend annually, which sum was afterwards considerably diminished. But, as already stated, since 1820, every thing has been moving in the contrary direction. Many convents and religious foundations have been restored; many new ecclesiastical fraternities founded; and the Jesuits have been re-established and endowed. According to the concordat concluded with the Papal court in 1818, the pope has the sole privilege of confirming the archbishops and bishops of the Neapolitan dominions in their sees, with other important privileges. Still, however, "the Neapolitan government does not allow the publication and application of any Papal rescripts without its own consent, and displays such firmness, nay, sometimes severity, in matters concerning the bishops and clergy, as the court of Rome would scarcely have been able to maintain, were it to exercise without reprimand." (*Raumer's Italy*, &c. II. 212.)

Public instruction is in the most miserable state. Popular or elementary instruction is confided to the clergy. The results have, since their re-establishment in 1822, opened day-schools for the gratis instruction of youth, though they have not yet been allowed to re-open their former colleges for lay-boarders. There are grammar schools, as in other parts of Italy; and some attempts have been made to establish lay-castran schools in Naples, but they seem to have failed. (*Journal of Education*, 25.) There is, or ought to be, a primary school for boys in every commune; but there are few, if any, primary schools for girls, and seminaries for teachers have only just begun to be established. In some of the provs., scarcely one in 150 or 160 persons learns to read and write.

Naples has a university, with faculties of theology, physics and mathematics, literature, jurisprudence, and medicine, which is attended by about 1,500 students; royal lycées in Naples, Salerno, Bari, Catanzaro, and Aquila; royal colleges in all the other provincial capitals; and 42 secondary schools; in which, however, little is taught beyond reading and writing, and the mere elements of Latin and Greek. But, with the exception of mathematics, antiquities, and perhaps physics, all the higher branches of science and philosophy are in the most degraded state; and even the fine arts have not escaped the general paralysis.

In 1811, a royal society of science was established in Naples, which has been replaced by the Royal Borbone Society, with 60 mems. in 3 divisions. Among other institutions which were founded by the French have disappeared. In 1834, as many as 30 periodical publications appeared in the kingdom; of these, some that were scientific journals had a high character, but the others were mostly indifferent or worthless. The censorship of the press prevents native talent, if it exist, from distinguishing itself; and the oppressive duties on foreign books hinders the people from acquiring that information from abroad which they cannot obtain at home. *Mons. Frescoferri* are established in the different towns for the relief of the poor, in which contributions of corn are received and distributed to the indigent. The hospitals and other charitable foundations were formerly very rich; but they suffered a good deal from the encroachments on their funds by the French government. Their revenue, however, amounts at present (1840) to about 1,500,000 *ducats* a year: they are generally managed by the clergy. Prisoners in public gaols are allowed, but not compelled, to work.

But the provision for the poor is certainly inadequate; and owing partly to this, and partly to the defective state of the police, mendicancy is excessively prevalent. Mr. Maclaren says, that in "all the towns and villages near Naples, strangers are besieged with crowds of mendicants, whose importunities know no bounds. To give any thing to the first hire merely excites others to follow you. It is nothing less than a persecution, and is really one of the greatest nuisances a traveller has to endure."

The military force in 1848 amounted to nearly 49,000 men, of whom 32,000 were infantry of the line, 5,000 cavalry, 4,000 artillery and engineers, and 8,000 *grenadiers*. In time of war, the effective force amounts to 64,327 men.

From the completion of the 18th to that of the 25th year every one (with certain exceptions) is liable to the conscription. A law of 1834 fixes the time of service at 5 years in the army and 5 years in the reserve; but gendarmes, artillerymen, and volunteers, serve 8 years without reserve. A provincial militia was instituted in 1818; but it was suppressed 2 years afterwards. The soldiers have at different times, been employed in useful public works, such as paving the streets, &c.; but it must be added, that the troops are ill paid, and deficient in courage, morale, and most of the qualities that constitute good soldiers. In fact, 25,000 English, French,

by Austrian troops, would suffice to conquer and retain the kingdom. The principal fortresses are Civitella del Tronto, Pescara, Aquila, Gaeta and Capua, all in the N. provs.: Manfredonia, Brindisi, and Taranto, are only partially fortified.

The naval force consists of 3 ships of the line, 5 frigates, 3 corvettes, and a number of smaller vessels, amounting altogether 496 guns. There are 3 battalions of marines, 3 of 1,000 men each, and 1 of 600 men. The principal dockyard is at Castellammare, in the bay of Naples. (Serristori, *Outdint*, &c.)

The revenues are derived partly from direct and partly from indirect taxes. Of the former the *contribuzioni fondiaria*, or land-tax, is by far the most important. Previously to the French régime, the estates of the church and the nobility were exempted from direct taxation; but the French made an end of this unjust distinction, and imposed the *contribuzioni fondiaria* equally on all descriptions of land, without reference to its proprietors or occupants. The tax was originally fixed at 35 per cent. of the rent, and has not since been changed. The other principal sources of revenue are the customs' duties, the tolls on articles consumed in the different towns, the salt and tobacco monopolies, lottery, &c. The indirect taxes paid by the different districts are assessed by companies of the inhab., who collect them at a certain per centage. We are not sufficiently informed as to the working of this plan to be able to say whether it be as advantageous as it is ingenious. We subjoin an

ACCOUNT of the Income and Expenditure of the Kingdom of Naples in 1835.

Revenue.		Expenditure.	
	Ducats.		Ducats.
Land and direct taxes	7,442,000	President of the Council of Minis.	54,000
Customs and consumption duty	5,801,000	Ministry of Foreign Affairs	250,000
Salt	5,075,000	Justice	730,000
Tobacco	509,000	Religion	40,000
Snow, gunpowder, and playing cards	277,000	Finance (incl. Lottery)	1,182,000
Registrations, &c.	1,187,000	including the civil list, interest on debt	14,553,000
Lottery	1,182,000	War	7,900,000
Sinking fund, &c.	704,000	Marine	1,582,000
Deductions from salaries, &c.	1,131,000	Police	907,000
Quota furnished by Sicily	2,977,000	The Interior	1,879,000
Various sources	1,411,000		
Total	36,083,000	Total	36,100,000

(Serristori, *Statist. delle Due Sicilie*.)

History.—At a very early period, most part of the coasts of Naples and Sicily were occupied by Greek colonists, the founders of some of the greatest and most flourishing cities of the ancient world. They received from this circumstance the name of *Magna Græcia*. Continental Naples was wholly subjugated by the Romans soon after their war with Pyrrhus; and formed a most valuable portion of their empire. In modern times it has undergone many vicissitudes. It was united to Spain in the early part of the 16th century; and continued, as an appanage of that kingdom, to be governed by viceroys sent from Madrid, till the treaty of Utrecht, when it was ceded to Austria. In 1734 it was erected into an independent monarchy, under the Infanta Don Carlos of Spain, who took the name of Charles III. It continued under the Bourbon dynasty till 1798, when it was overrun by the French, who held it from 1803 till 1815.

These circumstances account in part, at least, for the degraded character of the Neapolitans. Down to the invasion of the French they had groaned under a succession of tyrannical or imbecile rulers: and with such a government, and with the feudal system in full vigour, a servile and ignorant nobility, a priesthood always ready to protect and absolve every scoundrel who had money and power, it would have been a miracle if the people were become as worthless, as corrupt, and as degraded as their rulers. Had the government of the French been continued for half a century, the regeneration of the country might have been effected. But Naples has again become the prey of dotage and imbecility. And till a new order of things shall be introduced; a vigorous government established; and the oppressive restrictions on foreign trade and on the circulation of books and papers have been abolished; it would be idle to expect any material improvement in the condition or character of the people.

NAPLES (an. *Parthenope* and *Neapolis*), a famous city and sea-port of Italy, cap. of the above kingdom, and the residence of the sovereign, on its W. coast, on the N. side of the bay or gulph of Naples, 118 m. S.E. Rome, in the immediate vicinity of Vesuvius, the lower elevations of which approach to within a little distance of the city, on the S.E.; lat. (Fort St. Elmo), 40° 50' N., long. 14° 15' 50" E. Pop., in 1837, 351,719; but, owing to the ravages of cholera in the course of that year, the pop. was reduced, in 1838, to 386,303. It had, however, increased, in 1846, to 400,813, ex. strangers and

troops; and this may be about its present pop. The situation of Naples is one of the finest that can be imagined. Seated partly on the declivity of a hill, and partly on the margin of a spacious bay, it spreads its buildings along the shore, and covers the shelving coasts and adjacent eminences with its villas and gardens. Its suburbs stretch in a magnificent and lengthened sweep, from Portici on the E., to the promontory of Misenum on the W. The bay is extensive, and presents an almost unrivalled assemblage of picturesque and beautiful scenery. On its N.W. side, the shores of Posuoli rise in a gentle swell from the surface of the water; while on the E., Vesuvius, with its verdant sides and black smoking summit, bounds the prospect: the centre contains the city, with its palaces, churches, and gardens, rising one above the other, backed by the heights on which are the royal palace of Capo di Monte, the observatory, and the Castle of St. Kimo. The view from the city seawards commands the whole sweep of the bay, bounded on the S. by the promontory of Sorrentum, and having near its mouth the islands of Capri Ischia, &c. The clearness of the atmosphere, and the mildness of the climate, complete the gratification inspired by the scene, and justify the epithet of *paradisus* given to the city by the ancients. The city has an oblong form; but, when viewed from an elevated point, as Capri, the surrounding country, the castle of St. Elmo, or the church of Santa Maria del Partu, it appears irregular, the surrounding country being so studded with houses and villages, that it is impracticable to mark the line of separation between the town and the environs.

But it is principally in respect of its situation that Naples is superior to most other cities. The streets, indeed, are generally straight and well paved, though without foot-paths; but they are universally narrow, and being bordered by lofty houses, have a dark gloomy appearance, that contrasts singularly with the splendour of the surrounding country. The *Strada di Toledo*, the principal street, having at the one end the Piazza di Mercato, and on the other the royal palace, runs N. and S. for about a mile; but it is only from 40 to 60 ft. in width, while the houses on either side are from 5 to 7 stories in height. Few of the other streets are more than 30 ft. in width, and many not more than 16 to 20 ft., and some not so much. The houses are flat-roofed, and covered with a kind of stucco made of Pozzuolana sand, which becomes indurated on exposure to the atmosphere. Most of them have balconies in front; and these, and the booths and stalls, with which the streets are constantly occupied, make them look narrower than they really are. There are several open spaces or *larghi*; for they cannot be called squares; but they are very irregular both in aspect and plan. The principal are the *Largo di Castello*, the *Largo di Palazzo*, and the *Piazza di Mercato*. Some of the *larghi* are decorated with fountains and obelisks; and the city is, on the whole, pretty well supplied with water.

The houses in Naples bear no analogy to those in London, but correspond pretty closely to those of Paris, except that they are generally on a larger scale. "You see," says Mr. MacLaren, "a vast tenement, with a front as long as that of Edinburgh College, but two stories higher—a grande porte, as large as the college gate, and decorated, too, with columns. This porte opens into a court as long as the building, but perhaps only 30 or 40 ft. wide. The tenement, in fact, forms a parallelogram, built all round the court, with wide spacious stairs in each of its interior fronts. The whole of the ground story externally consists of a series of arched cells, probably 10 ft. wide, 12 ft. high, and 15 or 30 ft. deep. These are occupied as sale shops, cafés, and work-shops. The door is always in three high and narrow divisions; in cold or wet weather the middle only is opened; in mild weather all the three are folded back, and the business is carried on in the open air. In cell No. 1., for instance, you have an oil-shop; in No. 2. tripe, sausages, &c.; in No. 3. cloth of some kind; in No. 4. sacks of flour; in No. 5. a coopersmith hammering away; in No. 6. you see half a dozen tailors stitching; in No. 7. you find a confectioner, who is kneading the dough on his counter; in No. 8. a modista, or dealer in women's dresses; in No. 9. a carpenter; in No. 11. a bookseller; in No. 12. a watchmaker. The cells are all of the same shape and size, and not one front only, but often all the four external fronts of the building are thus arranged and occupied. Such a building is called a *palazzo*, which does not mean a palace, but simply a house, or, rather, a tenement, in the ground story of which a crowd of shopkeepers and artisans carry on their business, and in the upper part a crowd of other persons live. Naples is almost entirely composed of palazzos, great or small, such as I have described, and they are crowded together amazingly. The ground may be said to bear a crop of houses, as a field bears a crop of corn; for gardens, or open plots of ground for drying clothes, or securing the advantages of light and air, are never dreamed of here, except as appendages to villas in the suburbs. In one

* The public debt in 1835 amounted to 4,557,000 ducats.

thing Naples is magnificent — its street pavement, which invariably consists of squared blocks of lava, joined as closely and correctly as the flags of our foot pavement. They are said to be laid in mortar, as the old Roman roads were, and hence may be considered as built roads. So firm is the work, that you never see one block an inch higher or lower than another" (Notes, p. 81.) There is not, however, a single shop in Naples, that would be reckoned handsome in London or Paris. Neither has it any good coffee-house or restaurant.

Notwithstanding his disposition to eulogize, Eustace admits that Naples has but little architectural magnificence. The prevailing taste, if a series of absurd fashions deserve that name, has always been bad. Moresco, Spanish, and Roman, corrupted and intermingled together, destroy all appearance of unity and symmetry, and form a monstrous jumble of discordance. Hence, the magnificence of the churches and palaces consists principally in their magnitude, and their paintings, marbles, and other decorations.

The cathedral, built on or near the site of a temple of Apollo, a large Gothic edifice, is overcharged with ornaments in the most discordant style. It is supported by more than 100 granite columns, which originally belonged to the edifice it has replaced. In the subterranean chapel, under the choir, is the body of St. Gennaro, the tutelary saint of Naples, whose blood, carefully preserved in a crystal vase, and miraculously liquefied three times a year, is regarded by the orthodox Neapolitans as the boast of the cathedral, and the great glory and honour of the city. The Santi Apolloni, erected on the ruins of a temple of Mercury, is perhaps the most ancient church in the city, having, it is alleged, been originally erected by Constantine, but subsequently rebuilt with greater magnificence. The churches of St. Paul, St. Filippo Neri, Spirito Santo, and S. Martino, are all well deserving of attention; the latter, indeed, is said to be the most splendid and beautiful church in the city. The church Del Partu, though inferior to most others in size and decorations, deserves notice from the fact of its having been erected and dedicated to the *Virgini parienti*, by Sanmarzio, author of the famous Latin poem *De Partu Virginitatis*. It contains the remains of its illustrious founder, a native of the city where he expired in 1530, inclosed in a magnificent tomb, with the following distich by Bembo : —

"Da sacra cineret foret : hic ille Marcell
Sponsus : et sponsæ proxima, ut tunulo."

In all there are said to be about 300 churches in the city; and the priests compose a large, though, certainly not the most valuable, part of the pop.

The Neapolitans appear to entertain the most perfect indifference as to the manner in which their mortal remains are disposed of. The great burying place of the city lies alongside the splendid road leading to the *Campo Marzio*. It consists of 365 deep cells, dug into the Posillana, of which the hill is composed. One of these cells is opened in rotation every morning, and receives all the dead bodies of the day, brought in carts, and tumbled into it, like as much rubbish; this done, it is shut up again for a year, and is then opened to receive a fresh supply of carcases! But, exclusive of this vast golphtha, a considerable number of funerals take place in churches.

The palaces and mansions of the nobility, like the churches, have little pretensions to purity of architecture; and though in many the apartments are on a grand scale, they are in general too much loaded with ornaments. The kings of Naples have been distinguished by their rage for building. The royal palace (*Palazzo reale*) in the city, near the quay, at the S. extremity of the Strada di Toledo, though a part only of the original design, is a vast building, 3 stories in height, with 4 interior courts; the first story is of the Doric, the second the Ionic, and the third the Corinthian order of architecture. Its interior is splendidly fitted up, and it has some good paintings. Another royal residence, the Capo di Monte, finely situated on an eminence outside the town, on the N., commands a magnificent view. It has attached to it some fine gardens; and it possessed, a few years ago, some remains of the famous Farnese gallery, including portraits by Raphael, Andrea del Sarto, and Parmigiano, and some fine sculptures; these, however, have been mostly removed to the museum. This palace is now united to the city by a magnificent road, constructed by the French, and called, during their ascendancy, the Strada di Napoleone. The old palace of the Neapolitan monarchs is now occupied by the courts of justice, and by the archives of the kingdom.

The *Palazzo degli Studi Pubblici*, erected in the early part of the 17th century, from designs by Fontana, is, by far, the most interesting building in Naples. It was intended for the university, and was used as such from 1616, when it was completed, down to 1790, when the university was removed to the convent of Gesu Vecchio,

* A Latin name given to Sanmarzio.

and the Palazzo degli Studi was converted into a great national museum, the *Museo Borbonico*. In addition to a noble library, comprising about 150,000 vols., and many MSS., this museum contains a matchless collection of bronzes, gems, paintings, household furniture, pyrrhy, and Etruscan vases, from Herculaneum, Pompeii, Stabia, Nola, Capua, and other ancient cities; and in addition to these treasures, which are in all respects, unique and unrivalled, it contains, exclusive of others, most of the statues and pictures formerly comprised in the Farnese palace at Rome, brought thither when the King of Naples succeeded to the rich inheritance of that family. The collection of statues is, in fact, inferior only to those of the capital and Vatican, and the gallery at Florence, while in paintings it yields only to Rome, Florence, and Bologna. But, despite all the treasures of the studiil, Naples is not at present either a school or a cradle of art, which is at a lower ebb here than in any other considerable city of Italy.

The university of Naples, founded in 1524, has above 1,500 students. It is presided over by a rector, and divided into faculties, under deans, who, with the professors, receive very inadequate salaries from the crown. The professors are frequently chosen with little regard to merit; and the instruction they afford in the higher branches of science and philosophy is most inefficient, and unworthy. Public law, moral and political philosophy, and even theology, can hardly be said to be taught at all; or, if taught, the instruction is not intended to expand or enlighten the mind, but to imbue it with the grossest prejudices. There are, besides the university, many superior, as well as inferior, schools; but, speaking generally, they are all miserably bad; and Turkey excepted, education is nowhere at a lower ebb than in Naples. The censorship is extremely strict; and such foreign works as are admitted, are burdened with an extremely high duty. Under such circumstances, one ceases to be surprised at the gross ignorance prevalent among the mass of the pop. — The wonder, in fact, is, that there should be so much intelligence amongst them as is found really to exist.

Naples has a *Società Reale Borbonica*, or Royal Society, divided into the three sections of the fine arts, science, and archaeology; and other literary and scientific associations; a military and naval college; a royal medical college, a veterinary do., a royal college of music; a fine botanical garden, conducted by the French; an observatory, in an elevated situation to the N. of the city, &c. One of the most curious institutions in Naples is a school where natives of China are instructed in the principles of Christianity, and qualified to act as missionaries. The number of pupils is small, seldom exceeding 6.

Naples has numerous and some very extensive establishments for the support and relief of the poor, including a school for the deaf and dumb, and an asylum for the blind. The two principal hospitals are those, *Digi Incurabili*, and *Della Anemica*; the former, notwithstanding its name, is open to the sick of all descriptions, and has a revenue of about 300,000 duc. a year. The latter is destined to receive foundlings and pious females. Here, however, as everywhere else, the opening of hospitals for the reception of foundlings is productive of a vast amount of mortality and immorality. Their influence in the latter respect is too obvious to require illustration; and they are really the most efficient means that could be devised for occasioning the destruction of the children they are intended to preserve. In Naples, for example, in 1837, 2,319 children were taken to the different receiving houses attached to the Foundling Hospital, of which 1,684 died in the course of the year; the greater number being, in fact, in a dead or dying state when they were received! The truth is that instead of discouraging, foundling hospitals really act as a powerful incentive to infanticide. The *Reclusorio*, or *Albergo de Poveri*, is an immense workhouse, or rather asylum for the destitute poor who are able to work, and for orphans and poor children of both sexes, who are lodged and educated. The hospital of San Gennaro, near the hill of Capo-di-Monte, is intended for the reception of infirm and aged poor, or poor unable to work. But, despite its hospitals, such is the want of industry, and the defects of the police, that there probably is no other city whose streets are infested by so large a proportion of poor, miserable, wretched mendicants.

Naples has 6 or 7 theatres. That of San Carlo, the largest and finest in Italy, was nearly burnt down in 1815; but it was soon after repaired, and re-opened with more than its original splendour. Among the minor theatres, 3 or 3 are wholly devoted to the exhibition of Pulcinella, or Punch, who is here seen in his glory. "What," asks Forsyth, "is a drama in Naples without Punch? or what is Punch out of Naples? Here, in his native tongue, and among his own countrymen, Punch is a person of real power; he dresses up and retails all the drolleries of the day; he is the channel, and sometimes the source, of the passing opinions; he can inflict

ridicule, he could gain a mob, or keep the whole kingdom in good humour. Such was De Flori, the Aristophanes of his nation, immortal in buffoonery." (P. 268.) The finest promenade is that called the *Chiaia*, extending along the shore from the Castello dell' Oro, E. to Virgil's tomb and the hill of Pausilippo: it is in part planted and ornamented with statues and fountains, and is, altogether, one of the finest public walks that is any where to be met with. The mole also is a favourite promenade, and the quays that stretch E. from it towards Portici.

Though Naples could offer no effectual resistance to an invading armament, it is not altogether unprotected with the means of defence, having the castle of St. Elmo on a hill on its N.W. side, the Castello Nuovo adjoining the royal palace and the bay, and the Castello dell' Ovo on a rock projecting into the sea. The Castello Nuovo is so situated as to afford a safe retreat to the royal family and court in the event of any disturbance in the capital. The castle of St. Elmo has extensive subterranean bomb-proof works. The arsenal and cannon foundry are situated between the *Palazzo Reale* and the sea.

A vast number of employments must necessarily be carried on in so great a city, but there are few manufacturing establishments on any thing like a large scale. Some woollen, silk, and linen stuffs are, however, produced; as are hats, gloves, earthenware, jewellery, &c.; foundries, wrought on account of government, furnish cannon, fire-arms, iron cables, &c. The preparation of macaroni may, however, be said to be the distinguishing business of Naples. It forms the principal food of the bulk of the population, and is, therefore, largely produced. The best macaroni is made of the flour of the hard wheat (*Grano duro*) brought from the Black Sea. Being mixed with water, it is kneaded by means of heavy wooden blocks wrought by levers, till it acquires a sufficient degree of tenacity; it is then forced, by simple pressure, through a number of holes, so contrived that it is formed into hollow cylinders. The name given to the tubes depends on their diameter; those of the largest size being macaroni, the next to them vermicelli, and the smallest fedellini. When properly prepared and boiled to a nicety, Neapolitan macaroni assumes a greenish tinge. It is then taken out of the caldron, drained of the water, and being saturated with concentrated meat gravy, and sprinkled with finely grated cheese, forms a dish of which all classes, from the prince to the beggar, are passionately fond. But the macaroni used by the poor is merely boiled in plain water, and it is rarely eaten with any condiment whatever. When properly prepared it is nutritious and easy of digestion. The Lazaroni pique themselves on the dexterity with which they swallow long strings of macaroni and vermicelli without breaking them.

Commerce. — The harbour of Naples is formed by a mole projecting from the centre of the city, nearly in the form of the letter L, having a light-house on its elbow. Immediately within the mole there are from 3 to 4 fathoms water, the ground being soft, but only small vessels can approach the town. The water in the bay is deep, and there is no bar, but it is a good deal exposed to the S. westerly winds; and to guard against their influence, vessels in the bay moor with open hawse in that direction. For remarks on the system under which the trade of Naples and the kingdom generally is conducted, we beg to refer to the previous article. Subjoined is

An Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles exported from the Port of Naples in 1847.

Articles.	Quantities.	Articles.	Quantities.
Argol - cent.	1,675	Wool - cent.	2,796
Cream of tartar	6,528	Woolen caps No.	30,519
Almonds -	800	Co. rap. - cent.	8,235
Nuts and walnuts	3,411	Wkms, lamb and kid No.	46,644
Almond -	700	Do other kinds cent.	
Fruit, dried -	8,398	Leather goods cent.	3,546
Essence of orange -	95	Boots - cent.	6,047
Lemon juice casks	721	Bone shavings -	3,350
Liquorice paste -	15,919	Horns -	640
Thinned paste -	3,460	Coals -	2,642
Layins -	2,215	Lard -	2,642
Potatoes -	1,940	Oil - salm.	30,075
Macaroni -	1,587	Tallow - cent.	7,005
Hay and straw -	18,494	Sulphur -	8,200
Hemp - cent.	5,507	Potash -	1,502
Madder-root -	20,325	Tiles, glazed No.	72,500
Do, ground -	2,511	Casks -	4,660
Do, seed -	1,660	Staves -	6,315
Nut galls -	154	Horns bundles	4,030
Zaffran -	40	Brandy - casks	21,702
Rhum -	480	Wine bottles	12,800
Silk, raw -	800	Do - casks	220
Do, dyed -	443	Tinder - cent.	864
Do, waste -	511	Pigeon dung -	730

During the same year, there cleared out from the harbour 423 ships, of which 362 were Neapolitans, 162 British, 6 French, 19 Sardinian, 1 Tuscan, &c. The aggregate burden of the registered vessels belonging to Naples and Castellamare amounts to nearly 100,000 tons. The duties collected at the Neapolitan custom-house amount, at an average, to about 3,500,000 ducats or about 600,000*l.* a year.

There are 4 or 5 companies for the insurance of ships, and 1 for lives. Their terms are generally higher than those of similar establishments in London. Houses are never insured at Naples, their construction rendering fire very rare. The companies are established by royal authority, the shareholders being only liable for the amount of their shares.

The principal merchants of Naples are all, more or less, bankers, inasmuch as they advance money on letters of credit, and deal in foreign exchange, and other financial operations. But the only banking establishment at present in existence, is the Bank of the Two Sicilies, founded by government, and guaranteed by the possession of landed property. It is not a bank for the issue of notes on credit, like the Bank of England, but for their issue on deposits somewhat on the principle of the Bank of Hamburg. Government makes all its payments by means of notes or orders on the bank; and they are issued to individuals for whatever sums they desire, on their paying an equivalent sum of money to the bank. These notes or orders form a considerable part of the circulating medium of Naples; they are paid in cash on demand. The building occupied by the bank is one of the finest in the city.

Government has also established a discount office, where bills indorsed by 3 persons of good credit, and not at more than 3 months' date, are discounted at 4 per cent. Goods are universally sold at long credits, mostly from 4 to 8 months, and for manufactured goods sometimes longer. Discount for ready money is at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum. Merchants are arranged by the Chamber of Commerce into 5 different classes, and a 6 months' credit is given at the custom-house for duties, to the extent of 60,000, 40,000, 30,000, 20,000, and 15,000 ducats, to individuals, according to the class in which they happen to be enrolled. But this is of little importance, as the transactions of a merchant must be very limited indeed if the duties he have to pay be not much more than the credit he is allowed. High discriminating duties are charged on all foreign ships entering the port.

Society in Naples has undergone many considerable changes during the present century; but its distinguishing features have not materially varied for a lengthened period, and Goldsmith's admirable picture of Italian manners is still more applicable to this than to any other portion of the peninsula: —

But small the bliss that comes alone bestows,
And sensual bliss is all the nation knows.
In fertile beauty groves and fields appear,
Man sows the only growth that divides here.
Constrained to toil through all his manhood's day;
Though poor, luxurious; though subservient, vain;
Though grave, yet trifling; zealous, yet untrue;
And even in penance planning sins anew.

The nobility are exceedingly numerous, and are as fond as ever of splendour and parade. Previously to the occupation of the country by the French, the greater number of them were very poor; and the changes introduced in 1806, and the subdivision of property that has taken place in the interval, have considerably reduced the fortunes of those who had formerly large estates. "Titles are here so common that you find at every corner *Principi* or *de Principi* without a virtue or a ducat." The rage for carriages and equipages is as great at this moment as it was in the days of Dr. Moore: "Women at all above the lower ranks do not walk; those who cannot afford a carriage are doomed by pride to perpetual imprisonment in their own houses, or only go to church with one or two poor devils hired for the occasion, who put on antiquated livery, and carry a book or a cushion. I am told that husbands sometimes perform the office, trusting probably that they shall escape recognition under the disguise of a footman, and choosing to gratify vanity at the expense of pride. The roofs of the houses, which are flat, and adorned with flowers and shrubs in boxes, afford air and exercise to the women.

Thus living in idle retirement, their mind is exclusively bent on the means of procuring a lover; and the tales of Boccaccio and Lafontaine convey a likeness of their moral habits and manners." (*Simond's Italy*, 435.)

The numbers and wealth of the clergy were greatly diminished by the measures adopted by the French; and though both have been increased since the Restoration, their wealth has not been increased in proportion to their numbers. They are, speaking generally, poor, ignorant, and servile; and though the outward forms of religion be respected, it has nowhere so little real influence as at Naples. The lawyers, merchants, physicians, artists, and such-like persons, form the most intelligent and most valuable portion of society.

The *lazzaroni*, so prominent in the descriptions of Naples, formerly included most part of the lower classes, comprising street-porters, hawkers, water-carriers, boatmen, hackney-coachmen, mendicants, &c. Their numbers were loosely estimated at from 30,000 to 40,000, and they were said to constitute a distinct race, immersed in poverty, only half-clothed and not half-fed, without lodgings, and sleeping in the open air in the porches of churches and other public buildings. But it is now admitted that the *lazzaroni*, properly so called, or the houseless poor, are merely the dregs of the population, and that they owe their gipsy-like complexion and cast of features to their constant exposure to the sun and air. It is singular that wretches in so destitute a condition, and frequently involved in all but the extremity of want, should, speaking generally, be remarkable for their fine symmetrical and muscular forms, and be distinguished by their vivacity and humour. Great efforts have been made for many years past to lessen the numbers of the *lazzaroni*; and, under Murat, many of them were drafted into the army. But they are still extremely numerous; Mr. MacLaren says he saw numbers of half-clothed wretches (*lazzaroni*) asleep, in sunny days, on the pavement of the Chiaja. "They are the refuse of civilisation, sunk to the condition of savages. It is said there are individuals among them who do not know their own names, and who go to the priest and confess anonymously, owning sins of whose designation in the Decalogue they are ignorant." Unless when pressed by hunger, or under some peculiar and extraordinary excitement, the *lazzaroni* are neither turbulent nor licentious; but on such occasions they evince all the sanguinary ferocity of savages. They seem, however, to be wholly incapable of any vigorous or long-continued exertion for any public purpose, and may, speaking generally, be regarded as submissive, docile slaves. It used to be a common saying at Naples, that, to keep the populace quiet, three things only were necessary—*feste, farine, and forche*; that is, shows, food, and gibbets! And this compendious principle has not yet fallen into disrepute, though certainly they are supplied with but a very scanty portion of *farine*.

Lottery offices are extremely numerous in Naples, and have, as might be expected, a most injurious operation. Tickets are so subdivided, that shares may be purchased for about 2d.: the moral pestilence consequently descends to the very lowest ranks, and even the *lazzaroni* are speculators. There are, probably, a greater number of pick-pockets in Naples than in any other city; and deceit and falsehood are so common as hardly to excite attention. The *donne libere* are also extremely numerous.

Owing principally, no doubt, to its mild cli-

mate, a large proportion of the pop. of Naples may be said to inhabit the streets, and to carry on their business out of doors; and the competition arising among parties so situated, has probably given rise to that universal turmoil and effort to attract notice, that is at once so grotesque and so disgusting to a stranger.

"Naples," says Mr. Forsyth, "in its interior, has no parallel on earth. The crowd of London is uniform and unintelligible: it is a double line in quick motion; it is the crowd of business. The crowd of Naples consists in a general tide, rolling up and down; and in the middle of this tide, a hundred eddies of men. Here you are swept on by the current, there you are wheeled round by the vortex.

Qel vid' lo gente, pì che altre troppa
S' d'una parte e d'altra con gran urli,
Fercutevansi incontro — DANTE.

A diversity of trades dispute with you the streets. You are stopped by a carpenter's bench, you are lost among shoemakers' stools, you dash among the pots of a *maccheroni* stall, and you escape behind a *lazzaroni*'s night-basket. In this region of caricature, every bargain sounds like a battle: the popular exhibitions are full of the grotesque: some of their church processions would frighten a war-horse.

"The mole seems, on holydays, an epitome of the town, and exhibits most of its humours. Here stands a methodical friar preaching to one row of *lazzaroni*; there, Punch, the representative of the nation, holds forth to a crowd. Yonder, another orator recounts the miracles performed by a sacred wax-work, on which he rubs his *agnuses*, and sells them, thus impregnated with grace, for a grain a piece. Beyond him are quacks in hussar uniforms, exalting their drugs and brandishing their sabres, as if not content with one mode of killing. The next *professore* is a dog of knowledge, great in his own little circle of admirers. Opposite to him stand two jocund old men, in the centres of an oval group, singing alternately to their crazy guitars. Further on is a motley audience, seated on planks, and listening to a tragi-comic *filosofo*, who reads, sings, and gesticulates old Gothic tales of Orlando and his Paladins.

"If Naples be a paradise inhabited by devils, I am sure it is by merry devils. Even the lowest class enjoy every blessing that can make the animal happy—a delicious climate, high spirits, a facility of satisfying every appetite, a conscience which gives no pain, a convenient ignorance of their duty, and a church which ensures heaven to every ruffian that has faith. Here tatters are not misery, for the climate requires little covering; filth is not misery to them who are born to it; and a few fingerings of *maccheroni* can wind up the rattling machine for the day.

"They are, perhaps, the only people on earth that do not pretend to virtue. On their own stage they suffer the Neapolitan of the drama to be always a rogue. If detected in theft, a *lazzaroni* will ask you, with impudent surprise, how you could possibly expect a poor man to be an angel. Yet what are these wretches? Why, men whose persons might stand as models to a sculptor; whose gestures strike you with the commanding energy of a savage; whose language, gaping and broad as it is, when kindled by passion, bursts into oriental metaphor; whose ideas are cooped, indeed, within a narrow circle—but a circle in which they are invincible. If you attack them there, you are beaten. Their exertion of soul, their humour, their fancy, their quickness of argument, their address at flattery,

their rapidity of utterance, their pantomime and grimace, none can resist but a lazzaroni himself.

"These gifts of nature are left to luxuriate unexpressed by education, by any notions of honesty, or habits of labour. Hence their ingenuity is wasted in crooked little views. Intent on the piddling game of cheating only for their own day, they let the great chance lately go by, and left a few immortal patriots to stake their all for posterity, and lose it." (Pp. 264—267., and 412.)

"The people," says M. Simond, "seem, in general, peaceful and contented, unconscious of want at least; they consume little, and that little is cheap. For three grains a day (three half-pence sterling) a man has his fill of macaroni, and for three grains more he may have his frittata (very good fish or vegetables fried in oil) at any of the innumerable stands of itinerant cooks about the streets, which is not the only luxury of the gastronomic kind within his reach. A glass of ice-water costs one sixth of a grain (one twelfth part of a penny sterling), and, if properly seasoned with lime-juice and sugar, two grains. The price of these things is kept down by government, ice or hardened snow being abundantly supplied at the public expense from natural ice-houses, in certain cavernous rocks above Stabim and Sorrento, and even on Vesuvius. The ice in baskets is made to slide down the mountain, along light ropes, into boats, which sail across the bay during the night, and land their precarious cargoes before day.

"The lower people have clubs, where they assemble twenty or thirty together, and contribute each one grain for wine of an evening. They elect a president and vice-president. The president calls upon one of the members to drink a glass of wine filled by the vice-president; but when the member challenged is about to take it, the vice-president has the right to say, I take it for myself, and actually drink it to his health; a standing joke, which he may repeat as long as he pleases, or as long as he can, but which the disappointed expectant, who has the laugh of the company against him, does not always relish; and in the end there is sometimes fighting and stabbing." (P. 432.)

The country round Naples is the most beautiful that can well be imagined, and is peculiarly interesting from its classical associations. Virgil was buried in the immediate vicinity of the city; and the ruins of an ancient mausoleum on the left hand side of the road, leading from the promenade of Chiaia to the grotto of Pausilippo, is said to have contained the remains of the prince of Latin poets. There is, however, no really good foundation for this statement.

The grotto of Pausilippo, now alluded to, is a tunnel cut through the hill of that name, being part of the road from Naples to Pozzuoli. It is about two-thirds of a mile in length, 60 ft. in height, and broad enough to serve for a highway. This work is of great, but unknown, antiquity. Seneca, in his 57th epistle, complains bitterly of its length, darkness, and dust. (*Nihil illo carere longius, nihil illis faucibus obscurius; etiam si locus haberet lucem, pulvis auferret.*) Its dimensions were, however, enlarged in 1557; and it is now well paved and lighted with lamps by day as well as by night. (For further information as to the environs of Naples, see the articles *BALNE*, *HERCULANEUM*, *POMPEII*, *POZZUOLI*, *VESUVIUS*, &c., in this work.)

Historical Notice.—Naples is very ancient. It was founded by the people of Cumæ, a colony from Greece, who gradually spread themselves round the Bay of Naples, and was called from this circumstance Neapolis, or the new city. It was also called Parthenope, from its being the burying-place of one of the sirens of that name. (*Felictus Paternulus*, lib. i. cap. 4.; *Sirabo*, lib. x.) It was, therefore, to all intents and purposes, a Greek city; its inhab. spoke the Greek language, and were long distinguished by their attachment to the manners and customs of their ancestors. It was on this account, according to Tacitus, that it was selected by Nero to make his *aditus* on the stage; such a proceeding being less offensive there, and less repugnant to the prevailing senti-

ments, than in Rome. (*Tacit. Hist.* lib. xv. cap. 33.) Naples, in truth, was then, as now, a chosen seat of pleasure. Its hot baths were reckoned equal to those of Baie; and the number and excellence of its theatres and other places of amusement, its matchless scenery, the mildness of the climate, and the luxury and effeminacy of the inhab., made it a favourite retreat of the wealthy and luxurious Romans, and justified Ovid in calling it *in otia natam Parthenopem*. After the fall of the Roman empire, it underwent many vicissitudes. It, however, early became the cap. of the modern kingdom of Naples; and, notwithstanding the calamities it has suffered from war, earthquakes, &c., it has long been the most populous city of Italy, and one of the most interesting that any where to be met with. (Besides the authorities already referred to, see *Serristori*, *Statistica d'Italia*, *parte settima*, *passim*; *Official Statement of the Population of Naples on the 1st of January, 1838*; *Stark's and Valery's Guides*; *Com. Dict.*; *Macgregor's Report*, &c.)

NARBONNE (an. *Narbo Martius*), an ancient city of France, dép. Aude, about 4 m. S. from the Aude, and 7 or 8 m. from the Mediterranean, on a navigable canal that unites it with the sea, on the one hand, and with the river on the other, and which also unites it with the Canal du Midi. It lies to the N. of the Aude, 52 m. S.W. Montpellier, and 24 m. N. by E. Perpignan; lat. 43° 11' 13" N., long. 3° 0' 24" E. Pop., in 1846, ex. com., 10,378. It stands in a fine plain, and is surrounded by a wall flanked with towers, and entered by four gates. Streets narrow and tortuous, and houses mean and ill-built; it is divided by the canal into two nearly equal parts, *la Bourg* and *la Ville*, connected by three bridges; and is plentifully supplied with water by numerous fountains connected with springs outside the walls. The esplanade, or *Place des Bourges*, in the centre of the town, is a fine open space; but its beauty is much impaired by the almost total absence of vegetation. Other promenades are formed near the gates; on the banks of the canal is a fine public walk, planted with trees, and the environs generally are extremely beautiful. Narbonne has few buildings worthy of notice, except the cathedral and archbishop's palace. The former, built in the 13th and 14th centuries, is one of the finest specimens of Gothic architecture in Europe; the choir, however, is the only part complete, the nave, commenced in 1700, being unfinished. The tower, rising from its W. end, but they are deficient in that lightness and elegance observable in similar structures of the same era. The archbishop's palace (celebrated in history, as having been the place where Louis XIII. signed the order for the trial of De Thou and Cinq-Mars), is an ancient castellated building in the Place des Barques, having attached to it a massive square tower, built in the Middle Ages; in the front court are the remains of a marble altar, erected by the Narbonne to Augustus Cæsar, and, in the garden, a fine tomb of white marble. The two par. churches are ancient and massive structures, but built in very bad taste, and remarkable only for some curious sculptures. The other chief buildings are three hospitals, the exchange, arsenal, barracks, prison, a museum, theatre, and public baths. Narbonne is the seat of a tribunal of original jurisdiction and commerce; and has some silk flatures—fabrics of coarse linen cloth, worsted caps, and paper, with numerous distilleries, potteries, chemical works, tanneries, &c. It is the centre of the wine and spirit trade of the dép., and the principal support of its inhabitants is derived from its trade in wine, corn, brandy, silk, oil, salt (obtained from the neighbouring lagoons), wax, and honey, which it exports, partly to Bordeaux, by the Canal du Midi, and partly to Marseilles and other markets on the Mediterranean, by its port of La Nouvelle, at the mouth of the canal on which it is built. The honey of Narbonne is said to be the finest in the world. Its peculiar excellence is owing to the variety of nourishment for the bees. The hives are moved from one place to another. From the gardens of Narbonne they are carried to the meadows in the neighbourhood; and they are afterwards conveyed 30 or 40 m., as far as the low Pyrenees, so that the treasures of the gardens, meadows, and mountains, are all rified to produce the honey of Narbonne. In England this system, though doubtless it would be advantageous, could not effect what it accomplishes at Narbonne, because numerous aromatic plants, abounding in the S. of France, are not indigenous to Great Britain. It is of a much higher flavour than any other honey, and so odoriferous that one might fancy himself eating a bouquet." (*Anglis; Switzerland, France*, &c., p. 21.)

Fruit is extremely abundant and cheap. The wages of labour do not exceed a franc a day, but the necessities of life are obtained at the same easy rate. Meat, however, is not reckoned among them by the lower orders; for "at Narbonne we have got so far south, as to discover something of those indolent habits which produce, in still more southern countries, a distaste

for all exertion beyond that necessary to preserve existence, and which limit the necessities of life to the natural productions of the soil." (P. 212.) It is worthy of remark, also, that the dress of the peasantry in the neighbourhood bears a striking resemblance to that worn by the Catalonians. The neighbourhood is fertile in corn, but is rendered unhealthy in summer by the salt lagoons fringing the shores of the Mediterranean. There are numerous salt-pans, and marble is quarried near the town.

Narbo, one of the most ancient towns of Gaul, and the chief city of the Volcæ Arecomici, was formed into a Roman colony *anno* 116 B.C.; Julius Cæsar further enlarged it by sending thither the veterans of the tenth legion, and Cicero (Or. pro M. Fonteio, c. 1.) terms it *colonia nostrorum civium, specula populi Romani ac propugnaculum*. At the distribution of Gaul into provinces by Augustus it gave its name to the S.W. province, called *Narbonensis*: Mela speaks of it as a place *unde olim terris auxilium nunc et nomen et decus est*, and Strabo designates it as the emporium of all Gaul. Its public buildings, and great commercial wealth, are mentioned by other authors; but the present remains of its ancient grandeur are confined to a few fragments and inscriptions, chiefly incorporated in the walls of the town. It fell into the hands of the Visigoths A.D. 462, and was shortly after made the cap. of their kingdom. In 720 it was taken by the Saracens, and by Pepin-le-bref in 789; after many vicissitudes it was finally annexed to the crown of France in the early part of the 16th century. Its ancient walls were demolished by Simon de Montfort during the wars against the Albigenses: those by which it is now surrounded having been constructed, considerably within the limits of the old walls, by Francis I. It has, at different times, suffered severely from the plague. In the wars of the League, Narbonne embraced the cause of the Huguenots; but in 1591 it submitted to Henry IV. (Hugo, art. *Aude*; *Guide du Voy. en France*; *Angl.*.)

NARDO (an. *Neritum*), a town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Otranto, cap. cant., on the road from Lecce to Gallipoli, 16 m. S.E. W. of the former, and 10 m. N.N. E. of the latter, city. Pop. about 6,000. It is a substantial, flourishing town, neatly built, and well paved. It is a bishop's see; and has numerous churches, an hospital, and manufactures of cotton goods, the raw material of which is grown in its vicinity. It was a place of some note in antiquity, as a city of the Salentines; and was held in esteem as a seminary of learning as late as the middle of the 15th century. (*Crusén's Tour*, &c., pp. 138, 139; *Rampoldi*.)

NARNI (an. *Nequinum* and *Narnia*), a town of Central Italy, papal States, deleg. Spoleto, on a lofty eminence, at the foot of which flows the Nera (an. *Nar*), 44 m. N. by E. Rome. Pop. about 3,600. The town has nothing but its antiquity and picturesque appearance to recommend it: it is badly built, with steep and narrow streets, and exhibits every mark of poverty and decay. It has a cathedral, several other churches, numerous convents, a modern aqueduct, which supplies several public fountains, and the ruins of an amphitheatre. But it is principally celebrated for the remains of a noble bridge thrown by Augustus over the Nar, constructed after the Etruscan method, of large blocks of marble without cement: it is supposed to have been originally upwards of 680 ft. in length. Only one of the arches remains perfect, the span of which is above 60 ft.: the piers supporting it are 38 ft. in breadth. Addison styles this bridge "one of the stateliest ruins in Italy;" and few relics of antiquity are better adapted to impress the mind with high ideas of Roman magnificence. Narni was the birth-place of the Emperor Nerva. (*Crusén's Ancient Italy*, l. 377, 378; *Rampoldi*; *Conder's Italy*, &c.)

NARO (supposed to be the an. *Notium*), a town of Sicily, intend. Girgenti, cap. cant., on the Naro (an. *Hypæ*), 13 m. E. by S. Girgenti, and 21 m. S.W. Caltanissetta. Pop., in 1831, 10,105. It is situated on an eminence, surrounded by picturesque valleys and glens; has a royal college, and a house of refuge, and some trade in oil, wine, and sulphur, which last is very abundant in its vicinity. Many sepulchres, medals, and other vestiges of antiquity, have been found here. (*Smyth's Sicily*, p. 202; *Dicci. Geog.*; *Orientali. Dia. della Sicilia*.)

NARRAINGUNGE, a considerable trading town of British India, prov. Bengal, dist. Dacca-Jalapore, on a branch of the Brahmaputra, 8 m. S.E. Dacca. Lat. 23° 37' N.; long. 90° 25' E. Pop. estimated at 15,000. The inhabitants carry on a large trade in salt, grain, tobacco, and lime; and the town exhibits a scene of bustle and activity seldom witnessed in a community of Bengalese. The banks of the river are studded with indigo factories, and the remains of forts erected to repel former invasions of the Aracanese. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gen.*)

NARVA, a town of European Russia, gov. of Petersburg, on the Narova, about 8 m. from its mouth, and 81 m. W. S.W. St. Petersburg, lat. 59° 25' 53" N., and

long. 28° 34' 40" E. Pop. 3,000. It is divided into an old and more recent part; the latter, placed on high ground, is surrounded with fortifications in a good state of repair, and consists of respectable stone houses; the lower and older part comprising only a few wretched wooden tenements, with two churches, one of which belongs to the Greek, the other to the Lutheran, religion. Three other churches, a town-hall, exchange, and the half-ruinous fortress of Ivangorod (built in 1492, by the Czar Ivan III. Vassilievitch), are the only other public edifices.

The place, in fact, would not be worth notice but for the famous battle fought in its vicinity, on the 30th of November, 1700; when Charles XII., king of Sweden, at the head of only 8,000 men, attacked and forced the entrenched camp of the Russian army, consisting of about 80,000 men, which had been besieging Narva. The Swedes gained a complete victory. Above 18,000 Russians were killed in their intrenchments, besides a great number drowned in the river: next day above 30,000 Russian troops surrendered to the Swedes, by whom they were disarmed, and dismissed. This extraordinary success did not cost the Swedes above 600 men! On hearing of this disaster, the czar, Peter the Great, said, "Je sais bien que les Suédois nous batront long temps; mais à la fin il nous apprendront eux-mêmes à les vaincre;" and the event proved that he was in the right. (*See Foltair, Histoire de Charles XII.*, liv. II.)

NASEBY, a decayed market-town and par. of England, co. Northampton, hund. Gullaborough, 1½ m. N.N.W. Northampton, and 79 m. N.W. London. Area of par. 4,690 acres. Pop., in 1841, 898. This village formerly possessed a market and a worsted manufactory, but they have long ceased to exist; and the market cross, in the centre of the village, is the only extant sign of its past importance.

But, how unimportant soever in other respects, this trifling village will be ever memorable in British history for the battle fought near it on the 14th of June, 1645, between the royalists under Charles I. and the parliamentary army commanded by Cromwell and Fairfax. The action was obstinate and well fought, but at the end the parliamentary leaders gained a complete and decisive victory. The loss in killed on both sides was nearly equal; but the republicans took 600 officers and 4,000 soldiers, and all the king's artillery and ammunition. This action may be said to have terminated the civil war.

NASHVILLE, a town of the U. States of N. America, state Tennessee, of which it is the cap., on the Cumberland, 155 m. S. by W. Louisville. Pop., in 1840, 6,928, but it is now (1850) probably above 10,000. It is situated on the S. bank of the river, adjacent to some bluffs, and is well built, with wide and regular streets; comprising, besides some elegant private dwellings, a court-house, lunatic asylum, penitentiary on the Auburn plan, the halls of the university, U. States branch bank, market-house, with hotels, churches, &c. The town has an active and pretty extensive trade; and there are some manufactories, comprising brass and iron foundries, rolling-mills, tanneries, &c. Steam boats ascend as far as the town, the burden of steamers belonging to which, in 1849, amounted to 2,811 tons; but the navigation so far as respects the Ohio and Mississippi, only lasts for about eight months of the year, as during the dry season the boats cannot descend from the mouth of the Cumberland to that of the Ohio. The University of Nashville, founded in 1806, has seven professors, and is attended by 75 students: the library comprises 9,500 vols. There is also a lyceum, and the town issues several newspapers. (*Platt's Geog.*, p. 238; *Murray's Encycl.*, Amer. ed., liv. 577.)

NASO (an. *Agathyrum*), a town of Sicily, intend. Messina, dist. Feldi, cap. cant., on the Naso, near its mouth, in the Mediterranean, 10 m. W. by S. Palì. Pop., in 1831, 6,226. It is situated on a hill, in a finely wooded and healthy neighbourhood; is walled, and has some handsome buildings: several warehouses on the sea shore belong to its inhab. It acquired some notoriety in 1812, by reason of its pop. having refused the constitution then promulgated, and armed themselves on behalf of king Ferdinand. (*Smyth's Sicily*, p. 99 &c.)

NASSAU (DUCHY OF), a state of W. Germany, principally between lat. 50 and 51° N., and long. 7° 25' and 9° 45' E.; having N. and W. Rhenish Prussia, S. Hesse-Darmstadt, and E. the latter, Hesse-Cassel, the territ. of Frankfurt, and the Prussian circle of Westphalia. Length, N. to S., 55 m.; average breadth, above 33 m. Area, about 1,800 sq. m. Pop., in 1846, 424,817. Almost the whole of the surface is hilly, with a general slope towards the W. The Taunus mountains cover the S., and the Westerwald the N. part of the duchy; the Feldberg, the highest point of the former, rises to nearly 2,700 ft.; and the Salsburg-head (*Salsburgischer Kopf*), in the Westerwald, reaches the height of 2,500 ft. above the sea. No portion of level surface is sufficiently extensive to be called a plain; and the valleys are gene-

rally narrow and confined, though many are highly picturesque.

The Rhine forms a considerable portion of the S. and W. boundaries. The Mayn limits the duchy to the S.E., and the Lahn intersects it near its centre, having, for the most part, a S.W. course. The Lahn receives within this duchy the Elz, Ems, Saar, Mühl, &c.; and joins the Rhine at Lahnsstein; being navigable as far as Wellburg, 14 leagues from its mouth. There are no lakes; but Nassau has a number of mineral springs, especially in the Taunus, where are Ems, Seifers, Schlangenbad, Wiesbaden, &c., among the most frequented spas in Germany. The climate is cold in the mountains, particularly in the Westerwald, but so mild in the sheltered valleys that the vine comes to very considerable perfection. The mean temperature of the year in the Rheingau, S. of Wiesbaden is 10° centigr., or 50° Fah. Every part of the duchy is tolerably healthy. The soil is no where remarkably fertile, but only a small portion of it is barren; it is least productive in the N., where, however, there are good natural pastures. A portion of the soil in Westerwald is volcanic, consisting of basalt and lava; and near Wellburg are traces of an extinct volcano. In 1831, of 1,812,541 *morgens* of land, 702,004 were arable, 196,190 in meadows, 15,543 in vineyards, 7,473 in gardens, no fewer than 785,577 in woods, 6,546 occupied with buildings, 105,981 in *Wald*, &c.; and 40,927 altogether waste. Agriculture is the principal branch of industry. The land is mostly divided into small parcels, which are not, however, farmed by their actual proprietors. "The whole country, from the Heidelberg to the Rheingau and Homburg mountains, and from the Rhine to the mountains of the Spessart (which tract includes, besides the S. part of Nassau, part of Hesse Darmstadt, Frankfurt, Hesse Cassel, and Bavaria), presents one uniform face. This plain is divided between large forests of the common *Firnis schweizeri*, occasionally interspersed with oak and beech woods, and large flat districts of corn and vegetables, unrelieved by a single tree or hedge. The open fields are divided into small patches, by the difference of culture, which frequently denotes the boundaries of each peasant's little farm. The farms rarely exceed 50 acres: gentlemen farmers, or speculative agriculturists, are unknown; and the opposite extreme, the class of agricultural day-labourers, is very small. The peasant generally holds his little possession at a fixed rent, due to the lord of the soil, which is never increased. He cannot be dispossessed of his land, and descends from father to son subject to this burthen—a tenure much resembling English copyholds. *Leibeigenschaft* (personal vassalage) is now completely abolished in this, and, indeed, in most parts of Germany." (*Ausw. near the Rhine*, 112, 113.) Wheat is grown in the valleys of the larger rivers; but on the uplands, rye, barley, and oats are almost the only grains cultivated, with potatoes; and in the Westerwald, buckwheat. The S. declivities of the Taunus are covered with chestnut woods and orchards. In the district called the *Rheingau*, further S., along the Rhine and Mayn, the culture of the vine occupies a large share of attention. The finest growths of the Rhine, as Hockheim, Steinberger, Rudesheim, and above all Johannisberg (which see), come from this duchy; in which nearly a third part as much land is appropriated to the culture of the vine, as in all Rhenish Prussia. (*Berghaus*.) The soil of the Rheingau is thin and sandy; but it is well manured, and very productive. The Hockheim, properly so called, or *lock*, is grown at Hockheim, on a little hill behind the ancient doerary, on a space of about 8 acres, open to the southern sun, and sheltered from N. winds by the town. Each acre has about 4,000 vine plants, valued at a ducat each; and the little hill produces, in good seasons, about 12 large casks (*tonneaus*) of wine, each of which sells, frequently as soon as made, for 1,500 florins (125*l.*) or upwards. A constant supply of water is afforded to the plants by a small rivulet, and they are protected from too much wet by moveable wooden sheds. (*Schreiber*, 171.) But there is another vineyard little inferior to the above; and the surrounding lands yield an abundant produce which, as in the case of other wines, often passes for the first growths. The produce of the Steinberger vineyard, which belonged to the suppressed monastery of Eberbach, and is now the property of the Grand Duke, is the strongest of all the Rhenish wines; and, in favourable years, has much sweetness and delicacy of flavour. The quantity made is about 300 hhd., of which about 60 is first rate, and has occasionally been sold on the spot at 10*l.* a bottle. (*Henderson on Wine*, 223.) Flax, hemp, fruits, hops, tobacco, turnips, and chlicory, are among the other principal kinds of produce. The pastures are well attended to, and a good many crops are grown for fodder, the rearing live stock being an important branch of husbandry. *Berghaus* estimates that there are 172,600 head of cattle, 126,000 sheep, and 54,000 hogs in the duchy. (*Allg. Länder*, &c., iii. 513.) The various breeds are said to be improving. Bees are numerous, and game

abounds in the woods. Iron, lead, copper and silver are the principal mineral products; bovey coal also is found in the Westerwald, and chalk, marble, roofing slate, and potters' clay elsewhere. Mining, forges &c. are estimated to employ 8,000 workmen. Working in metals is, however, the chief branch of manufacturing industry; the other manufactures are mostly domestic. Linen cloths are woven by the peasantry at their own houses; and some cotton cloths, carpets, woollen yarn and hosiery, morocco leather, sieves, soap, sealing wax, &c. are made; few, however, of the manufactured articles find their way out of the duchy, the exports consisting principally of mineral waters, wine, cattle, wool, mineral products, and hardware and earthenware. The roads are good; and the Rhine, Mayn, and Lahn, present great facilities for commerce; but the trade of the duchy is by no means so flourishing as it might be. Nassau has of late years joined the Prussian commercial league.

Accounts are kept in *Sorins* (*gulden*) of 60 *Kreutzers*, containing 4 *pfennigs* each; the *Sorin*=1*s.* 4*d.* Engl. The Hessian morgen (*steternormalmorgen*) = about 8-11ths Engl. acre.

The government is a constitutional monarchy, hereditary in the male line; and is among the most liberal of W. Germany. The *Landesrathe*, or parliament, of the duchy, consists of 2 chambers: 1. The first, composed of the princes of the ducal house, the heads of 6 noble families, and 6 representatives for the rest of the nobility; the second consisting of 22 members, 15 of whom are representatives of the landed proprietors, and 3 of the clergy. The states are convoked yearly. The press is free, and personal liberty, the right of petitioning, and eligibility to all public offices are privileges belonging to every subject. Civil justice is administered in a primary court in the cap. of each of the 28 districts of the duchy; in secondary courts at Dillenburg and Usingen; and a high court of appeal at Wiesbaden. The principal criminal courts are at Wiesbaden and Dillenburg. There are elementary, royal, and grammar schools at Dias, Usingen, Dillenburg, Hadamar, Wiesbaden, &c., and a gymnasium in Wellburg, besides female schools, many special academies, and deaf and dumb and other charitable schools. The government has taken considerable pains to promote popular education, but it does not seem to be yet much diffused, few children attending the public elementary schools. By an agreement with Hanover, the university of Göttingen has been constituted the high school for the duchy; except in Rom. Cath. theology, for which students resort to Marburg, in Hesse Cassel. In respect of religion, about 305,000 of the pop. are Protestants, 175,000 Rom. Caths., and 6,500 Jews: the Lutherans and Calvinists have united in one communion. The military force consists of about 4,000 men under arms, with a reserve of 1,550 more. Public revenue estimated at 1,800,000 *Sorins* a year: public debt about 3,000,000 *Sorins*, but this is in process of liquidation. Nassau holds, with Brunswick, the ninth place in the German Confederation; it has two votes in the full council, and, with Brunswick, one in the committee. It furnishes to the army of the Confederation a contingent of 3,028 men.

This country, like Hesse, was anciently inhabited by the *Catti*. The founder of the reigning house of Nassau was Otho of Laurenburg, brother of the emperor Conrad I. In 1256, two collateral lines were formed; and the descendants of the elder have remained in possession of this territory; while those of the younger (Orange-Nassau) have been seated on the throne of Holland. (*Berghaus, Allg. Länder*, &c., iv. 431-440.; *Horscheimann's Stein*; *Schreiber, Guide du Rhin*, &c.)

NATCHEZ, a city of the U. S. of N. America, state Mississippi, on the E. bank of the river of the same name, 285 m. above New Orleans; lat. 31° 33' 49" N., long. 91° 30' W. Pop., in 1830, 2,780; in 1840, 4,800, and now probably 7,000 or 8,000. It is situated partly on a bluff or high ground, about 3 m. from the shore, and 150 ft. above the level of the river, but partly, also, "under the hill," close by the latter. The upper town is laid out in broad streets, crossing each other at right angles, and shaded with fine spreading trees, the whole having an appearance of comfort and opulence. The principal buildings are the court-house, the 3 banks, the gaol, academy, and its 6 places of worship; besides which there are many handsome private houses, with attached gardens. "Natches," says Mr. Stuart, "though occasionally very unhealthy, from the prevalence of yellow fever, is one of the most beautiful towns of the U. S. The 'pride of India' tree, shading the streets, was in blossom, having a greater resemblance to the lilac than to any other of the flowering shrubs. Its leaves are long and spoked; and the growth of these trees is so rapid, that in a few years they completely embower a village, and give a delightful freshness to the landscape." A fine esplanade, 100 yds. wide, occupies the edge of the bluff close in front of the upper town, and

commands an extensive and striking view of the river, the rich country, the wide dismal swamp on the W. side of the Mississippi. The town "under the hill, however, and that part in which the principal river trade is carried on, is a repulsive place, and is the general resort of the vilest characters from the upper and lower country. The houses are tenanted by boatmen, mulattoes, &c.; and on the landing-place are several hotels, in which vice and immorality of every kind are unblushingly displayed. Dancing assemblies for the refuse of both sexes are held in the public rooms of these houses almost every night; and there are other rooms devoted to gamboling." The captain of the "Constitution" steamer informed Mr. Stuart, that he considered the neighbourhood of Natchez as the most profligate place in the Mississippi valley. (*Stuart*, ii. 362.) The lower part of the town is also inhabited by some of the wealthiest merchants; and this being one of the principal places above New Orleans for the shipment of cotton, the streets at a certain period of the year are almost barricaded with bales of that article. In 1835, 35,000 bales were shipped from this port; and although nearly 300 m. above New Orleans, it is accessible to large ships; and carries on a very considerable foreign trade. Steamboats, also, constantly pass the town, and furnish the greatest facility for communication with the districts either above or below. The *Natchez*, and two other newspapers, are published here. Considerable attention is paid to literature; and at Washington, a village 5 m. from the city, is Jefferson College, founded in 1802, with 6 professors giving instruction in various branches of science and literature; the library is small, containing only 1,522 vols.

Natchez was formerly the residence of the chief of the Indian tribe, from which the town was afterwards named. In 1716, the French formed a settlement here, and established a port called St. Rosalie. Disputes, however, arose between the natives and the new-comers, which ended in a general massacre of the latter. The French, a few years afterwards, sent an army into the country; and so vigorous were their measures, that the whole nation was either exterminated, or sold as slaves. Indian mounds and other monuments are visible near the town; as are the ruins of the French port. (*Stuart's America*, ii. 362-364; *Flinn's Geog. of the U. S.*, p. 231.; *Murray's Encycl. Amer.* ed. iii. 548, &c.)

NATOLIA, ANATOLIA, or ANADOLII (a corruption from *anadion*, the East, or *Levan*), a peninsula of W. Asia, anciently called *Asia Minor*, and now constituting a pachalik of Asiatic Turkey; it extends between lat. 36° and 42° N., and between long. 26° and 42° E., being bounded N. by the Black Sea, E. by Armenia and the Euphrates, S. by Syria and the Mediterranean, and W. by the Archipelago. Length, from C. Kara-burun to the Euphrates, 670 m.; breadth from 300 to 440 m.; estimated area, 250,000 sq. m., or about 1-16th more than that of the Spanish peninsula. Pop. probably about 4,350,000. The coast-line is very irregular, especially on its W. and S. sides, where it is deeply indented by the Gulphs of Adramyti, Smyrna, Kos, Makry, Adalia, and Scanderoun. Surface very irregular, but may be generally described as a high table-land, dotted with salt lakes, and enclosed by two ranges, detached from the plateau of Armenia, and running nearly parallel to the N. and S. coasts. The latter of these chains, the *Mons Taurus* of the ancients, and Sultan-dagh of the Turks, runs close to the shore in some parts of Karamania, forming a bluff precipitous coast, intersected here and there by narrow gorges, through which numerous torrents run into the sea. One of the heights, close to the Gulph of Adalia, was ascertained by Captain Beaufort to be 7,800 ft. high; but there are several summits in the interior, the snow on which descending one fourth the way down their sides, indicates a height of 10,000 ft., or nearly equal to that of Mount Etna. (*Beaufort's Karamania*, p. 57.) The N. range is much less clearly defined, the only snow-covered peak being *Mount Olympus*, about 25 m. S. the Sea of Marmara. Connected with Olympus westward is the celebrated *Mount Ida*, overlooking the plain of Troy; and the highest summit of which, called *Gargarus* by Homer, and *Kaz-dagh* by the Turks, rises about 5,000 ft. above the sea. About 160 m. S. of Ida runs another range, the *Tmolus* of antiquity, mentioned by Ovid, Virgil, and Seneca as being celebrated for its excellent wines and rich metallic veins. The central table-land is partly drained by the rivers flowing into the Black Sea; but a large portion, lying N. and N.W. the range of Taurus, about 240 m. in length, by 150 m. in breadth, is covered with numerous salt lakes, marshes, and rivers, having no visible outlet. In rainy seasons these lakes overflow, and, but for the ridges that cross the plain and separate it into basins, would submerge nearly 200 sq. m. of the surface. The largest of these is the lake *Beishehr*, 43 m. W.S.W. Konieh; but by far the most curious in the peninsula is the *Tatta palus* of antiquity (about 50 m. N. Konieh, and 2,500 ft. above the sea), the waters of which, acc. to Strabo, were

so impregnated with brine, that any thing immersed in it was soon covered with a saline incrustation; the Turks call it *Tusla*, and it still furnishes in abundance the article for which it was anciently famous; but it contains neither fish nor conchiferous animals. (*Geog. Jowara*, x. 299.)

The largest rivers of Natolia flow into the Black Sea. The *Halys*, or *Kisil-Ermak* ("Red River"), rises by 3 branches on the S. side of Mount Erdlik (an. *Argæus*), and flows by a tortuous course of about 500 m., first N.W., and subsequently N.E., into the Black Sea, where it is about as wide as the Seine at Paris. It is the largest river of Asia Minor; and, in ancient times, was considered the boundary between the Lydian and Median kingdoms, as well as a natural dividing line of the peninsula. (See *Herod.*, i. 74.) E. of the *Halys* is the *Iris* (now the *Jekil Ermak*), a much smaller river, rising in the N. range of the table-land, and flowing W. by N. past Tokat into the Black Sea, about 30 m. E. Samsoun (an. *Amisus*). In the N.W. part of Natolia is the large and celebrated river *Sangarius* (now *Sakaria*), the most important source of which is in the central plateau, about 60 m. S.S.W. Angora, lat. 39° 30' N., long. 32° 30' E. After receiving numerous tributaries, it turns northward, near the modern town of Eski-sheer (an. *Dorylaeum*), and flows into the Black Sea, about 50 m. W. by S. Ereklî. The three principal rivers flowing into the Archipelago are the *Caicus*, the *aurio turbidus Hermeus* of Virgil (*Georg.*, ii. 137.), now the *Sarabat*, the marshy *Caystros*, at the mouth of which was the "*Asia xupha* of Homer (*Il.*, ii. 470.), and the *Mæander* (now *Mendere*), by far the largest of the three, and celebrated in antiquity not only for the sinuosity of its course, and for the fertility of its valleys, and the number of flourishing cities on its banks. It rises by numerous sources in long. 30° 30' E., and takes a general course, W. by S., about 220 m. to its mouth, near the ruins of *Miletus*. The rivers on the S. side of the peninsula, are, with one or two exceptions, little more than brooks or mountain-torrents; and the *Odyneus*, the scene of the splendid pageant of Cleopatra, is at present only 160 ft. wide, and inaccessible to any but the smallest boats. (*Beaufort's Karamania*, p. 57.)

The geological formation of Natolia partakes in many parts of a volcanic character. The high region of Phrygia, called *marasmasium*, abounds with lava, and other substances, indicating the existence of igneous action at some previous period; earthquakes have frequently visited the W. part of the peninsula, and all but demolished *Laodicea*, *Apamea*, *Cibotus*, *Sardes*, and other cities of antiquity; and it has still numerous thermal and sulphureous springs. The most general formation, however, is of white limestone, bold cliffs of which rise in Karamania, from 600 ft. to 700 ft. perpendicularly from the sea, exhibiting the most curious contortions of strata. (*Beaufort*, p. 212, 213.) On the N. side of the peninsula the same description of strata prevails, covered with gypsum, and in the highest mountains serpentine is found alternating with the blue mountain-limestone. The marble of Asia Minor was extensively used by the wealthy Romans, in building their houses and villas. These mountains abound in mineral riches; copper is wrought to a considerable extent near Trebisond, Samsoun, and Siwas; and the region of the *Chalybes*

— servitium quoniam

Gens Chalybæm, dura patiens cultus in arvis
Tis tonant adflicti semper domus ignes mæant.

Vel. Plac. Arg., iv. 610.

is still an important mining district of the peninsula. Lead has been found in several places, though not wrought; but rock-salt is procured near Unlegh (an. *Bæa*), and exported in considerable quantities.

The climate of Natolia, owing to the varying elevation and different aspects of its surface, will admit of no general description. On the central plateau, the height of which (exclusive of mountains) varies from 2,800 to 2,900 ft. above the sea, it is cold, though salubrious, and snow lies, in many parts, for 2 or 3 months of winter; but, in July and August, the heat is often intense, and rendered more oppressive by the tendency of the sandy surface to absorb heat. On the W. shores the climate is genial, and the soil very productive; but in some parts, as at Smyrna and elsewhere, epidemics are prevalent, and the plague often makes great ravages among the pop. The heat in July is stated by Mr. Addison to range from 84° to 94° Fah. in the shade; rain seldom falls, though the want of it is, in some measure, compensated by heavy dews. (*Damascus and Palmyra*, i. 320, 321.) The climate on the N. side is far more temperate, and rain is frequent. The soil on the coasts is tolerably fertile, producing wheat, olives, rice, millet, and other grains; but tillage is much neglected, irrigation and the manuring of land being little practised. The N. shores are covered with forests of oak, ash, larch, beech trees, &c., furnishing abundant supplies of timber for the Turkish navy. The mountains of Karamania

are covered principally with pines. Large flocks of sheep and goats graze on the lofty plains of the interior; their wool and hair forming an important article of commerce between Angora and Smyrna.

Natolia is under a pasha or military governor, to whom are subject the respective begierbegs of Anadol, Karamania, Marash, Siwas, and Trebizond, the country being further subdivided into 17 sandjaks. The fixed population consists principally of Turks and Greeks, with smaller numbers of Armenians and Jews; besides whom there are nomadic tribes, both Kurds and Turcomans, employed partly in pastoral, but partly also in marauding occupations. (For further particulars see TURKEY.)

Natolia, which was first called simply Asia, afterwards *ἡ ἀσία Ἀσία*, to distinguish it from that more to the E. *ἡ ἀσία Ἀ.*, was called *Asia propria* or *proconularia*, by the Romans, and did not receive its appellation of *Asia Minor* earlier than the time of Orosius, in the beginning of the 5th century. With respect to the original inhabits of this celebrated peninsula, we have little information on which any can be placed; but there is reason to believe that the Phœnicians had settlements, at a very early period, on its S. and W. coasts, and that there were frequent emigrations to it from Thrace, as well as Thessaly, soon after the Trojan war. The great Ionian migration (composed of colonists from Attica and Achæa) took place *anno* 1180 B.C.; and, about 90 years afterwards a colony of Dorians, from Megara, Troezen, and Argos, settled on the S.W. coast, a little S. of those last mentioned.

Subsequently to the establishment of these Greek colonies, and during the period of the Lydian monarchy, (which lasted from a period of obscure antiquity down to the overthrow of Croesus by Cyrus, B.C. 565.) Asia Minor was overrun successively by large bodies of Cimærians and Scythians, who, however, though they penetrated as far as Lydia, and took Sardes, were unable to secure a permanent footing in the country. (Herod., i. 15.) The numerous revolutions, indeed, caused both by conquest and colonisation are sufficiently attested by the statement of Herodotus, that the peninsula, between four and five centuries prior to the Christian era, comprised 30 different nations (*ἔθνη*). At the fall of the Lydian kingdom Asia Minor was formed into 4 satrapies, belonging to the Medo-Persian empire, under which it remained upwards of two centuries, though the interior of the country, inhabited by nomadic tribes, was never fully subdued. Notwithstanding the oppressions of the provincial governors, and their occasional struggles with the "Great King," the Greek colonists continued to flourish, and they gradually spread themselves northward, along the Euxine Sea, as far as Trepezus (now Trabzon) and southward, on the shores of the Mediterranean to the Gulf of Issus, everywhere distinguishing themselves by their industry and commercial activity. In refinement, also, and the cultivation of the arts, they were at least equal, if not superior, to their European brethren; at all events, if Asia Minor have not given birth to great warriors and statesmen, she may justly boast of the all but unrivalled excellence of her poets, historians, philosophers, sculptors, architects, and musicians. In poetry she lays claim to Hesiod, Sappho, Alcaeus, and Nicander; in philosophy to Thales, Pythagoras, Anaxagoras, Bias, and Pittacus; and in history to Hecæatus, Hellanicus, Herodotus, Ctesias, and Dionysius of Halicarnassus. The Macedonian succeeded the Persian dominion *anno* 331 B.C.; from which time, during nearly two centuries, Asia Minor was subject to many vicissitudes consequent on the changing fortunes of Alexander's successors and their descendants, as well as the formation of several minor kingdoms (as Pontus, Bithynia, &c.) under native princes. During the century immediately preceding the Christian era the various parts of the peninsula fell, one by one, into the hands of the Romans, under whom it formed a proconsulship; and it attained, during their dominion, not only its most uniform and settled, but also its most prosperous state; a fact sufficiently proved by the number of large cities built or embellished, and the great works undertaken and completed, during the earlier period of the empire. The decline of the Roman power exposed the peninsula to fresh invasions from the E.; and at the commencement of the 6th century the Mohammedans began to settle themselves on its E. borders. At the period of the first crusade they had spread over almost the whole peninsula, and reduced it to a state in many respects similar to that in which we find it at the present day, except that it was more populous. It was ravaged by the crusaders in the 12th and 13th centuries, and was overrun by the Tartar hordes under Timour after the battle of Angora (1402 A.D.); but neither produced any permanent effect on the condition of the population. (Leake's *Asia Minor*, p. 1—144; Cramer's *Asia Minor*, *passim*; Geog. Journ., vi. x.)

NAUMBURG, a town of Prussian Saxony, distr. of its own name, on the Saale, 25 m. S. Halle, and 26 m. S.W. Leipzig; lat. 51° 8' N., long. 11° 54' E. Pop. 12,000. It is situated in a fertile vale, and is tolerably well built, having several good and wide streets, with 3 suburbs. Its principal public buildings are the citadel, town-hall, and arsenal, a noble Gothic cathedral, 5 Calvinistic churches, 2 orphan asylums, 6 hospitals, a poor-house, gymnasium, and trade-school. It is the seat of a superior and ordinary tribunal for the circle, a council for do., and board of taxation. It has manufactures of woollen cloths, hosiery, and shoes, and large chemical works. The 2 annual fairs of Naumburg were formerly much celebrated, but have recently declined in importance. Naumburg is celebrated in history as having been besieged in 1483 by the Hussites, under Procopius. This general, irritated by the resistance of the inhab., made a vow to put them all to the sword, but was deterred from his purpose by the earnest supplications of the children of the town, who came out in procession and threw themselves at his feet. The anniversary of this event (called the *Kindersfest*, or "Children's Fête," is still celebrated on the 25th July, and has furnished Kotzebue with the subject of one of his plays (*Von Zedlitz, Naumburg*, *Pruss. Staat*, iii. 325; *Berghaus*; *Murray's Hand-book of N. Germ.*, p. 352.)

NAUPLIA, or NAPOLI DI ROMANIA, a city and sea-port of independent Greece, on the E. side of the Morea, at the extremity of the bay of its own name, 5 m. S.E. Argos, 56 m. W. S.W. Athens; lat. 37° 23' 50" N., long. 22° 47' 30" E. Pop., acc. to Burgess, 16,000. The town, which stands on the N.E. side of a hill, with a tabular summit, and is built in the form of an amphitheatre, has been greatly enlarged and improved since the war of independence.

"Nauplia," says Mr. Burgess, the most recent traveller in Greece, "has no longer any similarity to its former internal appearance (which was that of a filthy and miserable Turkish town). The features of the Palamidi rock, the heights of Itchall, the low coast sweeping round by Tyrius and the Lernean marsh, with citadel of Argos rising out of the plain, the mountainous shores flanking the E. part, and the headlands jutting beyond the reach of the naked eye, must endure as long as the landscape remains undisturbed; but every thing that man and his institutions can change is now changed at Nauplia." (i. 186.) It now comprises several wide streets, regularly laid out, and lined with good houses, in the European style; some of which, for size and elegance, might pass, in Greece, for minor palaces. The principal public buildings, besides the churches (one of which belongs to the R. Catholics), are a royal palace, formerly the residence of Count Capo d'Istria, a new court of justice, called the *Boulevard*, an arsenal, garrison, occupied by Bavarian troops. The shops are well stored with provisions, and other articles; and there are numerous cafés about the port, and in the chief thoroughfares. A quay faces the harbour, which is commanded by the ancient Fort Palamed, one of the strongest castles in Greece; at its foot is a stone aqueduct, from which the town is well supplied with water. Nauplia possesses one of the largest government dockyards in Greece, and extensive storehouses. Its trade is very considerable, the principal exports being oil, wine, garrigue, wax, silk, wool, and cotton; while the imports comprise corn, manufactured and colonial goods, with timber, &c. The commerce is principally carried on in Greek bottoms. In 1836 there arrived 86 vessels of 6,096 tons, and 58 vessels of 3,738 tons left the port in the same year. The roadstead of Nauplia is W. of the town, in 8 and 9 fathoms; but within the harbour there are only 24 fathoms, and in entering it is necessary to keep in mid-channel, to avoid a shoal of 6 ft. water.

Nauplia is, in comparison with the rest of Greece, well provided with literary establishments. They comprise a military academy, a school for the middle classes, circulating library, several book societies, two lithographic establishments, and five printing-houses, one of which is the property of the government, and exclusively employed in printing their official paper. The *Zavri*, or "Saviour," a political and literary newspaper, is published here in Greek and French, and has a wide circulation. The pop. of Nauplia comprises a considerable number of Germans, French, and Italians; a considerable number of the latter are engaged in commerce, and the rate of living is not much cheaper than at Paris or Naples. The climate is unhealthy, owing to the miasma from the neighbouring marshes in summer, and the cold searching N.E. winds that prevail during winter: the town has likewise been frequently ravaged by the plague.

The ancient Nauplia was the port and arsenal of Argos during the flourishing period of Grecian history; but it was deserted and in ruins when visited by Pausanias, who noticed the vestiges of its walls and docks (*Ἰσθμίου*), the temple of Neptune, and a fountain called Canathus, still existing. The inhabs. had been expelled several centuries before by the Argives, on suspicion of having favoured the Spartans, who in consequence received them into their territory, and established them at Methone in Messenia. The town revived under the Byzantine em-

C c 4

perors, and was occupied in the 13th century by the Venetians, who made it their chief settlement in the Morea. It was taken by Sultan Solymán in 1687, but was soon afterwards recovered; nor did the Venetians finally lose possession of it till the treaty of Passarowitz in 1718 secured it to the Porte, which retained it down to the close of the war of independence. Nauplia was the seat of the new government from 1829 to 1834, when it was transferred to Athens. (*Burgess's Greece and the Levant*, i. 185—186.; *Leake's Morea*, ii. 355—361.; *Off. Rep.*; *Journ. of Educ.*, vol. ix., &c.)

NAVAN, an inland town of Ireland, prov. Leinster, co. Meath, at the confluence of the Blackwater with the Boyne, 26 m. N. by W. Dublin. Pop., in 1831, 4,416, and, including its suburbs, about 5,600. It has a parish church, a Rom. Cath. chapel, a convent, an endowed grammar-school, a national school, a preparatory Rom. Cath. college, with a chapel, court-house, bridewell, fever hospital, the infirmary for the co., and cavalry barracks. At one end of the town is a large rath or mote. Owing to the opening of the Boyne navigation to Drogheda, Navan has become a place of considerable trade, especially for all sorts of agricultural produce, sent principally to Drogheda, but partly also to Dublin. It has also 3 corn or flour mills, 2 distilleries, and a tannery. The old corporation sent 3 mems. to the Irish H. of C. till the Union, when it was disfranchised. Markets on Wednesdays; fairs on Easter and Trinity Monday, the 2d Monday in Sept., and the 1st Monday in Dec. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 602*l.*, in 1836, 664*l.* (*Railway Rep.*; *Mun. Boundary Rep.*).

NAVARINO, a town and sea-port of indep. Greece, on the S.W. coast of the Morea, 136 m. S.W. Athens, and 92 m. S. by W. Patras; lat. 36° 52' 15" N., long. 21° 41' E. Pop., 3,000. It stands on the S. side of a fine semicircular bay of the same name, and is surrounded by walls, and defended by a strong citadel, placed on a lofty rock. Streets narrow, steep, and irregular, lined with small, mean-looking houses, chiefly of stone cemented with mud, and encumbered in many places with the fallen ruins of former habitations. At the opposite extremity of the bay are the remains of Navarino Vecchio, consisting of a fort covering the summit of the hilly peninsula of *Coryphasium*, on the S. slope of which once stood the ancient *Fylas*. The long rocky island of Sphagia (an. *Sphaciatia*) stretches about 1/2 m. from N. to S. across the mouth of the bay, forming a kind of natural breakwater for its protection from the heavy seas that would otherwise be thrown in from the W. The entrance is at the S. side of the island, and the bay is one of the finest asylums for shipping in the Mediterranean. It has water to float the largest ships, and good holding ground. Ships usually moor about 1/2 m. from the modern town, or behind the island of Marathonis, near the centre of the harbour. The circular lagoon, on the N. side of the harbour, directly E. of Navarino Vecchio, abounds with fish; but, as it is not mentioned either by Thucydides or Pausanias, it is probably of modern formation.

The ancient *Fylas*, one of those towns that claimed to be the birthplace of Nestor (called by Homer Νῆστωρ ἄστυ), was deserted by its inhab. after the Messenian war. When the town was restored, we have no information; but in the time of Pausanias, it was inhabited, and comprised among other monuments, a temple of Minerva Coryphasia, and a monument of Nestor. (See *Paus. Mess.* 36., quoted by *Leake*, i. 413.) The island of Sphaciatia, which Thucydides (iv. 35—38.) has described as "desert, pathless, and covered with wood" (ἄσπετος καὶ ὄρεσι περιεσπασμένη), is celebrated in the history of the Peloponnesian war as having been occupied by the Lacedæmonians after the defeat of their fleet by the Athenians, under Demosthenes. They were detained here during 72 days, and were at length compelled to give themselves up as prisoners, and to surrender their fleet in pledge of their fidelity to their engagement. The battle which decided this blockade took place in the bay of *Fylas*, or Navarino, which has also obtained celebrity in modern times, during the late war of independence, for the decisive victory gained (Oct. 20. 1827) by the combined fleets of England, France, and Russia, under Sir E. Codrington, over the Turco-Egyptian fleet, commanded by Ibrahim Pacha. Notwithstanding the great preponderance of force and science on the part of the allies, the Turco-Egyptian fleet made an obstinate resistance, but in the end it was almost totally destroyed. A convention was soon after entered into, by which the Turks agreed to evacuate the Morea; and this battle finally led to the acknowledgment by the Porte of the independence of Greece, in the treaty of Adrianople, in 1829. (*Leake's Morea*, i. 400—418.; *Gall's Morea*, pp. 19—23., &c.)

NAVARRE (Sp. *Navarra*), a portion of Spain forming a dependent kingdom under that monarchy, on the N.E. side of that peninsula, between lat. 41° 57' and 43° 18' N. and long. 0° 41' and 2° 25' W.; being bounded N. by France and the Pyrenees, E. by Aragon, S. by Old Castile, and W. by the Basque provs. Greatest length

from S.W. to N.E., 75 m.; breadth, about 50 m. Estimated area, 2,440 sq. m. Pop., 371,380. The surface consists in a great measure of subordinate mountain ranges, running southward from the main ridge of the Pyrenees; but the S. part of the prov., near the Ebro, has some extensive and fruitful valleys. The principal summits within the limits of the prov. are Altobiscar, 5,380 ft. high; Adi, 5,218 ft.; and 3 others rising above 3,000 ft. from the sea. The highest points of the Pyrenees, however, are considerably to the E. in the kingdom of Aragon. The principal passes over the Pyrenees from Navarre into France are, proceeding eastward, those of Verra, Maya, and Roncesvalles, the last of which is, according to Bory St. Vincent, 5,771 ft. above the sea. The mountains are chiefly of transition and secondary formation, consisting in a great measure of the rock called Pyrenean limestone. Jasper and marbles, also, occur in large beds; and there are several iron-mines, besides one of copper. Rock-salt is quarried at Valtierra, near the Ebro; and the yearly returns, according to Miñano, amount to 12,000 arrobas; the prov., also, comprises numerous thermal springs. Principal rivers, the Aragon, Zidacos, and Arga, uniting their waters in one channel, which falls into the Ebro opposite Alfaro: the only river flowing into the bay of Biscaya is the Ebro, which rises in the mountains, forming the Val de Bastan, and has a course E.N.E. of about 45 m., falling into the sea near Fuencaballera. The climate of the mountainous districts is very severe in winter, and not genial even in summer; but in the valleys of the Ebro and Aragon the temperature is much higher, and the climate delightful, as well as healthy. The forest trees of the Pyrenees consist chiefly of the pine, large quantities of which are sent down the Ebro to Zaragosa and other places; but there are also considerable numbers of beeches, deciduous oaks, chestnut-trees, &c.; and no prov. furnishes so good a supply as Navarre of useful building timber. (*Cook's Sketches*, ii. 386.) The wild animals of the mountains are wolves, wild boars, foxes, and wild cats; game is abundant in every part of the prov. Pasturage is extensively followed, especially in the N. districts; and, according to Miñano, the stock at the last general census included 43,636 oxen, 4,616 calves, 27,760 mules, 639,560 sheep, 69,500 goats, and 31,760 hogs; the produce of wool being estimated at 565,000 arrobas (12,600 cwts.). The higher parts of the mountains on the frontiers of France, is bleak, cold, and unsuitable for tillage; but the plains near the Ebro have a rich productive soil, well watered by numerous streamlets connected with the larger rivers. The principal crops are wheat, maize, barley, and oats. Hemp and flax are also raised, with oil and wine. About the half of the latter, with the greater part of the wool, and about 30,000 bushels of corn are exported chiefly to France in return for silk and cotton fabrics, colonial produce, &c. Cyder is made in the Val de Bastan, and liquors are raised in the S. districts for exportation. Agriculture, however, is much neglected, and was recently rendered almost futile, in consequence of this part of the peninsula being the scene of the civil war between the adherents of the present queen and Don Carlos. Manufactures are also inconsiderable, including only those that are most indispensable, and some distilleries. The intercourse with the adjoining provs. is maintained partly by the canal of Aragon, running from Tudela to Zaragosa, and partly, also, by roads intersecting the country in various directions; the great road from Pampluna to Madrid is directed by Captain Cook, and other recent travellers, to be little inferior to the modern roads of England.

The kingdom of Navarre is still governed by its separate laws, and has, nominally at least, the same constitution which it enjoyed when it was a separate monarchy; but its cortes, or estates, have not met since 1713, and cannot be convoked without the authority of a council of regency. The cortes, representing the cortes, sits permanently at Pampluna, decides on the method of raising the revenue, fixes the tariff, and exercises other commercial privileges. The supreme power is vested in the viceroys, who presides at the royal council (*Consejo Real*), consisting of 6 judges, an attorney-general, and 4 *alcaldes*: this is the highest tribunal for civil and criminal causes. The inhabs. of Navarre are tall, and strongly built, resembling the Basqueans in independence of spirit, attachment to their religion, and jealousy of their ancient national privileges. Castilian is the general language of Navarre; but the Basque is spoken in the N. and W. districts.

Navarre is divided into 17 *partidos*, which are again subdivided into 74 *merindades*, or districts; and the kingdom comprises 9 cities, the principal of which are Pampluna, the cap. and seat of government (pop. 15,000), Tudela (5,160), the once royal city of Olite (3,000), and Estella, the stronghold of the Carlists during the late war (4,500).

The inhabs. of Navarre, in the time of the Romans,

were called *Vascones*, in common with those in the neighbouring parts of the peninsula, and were faithful subjects of the empire till the close of the 6th century, when they were subdued by the Visigoths, under whose sway they remained between 300 and 300 years. The Arabs overran the country in the 8th century; but were unable to effect its conquest. Inigo, Count of Bigorre, having been elected king in the 9th century, the crown remained upwards of 5 centuries in his family, till in 1590 it became united, through intermarriage, with that of France, the title of whose monarchs, from the time of Henry IV. (with the exception of Napoleon), to that of Charles X., was "King of France and Navarre." In 1512, however, Ferdinand of Aragon united all the country S. of the Pyrenees to the crown of Spain; so that only the small portion N. of that chain remained annexed to the French monarchy: this formed the prov. of Béarn before the Revolution, and is at present included in the dépt. of the Lower Pyrenees. (*Cook's Sketches in Spain*, i. 118-122; ii. 286; *Milano; Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

NAXIA (an. *Naxos*), an island of the Grecian Archipelago, the largest of the group called the Cyclades, about 5 m. E. Paros, the cap. of the same name being in lat. 37° 7' N., long. 32° 2' E. Shape, oval: circuit, about 48 m.; area, 106 sq. m. Pop. according to Burgess, 18,000. The coast is much indented and precipitous, especially on the N.E. side; and the surface is very uneven, comprising several high mountains of primitive formation, on which are superimposed strata of grauwacké and mountain limestone: the culminating point of the island, anciently called the hill of Zeus (3,310 ft. high), is still called *Zia*: it attained some celebrity from its containing a cavern, grotto, to which, according to tradition, the Bacchantes came to celebrate their mysteries and festivals. Emery is wrought in one part of the island; and, according to Dr. Clarke, almost all the emery of commerce comes from Naxia. Large flocks of sheep feed on the mountain sides; but both their wool and flesh are of inferior quality.

Naxia has few large trees, but is pretty thickly covered with lemon trees, myrtles, oleanders, thorny brooms, the arbutus and labdanum plant, *asacetylus gnosmiferus*, the produce of which is claimed by the natives, and various kinds of leguminous plants. Besides the olive, fig, and vine, which are extensively cultivated. The wine, however, though characterised by Athenæus as the "nectar of the gods," is now of very indifferent quality, owing to the want of care in its preparation. The oil, also, is inferior to that produced in most of the other islands. The island was famous in antiquity for its fertility; but agriculture is now so much neglected that the corn raised is sufficient only for six months' consumption of the inhab. Vegetables, however, are so abundant, that considerable quantities are sent to Syra. (*Burgess*, ii. 21.) Lime juice also is exported, chiefly to Russia. In the S. of the island is a small salt-pen, from which the cap. is supplied with salt. The island abounds with game; and field-sports constitute a favourite occupation of the inhab.

Naxia, the cap. of the island, occupies an eminence close to the sea on the W. coast (which is the only part accessible to shipping), and has 4,000 inhab. Its narrow streets lined with dilapidated houses, exhibit a profusion of marble; and there is scarcely a dwelling in which there are not ancient inscriptions or other monuments. A castle, built by the Venetians, occupies the summit of a hill above the town. The principal remains of the ancient Naxos are a gate belonging to a temple of Bacchus, on a lofty crag, an aqueduct, and a jetty now under water, but still distinguishable in calm weather. It is the residence of a Greek and Latin archbishop, and there are several churches and convents belonging to both religions. The harbour of Naxia, called the Porto Saline, on account of the salt collected there, is exposed to the N. and N.W. winds, and being almost surrounded by hidden rocks, is unfit for the anchorage of large ships. The island comprises 40 villages; and there are numerous country-houses, forming the residences of the nobles and gentry.

Naxos (which, according to Pliny, was called at different times Strongyle, Dia, Dionysias, and Callipolis), was probably first colonised by Carians. The Naxians were among the most steadfast opponents of Persian aggression, and the failure of the expedition undertaken by the Persians against this island at the suggestion of Aristagoras, led to the revolt of the Ionian states. Soon afterwards, Naxos was conquered by the Persian fleet under Datis and Artaphernes, who destroyed the city and enslaved its inhab. (*Herod.* v. 28. vi. 96.) The Naxians, however, had sufficiently recovered 7 years afterwards to enable them to furnish 4 well-equipped triremes for the fleet at Salamis. The Athenians, even in the time of Pisistratus, claimed them as colonial dependents; and, after the Persian war, they deprived them of their liberty. Naxos was celebrated in ancient mythology for the worship of Bacchus, who is alleged to have been born in the

island. It became tributary to the Romans after the fall of Corinth, 146 B.C., but was ceded by Mark Antony to the Rhodians after the battle of Philippi. The island was afterwards annexed to the possessions of the eastern empire, and subsequently became the possession of the Venetians, and the cap. of a dukedom which embraced most of the other Cyclades. At length, in the reign of Selim II. (A.D. 1570), it was united to the Ottoman empire. The Turks, however, allowed the inhab. to retain their ancient laws and government, contenting themselves with occasionally sending a *seaword* to collect the land-tax and customs. It now forms a part of the new kingdom of Greece. (*Tournefort*, i. 208-221; *Burgess*, ii. 21; *Cramer's Greece*, iii. 468; *Clarke's Greece*, &c., vi. 20-113.)

NAZARETH, or NASSARA, a small town of European Turkey, in the pashalic of Acre, celebrated as having been the residence, during his youth, of the founder of Christianity, 17 m. E.S.E. Acre, and 70 m. N. by E. Jerusalem. Pop. 3,000, of whom 500 are Turks, and the rest Christians. It stands on the W. slope of a delightful valley, encompassed by rocky mountains of no great height, which rise round it like the edge of a shell, as if to guard it from intrusion. The houses are wretched stone cottages, with mud floors and roofs; nor does it comprise anything worthy of notice, except a Latin church and convent, with two other churches, belonging respectively to the Maronites and Greek Catholics. The Turks also have a mosque, erected at the beginning of the present century. The Latin convent, belonging to the missionaries of the Terra Santa, at the E. end of the village, is a spacious and commodious building of stone, surrounded by high walls, which enclose church, cells for the friars, and extensive accommodation for pilgrims and travellers. The church, called that of the Annunciation, is an ill-proportioned and gaudily ornamented building, said to occupy the spot where, according to tradition, the house of Joseph and Mary stood before its miraculous removal to Loretto. The columns and interior walls are hung round with silk damask, and there are two tolerably good organs. Beneath the high altar is the descent to a subterranean cave, in which the Virgin is said to have lived, and which is divided into small grottoes, pointed out as her parlour, bed-room, &c. There are also two granite columns, each 3 ft. 1 in. in diameter, and about 3 ft. apart, which are supposed to occupy the very places where the Angel and the Virgin stood at the precise moment of the Annunciation. The innermost pillar is broken through, above the pedestal, and, although it touches the roof, it is represented to be self-supported in the air. "The fact, however," says Dr. Clarke, "that the capital, and a piece of the shaft of a grey granite pillar, have been fastened on to the roof of the cave, so clumsily, also, is the rest of the *hocus-pocus* contrived, that what is shown for the lower fragment of the same pillar is not of the same substance, but of Cipolino marble." (*Travels in Greece and the Holy Land*, iv. 170.) It was formerly the custom of the sick, during the prevalence of the plague, to resort thither for the purpose of rubbing themselves against the pillars, believing thus to obtain a certain cure; but, within the last few years, a railing has been formed to exclude the patients, who, however, still flock round in hopes of relief from being in its immediate vicinity. Different interesting localities are pointed out to the pilgrims, such as Joseph's workshop, enclosed in a small chapel, the synagogue in which Christ explained the celebrated passage of Isaiah (*Luke*, iv. 16-22), the table on which Jesus ate his last meal previously to his final departure for Jerusalem; and even the precipice, or "brow of the hill," to which they led him, "that they might cast him down headlong." (*Luke*, iv. 29.) Here, however, as at Jerusalem, fancy, and the desire of imposing on the credulity of the devotees, have had more of a greater share in fixing these localities, than any regard for authenticity.

The chamber containing the fictitious *mensa Christi* is the favourite resort of all pilgrims, Turks as well as Christians; and to Rom. Catholics, who say the Paternoster and Ave Maria in it, the pope grants a plenary indulgence of seven years! The present inhabs. of Nazareth are, with the exception of a few weavers, employed in rural pursuits. Corn is raised abundantly in the neighbourhood, especially by the monks of Terra Santa, who are the chief farmers; and a small portion of it is sent to Acre, which is the chief source of supply for the town. The pasturage of cattle and goats, also, is extensively pursued, from the milk of which is made a large quantity of butter and cheese, both of indifferent quality. (*Turner's Levant*, ii. 130.)

Nazareth is not mentioned in the Old Testament; it was a city of the tribe of Zebulun, and afterwards of the N. portion of Palestine, called Galilee, and was held in so little esteem by the Jews of Jerusalem as to give rise to the exclamation, "Can any good thing come out of Nazareth?" (*John*, i. 46.); it owes its entire celebrity to the circumstance of having been the resi-

dance of Jesus Christ almost from his birth to the commencement of his ministrations. Here the angel Gabriel announced to the Virgin the approaching birth of the Saviour; thither the holy family returned 33 days after his birth at Bethlehem; and during his infancy spent in the house of Joseph the carpenter "the child grew and waxed strong in spirit, filled with wisdom, and increasing in favour with God and man." (*Luke*, ii. 40, 52.) Christ preached here "the acceptable year of the Lord," immediately after the temptation; and found from the unfavourable manner in which he was received, that "no prophet is accepted in his own country." His hearers were filled with wrath, rose up, thrust him out of the city, and led him to a precipice to destroy him; but he passing through the midst of them, went his way (*Luke*, iv. 28-30.); and thenceforward Capernaum seems to have been his general residence, though there can be little doubt that he occasionally visited Nazareth to see his mother, and the members of her family. (*Clarke's Travels in Greece and the Holy Land*, iv. 164-183; *Turner's Levant*, ii. 129-132; *Robinson's Palestine*, i. 208-209; *Mod. Trav.*; *Calmer's Dict.* ad vocem.) NEAGH (LOUGH) a lake of Ireland, the largest in the United Kingdom, in the centre of the prov. of Ulster, having N. and E. the co. of Antrim, S.E. Down, by which it is merely touched, S. Armagh, W. Tyrone, and N.W. Londonderry. It is about 17 m. in length, by about 9 m. in breadth; occupying, inclusive of Lough Beg (2,551 acres), which is joined to it, an area of 61,626 Irish, or 99,824 statute acres, at ordinary high-water-mark. (*Third Report of Commissioners on Irish Bogs*.) It is fed by several rivers of considerable magnitude, while the Lower Bann is the only channel through which its affluent waters find a passage to the sea. Though by far the largest, it is by no means the most beautiful of the Irish lakes. Its shores consist mostly either of a level strand, or marshy border, liable to frequent floods; and are of course deficient in those varied banks, and bold promontories, without which such extensive sheets of water want picturesque effect, except when their uniformity is broken by islands; and of these there are only two small and uninteresting ones in this lake. Frequent squalls and want of shelter render its navigation rather dangerous for sailing vessels; but these inconveniences will most probably be obviated by the introduction of steam packets. According to Mr. Sampson (*Survey of Londonderry*, p. 118.), the mean level of Lough Neagh is about 39 ft. above that of the sea; and it is said that nearly 10,000 acres of land contiguous to its banks, now annually flooded, might be made available for agricultural purposes, by the outlay of a moderate sum on the removal of some obstructions in the channel of the Lower Bann. Its waters are celebrated for their purifying quality. (*Statistical Account of British Empire*, ii. 337.)

NEATH, or NEDD (the an. *Nidum* of Antonine's Itin.), a parl. and mun. bor. market-town, and par. of S. Wales, co. Glamorgan, and hund. its own name, on the Neath (crossed here by a stone bridge), 7 m. E.N.E. Swansea, and 159 m. W. by N. London. Pop. of parl. bor., in 1831, 4,043. The town, situated in a picturesque valley on the E. side of the river, is "indifferent in appearance: the streets are narrow, and badly paved; there are few good houses, and the place is only partially lighted with gas. The cottages of the poor extend irregularly beyond the town, particularly on the Cardiff road." (*Mun. Bound. Report*.) The town-hall is a handsome modern building, the lower part of which is used for a corn-market; a church, with a lofty square tower, and six places of worship for dissenters, are the only other public edifices. There are two national schools, two Sunday-schools, and two infant schools.

Neath is situated in the immediate vicinity of an extensive copper, iron, and coal district, and it depends in a great measure on the great smelting-houses and foundries that have been established round it, chiefly on the W. bank of the river. "The commerce of Neath is very considerable, and has been steadily increasing for some years; but though vessels of 300 tons can get up to the town, the trade is generally carried on by barge-communication with Britten Ferry, which is about 2½ m. lower down the river, and is connected with Neath by a canal running northward, 12 m. higher up the valley. By Britton Ferry in fact, Neath acts as the vent of all the mineral districts connected with the vale. Another canal joins the last mentioned at Aber-dulais, and terminates in a sea-lock and basin on the E. side of Swansea harbour. The exports are coal, culm, copper, iron, iron castings, fire-bricks, oak bark and timber; the imports comprising copper and iron ore, corn and flour, foreign timber, black-jack, and general shop-goods." (*Parl. Bound. Rep.*)

Neath is a bor. by prescription, and has been governed since the Municipal Reform Act by a mayor and 3 other aldermen, with 12 councillors: it has also a commission of the peace under a recorder. Before the Reform Act, Neath was a contributory bor. to Cardiff; that Act an-

nexed it, with Aberavon, Kenfig, and Loughor, to Swansea, which sends 1 mem. to the H. of C. As the same time the electoral limits were so enlarged as to include with the old bor., that portion of the suburbs on the W. side of the river. Registered electors of Neath in 1832—40, 174; ditto, of entire bor., 1247. Neath is also one of the polling-places at elections for the co.; and the petty sessions for the hund. are held here, as well as the quarter sessions alternately with 3 other towns. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday; fairs, July 3, Sept. 12, and the first Thursday after Trinity Sunday.

About 1 m. from the town, on the low ground bordering the river, are the ruins of Neath Abbey, founded by Richard de Granville in the 12th century; the church is a mere heap of ruins; but the chapter-house, a curious specimen of early English architecture, is still in tolerable preservation; and foundations of buildings may be traced to a considerable distance. (*Parl. Rep.*; *Nicholson's Cambrian Guide*.)

NEGAPATAM, a decayed town of Hindoostan, presid. Madras, distr. Tanjore, and the residence of the British collector for the district, on the shore of the Bay of Bengal, 162 m. S. by E. Madras. The European town, which was formerly the cap. of the Dutch possessions in the Carnatic, now scarcely exists, Negapatam being seldom resorted to, except by ships, for water and provisions, both of which are plentiful. The native town is tolerably extensive and regular, and on its N. side is a remarkable tower 80 ft. high, the origin of which is unknown, but which is very useful as a landmark. The anchoring ground here is about 3 m. from shore. Negapatam was taken by the English in 1781. (*Hamilton's E. I. Ges.*)

NEGOMBO (*Nagambhu* "the land of serpents.") A sea-port town of Ceylon, on the W. coast of that island, 90 m. N. Colombo, and beside the canal, from the latter city to Calpentin. Lat. 7° 11' N.; long. 79° 44'. It has a small fort, and several ranges of European buildings; and is principally inhabited by Dutch families in reduced circumstances, attracted thither by the cheapness of provisions, and the salubrity of the climate.

NEGROPONTE, or EGRIPO (an. *Euboea*), a long, straggling island of the Grecian Archipelago, lying close to the E. coast of Indep. Greece, and forming with the Sporades, a separate nomarchy of its own name. Length, 110 m.; breadth, from 5 to 26 m., the widest part being measured from Chalcis to C. Kili: area, 1,480 sq. m. Pop., in 1836, 60,000. Euboea is very similar in its mountainous character and geological constitution to the neighbouring continent, from which it seems to have been separated by some sudden convulsion of nature. Grey limestone and clay-slate are the chief stratifications, and there are clear indications both of old and more recent volcanic action. The whole country is bold and rugged, with a bluff coast, especially on its E. side, which is dangerous to navigators; the highest points of the mountain-range, proceeding from N. to S., through the island, are Mount Lithada, 2,837 ft. high; Mount Kandili, 2,967 ft.; Mount Delphi (an. *Derphossus*), 2,725 ft., and St. Elias d'Oro (an. *Oeko*). The soil of the slopes near the shore is very fertile, but only imperfectly cultivated. The orange, citron, almond, and other trees peculiar to the climate of Greece, grow abundantly on the lowlands; while the chestnut, oak, and fir skirt the regions nearer the mountains. The staple produce of the N. part of the island consists of grapes, from which the farmers make large quantities of a thin red wine, very commonly drunk in Greece, and fetching, according to Colonel Leake, about 5 piastres per barrel. Corn and olives are raised chiefly in the S. districts; but the island has lost the character which it anciently held of being the granary of Greece. (*Comp. Thac.* i. 2, with *Herod.* v. 77.) Excellent herbage for grazing is found in the more elevated lands; but often are bred in for farming purposes. Sheep, however, are numerous, and of an excellent breed, furnishing large quantities both of wool and cheese.

The chief town and port of Euboea is Chalcis, or Egripos (lat. 38° 30' N., long. 23° 54' E.), on the Euripus, or channel of Talanti, where it is only 40 yards wide, and crossed by a bridge, supposed to have been erected by Mahmoud Pacha in 1462. Pop. 5,000. The town (which, according to Strabo, was founded by the Athenians before the Trojan war) is walled and strongly fortified, comprising numerous ancient fragments; but few of them are sufficiently large to be intelligible. It has also 2 tolerably good harbours, one of which on the N. side, though small, is deep, secure, and capable of containing many merchant ships. The only other town of Euboea is Carystus, or Castel Rosso, a fortified post near its S. extremity, with 3,000 inhabs. There are, also, numerous villages.

The most ancient name of Euboea was Macris; but it was also known, at different times, by the various appellations of Ocha, Ellopia, Asopia, and Abanti. Its inhabs., called Abantes by Homer, were among the earliest navigators of Greece, and, according to Herodotus,

joined the Ionian colonists on the coast of Asia Minor. (i. 146.) They also founded settlements at a very early period in Illyria, Sicily, and Campania. Soon after the expulsion of the Plataeans, the island became a dependency of Athens, but recovered its liberty, after a hard struggle, in the 21st year of the Peloponnesian war. It afterwards became attached to the Macedonian interests, and was taken by the Romans from Philip, the son of Demetrius. It then gradually declined in pop. and importance; and Pausanias alludes to its fallen state under the emperors. At the dismemberment of the Eastern empire by the Franks, the Venetians obtained possession of Euboea; but were expelled from it, in 1470, by the Turks, who held it till the formation of the new kingdom of Greece in 1829. (*Leake's N. Greece*, vol. ii.; *Dodwell*, li. 149—153.; *Cramer's Greece*, li. 128—135, &c.)

NEJIN, a town of Russia in Europe, gov. Tchernigoff, cap. district, on the Oster, 400 m. S.W. Moscow, lat. 51° 2' 45" N., long. 31° 49' 45" E. Pop. 16,000. It is surrounded by a rampart, most of its houses are of stone, and it is one of the handsomest, best built towns of Little Russia. It has several churches, 2 convents, an hospital, and a grammar-school, founded by Prince Bezborodko. It produces silk, soap, leather, and preserves and liquors, the latter celebrated all over Russia. It is also the entrepôt of a considerable portion of the commerce carried on between the provinces on the Baltic and those on the Black Sea. Its merchants are principally Greeks, who enjoy certain peculiar privileges, but they are partly, also, Armenians and Jews. It has several well frequented fairs. (*Schmitzer, in Russia*, &c. p. 464.; *Dict. Geog.*)

NEILGERRY HILLS, or NEILOHERRIES, a collection of mountains of S. Hindostan. (*See MADRAS PASSAD*, p. 348.)

NEISSÉ, a fortified town of Prussian Silesia, reg. Oppeln, on the river Neisse, which divides the city into 2 parts, in a marshy district, 48 m. S.S.E. Breslau. Pop. in 1845, 16,325. It is, on the whole, well built, having been recently enlarged by Frederic II., who also constructed its best fortifications: it is entered by 3 gates, and comprises among its public buildings a large castle, a commandant's residence, district-hall, 7 Catholic and 3 Calvinist churches, extensive barracks, powder-mills and arsenals, 2 hospitals, 2 high schools, a Catholic gymnasium, a poor-school, and an asylum for poor Catholic clergy (called *domus emendatorum*). Neisse is the seat of a council for the circle, a tribunal for the principality, a board of taxation, and a consistory court: it has some printing establishments, manufactures of linen and woollen cloths, several distilleries, and a few good hotels. Large yearly fairs are also held here. (*Von Zedlitz; Newkirch; Preuss. Stat.*, lii. 122.; *Berghaus*, &c.)

NELLORÉ, a town of British India, presid. Madras, cap. distr. of same name, on the Pennar, 131 m. from the Bay of Bengal, and 100 m. N. by W. Madras. It was, in the last century, a fortress of considerable strength; and is still a populous and busy town, about 3 m. in length, full of shops well stocked with commodities, though without a single public or private building of note. The suburbs without the walls are large. The residence of the British collector, &c. is on an elevated ridge S. of the town. A curious discovery was made here in 1787, of a number of Roman gold coins and medals, enclosed in a small pot under the ruins of a Hindoo temple. Many had, unfortunately, been sold and melted; but about 30 were preserved, and found to be of the second century, mostly Trajans, Adrians, and Faustinas. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gazetteer; Madras Almanack*.)

NEMEA, an ancient town of Greece, famous for the games celebrated in its neighbouring grove, but now marked only by the modern village of Agio-Georgio, 12 m. S.W. Corinth, and 10 m. N. by W. Argos. The extant ruins of the town, or village (for Pausanias terms it merely a *vicos*), comprise fragments of a temple of Jupiter, a church, and a few blocks and broken Doric pillars, supposed to have formed parts of the tomb of Obolites. Of the temple "three columns only are standing, two of which, belonging to the space between the antæ, support their architrave. These columns are 4 ft. 6½ in. in diameter, and nearly 32 ft. high, exclusive of their capitals. The temple was hexastyle and peripteral, being supposed by Mr. Wilkins to have had 14 columns on the sides." The lower part of the walls, enclosing the cella, is complete, and the pillars, of which there are numerous fragments, have fallen in such regular order, that the temple appears to have been destroyed by an earthquake, rather than by the lingering and desultory decay of time. Mr. Dodwell says: "I have not seen in Greece any Doric temple, the columns of which are so slender, and the capitals so disproportionately small, as those of Nemea: the whole is of soft calcareous stone, and the columns are coated with a fine stucco." Sir W. Geil mentions, also, "that there are indications of the Nemean theatre at the foot of a neigh-

bouring hill; and probably vestiges of the stadium and hippodrome might be discovered by a search similar to that instituted at Herculaneum and Pompeii." (*Ilin. of Morea*, p. 159.)

Nemea was celebrated in mythical history as having been the scene of the first labour of Hercules in destroying the Nemean Lion; and the den of this animal was pointed out to travellers even in the time of Pausanias, near the end of the second century of the Christian era. The games are of doubtful origin; but the national mythology ascribes them to the respect entertained for the memory of Obolites or Archemorus, son of Lycurgus, a king of Nemea. They were celebrated in the grove of Molochus, and are thus alluded to by Statius (*Theb.* iv. 159.):—

Dot Nemean cœmitæ et quæ in prælia viris
Sæcra Clesæi cognant viscera Molochi.

With respect to the periods at which these festivals were celebrated, different accounts are given by the old writers; but the most consistent statement is, that they were celebrated triennially. In the Athenian month *Boedromion*, corresponding with the modern August. The Argives were the judges at these games, which comprised boxing and athletic contests, as well as chariot-races; and the conquerors were crowned with olive till the time of the Persian war, when, in consequence of the fact that the Argolic republic had sustained in that struggle for independence, smallage, a funeral plant, was introduced in its stead. It appears from Polybius and Livy (xxvii.30.), that the games were in a flourishing state in the reign of Philip, son of Demetrius, in the second century preceding the Christian era. It may be inferred, however, from the slight mention that Pausanias makes of the Nemean games, that they had in his time fallen into great neglect. (*Dodwell's Greece*, li. 208—210.; *Cramer's Ancient Greece*, lii. 285.; *Burgess's Greece*, l. 171—177.)

NEMI, a village and lake of Central Italy, Papal States, in the Comarca di Roma. The village on the N.E. bank of the Lago di Nemi is 12 m. N.E. Albano, and 16 m. S.E. Rome. Nemi, so called from the forest or *sæmus* by which it was anciently surrounded, was famous in antiquity for the worship of the Scythian Diana—*sæmus glaciale Trivium*—to whom human sacrifices were offered. No remains that can with certainty be ascribed to the temple dedicated to the goddess are now to be met with. The Lago di Nemi is 922 ft. above the level of the sea; and is now, as of old, beautifully sequestered, and well entitled to its classical epithet of *Speculum Dianæ*. But its principal celebrity in modern times has been derived from the discovery at its bottom, in 1835, of the remains of a very large ship, 500 ft. in length, constructed by one of the early emperors, most probably for some of the *neumachia*, or sham sea-fights, exhibited on the lake. (*Gell's Rome and its Vicinity*, li. 112.; *Cramer's Ancient Italy*, 34.)

NÉMOURS, a small town of France, dép. Seine-et-Marne, cap. canton, on the Loing, 18 m. S. by E. Melun. Pop. in 1836, 3,635. It is surrounded by the river and the canal du Loing, and inclosed by walls. It is well built, and has a fine old castle, which now serves for several public institutions, including a public library of 10,000 vols.; several suburbs, a hospital, a small theatre, and a handsome bridge over the Loing. It has some large tanneries and leather factories, and a brisk trade in agricultural produce. The seignory of Nemours was given to the house of Orleans, by Louis XIV. (*Hugo, art. Seine-et-Marne*, &c.)

NENAGH, an Isl. town of Ireland, prov. Munster, co. Tipperary, near the Nenagh river, an affluent of the Shannon, within 4½ m. of that river, 82 m. W. S.W. Dublin. Pop. in 1841, 8,518. It is situated in a rich and fertile portion of the co., and was once defended by a strong castle, now in ruins. The principal streets are well and regularly built, and it is decidedly the best town between the cities of Dublin and Limerick. It has a church, a S. of which is a Methodist and Independent meeting-house, an endowed and a national school, a fever hospital, a dispensary, and a large infantry barracks. General sessions are held twice a year, and petty sessions weekly. It is a constabulary station. Its contiguity to the Shannon, or rather to its enlargement called Lough Dergh, gives it considerable advantages, and has made it a considerable market for corn and cattle. Markets on Thursdays; fairs on 24th April, 25th May, 4th July, 4th Sept., 10th Oct., and 1st Nov. Post-office revenue in 1830, 388.; in 1836, 1,026½. Branches of the Agricultural and National Banks were opened in 1834-5. (*Railway Rep.* &c.)

NEOT'S (ST.), a market-town and par. of England, hund. Toelaland, co. Huntingdon, on the Ouse (crossed here by a handsome stone bridge), 8 m. S.S.W. Huntingdon, and 49 m. N. by W. London. Area of par. 4,750 acres. Pop. in 1831, 2,617. The town comprises 3 or 4 respectable streets, intersecting each other, with a large market-place. The church is a fine building in the perpendicular English style, with large windows of painted glass and an elegant tower 150 ft. high, at its W. end.

There are also 3 places of worship for Dissenters, and, in 1834, 4 Sunday-schools were attended by 690 children. It has also an endowed school for 26 boys, and a large paper-mill; but the principal dependence of the inhab. is on the retail trade with the surrounding district. Markets on Thursday, 3 large horse and cattle fairs; and a statute fair on Aug. 1.

NEPAUL (Hind. *Nepala*), an indep kingdom of N. Hindostan, extending through 8 degs. of long., and comprising a great portion of the S. declivity of the Himalaya chain. It lies between lat. $26^{\circ} 30'$ and $30^{\circ} 50'$ N., and long. 80° and 88° E., having N. and N.E. the table-land of Thibet, E. the territory of Sikkim, and elsewhere the British territories. Length E. to W., about 500 m.; average breadth, rather more than 100 m. Area may be estimated at 53,000 sq. m.; and pop. at 2,000,000. This country may be divided into four regions, according to its elevation. The lowest, or *terriani*, is a part of the great plain of Hindostan. In a few places, the British districts reach to the base of the mountains, but, in most parts, the Nepal dominions stretch for about 20 m. into the plain. This region is not wholly level, but undulating, and comprises a good deal of poor land, overgrown with trees and bushes of little value; but there is also a large proportion of rich land, and, upon the whole, the soil is much better than in the adjacent parts of the British territory, the products being, however, nearly the same. The surface here is intersected by numerous small rivers, which not only serve for watering the crops, but, in the rainy season, are used for the transit of agricultural produce to the markets of British India, and to float down the valuable timber of the forests. The very name *terriani* (or *terriyas*), implies, indeed, the country's being not so fertile. Bounding this region on the N. is another of nearly the same width, consisting of small hills composed chiefly of clay intermixed, however, with many primary rocks.

The lower portion of this region, with a part of the last-named, is the grand site of the saul forests, among which are many sisoo and toon trees. Higher up the hills are covered with a great variety of trees; and in the N. are many pines and mimosa, from which catechu is obtained. In this region are many fine valleys, some of which are tolerably cultivated, while others, though possessing a very rich soil, are almost wholly neglected. A few straggling villages are scattered through the woods, the inhab. of which grow cotton, rice, and other articles with the hoe, having first cleared away the trees. The third region is that of the mountains, which rise so high as to be covered with snow for a great part of the year, and are divided by valleys, rising to from 3,000 to 6,000 ft. above the great plain of Hindostan. Of course, these valleys differ very much as to temperature; some abound with rattans and bamboos, and ripen the sugar-cane and pine-apple; while others produce only barley, millet, and other grains of cold countries; and oaks and pines are their only forest trees. The breadth of this belt or region generally may be from 30 to 40 m. N. to S., though further W. it is probably greater. The fourth, or Alpine region, is probably of nearly equal extent, and consists of immense rocks, rising into sharp peaks and tremendous precipices, which, where not perpendicular, are covered with perpetual snow, and almost constantly involved in clouds. The interior, or most lofty chain of the Himalaya, forms the farthest boundary of Nepal to the N.; through which, however, are several passes into Thibet, while several tributaries of the Ganges, which intersect this country, are supposed to rise on the N. side of the main chain.

The land in the third or mountain region is considered the most valuable in the country, and is that in which all the officers and servants of the crown are paid, and from whence all endowments are made. From the abundance of rain in the warm season (for the periodical rains extend to Nepal with nearly the same violence and duration as in Bahar), the land here, considering the inequality of surface, is uncommonly productive of grain. Wherever it can be levelled into terraces, however narrow, it is exceedingly well suited for transplanted rice, which ripens after the rains have ceased, so that the harvest is never injured; and almost all these terraces can be supplied at pleasure with water from springs, the crops are almost certain. In some parts the same land gives a winter crop of wheat and barley, but in most parts this is judiciously avoided. Where the land is too steep for terraces, it is generally cultivated after fallows with the hoe, and produces rice (sown broadcast), maize, cotton, several kinds of pulse, a kind of mustard, Indian madder, wheat, barley, sugar-cane, and a large species of cardamom; and in the country between Nepal Proper (the valley of Castmandoo) and the Kail, ginger is a valuable product; but transplanted rice may generally be considered as half the entire produce. The sugar-cane is planted in considerable quantities in the valley of Nepal Proper, and it seems to thrive. Most European kitchen vegetables have been introduced; but they are

only to be found in the gardens of men of distinction, and in very small quantities. From the abundance of rain the climate is not favourable for many kinds of fruit; the best of spring not being sufficient to bring them to maturity before the rainy season sets in, as is the case in Bengal. Peaches grow wild by every rill, but the one side of the fruit is rotted by the rain, while the other is still green. The grapes are also bad from the same cause.

The pasture on the mountains, though not so hard and watery as that of the low country, is by no means good, and is said to be inferior to that even of the heath of Scotland. The pastures are in general common. Nothing is paid for pasturage; but as it is scarce, and the principal tribes do not employ cattle in agriculture, very few are bred in the country. Buffaloes and goats are imported from the low country; and horses, yaks (*Bos grunniacus*), shawl-goats, common goats, and sheep are brought from Thibet, and become tolerably fit on the hills. The buffaloes furnish pretty good beef. The shepherds of some tribes are provided with numerous flocks. In winter they retire to the lower mountain and valleys; but in summer they ascend to the Alpine regions, and feed their herds in the vicinity of perpetual snow. The sheep which little but of the best quality, and large, and have fine wool, which is woven into a cloth finer than that of Bootan: they give also an abundance of milk, from which is made a kind of cheese.

The lands in Nepal Proper have long been divided into *khatas*, or fields, each of which, in ordinary seasons, produces about 234 bushels of paddy, or rice, in the husk, which, on the supposition that each *khat* is equivalent to $\frac{1}{2}$ English acre, would be at the rate of 38 bushels an acre. The arable lands are partly retained as the property of the court, for defraying the rajah's household expenses; but the produce of the land so employed is not sold, but serves for the consumption of the court, and for distribution in charity at the temples and among religious mendicants. But by far the greater portion of these lands are let to tenants, or granted in fee for military service; and the rent of the lands let, as in the former case, forms a principal portion of the rajah's revenue. Landholders who do not cultivate their own estates, in general let them for half the produce. The people who rent lands from the owners are of two kinds: the *kurias*, who occupy free land, and are exempted from any services to government, except the repair of roads, &c.; and the *prajas*, who occupy the crown land, whether that be held by the prince, or granted for military service. Most great proprietors, however, like the rajah, employ stewards, with their servants and slaves, to cultivate land for the supply of their families. Money-rent for land can seldom be procured, and is very low, only from 12 annas being paid as a fixed rent in money for land capable of producing a crop, the half of which is worth about 50 annas.

But when the lands are alienated for sale, they fetch from 1,600 to 2,000 *moahs* a *khat*, which high price is owing to the very small quantity of land that is brought to market. The agricultural implements are very inferior, and almost comprised in an awkward kind of hoe, a weeding-iron, and fans for winnowing the corn. In Nepal, however, they have made a further progress than in India, by the introduction of water-mills for grinding corn.

The mountain region of Nepal contains a good deal of iron, copper, lead, and some zinc, the first three being found quite on the surface. The copper ore is dug from trenches open above, so that the workmen cannot act in the rainy season, not having sagacity to make a drain. Each mine has attached to it certain families, who seem to be a kind of proprietors, as no one else is allowed to dig. The total quantity of ore dug by each miner may be estimated at 2,000 lbs. a year. This is delivered to another set of workmen, by whom it is smelted and wrought, the rajah, to whom the forests mostly belong, furnishing the materials for the charcoal. The ore yields, at an average, 62½ per cent. of metal, 1-3d of which becomes the share of the rajah, 1-3d that of the miner, and 1-5th the share of the smelter; the remainder is divided among the rajah, the miner, and the keeper of the accounts, who usually advances a subsistence to the whole working party, and often furnishes loans even to the rajah. Iron-ore is found near the surface, and is wrought nearly on the same principle as copper, the miner receiving 1-3d part of the produce. Some of the iron is so excellent that even without being converted into steel, it is made into knives and swords. Only 2 lead-mines are now wrought; but lead is found in many parts of the country close to the surface, and it contains much silver. There are numerous sulphur mines; but some have been deserted on account of their injurious effects on the workmen. Corundum, here called *Korren*, is found in great quantities on the hills of Isma and Muskot; but the masses, which always lie close to the surface, are much smaller than those in the British territory, and seldom exceed 4 or 5 lbs. in weight.

The most extensive manufacture of Nepaul is that of coarse cotton cloth, woven by the native women of all ranks, and by the men of the Parbatia caste. These cloths constitute the dress of the middle and lower classes of people, though woollen would be better suited to the temperature of a Nepaul winter. All these, however, who are not very poor, cover themselves with woollen blankets imported from Bootan. The entire dress of the higher ranks is of foreign manufacture, and comprises Chinese silks and shawls, with muslins and calicoes from the low countries. The military alone wear European broad cloth. There are also at Lalita-Patan and Bhatgong extensive manufactures of copper and brass goods, as well as of bells, made from a mixed metal, called *Phul*: these, with iron vessels and lamps, are exported in large quantities to Tibet. A strong paper is made at Bhatgong, from the bark of the *Daphne papyrifera*; but the supply is insufficient for the home consumption, and paper is imported from Bootan.

The trade of Nepaul was formerly pretty considerable, though the rajah's territories produce few articles for exportation, except metallic wares and drugs; but at present the badness of the police, and total want of credit, owing partly to the weakness of the law, and partly to the falsehood of the people, operate as a great hindrance to commercial intercourse. The merchants of Cashmere and Ladak, by way of the *Doonee*, exchange parts of Tibet and W. China, exchanging them for goats' hair, tea, and silks: they also send to China other skins, to the value of about 50,000 rupees a year, procured chiefly from the neighbourhood of Dacca, in Bengal. The merchants of Bootan and Tibet bring to Catmandoo paper, coarse woollen cloths, horses, shawl-goats, sheep, horned cattle, *chassergri*, musk, salt, sal-ammoniac, yellow arsenic, borax, gold dust, silver, and preserved fruit; much of which is again exported to Patna, in exchange for buffaloes and goats, broad cloth, cutlery, glass-ware, and other European articles. Indian cotton cloths, mother of pearl, coral, pepper and other spices, camphor, tobacco, and *plague*, a red powder thrown about by the Hindoos at their festivals. Most of these articles, with metallic utensils and bells, are sold to the merchants of Tibet. The money of Nepaul consists of *damas*, 4 of which are equal to 1 *paisah*; 4 *paisahs* = 1 *anna*; and 8 *annas* = 1 *mohur*. Gold coins are called *ashrafias*; but the half *ashrafy*, = 124 *mohurs*, is the highest piece now coined: it weighs 84 *grains*, and is worth nearly 6 *Rs.* at the mint price of Calcutta. The *mohur* is the common silver coin of the country, and is worth about 4-10ths the Calcutta rupee. The *paisah* and half-*paisah* are the principal copper coins. Grain is sold by measure; 1 *seer* being equivalent to $\frac{3}{4}$ Winchester bushels.

The Nepalese government, which for many years has been monopolised by the tribe called Gorkhas, is essentially despotic, modified, however, by certain observances enjoined by immemorial custom. The *Dharmasasthra* forms the basis of jurisprudence both in civil and criminal cases, the principal punishments being by fines, confiscations of property, banishment, degradation of caste, maiming, and death by hanging as well as flogging. Women are never put to death, but are subject to mutilation and torture. The provs. are governed by *subahs*, who are the supreme officers of revenue, justice, and police: each farms the revenue of his own district, and either collects it on his own account, or underlets it to *zamindars*. The amount paid by the *subahs*, however, forms by no means the whole of the royal revenue; for, besides compulsory presents made by all visitors of the court, a general income-tax is levied on all classes according to the exigencies of the state. Nepaul Proper is governed by a rajah, assisted by the *damodar*, or council of the 12 great officers of the court; for the support of which Catmandoo pays 18,000 rupees; Lalita Patan, 18,000; Bhatgong, 14,000; and Kirtipur, 7,000. Each farm is assessed at a certain quantity of grain, which may be paid either in kind or in money at the market price. A large proportion of the valley, however, has been alienated either in fee or as charity land. A town called *Hanghoo*, worth annually 4,000 rupees, is the jointure of the queen-regent, and Dewapatan, which is still larger, belongs wholly to certain temples. The religion of the Nepalese is Buddhism; but in the distinctions of caste and the nature of the priesthood there are essential differences between the religion of the Buddhists of Ava and that professed by those of Nepaul, both of whom are held in equal abhorrence by the Brahmans of Bengal.

The pop. of Nepaul comprises numerous tribes partly of Mongol and partly of Hindoo descent. The Magars, who occupy the hills in the W. part of the kingdom, form the greater part of the rajah's army, and the Gurungs, who employ themselves either in mining or pasturage. The Newars live in the plain of Catmandoo, and devote themselves to agriculture and the useful arts. They are of middle size, with broad shoulders and chest, flat faces, small eyes, and spreading noses, with a sallow complexion. The grand basis of subsistence in Nepaul is

rice, with which the poorer classes eat raw garlic, radishes, and lentils: those in more easy circumstances add oil or *gher*; and the rich eat a great deal of animal food. Even the poorest are occasionally able to sacrifice a pigeon, fowl, or duck, which they afterwards eat. The rajpoots of Nepaul, indeed, are so fond of animal food, that, to the astonishment of the Bengalese, they drink the blood of a sacrifice as it flows from the victim. All classes drink spirituous liquors, to which they are excessively addicted. Most of the Nepalese domestic servants are slaves, the price of which varies between 30 and 40 *mohurs*. Even some of the Brahmans are slaves to the rajpoots; but they are not degraded, and are employed in great families either as cooks or in the service of the private chapels. All other ranks are sold as common slaves, and persons of the best families have often been deprived of their caste; but this is not usual, as the Nepalese are particular in maintaining the distinction of castes. Most of the slaves have been born free: a few, perhaps, have been degraded on account of crimes; but by far the greater number have been sold by necessitous parents. The female slaves, even those of the queen, are *domme libere*, compelled to sell their favours for clothes, no allowance being made to them by their masters except a little rice. Hence they seldom have children, and beggary is the usual lot of the old and infirm. The queen's slaves form her body-guard, and follow her on horseback armed with swords and riding like men. The ordinary language of Nepaul is the *Pragariya*, or mountain-Hindoo dialect, which is continually becoming more prevalent, and in some districts has already superseded the language of the native tribes: it is exclusively spoken by the reigning family and the higher castes. The Newars have a language peculiar to themselves, quite different from that of their neighbours, and alleged to possess a copious literature.

Nepaul, which was formerly divided among numerous independent princes, became united by conquest in the middle of the last century under the sovereignty of a chief of the Gorkhas, who in about 40 years subjected all the countries between the Sutledge westward and Bootan on the E. The aggressions of the Gorkhas on the Chinese territory were stopped in 1793 by an army of 70,000 men, who, after many victories, advanced within 26 m. of Catmandoo, and obliged the rajah to make an ignominious peace. The Gorkhas afterwards turned their arms against the British, who, after about two years, obliged them in 1816, to cede all the countries between the Sutledge and Kail, as well as to evacuate the territories of the Sikh-rajah. Active symptoms of hostility to the English were displayed in 1830; but these were checked by the events of Afghanistan. (*Hamilton's Nepaul*, passim.)

NEPI (an. *Nepete*), a town of Central Italy, Papal States, deleg. Viterbo, 26 m. N.N.W. Rome. Pop. about 1,500. It is beautifully situated, and surrounded by a high Gothic wall, partly founded on the original walls erected by the Etruscans. It has numerous churches and convents, and a fine modern aqueduct, but a poor and desolate appearance within. Some Roman antiquities exist here. Conjoined with Sutri, Nepi constitutes a bishop's see. (*Gell's Rome*, &c. li. 118.)

NERAC, a town of France, dep. Lot-et-Garonne, cap. arrond., on the Balise, a tributary of the Garonne, 16 m. S.W. Agen. Pop. in 1836, ex. com., 3,634. It is divided into the old and new town, one on either bank of the river, here crossed by two stone bridges. The old town, on a steep declivity, and partly surrounded with Gothic walls, is ill built and gloomy; but the new town, on a level site, and encircled by promenades, is well laid out, and handsome. Nerac has the remains of an extensive castle, said to have been constructed by the English, a fine par. church, a large hall, and several other good public buildings. One of the promenades has a good statue of Henry IV., who passed most part of his youth in the castle of Nerac. This town has manufactures of coarse woollens, ship biscuit, and corks; and a good deal of trade in linen fabrics, corn, flowers, wine, and brandy. Numerous Roman antiquities, including baths and other edifices, medals, inscriptions, &c., have been discovered at Nerac, from which it would appear that it was anciently called *Aqua Neræ*, and was either founded or greatly embellished by Tetricus, in the reign of Gallienus. (*Hugo*, art. *Lot-et-Garonne*, &c.)

NERBUDDAH, (*Narmada*, "The bestower of pleasure," called by Ptolemy the *Nemadusa*), a river of Hindostan, extending through 9 degs. of long. in the N. part of the Decan. It rises in the table-land of Gundwanah, lat. 23° 40' N., long. 81° 45' E., near the sources of the Soone and Mahanuddy. It has a general W. direction, with fewer windings than most Indian rivers; and, after a course of about 700 m., falls into the Gulph of Cambay, lat. 21° 36', long. 73° 50', 26 m. W. Baroch. It varies considerably in breadth; being 600 yards across, near Jubbulpoor, in long. 80°, and 1,200 yards at Mundleyair, 210 m. from its mouth; while above and below Baroch, it sometimes expands to a breadth of 3 m. At

its source, the Nerbuddah may be 2,400 ft. above the level of the sea: its total rate of descent will be therefore nearly 3½ ft. in a mile. During its passage it is greatly obstructed by rocks, islands, shallows, and rapids, which render its navigation in most parts difficult or impracticable through the provs. Gundwanah, Malwah, &c.; but, after entering Gujrat, it becomes navigable for small craft for about 100 m. from the sea. The Nerbuddah is joined by no affluent of any consequence. For so considerable a river its basin is remarkably narrow and restricted; it being inclosed on the N. for the most part, by the Vindhyan mountains, and on the S. by the Santpoora and other parallel ranges, which are seldom more than from 50 to 60 m. from the former. The valley through which it flows, consists of fertile alluvial soil, in which many fossil remains have been found. (See *Journ. of the Asiatic Soc. of Bengal*.) Mundlah, Gurrah Warrah, Hussingbah, Hinda, Mheysur, and Baroach, are the principal towns on this river. By the war of 1817-18, the British obtained an extent of nearly 30,000 sq. m. of the country watered by this river from the rajah of Berar, which, under the term of "Ceded Districts on the Nerbuddah," has been annexed to the Bengal Presidency, and, in 1830, produced a total revenue of 1,876,398 rupees. (*Part. Reports; Asiatic Journals; Hamilton's E. I. Gazetteer*.)

NETHERLANDS. See HOLLAND.

NETTUNO, a small sea-port of Southern Italy, in the Campagna and Comarca di Roma, 3¼ m. S.S.E. Rome. Pop. about 3,000. It seems to have derived its name from an ancient temple dedicated to Neptune, and is built round the bastions of a Papal fortress. It has now but little activity of commerce, on account of its unhealthiness and depopulation of its vicinity; but in antiquity, under the name of Corno, or Cerio, it was the port of Antium, the cap. of the Volsci, some remains of which city exist about ½ m. W. by S. (*Gell's Rome*, &c. ii. 122.)

NEUBURG, a town of Bavaria, circle Swabia and Neuburg; on the Danube, here crossed by 2 bridges, 284 m. N.N.E. Augsburg, and 45 m. W.S.W. Ratisbon. Pop. 6,000. It is divided into the upper and lower town; and has some remains of its ancient walls, a royal castle, in which many curiosities are kept, an arsenal, a royal institute, an hospital, a gymnasium, and a teacher's seminary. It is neat and well built; and is the seat of the high court of appeal for the circle. (*Berghaus*, &c.)

NEUCHÂTEL, or NEUFCHÂTEL, a canton in the W. of Switzerland, forming a principality belonging to Prussia; between lat. 46° 50' and 47° 10', and long. 6° 25' and 7° 5' E.; having N.E. and E. the canton Bern, S.E. the Lake of Neuchâtel, S.W. Vaud, and W. and N.W. the dep. of Doubs, in France. Length N.E. to S.W. 53 m.; average breadth about 9 m.; area, 360 sq. m. Pop. in 1830, 70,738, of whom 36,111 were either citizens of other cantons, or foreigners. The Jura chain runs through the canton in its entire length, dividing it into two parts, one belonging to the basin of the Rhine, and the other to that of the Rhone. This mountain range often rises to 5,000 ft. in elevation; and the Chassal, its highest point within the canton, rises 5,285 ft. above the sea. The valleys extend generally in a longitudinal direction, parallel to the mountains. The principal lakes are those of Neuchâtel (which see), and a part of that of Biennne; principal rivers, the Doubs, constituting the N.W. boundary; the Reuse, Thielle, Tyon, &c. The climate varies greatly: the vine is cultivated on the banks of the lake of Neuchâtel; but in some of the more elevated valleys the winter is very severe, and on many of the mountains snow remains continuously for 7 or 8 months. The soil is principally calcareous. Of 256,000 *poes* or arpents of land, which the canton is estimated to comprise, 35,000 are arable, 4,600 vineyards, 68,000 in artificial meadows, 60,000 in natural pastures, and 45,000 in forests. There are very few large proprietors; the savings of the labouring pop. both agricultural and manufacturing, are generally laid out on the purchase of cottages, with a small portion of adjacent land. Excepting wine and vegetables, this canton does not yield enough of agricultural produce for its own consumption; and the principal part of its supply of corn is imported from the neighbouring cantons of Basle and Bern. Considerable quantities of wine grown around Neuchâtel are exported to the neighbouring Swiss cantons. The best wines are those of Cortaillod, Neuchâtel, and Boudry. The first in fine years is said to approach pretty closely to Burgundy. Within the last few years the preparation of sparkling wines, sold as champagne, has become a pretty extensive branch of business, from 180,000 to 140,000 bottles being annually exported. A good many cattle are reared, principally cows; and cheese is one of the principal articles of export. Hay is also extensively exported.

Neuchâtel is one of the principal manufacturing cantons of Switzerland, principally for watches, printed cottons, and lace. Watch-making, which was introduced early in the 17th century, is carried on to a great

extent in the mountainous districts, but particularly in and near Le Locle and Chaux de Fond. It is estimated that for 18,000 to 20,000 hands are employed in this branch of industry, or in manufacturing instruments for the construction of watches. From 100,000 to 120,000 watches are supposed to be annually produced, of which 35,000 are of gold; they are exported to France, Germany, Holland, Italy, Spain, America, Turkey, &c. Mostly all the watches sold in Paris are made in Neuchâtel, and the neighbouring Swiss cantons, whence they are either smuggled into France, or regularly imported, the gold watches paying a duty of 6 and those of silver of 10 per cent. The capital employed in the watch trade has been estimated at 7,000,000 of Swiss fr., or upwards of 386,000 sterling. It is difficult to ascertain the ordinary rate of wages, workmen being generally paid by the job, and not by a stipulated salary. But it is believed that a man's wages may be estimated, at an average, at from 1,000 to 1,500 fr. (52*l.* 10*s.* to 82*l.*) a year. Lace-making was said by Ebel to occupy from 5,000 to 6,000 hands; but it has declined, and many persons formerly engaged in it have embraced some branch of watch-making. The principal cotton manufacture was established early in the last century, towards the latter end of which it was in its most flourishing state. At present most of the cotton cloths printed in Neuchâtel are furnished by Zürich and other Swiss cantons; and only about 1,000 men, women, and children, are employed in this manufacture, who produce annually about 80,000 pieces, each containing about 32 English yards. Of these prints about 30,000 pieces are sent to the Prussian territories, and the remaining 50,000 to Holland, Belgium, and Italy. Hosiery, currys, mathematical instruments, and metallic wares of various kinds, are among the other manufactures of the canton. Neuchâtel is not a member of the Prussian Commercial League, but its manufactures are admitted into the Prussian dominions at a diminished duty. Watches, &c., pay one half, wine two fifths, and printed cottons pay 30 *rix-dollars* per cwt. of the ordinary tariff duty. The livre or fr. of Neuchâtel (of 30 sols of 12 deniers each) = 10 batzen, or about 1*s.* 8*d.* English.

Neuchâtel recognises the sovereignty of the king of Prussia, and pays him an annual tribute of 70,000 Nem. fr., or nearly 4,000*l.* All the administrative functionaries are nominated by the king, without a veto on the part of the legislature. The representative body (*audiences générales*) consists of the 10 oldest members of the governor's Council of State; of 14 members not councillors, chosen for life by the king from lists presented by the inhab. of the canton; of the head magistrates of the canton, whose number must not exceed 34; and of 30 deputies each at least 25 years of age, elected by all the male inhab. of more than 32 years, being neither condemned criminals, bankrupts, nor receiving pecuniary relief. This body is convoked and prorogued at the command of the governor, but it must assemble once in two years. No law can be passed, changed, or abrogated, without the consent of the *audiences générales*; but no resolution of the latter becomes law till it have received the sanction of the king. The budgets are voted by the *audiences générales*, on whose account the imposts are received, through agents nominated by the king. No custom-houses exist in any part of the canton; and the turnpike dues are much lower than in most of the other Swiss cantons. There is no impediment to the free exercise of any profession, no poll-tax or other direct contribution, duty on raw materials, impost on carriage or communication, or taxes on food or drink, direct or indirect. There are neither stamps nor patents; and the complete absence of all restrictions, and of almost all taxation, is a primary cause of the cheapness of most articles, and the general prosperity of the canton. There are few districts in Europe where so large a proportion of the inhab. are interested in savings' banks. In 1830 1 in 18 of the pop. was a depositor. Paupers are provided for by the communes to which they belong; no general tax can be established for their support. The number of illegitimate children is about 34 per cent.

The administration of justice is both prompt and economical. There are 21 courts of primary jurisdiction; and 2 of appeal, at Neuchâtel and Vallangin. The laws are, in many respects, similar to those formerly prevalent in Burgundy. The inhab. speak a French dialect; they are Protestants, except about 3,000 individuals under the authority of the Bishop of Lausanne. Public instruction is pretty generally diffused, few individuals being ignorant of writing and arithmetic. There are colleges in Neuchâtel, the cap., and Chaux de Fond; and schools of watch making and other arts in those towns and Le Locle. Many societies for instruction, and benevolent purposes, exist. The militia comprises all males between the ages of 18 and 50. Neuchâtel furnishes a battalion of light infantry to the Prussian service, and contributes to the Swiss confederacy. The public revenues, derived from rents, a small tithe or land tax, posts, turnpikes, salt and

suction duties, &c., amounted, in 1834, to 302,311 fr., and the expenditure in the same year to 238,153 fr., of which 14,517 fr. formed the contribution to the Swiss confed.

Neuchâtel belonged, in the 11th century, to the German emperor, and was ceded to Burgundy by Rodolph of Hapsburg. In 1406 the town of Neuchâtel entered into a treaty with Bern, and soon after allied itself to the Swiss confed. In 1707, the last direct inheritor of this territory dying, the states chose the king of Prussia for their sovereign. Napoleon created Neuchâtel into a principality, which he conferred on Marshal Berthier; but in 1814 it reverted to Prussia, being constituted, however, at the same time, the 21st among the Swiss cantons. (*Ebel; Manuel de la Suisse; Picot, Statistique; Lutz, Geogr., &c.; Bourving's Rep. on Switzerland; Helvetic Almanack, &c.*)

NEUCHÂTEL (Germ. *Neuchâtel*), a town of Switzerland, cap. of the above canton, on the N.W. shore of the Lake of Neuchâtel, 17 m. N.W. Freyburg, and 45 m. E.S.E. Besançon. Pop. from 5,000 to 6,000. It is built upon the steep slope of the Jura mountains, and along a narrow strip of level ground between the hills and the lake. Its objects of curiosity comprise the castle, formerly occupied by the French princes of Neuchâtel, but now by the Prussian government; the church, a Gothic edifice of the 13th century; the town-hall, in which the *assemblées générales* meet; the gymnasium, with a museum of natural history, &c. Its charitable institutions are on a large scale; one hospital and poor-house was founded and endowed with a sum of 166,000fr. by a townsman; and another, the Hospital Pourtales, is also an extensive establishment, and open to all persons without respect of country. It has, also, an orphan asylum, a house of correction, some public granaries, several good hotels, &c. The *extraits de tabac* is produced here, and it has a considerable traffic in the agricultural and manufactured produce of the canton. (*Ebel, &c.*)

NEUCHÂTEL (LAKE OF), otherwise called the Lake of Yverdon (Germ. *Neuchâtel-See*), a lake of Switzerland, in the W. part of the confed., between the cantons Neuchâtel, Vaud, Freyberg, and Bern. It is of an elongated shape; length N.E. to S.W. 24 m.: average breadth nearly 4 m.; area probably 90 sq. m. The elevation of its surface above the sea is estimated at 1,320 ft.; its greatest depth is 400 ft. Several considerable rivers empty themselves into this lake, which also receives the surplus waters of the lake of Morat. Its own surplus waters are conveyed by the Thiele to the lake of Bienné; and thence to the Aar and the Rhine. Neuchâtel, Granson, Yverdon, Estavayer, and Condréin, are on its banks. Its scenery is agreeable, but tame in comparison with that of most other Swiss lakes. Its navigation is sometimes dangerous, from its being subject to sudden gusts of wind. A steamer, however, plies on it daily from Neuchâtel to Yverdon. (*Picot's Suisse; Murray's Handbook for Switzerland, &c.*)

NEUILLY, village of France, dép. Seine, cap. canton, on the Seine, here crossed by a handsome stone bridge, on the road from Paris to St. Germain, 14 m. W.N.W. the Barrière de l'Étoile. Pop., in 1836, ex. com., 3,753. The bridge of Neuilly, regarded as a *chef-d'œuvre* of the architect Perrenet, has an entire length of 800 ft. (the span across the river being 710 ft.), with five arches, each nearly 128 ft. in breadth, and 32 ft. in height. The *château* de Neuilly, built in the time of Louis XV., was a favourite summer residence of Louis Philippe, late king of the French. The village has manufactures of earthenware and chemical products, and distilleries of rafia, &c. (*Hugo, art. Seine.*)

NEUSATZ (Hungar. *Uj-Videk*), a royal free town of Hungary, co. Bacs, on the Danube, opposite Peterwardein, with which it is connected by a bridge of boats, 46 m. N.W. Belgrade. Pop. 20,231 (*Berghaus*). It consists of long straggling streets, but, being of modern origin, some of them are tolerably well built, and they are generally paved. The Greeks have 5 churches, the E. Catholics 1 church, and the Armenians 1; it has also a synagogue, a gymnasium, a R. Catholic high school, Jewish school, &c. Neusatz is a place of considerable traffic, particularly with Turkey, for which it is chiefly indebted to its position on the Danube, near the influx of its 3 largest tributaries, the Theiss, Drave, and Save. Its numerous shops are said to be full of "grocery, and clothes, ironmongery, tin-ware, earthenware, wooden bowls, dishes, and trenchers, all of very rude fashion, and jewellery of an ordinary description." (*Gün's Pop. down the Danube*.) Neusatz is the residence of the Greek bishop of Bacs, and of a *protopape*. There are remains of a Roman wall stretching from Neusatz to Csurgog on the Theiss, 19 m. N.N.E. (*Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.; Berghaus, &c.*)

NEUSOHL, a royal free town of Hungary, beyond the Danube, cap. co. of its own name, on the Gran, at the influx of the Bistrica, 80 m. N. Pesth. Pop. 5,314, nearly half being Protestants. "Neüsohl has wide streets, and is a tolerably well built country town, rather

imposing in its appearance, because all the houses appear to be in the Italian style, with flat roofs, though probably it is only a high parapet carried up to hide the roof." (*Page's*, l. 385.) In the par. church (a Gothic structure) is a bell weighing 100 cwters. Neüsohl has an old castle, an hospital, several superior schools, &c., and is the residence of a bishop, the seat of a mining council and tribunal. Near it are the mines of Herengrund, producing 1,500 cwt. of copper a year, and some silver; and in the town is the largest smelting-house in Hungary. Neüsohl has also manufactures of sword-blades, and beet-root sugar. (*Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.; Page's Hungary, &c.*)

NEUTRA, or NEITRA, an episcopal town of Hungary, cap. co. on the Neutra, in a finely-wooded country, 45 m. E.N.E. Freyburg. Pop. 4,563. It has a castle, a co. hall, a cathedral and bishop's palace, a lyceum, and several high schools; and carries on a considerable traffic in the wine grown in its vicinity.

NEUWIED, a town of Rhenish Prussia, circle Neuwied, of which, and of a mediatised principality, it is the cap., on the Rhine, 7 m. N.N.W. Coblenz. Pop. in 1845, 6,100. It was founded early in the last century by a count of Wied, on the broad principle of perfect toleration for all sects; in consequence of which a neat and flourishing manufacturing town soon sprang up. It is laid out in squares of houses, formed by 7 streets, intersecting each other at right angles. At its W. extremity, overlooking the Rhine, is a castle, the residence of the princes of Wied; the town has, also, several churches, and other places of worship, a gymnasium, teacher's seminary, hospital, orphan-asylum, house of industry, a prosperous Moravian establishment, &c. Its manufactures are of silk, cotton and linen fabrics, and y.a.n. stockings, iron goods, tobacco pipes, Prussian blue, chicory, potash, and soap. It is the seat of the judicial court for the principality, the circle court, and a mining tribunal. The museums of natural history in the castle and in the Moravian establishment are worth notice; but the principal object of interest at Neuwied is its collection of antiquities: these were found in the buried Roman city of Victoria, about 2 m. N. the town, supposed to have been destroyed by the Germans towards the end of the 4th century. (A full description of this collection may be found in *Schreiber, Guide du Rhin*, 290-293; *Berghaus's on Sedition, Der Preussische Staat*, &c.)

NEVER, or NEVERS, a city of France, dép. Nièvre, of which it is the cap., on the Loire, where it is joined by the Nièvre, and a little above the influx of the Allier; 123 m. S.S.E. Paris; lat. 46° 59' 17" N.; long. 3° 9' 31" E. Pop., in 1846, ex. commune, 12,750. It is agreeably situated on the declivity of a hill facing the S., but is in general ill built and ill laid-out, its streets being narrow, steep, and crooked, and its houses old and gloomy. In its centre, however, is a large and regularly constructed square, on one side of which is the ancient residence of the Dukes of Nivernais. Some of the entrances to Nevers, a city of imposing character, from Bourges is ornamented with a triumphal arch, and on the road from Moulins the Loire is crossed by a solid stone bridge of 20 arches. The quays on the river are bordered with good houses, and look clean. The cathedral, on the site of a very ancient church, is an edifice principally constructed between the 12th and 16th centuries. It is large, and has a lofty square tower; in its choir is some fine stained glass. Several other churches, as well as the cathedral, are curious specimens of Gothic architecture. (The other public buildings are mostly in a simple but appropriate style: the principal are the barracks, arsenal, prefecture, and public library with 8,500 vols. The park, formerly belonging to the dukes of Nivernais, has now become one of the many public promenades surrounding Nevers. The city preserves but a few remains of its ancient fortifications. It is the see of a bishop, whose diocese extends over the dép. Nièvre; and is the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, of a chamber of manufactures, a communal college, &c. It has several hospitals, a handsome little theatre, 2 episcopal seminaries, schools of drawing, geometry, &c., a free school of arts, a *commission d'antiquité*, and many other scientific establishments. It is also distinguished by its manufacturing industry. It has a royal cannon foundry, in which from 200 to 250 cannons, weighing in all about 550,000 kilograms, are cast annually, besides 50,000 kilogr. weight of other kinds of artillery. (*Hugo*.) It also produces chain cables, iron works for suspension bridges, and other heavy iron goods. Nevers has been for many centuries famous for its china-ware, which, for durability and solidity, is said to be the best made in France; it is sent in large quantities to Paris, and throughout the country watered by the Loire and its tributaries. This manufacture employs about 700 workmen, whose wages are said to average 1 fr. 75 c. a day. Glass wares, metal buttons, coarse woollen cloths, violin strings, vinegar, glue, brandy, and leather are among the other principal manufactures. It has also a considerable trade in timber for ship-building, charcoal,

iron and steel, wine, salt, &c., being the great entrepôt for the upper Loire. Its trade is facilitated by a commodious haven at the mouth of the Nièvre. It has 9 annual fairs, one of which lasts 8 days.

This town existed at the conquest of Gaul by Cæsar; it became a bishopric in 506, and the cap. of Nivernais; in 865 it was burned by Hugh Capet; and in the middle ages suffered severely from plague, the inundations of the Loire, the invasions of the English, and religious wars. (*Hugo, art. Nièvre; Dict. Géog.*)

NEVIS, one of the British W. India Islands, belonging to the Leeward group; in about lat. 17° 10', long. 62° 33' W., separated by a strait 2 m. in breadth, from the S.E. extremity of St. Christopher's. Shape circular; greatest length, N.E. to S.W., 6½ m.; extreme breadth, about the same. Pop. 9,571. It consists of a conical hill, rising from the sea to a height of 2,500 ft. Soil mostly a strong tenacious marl, not readily absorbent of moisture: the climate is similar to that of St. Kitt's and Tortola. It is well watered, and, in general, fertile. The inhabs. are nearly all occupied in the raising of the sugar-cane and provisions, and in the preparation of rum and sugar. In 1849, 24,627 cwt. sugar, 4,580 gallons rum, and 2,844 cwt. molasses, were imported from Nevis into Great Britain. The total value of the exports amounted, in 1848, to 25,593*l.*; that of the imports to 21,251*l.* It is divided into 5 parishes; Charleston, the cap., is at its S.W. extremity. This colony is placed under a governor and council, and assembly. It has sundry public schools, in which about 650 children are educated. The portion of the compensation for slaves paid to the proprietors of Nevis amounted to 151,007*l.*; the number of slaves by the last registration having been 8,722, and the average value of a slave, from 1822 to 1830, 29*l.* 4*s.* Columbus discovered Nevis; which was settled by the English in 1628. (*Parl. Papers, &c.*)

NEWARK, a parli. and mun. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Nottingham, S. div. way, of its own name, on a lateral stream of the Trent, crossed here by a handsome bridge of 7 arches, 16 m. N.E. Nottingham, and 110 m. N. by W. London. Area of parli. bor. 2,000 acres. Pop., in 1841, 10,218. The approach to Newark from the N. is by a long causeway carried over a flat island formed by the Trent and the Newark branch; and under it are numerous bridges, to give free passage to the waters during the floods. The town, consisting of a principal street on the Nottingham and Lincoln road, crossed by several others, and having a large market-place near its centre, is on the whole well built, paved, lighted with gas, and abundantly supplied with water. Among the public buildings, one of the most interesting, though now in ruins, is the castle near the bridge, called the *New Work*, from the circumstance of its having been re-edified by Stephen. It comprises a square of large dimensions, with 2 massive towers, and seems to have had 5 stories: the interior area is used as a bowling green, but several of the lower rooms are still entire. King John died in this castle, 18th Oct. 1216. The town-hall, in the market-place, a handsome building of stone, erected in 1776, comprises several large apartments for the corporate business, assemblies, balls, &c. It has also a court-house for the quarter sessions, with a small gaol, which, however, is "wholly inadequate and unfit for its purpose." (*Pris. Inspec. 5th Rep.*) The church, said by Mr. Rickman to be one of the largest and finest in England, was built in the reign of Henry VI.; it is a cruciform structure, with large aisles, transepts, and chapels, having at its W. end a highly ornamented tower, surmounted by an extremely light steeple, 249 ft. in height, round which are niches containing statues of the twelve apostles. Some of the windows have stained glass, representing the history of Jesus Christ; the choir is separated from the rest of the church by a screen of rich oak-carving, and in the interior are several curious monuments. The fabric is kept in repair by the produce of estates belonging to the bor., so that there is no necessity for a church-rate. The living is a vicarage in crown patronage. It has also 4 places of worship for dissenters, with various Sunday schools, attended by about 100 children. The grammar school was founded in 1529; its endowment, at the time of the Char. Comm. Inquiry, amounted to 2,360*l.* a year, and in consequence of a suit in Chancery, the corporation, its trustees, have founded two exhibitions of 80*l.* a year each, tenable for 4 years at Oxford or Cambridge. The master has a salary of 220*l.* a year with a good house, and 60*l.* a year are paid to an usher; the school is attended by about 40 boys. Two national schools furnish instruction to about 250 children of both sexes, and there are two or three smaller schools wholly or in part supported by subscription. The estates held in trust by the bor. for charitable purposes, independently of that above mentioned, are very extensive; and there are several almshouses, a workhouse, and dispensary. A library and small theatre are the only other public establishments.

Newark carries on a considerable trade in malt and corn, and in coal, cattle, and wool. It has also two large

brass and iron foundries: bricks and tiles are made here, and large quantities of gypsum and limestone, quarried and prepared in the neighbourhood, are sent by sea to London. Here are two pretty extensive linen manufactories and two private banks, besides a savings' bank and a branch of the Nottingham and banking company. The arm of the Trent on which Newark stands is made navigable by means of a lock close to the town.

Newark was divided by the Mun. Reform Act into 3 wards; the corporation comprising a mayor and 5 other aldermen, with 18 councillors. It has, also, a commission of the peace under a recorder, with a court of requests for the recovery of debts under 5*l.* Corp. rev. in 1848-49, 1,080*l.* The quarter sessions for the S.E. div. of the co. are held here. Newark has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the 29th Charles II., the right of election down to the Reform Act being in the mayor, aldermen, and inhabs. paying scot and lot. The electoral limits were not changed by the Boundary Act; reg. electors in 1849 50, 862. Newark is also the election-town for the S.E. div. of the co. Large markets, especially for corn, on Wednesday; fairs, Friday in Mid-lent, May 14., Aug. 2., Nov. 1., and Monday before Dec. 11.

Newark, which takes its name from the castle, became a place of considerable importance soon after the Norman conquest; but its principal celebrity is owing to the fact of its having been one of the chief strongholds of the royalists during the civil wars of Charles I. It was besieged by the parliamentary forces in 1643; but both the town and castle were held by the royal army till 11th May, 1646, when it was surrendered to the Scotch by command of the king, who was then a prisoner. The castle was at the same time demolished by order of parliament. (*Parli. Rep.; Char. Comm. Rep., &c.*)

NEWARK, a town or city of the U. States, the largest and most important in New Jersey, though not its cap.; co. Essex, on the Passaic, 3 m. from Newark Bay, and 9 m. W. New York. Pop., in 1830, 10,563; but, in 1840, 17,390. It is well built, and has many good houses. The court-house, gaol, 2 banks, an academy, and the chapels of the Presbyterians, Episcopalians, Baptists, and Methodists, are the principal public buildings. It has extensive manufactures of shoes and boots, saddlery, carriages, furniture, hats, jewellery, &c. The Passaic is navigable up to the town for sloops of 80 tons: 7,363 tons of shipping belonged to the port in 1849. (*Encyc. Americæ; Mitchell, &c.*)

NEW BEDFORD, a town and port of entry of the U. States, Massachusetts, co. Bristol, on an arm of Buzzard Bay, 60 m. S.S.E. Boston. Pop., in 1840, 12,067. It is regularly laid out upon sloping ground, and has a wealthy and prosperous appearance, chiefly owing to the whale fishery, in which its inhabs. are largely engaged. It has numerous churches, with banks, insurance offices, a court-house, a flourishing lyceum, a gaol, academy, theatre, and several printing offices, which issue both daily and weekly newspapers. In 1840, 122,912 tons of shipping belonged to the port; 3-4ths of the vessels being whalers. New Bedford is connected with Taunton by a railway 20 m. in length, opened in 1840. (*Amer. Almanack; Official Reports, &c.*)

NEW BRUNSWICK, a tract of country in British N. America, on the W. side of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, between lat. 45° 5' and 48° 5' N., and long. 68° 47' and 67° 53' W., bounded S. by Nova Scotia and the Bay of Fundy, N. by Lower Canada, and W. by the state of Maine in the U. States. Extreme length, from N. to S., 180 m.; average breadth, 150 m.; estimated area, 25,991 sq. m. Pop., in 1840, 156,063. This colony, which is divided into 11 cos., has a much less indented coastline than Canada or Nova Scotia: the surface, however, is broken and undulating, though not mountainous, and considerable rivers intersect it in all directions, the largest being St. John's (which see), Miramichi, and Ristigouche. The principal gulphs are the Bay of Chaleur and Miramichi, on its E. coast, and that of Passamaquoddy on the S., into which runs the river St. Croix, which divides the province from Maine in the U. States. Its geology is very little known; but limestone seems to be the prevailing feature, though clay-slate, gneiss, and even the primitive formations occasionally occur. Coal is abundant, and is wrought, near the Grand lake, by a joint-stock company. Iron and gypsum occur also in considerable quantities. Dense forests cover, by far, the greater part of the surface, and though the soil is generally rich and fertile, except in a few swampy tracts, only one-sixteenth of the whole province has been surveyed and laid open for settlers. The cutting down, and exportation of the fine timber, with which these forests abound, has, however, been extensively pursued for some years, and the quantity of cleared land is progressively increasing. The fauna and flora of the colony nearly resemble those of Nova Scotia, to which, indeed, it formerly belonged. The climate is very similar to that of Canada: winter lasts from Nov. to April, when a sudden change takes place, and vegetation becomes extremely rapid. The temperature in the

S. parts is milder and more equable; but the prevalence of sea-fogs, on the shores of the Bay of Fundy, render the cultivation of wheat near the coast very uncertain, though it does not seem to injure the health of the settlers. Indeed, the climate altogether is uncommonly healthy, and will bear to be compared with that of any part of England. Rheumatism, consumption, and low typhus are the prevalent diseases; but they are in a great measure brought on by exposure to the damp, and the sudden changes of temperature. Agriculture, notwithstanding the rich tract of alluvial soil skirting the rivers, is considerably less advanced than in Nova Scotia and the Canadas, owing, in part, to its later settlement, but principally to the superior importance attached to its timber trade. Within the last few years, however, great improvements have taken place in these respects; agricultural societies have been formed, new settlers have introduced, in many parts, the more approved systems of husbandry, and emulation has been generally excited by ploughing-matches, cattle-shows, and the distribution of premiums. Wheat, Indian corn, barley, and oats are the principal grain crops; but by far the most important article of produce is the potatoe, the crop of which, in 1835, was estimated at 2,100,000 bush. Red and white clover are the grasses most cultivated, and beans, peas, turnips, mangel-wurzel, and beetroot thrive well, and are raised in pretty considerable quantities. Pasturage is followed to some extent, and it was estimated that the live-stock of the colony, in 1835, comprised 11,000 horses, 91,000 cattle, 143,000 sheep, and 69,000 hogs. The felling and conveyance of timber constitutes, however, as before observed, the great employment of the labouring classes; but more of the *lens* *Arvensis* are disolute and depraved, and the occupation prevents them from paying proper attention to agriculture. Many of the trees, especially the yellow pines, attain to a great size, and furnish timber of good quality, though inferior to that of Norway and the Baltic. It is principally conveyed to Great Britain in the logs, the remainder being manufactured into deals, boards, staves, &c.

The exports from New Brunswick consist principally of timber, and fish-oil, furs, &c. Their aggregate value amounted, in 1847, to 666,390*l.* and in that year they were rather below the average. The trade in timber is in a great measure forced and artificial, being a consequence of the high discriminating duties imposed in England on Baltic timber. It is contended, however, that the equalisation of the duties, how advantageous soever to England, would be injurious to Canada and New Brunswick, by diminishing their trade in timber. But the truth is that this, so far from being advantageous to either, is distinctly and completely the reverse. The habits which it generates are quite subversive of that sober, steady spirit of industry, so essential to a settler in a rude country: to such a degree, indeed, is this the case, that lumberers have been described as the pests of a colony, "made and kept vicious by the very trade by which they live." Ship-building is pretty extensively carried on, chiefly at St. John's, the cap. In 1839, 164 ships were built, of the aggregate burden of 45,864 tons; but they are of a class called "sloop built," and do not enjoy a high character for solidity or durability. Though less deeply indented with fishing bays than Nova Scotia, the coast and rivers of New Brunswick abound with fish, especially cod, herrings, salmon, and mackerel; the entire value of the exports of fish and fish-oil amount to a large sum; but the principal attention of the colonists is engrossed by the timber trade. The whale fishery, introduced only within the last few years, has attained considerable importance.

Except timber, and the produce of its fisheries, the exports from New Brunswick are quite inconsiderable. The imports consist of corn (chiefly from the U. States), British and Irish manufactures, and various minor articles. In 1847, they were valued at 1,125,383*l.* The declared value of the exports from the U.-K. to New Brunswick, in 1849, amounted to 277,591*l.* In 1847, 3,123 ships of the agg. burden of 427,390 tons, navigated by 19,870 men, entered the different ports of the colony.

The colony seems, on the whole, to be improving. The Brunswick Land Company have done much to promote the immigration of industrious British settlers, and several joint stock companies and banks have been recently established. The premium for bills on England varies from 8 per cent. to 11½ per cent.; and the difference between the currency and sterling price of money in the prov. amounts to 1½ per cent. The paper currency, which is very general, consists of the notes of the different banks, and of those issued by the corporation of the city of St. John's. The sum in circulation amounted, in 1839, to about 350,000*l.*

The constitution of New Brunswick is very similar to that of Nova Scotia, which it resembles in several other particulars, and to which the reader is referred for farther information. The representative body, or parliament, comprises 26 mems., and sits at Fredericton, about

90 m. above St. John's. The judiciary courts are the court of chancery, in which the governor presides, the supreme court directed by 4 justices, circuit courts, a court of common pleas, and numerous courts for the recovery of small debts. The revenue is extremely variable, and has been much increased of late years by the sale of unoccupied lands; besides which, a few light taxes are levied for poor rates and other local purposes. After the payment of the local magistracy, &c., the surplus is appropriated to the improvement of the colony, and especially to the formation of roads and bridges, that have recently been completed to a very considerable extent, 20,000*l.* having been voted for that object in 1846, and 34,525*l.* in 1847. The expense of the regular army is defrayed by the British government; but there is likewise a native militia comprising upwards of 20,000 men. The religion of New Brunswick is similar to that of Nova Scotia; and the diocese of the colonial bishop of that peninsula extends over the province. There are, likewise, Rom. Catholics, Presbyterians, Methodists, and Baptists; but the religion of the colonists partakes more of fanaticism than sober rational worship. As respects education, New Brunswick enjoys more than ordinary advantages. King's College, at Fredericton, owes its origin to the exertions of Sir Howard Douglas, and has been in active operation for some years. Its maintenance is chiefly provided for by an annual grant of 2,000*l.* from the local government, and the mode of instruction nearly resembles that pursued in Oxford; subscription to articles is not, however, required, except from students of divinity; a grammar-school, also, is supported out of the college funds. Nine other grammar-schools, which, in 1839, had 321 pupils, are either wholly or partially supported by legislative grants. English schools, also, are established in all the parts of the prov.; and very recently provision has been made for the inspection of parish schools, and for the training of teachers.

The pop. of New Brunswick consists of a mixed race of English, Irish, Welsh, and Scotch; but the last are far less numerous than in the neighbouring colonies. The French also have three small settlements on the E. side of the prov. The Indian aborigines have been for many years fast declining in numbers, and all attempts to civilise them or improve their condition have failed: they have a few small villages scattered in different parts, and are all R. Catholics. In manners and customs the British settlers nearly resemble those of Canada, Nova Scotia, and Cape Breton. The women are handsome; the men generally tall, well-made, muscular, and scarcely ever corpulent. They are remarkably spirited, adventurous, and attached to their country; nor can there be any doubt that they would, if well disciplined, make excellent soldiers.

The country now called New Brunswick was, in the early part of last century, comprised by the French under the appellation of New France, and viewed as an appendage to Acadia. At the peace of 1763 it was ceded, with the rest of Canada, to the English, and, from that time to 1785, was considered as part of Nova Scotia. The country, however, was little more than a mere wilderness, till General Sir Guy Carleton procured for it a royal charter, constituting New Brunswick a distinct prov., with himself as governor. To his exertions it chiefly owes the rapid rise of its prosperity; but it also owes many material improvements in its roads, schools, agriculture, judicial arrangements, &c., to Sir Howard Douglas, governor from 1824 to 1831. (*McGregor's America*, ii. 3-102; *Murray's B. America*, ii. 224-256., &c.)

NEW BRUNSWICK, a town of the U. States, New Jersey, on the Raritan, 17 m. from Raritan Bay, and 28 m. S. W. New York. Pop., in 1840, 8,693. It is partly built on a low site, but is accounted tolerably healthy. Its principal institutions are Rutgers's College, founded in 1770, and a theological seminary established in 1811. New Brunswick stands at the end of the New Jersey railroad, and of the Delaware and Raritan canal, the terminating basin of which is 1½ m. in length, and 200 ft. wide. The Raritan is navigable for sloops of 80 tons up to the town, which has a brisk trade, particularly in grain.

NEWBURGH, a sea-port and market-town of Scotland, co. Fife, on the S. bank of the Tay, 13½ m. S. W. Dundee, and 9 m. S. E. Perth. Pop., in 1841, 2,897. It consists chiefly of one street, running E. and W. along the line of the shore, with another at right angles leading down to the harbour. The town is mostly of modern date, particularly towards its outskirts, though many old buildings remain to mark its ancient state. The public buildings are the town-house, with a spire, the parish church, and a dissenting chapel. The splendid mansion house of Mugdrom is close to the bor. on the N. W. The means of education are ample and efficient; from 1-10th to 1-7th part of the pop. are at school. The town is lighted with gas.

The harbour is pretty good; but only 10 vessels from 60 to 150 tons, exclusive of fishing-boats, belong to the

bor. It has notwithstanding a considerable trade, being the port for the greater part of Kinross-shire, Strathern, and other contiguous districts, both for the export of their agricultural produce, and for importing coal, lime, &c. Most vessels bound for Perth wait here for the flow of the tide; and some of them unload part of their cargo before they can, even at high water, proceed up the river. Newburgh, indeed, is, next to Kirkcaldy, the most important sea-port of Fifeshire. The weaving of coarse linens is largely carried on, employing from 550 to 600 looms.

Newburgh existed in the 12th century, and was subject to the neighbouring monastery of Lindores, whose remains are yet pretty entire. In 1621 it was created a royal bor. by Charles I.; but, like Falkland, being unable to defray the expenses of its parliamentary representative, it petitioned to be relieved from the burden, which was granted. It has otherwise, however, all the marks of a royal bor., and is governed by 3 bailies and 15 councillors. Municipal revenue, derived from land, about 170*l.* per annum. There are two curious crosses of remote antiquity in the neighbourhood; one called the Mugdum Cross, the other Macduff's Cross. The former is supposed to commemorate a victory over the Danes in the 10th century; the latter was erected as a sanctuary to any of the kindred of Macduff, thane of Fife, who might commit murder. If they fled thither, and paid a certain fixed solatium to their chief, they obtained protection. (*New Stat. Account of Scotland, § Fifeshire.*)

NEWBURGH, a town and port of entry of the U. States, New York, Orange co., on the Hudson, 50 m. N. New York. Pop., in 1830, 6,424. It is well built, well paved, and well supplied with excellent water. It has places of worship for various sects, an incorporated academy, and several other schools; 3 banks, some good hotels, and paper, plaster, and gunpowder mills; a whaling company with a capital of 115,000 *dollars*, &c. It is alternately with Goshen, the seat of the county court, and was the head-quarters of Washington during the publication of the celebrated Newburgh Letters.

NEWBURY, a mun. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Berks, on the Kennet, crossed here by a stone bridge of 3 arches, 244 m. S. Oxford, and 53 m. W. by S. London. Pop. of the mun. bor., which includes, with the par. of Newbury, portions of the pars. of Speen and Greenham, in 1841, 6,379. The town, a considerable portion of which is in the par. of the Kennet, is in the hamlet of Speenhamland, consists of two principal, wide, and well-built streets, arranged in the form of the letter T, with smaller and very irregular streets at its S. extremity. The market-place, opposite the church, is a large open square, in which is the guildhall. The church, erected in the reign of Henry VII., is a large but plain building, with a square tower: the living is a rectory in the patronage of the crown. A district church, in the Gothic style, has recently been erected on the London road, and is remarkable for its extensive eastwings. There are, likewise, 5 places of worship for dissenters; and the town comprises several Sunday schools, and an endowed free-school, besides numerous and wealthy corporation-charities, which, however, had been greatly neglected previously to the passing of the Municipal Reform Act. (*Mun. Corp. Rep.*) The almshouses have accommodation for 90 aged people: there is a small bor. gaol, and about $\frac{1}{4}$ m. S. the town is a large Union workhouse.

Newbury, being situated on the main-road between London and Bath, had a large posting business, which employed a considerable number of hands, besides occasionally a large importation of horse provender; but this having been superseded by the railway, her importance and pop. have declined. The Kennet and Avon Canal, connecting the Severn with the Thames, passes through the town, and affords the advantage of water-carriage from London, Bristol, and S. Wales. In the immediate neighbourhood are 3 silk manufactories and a paper-mill; but they are not considerable. The rapid declivity and copious supply of water in the Kennet have occasioned the erection of numerous large corn-mills, two of which are within the town. There are also considerable malt-houses, and some extensive breweries. The quantity of grain annually exported from Newbury, either as flour, malt, or in its natural state, amounts to upwards of 7,000 tons, in return for which it imports large quantities of building materials, and various articles of general consumption from the ports of London and Bristol. The poor rates are much higher than in the adjoining parishes, and higher also than they should be with reference to the description of the pop., a circumstance chiefly attributable to the attention conferred to the lower classes by the numerous charitable foundations attached to the corporation." (*Mun. Corp. Rep.*)

Newbury, which is a bor. by prescription, and was afterwards chartered in 88 Elix., has been governed, since the Reform Act, by a mayor and 3 aldermen, with 13 councillors; it has a commission of the peace under a recorder. Corporation revenue in 1830, 1,027*l.* The

spring quarter-sessions for the co., and petty sessions for the hundred, are held here, and is one of the polling places for the co. elections. Large corn-markets on Thursday: horse and cattle fairs, Holy Thursday, July 5., Sept. 4., and Nov. 8.

Newbury returned 3 mems. to parl. in the reign of Edward I.; and it is not known at what period, or for what cause, it lost the franchise. It was formerly also celebrated for its manufacture of serges, shalooms, &c.; and in the reign of Henry VIII., John Winchcomb, known as Jack of Newbury, kept 100 looms, from the produce of which he became so wealthy as to be able to entertain the king and his retinue during their passage through the town. He was a great benefactor to Newbury; and his house, a large brick structure, is still shown in the High Street, his manufactory being now occupied by a large inn, "the Jack of Newbury." The vicinity is remarkable for two battles fought during the civil wars between the royalist and parliamentary forces, Charles I. commanding his army in person on both occasions. The first was fought on a common called the Wash, on 20th Sept. 1643; the second on 27th Oct. in the following year; but neither had any decided result. Donnington Castle, a short distance N. W. of Newbury, was the property of Chaucer, the earliest English chronic poet; and in it he spent the two last years of his life, which terminated in 1400. (*Mun. Reports, &c.*)

NEWBURY-PORT, a town and river-port of the U. States, Massachusetts, being the fourth town of the state in pop. and commercial importance, co. Essex, on the Merrimack, about 3 m. from its mouth, and 32 m. N. by E. Boston: lat. 43° 49' N., long. 70° 22' W. Pop., in 1830, 6,378; in 1840, 7,161. It is built on a gentle acclivity, and has an imposing appearance from the river. It consists of two long streets, running N. and S., parallel with the river, and communicating by other streets, crossing them at right angles. State Street, the principal, is broad, and lined with good houses, which, though of wood, are well built and handsome. The streets are partially paved and flagged, but neither lighted nor watched. It is connected with Salisbury, on the opposite side of the river, by a bridge, about $\frac{1}{2}$ m. long, partly supported on wooden piers, and partly suspended by chains. The harbour is secure, and has usually about 5 fathoms water at low ebb; but it is difficult of entrance, from a bar at the mouth of the river, which is impassable during E. gales. A break-water was a few years since constructed across the river, about 2 m. from its mouth, at an expense of 300,000 *dollars*, for the double purpose of shutting the Merrimack out from a swampy bay S. of the town, and enabling it to clear away the bar; but in these objects it appears to have signally failed. Newbury-Port has several cotton, cloth, and yarn factories, numerous distilleries, and manufactures of shoes, hats, cordage, Morocco leather, gold and silver plate, &c. It has a considerable business in ship-building. This town had formerly a large share of the W. India trade; at present it imports a good deal of raw cotton, for its own manufactures and those of Lowell; and its inhabs. are actively engaged in the cod and mackerel fisheries and have a brisk coasting trade. In 1849 there belonged to the port 25,011 tons shipping.

NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE, a parl. and mun. bor., and river-port of England, locally situated in Castle-ward, co. Northumberland, of which it is the cap., but it is also a co. by itself, and is celebrated as the principal British port for the shipment of coal, on the N. bank of the Tyne, about 9½ m. from its mouth, 54 m. E. Carlisle, and 344 m. N. by W. London: lat. 55° 00' 30" N., long. 1° 27' 30" W. Area of parl. bor., which includes, with the town and co. the five townships of Byker, Heaton, Jesmond, Westgate, and Elswick, 9,130 acres. Pop., in 1841, 69,430, but at present (1850) probably 75,000. The town occupies the bottom and sides of an acclivity rising somewhat abruptly from the river; and though a few years back it was very irregularly laid out, and consisted, with but few exceptions, of narrow, circuitous, and ill-built lanes, it has been so improved within the last 40 years (principally through the exertions of Mr. Grainger, a native of the town,) that it is now one of the handsomest towns of England. These improvements cost above a million sterling; and include a great number of new streets and terraces, a handsome square, the largest market in England, a central exchange, theatre, dispensary, music-hall, lecture-room, two chapels, two auction marts, &c.

General description. — Grey Street, so called in honour of Earl Grey, the largest of the new streets, has now become the principal thoroughfare of the town; it extends a gentle acclivity, and forms a continuation of Dean Street and the Side, which last reaches nearly to the river. Grey Street is nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in length, by 80 ft. in breadth, and is lined with substantial stone houses, which, in point of architectural beauty, may vie with Regent Street, in London: the effect is heightened, also, by the curvilinear direction of the street. At the top of Grey Street, where it joins Blackett Street, one of Grainger's

earlier and less ambitious works, stands the column dedicated to the late Earl Grey, 146 ft. high, and surmounted by a colossal statue of that nobleman, by Bailey. Grainger Street, another fine avenue, 300 yards in length, and 66 ft. wide, is on a similar design with Grey Street; and at their junction with Market Street is a large triangular space, on which has been erected the central exchange, a building having three uniform fronts, in the Corinthian style, with circular corners, faced with columns of the same order, and supporting light domes, after those of the temple of Vesta at Tivoli. The outside is formed into handsome shops and ware-rooms, enclosing the exchange, which has four large entrances, and is altogether lighted from above: the roof is ingeniously constructed, resting on the external walls, and inwardly on a circular entablature, supported by 14 Ionic columns, enclosing a platform, within which is the news-room, the outer space being open, and used for the promenades and rendezvous of the merchants. Adjoining the exchange is a handsome coffee-room, supported by subscribers, and managed by a committee. The principal commercial business is transacted at the old exchange on the Sandhill. Clayton, Nelson, Nun, and Shakespeare Streets are the other principal thoroughfares in Mr. Grainger's splendid improvements; and besides these, Eldon Square, N. of Blackett Street, Westgate, Percy, and Northumberland Streets, deserve notice. The N. suburbs are open; and, being removed from the bustle of town, are occupied by houses suited to the wealthier inhabitants, who have extended their residences into Jesmond township, forming a succession of terraces; and further north is a group of new buildings, called Brandling Place. On Rye-hill, also, W. of Newcastle, terraces and villas are in course of formation; and the same is the case on the road to N. Shields: Indeed, it may be said that the town is extending itself in every direction, with marked improvements in architectural taste. In Sandgate, however, and the lower parts of Newcastle, which extend along the banks of the Tyne for nearly 2 m., there are many narrow, incongruent, and dirty streets, lined with manufactories, warehouses, &c.; and comprising, also, many lanes and alleys, as filthy, close, and unwholesome as the worst of those of Liverpool and Manchester: indeed, "the mind cannot picture a state of greater destitution and misery than what appear in many of these houses; and in Sandgate, E. of the town, the condition of the people seems not much better." (*Rep. to British Association*, 1838.) But considerable improvements have been effected in the interval. The communication with the bor. of Gateshead (which see), on the S. side of the river, is maintained by means of the old bridge, of nine elliptical arches, and by the railway bridge.

Corporation and Commercial Buildings, &c.—The guildhall, which comprises also the exchange and the court belonging to the incorporated society of hostmen or coal-fitters (chartered in 1600), is a large building on Sandhill, much enlarged and altered at different periods, but of the most heterogeneous architecture, though at the same time pretty well adapted for business: the rooms contain some valuable portraits of public characters. On the quay, a fine open space faced with stone, and one of the largest in the kingdom, is the custom-house, faced with stone from a design by Smirke. The Moot-hall, or assize court-house for the co. of Northumberland, is within the precincts of the old Norman castle, and consists of a Grecian building, designed from the Temple of Theseus at Athens, and faced on two sides by Doric porticoes: the interior is well arranged for the business both of the civil and criminal courts. The town-gaol, in Carlisle Square, is a strong and rather unattractive building, erected in 1827, on the panopticon principle, at a cost of 47,000*l.*; but it is reported, that both the site and construction are bad; solitary confinement is impossible, and a better prison might have been built at little more than half the expense. It comprises about 50 cells, and the same number of rooms: the average number of prisoners, not including debtors, amounts to about 80, and the daily cost of each prisoner may average about 1*s.* 2*d.* The Trinity-house, in Trinity-church, Quay-side, is an incorporated institution of great antiquity, intended not only to improve the navigation of the river by the appointment of licensed pilots, but to provide subsistence for poor and decayed brethren, their widows and children: it supports at present about 27 in-pensioners, at 2*s.* 6*d.* per month; 81 masters or their widows, out-pensioners, at 5*s.* a year; and 37 seamen or their widows, at 6*s.* a year. The Arcade, in Pilgrim Street, one of Grainger's erections, though perhaps the least distinguished in point of taste, consists of an oblong pile of building, with a Corinthian frontage 94 ft. long and 75 ft. high. The N. of England joint-stock bank, and the savings' bank, occupy the front rooms; and in other parts are the post, stamp, and excise offices, with auction-rooms, shops, and chambers for lawyers, engineers, &c. It was opened in 1832, and cost 40,000*l.* The barracks, on the N.W. side of the town, accommodate nearly 1,000 troops.

Markets.—The Corn Exchange seems to be sufficiently capacious and convenient, as is the Fish Market. A large butcher-market was built in 1808; but it has been removed; and the only great market now existing in Newcastle is that constructed by Grainger, the largest in England, 318 ft. in length, and comprising an area of 9,680 sq. yards, exceeding that of St. John's in Liverpool by 2,680 sq. yards: it has 14 entrances, and is lined with 243 shops, besides stalls.

Literary, Scientific Institutions, &c.—The Literary and Philosophical Institution (founded in 1793, chiefly through the exertions of the Rev. W. Turner, a celebrated dissenting minister of Newcastle), occupies a building of Doric architecture in Westgate Street; and adjoining the library are the meeting-rooms and museums of the Natural History and Antiquarian Societies of Newcastle. A literary, scientific, and mechanical institution has an establishment in Blackett Street. A Music-hall, beneath which is a large public Lecture Room, has been built in Nelson Square. The Newcastle Institution, for the promotion of the fine arts, in Blackett Street, a handsome building with a Corinthian front, comprises a saloon and octagon gallery well lighted from the top: the establishment is supported by a joint-stock company, and the annual exhibition is in June. Newcastle has 6 public libraries, 3 weekly newspapers, and the Northern Counties' Club. The principal places of amusement are the theatre, in Grey Street; the assembly-rooms, in Westgate Street; behind which is the racket court, the riding-school in the public walk called the Firth, and the baths at the N. end of Northumberland Street. The theatre, built in 1835, to replace one that had been pulled down, has a front in Grey Street 120 feet in length, with a portico of 6 Corinthian columns, supporting a rich pediment; its interior shape is that of a flattened horse-shoe; and in point of size it is surpassed by few or no English theatres, except the Opera-house, and the patent theatres of the metropolis. Races are held in June on the Moor, about 14 m. N. the town; and a good stand has been erected for the accommodation of visitors.

Churches, &c.—Newcastle has 4 par. churches, the oldest of which is St. Andrew's, a Norman building, at the top of Newgate Street. By far the finest, however, is St. Nicholas (now the parent church), a cruciform structure in the decorated English style, with a choir and nave 220 feet in length, and 74 feet in width, the choir only being enclosed for service; a painted E. window, and a magnificent altar-piece of the Last Supper, decorate the interior; and at the W. end is a tower in the early perpendicular style, surmounted by a crocketed steeple resting on four flying buttresses, the whole being 201 ft. in height. This steeple is said, by Mr. Ricksons, to be "a piece of composition equally remarkable for its simplicity, delicacy, and excellent masonic arrangement." (*Architecture*, 8th ed. p. 218.) St. Giles's, Edinburgh, the College Tower, Aberdeen, and St. Dunstan's in the E. of London, are imitations of this steeple, but they all fall far short of the original. A good library, chiefly of old or theological books, is attached to this church: the rules of admission are liberal; and it is, in fact, open to the public free of charge. All Saints' is a modern Grecian building, with an elegant spire 202 feet in height: the interior is of an elliptical shape, and is richly fitted up with solid mahogany. St. John's, in Westgate, is a cruciform church, built in the 13th century, having a square embattled tower at its W. end. The chapels of ease are, St. Anne's, on the New Road; and another at Barras-bridge, called St. Thomas', in the early English style, and surmounted by a light tower 140 ft. high. An endowed charity school is attached to each of the churches, and a fifth to the chapel of St. Anne. The dissenters here are numerous, and most respectable: more than two thirds of their worship in the town belong to Methodists and other dissenting churches, including R. Catholics, members of the Church of Scotland, and the Society of Friends. Few dissenting chapels, however, have any claim to notice from their architectural beauty. Within the bor. are numerous Sunday schools, furnishing religious instruction to upwards of 5,000 children of both sexes. Two public cemeteries have been formed of late years in the suburbs.

Schools and Benevolent Establishments.—The Royal grammar school of Newcastle was founded by Thomas I. in 1165. Among its pupils have been the late lords Eldon, Stowell, and Collingwood, the poet Aken-side, and several other distinguished characters: Dawes, author of the *Miscellanea Critica*, was one of its masters. A Lancastrian school, called the "Jubilee-school," from its being founded in 1809, has a handsome school-house, with a large library, and is liberally supported by subscription. A second Jubilee-school was founded, to commemorate the 50th year of the praelacy of the late Dr. Shute Barrington: it is on the national plan, and supported chiefly by the clergy and lay members of the Established Church. There are several other endowed and subscription schools, including two infant schools. According to a report made to the British Association,

the number of children receiving instruction of some kind or other, in 1838, amounted to 8,339, or to about 51½ per cent. of the pop. between the ages of 5 and 15. The principal benevolent institutions are, the infirmary, which has accommodation for 800 in-patients; a dispensary; two blind asylums; a small lying-in hospital; asylum for poor keelmen; Jesus's hospital, for decayed freemen; mendicity society; domestic-guardian institution; and several ranges of almshouses; besides which, there are several minor charities and religious associations. Newcastle has also a large union-workhouse. Expense of maintaining the poor of the bor. in 1847, 21,133*l*.

Coal Trade.—The importance, if not existence, of Newcastle is owing to its convenient situation as a place of shipment for the coal wrought in its neighbourhood. The pits lie on each side the Tyne, from within 2 m. of its mouth to 16 or 18 m. up the river; and it appears from the evidence before the committee of the H. of Lords on the coal-trade, that, in 1829, there were 23 working collieries on the N. side, and 18 on the S. side of the Tyne. Several more have since been opened, and at present upwards of 60 pits are at work in the neighbourhood of Newcastle, some within a mile of the river, but others more than 8 m. distant. The coals are conveyed from the pits to the staiths in wooden or cast-iron waggons, brought along railways generally by means of successive inclined planes or locomotive engines. From such staiths (or coal-shipping wharfs) as are above Newcastle Bridge, the coal is conveyed in keels (each capable of holding 8 chalders or 23 tons) to Wallsend, Jarrow, or Shields, where it is delivered on board the ships; and the strength, as well as activity of the Tyne keelmen, is proverbial in the N. of England. Within the last few years, however, the formation of the Brandling Junction, and other railways, to S. Shields, has caused a diminution of the keel navigation. The coal shipped at Newcastle furnishes a large portion of the supply for the E. and S. cos. of England, inc. London, and a considerable quantity for exportation, chiefly to France, Holland, and Denmark, as will be seen from the following returns of coals, culm, &c., shipped at the port of Newcastle in 1846 and 1849:—

	To Ports of U. Kingd.	To Colonies and Foreign Ports.	Total.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
1846	2,075,574	294,899	2,367,573
1849	2,145,380	354,005	2,517,385

Of the coal shipped from Newcastle coastwise in 1849, 1,423,670 tons were for London. Owing to the circumstance of most of the vessels engaged in the coal-trade from Newcastle to London and other British ports belonging to the former, her registered tonnage, though it has decreased during the last dozen years, is greater than that of any other British port, London and Liverpool excepted. It amounted, on the 1st of January, 1850, to 1,029 (sailing) vessels of the agg. burden of 223,477 tons.

The principal exports of Newcastle, beside coal, comprise pig and sheet lead (from 6,000 to 7,000 tons of the former, and above 2,000 tons of the latter) from the mines of Stanhope, glass, and other goods manufactured in the town, hams, griststones from Gateshead-fell, &c. Gross customs' revenue of the port, in 1846, 433,761*l*.

The salmon-fishery of the Tyne (once much celebrated) has greatly declined. About 150 steam-boats belong to Newcastle; but of these 143, under 50 tons burden, are chiefly employed in towing ships up and down the river, or plying for passengers to and from Shields. The other and larger steam-packets ply between Newcastle and Stockton, Hull, Leith, and London. The Tyne is navigable, from its mouth up to Newcastle bridge, for vessels of 250 tons, though in some intermediate places the depth, even in the middle of the stream, does not exceed 14 ft. at ebbs tide. Dredging machines, however, have been in use within the last few years, and the navigation is said to have been much improved, though the bar at the mouth must always prove a great impediment to the entrance of large ships. It is high water at Newcastle about an hour later than at Tynemouth-bar, the average rise of spring-tides being 11 ft. 7 in., and that of neaps 7 ft. 3 in.

The principal manufactures are those of bottles and window glass, mostly carried on in the township of Byker, of mill-work, steam-engines, &c., and of leather and soap, of which the last article 3,154,790 lbs. were made in 1849. Ship and boat-building, rope and sail-making employ a considerable number of hands; besides which there are several malt-houses, breweries, iron foundries, lead mills, and chemical works. It has a branch of the Bank of England, with the North of England Joint-stock Banking Company, Newcastle-upon-Tyne Joint-stock Banking Company, Northumberland and Durham District Banking Company, Newcastle Commercial Banking Company, a private bank, and a savings' bank, which had, on the 30th November, 1848, 338,019*l*. of deposits.

The Tyne is crossed at Newcastle by two bridges.

The first of these, or the "old bridge," constructed in 1774-81, on the site of a previous bridge, swept away by a flood, is of stone, and has 9 elliptical arches. But, owing to the bed of the river being much sunk, the descent to and ascent from the old bridge make it very inconvenient. Hence a project was long on foot for constructing a "high level" bridge that should connect the high grounds on both sides the river by a road carried over it at their altitude. And this great improvement has been effected. The railway uniting York with Edinburgh is carried over the Tyne by a high level bridge. But instead of making this bridge single, or serving only to carry across the railway, it has been made double, that is, it has two lines of road, the upper one resting on the top of the arches being the railway, and the other, immediately below, and in part suspended from the latter, being an ordinary road, and serving, as such, for the transit of carriages, horses, passengers, &c. This singular fabric has 4 river and 3 land arches, each 124 ft. 10 in. in span. The carriage road is 33 ft. wide, and the height from the parapet of the railway to the bed of the river, 133 ft. The entire structure cost, inc. its approaches, 491,133*l*. It was opened by Her Majesty in person, 28th Sept. 1849.

Newcastle was constituted a bor. by William the Conqueror, and has received 36 charters from subsequent monarchs. It is divided by the Mun. Reform Act into 7 wards, and is governed by a mayor and 13 other aldermen and 43 councillors, and has a commission of the peace under a recorder. Corp. rev. in 1848-49, 63,504*l*. 2*s*. 6*d*., derived from bells, dues, tolls, and rents. The assizes and Epiphany quarter-sessions for the co. of Northumberland are held in the Moot-hall, besides which there is a mayor's court and sheriff's court for the recovery of debts to an unlimited amount; a county court, before which 3,450 plaints were entered in 1848; and a court of conservancy for the river. The town is well paved, lighted, and cleaned by the corporation, and there is an efficient police, established in 1836. Newcastle has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. since 37 Edward I., the election being vested, down to the Reform Act, in the free burgesses, both resident and non-resident. The electoral limits were enlarged by the Boundary Act, so as to include, with the old borough, the townships of Jesmond, Heaton, Byker, Elswick and Westgate. In 1840-40 it had 5,394 reg. electors. It is one of the polling-places at elections for the co. Markets extremely well supplied, especially with corn, on Tuesday and Saturday: fairs for woollen cloth, hardware, leather, horses, and cattle, Aug. 12. and Oct. 25., each lasting 9 days.

The wall of Adrian passes through the town, which is proved, by the numerous antiquities discovered in it, to have been the site of a Roman station; but there is no proof of such a strong presumption, that it was the *Pons Ælii*, mentioned in the "Notitia." Before the Conquest it was called *Monkchester*, from its numerous monastic institutions (of which there are still rather extensive remains), and also from being the resort of pilgrims to the holy well of Jesus' mount (now corrupted into Jesmond). A fortress was built here by Robert, eldest son of William the Conqueror; and it received the name of *Newcastle*, probably, to distinguish it from some more ancient building. In 1299 the walls on the E. side were rebuilt, and the reign of Edward III. the town was unsuccessfully attacked by David Bruce. Newcastle, at this early period, had become one of the largest commercial ports of the kingdom. It is curious, however, that the first authoritative mention of coal occurs in a charter by Henry III., authorising the burgesses of Newcastle to dig for that mineral. In 1281, the town had a considerable trade in coal, which soon after began to be imported into London; and in 1326 coals were exported to foreign countries. The town furnished, in 1346, 17 ships and 314 mariners for the siege of Calais, a greater force than any port on the Thames, except Yarmouth. It continued steadily to increase in commercial importance and mining industry till 1636, when it was visited by the plague, which carried off 5,000 of its inhabs. In the parliamentary wars it warmly espoused the cause of Charles I. With respect to the progress of its coal-trade, it may be stated that in 1703 the masters of the Trinity House of Newcastle reported to the H. of C. that 600 ships, each carrying 80 Newcastle chalders, and navigated by 4,500 men and boys, were required for the supply of other ports; and in 1770, 450 keels were employed on the Tyne, the quantity shipped amounting to 351,800 Newcastle chalders. The trade has been steadily increasing, and with greater rapidity since the introduction of gas. Lately, however, there has been a diminution, owing to the opening of extensive pits in S. Durham, where large supplies of coal are sent to the ports of Hartlepool and Middlesbrough. (*Brand's History of Newcastle*, *passim*, &c.)

NEWCASTLE-UNDER-LYNE, or **LYME**, a pari. and mun. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Stafford, N. div. hund. Firehill, 16 m. N.N.W. Stafford, and 133 m. N.W. London. Pop. of pari. bor., in 1844,

0,098. The town, which is well-paved and lighted, consists of two nearly parallel streets, entered from the London road, and crossed by several others of an inferior description. It is, on the whole, well built, though chiefly consisting of old houses: in the High Street is a large open market-place. The guildhall, a respectable-looking building, has good accommodation for the municipal and magisterial business. There are two churches, one of which, with the exception of its square tower, was rebuilt at the beginning of last century: the other, a district church, has recently been erected, the expense being defrayed chiefly by a grant of 4,400*l.*, from the parl. commissioners, but partly, also, by private subscription. A handsome alm. Cath. chapel was built in 1834; and there are places of worship for Wesleyan and other Methodists, Independents, Baptists, and the Society of Friends. Six Sunday-schools are attended by upwards of 1,500 children; besides which, a national, Lancastrian, infant, and four subscription schools furnish daily instruction to about 800 boys and girls. Newcastle-under-Lyme has, also, a free grammar-school, founded in 1602, and in trust of the corporation. The master's salary amounts to 63*l.* a year; but though the sons of freemen may receive gratuitous classical instruction, the school is not much resorted to by the children of the town, and is seldom attended by more than 12 boys. (*Mem. Corp.*) Almshouses for 50 aged women were established here in 1637, by the Earl of Albemarle; and the town has several benevolent institutions, with Bible, tract, and other associations, &c. A literary and scientific institution was founded in 1836, a public library has 2,000 vols., and there is a small theatre, little patronised.

"The manufacture of hats is the chief business carried on at Newcastle, though there are three or four silk-mills and one cotton-mill at work." These mills, however, are not mentioned in the Report of the Factory Inspectors for 1838. "The town, a few years ago, was in some measure regarded as the cap. of the pottery district, which includes several towns equal or even superior in pop. and importance to Newcastle itself. Latterly, however, this connexion has been broken, and the town has suffered much in consequence. Trade has been very languid till within the last year or two, when it somewhat revived; and at present the labouring classes are in full employment." (*West. Bound. Rep.*)

Newcastle sustained a serious diminution of its traffic, by the removal of the great line of communication between London, Manchester, &c. to the Grand Junction Railway, which passes upwards of 6 m. W. of the town. But this has been compensated by the opening of the line from Crew by Stoke, Stone, and Tamworth to Rugby, which passes close by the town. Iron-works and collieries are seated in the neighbourhood, and there are considerable tanneries and malt-houses, with a paper-mill employed in making tissue paper for the potteries. The town is connected by a branch canal with the Grand Trunk navigation, and has access by a similar line of communication to the coast. A branch of the Manchester and Liverpool District Banking Company, and a private bank, are established here, and there is a savings' bank. Markets on Monday and Saturday.

Newcastle-under-Lyme, which received its first charter in the 19 Henry III., was divided by the Municipal Reform Act into 3 wards, and placed under a mayor and 6 other aldermen, with 18 councillors; it has also a commission of the peace, under a recorder. Corp. rev. 1848-49, 1,836*l.* The bor. has returned 3 mems. to the H. of C. from 27 E. ward III., the right of voting down to the Reform Act being in the resident freemen (by gift, birth, and servitude). The Boundary Act added to the old bor. a small extra-parochial part of the Penkhill-township: reg. electors, in 1849-50, 1,028. It is also one of the polling-places for the N. div. of co. of Stafford. A county court is established in the town, before which 406 pleas were entered in 1848.

The distinguishing name of Newcastle (*under Lyme, or Lyme*) is of doubtful origin; but the best authorities refer it to the fact of its standing near the woodlands, which formed a *line* (limit) or separating *line* between the co. palatine of Chester, and the rest of England. Ashton-under-Lyme, Whitton-under-Lyme, and Audlem, or Old Lyme, admit of similar explanations.

NEW ENGLAND, the name commonly given to the N.E. portion of the United States, or to the territory including the states of Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Maine, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.

NEW GALLOWAY. See GALLOWAY (New).

NEWFOUNDLAND, a large island of N. America, near the Gulph of St. Lawrence, and off the E. coast of Labrador, from which it is separated by the narrow strait of Bellefleur, between lat. 46° 30' and 51° 40' N., and long. 53° 15' and 69° 10' W. Greatest length from N. to S. 350 m.; average breadth, 130 m. Area, 57,000 sq. m. Fixed pop. in 1845, 96,395, exclusive of those who visit the different stations during the fishing season. It may be generally described as of a triangular form, but is broken and indented with broad and deep bays,

harbours, coves, rivers, and lagoons, which, besides numerous capes and projecting points of land, form two peninsulas, on one of which, called Avalon, at the S.E. corner of the island, is the town and harbour of Avalon. Its surface is wild and rugged, and its aspect from the sea far from prepossessing. The interior, which, till within the last ten years, was almost unknown, is much broken with water; and lakes, marshes, and scrubby trees, form its general character. The only large and navigable streams are the Humber and that called the River of Exploits. Its prevalent geological constitution is of granite, on which are superimposed in some parts porphyry, quartz, gneiss, mica, and clay-slate, with secondary formations: coal and iron also occur in a few places. The E. half of the interior is generally a very picturesque country, traversed by hills and lakes, the whole being diversified by trees of humble growth. The country westward is more rugged and mountainous, with little wood, except near the shore; but the mountains are not generally in ridges, each apparently having its own particular base. The highest part of the island is the N. peninsula, lying along the strait of Bellefleur; near its centre are flats of considerable extent, swampy, unhealthy, and usually covered with peat or strong wiry grass, birch and larch, and the principal tallest trees. Pine seldom occurs, and never attains a large size; indeed, there is but little wood of any value, except for fuel and the building of small boats; so that it has scarcely timber enough for its own consumption, much less for exportation. Whortleberry bushes and *viskio-capoca* (Indian tea) are the principal plants on the high unwooded grounds. The best soil is along the rivers and at the heads of the bays fringing the island; but both the soil and climate generally are unfavourable to the raising of grain, though well adapted for pasturage and the cultivation of potatoes and other green crops. Vast herds of caribou deer graze in the plains and woods of the interior, and their flesh constitutes nearly the whole food of the Mic-Mac Indians. Beavers are much scarcer than formerly; but foxes are still numerous along the rivers and sea-coast. Among the other wild animals are wolves, and bears, hunted by the Indians from Labrador. Insects are numerous in swampy places, especially in hot weather. The best known and most celebrated of the animals belonging to Newfoundland are its dogs, famed for docility, obedience, and attachment to their masters. They are remarkably voracious, and are usually fed on salted fish; but, like the aborigines of the country, they endure hunger for a very lengthened period. The true breed has become very scarce, and there are only a few specimens of it in England, the animal so called in this country, though equally sagacious, hardy, and fond of the water, being a breed crossed with the mastiff, or some other English dog. The E. and S. coasts, where the winds blow from the sea, are very humid; and during winter the cold is intense. The harbours on the Atlantic shore are not so long frozen over as those within the Gulph of St. Lawrence, where the atmosphere is generally clear, and the climate not unlike that of Lower Canada. During the summer months the days and nights are commonly serene and pleasant; the temperature is very hot during summer, and in winter frequently falls as low as 30° below the freezing point. The island, however, is, on the whole, extremely healthy; and the inhabs. often attain a great age, attended with more than ordinary bodily as well as mental vigour. Agriculture is progressively increasing; but very few give it their exclusive attention, the pop. being principally employed in the fisheries. Almost every family, however, has a small quantity of land in cultivation, though tillage be very imperfectly understood.

Newfoundland has long been celebrated for its fisheries, on which, indeed, the inhabs. principally depend. The Great Bank, on the E. side of the island, is in some places about 300 m. in breadth, and 600 m. in length, the soundings being from 25 to 95 fathoms. There is also an outer bank, lying between lat. 44° 10' and 47° 30' N., and long. 45° 15' and 49° 35' W.; and a continuation of bank extends southward to Nova Scotia. Fog prevails almost without interruption on these banks, occasioned by the meeting of the waters brought thither by the gulph-stream from the tropics, with the waters carried by the influence of the winds from the Polar regions. A counter-current from the N. sweeps, also, along the shore of Labrador, bringing with it large icebergs, and rendering navigation dangerous, especially during foggy weather. The best fishing-grounds on the Great Bank are between the 42d and 46th parallels; and the principal English settlement, besides St. John's, the cap., are Conception Bay, Carbonier, Grace Harbour, Trinity Harbour, and Placentia, all on the E. side of the island. The islands of St. Pierre and Mequeleon, near the mouth of Fortune Bay, on the S. coast, were ceded to France in 1814: the former has a harbour and town of its own name, and is the residence of a governor. The cod-fishery, which

commenced a few years after the discovery of the island, attained to high importance during the late war with France, that the exports of cod and cod-oil were valued, in 1814, at 3,604,000*l.*; but the English fishery has since declined, so that the average annual value of the fish exported during the years 1847, 1848, amounted to only 796,710*l.* The number of ships employed in the fisheries cannot be ascertained; but, in 1845, there were 10,089 boats. The cod-fishery commences early in June; and as the English have for some years abandoned the bank-shoals to the Americans and French, it is principally carried on close to the shore, in small boats, manned by 2 or 4 persons. Every fisherman is provided with 2 lines, each with 2 hooks, baited with herrings, mackerel, and fish-entrails. In some cases, *Aggers*, or artificial fish, are used, provided with 3 strong hooks, which the cod swallows with the bait. *Scines* are also used, by which multitudes of cod are hauled ashore in coves on the coast of Labrador. So abundant are the fish occasionally, that a couple of cod are hooked on each line before it reaches the bottom; and while one line is running out, the fisherman has only to turn round and pull in the other, with a fish on each hook. As soon as the boat is loaded, which, under favourable circumstances, will be in 3 or 4 hours, they proceed to the stage on the shore, where the process of cutting up, salting, and drying takes place; and after having delivered their cargo, return immediately to sea. The cod-fishery, however, is truly precarious. Sometimes the fish is not equally abundant on all parts of the coast, and the fishermen are compelled to go far from the stations, and in some cases, to split and salt the cod in the boat. The incessant labour, also, which attends the curing leaves the shoremen scarcely time during the season to eat their meals, and allows them little more than 4 hours' sleep. (*McGregor's Brit. America*, i. 300-307.) The seal-fishery is conducted in vessels varying from 80 to 130 tons, with crews of 20 or 30 men. The season commences early in April: it is principally conducted close to the shore of Labrador, and has become important only within the last 30 years. The cod fishery on the W. coast has been given up to the French; but there is still a small whale-fishery conducted in boats on the S. side of the island. There is likewise a pretty extensive salmon-fishery, the value of which, in 1847, amounted to 3,782*l.*

The trade of Newfoundland consists in the exportation of the products of its fisheries in exchange for manufactured goods, colonial produce, corn, ship-biscuits, and a variety of articles for the consumption of the inhabs. The following table exhibits the

Years.	Quantity.				
	Dried Fish.	Oils.	Seal Skins.	Salmon.	Herrings.
	<i>Quintals.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Number.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>
1847 -	387,973	8,534	436,331	4,917	9,307
1848 -	320,366	10,705	511,608	5,332	15,373
	Value.				
1847 -	489,910	329,185	45,230	3,782	5,111
1848 -	401,324	245,551	56,425	6,507	7,644

The government of Newfoundland was long administered by naval commanders appointed to cruise on the fishing station, who returned to Britain in winter. Within the last century, however, it has been deemed more eligible to have a resident governor. In 1833, in consequence of a petition from the inhabs., a representative government was granted, the election being by almost universal suffrage. This system has hitherto worked very injudiciously, the popular body having been in a state of violent collision both with the executive and the commercial interests. Great complaints have also been made of the influence of the Rom. Cath. clergy in the elections; and the principal merchants have made representations to the government at home, to the effect that trade is injured, and property rendered insecure, by the proceedings of the assembly. The assembly comprises 16 members; and attached to it is a legislative and executive council. The laws are in English, and administered by circuit courts; but the police is neither numerous nor effective. The militia of the island consisted, in 1838, of 6,499 men, including 356 commissioned officers. Elementary schools have been established in most districts of the colony, and some of a superior class are especially patronised by government. In 1845 there were, in all, 309 schools in the island, attended by 10,366 pupils. In 1839 Newfoundland was, with the Bermudas, erected into a bishopric. There are about 32 clergymen and 64 churches connected with the establishment; but in 1847 (and we are not aware of any change in the interval) the former were all missionaries, there being nei-

ther parishes nor rectors, properly so called, in the island. The adherents of the Church of England amounted in 1845 to 34,381, the Wesleyans to 14,320, and the R. Catholics to 46,793. The latter have a bishop at St. John's, and a vicar-general at Grace Harbour.

The inhabs. are honest and industrious, but often addicted to drunkenness, and superstitious to a degree almost beyond belief. Capital offences are exceedingly rare, and petty thefts are scarcely known. The people, consisting chiefly of Irish, Scotch, and the inhabitants of Jersey and Guernsey, or their descendants (the Indian aborigines having been long all but extinct), are employed either wholly or occasionally in the fisheries. The pasture of cattle and sheep, and the cultivation of small spots of land, are likewise partial sources of occupation. The women, besides assisting the men in catching and curing the fish, are engaged either in rural occupations, or spinning and knitting worsted stockings, mittens, and socks. In winter much time is occupied in bringing home fuel, building boats, and making or repairing the fishing implements. Marriages and christenings are commonly celebrated at the close of the fishing season, or in winter, and are always times of great festivity and merriment. St. Patrick's and Shrove-tide days are celebrated with riotous mirth by the Irish; and Christmas is a universal holiday, marked by the observance of many customs that are now exploded in England. Celibacy is rare, and families of 10 or 12 children are very common. The fishermen's houses are one story high, built of wood, and covered with boards and shingles, imported from Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, &c. Their usual diet consists of ship-biscuits, potatoes and fish, salt pork and bobes tea, spruce beer being the common beverage for those living, as most of the people do, on fish and salt meat. Spirits are mixed with the beer, and the natives are called *Codfishers*, and rum is so cheap, that the labouring classes are apt to acquire habits of intoxication, which, however, is somewhat obviated by the practice of *legging*, somewhat similar to taking the temperance-pledge, either for one or more years, and occasionally for life.

Newfoundland was probably first discovered by the Norwegians, at the beginning of the 11th century, but, if so, it was subsequently forgotten, till John Cabot visited it in the summer of 1497, and gave it its present name. As early as the year 1500 an extensive fishery was carried on, by the Portuguese and French, on the neighbouring banks; but, though Sir Walter Raleigh, and others, attempted to form a colony here, no successful settlement was made, till Sir G. Calvert, afterward Lord Baltimore, in 1623, established himself on the S.E. part of the island, called Avalon, and appointed his son governor. Two years afterwards a colony was sent over from Ireland, and in 1654 a few English settlers came over, under the authority of a parliamentary grant. The French, who, very early in the 17th century, had formed a station at Placentia, were for many years a constant source of annoyance to the English; and, after the peace of Utrecht, the possession of the island was confirmed to the English, the subject of fishery rights is still a *casus belli* between the two nations. With respect to the fishery generally, it was chiefly carried on during the first half of the last century, by the English, Anglo-Americans, and French; but the capture of C. Bruton, and other possessions in America, gave a severe blow to the fishery of the latter. The American war divided the British fishery; that portion of it that had previously been carried on from New England being thereafter merged in that of the United States; but still the English contrived to preserve the largest share. The French were excluded from the fishery during the French war, in consequence of which the English had almost a monopoly of the business; but since the peace it has been carried on chiefly by the French and Americans, that of the English having declined fully three-fourths since the peace. (See *JOHN'S*, ST. ST. PIERRE.) (*McGregor's Brit. America*, i. 123-216; *Murray's Brit. America*, ii. 37-398; *Comm. Dict.*; *Parl. Papers*, &c.)

NEW HAMPSHIRE. See HAMPSHIRE, NEW.
NEWHAVEN, a city and sea-port of the U. States, in Connecticut, of which, conjointly with Hartford, it is the cap., co. Newhaven, on an inlet of Long Island Sound, 36 m. S.S.W. Hartford, and 75 m. N.E. New York: lat. 41° 18' N., long. 72° 57' W. Pop., in 1840, 12,560. "In point of situation, and of the neatness, cleanliness, and elegance of its buildings, it is as unlike the dirty village of Newhaven on the Forth as can well be conceived. The town is built on a plain, about 2 m. from N. to S., and 3 m. from E. to W. The streets and squares are quite regular, and all shaded with fine trees. In the centre of the city is the public square, in which stands the state-house, several of the churches, and Yale College." (*Stuart*.) The new state-house is built after the model of the Parthenon. Yale College is one of the most distinguished literary institutions in America. It was incorporated in 1701, and removed thither in 1717. The college buildings, which are of stone, comprise 4 halls, each 100 ft. by 40 ft., in which are the dormitories of the stu-

dents; a chapel, 2 halls for lecture rooms, a large dining-hall, the medical college, &c. This institution has the finest cabinet in the U. States, a good anatomical museum, and libraries, comprising altogether 48,000 vols. In 1848, it had 21 professors and 385 students. The state hospital, the churches of the Episcopalians, Baptists, Methodists, Africans, &c.; the great custom-house, almshouse, and museum, are among the chief public edifices. There are numerous flourishing boarding-schools in the town, an institution for public lectures, and several banks and insurance offices. The legislature of Connecticut meets alternately at Hartford and Newhaven. This city has a considerable foreign and coasting trade. Its harbour, though shallow and gradually filling up with mud, is spacious and secure; and the wharfs bordering it are extensive, one being nearly 4,000 ft. in length. In 1849, there belonged to the port 20,307 tons of shipping. Newhaven is connected with Hartford by a railroad; and with Northampton, and other parts of Massachusetts, by a canal. It communicates daily with New York by steam-boats.

NEW JERSEY. See JERSEY, NEW.

NEWMARKET, a market town of England, celebrated for its races, partly in hund. Cwevely, co. Cambridge, and partly in hund. Lackford, co. Suffolk, 13 m. E. N.E. Cambridge, and 53 m. N. by E. London. Area of its two parishes, 670 acres. Pop. in 1841, 2,996. It comprises one long and wide street, lined with respectable shops, handsome private residences, numerous hotels and inns for the accommodation of the nobility and others who flock thither during the races. It has some handsome public buildings, among which may be specified the news-rooms belonging to the Jockey Club. The stables are most extensive, and are fitted up with every convenience. Of the two parish churches, that of St. Mary's is by far the most handsome, and has a tower and steeple that form a prominent feature when seen from a distance. The Wesleyan Methodists and Baptists have also their places of worship, with attached Sunday schools. A subscription charity school is attended by 72 boys and 53 girls, the number on Sunday amounting to 176 children of both sexes. There are numerous other small charities.

Horse-racing, though now so favourite a diversion, is of rather late origin in England, and does not appear to have been much practised till the latter part of the reign of Queen Elizabeth. In the following reign, however, James I. was a distinguished patron of the turf, and imported Arabian horses for the improvement of the native breeds. In the early part of the reign of Charles I., Newmarket became celebrated for its races; and Charles II., who was still more zealously attached to this new resort of the sporting world, regularly attended its races, and repaired and enlarged the house in the town that had been occasionally occupied by his father and grandfather. From this epoch Newmarket has been the racing metropolis of the empire, and has always had to boast of the most distinguished patronage, "Newmarket fame and judgment in a bet" being an object of the highest ambition with many nobles and wealthy commoners of our own day, as well as with those of the Pope. The race-course, on the heath to the W. of the town, is probably the finest in England. It is apportioned into different distances, corresponding with the ages and supposed powers of the horses, the longest course being 4 m. 1 furlong and 128 yds., and the shortest 2 furlongs and 47 yds. The grand stand has every accommodation for spectators, with a betting-room, coffee-room, &c. There are 7 race meetings during the year, instituted at different periods, each lasting three days: the earliest is the Craven meeting, on Easter-Monday; then follow the two spring meetings; a fourth takes place in July; and there are three others in October, the last being called "the Houghton meeting." The sovereign gives three plates annually; one is provided from a fund left for the purpose, and others are given by the nobility or subscribed for by the members of the turf. The training-ground, on a slope S. of the town, is considered superior even to the course for trying the mettle, wind, and speed of the horses. About two thirds of the adult male pop. are trainers, stable-keepers, grooms, &c.; and, in fact, the town is wholly dependent for support on the races, and the training of horses. The markets on Tuesday (fair), White-Tuesday and Nov. 8, chiefly for horses and sheep. Newmarket was nearly burnt down in 1653, and again at the commencement of last century.

NEW ORLEANS, a city and river-port of the U. States, Louisiana, of which it is the cap., and the commercial metropolis of the southern and western portions of the Union, on the Mississippi, about 105 m. from its mouth; lat. 29° 37' 45" N.; long. 90° 6' W. Pop. in 1830, 56,103, while, in 1840, it had increased to 102,191! But it has increased but little in the intervening 10 years, the pop., in 1849, having been estimated at 105,208. It is built on a wide level, along the river edge, the ground being so spongy that none of the houses have cellars. The surface

of the river at high water is also from 2 to 4 ft. above the level of the town; and even in its lower stages it is above the level of the swamps in the rear of the city. To obviate inundations, a levee, or embankment, from 5 to 30 ft. in height, has been raised for about 100 m. along the river. A breach sometimes occurs in this dyke, but it is rarely permitted to do much damage before it is closed; and the most serious drawback the city suffers from its situation is its insalubrity. It is usually visited by the yellow fever, from July to Sept., every year or every two years, when great numbers of the poor are swept off, and the rich betake themselves to some more healthy situation. But the fury of this scourge has latterly been mitigated by draining some of the contiguous swamps, paving certain parts of the city, substituting stone for wooden sewers, &c. The effective plan, however, would be to raise the ground on which the city stands 8 or 10 ft. above its present level. This would at once elevate it above the level of the river, provide a descent for the drains in the town, and would most probably free it from fever. Considering the vast importance of the objects to be gained, the undertaking, though expensive and difficult, is one that should immediately be set about. In 1849 there died in New Orleans 9,862 persons, being in the appalling ratio of 1 death for every 109 inhabs., or 36-6 deaths out of every 1,000 living. A part, however, of this excessive mortality was occasioned by cholera. And allowing for its influence the present average rate of mortality may be estimated at 1 death to every 16-41 living, or 60-6 deaths to every 1,000 of the pop. (*Dr. Stark on the Vital Statistics of New Orleans*.) This extraordinary mortality, (fully three times as great as the mortality of Boston,) is the great drawback upon New Orleans, and is sufficient almost to neutralise her other advantages.

New Orleans, having few steeples or other conspicuous objects, makes no striking appearance from a distance. "It is in the form of a parallelogram, composed of six complete squares, with suburbs or *faubourgs*, which are rapidly increasing. The streets in the old city are hardly 40 ft. wide; but in the newer portions they are much wider, and intersect each other at right angles. The cathedral, at the head of a square, is an old building, with 4 towers and massive walls, ornamented with figures of saints in the niches. It is the only public building at all imposing. Public institutions, though numerous, are built in an unpretending style. There are very few churches in proportion to the pop. The French theatre is in the city, and the American in the suburbs. The houses (which in the old city are lofty, ornamented with tasteful cornices and iron balconies, and presenting many characteristics similar to those in the towns of France and Spain,) are chiefly of brick, and many of them stuccoed externally of a white or yellow colour. In the new portion of the city the houses are built in the modern American style. Many of the doors are left open during the day, and mosquito curtains substituted in their stead." (*Stewart's America*, ii. 196, 197.) Next to the R. Cath. cathedral, the state-house, custom-house, exchange, U. S. mint, barracks, college, the charity hospital, which provides for from 8,000 to 9,000 in-door and out-patients annually, 3 other hospitals, the orphan-asylum, and several theatres, are the principal public buildings. The charitable institutions are both numerous and well conducted. There are places of worship for Episcopalians, Unitarians, Baptists, Methodists, &c.; but most of the white pop., being of French or Spanish descent, are R. Catholics. Half the fixed residents are black or coloured; but in no city is there a greater mixture of races. Inhab. from every state in the Union, and from every country in Europe, with Creoles and all the shades of the coloured pop., unite to form a curious contrast of manners, languages, and complexions. The markets of New Orleans are well supplied, and provisions are cheap, while labour of all kinds is dear. The city is abundantly furnished by the Mississippi with water, which, though turbid at first, becomes clear and palatable on being filtered or allowed to settle. Morale are at a lower ebb in this than in any other great city of the Union, though, according to Mr. Stuart, they are not quite so bad as has been represented. Education and a taste for literature are little diffused, and there are few newspapers and reading-rooms. On the other hand, however, there are an immense number of lottery-offices, billiard-rooms, and gambling-houses. The police is good.

Commerce. — New Orleans is the grand emporium of all the vast tracts traversed by the Mississippi, the Missouri, and their tributary streams, and enjoys in consequence a greater command of internal navigation than any other city either of the Old or New World. Civilization has hitherto struck its roots, and begun to flourish only in some comparatively small portions of the immense territories of which New Orleans is the port, and yet her progress has been rapid beyond all precedent. It appears from the accounts printed by order of Congress, that during the year ending the 30th of June,

1848, the value of native American produce exported from this city amounted to 39,350,148 doll., while the value of that exported from New York was only 38,771,529 doll. But with respect to imports, the case is materially different; the value of those of New Orleans in the above year being only 9,330,429 doll., whereas those of New York amounted to 94,525,141 doll.

It is believed by many, seeing how rapidly settlements are forming in the "West," that New Orleans must, at no very distant period, exceed every other city of America, as well in the magnitude of its imports as of its exports; and, considering the boundless extent and extraordinary fertility of the uncultivated and unoccupied basins of the Mississippi and Missouri, the anticipations of those who contend that New Orleans is destined to become the greatest emporium, not of America only, but of the world, will not appear very unreasonable. Steam navigation has been of incalculable service to this port, and, indeed, to the whole of central N. America. The voyage up the Mississippi, that used to be so difficult and tedious, is now performed in commodious steam packets with ease, celerity, and comfort. "There have been counted," says Mr. Flint, "in the harbour, 1,500 flat boats at a time. Steam boats are arriving and departing every hour; and it is not uncommon to see 50 lying together in the harbour." A forest of masts is constantly seen along the levee, except in the sultry months. There are often 5,000 or 6,000 boatmen from the upper country here at a time; and we have known 30 vessels advertised together for Liverpool and Havre. The intercourse with the Havannah and Vera Cruz is great, and constantly increasing." (*Geog. and Hist. of the W. States*, i. 557.) New Orleans has, also, a large and rapidly increasing intercourse with the Isthmus of Panama and California.

In 1849, the shipping belonging to the port measured, in the aggr., 240,306 tons; of which about a half was the tonnage of steamers only. Vessels of the largest burden may navigate the river several hundreds of miles above New Orleans. Notwithstanding a large proportion of her foreign trade is carried on in foreign bottoms, she now ranks as the third shipping port in the Union, being, in this respect, inferior only to New York and Boston. The depth of water in the river opposite to New Orleans is, at a medium, about 70 ft.; and it maintains soundings of 30 ft. till within a mile of its confluence with the sea. Besides 3 or 4 of inferior consequence, the Mississippi has 4 principal passes, or outlets. But in the S.E., or main pass, at Balize, the water on the bar at ordinary tides does not exceed 12 ft.; and as the rise of the tides in the Gulf of Mexico is not more than 3 or 2 ft., vessels drawing much water cannot make their way from the ocean to New Orleans.

The commerce of the city is facilitated by means of canals, which connect it with Lake Pontchartrain, and by the Carrollton, Pontchartrain, and Orleans Street railroads; though none of these works is of any considerable length.

The great articles of export from New Orleans consist of cotton, principally to England and France; flour, corn, and meal; bacon, pork, and lard, principally to Cuba, the West Indies, and Brazil; tobacco, sugar, lead, &c. We subjoin

A Statement of the Quantities of the Principal Articles shipped from New Orleans in 1849-50.

Cotton	-	bales	528,591	Lard	-	hogs	1,554,519
Flour	-	bbles	311,750	Tobacco	-	hides	87,953
Corn	-	sacks	456,057	Sugar	-	-	92,730
Pork	-	bbles	470,257	Do.	-	bbles	15,942
Bacon	-	bbles	66,529	Beef	-	-	55,544

There are in the city a great number of joint-stock banks, with numerous insurance offices, &c.

New Orleans was founded by the French in 1717; in 1769 it was occupied by the Spaniards, in whose hands it continued for about 34 years. In 1814-15 a British army, which had effected a landing in the neighbourhood, was compelled to re-embark, after having sustained great loss in an attack on the entrenchments of the Americans under General Jackson. (*Official Returns*.)

NEWPORT, a parl. bor., market-town, and par. of England, in the centre of the Isle of Wight, of which it is the cap., on the Medina (crossed here by an old stone bridge), 14 m. S.E. Southampton, and 75 m. S.W. London. Pop. of parl. bor., which comprises, with the old bor., a portion of the par. of Carisbrooke, in 1841, 6,330. The town has one principal street, with two or three others meeting it at right angles, and forming spacious market-places. The best streets are well built, paved, and lighted with gas; but there are several inferior houses on the N. side of the town and along the river. The market-house is an old building, open in the lower part, the upper story being formed into apartments for the corporation business, &c. The church is a large edifice, having three aisles, divided from each other by pointed arches, and an embattled tower at its W. end: the living is a vicarage, subordinate to Carisbrooke.

The Rom. Caths., Wesleyan Methodists, Baptists, Unitarians, and the Society of Friends, have their respective places of worship; and there are three Sunday schools. A grammar-school was founded, in 1619, by James I. In its school-room, a venerable looking structure of grey stone, Charles I. and the parliamentary commissioners carried on the negotiations which ended so fatally for the former. There is also a girl's charity school. The Literary Institution, assembly-rooms, and theatre are the other principal public establishments. Within the bor. is a gaol, built at the joint expense of the bor. and the island generally; it has rooms for the separate confinement of male and female tried and untried prisoners; but there is little further classification. The old castle of Carisbrooke (which see) occupies an eminence about 1½ m. S.W. the town. About 1 m. N. is a work-house for the poor of the entire island, and near it is Parkhurst military depot and hospital, erected in 1780, and furnishing accommodation for upwards of 3,000 troops. "The town formerly derived much benefit from the presence of a large military force; but the barracks have been all but deserted since 1835, and the withdrawal of the stimulus has been seriously felt. There is a lace manufactory close to the town, employing from 600 to 700 hands, and another or less one at a small distance of about 3 m. The present importance of Newport depends principally on its being a market-town in the centre of the island, which is an active agricultural and grazing district. The markets are said to be somewhat injured by the existence of the tolls; but the general prosperity of the town seems to be neither increasing nor diminishing to any material extent." (*Mun. Corp. Rep.*)

The bor. of Newport is supposed to have been incorporated in the reign of Henry II., but its principal charter was granted by James I. under the Mun. Reform Act it is divided into 3 wards, and is governed by a mayor, 5 other aldermen, and 18 councillors: it enjoys, also, a commission of the peace, under a recorder. Corporation revenue, in 1847-48, 1,055*l*. An ancient court, the *Curia militum*, consisting of freeholders, is held once in three weeks at the town-hall, and exercises jurisdiction over all the island, except the bor. Newport has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the 23rd Edward I. A portion of the par. of Carisbrooke was added to the old bor. by the Borough Act; registers elected in 1849-50, 681. Newport is also the election-town for the Isle of Wight, which, under the Reform Act, sends 1 mem. to the H. of C.

NEWPORT (Welsh, *Castell-newydd*), a parl. bor., market town, and river-port of England, hund. West-loog, co. Monmouth, on the W. bank of the Usk, crossed here by a stone bridge of 5 arches, and about 4 m. from its mouth, 30 m. S.S.W. Monmouth, and 134 m. W. by N. London. Pop. of parl. bor. in 1841, 10,371. The town comprises a narrow and crooked main street, bifurcating at its S. extremity, and crossed by others still narrower and more irregular. On an eminence S. from the town is the old par. church of St. Woolos, with a square tower, apparently of Norman architecture, though much altered at different periods: the living is a vicarage, in the gift of the Bishop of Gloucester. There are places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists, Calvinists, Baptists, and R. Catholics. National and Lancasterian schools are established here, and the Sunday schools are attended by about 900 children. Near the bridge are some interesting remains of a baronial castle, said to have been erected by Robert Fitzroy, son of Henry I.; and not far off are the ruins of an old monastery.

Newport is extensively engaged in the iron and tin trade, and in the export of coals. It is connected with Pontypool and Crumlin by the Monmouthshire Canal. Iron and coal are brought from the former, coals only from the latter. Tram-roads also connect Newport with the Romney, Tredegar, Sirhowey, Ebbwvale, and Beaufort iron-works. It may, indeed, be considered a very thriving place: new docks and wharfs are building, or in contemplation; and the town is rapidly increasing." (*Mun. Bound. Rep.*) In 1849, 402,078 tons of coal were shipped from this port, of which 108,745 tons were sent to foreign countries. The gross customs' revenue in 1845 amounted to 9,795*l*, but in 1846 it rose to 11,192*l*. The river is navigable for sea-going ships close up to the town, and ship-building is carried on to a considerable extent. On the 1st of January, 1840, there belonged to the port, 89 vessels of the aggr. burden of 11,335 tons. The iron-foundries are on a large scale, and there are nail factories, roperies, breweries, and a pretty extensive pottery.

Newport, which received its earliest charter in the reign of Edward III., was divided by the Municipal Reform Act into 2 wards; its mun. officers being a mayor and 5 other aldermen, with 18 councillors. It has also a commission of the peace, under a recorder. Corporation revenue in 1847-8, 1,660*l*. In conjunction with Monmouth and Usk, Newport has sent 1 mem. to

the H. of C. since the 17th Henry VIII., the right of election down to the Reform Act being vested in the resident burgesses. The electoral limits were enlarged by the Boundary Act, so as to include with the old bor., additional portions of the pars. of St. Woollos and Christchurch. Reg. electors for the united bors., in 1849-50, 1,268. It is, also, one of the polling-places at elections for the co., and the principal town of a poor-law union, comprising 30 pars. and townships. Markets on Saturday; cattle markets the 3d Monday in each month; fairs, Holy Thursday, Whit-Thurs., 15th Aug., and 6th Nov. (*Parl. Mem. Bound. Rep. &c.*)

NEWPORT, a market-town and par. of England, S. Bradford, hund. co. Salop, near its E. limit, 184 m. W. N. W. Shrewsbury, and 138 m. N. W. London. Area of par. 800 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,497. It consists principally of a main street, on the road between Shrewsbury and Stafford, in the centre of which stands the par. church: the living is a perpetual curacy, in the gift of the lord-chancellor. A grammar-school, founded in 1565, is endowed with lands producing about 1,000*l.* a year, and funded property to the amount of 13,450*l.*; it has 8 exhibitions at Oxford and Cambridge, and is conducted by 2 masters. An English school is supported out of the funds of the same charity, and there are 2 sets of almshouses. The town comprises also an old, but well-built market-hall. The chief business of Newport is its retail trade for the supply of the neighbourhood. Maltstg is carried on pretty extensively; and it derives some advantages from its situation, a branch canal connecting the Shrewsbury Canal with the Liverpool and Birmingham Junction Canal. A private bank and savings' bank are established here. Markets on Saturday: cattle and sheep fairs, first Tuesday in February, Saturday before Palm Sunday, May 23, July 27, Sept. 28., and Dec. 10.

NEWPORT, a decayed bor. and market-town of England, co. Cornwall, N. div. hund. East, separated from Launceston, of which it is a suburb, by a small rivulet. Though it had for many years been quite insignificant, this bor. sent, from the reign of Edward VI., 2 mems. to the H. of C. (nomines of the Duke of Northumberland) down to the passing of the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised.

NEWPORT, a sea-port town of the U. States, Rhode Island, on the W. shore of the island, whence the state derives its name, 36 m. S. by E. Providence. Pop. in 1840, 8,233. Previously to the American revolution, this town ranked third or fourth among those of the British N. American colonies; but it has since been far outstripped by others, though it has still a considerable commerce. Its advantages for sea-bathing make it a favourite place of summer resort. It is regularly laid out, and its houses have an antique appearance. The state-house, gao., several banks and insurance offices, and a good library, are the principal public establishments. The harbour, defended by 3 forts, is spacious, deep, and of easy entrance. There belonged to the port, in 1849, 10,174 tons of shipping.

NEWPORT-PAGNELL, a market town and par. of England, at the N. extremity co. Buckingham, hund. of its own name, near the junction of the Ouse and Great Ouse (crossed here by 3 stone bridges, and 1 of iron), 13 m. E. N. E. Buckingham, and 44 m. S. W. London. Area of par. 3,220 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,562. The town is straggling, ill-built, and only occasionally lighted with gas. The church, which has lately been thoroughly repaired, is a large building of considerable antiquity, occupying an eminence which commands an extensive view of the surrounding rich country: the living is a vicarage, valued at 230*l.* a year, and in crown patronage. The R. Catholics, Wesleyan Methodists, and Independents have also their respective places of worship, with attached Sunday schools. A national, Lancasterian, and infant schools are supported by subscription, and there are 2 endowed charity schools for girls. A mechanics' institute was established here a few years since; and there is a theological academy for training independent ministers. Revs's almshouses provide lodging, clothes, fuel, and a stipend of 10*l.* a year to 7 aged persons, and Queen Anne's Hospital (founded by Anne, consort of James I.) is appropriated to the maintenance of 6 poor men and women, an allowance, also, of 10*l.* a year being made to the vicar as its master. There are several other minor charities and requests belonging to the co., and in trust of the vicar and churchwardens. Newport-Pagnell had formerly a very extensive manufacture of bone-lace, which, though greatly injured by the competition of the machine-lace of Nottingham, still forms the staple trade of the town. The petty sessions for the hund. are held here. Markets well supplied with corn on Saturday: cattle and lace fairs, April 22, June 22, and Oct. 22.

NEW ROSS, a par. bor. and river-port of Ireland, co. Wexford, prov. Leinster, on the declivity of a steep hill, on the E. side the Barrow, 13 m. N. E. Waterford. Pop., in 1841, 7,545. It is in general a pretty well built town, with a parish church, a chapel of ease, 2 Rom. Cath. chapels, a friary, and a nunnery, with meeting houses

for Presbyterians, Independents, Quakers, Methodists, &c.; several endowed schools, an infirmary, a fever hospital, and dispensary, a lying-in hospital, the Trinity hospital, and other almshouses, with several minor charitable institutions; a market-house, and corn-market; a barrack, the borough court-house, sessions-house, and bridewell. A wooden bridge, 510 ft. in length, with a drawbridge for the passage of vessels, leads across the river to the suburb of Rosherford, in the co. Kilkenny. The corporation, which received its first charter in the reign of Edward I., consisted of a sovereign, burgesses, and commonalty. It returned 3 mems. to the Irish H. of C. till the Union, since which it has sent 1 mem. to the Imperial H. of C. The electoral limits, as fixed by the Boundary Act, comprise an area of 544 acres. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 187. The workhouse for New Ross Union, opened in 1843, has accommodation for 1,900 inmates. General sessions are held at Easter and Michaelmas; petty sessions every fortnight. The town is a constabulary station, and it has breweries and distilleries. Markets on Wednesdays and Saturdays; fairs, 10th Jan., 10th Feb., 17th March, Easter Monday, 2d May, Whit-Monday, 10th June, 10th July, 10th Aug., 10th Sept., 18th Oct., 10th Nov., and 8th Dec.

New Ross is well situated for trade: vessels of 200 tons reach it at all times of the tide, and those of 600 tons at high springs: the river is also navigable for barges to Athy, where it unites with the Grand Canal, communicating with Dublin on the one hand, and the Shannon on the other. The port, which was formerly subordinate to Waterford, has been made independent. In 1850, it is reported to have had 37 vessels of the aggregate burden of 9,677 tons; but we presume there is some mistake in this statement. Customs rev. in 1844, 31,382*l.* It imports fish from Newfoundland, and timber from N. America and the Baltic. Post-office revenue in 1848, 462*l.* Branches of the Bank of Ireland and National Bank have been opened.

Though called New, Ross is really an old town. A sanguinary conflict took place here on the 4th of June, 1798, between the insurgent Irishmen and the military. The former repeatedly forced their way into the town; but were in the end repulsed with great loss.

NEWRY, a par. bor., river-port, and town of Ireland, prov. Ulster, on the Newry Water, about 6 m. above where it falls into Carlingford Bay, and on the line of the Newry Canal, which gives it a navigable communication with the bay on the one hand, and with Lough Neagh on the other, 24 m. S. W. Belfast, and 56 m. N. Dublin. Area of par. bor., 2,443 acres. Pop., in 1841, 13,327. It is divided by the river into two unequal portions, the largest of which, on its W. side, is in the co. Down, and the other in Armagh; the communication between them being kept up by 4 bridges, 3 of which are handsome structures.

It is a well-built thriving town. (*Mem. Bound. Rep.*) Its more ancient part, on the declivity of a hill, has narrow and ill-arranged streets; but the modern portion, on the low ground along the river and canal, has wide airy streets, with good houses, mostly of granite. The principal public buildings are 2 Protestant Episcopal churches; St. Patrick's, originally built in 1578, and rebuilt after the Revolution, and St. Mary's, a handsome structure, erected in 1812, with a spire 190 ft. in height. It has also 2 Rom. Cath. chapels, one of which, of large dimensions, in the Gothic style of architecture, is regarded as the cathedral of the see of Down. A convent of the order of St. Clare has also a chapel attached to it. The Presbyterians have 4 places of worship, the Methodists 2, and the Independents and Killyites 1 each. The institutions for education comprise a preparatory seminary for Maynooth College, a school attached to the convent of St. Clare, and 3 schools, none of a board of national education, in which and in other minor schools, about 1,700 pupils are instructed. Some of the apartments of a suite of assembly-rooms, erected in 1794, are now used as public offices and for a savings' bank. It has also a mendicity association, and some almshouses; an hospital, with accommodation for 40 patients; a good custom-house; and barracks for 700 men.

The environs, which are very beautiful, are studded with numerous seats, surrounded by well-wooded meadows. The town is paved, cleaned, lighted with gas, and watched, under the management of a board of commissioners. The supply of water is wholly derived from numerous private springs. The workhouse for the Newry Union, opened in 1841, has accommodation for 1,000 inmates.

The *Lordship of Newry*, of which the town forms part, extends over 17,044 acres. It formerly was attached to a monastery, and enjoyed very extensive privileges, which, after the dissolution of religious houses in the reign of Henry VIII., were vested in the Bagnal family, of which the Earl of Kilmorey is the present representative: his lordship being lay rector and proprietor of the tithes. The bor. was incorporated by James I. in 1613; but the corporation under this charter

having, from some cause or other, been extinguished. The senechal, appointed by Lord Kilmorey, became the ruling officer in the town, holding a manor-court every third Wednesday for sums not exceeding 10*l*., and a weekly court of record on Mondays for pleas to the amount of 2*l*. 6*s*. 8*d*. Irish. The general sessions for the county of Down are held here twice a year, as are those for the W. division of Armagh, in which the town is partly situated. Here is a bridewell, in which prisoners are confined until transmitted to the county prisons at Downpatrick or Armagh. The bor. returned 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C.; and since the Union it has returned 1 mem. to the Imperial H. of C. The charter restricted the right of voting to the provost and 12 burgesses; but on its extinction the franchise came to be enjoyed by the inhab. at large. It was, however, confined by the act 35 Geo. 3, cap. 29, to the occupiers of houses rated at the annual value of *M*. The Boundary Act did not change the limits of the bor. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 577.

Though not distinguished by its manufactures, it has 2 foundries, a flint glass factory, a distillery, 3 breweries, several flour-mills, with tan-works, &c.; and in its vicinity are 3 large flax-mills and a cotton-mill. The opening of the Newry Canal connecting Carlingford Bay with Lough Neagh, has been of great advantage to the town, having made it the entrepôt of a very considerable district, and the seat of an extensive commerce; it is the principal port in the kingdom for the shipment of butter; and its communications will be farther improved by the Belfast and other railways. Vessels of small burden come up to its quays, but those of larger burden load and unload at Warren's Point, about 4 m. lower down. Subjoined is

An Account of the Quantity and Value of the Principal Articles shipped from Newry in 1835.

Articles.	Quantity.	Estimated Value.
Corn, meal, and flour	- cwts.	497,347
Provisions	- "	204,357
Potatoes	- "	21,233
Flax and tow	- "	5,340
Feathers	- "	25,940
Tobacco	- lbs.	54
Spirits	- gallons	8,735
Linen	- yards	5,500
Eggs	- number	3,696,500
Cows and cows	- head	2,138,000
Horses	- "	5,551
Sheep	- "	898
Swine	- "	15,525
Other articles	- value	15,500
Total	- "	616,836

Exclusive of its cross-channel trade with Great Britain, especially that with Liverpool and Glasgow, which is by far the most extensive, it has some trade with North America, the ports on the Baltic, and other foreign countries. The gross customs' duty received at the port amounted, in 1848, to 36,146*l*.; and in 1850 it had 199 vessels of the agg. burden of 12,716 tons, and a steamer. A general market, and a market for linens, which are extensively produced in the neighbourhood, are held every Thursday; and a market for grain on Tuesdays, and for meat on Saturdays. Post-office revenue, in 1848, 1,370*l*.

Newry was early of considerable importance, and had a castle, it suffered in the war of 1641, and was nearly destroyed by the Duke of Berwick in 1689. It is now one of the most thriving towns in the N. of Ireland. (*Railway Report; Thom's Almanack, &c.*)

NEWSTEAD, a village of England, co. Nottingham, being a liberty of the par. of Paplewick, in the N. div. wap. Broxtow, 8 m. N. by W. Nottingham. Pop., in 1841, 193. This village would be wholly unworthy of notice were it not for its proximity to Newstead Abbey; a structure, the fame of which will be as immortal as the English language. The abbey was formerly a priory of Black Canons, founded by Henry II., and granted as the Dissolution to Sir John Byron, the ancestor of the illustrious poet, to whom it is wholly indebted for its celebrity. The part now inhabited consists principally of the rooms and offices of the priory, the church, except the S. aisle, having fallen entirely into decay. The front has a noble and majestic appearance, being built in the form of the W. end of a cathedral, adorned with rich carving and lofty pinnacles. The cloisters exactly resemble those of Westminster Abbey, only on a smaller scale, but possessing, if possible, more venerable appearance. The cloister-court has a basin in the centre; and many of the ancient occupants of this noble pile lie under its flagged pavement. The chapel is still entire. The abbey stands

"on embosomed in a happy valley;
Covered by high woods."

And the ivy-covered ruins of the Gothic church, with its

"mighty window" and tower, strikingly contrast with the castellated mansion and its offices.

"Before the mansion lies a lucid lake,
Broad as transparent, deep, and freshly fed
By a river

with woods sloping down to its banks. The apartments are spacious and superbly furnished in the old style; and the venerable fabric, with its remnants of monastic and baronial magnificence, its sombre appearance and sequestered situation, seems to have harmonised well with the moody mind of the "noble Child." An antique cross of red sandstone stands in the courtyard, and a Gothic greenhouse leads into a beautiful garden, formerly the cemetery of the priory, where is a pedestal of white marble erected by the poet over a Newfoundland dog that had saved his life. The remains of Lord Byron are interred in Hucknall churchyard, a few miles from the Abbey, which has passed from the family.

NEWTON-IN-THE-WILLOWS, otherwise called *Newton-in-Maryfield*, a bor., market-town, and township of England, W. Derby, hund. of Lancaster, 15 m. W. by S. Manchester, and 168 m. N. W. London. Area of township, 3,070 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,126; but probably much increased, owing to the recent erection of iron-foundries, engine manufactories, and glass-works. It comprises one main and rather long street, conveniently situated near the point where the Manchester and Liverpool Railway unites with the Grand Junction and Union Railways: it has also a large depot and station. Two episcopal chapels have been built here within the last seven years, and there are three Sunday-schools. A free-school, founded in 1699, is endowed with *£*. a year. Horse-races take place annually on the common N. of the town. Its market, long disused, was re-established in 1838, and is held on Saturday. Fairs, May 17 and 18, Aug. 11 and 12. Newton returned 2 mems. to the H. of C., nominees of the lord of the manor, from 1st Eliz. down to the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised. (*Buttworth's Stat. of Lancashire.*)

NEWTON-LIMAVADY, an inland town of Ireland, co. Londonderry, prov. Ulster, near the Roe, about 13 m. E. from Lough Foyle, and 15 m. N.E. Londonderry. Pop., in 1841, 3,101. "It is agreeably situated on the E. bank of the river Roe, in a fertile and well-cultivated district. The town is rapidly increasing and improving, arising from the impulse which of late years has been given to husbandry in its vicinity. Wheat is now raised in considerable quantities, though not many years ago it was imported for home consumption. But the great increase in the culture of flax is the principal cause of its prosperity. Since the municipal commissioners visited the town, two banks, or branches of banks, have been established, with a fair prospect of business." (*Municipal Board, Rep.*) The public buildings comprise the par. church, 3 Presbyterian meeting-houses, and 1 Methodist do.; a dispensary, sessions-house, a market-house, and a bridewell.

The corporation, under a charter of James I., in 1613, consisted of a provost, 12 burgesses, and a commonalty, and returned 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C. till the Union, when it was disfranchised. General sessions are held in June and December; petty sessions on alternate Tuesdays. The town is a constabulary station.

Markets for corn are held on Tuesdays and Fridays, and for general sales on Mondays. Fairs on the 1st Monday in February, 28th March, 13th June, 12th July, and 29th October. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 478*l*; in 1836, 469*l*. The banks referred to above were the Belfast and Northern banks, opened in 1835.

NEWTON-STEWART, a market-town of Scotland, co. Wigton, in the vale of the Cree, mostly on level ground, on the banks of that river, and on the high road from Dumfries to Portpatrick, 36 m. W. the former, and 28 m. E. by N. the latter, direct dist. Pop. of town, 1841, 2,172; or, inc. the par., 5,578. It chiefly consists of one main street along the road. A suburb, called Cree Bridge, on the opposite side of the river, and in the stewartry of Kirkcubright, is connected with the town by a handsome granite bridge.

A large cotton-mill was erected here about 65 years ago; but the speculation not succeeding, the premises were sold, in 1836, for a fifth part of the original cost, and have since been pulled down. A few hand-loom weavers are employed by the Glasgow manufacturers; and it has a brewery and tan-works. But the inhab. are chiefly dependent for support on its retail trade with the surrounding country and its markets. Large quantities of pork are cured here, chiefly for the English market. Vessels of 70 or 80 tons come up the Cree (which falls into Wigton Bay) to Carty, within 1 m. of the town.

The par. church, designed by Mr. Burn, architect, is the handsomest Gothic edifice for religious purposes in the S. of Scotland. It occupies an elevated situation on the outskirts of the town, has a fine light spire, and is altogether extremely elegant, and in the best taste. It cost nearly 7,000*l*. Here are also chapels

belonging respectively to the Free church, Associate Synod, the Relief, and the Roman Catholics. There are sundry schools in the par., of which the most important is the Douglas School, founded and endowed by a gentleman of that name, a native of the par., who died in Jamaica in 1799. The teacher has a salary of 90*l.* a year, and is allowed to charge school fees. Dr. Alexander Murray, the celebrated orientalist, was born (1775) in the neighbourhood, where a granite monument, 82 ft. in height, has recently been erected to his memory. Adjoining the town is Kirroughtree, the seat of the Heron family. (*New Stat. Account of Scotland, & Wigtownshire*, 167-196.)

NEWTONARDS, a town and sea-port of Ireland, co. Down, at the N. extremity of Lough Strangford, 10 m. E. Belfast. Pop. in 1641, 7,621. It has a large square and several good streets, in which are the parish church, a small Rom. Catholic chapel, 3 Presbyterian meeting-houses, 2 for Methodists, and 1 each for seceders and covenanters, a large school on the foundation of Erasmus Smith, a spacious town-hall, a court-house, and a house of industry. "It is increasing very much in extent; many houses have been built within the five years ending with 1836; and others are building, but they are generally of a small description." (*Mass. Board. Rep.*) The population, which under the charter of James I. in 1613, consisted of a provost, 13 burgesses, and a commonalty, returned 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C. till the union, when it was disfranchised. A manor court sits every 2d Saturday for the recovery of debts to the amount of 10*l.* General sessions are held in June and December, and petty sessions on the 1st and 2d Saturday of every month. A constabulary force is stationed here. The weaving and embroidery of damask muslins are carried on to a considerable extent for the Glasgow manufacturers; and there is a large brewery. Markets on Saturdays; fairs on the 3d Saturday of every month, and on the 23d Jan. 14th May, and 23d September. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 220*l.*; in 1836, 552*l.* A branch of the Belfast bank was opened here in 1835.

NEWTOWN, a parl. bor., manufacturing and market town, and par. of N. Wales, hund. of Newton, co. Montgomery, on the Severn, crossed here by a handsome stone bridge, close to the upper end of the Montgomery Canal, 26½ m. S.W. Shrewsbury, and 192 m. N.W. London. Pop. of par., in 1831, 4,550, and in 1841, 6,335. The town consists of a number of small streets, lined with mean-looking houses of lath and plaster. The town-hall is of brick, and there is a handsome modern cloth-hall. The church, an ancient structure in the English style, has a low square tower, surmounted by a wooden belfry; and another church is at present in the course of being erected. There are also several places of worship for dissenters, and numerous Sunday-schools. "There is not a single day-school, however, in which the rising poor can receive gratuitous instruction." (*Hand-loom Weavers' Report*, v. 539.) "Newtown is one of the most considerable towns in Montgomeryshire; and appears, indeed, to be more flourishing and rising into greater importance, than any other town in N. Wales, owing to the number of flannel manufactures carried on in the town and its neighbourhood. The greater quantity of the Welsh flannel is made here; and the peculiar quality of the water is one of the causes assigned for the excellence of its woollen articles. Land in the neighbourhood lets at a high rent." (*Bound. Rep.*) "The flannel markets (removed thither from Welshpool in 1832) are held on alternate Thursdays, and the quantity in the mart averages 400 pieces, valued at 10*l.* each, every market-day. The supply comes from every part of the country, except Llanidloes; and from many districts the flannel is sent in the rough, and finished or dressed at Newtown, where there are greater facilities of machinery and water. There are about 700 hand-loomes in the town. The labour is performed principally by male weavers, but also by women and children, the average net wages amounting to 9*l.* 6*d.* per week. The best weavers are never out of employ; but a great number of the middling hands are thrown out of work by the slightest depression of the trade. Considerable distress prevailed a few years ago among the weavers, owing to the failure of numerous small manufacturers, but the trade has now returned to a wholesome channel." (*Hand-loom Weavers' Report*.)

In 1839, Newtown had 4 woollen mills, employing 91 hands. Machinery is made on a considerable scale, and there are foundries, potteries, tanyards, and malt-houses, besides 3 joint-stock banks. From the extent of its trade, it is designated "the Leeds of Wales." Its communications are facilitated by the Montgomery Canal, which comes close up to the town, and connects it with the internal navigation of the central and northern districts. The Reform Act made Newtown a parl. bor., contributory with Llanidloes, Welshpool, Machynlleth, and Llanfyllin, to Montgomery. The Boundary Act included with the par. the townships of Hendidley and Gwastydd. Registered electors of the united bors. in

1849-50, 1,048. Provision markets on Tuesday and Saturday; fairs, 1st Tuesday in Feb., last Tuesdays in March and Aug., June 24, Oct. 24, and Dec. 16. (*Hand-loom Weavers' and Bound. Reports*; *Nicholson's Camb. Guide*, &c.)

NEWTOWN, a decayed bor. and town of England, in the Isle of Wight, on the river of the same name, 5 m. W. by N. Newport, and 100 m. W.S.W. London. Pop. in 1841, 95. It was anciently called Frankville, and is supposed to have been of some importance previously to its being burnt down by the French in the reign of Richard II. Notwithstanding its decayed condition, it sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the 27th Elizabeth down to the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised.

NEW YORK, one of the U. States of N. America, and though not the largest, in every other respect the leading State of the Union. It extends between lat. 40° and 45° N., and the 73rd and 90th degs. of W. long. Its shape, exclusive of Long Island, at its S. extremity, is nearly triangular; it has E. Connecticut, Massachusetts and Vermont; N. and N.W. Lower and Upper Canada, being separated from the last by the St. Lawrence and Lakes Ontario and Erie; and S. Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and the Atlantic. Length E. and W., including Long Island, 408 m.; greatest breadth, 310 m.; area estimated at 45,558 sq. m. Pop., in 1840, 2,428,921, in 1845, 2,604,495.

Physical geography, minerals, &c.—This state may be described as an elevated region with extensive indentations in various parts below its general level. It is traversed by the Alleghanies, here divided into two principal chains, their highest summit, the Round Top, one of the Catskill group, being 3,504 ft. above the tide-level in the Hudson. The most remarkable depressions of the surface are the important valleys of the Hudson and Mohawk rivers, by means of which, and various canals, the basin of the St. Lawrence is at many points placed in communication with the Atlantic. Besides the above rivers, it is watered by the Genesee, Oswego, Oswegatchie, St. Regis, Delaware, and Susquehanna. There are several lakes of considerable size; the principal being those of Champlain, Oneida, Cayuga, and Seneca. Gneiss and granite are the most abundant primary rocks, and carboniferous slate, greywacke, and limestone the principal transition and secondary formations. In the latter to the S. of Lake Erie, many salt springs exist, and the salt made at Salina, Geddes, and other places about Onondaga lake, in 1835, amounted to nearly 2,210,000 bushels, a bushel of salt being obtained from 45 gals. brine. Iron is extremely plentiful in the N. part of the state, where a layer of argillaceous iron ore, yielding from 15 to 30 per cent., extends E. and W. for 200 m. Gypsum is very abundant, and highly useful in agriculture; it is used generally in the proportion of about a ton to 10 or 15 acres. An argillaceous limestone, which makes a valuable cement, lead, marble, and peat, are the other chief mineral products. Coal has been found, but only in small quantities. In this state there are numerous mineral springs, and Saratoga Springs and Balston Spa are the most frequented watering places of their kind throughout the Union.

The climate is very variable; but an estimate of the 5 years from 1826 to 1830 gives 40° Fahr. as the mean annual temp. of the whole state. Storms of thunder and lightning occur frequently in the summer, but the atmosphere is usually dry and serene, and the state is in general very healthy.

The soil in the S. is rather barren, but it improves on proceeding northward. Along the banks of the St. Lawrence, and in the region round the Oneida, it is well adapted for growing corn; upon the whole, however, the rearing of live stock is the most profitable branch of rural industry, and a large portion of the state, especially about its centre, is appropriated to sheep farming. In 1836, of 27,294,382 acres, which the state was supposed to comprise, 9,665,636 were said to be improved and worth 341,885,660 dollars. The principal wheat district commences in the valley of the Mohawk, about long. 72° 30', and extends W. to the great lakes, including the fertile vale of Seneca, and the Genesee country. The average produce of wheat is estimated at from 20 to 30 bushels the acre; but from 40 to 50 bushels are frequently reaped, and instances have occurred of upwards of 80 bushels of wheat and 25 of Indian corn per acre having been harvested. Apples, pears, cherries, &c., succeed admirably well. Indeed, the apples called the Newtown pippins, produced in this state, are infinitely superior to any produced in Europe, and are rather extensively imported into England. Owing to the comparative facility with which fresh land may be obtained, agriculture is in a backward state, though probably it is more advanced in this than in most other states of the Union. Artificial manures are rarely used. In the newly cleared lands, the richness of the mould and of the subsoil is all the farmer requires; he only endeavours, by clearing away the forest, to bring it forth.

Amid the stumps of his trees he ploughs as he can, not as his judgment might dictate. In farms upon tracts long cleared, some attention is given to the rotation of crops, with a view to the preservation of fertility; but it is not uncommon to find the same field sown with wheat for a series of years, without the intervention of other crops. Heaps of straw, stable manure, ashes, &c., which would elsewhere be deemed treasures, are here regarded only as incumbrances; and the story of the farmer who reared his stables on a high foundation, that he might not be speedily compelled, by the accumulation of manure, to remove them, is scarcely an exaggeration. The appearance of the farm buildings agrees little with the obvious wealth of the country. The original log cabins still remain upon farms well cleared, well fenced, and under high cultivation; but they are gradually giving way to more commodious buildings, and in some cases to large and beautiful mansions. In the grazing counties the buildings are generally of a better character than in the grain growing districts. (*New York Gazetteer*, p. 59.) Long Island, and the adjacent co. Westchester, though comparatively unproductive, are more improved and better farmed than most other parts of the state, probably in consequence of their vicinity to the city of New York. Agriculture, however, is every where improving. Agricultural societies are to be found in almost every county, and the state government has contributed large funds, for the promotion of their objects, especially in premiums for raising the best crops. In many parts, however, where the soil is inferior, grazing husbandry has been substituted for tillage, especially since the Erie canal has brought the produce of the more fertile counties on the W. of the state into competition with those of the E.

Mr. Stuart (*Three Years in N. America*, l. c. 12.) gives a detailed and instructive account of the agriculture of New York. Land, he says, is almost always in the possession of the proprietor, except in the neighbourhood of the cap. and some of the larger towns. When it is let, it is generally on the *metayer* principle, the landlord providing half the seed, and receiving half the produce; and in the case of pasture farms, half the stock belongs to the proprietor. The various crops raised are much the same as in Britain, with the addition of maize, for which our climate is not well adapted. Wheat is the most valuable crop; and the attention of the farmers seems chiefly directed to the raising enough of maize for home consumption only, and of wheat for sale. A good deal of buckwheat and rye is grown; but the degree of heat is not favorable for oats and barley. Potatoes, turnips, and other green crops, are not at all general in large fields, neither are they so well managed as in well cultivated districts in Britain. Maize is sown during the latter half of May in drills from 3 to 4 ft. apart; and is harvested in October, or sometimes later. The hoe-weeding and cleaning of this crop is expensive; the whole work is performed by males, females never working out of doors. From 35 to 40 bushels an acre is considered a good average crop of maize; the same proportion of wheat is, however, considered a very abundant crop; and the average produce in that part of the United States where wheat is grown is said not to exceed 13 bushels, while in England it is estimated at 32 bushels, or upwards. Hops are grown, but not extensively. Hay is easily made, the sun in the hay-making season being very powerful; and, like other crops in this state, it is seldom damaged by bad weather. Clover and all sorts of grass-seeds are used, and much more timothy is grown than in any part of Britain; but none of the pastures, except the alluvial land on the banks of rivers, have the beautiful appearance of English meadows; nor are highly-dressed fields any where to be found. Their requisite management, by frequent ploughings, rolling, &c., is far too expensive to be attempted. The high price of labour is, in fact, the great obstacle to good agriculture, to the cultivation of green crops, to adequate manuring, &c. A tract of land is usually cleared by cutting or burning down the trees; and for the first few years abundant crops of corn are produced; but as soon as the quantity of grain diminishes, the farmer either lays down his land in grass, and commences sowing on new land in the neighbourhood, or sells his cleared land, and proceeds elsewhere in quest of a new settlement. The virgin soil consisting of an accumulation of vegetable mould, from 6 to 24 inches deep, is abundantly fertile for a period; but the continuance of its fertility depends upon the under stratum on which it lies, this quality in the mould being soon lost by repeated ploughings. The productiveness of the soil in the S. and W. states of the Union, as well as in New York and New England, has, in fact, been prodigiously over-rated; and the *et Dorcas* of agriculturists has travelled westward, as new lands have been successively cleared. Mr. Stuart thinks it will be found, after the effect of the vegetable matter on the surface of the newly cleared land is exhausted, that the average crops of all kinds of grain (maize excepted) will not, according to

the prevailing system of management in this state, exceed about a half of their produce on similar soils in Britain. (*Stuart's America*, l. 262.)

Implementations of husbandry are, upon the whole, well suited to the country; and their prices are not higher than in England. The two-horse plough, driven by the ploughman, is nearly universal, except on rough stony land; and ploughing is well executed. The cradle *scythe* is in pretty general use, a good workman cutting down an acre of wheat a day. Thrashing-machines are not so common as in Great Britain.

Orchards are very productive. Various sorts of excellent apples are grown; but a good deal of cider is made from crab-apples. It is for the most part very inferior to the English, and sold at from 2 to 4 dollars the barrel of 30 wine gallons. Melons and pumpkins are raised for domestic use, and for cattle.

In 1849, the produce of the crops in New York was estimated as follows, viz., wheat 15,500,000 bush., oats 28,000,000 do., barley 4,300,000 do., Indian corn 17,500,000 do., rye 4,000,000 do., and buckwheat 2,850,000 do. Great exertions are making to improve the breeds of cattle and horses, by importations of the Tew-water cattle, and of stud-horses from England. Mr. Stuart saw no beef equal to the best in a good English market, or to the *Kyloe* or the Scotch islands, when well fed; but none was bad. Beef varied from 3d. to 5d. per lb. Dairy products are highly important articles of trade. Milch cows sometimes give 10 or 11 lbs. of butter a week, and perhaps 20 quarts of milk a day. Oxen are much used for ploughing on rough lands, and, like horses, are well trained to their work. The price of ordinary horses is from 16l. to 24l. Sheep are less attended to than they deserve in a country where the dryness of the weather preserves them from diseases to which they are subject in England. The merinoes, and crosses with them, are the breeds generally seen; mutton is of inferior quality. The great extent of the forests favours the breeding of hogs, which are good; and before being killed, are usually fattened with maize or meal. Turkeys, guinea-fowls, and other poultry, are very numerous and cheap; the price of geese and turkeys, even at New York, is often not above 4 doll.; while ducks and fowls are about 1s. each, and eggs 1 doll. a hundred.

In the N. and S.W. parts of the state much of the country is covered with dense forests, and the principal business of the inhabs. is the getting-in and vending lumber. There is little or no underwood, and in cultivated tracts, wherever a sufficient quantity of land has been cleared, the woodland of a farm bears as high a price per acre as the land actually cleared. The trees are sometimes above 80 ft. in height. Numerous varieties of oak, the hickory, black walnut, chestnut, plane (*Platanus occidentalis*), maple, ash, beech, elm, tulip tree (*Liriodendron tulipifera*), hore called poplar, and wild cherry, are ordinary trees, with red cedar, pine, &c. The locust tree, which is not a native of the state, and the cedar, have been extensively planted, for the purpose, especially, of ship-building.

The culture of silk has long been prosecuted, as in other parts of the U. States, but on no extended scale. An acre of full-grown mulberry trees is estimated to produce 200 dollars' worth of silk.

A hired farm servant gets, upon an average, from 10 to 12 dollars a month, and his board. Day labourers hired for those sorts of farm-work, which are often performed by women in Europe, get about 3-4ths of a doll. a day; or in time of hay-making or harvest, frequently a doll., besides their board, being engaged to work from daylight to sunset.

New York is distinguished above every other state in the Union by her extensive internal communications. Of these the principal, formed partly by the navigable river the Hudson, and partly by the Erie canal, 264 m. in length, from Albany on the Hudson to Buffalo on Lake Erie, unites the city of New York with the great American lakes, and makes her, in fact, the proper port of Upper Canada, and of all the vast and fruitful countries surrounding the lakes. Upper Canada may, indeed, be reached from Europe, by way of New York, in about half the time in which it can be reached by way of the St. Lawrence and Quebec, and with incomparably less risk.

The Erie canal was begun in 1817, and was opened throughout its whole extent in 1825. Originally it was only 4 ft. deep; but provision was made, in 1836, for increasing its depth to 6 ft. Its first cost amounted to 7,143,789 dollars; and the expense of the enlargement was estimated at about 7 millions more. Buffalo, on Lake Erie, at the termination of the canal, is 696 ft. above the level of Albany on the Hudson, where it commences. It is joined by a branch canal with Oswego on Lake Ontario, and by another branch canal with the Susquehanna, and consequently with the Chesapeake. This great work was undertaken at the expense of the state, and has been eminently successful, both in a national and a pecuniary point of view, the tolls, which are very

moderate, amounting to about 3,000,000 dolls. a year. New York has also a direct communication with the basin of the St. Lawrence, by the Champlain canal. The latter, which may be regarded as the N.E. branch of the Erie canal, connects the Hudson with Lake Champlain, which is united, by means of the navigable river St. John, or Richelieu, with the St. Lawrence. Another important canal connects the Hudson with the Delaware.

Statement, showing the Aggregate Value of the Property which came to the Hudson River by all the Canals during the Years 1847, 1848, and 1849:—

	1847.	1848.	1849.
Products of the forest -	\$4,798,373	\$4,394,459	\$8,044,646
Agriculture -	5,194,849	37,336,390	38,033,806
Manufactures -	6,024,518	5,853,300	5,999,557
Merchandise -	317,594	595,619	508,048
Other articles -	5,127,080	2,810,625	2,280,475
Total -	\$73,099,414	\$50,969,461	\$52,785,610

But, though of the greatest utility, the rapid increase of pop. and production in the states bordering on the lakes, and the fact that the Erie canal is annually shut up for some months by frost, made it most desirable that additional means of communication should be opened with the lake district. And this has happily been effected by the Direct Erie railway, of which 314 m. were in operation in October last, and which is to reach Lake Erie in May or June next (1851). This railway, which runs through the S. part of the state adjoining Pennsylvania, has already benefited; and there can be no doubt that, on reaching Lake Erie, it will become one of the most important commercial thoroughfares in America. Besides opening a new and easy outlet for the produce of Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, &c., the presumption is that a large portion of the produce of Upper Canada will find its way to the American, West Indian, and European markets by its means.

Exclusive of this great railway there are a host of others in most parts of the state, the agg. length of those completed in 1849 having amounted to 8403 m. There are, indeed, but few countries so well supplied with railway accommodation. The ordinary roads are not so good as in some other parts of the Union. They are merely formed in a rough way, so as to keep off the water; and after the melting of the snows, or heavy rains, they become almost impassable: in dry weather they answer their purpose tolerably well; and stage coaches travel over them at the rate of 6 or 7 m. an hour. The roads are made and kept in repair by the work of the inhabitants, actually called out. The travelling expenses for turnpikes and bridges are quite trifling. (*Am. Almanack*, 1836—1850; *Stuart's America*, i. 373, &c.)

Manufactures are various and important. In 1835, there were altogether 7,000 saw and grist mills, 965 fulling mills, 1,060 carding machines, about 110 cotton factories, 230 woolen do., 280 iron works, 240 distilleries, 700 sheries, 400 tanneries, &c., the aggregate value of the manufactured goods was estimated at 60,669,000 dolls., of which the raw material is supposed to have amounted to 43,400,900. Flour and sawn timber are included in this estimate among manufactured goods; and amounted, together, to about 26,000,000 dolls. The other articles were comparatively trifling, cotton goods being only valued at 3,030,700 dolls., woollens at 2,433,000 do., iron wares at 1,430,000 do., liquors 3,098,000 do., and leather 5,598,600 do.; but the value of these articles must have nearly doubled or more in the interval.

The commerce of this state is very extensive; as she not only supplies her own wants, and exports her surplus produce, but also imports vast quantities of goods for the consumption of the northern part of Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, and other states. Albany, Hartford, son, Buffalo, Whitehall, and other towns on these canals, are large emporiums. But the principal part of the trade, including nearly all the foreign commerce of the state, centres in New York city (which see).

The *Legislature* consists of a senate of 32 members, elected for 4 years, and a house of representatives of 128 mem., chosen annually. The state is divided into 8 senate districts, each entitled to send 4 senators; and 1-4th part of the senate is elected annually. The governor and lieutenant-governor are elected for 2 years; the latter presides in the senate, where he has a casting vote. The right of suffrage is enjoyed by every white male citizen above 21 years of age, who has resided for 12 months in the state, and for 6 months in the co. for which he offers to vote; and persons of colour possessed of a clear freehold of the value of 250 dollars. The salary of the governor is 4,000 dolls. a year; and the lieutenant-governor receives 6 dolls. a day, and the senators and representatives 3 dolls. each every day during the session. The legislature meets annually at Albany on the first Tuesday of January, unless otherwise ordered. For judicial purposes the state is divided into 8 districts corresponding with the senate

districts; in each of which is a circuit-court, with a judge having a salary of 2,500 dolls. a year. There is a civil and criminal court in each co., besides mayors' and justices' courts in the towns. The superior courts are a court of chancery, vice-chancery court, supreme court, and superior court for the city of New York. The clerk, tellor and superior judges are appointed by the governor and senate, and hold office during approved conduct, or until the age of 60: the inferior judges are appointed by the same authorities for the term of 8 years. The common law of England, though with various modifications, forms the basis of the jurisprudence. There are 2 principal state prisons; at Auburn (which see), and at Sing-sing on the Hudson, about 35 m. above New York. They are both conducted on the same plan; the former, at the end of 1838, had 616 inmates, and the latter 942.

The principal religious sects are the Presbyterians, Methodists, and Baptists; the Episcopalians and Dutch Reformed are also numerous. The Episcopalians have a theological seminary at New York, the Presbyterians at Auburn, the Baptists at Hamilton, and the Lutherans at Hartwick. In no state is public instruction more fully carried out. There is a school fund, which amounted, in 1849, to 5,378,143 dolls., the produce of which is distributed among the townships on condition of their raising a sum equal to that which they have received from the state. The whole of these sums are expended in payment of teachers' wages; the erection of school-houses; the establishment of libraries, &c. being at the charge of the school districts. The number of children attending school, between 5 and 16 in the various school districts, amounted, in 1848, to 718,123, the total number of pupils being 775,723, ex. those in private schools. In each of the 8 senatorial districts, an academy for teachers has been established at the public expense. There are also between 80 and 70 high schools, besides Columbia, Union, Hamilton, and Geneva colleges, and New York university. As an indication of the literary activity that prevails, it may be mentioned that, so far back as 1830, nearly 240 newspapers were published in the state, 16 of which were issued daily. Charitable institutions, as lunatic asylums at Utica, Blackwall's Island, Bloomingdale, deaf and dumb, and blind asylums, &c. are numerous. Paupers are supported by a rate on the counties to which they respectively belong, and are under the care of superintendents of the poor. In each co. is a poor-house, to which a farm of about 5,000 acres was attached in 1836, there were 37,569 paupers, the amount expended for their relief being 396,100 dolls.; the average expense of each pauper was 324 dolls. a year: the value of the paupers' labour, 29,124 dolls. Slavery does not exist in this state; but the Blacks are, notwithstanding, regarded as an inferior and degraded class. The militia consists of 3 divisions of cavalry, 4 of artillery, 3 of riflemen, and 32 of infantry; the whole comprising, in 1850, 31,462 men. With certain exceptions, all able-bodied, free, white, male citizens between 18 and 45 years of age, are subject to military duty. The total amount of taxable property in the state, in 1849, was estimated at 692,388,171 dolls., being 526,624,853 dolls. real, and 135,663,318 dolls. personal. The county and city taxes during the same year amounted to 5,295,438 dolls. The total debts of the state and city of New York, in 1848, amounted to 23,937,49 dolls. Of this, the canal debt amounted to 16,713,650 dolls., the whole bearing interest at 5 per cent.

History.—This country was first explored in 1609, by the English navigator, Hudson, then in the service of the Dutch E. I. Company. It was settled by the Dutch soon afterwards, under the name of New Netherlands; but was conquered by the English in 1664, and bestowed by Charles II. on the Duke of York. On the accession of the latter, it reverted to the crown. New York sustained an important part in the revolutionary war: its independence dates from 20th April, 1777. It sends 40 representatives to congress. (*New York Gazetteer*, 1836; *American Almanack*, 1850; *Stuart's Three Years in America*; *Encyc. Americana*; *Murray's Encyc. of Geog. Amer.* edit. *Flint, Pitts, Darby*, &c.)

New York, the largest and most populous city, principal sea-port, and commercial metropolis of the U. States; cap. of the above state, on the S. extremity of Manhattan Island, near the mouth of the Hudson river, on the coast of the Atlantic; lat. of the City Hall, 40° 49' 43" N., long. 73° 59' 40" W. Pop., in 1845, 371,223. But so rapid has been its increase that in 1850 its pop. amounted to about 518,000; and inc. Brooklyn, Williamsburg, &c., which, in fact, are its suburbs, its agg. pop. was considerably above 700,000, being nearly double that of any other city of the New World.

The following Table shows the Progress of the Population and Wealth of New York City:— [See next col.]

Years.	Population.	Value of Real and Personal Estate.
1800	60,459	\$4,486,270 dolla.
1810	95,575	69,430,718 —
1820	123,706	69,430,573 —
1825	166,086	101,169,046 —
1830	302,589	125,385,518 —
1835	270,089	218,725,703 —
1840	312,552	252,543,163 —
1845	371,223	239,938,517 —
1850	517,549	256,217,093 —

Manhattan Island, which is long and narrow, has S. New York Bay, comprising the estuary of the Hudson, E. Long Island Sound, and W. the Hudson, all having deep water: on the N. it is bounded by a narrow channel, called Haerlem river, across which are several bridges. The approach to the city by sea is very fine, the shores of the bay being wooded down to the water's edge, and thickly studded with farms, villages, and country-seats. The view of the city itself from the bay is less prepossessing; for the ground on which it is built, though undulating, being nowhere considerably elevated, but little of it is visible from the water; and it has no very striking object to arrest the eye. It is of a triangular shape, bearing, in this respect, some resemblance to Constantinople. The oldest portion of the city, at the apex or S. extremity of the triangle, has, notwithstanding the important improvements effected of late years, many narrow, crooked, and inconvenient streets; but in all the more modern portions the streets are broad and straight, and generally cross each other at right angles. The present circuit of New York is about 10 m. Broadway, the principal street, is a long and spacious avenue, 80 ft. in width, extending in a straight line through its centre for nearly 3 m.; its upper or more northerly portion being lined with very handsome houses. This is the favourite promenade; and when the entire plan of the city is completed, it will extend to 8 m. in length. Many of the shops or stores in the Broadway and other principal streets are highly ornamented, and are fitted up with plate-glass windows similar to those of London. On one side the Broadway is an open space, of about 4 (according to Bradford 11) acres planted with trees, and intersected by walks, having the city hall in its centre; and at the S. end of the same great thoroughfare is a vacant space called the Battery, commanding a fine view of the bay, and much resorted to by all classes. Hudson and Washington Squares are the principal squares already finished; but others have been planned in parts of the town that are not yet completed; certainly, however, in constructing the city, too few open spaces have been left for the health and recreation of the inhabs. Mr. Stuart says, "The dwelling-houses in the central parts are, as I was told, as high-priced as in the best squares in Edinburgh. The pavement all over the city is generally good, and the side pavements are broader than in British cities. The outside of the brick buildings is almost always kept painted, which gives them a clean, fresh, and cheerful appearance. The buildings for public institutions, and the churches, seem quite as numerous as in British cities, when the difference of pop. is taken into account. There are about 100 (in 1837, 146) churches. Many of these are large; but there is nothing in their architecture particularly requiring notice. There is no building to bear any thing like a comparison with St. Martin's church in London, the front of the Register Office in Edinburgh, or that of the Chamber of Deputies in Paris; but there are churches and public buildings in all those cities of recent erection quite as deficient

in good taste as any in New York. In short, though there be no very fine buildings in this city, there is not much to hurt the eye of the fastidious." (*Three Years in America*, i. 21—24.) The new Exchange, built, to replace one burnt down in 1835, of granite in the Grecian style, is the most splendid public building in the city. It cost, inc. the ground, about 1,800,000 dolla. The Custom-house, of white marble, also a very magnificent building, cost, inc. the ground, 1,175,000 dolla. Previously to the erection of the two last mentioned edifices the city-hall was the most imposing structure in the city. It is 206 ft. in length, by 105 ft. in depth, and 65 ft. in height, being enclosed within a massive iron railing. It has a front of white marble, and an interesting collection of portraits, busts, &c. of the presidents and other distinguished citizens of the U. States. Near the hall is a nest building, formerly a gaol, but at present appropriated to city offices; and in the rear is a range of brick buildings, now called the New York Institution, and occupied by the Literary and Philosophical Society, the American Academy of the Fine Arts, &c. The building for the "University of the city of New York," in Washington Square, is one of the finest of the public edifices. It is of marble, in the English collegiate style, 180 ft. in length, by 100 ft. in width. The front is divided into five parts, the chapel being in the centre, with wings, and flanked by towers on either side. The chapel, somewhat similar to King's College, Cambridge, is 55 ft. in width, and 85 ft. in depth. It has octangular turrets, and a window 50 ft. high, and 24 wide. Columbia College, and Astor House, the largest hotel in the Union, built of granite, 300 ft. by 150, and having 390 apartments, are well worth notice. Trinity Church, founded in 1696, in the Gothic style, with a steeple 198 ft. in height; St. Paul's, with an Ionic portico, and a spire 224 ft. in height; St. John's, on the construction of which more than 300,000 dollars have been expended; and St. Patrick's R. Cathedral, the largest church in the city, are the best ecclesiastical edifices. The city hotel, 7 stories high, and comprising a large assembly room; 5 theatres; the custom-house, on the model of the Parthenon; the city lyceum, hospital, almshouse, bridewell, gaol, &c., are among the other principal buildings. There are numerous good hotels and large storehouses.

New York has suffered at different times from destructive fires, of which the greatest occurred in 1835 and 1845. The latter destroyed about 300 houses and warehouses, with sundry public buildings. These conflagrations have, however, led, as similar visitations have usually done elsewhere, to the improvement of the city. The old wooden houses have been replaced by houses of brick, and the streets have been widened and otherwise improved.

New York formerly laboured under a great deficiency of water. But latterly this deficiency has been fully supplied by means of the Croton aqueduct, a work worthy of being ranked with the noblest of the old Roman aqueducts. It commences about 4½ m. from New York at the Croton river, the waters of which are collected by an immense dam. The aqueduct proceeding thence is arched over and under, being 6 ft. 3 in. wide at bottom, 7 ft. 8 in. at top, and 8 ft. 5 in. in height. It has a descent of 19·3 in. per mile, and discharges 60,000,000 galls. in 24 hours. It crosses the Haerlem river (separating Manhattan Island, on which New York is built, from the continent) on a bridge of stone, 1,450 ft. in length, with 14 arches, each of 80 ft. span, 110 ft. above

tide water. The receiving reservoir has a water surface of 31 acres, and contains 150,000,000 galls; the distributing reservoir covers 4 acres, is 36 ft. deep, and holds 21,000,000 galls. Thence the water is distributed over the city by means of iron pipes, from 6 to 36 in. diameter, extending, in 1846, to the length of 180 m., 2,800 ft. The entire cost has been 10,375,000 dols. The water was partially introduced into the city 4th July, 1842; but the works were not finished till 1845.

This ample supply of the finest water has made a great improvement in the cleanliness and salubrity of the town, in both of which respects there was, and still is, great room for improvement. Formerly there was hardly a sink or common sewer in the whole city: the night-soil was collected in pits, of which there was one in every house, and being conveyed to the nearest quay, was thrown into the river; but as these quays are made of timber with many projections, a great deal of filth was retained about them, producing in hot weather an abominable stench, and probably, also, originating the yellow fever by which the city is sometimes visited. But in these respects various desirable changes have been and others are in the course of being made.

New York inner bay forms one of the finest harbours in the world: it is about 8 m. in length N. to S., and has a breadth varying up to 5½ m. It may be entered from the ocean by three passages, the Narrows, East River or Long Island Sound, and Staten Island Sound; but the first is at once the best, and by far the most frequented channel. The bar, at the mouth of the outer bay, between Sandy Hook Point and Long Island, has 21 ft. water at ebb tide; and as the water rises about 5 ft., the largest class of ships may enter the bay. Within the bar the water in the outer and inner bays, and in the Hudson, is so deep that ships of the largest burthen lie close to the quays, and may proceed to a great distance up the river. The navigation of the bay is but rarely impeded by ice. The great strength of the tide and the vicinity of the ocean keep it generally open, even when the Chesapeake and Delaware bays are frozen over. In the bay near the city are Governor's, Bedlow's, and Ellis's Islands, all strongly fortified; and other fortifications are erected on the adjacent shores guarding the approach to the city. The navigation in entering the harbour is extremely easy, and were it not for the risk of vitiating ship insurances, the services of pilots would seldom be required. A light-house is erected on Sandy Hook Point, and there are two others, about 300 ft. apart, 4 m. S. by E. the foregoing, and 350 ft. above the level of the sea. A fourth light-house stands on Staten Island, on the left side of the Narrows. Vessels load and unload at the wharfs on both sides of the city, which are continually crowded with shipping.

Means of Intercommunication and Commerce.—The rise of the tide is felt in the Hudson so far as Troy, 60 m. above New York, and large vessels ascend to Albany, a little below Troy, affording the greatest facilities for the transport of produce from and to the interior. These natural advantages are trifling, however, compared with those which have been conferred on New York by the system of canals and railways with which she is connected. These, as shown in the previous article, have made her the grand emporium of a vast extent of fertile territory, and have given her an extent of inland navigation inferior only to that enjoyed by New Orleans, and one or two other cities. She is now, in fact, merely "the port" of the state of New York, but in a vast measure also of Upper Canada, and of the states of Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, &c. Not only does the Erie canal and railway place her in direct communication with the countries bordering on the lakes, but the latter, being connected by the Ohio and Wabash canals, it is of every day occurrence that goods laden at New York and taken up the Hudson, find their way, without being unpacked, to the emporiums on the Mississippi and Missouri, and even to New Orleans, and conversely! In con-

sequences of these extraordinary facilities, the trade of New York is extremely extensive; and it will necessarily continue to increase with the rapidly increasing wealth and population of the vast countries of which she is the principal entrepôt.

The value of the merchandise annually loaded and unloaded in the port of New York is estimated at from 250 to 300 millions of dollars. The number of vessels in the port in the busy season varies from 700 to 1,300, exclusive of about 180 steamers. The number of arrivals from foreign ports amounted, in 1847, to 3,166, and the coasting arrivals exceeded 5,000. The total value of the imports into the United States in the year ending the 30th June, 1848, amounted to 164,996,929 dols., of which no less than 94,536,141 dols. were imported into New York! The imports comprise an infinite variety of articles. The principal are cottons, woollens, linens, hardware and cutlery, earthenware, brass and copper manufactures, salt, &c., from Great Britain; silk, wine, brandy, &c., from France and Spain; sugar and coffee from the Havannah and Brazil; tea from China; various spices, indigo, cochineal, dry woods, &c. &c. The value of the exports from New York in the year ending the 30th of June, 1848, amounted to 53,351,187 dols., being above 1-3d part of the total exports from the United States. The exports principally consist of wheat, flour, corn, rice, and cotton; beef, pork, butter, dried fish, and all sorts of provisions; furs, tobacco, coarse cottons, and other manufactured goods, lumber, &c. The great excess of imports into New York over the exports is accounted for by the fact, that while by far the larger portion of the articles of export from the Western states are sent down the Mississippi, to be shipped at New Orleans, the greater part of the more valuable articles brought from abroad, and destined for the consumption of the same states, is imported into New York.

The tonnage of New York is greater than that of any other port, London not excepted. The total tonnage belonging to the port on the 30th of Sept. 1833, amounted to 400,971 tons; and on the 30th of June, 1849, it amounted to 796,492 tons, being near 1-4th part of the entire tonnage of the United States, and the greatest amount of shipping that has ever belonged to any single port. Subjoined are some statements respecting the navigation, &c., of New York, in some recent years:—

Values of the Imports from, and of the Exports to Foreign States from New York in the under-mentioned Years —

	Dutiable.	Free.	Specie.	Total.
1850	\$64,300,026	\$7,900,878	\$10,302,115	\$113,752,618
1849	78,545,323	8,079,519	2,815,380	90,435,222
1848	92,511,451	8,185,726	1,175,405	101,869,582
1847	65,808,292	9,064,713	95,507,280	95,507,280

	Domestic.	Foreign.	Specie.	Total.
1850	\$53,377,878	\$5,433,241	\$5,525,103	\$64,336,222
1849	33,166,530	3,505,895	4,739,503	41,401,928
1848	45,037,544	2,695,597	12,020,184	59,753,325
1847	\$45,081,283	2,616,572	905,841	46,543,796

Account of the Vessels, with their Tonnage, Crews, &c., that cleared from New York in the Year ending the 30th June, 1849, distinguishing between Native and Foreign Vessels:—

	Rhips.	Tonnage.	Crews.
American	6,379	1,306,248	56,390
Foreign	3,320	784,516	45,516
Total	9,699	2,145,157	100,096

But very large numbers of small coasting vessels, with steamers and others employed in the inland trade, are not included in this return.

The following Table (see top of next page) shows the Quantities of the undermentioned Articles Imported into the Port of New York from 1st of January to 31st of December, 1849, Foreign and Coastwise.

New York is the greatest port in the U. States, or in the world, for the arrival of immigrants.

Total number of passengers who landed at the port of New York, in 1849	234,971
Of these there were citizens	18,868
And aliens	220,603
Of the latter were natives of Ireland	112,591
" " " England	28,321
" " " Scotland	5,710
" " " Germany	5,710
" " " other countries	16,146

We annex a Statement of the Amount of Customs Duties received at the Port of New York in each of the last Four fiscal Years:—

1850.	1849.	1848.	1847.
\$21,487,609 75	\$19,211,354 66	\$20,539,680 60	\$17,542,461 66

Ship-building is prosecuted very extensively at New York. It is estimated that the aggregate number of different steam and sailing vessels constructed at New York in the course of the present year (1850) will exceed 60,000 tons.

Articles.	Foreign.	Coastwise.
Brandy - - - half pipes	14,167	544
Coal - - - gr. cks. and bbls.	25,419	470
Cochineal - - - cones	62,113	
Cocoa - - - bags	7,538	53
Coffee - - - -	12,277	1,778
Cotton - - - bales	558,544	29,301
Duck - - - -	5,223	406,103
Earthenware - - - pieces	389	185
Figs - - - cts. and c's	18,257	10,919
Gin - - - drums, &c.	56,081	26,913
Hemp - - - pipes	3,668	48
Hides - - - bales	38,419	23,398
Iron, bar - - - bales	1,361	3
Lead - - - No.	1,016,346	215,742
Molasses - - - tons	4,479	1,444
Indigo - - - sheets, hoop, &c.	61,307	5,648
Lead - - - bundles	375,083	10,305
Molasses - - - cases	1,069	549
Lead - - - carcons	1,447	173
Molasses - - - pipes	167,750	275,439
Indigo - - - hhds.	51,422	15,164
Lead - - - ccs.	3,761	9,831
Molasses - - - bbls.	1,405	57,546
Indigo - - - cases	585	290
Lead - - - boxes and baskets	50,142	647
Molasses - - - bags	18,769	6,305
Indigo - - - -	14,506	4,916
Lead - - - bales	26,246	1,603
Molasses - - - bales	15,758	866
Indigo - - - boxes	222,302	7,896
Lead - - - drums	300	3,894
Molasses - - - ccs.	2,112	44,873
Indigo - - - penchons	79,658	1,482
Lead - - - bums.	2,055,614	6,588
Molasses - - - bags	9,927	5,968
Indigo - - - hhds.	71,992	26,513
Lead - - - bcs.	1,282	182
Molasses - - - bbls.	6,068	15,037
Indigo - - - boxes	60,882	2,675
Lead - - - bags	79,658	21,493
Molasses - - - slabs	52,163	2,588
Indigo - - - boxes	102,833	
Lead - - - hhds.	17,465	15,154
Molasses - - - bbls.	1,146	836
Indigo - - - bcs. and hhds.	12,925	485
Lead - - - hhds. and hf. pps.	34,490	1,159
Molasses - - - bbls.	8,404	163
Indigo - - - bcs.	30,790	434
Lead - - - bales	8,698	10,353

The communication of New York with Liverpool, London, Havre, Rio de Janeiro, and those foreign ports with which she has the greatest intercourse, is principally kept up by lines of packet ships, partly sailing vessels and partly steamers. The former, the property of New York merchants, sail at regular intervals; are fitted up with every regard to safety and convenience; and are, probably, the finest and fastest sailing vessels in the world. They vary in size from about 800 to about 1,300 tons. The speed and regularity with which they perform their voyage are quite astonishing.

There belonged, on the 1st of January, 1850, to the state of New York, 185 banks with an aggr. capital of \$5,441,708 doll.; of which 25 banks, with an aggr. cap. of 25,439,990 doll., were established in the city. They are all joint-stock associations; the partners in most of them being liable only to the amount of their shares. It is needless to dwell on the state of these concerns. Every body knows that the banking system of the United States is a disgrace to a civilised country. It seems, in fact, to have every quality that a banking system should not, and not one that it should, have; and has repeatedly overthrown the country, notwithstanding its innumerable advantages, with bankruptcy and ruin. The New York banks are probably about the best in the Union; but, in common with the others, they have over and over again stopped payments. There is nothing, indeed, so indispensable in America as a thorough and radical reform of the banking institutions of the country: and till they be placed on a totally different footing, those foreigners who invest capital in them may be fairly said to have more wealth than discretion. There are, also, a great many joint-stock insurance companies and other associations in New York.

The city is divided into 19 wards, each electing annually an alderman and assistant alderman. These together form the common council, but meet in two chambers, one called the Board of Aldermen, and the other the Board of Assistants. The mayor, formerly appointed by the governor and senate of the state, has, since 1834, been appointed by the electors of the city. The council possesses the legislative power in the city, subject to the approbation of the mayor; but in case of his refusal to sanction any ordinance, it may be passed by a majority of the whole number of the members of each board. The courts of the city are the superior court; court of common pleas; courts of general and special sessions; the marine court; a police court, with 5 magistrates; and 7 justices' courts. The university, chartered in 1831, and opened for students in 1832, is subject to the inspection of 21 regents, including the governor and lieutenant-governor of the state, who have

power to inspect all colleges and schools therein; but internally it is governed by a council of 32 shareholders with the mayor and 4 members of the common council for the time being. It has a chancellor and 11 professors, and affords instruction in all the usual branches of general science. The university course includes a period of four years for the degree of B. A. The price of tuition for the whole course is 182. a year, or for single branches 47. 10s. each. In 1849, it had 151 students. Columbia College, formerly King's College, established in 1754, has a president, and 8 other professors, about 180 students, a library of 17,000 vols., and an estate valued at upwards of 400,000 dollars. The city has also an episcopal seminary, and various other sectarian high schools; a college of physicians; the American and New York lyceums; an historical and philosophical library, and mercantile library; medical, law, agricultural, horticultural, typographical, musical, and numerous other learned societies, with extensive libraries, and reading-rooms; a chamber of commerce, board of trade, American Institute for domestic industry; and mechanics' institutes, academies of the fine arts and drawing, a repository of arts, &c. Sixty-eight newspapers, of which 18 were issued daily, were published in New York in 1840. The New York hospital, into which 3,779 patients were received in 1848, and Bellevue Hospital, are the principal of the numerous institutions for medical relief. There are admirable institutions for the blind and the deaf and dumb; a society for the reformation of juvenile delinquents; a fund termed "Long Island Farms," for the provision of destitute children; 4 savings' banks; and a great variety of other useful public institutions. Few, if any, cities have increased in pop. and wealth so rapidly as this. In 1848, the value of the real property within the city was estimated, for the purpose of assessment, at 193,097,876 dollars, and that of the personal property at 61,164,451 doll., exclusive of property belonging to the corporation, and of the estates and properties of the various churches, schools, and universities. The city debt, in 1839, amounted to 9,352,355 doll. (*Amer. Almanack*, 1850.)

The city of Brooklyn, on Long Island, immediately opposite to New York, bears the same relation to the latter that Pera and Galata do to Constantinople. It stands on rising ground, and is laid out like New York, in streets running at right angles to each other. Its pop., which, in 1830, was 15,364, had risen, in 1846, to 99,566. It has a navy-yard, a handsome city-hall, numerous churches, a municipal court, 2 lycæums, an academy, a collegiate institute for young ladies, many good private schools, several banks, insurance companies, and benevolent societies. It has a steam cotton factory, many carding machines, some cloth-finishing works, lead-works, distilleries, rope-walks, morocco-leather factories, &c.; and is a place of considerable trade. Steam-boats ply continually between it and New York, and it is connected by a railroad 12 m. in length with Jamaica, in the interior of Long Island. On Aug. 26. 1776, the British gained a victory over the American forces on Brooklyn heights, which gave New York into their hands; of which city they retained possession till 1783. New York, under the name of New Amsterdam, was founded by the Dutch in 1621, being given with the rest of the colony to the Duke of York in 1664. In 1673 it was re-taken by the Dutch; but in the succeeding year it fell again into the hands of the English. It was the scene of several of the events that preceded the outbreak of the revolution; and the first congress of the U. States under the new constitution was held in it in 1789. (*New York Gaz.*; *American Almanack*; *Stuart's Official Papers*, published by Congress.)

NIAGARA (RIVER AND FALLS OF). The river of Niagara is that portion of the great river St. Lawrence in N. America, that extends between Lakes Erie and Ontario, the level of the former being 334 ft. above that of the latter. The Niagara river issues from the N. E. extremity of Lake Erie, at Black-rock, near Buffalo, where it is $\frac{3}{4}$ m. wide, and runs northward about 35 m., embracing in its course numerous islands, and running over a high ledge of rocks, forms the *Great Falls*, the most stupendous cataract in the world. On flowing out of the upper lake, the river is almost on a level with its banks; so that any considerable rise of its level would make it lay under water the adjacent flat country of Upper Canada on the W., and of the state of New York on the E. (*Hall's America*, i. 179.) For 3 m. from Lake Erie it has a rapid current; but it then becomes smooth and placid, and continues so till within a mile of the Falls. About 5 m. from Buffalo the river widens, forming

several islands, one of which, called Grand Island, 12 m. in length, comprises above 17,000 acres. Navy Island, belonging to the British, has an extent of 304 acres: the rest are much smaller. About 2 m. below Navy Island, on the left or Canadian bank, the river receives the Chippewa, which is connected with the Welland canal, the artificial channel of communication between the upper and lower lake. (See *ante*, 143.) The shores on either side are but thinly settled. Between Buffalo and the Falls, a distance of 21 m., there are only 4 villages, two on either side. A few farm-houses are dispersed here and there; but, for the most part, the banks are covered with forests. "The river, before reaching the falls, is propelled with great rapidity; being a mile broad, about 25 ft. deep, and having a descent of 50 ft. in half a mile. An island at the very verge of the cataract divides it into 2 sheets of water: one of these, called the Horse-shoe Fall, on the Canadian side, is 600 yds wide, and 158 ft. in perpendicular depth; the other, called the American Falls, being about 200 yds. in width, and 164 ft. in height. The breadth of the island is about 500 yds. This great sheet of water is precipitated over a ledge of hard limestone in horizontal strata, below which is a somewhat greater thickness of soft shale, which decays and crumbles away more rapidly than the former stratum, so that the calcareous rock forms an overhanging mass, projecting 40 ft. or more above the hollow space below." (*Lyell's Geology*, i. 261.) The depth of the water is much greater on the Canadian than on the American side; and hence, while the scarcely hidden rocks below the American Fall cause the flood to be broken into foam, the deep green hue of the billows beneath the Horse-shoe Fall is but slightly changed by the crests rising above them. "The finest view of the falls, perhaps, is from the table rock on the Canadian shore, and from the banks above it. Another good view is from a boat crossing the river 200 or 300 yds. below the falls, both of which are thus seen to the greatest advantage. The rapids, however, are best seen from Goat Island, to which a very ingeniously constructed and strong rough bridge has been thrown, on the American side, over rapids and great blocks of rock. On the N. side of the island, the rocks, projecting into the river 200 ft. or 300 ft., immediately over the falls, are accessible by a second wooden bridge, below which the water runs with fearful velocity. From the rocks, the view over the precipice and great fall is terrific, absolutely appalling; although the prodigious volume of the tumbling waters is not so apparent at this spot as from the table rock and the boat." (*Stuart's America*, i. 140.)

The banks rise from the ravine perpendicularly above the river upwards of 180 ft., and hence artificial means are necessary for effecting a descent to the water's edge. Spiral staircases have been constructed both on the Canadian and American sides; besides which, a third was constructed, in 1829, at the lower end of Goat's Island, for the purpose of descending to a ledge actually underneath the fall. By these means the traveller is enabled to view the falling waters in almost every possible direction. "The overwhelming sensations, with which the spectator can hardly fail to be affected, are produced by the immense flood, precipitating at least 100,000,000 tons per minute, as well as by the stupendous mass and overpowering force of the roaring and falling waters. Every surrounding object, indeed, is viewed with indifference, while

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the mind is wholly absorbed in the contemplation of a spectacle so sublime, surpassing in majesty and grandeur and power all the works of nature that have ever arrested the attention or presented themselves to the imagination. "To form a faint idea," said the late Governor Morris, "of the great cataract of Niagara, fancy to yourself the Frith of Forth rushing wrathfully down a deep descent, leaping in foam over a perpendicular rock 175 f. high, then flowing away in the semblance of milk, from a vast basin of emerald. You will thus have some notion of the unparalleled, the petrifying influence with which these falls impress the beholder: but, truly, as the poet says, the eye of man must see this miracle to comprehend it, or the feelings it produces." (*Stuart*, i. 143.) These stupendous falls have attracted and continue to attract a large number of visitors, in consequence of which numerous large hotels have been built on both sides the river. Many private villas have also been erected on the Canadian side. After the river has passed over the falls, its character is immediately and completely changed. The waters, which had expanded at the falls to an entire width of 1,300 yds., including Goat Island, are again contracted after their union into a stream not more than 160 yds. broad; and the river then runs furiously along a deep wall-sided valley, or huge trench, which has been cut by the continued action of the stream during the lapse of ages. The cliffs on both sides are in most places perpendicular, and the ravine is only perceived on approaching the edge of the precipice. (*Hall's North America*, i. 195, 196.)

By the continued destruction of the rocks, owing to the eddies and spray rushing against the soft shale strata, the falls have within the last 50 years receded upwards of 150 ft., or, in other words, the ravine has been prolonged to that extent. Through this deep chasm the Niagara flows with a constantly decreasing velocity for about 7 miles; and then the table-land, which is almost on a level with Lake Erie, suddenly sinks down at Queenstown, and the river emerges into a plain, continuing for 7 miles to Lake Ontario. There seems to be no reasonable ground for doubting that the falls were once at Queenstown, or 7 m. below their present position; and that, from the force of the water undermining and wearing away the rock, they have receded from Queenstown to where we now find them. This recession is still going on, at the rate of nearly 50 yards in 40 years; and consequently they seem destined, in process of time, to reach Lake Erie, which, being only about 70 ft. in depth, would thus be completely drained. It is not unlikely, however, that in the long interval that must thus intervene, some convulsion of nature may occur to change the comparative levels of the district. But supposing this not to occur, and that the falls recede to the lake, the probability is, from the accumulation of mud, and the gradual filling up of the lake that is now going on, that its principal portion will have been previously converted into dry land. (*Lyell's Geol.*, i. 262-264. ed. 1835.)

NICARAGUA (LAKE OF), the most considerable lake of Central America, comprised within the state of Nicaragua, and extending principally between the 11th and 12th degs. of N. lat., and the 84th and 86th of W. long., about 12 m. in a direct line from the Pacific, and 90 m. from the Caribbean Sea. It is of an oval shape: length, N. W. to S. E., about 130 m.; average breadth, perhaps, about 40 m. It has numerous creeks and harbours, and several islands. It receives a good many rivers, especially along its N., N.E., and W. sides; its surplus waters are carried to the Caribbean Sea by the Rio San Juan, which issues from its E. extremity, and falls into the Caribbean Sea at San Juan de Nicaragua.

The project for uniting the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, by means of the river San Juan and of a canal from the Lake of Nicaragua to the E e

Pacific, has been often mooted; and the country appears to present greater facilities for effecting this great work than any other part of Central America, except the Isthmus of Panama. The river San Juan, about 90 m. in length, is said to have been navigable throughout its entire course for sea-going vessels, till the Spaniards, to protect themselves from the attacks of the buccaneers, sunk vessels loaded with stone in its bed! In consequence of the interruption thus given to the stream, a considerable portion of the water was carried off by a new channel called the Rio Colorado; and the San Juan can no longer be navigated, unless in the rainy season, except by vessels drawing very little water. (*Chevalier, L'Isthme de Panama, &c.*, p. 84.)

The lake itself has deep water throughout, and is adapted for ships of the largest burden. The distance between its S.W. shore and the Gulf of Papagayo, on the Pacific, is only 29,880 yards, or 15½ m.; and though the intervening country be laid down in many maps as mountainous, the greatest actual height of any part of it above the level of the lake is only 19 ft.; at least such is the result given by a series of 347 levels, about 100 yds. apart, taken in 1781. (*Thompson's Guatemala, Append.* p. 512—520.) The surface of the lake is 128 ft. 3 in. (Engl.) above the level of the Pacific; an ascent which, one should think, might easily be overcome by a succession of locks. The difference in the level of the two oceans, formerly supposed to be so serious an obstacle to the undertaking, is said by Humboldt not to exceed 20, or, at most, 22 ft. (*Nouv. Espagne*, i. 223, ed. 1825.) At its western extremity, the Lake of Nicaragua is connected by a small river, the Tipitapa, with the Lake of Leon or Managua. The latter, 55 m. in length by nearly 30 in breadth, is, also, said to have deep water throughout. And the plan which appears to be at present preferred is, to make the channel uniting these two lakes navigable, and to excavate a canal from the latter to the port of Realajo on the Pacific. Mr. Squier, late *chargé d'affaires* for the U. States at Nicaragua, has published the following statements in regard to this route:—

Length of the route by Lake Nicaragua, &c., across the American Continent, from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean.

River San Juan	-	-	90 m.
Lake Nicaragua, necessary to be traversed	-	-	110 "
River Tipitapa	-	-	18 "
Lake Managua or Leon	-	-	55 "
From Lake Managua to Realajo	-	-	40 "
			303 m.

Height of the various Lakes to be passed and the Elevations of Land:—

	Above Atlantic.	Ab. Pacific.
Height of Lake Nicaragua	147 ft. 9 in.	128 ft. 3 in.
" " Managua	176 "	156 "
Highest point of land to be passed	231 "	212 "

But great doubts are entertained whether this or any other route by the Lake of Nicaragua can be made practicable for large vessels, that is, for vessels of from 400 to 500 tons and upwards. The river San Juan runs from end to end through a dense and most unhealthy jungle. No labourers are to be had in the country, and it affords nothing for the subsistence of those that may be imported from a distance; and though, one should think, it would be no very difficult matter to clear it of the obstructions made to oppose the buccaneers, others are said to be in the way, of a more formidable character. And after the Lake of Nicaragua has been reached, more than half the difficulties of the undertaking have to be surmounted. And that they may be surmounted, and a navigable channel formed between the two oceans, is not, perhaps, impracticable; but we are persuaded that it is visionary to imagine that ships of 1,000 or 1,300 tons should ever, as has been stated, get across the Continent by its means; and on whatever scale it may be made, the anticipations of advantage to

result from it will, we apprehend, be found to be greatly exaggerated. The project for constructing a canal or railway across the Isthmus of Panama from Chagres to Panama, a distance of less than 26 m., appears to be of a far less doubtful and more practicable character, and we believe, also, would be infinitely more serviceable. (*See PANAMA, (ISTHMS OF)*.)

On the 19th of April, 1850, the British and American governments entered into a treaty binding themselves to promote the construction of a ship canal between the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean, by way of the Lake of Nicaragua; and renouncing at the same time any exclusive right to or control over such canal.

The port of REALEJO, on the Pacific, lat. 12° 34' N., long. 87° 4' W., to which it is proposed to bring the canal from Lake Leon, is said to be one of the best that is anywhere to be met with. It is protected by a long narrow island, which forms a natural breakwater. We borrow from a late number of the "Times" the following notice of this harbour, derived from a late resident there:—

"I may confidently say that the port of Realajo is, at least, as good a port as any in the known world. I have seen Portsmouth, Rio de Janeiro, Port Jackson, Talcahuana, Callao, and Guayaquil, and to all these I consider it decidedly superior. It is a salt-water creek, into which several small streams of water empty themselves. The entrance is protected by an island about two miles long, which leaves at each end a channel where ships can enter the harbour, but extending opposite the mainland, forming the port in such a manner as to protect it entirely from any wind that could possibly blow, and almost entirely breaking the swell which enters the outer bay of Couchagua from the ocean. The north entrance is about a quarter of a mile wide, and that at the south of the island rather narrower, both being entirely free from rocks or hidden dangers, and having in no part less than five fathoms depth of water. At one of these openings vessels can at all times enter with a leading wind, from whatever quarter it may blow. The inside consists of a noble basin of water, nowhere less than four fathoms deep, with a bottom of mud, where two hundred ships of the line might lie at all times in the most perfect security. One of the branches of the creek extends inland to within three leagues of the Lake of Leon or Managua. The intermediate country is a gentle slope, where undoubtedly should enter one of the ends of the canal to connect the Pacific and Atlantic oceans. The difficulties to be encountered in crossing the chain of hills between the Lake of Nicaragua and San Juan del Sud would be entirely avoided by bringing the canal through the Lake of Leon (connected as it is with that of Nicaragua by a river that might be rendered navigable at a moderate cost) into the above-named branch of the Realajo harbour, thus securing the great advantage of an excellent harbour at each end of the canal, besides many others which are certainly not to be met with either at Panama, Tehuantepec, or any other place.

"The town of Realajo is about two leagues distant from the part of the creek where vessels lie; but there is sufficient depth for small vessels to come within a mile of the town, and a very little labour would make it accessible to large ships; but an enlightened government would probably prefer moving the town to the opposite side of the reach, where vessels lie, where there is a site extremely suitable for the purpose, and where a quay might easily be erected capable of accommodating any number of ships. In the time of the Spanish Government several vessels, some of 300 to 400 tons, were built at Realajo; where the wood is very superior and durable.

"The port of San Juan del Sud, to which place it was proposed to bring the canal, seems inferior to Realajo in most respects. The Gulf of Papagayo, where the port is situated, is very difficult to enter for a sailing vessel for five months in the year."

NICASTRO, a town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Calabria Ultra II., on the W. side of the Apennines, 19 m. S. by W. Cosenza. "It is a straggling town of 5,000 inhab., and the seat of a bishop and a sub-intendant. Its houses are mean, and all roofed with red tiles. A ruined castle, on a conical hill, rising from amidst all these modern buildings, is that in which Henry, the eldest son of the emperor Frederick II., was confined for some time." (*Cramer, Tour*, p. 33.)

NICE (Ital. *Nizza*, an. *Nicea*), a city and sea-port of the Sardinian dom. in Italy, cap. div. and prov. of its own name; on the Mediterranean, about 5 m. E. from the bar, the boundary of the French territory, 96 m. S. W. Genoa, and 98 m. S. by W. Turin; lat. 43° 41' 16" N., long. 7° 16' 37" E. Pop., in 1838, of the town and canton (ex. garrison), 35,811. It is beautifully situated in a small plain at the foot of the maritime Alps, by which it is protected from the N. and E. winds; while the cool sea-breeze, which prevails every day with a regularity almost equal to that of a tropical climate, moderates the

* This statement must be received with a great deal of modification. There is a difference of no less than 25 ft. 8 in. between the level of the lakes.

summer heat. The principal disadvantage of its situation is that, being open on the W., it is exposed, with but little protection, to the influence of the *mistral*, or *vent de Bise*, which is often keen and piercing. It is encircled by battioned walls; and has on the E. the steep rocky hill of Monte Albano, surmounted by the ruins of an old castle. The view from this hill is very fine, and at sun-rise and sun-set the island of Corsica is sometimes clearly distinguished, though it be some 70 or 80 m. distant. The port, which is small and protected by a pier, admits vessels of 300 tons burden, and is visited by the steamers from Marseilles to Genoa. Nice is divided into two parts by the river *Paigione*, here crossed by a good stone bridge. The old town has narrow and crooked streets, which, however, are kept very clean. The new town to the W. of the river is well laid out and handsome: it has a square surrounded by open arcades, and some of the houses near the sea, and in the vicinity, are very superior. The cathedral, several convents, 3 hospitals, the governor's residence, college, public library, theatre, and a fine arch erected in honour of Victor Amadeus III., are the principal public buildings: it has several bath-establishments, and some good hotels; and Dr. Farr states that the rents of houses and apartments are lower here than in any other place of general resort on the Continent. It has manufactures of silk twist, stuff, soap, essences, perfumery, and paper, a fishery of mackerel, and a considerable trade in the export of oil, wine, oranges, &c., and in the importation of corn from the Black Sea, salt, fish, manufactured goods, and colonial produce. It is a bishop's see and the seat of a royal council, and of the head court of justice for its div.

Nice, in common with Montpellier, enjoys the reputation of having a peculiarly genial climate, and is accordingly resorted to by numerous invalids, especially from England, during the months of November, December, and January. Mr. Forsyth says, that when he arrived at Nice on Christmas Day, "a soft and balmy air, oranges growing in every garden, lodgings without chimney, and beds with mosquito-curtains, presented the first signs of Italy." But at other seasons it is less suitable for invalids. In February, the *vent de Bise* begins to blow; and it is very trying to persons with delicate constitutions. This explains the singular discrepancies in the accounts of different travellers as to the climate of Nice. Dr. Farr and Sir James Clark, especially the former, give full and satisfactory information as to the climate of Nice, and its surrounding localities, and the classes of invalids most likely to be benefited by a residence in it. A noble road, constructed at great expense, leads over the Maritime Alps from Nice to Turin. Another road, begun by Napoleon, but not completed till 1827, leads along the sea coast from Nice to Genoa; and a third road is now about being opened from Lyons to Nice, which will be a shorter and better way of entering Italy than by Mont Cenis.

Nice is said to have been founded by colonists from Marseilles. Under the Romans, it was originally the seat of a naval arsenal; but, under Augustus, the latter was transferred to Frejus. Under French rule it was the cap. of the *dép. Alpes-Maritimes*. Among the celebrated individuals to whom it has given birth, are the painter Vanoc, the astronomer Cassini, and Marshal Massena, one of Napoleon's ablest generals. (See Dr. Farr's *admirable guide to Nice*, passim; Clark on *Climate*, 3d ed. p. 202.)

NICOBAR ISLANDS, a group in the Indian Ocean, between the 3d and 10th degs. of N. lat., and the 93d and 10th of E. long. Nicobar is the N. extremity of the group, 50 m. from Sumatra and the Andaman Islands, and from 100 to 200 m. from each. Sambelong and Carnicobar, the former the S. and the latter the N. extremity of the group, are the principal; there are, however, about half a dozen other islands of some consequence, and a number of smaller ones. Most of these islands are hilly, and all are covered more or less with dense woods of cocoa-nut, areca palm, and various timber trees. The climate is extremely unhealthy to Europeans, and is supposed to owe this quality, great part, to the extensive spontaneous decomposition of vegetable matter. These islands are inhabited by a set of natives of the Indo-Chinese stock, whose indolent character contrasts strongly with the wild ferocity of their neighbours the Andaman Islanders. Their chief occupations are fishing, rearing hogs and poultry, a little culture, and trafficking among themselves, and with strangers who touch at the Nicobars. Cocoa and betelnut are met with in immense quantities, and most of the Indian ships bound eastward, call here to take in cargo of the former, which they obtain at the rate of 3 for a leaf of tobacco, and 100 for a yard of blue cloth. The natives also exchange fowls, hogs, birds, ambergris, tortoise-shell, wild cinnamon, saffron, or iron, tobacco, cloth, silver coin, and other European goods. They live under a number of petty chiefs; the title is known of their internal economy, customs, the great insalubrity of the climate having succeeded broken up all the establishments formed on the

Nicobars by the Danes, the British missionaries, &c., in the latter half of the last century.

NICOLAEFF, a town and river port of European Russia, gov. Kherson, at the confluence of the Ingot with the Bug, about 20 m. above where the latter falls into the estuary or liman of the Dnieper, lat. 46° 58' 21" N., long. 32° 0' 21" E. Pop. 8,500. Nicolaeff was founded in 1790; and was intended to be a great naval depot, and the station of the Russian fleet in the Black Sea. It stands in an elevated, healthy situation, covers a large extent of ground, and is extremely well built. The streets are wide, and regularly laid out, and the private houses, which are mostly of brick, have a handsome appearance. Among the numerous public buildings may be specified the new church or cathedral, the admiral's, the town-house, the marine barracks, the naval hospital, &c. In the vicinity is an observatory. The admiral commanding the fleet in the Black Sea resides here; and here, also, are the various offices connected with this department of the service, with schools for the instruction of pilots, ship-builders, naval artillery, &c.

Nicolaeff owes its existence to its river, which has its entrance without the bar of the Dnieper, and water sufficient to float large ships up to the town. There are extensive docks and yards for the building of ships; but the latter are, notwithstanding, mostly constructed at Kherson, being sent thither to be laid up, or, when necessary, repaired. Still, however, Nicolaeff has not, as its founders anticipated, become a large, thriving, town, and, latterly, indeed, it has been either stationary or has retrograded. This is ascribable partly to the want of good water, and the scarcity and high price of fuel caused by there being no timber in its vicinity; partly to its harbour being, though very superior to that of Kherson, decidedly inferior to that of Sevastopol in the Crimea, at which a part of the fleet is now always stationed; and partly, and principally perhaps, to the great advantages enjoyed by Odessa as a commercial emporium. Nicolaeff is, in fact, nearly deserted by all the mercantile class, and depends entirely on the employment afforded by government. (Clarke's *Travels*, li. 350. 8vo. ed.; Lyall, i. 201.; Schmitzer, *La Russie*, &c., p. 723.; Pinkerton's *Russia*, p. 163.)

NICOLAS (ST.), a town of Belgium, prov. E. Flanders, cap. canton, on the high road between Ghent and Antwerp, 19 m. E.N.E. the former, and 12 m. W.S.W. the latter. Pop., in 1845, 20,088. It is well built and handsome, and its inhabs. generally opulent. It has a fine town-hall, a par. church, in which are some good Flemish paintings, an hospital, 2 orphan asylums, a convent, a prison, and a large market-place, partially planted with trees. It is one of the most flourishing towns of Belgium, and has manufactures of woollen, cotton, and silk fabrics, hats, paper, soap, tobacco, chocolate, &c.; with salt-refineries, tanneries, breweries, dye-works, and potteries. It has, perhaps, the largest market for flax in Europe, and large annual fairs for cattle and horses. It is the seat of a tribunal of commerce, and sends 1 deputy to the states of the prov.

NICOPOLIS, a town of Turkey in Europe, prov. Bulgaria, cap. sanjak, on the Danube, 100 m. E. by S. Walla. Pop. estimated at 10,000. It has an imposing appearance, being situated on a range of hills above a bay of the river, and surrounded by strong ramparts mounted with cannon. It is further defended by an ancient castle, and has several suburbs, in which the Greek and Bulgarian inhabs. principally reside. Generally it is ill built, but has some large houses, and several handsome mosques and public baths. It is the seat of a Greek archbishop and a R. Cath. bishop; its position on the Danube gives it some commercial importance; it is, however, said to be in a state of decay. (Elliott's *Trav.* i. 175.) Nicopolis was founded by Trajan, and some portions of its ancient walls are said still to exist. But it is chiefly memorable, at least in modern times, for the great battle fought in its vicinity, on the 28th of September, 1396, between the Ottoman army under Bajazet, and that of the Hungarians and their allies under their king Sigismund. The latter sustained a complete defeat, ascribable as much to the rashness and presumption of the Count de Nevers and other French leaders, as to the bravery and superior discipline of the Turks. (Gibbon, cap. 64.)

NICOSIA (an. *Tremis* F), the principal city of the Island of Cyprus, near its centre, on the small river Pedias; lat. 35° 13' 11" N., long. 32° 25' 45" E. Pop., according to Turner, about 17,500, of whom nearly 2-3ds are Turks. It stands in a low fertile plain, near the S. foot of a range of high mountains, and is surrounded by walls in the shape of a hexagon, flanked by 13 bastions. The ground of the enclosure is very unequal, being in some parts elevated to the height of the walls, and in

* Dr. Lyall says that this deficiency has been supplied by the construction of a reservoir, the existence of which has, however, been doubted, from its not having been mentioned by the accurate Dr. Pinkerton. But it may have been overlooked by the latter, or may not have sufficiently answered the purpose for which it was intended.

others forming a deep valley. The streets are in general not more than 10 and 15 ft. in breadth; and, being unpaved, are always filthy, and, in winter, almost impassable. Having been the residence of the principal Venetian families during the period that the island was subject to Venice, it has many fine houses, which are now, however, mostly in ruins; and at present it consists principally of brick and mud huts. The bazaar, though tolerably well supplied, is not even arched, but roofed with reeds and mats, which admit the rain in all directions. Most houses have gardens, which abound with olive, lemon, and pomegranate-trees; and hence the first view of the city is very pleasing, from the contrast between the foliage and the dark mountains to the N. There are 8 mosques, all of which were once churches, the principal having been the cathedral church of St. Sophia, built by the Venetians; it is in the Gothic style, of an oblong shape, with a pentagonal projection at the end opposite the entrance, for the reception of the altar. The interior is laid out in three aisles, divided by clumsy whitewashed Corinthian columns. On the two belfries the Turks have erected two high and handsome minarets. There are still 6 Greek churches, and 1 Roman Catholic, and several Greek and 4 public baths. The city has also a large, but ruined caravanserai. It has some manufactures of carpets, printed cottons, and red morocco leather, and exports wine and cotton.

Nicosia is supposed to occupy the site of the ancient *Trinitus*, or *Trinitus*, mentioned as a place of some note by the Byzantine historians. When Richard I. of England took Cyprus in 1191, and conferred it on Guy de Lusignan, it was made the cap. of the new kingdom, and greatly enlarged. It fell, in 1480, to the Venetians, who built the present walls, and several churches and handsome palaces; and who held it, with the island, till 1571, when it was taken from them by the Turks, under whose brutal and destructive sway it has since continued. (*Turner's Levant*, ii. 544-547.; *Kincaid's Asia Minor*, 172, 189.; *Drummond's Travels*, &c.)

Nicosia, a city of Sicily, intend. Catania, district of its own name, on two hills, 14 m. N.E. Castrogiovanni. Pop., in 1831, 13,151. Like other towns in the interior of the island, it is remarkable for nothing but the number of its churches and convents. It has few manufactures, and hardly any export trade, but a considerable traffic in the corn and cattle of the surrounding country, which is very fertile. Its situation is such as to afford a strong military position; and it is supposed to be the ancient *Herbita*, founded in the earliest period of Sicilian history.

NIEVRE, a dep. of France, reg. centre, nearly co-extensive with the old prov. of Nivernais, between lat. 46° 40' and 47° 35' N., and the 3d and 4th degs. of E. long.; having N. Yonne, E. Côte d'Or and Saône-et-Loire, S. the latter and Allier, and W. Cher. Area 681,093 hectares. Pop. (1846) 322,307. A mountain chain runs from S.E. to N.W. through its centre, dividing the basin of the Loire from that of the Seine; the culminating point of the chain in this dep. being 2,000 ft. above the sea. The Loire and Allier bound Nièvre on the W.; the other principal river is the Yonne. The Loire and Yonne are united by the Canal du Nivernais, which, commencing at Decize on the former river, is continued through the déps. Nièvre and Yonne, for a distance of above 100 m.; but the work is not yet completed. The Nièvre, whence the dep. has its name, flows through its W. part, and, after a course of about 95 m. generally southward, joins the Loire at Nevers. It turns many mills, but is navigable only for rafts or small boats. The soil is not, in general, very fertile. In 1834, 295,361 hectares were estimated to be in cultivation, 67,396 in meadows, 9,900 in vineyards, 3,607 in orchards and gardens, and 239,561 in woods. In 1835, of 88,861 properties subject to the *contribution foncière*, 43,659 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 13,926 at from 5 to 10 fr. The fertile portions of the surface are comparatively well cultivated, and sufficient corn is produced for home consumption. The annual produce in wine, is estimated at about 260,000 hectolitres, of which the white wines of Pouilly are the best. *Its ont du corps du spiritueux, un léger parfum de pierre à fusil, et un goût fort agréable; ils ne sont pas sujets à jaunir, et conservent assez long-temps leur douceur.* (Jullien, p. 156.) In 1830 there were supposed to be about 132,000 oxen and cows, and 315,000 sheep in the dep.; but the breeds are not particularly good. The chief resources of Nièvre are in its forests and mines. Most of the small rivers, which are not navigable, have been adapted to floating down rafts of timber and fire-wood, a good deal of the latter being sent down the Yonne and Seine to Paris. The coal wrought near Decize is principally destined for the supply of Paris and Orleans. Lead, copper, and some other metals are found, but iron is by far the most important metallic product, and its yearly value in the shape of pig iron, iron plates, anchors, files, &c., is estimated at 8,728,000 fr. Hardware and cutlery, at Cosne and La Charité, glass, and earthen-

ware, especially at Nevers, linen and woollen cloths, and musical strings, are among the principal goods manufactured. Nièvre is divided into 4 arronds: chief towns, Nevers the cap., Châteaun Châlon, Clamecy, and Cosne. It sends 4 mems. to the Chamber of Dep. Number of electors (1834-39), 1,379. Total public revenue (1831), 6,256,756 fr. (*Hugo, art. Nièvre; French Official Tables*.)

NIGER, JOLIBA, or QUORRA, a celebrated river of Central Africa, having its remote sources near the extreme W. coast of the continent, in the country of the Mandingoes, in about 6° N. lat., and 6° W. long. It thence pursues a course N.W. and N. to the 10th deg. of lat., and then follows a general N.E. course to Timbuctoo, below which it turns S.E. and afterwards S. and S.W., to its mouth, in the Gulf of Benin. Supposed length about 2,300 m. The upper part of the Niger, called by the natives the Joliba, was first discovered in modern times by Mungo Park, who was sent out in 1786 by the African Association; he describes it at Sego, the cap. of Bambarra, as "glittering in the morning sun, broad as the Thames at Westminster, and flowing slowly to the eastward" (*Travels*, p. 320.) He succeeded in ascending as far as Bammakoh, 360 m. above Sego, the cap. of Bambarra. From Cabra he sailed down the stream to Boussa, where, unfortunately, he was killed by the natives. Major Laing concluded, from information obtained in the neighbourhood, that the sources of the river were on the N. side of the mountains of Kong, at a height of 1,600 ft. above the sea, in lat. 8° 20' N., and long. 9° 10' W.; but Mr. Macqueen conjectures that the Allmar, its principal source, rises farther to the E. than Laing supposed. Lander, the servant of Captain Clapperton (who was murdered near Saccatoo), sailed from Boussa, with the stream, to the mouth of the river, previously called the Nun, in the Bight of Benin; and thus finally identified the Niger and the Quorra, and put an end to all the doubts and theories that previously existed as to the course and termination of the former. It hence appears that the length of the Niger, measured along its banks, exceeds 2,300 m.; and it is probable that its basin is nearly, if not quite, as extensive as that of the Nile. According to Caillié, it is navigable for large canoes within 100 m. of its source; for 300 m. below that point it has not been navigated by Europeans; but from Bammakoh, which is buctoo it has been pretty accurately laid down, both by Mungo Park and Caillié. The river valley is here of considerable width, fertile, and comprising numerous towns and villages on either bank. The current of the river is not strong; and both travellers saw flotillas of canoes of 60 tons and upwards frequently passing up and down the river, which in the rainy season is flooded on both banks to a considerable distance. (*Caillié*, li. 24.) In about lat. 16° N., the stream expands, forming a lake, called Debo, which measures about 10 m. from N. to S., is from 12 to 15 ft. deep, calm, transparent, and surrounded by extensive marshes. (*Caillié*, li. 20.) Hence to Timbuctoo the valley becomes still wider; the pasturage of cattle, the tillage of rice, millet, maize, &c., are extensively pursued, and along the banks are numerous villages, which export rural produce. In lat. 17° 30' N. and long. 3° 10' W., the river bifurcates, and on the N. and narrower branch is Cabra, the port of Timbuctoo; these branches, however, seem to unite a few miles lower down. It has been already observed that the course of the river below Timbuctoo was traversed by Mungo Park as far down as Boussa; but, as that traveller was killed there, and his papers were lost, we know nothing of this portion of the river, except that it is navigable for vessels of considerable size.

The highest point of what may be called the lower Niger hitherto visited by Europeans is the neighbourhood of Yaïri (lat. 11° 20' N. and 6° E.), which point Lander reached in 1830. Here the river leaves the great plain of Soudan, and enters the defiles of a mountain range crossing this part of Africa from E. to W., and probably connected, on one side, with the Diébel-el-Kumri, and on the other with the mountains of Kong. The direction of the stream from Yaïri, for about 150 m., is nearly due S.; but it is full of rocks, sand-banks, &c., and wholly unnavigable, except at the time of the rains, and immediately after. Below Boussa, the banks on both sides are generally high and rocky; cultivated plains intervene in many places between the river and the mountains, but in others the offsets come close down to the water's edge. From Boussa downwards, the Niger is navigable for moderate-sized vessels, and in lat. 6° N., a little below Atta, it leaves the hilly country, and enters an alluvial plain, the lower part of which is an unhealthy swamp covered with jungle; many branches here diverge from the main stream, and at the mouth is an extensive delta, which, however, is, as yet, very imperfectly known. At Atta, the river is about 2 m. wide; and near Rabba, in lat. 8° 45', it attains a width of 5 m.; but its breadth, close to the mouth, is somewhat less than a mile. The tide is said to extend within about 20

Atta, or about 130 m. from the sea. The only of the Niger hitherto explored is the Chadka, joins it on the left bank in lat. $7^{\circ} 52' N.$, $32^{\circ} m.$ Atta. Captain Allen and Mr. Laird sailed about up this trib., and inform us that it is quite equal h, though not in depth, to the parent river. It is sandy and sand-banks. It has been conjectured this river has its source in the great lake of discovered by Messrs. Clapperton and Denham; more probable opinion seems to be, that it has its source on the N. declivity of the Gebel el Kumri, perhaps, from the sources of the Bahr-el W. arm of the Nile. The only other known of the lower Niger are the Saccato, May, and Coodoonla, all joining it on the left or E. the former of these was discovered by Clapperton and from the course which it pursues, it may be the same river that joins the Niger near (See *Drummond's new map of Nigroland*.) Rivers flow from a range of mountains, running through Houssa, and forming the watershed between the tributaries of Lake Tchad and the Niger. In article Africa (Vol. I. 40.), we have given an account of the successive modern expeditions which have been fitted out for the purpose of exploring the course of this river, so long involved in doubt and mystery; and though much still remains to be accomplished, its general course and leading features have been well ascertained. This, however, has not been without a great sacrifice of human life. The interior of the countries in the lower part of its course are the most degraded in the scale of human beings; commerce is extensively carried on; and wars being all waged between the different tribes, travellers are exposed to the greatest dangers. (*Ritter's Africa*, ii. 110, *Notes on the Slave Trade*, pp. 41, 42.) The climate is extremely unhealthy, so much so that out of 40 persons sailed, in 1832, on a commercial expedition up the river, only 11 survived. Three steamers, well fitted for the purpose, have recently been despatched (June 1833) up this river, by government, with full powers to commercial treaties with the natives, and to concert measures for the extinction of the slave trade. But did it permit, it might be easily shown that there are natural grounds on which to anticipate any considerations from this expedition, and that the barrier of Africa seems to depend on natural and irreparable causes. (*Caillie's Travels in Central Africa*, ii. 173; *Jomard's Remarks*; *Ritter's Africa*, ii. 47—173; *Expéditions*, 3 vols.; *Geog. Journal*, vols. ii. and iii. and *Oldfield's Expédition into Africa*, &c.) The story of the Niger is involved in extreme obscurity. It was informed by the Greeks of Cyrene, that the interior of the African continent was inhabited by some Nasamon travellers, which was inhabited by them, and stood on the banks of a river containing water, and flowing from the W. eastward (*Strabo*, ii. 32.), which he conjectured to be the Nile. Now, as the Bahr-el-Abiad, or W. Nile, flows from W. to E., and is certainly likely to have been reached by the Nasamons than any other, the conjecture of the venerable father of that the river which they encountered was, in the Nile, seems to be more consistent with probability than that of D'Anville, Rennell, and other learned men, who suppose that the city visited by the Nasamons, Timbuctoo, and the river the Joliba of Mungo Park. The latter theory has, however, so far prevailed, the name Niger is that which is now usually given to the river discovered and explored by Park and Lander. The river, or Nigra, is first used by Pliney (*Nat. Hist.* 1—9.), from whose somewhat confused account it appears that there were supposed to be two rivers, one in Mauritania, S. of the great chain of Atlas, and the other in Ethiopia, thus briefly described:—"Nigra, fluvio eadem signa qua Nilus, capax parum et eadem signa mensura, videtur angustius." He seems, also, to have conceived the Niger and Nile were united, and that there was a water-system, having many branches, in the interior of Africa. The poet Claudian also entertained the similar connexion:—

Gir notissimus amnis
Ethiopiæ, similis mentibus gurgitis Nilus.

furnishes a somewhat more detailed account of the river, and assumes that there are two separate rivers in the interior of Africa, both having anches (i.e. gorges), and connected with lakes; the most eastward he terms the Gir (Tig), that to the west the Nigra (Niger), communicating with the Libye, which may, perhaps, be identical with the Tchad, discovered by Denham and Clapperton. He says nothing, however, respecting the course of the river, but he seems to have been of opinion that it was absorbed in lakes, or lost by evaporation, or in the sea, and other Arabian geographers, con-

ceived that the Niger (by them called *Nil-el-Abiad*, "Nigra Nilus") flowed westward, discharging its waters either into the Atlantic or some lake of the interior; and they represented it as rising from the same source as the Nile, and identified with it in the upper part of its course: this, indeed, is the opinion still maintained by the natives; and it is far from improbable that some of the affluents of the W. Nile may be connected, during the period of the inundation, with some of the affluents of the Niger. Such, in a few words, seem to be the leading statements of the more celebrated of the old geographers respecting the Niger. It is doubtful, perhaps, whether the Greek and Roman writers really possessed any authentic information as to the rivers and lakes S. of the Great Desert; and, at all events, the statements now referred to, if they really apply to that part of the continent, are at once extremely limited and extremely vague. That the caravans, which appear from a very remote period to have maintained an intercourse between the countries to the N. and those to the S. of the Great Desert, should have fallen in with and had some knowledge of the Joliba, is far from improbable; and, perhaps, had any remains of the literature of Carthage come down to our times, they might have thrown considerable light on the question as to its identity with the Niger: but, with our existing means of information, it would appear, notwithstanding the learning and ingenuity that have been brought to its investigation, to be all but insoluble. The notions of the ancients are too obscure to admit of any certain inferences being deduced from them; and supposing (against the opinion of the learned Baron Vukobratovich, *Recherches sur l'Afrique*, 409.) that the Niger is to be looked for to the S. of the Great Desert, the Bahr-el-Abiad, or western arm of the Nile, the Yeo, and other considerable rivers falling into the lake Tchad, correspond quite as well with their statements as the Joliba.

NIJAR, a town of Spain, in Andalusia, prov. Granada, 15 m. E. N.E. Almería, and 78 m. E. S.E. Granada. Pop., according to Milana, 3,792. It has 2 par. churches: its chief branch of industry is the manufacture of horse-cloths.

NIJIR-EGYHAZA, a large market town of Hungary, co. Szabolcs, 28 m. N. Debreczin. Pop. 15,640, principally Protestants. It has a saltpetre refinery; but by far the greater part of its inhabitants are agriculturists.

NIJNII-NOVGOROD, vulgarly *Nijgorod*, that is, Lower Novgorod, a government in the central part of European Russia, on both sides the Wolga, between lat. $54^{\circ} 26'$ and $57^{\circ} 6' N.$, long. $41^{\circ} 40'$ and $46^{\circ} 38' E.$, having N. the government of Kostroma, E. Kasan and Simbirsk, S. Penza and Tambov, and W. Vladimir; area, 18,740 sq. m. Pop. (1846), 1,178,300. Surface flat or gently undulating; the soil, which consists principally of sand and black friable mould, is exceedingly fertile; and being (for Russia) well cultivated, this is one of the most productive provinces of the empire. Exclusive of the Wolga, several of its affluents, including the Oka, Betloug, Piana, &c., traverse different parts of the government, which is well watered, at the same time that it is not marshy. There are some very large forests, those of the crown amounting to about 1,300,000 deciatines. The produce of the corn crops considerably exceeds the consumption, flax and fax are very extensively cultivated. Great numbers of cattle and horses are bred; and government is taking the most effectual measures to improve the latter. This is a considerable manufacturing, as well as a rich agricultural district. Coarse linen, canvass, and cordage, are the principal manufactured products; there are, also, some iron-works, with numerous distilleries and tanneries, soap-works, glass-works, &c. Commerce extensive and growing. The exports consist of corn and flour, cattle, horses, leather and tallow; the manufactured articles specified above, with iron, timber, potash, mats, glass, &c.

NIJNII-NOVGOROD, NIJNOROD, or NIJNII, the cap. of the above government, in the angle formed by the confluence of the Oka with the Wolga; lat. $56^{\circ} 15' 40' N.$, long. $44^{\circ} 30' 30'' E.$ Stationary pop., 25,000. It stands partly on a steep hill, about 400 ft. in height, the summit of which is occupied by the Kremlin or citadel, and partly on the low ground along the sides of the rivers. The citadel, from the ramparts of which there is a noble view of the Wolga, Oka, and surrounding country, contains the government offices, two cathedrals, built after the model of that of Moscow, an obelisk 75 ft. in height, erected in honour of the deliverers of their country, the patriotic citizen, Minin, and Prince Pojarski; and other public buildings. The upper part of the town has several good streets; and being ornamented by numerous churches, placed in conspicuous situations, has an imposing appearance. The lower town consists principally of a very long street, bordering the Wolga. With the exception of the principal public buildings, and a few private houses, the rest of the city is constructed of wood. Among the establishments are 3 convents, a bazaar, a grammar-school, and 4 primary schools, an ecclesiastical seminary, and a large military school. The town is

ancient, having been founded in 1222. The Kremlin was surrounded by strong walls and towers in 1508.

A bridge of pontoons leads across the Oka to the splendid new basars erected on the left bank of that river for the exhibition and sale of merchandise brought to the fair. These, which are divided into parallel rows or streets, are constructed of stone, roofed with iron, having covered galleries in front, supported by 8,000 iron pillars. They are built on piles, and to guard against the danger of inundation, the ground on which they stand was raised about 20 ft. Being enclosed on 3 sides by canals, and on the 4th by a navigable inlet of the Oka, there is every facility for the delivery and shipment of merchandise. The establishment is of very great extent, comprising about 2,500 booths; and is admitted on all hands to be at once the largest and most perfect of its kind that is any where to be met with. Including the church, dedicated to St. Macarius, the patron of the fair, it is said to have cost in all about 11,000,000 roubles.

Nijnii Novgorod has various manufactures, but it owes its great importance almost entirely to its commerce. It is the grand entrepôt for the trade of the interior of the empire, and has, in fact, a greater command of inter-communication than any other city of the old world. Besides the corn, cattle, and other products of the surrounding country, the Kama is the principal affluent of the Volga, conveys to Nijnii the salt of Perm; the gold, silver, copper, and other metallic treasures of the Oural mountains; the furs, &c., of Siberia; and even the teas of China. The silks, shawls, and other merchandise of central Asia, and the fish, caviar, &c., of Southern Russia, come up the river from Astrakhan; while the manufactured goods of England and Western Europe, the wines of France, the cotton of America, and the sugar of Brazil, are conveyed to her from Petersburg and Archangel, with both of which, as well as Moscow, she is connected by navigable rivers and canals. These advantages, joined to her situation in a fertile country in the centre of the monarchy, were so highly appreciated by Peter the Great, that it is said he at one time intended to have made Nijnii the capital of his empire; and it is, perhaps, to be regretted that he did not carry this project into effect.

Laterly the commercial importance of Nijnii has been vastly increased. Previously to 1817, the great fair, now held here, was held, in a less convenient situation, at Makarieff, lower down the Volga. But the buildings for the accommodation of the merchants at Makarieff having been accidentally burnt down in 1816, government took advantage of the circumstance to remove the fair to Nijnii. It begins on the 1st of July, and continues for a month or six weeks, and is well known, not only over all Russia, but over most other countries of Europe and Asia. It is carried on within the basars already noticed, which were constructed by government for the accommodation of the traders, to whom they are let at moderate rents. The produce disposed of is classified as follows, viz. 1st, Russian produce, raw and manufactured; 2d, Merchandise from the rest of Europe, consisting principally of manufactured and colonial products; and, 3d, Products of China, Bokhara, the Kirghises, and other Asiatic nations. The estimated value of the produce belonging to each of these classes, exposed to sale in 1827, 1832, and 1839, has been as under:—

	First Class.	Second Class.	Third Class.	Totals.
	<i>Roubles.</i>	<i>Roubles.</i>	<i>Roubles.</i>	<i>Roubles.</i>
1827	67,000,000	16,000,000	22,000,000	105,000,000
1832	89,500,000	17,000,000	16,700,000	123,200,000
1839	122,557,000	15,035,000	23,003,000	160,595,000

In 1830, Russia sent to the fair silk goods valued at 8,500,000 roubles; hides, tanned and raw, 3,000,000 r.; dry and salted fish, 1,600,000 r.; cotton stuffs and yarn, 19,000,000 r.; woollen stuffs, 500,000 r.; furs and peltries, 8,000,000 r.; and 2,000,000 pounds iron. During the same year there were sent to the fair by foreigners, woollens of the value of 2,300,000 r.; 23,268 boxes of tea; 306,570 lbs. of silk, &c. Every sort of article is to be found in one or other of the different basars. In 1839, the cottons exposed to sale were valued at 28,544,000 r.; and the metals and metallic goods at 22,390,000 r. The concourse of strangers during the fair is quite immense; so much so, that the population is then increased, according to the lowest estimates, by from 150,000 to 300,000 individuals. Here are seen dealers from India, China, Tartary, Bokhara, Persia, Circassia, Armenia, and Turkey; and from Italy, Poland, Germany, France, England, and even America. Amusement as well as business is attended to: theatrical representations, shows of wild beasts, and other Bartholomew-fair diversions, being got up for the entertainment of the multitude. (*Schweizer, La Russie, &c.*, 114—120; *L'ail*, ii. 323—330; *Posselt, &c. Des Europäischen Russen*, 592.)

NIKOLSBURG, a town of Moravia, circ. Brinn, from which city it is 28 m. S. Pop. about 8,500, a third part of whom are Jews. It has a fine castle and grounds

belonging to Prince Dietrichstein, a philosophical academy, a gymnasium, and several other superior schools; and in the castle is an extensive library, comprising many valuable MSS. The town is dirty and wretched; it has however, manufactures of woollen cloth and other stuffs, and some trade in wine and marble, both produced in its vicinity. (*Oesterr. Nat. Encycl.*; *Berghaus*.)

NILE (*Lat. Nilus*, Gr. *Niλος*, from *Nas* *lān*, "new mud," because it brings down vast quantities of silt or mud*), a large and famous river of N.E. Africa, flowing N. through Abyssinia, Nubia, and Egypt, to the Mediterranean Sea, celebrated alike for its magnitude, the inexhaustible fertility which it confers on the "land of Egypt," the uncertainty of its origin, its connection with some of the most interesting events in the remotest periods of authentic history, the great cities that were early built on its banks, and the stupendous monuments that still attest the wealth and power of their founders. The discovery of its real source was an object of intense curiosity to the ancients, as it still remains to the travellers and geographers of modern days; the words of Tullius,

*Nile pater, quantum to possum dicere castal
Ani quibus in terris occubuisse cupit,*

being nearly as applicable now as in his time.

The Nile is formed by the junction, at 15° 34' N. lat. and 32° 30' 58" E. long., of two great arms, the *Bahr-el-Azrek*, (the *Atropos* of the ancients), or Blue river, from the S.E. and the *Bahr-el-Abid*, or White river, from the S.W. The sources of the former, which derives its name from the dark colour of its water, were discovered and described by Ptoz in 1618, and were subsequently visited by Bruce, who ridiculously pretended to have, for the first time, ascertained the true sources of the Nile, and thus solved a problem that had for ages occupied the attention of the learned world! This E. branch rises from two fountains near Geesh in Gojam, in Abyssinia, at an elevation of about 10,000 ft. above the level of the sea, in lat. 10° 59' 25" N., long. 36° 55' 30" E. It thence flows N. to the lake of Dembea, or Tzana, a large abate, in which water which receives many other streams; but the Nile is said to preserve its waters with little intermixture with those of the lake, across which its current is always visible. Escaping from this lake it sweeps, in a southerly direction, round the E. frontier of the provinces of Gojam and Damot, till, between the 9th and 10th deg. N. lat., it takes a N.W. direction, which it preserves till, at Khartoom, it unites with the other great arm, the *Bahr-el-Abid*, flowing from the S.W. The *Bahr-el-Azrek* receives in its course several important tributaries, and is in several parts interrupted by cataracts, one series of which has a fall of 280 ft. At the point of junction with the other great arm, it is about 4 m. in breadth, and has a rapid current; but, during half the year, its waters are low.

The W. arm, *Bahr-el-Abid*, or White River, derives its name from the fine whitish clay usually suspended in, and colouring its waters. It is broader and deeper than the E. arm, brings down a larger volume of water, and appears to have been regarded in antiquity as the true Nile. (*Herod.* ii. caps. 20, 31.; *Mémoire de D'Anville; Mémoires de l'Académie des Inscriptions, &c.* xxvi. 46.) If, however, the derivation of the name previously given be correct, the *Bahr-el-Azrek* would seem to have the best right to be considered the genuine Nile, inasmuch as it carries down the greater portion of that mud whence its name has been derived, and the deposits of which have, in the lapse of ages, formed the land of Egypt. But without insisting further on this point, though the sources of the *Bahr-el-Abid* have not hitherto been explored,

Nec licuit populi parvum in Nile, videre,

its course was traced, in 1827, by Linant, for about 160 m. from its confluence with the *Bahr-el-Azrek*. (*Geog. Journal*, ii. 171—187.) And a party sent by the pacha of Egypt on a slaving expedition have since traced it to a much greater distance, or to a point supposed by Col. Leake to be in about the 10th deg. of N. lat. and 94th deg. of E. long.; and at this point no mountains were in sight, the river being, also, of great breadth, full of islands, and shallow. Perhaps, however, we shall not be far wrong in fixing its sources on the N. slope of the Gebel-el-Kumr, or Mountains of the Moon, in about the 8th deg. of N. lat. and between the 22d and 30th deg. of E. long. But whether its confluent form themselves into lakes, as was conjectured by Ptolemy, or fall successively into the main stream, are questions as to which no information can be given. The course of the *Bahr-el-Abid*, so far as it has been explored, to its junction with the *Bahr-el-Azrek*, is pretty uniformly N.N.E.; it receives many tributaries, and forms numerous islands. "At the point of confluence, the *Bahr-el-Abid* is only about 1,800 ft. across; but

* This is the derivation given by Savaria in his notes to *Georg.* iv. v. 291.; but many other derivations have been proposed, and perhaps the Nile may, like the Hebrew *Nahhal*, signify means the river, or river per excellence. (*See Dictionnaire de Trévoux*, art. *Nil*.)

bove it enlarges much, its banks being frequently n. apart, and in some places during the inundation waters extend 21 m. from side to side. In its state, and in mid channel, it has here from 3 to 5 water." (*Geog. Journal*, ii. 187.)

the junction of its two great arms, the united Nile, takes a generally N. direction, but with innumerable windings. Not far below the point where is a low range of mountains, through which the river rushes in a narrow gorge, forming what is the sixth cataract; and thence deflecting east-rough extensive and verdant plains, it passes the thebaid and the ruins of the ancient Meröe. It is close to the town of Addamer (lat. 17° 45' N.), is of its important tributary the Taccasé (the is of the ancients), which has its sources in the is of Lasta, in Abyssinia, in lat. 11° 40' N. long., about 24 deg. E. of lake Dembea, pursuing pretty uniform course N. N. W. to its junction Nile. From this point to its embouchure, a of about 1,350 m., the Nile receives no affluent r, either on its E. or the W. bank, a solitary as Humboldt has remarked, in the hydrographic of the globe. (*Res. Voy.* v.)

the Hamed, in about 19° 15' N. lat., and 33 deg. the river, which had previously been following rly course, turns suddenly to the W., and thence a south-westerly course to Edab, in the prov. of . in the 18th deg. of lat., where it again curves to the N. This deflexion is called the Great the Nile. In its course through Dongola, the n each side is very circumscribed. The river ower Nubia in about 19° 40' N., where it is ed over a ledge of granite rocks, forming what only called the 3d cataract. Under the 22d occurs the 2d cataract of Wady Halfa. The lowest cataract, is that of Assouan (an. *Syne*). Island of Elephantine, where the river has cut through a ridge of granite rocks. (*See* Vol. i. t must be observed, however, that the term t," as applied to the broken course of the Nile, analogy to the great cataracts of Niagara, the ache, &c.; for most of them scarcely exceed a n height, and are, in fact, rather rapids than . In a portion of Lower Nubia the river-valley much contracted; the rocks on both sides ap- shore so closely as to allow little space for the of alluvium; and in other places on the Libyan sand covers the whole level space between the bank. At Kalabshah, the an. *Talmis* (which mple bearing a close resemblance to the temples ra, Edfou, and Philæ), the river rises from 20 ft. during the floods; and after their subsidence the stream flows at a rate of 3 or 3 nautical a hour. (*Geog. Journ.*, vol. ix. part 3.)

ter entering the boundaries of Egypt at Philæ, an Assouan, runs in a quiet and very tortuous though generally northward, through the whole of the country, enriching it by its waters, and its which, indeed, not only give to Egypt its fer- it make it habitable. But, with the exception atrict of Fayoum (Vol. i. 831.), the valley of the Upper and Central Egypt is of very contracted ons, the mountains, and the burning sands of the encroaching so closely upon it, that it seldom ex- m in width, and is frequently not half so much. w limited soever, this narrow stripe is of extra- y beauty and fertility, and contains the magnifi- mains of some of the noblest and most populous the modern world. But we beg to refer the reader article Egypt for farther particulars as to the d present state of the bed of the river, its inunda- its delta. In antiquity, the Nile seems to have its waters into the sea by 7 mouths; but it has ly 3 mouths, those of Rosetta and Damietta- mer, or most westerly, has a breadth of 1,800 ft., depth of about 5 ft. in the dry season. The Da- mouth is only 900 ft. wide; but its depth averages a 7 ft. and 8 ft. when the river is lowest. The t breadth of the Delta is about 85 m. from E. to distance of its apex from the sea being rather an 90 m. Great changes have, however, taken place ring the lapse of ages; the soil has not only been d many feet by alluvial deposits, but its shape and tion of its apex have greatly altered even within id of modern history. The river begins to swell in er parts in April, and even earlier in the Bah- al; but at Cairo no increase occurs till the begin- of June, its greatest height at that city being in iber, when the Delta is almost entirely under

The waters subside in Nov., leaving a rich al- which is the great source of the fertility of Egypt. *Quotamus certis diebus, precipue circa m æstivum, aucto magno per totam spatiosam, terram pluviam omnibus destitutam aquis rigat, limo tegit, et fecundissimam efficit. Unde spes Egyptiis in Nilo posita est, quia fertilis*

aut sterilis annus est, prout ille magnus aut parvus fluit. (Cicero, *De Nat. Deor.*, l. cap. 55.) We need not, under such circumstances, feel surprised that the ancient Egyptians regarded the Nile as a god to whom they paid divine honours. The greatest breadth of the river may be estimated at 2,000 ft., or about twice the width of the Thames at London Bridge. Its average current does not exceed 3 m. an hour: the water is always muddy; and even in April and May, when it is clearest, it has a cloudy hue. When it overflows, the colour is of a dirty red, consisting chiefly, we believe, of the red-clay deposit of the Bahr-el-Azrek; for, as already stated, the Bahr-el-Abad brings down only a fine whitish clay. The Nile abounds with a great variety of fish, such as the *Labrus Niloticus*, or white trout, the *Muræna anguilla*, and a large species of salmon. The *Oxyrinchus* of this river, so famed in the anti- quities of Egypt is, according to D'Anville, the fish now called *Keshe*. None of the fish, however, except eels, have any very close resemblance to those of Europe. Among the waterfowl of the Nile, the most character- istic is the Turkey-geese, or *Anas Nilotica*, the flesh of which is both palatable and salubrious. From Assouan down to Cairo, about 360 m., the banks, except in the rocky parts, present no native plants, but about every all sorts of esculent vegetables, raised by the industry of the inhabs. on this peculiarly fertile soil. Cultivation, how- ever, is more common on the E. than on the W. bank of the river. Hippopotami are found in Nubia, but not in Egypt; the crocodiles, also, are greatly reduced in number, and are now confined to the district above Assut.

NIMEGUEN, or NYMEGEN (probably the an. *Noviomagus*), a town of Holland, prov. Guelderland, cap. and., on the Waal, here crossed by a flying bridge, 91 S. by W. Amheim, and 33 m. S.E. Amsterdam. Pop. about 31,000. It stands on several m. steep hills, and is pretty strongly fortified. Though not ill built, it has an irregular appearance, the streets being narrow; and, on account of the abrupt elevation from the river, the windows of one range of houses overlook the chimnies of another. Among the public buildings worth notice, are an old edifice, said to have been raised by the Romans, and now forming part of the fortifications; the old castle of Valkenot, believed to have been built by Charlemagne; and the town-house, an edifice of considerable beauty. Several of the churches are likewise entitled to attention; and a high tower, called the Helvidere, is much resorted to by visitors, on account of the extensive view which it commands of the course of the river and the surrounding country. Nimeguen is the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, and the residence of a military commandant and a receiver of taxes. It has a branch of the Society of Public Good, a commission of agriculture, and a Latin school. It produces Prussian blue, glue, &c., and has some tan- neries; but the only article for which it is celebrated is its pale beer, sent to almost every part of the Nether- lands. Nimeguen is known in history from the treaty concluded here, in 1678, by Spain, France, and Holland. It was taken by the French on the 8th Sept., 1794, after a severe action, in which the allies were defeated. Various Roman antiquities have been discovered in and about the town. (*De Cloet; Dict. Géog.; Barrow's Tour in Holland.*)

NIMES, or NISMES (an. *Nemausus*), a city of the S. of France, dép. Gard, of which it is the cap., in an extensive and fertile plain, near the Vistre, 23 m. W.S.W. Avignon, and 30 m. N.E. Montpellier; lat. 43° 50' 8" N., long. 4° 21' 45" E. Pop., in 1846, m., com. 49,442. The distant view of Nimes is not imposing. Notwithstanding its numerous fine edifices, it has only the *Tourmagne* to render it conspicuous at a distance. The city- proper, which is surrounded by boulevards, on the site of the ancient fortifications, is confused and irregular with narrow streets and ill-built houses. But the boulevards and suburbs, which comprise three fourths of the houses, are regularly laid out, clean, and have numerous handsome modern buildings and fine public prom- enades.

Nimes is principally interesting on account of its remains of antiquity, of which it probably possesses more than any other city of Europe, Rome excepted. The most classical, though not the most extensive, of these is the oblong temple, absurdly called the *Maison-carrie*, nearly in the centre of the city. This edifice was supposed, from an inscription discovered on its frieze, to have been built in honour of Calus and Lucius Caesar, grandsons of Augustus; but, from subsequent discoveries, it would appear to have been erected to the adopted sons of Antoninus Pius. At any rate, it dates from the finest period of Roman art, and is one of its most perfect remains. It is raised on a platform ascended by 15 steps, and has 30 Corinthian columns, 6 in the front and at the back, and 9 on each side, exclusive of those at the angles. The portico, which is of ample dimensions, is supported by six detached columns in front, and two on either side:

the other columns on the sides and back of the building are sunk half way into the walls. The capitals of the columns, and the frieze, cornice, and other parts of the building, are profusely adorned, in the most exquisite taste. The measurements of this edifice are as follow:—length, 824 ft.; breadth and height, 404 ft. each; height of the platform on which it stands, 18½ ft.; height of the stylobate, 3½ ft.; height of the doorway, 23½ ft.; breadth of do., 16½ ft. The columns, which are about 30 ft. in height, have a height equal to 104 diameters. (*Frossard, Tableau Pittoresque de Nîmes*, il. 171.)

The *maison-carée* was considerably injured in the middle ages; but it is protected from future spoliation by being inclosed within an iron palisade, and since 1823 it has been employed as a museum of paintings and antiques. But it would have been more consistent with good taste to have preserved it untouched and unoccupied, in its ancient simplicity.

The amphitheatre of Nîmes is admitted to be the most perfect structure of its kind extant, after that of Verona. It stands on one of the boulevards, surrounded by a large open space, on which no buildings are allowed to be erected. It is said to have been founded by Antoninus Pius. Its longest external diameter is 437 ft.; its shortest 332½ ft.: it has 32, or, according to some authorities, 35, ranges of seats, and is variously estimated as having sufficient accommodation for from 17,000 to 23,000 spectators; the height of the building outside is from 68 to 104 ft., and its total external circ. is 1,174 ft. (*Frossard*, i. 125.) Though it was occupied by the Visigoths, and afterwards the Saracens, as a fortress for their defence against the Franks, the outer wall is still nearly entire. It consists of two stories, each having 60 arches, and an attic story, and is entered by four gates, one at each of the cardinal points, the principal being on the N. side. The arcades of the ground story are separated by pilasters, those of the upper by columns, in an irregular Tuscan or Doric style. The interior is in many parts dilapidated and overgrown with vegetation; but it still serves for bull-baits, founts, and dramatic entertainments, to which the modern inhabs. of Nîmes are as much addicted as their ancestors were to the more barbarous exhibitions of gladiators.

A few portions of the ancient walls still remain, principally in the *Portes d'Auguste* and *De France*: the first, which, in the time of the Romans, was the principal gate of the city, consists of 2 large and 3 smaller arches: the former, which are in the middle, have between them a small Ionic column, respecting which there has been much controversy, all the other decorations of this gate being of the Corinthian order. The *Porte d'Auguste* is elaborately ornamented with sculptures, which constitute one of the principal points in which it differs from the *Porte de France*. In the N.W. part of Nîmes is a ruined *sympneum*, or Roman bath, of considerable size, improperly termed the Temple of Diana. Near this, on a height overlooking the city, is the *Tour mague* (*turris magna*), a tower supposed to have been built by the Greek colonists of the city before the Roman invasion; but the original purpose of which has not been correctly ascertained. It is in the Doric style; its lower part being heptagonal, its upper, octagonal. It is in great part ruined; but being still 100 ft. in height, and in a conspicuous position, it is used to support a telegraph. The above are the principal objects of architectural interest in the city. The Vandals, and other barbarians, are said to have destroyed the basilica of Plotinus, the temples of Apollo, Ceres, Augustus, &c.; but the still existing memorials of antiquity are more than sufficient to evince the almost unequalled magnificence of the ancient city.

Nîmes does not, however, owe its sole interest to its antiquities. It has several large, and some good modern, edifices. The cathedral, begun in the 11th, but principally constructed in the 16th and 17th centuries, has little to recommend it, except its occupying the site of the Temple of Augustus, but the *Palais de Justice* on the Esplanade, the *Hôtel-Dieu*, principally rebuilt in 1820, the general hospital, the new theatre, several of the churches, and the public library, are handsome, well-contrived buildings. A large fortress to the N. of the city was constructed by Vauban, on the site previously occupied by the basins that received the water brought thither by the aqueduct, of which the *Pont du Gard* forms a part. It is now the central prison for the S. dep. of France, and has usually about 1,300 inmates. The bishop's palace, episcopal seminary, college, and large barracks, are the other principal public buildings. The esplanade contiguous to the amphitheatre, and the *Cours Neuf*, are among the finest promenades. The last named extends quite through the W. part of Nîmes from N. to S.; and leads to the fine and extensive *Jardin de la Fontaine*. This garden derives its name from a large and handsome fountain, and has in it many statues and other Roman antiquities, besides the *sympneum* mentioned above.

The *Pont du Gard*, above alluded to, formed part of a superb Roman aqueduct, 25½ m. in length, which con-

veyed a supply of water from the neighbourhood of Uzès to Nîmes. We have no certain details as to the founders of this great work, the era of its construction, or the purpose for which the water brought by it was employed. Some antiquaries have ascribed its erection to Agrippa, son-in-law of Augustus, about *anno* 19 B. C., while others have ascribed it to Adrian, or his successor Antoninus, who derived his origin, by the father's side, from Nemausus. But, by whomsoever constructed, it was worthy the most brilliant era of Roman power. The *Pont du Gard* consists of that part of the aqueduct which was thrown across the river Gardon, in a wild defile, 11 m. N.E. Nîmes. It consists of 3 rows of arches, or, as it were, 3 different bridges, raised the one above the other, the whole being constructed of large stones, without cement. The first, or lower tier or bridge, has a length of 529 English ft., and a height of 68½ ft.; and consists of 6 arches of unequal size, the breadth of the largest, through which the Gardon usually flows, being 52½ ft. The second, or middle tier, is 846 ft. in length, and 63½ ft. in height: it consists of 11 arches, generally smaller than those of the first tier, but like them of unequal size. The third or upper tier, 870 ft. in length, and 23½ ft. in height, has 35 arches, which of course are much smaller than those of the other tiers, being respectively only 134 ft. in width. The entire height of the structure is 189 ft.; its width or thickness, which is 194 ft. at its base, diminishes as it ascends; on its summit is the watercourse, 4½ ft. in depth and 4 ft. in breadth, and through it a person may now pass with ease from one end of the structure to the other. About the middle of last century, a carriage road was built up against the bridge as high as the base of the second tier of arches. The *Pont du Gard* is in the Tuscan style; it is very little ornamented, but is a highly picturesque object. With singular good fortune, it escaped dilapidation during the dark ages; and the greatest injury it experienced was in 1600, from the Duke de Rohan, who broke away a portion of the second tier of arches to facilitate the passage of his artillery; but the breach was afterwards repaired at the expense of the States of Langue-d'oc.

Nîmes is a bishop's see, the seat of a royal court for the dép. Gard, Lozère, and Vaucluse, courts of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a chamber of commerce, *cassée de prud'hommes*, a university academy, the royal academy of Gard, a royal college, &c. It has schools of drawing and chemistry, as applied to the arts, societies of agriculture, medicine, &c., a Bible society, a commission of antiquities, an atheum, an extensive public library, and a cabinet of natural history.

Nîmes is further distinguished by its manufacturing industry. It is one of the principal seats of the silk manufacture of France; ranking in this respect, immediately after Lyons and (perhaps) St. Etienne. Its manufactures are principally silk hosiery and shawls; and silk stuffs mixed with cotton, linen, and woollen. There are, altogether, between 7,000 and 8,000 looms at work in Nîmes, many of which are Jacquard looms. All the weavers work with their families at their own homes, there being no large factories except for dyeing, or for printing silk stuffs; which latter branch of industry has greatly augmented since 1836, when it employed over 600 to 700 hands, exclusive of the *maisons d'art*, though the silk manufactures of Nîmes be extensive, the goods produced are not much esteemed by the upper and middle classes, being mostly mere imitations of those of Lyons, and of inferior quality. From this and other causes the export trade of Nîmes is small; its industry is not progressive, and its pop. often experience distressing crises. Besides silks, Nîmes has manufactures of cotton goods, gloves, leather, brandy and vinegar, and a good deal of trade in wine, essences, drugs, and colonial produce, &c. It is also the principal entrepôt for the raw silk produced in the S. of France, of which material almost all its silk manufactures are made. Of the pop. of Nîmes and its suburbs about 24,000 are R. Catholics, and 13,000 Protestants; and in few towns is there so much acrimonious party-spirit and violence displayed on account of religion. This violence broke out, soon after the downfall of Napoleon, into the most atrocious acts on the part of the Catholics, which might easily have been suppressed by a vigorous government, but which were, in fact, rather encouraged by the imbecile bigots then at the head of affairs in France.

Nemausus is supposed to have been founded by a colony of Phocians; it was subjugated by the Romans, *anno* 121 B. C. In the middle ages it belonged successively to its own viscounts, the counts of Thoulouse, and the kings of Aragon, by one of whom it was ceded to Louis IX., in 1298. Nîmes has given birth to many distinguished persons, among whom may be specified Court de Gebelin, author of the *Monde Primitif*, and M. Guizot, late minister of France, and author of the able and original works on the progress of civilisation in France and Europe, &c. (*Histoire de la Civilisation en France, and Histoire Générale de la Civilisation en Europe, &c.*) This illustrious individual first saw the light on the 4th

ber, 1787: he is a Protestant; and the simplicity of character, and perfect freedom from all sorts of pretensions, give additional lustre to his talents and eloquence. NINEVEH, a great and famous city of the old world, the cap. of the Assyrian empire, supposed to have stood on the E. bank of the Tigris, opposite to the modern city of Mosul (see). It was till lately supposed that it was identical with that of the village of Nimrud, for Nebbi Yunus, containing the tomb of Jonah, about 3 m. from the river, and surrounded by vast heaps of ruins, is at 20° 17' N., long. 43° 10' 17" E. But vast mounds of ruins exist at Khorsabad, 10 m. N.N.E. from Ninia, and at Nimrud, about 18 m. S., in the angle formed by the confluence of the greater Zab with the Tigris. It is impossible to say which of these mounds may represent the site of the city. They appear in fact, to consist of the ruins of palaces, of great public buildings; and may either lie within or beyond the city walls, or even in different, though contiguous, cities. We are against all probability to suppose that Khorsabad and Khorsabad were included in the city.

Strabo (l. 165) and other profane writers ascribe the foundation to Ninus, son of Belus, and first monarch of Assyria. But, according to the Bible (Gen. 11.), "Asshur (the grandson of Cush) went forth from the land of Shinar, and builded Nineveh." Its site is lost in the obscurity of succeeding ages; but no doubt, a very large city 9 or 10 centuries before the Christian era, for at that period Jonah described it as "exceeding great city of three days' journey." Strabo says (l. xvi.) that it was much larger even than Babylon; the circuit of which he estimated at 365 stadia, and, according to Diodorus Siculus (l. ii.), it was an oblong shape, 150 stadia in length, and 90 in breadth; that is, above 34 m. in circuit. Very little can, however, be placed on these statements; as, at the same time, admitted that the walls in a large extent of gardens, and pasture grounds. The description of its walls, given by Diodorus, is too highly exaggerated to require any notice. The profane says that Nineveh "had more than six score and persons that could not distinguish between right and their left." (Jonah, iv. 11.) This, too, the import of which is by no means clear, is generally understood to refer to children, making it in this sense, and including under the children the younger persons under nine years of age, might be taken at about one fourth part of the city, consequently, would be 480,000. But if we take, as some critics have done, that the children referred to by the prophet could not well exceed five of age, they might be taken at between one sixth and seventh part of the pop., which would, consequently, amount to from 720,000 to 840,000. It is plain, therefore, that these statements are far too vague to be taken for any considerable weight.

Nineveh was the residence of the Assyrian kings, and of such commercial importance, that Nahum apostrophized her: "Thou hast multiplied thy merchants above the stars of heaven." (lil. 16.) She was besieged and taken by the Medes in the 8th century B.C., but it appears to have been regarded as the cap. of the Assyrian empire as late as 612 B.C., nearly 3 centuries after Jonah's city of her destruction, when she fell, after a protracted siege, into the hands of Ashurbanipal, or Cyaxares, Media, who took "spoils of silver and gold, and of the store and glory out of all the pleasant things," making her "empty, and void, and waste." (Nah. ii. 9, 10.) The spoils were taken to Ecbatana, where the Assyrians were dispersed in villages, and the Assyrian empire, which had for centuries been the glory of the world, gave way to that of the Medes and Persians. It seems certain, however, either that the city was not wholly destroyed, or, which is most likely, that a new and inferior city had, at a subsequent period, grown out of the ruins of the more ancient city. The latter, no doubt, is that referred to by Tacitus, xli. 13., and Ammianus Marcellinus, xlii. 20., supposed ruins, or mounds opposite to Mosul, have scarcely of low, abrupt, hills: and have been long

known to contain bricks, entire as well as in fragments, and pieces of gypsum, with inscriptions in the wedge-shaped character, closely resembling those of Babylon.

But within the last ten years they have been partially explored, by M. Botta, French consul at Mosul, and by Mr. Layard, an English gentleman; and their investigations, especially those of the latter at Nimrud, have been in the highest degree interesting. What was supposed to be a shapeless mass of earth and rubbish, has been found to include the ruins of a royal palace in nearly as good preservation as the remains of Pompeii. It appears to have been of a gigantic size, and had been enriched with a vast variety of sculptures, including winged human-headed lions and bulls; statues of monarchs, generals, and priests; and other pieces in basso rilievo, some representing warlike achievements, and others scenes of peaceful life, executed with infinite spirit and on a grand scale. This extraordinary disinterment of a royal residence buried 2500 years ago, while it illustrates some of the most important portions of sacred and profane history, shows that the reports that have come down to us of the wealth, greatness, and magnificence of the Assyrian monarchs have not been in any degree exaggerated. (See the striking description of Esakel, c. xxx. v. 3., &c.) The walls and portions of the statues are covered with cuneiform inscriptions; and should means be found of interpreting them, they will disclose a part at least of the true history of the empire. The palace at Nimrud appears to have been destroyed by fire; and the remains found in it have obviously belonged to different epochs, some of remote extending as far back, perhaps, as the 14th or 15th century B.C. Some of the most interesting of the Nineveh sculptures are now, by a curious destiny, lodged in the British Museum. (See *Nineveh and its Remains*, by Layard, 2 vols. 8vo. passim; *Kincair's Persia*, pp. 256-259; *Olivier, Voy. en Turquie*, iv. 265-278; *Calmet, Dict. de la Bible*, voc. *Nineveh*, &c.)

NING-PO, a city of China of the first rank, prov. Che-Keang, at the confluence of the rivers Kin and Yaou, near their mouth in the harbour of Chusan, 46 m. E. by S. from Hang-tschow, and about 180 m. S.E. from Nankin; lat. 29° 55' N., long. 121° 17' E. Pop. estimated at from 200,000 to 400,000. It is surrounded by walls and bastions, now in ruins, and is entered by 5 gates: the streets are broad and long, and the shops surpass those of Canton in elegance and splendour. It is intersected by numerous canals; a floating bridge crosses the inlet; and there are several pagodas, government warehouses, and other public buildings. The suburbs are flat, presenting rich fields and rice-gardens; but at the back, skirting the sea-shore, are dark-looking barren hills. Ning-po may be considered the third or fourth emporium of the Chinese empire; and the trade to the N. and S. districts of China, as well as to Siam, is of much importance. In the neighbourhood are very extensive salt works, and salt is exported in considerable quantities. The town is accessible by vessels of 300 tons; but large ships unload at Chinshai, a fortified town at the entrance of the inlet.

The English formerly traded to Ning-po. They were compelled, however, in the 17th century, to confine themselves to Macao, at the same time that similar restrictions were imposed on the Portuguese. But the city has been again opened to the English under the treaty of 1842. Hitherto the trade with it has been unimportant.

NIORT, a town of France, dep. Deux-Sèvres, of which it is the cap., on the Sèvre-Niortaise, 24 m. E.N.E. La Rochelle, and 43 m. W.S.W. Poitiers; lat. 46° 20' N., long. 0° 19' 12" W. Pop., in 1846, ex. com., 16,860. It is pleasantly situated on the declivities of two hills, and is surrounded by planted promenades. It was formerly ill-built, but has been greatly improved since the Revolution, many new and good streets having been constructed on the site of the ancient fortifications. The castle of Niort, which has been long converted into a prison, was the birth-place of Mad. de Maintenon. The town has two good parish churches, one of which was built by the English, two hospitals, some good barracks, public baths and public halls, a handsome arcade (*galerie vitrée*), a theatre, a public library with 20,000 vols., including some rare MSS.; and a botanic garden, having attached to it a large horticultural school. It is the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a Royal academy, a council *des prud'hommes*, a society of agriculture, and a communal college. It has manufactures of leather, gloves, shoes, wooten stuffs, wooden and horn articles, &c.; and is an entrepôt for the wines of the Gironde, and for timber, wool, hides, and cattle. It is also celebrated for its confectionery (*confitures d'angelique*). (Hugo, art. *Deux-Sèvres*.)

NIPHON. See JAPAN.

NISHAPOOR, a town of Persia, in Khorassan, cap. district of its own name, 46 m. W. by S. Mehed, lat. 36° 55' N., long. 36° 9' E. Pop., according to Captain Conolly, 8,000. The town has a poor appearance, being confined within a mud wall and ditch, without either minarets or domes; the only building that appears

well-informed authors of the learned and valuable work, *Travels in Persia*, have made a singular blunder in noticing it. They say that the children of 6 years of age and not exceeding the 1-20th part of the pop. of a city; and that, only, the pop. of Nineveh must have amounted to about 9. (Tomm. li. 345., 8vo. ed.)

above the wall being a shapeseal mosque. The circuit of the present wall does not exceed 4,000 paces, and the greater part of the enclosed area is covered with ruins. The houses now inhabited, of which there are about 1,200, are meanly built, chiefly of mud. A tolerably large bazaar is well filled with goods, and provisions are alleged to be cheap and of good quality.

Nishapoor has few manufactures, and cannot boast of a single branch of foreign trade, except that of turquoise, from which, owing to the exactions of the government, and clumsy mode of working, it derives little benefit. The turquoise mines (from which exclusively are derived our supplies of this valuable gem), are about eight or nine in number, principally situated in a hill about 40 m. W.S.W. Nishapoor; of these, however, some have been abandoned, and others are so imperfectly wrought, as scarcely to pay the miners' expenses. The gems are usually found in a reddish brown rock, but occasionally also in a firm quartzose rock, of a whitish grey colour, abounding with veins of specular iron. The produce of the mines would be very great under proper management; but nothing can be more unartificial than the process now adopted by the peasant-farmers, no skill or ingenuity being exerted, and no sort of contrivance used to lessen labour, or economise time and material. This defective management is mainly attributable to the wretched government, and the consequent insecurity of property from the oppressions of the local authorities. The mines are rented from the crown for about 2000 toman annually, and wrought almost exclusively by the inhab. of the surrounding villages. The produce is either sold to merchants resorting thither, or sent for sale to Meshed; but the miners practise every possible deception on purchasers; and the gems cannot, according to Mr. Fraser, be procured at a rate which would yield any considerable profit on a sale in Europe. Iron and rock-salt are also wrought within the district. Agriculture is little understood; the soil is tilled only once in 3 or 4 years, the ground being left fallow during the intervening time; one-fifth of the produce is claimed as the property of the Shah.

Nishapoor lays claim to high antiquity. It is said to have been destroyed by Alexander the Great, and rebuilt by Shapoor: afterwards, during the Seljuk dynasty, it was one of the four royal cities of Khorassan; but in 1269 it was destroyed by the Tartars, who massacred most part of its inhab. It was again pillaged by Jhengiz-khan; and more recently, in 1749, by Nadir Shah, from whose ravages it has never recovered. (*J. B. Fraser's Khorassan*, pp. 395-422; *Conolly's Travels to the N. of India*, i. 211, 214; *Kiameh's Persia*, p. 185.)

NIVELLES (Flem. *Nyvel*), a town of Belgium, prov. S. Brabant, cap. arrond., on the Thienne, 17 m. S. Brussels. Pop., in 1848, 8,000. It is said to have had, in the 16th century, a pop. of 30,000; and it is still half a league in circuit, exclusive of its suburbs. It is not well built; but it has a remarkable church, in which are two finely carved pulpits, and on the tower is a colossal statue, called Jean de Nivelles, which strikes the hours. It is the seat of a court of primary jurisdiction, and the residence of a receiver of taxes; with manufactures of woollen stuffs, coarse lace, cotton and linen cloths, hats, paper, and oil; and sends two deputies to the states of the prov. It originated from a remarkable Benedictine convent, founded by St. Gertrude in 645, the abbesses of which enjoyed the title of princesses of Nivelles.

NOCERA DEI PAGANI (an. *Nuceria Alfaterna*), a town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Principato Citra, on the Sarno, 8 m. N. W. Salerno. Pop. 7,000. The walls and citadel of the ancient city are on a hill above the present town, which consists of detached groups of houses, interspersed with trees and gardens. Nocera is the see of a bishop; it has some fine cavalry barracks, several public schools, and manufactures of linen and other fabrics. Nocera was of great antiquity, and is said to have been founded by the Pelasgian inhab. of Italy, (*Gramer's Anc. Italy*, ii. 212.) It was sacked and burned by Hannibal in the 2d Punic War. It is supposed to have derived its surname of Pagani from a colony of Saracens, settled in it by the Emperor Frederick II. (*Swinhurne's Tour*, ii. 100; *Crescen.* p. 46. &c.)

NOGENT-LE-ROTTORU, a town of France, dép. Eure-et-Loir, cap. arrond., on the Huisne, 32 m. W. S. W. Chartres. Pop., in 1846, 5,860. It stands at the foot of a mount, on which is the chateau, formerly the residence of the virtuous minister of Henry IV., the amous Maximilian de Bethune, duc de Sully; to whose memory a monument has been erected in the town.

NOIRMOUTIERS, an island off the W. coast of France, dép. Vendée, of which it forms a canton; in about lat. 47° N., long. 2° 13' 45" W.; separated from the main land by a channel about 1 m. in breadth, but which at ebb tide may be passed by horses and vehicles. Area of the island about 70 sq. m. Pop. about 7,500. It is in no part much above, and in many parts below high water mark; being protected against inundations

on the W. by a range of natural sand-hills or *dunes*, and on the S. by artificial embankments. A portion of the surface is very fertile; and corn, beans, &c. are grown for exportation: a little wine is also grown, but the chief product of the island is salt, from extensive marshes and salt-pans. In 1837, 16,250,000 kilogr. of salt, 12,313 hect. of wheat, and 4,621 hect. of beans, were sent from the island, mostly to other parts of France. The town of Noirmoutiers, with about 2,300 inhab., is on the E. side of the island. It is tolerably well built and paved; defended by an old castle founded in 830, and several adjacent batteries; and has a harbour capable of receiving vessels of from 60 and 60 tons. (*Hugo*, &c.)

NOLA, a town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Neapolitano, in a wide and fertile plain, the *Campania Felix* of the ancients, 14 m. E. N. E. Naples. Pop. 9,000. Though ill built and dirty, it has numerous churches and convents, an hospital, a college, and public seminary, large cavalry barracks, an old palace of the counts of Nola, and a good market-place.

In antiquity Nola was one of the most considerable cities of Magna Græcia. It is said by Piny (lib. iii. cap. 5), and by Silius Italicus, to have been founded by a colony of Chalcidians:—

"Hinc ad Chalcidicam transeat citis agmina Nolan.
Campi Nola sedet, cœvis circumstant in orbem
Turribus, et cœcis fidem tatarar adiri
Pœnibus vallo —" *Pœnius*, lib. xii. v. 161.

But Velleius Paterculus (lib. i. cap. 7.) states that Nola was founded, along with Capua, by the Tuscans; and the many fine Etruscan vases that have been found here seem to corroborate this statement. It was besieged by Hannibal soon after the battle of Cannæ; but Marcellus, who had thrown himself into the town, having made an unexpected assault upon the Carthaginian army, Hannibal withdrew from the siege. It is, however, principally celebrated in ancient history from its having been the place where Marcus Agrippa, the faithful friend and successful general of Augustus, breathed his last, anno 13 a. c.; and where Augustus himself expired, A. D. 14, in the 75th year of his age. But, with the exception of its vases, it has now but few remains of antiquity. In the days of its prosperity it had two marble amphitheatres; of which, however, nothing now remains but the brick walls, the marble having been taken away to be employed in the construction of modern edifices. (*Swinhurne*, i. 97; *Ancient Universal History*, xiv. 39. 8vo. ed.)

The famous Giordano Bruno was a native of Nola, where he was born about the middle of the 16th century. He appears, at a very early period, to have become dissatisfied alike with the prevailing systems of philosophy and religion, and attempted to innovate in both. In 1583 he came to London, where he published, in 1584, his most celebrated work, *Spaccio della Bestia Trionfante*, dedicated to Sir Philip Sidney, of which there is very flimsy notice in the 369th number of the Spectator. Having returned to the Continent, he resided some time in Germany; but, being anxious to revisit his native country, he arrived at Venice in 1598. Here he was arrested and thrown into prison, on the convenient charge of heresy and atheism. From Venice he was transferred to Rome; where, sentence having been pronounced against him, he was committed to the flames on the 17th of Feb., 1600! An elaborate estimate of the philosophy of this victim of the implacable hatred of the Inquisition may be found in the *Historia Critica Philosophiæ* of Brucker (vol. v. cap. 2.), and in Engel's compendium of the same work. (See, also, *Biographie Universelle*, art. BRUNO; and *Tiraboschi*, tomo vii. pp. 476-483.)

NORCIA, a town of Central Italy, Papal States, deleg. Spoleto, in a high valley near the source of the Nar, and 17½ m. E. N. E. Spoleto. Pop. 4,000. It has a brisk trade in wine, oil, truffes, turnips, and other rural produce. It is identical with the ancient *Nernia*, noted for the coldness of its climate:—

"Qui Tiberim, Faberique libent, quæ frigida mælis,
Nursia." *Æneid*, vii. 175.

NORD (DEP. DU), or Department of the North, so called from its being the most N. dep. of France, lying principally between the 50th and 51st degs. of N. lat., and the 2d and 4th of E. long., having N. and E. the North Sea and Belgium, and S. and W. the déps. Aisne and Pas-de-Calais. Shape very irregular; length N. W. to S. E. 115 m., by a breadth varying from 4 to nearly 40. Area 567,863 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 1,132,980, it being the most populous of all the French déps. Surface almost an uninterrupted plain; the highest hill being no more than 360 ft. above the sea. The shore is bordered with sandy dunes (*dunes*), as in Belgium and Holland. The Aa and Yezer water the N., the Lys and Scheldt the central, and the Sanabre the S. parts of the dep. The arrond. of Dunkirk (*Dunkerque*), has a good deal of marsh land, called the *Wateringues*, and the *Mofres*; but it has been mostly drained, and rendered cultivable. The soil,

along the coast, is generally very fertile. In 1834, the lands were estimated to comprise 350,570 hectare-lands 95,832 hectares, orchards 16,234 hectare-woods, &c., 35,827 hectares. This dep. is the best cultivated in France. The properties, as re throughout that country, are, in general, small, 221,552, subject to the *contrib. foncière*, in 1835, were assessed at less than 5 fr.; but it has, notwithstanding, many large properties than most other departments. The great farms are round Douai; the smallest generally lie. In the wooded tracts they run mostly from hectares; but in the marshy region called the *swags*, they vary up to between 60 and 70 hectares are seldom for more than 9 years, except around. of Avesnes, where they are frequently to 37 years, or even longer. (*Hugo*.) On the farms horses are used for the plough; but spade is common on all the smaller holdings, and universal on the lands appropriated to flax, hops, or potatoes. Fallows are rare, and the cultures not here, as in most parts of France, so as to routine practices as to reject all new and old methods of culture. All kinds of corn are sown, but principally wheat and oats. In 1835, 6,000,000 hectolitres of grain were harvested, about 1,960,000 hectolitres of potatoes; but from the dep. the pop. but little more corn is usually than is required for the home demand. Kitchen is good and plentiful; and best root, ous grains, hops, chicory, flax, hemp, wood, and are also extensively raised. *Hugo* states that are 500 oil mills in the dep., which annually e 470,000 hectolitres of oil; and that the profit is 3,385,000 francs. Tobacco is estimated at from 2 to 4 millions kilogr. a year. stures are very good, especially on the Sambre and N. According to the official tables, there were, in out 214,000 black cattle, and 193,000 sheep in the. The cows are of the fine Flemish breed, and estimated that they supply 7,000,000 kilogr. butter, 500,000 kilogr. cheese a year. The annual profit of wool is about 745,000 kilogr.; a good deal is of air quality, the sheep being partly Merinos, and of the long and fine woolled Flanders breed. habs. of the coast are actively employed in the fishery, and at Dunkirk and Gravelines many are fitted out for the cod and whale fisheries. kirk is the centre of the marit. trade; but every or 4 vessels leave Gravelines with a cargo for the market of from 500,000 to 600,000 eggs, produced and the neighbouring depts. Iron, marble, bulidne, &c., are found here; but the principal mineral is coal, of which about 6,000,000 quintals a year ised. Manufactures highly important. Nearly e best-root sugar produced in France is raised in the dep. the quantity made in it being estimated in 21,172,000 kilogr. Lille is one of the chief seats. French cotton trade; and it also occupies the pop. baix and Turcoing. and linen fabrics at Valenciennes; carpets, stuffs of cordage, arms, at Maubeuge, Cambrai, &c.; hard-cutlery, glass and earthenware, hats, paper, soap, al products, barrels, tiles, and bricks, are among he chief manufactures. A great many distilleries, ries, sugar and salt refineries, dyeing and bleaching ishments and tanneries, are spread over the dep. tion of France has its commerce so much facility navigable rivers, canals, and good roads. The is divided into 7 arrondis.; chief towns, Lille (Lille) up., with (in 1846) 67,775 inhabts., Avesnes, Camdoul, Dunkirk, Hazebrouck, and Valenciennes. public revenue (1844), 50,363,264 fr. This dep. was ed to the French crown by Louis XIV. (*Hugo*, *De Nord*; *French Official Tables*; *Dict. Géog.*.)

RDHAUSEN, a town of Prussian Saxony, gov. t, cap. circ., on the Zorge, 49 m. W. Halle. Pop., 18, 13,000. It is surrounded with old walls flanked over, and is generally built in an antiquated style. several churches, in one of which are two paintings. L. Cranach; 3 hospitals, a gymnasium, an orphanage, a theatre, &c., and is the seat of a circ. council, a taxation, and judicial courts for the town and circ. for its extent, one of the most flourishing commercial in the Prussian dom., having numerous distilleries, efuse of which support great numbers of hogs and. Woolen cloth, sealing-wax, vitriol, soap, mineral a, and cream of tartar, are made at Nordhausen, is further noted for its peculiar manufacture of sulphuric acid. It has also numerous oil-mills, marble works, and a considerable trade in corn, sed in its vicinity. It was the native place of the rated philologist Wolf. (*Von Zedlitz*, *Der Preuss. Staad.* iii. 243.; *Berghaus*, &c.)

RDKOPING, (Swed. *Norrköping*), a town and of Sweden, lan Linköping, on the Motala, near its h in the Baltic, 85 m. S.W. Stockholm. Pop., 10

1836, 11,440. After Stockholm, it covers more ground than any other Swedish town, but it has no public building worthy of notice. It has straight and broad streets, and is well situated for trade, having a commodious quay, close to which vessels can lie. It has several churches, a synagogue, public school, house of correction, and savings' bank, and manufactures of brass and hardware goods, linen, cotton, and coarse woollen fabrics, gloves, starch, paper, leather, &c., and several sugar refineries. A profitable salmon fishery is also carried on here in the river. (*Forrell*; *Stett's Handbook*.)

NORDLINGEN, a town of Bavaria, circ. Middle Franconia; on the Eger, 48 m. S.W. Nuremberg. Pop. 6,500. It is surrounded with old bastioned ramparts. The cathedral, a handsome Gothic edifice, has some curious monuments and paintings, and a tower 345 ft. in height. The town-hall is ornamented with fresco paintings of the battle of Nordlingen, in 1634; in which, after an obstinate and doubtful conflict, the Austrians and Bavarians, under the Archduke Ferdinand, defeated the Swedes and their allies, under the famous Bernard, Duke of Weimar. The town has flourishing carpet factories, and a considerable trade in feathers, cheese, and hogs. (*Berghaus*.)

NORFOLK, a marit. co. of England on its E. coast, having N. and E. the German Ocean, S. Suffolk, and W. Cambridge, a point of Lincoln, and the inlet of the sea called the Wash. It is of a circular shape, and contains 1,295,360 acres, of which about 1,300,000 are supposed to be arable, meadow, and pasture. Surface generally flat, and where most diversified merely undulating. Soil very various: in the W. parts of the co., contiguous to Cambridge, and the bottom of the Wash, there is a considerable tract of marsh-land included within the Great Level of the Fens; and there is also some marsh-land in the S.E. corner of the co. contiguous to Yarmouth. But, with these exceptions, the rest of the co. consists principally of a light sandy loam, especially suitable for the turnip and barley husbandry. Climate dry and early; but in spring, the E. winds are often very severe. Few coas. in the empire have been so much improved as this. Little more than a century ago, the greater portion of it consisted of wastes, commons, sheep-walks, and warrens of little or no value. But, through the judicious application of marl, which is found in the greatest abundance in all parts of the co., and the extension of the turnip husbandry, introduced by Lord Viscount Townshend in the reign of George II., followed up by the introduction of the drill husbandry, and an improved rotation of crops, it is now, perhaps, the best farmed co. in England, and is a striking example of what may be accomplished by intelligence, perseverance, and industry. The usual rotation in the turnip land is, 1st, turnips; 2d, barley; 3d, clover, or clover and rye grass; and 4th, wheat. Turnips for the basis of the system, and are said, with marl, to "have made the co." On some estates no oats are allowed to be raised, and barley is, in all respects, the leading corn crop. Tenants are strictly prohibited from taking two white crops in succession, and the land is kept remarkably clean, and is not injured by overcropping. Ploughing is wholly executed, as in Scotland, by ploughs drawn by 2 horses or 2 oxen. The grazing husbandry of Norfolk is very inferior to the arable, though it has been latterly a good deal improved. Great numbers of galloways, and other Scotch cattle, are purchased at the great fairs in the co. to be turnip fed, and otherwise fattened, for the market of the metropolis. The stock of sheep is very large, amounting to between 700,000 and 800,000 head. Vast quantities of turkeys are raised in this co. and Suffolk, which furnish the greater part of those supplied to London, especially at Christmas. Estates of all sizes, from 40,000 a year downwards. Farms mostly large; and, in fact, the great improvements of which Norfolk has been the theatre never could have been effected by small farmers. Leases vary from 7 to 14, and in a few instances to 21 years. Farm-buildings generally good; barns very large. Average rent of land in 1848, 25s. 4½d. an acre. Minerals, with the exception of marl, of no importance. The woollen manufacture, especially the worsted branch, has been long extensively carried on in this co., especially at Norwich, where various descriptions of shawls, crapes, silks, &c. are also manufactured. (*See* *NOVA*.) But owing to the superior facilities for the successful prosecution of manufacturing industry enjoyed by Bradford, Paisley, and other towns in the N. engaged in the same departments, the manufactures of Norfolk are rather on the decline. Principal rivers, Great and Little Ouse, Nen, Waveney, Yare, Wensum, &c. A navigable communication admitting vessels drawing 10 ft. water has recently been effected between Norwich and Lowestoff. (*See* *LOWESTOFF*.) Norfolk has no fewer than 38 hundreds and 713 parishes. Principal towns, Norwich, Yarmouth, and King's Lynn. It sends 12 mems. to the H. of C.; viz. 4 for the co., 2 for the city of Norwich, and

2 each for the bors. of King's Lynn, Thetford, and Yarmouth. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 16,146, being 8,233 for the E. and 7,913 for the W. division. In 1841, Norfolk had 85,903 inhab. houses, and 412,664 inhabs., of whom 199,101 were males, and 213,563 females. Sum expended for the relief of the poor, in 1848-49, 201,192*l*. Annual value of real property in 1815, 1,516,651*l*; do., in 1843, 2,327,371*l*.

NORFOLK, a borough-town and port of entry of the U. States, Virginia, co. Norfolk, on Elizabeth River, 8 m. from Hampton Roads, in Chesapeake Bay, and 90 m. S.E. Richmond; lat. 36° 50' 50" N., long. 76° 18' 47" W. Pop. in 1840, 10,590. It stands on low and somewhat marshy ground; its principal streets are well paved and clean, but the others are generally irregular and inconvenient; and neither the public nor private buildings can boast of much elegance, though of late years it has been a good deal improved. It has places of worship for various sects, a marine hospital, an orphan asylum, a lyceum, Larcasrian school, theatre, &c. The harbour is deep, capacious, secure, and easy of access; its entrance, rather more than 1 m. in width, is defended by three strong forts. At Gosport, in the township of Portsmouth, near Norfolk, is one of the most important ship-yards in the U. States, in which is a noble dry dock of iron granite, constructed at a cost of 974,356 dollars. The total tonnage belonging to the port of Norfolk, in 1849, amounted to 23,016 tons.

NORMANDY, one of the provs. of France under the old regime, now distributed among the depts. of Seine Inférieure, Eure, Orne, Calvados, and La Manche.

NORTHALLERTON, a parl. bor., market-town, and par. of England, in the liberty of Altertonthorpe, N. riding co. York, on a small trib. of the Whisk, 13½ m. S.E. of Darlington, 21 m. N. W. York. Area of parl. bor., which comprises the townships of Northallerton, Romanby and Brompton, 9,240 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,861. The town, which is on level ground, consists almost entirely of a main street along the great N. road from London to Edinburgh. It is wide, well paved, and lighted with gas: a market-house stands near the centre of the town, and at its N. extremity is a fine open space, in which are the church and churchyard. The former is a large cruciform structure, of considerable beauty, with a square tower at its W. end; the living is a vicarage, in the gift of the dean and chapter of Durham. A grammar-school has been founded here under the same patronage, and there is a large national school for children of both sexes. There is also a place of worship for Wesleyan Methodists, with an attached Sunday school. The register-office for the N. riding of the co. was built here in 1736; and there is a court-house, in which the general co. sessions of the peace are held. A gaol has also been built, within the present century, on the plan of Howard, the discipline and arrangements of which are said to be, on the whole, very efficient: the number of prisoners averages about 60, and the cost of each is 1*s*. 5*d*. per diem. (*Genl Returns, and Prison Inspectors' 4th and 5th Reports*.) "Northallerton is not a corporate town, and is under the jurisdiction of the co. magistrates. No manufactures are carried on, nor are there any local advantages likely to attract them. Linen-weaving, however, employs a portion of the pop., both in Northallerton and the surrounding villages, its chief seat being at Brompton." (*Parl. Board. Rep.*) A branch of the Darlington Joint-stock Banking Company, a private bank, and a savings' bank are established here. The railway uniting York and Newcastle passes close to the town on the W. It has very large weekly cattle and corn markets on Wednesdays, and large fairs for horses, cattle, sheep, and cheese, Feb. 14, May 5, Sept. 5, Oct. 3, and 3d Wednesday in Oct. Northallerton sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the 15th Charles I. down to the passing of the Reform Act, which deprived it of one of its mems. "The elective franchise was formerly attached to about 210 burghage-houses, mixed up and conjoined with the other buildings from one end of the town to the other." (*Board. Rep.*) The electoral limits were enlarged above mentioned by the Boundary Act, and in 1849-50, there were 282 registered electors. A county court is established here, before which 363 plaints were entered in 1848.

At a short distance from Northallerton is Standard Hill, celebrated as having been the scene, in 1138, of a sanguinary conflict between the Scotch, under David I., and the English, under the Earls of Albemarle and Ferrers. It was called the battle of the Standard, from the circumstance of the victory of the English being attributed to their possessing a standard whence were displayed the banners of St. Peter of York, St. John of Beverley, and St. Wilfrid of Ripon, the whole being surmounted by a consecrated host; but the true cause of the defeat of the Scotch was their contumaciousness at the supposed death of their king. (*Parl. Papers; Priv. Inquir., &c.*)

NORTHAMPTON, a central co. of England, having at its N. extremity the co. of Lincoln; on its E. and S.E.

side, Cambridge, Huntingdon, Bedford, and Buckingham; S. Oxford; and W. and N.W. Warwick, Leicester, and Rutland. It stretches N.E. and S.W. from Banbury to near Crowland, a distance of 66 m. Area, 650,340 acres, of which about 880,000 are supposed to be arable, meadow, and pasture. Surface beautifully diversified with gently rising hills, fine valleys, and extensive woods: it is traversed nearly in its whole extent by the Nen, which rises near Daventry. Though of various qualities the soil is in general very fertile, and is, in many parts, strong and well adapted for the culture of wheat and beans, which are the principal crops. The climate is mild and salubrious, and there are more gentlemen's seats in this than in most other counties. Agriculture, though still capable of material improvement, is, on the whole, in a comparatively advanced state. About half the co. is in grass; and great numbers of heavy horses, and of cattle, mostly short-horns, and sheep, are bred. Estates are generally large; but there are few large farms; and the circumstance of their being let only from year to year tends to perpetuate the routine practices that keep their ground in this and other counties. Farm-houses and offices are mostly inferior, and inconveniently placed; and the use of cottages is scanty. This is one of the coes, in which there is a great waste of horse labour, 5 horses being usually employed to do the same work that might be as well done by 2, or at most 3. Average rent of land, in 1843, 2*s*. 1*d*. an acre. The woodlands are very extensive; and a good deal of wood is used as fuel. Except limestone, which is very abundant, and slates, dug up at Collingwood, minerals are of little importance. Boots and shoes are extensively produced in the town of Nottingham, and in Wellesborough, and other places; but the want of coal is an all but insurmountable difficulty to the progress of manufacturing industry. Exclusive of the Nen, the Ouse and Welland have their sources in Northamptonshire. Principal towns, Northampton, Peterborough, and Wellesborough. This co. is divided into 20 hundreds, and 206 parcs, and sends 8 mems. to the H. of C.; viz. 4 for the co., 3 for Northampton, and 3 for Peterborough. Registered electors for the co. in 1849-50, 8,479, being 3,292 for the N., and 4,560 for the S. division. In 1841, Northampton had 40,841 inhab. houses, and 199,228 inhab., of whom 98,377 were males, and 100,851 females. Sum assessed for the relief of the poor in 1846-49, 95,480*l*. Annual value of real property in 1815, 947,578*l*; do., in 1843, 1,252,100*l*.

NORTHAMPTON, a parl. and mun. bor., market and manufacturing town of England, cap. of the above co., hund. Spelhoe, on the great N. road, and on the N. bank of the Nen, crossed here by a stone bridge of 3 arches, and 2 others of inferior size, 29 m. S.S.E. Leicester, and 59 m. N.W. London. Area of parl. and mun. bor. (which comprises 4 parcs), 1,590 acres. Pop., in 1821, 10,944; ditto in 1841, 30,637. The town, which comprises 4 principal streets, meeting in a very open open market-place, is well-built, paved, and lighted with gas: the houses in the principal street along the line of the great N. road are of stone, large, and substantial; but in the smaller streets are many inferior houses, almost entirely occupied by journeymen-shoemakers, and other workmen employed in shoemaking. The parcs of All Saints' and St. Giles's comprise the principal portion of the respectable classes of society. St. Peter's is a small par., inhabited principally by the inferior tradespeople and working-classes. St. Sepulchre's is extensive, but chiefly occupied by artisans and labourers. (*Muns. Board. Rep.*) There were formerly 7 par. churches, of which 4 still remain. That of All Saints', in the centre of the town, (rebuilt, in 1680, on the site of one destroyed by fire,) is a large and handsome, though somewhat incongruous, building, with a central cupola supported by 4 Ionic columns, and a tower at its W. end, rising above an Ionic portico: a fine organ, and a full-length statue of the late Spencer Perceval, are the principal ornaments of the interior. St. Giles's, at the E. end of the town, is a large cruciform structure, partly of Norman, and partly of later English architecture, with a square tower rising from the intersection of the nave and transepts. St. Peter's, at the W. end of the town near the castle, erected shortly after the Norman conquest, consists of a nave, with side aisles separated from it by piers and arches, with a square western tower, and is altogether "a remarkably fine and curious specimen of enriched Norman." (*Richman, p. 214*) St. Sepulchre's, an almost equally ancient edifice, built by the Knights-Templar, at the N. end of the town, comprises a circular part, forming the body of the church, a square chancel, a side aisle, and a square tower surmounted by a spiral spire to its W. end. The remains of the old church of St. Gregory form a school-house; but the two others have entirely disappeared, and of the numerous religious houses existing in Northampton before the Reformation, two only, St. Thomas's and St. John's, both in the later English style, now remain, having been converted into almshouses for the aged poor. The Wesleyan Metho-

ptists, Presbyterians (now Unitarians), Roman, and the Society of Friends have their places of worship: the castle-hill meeting- as, for 32 years, the scene of Dr. Doddridge's ions, during which period he was also master 'esbyterian academy in this town. Attached to y churches and chapels, are numerous Sunday urning religious instruction to between 2,000 children of both sexes. A central national erving as a model-school for the co., is attended

400 boys and girls; a Lancasterian school, by of 500 children; 2 infant schools (one of which rted by the Wesleyan Methodists) have 250 besides which, the corporation charity-school; charity-school, and the girls' school in King's- eet, provide clothing and education for 120 of both sexes. The free grammar-school, in , was founded in 1542. Among the other build- e town, by far the most handsome is the Shire e the S. side of the market-square: it is of architecture, and comprises 2 large courts, and uments well adapted for the business of the

The town-hall is an ancient structure of brick, g in Saints' church; and near it is the bor- w disused. On the E. side of the town is a gaol, built in 1794 on the plan of Howard; but, anding its size, the cells are not sufficiently to allow of the entire seclusion of prisoners. nt system, however, accompanied by hard la- strictly enjoined; and the management has atly improved within the last few years. This sed also, by agreement, between the co. and bor- itea, as a place of confinement for prisoners be- to the bor. (*Prison Reporters' 2d Report*, li- e theatre in Marefair, built at the beginning of nt century, is a neat building, and, though small, ntly large for a town in which dramatic enter- is little relished. The barracks form a large e on the W. side of the road leading to Leices- in the E. suburbs is the Infirmary, a large and ily-built edifice, completed in 1798, and furnish- elient accommodation for patients. A race- ras formed N. of the town in 1778, and the races, ke place in autumn, are invariably well attended. n. S. on the London, and is an ancient cross, hose erected at the halting-places of the funeral n Eleanor, on its passage from Hardeby, in Lin- e, to Westminster Abbey.

bor. is evidently in a flourishing condition. Its d markets are resorted to by the inhabs. of the ural districts; and the shops are numerous, re- e, and thriving. The principal manufacture of boots and shoes; and a large proportion of er orders, men, women, and children, are em- in this craft, which has thriven and increased the last 30 years, without being affected by the changes which have occurred within that period. upwards of 1,300 men (exclusive of women and) were employed in this trade; and we are as- bat the wages of the journeymen at present to the weekly sum of 2,000. The fixed pro- f this trade has been assigned as the cause why e. of the bor. was nearly doubled during the 20 eeding 1831, and is stated to be still rapidly in- . (*Mon. Bowd. Rep.*) These shoes are sent: quantities to London, and furnish the chief sup- e shops that deal in cheap, ready-made shoes; e, also, extensively exported. Leather currying idery are extensively carried on; but the stock- lace trades, once very considerable, have greatly d since the introduction of machinery at Leices- tingham. There are also several foundries, and nufacture of light brass and iron work is pro- n rather an extensive scale. The Northampton Bank, Northampton Banking Company, a private and savings' bank, are established here; and the e two weekly newspapers, one of which is an oner- est provincial papers in England. Northampton rly the seat of a large posting business, which ng of railways has gone far to annihilate. She nited by railway with Peterborough and the lines to Lincolnshire and York on the one hand, and e Blisworth station of the Great N. W. Railway, other. The latter brings her within little more hours' distance of London; and the facility of in- se thence arising has more than indemnified her e the posting business. The Nen, also, and her e canals uniting with that river, give to Nor- on the advantage of a water communication with man Ocean, London, Liverpool, Manchester, and

ampton is a bor. by prescription, and has received royal charters, the last being granted in the eo. lli. By the Mun. Reform Act it has been into 3 wards, and is governed by a mayor, 5 other en, and 18 councillors; having also a commission peace under a recorder, and a court of record for

civil suits. Corp. rev. in 1848-49, 10,018*s*. The assizes for the co. are held here in spring and summer; and quarter sessions in Jan. April, July, and Oct. A county court is also established here, before which 1,013 plaints were entered in 1848. The bor. has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the reign of Edward I.; the right of voting, previously to the Reform Act, being in inhabitant-house- holders occupying a distinct dwelling for 6 months pre- viously to the election, and not having received alms for 12 months. (*Bowd. Rep.*) The electoral limits were left untouched by the Boundary Act, and in 1849-50, it had 1,819 reg. electors. Northampton is likewise the principal polling-place and election town for the S. div. of the co. A large cattle market is held every Saturday, and there are smaller markets on 2 other days. Exten- sive horse and cattle fairs, attended by jobbers from all parts of England, Feb. 20., April 6., May 4., and Aug. 5.

After the Norman conquest *North-Hampton*, which, according to the Domesday Survey, had then only 40 bur- gesses, was given by William I. to Simon St. Liz, who built a castle here (now marked only by an earth mound, on the E. side of the present town). Numerous synods and parliament met here during the succeeding reigns; and, at the beginning of the 12th century, Northampton was considered of sufficient importance to have a minor. In the reign of Henry III. an attempt was made to estab- lish a university here, consisting of emigrant students from Oxford and Cambridge; but, though the scheme was at first sanctioned by the king, a mandate was after- wards issued to compel the students to return to their old seminaries, and to forbid the continuance of the estab- lishment. In the wars of the Roses, its neighbourhood was the scene of a great battle (fought 10th July, 1460), between Henry VI. and the Earl of March (afterwards Edward IV.). In which the former was defeated, and taken prisoner. In 1642, the town was seized by Lord Brooke, who fortified it for the parliament. In 1653, Northampton suffered greatly from a flood, and in 1675 was nearly destroyed by fire, the loss of property being estimated at 150,000*l*. To this calamity, however, may be attributed the increased width and regular arrange- ment of the streets, for which it is remarkable above most other provincial towns.

Northampton has been long celebrated in the annals of life insurance from the circumstance of Dr. Price having founded his famous table of the rate of mortality on the register of the deaths in the parish of All Saints in this town. But this table was far from being accurate at the time when it was framed, and is now very wide of the mark. And though it had represented the mortality in the parish of All Saints quite correctly, that was much too narrow a basis to be taken for a representation of the average mortality of England. The mortality in All Saints from 1735 to 1780 was about 1 in 30.4; and it is now only 1 in 43.5.

Mr. Parr has given in the Appendix to the 8th Annual Report of the Registrar General, an extremely elaborate and learned account of Northampton, and of the errors in Price's mortality table. (Pp. 268-325.)

NORTHFLEET. See GRAVESEND.

NORTHUMBERLAND, a marit. co. of England, being the most northerly of the kingdom; having N. a small detached portion of Durham, by which it is sepa- rated from Scotland, E. the German Ocean, S. Durham, and W. Cumberland, and the coa. of Roxburgh and Berwick, in Scotland. Area, 1,197,440 acres, of which about 800,000 are supposed to be arable, meadow, and pasture. It exhibits every variety of surface and soil. It is divided from Scotland and Cumberland by the Cheviot Hills, and a portion of the Pennine, or great central range of mountains, which stretch out into ex- tensive moors, and cover a large portion of the W. parts of the co. with their ramifications. There are, however, very extensive tracts of low land along the coast, and in the valleys of the Tyne, Coquet, Tyne, and other rivers, the soil of which consists, for the most part, of a strong clay loam, and is very fertile. The Cheviot Hills are mostly covered with fine verdure, affording excellent pasture for the peculiar and valuable breed of sheep, called by their name, and now so widely diffused; but the mountains and their offshoots belonging to the Pennine range are mostly covered with peat earth; and are bleak, dreary, covered with heath, and interspersed with swampy mo- rasses. The climate varies with the elevation and nature of the soil; but along the coast and in the valleys it is dry and early. Northumberland is distinguished by its im- provements, and is now one of the best cultivated coa. of the empire. Wheat and oats are the principal corn crops; but barley, beans, and peas are, also, extensively raised. Turnips are an important crop in the coast dis- trict; they are universally drilled, and their culture is no where better understood. Cattle are of various breeds; but the improved short-horns are now, perhaps, the greatest favourites. Estates of all sizes, but mostly large. Farms, also, large, and their occupiers distin- guished by their superior intelligence and enterprise.

Farms mostly held on leases, varying from 7 to 14 and 21 years. Farm-houses and cottages good. Average rent of land in 1843, 13s. 11½d. an acre. With the exception of those carried on at Newcastle (which see), manufactures are of no importance. Pit-coal forms the staple produce of Northumberland, and is raised and shipped in vast quantities from the Tyne, for the supply of London and other ports on the E. coast, and for exportation. In proof of this, we may mention that of 8,539,706 tons of coal shipped coastwise from the different ports of the United Kingdom in 1849, 3,143,380 were shipped from Newcastle. (*Parl. Paper*, No. 512. Sess. 1850.) The pitmen, who are a numerous and important class, receive wages varying from 15s. to 25s. a week, and are honourably distinguished among the working classes by their superior comforts and enjoyments. Their houses are generally clean, roomy, and well furnished; they live well, are but little influenced by political agitation, and are more orderly and decidedly less addicted to ardent spirits, cock-fighting, and such like demoralising sports, than they were 30 years ago. (*Minutes of Committee of Council on Education*, p. 61.) Exclusive of its coal, Northumberland has mines of lead and iron, and abundant supplies of limestone and sandstone; the quarries of the latter at Gateshead Fell supplying the "Newcastle grindstones," so famous in most parts of the world. Principal rivers, Tyne, Coquet, Alne, Blyth, Wansbeck, and Till. Principal towns, Newcastle, Tynemouth, N. Shields, Morpeth, &c. It returns (Inc. Berwick) 10 members, to the H. of C., viz. 4 for the town of Berwick, 3 for the town of Newcastle, and 1 each for Morpeth and Tynemouth. Registered electors for the co. in 1849-50, 8,373; being 3,063 for the N., and 5,029 for the S. division. The co. is divided into 6 wards and 88 par.; and had, in 1841, 48,710 inhab. houses, and 250,378 inhab.; of whom 121,268 were males, and 129,010 females. Sum expended for the relief of the poor in 1848-49, 81,607*l*. Annual value of real property in 1816, 1,291,413*l*; and, in 1843, 1,542,434*l*. NORTHWICH, a market-town and township of England, par. of Great Budworth, hund. of its own name, co. Chester, on the Weaver, 16*m*. N.E. of Chester, and 15*m* N.W. of London. Area of township, 200 acres. Pop. in 1841, 1,268. It has an antiquated appearance, with badly paved streets. The church, which is subordinate to that of Great Budworth, is a large building, with a semicircular choir, remarkable for the curious decorations on the roof of the nave. There are places of worship, also, for Wesleyan-Methodists and Independents, with attached Sunday schools. A grammar-school was founded in 1658; it is handsomely endowed, and the government is vested in 12 trustees, who appoint both the masters and the free scholars. There is, also, a charity-school for 13 poor children. Northwich is one of the *wicks* or salt-towns of Cheshire, and vast quantities of salt are annually produced in the town and its vicinity. The salt-mines are very extensive; they have been wrought since 1670; and the quantity of salt obtained from them is greater, probably, than is obtained from any other salt-mines in the world. In its solid state, when dug from the mine, the salt is not sufficiently pure for use, and is sent to Frodsham and other places on the S. side the Mersey, where it is refined by being dissolved in sea-water, and afterwards separated by evaporation and crystallisation. By far the largest quantity, however, of the salt now produced in Cheshire is obtained from the brine springs. The brine is first pumped up, principally by means of steam-engines, from very deep wells, and is collected in reservoirs, where it is sometimes saturated or strengthened by an admixture of crushed rock-salt. The business has greatly increased within the last few years, and it is estimated that above 300,000 tons are annually produced in Northwich and its vicinity. A considerable number of the inhab. are also employed in the cotton manufacture. It has every facility for water-carriage by its position on the Grand-Trunk Navigation, and it is close to the Grand-Junction Railway. It is one of the polling-places at elections for the N. div. of Cheshire. Markets on Friday; a large cattle fair, April 10.; other fairs, Aug. 2 and Dec. 6.

NORWAY (Norw. *Norgé*, Germ. *Norwegen*), a country of N. Europe, forming the W. portion of the great Scandinavian peninsula, and at present united to the crown of Sweden. It extends, including Norwegian Lapland, between the 58th and 71st degs. of N. lat., and the 5th and 31st of E. long.; having E. Russian Lapland and Sweden, S. the Skagerrack, separating it from Denmark, and W. and N. the North Sea, and the Atlantic and Arctic Oceans. Its entire length from the Naze, its most S. promontory, to the North Cape, is upwards of 1,100 *m*. Its breadth varies greatly; in Norriand, near its N. extremity, it may average about 50 *m*.; but to-

wards the S. it is as much as 250 *m*. The area, pop., &c., of Norway, have been estimated as follows:—

Dioecen.	Provincia.	Area in sq. m.	Pop. 1845.	Capitals.
Aggerhusen, or Christiania	Aggerhusen	1,393	109,429	CHRISTIANIA.
	Romsloosen	1,266	75,622	Moos.
	Hedemarchen	9,516	87,118	
	Christian	9,418	109,720	
Christian-sand.	Buskroed	4,787	85,918	DRUMMEN.
	Jarlberg	856	65,070	LAUVIG.
	S. Laurvig	5,560	72,891	
	Bradeberg	4,236	55,932	
Bergen	Nedensas	2,042	61,918	AREVAL.
	Mandahl	3,805	78,310	CHRISTIANSTAD.
	Stavanger	6,285	116,989	STAVANGER.
	S. Bergen-huus	7,515	77,978	Bergen.
Tromsheim	N. Bergen-huus	5,983	87,314	Romsdal.
	S. Tromsheim	7,094	89,239	Tromsheim.
	N. Tromsheim	15,052	65,512	Bodo.
	Norriand	37,470	45,938	Troms.
Totals		121,725	1,328,471	

In 1835, the pop. amounted to 1,194,827, viz. 593,261 males, and 609,446 females, the ratio of the two sexes being as 100 to 104.

Physical Geography.—The chief physical characteristics of Norway are its *fields* and *fjords*; the first being lofty mountain plateaux in the interior, and the second deep indentations or arms of the sea all round the coast. Nearly the whole of the country is covered with mountains. The main chain, called the Kitten (or keel), forms the line of separation between Norway and Sweden, as far S. as lat. 63°; but thenceforward it tends to the S.W., under the names of Dovrefield, Langefeld, &c., forming the watershed between the rivers flowing into the Skagerrack on the S.E., and the North Sea and Atlantic on the W. Many of the Norwegian mountains rise to from 6,000 to 8,000 *f*. above the level of the sea. The Sneebetta, (lat. 63° 35' long. 30° 40'), 8,120 *f*. in height, has been long considered the most elevated part of land; but it is now supposed that the Hurungur Field, in the prov. Bergen overtops the former by at least 700 *f*. (*Leaing*, p. 53.) The *fjords* have been sometimes compared to the Scottish *firths*; but they are generally smaller than the latter, and rather resemble the Scottish salt-water lochs. They are most numerous on the W. coast, where the Sogne and Hardanger fjords, with their continuations, stretch inland for at least 100 *m*. in a direct line; and are of the greatest use as means of communication. Norway has numerous rivers, some of which, as the Glommen, Lougen, Drammen, Nid., &c., all taking a S.E. direction, are of large size; but their courses are so beset with cataracts, that they are of little service for navigation. Lakes are numerous in the E. half of the country, but none of them can be compared in respect of extent to the lakes of Sweden. The W. coast is lined in its entire extent by a vast number of islands. The principal of these are the Loffoden group (which see *ante*, p. 191.) The shores of Norway (like the W. coasts of almost all countries in high latitudes) are iron-bound, and difficult of access; and at the S. extremity of the Loffoden Isles is the celebrated Maedstrom, which inspires the Norwegian fishermen with as much terror as Charybdis did the ancient navigators of the Mediterranean; and, perhaps, with more reason.

Geology.—The formations of Norway are for the most part primary. The mountains were long supposed to consist almost exclusively of granite, but in reality this rock is far from common. The most abundant rock is gneiss, next to which, though by no means so widely diffused, is mica slate, resting upon, and alternating with the gneiss; and in beds subordinate to both are lime stone, quartz, and hornblende. Upon the high table lands, the ground is often covered with blocks of a conglomerate rock, in which pebbles of quartz, feldspar, and other crystallised substances are embedded, and which, being smooth and rounded, have evidently been, during a remote but lengthened period, subject to violent friction. Mr. Lyell (*Princip. of Geology*, l. 236.) denies the occurrence of volcanic action and earthquakes in the Scandinavian peninsula; but his opinion, though entitled to great weight, differs from the statements of some recent travellers, from which it would seem that earthquakes are not unfrequent, and that the physical appearance of the country, especially of its fjords, almost demonstrates that it has at a distant period been upheaved by volcanic action. (See *Laing's Norway*, pp. 74, 76—114, &c.)

The climate must, of course, vary greatly, according to the elevation of the surface, as well as the differences of latitude; but generally the summers are short, and the changes sudden and extreme. From lat. 56° to 59° the average temp. is about 45° Fahr.; and there is no

it snow-region. The same vegetables and fruits as in England, except apricots and peaches. woods cease at 59°. From 59° to 60° the average is about 44° Fahr.; all kinds of grain grow here best soils, and the same fruit trees as before, but the plum ceases to ripen. From 60° to 61° the temp. on the coast is 43°; in the interior, 41°. division the pine and Norway fir become the pre-ant forest trees, with birch, hazel, and aspen. The aspen, and beyond 61° the oak is not seen in per-

The principal crops are rye, oats, flax, and but wheat ripens in favourable situations. Be- 61° and 62°, the average temp. is about 40°; all the fruits still ripen; as will wheat, in certain places; grain is very precarious and little cultivated. 62° the ash is scarcely seen. The region between 63° comprises the highest land in the country, upper 5,000 ft. of the Doone Fjeld is covered with al. snow. The average temp. of the valleys in this about 39° Fahr. Beyond 63°, peas begin to be out, cabbage ceases to come to perfection, flax ripens, and wheat is not seen except near the coast in small quantities; but the pine and fir tribes, mountain-ash, and aspen flourish. From 63° to 64° harder fruits ripen in sheltered situations only, a begin to be a precarious crop. From 64° to 65°, as, and barley ripen; but beyond 65°, neither oats r fruit, except currants, succeed; and the pine to degenerate. Respecting the climate of the further N., see LAPLAND, *ante*, p. 129.

begin to be lighted in Christiania in the middle of June, and cannot be dispensed with till the middle of the summer then advances rapidly, and the thermometer, in July, often rises at noon to above 80° but the heats are of short duration; frosts frequently occurring in the latter end of August. The weather, though proverbially rainy and damp, is not dry; in the interior, the atmosphere is usually bracing. In some places vegetation is so quick that corn is sown and cut within six weeks.

1. Agriculture, &c.—Norway is essentially an rural and pastoral country. In 1835, of a total pop. of 365,381, of whom 424,267 were above 10 years of age, 300,000 were connected with agriculture as proprietors, farmers, or farm-servants, jour- ners, country paupers, &c. 28,908 were estimated to be engaged in navigation and the fisheries; 22,146 in commerce and manufactures; 1,192 were government soldiers; 2,104 pensioners, and 4,730 pauper inhabi- tants. Only about 100th part of the entire surface is adapted to be under culture, or otherwise productive. Norway is a country where the feudal system was established, the land is mostly the property of the nobles to cultivate it. Such land is termed *odel*, a word of its origin probably the same with the German *adel*, or noble, since it carries an equivalent meaning in its applications. Udal land is noble land, held under no superior, not even the king; but by the right by which the crown itself is held. It is held, consequently, without charter, and is not subject to fines, escheats, forfeitures, nor personal suit; nor to any of the burdens affecting land held at tenure direct from the sovereign, or from his vassal. The succession to land is not vested in the male heir. On the contrary, all the kindred of the landman in possession are what is called *odels* to his land, and have, in order of consanguinity, an interest in it, called *odelsbaarn ret*. Hence, if a landman in possession should sell or alienate his land, his next of kin is entitled to redeem it on the purchase money; and if he should die, so do, it is in the power of the one next him in his *odelsbaarn ret*. Formerly the power to redeem was unlimited in point of time; but as a result of this sort, by rendering the title of the occupier so precarious, hindering him from improving the land, the right of redemption has latterly been limited in 5 years of the sale; and it has also been provided that the purchaser shall be indemnified for his elements. But though this be an improvement on former law, no doubt the better plan would be to altogether the privilege of redemption, by making it absolute and final.

35 the number of taxed agriculturists was 108,192, of whom 72,624 were proprietors, enjoying the *odels ret*, 30,566 individuals, with only the limited possession of a farm.

A farm is generally consist of 3 divisions; the in-field, or enclosed for the crops and best hay; the mark, or tract enclosed for pasturing the cattle; and the out-tract, or tract of unmeasured grass land, which is some- times 30 or 40 m. distant; and on which chalets are built, and the cattle are pastured for 3 or 4 months in the summer. A farm of average size is stated by Laing to comprise 250 acres, exclusive of the *veaser*. Of these, 148 acres, comprising the in-field, were in 1835; only about one-third, however, yielded corn and

potatoes, the remainder being always in grass for hay. The out-field is usually half cleared, being fenced off and ploughed in patches; and it is in this division that the housemen or cottiers, paying from 3 to 4 dols. each of rent, and working at about 8 skillings (3d.) a day, with their food, have their houses and their fenced pieces of land. The farm referred to above, supported 30 cows, 7 horses, and a score or two of sheep and goats. The accommodations for the cattle were very good, the cow-house being floored with timber, and lighted by glass windows; the cows were tended by a woman. The rent was 200 dols. a year, the taxes, including tithes, poor-rate, and all other direct assessments, amounted in all to about 26 dols.; the indirect taxes, including excise and other duties, were inconsiderable. A property like this is reckoned worth about 4,000 dols.; and the prices of ordinary estates vary from 2,500 to 4,500 dollars. Almost all the houses are of wood: they are generally comfortable; and owing to the facility with which they may be constructed, there is but little difference between the residence of a public functionary, a clergyman, or a gentleman of large property, and that of a house of peasant proprietor. The division of property among children prevents the erection of any splendid mansions, or any thing more expensive than is proportioned to the property upon which it stands.

Except in a few favoured spots the arable land is, generally speaking, sandy and poor. Hence, if a few days of warm sunshine succeed each other without rain, as is frequently the case in the early part of summer, the roots of the corn and grass are apt to be burned up. In autumn, on the contrary, the decreased warmth prevents the corn from ripening, and not unusually, even in favourable seasons, it is injured by the autumnal rains. Mr. Malthus says there are three nights about the end of August, distinguished by the name of *from nights*, on account of their sometimes blasting the promise of the fairest harvests. (i. p. 275.) The crops are, in consequence, extremely precarious. Even in the best years a considerable supply of corn has to be imported; and in bad years the inhabitants, especially in the interior, have to sustain the greatest privations.

In addition to the depressing influence of the soil and climate the peasantry are subjected to the influence of industry, and wedded to routine practices; and a considerable influence is also ascribed, in the production of dearths, to the great consumption of corn in distilleries. We believe, however, that the latter complaint is wholly without foundation. The demand for corn for distillation makes, no doubt, a greater quantity be sown in ordinary years than if it were prohibited; so that in bad years, when distillation almost wholly ceases, there is a greater supply to meet the necessities of the people. Rye is the crop most extensively cultivated, and next to it, oats, flax, and potatoes. The agricultural implements, which are usually made by the peasants themselves, are better than could, under such circumstances, be expected: even thrashing machines are pretty common.

All over Norway there are corn magazines, to which the farmers may send their surplus produce, and whence, also, they may be supplied with loans of corn; the depositors receiving at the rate of 12½ per cent. of increase on the corn deposited for a twelvemonth; and the borrowers repaying the quantities advanced at the expiration of the same period, with 25 per cent. increase. These depositories are found to be useful in consequence of the extreme precariousness of the crops. The difference between the increase allowed on the corn received, and that charged on the corn given out, pays the expenses. In the north, and even in other parts, in years of scarcity, the inner rind of the fir tree, kiln-dried, and ground, is used, together with corn meal, for bread. Some travellers have, strangely enough, and without sufficient information, denoted this food as filthy and disgusting. The use of this material is more extensive than is generally supposed. The inner rind next the wood is taken off in flakes, like foalcap paper, steeped in warm water, and hung to dry in the sun. When dry it is pounded in small pieces, mixed with corn, and ground on the hand-mill. The extended cultivation of the potatoe since the peace, has probably placed the inhabitants of the lower country beyond the necessity of generally using it; but those in the higher parts use it, more or less, every year. It is not unpalatable, but is costly. The value of the tree, left to perish, would buy a sack of flour, if the English market were open. "The Norwegians starve, and we shiver in our dwellings, though each country has the means of relieving the other with advantage to itself; and all for the sake of supporting colonies and other interests, which add little to the well-being of the people of Great Britain." (Laing, 340, 341.)

The most profitable branch of rural industry is cattle breeding. The cattle are small in the bone, thin skinned, usually red or white, and obviously of the same stock with the common unimproved breed in England, France,

and Germany. The cows give excellent milk, and dairy produce enters largely into the food of every family. Goats are a favourite stock, and on every farm they appear more numerous than sheep. Hogs are not numerous. The horses are, in general, inferior to those of Sweden. The real Norwegian pony, however, met with in the N. of the country, is an admirable little animal, fast going, hardy, and fit for a great deal of work. A few are occasionally imported into Scotland. The live stock suffers frequently from wolves and bears, the hunting of both of which is actively pursued; but that of the latter not so much as formerly, the price of bear skins having greatly fallen. The elk, and many kinds of game, are found; and in the N. large herds of rein-deer constitute the chief wealth of the Laplanders. Aquatic birds are so abundant, that the search after their eggs occupies a large share of the attention of the inhabs. of the coast.

From the want of markets, and of other facilities for commerce, the Norwegian farmer is seldom able to convert his surplus produce or savings into money. His object, indeed, is not to raise produce for sale, but to supply himself with the various materials required for the food, drink and clothing of his family. "The food of the labourers who work for gentlemen or large farmers, consists of black rye bread and salted butter or cheese, for breakfast; and boiled barley and a herring, or some other fish, with beer, for dinner. Once a week, and sometimes twice, they have fresh meat to eat. Common people live in the same way, only not quite so well; and some who have large families are often in great distress." (*Clarke's Travels*, x. 448.) Mr. Laing says that the labourers get frequently at their meals an allowance of home-made potatoe or corn spirit. The latter article is especially abundant, being distilled, without let or hindrance, on every farm. Great quantities are drunk, its price being only about 14d. a gallon. The farm labourers, called housemen, live, as has been stated, in cottages on the mark or outland, at a fixed rent for 2 lives, under the obligation of furnishing a certain number of days' work on the main farm, at a certain rate of wages. A system, in some respects similar, prevails in some of the best cultivated districts of Scotland; but, according to Mr. Laing, the Norwegian houseman is better off than the Scottish married farm servant. Land, he says, being of less value in Norway, the houseman has more of it; in fact, it constitutes a complete little farm, keeping generally 2 cows and some sheep, and producing a full subsistence for a family.* The law of the country has especially favoured the class of housemen. In default of a written agreement registered in the par. court, the houseman is presumed to hold his possession for his own life and that of his wife, at the rent last paid by him. He may give up his land and remove, on giving 6 months' notice, before the ordinary term, and is entitled to the value of the buildings put up at his own expense, which he may have left; but the landlord cannot remove him or his widow, so long as the stipulated rent and work are paid.

Fisheries.—Above the parallel of river 66°, agriculture and cattle rearing cease to be the primary occupations of the pop. The inhabs. of Norrland and Finmark, amounting to 91,000 persons, subsist chiefly by fishing, when they are not supported on the produce of herds of rein-deer. The Loffoden Islands (see *ante*, p. 191.) are the principal seats of the cod-fishery; and the average value of the fish caught there during the winter has been estimated at 86,500*l.* The winter fishery lasts from Feb. to April; after which the fishermen are either employed by the Russian merchants, or retire to their homes to begin the herring fishery. Besides these general fisheries, in every fjord, even at 100 m. from the sea, an abundance of cod, whiting, haddocks, flounders, herrings, &c. is caught daily for use and for sale, by the seafaring peasantry.

The Forests and Mines of Norway might be rendered two of its principal sources of national wealth. Fir timber, deals, &c. are among the chief exports. But the want of navigable rivers, canals and roads occasions great difficulties in the conveyance of timber to the coast; for it is only during the spring thaws that the rivers or torrents are deep enough to float the timber down to the fjords. No doubt, however, were the timber trade of this country placed on a proper footing, by doing away with the impolitic preference given to American timber, a great stimulus would be given to its importation from Norway; and the advantages thence arising would, it may be fairly presumed, lead to the formation of improved means for supplying the shipping ports with timber and deals. The manufacture of the latter is the principal branch of industry carried on in the country. They are mostly shipped from Christiania, Drammen, &c. "Their forests are of the most essential service to the Norwegians, who apply their products to an infinite variety

of purposes. Their *summen bonum* seems to consist in the produce of the fir. This affords materials for building their houses, churches, and bridges—for every article of their household furniture—for constructing sledges, carts, and boats—besides fuel for their hearths. With its leaves they strew their floors, and afterwards burn them, and collect the ashes for manure. The birch affords, in its leaves and tender twigs, a grateful fodder for their cattle, and bark for covering their houses. The bark of the elm, in powder, is boiled up with other food, to fatten hogs: sometimes also, though rarely, it is used in the composition of their bread." (*Clarke*, x. 344., 8vo. ed.)

No coal has yet been discovered in Norway; but Berendth, between the N. Cape and Spitzbergen, appears to consist principally of that mineral. Some are occasionally brought thence by Tromsøe and Hammerfest whalers; and were the forests raised to their due importance by better means of conveyance, it is probable that coal might be supplied to the country in quantities which would render the cutting down of the trees for fuel in a great measure superfluous. The iron of Norway, though inferior to that of Sweden, is of excellent quality, and very generally found. Copper is found at Rorås; and near Kongsberg a silver mine, which has been wrought for upwards of 200 years, was, about the middle of last century, accounted the richest in Europe. In 1768, it produced ore to the value of 79,000*l.*: it has since, however, materially declined. In the copper, arsenic, and a little gold are met with in various places. At Wälö is a salt mine, producing about 30,000 tons a year. Alum, asbestos, marble, slate, building stone, &c., are among the other mineral products.

Manufactures are almost wholly domestic, the division of labour being carried to a less extent in Norway than in, perhaps, any other European country. The *bønder*, or agricultural peasantry, build their own houses, make their own chairs, tables, ploughs, carts, harness, iron-work, basket-work, and wood-work; in short, except the window glass, cast iron ware, and pottery, every thing about their houses is of their own make. The Norwegian peasant, indeed, unites most trades in his own person, his principal tool for executing all kinds of work in wood being the knife he carries in his girdle. The shoemaker and tailor go round and cobble and sew for a few weeks at each village, getting their maintenance, and being commonly paid over or above, in potatoes, meal, butter, or other produce. Spinning-wheels and looms are at work in every cottage and house in the country; the farmers and country people spinning their own flax and wool, and weaving their own linen and woollen clothes. An official report, in 1829, made the total number of manufacturing establishments 337, but of these 138 were distilleries and 80 tobacco factories, principally in Christiania, Drammen, and Bergen. There are, in fact, very few fabrics of clothing materials; and few Manchester or Glasgow fabrics are seen. No doubt, however, were greater facilities afforded to the Norway timber trade by Great Britain, our manufactures would, at no very distant period, supersede the ruder fabrics of the Norwegian peasantry.

Commerce.—Foreign trade is in a very depressed state from various causes, but principally from impolitic restraints. Bergen and Trondhjem were formerly members of the Hanseatic Association, on the decline of which these towns retained, and still hold separately, the same privileges they enjoyed in conjunction with the other members of that body, though Christiania and some other minor towns have succeeded, after a long struggle, in obtaining a share of the commercial monopoly. The merchants and shopkeepers in Norway are all licensed burgesses of Bergen, Trondhjem, or other privileged towns, to which they pay a certain tax; and each has a certain tract or circle belonging to his factory, within which no other person is entitled to buy or sell. The imports consist principally of coffee, sugar, tobacco, corn, spices, brandy, wines, tea, &c., and the exports of fish, timber, and other native produce. The trade of Norrland and Finmark is, however, different from that of the rest of the kingdom. The privileged traders do not supply the inhabs. of these parts, with necessities, except during the winter fishing season; and as no other Norwegian dare interfere, the trade of these provinces is now almost wholly in the hands of the Russians, whose ships have been, since 1828, allowed admission, free of duty, into every port N. of Tromsøe.

Owing to the thinness of the population, and the bad state of the roads and other means of communication, there is but little internal trade. "Even in the largest towns, such as Christiania and Trondhjem, there is nothing that can be called a market. It is extremely difficult to get a joint of fresh meat; and a pound of fresh butter is an article not to be purchased even in the midst of summer. Fairs are held at certain seasons of the year, and stores of all kinds of provisions that will keep are laid in at these times; and, if this care be neglected,

* Dr. Clarke, however, says, that in the neighbourhood of Christiania, the housemen have seldom land to keep a cow (x. 450.); and we understand that this is frequently the case in other parts.

conveniences are suffered, as scarcely any thing is sold retail. Persons who make a temporary sojourn in the country, as small merchants, not poor farmers, complain heavily of this inconvenience." (p. 1372.) Lastly, however, some improvements have been made in the facilities of interchange; and the scenes depicted by Mr. Malthus have been in no wise altered.

Bank of Norway, established in 1816, has its head office in Trondheim, and branches in Bergen, Christiania and Alesund. Its principal business consists in issuing its own notes, upon first securities over a sum not exceeding two thirds the value of the property, at 4 per cent. interest. The notes of this bank are at only a trifling discount when compared with the paper of the Bank of Sweden, in Norway instead of sums above a mark. The mark or *ore* of 240 skilling; 5 marks = 1 specie-dollar. Money being internal traffic is almost wholly conducted by provisions are generally cheap; and a dollar has this respect, estimated as equivalent to a pound in England; but it should be added, that the bank, especially the innkeepers, never omit an opportunity of overcharging travellers. The most usual travelling in this country is with the stage-coach, a vehicle formed somewhat like a shell, and slung between the shafts and two cross bars, harnessed as in England by the farmers along the road, at the order of the inn-master. The price of posting in this manner is 4d. a mile. Steamers ply along the coast between Christiania and Bergen, but there is no similar line of communication further N.

Government.—Though Norway be under the same crown as Sweden, she is no more connected with that country than Hanover was formerly with Great Britain. The constitution differs from that of Sweden in many respects. The Swedish government is in part hereditary; that of Norway is an hereditary monarchy, with a democratic assembly only. This, which is called the *Storting*, consists of a certain number of members, 75 and 100; about one third of whom are representatives of the towns, and the rest by the rural districts. Every Norwegian of 30 years of age, who is a freeholder, or possesses property, or the life-tenure of the value of 80*l.*, is entitled to elect and be elected. But for the latter privilege he must not be less than 25 years of age; nor office of the crown (which is representative or organ in the Norwegian storting) he must have resided in Norway for 10 years. The country is divided into election districts and sub-districts according to their population. The mode of election is performed through the intervention of the *men*. In the towns one election-man is chosen from 50 voters; in the rural sub-districts by every 100; the choosing of these takes place in the parish at the end of every third year. The election-men meet at the place appointed for the district or sub-district election, and there elect among themselves, or among the other qualified voters of the district, the *storting*, in the proportion of one for every 100 of the number of election-men for the towns, and one for every 100 of those for the rural sub-districts. Substitutes for those who have the next number of votes take the place of both election-men and members of the storting in the event of their unavoidable absence from duty. The storting meets for 3 months once in 3 years, summoned not by any writ from the king or the executive, but by the next ordinary session, which must be satisfied in the next ordinary session, otherwise they do not law. Each storting settles the taxes for the three years; enacts, repeals, or alters laws; issues on the credit of the state; fixes the administration of the revenue; impeaches and tries before a court of its own body all state ministers, judges, and its members, &c. This body, when elected, divides into two houses. One, called the *lagthing*, has the corresponding generally to those of our House of Commons, and is composed of one fourth of the total number of members of the storting; the other three constitute the *odestthing*, or lower house; and all enactments must originate in this division. A bill has passed both houses usually becomes law, but the sanction of the king. But the Norwegian enjoys a right which no other legislative body in Europe possesses. If a bill pass through the storting in three successive storthings, on the third it becomes the law of the land without the royal assent; and this right was exercised when the Norwegians declared their hereditary nobility in 1821. Each member of the storting has an allowance of 1*l.* a day during the session.

The mode of assembling the people in the country for business is simple, but curious. A *budstick*, or stick, about the size and shape of a constable's staff, with a spike at one end, is made hollow to hold a paper, on which are written the official notice to

meet, with the time, place, and object. This is delivered from the court-house of the district to the nearest householder, who is bound by law to carry it, within a certain time, to his nearest neighbour; he must transmit it to the next; and so on. If the owner be not at home, the bearer is to stick it "in the house-father's great chair by the fire-side;" and if the door be locked he must fasten it to the outside. He who, by neglect in passing the budstick, has prevented others from attending, pays a fine for every person so absent.

Justice, &c.—The Norwegian peasantry were never *adscripti glebe*, subject to local judicatories, as in feudal countries, but subordinate only to the general jurisdiction of the counties. The small kings, expelled in the ninth century by Harold Haarfager, seem never to have attained the powers of the great feudal lords in other countries, but were always in some degree dependent upon the general things, or courts, of the people. Trial by jury is a very ancient institution in Norway; but many of the details in the administration of justice originated with the Danes. The latter instituted the courts of mutual agreement, one of which exists in each parish, the arbitrators being chosen by the householders every third year. Norway is divided, for legal purposes, into 4 *stifts* and 64 *proviser*, or districts. In each of the latter divisions is a legal court, which sits once a quarter, and in which the assessor, who presides, has only a vote as a member of the jury, a majority of whom decides the case. The *stifts amts*, consisting each of three judges, with assessors, and established in the chief town of each *stift*, are the courts of appeal from the foregoing. The *hofske-ret*, in Christiania, composed of a president and eight assessors, is the highest court, and one of final resort. The special courts are the *rigs-ret*, or lagthing, the ecclesiastical, and the military tribunals. Judges are responsible in damages for their decisions. Capital punishment has been abolished; slavery in chains, for a longer or shorter period, being the ordinary sentence for all kinds of crimes.

The religion is the Lutheran; but much ceremony still remains in the forms of worship. Norway is divided into 5 bishoprics and 536 parishes: the latter divisions are very extensive, but several are frequently under the cure of one priest. The incomes of the par. priests amount to from 800 to 1,500 *dollars*, those of the bishops to 4,000 *dollars* a year. (*Larng*, p. 180.) The former are paid by means of rents from glebe lands, a small tithe of corn from each farm, &c. in some districts, and other unfixed sources of revenue. There are no dissenters; all sects of Christians are, however, tolerated, but Jews are excluded from settling in Norway, nor are even suffered to remain in the country for more than a few hours at a time.

In 1837, 175,783 persons, or about one seventh part of the population, were receiving public instruction. Schoolmasters are settled in each parish, who live either in fixed residences, or move at stated intervals from one place to another, and who frequently attend different schools, devoting one day only in the week to each. They are paid by a small tax levied on householders, besides a personal payment from each scholar, amounting, in the case of agricultural servants, to about 8 *skilling*, or half a day's wages in the year. Instruction in the primary schools is limited to reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing, with sometimes the rudiments of grammar and geography. Almost every town supports a superior school; and in 18 of the principal towns is a *lærde skole*, or college, the instruction in which includes theology, Latin, Greek, Norwegian, German, French, English, mathematics, history, geography, &c. Christiania has a university, founded by the Danes, in 1811, which is modelled on the system of the German universities, but differs from them in the professors not receiving fees; and in which the number of students varies from 600 to 800. (*Bremser*.) There are, also, schools of drawing and architecture, commerce and navigation, and other special schools. Sunday-schools have been widely established; and the Society of Public Good maintains a public library in most parts of the kingdom.

The press in Norway is altogether free. Every man is at liberty to print and publish what he pleases, being responsible, however, for what he does print. No tax exists on newspapers; and somewhat more than 80 are published in the kingdom, besides several scientific journals. But, notwithstanding these aids to science and advancement, Norwegian literature is not in a very flourishing state, and can by no means bear to be compared with that of Denmark or Sweden.

The army of Norway consists of about 10,000 infantry, 1,000 cavalry, 1,000 artillerymen, and 160 engineers, all, 12,150 men. A militia is raised throughout the interior, into which all males, between 27 and 30 years of age, must enter; and on the sea coast there is a kind of marine militia, in which all seafaring men, and inhabitants of sea ports of a certain age, must be enrolled. The naval force consists of 5 frigates and 117 gun boats. (*Alm. de Gotha*, 1841.)

The public revenue, for the three years 1830—1841, was

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estimated in the budget of the former year at 2,180,000 dollars; the expenditure for the same period is fixed at 2,415,986 dollars; the deficiency will be made up from the reserve funds in the hands of the government.

People, &c.—The Norwegians are members of the widely spread Teutonic race. The men are, in general, rather small in stature, but well made, and appear to have great muscular power. The Gludbrandal peasants are said to be the most athletic, but they are decidedly, as a body, shorter and slighter of limb than the mountaineers of Delecarlia, in Sweden. Their complexions, hair, &c., are fair, and resemble more of the Danes, and half N. German tribes, than the Swedes. The dress of the men varies greatly in the different districts, being, for the most part, more gay and fanciful than that of the women: In the towns, however, the upper classes have fully adopted the costume common in the rest of Europe. "The peasants possess much spirit and fire in their manner, are frank and undaunted, yet not indolent; never fawning on their superiors, yet paying proper respect to those above them. The principal mode of salute is by offering the hand; and when we gave them a trifle, instead of returning thanks by a word or a bow, they shook our hands with great frankness and cordiality" (*Coar's Travels in Europe*, v. 7.) They are generally addicted to drinking, and the standard of morals is said to be, in other respects, higher in Sweden than in Norway. Women are very generally employed in field-labour; and beggars are numerous, especially in the towns. The average number of illegitimate births is about 1 in 5; and in one district it was, from 1826 to 1830, as much as 1 in 34. (*Laing*, 181.) But illegitimate children are most commonly legitimised by a legal act, and are seldom or never abandoned by their parents. The Norwegians are extremely fond of dancing, music, and dramatic entertainments, which are the principal amusements introduced at their festivities.

History.—Norway is interesting as the original seat of the Northmen, who made such frequent descents on the coasts of England and France in the dark ages, and who were the ancestors of that remarkable people the Normans, who conquered and carried their institutions to England and other of the fairest portions of Europe.

Little is known of the history of Norway before the end of the 9th century, when Harold Haarfager united the whole country under his dominion. Christianity was introduced by Olaf I. in the succeeding century. In 1387 Norway was annexed to Denmark, to which it remained attached till 1814, when the Allied Powers gave it to the Swedes in indemnity for Finland. The Norwegians, indignant at the transfer, took arms, and elected Prince Christian Frederick of Denmark for their king; but the latter resigned the crown in the same year, and the country has since been united to Sweden: and this union will probably be maintained without difficulty so long as the Swedish cabinet attempts no rash or violent changes in the internal administration of the country. (*Official Reports; Laing's Norway* is an able work, but its statements are obviously much too favourable, and must be received with great modification; *Bremer's Excursions*, vol. i.; *Coar, Inglis, Clarke, Barrow, &c.*, passim; *Dict. Géog.*)

NORWICH, a city of England, being a co. of itself, and an important manufacturing town, locally situated in hund. Humbleyard, co. Norfolk, of which it is the cap., on the navigable river Wensum (crossed here by 10 bridges), 56 m. N.E. Cambridge, and 96 m. N.N.E. London; lat. 52° 7' N., long. 1° 16' E. Area of the city and co. 5,920 acres: pop., in 1811, 37,256; ditto, in 1821, 50,288; ditto, in 1841, 60,982; and probably, in 1850, 68,000. The co. of the city is of an irregular circular town, with an average diameter of about 54 m., the city itself standing a little E. of its centre on the slope and summit of a hill, gently rising from the river. The buildings are, in a great measure, circumscribed by the remains of the ancient fortifications which still exist, particularly on the W. and N. sides of the city. The streets, with the exception of Giles Street, and one or two more, are narrow, and so irregularly laid out, as to preclude the possibility of any general description. It has, however, many handsome houses, open spaces, &c., and is well paved, watched, and lighted with gas: and its appearance from a distance is remarkably striking. The castle and cathedral are the principal public buildings; but it has no fewer than 36 par. churches, besides chapels and other edifices. The castle (supposed to have been built at intervals between the 10th and 12th centuries, by Canute, Roger Bigod, and others,) occupies a commanding eminence near the cattle-market in the centre of the town, and is a very imposing object at a distance: the part now extant forms a large square, on the E. side of which is an entrance tower, recently restored on the original plan. The entire building formerly occupied an area of 23 acres, and had three nearly circular and concentric lines of defence formed by a wall and ditch: the inner ditch, now laid out in gardens, still remains, in-

closing the inner baillum, and is crossed by a semi-circular bridge of one arch, 40 ft. in diameter, forming one of the largest and most perfect Saxon arches in the kingdom. In 1793 a co. grol was commenced on the Castle-hill; and at the same time the ditch was enclosed with iron palisades and gates. Within the precincts, also, a new co. hall has recently been erected in the Tudor style. These modern additions, however, are quite incongruous with the ancient and venerable appearance of the original Norman fabric. The cathedral, originally built in 1096, but subsequently so repaired and enlarged that it did not assume its present form till the 16th century, is one of the largest and finest ecclesiastical edifices in the kingdom. The plan is almost wholly Norman. It consists of a nave, with side aisles, 2 transepts, and a choir with a semicircular E. end: the whole length from W. to E. is 411 ft., that of the transepts from N. to S. being 191 ft., and the breadth of the nave and choir, 72 ft. The cloisters form a square of 174 ft. within the walls adjoining the S. side of the nave. From the intersection of the cross formed by the nave, choir, and transepts, springs a lofty Anglo-Norman tower of 4 stories, highly ornamented and surmounted by an elegant spire, rising 317 ft. from the base of the church.

The W. front of the cathedral is extremely beautiful, and is the best point of view from which the cathedral can be seen: but the friable nature of the stone used in its construction has caused a decay of the more salient ornaments, and thus greatly diminished the external effect. The appearance of the interior is, on the whole, grand and imposing; the architecture, however, is of various eras, from the Anglo-Norman to the English-perpendicular style; and modern alterations and additions have not always been in the best taste. The ecclesiastical establishment consists of a dean and 6 prebendaries, now 5, and having a nett revenue of 5,940l., besides 8 minor canons with separate allowances; but it is to be subjected to various retrenchments. The bishop's diocese comprises the whole of Norfolk, with part of Suffolk, and the revenue amounted, in 1838, to 4,465l. The episcopal palace stands N. of the cathedral, on the site of that built by the founder: it was erected in 1318, and, after undergoing repairs, and receiving considerable enlargements from successive prelates since the Restoration, has become a tolerably commodious residence, attached to which is a large and well-laid out garden, comprising some ruins of the hall belonging to the ancient palace. Near the W. front of the church is an ancient chapel, dedicated to St. John the Evangelist, which had underneath a chapel-house: it is now used as a free grammar-school. Near it are the two ancient gates of St. Ethelbert and Erpingham; the former is in the decorated English, and the latter a fine specimen of the late perpendicular style. Among the churches, which are here more numerous than in any city except the metropolis, a few deserve notice as good specimens of ancient architecture. St. Peter's, Mancroft, at the corner of the market-place, is a large edifice in the perpendicular style, surmounted at its W. end by a lofty tower; the inside is remarkably light and elegant, and it has a fine altar-piece and E. painted window. The churches of St. Andrew, St. George Colegate, St. Lawrence, and St. Saviour, present similar architectural features, having high towers either of stone or flint. Those of St. Ethelred, St. Benedict and St. Julian, have round towers, and belong apparently to the early Norman era; but they have been much altered and mutilated. Norwich abounds, also, with the remains of other ecclesiastical edifices. The common-hall, in St. Andrew's parish, consists of the nave of a church attached to a monastery of Black Friars; the workhouse till very lately occupied an old Flemish convent, near which is the Dutch church, now used as a chapel to the workhouse, and St. Giles's hospital comprises portions of the former church of St. Helen's. There are 3 R. Catholic chapels, 7 places of worship for Baptists, 3 for Independents, 2 for Calvinist-Methodists, 5 for Wesleyan or Primitive Methodists, 1 for Swedenborgians, 1 Unitarian; besides which, the Society of Friends have 2 meeting-houses, and the Jews a synagogue. Attached to the various places of worship are numerous Sunday schools, of which about a half are supported by the Established Church, and the rest by dissenters; the whole furnishing religious instruction to upwards of 7,000 children; besides which, there are several endowed charity-schools, with national, Lancastrian, and infant schools, either wholly or in part supported by subscription, and attended by about 3,500 children of both sexes.

The free grammar-school, founded in 1318, and restored by Edward VI., is maintained out of the funds of a corporation charity, called the Great Hospital: it has an upper and under master, and possesses fellowships and exhibitions at Caius College, Cambridge. The boys' and girls' hospitals, founded in the 17th century, are supported by the produce of estates in trust of the corporation, and furnish clothing and instruction to upwards of 100 children. Doughty's hospital, established

and under the same patronage, provides for an infirm and aged persons; but the principal charity is St. Giles's hospital, near the cathedral, otherwise known as the 'Great,' or 'Old Man's,' maintained by rents and other property, averaging a year, and providing clothing, food, and a pension for 168 inmates, besides servants. It appears, that till very recently these trusts were enviously abused for political purposes. (Comp. *27th and 28th Reports*, with *Mun. Corp. App. IV.*)

The charitable institutions of Norwich supply subscriptions, the first place is due to the St. Giles's hospital, occupying a large building erected in 1771, and enlarged in 1809; it has accommodation for about 120 in-patients, and has about 100 out-patients. Bethlehem hospital is an endowed lunatic establishment, founded in 1547, at Thorpe, about 2 m. distant, is the county asylum. The other principal institutions of this city are the dispensary, eye-infirmary, magdalen asylum, charity, and blind asylum, with numerous minor associations, bible and tract societies, provision, &c.

Buildings devoted to the purposes of municipal jurisdiction comprise the guildhall, a large old building erected in 1771, and subsequently much altered and though even now it be little worthy of so large a city as St. Andrew's, or the New Hall, a noble fabric, mentioned as having formed part of an old castle; 3. the County Hall, in the castle, a fine and commodious building of perpendicular architecture and recent construction; 4. the new and bridewell, a modern and well constructed building, near St. Giles's Gate; and, 5. the gaol and house of correction, on the castle, a large but plain building, well adapted for its use, the establishment being conducted on the system of silence, separate confinement, and hard labour; the average number of prisoners is about 80, the weekly cost being 2s. 11d. (*Pris. Inspec. 4th Rep.*) A common exchange was erected in 1828; and the carcasses in Pockthorpe are substantially built of stone, enclosing an area of 10 acres. Norwich has a large workhouse, belonging to the united parishes, intended for the relief of the poor amounted in 1834.

The literary establishments is the public library, formed in 1784, and now occupying a handsome building in the Grecian style, erected on the site of the city gaol; the Norfolk and Norwich Literature occupies a building of recent erection, good library and a numerous body of subscribers. The building is a museum, but not connected with the society. A society, called the Norfolk and Art-Union, has occasional exhibitions. Concerts in the common hall in St. Andrew's Hall, musical festivals are held in St. Andrew's Hall, has also a neat modern theatre, and assembly-rooms, and a mechanics' institute. Two papers, (the "Norfolk Chronicle," and "Norwich News") are published every Saturday.

Norwich has been celebrated for its manufactures since the reign of Henry I., when the Flemings first settled here, introduced the spinning and weaving of long woollen threads, from the name of the village in which the business was first established: the worsted trade was also greatly increased during the 15th century, by the immigration of Flemish weavers from the Low Countries. Norwich, however, appears to have attained its greatest prosperity at the close of the 18th century, when the value of its goods exported to the East Indies, Russia, and other places abroad (consisting of camlets and camletoes, callamances, and shawls) were valued at 1,000,000. a year, or to the value of the British manufactured goods exported to the East Indies. (*Handloom Weavers' Report*, part II.) We believe, however, that this estimate is too high; and since then the manufactures have materially declined, or rather, have not kept pace with their progress in Lancashire and the West Riding of Yorkshire, &c.: the cities enjoyed by the latter, in the command of absence of corporation privileges, and the scope given to competition and improvement, enabled them to produce, at cheaper rates, several articles at one time peculiar to Norwich. In the greater part of the yarn now used in making fabrics is spun at Bradford, in Yorkshire; and the manufacture of the West Riding is decidedly extensive and valuable than that of Norfolk. The principal fabrics that are at present manufactured out of Norwich comprise bandanas, bombazines, mattas, fillovers, or ornamental shawls and dresses, gauzes and crapes, princettas (a fabric of silk, with a worsted shawl), silk, silk shawls,

woollen shawls, jacquard, coach-lace, lustras, shallis and mousselines-de-laine, fringes, &c., with sacking and horse-hair. In 1839, there were in the city and its vicinity 5,075 looms, of which 1,021 were unemployed; and of the 4,054 looms then at work, there were 2,386 in the weavers' houses, and 656 in shops and factories: indeed, by far the greater part of the looms belong to families having only one or two. The labourers at these looms comprised 2,211 men, and 1,648 women, with 196 children. In the same year, two silk mills employed 731 hands, three worsted mills 385 hands, two woollen mills 39 hands, and one cotton mill 130 hands, making a total of eight mills wrought by a power (chiefly steam) of 1614 horses, and employing 1,285 persons. The gross wages of the weavers, when fully employed, range between 8s. and 25s.; those engaged on fillovers, shallis, and fine bombazines, earning from 15s. to 25s. a week; but when "play-time" and expenses have been deducted, the average nett wages of the hand-loom weavers are said to amount to only 7s. 2d. a week; but this, we believe, is speaking generally, below the mark. A power-loom factory of mohair (or Angora wool), established at Lakenham (one of the out-townships), employed about 400 hands, chiefly children. As respects the health of the weavers, Dr. Mitchell reported to the hand-loom commissioners, that Norwich is most favourably situated, the ground being on a bed of gravel over a substratum of chalk; that the working people, weavers included, have a fresh and healthy complexion; and that the physical condition of the weavers is much better than that of the same class in Spitalfields. Epidemics, however, occasionally prevail, as in Bethnal Green; but not to the same extent, or so continually, owing to the better air and house-ventilation usual in Norwich. The prevalent diseases are dyspepsia, consumption, female diseases, and those belonging to children, which last are attended with a large mortality. (*Handloom Weavers' Rep.* II. 320.) On Sunday, the work people, especially the women, are well dressed; in general they attend divine service, and drunkenness prevails less than in most large towns. Frugality, however, is said to be little practised; few save any thing when they have the means; and when work is scarce, they are in the greatest distress. The industry and morals of the people have suffered materially from their frequent strikes and riots; from the dissension among the master-manufacturers; the party spirit which pervades all classes, and the delinquent abuses, for which Norwich is pre-eminent. (*Handloom W. Rep.* II. 332-336.)

Besides its worsted and silk manufactures, Norwich has iron and brass foundries, snuff-mills, vinegar-works, malt-houses, breweries, oil, mustard, and corn-mills; but they are not on an extensive scale. Of late years the manufacture of ladies' boots and shoes has been very extensively introduced into Norwich, and now (1850) forms one of its staple businesses. Women and children are principally engaged in the trade, but it also employs a good number of men. The trade of the town is chiefly in the exportation of its manufactures, chiefly to London and other English ports, but partly also abroad, in exchange for corn, coal, and various other articles of consumption. The town has, since 1833, had the important advantage of being accessible to vessels drawing 10 ft. water, by means of the canals connected with the Lowestoff navigation (see Lowestoff); and its trade is, also, materially promoted by the Eastern Counties' Railway. A branch bank of the Bank of England is established here, and there is a joint-stock bank, called the East of England Banking Company, besides 2 private banks and a savings' bank. The Norwich Union Insurance Company is an establishment of great importance; it was at one time much mismanaged, but such, we are informed, is no longer the case.

Norwich, which claims to be a bor. by prescription, and received its principal charter constituting it a separate co. in 1413, was governed before the Mun. Reform Act by a mayor, 24 aldermen, and 60 common councilmen, but by the provisions of that act it is divided into 8 wards, and has a mayor, with 15 other aldermen, and 48 councillors. The bor. has also a commission of the peace under a recorder, and a sheriff's court for the recovery of debts to any amount, and a county court, before which 1,578 plaintiffs were entered in 1848: the assizes and quarter sessions for the co. are also held here. Corp. revenue, 1848-9, 11,557. Norwich has returned 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the 25th Edward I., the right of election, down to the Reform Act, being vested in the freemen and freeholders not receiving alms. The electoral limits were left untouched by the Municipal Act, except that the cattle precinct was included. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 5,539. Norwich is likewise a polling-place and principal election-town for the E. div. of Norfolk. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday, but chiefly on the latter, for corn and cattle. Large horse and sheep fairs, day before Good Friday, Easter-Monday, and Whit-Monday.

Norwich is supposed to have risen from the decay of

an old Roman town, now known as Castor St. Edmund's, probably the *Venia Icenorum* of antiquity. A royal fortress was erected here by the East-Angles in the 6th century, and a town was gradually formed round it, which, even before the Norman Conquest, was so important as to have a mint and 25 par. churches, with 1,380 burgesses. William the Conqueror bestowed the castle on Roger Bigod, one of his Norman followers, who probably erected the present keep. It continued in the possession of his descendants till the reign of King John, when it was seized by the king, and finally surrendered to the crown in 1224. In the reign of Henry I., a colony of Flemings came over, who were joined by a still greater number of immigrants in 1336, from which time Norwich became an important seat of manufactures. In 1403, Henry IV. separated the city from the co., and made it a co. of itself with peculiar privileges. Its prosperity, however, owing to plague, scarcity, and frequent fires, had begun to decline, when, in 1686, a fresh immigration took place of 4,000 Flemings, who had fled from the persecutions of the Duke of Alva. In the civil wars of Charles I., Norwich declared for the parliament, and was occupied by its forces till Cromwell became protector. It is remarkable in ecclesiastical history for its numerous convents and other religious establishments, the funds of which have in most cases been converted to charitable uses, and placed in the trust of the corporation. Among other distinguished persons, Norwich has given birth to Matthew Parker, archbishop of Canterbury in the reign of Elizabeth; John Cosin, bishop of Durham; Dr. Kaye, one of the founders of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge; Dr. Samuel Clarke, the author of the famous work on the Attributes; and Beloe, the translator of Herodotus. (*Parl. Papers*; *Comm. Reports*, &c.)

NORWOOD, a populous village of England, hunds. Brixton and Wallington, co. Surrey, on the top and sides of a steep range of hills, 8½ m. S. London. Pop., in 1841, 6,046. It is very irregularly laid out, chiefly on wide and elevated common, commanding an extensive view of the metropolis northward, and of the plains of Surrey southward. The neighbourhood is studded with villas, belonging partly to merchants and others engaged in business in the city, and partly to persons retired from active pursuits. Of late years, Norwood has been a good deal frequented in consequence of the discovery of a mineral spring at a place called *Beau-Ries*, or Beulah; where large gardens, laid out with terraces, plantations, &c., have been opened to the public fides, picnic parties, &c. On the N. extremity of the hill is a handsome church, opened in 1825 (subordinate to Lambeth), with a Corinthian portico and steeple. There are, also, places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists and Independents, with attached Sunday schools. A school of industry, established here in 1812, furnishes instruction in reading, writing, and needle-work, to nearly 300 girls. Here also is a large national school for children of both sexes, and a Lancasterian school, attended by about 300 boys. But the principal distinction of Norwood is the South-Metropolitan Cemetery. It comprises about 40 acres, has 2 fine chapels, is well laid out, and cost in all from 70,000l. to 75,000l.

NOTO, a city of Sicily, intend. Syracuse, cap. distr., on a hill near the Noto, and 16 m. S.W. Syracuse. Pop., in 1831, 11,156. It stands near the site of the ancient *Nestum*, now called *Vecchio Noto*, the surviving inhabs. of which removed thither after the destruction of their city by an earthquake in 1693. Noto has large squares and regular streets, and is one of the best built, most agreeable cities of the island. Besides many handsome private residences, it has various ecclesiastical buildings, a council house, lycæum, hospital, &c. Some, however, of its public buildings, being on too magnificent and expensive a scale for a provincial town, are unfinished. There is in this city an excellent private museum, especially of medals and coins, and also of antiquities, minerals, &c. The ruins of an amphitheatre and of a gymnasium are the principal remains of the ancient city, which stood about 4 m. N.W. the modern town. It is rather unhealthy, but is surrounded by a very fertile tract of country, in the produce of which it has an active trade. (*Smith's Sicily*, p. 177.; *Ortolani, Dizionario della Sicilia*, &c.)

NOTTINGHAM, a central co. of England, in the basin of the Trent, having N. the cos. of York and Lincoln, E. the latter and Leicester, and W. Derby. It is oval-shaped. Length, N. to S., 50 m. Area, 535,680 acres; of which about 470,000 are arable, meadow, and pasture. The Trent partly traverses and partly bounds the co. on the E., and it is also traversed by its important tributary, the Idle. Excepting the vale of the Trent and Belvoir, the surface is mostly hilly and uneven; but the hills do not rise to any considerable height. The soil in the vales is either a sandy or a clayey loam, and is very fertile; elsewhere it is principally sandy and gravelly. The climate is reckoned peculiarly dry and good. The ancient forest of Sherwood, the scene of the exploits

of Robin Hood and his companions, anciently covered the greater part of the hilly portion of this co. along its W. side; but it has long since been disforested, and now contains some magnificent seats and parks. Agriculture, though still susceptible of material improvement, is, on the whole, good. The vale of the Trent is famous for its crops of oats; but wheat, barley, beans, peas, and cab-bages are also extensively grown. There is a considerable extent of grass and meadow land; and irrigation has been extensively practised, particularly on the estate belonging to the Duke of Portland. The breeding of heavy black horses is pursued to some extent. Cattle, principally of the short-horned variety. Estates of all sizes; many small. Farms generally small, and mostly held at will. Average rent of land, in 1843, 26s. 8d. an acre. Coal is abundant in the W. parts of the co. Nottinghamshire is the grand seat of the manufacture of bobbinet, or Nottingham lace, and also of the manufacture of cotton and silk stockings. It is divided into 6 wards, 1 liberty, and 285 parishes. It returns 10 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 4 for the co., and 2 each for the bors. of Nottingham, Newark, and East Retford, which are its principal towns. Registered electors for the co. in 1849-50, 7,366; being 3,817 for the N., and 3,539 for the S. division. In 1841, the co. had 80,550 inhab. houses, and 245,910 inhab.; of whom 121,731 were males, and 128,179 females. Sum expended for the relief of the poor in 1848-49, 69,000l. Annual value of real property in 1815, 751,628l.; do. in 1843, 1,143,357l.

NOTTINGHAM, a parl. and mun. bor., and extensive manufacturing town of England, and co. of itself, locally situated in the above co., of which it is the cap., hund. Broxtow, on the Leen, about ½ m. from its junction with the Trent, crossed here by an old bridge of 19 arches, 14 m. E. by S. Derby, and 108 m. N.N.W. London. Area of parl. bor., which is co-extensive with the co. of the town, and comprises three pars., 2,610 acres. Pop., in 1821, 40,416; do., in 1841, 61,441; and estimated in 1850 to exceed 87,000. The town stands partly at the bottom and partly on the sides of a steep red sandstone rock, the summit of which is crowned by a modern building, called the castle, occupying the site of a castle built by the son of William the Conqueror, and demolished by order of Charles II. The streets, many of which rise above each other in successive terraces, are very narrow, and irregularly laid out: two long thoroughfares run nearly parallel N. and S., crossed at right angles by other streets; and considerable improvements have taken place in the N. part of the town. All the streets are well paved, and lighted with gas; there is a good supply of water from two companies, and the police is tolerably effective. The market-place, which is spacious, and surrounded by handsome buildings, has, at its E. end, the new exchange, a quadrangular building of four stories, erected at the beginning of last century, and much improved within the last few years: the lower part comprises shops, butchers' stalls, &c., the upper stories being used for assemblies and public business. The county hall, on the high pavement near St. Mary's church, is another conspicuous edifice, comprising two law courts, a grand jury room and other apartments, for the business of the assizes. Behind it, and connected by a long covered passage, is the co. prison, built on the edge of a rock, below which, at a depth of 70 ft., is the densely crowded and low quarter, called the Marsh. "The building has been altered and enlarged at various times, but is even now very ill suited for carrying on any efficient system of prison discipline: the supervision and control of the prisoners is hence no easy task; and the entire management is susceptible of great improvement." The borough house of correction, or "St. John's" prison, so called from occupying the site of an old monastery, is conveniently situated for its purpose; and shortly after the passing of the Gaol Acts was re-constructed, on the principles of classification. It comprises two sides of a square, each three stories high, possesses considerable capabilities, and is in an efficient state, both as respects discipline and general management. At Lenton, about 1½ m. from the town, is a small gaol, belonging to the Honour of Beverly; but "it is small, insecure, and totally unfit for its purpose: indeed, its abolition would be a public benefit." (*Prison Inspectors' 3d Rep.*, i. 36-39.) The town-hall is a large building, three stories high, of which the lower part is used as a bridewell, while the upper apartments are used for corporate business, and other purposes. The other public buildings consist of a small theatre, little frequented, the cavalry-barracks in the Castle-park, the foot-barracks, the yeomanry riding-house, now used as a circus, and the grand stand on the race-course N. of the town: with eight churches and chapels, besides numerous places of worship for dissenters.

St. Mary's church, standing on a bold eminence, 170 ft. above the level of the adjacent meadows, is a cruciform structure, in the perpendicular style, with an elegant square tower, rising from the intersection of the nave

septa. A few years ago it underwent a thorough on a plan consistent with its original architect- is now the handsomest church of the town: is a vicarage, of the annual value of 700*l.*, with house, in the gift of Earl Manvers. St. Peter's, a market-place, is a building of mixed architecture, Saxon and partly Gothic, with tasteless additions, being remarkable chiefly for its lofty St. Nicholas, erected in 1678, on the site of a more edifice pulled down during the parliamentary account of its proximity to the castle, is of brick, one corner: it comprises a nave with 3 side- and has a light appearance outside, as well as good accommodation. St. James's Church, on Stan- ill, in the district called the Park, is a modern in the perpendicular style, with a low embattled St. Paul's Church, of Grecian architecture, with portico, is capable of accommodating upwards of persons. It was formerly subordinate to St. but has recently been made an independent parish church. Trinity Church, a handsome structure, with a tower and spire, fitted to ac- date 1,400 persons, is now nearly completed, is numerous places of worship for dissenters, is a Rom. Catholic chapel, meeting-house for lety of Friends, and Jews' synagogue, connected rich, as well as the churches, are above 30 schools, attended by above 5,000 children of es. The Blue-coat School furnishes clothing and tion to 60 boys and 30 girls; a national school had, 870; and 3 Lancasterian schools, 464 children; re also 4 other subscription-schools, and 5 infant- . The free grammar-school was founded in 1513, fore the close of the last century had fallen into but in 1807 the establishment was revived, and furnishes the means of a respectable classical on to between 80 and 60 boys.

other charities of Nottingham comprise, 1. Plum- apital (founded in the reign of Richard II., and sently enlarged,) for 13 aged widows, besides out- ers; 2. Collins' hospital, which provides ample odation for 24 poor men and women, with a sit- nd allowance of coals; and, 3. Lambly hospital, ayed burghesses or their widows; besides which, other charities confer essential benefits on the and aged of both sexes. On Standard Hill is the l hospital or infirmary, standing in a spacious ire, and comprising a centre and two wings, with 14 wards for patients, about 1,200 of whom are d, on an average, every year. The lunatic asy- ened in 1812, is in New Sconeiton, and has good odation not only for pauper but other patients. The town has likewise 3 dispensaries, and several enevolent institutions, with bible, tract societies, nd there are few towns in which so much is ex- in the relief of the sick and necessitous of the g classes. The three parishes of Nottingham are into a poor-law union: the maintenance of the n 1847, cost 17,682*l.*

chief literary establishment of the town is the library and news-room in the Market-place, which collection of more than 8,000 vols., a museum of logy, lecture-rooms, &c., with an attached library. A mechanics' institute, established in 1824, has derable library, with apparatus, &c. Nottingham, issues 3 weekly newspapers, the Journal, Review, ury.

ingham is celebrated as being the great centre of bbin-net and lace manufacture, besides which it , in common with Derby and Leicester, a large of the hosiery-business. The first attempt at the acture of lace by machinery dates as early as 1768; ough this was followed by many subsequent ts to shorten the tedious process of making lace pillow, it was not till 1808, when Heathcote, of tton, discovered the correct principle of the bobbin- ame, and obtained a patent for his invention. -power, first introduced in 1816, and becoming l in 1822-23, gave a great stimulus to the trade, was further increased on the expiration of Heath- patent. Prices fell in proportion to the increased tion; and the Nottingham lace-frame soon be- the organ of general supply, rivalling and sup- ing in plain nets, the most finished productions of and the Netherlands: so much so that large ties were smuggled into these very countries from lace was formerly smuggled into England. But the object of the manufacturer is not so much to produce e, and, consequently, high priced lace, for which the d must at all times be very limited, as to improve ric and lower the cost of the inferior qualities for the demand is comparatively extensive. At pre- (1850) there are supposed to be about 1,600 bobbin- d warp-lace frames employed in the town and its late vicinity: the wages paid to the individuals d in the trade vary from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* per week idres, 7*s.* to 1*s.* per do. for young people and

inferior men, 1*s.* to 3*s.* per do. for power and hand- frame men on plain work; and 2*s.* to 4*s.* per do. for men working hand-frames, weaving patterns.

The health of the power-machine workmen is said to be, on the whole, good; the factories are neither hot nor confined; and the workmen have only to superintend, not work the machines. Hand-machine labour is much heavier; but as it is the custom to work by shift, each man is seldom more than 6 hours a day at the frame. Hand-machines used to be let out at a weekly rent to the workmen by capitalists; but they are now much reduced in numbers; and nearly all those that now exist are the property of those who work them, either by their own hands, or by the aid of journeymen.

Subordinate to its other departments, the town had, in 1839, 3 cotton mills, 3 worsted mills, and 3 silk mills; employing, in all, nearly 900 hands. Nottingham has likewise very extensive establishments for making bobbin-net and stocking-frame machinery, large bleaching-works, maltings, and breweries; Nottingham, also has obtained considerable celebrity. There are 3 banking companies, and 3 private banks. The Nottingham Canal connects the town northward with the Codnor iron and coal district, and southward with the Trent, and the great canal system of the N. midland counties. It is, also, connected by railway with Newark and Lincoln on the one hand, and with Derby, Rugby, &c. on the other.

Nottingham claims to be a bor. by prescription, but received charters from Henry II., and many subsequent monarchs, Henry VI. having granted to it the additional privilege of being a co. of itself. It is divided, under the Municipal Reform Act, into 7 wards; and is go- verned by a mayor, 13 other aldermen, and 43 council- lers: it has likewise a commission of the peace, under a recorder. Corp. rev., in 1848-9, 12,781*l.* The assizes, both for the bor. and co., are held in spring and sum- mer; and quarter sessions for the S. div. of the co., in Jan., April, June, and Oct. A county court is, also, estab- lished here, before which 2,380 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. Nottingham has sent 3 mems. to the H. of C. since the 12th Edward I., the right of election down to the Reform Act being in the freemen: by birth, apprenticeship, and purchase; and in freeholders to the amount of 40*l.* The electoral limits were not altered by the Boundary Act. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 4,861. Not- tingham is also a polling-place for the N.W. div. of the co. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday, but princi- pally on the latter. Large fairs for cattle, cheese, &c., March 7th, 8th, and 9th; Oct. 3d, 3d, and 4th; 3 other smaller fairs.

The origin of Nottingham is involved in obscurity; but so early as in the time of Alfred, it was of sufficient importance to give its name to the co. The castle was built by William Peverill, the natural son of William the Conqueror. Edward III. held several parliaments here, in one of which were enacted the laws relating to the settlement of the Flemish manufacturers. Nottingham was the chief place of rendezvous for the troops of Ed- ward IV. and Richard III. during the wars of the Roses; and it was here, in 1642, that Charles I. formally raised his standard against the parliament. The inhabs., how- ever, being attached to the republican cause, the king was soon compelled to abandon the town and castle to the parliamentary forces. Nottingham has been the scene in more recent times of disturbances among the working classes. In 1811, when considerable distress prevailed among the weavers in consequence of our exclusion from the con- tinental markets, combinations were formed among the workmen for the purposes of breaking the frames, which they erroneously supposed had thrown them out of em- ployment; and to such an extent did they proceed, as to call for the most vigorous interference of the legislature. Disturbances of a minor nature have occurred several times in the subsequent period; but the only serious riot of an years took place on the 8th Oct. 1831, during the agita- tion preceding the passing of the Reform Act, when the rioters burnt down the castle. (*Parl. Papers; Private Information.*)

NOVARA (an. *Novaria*), a city of the Sardinian con- tinental dom., cap. division, prov. and mand. of its own name, on an eminence between the Gogna and Terdop- pia, 82 m. N.E. Turin, and 27 m. W. by S. Milan. Pop., in 1838 (ex. garr.), 18,524. It is surrounded by ramparts and ditches, and defended by a castle. Though the area is a perfectly narrow plain, on the whole, tolerably well built, and has many handsome residences. The ca- thedral, the Dominican church, and that of St. Gan- denzio, and the large barracks, are the principal public edifices. Novara has numerous convents, several hospi- tals and colleges, a theatre, and a governm. loan bank. It is a bishop's see; and has manufactures of silk and linen fabrics, leather, &c., and 2 large annual fairs. Under the French it was the cap. dep. Ag-gua.

NOVA SCOTIA, one of the British co- lonies of N. America, consisting of an oblong- shaped peninsula, between Lat. 45° and 46° N

and long, 61° and 67° W.; connected with New Brunswick by a low sandy isthmus, only 14 m. across, and separated from Cape Breton by the narrow strait called the Gulf of Canscaw. It is about 300 m. in length, and of very various breadth. Area, according to Haliburton, 15,520 sq. m., about 1-8th part of which consists of lakes, rivers, and salt-water inlets. Pop., in 1838, 199,906; but it is now (1850) estimated at 300,000. The coast-line is extremely irregular, forming numerous capes and bays. Capes George and Canscaw are the chief promontories on the N.E. side, and at the S. extremity is Cape Sable. The basin of Minas is a deep inlet on the N.W. side of the peninsula, forming a part of the Bay of Fundy, which separates Nova Scotia from New Brunswick. St. Mary's and Argyle Bays are on its S.W. side; Pictou, Antigonish, and Chedabucto Bays form the chief irregularities on the N. coast; and the E. coast, from Cape Canscaw to Cape Sable, is indented with almost innumerable small bays, harbours, and rivers. Rocks and islands fringe its shores, and the aspect of the entire Atlantic coast is exceedingly picturesque. Deep water is found, almost without exception, close to the rocks and islands; and the peninsula presents towards the Bay of Fundy bold and almost precipitous cliffs. The interior is intersected in almost every direction by streams, rivers, and lakes; but, with the exception of the Annapolis River and Lake Rossignol connected with the sea by the river Met, most of them are of very inferior size. The peninsula has no elevations deserving the name of mountains; its highest point, Mount Ardoise, between Windsor and Halifax, not rising more than 700 ft. above the sea. A pretty high ridge of hills skirts the shore of the Bay of Fundy.

As respects geological constitution, "the greater part of Nova Scotia may be described as a low range running from S.W. to N.E., resting on solid rocks of granite, trap, and slate alternately. Towards the E. end of the peninsula are beds of sandstone, greywacke, gneiss, limestone, porphyry, and many other kinds of rock; and on these strata there is usually a rich deep soil. The barren tracts are chiefly of sand or clay; and in these parts, especially about Pictou, are the great coal-fields of the peninsula. Iron is abundantly interspersed among the coal strata; and different varieties of lead and copper ore are met with, though in smaller quantities. Near Pictou are several brine springs, one of which is saturated with salt in the proportion of 12 to 88 of water." (*Report on Brit. N. America, App. B.*, p. 140.)

The climate of Nova Scotia, with respect to temperature, bears a general resemblance to that of Lower Canada, and is subject to the same great and sudden variations. The greatest degree of heat observed at Halifax by Captain Moorsom was 95° Fahr., and the extreme of cold 10°. The difference of temperature within 24 hours often exceeds 50°, and a difference of 62° has been known to occur within the same period. These changes, however, are seldom so frequent or extreme in the interior, or in those parts of the prov. less immediately on the Atlantic. Nowhere, thus, the seasonal lowering of temperature, the maritime situation of Nova Scotia tends to abridge the duration of the frost. The severe weather usually sets in about the middle of December, and it is not uncommon for the frost to break up at the end of January. The quantity of snow not only varies greatly from year to year, but is also very unequally distributed throughout the prov. The snow-storms are very heavy, some having been known to continue for 60 or 70 hours without intermission. (*Moorsom*, p. 169.) The severity of winter ends late in March, when chill, damp, east and north-east winds succeed, caused by the breaking-up and passage along the coast of vast fields of ice from the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Hence the most disagreeable season in this country is from the vernal equinox to the end of April. Spring approaches tardily and irregularly, the close of May often arriving before the fields are fully clothed with verdure. A very warm summer occupies 3 months, dating from the early part of June. May and June are marked by the prevalence of fogs, especially on the eastern coast, while July and August are usually remarkable for a continuance of calm serene weather. Autumn, the most beautiful season of the year, may vie with that of any country. September and October are very similar to the same months in England; but in November, and even December, there are days which, for beauty, warmth, and mildness, are equal to the loveliest mornings of an English May. (*Moorsom*, p. 167.) Westerly and N.W. winds are most prevalent; the fine bear to the wet days a proportion of 8 to 5. The extreme variations of temperature common to this country have not that injurious influence on health which one might naturally expect. Rheumatic and inflammatory complaints are far more prevalent than any other; and a considerable annual mortality occurs from pulmonary consumption. Intermitting fevers, however, so common in Canada and the United States, are here wholly unknown; typhus occurs only in a mitigated form, and the

ravages of the yellow fever have never been felt. Nova Scotia, therefore, may, on the whole, be termed a healthy country. Its inhabitants often live to extreme age; many attain ninety and even a hundred years. (*Murray's Brit. America*, ii. 19.)

As respects agriculture, Nova Scotia is estimated to comprise somewhat more than 5,000,000 acres of land available for tillage; the proportion of land under cultivation at present being to the wilderness as 1 to 20. The first large public grants of land appear to have been made in 1760; and in less than 13 years from that time, nearly 8,000,000 acres (including the whole of Prince Edward's Island, then a part of Nova Scotia) were granted in lots, ranging from 20,000 to 150,000 acres, to individuals or companies in England. These grants contained conditions of improvement; but the grantees, after having incurred some expense in trying to settle their extensive properties, abandoned the land to its few inhabs., or suffered it to remain absolutely waste. Efforts made to eke out these lands to the crown were repeatedly baffled by the influence of the absentee proprietors; and thus the province was effectually closed against immigration, either from England or the neighbouring colonies. Large grants of escheated land were, however, made on the breaking out of the American war to refugee royalists; but these were seldom occupied, and are now, for the most part, uncultivated, opposing serious obstacles to the cultivation of the land around them. Licensed occupiers, however, and squatters, have improved some portions of these tracts; and to them the progress made by the colony in population and agriculture is in great measure ascribable. The system of selling in lots not exceeding 1,000 acres was introduced in 1827; and the average price of unimproved land, in 1839, amounted to 2s. 3d. an acre. The largest portion of it, however, has been acquired, not by actual or intending settlers, but by speculators, who, tempted by the low price, have purchased, on account of the timber, with a view to profit from a future sale. Land is now sold in this colony at a fixed minimum price of 1s. 9d. per acre, payable at once.

The total quantity of land ungranted in Nova Scotia was estimated by Mr. Morris, in 1838, at about 3,500,000 acres; but of these not above 1-8th part was fit for tillage. The country, as respects the quality of land and the state of agriculture, may be divided into three distinct sections. The E. division, formed by a line from the mouth of the river Philip to that of the St. Mary, presents a strong upland soil, well adapted for grain, and varied with strips of rich intervals land along the sides of its rivers. The upland consists principally of a strong loamy clay, intermixed more or less with sand and gravel, the soil of the intervals being a rich, sandy, alluvial loam. The lands about Pictou are very rich and productive, 7 successive crops of wheat being frequently raised without the use of manure. Agriculture, however, is only imperfectly understood, and no proper use is made of the resources of the soil. In the S. district the land is almost wholly upland, with very little intervals or marsh; the soil is extremely rocky, varying from a strong loam to a light sand. Good returns of wheat and the coarser grains are obtained in some places; but the state of the farms generally exhibits the very reverse of intelligence. The unskilful use of manure, the indiscriminate employment of sea-weed, and, in many instances, the total neglect of any manure whatever, have retained those lands in a poor and backward state which better management would have rendered comparatively productive. (*Moorsom*, p. 163.) The N.W. division comprises upland, intervals, and marsh land; the first two being poor, and scarcely susceptible of any improvement. The marsh land is of two kinds,—one, called salt-marsh, being little more than a flat surface of spongy soil, overflowed at spring-tides, and covered with a long rank grass, sometimes converted into hay; the other, called the dyke-marsh, owes its formation to the impetuosity of the tide in the Bay of Fundy, which brings along with it fine loamy particles, which it leaves behind as it recedes, and thus, in course of time, a succession of layers raises the surface to the level of spring-tides, when an embankment or dyke, called an *abokwa*, is formed to prevent any farther overflow. A well-enclosed marsh is usually left untouched for the first three or four years: in the third year it is fit to receive the plough, and is then sown with wheat, the first crop averaging about 60 bushels an acre; and on long cultivated marshes the returns average about 40 bushels of wheat and 2½ tons an acre of hay. The crops usually cultivated are wheat, oats, and barley, with smaller quantities of peas, buck-wheat, and rye. But though, in a fine district, the supplies of corn exceed the demand, this is not the case generally; and the prov. does not, even in the best years, raise enough of corn for its own consumption, there being annually a large importation of four tenths from the U. States. Potatoes are universally cultivated, and the failure of the crops in 1846 and 1847 was productive of a great deal of distress.

f beans or cabbage are rarely seen, and horticultural with very little attention.

dairy-farms are found in the N.W. division. labour is difficult to procure, and too expensive to its adoption, except by the more wealthy. Labour (who do not exist here as a separate class, but the more indigent of the new settlers) are hired during the 6 months of summer, for which they receive from 15s. to 18s., with board and lodging; part of the payment is made in produce. (For information, see Moorsom's work, pp. 176-222., a valuable Report of the Governor, Sir John, in 1848.)

forests of Nova Scotia abound with good timber: d birch, oak, beech, ash, and maple, are the most trees. Many of the inhab. have for years been ed by the timber-trade, timber being, next to a great article of export. The principal wild of the province are the moose-deer, caribou, up-cervier, fox, martin, otter, mink, and squirrel. g and trapping were once extensively pursued; proportion as the country has become settled, the of animals has gradually but rapidly decreased, the exports of furs are now (1850) insignificant. vers abound with many varieties of freshwater sides which, cods, herrings, mackerel, halibut, er kinds of sea-fish, are found in the deep bays: ood. Chedabucto Bay and Annapolis Basin are incipal stations for the herring and mackerel : but the inhab. share, also, in the whale, seal, d fisheries; and this branch of industry has for years been on the increase. In 1847, 313,822 s of cod-fish were exported, valued at 125,442l. gs, mackerel, salmon, &c., are, also, largely ex-; and in 1844 the exports of train and sperm oil ed to about 300,000 gall. The fisheries are said ly about a third part of the inhab.; but this, bt, an exaggerated statement.

her important branch of employment in Nova is mining. Coal and iron are abundant, and are extensively wrought by the General Mining Asso-, to which all the mines have been let. The s of coal from the mines of Pictou and Sydney ted, in 1848, to 70,744 tons, being destined almost y for the U. States. Gypsum, which abounds in districts, is also highly prized in the U. States ure, and the quantity exported thither from Scotia in 1844 amounted to 40,080 tons. A stone id in many parts of the prov. extremely well adap- gridstones, which are celebrated all over Ame- der the appellation of "Nova Scotia blue grits." manufactures are quite unimportant: the weaving arse woollen cloths, called *Aomespes*, is pretty l throughout the colony; and carding-mills are ished in some parts. Carpets, also, are woven in quantities, and ropes are made of hemp imported N. Europe. Grist and saw-mills are very nume- besides which, there are several breweries and rds. The position of Nova Scotia, on the extreme le of N. America, gives it great commercial advan-; and its trade, especially with the U. States, has or some years steadily on the increase. The exports, y to Canada, the West Indies, the U. States, and Great n, consist of fish and fish-oil, timber, lumber, coals, The imports comprise corn and flour, British ma- tures, colonial produce, &c. The declared ag- of the various articles exported from the U. King- to Nova Scotia and Cape Breton in 1849, amounted 1,106l. being chiefly cotton and woollen goods, hard- ware and cutlery, apparel, &c. The trade prin- cipal centres in Halifax, which see. Subjoined is an

ant of the estimated Value of the Exports from va Scotia in 1847, specifying those to different untries, and the Vessels, &c., which cleared out for same:—

To	Estimated Value in Sterling.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
to Britain				
to Colonies,	£ 71,804	875	67,049	
to West Indies	308,415			
to N. America	257,094			
Elsewhere	6,587	2,798	149,594	26,135
to States	474,950	2,075	199,055	
to Spain	38,309	85	6,905	
	41,051,069	4,467	115,463	26,135

the means of internal communication have been im- ed within the last few years, and some of the roads tated by Moorsom to be equal to the secondary s in England. They are partly supported by annu- ly from the House of Assembly, and the inhabitants ch district are compelled to furnish, either perso- or by substitute, a certain quantity of labour for the purpose: this system, however, has not been found

successful; and large tracts are still left uncultivated, owing either to the absence or wretched condition of the roads. (*Report, App. B. p. 138-140.*) A water communication has been effected between Halifax and Wind- sor; but the want of any such communication is severely felt by those whose settlements are at a distance from Halifax, the chief market in the colony for agricultural produce. Only one railway, framed to convey coal from the Pictou mines to the coast, has hitherto been constructed; but others are projected.

The constitution of Nova Scotia is a representative provincial government. The lieutenant-governor, who is subordinate to the governor-general of British N. America, is commander within the prov., and the supreme civil, as well as military authority. Under him is a council of 12 mems., of whom the bishop and chief justice are mems. *ex-officio*, and the rest appointed by the crown. The legislative assembly is a body of 41 mems., elected by 40s. freeholders. It is elected, like the British H. of C., for 7 years, but may be prorogued or dissolved by the lieutenant-governor. It meets every year, and all money bills must originate in this assembly: other bills require the consent of the governor and council before they become law. For the purposes of election, Nova Scotia is divided into 10 counties (including Cape Breton). The counties elect 2 mems. each, and the county representatives are returned by the towns. Justice is administered by a court of queen's bench, sitting at Halifax, and by district courts in the different counties. The common and statute laws of England are in force, together with statutes passed by the local legislature, and approved by the queen in council. The laws, according to M'Gregor, are, on the whole, judicious; and, as far as they go, calculated to promote the prosperity of the colony. But there is too frequent a recurrence to courts, and the harmony of society is often broken by a love of litigation.

The provincial revenue, amounting to about 119,000l. a year, is principally raised by an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent. on imports. The heaviest direct tax is that of statute labour on the roads; but this may be commuted for a money payment. Taxation is, in fact, extremely light; the cost of defence being defrayed by Great Bri- tain, and the inhab. being burdened only with the civil government and local improvements. There are usually from 2,000 to 3,000 troops distributed over New Brun- swick, Cape Breton, and Nova Scotia. The latter has, also, an organised militia force of 36 regiments, inc. 44,248 men.

The Church of England is the established religion, and the colony is divided into 32 para., each of which has a rector salaried by the crown or the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. Nova Scotia was made a bi- shopric in 1787, the diocese extending over New Brun- swick and Prince Edward's Island, Newfoundland, and the Bermudas. The bishop draws no revenues from the colony, and holds spiritual jurisdiction only over the members of his own church. The Presbyterians, how- ever, are the most numerous body, and a synod meets annually at Halifax. There are numerous Rom. Caths., consisting principally of the Acadians and Irish settlers. The Baptists and Wesleyan Methodists are also im- portant bodies: a complete toleration is granted to all reli- gious denominations.

Among the establishments devoted to education, the principal is Windsor College, partly supported by the provincial government, and partly by subscription; but it has not met with much success. Exclusive of superior schools and academies, and of schools specially patron- ized by peculiar religious sects, there were in the prov., in 1847, 1,025 common schools, attended by 34,380 chil- dren, so that elementary education at least must be in a flourishing condition.

Of the pop. of the prov., the Indians do not now ex- ceed 600. There are about 6,000 Acadians (or descend- ants of French settlers before the country was ceded to the British), and about 2,000 free negroes: the remainder of the pop. consists of Germans, or their descendants, British emigrants, chiefly from the N. of England and Scotland, a few Irish, and the descendants of refugee loyalists from the U. States. The Acadians congregate in settlements of their own, mixing little with the other colonists.

Nova Scotia was discovered, by John Cabot, in 1497. It was first settled by the French, who called it Acadia. It subsequently fell under the English, having been, in 1627, granted by James I. to Sir W. Alexander, and named Nova Scotia. In 1632, it was restored to France by the treaty of St. Germain's; but it several times sub- sequently changed masters, and was not finally esta- blished in the quiet possession of the British till 1788. At the peace of 1763, the boundaries of this colony were so defined, as to include New Brunswick and Cape Bre- ton; but, in 1784, the former was made a separate gov- ernment. HALIFAX (which see) is its capital and the seat of government. (*M'Gregor's Brit. America, i. 269*

—427: *Moorsam's Letters from Nova Scotia*, passim; *Murray's Brit. America*, vol. II.)

NOVELLARA, a town of N. Italy, duchy of Modena, in the plain of the Po, 16 m. N.W. Modena. Pop. 4,070. It is the cap. of a principality annexed to Modena in 1737, and has some silk and leather manufactures.

NOVGOROD, a gov. of Russia in Europe, between the 57th and 61st degs. of N. lat., and the 30th and 42d of E. long.; having E. the gov. of Volodga, S. those of Jaroslavl, Tver, and Pakof; W. the latter and Petersburg, and N. the last named and Olonets. Length, N.E. to S.W., about 400 m.; breadth, varying from 40 to 160 m. Area, estimated at 47,035 sq. m., Pop., in 1845, 507,900. The surface, which in the level, rises gradually towards the S.W., where the Valdai plateau reaches an elevation of 1,000 ft. above the sea. The gov. is well watered: principal rivers, Volkhof, Msta, Chexna, Mologa, Lovat, &c., some of which run towards the Volga, and others towards the Lake of Ladoga. Among the lakes are those of Bielo-Ozero, Voje, and Ilmen. The climate, especially in the N., is more severe than in the gov. of Petersburg, not being tempered by the sea breezes. Except in a few districts, the soil is not eminent for fertility, and night frosts often spoil the crops. Scarcely any orchards are met with; but hemp and flax are grown for exportation; and in 1832, 868,000 *chetverts* of corn, principally rye, oats, and barley, were raised. Timber is an important product; a large part of the gov. is covered with forests, those belonging to the crown covering 2,737,300 *desiatines*. Few cattle are reared. Next to agriculture, fishing is a principal occupation. The salt-springs of Starais-Rouss furnish an adequate supply of salt for this gov. and that of Tver. Manufacturing industry is very backward; there are a few copper, glass, silk, leather, woolen cloth, and other factories; but in 1832 there were not, in all, 50 manufacturing establishments in the gov.; the pop. have, however, a turn for commerce, and the different fairs and markets are well attended. Novgorod is divided into 10 districts; Novgorod, Tikhvine, and Valdai are among its chief towns. Except some Lutherans among the Finnish inhab., the pop. is principally of the Greek church. Education is very little diffused. The cap. has a gymnasium; and there are schools there and in other parts of the gov.; but the young persons of all descriptions at school in 1835 amounted to only 1,066! The gov. is not supposed to possess a printing-press. Civil public revenue estimated at 2,733,000 roubles. This territory was made a separate gov. in 1776.

NOVGOROD, (called *Feliki*, or "the Great,") a city of Russia, and formerly the most important in that empire, cap. of the above gov., on the Volkhof, near its exit from the Lake Ilmen, 100 m. S.E. S.E. Petersburg, and 305 m. N.W. Moscow. Lat. 56° 31' 33" N.; long. 31° 16' 24" E. Its pop., which, in 1845, amounted to 15,000, was estimated to have amounted in the height of its prosperity, in the 15th century, to 400,000, though this, probably, much beyond the mark. At this period, Novgorod, rich London, Bergen, and Bruges, constituted the four principal foreign depôts of the Hanseatic League; but the fall of the League, and still more the massacres perpetrated by the bloodthirsty barbarian Ivan Vassilievitch II., in 1570, proved fatal to this great emporium; and it soon after fell into all but irremediable decay. La Motraye, who visited it early in the last century, gives the following description, which will apply nearly as well in the present day. "Nothing is more deceitful than the view of Novgorod from a distance: its extent, and the number and height of its towers and spires, seem to announce one of the finest cities in Europe; but on nearing it, the traveller perceives that its walls and houses are only of wood; and on entering, he finds it ill built and wretchedly paved. Only the churches and a very few private residences are of stone or brick. There may be from 80 to 85 churches, including those of the monasteries; besides which, the castle, a large fortress bristling with artillery, is the remaining principal edifice." (*La Motraye*, in *Schmidler, la Russie*, p. 170). The town, in fact, though comprising a large space, consists principally of scattered groups of miserable habitations, separated by ruins or by boulders, which, it is evident, had once been covered with houses. It is divided into two parts by the Volkhof, here crossed by a handsome bridge of 11 arches, which is almost the only modern structure in the city. The piles, &c., of this bridge are of granite, the rest is chiefly of timber; its entire length is 270 yards, and the breadth of its central arch 85 ft. In the *Torgovaisa*, or market-town, are the governor's residence, an anc. palace of the czars, and most of the shops and warehouses. The *Sokushaisa*, on the opposite bank of the Volkhof, is about 1½ m. in circuit, and surrounded by an earth rampart and a ditch. In it are the *Armed*, or citadel, the cathedral of St. Sophia, the archbishop's palace, and the various tribunals. The citadel is in many respects similar to the kremlin of Moscow, having a stone wall, flanked with many round and square towers. The cathedral, built

between 1044 and 1081, and repaired in 1832, is of stone, somewhat on the model of St. Sophia at Constantinople. It has some remarkable bronze gates, with sculptures in *alto-relievo*, representing passages from scripture history; and many of the paintings on its walls are curious, being said to date from a period previously to the revival of the arts in Italy. Novgorod is the seat of a military governor, whose authority extends over the adjacent prov. of Tver. It has a few manufactures of sail-cloth, leather, and vinegar, and some trade in corn. Though not the original capital of *Burick*, it became the seat of the Russian government in 864. In the beginning of the 11th century, the inhabs. obtained considerable privileges that laid the foundation of their liberty and prosperity; and as the city and its contiguous territory increased in pop. and wealth, they gradually usurped an almost absolute independency; so that, in effect, Novgorod, in the middle ages, should rather be considered a republic under the jurisdiction of an elective magistrate, than a state subject to a regular line of hereditary monarchs. During the 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries, Novgorod formed the grand *entrepôt* between the countries E. of Poland and the Hanseatic cities; and its wealth and power seemed so great and well established, and the city itself so impregnable, as to give rise to the proverb —

"*Qui contra Dux et magnam Novogorodiam ?*"
"Who can resist the Duke and Great Novgorod?"

But in 1477 it was obliged to submit to Ivan I., great duke of Russia. In 1554 it was visited by the famous Richard Chancellor, who describes it as the "great mart town of all Moscovite, and in greatness beyond Moscow." But not long after it was subjected, as already stated, to the scourge of the destroyer, and fell, never to rise again. The foundation of Petersburg took from it all hope of ever recovering any portion of its ancient prosperity. (*Schmidler, la Russie*, 152—174; *Cox's Travels in the N. of Europe*, II. 77—90., 8vo. ed.)

NOVI, a town of N. Italy, Sardinia dom., div. Genoa, cap. prov. and mand.; in the fertile plain of Marengo, at the foot of the Apennines, 14 m. S.E. Alessandria. Pop., in 1838, 10,278. Few remains exist of its old castle; its streets are narrow and ill-paved, and its public edifices undeserving of notice. It has, however, a handsome square. It is the seat of civil and commercial tribunals; and has a college and hospital, and manufactures of the best silk, twist in the division. It is also an *entrepôt* for goods passing between Italy and Germany. On the 16th of Aug., 1799, an obstinate conflict took place near this town, when a French army, under Joubert, who fell in the action, was defeated by the Austro-Russian army, under Suwarow.

NOVI-BAZAR, a town of Turkey in Europe, prov. Bosnia, cap. Sanjak, on the Ratcha, 130 m. S.E. Bosna-Seral. Pop. estimated at from 8,000 to 10,000. It is a town of considerable traffic, the residence of a pacha and a R. Cath. bishop, and has some warm baths. Our acquaintance with it is, however, very limited, as it is seldom or never visited by travellers from W. Europe.

NOYON, (an. *Noviomagus Veromandorum*), a town of France, dep. Oise, cap. canton, on the Vorse, a tributary of the Oise, 42 m. E.N.E. Beauvais. Pop., in 1846, 5,069. It is well built, and surrounded with numerous gardens. The cathedral, erected under Pepin and Charlemagne, is 340 ft. in length, its main entrance being flanked by two towers upwards of 300 ft. in height. Noyon has manufactures of fine linens, tulle, hosiery, leather, coppers, &c., and a brisk general trade. It was erected into a bishopric in 631. Charlemagne held his court in this town for a considerable period, and in it Hugh Capet was proclaimed king. But it is chiefly remarkable for its having been the birth-place of the famous reformer John Calvin, born here on the 12th of July, 1509. (*Hugo; Guide du Voyageur*.)

NUBIA (an. *Ethiopia*), an extensive tract of E. Africa, between the S. boundary of Egypt and the N. limit of Abyssinia; bounded E. by the Red Sea, W. by the desert of Libya, between lat. 13° and 24° N., and long. 33° and 36° E. Estimated area, 360,000 sq. m. Pop. unknown. The country is divided into Lower Nubia, or Nubia Proper, extending from Egypt to the N. frontier of Dongola, and thence to the junction of the river Atbara or Tacassé with the Nile; and Upper Nubia, which includes Shendy, Halfay (an. *Meroë*), and Sennar. (*Encyc. Britannica*, art. *Nubia*; *Ritter's Africa*, &c.)

Nubia is situated almost entirely in the basin of the Nile. Rocks and mountains are the characteristics of *Lower Nubia*; and the mountains here press so closely on the river that there would be but little ground left for tillage, if they were not interrupted by lateral plains, the productiveness of which, however, is diminished by the continual encroachments of the deserts. Numerous rocky islands dot the stream, and in some places congregate so as to form rapids, hardly deserving the name of "Cataracts," by which they are usually designated. Some of these islets are rendered productive (like the high banks of the Nile) by means of the artificial irri-

affected by *sahkas*, or Persian water-wheels, the river and the Red Sea extends the stony and barren desert, interspersed here and there with little spots, or oases. On the coast of the latter are inconsiderable towns. In *Upper Nubia* the river wears a somewhat different aspect. Instead of several streams flowing through it to pour their waters into the majestic Nile. The land is also much elevated, being situated on the lowest of the three ranges on which, according to Ritter, this part of Africa lies. The S. extremity of Nubia has an elevation of 10 ft. above the level of the sea; but northwards the elevation gradually lessens, and the Nubian desert is a gradual transition from the lower course of the Nile to the higher and more southern lands of Africa.

Mountains.—Ranges of mountains, forming a continuous range traversing Egypt, skirt the entire coast of the Red Sea; but they are not nearly so important as some travellers have stated, through which the Nile forces its course as in most maps as running parallel to its bed, as it is, but the numerous so-called cataracts, and the alluvia which intersect the hills, prove that these traverse the Nile parallel to each other from E. to W. passing the current of the river. Instead of accounting its course from S. to N. *Gebel Snire* (*Chiggré*, or *Gebel Safaka* take the former direction. *Saka*, on the river Athara, to Suakim, on the Red Sea, reaches another lateral chain, called the *Orbay* hills. Several inconsiderable chains and detached hills, offshoots from this chain, are distributed in the E. desert skirting the Red Sea.

Climate of Lower Nubia, though intensely hot, is, on account of its dryness: the plague has never been known to reach beyond the second cataract; but the districts are subject to those violent tropical rains which contribute in some degree to the regular swelling of the Nile: the N. limit of these rains is between lat. 11° 30' N. In Berber and Shendy they continue about March and the two succeeding months. The E. and W. of the Nile are subject to violent winds. The *geological structure* of the rocks in Nubia consists of granite and syenite, interstratified with black marble, of which last the second cataract is formed. Slate (in the E. desert), porphyry, sandstone and limestone, have also been enumerated. In the countries coarse grey granite, primitive quartz, and slate are likewise often mentioned by travellers. The coast of the Red Sea gold and silver mines are said to exist; but the Pacha of Egypt has made more than one unsuccessful attempt to open them. Neither the "Emerald" Mountains, which pass the Egyptian frontier, yielded any treasure to modern adventurers.

Mammals.—The S. parts of Meroë seem to be the N. of the natural habitation of the African elephant, and lions have been seen in the valleys of Shendy, crocodiles also abound. Wild dogs and foxes exceedingly numerous. Ruppell having discovered new species. The hippopotamus seldom ascends the Nile higher than Dongola. Antelopes, of three species, occupy the banks of the White Nile and the W. of Dongola. The giraffe (*acerâ*, "the elevated") inhabits the mountains of Dender, near the S. The principal birds of Nubia are the occipital reed, the red-throated shrike, and several curious species of the family of great-legged thrushes. Bats are also abundant, with partridges, quails, and all other species of game.

Fish having, very properly, classed Nubia with Barab and Egypt, and placed them in the S. Transition, the *botany* of Nubia assimilates very nearly with those of those countries. (See *EOVR*, sec. *vegetable products*, I. 744.) The great elements to vegetation here, other hot countries, are locusts, clouds of which times darken the air, and settling on the land, strip every remnant of verdure; on these occasions, the catch, and eat them, "out of self-defence."

Scripture of Lower Nubia.—The Nubian valley of Nile, which ascends as high as the 7th cataract, and between the 9th and 24th degrees N. lat., consists of 13 states, each governed by its melek, or chief subordinate to the pacha of Egypt. Ten of these states are in Lower, and 3 in Upper Nubia. Between the 1st and 2nd cataracts, in the states of Kenon and Wady Nubia, Nile flows through a rocky bed, and precipices enter the river within very narrow limits, scarcely allowing cultivation on either side; but at short intervals these elevated mountains which will hereafter be more minutely described. El-Kalaabeh, the largest city on the W. bank, occupies the site of the an. *Tal*, and opposite to it is that of *Contra-Tahmis*, the site of which have occupied the attention of modern explorers. At Sebou, lat. 22° 50' N., the river inclines to N.W., flowing past Derr, which, though a mere village of 200 houses, is the cap. of the 5 states N. of Dongola, with its well-known excavated temples, is at the centre of the state, called Wady Nuba, on the

W. bank of the Nile, in lat. 22° 30' N. The second cataract, which occurs about 25 m. below Ipsamboul, is formed by numerous rocky islets intercepting the stream, on each side of which in this vicinity stretches an extensive and not unfertile plain.

Through the district of Batn-el-Hadjar, the Nile passes between a chain of syenite hills, those on the W. side having at their foot many deserted villages and monasteries: only the E. side of the valley is now inhabited. The district of *Sakkot* has many poor villages on both banks of the river, possesses numerous antiquities, and is joined southward by *Makaze*, where the most cultivated spots, hitherto situated on the E. bank of the river, are transferred to the opposite shore. Remains of castles, churches, and houses afford evidence that this district was formerly well peopled. The course of the Nile here is tortuous; but S. of the 2d cataract, forming the N. boundary of Dongola, it runs in a pretty direct channel as far as Old Dongola, in lat. 18° 10' N. The stream then takes a sweep to the N.E., preserving that direction for about 100 m., through the highly fertile district of Shendy, ascending beyond the 4th cataract to the island of Mokrat, which divides the stream. The state of Berber commences southward of the 5th cataract, and in this district the villages stand at a considerable distance from the river. Berber, or El Mekhair, the cap., is near the E. bank, about 17 m. below the junction of the Tacassé with the Nile.

Upper Nubia, is a triangular tract lying chiefly between the White Nile, or Bahr-el-Abiad, the Blue Nile, or Bahr-el-Azrek, and the Tacassé or Athara. It is now divided into the 3 states of Shendy, Halfay, and Sennaar. From the Berber frontier, for some considerable distance southward, the soil of Shendy consists of immense fertile plains, stretching out from both sides of the Nile on elevated ground, at some distance from the river. Shendy-el-Garb "on the W. bank" is a large and not ill built village, with about 5,000 inhab.; Shendy "on the E. bank" is the cap. of the prov.; and being a place of rest for the caravans from Sennaar, possesses regular and well-stocked markets. N. of Shendy are some ruins, supposed to be those of the ancient *Meroë*. *Halfay* lies between Shendy and Sennaar; and, before the Egyptian conquest by Ismael, the son of Mehemet Ali, belonged to the melek of Sennaar: its chief town, having the same name, lies N. of the confluence of the White with the Blue Nile, which takes place at Khartum. W. of the Bahr-el-Azrek is the distr. of Sennaar, or Fungti: it is a flat and fertile tract, with some large villages, mostly composed of conical houses, similar to those of the S. African tribes. Six days' march S. of Khartum is Sennaar, the *entrepôt* of the caravan merchandise for Kordofan, Darfur, and Abyssinia. Its environs are wide plains, with a long ragged mountain, about 10 m. W. of the town (Sennaar). The most considerable port upon the Red Sea is Suakim, whence merchants embark their goods for Arabia, &c.

Population, Languages, &c.—The inhab. of the different parts of Nubia differ considerably in personal appearance; and those southward are much darker than those in the states bordering on Egypt. The marked features of the whole race, however, are long oval countenances, curved noses, somewhat rounded towards the top, rather thick lips, but not so far protruding as those of the negroes, retreating chins, scanty beards, lively dark eyes, strongly frizzled hair, and well-knit, muscular bodies. The Nubians, properly so called, are about the best looking of the race; both men and women have good features and well-proportioned persons, their disposition and character also being, according to Burckhardt, more susceptible of improvement than those of the Dongolese, who are described as dirty, idle, and ferocious. (See *DONGOLA*, I. 701.) The people inhabiting the valley of Shendy, E. of Dongola, are the most powerful of the Nubian tribes N. of Sennaar. They are good horse-soldiers, and were employed as such by Ismael Pacha, on his expedition against the negroes of the S. The common people are almost naked, wearing nothing but a hip-cloth. They usually speak the Arabic language; and the learned caste among them cultivate most branches of Mohammedan literature. The Berbers present, perhaps, the worst specimens of Nubian character: treachery, dishonesty, and drunkenness, are prevailing features among the men; and the women, who in the better parts of the country are modest and observant of conjugal fidelity, here indulge in the greatest profligacy, and pay no attention to the marriage vow. The inhab. of Upper Nubia are of Arabic descent, speak the language of the Arabs, and resemble them in their love of a restless roving life. A pastoral pop. inhabits the banks of the Tacassé, which, also, are visited by mountaineers, when in search of pasturage, during the dry season. The E. desert is infested by wild nomadic tribes, constantly at war with each other, and remarkable for adroitness in thieving and treachery towards strangers.

Productive Industry and Commerce.—The cultivated

portions of the Nubian valley being, on account of the height of its banks, beyond the inundation of the Nile, the land can only be watered by artificial means. Even in the lateral valleys, the few canals cut through them are rarely full; and the water, both from them and the Nile, is raised by Persian wheels. Dhourra is reaped in December and January; next follows a crop of barley, and then dhourra again. Tobacco is universally raised. Although the S. districts present some excellent land, agriculture offers few charms for the inhab.; and Sennar and Shendy are celebrated only for being the *entrepôts* of the chief commerce of E. Africa. The town of Shendy, having Soudan and Abyssinia to the S., Egypt and the Arabian Gulph to the N. and E., and Darfur to the W., is the centre of much of the trade with those countries. Markets are regularly held there twice a week; and at one of them Burchardt saw from 4,000 to 5,000 cows, as many camels, nearly 100 asses, and several horses for sale. In Shendy are several forges for iron and silver. The merchants from the W. pay regular visits to Sennar; they exchange Indian goods for gold, which they transport to Djidda and the E. The price of gold at Sennar is estimated at 12 dollars an ounce, and at Shendy 16 dollars. Every two months merchant caravans arrive at both these places, frequently consisting of 80 or 600 camels, laden with dhourra; others comprising about 100 camels, trade in various products, as well as slaves. The traffic in slaves is extensively carried on, upwards of 5,000 being annually imported from the interior of Africa; of these 2,500 are disposed of in Arabia, 1,500 in Egypt, and 1,000 in Dongola and other parts of Lower Nubia. The Arabs of the Desert supply the caravans with senna of the best quality, ostrich feathers, and charcoal.

History, Government, &c.—It has been supposed that the country of the Ethiopians was among the earliest in which advances were made towards civilisation, and that the arts descended from Meropæ to Egypt. But we have little or no authentic information respecting the state of this country in antiquity; and it was not till the 6th century that the wandering ancestors of the Nubians appear to have settled under a regular government. At that period mention is made of Silco, king of the Nubates and the Ethiopians (Lefronne, *Journal des Savans*, 1825); under whom they were converted to Christianity, the country divided into ecclesiastical districts, and the whole subjected to the Patriarch of Alexandria. After the loss of Abyssinia, the king of the Nubias resided at Dongola; but in the 14th century their power ceased, and Nubia was divided into several petty states. In the succeeding century the Mohammedan conquerors reached and subdued the country, Christianity was suppressed, and Mohammedanism took its place.

Down to the year 1821 the people of Nubia were independent, living under their own Meleks, or chiefs; but at that period Ibrahim Pacha reduced them to a dependency on Egypt. This change is so far fortunate for travellers, that with the permission of Mehemet Ali, the whole country is open to their researches, and no danger is to be apprehended, except from the climate and the dishonesty of the natives. The same system of military despotism and oppressive taxation that exists in Egypt has been extended to Nubia; but it is a question whether the people be now more heavily taxed than formerly by their petty chiefs, while, in other respects, their condition is improved.

Monumental Remains of Nubia—*Ipsamboli*.—Of all the relics of ancient art with which the valley of the Nile abounds over the whole distance from Meropæ to Memphis, none have excited more admiration than the excavated temples at Ipsamboli, lat. 25° 19' 47" N.; long. 31° 32' 54" E. According to Champollion, the great temple, "*c'est une merveille, qui serait une fort belle chose même à Thèbes*!" It is wholly cut out of the solid rock, and presents a façade, supported by four seated colossi, of exquisite workmanship, and not less than 61 ft. in height. They represent Rameses the Great, and are all portraits, for the faces bear a perfect resemblance to the figures of that king at Memphis, and elsewhere. The interior is not less grand than the entrance: 16 apartments are beneath the portico; the first of these is sustained by eight pillars, against which rest the backs of as many figures of Rameses, each 30 ft. in height. The walls of this immense hall are covered with innumerable bas-reliefs on historical subjects, the most striking portraying the conquests of the same prince in Africa. The other apartments afford some curious particulars that supply many conjectures relative to Nubian and Egyptian religious history, which it remains for future students in hieroglyphics to verify. The whole is terminated by a sanctuary, at the back of which are seated five statues representing Amon, Ra, Phrê, Ptah, with the never absent Rameses the Great. The smaller of these excavations is a temple dedicated to Hathor by Nofre-Ari, wife of Rameses the Great, whose façade has six colossi, each 35 ft. high, carved out of the rock. They represent Rameses and his wife, having at their feet

statues of their sons and daughters, all of whom have their names and titles. The front of this temple is free from sand, and access is much easier to its interior than to that of the greater. A passage leads to the pronaos, which is 35 by 34 ft., supported by six square pillars, three on each side: to this chamber succeeds a vestibule, which leads to the adytum, or sanctuary, containing the remains of a sitting statue cut in the rock, which, however, is not in such good preservation as the rest of the structure. The bas-reliefs adorning the sanctuary are painted, the figures yellow, and are enclosed by a border of three colours: the colour of the ceiling is blue.

We are indebted to Burchardt and Belsoni for bringing these splendid temples to light. The entrance of the great temple is so blocked up with sand that it is only passable by a person divesting himself of nearly all his clothing, and creeping on his hands and knees; and then the heat within is more intense than that of a Turkish bath, the want of air being almost insufferable.

Besides the excavated temples of Nubia, of which Ipsamboli does not present the only specimen, there are others, partly hewn out of the solid rock, and partly built. Those of Girsêh (lat. 25° 31' 45" N.; long. 32° 56' 53" E.), Sebosa, Dendera, and Gebel-el-Birkel (lat. 25° 31' 41" N., Russell) are of this class. The interior of the temples is cut out of the solid rock, while the exterior chambers and appendages are formed of stone-work. From the primitive character of the masonry, the rudeness and decay of the sculptures, and the decomposition of the walls, it has been concluded that the temple of Gebel-el-Birkel is older than many of the temples of Egypt, or even of Nubia. This site is also remarkable for 13 pyramids, lying in the desert to the E. of the town, differing from those previously known, their sides presenting small temples with gateways and enclosures. Opposite to Birkel, on the side of the Nile, at Nour, is another assemblage of pyramids. The age of all these vast masses of stone, many of them exhibiting little else to the modern traveller than mounds of debris, no doubt belongs to the remotest antiquity. At Sammeih and Dendera, we find specimens of a more perfect class of temples than those before mentioned, and which belong to the last epochs of Nubian art. That at the latter place has the proportions of Grecian structures, and in the pillars have been recognised a mixture of the Greek and Egyptian styles.

Ruins of Meropæ.—The tract of country enclosed by the Nile and the Tancasé, or Atbara, and terminating at the confluence of those rivers, was the island of Meropæ of ancient geographers; and near Assur on the Nile, in the prov. of Shendy, the ruins of the ancient capital of Ethiopia have been recognised. Nothing remains but the Necropolis; which consists of a vast assemblage of pyramids, similar in every respect to those of Birkel. (For a particular account of which we refer the reader to *Hoskins' Travels in Ethiopia*, p. 66, et seq.) We must not, however, omit to notice the inferences drawn from them, and other Nubian monuments by those whose acquaintance with antiquities entitles their opinions to respect. They conclude that art and civilisation, instead of ascending the Nile from Egypt, descended to it from Ethiopia. The decay in which the mounds of Meropæ are now found, produced entirely by the slow hand of Time, the sculptures of their interior, exhibiting religious rites of a purer and simpler stamp than those of Egypt, and other circumstances which nice observers have supposed they have detected, prove, according to the authorities referred to, that they have been the models of the more stupendous Egyptian structures. The excavated temples, too, furnish, it is alleged, proofs of the remotest attempts at architecture. But, how plausible soever, these conclusions amount to no more than probabilities; and it would not be difficult, were this the proper place, to show that they must be received with great limitations and modifications.

NUDDEA, a district of British India, presid. Bengal, chiefly between lat. 23° and 24° N., and long. 88° and 90° E.; having N. the districts Moorsheadabad and Rajeshaj, E. Jessore, W. Boerhoom, Burdwan, and Hooghly, S. Calcutta and the 24 Pergunnahs. Length, N. to S., about 80 m.; average breadth, nearly 40 m. Area, 3,106 sq. m. Pop., in 1822, estimated at 1,187,160. Its natural features are the same with those of the rest of the delta of the Ganges, by many arms of which it is intersected. The culture of the soil has greatly increased since the establishment of the perpetual settlement: total land revenue, in 1829-30, 11,66,961 rupees. Gang-robbery formerly prevailed to a great extent in Nudda; but under the British rule, it has decreased so as to be now of rare occurrence.

NUDDA, a town of British India, presid. and prov. Bengal, cap. of the above district, at the confluence of the Hooghly river, 80 m. S. by W. Calcutta. It is the residence of the collector and judge for the district, and was formerly the cap. of a rajaship, and a celebrated seat of Hindoo learning, but it has now fallen into decay. (*Parl. Reports, &c.*)

NDYDRORG, a celebrated hill-fortress of Hind. prov. Mysore, on a hill 1,700 ft. in height, 100 m. N. by E.; lat. $13^{\circ} 22' S.$, long. $77^{\circ} 44' E.$ The hill on it stands is inaccessible, except on one side: the way within it several barracks, magazines, &c., belong to the British. The church is a Gothic structure, a square tower; the living is a vicarage, in crown lands. There is also a modern-built chapel-of-ease; the Wesleyan Methodists, Independents, and Baptists have their respective places of worship. A free school was founded, by the inhab. in the reign of Edw. VI.; and there is another endowed school, called the "Charity School," besides which, there are two other day schools and Sunday-schools. The inhabitants are principally engaged in ribbon-weaving, and there were 3,500 looms, nearly all employed in the manufacture of ribbons; and there are also many engine-looms in the place that are not property, though some are worked on the premises of the weavers. Floret gauze ribbons are the staple of manufacture; but they are occasionally laid for figured satins, saris, and lustrings. (*Hand-Weavers' Report*.) Malt is carried on to a considerable extent; and there is a silk factory, which, however, was unemployed in 1839. Coal is procured in the neighbourhood, where are also some extensive stone quarries. The government of the town is vested in a magistrates' court, and three others, annually elected court-leet. It is one of the polling-places at elections for the N. division of the co. Markets on Saturdays, May 14, Feb. 18, and Oct. 31, for horses and cattle. (*Parl. and Comm. Reports, &c.*)

NUREMBERG (Germ. *Nürnberg*), a city of Bavaria, Middle Franconia, on the Pegnitz, a tributary of the Regnitz, 53 m. N.N.W. Munich. Lat. $49^{\circ} 27' 31'' N.$; long. $11^{\circ} 40' E.$ Pop., in 1846, with its suburbs, estimated at 45,500, of whom about 1-10th part are Roman Catholics. It stands in a sandy but fertile plain, at an elevation of about 1,000 ft. above the sea; and is divided by the Pegnitz into 2 nearly equal parts, the Sebald-side and the Lawrence-side, each deriving its name from its principal church. Nuremberg covers more ground than other cities of Bavaria, and is, next to the capital, the most populous. "It is surrounded by feudal walls and ditches, and these are enclosed by a ditch 100 ft. wide, 10 ft. deep, lined throughout with masonry. Its principal gates are flanked by 4 massive cylindrical watch-towers, no longer of use as fortifications, but picturesque in appearance, and serving to complete the coronet of the towers which enclose the city, as seen from the distance. The stranger arrived within its walls might be himself carried back to a distant century, as he finds its irregular streets, and examines its quaint old-fashioned houses. Its churches and other public edifices are singularly perfect, having escaped unharmed the ravages of war, sieges, and even of the Reformation, which inhab. adopted at an early period, without any outbreak of fanaticism or iconoclasm. Its private buildings, including the palace-like mansions of its patrician citizens and merchant-nobles, having been built of stone, are equally well preserved, and many are still inhabited by the families whose forefathers originally constructed them. Though built with narrow but highly ornamented windows and acutely pointed gables, they are often of large size, enclosing 2 or 3 courts, and extending back from one street to another." (*Murray's Handb. for S. Germany*.) It is the most elevated position within the town, near its N. extremity, is occupied by the *Reichsaste*, or Imperial Castle, a building of great antiquity, and a frequent residence of the German emperors in the middle ages. A portion of this castle is fitted up for the accommodation of the King of Bavaria, when he visits the town, and comprises a picture-gallery, the paintings in which, however, except one by A. Durer, are generally of the most ordinary merit. The 2 principal churches are highly interesting. That of St. Sebald, a fine Gothic edifice, with an elegant choir, built in 1337, has numerous sculptures and carvings by Adam Kraft and V. Stoss, many old paintings and stained glass windows, and the remarkable shrine of St. Sebald. This, which still stands in the centre of the church, though the latter is devoted to the Lutheran service, is the masterpiece of the celebrated artist Peter Vischer, who, with his sons, was employed on it for thirteen years. "It is a miniature Gothic chapel, entirely of bronze, consisting of a rich fretwork canopy, supported on pillars, beneath which the relics of the saint repose in an

oaken chest, encased with silver plates. The workmanship is most elaborate. The figures of the 12 apostles occupy the niches around the shrine, and are truly first-rate works of art. Above them are 12 smaller figures of fathers of the church; while about 70 fanciful representations of cupids, mermaids, animals, &c., distributed among flowers and foliage, are scattered over the other parts. The miracles of the saint are the subjects of the bas-reliefs under the canopy. In a niche below, at one end, is an admirable statue of the artist himself, in a mason's dress, and at the opposite end is a figure, equally excellent, of St. Sebald." (*Handb. for S. Germany*.) The church of St. Lawrence, founded in 1744, is the largest in the town; and has some very handsome entrances, fine stained glass, curious carvings, &c.; and above all, a repository for the sacramental wafers, a tapering spire of Gothic open-work, 64 ft. in height, executed by A. Kraft, with a minuteness more commonly bestowed on ivory than on stone. The church of St. Giles, erected in 1718, in the Italian style, has a fine altar-piece by Vandyk, various bas-reliefs, escutcheons, &c.; the R. Catholic church, finished in 1361, and distinguished for its rich decorations; and the church of the Teutonic Knights, begun in 1744, are the other principal ecclesiastical edifices: the Gothic chapel of St. Andrew, constructed in 1818, has been converted into a picture gallery, and filled with rejected paintings from the gallery of Munich, &c. The *Rathhaus*, or town-hall, in the Italian style, is one of the most remarkable edifices in the city; it was chiefly built in 1619, but includes the ancient town-hall, dating from 1340. In the latter are the great hall and the council-chamber; the walls of the former apartment being ornamented with several oil-paintings by Albert Durer, and those of the latter having many concealed doors "leading to subterranean passages, which extend from the *Rathhaus* under the streets to the town ditch, beyond the walls." (*Handb. p. 56*.) Nuremberg, a free Imperial city, founded by the famous reformer, Melancthon, whose statue is placed in its front; an arsenal, barracks, a theatre, many hospitals and asylums, a savings' bank, a charity for distributing food to the poor, a house of correction, &c. It has also several fountains, some of which are worthy notice, especially the "Beautiful Fountain" (*Schöner Brunnen*), in the great market-place; a Gothic obelisk, or spire of open-work, with statues of various historical characters. Among the other remarkable objects in and near the city are the house of Albert Durer, now occupied by a society of artists; St. John's churchyard, in which is Durer's tomb, together with those of many distinguished natives; a succession of stone pillars between the cemetery and the city, ornamented with curious bas-reliefs, &c. Nuremberg is the seat of a high police court, a civil court of justice, a commercial court of appeal, and a forest board. It has a royal, and other high schools, several Latin and numerous inferior schools, a teachers' seminary, an academy of arts, a polytechnic, and a high commercial academy (*Handlungs-Institut*); a number of public libraries, including the city library of 40,000 printed vols., and 800 MSS. (*Annuaire de Statist. Journa.*, 1841); societies of national industry, and medical and natural science, an agricultural union, and collections of every description in the arts and sciences. There are but few pictures by the celebrated native artist A. Durer; but those by other artists are very numerous.

Nuremberg has given birth to many distinguished men, including, among others, the famous painter Albert Durer, born here in 1471. Several important inventions in the arts are said to have been made in this city. The famous machine for drawing wire is supposed to have been constructed by Rudolph, a native of this city. (*Beckmann's Hist. of Inventions*, ii. 236.) Gunlocks are supposed to have been first fabricated here in 1517; and Beckmann says that the circumstance is probable, though he doubts whether the locks were of the present construction. (iv. 608.) Owing partly to these inventions, but more to the freedom and industry of its inhabitants, Nuremberg early rose to great eminence as a manufacturing and commercial town. It was, in fact, the continental Birmingham of the middle ages, during a portion of which period it is said to have had 70,000 inhabitants. Cannon are said to have been cast here as early as 1356; and in the same century it furnished paper and playing-cards. It had, also, a very extensive commerce, being a principal entrepot for the produce of both the N. and S. of Europe. It still is, and has long been celebrated for an extensive manufacture of wooden clocks and toys, which it exports to all parts of the world. It also produces various species of metallic goods and jewellery, with telescopes, mirrors, mathematical and musical instruments, sealing-wax, and lacquered wares; lead pencils, alabaster, horn, and ivory articles; brushes, woollen yarn, lawn, paper, parchment, brandy and liqueurs, chocolate, &c. Printing is also carried on to some extent.

Though considerably declined, it still ranks as one of

the principal commercial cities of Bavaria; and its commerce will, probably, receive some augmentation from the opening of the canal between the Danube and Rhine, now in progress. The first railroad for steam-carriages in Germany was completed in 1835-36, between Nuremberg and Fürth, a distance of 44 m., now traversed in 15 minutes.

Nuremberg, supposed to have been founded in the 9th century, became, in 938, the seat of the first Germanic diet. Until 1417, it had a *burggraf*, or resident governor, appointed by the emperor, and the ancestors of the present royal family of Prussia make their first appearance in history in that capacity. It was subsequently governed much in the same way as Venice, by a merchant-aristocracy, consisting of about 30 families, who appointed the executive officers among themselves. It was at the summit of its prosperity in the 15th and 16th centuries. The famous *Æneas Sylvius*, afterwards Pope Pius II., who had travelled over the greater part of Europe, celebrates the wealth of this city; and says in his work *De Morib. Germ.*, published in the 15th century, that the kings of Scotland would wish to be as well lodged as the meanest burghesses of Nuremberg. *Cyperus lat. corymb. Scotorum reges, quam mediocres Nurembergæ ciues habitare.* (p. 1,085.)

Nuremberg, early embraced the doctrines of the Reformers, and is celebrated in the history of the Reformation. A diet assembled here in 1524, was of great service to the cause of the Reformers; and here, on the 23d of July, 1532, a treaty was signed, by which full toleration was granted to those professing the new doctrines. The city preserved its privileges as a free town of the empire to the peace of Presburg in 1805, when it was annexed to Bavaria by Napoleon. (*Bergius Allg. Länder, u. Volk*, iv. 146-147; *Mersey's Handbook for S. Germany*, 54-62.; *Dict. Geog.*; *Stein, Camburg*, &c.)

O.

OAKHAM, a market-town and par. of England, hund. of same name, co. Rutland, of which it is the cap., 17 m. E. by N. Leicester, and 83 m. N. by W. London. Area of par. 3,130 acres. Pop., in 1841, 2,726. It is tolerably well built. The chief public buildings are the co. hall (forming the only remaining part of a castle built in the reign of William the Conqueror), a fine church with a lofty spire, and a large edifice belonging to the Rutland Agricultural Association. The free school, founded in 1584, and closely connected with that established at Uppingham, is under the control of 14 official governors; it is well endowed, and has 34 exhibitions at Oxford and Cambridge; it has 20 masters, and the school is open gratuitously to the children of the poor inhab. An hospital for old men was incorporated with it by Queen Elizabeth, and endowed with alienated church property, now producing above 3,000l. a year. Another hospital once existed here, but it has fallen into decay. A boy's national school is established, and there is a well attended Sunday-school. Oakham is of very little importance with respect to trade, its chief dependence being on its markets and the retailing of goods for domestic consumption. It is connected by a canal with Melton-Mowbray, and has a considerable traffic in coal. The assizes, quarter and petty sessions are held here; and Oakham is the election-town for the co. Markets on Sat.; fairs for cattle and sheep, March 15, 2d Sat. in April, May 9, Sat. in Whit-week, Sat. after Oct. 10, and Dec. 15.

OAKHAMPTON, a decayed bor., market-town, and par. of England, hund. Lifton, co. Devon, on the Oke, a trib. of the Torridge, and near the N. border of Dartmoor, 20 m. W. Exeter. Area of par. (including the villages of Chisacoat, Meldon, and Kegbear), 12,570 acres. Pop., in 1831, 2,055. It is old and irregularly built. The church stands on rising ground about 1 m. westward; and there is an ancient chantry chapel in the market-place, with places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists and Independents. It has a small endowed free school and two subscription schools, with minor charities for the relief of the aged poor. "The town is not flourishing;" the inhab. depend chiefly on retail trade, a few, however, being supported by serge-weaving. It also derives some advantage from its situation on the great road between Exeter and Falmouth. (*Mss. Corp. Reports*.) The bor. was not incorporated till the 31 James I., and having fallen to decay, it was considered too insignificant to be included in the provisions of the Mun. Reform Act. It, however, sent two mems. to the H. of C. from the reign of Charles I. down to the Reform Act, when it was disfranchised. Markets on Sat.; fairs, 2d Thurs. after March 11, May 17, 1st Wed. after July 5.; Aug. 5., and 8th. after Christmas day.

OAXACA, or **GUAXACA**, a city of Mexico, the cap. of the State of the same name, on the Rio Verde, 205 m.

S. S. E. Mexico, and 160 m. S. S. W. Vera Cruz, lat. 17° 5' N.; long. 97° 3' W. Estimated pop., 40,000. It is built in the form of a parallelogram, about 2 m. in length, and 1½ m. in breadth, including its suburbs, which are laid out in gardens and planted with nopal trees. The streets, which are broad, straight, and well paved, are lined with good houses of a greenish kind of stone; and on the whole it is the neatest, cleanest, and most regularly built city of Mexico. The public buildings are in general handsome, solidly constructed, and richly decorated: the town-hall, cathedral, and bishop's palace form 3 sides of the principal square. There are several churches and convents; and numerous fountains are supplied with water conveyed by aqueducts across the valley from the neighbouring hills of St. Felipe. The climate is peculiarly good, the thermometer seldom falling below 63° or rising higher than 78°; but it is exposed to earthquakes, and suffered considerably during the last that happened in Mexico. Oaxaca was founded by Nuno del Mercado, one of the companions of Cortez, and received its name from the trees called *guaces* that abound in its neighbourhood.

The state of which Oaxaca is the cap. is remarkable for its extreme fertility, and for the richness and variety of its products. The cereals and the sugar-cane are raised with great facility, and cochineal is extensively cultivated. Considerable attention is likewise paid to the culture of silk. The mineral riches of the state have been very little explored. (*Ward's Mexico*, ii. 389; *Mod. Trav.* &c.)

OBAN, a parli. bor. and sea-port of Scotland, co. Argyle, on a bay of the same name, in a secluded but beautiful situation, 61½ m. N. W. Glasgow. Pop. 1,868. The only public buildings are a new quayside, which is connected with the establishment, and a dissenting chapel. It has no manufactures, and no trade, except in such articles as the limited consumption of the place and neighbouring district require. It is visited by the steam-boats between Glasgow and Inverness, and those that ply between either of these places and Staffa, Iona, &c. The harbour is excellent; and the inhab. engage extensively in fishing. The magnificent ruins of the royal palace of Dunstaffnage, stand on a promontory 3 m. N. the town. The town had no parli. representative till the passing of the Reform Act, in 1832, which united it with Campbellton, Inverary, Irvine, and Ayr, in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered voters, in 1849-50, 51.

OBI, a large river of Asiatic Russia, in the governments of Tomsk and Tobolsk, rising by two principal sources on the N. W. side of the Little Altai chain near the frontiers of the Chinese empire; lat. 51° N.; long. 89° E.; flowing first N. W. and then N. into the Gulph of Obi, after a course of about 2,700 m.; but if the Irish, which joins it in lat. 69° 55' N. and is the longest and widest stream and most direct from the sources, be considered the main river, its length will exceed 3,000 m.; the area of its entire basin has been estimated at 1,357,000 sq. m. The Obi, which is the eastern branch, has numerous affluents, the principal of which are the Tom, Telhelim, and Ket, joining it on the E. or right bank. After its junction with the Irish, it attains a breadth in some places of nearly 30 m. with a depth varying from 2 to 7 fathoms, and has a very rapid current, forming in the lower part of its course numerous islands, and flowing over rocky ledges that greatly impede navigation during the few months that the river is free from ice. The Irish rises within the Chinese empire, in lat. 47° N. long. 99° 10' E., on the W. side of the Great Altai chain, and pursues a course nearly W. N. W. of 240 m. to lake Taigan, through which it flows, and then turns N. ward for about 100 m., after which it has a general N. W. direction, passing Semipalatinsk and Omsk, as far as Tobolsk. Below this point it makes a curve N. E. ward of about 300 m., and joins the Obi at Samarova. Both the Obi and Irish abound with fish, which might be made a lucrative article of trade, there is a free navigation during the greater part of the year along the Northern Ocean to Archangel. (*Stein's Geographic*, iii. 67.; *Dict. Géog.*)

OCANA, a town of Spain in New Castile, prov. Toledo, 26 m. E. Toledo and 34 m. S. by E. Madrid, on the great road leading from Madrid to Granada. Pop., acc. to Minano, 5,013. It is an ancient town of considerable size, surrounded by ruined walls, sit. on the summit and sides of a steep hill. Streets generally narrow and ill-built; but there are two or three squares which give it a tolerably respectable appearance. It has four parish churches, the decayed monastery of an hospital, cavalry barracks, and a school of primary instruction; but the only object worth notice is the *Fuente vieja*, a fountain and aqueduct of stone, on 19 arches, supposed to have been constructed by the Romans, which supplies the town with excellent water. Ocana, in the days of its prosperity under the Grand Masters of the Order of St. lago, established here in the 12th and 13th centuries, carried on a considerable trade in gloves; but its industry

is present is confined to the manufacture of hard soap, the tanning of leather, and the weaving of coarse woollen and linen cloths. A festival and fair is held on the 8th, 9th, and 10th following days, which is much frequented, especially by Jewish traders. During the peninsular war Odena was the scene of a disastrous and obstinately contested battle (Nov. 19, 1809), between the Spaniards under Arceaga and the French under Mortier and Victor, which terminated in the total defeat of the former. (*Milano: Sir A. Brookes's Spain and Morocco*, i. 291; *Mod. Trav.*)

ODENSEE, a town of the Danish dom., Isl. Funen, (which it is the cap., on a small river, about 2 m. from the bottom of Stegestrand bay, deep gulph to which it is being united by a navigable canal, 88 m. W. by S. Copenhagen; lat. 55° 34', long. 10° 34' 30" E. Pop. 700. It is well built; and has one of the finest cathedrals in Denmark, in which many of the Danish kings are buried, an old episcopal palace, with a library of 6,000 vols., a gymnasium, a church seminary, and a convent with an extensive library of Danish books, the collection of which commenced with the introduction of printing into the kingdom. It is the residence of the viceroy and of the bishop, and has a large book society, the members of the society reside here for a part of the year, and the inhabs. are said to be the best educated and informed of his Danish majesty's subjects. (*ngliu.*) It is celebrated for its manufacture of gloves of leather accoutrements: it has also manufactures of cloth, with extensive breweries and distilleries, soap works, &c. It is the most ancient town of Denmark; and was a place of great note long before Copenhagen was in existence. (*Strin; Ingliu, Coar, &c.*)

ODER, a large and important river of Germany, traversing the centre of the Prussian dom., its rise in Silesia, about 15 m. E. Olmutz; lat. 49° 35' N., long. 12° 35' E., at an elevation of 1,800 ft. above the sea. It is, at first, generally N.E. to Oderberg, near which ceases the Austrian dom.; it thence flows in general W. to near Oderberg in the Middlemark of Brandenburg, from which point its course is mostly N.E. to Great Haaf, an inlet of the Baltic, which it enters by numerous mouths near Stettin. In the lower part of its course it forms numerous islands. Its principal tributaries are the two Neises, the Oppa, Katsbach, and Wer, on its W., and the Malapane, Bartelche, and Netze, on its E. side; the Warta being by its most considerable affluent. It is subject to sudden floods, and frequently inundates the plain country through which it flows. It is navigable for small boats as far as Ratibor in Prussian Silesia, and for barges from 50 tons as high as Breslau. Next to this city, at Stettin, Oppeln, Glogau, Crossen, Kustrin, Schwedt, are the principal towns on its banks. It is connected with the Havel and Elbe by the Finow ul, with the Spree by Frederick-William's canal, and with the Vistula by means of the canal from Nakel on the Netze to Bromberg. It is of the highest commercial importance to the country through which it flows; as to which, see article PRUSSIA, in this vol. (*Dict. Géog.; & Ann., &c.*)

ODESSA, a celebrated city, sea-port, and emporium of Russia, gov. of Kherson, on the N.W. coast of the Black Sea, about half way between the mouths of the Dnieper and Bug; lat. 46° 28' 54" N., long. 30° 43' 22" E. Pop., in 1845, 70,877. The rise of this emporium has been quite extraordinary; its foundations having been laid, by order of the Empress Catherine, as late as 1794, after the peace of Jassy. It was intended to serve as a strait for the commerce of the Russian dominions on the Black Sea, and has, in a great measure, answered the intention of its founders. It has been said, indeed, a better locality might have been chosen; and in fact of this, it is stated that there are no springs nor water within 3 m. of the town; that the vicinity is comparatively barren and without wood; and that not only on or near the mouth of any great navigable river, but communications with the interior are difficult and expensive. That these considerations have great weight, is clear; but, on the other hand, the situation has the advantage of being central and salubrious; the bay, or roadstead, which is generally open and easy of access, is extensive, the water deep, and the anchorage good; the which is artificial, being formed by two moles, is so to accommodate above 300 ships, and has a lagoon on the model of that of Marseilles; the inconvenience arising from the want of water has been obviated by the cutting of a canal, by which it is conveyed to the town; and, on the whole, we doubt whether any other locality could have been chosen so well suited to its enterprise. The vicinity is by no means so barren as is represented. Latterly, indeed, it has been significantly improved by the formation of many gardens, and a planting of extensive vineyards.

The town is well built of soft calcareous stone; but the buildings, for the most part, detached from each other, are few handsome streets. But a more serious defect

is, that the streets are generally unpaved; and after rain the ground is so deep that, according to Mr. Elliott, "it is not uncommon for gentlemen to be obliged to leave their carriages in the middle of the streets, and to send oxen to drag them out!" (*Trav. in Austria, Russia, &c.*, i. 256.) But some of the principal streets are now either paved or macadamised; and in this respect the city has been materially improved. The warehouses for corn are very extensive. The city is defended towards the sea by some batteries, and on its E. side is a citadel, which commands the town and port. The space, comprising the city and a small surrounding district, to which the franchise of the port extends is bounded by a rampart. Though it cannot be called a manufacturing town, Odessa has some fabrics of coarse woollen and silk goods; and has extensive tallow refineries, breweries, distilleries, rope-walks, &c.

Among the public buildings may be specified the church or cathedral of St. Nicholas, with a cupola, the exchange, palace of the governor, theatre, barracks, R. Catholic church, an hospital 2 stories in height, a large and fine building, with public baths, large hotels, &c. On the quay facing the port, in the centre of the esplanade, is a statue in bronze in honour of the Duc de Richelieu, to whose enlightened administration much of the prosperity of the city is ascribable. Of the various institutions which the city owes to the duke, the Lyceum, which bears his name, founded in 1817, is one of the most important. Its organization has been modified of late years; and at present it is divided into the faculties of philosophy and jurisprudence, and has attached to it a gymnasium with 4, and a primary school with 3 classes. In 1835 it had 250 pupils, and a library with about 7,000 vols. There are also schools for the education of young ladies, founded in 1829 and 1835; a Jewish school, attended by about 400 pupils; an institution for the study of the eastern languages; schools of navigation and commerce; an orphan school, &c. The inhabs., as in other commercial towns that have had a rapid rise, are a very motley race, consisting of Russians, Greeks, Jews, Poles, Italians, Germans, French, &c.

In 1817, a ukase conferred on Odessa, for a period of 30 years, the important privilege of being a free port; and her commerce has since rapidly increased. Not being at the mouth of any great river, nor having any considerable manufactures, she is not a port for the exportation of what may be called articles of native growth; but in consequence of her convenient situation, excellent port, and the privileges which she enjoys, she is, as already remarked, the emporium where most of the produce of Southern Russia destined for foreign countries is collected for exportation, and where most of the foreign articles required for home consumption are primarily imported. The shallowness of the water at Taganrog, and the short period during which the sea of Asoff is navigable, tends to hinder foreign vessels of considerable burden from entering the Strait of Yenikale, and occasions the shipment of a considerable portion of the produce brought down the Don in lighters to Caffa and Odessa, especially the latter. All the products brought down the Dniester, the Bug, and the Dnieper, are exported from Odessa; but owing to the difficult navigation of the first and last mentioned rivers, by far the greater part of the corn brought to Odessa from Podolia, the Ukraine, &c., is conveyed to the town in carts drawn by oxen. The roads traversed by these carts are only practicable at certain seasons of the year; and nothing would contribute so much to increase the commerce of the port, and the prosperity of S. Russia, as the opening of improved communications with the interior; whether by removing obstructions in the channels of the rivers, constructing canals, or railways, or good common roads.

Among the articles of export from Odessa, corn, especially wheat, occupies, as every one knows, a high rank; but tallow is also a most important article; and next to it are linseed, wool, iron, hides, copper, wax, caviar, potash, beef, furs, cordage, sail-cloth, tar, butter, isinglass, &c. Subjoined is an

Account of the Arrivals of Wheat at Odessa since

Year.	arr'd.	55,142 chet.*
1801	—	285,106 —
1802	—	491,454 —
1803	—	1,898,267 average 184,826 chet. a year.
1814-23	—	5,809,000 average 680,000 chet. do.
1824-33	—	7,275,000 average 727,500 chet. do.
1834	—	601,000 chet.
1835	—	378,100 — 1843 arr'd. 1,170,345 chet.
1836	—	578,700 — 1844 — 1,315,200 —
1837	—	850,498 — 1845 — 1,981,000 —
1838	—	1,241,000 — 1846 — 2,194,585 —
1839	—	1,150,000 — 1847 — 2,775,837 —
1840	—	680,000 — 1848 — 2,039,037 —
1841	—	780,572 — 1849 — 1,714,741 —
1842	—	865,452 —

The small amount of the wheat brought to Odessa in 1835 and 1836 was owing to the almost total failure of the

* A chetwert is equivalent to about 6 imperial bushels, or 3-fifths of a quarter.

crops in S. Russia in the course of these years. The exports of wheat from Odessa in 1847, exceeded, we believe, the exports from any other port in any single year, either in ancient or modern times. They reached, as seen by the above table, the prodigious amount of 2,775,837 chet., being 651,452 chet. more than their amount in 1846, the year of the greatest previous exportation. The average price of wheat free on board in 1846, considerably exceeded 40s. a quarter; but taking it only at that sum, the gross value of the exports of that grain from this single port must have exceeded 4,000,000 sterling! This excess may be ascribed in part to the extremely abundant harvest of 1846, in Southern Russia and Poland, and in part to the high prices and great demand for wheat in this country and in France, which made every corner of the country accessible by the Black Sea be ransacked for supplies. Of the quantity exported the largest share went to Marseilles: our imports were, however, very heavy, having amounted to 462,000 quarters, including those from Taganrog. The price of the best wheat in Odessa is rarely under 25s. or 28s. a quarter; and, during the 3 years ending with 1840, it was 34s. 6d. free on board; the freight and other charges on importing a quarter of wheat from Odessa to England may be estimated at about 16s. a quarter. Constantinople, Genoa, Leghorn, Marseilles, and Malta are the principal markets for Odessa wheat; but, as already seen, when our crops are deficient, considerable quantities are shipped for England.

Account of the Quantities, in English Weights and Measures, of the principal Articles exported from Odessa in 1847.

Articles.		Quantities.	Articles.		Quantities.
Wheat	Imp. qrs.	2,016,692	Hides	cwt.	5,219
Rye	—	240,390	Tallow	tons	5,395
Indian Corn	—	27,109	Iron	—	239
Barley	—	16,100	Planks and	—	—
Oats	—	15,416	Staves	value £	3,686
Pean	—	2,340	Purs	—	4,774
Flour	—	17,000	Gold thread	—	—
Butter	cwt.	684	and Spangles	—	2,416
Cavier	—	3,072	Manufactures	—	15,489
Lined	Imp. qrs.	174,561	Nundries	—	68,212
Rapeseed	—	1,460			
Wax	cwt.	344	Total Value of Ex-		
Candles	—	5,474	ports, according		
Cables and	—	—	to Custom House		5,699,174
Cordage	—	16,010	Reports	£	
Wool	—	44,550			

The great articles of import into Odessa consist of sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; cottons, silks, woollens, and other manufactured goods; oil, wines, and spirits; spices and dye-stuffs; cotton-twist and raw cotton; lemon-juice; tin and tin-plates; cutlery, timber for building and firewood, &c. About 1,000 ships from foreign parts enter and leave Odessa in ordinary years. Including Maltese and Ionians, above 300 ships under English colours have arrived in the port in a single season; but their number is very fluctuating, depending essentially on the state of the corn trade. The official value of the exports in 1847 amounted to 34,000,000 silver roubles, and that of the imports to 11,000,000 do. The exports of tallow have latterly fallen off, while those of wool have increased.

A tribunal of commerce was established at Odessa in 1824, whose jurisdiction extends over all disputes connected with trade. There is no appeal from its decisions except to the Senate. There are 12 sworn brokers, approved and licensed by the Tribunal of Commerce, who have deputies appointed by themselves. They register all transactions, and receive $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. from each party as commission. There is a discount or loan bank, established in 1828, and marine and grain insurance societies. Most articles of provision are cheap, and fish, which costs next to nothing, is excellent. Fuel, however, is scarce and dear. (*Official Reports; Private Information; Schnitzler, La Russie, p. 72A, &c.*)

ODEYPOOR, or OUDEPORE, a city and rajahship of Hindoestan, prov. Rajpootana, the city standing in a basin surrounded with rugged hills, 135 m. S.S.W. Ajmere, and 165 m. N.W. Oojein; lat. 24° 35' N., long. 73° 44' E. It has, at a distance, an imposing appearance. On the W. it skirts a large lake, the palaces and garden residences on the brink of which are all of marble, with sculptures that are both highly finished and display considerable taste. (*Hamilton.*) It is protected from inundation by an extensive embankment stretching along the lake. Images, toys, and other articles in marble, crystal, &c., are sent from Odeypoor into the neighbouring provs. The rajahship, or principality, of which this city is the cap., called also Mewar or Chittore, holds a high rank among the Rajpoot states. It has N. Joudpore; E. the territories of Kotah, Sindia, &c.; S. many small principalities of Malwah, Gusrath, &c. and W. Sarowry. Area estimated at 11,784 sq. m.; and pop. at 800,000.

The surface is hilly and well watered, producing sugar, indigo, tobacco, rice, wheat, barley, &c. Fuel is abundant;

and there are mines of iron, copper, lead, and sulphur, the last mentioned product being, however, of inferior quality. The pop. consists principally of Rajpoots, Jauts, Brahmins, Bheels, and Meenas. The *rawa*, or chief, claims to be of the purest dynasty in India, and is held in great reverence by the Mohammedans, because of his supposed descent from the Persian sovereign, Nushirvan. In prosperity and power, however, this state is much inferior to those of Jeypoor and Joudpore; and for a lengthened period previously to its becoming subsidiary to the British, it had been wretchedly mismanaged. The treaty of 1818 secured to the British, as the price of their protection, 3-8ths of the public revenue.

Chittore, the ancient cap., is the only other town in this principality worth notice. It is on the summit of a scarped rock, 68 m. E.N.E. Odeypoor. Heber says "It is still what would be called in England a tolerably large market-town, with a good many pagodas, and a meanly built, but apparently busy bazaar." It was, however, formerly famous for its splendour and riches, and has many interesting Hindoo temples, palaces, and other buildings. It was several times taken by the Mohammedans, and by Akbar, after a siege, an account of which is given in the second volume of the *Miscell. Trans. from Oriental Languages*. See also Dow's *Hist. of Hindoestan*, ii. 356-357; *Heber's Journal*, 274-284.

ODIHAM, a market-town and par. of England, co. Southampton, hund. of its own name, 21 m. N.W. Winchester, and 40 m. W.S.W. London. Area of par., 7,550 acres. Pop., in 1841, 2,817. It is pleasantly sit. on the N. side of a chalk down, and comprises a principal and the well built street, met by two others of inferior size. The church, a large brick structure, has a square tower at its W. end; the living is a vicarage, in the gift of the chancellor of Salisbury Cathedral. It has, also, 2 places of worship for dissenters, with attached Sunday schools, a free school for 20 boys, and a large national school, and almshouse for 12 poor persons. Odiham has a considerable retail trade, and some of the inhab. are supported by spinning worsted and winding silk. It also derives some advantages from its situation on the Basingstoke Canal. Petty sessions are held here, and it is one of the polling-places at elections for the N. division of Hampshire. Markets on Friday; cattle fairs, March 23. and July 31.

About a mile from the town are the remains of an old castle, in which David I., king of Scotland, was imprisoned; and close to the town is a ruined gate, the only existing portion of a royal palace. Lilly, the celebrated grammarian and first master of St. Paul's School, London, was a native of Odiham.

ODENBURG (Hung. *Soprony*, an. *Sopronium*), a royal free town of Hungary, cap. co. of its own name; in a wide and fertile plain near the S.W. border of the Neusiedl-lake, 49 m. W. Raab, and 10 m. S.S.E. Vienna. Pop. in 1848, 12,500, principally of German extraction. It is generally well built: the town-proper, which is not extensive, is regularly laid out, and tolerably well paved; and the suburbs are in every respect much superior. The only relic of its ancient fortifications is a huge watch tower, which, according to the Austrian *Nat. Encycl.*, is the loftiest in Hungary. It has several Rom. Cath. churches, some of which are interesting specimens of Gothic architecture; a Calvinist church; Dominican and Ursuline convents; Rom. Cath. and Lutheran high schools, two hospitals, two large barracks with a good riding school, a military academy, theatre, &c. It is the residence of the superintendent of the Calvinist church for Hungary beyond the Danube. The inhab. refine sugar, weave cotton and woollen goods, manufacture potash, and saltpetre; and trade in wine (grown in the vicinity), corn, tobacco, wax, honey, and cattle, for which it is an extensive market. Numerous Roman antiquities have been discovered in its vicinity. (*Oesterr. Nat. Encycy.; Berghaus, &c.*)

OEHLAND, an island of the Baltic, belonging to Sweden, near its S.E. extremity, being separated from the prov. of Calmar, in which it is included, by the Straits of Calmar, a channel varying from 2 to about 20 m. in breadth. It is long and narrow, extending between lat. 56° 13' and 57° 22' N., and long. 16° 20' and 17° 10' E. Area estimated at 800 sq. m.; and the pop. at 31,000. (*Horschemann's Siem.*) The W. shore of the island is low, the E. hilly; in the centre is a plateau, elevated about 150 ft. above the sea, principally of a calcareous or sandy formation. It is principally appropriated to pasturage, only a small portion of the land round the coast being under cultivation. Fishing and navigation form the principal occupations of the inhab., who send their fish, butter, cattle, &c., to the mainland, receiving corn, manufactured goods, &c., in return. The forests are rather extensive; and the deer, roebuck, and wild boar, are pretty abundant. About 300 hands are said to be employed in an alum mine, the produce of which is supposed to be worth 50,000 dollars a year. Borgholm, on the W. side of the island, is its chief town and seat of commerce. A royal edict of 1820 conferred the freedom to pursue any trade or calling, without authority from

y guild or company, on all handicraftsmen settling in is town. (*Horschmann's Stein*, 1,589; *Dict. Glog.*) OELS, a town of Prussian Silesia, gov. Breslau, cap. c., and principally of Oels; on the river of the me name, a tributary of the Oder, 17 m. N.E. by E. reslau. Pop., in 1846, 6,010. It was formerly fortified, it is now merely enclosed by a lofty wall. It has a rege ducal castle, in which are some extensive collections in art and science, several churches and hospita's, theatre, and numerous public schools and charitable institutions. It has manufactures of woollen and linen ices. (*Von Zedlitz, Der Preuss. Staat*, &c.)

OESSEL, an island of the Baltic, belonging to Russia, d included in the gov. Livonia or Riga, extending ross the mouth of the Gulph of Riga, principally between lat. 56° and 56° 40' N., and long. 31° 40' and 23° Area, estimated at 1,150 sq. m. Pop., including the babs. of the adjacent islands of Moen and Runoe, about 000, all Estonians except some German landed pectors, and a few Swedes; the coasts are bold; the and is well watered, and its climate is milder than at of the neighbouring continent. The soil is mostly ay, calcareous, or loamy; but with manuring it beomes tolerably fertile, producing wheat, rye, barley, ts, peas, &c.: a considerable extent of the surface covered with forests. Rearing cattle and fishing are a principal occupations of the inhabs.; and the seal heries are of some importance. Manufactures quite nificant. People all Lutherans. Arensburg, on the E. centre of the commerce of Oesel. This island longed to the Teutonic knights, when their order possed Livonia; it afterwards belonged to Denmark and eden; but it was ceded to Russia with the rest of vonia in 1721. (*Schmitzer, La Russie; Dict. Glog. universelle*.)

OFFEN. See BUDA.

OFFENBACH, a town of Central Germany, being the nicipal manufacturing town of the Grand Duchy of asse Darmstadt, prov. Starkenberg, on the Mayn, m. E. by S. Frankfurt, and 17 m. N. by E. Darmstadt. Pop., in 1846, 9,684. It is well built, and has a tle, 4 churches, and a synagogue. Its manufactures sist of silk and cotton stockings; cotton fabrics; riages, and other vehicles; tobacco and snuff; lacered iron ware, sealing-wax, jewellery, toys, umellas and parasols, a few carpets, and other woollen fcs, &c. Next to Mayence (*Mezins*) it has the largest aeral trade of any town in the Grand Duchy. Some od wine is grown in its environs. (*Bergkuss, &c.*)

OHIO, one of the U. States, lying N. America, being at tinent by far the most important in the basin of the Mississippi. It is situated between lat. 38° 30' and 42° , and long. 80° 28' and 84° 42' W., and derives its me from the magnificent river Ohio, which forms the ole of its S.E. and S. boundary, separating it from rginia and Kentucky; on the E. it has Pennsylvania, Indiana, and N. Michigan and Lake Erie. Length i breadth, about 300 m. each. Area, estimated at 450 sq. m. Pop., in 1840, 1,519,457. Ohio comprises one third part of the country, sloping from the legislaives in Pennsylvania down to the Mississippi, has no very elevated hill ranges, but consists almost olly of a table land from 600 to 1,000 ft. above the sea; central portion of the state being the highest. This, o, which is its least fertile portion, is in parts interssed with swamps and marshes. The declivity tows Lake Erie is much more abrupt than the S. slope the state, and the country is here also in parts marshy; t portion of the surface which declines towards the io, and is the most extensive, is diversified with hills i valleys; and, over the whole, nine tenths of the e is susceptible of cultivation, nearly three fourths re pre-eminently fertile. The hills are generally ivable to their summits; and the river bottoms are berantly productive. In the S. and S.E., along the io, the country is broken with abrupt hills. Next the Ohio, the chief rivers are, its tributaries, the oto, Miami, and Mushingum, and the Maunee, Sandky, and Cuyahoga, tributaries to Lake Erie. The oto, traversing the centre of the state, is a fine navi-ble stream, which has been ascended by boats to near source, where it is separated by a portage of only a miles from the Sandusky. The Mushingum, rising in the headwaters of the Cuyahoga, is about 200 m. in gth, for 75 of which (from the Ohio to Zanesville) it is navigable by small steam vessels, and for 110 m. by teaux. The Miami is navigable for 75 m., and the unee for 18 m.; but most of the rivers flowing N. are atly interrupted by cataraets. In the tract between Scioto and Miami, and in some districts along the io, are rich and extensive prairies; but originally the ntry was almost covered with noble forests of large l valuable trees, and these still remain unenclosed in the and N.W. parts of the state. The geological forma-ns are nearly all secondary, comprising limestone, lias, terous, and feriferous rocks, sandstone, greywacke,

&c., in horizontal strata. The soil is generally very pro-ductive. In the sheltered valleys of the S. the climate is very mild; but in the central and N. parts, the cold of winter is considerably more severe than in the states on the Atlantic in the same latitude; but, upon the whole, it is very healthy.

In 1848, the value of the taxable property was es-timated at 421,067,391 dolls. of which 320,993,273 were real, and 96,073,718 personal prop. Ohio is rapidly becoming a thickly settled country of moderate-sized freshhold pro-perties: in respect of the magnitude of its farms, their general equality in point of site, and the dispersion of the pop. over the whole state, Ohio bears a close simi-larity to the states of New England. (*Flint's Geog.*, i. 391, 392.) Indian corn, wheat, rye, oats, barley, tobacco, orchard fruits, and kitchen vegetables, are the staple products. On the rich alluvial soils, more than 100 bushels of Indian corn are sometimes produced on an acre, though from 40 to 50 bushels may be considered an average crop. The soil is, in general, highly suitable for wheat; and a larger quantity of that grain is raised in this than in any other state of the Union, the produce in 1840 being estimated at above 2 millions of quarters: in con-sequence, it furnishes large quantities of flour for ex-portedation. Hemp is grown to some extent. Tobacco of the finest quality is raised E. of the Mushingum river; and the tobacco crop was, in 1837, estimated at 25,000 hhds., though it has been raised for exportation only within a few years. The vine and mulberry have been introduced; and fine silk will, perhaps, at no very distant pe-riod, be added to the products of Ohio. Hogs form one of the staple exports; Cincinnati (*see Vol. i. p. 610.*), being the principal pork-market of the union. The stock of pigs, in 1848, was estimated at 1,879,689. Large droves of fat cattle are sent every autumn to the markets of the E. and S. In 1848, the stock of sheep was estimated at 3,677,171, yielding about 6,000,000 lbs. of wool; being the largest stock of sheep in any state of the Union, New York and Pennsylvania excepted.

Iron ore is pretty extensively wrought in the E. part of the state, where, also, bituminous coal is found. Salt, lime, and marble are the other chief mineral products. Some of the salt springs on the Mushingum are said to be so rich, as to yield 1 lb. of salt per gallon of brine.

Ohio takes a decided lead among the W. states in ma-nufacturing industry. Cotton yarn, cotton and woollen stuffs, iron, glass, and cabinet wares, paper, hats, shoes, linseed and castor oils, whiskey, &c., are the principal products. It was estimated, in 1836, that about 2,500,000 lbs. of wool are annually wrought up in domestic man-ufactures. Cincinnati, Zanesville, Steubenville, and Chillicothe are the principal manufacturing towns. Ship and steam-boat building are important branches of industry. The sailing vessels are laden at spring flood, and sent down the rivers to the sea; both vessel and cargo being usually disposed of in the West Indies or some foreign port. A good deal of timber is sawn and cut in this state; and this, with flour, corn, hemp, flax, cattle, beef, pork, tobacco, smoked venison, hams, and spirits, are the principal exports. The N. and E. counties send a good deal of agricultural produce to Montreal; and since the construction of the Ohio and Pennsylvania Canals, several of the W. and S. cos. have an active trade with New York and Philadelphia; but by far the greater portion of the foreign trade of Ohio centres in New Orleans.

The great extent of her canals, and other internal communications, renders Ohio in this respect a rival to New York. The Ohio Canal, completed in 1832, is 307 m. in length, extending from Portsmouth on the Ohio to Cleveland on Lake Erie, directly connecting the basin of the Mississippi with that of the St. Lawrence, and having several navigable lateral feeders to Columbus, Lancaster, Zanesville, &c. The Miami Canal, 65 m. in length, from Cincinnati to Dayton, was completed in 1830; and a continuation of the same to meet the Erie and Wabash Canal (*see INDIANA*), is in progress. The Mahoning and Beaver, having a length of 77 m. within the state, and the Sandy and Beaver, are the other chief canals. The tolls paid on the Ohio and Miami Canals in 1848 amounted to 765,041 doll. The railway from Cincinnati to Sandusky on Lake Erie, about 220 m. in length, is the principal work of its kind; but there are other railways in the state, their entire length amounting to near 400 m.

Ohio is divided into 73 counties: Cincinnati is by far its most important town, but Columbus is its cap. and seat of gov., and the General Assembly meets there annually in Dec. The representatives, 72 in number, are elected once a year; and the 36 senators, being half as many as the representatives, every two years. The right of suffrage is vested in all white inhabs. of the U. States, above the age of 21, who have resided in the state one year next preceding the election, and who have paid a state or co. tax. The governor is chosen for two years, and has only 1,500 doll. a year of salary. There are courts of common pleas in each co.; and a supreme court, consisting of 4 judges, who, since 1844, have 1,000 dolls. a year each. The

judges are elected for 7 years by a joint ballot of both houses of the General Assembly.

In 1790, the pop. of this state was only about 3,000; whereas, in 1840, or half a century afterwards, it amounted to 1,519,467, and now (1850) it is probably 2,000,000—a rate of increase quite unexampled in any other part of the world, and unequalled except by some of the other states of this valley. This extraordinary increase has been principally brought about by the settlement of immigrants from the E. states, attracted thither by the superior fertility of the soil, but partly also by the influx of immigrants from Europe.

Slavery is altogether abolished. The prevailing religious sects are Presbyterians, Methodists, and Baptists. Education is extensively diffused. In the townships that reported in 1839, there were 7,205 schools, attended by 254,612 pupils of all sorts; and the non-reporting districts were nearly as extensive. Ohio University, at Athens, had, in 1848, 22 students; and Miami University, at Oxford, 66, besides which there are superior colleges at Cincinnati, Gambier, Hudson, New Athens, Granville, &c. In 1848, there were in the state 5,063 common schools, attended by 90,695 children; the sum apportioned by the state for school purposes in the same year being 201,796 dollars. The total public debt of Ohio in 1848, amounted to 19,173,223 dollars. (*Amer. Almanac*, &c.) This territory was first settled in 1788; in 1800, Indiana was separated from Ohio; and the latter was erected into a state in 1802. (*Darby's U. States*; *Finl*; *Encyc. of Geog.*, *Amer. ed.*; *Encyc. Americana*; *Amer. Almanac*; *Official Returns*.)

Ohio, a river of the United States. See MISSISSIPPI. OHLAU, a town of Prussian Silesia, gov. Breslau, cap. circ., on the Oder, 17 m. S. E. Breslau. Pop., in 1846, 4,900. It was formerly one of the strongest fortresses of Silesia, but its works were, in great part, demolished after its cession to Frederick the Great, in 1741. It has a royal palace, with a gallery of paintings, several Lutheran and Rom. Cath. churches, an hospital, orphan asylum, workhouse, manufactures of woollen cloth, &c. A good deal of tobacco is grown in its neighbourhood. (*Ann. Zeidits*; *Verglowa*.)

OISE, a dep. of France, reg. N. formerly comprised in the Ile-de-France; between lat. 49° 5' and 49° 45' N., and long. 1° 40' and 3° 10' E.; having N. the dep. Somme, E. Aisne, S. Seine-et-Marne and Seine-et-Oise, and W. Eure and Seine Inférieure. Length, E. to W., 63 m.; average breadth, about 35 m. Area, 582,569 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 406,028. Surface gently undulating. A range of hills traverses the dep., dividing the basin of the Somme from that of the Seine, but no summit rises to any considerable height. Principal rivers, the Oise, Ternois, and Eppe, all of which have a S. direction. The Oise, whence the name of the dep., rises in the Belgian prov. of Hainault, near the frontier of Ardennes; and after a generally S.W. course of about 190 m., through the depts. Du Nord, Aisne, Oise, and Seine-et-Oise, joins the Seine at Conflans St. Honorien, about 12 m. N.W. Paris. It is navigable from Channy in Aisne to its mouth, a distance of 75 m. Some pools and marshes exist in the E. and S.E. of the dep. In 1836, the arable lands of this dep. were estimated to comprise 389,486 hectares; meadows, 127 h.; vineyards, 3,601 h.; orchards, gardens, &c., 18,388 h.; forests, 90,579 h.; and heaths, waste, &c., 18,709 h. In 1838, of 214,140 properties subject to the contrib. foncière, 109,027 were assessed at less than 5 fr.; and 24,666 at from 5 to 10 fr. The number of large properties is, however, greater than in most depts. Soil principally calcareous, everywhere requiring manure: agriculture is considerably advanced, and is improving. Fallows are decreasing, and agricultural implements are made more effective. More corn is grown than is required for home consumption; it is principally oats and wheat. Peas, beans, &c., are raised in large quantities. The Paris market for Peas and apple orchards are numerous, and a great deal of cider of good quality is made. Some wine is grown, but of inferior quality. The rearing of cattle is an important branch of rural economy; and the fat calves, known in Paris as *veau de Pomorie*, are from this dep. In 1830, the stock of horned cattle, calves, &c., was estimated at about 96,500 head, and that of sheep at 338,000. The latter have been improved by crossing with the Merino, Southdown, and Leicester breeds, and yield annually about 800,000 kilogr. wool. (*Hugo*.) Butter and cheese, including the cheese of Songon, are valuable products. Hogs and poultry are numerous. Mineral products, excepting limestone, are few, and of little importance. Oise is distinguished for its manufacturing industry. Woollen fabrics, especially at Beauvais and Crevecoeur; table-linen, cotton, and hempen cloths, woollen and cotton yarn, cotton stockings, lace, metallic and glass wares, and fans, horn, wooden and ivory articles at Meru, &c., are among the principal goods manufactured. This dep. is divided into 4 arrondis: chief towns, Beauvais, the cap., with 13,366 inhabs., Clermont, Compiègne, and Senlis. Total public revenue

In 1844, 16,114,450 fr. (*Hugo*, art. Oise; *Dict. Geog.*; *French Official Tables*.)

OLBERA (an. *Ilipa*), a town of Spain, in Andalusia, prov. Seville, in a mountainous district, 48 m. S. E. Seville. Pop., acc. to Milfano, 6,000. It is, acc. to Captain Scott, "a wretched place, containing some of the rudest-looking and least scrupulous inhabitants of the Serrania de Ronda." A par. church, hospital, three decayed convents, and a Moorish castle, are its principal buildings; and the view from the last is very commanding over a great extent of mountains, intersected by well wooded valleys. A few oil-mills are established here; but the pop. is almost wholly occupied in rearing hogs for the Seville market. (*Milfano*; *Scott's Ronda and Grenada*, ii. 151.)

OLDENBURG (GRAND DUCHY OF), a state of N.W. Germany, consisting, exclusive of some portions of country inclosed by the Duchy of Holstein, of an oblong-shaped territory, between lat. 53° 30' and 53° 45' N., and long. 7° 35' and 8° 50' E.; having N. the North Sea, and surrounded on other sides by the Hanoverian dom., except on a small portion of its frontier, where it adjoins the territory of Bremen. Length, N. to S., 80 m.; breadth varying from 10 to nearly 50 m. It is divided into 3 provinces, as follows:—

	Area in sq. m.	Pop., 1846.	Chief towns.
Oldenburg	2,103	234,918	Oldenburg.
Lubeck	166	21,517	Edizen.
Birkenfeld	143	30,966	Birkenfeld.
Total	2,412	277,401	

The natural features, climate, &c., of this duchy are similar to those of the adjacent kingdom of Hanover. (*See* l. p. 960.) It is almost a perfect level, except towards the S., where are some hills, though none rises above 300 or 400 ft. The principal rivers are the Weser, on the N.E. boundary, its tributaries, the Hunte, Haase, Leda, Jahde, &c. There are many small lakes, the principal being the Drummersee, in the S. The coast is so low that dykes are necessary, as in Holland and Friesland, to prevent inundations of its rivers. Here, and on the banks of the rivers, the soil is alluvial and rich; but in most parts of the grand duchy it is either marshy or sandy; and the country does not produce sufficient corn for home consumption, the deficiency being mostly made up by potatoes and pulse. The industry of the inhab. is, however, principally rural; flax, hemp, hops, and rapeseed; together with cattle, horses, salt beef, butter, and bacon, are the chief exports. The horses and cattle are of superior breeds; large flocks of sheep are pastured on the heath lands, but their wool is of inferior quality. In this district, also, a good many bees are kept. Next to tillage and grazing, taking fish, with which the rivers abound, is a chief employment of the pop. Timber, fit for ship-building and carpenter's work, grows in the hilly district in the S. of the duchy, where the forests are estimated to cover an extent of nearly 170 sq. m.; but in other parts the fuel used consists almost wholly of turf, which is very abundant in the marshes. Iron is the only other mineral product of much utility. The spinning of linen yarn, and the domestic weaving of linen and woollen stuffs, are the chief branches of manufacturing industry; but these are pursued only as auxiliary occupations by the agricultural pop. Though the country produces oily seeds, animal fat, &c., in considerable quantities, neither candles, soap, nor oil are made to any extent, all being imported from foreign countries, to which the raw materials are sent. Neither is the trade of the grand duchy at all extensive; it has but a small seafaring pop., and its commerce is principally confined to a coasting traffic with the neighbouring countries of Denmark, Hanover, Holland, Lubeck, &c.

The government is an unlimited monarchy, except in respect to the distribution of the taxes, which is under the control of the states, composed of deputies of the nobles, citizens, and peasantry. For administrative purposes, the Grand Duchy (exclusive of Lubeck and Birkenfeld) is divided into 6 circles and 26 districts, each of which has its own judicial courts. The court of chancery, and other high courts of appeal, are in Oldenburg or Jever, except for the principality of Lubeck, which has its own superior courts in Edizen. Total public revenue estimated at 850,000 rix dollars a year. The pop. is principally Lutheran, but there are about 68,600 R. Catholics, and a few Calvinists and Jews.

Oldenburg holds the 10th place in the full diet of the Germ. Confed., in which it has 1 vote; and the 15th in the committee, in which it has a vote in conjunction with Anhalt and Schwartzburg. Its contingent to the army of the Confed. consists of 2,839 men. The House of Oldenburg is connected with the reigning families of Denmark and Russia. The duchy was erected into a sovereign state in 1773, but Birkenfeld was not united to it till 1812.

uro, a town of N.W. Germany, cap. of the Duchy, and residence of its sovereign, circle one, on the Hunte, a tributary of the Weser, N.W. Bremen. Lat. 53° 8' 24" N.; long. Pop., in 1846, 7,839. It is fortified, and divided into the Old and the New Town, the latter being built. The ducal castle is an imposing building. The chancery-chamber, and other for the use of the government, St. Lambert's in which the sovereigns of Oldenburg are in other places of worship, the observatory, barracks, are the principal public edifices, gymnasium a military school, and a 24,000 vols. its manufacturing industry is significant; but it has some trade in wool, c. (*Berghaus, Allg. Länder und Völkerk., iv.; Dict. Géog.*)

AM, a pari. bor., market-town, and township and, par. of Prestwich, hund. Salford, co., near the source of the Irt, and not far from it with the Medlock, 6½ m. N.E. Manchester, N.W. London. Area of pari. bor. (which with Oldham the townships of Chadderton, and Royton), 11,180 acres. Pop. in 1841, 6,000. Oldham township, 43,528. The town has been since 1760, a borough, and has several tenements; it now consists of many well-lets, extending on the side of a hill on the road to Leeds; and is well paved, lighted, and well supplied with water. The chief runs from E. to W., and is crossed by two others in an opposite direction. The principal town-hall, built in 1810, a small theatre, race buildings, comprising a public room, market, &c., and a large gas establishment. The town is subordinate to that of Prestwich, is a Gothic structure, completed in 1830, at a cost of there are also 3 chapels-of-ease within the livings of which are in the gift of the rector rich. There is a Roman Catholic chapel; other places of worship belong to different tions of dissenters, among whom Methodists revelling body: and attached to the churches are numerous Sunday-schools, which, inished religious instruction to 12,927 children ex. The town has a small endowed grammar-school (once the staple manufacture of Oldham) is r. Henshaw, hat-manufacturer. This school, owing to a long Chancery suit respecting the which amounted to 40,000, was not opened till the school-house is at Oldham-edge, and the rent supports, clothes, and educates 110 boys. Likewise 3 large national schools, and several an as well as infant-schools, wholly, or in part, by subscription. The other public institutions 3 benevolent societies, a bible and tract association library, lyceum (with schools, news-c.), and 3 mechanics' institutes. owes its present consequence entirely to the manufacture, of which it was early a considerable 1785 there were within the chapelry 6 cotton such and so rapid has been the increase of the ure in the interval, that in 1839 it had 300 fac- s in motion by a steam-power equal to 3,943 nd employing 15,291 hands. It had then, also, -loom weavers, chiefly of silks similar to those ured in Manchester. (*Factory Comm. Rep.*) ing (once the staple manufacture of Oldham) is r extensively carried on, employing, in 1839, ds; and about 1,400 are engaged in collieries, been opened during the last few years within elry. The beds vary from 3 to 5 ft. in thickness; is of excellent quality, and furnishes the chief for Manchester, Ashton, Rochdale, and other uring towns, with which it is connected by the and Rochdale canals, which latter also commu-ith the Ayr and Calder Navigation. The Man-nd Leeds Railway passes within 2 m. of Oldham, uch railway up to the town has been opened, the Oldham Banking Company, it has branches r two other banks, and a savings' bank. The township are regulated by commissioners, g to an act passed in 1826. Petty sessions are e a week; and there is a county court, before 300 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. The Reform urred on Oldham, for the first time, the import-lege of returning 2 mems. to the H. of C. The limits comprise with the township three out- as above mentioned. Registered electors, in 1,541. Markets on Saturday: fairs, May 2, July rst Wednesday after October 13. (*Butterworth's anc.; Baines's Hist. of Lancashire; Parl. Rep.*) ON (ISLE OF), an island off the W. coast of dep. Charente-Inférieure, opposite the mouth of rente, lat. 46° N., long. 0° 30' W., 7 m. S. the e, and 2 m. from the nearest point of the contin- estimated at about 100 sq. m. Pop., in 1836, II.

16,402. It is tolerably fertile, producing various kinds of corn, timber, red and white wines (a portion of which is converted into brandy), and considerable quantities of salt, from salt-pans along the coast. Château d'Oleron, the cap., on its S.E. side, is a fortified town, with a pop. of about 2,600.

OLIVA, a town of Spain, prov. Valencia, 39 m. S.S.E. Valencia and 218 m. S.E. Madrid, built amphitheatrically on the side of a hill, 1½ m. from the Mediterranean, in a well watered and productive district. Pop., acc. to Mifano, 5,567. Its chief public buildings are 2 churches, one of which has a collegiate establishment, an hospital, ancient palace, and 2 prisons. Its manufactures are confined to hemp and linen fabrics. In the neighbouring river Molinet are found fine eels and lacche, the latter of which are exported in considerable quantities to France. (*Mifano.*)

OLIVENZA, a town of Spain, prov. Estremadura, close to the frontiers of Portugal, and about 6 m. from the left bank of the Guadiana, 14 m. S. S.W. Badajoz, and 311 m. W.S.W. Madrid. Pop., acc. to Mifano, 10,447. It is surrounded with walls and strongly fortified: it has 7 par. churches, 7 convents (now applied to secular uses), 3 hospitals, and a poor-house. The surrounding country, though very imperfectly cultivated, produces abundant crops of wheat, barley, and other grain, with pulse, wine, &c.; and the town is much resorted to by traders from Alentejo, who come to exchange manufactured goods for farm produce. Olivenza was attached to Portugal till 1801, when it was ceded to Spain, to which it is still attached, notwithstanding the order for its restitution by the Congress of 1815. (*Mifano.*)

OLMÜTZ, a town of Moravia, of which it was formerly the cap. being one of the strongest fortresses of the Austrian dom., cap. circ. Olmütz, on the March, 40 m. N.E. Brinn. Pop., in 1845 (ex. garrison), 12,660. It is well built, but the loveliness of its buildings darkens the streets. The cathedral is fine Gothic edifice, in which its founder, Wenceslaus III. of Bohemia, is buried: some of the other churches also deserve notice. The archbishop's palace, deanery, town-hall, theatre, arsenal, barracks, a military hospital, an hospital for lying-in women and orphans, and a large conventual establishment comprise the other chief public buildings. Olmütz is the seat of a university, founded in 1581, and restored in 1827. In 1833 it had, in all, 682 students. It still possesses a library of about 50,000 printed vols., and many hundred MSS.; it has formerly a rich library of Slavonic literature, but this was carried away by the Swedes, and lost towards the end of last century. It has a gymnasium, an episcopal seminary, an academy of nobles, a military school, and numerous inferior schools, and is the residence of the high military authorities, and the seat of the superior judicial courts for the circle. It has some manufactures of woollen, linen, and cotton fabrics, earthenware, leather, and vinegar; and an active transit trade with the neighbouring Austrian provs., Prussia, Poland, &c., especially in cattle. Olmütz was taken by the Swedes in the 30 years' war; and was besieged unsuccessfully by Frederic the Great in 1758. Lafayette was confined here in 1794. (*Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.; Berghaus.*)

OLNEY, a market-town and par. of England, co. Buckingham, hund. Newport, on the W. side of the Ouse, crossed here by a bridge of 4 arches, 16 m. E.N.E. Buckingham, and 80 m. N.W. London. Area of par. 3,140 acres. Pop., in 1841, 2,437. The town consists of one long street, lined with stone houses. The church is a large Gothic structure, with a spire 185 ft. high, seen from a great distance: the living is a vicarage in the patronage of the Earl of Dartmouth. The Baptists and Independents have their respective places of worship, which, as well as the church, have well-attended Sunday schools. Almshouses for necessitous females are supported at the sole expense of a benevolent Quaker lady. Lace-making was long the chief employment of the inhabs; but it has been for many years declining. More recently silk-weaving and the manufacture of hosiery were attempted on a small scale, but they also have been abandoned. Olney derives its principal celebrity from its having been for a lengthened period the residence of the poet Cowper: the "substantial brick-built house" in which he resided still stands near the centre of the town, and the arbour in which he studied is in excellent preservation, and is an object of great attraction. The latter years of the poet's melancholy existence were not, however, passed here, but at East Dereham, in Norfolk. It is rather singular that though the vicarage of Olney be not worth 100*l.* a year, it has been held by some rather distinguished persons, including Moses Browne, Scott the Biblical Commentator, and Newton the friend of Cowper.

OLONETZ, a gov. of European Russia, between the 60th and 65th degs. of N. lat., and the 30th and 42d of E. long.; having N. and N.E. the gov. Archangel, S.E. and S. Vologda, Novgorod, and Petersburg, and W. Lake Ladoga and Finland. Area (including Lake Onega)

estimated at nearly 63,400 sq. m. Pop., in 1846, 263,100. The W. part of this gov. resembles Finland, in being alternately mountainous and marshy, or covered with lakes. Of the latter, Onega (which see) is by far the largest. Principal rivers, the Onega, by which the lake Latcha discharges itself into the White Sea, Vodka, Svir, Suna, &c. For 23 weeks in the year the sea temp. is below 32° Fah., and mercury sometimes freezes. Bleak winds are almost constant; but the country is tolerably healthy. Soil thin, stony, and not very fertile. Except in the district of Kargopol, into which some improvements have been introduced, agriculture is very backward. The produce of corn, in 1832, was estimated at 269,000 *chetverts*, a quantity insufficient for the wants of the pop. The peasantry are supported chiefly on turnips, carrots, and other vegetables, of which their bread partly consists, and on the produce of the chase, fisheries, &c. Hemp and flax are grown for exportation; but the principal source of wealth consists in the forests, which are of great extent, those belonging to the crown covering 8,966,795 *deciatines*. Pasture is not abundant, and few cattle are reared. Marble, granite, serpentine, alabaster, &c., are found; and there are mines of iron, copper, and even silver, though they are but little wrought. The poverty of the country obliges many of the inhabs. to emigrate annually into the adjacent gov. to take charge of cattle, herd millstones, &c.; a sad numerical cause of absence being estimated at about a third part of the entire pop. These circumstances are hostile to manufacturing industry; and, exclusive of the royal cannon foundry at Petrozavodsk, it has only a few tanneries and iron forges. It exports raw produce to Petersburg and Archangel; from which cities, corn, salt, spirits, and colonial and manufactured goods are imported. Olonetz is under the same military jurisdiction as Archangel. Its inhabs. are principally of the Greek church, and subordinate to the archbp. of Novgorod. Total public revenue estimated at only 288,110 rubles. (*Schmidt, La Russie; Ponsart; Russland, &c.*)

OLORON, or OLBON (an. *Iluro*), a town of France, dép. Basses-Pyrénées, cap. arrond., on the summit and declivity of a hill beside the Oleron, across which it communicates with the town of Ste. Marie by a lofty bridge, 13 m. S.W. Pau. Pop., in 1846, 5,456. It has a court of primary jurisdiction, a board of customs, and a chamber of manufactures; with manufactures of woollen cloths, yarn, hosiery, paper, and leather; and an active trade in French and Spanish wool, sheeps, skins, *laines de Bayonne*, and other salted meats, cattle, and timber. It is the general depôt for the timber of the Pyrenees destined for the dockyard of Bayonne.

OLOT, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, near the small river Fluvià, 53 m. N.N.E. Barcelona; lat. 43° 12' N.; long. 2° 45' E. Pop. acc. to Milfano, 13,845. It is tolerably well built on level ground, at the foot of a range of volcanic hills, and has several squares and streets adorned with fountains; its public buildings consist of two par. churches, cavalry barracks, and an hospital. It has considerable manufactures of cotton-cloths and woollen caps, with extensive tanneries and soap-factories, and some paper-mills. Well attended markets are held twice a week; and Olot is one of the most thriving towns of Catalonia. Its neighbourhood is peculiarly interesting to geologists, on account of the extinct volcanoes with which it abounds, scattered over a tract measuring about 15 m. from N. to S., and about 6 m. from E. to W. Mr. Lyell, who visited it in 1830, says, "There are about 14 distinct cones with craters in the vicinity of Olot; and the largest, called Santa Margarita, is 450 ft. deep, and about a mile in circumference. These volcanic rocks, also, have often a cavernous structure; and at the base of the same hill, adjoining the town, are the mouths of about 13 subterranean caverns, here called *bufadors*. In 1421 the whole of Olot, except a single house, was thrown down by an earthquake; but this calamity may, perhaps, be ascribed more to the cavernous nature of the subjacent rocks than to the extraordinary violence of the movements on that spot; for Catalonia is beyond the line of those European earthquakes which within the period of history destroyed towns throughout extensive areas." (*Milfano; Lyell's Geology*, iv. 38-45.)

OMER (ST.), a strongly fortified town of France, dép. Pas de Calais, cap. arrond., on the Aa, and at the union of several great roads, 40 m. N.W. Arras, and 29 m. E. by N. Boulogne. Lat. 50° 44' 46" N.; long. 3° 25' 18" E. Pop., in 1846, 18,334. It is partly built on a hill, but principally in the low and marshy plain at its foot. The circ. of its ramparts is about 2½ m.; beyond its moats and glacis are several strong and extensive outworks; and from the town towards the half surrounded by marshes, the greater part of its vicinity may be readily laid under water. Its streets are broad and regular, but being lined generally with mean-looking houses of yellow brick, it has a dull appearance. It is, however, well furnished with public fountains. The cathedral of Notre-Dame, an edifice completed towards the middle of the 15th century, is of Gothic architecture, and 373 ft. in length internally. In it

are several colossal statues, a fine painting by Reubens, the tomb of St. Omer, a superior organ, &c. The abbey of St. Bertin, in which the last of the Merovingian kings died, was destroyed during the phrenzy of the Revolution, and only some ruins of its church exist. The college, formerly the Jansénist church; the military hospital, occupying the building formerly a seminary for the English and Irish Rom. Catholic clergy; the town-hall, arsenal, and powder magazines, several hospitals and prisons, the theatre, and some convents, are the other principal public buildings. The ramparts are planted with elms, and form fine promenades; as do the banks of the canal of Neuf Fossé, which connects St. Omer with Aire, and the Aa with the Lys. It is the seat of a sub-prefecture; and has courts of primary jurisdiction and commerce; a chamber of manufactures, a communal college, and a public library of 16,000 vols. Its manufactures consist of common woollen cloths, woollen yarn, lace, basket-work, fishing-nets, soap, starch, glue, tobacco-pipes, &c.; it has also many distilleries, breweries, paper-mills, and tanneries, and an active trade in corn, wine, oils, flax, coal, &c. Beyond the walls are 2 suburbs, the inhabs. of which are principally gardeners. Near the town is a lake, on which are some curious floating islands, held together principally by the trees which grow on them, and affording pasturage for sheep and cattle.

This town was originally called Sikkhu; it took its present name from St. Omer, who founded its cathedral about 645. It was walled at the end of the 9th century; and was long an object of contention between the Burgundians and French, to whom it finally fell in 1677. (*Hugo, art. Pas de Calais; Dict. Géog.*)

ONATE, a town of Spain, in Biscay, prov. Guipuzcoa, 28 m. E.S.E. Bilbao, and 194 m. N.N.E. Madrid. Pop., acc. to Milfano, 12,000. It stands on the side of a hill in the valley of its own name, and is well built with regular streets, most of them terminating in large squares, which has a remarkably fine town-hall, a par. church, with a tower 190 ft. high, and a large building with a Doric portico, formerly used as a convent of Jesuits: in the centre of the square is an elaborately ornamented fountain. There are two other par. churches, and several deserted convents, a well supported hospital, and a college of handsome architecture, attended by between 180 and 200 students. Iron is extensively wrought in the neighbouring mountains, and within the town are iron-foundries, and soap-factories, &c. The late civil war, however, which chiefly raged in the Basque prov., gave a great shock to its industry, from which it is only slowly recovering. The surrounding district is extremely productive, and has numerous mineral springs and quarries of Jasper and limestone. (*See BISCAY.*)

ONEGA (LAKE), a considerable lake of Russia, being next to that of Ladoga, the largest in Europe, in the centre of the gov. of Olonetz, between lat. 60° 50' and 62° 50' N., and long. 34° 20' and 36° 20' E. Length, N.W. to S.E., 136 m.; breadth varying from 30 to 45 m. Area, very roughly estimated, at from 3,400 to 4,300 sq. m. It receives numerous rivers, and at its S.W. extremity discharges itself into the Lake Ladoga by the Svir. Its shores, which are generally rocky, present several deep bays and gulphs; and there are numerous islands near its N. extremity. Its navigation is impeded by sandbanks, but it is less subject to storms than Lake Ladoga. Principal towns on its banks, Petrozavodsk and Povienets. (*Schmidt, La Russie; Ponsart; &c.*)

ONTARIO (LAKE), the smallest and most easterly of the five great lakes of N. America, in the St. Lawrence basin, partly belonging to Canada, and partly to the State of New York (U. States); between lat. 43° 10' and 44° N., and the 76th and 80th degs. of W. long. It is of an elongated oval shape; length, W. to E., 173 m.; greatest breadth, about its centre, nearly 60 m. Area, estimated by Darby at 5,400 m. Its surface-level is about 334 ft. below that of Lake Erie, and 321 ft. above the tide-level in the St. Lawrence. Its depth is said by Darby to average 490 ft.; but in some places it is upwards of 600 ft. in depth (*Stevenson*); and it is navigable throughout its whole extent for vessels of the largest size. The St. Lawrence, (under the name of the Niagara river), enters it near its S.W., and leaves it at its N.E. extremity, where it is much encumbered with small islands. Lake Ontario has many good harbours; and as it never freezes, except at the sides, where the water is shallow, its navigation is not interrupted like that of Lake Erie. It is, however, subject to violent storms and heavy swells. Its banks are in general level, and mostly covered with wood, though now variegated with increasing cultivation. Toronto, Kingston, Newcastle, and Niagara are the principal towns on the British side (*see TORONTO, &c.*); and Oswego, Genesee, and Sackett's Harbour, on the American side. This lake receives numerous rivers, including the Trent and Humber on its N., and the Black River and Genesee on its E. and S. shores. It communicates by the last-named river, and by the Oswego Canal, with

OPORTO.

the Canal and consequently with the Hudson and
rk; the Niagara River and the Welland Canal, at
E. extremity, unites it with Lake Erie, and the
Canal connects it with the St. Lawrence below
lake. Numerous sailing vessels and steamers of
size navigate this lake, which is the centre of an
ive commerce; as to which see OSWEGO, TORONTO,
Darby's New York Gaz.; *Stevenson's Civil Engi-*
g of N. America, (49, 50).

PONTALEICA, or *Pontaleica*, a town of Spain, Valencian (an. *Pontaleica*), of the Júcar river, in the Ciscano tribe, of the Júcar valley, here by a handsome stone bridge, 35 m. N. by W. from, and 47 m. S.S.W. Valencia. Pop. acc. to c. 12,000. It is tolerably well built, with a fine square, and several wide though steep streets; its principal buildings being three par. churches, five convents, an hospital and college now partly in ruins. It is a place of considerable industry, chiefly in weaving linens and woollen fabrics; besides there are several fulling, corn, oil, and paper-mills. In the neighbourhood is an extensive *huerta*, or tract, which is very productive. A great fair is held here in November.

H. town of N.W. Hindostan, prov. Mooltan, dist. of Bawalpoor, in a fertile plain 4 m. E. the ban. *Acaciaes*, where it is joined by the Garra, ed Sutlej and Beas; lat. 29° 11' N., long. 70° 50' E., 20,000'. "It is formed of three distinct towns, sundry yards apart from each other, and each has compassed by a wall of brick, now in ruins. It is a place: the streets are narrow, and covered with a protection from the sun. It is highly celebrated in the surrounding countries for the tombs of two of Bokhara and Bagdad. These are handsome, and about 500 years old; but an inscription on the wall of one of them back of the other one has the same tomb, with a part of the town." (*Burnes's Trav.* t. 1, p. 173—82, &c.) Ouch is built on an elevation of clay, apparently composed of the debris of houses. It being a place of high antiquity.

BEIN (Hindoo *Ujjayini* or *Avanti*, the *Ozene* of Ptolemy and the Periplus), a city of Central India, prov. Madhya Pradesh, and the former cap. of Scindia's dom., on the N. bank of the Chambul, 84 m. N. by W. from Agra, and 1,698 ft. above the sea: lat. 23°11' N. long. 75°55' E.

and 1,750 ft. above the sea; lat. 35° 11' N.; long. E. It is of an oblong form about 6 m. in circumference, surrounded by a stone wall and towers. Within this is some waste ground, but the greater part of the city is thickly covered with buildings and very populous. The streets are broad, airy, paved and clean; the houses are of brick or mud, and tiled or terraced. It has a small mosque, a Scindia's palace, an extensive magnificent edifice, but without any claim to magnificence, an ancient Hindoo gate, and some Hindoo palaces the principal public edifices. In a temple to the east is an extraordinary sculptured image of the god. The pop. of Oojein includes a great many medhans, who are actively engaged in trade. The goods are principally fine white cloths, turbans, and shawls; European and Chinese produce from Surat; soda, &c. from Sind; cotton, coarse cloths, opium and drugs, are exported, and diamonds in transit undressed to Surat.

undisturbed to Stursk.
near Ojojein, which stood about 1 m. northward,
destroyed at an uncertain period by some physical
ophs. On digging to a depth of 16 or 18 ft., brick
substance pillars, and other antiquities have been
found in good preservation. Adjacent to the
subterraneous ruins is a hill which has been called
of Bhlirtery, a palace now in great part bur-
ied, an accumulation of the surrounding earth, but
in many portions remain entire, including a long
corridor, supported by pillars curiously embellished with
in relief. Elsewhere around Ojojein, there are
temples, &c. worthy of notice; and about 4 m.
an elegant summer palace, cooled by artificial cas-
cades in the 16th century, and but little injured
by time. (*Forbes, Hunter, &c. in Med. Trav., x. 220—
231. G.*)

TERHOUT, a town of Holland, prov. N. Brabant, Breda, cap. canton, 5 m. N.E. Breda. Pop. 300. It has numerous potteries and brick-kilns, the seat of three large annual fairs, at each of the sale of woollen and linen fabrics, shoes, &c., rated to amount to 40,000 florins.

[illegible]

have not been kept in good repair, owing to the city being naturally seceded against an attack by sea and one on the land side not being apprehended. The elevated position extends the whole length of the town: it has on one side, a row of houses, and on the other a strong stone wall, with rings, booms, &c. for securing vessels during the heavy swells of the river. It is generally well built, the houses are all white-washed, and though it has many narrow and dirty streets, it is said to be (which, however, is no great recommendation) the cleanest and most agreeable town in Portugal. From the quay rises a broad well-paved street, flagged on both sides, and leading to the principal squares. The principal squares; thus the streets on the slope of the hill are mostly narrow, contracted, steep, and dirty. At the E. end of the city the houses, which overhang the side of the river, are built on so steep an acclivity as to be accessible only by steps cut out of the rock. On the summit of the hills are several fine broad streets, lined with good houses, with gardens attached, occupied by some of the principal merchants. Oporto has several squares, the largest of which are the *Praga da Constituição* and the *Campos da Cordaria*, lined with three rows of trees, and much frequented for public amusements. There are also many churches, and a great many other churches and chapels. The cathedral, built in 1106, is a large and fine, though rather heavy edifice: the church, *dos Clerigos*, has the highest steeple in Portugal, except that of Mafra: the rest exhibit no features worth notice. There are also 17 convents, now luckily unoccupied, or applied to secular uses. The other public edifices comprise a modern-built episcopal palace, a town-hall (*senado da Comarca*), court-house, with attached prisons, royal hospital, *casapio*, or pawnbroking establishment, and a very merry theatre, with extensive warehouses belonging both to the Oporto Company and the British merchants. The English factory is a handsome building, in one of the principal streets, comprising reading-rooms, ball-rooms, &c., and a residence for the British consul. Oporto has several establishments for public instruction, the principal of which are the Academy of navigation and commerce, the school of medicine and surgery attached to the hospital *de la Misericórdia*, the episcopal seminary, school for foundlings, and 4 colleges, with numerous schools for primary and higher instruction. It has a large tobacco factory, a soap-boiling establishment, and a large silk-throwing manufactory. It has a linen, silk, linen, and wool: besides which there are ship-building yards for the construction and repair of merchant-vessels; but in none of these establishments is there any great display of activity. The harbour within the bar, across the mouth of the Douro, can only be entered, at least by vessels of considerable burden, at high water; and it is rarely practicable at any period of the tide for any vessel drawing more than 16 ft. On the N. side the entrance is the castle of St. João de Foz, near which, on high ground, is a lighthouse, with a fixed light. The ordinary rise of spring tides is from 6 to 8 ft. and the ordinary fall from 6 ft. It is very liable, from the action of the tides, and from sudden swellings and *freshes* in the river, to perpetual alterations, should never be attempted by any vessel without a pilot.

The swellings or *fresheas*, now alluded to, most commonly occur in spring, and are caused by heavy rains, and the melting of the snow on the mountains. The rise at such times amounts to 10 ft.; and the rapidity and strength of the current are so great that no dependence can be placed on anchors in the stream. Fortunately, a fresh never occurs without timely warning, and it is then the practice to moor with a cable made fast to stone-pillars erected on the quay for that purpose. On the opposite side of the river, but connected by a bridge of boats, are the towns of Gaya and Villanova, which may be considered as suburbs of Oporto. The former of these is said to occupy the site of the ancient Cala: more eastward is Villanova, inhabited chiefly by coopers, porters, and other labourers, employed by the merchants; and between these towns are immense vaults or warehouses for storing wine previously to its shipment.

the previous arrangement. The situation on the Douro, however, is highly favorable partly by barges and partly by boats about 100 m. inland. Oporto is the emporium of a large portion of Portugal, and enjoys a pretty extensive commerce. The famous and well-known red wine called Port is produced on the banks of the Douro, about 50 m. above Oporto, and has derived its name from its being exclusively shipped at this city. The exports of port, which is the great article of trade, have varied during the last 10 years from about 16,500 to above 40,000 pipes. England is by far the largest consumer of port. The high discriminating duties on French wine, imposed in the reign of William III., originally introduced port into the British markets, and gave it a preference, to which, though an excellent wine, it had no natural claim: this preference first generated and its long continuance has

since so confirmed, the taste for port among the great bulk of the population, that it bide fair to maintain its ascendancy as an after-dinner wine, notwithstanding the late equalisation of the duties. In 1849, for example, 2,648,242 galls. port were entered for consumption in the United Kingdom; whereas the entire entries of French wines during the same year, including champagne, claret, sauterne, &c., amounted to only 351,830 galls. At an average of the three years ending with 1849, the shipments of port wine from Oporto for England were 33,290 pipes a year. Next to England, Brazil, the U. States of America, and Hamburg, are the principal importers of port. The other articles of export from Oporto are oil, oranges, and other fruits; wool, refined sugar, cream of tartar, shumac, leather, cork, &c. The imports are sugar, coffee and other colonial products, principally from Brazil; corn, rice, beef, salt fish, and other articles of provision; cotton and woollen goods, hardware, tin plates, &c. from England; hemp, flax, and deals from the Baltic, &c. Subjoined is a

Statement of the Shipments of Port from Oporto during each of the Three Years ending with 1849, specifying the Quantity shipped for each Country.

	1847.	1848.	1849.	Annual Average of the 5 Years.
	<i>Pipes.</i>	<i>Pipes.</i>	<i>Pipes.</i>	<i>Pipes.</i>
Great Britain	23,354	21,991	24,525	23,290
Other parts of Europe	1,429	1,968	5,671	2,322
Brazil	5,500	6,861	5,583	5,314
United States and other parts	2,341	6,134	7,809	5,428
Total	30,624	36,854	41,588	36,254

The climate of Oporto is damp and foggy in winter, less from the vicinity of the Atlantic than from its position in the midst of woods and mountains. The cold is severe for the latitude, though it seldom freezes; and in summer, on the other hand, the heat would be intense, if not moderated by winds blowing regularly from the E. in the morning, and W. at night. The soil in the vicinity is not fertile, nor is Oporto supplied with provisions from its own immediate neighbourhood; but there are many beautiful and pleasant gardens, producing, according to their exposure or elevation, the fruits of N. or S. Europe. The neighbouring mountains exhibit many traces of metallic ores; and along the S. bank of the river are veins of copper and beds of coal. (*Dalrymple's Travels in Portugal*, 126-128.)

Oporto was occasionally the residence of the ancient emperors of Portugal, till Alphonso I., in 1174, wrested Lisbon from the Almogars, and made it the permanent cap. of his kingdom. The city received many important privileges from John II. at the close of the 15th century; but most of them were withdrawn, in consequence of an insurrection of its inhabitants in 1757. In 1806 it was taken and sacked by the French, who retained it till 1809, when the British crossed the Douro, and compelled them to retreat. It afterwards became, in 1821-32, the scene of an obstinate and long-protracted conflict between the late Don Pedro and his brother Miguel. The siege of Oporto lasted upwards of a year, during which a considerable portion of the town was battered down by Don Pedro's artillery, a great deal of property was wantonly destroyed by Miguel's troops, many of the wine-stores were blown up, and several of the wealthiest merchants were ruined by the annihilation of all trade. (*Dalrymple's Portugal*; *Baldi, Essai Stat. de Portugal*; *Dict. Géog.*; *Mod. Trav.*)

OPPELN (Slav. *Oppole*), a town of Prussian Silesia, cap. reg. and circ. Oppeln, on the Oder, 61 m. S.E. Breslau. Pop., in 1848, 7,000. It is walled, and has, as general, lofty and massive houses, with an old Gothic cathedral, several other R. Catholic and Protestant churches, various schools, a royal salt magazine, and several good hotels. It is the seat of government for the regency, of a board of taxation, a municipal tribunal, &c.; and has a gymnasium and a society for the promotion of the public good. (*Von Zedlitz*; *Bergkass.*)

OPPIDO, a town of the Neapolitan dom. prov. Calabria Ultra, cap. cant., on a hill close to Mount Aspromonte, and 14 m. N.E. Reggio. Pop. about 5,000. The old town of Oppido, supposed by Cluverius to occupy the site of the ancient *Maeritum*, was utterly ruined by the great earthquake of 1788. The modern town, which is also a bishop's see, was built in the vicinity of the former.

Oppido is the name of another Neapolitan town, prov. Basilicata, 13 m. N.E. Potenza. Pop. 5,000. (*Craven's Trav.*, &c. pp. 375-76.)

ORAN, a fortified sea-port town of Algiers, at the bottom of the gulph of the same name, on both sides a small river, 220 m. W. by S. Algiers, lat. 36° 44' 30" N.,

long. 10° 42' 13" W. Pop. inc. garrison, 7,000? It is built on the declivity and near the foot of a high hill which overlooks it from the N. and N.W. On this hill are castles which command the town on the one hand, and the *Mers-el-Keber*, or Great Port, on the other. The spring which supplies the rivulet rises a short distance from the city. The latter, which flows in a deep winding ravine crossed by two bridges, is sufficiently powerful to turn several mills, and no doubt occasioned the city being built here rather than at its port. Oran was long in the possession of the Spaniards, who held it from 1516 to 1708, and again from 1733 to 1751. During the period of their occupation they expended vast sums on the fortifications, and adorned it with several fine churches and other buildings. It was, however, a very costly appendage; for, as the dominion of the Spaniards did not extend beyond the walls of the town, everything required for the subsistence of the garrison, consisting generally of from 5,000 to 7,000 men, had to be brought from Spain. In 1750 it suffered very severely from an earthquake; and the Moors, taking advantage of this catastrophe, besieged the town, which was evacuated by the Spaniards in the course of the following year. At the period of its occupation by the French it was in a state of extreme decay; but it has since been greatly improved. The fortifications have been repaired and strengthened; several new streets have been opened; and the place has assumed a cheerful, European aspect. It is one of the healthiest situations in the regency.

The port of Oran, at *Mers-el-Keber*, about 5 m. N. from the town, is one of the best on this part of the coast. It is formed by a neck of land, which advances about a furlong into the bay, and secures it from the N. and N.E. winds. It has deep water, the holding ground is good, and it is capable of accommodating a large fleet. The French have constructed, with great labour, a new military road from Oran to the port; and they have, also, improved and strengthened the castle built for its protection. (*Shaw's Travels*, 4to. ed. p. M.; *Tableau des Etablissements Français dans l'Algérie*, p. 56. &c.)

ORANGE (an. *Arausio*), a town of France, dep. Vaucluse, cap. arrond. on the Myrsine, a tributary of the Rhodan, in a fine plain about 5 m. E. the latter river, and 12 m. N. Avignon. Pop. in 1846, 5,796. It has several par. churches, a Protestant church, a communal college, hospital, &c., and many good private houses and public fountains; but the widest thoroughfare being only 13 or 13 ft. across, scarcely any vehicles enter its streets; and the road from Lyons to Avignon, instead of passing through, goes round the town. It has manufactures of handkerchiefs, coloured linens called *toiles d'Orange*, serge and silk twist.

Orange is indebted for its celebrity to its Roman antiquities. The principal of these is a splendid triumphal arch, situated a short way out of the town. It has been conjectured that this structure was erected by Marius; but from its profusion of ornament it would seem to date from a much later period; and, according to Woods, is probably not prior to the age of Hadrian. (*Letters of an Architect*, l. 146.) In many of its details it presents more of the Grecian than the Roman style of architecture; but from the absence of any inscription, its date is wholly conjectural. It is about 6 ft. in length and breadth, and rather more in height. It has 3 arched passages, the central and largest of which is 38 ft. in height. The archways are flanked by fluted Corinthian columns, and the whole structure is completely covered with groups of figures and other sculptured ornaments. This monument was a good deal injured in the middle ages, from having been converted into a fortress; but it is, notwithstanding, in a state of tolerable preservation; and of late years it has been repaired, and surrounded by a palisade. Extensive remains of a theatre, and the traces of several other Roman buildings, also exist here.

Orange was long the cap. of a small principality of the same name that gave the title of Orange to the family which now occupies the thrones of Holland and Nassau. The king of Holland, however, retains merely the title of Prince of Orange; the town and principality having been ceded to Louis XIV. at the peace of Utrecht. The principality, 12 m. in length by 9 m. in breadth, is very productive of wine, oil, saffron, madder, fruits and aromatic plants; its inhabitants are distinguished by their industrious habits. (*Hugo; Guide du Voyageur; Proseur, Tableau de Nîmes*, &c.; *Arian, Arc d'Orange; Woods*, &c.)

OREBRO, or ÖREBRO, a town of Sweden, in the centre of the country, cap. län Örebro, at the W. extremity of the lake Hjelmar, 100 m. W. Stockholm, lat. 59° 17' 12", long. 16° 13' 30" E. Pop., in 1836, 4,135. "The houses are built chiefly of wood, not merely of logs clumsily put together, as is the case in Russia, but of logs covered with boards neatly finished, the workmanship of which would not disgrace the tools of any of our English carpenters. Their exterior planking is in-

variably painted a deep red colour, with white doors and window frames. The roofs are generally covered with turf; but there are several well-built brick houses stuccoed white." (*Barrow's Excursions in the N. of Europe*, 22.) Streets wide and clean, and some of them are paved with granite. In the principal church is a monument in honour of Engelhardt. From its central position, Orebro becomes sometimes the seat of the Swedish diet. The inhabitants manufacture woollen cloths, stockings, &c., and carry on an active trade with Stockholm, by the lake Hjelmar, the canal of Arboga, and the lake Malars. The town also is an entrepôt for the iron of the interior. (*Stein's Hand-book*; *Barrow*, &c.)

OREGON TERRITORY, a very extensive act of country stretching N. N. W. and S. S. E. along the W. coast of N. America, partly belonging to Great Britain, and partly and principally to the U. States. It includes the territory between the Rocky Mountains on the E. and the Pacific Ocean on the W., or between the 112th and the 122nd deg. of W. long., and between the 42nd of California, in the 42nd deg. of N. lat. to the S., and Russian America, in about the 48th deg. N. lat. on the N., comprising an area of above 500,000 sq. m. Attached to it are several large islands, of which Vancouver's and Queen Charlotte's are the principal; the former, about 260 m. in length, embraces an area of about 14,000 sq. m. This immense territory has a great variety of soil and climate; but, except in some favoured districts along the coast, and on the banks of the Columbia and other rivers, it is better fitted for hunting and grazing than for husbandry. It is traversed nearly through its whole length by two mountain chains, some points in which attain to great altitude, the Cascade and Blue Mountains, parallel to each other and to the Rocky Mountains. It is consequently divided into three regions, viz. 1st, the coast region, between the sea and the Cascade Mountains; 2nd, the middle region between the latter and the Blue Mountains; and 3d, the eastern region, extending from the Blue to the Rocky Mountains. These regions, the first, or that next the Pacific, including Vancouver's island, is the lowest, most fertile, and has the best climate. "The soil of this region varies from a deep black vegetable loam to a light brown loamy earth. The rocks are generally basalt, stone, and slate. The surface is generally undulating, well watered, and wooded, and well adapted for agriculture and pasturage. The timber consists of pine, fir, spruce, oaks (white and red), ash, arbutus, cedar, &c., &c., poplar, maple, willow, cherry, &c., &c. All kinds of grain, including wheat, rye, barley, oats, and pease, may be raised in abundance. Various fruits, such as pears, apples, &c., succeed admirably; and the different vegetables of England yield most abundant crops." (*Dunn's 30th*, p. 213.) The climate of that portion of the region S. of the 50th deg. of lat. is mild and agreeable, having a considerable similarity to that of England.

The winters are more characterised by rain than by cold. From the middle of October to the middle of March the rains are almost incessant, and are accompanied with tremendous thunder and lightning. The winds which prevail at this season are from the S. and S. E., and usually bring rain, while those from the N. and N. W. bring fair weather and a clear sky.

From the middle of March to the middle of October the weather is serene and delightful, only a few showers of rain fall; but in the morning the dews and fogs are frequently very thick. (*Penny Cyclopaedia*, art. *N. W. Territory*.) The middle and eastern regions, being elevated, have a severer climate. Even in the winter, the fall of snow is not so great

as might have been expected. During summer these regions are frequently subject to severe droughts, which, no doubt, contribute, along with their greater elevation and inferior soil, to their comparative sterility. The principal rivers are the Columbia (noticed under that name), with its affluents, the Willamette and Snake rivers; Fraser's river having its embouchure in the channel between the mainland and Vancouver's island, and the Umqua and Klamet rivers to the S. of the Columbia. The latter, which has its embouchure in 46° 18' N. lat., is navigable for vessels drawing 10 ft. water from its mouth 180 m. inland, when its navigation is interrupted by rapids. The rivers are well stocked with salmon and other fish; the bays are said to swarm with seals; and the country affords every facility for carrying on extensive fisheries. Mr. Dunn mentions that the pine tree sometimes attains, on the banks of the Umqua, the gigantic size of 250 ft. in height and 50 ft. in girth. He adds, the seed vessels are more than a foot in length, and the seeds are as large as castor beans. Cedar trees are found 26 ft. in girth, and high in proportion (p. 198.)

The buffalo was formerly found in large herds along the W. side of the Rocky Mountains, as far W. as Fort Hall; and sometimes descending the valley of the Columbia as far as the Falls. But within the last 20 or 30 years there has been a great and in some respects wanton destruction of this noble animal; and it is now seldom met with W. of the Rocky Mountains. The breed is, in fact, rapidly diminishing in all parts of N. America. And it is a curious coincidence that the main dependence of the Indians should begin to fail at the very time that the progress of civilisation is so rapidly hastening their annihilation. Among the other wild animals are the beaver, the sea and river otter, the musk-rat, fox, wolf, bear, &c.

The country has considerable commercial capabilities, from the number of its ports and inlets, its facilities for ship-building, and its convenient situation for the prosecution of the fisheries in the Pacific Ocean, and for carrying on a trade with China, which has the best markets for furs; of these large quantities are at present exported.

The earliest settlers belonged to the Hudson's Bay Company, the country being well supplied with fur-bearing animals; but now there is, in addition to the hunters, a very considerable and increasing agricultural population. The settlements are mostly in the district traversed by the Columbia in the lower part of its course. But there are no very recent accounts, on which it would be safe to rely, of the population.

Down to 1847 this country was in the joint occupation of the British and Americans; and their conflicting claims threatened at one time to interrupt the amicable relations between the two nations. In 1788, a factory was established by the British in Nootka Sound; but the Spaniards, who claimed the whole coast of America, up to King William's Sound, regarded this proceeding as an invasion of their rights, and sent out an armament to dispossess the British settlers. This outrage having been strongly resented by the British government and nation, Spain agreed to indemnify the parties injured, and a convention was signed, in 1790, at the Escorial between her and Great Britain, by which it was stipulated that the subjects of either power should "not be disturbed or molested, either in navigating or carrying on their fisheries in the Pacific Ocean or in the South Seas, or in landing on the coasts of those seas, in places not already occupied, for the pur-

pose of carrying on their commerce with the natives of the country, or of making settlements there." And it was farther stipulated (Art. 5), that "wherever the subjects of either of the two powers shall have made settlements since the month of April, 1789, or shall hereafter make any, the subjects of the other shall have free access, and shall carry on their trade without any disturbance or molestation."

In 1818, the Americans concluded a treaty with Spain, in which the latter ceded all her claims and pretensions to the territory on the W. coast of America N. of the 42d deg. of lat. Hence, whatever rights the Convention of the Escorial might give to Spain, it gave the same and no more to the U. States.

In 1818 it was stipulated in a convention between Great Britain and the U. States, "That any such country as may be claimed by either party on the N. W. coast of America, W. of the Rocky Mountains, shall, together with its harbours, bays, and creeks, and the navigation of all rivers within the same, be free and open for the term of ten years, from the date of this treaty, to the vessels, citizens, and subjects of the two powers: it being well understood that this agreement is not to be construed to the prejudice of any claim which either of the two high contracting parties may have to any part of the last-mentioned country, nor shall it be taken to affect the claims of any other power or state to any part of the said country." In 1827 this convention was indefinitely extended, with the proviso that it might be terminated by either party giving twelve months' notice to the other.

In the negotiations that were subsequently entered into, both parties agreed that the parallel of the 49th deg. N. lat. should be the boundary of their respective possessions from the Lake of the Woods W. to the point where the Columbia river is joined by the Flat Head or Clarke's river: but here they differed; the British contending that the Columbia should be the boundary from the point now referred to till its embouchure in the Pacific, and the Americans that the 49th parallel of lat. should be followed throughout, or to the W. coast of Vancouver's Island, which it bisects. Happily the differences were compromised and settled by treaty in 1847; the 49th parallel being made the boundary till it reaches the sea at the Strait of Fuca, leaving the whole of Vancouver's Island to the English, the right to the free navigation of the Columbia and Fraser rivers being, also, secured to them. The Americans are now, therefore, the undisputed possessors of the S., most extensive, and far most valuable portion of the territory, or that lying between California on the S. and the 49th parallel of lat. on the N., inc., of course, the comparatively fertile tracts on both sides of the Lower Columbia.

The extent of the American portion of Oregon has been estimated at about 340,000 sq. m. It has been formed into a territory, Oregon city, on the Willamette, being the seat of government. The governor has a salary of 3,000 dollars a year, and the judges 2,000 dollars each. The greater attractions presented by California will most likely hinder Oregon, for some considerable time to come, from obtaining her fair share of the emigrants to the W. coast of the continent.

The rapid growth of California is, however, in some respects, very favourable to Oregon. The vast influx of immigrants into the former, and the all but universal application of their energies to mining operations, have occasioned an extraordinary demand for corn and all sorts of provisions. Oregon has largely participated in the benefits arising from this demand; which has supplied her with a ready and advantageous outlet for the various products of her soil, fisheries, and forests. Both being integral portions of the American Confederation, articles from Oregon are admitted into California free of duty, which is not the case with those from other

parts of the continent. We need not, therefore, be surprised to learn that a very extensive trade has already grown up between San Francisco and the Columbia; and this trade, it may be fairly presumed, will continue to increase with the increasing pop. and wealth of California.

The difficulty of reaching Oregon has hitherto been a great drawback to its advancement; but this difficulty will every day diminish. The construction of a canal, or railway, or both, across the Isthmus of Panama will greatly facilitate the intercourse between the States on the Atlantic and those on the Pacific. Neither can there be a doubt that a communication between the two shores of the Union may be effected by roads carried through the passes of the Rocky Mountains. These have already been repeatedly traversed by parties of emigrants; and now that the vast importance of the W. States is beginning fully to manifest itself, we may be pretty well assured that everything will be done that enterprise and perseverance can accomplish, to facilitate the intercourse between them; and that in no very lengthened period railways will stretch across the continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific—from N. York and Philadelphia to Columbia river and San Francisco.

The part of Oregon belonging to Great Britain is inc. in the vast territories belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company. But with the exception of Vancouver's Island (for which, see SUPPLEMENT), it is of little value, except as hunting ground. (For farther information with respect to the Oregon territory, and the disputes to which it gave rise, the reader may consult *The History, &c. of the Oregon Territory*, by John Dumas, 8vo. 2d ed. 1846; *The Narrative of an Exploring Expedition to Oregon and California*, by J. C. Fremont, 8vo. Lond. 1846; *The Oregon Question examined*, by Travers Twiss, D. C. L., 8vo. 1846, an elaborate, learned, and excellent treatise; *Falconer's Tract on ditto*, &c.)

OREL, a central prov. of European Russia, to the S. of Kalouga and Tula. Area, 16,780 sq. m. Pop., 1,509,500. Surface undulating; soil, extremely rich and fertile. Principal rivers, Desna, an affluent of the Dniepr; Sosna, an affluent of the Don; and Oka, an affluent of the Wolga. Forests very extensive; occupying nearly a third part of the surface. Agriculture is the principal dependence of the inhabs.; and owing to the excellence of the soil, the return, notwithstanding the bad husbandry, is frequently 7, and sometimes 10 times the seed sown. Horticulture is better understood than in most parts of the empire. Most landowners have their kitchen-gardens and their orchards, in which they raise almost all the culinary vegetables common in Russia, with apples, cherries, pears, plums, &c. The chase, though a secondary occupation, is very generally followed, especially that of the fox and hare. Birds, especially quails, are very abundant. The breed of domestic quadrupeds is better and more attended to than in the more northerly provinces; the horses, which are very superior, are suitable either for draught or the saddle. The stock of large size; and sheep and hogs are both numerous. The inhabs. keep large quantities of bees, honey being generally used as a substitute for sugar. Manufactures, if we except distilleries, which are numerous and extensive, have made little progress, the country people supplying themselves directly with almost everything of which they make any use. There are, however, some establishments where coarse linen and woollen goods, earthenware, cordage, soap, &c., are produced; and there are some iron works. Agricultural produce, with timber, masts, iron, &c., constitute the principal articles of export. Articles of foreign produce and manufacture are brought from Moscow. Instruction very defective; there being in the entire government, in 1833, only 39 schools, and 4,266 scholars. The public revenue amounts to about 10,500,000 roubles, of which the spirit and beer duties yield 6,396,663 roubles! The inhabs. consist of Great Russians, Little Russians, and Cossacks, the great majority being of the Greek church. They are said to be for the most part industrious, frugal, and in easy circumstances; but they are at the same time ignorant, prejudiced, attached to old habits, and averse to changes and innovations. (*Schmidtler, La Russie*, &c., 346, &c.)

ORL, a city of European Russia, cap. of the above gov., on the Oka, where it receives the Orluk; lat. 52° 57' 58" N., long. 35° 57' 15" E. Pop., according to the official accounts, in 1846, 33,000; having been only 20,000 in 1820. This rapid increase is owing to its favourable situation for commerce, in the centre of a rich country, on a navigable river, communicating, partly by the aid of canals, with the Baltic on the one hand, and the Black Sea and the Caspian on the other. Orel may be reckoned the entrepôt of the commerce between Russia, Little Russia, and the Crimea: and at the same time the depot for corn, both of its own and the adjacent fertile governments. The principal articles of commerce are corn, hemp, tallow, butter, bristles, leather, wax, honey, cloth, horned cattle, &c., which its merchants chiefly buy in the southern provinces. Immense quanti-

les of most of these articles are shipped upon the Oka, early to be landed at Serpuchof for the consumption of Moscow, and partly to be forwarded to Petersburg. It is as an ecclesiastical seminary, attended by a great number of pupils; a gymnasium, &c. It has also establishments for the spinning of cotton, manufactures of cloth and coarse linen, with tanneries, distilleries, tallow-refining houses, rope-works, &c.; and is the seat of some important fairs. It is built of wood, and palisaded; and the inhabs. are distinguished for their industry and wealth. (*Schmidler, La Russie*, &c., p. 361; *gall: Travels*, i. 59., &c.)

ORENBURG, a very extensive government of the Russian empire, mostly in Europe, but partly in Asia, lying between the governments of Astrakhan on the W., of that of Tobolsk on the E., and having Persia on the S., and the country of the independent Kirghises on the N. Area estimated at about 126,000 sq. m. Pop. 1,771,000. (*Karpen*.) It is divided into two unequal portions by the Ural Mountains; and the river Ural has its source at termination in this government. It is also traversed by the Biela and other affluents of the Wolga, and is bounded on the E. by the Ennsa. Soil very various; in part mountainous, in part arid saline steppes, but the rger portion is decidedly fertile. Forests very extensive. Climate in extremes; being exceedingly hot in summer, and peculiarly cold in winter, particularly in the E. of the Ural Mountains. Notwithstanding the backwardness of agriculture, the produce of corn is estimated at about 4,000,000 chetwerts. The principal wealth of the inhabs. consists in their horses, cattle, and sheep; of all which, but especially the first two, they have vast numbers. They have also camels, hogs, &c. The river Ural teems with fish, which are taken in vast numbers, and are said to furnish the best caviar. Mines important and valuable, yielding some gold, with great quantities of iron and copper, in the working of which many individuals are employed. A manufactory of arms was established in the district of Troitsk, in this government, by workmen from Rhenish Prussia. The Ural mines of lietaik furnish annually about 500,000 poods, and a large supply is obtained from the salt-lakes. A considerable commerce is carried on with the Kirghises and other people to the S. of Orenbourg, which principally centres in the town of that name. In 1823 there lived at the latter 14 caravans, with 2,547 camels; and during the same year there were despatched 13 caravans, with 4,739 camels and 264 draught-horses. The value of its imports was 2,551,198 roubles, and of the exports 77,921 do. (*Schmidler, La Russie*, &c., p. 701.)

ORENBURG, the principal city of the above government, and the residence of the military governor, on the bank of the river Ural, lat. 51° 46' N., long. 66° 4' 45" E. Pop. 18,000 or 20,000. It is well built, and regularly fortified. Principal edifices, cathedral and custom-house. In 1836 a school was established here for the special use of the Mohammedans, and the study of their language. The seat of the commerce alluded to in the preceding article is on the southern side of the river, in a bazaar erected exclusively for that purpose, and protected by a camp of Cossacks.

ORFORD (formerly *Ore-ford*), a decayed bor., market-town, and par. of England, hund. Plomersgate, co. Folk., at the confluence of the Alde with the Ore; 16 E. by N. Ipswich, and 80 m. N.E. London. Area of 2,740 acres. Pop., in 1831, 1,202. It was formerly much greater importance than at present, having, 369, sent 3 ships and 62 men to Edward III., at the siege of Calais. Its decay is attributed to the loss of its trade, the sea having receded from this part of the coast; now, having lost its privilege of sending men, to the effect of C., sunk into insignificance; though its large ancient church, decayed town-hall, assembly-house, and old castle, attest its former consequence. Its inhabitants are chiefly supported by the oyster-fisheries in the neighbouring rivers. Orford claims to be a bor. of incorporation, but has received several royal charters. Corporate officers are a mayor, 8 portmen, and 12 aldermen; but it was considered too unimportant to be included in the provisions of the Mun. Reform Act. It sent 3 members to the H. of C. from the year of Richard III. down to the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised. Suburb of Hail, a seat of the gentry of Hertford, is about 1 m. N.E. from the town. Fairs on Monday: fair, June 24.

ORIA, (an. *Hyria*), a town of the Neapolitan dom., Otranto, cap. canton, 31 m. E. by N. Taranto. Pop. 5,000, principally of Greek origin. It is "a city antically situated upon three hills, in the centre of plains. The castle and cathedral stand boldly on highest points." (*Servigne*.) Oria is a bishopric, is very ancient. (*Cramer's Anc. Italy*, li. 310, &c.)

The official returns quoted by Schmidler make the pop. only 1,771; but this is no doubt an error, and most probably refers either to the town or families. According to the same return, the births in 1836 were 500, and the deaths 529, showing that the pop. cannot materially have what is stated above.

ORIHUELA, an episcopal city of Spain, prov. Valencia, on both sides the Segura, crossed here by two bridges, 14 m. E.N.E. Murcia, and 96 m. S.S.W. Valencia. Pop., according to Milano, 25,551. It is situated at the foot of a ridge of bare rocks, near the head of a very fruitful vale or vally, forming a continuation of the *huerta* of Murcia. The streets are broad, but not paved; and there is not a single fountain in the town. Its principal buildings are, a cathedral (with an attached chapter of 5 dignitaries and 17 canons), 5 par. churches, 2 of which are in the suburbs, and 5 dependent churches (*colegios*), 2 hospitals, a founding asylum, public granary, and cavalry barracks. The inhabs. are remarkable for their superstition, demoralisation, idleness, and poverty. The greater part are engaged in agriculture; and the town is a considerable mart for corn and oil. It produces linens and hats, and has numerous tanneries, corn and oil mills, soap-houses, and starch manufactories. A large fair is held in October. The neighbouring *huerta*, about 17 m. in length by 5 m. in breadth, can scarcely be exceeded in beauty and fertility. "Even the vale of Murcia yields in this respect to that of Orihuela, because the latter is so abundantly supplied with water as to be independent of rain. The cypress, silver elm, and pomegranate are here seen mingled with the mulberry, orange, and fig; and here, also, the palm, rising in rivulets, lends novelty as well as beauty to the enchanting scene." (*Legist*, li. 290.) The *huerta* yields also very plentiful crops of wheat, barley, and canary seed, hemp, flax, garden vegetables, &c., and is deservedly called the "garden of Spain."

Orihuela, the an. *Ortigia*, is supposed to have existed prior even to the Carthaginians, from whom it passed successively to the Romans, Goths, and Moors. In 1087 it was made the cap. of a small kingdom subordinate to the caliphate of Cordova. In 1228 it became annexed to the Moorish kingdom of Murcia, and finally, in 1265, fell by conquest into the hands of James I., the Christian king of Aragon. (*Legist*, li. 216—220; *Mod. Trav.*; *Mémoires*.)

ORINOCO, a large river of S. America, in Columbia, for a knowledge of which we are chiefly indebted to Humboldt, who explored the greater part of its course in 1800—1802. Its sources have not been traced, but are supposed to lie in about lat. 3° 30' N., long. 64° W.; it has a circular course running first W., then N., and latterly E., to its embouchure in the Atlantic, opposite to and S. of Trinidad; its length, including windings, is estimated at 1,360 m., being nearly equal to that of the Danube. In lat. 8° 10' the river runs over a ledge of rocks, forming a cataract called the Raudal de Guaharibos, about 50 m. above the station of Esmeralda, the highest point attained by Humboldt. About 15 m. below this station it is joined on the S., or left bank, by the Casiquiare river ("two or three times broader than the Seine near the Jardin des Plantes"), which unites with the Rio Negro, an affluent of the Amazon, and thus connects the Orinoco and the latter by a navigable water communication. Its course from this point is W.N.W. to the junction of the Guaviare, after which it becomes a broad and deep river, flows N. by E. over a rocky bed, in which are the two large cataracts called the *Raudales*, or rapids, of Maypures and Atures, joining together an archipelago of islands, which fill the bed of the river for several m., and in some places do not leave a free passage of 20 or 30 ft. for its navigation, though its breadth at this point exceeds 8,000 ft. (*Humboldt's Pers. Narr.*, v. 128.) About 50 m. below these falls the Orinoco receives from the W. bank the waters of one of its principal affluents, the Meta; and about 70 and 120 m. lower still, the large rivers Arauca and Apure. At the junction of the Apure, where the rocky country terminates, the main stream defects eastwards, and runs E. by N. past Angostura, to the delta at its mouth, the only considerable affluents in this part of its course being the Caura and Carony, joining it from the S. The delta has its apex about 130 m. from the sea: the S., or principal channel, called *Bocca de Navios*, runs eastward into the Atlantic, and is divided for a distance of about 46 m. into two channels, by the island of Imataca, the E. end of which is about 35 m. from Point Barima, the mouth of the river, in lat. 6° 45' N., long. 69° W. The N., or smaller channel, divides itself into a number of branches, called *Boccas chicas*, or small mouths: most of them are sufficiently deep for vessels of considerable burden; but they cannot be navigated without the aid of the neighbouring Indians, who alone are acquainted with the deep and safe channels formed in the alluvial soil near the mouth of the river. The greatest distance between the mouths of the Orinoco is estimated by Humboldt at 47 nautical leagues, or 140 m.: two of the northern mouths fall into the Gulf of Paria.

The affluents of the Orinoco are very numerous, many of them contributing an immense volume of water to the principal river. Those on the W. and N. banks, however, are the only rivers available for navigation, except in the lower part of its course, where it receives

In a single season from the port of Stromness are plentiful, and large quantities of eggs are exported from Orkney. The fisheries, however, in Orkney, as Shetland, are the grand object of pursuit. They are periodically visited by vast shoals of herrings; the surrounding bays and seas are uniformly well-stocked with cod and other species of white fish. *Dr. J. J. Smith*, *an. obs. part. summa piscium maris objecta*. (Book, lib. 1. p. 50.) Brassy in Shetland has always been one of the principal fisheries of the Dutch herring fishery; but the fishery is now principally carried on by the islanders. The year ended the 5th of April, 1840, 18,296 barrells, and 9,988 cwt. cod, were cured in Orkney; 85 barrells herring, and 40,591 cwt. cod, in Shetland; 100,000 lobsters are supposed to be annually from the Orkneys for London. Vessels from ports bound for the N. whale fishery mostly to Orkney or Shetland; and, besides taking on supplies of provisions, usually complete their crews men belonging to the islands, whom they put on their way back. Rye straw grown in Orkney is found peculiarly well fitted to serve as a substitute for the straw used in Italian plait; and the ture of this straw into plait has been carried on for years to a considerable extent, and with good success. Kelp, though comparatively un- known, continues to be extensively produced. Wool- lings and gloves, sometimes of extraordinary quality are exported from Shetland. Messrs. Ander- son's valuable work on the Highlands, gives the account of the

received in Orkney, in 1833, for Farm Produce, Manufactures, Fish, &c. exported.

	L.	s.	d.
12 bags, 5,178 bolts, at 15s. per bolt of 6	3,883	10	0
els, or 20s. per quarter			
conts. 1,215 bolts, at 15s. do. of do., or	909	0	0
per quarter			
(0,695 lambs, sent to Leith, 3s. 6d. per	1,604	8	0
154 do., at 3s.	35	2	0
al, 40 bolts, at 14s. per bolt of 140 lbs.	28	0	0
trial			
covers, and coats, 954, 1 quarter horse,	4,290	0	0
; 3 quarter cows, at 5l.			
4 entered at Custom-house, about 346,	1,104	0	0
sent to Leith, 50 tons, 100. per cwt.,			
100 dm. at 6d.	2,500	0	0
and swine, 40 of each at 1l.	80	0	0
about 2,000l.; hides, about 700l.	2,700	0	0
skins, more than 2,000 do., at 5s. 6d.			
on,	670	0	0
rs, about	250	0	0
supposed scarcely to exceed 500 tons, at	2,250	0	0
2s.			
manufacture, including rent, outting,			
ing, &c.	4,800	0	0
gs, 34,000 barrells, at 10s. per barrell	17,000	0	0
shed by about 40 sloops of 30 tons, 14			
each, at 12s. per ton	7,280	0	0
rs, caught by 152 men, in 216 boats	1,900	0	0
fishing, about 15 ships, taking 80 men			
500 men, at 45s.	7,500	0	0
's Bay Company pay annually for the			
of men employed in Hudson's Bay,	1,000	0	0
Total	80,114	0	0

is no similar account for Shetland; but the eived by its inhabitants do not differ materially as received by their neighbours in Orkney. pping of the islands is considerable. In 1836 longed to the Orkneys 77 ships, carrying 4,318 323 men; and there belonged at the same time and 101 ships, carrying 3,987 tons and 744 men; of a great number of boats engaged in the

ople of these remote islands being of Scandina- not Celtic origin, neither the Gaelic dress nor has ever prevailed amongst them. All of them k English; but, of old, Norse was the prevalent . The cottages of the poorer ranks are in gene- rable hovels, affording accommodation in winter and fowls, as well as to the family. Owing to ty or exhaustion of moss, the want of fuel is in unda very severely felt. On the whole, how- inhabitants are decidedly better off than those ter Hebrides, being comparatively industrious, and well fed. Kirkwall in Orkney, and Ler- shetland—the only towns of consequence in the had, in 1841, the former a population of 2,046; latter 2,787. The society is both is good, and is hospitable.

id and some parts of Orkney suffer much from ion of tithes. They are not only charged upon ice of the land, but on that of the fisheries; and nerally farmed, they are rigidly collected, and e of much irritation, and are a formidable ob- improvement. Seeing the good effects that

have resulted everywhere else in Scotland from the abo- lition of tithes, it is singular that they have not been commuted here. The feu duties, payable to the crown, or rather to its donatory, Lord Zetland, have also con- tributed materially to check improvement. Marl, though neglected, is common in Orkney. Lead ore also has been met with, and limestone is of frequent occur- rence. These islands are divided into 40 par. The gross rental of Orkney amounted, in 1810, to 8,496l.; and that of Shetland to 6,741l.

The Orkneys are divided into 18, and the Shetlands into 22 parishes. They send 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors in 1849-50, Orkney, 438; Shetland, 189; making together a constituency of 627. Inhabited houses in both islands, in 1841, 11,569. Pop. 61,065. Annual value of real property, in 1815, 20,930l. (For farther information, see Wallace's Description of the Orkney Islands, 8vo, 1790; Barry's Hist. of Orkney; and Sheriff's Agricultural Survey of Orkney; Edmon- ston's View of Zetland, 2 vols. 8vo; Hubber's Descrip- tion of the Shetland Isles; and Sheriff's Agricultural Survey of Shetland, &c.)

ORLEANS (an. Genabum, and afterwards Aure- liani), a city of France, in the centre of the kingdom, cap. dép. Loiret, on the Loire, 34 m. N.E. Blois, and 68 m. S.S.W. Paris. Lat. 47° 34' 12" N.; long. 2° 49' 49" E. Pop., in 1846, 41,941. "Orleans is a large, but not a beautiful city; and its environs, though rich and highly cultivated, are less agreeable than the country round Tours or Blois. The city itself has few good streets; but there is one spacious and elegant avenue, terminating in a noble bridge. The great square is also magnificent." (Ingli's Tour, p. 365.) The bridge across the Loire, the foundations of which were laid in 1781, is 354 yards in length, and has 9 arches, the central one being 104 ft. in width. On either side the river are spacious quays; and from the bridge, the Rue Royale, one of the handsomest streets in France, leads in a direct line to the Place du Martroy. In this square is the monument erected to Joan of Arc; consisting of a bronze statue of that heroine, 8 ft. in height, on a marble pedestal, upon the sides of which are 4 bas-reliefs in bronze, representing the principal actions of her life. A few remains of the ancient fortifications of Orleans exist, but their place is now principally occupied with plantations and public walks, one of which is a fine promenade called the Mail. In the old parts of the city the houses are chiefly of timber, and the public thoroughfares narrow, dirty, and wretchedly paved; but several new and tolerable streets have been opened of late years, and various improvements are in progress. (Hugo.) The cathedral, one of the finest Gothic edifices in France, is in a great measure hidden by the sur- rounding houses. It was begun in the 12th century; partly destroyed by the Huguenots, but rebuilt by Henry IV. It has a fine western portal, flanked with two towers, built by Louis XV. in the most gorgeous style. At the intersection of the nave and transepts is an elegant spire: the side entrances, the lofty vaults, the high altar, and the carving of some parts of the interior also possess great beauty. Some of the other churches and chapels are handsome; but, though still numerous, several of them have been converted into warehouses. The old town-hall, an edifice of the 15th century, is now appropriated to the museum: in its court-yard is an old tower, serving to support a telegraph. The Palace of Justice, a handsome edifice erected in 1831, the theatre, abattoir, prison, large infantry barracks, corn-hall, in- tendency, and general hospital, are the other principal public edifices. There are several private buildings, curious for their Gothic architecture and decorations; the most remarkable of these are the houses of Agnes Sorel, and Francis I. The city is surrounded by exten- sive suburbs, and its vicinity is sprinkled with numerous villas.

Orleans is the seat of a bishopric, of a royal court for the dép. Loir-et-Cher, Indre-et-Loire, and Loiret; of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a court of assise, the forest-direction for the basin of the Loire, a conseil de prud'hommes, and a chamber of commerce. It has a royal college; an académie universitaire (for the 3 dep. specified above); a society for the promotion of science, belles-lettres, and art; a public library of 25,000 vols.; museums, with an extensive collection of paintings of the French school; cabinets of natural history, &c.; a botanic garden; courses of medicine, &c. at the general hospital; of drawing, architecture, botany, &c.; maternity and Bible societies; schools of mutual instruction, &c.; and a departmental assurance company. Its former university, founded in 1512, had, amongst its illustrious students, De Thou, Erasmus, Calvin, and Theodore Beza.

Orleans is well situated for commerce, but its trade is less flourishing than before the Revolution. It has declined, while Havre and Paris have risen as commercial towns. Its manufactures comprise fine woollen cloths, flannels, woollen yarn, hosiery, cotton yarn, refined sugar,

vinegar, and wax candles; and besides its trade in these, Orleans deals extensively in corn, wines, timber, wool, cheese, and colonial produce. It has a large general fair in June, which lasts 15 days, and one in Nov., lasting 8 days.

D'Anville has shown conclusively that Orleans occupies the site of the an. *Gembabais*, the emporium of the Cornutes, taken and burned by Cæsar. (*Notice de l'ancienne Gaule*, p. 345.) It subsequently rose to great eminence, and was unsuccessfully besieged by Attila and Odoacer. It became the cap. of the first kingdom of Burgundy, under the first race of French kings. Since the time of Philip of Valois, in the 14th century, it has usually given the title of duke to a member of the royal family. It was besieged by the English in 1428-29, who were ultimately obliged, through the efforts of Joan of Arc, to raise the siege and retire. In 1563 it was besieged by the Catholics; and during the progress of this siege the Duke of Guise was assassinated. (*Hugo, art. Lorraine; Dict. Géog.* &c.)

ORMSKIRK, a market-town and par. of England, hund. W. Derby, co. Lancaster, 114 m. N.N.E. Liverpool, and 180 m. N.W. London. Area of par., which comprises 6 townships, 29,000 acres. Pop. of Ormskirk township, in 1841, 4,891. The town is well-built, paved, and lighted with gas, consisting of 4 principal streets, meeting each other at right angles in a large market-place, in which is the town-hall, built in 1773. The church is a large edifice (rebuilt in 1795), with a tower and steeple, detached from each other, and standing side by side; the living is a vicarage, in the gift of Earl Derby, lord of the manor. The out-townships have 8 district churches. The Wesleyan Methodists, Independents, and Unitarians have their respective places of worship; and at Scarisbrick is a Rom. Cath. chapel. Attached to the churches and chapels are 7 Sunday-schools, 3 of which are also national day-schools. A grammar-school, endowed in 1614, is supported by an income of about 1404; and there are 3 infant-schools. The other charitable institutions consist of Lathom's almshouses and apprentice-fund, 3 benevolent societies, a savings' bank, and a dispensary, opened in 1797. The principal business of the inhab. is in weaving light cottons and silks, silk-winding, hat and rope-making; in 1839, one cotton-mill employed 56 hands. Within the parish, also, are considerable coal-mines, the produce of which is sent to Liverpool and other places by the Drylin Navigation, and by the Leeds and Liverpool Canal, which passes within 3 m. of the town. The local government of Ormskirk is in the hands of a magist. and a petty session; and courts-leet are held by the lord of the manor (Earl Derby) once a year. Petty sessions, also, are held here; and it is one of the polling-places at elections for the S. division of Lancashire. Markets on Thursday: large cattle-fairs, Whit-Monday and Tuesday, and 10th Sept.

About 3 m. E. Ormskirk is Lathom House, once the seat of the Stanleys, Earls of Derby, and celebrated for the siege which it sustained under the Countess of Derby in the civil wars of the 17th century; it is now the property of Lord Skipton. A battle was fought near the town in 1644, between the royalists and parliamentarians, when the former were defeated with great loss. (*Parl. Papers; Butterworth's Stat. of Lancashire.*)

ORMUZ (an. *Ozgris*), an island situated at the mouth of the Gulph of Persia, in lat. 27° 12' N., long. 56° 25' E., about 13 m. in circ. It resembles, when viewed from the sea, a mass of rocks and shells violently thrown up from the bottom to the surface of the ocean. The fort, which is in tolerable repair, is built on a narrow projecting neck of land; and this, with a wretched suburb, has a pop. of not more than 500 persons. The remains of aqueducts, walls, &c. on a plain near the suburb, mark the seat of the former capital. The harbour is sheltered on three sides by land, and has good anchorage ground. A range of hills intersects the island from E. to W.; and the rocks consist almost entirely of fine crystallised salt, which might be exported in unlimited quantities. The geological formation of the island indicates the former existence of volcanic action, and sulphur, iron, and copper, are found in large quantities, though few attempts have yet been made to apply these mineral riches to any useful purpose. (*Rivasse's Persia*, p. 12, 13.)

This island, at present so inconsiderable, would not have been worth notice but for its former celebrity and importance. It had, however, owing to its advantageous situation, become, previously to the appearance of the Portuguese in the East, a great emporium, being, in fact, the centre of the trade of the Persian Gulph, and of the contiguous countries, and possessed great wealth, population, and prosperity. It was taken by Albuquerque, the Portuguese viceroy, in 1515; and was held by the Portuguese till 1622, when it was wrested from them by Shah Abbas, aided by an English fleet. The booty acquired by the capture on this occasion is said to have amounted to 3 millions sterling! Subsequently the trade of the island was diverted to Gombroon and other places; and this once rich and flourishing emporium gradually

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fell into that state of irreparable decay in which we now find it. (*Modern Universal History*, ix. 301., &c., 6vo. ed.)

ORNE, a dep. of France, reg. N.W., formerly included in the prov. of Normandy and Perche, between lat. 48° 12' and 48° 48' N., and long. 1° E. and 10° W. having N. the depts. Calvados and Eure, E. the latter and Eure-et-Loir, S. Sarthe and Mayenne, and W. Manche. Length, E. to W., 80 m.; breadth very variable. Area, 610,561 hectares. Pop. in 1846, 442,107. A chain of hills runs E. to W. through this dep., separating the basins of the Orne and Seine from that of the Loire; but its summits do not reach a height of more than from 1,900 to 2,000 ft.: the hills are mostly covered with thick woods. The dep. is abundantly watered. Principal rivers, the Orne, Dive, Via, &c., running N., and the Sarthe, Mayenne, and Huisne, S. The Orne, whence the name of the dep., has its source near Sier, and flows generally N. through the depts. Orne and Calvados to the English Channel; which it enters, after an entire course of about 90 m., 15 m. below Caen, from which city it is navigable. Small lakes are supposed to occupy 1,800 hectares; and there are numerous marshes. The soil is very various; and in several places there are distinct traces of volcanic action. In 1854, 253,400 hectares were estimated to be arable, 131,045 in meadows, 11,121 in orchards, 72,000 in woods, and 18,353 in heaths, wastes, &c. In 1825, 77,147,135 properties, subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 63,854 were assessed at 5 fr. and under, and 35,128 at from 5 to 10 fr. Agriculture is extremely backward. On the small farms, which are extremely numerous, spade husbandry is very general. Except oats, not enough of corn is produced for home consumption, and the deficiency is, in part, made up by potatoes and buckwheat. Hemp and flax are among the principal products; in some cantons beet-root for sugar is grown. Large quantities of cider and perry are made from a portion of which brandy is distilled. The best horses of Normandy are reared in this dep. Cattle, hogs, and poultry are fattened for the Paris markets, and honey is an important product. The sheep, which are of an inferior breed, are supposed to yield 450,000 kilog. wool a year. Iron mines are wrought in some parts; manganese, building and other stone, and porcelain clay, being the other principal mineral products. Metallic and linen goods are those chiefly manufactured. L'Aigle is celebrated throughout France for its needles and pins, copper, and brass wire. The coarse linen cloths made at Mortagne amount annually to about 12,000 pieces, of from 80 to 100 ells each; and Alençon is particularly famous for a fine and highly prized species of lace, termed *pointe d'Alençon*. Muslins, calicoes, hair cloths, paper, glass, and beet-root sugar are among the other manufactures. Orne is divided into 4 arrondis; chief towns, Alençon, the cap., with 12,756 inhabs., Argentan, Domfront, and Mortagne. Total public revenue in 1844, 12,188,694 fr. (*Engl. art. Orne; Dict. Géog.; Official Tables.*)

ORONTES, (Arab. *El-Azay*, the rebellious,) a river of Asiatic Turkey, in Syria, which rises in the tural rocky basin on the E. side of the mountain chain of Antilibanus, near the village of El-Ras, within the pach. of Damascus, about 50 m. N. of that city. It runs N.N.E. as far as the lake Kades, through which it flows, and then takes a N.N.W. direction through the beautiful vale of El-Ghab, as far as lat. 36° 15', where it receives the waters of lake Antakiah, near the city of that name (the ancient *Antioch*), and then suddenly defects westward, falling into the Mediterranean, near Soreidia, or *Selwada*, after a course of about 240 m. As its mouth is a bar, over which there is from 3½ to 9 ft. water during winter. (*Géog. Journ.* vii. 380.) "The Orontes in the winter season inundates a part of the low grounds, through which it flows in the upper part of its course, thus insulating the villages and cutting off all communication between them, except by boats. In summer the inundation subsides; but the lakes remain half dried up, and give birth to swarms of gnats and flies, which, coupled with the exhalations from the marshes, oblige the inhabitants to retire into the mountains with their cattle, goods, and chattels." (*Robinson's Pers. and Syria*, ii. 347.) This river is not navigable, and the rapidity of the stream in many parts of its course, its sudden and numerous windings, its frequent shallows, its various bridges, and the many changes to which it is subjected in the vicissitudes of the seasons, appear to be insuperable obstacles to any plan for making it navigable, or for using it to any considerable extent for trading purposes. In fact, the Orontes is scarcely available at all, even for small craft; and to reach Antioch in a steamer would be a work of consummate difficulty, and, when accomplished, by no means worth the trouble and expense incurred. (*Bozinger's Stat. of Syria*, p. 49.) Its use, therefore, is chiefly confined to the irrigation of the surrounding country, which is effected by means of water-wheels similar to those described in the article HAMAM, I. 588.

abounds with fish, and produces a species of request with the Greeks; they are salted every direction to serve during the fasts before they are said to produce 60,000 plasters a year for the mills at Antioch, in passing they are taken. (*Barker's Rep. in App. Stat.*) The valley of the Orontes has on lions been visited by earthquakes, the last Jan. 1837, nearly destroyed several cities, and the loss of many thousand lives. (*Robinson's Past.*, ii.; *Geog. Journal*, vii. and viii.;

ORTHEZ, a town of France, d^{ép.}ées, cap. arrond., on the Gave de Pau. It communicates with a suburb by an old arches, 24 m. N.W. Pau. Pop., in 1836, well laid out and built, but ill supplied with manufactures of woollen stuffs, brass and copper wares; with dyeing houses, tanneries and an extensive trade in hams of a superior quality termed *jambons de Bayonne*, goose-fat cattle. It suffered much during the revolution.

One of its governors, a Viscount d'Orthes, was for being one of the few who refused to rect the orders of the court for the detestable St. Bartholomew.

town, on the 27th of Feb. 1814, the Anglo-, under the Duke of Wellington, defeated the army under Marshal Soult. The action was bloody: the French lost nearly 4,000 wounded, and prisoners, and the allies, 2,300. (*Warrior's War*, vi. 564.)

ORTONA, a sea-port town of Central Italy, h. of Abruzzo Citra, cap. canton, on the Adriatic. N.E. Chieti. Pop., in 1832, 6,000. Its chief is cathedral and other churches, convents, a palace, once the winter residence of Margaret, the Emp. Charles V. It was anciently the port and naval arsenal of the Pretanti (*Strabo*, vii. iii. 11., &c.), and it has still a few insignia of antiquity; but its harbour has now silted. Vessels anchor in soft ground about half a mile shore, in from 10 to 15 fathoms water, or just outside, in less water; but the station is exposed to E. winds; and there are various rocks. (*Notie's Sailing Directions*.)

ORTONA (the an. *Herbanum*, afterwards *Urbs* town of central Italy, Papal States, cap. name, close to the junction of the Paglia about 5 m. from their union with the Tiber, the Lake of Bolsena, and 69 m. N.N.W. of Rome, about 7,000. It stands on an isolated and rocky; and is clean, well built, and embellished with palaces. Among the latter are the Palazzo Guastavini, with frescoes by Domenico, L. Signorilli (?), &c.; and the *palazzo* with paintings by Pietro Perugino. The cathedral in 1590, is a remarkable Gothic edifice, with bas-reliefs, mosaics, paintings, and statuary, and handsome circular window. It has several Jesuits' college, and a large well, dug by the Jesuits, which is shown as a curiosity. Various antiquities have been discovered here; and a wine is grown near the town, which has acquired celebrity that it deserves. The inhabitants trade in cattle, wine, and silk. (*Dict. of Letters of an Architect*, i. 319, 322.)

ORTONA (an. *Aurinum*), a town of central Italy, s. deleg. of Ancona, 84 m. S.S.W. the city of Ancona. Pop. about 7,000. It is well built, having a bishop's palace, a cathedral, several churches, a college, &c. In antiquity this was one of the important towns of Picenum. It was included in the Pentapolis, and was taken by the Goths, after an obstinate defence. (*Ant. Italy*; *Dict. Géog.*)

ORTON (Germ. *Ordnburg*), a town of the Hanover, cap. prov. and principality of its own name, a tributary of the Elbe, 83 m. W. by rail. Pop., in 1845, 11,751. It is walled and divided into Old and New Town. "The palace, the court of justice, and the cathedral, some relics supposed to have belonged to the Goths, are all good buildings; and there many good-looking private houses, belonging to the nobility. Though not the largest, it is undoubtedly one of the handsomest towns of the Hanover." (*Hodgkin's Trav. in the N. of Germ.*, i. 10.) But other authorities represent the town as ill built. There are 2 Lutheran and 2 Catholic churches, a Lutheran orphan-house, a work-house, a Catholic and a Lutheran gymnasium, a house of correction. Osnaburg is a place of considerable trade, from being in the centre of a country where great quantities of the linen cloths termed *lappes* are made, and which are brought thither for

inspection, stamping, and sale. (*See HANOVER*, i. 362.) But it is in a great measure indebted for its trade in these fabrics, and in cattle, to its position on the high road between Bremen and the Lower Rhine. It has, also, manufactories of woollen cloths, tobacco, chicory, soap, paper, leather, &c. No court has been kept up in Osnaburg since the time of Ernest Augustus, father of George I.; but the nobility of the prov. generally reside here; and without either having a university or being a royal residence, it is in some degree celebrated for the literature and polish of its inhabitants. It is the seat of a Roman Catholic bishop; and its civil governor, nominated by the King of Hanover, is called, though without having any ecclesiastical duties to discharge, the Prince-Bishop of Osnaburg; this dignity was held by the second son of George III. *Berghaus, Allg. Länder, &c.*, iv. 234; *Hodgkin's Trav. in N. Germ.*, i. 308, 318., &c.

OSSUNA, a town of Spain, in Andalusia, prov. Seville, 42 m. E. Seville. Pop., acc. to Mifano, 16,000. It is built amphitheatre-wise on the declivity of a lofty hill, on the top of which stands the par. and collegiate church. It has, also, four hospitals and two sets of barracks. The town formerly possessed a university, which attained considerable celebrity in the time of Cervantes; but at the close of last century it was in a state of decay, and was suppressed in 1824. Ossuña is neat and pretty, surrounded by orchards, among which are some fine public walks; but it has an insufficient supply of water. The climate is good except in summer, when, during the prevalence of the *Solano*, or E. wind, the thermometer often rises to 110° Fahr. The inhabitants are principally employed in agriculture, and the neighbourhood has the reputation of being one of the most productive grain districts of Andalusia. It is, also, celebrated for its capers, large quantities of which are pickled and sent to Seville and Cadiz. (*Mifano*.)

OSTEND, a fortified sea-port town of Belgium, prov. W. Flanders, cap. canton, on the shore of the North Sea, 14 m. W. by N. Bruges, 27 m. E.N.E. Dunkirk, and about 60 m. E. of the North Foreland. Lat. 51° 14' 1" N., long. 2° 58' 8" E. Pop., in 1846, 14,505. Few English travellers speak in favourable terms of Ostend. It is, however, neatly and regularly built, and has a lively appearance, the houses being painted of different colours. (*Barrow's Trav.*, 285.) It is also a favourite watering place of the Belgians, and is occasionally resorted to by the royal family. It has no public edifice worth notice, except a good bathing-house, with reading-rooms, &c., on the *levee*, a sloping glacis of stone-work, originally erected to serve as a dyke, having on its summit a favourite promenade. Ostend is strongly fortified by ramparts, a broad ditch, and a citadel; but it is ill supplied with water, which is assigned as a reason for its being in parts rather dirty. The interior harbour, which is large and commodious, is bordered by a broad quay; but a ship of considerable burden can only enter the port at high water, and in strong off-shore winds is difficult of access. There are 2 lighthouses which, when brought in line, mark the channel that leads into the port. The exports consist of corn, clover seed, cattle, and other farm produce; and the imports of sugar, coffee, and other colonial products, wines, spices, English manufactured goods, &c. We subjoin an

ACCOUNT of the Ships that entered and left the Port of Ostend, in 1836 and 1837; specifying the Countries to which they respectively belonged.

	1836.		1837.	
	Entered.	Left.	Entered.	Left.
Belgian	247	219	227	221
British	136	184	134	115
French	28	36	31	26
Norwegian	51	51	98	96
Hanoverian	71	82	58	69
Hamburg	4	6	6	6
Mecklenburg	4	6	6	6
Prussian	9	8	14	13
Hamborough	1	1	-	-
Danish	10	12	6	10
Swedish	1	-	2	1
Russian	1	-	2	2
Spanish	1	1	2	-
Totals	553	548	557	567

And this number is exclusive of the steamers conveying the mails to and from England.

The cod and herring fisheries, especially the former, are carried on to a considerable extent from Ostend. In 1836 the produce of this fishery amounted to 7,841 tons salt fish, and in 1837 to 8,799 tons. The aggregate value of the imports by sea, in 1840, amounted to 9,383,567 fr. Exclusive of its trade, Ostend has some sugar and salt refineries, and salicloth, soap, tobacco, and other factories, with rope-walks, building-docks, distilleries, &c. It is connected by a canal and railroad with Bruges, and by the great Belgian railroad with Antwerp and other

eties of the interior. It is the seat of a tribunal and chamber of commerce, and the residence of a military commandant and of an English consul.

During the ever-memorable struggle made by the Dutch to emancipate themselves from the blind and brutal despotism of Old Spain, Ostend sustained one of the most celebrated sieges of which history has preserved any account. It continued from the 4th of July, 1601, to the 28th of September, 1604, when the garrison capitulated, on honourable terms, to the ablest of the Spanish leaders, the famous Marquis of Spinola. This siege is supposed to have cost the contending parties the lives of nearly 100,000 men! (See *Watson's Philip III.*, l. 93—188. 8vo. ed.; *Official Returns*, &c.)

OSTERODE, a town of central Germany, kingdom of Hanover, princip. Grubenhagen, on the Söse, a tributary of the Leine, at the foot of the Harz, 49 m. S.E. Hanover. Pop., in 1845, 5,197. It is walled, and has several churches, an hospital, a gymnasium, &c.; but its principal public edifices are the royal granaries, which supply about 56,000 scheffel of corn annually, at 16 groschen (2s.) the scheffel, to the miners and other labourers of the Harz. Osterode has manufactures of woollen and cotton goods, table linens and long cloths, hats, tobacco, soap, white lead, copper and wooden articles, with breweries, distilleries, tanneries, &c. (*Horschmann's Saxe-Bergkess.*)

OSTIA, a decayed town and sea-port of Italy, Papal States, on the left or S. arm of the Tiber, a little below where it divides into two branches to inclose the Isola Sacra, about 3 m. from its mouth, and 15 m. W. S.W. Rome, lat. 41° 45' 35" N., long. 12° 16' 35" E. This miserable little town, which has scarcely 100 inhab., and which, in fact, is all but uninhabitable from malaria, was in antiquity a flourishing emporium. It was for a lengthened period the sea-port of Rome; and was founded by Ancus Martius in that view, who is, also, said to have constructed the salt-works in its vicinity.—*In ore Tiberis Ostia vix condita, salina circa facta.* (*Livius in Anco*, lib. i. cap. 33.) In the course of time Ostia rose, with the rise of Rome, to be a place of great wealth, population, and importance. It was taken by Marius, who appears to have treated it with great severity. (*Livii Epit.*, lib. lxxix.) But it soon recovered from this disaster, and continued for a lengthened period to engross the whole trade of Rome carried on by sea. But its port had never been good; and, owing to the gradual accumulation of the mud and other deposits brought down by the river, it ultimately became inaccessible to ships of considerable burden, who were obliged to anchor on the coast in an exposed and hazardous situation. Many efforts were made at different periods to obviate these inconveniences, but apparently without much success; and at length the emperor Claudius determined to construct a new port (*Portus*) at the mouth of the N. or right arm of the Tiber. This harbour was wholly artificial, and was formed at a vast expense by means projecting into the sea. (*Sueton. in Claud.*, cap. 30. *Dio Cassius*, lib. lx.) Manner, in an article on Ostia, says that the port constructed by Claudius was repaired by Trajan, and continued to be the port of Rome as long as the Roman empire existed! This statement is, however, in all respects, void of the mark. The truth is, that the same circumstances (the accumulation of sand and mud at the mouth of the river) that had destroyed the harbour of Ostia very soon began to choke up the new port; and instead of attempting to improve the latter, Trajan judged it more expedient to construct a totally new harbour at *Castellum*, now Civita Vecchia, though the latter was more than double the distance of the former from Rome! (*Plinii Epist.* lib. vi. ep. 31., and art. CIVITA VECCHIA in this work.) The harbour formed by Trajan is at this moment the best by far on the W. coast of central Italy; the great works, the construction of which is described by Pliny, still remain entire, and evince the superior discernment and power of its illustrious founder. The port of Claudius, as well as Ostia itself, is now at a considerable distance from the sea; and its harbour, which, according to Bergier (*Hist. des Grands Césars*, li. 384.), could not have been excited by any European monarch, is a shallow, noisome pool:—

"Tantum avi longinquæ valet mature vetustas."

OSTUNI, a town of the Neapolitan dom. prov. Otranto, cap. canton, on the brow of a steep hill, 31 m. W.N.W. Brindisi. Pop. about 6,000. It is a bishop's see, but remarkable for little more than the number of its churches and convents. Its climate is said to be highly salubrious. (*Craven's Tour*, &c., 123, 124.)

OSWEGO, a town and port of entry of the U. States of N. America, state of New York, cap. of its own name, on the S. shore of Lake Ontario, at the mouth of the Oswego River and Canal, which connect the lake with the Erie Canal, 230 m. N.W. New York. Pop., in 1830, 2,703; but, in 1840, it had increased to 2,716; and is now (1850) probably 15,000. It stands on both sides

the Oswego River, here crossed by a wooden bridge 700 ft. in length, and is laid out in streets 100 ft. wide, running at right angles. The court-house, the Oswego hotel, various churches, an incorporated academy, two banks, and a light-house, were the principal public buildings in 1836; it had at the same time several large grist and saw mills, tanneries, cotton factories, iron-works, &c.; many wholesale and retail stores, and 2 weekly newspapers. The harbour is formed by two piers, one 1,219, and one 250 ft. in length, projecting from each side, the opening between them being 250 ft. in width. Within the piers are from 10 to 20 ft. water. The harbour is protected by a large pentagonal fortress and some smaller forts.

Oswego has a wet basin and slips for the repair of large vessels; and is, next to Sackett Harbour, the best port on the American side of Lake Ontario. Its situation necessarily renders it a considerable emporium; and, notwithstanding the imperfect state of the Welland canal, it already commands a large portion of the trade between the state of New York and Upper Canada. In 1838, only 6,593 tons shipping belonged to this port, whereas 22,152 tons belonged to it in 1849! (*New York Gazetteer*, &c.)

OSWESLEY (corrupted from *Oswaldstree*), a market-town of England, in the next to Sackett Harbour, the Salop, on the borders of Wales, 16 m. N.W. Shrewsbury. Area of par., 13,680 acres: pop. of township in 1841, 4,666. The town, which was formerly surrounded with walls, is well-paved and lighted; its chief public buildings are a town-hall, prison, theatre, and a fine old church, remarkable for its lofty ivy-mantled tower. The living is a vicarage, in the gift of Lord Clive. The Independents, Baptists, Wesleyan Methodists, Welsh Calvinists, and Primitive Methodists, have their respective places of worship, to which are attached Sunday schools, furnishing religious instruction to upwards of 700 children. A grammar-school has been established here, and is free for all boys born in the parish to be instructed in grammatical learning in the English, Latin, and Greek languages. The present annual value of the endowment is £304; but the number of free scholars seldom exceeds 20, besides whom there are about 24 pay-boys residing with the master. There is also an extremely well-regulated national school, attended by about 230 boys and 150 girls. (*Mess. Corp. Report*.) Oswestry, which from 1661 to 1691 was the great mart for woollens called Welsh wels, has still a few manufactures of fine and coarse linen cloth; but its principal dependence is on its retail trade with an extensive agricultural district. The borough received its first charter in 22 Richard I., is divided, under the Mun. Reform Act, into 3 wards, and the corporation consists of a mayor, 5 other aldermen, and 18 councillors. Corporation revenue, in 1847-48, 780*l.* Quarter and petty sessions are held under a recorder, and there is a court for the recovery of small debts. Oswestry is one of the polling-places at elections for the N. division of Salop. Races are held near the town in September. Markets on Wednesday: large cattle fairs, 15th March, 12th May, Wednesday before 24th June, 18th Aug., and 10th Dec.

Oswaldstree (more anciently called *Maserfield*) is supposed to have derived its name from Oswald, king of Northumbria, killed here in battle in 642, and subsequently canonized. It was surrounded by walls by Edward II., in 1277, and became highly important as one of the keys to the principality of Wales. At the W. end of the town, on a lofty hill, are some remains of its castle, supposed to have been built about the time of the Norman conquest. (See *Pennant's Tour in Wales*, l. 323, &c.; *Parl. Reports*.)

OTAKEITE. See POLYNESIA.

OTLEY, a manufacturing and market-town, par., and township of England, W. Riding co. York, upper div. wap. Skyrack, on the Wharf, 94 m. N.W. Leeds. Area of par., comprising 12 townships, 23,060 acres. Pop. of Otley township in 1841, 3,443. The town, though small, is well-built, and delightfully situated in a picturesque river valley. The church is large, but has few remains of its original architecture: the living is a vicarage in the gift of the lord chancellor. There is a society of worship for Independents, Wesleyan and Primitive Methodists, with attached Sunday schools. A grammar-school was founded here in 1611, and there is a national school for children of both sexes. Otley formerly enjoyed a considerable share in the woollen trade; but it has long since been removed to situations nearer to the coal districts, and better placed for inland navigation. Within the par., however, there were, in 1839, 3 cotton-mills, 4 woollen-mills, and 10 worsted-mills, moved chiefly by water-power, and employing 1,182 hands, chiefly in the townships of Crisley, Yeddon, and Raden. Flanning and mauling are carried on in the town to a pretty considerable extent, and it has large markets and fairs for corn and cattle, besides an agricultural show held in April. The Archbishop of York is lord of the manor and holds courts-baron for the recovery of small debts

arter sessions are held here by the magis-
trarchbishop's commission. Markets on
the fairs, Wednesday in Easter week, and
gilt after till Whit-Sunday, and then every
1st Aug.

TO (see *Hydramum*), a sea-port town of
its S. E. extremity, kingdom of Naples, prov.
name, cap. castron, on the Strait of Otranto,
point of Italy nearest to the Greek peninsula,
Lecce, and 44 m. W. S. W. Cape Linguetta, in
this petty town, of 1,600 inhab., has little to
English reader, except the celebrated "Castle"
with the name of which every lover of ro-
mantic. "The castle, however, is far from
the expectations created by the perusal of the
its appellation. It is now, what it ever
tadel of the town, a fort of no considerable
over, but not entirely deficient in picturesque
cially on the land side. Two large circular
from the rich foliage of the trees which fill
lth, and among which a very high palm is
a." (*Crasen's Tour*.) The castle, which com-
s, stables, a mill, a chapel, &c., was built by
of Aragon, who otherwise fortified the town,
against the Turks. Otranto has a very
federal, in which are some columns taken from
Minerva in the vicinity; an archbishop's pal-
few Roman antiquities. In 1490 it was taken
by the Turks. Under Napoleon, it gave the
he to Fouché. (*Crasen's Tour in the S. Pro-*
Vapies, 142, 144.; *Burgess's Greece*, 1. 38. 20.;
)

ANO, a town of the Neapolitan dom., prov.
o, at the E. foot of Mount Vesuvius, 12 m. E.
op. estimated at 6,000. It has 3 churches, a
some other public buildings. Its inhabs. are
engaged in agriculture, having but little taste
res. Several antiquities found here are sup-
posed to have formed part of a palace anciently belong-
Octavian family, from whom the town is con-
sidered to have derived its name.

RY ST. MARY, a market-town and par. of
co. Devon, hund. its own name, on the Otter
it derives its name), 1½ m. E. by N. Exeter.
ur. 9,470 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,194. It is large,
larly built; containing many vestiges of anti-
quity which is a house formerly inhabited by Sir
leugh. The church is a large and curious
built like Exeter Cathedral with 3 towers
into the body of the church, and serving as
a lady-chapel occupies the E. end, and in
or is a fine arched monument. The living is a
in the gift of the Lord Chancellor. The Inde-
and Wesleyan Methodists have likewise their
places of worship, with attached Sunday-

A grammar-school was founded here by Henry
at it has for many years been an almost useless
to the town. Two day-schools are supported
tion, and an infant-school is attended by
children. Almshouses are established here,
are numerous minor charities for the relief of
within the par. Ottery St. Mary, which had
a considerable share in the manufacture of
coarse woollen cloths, is now chiefly support-
culture and retail trade. A silk-mill, how-
ever, has been established within the last few years,
in 1859, employed 236 hands. Petty sessions for
1. are held here. Markets on Tuesday; fairs,
before Palm-Sunday; Whit-Tuesday, and Aug.
1st and sheep.

3. (*Apodhya*), a prov. and kingdom of Hindostan,
a protection of the British, between the 26th and
s. of N. lat., and the 79th and 83d of E. long.
N. Nepal, but is every where else surrounded
rfortresses of the Bengal and Agra presid., having
rovs. Delhi and Agra, 8. Allahabad, and E. Ba-
rce estimated at about 26,300 sq. m. Pop. pro-
000,000. This country is an extended plain,
northward by the lower Himalaya range, and
S. by the Ganges, being well watered by several
ies of the latter. When properly cultivated, the
extremely productive, yielding crops of wheat,
rice, and other grains, sugar, indigo, opium, and
the best crops raised in India; and Heber states,
in Lucknow to Sandee the country is as populous
cultivated as most of the Company's provs.
It was for a lengthened period so wretchedly
aged by its native authorities, that, from being one
the best states of Hindostan, it had become, a few
years, one of the poorest and most miserable, being
it distinguished for anarchy and disorder. The
venue is estimated at between 18 and 19 million
rupees, and its collection is farmed out to the highest
bidder. Large tracts of the country are also in jaghire,
ally conferred for military service; the sumils,
moe collectors, and the semindars, are so in-
dependent of the royal authority, that they yield only a

very imperfect obedience, and so late as 1830 Oude was
distracted by civil war between the sovereign and his mili-
tary chieftains. A full account of the condition of the
country at that period may be found in the *Report on*
E. I. Affairs, 1832. (*Political Appendix*, p. 266-420.)
Under the new king, however, great ameliorations have
been effected, and the standing army has been reduced
from 50,000 men to less than half that number. The
subsidiary troops furnished by Oude to the Anglo-Indian
army amount to 10,000 men. The foreign relations and
treaties of the state are wholly conducted through the
British resident at Lucknow. It has been secured, ever
since 1765, by the British government from foreign ag-
gression; and it is to be regretted that we did not also
so far interfere in its internal concerns as to introduce
regularity and efficiency into the administration, and to
repress disorders. (*See Crawford's Letter in Rep. Polit.*
Append., pp. 92, 94.)

OUDE, a town of Hindostan, in the above prov.
and kingdom, of which it was the former cap.; on the Gogra,
across which an iron bridge, the materials having been
brought from England, is said to have been recently
thrown, 74 m. E. Lucknow; lat. 26° 49' N., long. 83° 4'
E. It extends for a considerable distance along the
banks of the river, stretching as far as Fyzabad. It is
said by Hamilton to be tolerably populous; but, except
along the river, it consists wholly of mud-brick houses
and jungle, among which are the remains of various cele-
brated Hindoo temples. Hindoo pilgrims still visit
Oude; and did so in great numbers, until Aurungzebe
demolished most of their places of resort. A mosque
erected by that monarch, and 3 tombs, greatly venerated
by Mohammedans, are now the principal and almost
sole remaining public edifices. (*Mod. Trav.* ix. 312-
315, &c.)

OUDEHARD, or AUDENARD, a town of Belgium,
prov. E. Flanders, cap. arrond. on the Scheeldt, 14 m.
S. 3. W. Ghent. Pop. in 1843, 5,302. It is generally well
built, and has one of the handsomest town halls in the
Netherlands, several churches, an hospital, 3 orphan
asylums, a convent, a college, and other schools, in-
cluding one for spinning yarn. It has some manu-
factures of cotton and woollen fabrics, with breweries and
tanneries. On the 11th of July, 1709, a powerful French
army, commanded by the Dukes of Burgundy and Ven-
dôme, was defeated in the vicinity of this town, and
obliged to make a disorderly retreat, by the allied army
under the Duke of Marlborough and Prince of Orange.

OUNDLIE, a market-town and par. of England, co.
Northampton, and hund. Polebrook, on the Nen (crossed
here by 2 bridges, one of which has 5 arches), 25 m. N. E.
Northampton, and 67 N. by W. London. Area of par.,
5,300 acres; pop., in 1841, 3,037. The town, though
small, is neat and well built, having a good market-
house. The church is large and handsome, with a square
tower, having octagonal turrets at the angles, and sur-
mounted by a lofty spire; the living is a vicarage, in the
gift of the Lord Chancellor. A grammar-school, esta-
blished in 1444, is attended by about 60 boys. Two charity
schools furnish clothing and instruction to 42 boys; and
a national school is attended by about 120 children of
both sexes. There are also 3 almshouses. Petty ses-
sions for the hund. are held here once a fortnight.
Markets on Thursday; fairs, Feb. 26.; Whit-Monday;
Aug. 31., and Oct. 12., for horses, sheep, &c.

OURAL, or YAIK, the *Rhyanus* of the ancients, a
large river of the Russian empire. It rises in the Oural
Mountains, whence its name, in the district of Troïsk;
and, after a lengthened south-westerly course past Orel,
Orenbourg, and Ouralak, pours its waters by various
mouths into the northern part of the Caspian Sea. It is
shallow, and of little use for navigation; but teems with
fish, which, at the proper season, afford a rich harvest to
the Cossacks of the Oural. It is reckoned one of the
bulwarks of the Russian empire against the incursions of
the nomades of the Tartar steppes.

OURAL, or URAL MOUNTAINS, an extensive moun-
tain-chain, extending, including its subsidiary portions,
nearly under the same parallel from the N. border of
the Sea of Azov to the shores of the Arctic Ocean, or
from about the 48th to about the 69th degree of N. lat.
It forms, during the greater part of its course, the boundary
between Europe and Asia. Where highest, it attains to an
elevation of about 6,400 ft. above the level of the sea; but
the ascent to the summit, particularly on the European
side, is so very gradual, that its height does not appear
nearly so great as it really is. Its breadth varies from 1 to
5 geog. miles. It is very productive both of the precious
and the useful metals; being estimated to afford, at an
average, about 240 pounds of gold, 200,000 do. of copper,
1,800,000 do. of forged, and 5,500,000 do. of cast iron;
(*See art. RUSSIA; Schmitzer, La Russie*, &c. p. 652.;
Humboldt's Fragmens de Géologie, &c., ii. 318., &c.)

OURFA, (an. *Edessa* or *Calirrhoe*) a fortified city of
Asia Minor, pach. Diarbeker, 81 m. S. W. the city of that
name, and 112 m. N. E. Aleppo. Pop. 30,000, 3-4ths of whom
are Turks and Arabs, and the rest Armenians and Jews.

It occupies the slopes of two hills, in the valley between which is a fountain and large basin containing a number of fish accounted sacred by the inhabs. The houses are substantially built of hewn stone, and surmounted by terraces; gutters two or three feet in width run through the middle of the streets, and on each side are tolerably clean pavements. The mosques, which are numerous, have all lofty, and many of them handsome minarets; there are churches also for the adherents of the Greek and Armenian creeds. The bazars are of tolerable size, and covered in from the weather, some being occupied by cloth merchants, others by goldsmiths and other artisans.

Ourla is a place of considerable industry: large quantities of cotton fabrics are made in it; its goldsmiths' work and morocco leather are highly esteemed, and the produce of the neighbourhood, especially wheat and barley, is sent to Aleppo and the N. of Syria, and, by way of Bir, across the Euphrates. "The general trade with Aleppo is carried on almost entirely by about twenty Turkish and Christian merchants. They employ a capital not exceeding 50,000 dollars; but they trade on credit, both at Ourla and Aleppo, for a much greater amount. Three-fifths of this are for British manufactures, principally cotton twist, calicoes, a few prints, muslins, and nankeens, the remaining fifth being for colonial produce, and different articles in the country. The inland duty paid at Ourla by the rayas is invariably 5 per cent. on the invoice cost; and the price of carriage from Aleppo ranges between 80 and 100 piasters per Aleppo cart on every kind of goods." (*Bourring's Report on Syria*, p. 44.)

The ancient *Edessa* was for a lengthened period the cap. of the prov. Osroene, in Mesopotamia. It is said to have been one of the numerous cities built by Seleucus Nicator, and continued under his successors as long as they remained possessors of Syria. It was taken by the Arabs during the caliphate of Abubeker, in the 7th century, and, after many vicissitudes, Selim I. united it, in 1517, to the Ottoman empire. (*Olivier, Voyage dans l'Empire Ottoman*, iv. 210—223.)

OUSE, a river of England, co. York, one of the principal affluents of the estuary of the Humber, and which, indeed, may be considered as representing the various rivers that join it before it falls into that great estuary. The Swale, the remotest branch of the Ouse, has its source in the mountain of Sharncliffe, on the border of Yorkshire and Westmoreland, one of the most elevated in the great central range. Pursuing a S.E. course, the Swale is joined a little below Boroughbridge by the Ure, from Askrig, Middleham, and Ripon. A little lower down, the united river takes the name of the Ouse, and flowing past York, receives at Cawood its important tributary, the Wharfe, which, flowing through Tadcaster, has its source near Arncliffe. From Cawood the Ouse flows S.E., with many windings, to Goole, where it unites with the Humber, receiving at Derwent under the name of the Aire, and Don from the S. The Ouse is itself navigable for considerable vessels as far as York, and for barges to Linton; and the Aire, Don, and Derwent, have been, partly by improvements in their channels, and partly by canals, rendered navigable to a great distance. The Ouse is, in fact, connected not only with the ports on the Humber, but, by an internal navigation, with Liverpool, London, and Bristol.

Exclusive of the above, another river, called the Great Ouse, rises in Northamptonshire, near Brackley; its course at first is E., a little inclining to the N., through Bucks; it then passes Olney and Harrold, and, after many windings, reaches Bedford, where it becomes navigable. It then, traverses the cos. of Huntingdon and Cambridge, and the N.W. corner of Norfolk, falling into the estuary of the Wash at King's Lynn. From Huntingdon Sluice to Denver Sluice, a distance of about 20 m. in a direct line, the Ouse is now called the New Bedford river, from the greater part of its water flowing in the great channel or drain of that name, dug in the reign of Charles II. The principal affluents of the Great Ouse are the Nen, Cam, Little Ouse, Lake, Wissey or Stoke, and Nar.

OVERTON, a parl. bor. of N. Wales, co. Flint, bund. Maylor, on the Dee (crossed here by a handsome stone bridge), 14 m. S. Chester, and 158 m. N.W. London. Pop. of parl. bor. and par., 1841, 1,662. The town is sit. on rising ground above the river, and is on the whole well built. The church is a venerable structure, picturesque situated; and in the church-yard are some yew which, for size and beauty, are ranked among the wonders of the Principality. The town has little trade; and would be unworthy notice, were it not that it enjoys the privilege, in connexion with Flint and 6 other towns, of returning 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors for the united bors. in 1849-50, 768.

OVIDO (*Ovetum*), an ancient city of Spain, cap. of the prov. of Asturias, in a plain at the confluence of the two small rivers Oria and Nora, 60 m. N. by W. Leon,

lat. 48° 19' N., long. 8° 57' W. Pop., according to Mifano, 10,478. It is an old-fashioned city, with many narrow and irregular streets; but it has several good squares, that forming the market-place being large and handsome. The town is supplied with water by a magnificent aqueduct of 41 arches, communicating with the fountains in the public squares. The principal public buildings are the cathedral, the collegiate church, and 3 par. churches, besides a district church, 3 hospitals, and 4 colleges. The cathedral (supposed to have been founded in the 8th century) is a large structure of Gothic architecture, and one of the most elegant in Spain, very similar to that of Toledo, though much smaller: it is surmounted by a beautiful, though unfinished, tower, and at the W. end is a noble open tower (*Cost's Sketches in Spain*, ii. 96.). It contained many valuable vases, &c., taken away during the peninsular war: it has also a large mausoleum, in which are deposited the remains of 14 kings and queens of Asturias. The university, founded in 1580, is well endowed, and has a large library: the university buildings are among the finest in the town. Ovideo has a weekly market, and 3 annual fairs; but its trade is chiefly confined to the neighbourhood. A few tanneries, manufactories of hats, horn combs, and metal buttons, and the establishment of a mastic painting is carried on to a considerable extent. A manufacture of arms was, till lately, supported by the government; but within the last few years it has been abandoned.

Ovideo is supposed to have been founded about A. D. 750. It afterwards became a place of refuge, during the persecutions of the Moors, for great numbers of Christian clergy, and hence acquired the name *Civitas Episcoporum*. The pope in 901 made Ovideo an archbishop's see; but afterwards this honour was transferred to St. Jago, since which time the bishops of this city have been merely suffragan. The foundation of the university improved the condition of the inhabs.; and for upwards of 150 years Ovideo was a popular resort for literary monks and others desiring to avail themselves of the advantages offered by the ecclesiastical seminaries. When Mr. Townsend visited the town, it swarmed with mendicants, encouraged by a wealthy clergy; but since the French war, and the suppression of the conventual establishments, the importance both of the town and university has very much diminished. (*Townsend*, ii. 1—14.; *Mod. Trav. in Spain*, &c.)

OWHYHEE. See POLYNESIA.

OXFORD, an inland and central co. of England, of a very irregular shape, bounded S. and S.W. by the Thames, by which it is separated from Berks, and having W. Gloucester, N. Warwick, N.E. Northampton, and E. Buckingham. Area, 463,840 acres; of which above 400,000 are said to be arable, meadow, and pasture. Surface, a good deal diversified. The S. division of the co. is traversed by the range of the Chiltern Hills; but elsewhere it is mostly flat, and generally undulating. Soil very various: in the N. it consists of deep, rich, fertile loam; in the middle district it is comparatively sandy, gravelly, and poor; and, in the S., thin and chalky soil predominates. The co. is extremely well watered; for, besides being bounded, as already stated, for a lengthened distance by the Thames, it is traversed by the Windrush, Evenlode, Cherwell, and Thame. Oxford is principally in tillage; but though numerous improvements have been effected of late years, its agriculture is far from being in a very advanced state. This is accounted for principally, perhaps, from the tenants not being bound to follow any particular mode of husbandry, and not being restricted in the sowing of wheat, so that the land is frequently foul and over-wrought. There is, also, in many parts, a great want of drainage. The soil is particularly suitable for barley, which is the principal crop; but large quantities of wheat are also raised. Turnips extensively cultivated. Dairy husbandry is, in some districts, carried on upon a large scale; and the sheep stock is supposed to exceed 300,000 head. There are but few large estates, and farms are generally small: it is common to grant leases for 7 and 14 years. Average rent of land in 1843, 9s. 1½d. an acre. Manufactures and minerals of no importance. Principal town, Oxford. The co. is divided into 14 hundreds, and 517 parishes. It sends 9 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 3 for the co., 2 for the city, and 2 for the university of Oxford; and 1 each for the bors. of Banbury and Woodstock. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 5,096. In 1841, Oxford had 32,168 inhabs. houses, and 161,643 persons, of whom 80,436 were males, and 81,207 females. Sum expended for the relief of the poor, in 1848-49, 84,684. Annual value of real property in 1815, 790,866.; do. in 1843, 1,026,421.

OXFORD, a parl. bor. and city of England, cap. of the above co., and the seat of one of the two great English universities, on the left bank of the Isis, near its confluence with the Cherwell, which are both crossed by numerous bridges, (one of which, on the London road, is a handsome stone structure, of 5 arches.)

7. N. W. London, lat. (Observatory) $51^{\circ} 45' 29''$ g. $1^{\circ} 18' 29''$ W. Pop. of pari. bor. (which in-
cludes the old bor., the par. of St. Clement's, and
n of that of Cowley) in 1841, 28,656. The city
is a plain, in the midst of meadows thickly planted
with trees, and is surrounded on 3 sides by the above-
mentioned rivers: it has an imposing external appear-
ance, whatever side it may be viewed; but more
fully from the adjacent high ground on the London
road. The High Street is one of the finest
land; not only for its width and regular arrange-
ment, but for the beauty and magnificence of the
residential and collegiate edifices lining it on both sides:
the par. of Magdalen and All Souls' Colleges, the
par. of University and Queen's Colleges, and the
city Church, are its chief and most admired fea-
tures.

Three other streets meet it at its W. end; one
of which, called the Corn-Market, leads northward
to a suburb of St. Giles'; and the second passes
by the town-hall, and the noble building of
Christ Church, towards Abingdon; while the third,
Queen Street, runs westward in continuation of
the High Street, into the low and densely peopled par.
of St. Thomas. Parallel to and N. of High Street
is another fine, though not long line, called Broad
Street, in which are Balliol, Trinity, and Exeter Colleges,
the Ashmolean Museum, Clarendon Rooms, Sheldonian
Hall, &c.; and between High Street and Broad Street
is a long space, occupied by a quadrangular building,
which is a hollow square, round which are the academic
buildings, the upper stories being occupied by the Bod-
leian and Picture Gallery. Between the schools
and the city Church is the Radcliffe Library, a circular
edifice, surmounted by a dome, and contrasting
strangely with the Gothic structures by which it
is surrounded. St. Giles' and Beaumont Streets are
rich with substantial private dwellings; besides which
are the par. of Worcester College, and the Taylors',
a large structure of Corinthian architecture,
the course of construction, greatly contribute to
the embellishment of this part of Oxford. The other
streets are mostly narrow, irregular, and crooked,
and new streets, however, with good substantial
buildings, an entire new suburb, and several hundred
tenements, have been erected within the last
years, and the city has thus been greatly improved.

Principal Bound. Report.) The principal thorough-
fares are well paved, cleaned, lighted with gas, and
fully supplied with water. The police, a very effi-
cient body, is regulated and maintained by the university.
The town-hall, a long stone building, with little pro-
portion to architecture, elegance, is open below for
the accommodation of farmers and corn-factors, the upper
part being divided off into court-rooms, and apart-
ments for municipal and judicial business. A large and
odious new sessions-house, however, is in course
of erection near the old castle, which has been converted
into a modern gaol. The arrangements of the co. prison
are imperfect; its site does not admit of classifica-
tion or solitary confinement to any great extent, and hard
labour is only partially enforced. There is likewise
a prison for debtors, comprising about 50 cells; but its man-
agement is said to be unsatisfactory. (*Prison In-
spector's 4th Rep.*, part iii. p. 198-201.) The market-
place is a modern range of buildings, entered from the
High Street, and, with its aisles, arcades, and shops,
is one of the greatest improvements made in the
city.

The Radcliffe Infirmary erected towards the mid-
dle of the last century by the trustees of the fund left
by Dr. Radcliffe, is in the N. suburb, not far from the
rationality, which owes its origin to the same founders.
It is a plain stone building, within a spacious enclosure,
capable of accommodating between 150 and 200 patients;
besides medical officers, &c. The only other edifices,
besides those devoted to public worship, are the
par. of industry, a large structure near the infirmary,
built for the reception of the poor belonging to 11 united
parishes (the expense of whose maintenance amounted,
in 1840, to 8,000*l.*), a small music-hall, and 3 sets of almshouses.

The city is divided into 14 parishes, and is the seat of
a bishop. The cathedral church, containing the Christ-
Church College, presents the styles of different ages, from
the 12th to the 16th century: it is built in the form of a
cross, and measures, from E. to W., 184 ft.; the length
of the transepts being 102 ft., and the height from the
floor to the roof, 42 ft. At the intersection of the nave
transepts rises a tower, surmounted by a spire 146 ft.
high. The carvings of the choir are very elaborate,
though somewhat heavy; and in some of the windows
are specimens of painted glass. Unfortunately it is
ruined in by college buildings and gardens, and no
view of the whole can well be obtained. The cathedra-
lism is identical with that of Christ-Church
College; and the sum annually divided by the dean and
canons amounts to 12,500*l.*, besides which, each has a
separate residence. The income of the bishopric

amounted, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1831, to
2,648*l.* a year; but it is to be increased to about 4,000*l.*
a year. St. Mary's Church (used by the university for the
academic sermons, Bampton lectures, &c.) is a fine
structure, in the perpendicular style, surmounted by an
elaborately ornamented tower and spire, 180 ft. high.
The side towards the High Street, however, is dis-
tinguished by an incongruous porch, with twisted columns.
The interior was renovated in 1836, and is handsomely
fitted up. It is likewise a par. church, the living being
in the gift of Oriel College. Carfax, or St. Martin's,
the corporation-church, facing the W. end of High Street,
is an oblong stone building, with a low tower. All Saints,
in the High Street, is in the Grecian style: the spire is
entirely supported on the side walls, and the whole
is surmounted by a tower and spire: the living is in
the gift of Lincoln College. St. Peter's-in-the-East,
near Queen's College, is the oldest church in Oxford.
Mr. Rickman says that its original portions are Nor-
man; but it has had many introductions and alterations,
mostly in the perpendicular style, which have greatly
altered its exterior appearance. The interior has re-
cently been restored and beautified, so as to correspond
with that of the original building: the living is in
the gift of Merton College. St. Mary Magdalen, at the jun-
cture of the Corn-Market with Broad Street, is in the
decorated style; it has recently undergone a thorough
repair, and is about to be enlarged by the addition of a
large aisle and lofty tower, to be erected, by subscription,
in commemoration of the martyr, Cranmer, Hooper,
and Ridley. The other churches of Oxford deserve no
particular description. The Roman Catholics have a
small chapel; and there are places of worship for Wes-
leyan and Calvinist Methodists, Independents, and Bap-
tists. Most of the churches have their attached charity-
schools, besides which there are various Sunday-schools,
attended by great numbers of children of both sexes.
The Diocesan national schools give instruction to about
500 boys and 300 girls; and a school of industry is
attended by 300 girls. A few schools, also, are supported
by Dissenters. Most of the parishes have considerable
funds for the relief of the aged and sick poor; and there
are dispensaries, lying-in charities, clothing-societies,
provident clubs, &c., to aid the numerous indigent per-
sons in the town and neighbourhood.

The great glory of Oxford, however, consists in its
buildings devoted to collegiate education; which far sur-
pass those of Cambridge in number, and in extent and
beauty. Most of them are built in the style peculiar to
the 14th and 16th centuries; but a few, in the Tudor and
Worcester Colleges, with parts of Christ-Church and
Magdalen Colleges, partake more of the Grecian style,
introduced late in the 17th century. They are chiefly
built in hollow squares, round which are the member's
rooms; and the quadrangles of Christ-Church, All Souls,
Magdalen, New, and Brasenose Colleges are very large
and imposing. The chapels, halls, libraries, and gardens
of these establishments are likewise extremely beautiful;
nor must we omit to mention the shady promenades,
called the Christ-Church Meadows and Magdalen Walks,
which are of great extent and beauty.

Oxford is a very great degree depends, and has
during many centuries depended, for its prosperity on
the University. Till the opening of the Birmingham
and Great Western railways, it enjoyed considerable
advantages from being on the great roads leading north-
ward to Birmingham, Shrewsbury, &c., and westward
to Cheltenham, Gloucester, and South Wales. Between
twenty and thirty coaches used daily to pass through
the town, and its inns were among the largest in Eng-
land; but this source of wealth is now almost extinct,
and owing to the opposition of the University no rail-
way has hitherto been brought near the city. It is be-
lieved, however, that this will speedily be the case; and
there can be no doubt that Oxford will gain incomparably
more by such a speedy means of communicating with the
metropolis and other great towns than she has lost by
the annihilation of her posting business. There are no
manufactories; and the trade of the place is chiefly con-
fined to the supply of the academic pop. It has the ad-
vantage of a canal navigation by the Isis to London, and
by the Oxford Canal northward, which channels supply
it with coal, and all the more bulky articles of domestic
consumption. (*Parl. and Mun. Bound. Rep.*) It is
also the mart for an extensive agricultural district, and
its weekly corn-market is one of the largest in the mid-
land counties. Oxford has four private banks, with a
savings' bank; and two weekly newspapers, the "Ox-
ford Journal," and the "Oxford University Herald." Races
are held during August in the Port-meadow, W.
of the town.

The corporation of Oxford claims to exist by pre-
scription; but it has also received many charters, the
last of which was granted in 3 James I. It is divided,
according to the Mun. Reform Act, into five wards, and
is governed by a mayor, 9 other aldermen, and 30
councillors. Corp. revenue, in 1848-49, 2,674*l.*, no part

nd Hall.	Date of Foundation.	Founders.	Visitors.	Details of Foundation.	Members in 1841.	
					M. A.	Total.
-	872 ? 1349	King Alfred and William of Durham.	The Crown.	A master, 15 fellows, 2 travelling fellows, 17 scholars (6 open), and 4 exhibitioners: 10 benefices.	119	238
-	1308 ?	John Balliol, father of John Balliol, king of Scotland.	The Archbishop of Canterbury (elected by the College).	A master, 12 fellows, and 14 scholars (all open); several exhibitions for natives of Scotland. 20 benefices.	151	238
-	1364	Walter De Morten, Bishop of Rochester, who removed it from Walden in Surrey, in 1563.	The Archbishop of Canterbury.	A warden, 34 fellows, 14 post-masters (portioned), 2 chaplains, and 2 bible-clerks: 15 benefices.	70	149
originally Stapledon	1314	Walter De Stapledon, Bishop of Rochester.	The Bishop of Exeter.	A rector, 25 fellows, 19 scholars (3 open): 12 benefices.	152	246
-	1288	Edward II., at the suggestion of Adam De Bruce, his almoner.	The Crown.	A provost, 18 fellows, and 17 exhibitioners (all open): 15 benefices.	168	228
-	1340	R. Eggesfield, confessor to Philippe, consort of Edward III.	The Archbishop of York.	A provost, 12 fellows, and 6 scholars on the old foundation; 5 fellows, 4 scholars, and 4 exhibitioners (all open), on the Michel foundation: 28 benefices.	180	308
-	1386	William of Wykeham, Bishop of Winchester, founder of Winchester School.	The Bishop of Winchester.	A warden, 70 fellows and scholars, 10 chaplains, 3 bible-clerks, and 16 choristers: 26 benefices.	76	198
-	1487	Richard Fleming, Bp. of Lincoln.	The Bishop of Lincoln.	A rector, 12 fellows, 8 scholars, 12 exhibitioners, on Lord Cresser's foundation: 10 benefices.	71	151
-	1457	Henry Chichele, Archbishop of Canterbury.	The Archbishop of Canterbury.	A warden, 40 fellows, 2 chaplains, and 4 bible-clerks.	83	107
-	1456	William of Waynflete, Bp. of Winchester, and Lord Chancellor of England.	The Bishop of Winchester.	A president, 40 fellows, 20 scholars, called <i>demies</i> , 2 schoolmasters, 4 chymists, 8 bible-clerks, and 16 choristers: 38 benefices.	136	174
one College reg's Hall	1500	William Smith, Bishop of Lincoln, and Sir R. Sutton of Prestbury, in Cheshire.	The Bishop of Lincoln.	A principal, 20 fellows, 17 scholars, 11 bible-clerks, and 15 exhibitioners, on a separate foundation by W. Hulme: 42 benefices.	223	309
hrisi	1516	Richard Fox, Bishop of Winchester, and Lord Privy Seal.	The Bp. of Winchester.	A president, 20 fellows, 20 scholars, 2 chaplains, and 4 choristers: 22 benefices.	92	127
urch	1595 and 1628	Cardinal Wolsey: King Henry VIII. refounded it and gave it the name of Henry VIII.'s College. It was made a cathedral church in 1545.	The Crown and Chancellor of the University.	A dean, 8 canons, 101 students, 8 chaplains, 8 bible-clerks, and 8 choristers: 91 benefices.	500	914
-	1554	Sir Thomas Pope of Trenchard, in Hertfordshire.	The Bp. of Winchester.	A president, 15 fellows, and 15 scholars (all open): 9 benefices.	122	284
-	1555	Sir Thomas White, alderman of London, and founder of Merchant-Taylor School.	Ditto.	A president, 50 fellows and scholars, 1 chaplain, 2 bible-clerks, 6 singing men, and 6 choristers: 29 benefices.	136	250
-	1571	Queen Elizabeth, on the endowment of Dr. Price.	The Earl of Pembroke (hereditary).	A principal, 15 fellows, and 18 scholars, all natives of Wales: 28 benefices.	55	135
-	1615	Nicholas Wadham of Thinfield, in Somersetshire, and Dorothy his wife.	The Bp. of Bath and Wells.	A warden, 15 fellows, and 15 scholars (all open), 10 exhibitioners on Dr. Holy's foundation, 2 chaplains, and 4 bible-clerks: 9 benefices.	98	267
ce	1634	Thomas Tisdale, and Richard Wightwick, B.D.	The Chancellor of the University.	A master, 14 fellows, and 29 scholars or exhibitioners: 13 benefices.	100	180
er	1714	Sir Thomas Cooke of Bentley, in Worcestershire.	The Bps. of Oxford and Worcester, and the Vice-Chancellor of Oxford.	A provost, 21 fellows, 16 scholars, 3 exhibitioners, and 2 bible-clerks: 8 benefices.	113	247
y Hall	1853	Oriel College.	The Chancellor of Oxford, who appoints the Principals.	{ None	25	74
on Hall	1487	Bishop Waynflete, the founder of Magd. College.		{ None	40	173
n Hall	1392	William of Wykeham, who gave it to New College.		{ None	4	84
n Hall	1547	Merton College.		{ None	8	26
und Hall	1560 and 1569	The canon of Ousey: afterwards William Denyer, provost of Queen's College, which society has the appointments of the Principal.	The Provost of Queen's College.	{ None	52	99
slugs. } alia }	-	-	-	-	2,799	5,515

(Oxford Calendar for 1841; and Chalmers's History of the Colleges and Halls of Oxford.)

considerable architectural elegance. The dining-halls of these establishments are on a scale, and the rooms within the colleges are capable of accommodating several hundred students. Oxford, from the great number of its fine academic halls, has a very imposing appearance when seen near or at a distance; and it has been not inaptly called a city of palaces, lying in external view as it does, in the midst of the most beautiful beauty with the finest cities.

As in Cambridge, it is governed by its own; and its principal or head most, in most cases, orders, as a living commonly forms the chief his *solatium*. The direction of the college is in the principal and senior fellows (technically . II.

called the *seniority*); but in matters affecting discipline the principal is the supreme arbiter, and he appoints the deans and tutors, who are immediately responsible to him for the conduct of the members *in statu pupillari*. The fellowships and scholarships are, in most instances, reserved for the natives of certain towns and counties, or for those who have been educated at certain schools; so that birth or interest, more than any positive amount of scholarship, usually procure the candidate's election. At Balliol, Oriel, Lincoln, and Wadham Colleges, however, the fellowships and scholarships have been either wholly or in part thrown open to general competition, and the candidates for these usually comprise the most promising students of the University.

H h

Most of the colleges have *exhibitioners*, or students, receiving annual allowances from charities held in trust by the fellows, by city companies, trustees of schools, &c.; and at Christchurch there are *servitors*, an inferior class of students, somewhat resembling the *scholars* of Cambridge. All *Souls'* College has no undergraduate members, except its bible-clerks, and cannot be considered as an establishment for education, though it has 40 fellows, *bene nati, bene vestiti, et in arte cantandi medicoriter docti*. New College is connected with Winchester School, which owes its origin to the same founder, and, like King's College, Cambridge, has little connexion with the rest of the University; but it has not, like the last-named college, the privilege of examining its own members for academical degrees. Residence in college, which, at Cambridge, is to a certain degree optional, is compulsory at Oxford on all under-graduates who have not passed their examination for the B.A. deg.; and hence the out-college men at Oxford comprise the senior, not the junior portion of the academic population. Attendance at chapel and the tutors' lectures is enjoined on each student, and omissions in either case are visited by impositions, rustication (temporary banishment), and other penalties. At the end of each term, also, examinations are held within the colleges on the subjects of the tutors' lectures: these, termed *creditationes*, have no necessary connexion with the public examinations, though they in some measure familiarize the student with the method pursued in the Academic schools. With respect to college lectures, however, it seems to be generally received, and, we are inclined to think, a well-founded opinion, that, as at present conducted, they confer but little benefit on the student, who is indebted for his degree and distinction, should he acquire any, almost entirely to his own exertions, or to the assistance of a tutor, procured at an expense of from 50*l.* to 70*l.* a year. The degree of attainment requisite for passing the University examinations has, since 1801, been determined by statute; and every candidate must belong to some college or hall, and must have been under collegiate instruction. It is usual, also, for the students to consult their tutors before they put down their names in the list of those to be examined. On admission to the University, each member is required to subscribe his assent to the 39 articles of the Church of England, the act of supremacy, and certain sections of the University statutes; and hence Oxford is exclusively resorted to by parties professing the established religion; whereas, at Cambridge, the education furnished by the University, though not the degrees, may be participated in by all parties, dissenters as well as churchmen.

There are at Oxford four terms in each year, two of which (Michaelmas and Hilary terms) last nine, and two others (Easter and Trinity terms) last from three to four weeks each. By statute, however, the two first mentioned terms may be kept by six weeks' residence, and the two latter by three weeks each; though by those who have taken the first degree in arts, or have passed the examination for that degree (having previously resided 12 terms), any term may be kept by a residence of three weeks. Sixteen terms (occupying the same time as the *twelve* terms, at Cambridge) are required for the degree of B.A. from all, except the sons of British and Irish peers, baronets, knights, and their sons, *if so entered in the University books*; but of these the term of matriculation is reckoned as one, the day of admission to the degree as another, and two others are dispensed with by a regular order of the governing body; so that, in fact, a residence of 12 terms in Oxford, as of 9 terms in Cambridge, is all that is necessary for the B.A. degree. The examinations for this, the lowest degree, are conducted in a large square building, known as "the schools," and consist of two trials, the first, or preliminary examination, called the *little-go*, or *regeneration*, and the second the examination for the B.A. degree, both under masters of arts appointed by the vice-chancellor and proctors. There are seven public examiners of candidates for the B.A. degree, and three examiners, or masters as they are called, of the *little-go* schools. The *little-go* examination, which commonly takes place at the completion of the eighth term from matriculation, comprises a mere grammatical and elementary examination, offering few impediments except to the duller or idler students. To have failed in this examination is, in Oxford phraseology, said to have been *plucked*; and three successive failures are considered as tantamount to a disqualification from further university pursuits. The next examination, or that for the degree of B.A., is the last to which the student is subject during his probationary residence: the lowest acquirements for the degree comprise a knowledge of the rudiments of religion, sacred history, the doctrines of the thirty-nine articles, the *literæ humaniores*, including, at least, two works of Latin and two of Greek authors, (usually Herodotus or Thucydides, with a few Greek plays, and portions of Livy or Tacitus, with

Virgil or Horace,) with a fair knowledge either of Aldrich's Logic or Euclid's Elements. For honours, however, (of which, since 1830, there have been *four* instead of *three* classes as previously,) a very extended course of reading is necessary; the number of classical works on the candidate's list (each being compelled to send in an account of them) often amounts to twelve or sixteen, of which Aristotle's Ethics and Rhetoric commonly form two; and the amount of historical and metaphysical knowledge requisite for the honourable distinction of a *first-class man* is so great as to require intense labour during the three years' probation. It has been alleged, however, that the education of first-class men at Oxford is more extensive than solid, owing to its not being bottomed on any sound philosophical basis; but it may be doubted whether there be any good foundation for this statement. Classics are the favourite studies of the under-graduates, and till recently the pursuit of physical science was, if not discouraged, at least not encouraged. Hence mathematics form an unimportant part of the general examination for the B.A. degree; but for the honours in *disciplina mathematicis et physicis* an amount of knowledge is required, varying from that of pure mathematics, (including differential and integral calculus,) to a slight acquaintance with physics, astronomy, &c. The highest mathematical degree, however, may be generally obtained by persons of less attainments than the *wranglers* of Cambridge. (See Prof. B. Powell on the State of Mathem. Studies in the Univ. of Oxford; Journ. of Education, vii. 46; and Stat. Account of the Brit. Empire, vol. II.) Of those members who, during the last six years, have taken the degree of B.A., the *passmen* (those not ambitious of honours) have averaged at each examination about 100, those receiving honours in classics, 78, and in mathematics only 18. A few of the students aim at distinction both in classics and mathematics; and there are occasional instances of men having attained a *double first-class*, the highest honour that the University can bestow. The examinations for the degrees are held twice a year, during the Easter and Michaelmas terms, and last about three days. A large part of the examination is now carried on by written questions and answers, the oral examination being principally confined to theology. About 300 students pass at each of these examinations.

The annual prizes of the University, which are subjects of considerable competition among those *in statu pupillari*, comprise three of 20*l.* each, given by the chancellor for the best compositions in Latin verse, Latin prose, and English prose; the first being confined to under-graduates, and the others to those who have exceeded four, but not completed seven years. Sir Roger Newdigate, in 1808, left property for an annual prize for English verses on ancient sculpture, painting, or architecture, confined to under-graduates; a prize of 20 guineas was founded, in 1828, by Dr. Elliston, for the best English essay, by bachelors of arts, on the doctrine or duties of religion; and two other theological prizes of 20*l.* each were founded by Mrs. Denyer, in 1836, for the best discourses written on selected subjects by clerical members of the University under the standing of 10 years. The University has likewise several public scholarships. The principal of these are the Vinerian scholarship and fellowship, five Craven scholarships for under-graduates, four scholarships of 30*l.* a year each, established by Dean Ireland, and tenable for four years, the Bodley scholarships for the encouragement of Sanscrit literature, three mathematical scholarships founded in 1831, the Kennicott scholarships for proficient in the Hebrew language, and the Eldon scholarships of 300*l.* a year, tenable for three years by bachelors of arts studying the profession of the law. Several scholarships have, also, within the last few years, been established with the view of encouraging mathematical studies; and they are usually held by those who have attained honours in the mathematical schools of the University. These prizes and scholarships are contested for with great spirit, and the holders of them are usually among the ablest of those *in statu pupillari*. The prize compositions are in most cases recited in the Academical or Sheldon theatre, at the Commemoration or Act held in Trinity term for conferring honorary degrees. After the degree of B.A. has been taken, there are no further examinations except for degrees in medicine; but certain exercises, now merely nominal, are performed in the schools, and the candidate must have had his name on the books of some college or hall for a certain number of terms, during some of which also he must reside in Oxford. Subjoined is a summary of the different periods at which the several degrees, &c., may be acquired in the course of a student at Oxford:—

B. A.	16 terms	13 in residence.
M. A.	28	— 13 or one after B.A.
B. C. L.	38	— 17
B. M.	28	— 17
B. D.	56	— 14

f. 40 terms, or one after B.A.
 L. 28 — but usually honorary.
 3. 68 —
 [us.] chiefly honorary, but dependent on the
 performance of a musical exercise.
 ers in the different colleges rank as follows:—
 1. *scholares*, or principals, most of whom are D.D. 2.
 s. D.D., M.A., or B.A. 3. Noblemen who have
 4. Graduate members not on the foundation.
 5. Graduate noblemen. 6. Gentlemen-common-
 7. Scholars. 8. Commoners. 9. Bible-clerks and

ences of academical residence very greatly ac-
 cording to the taste and habits of the student; but about
 r may be assumed as the average outgoings of
 conical commoners, and an additional ex-
 M. a year is incurred by those who engage the
 a private tutor. The payments to the college
 tuition, &c., are usually called *scholarships*, and in
 f commoners range from 70*l.* to 90*l.* a year;
 of noblemen and gentlemen-commoners are
 erably higher scale, and their annual expences
 nently much greater.

iversity of Oxford is governed, as before
 the *Corpus statutorum*, drawn up by Arch-
 d. The highest officer is the chancellor, an-
 eted for 3 years, but since 1444 for life. This
 ever, as well as that of the high steward or
 is little more than an honorary dignity con-
 some distinguished nobleman; and the chan-
 ceries are ordinarily performed by the vice-
 , who is, in fact, the supreme executive and
 thority resident in the university. He is an-
 eted by the chancellor from the heads of
 d approved by convocation; but in practice
 held for 4 years, and 4 deputies are appointed,
 vice-chancellors, to take the duties of the
 se of the vice-chancellor's absence or illness.
 rs (two masters of arts, of at least 4 and not
 10 years standing) are the conservators of the
 discipline of the university; they rank next to
 ancellor, and have an extensive police juris-
 ction over the town. They are assisted in their duties
 by 12 proctors, who have at their command a large
 ry force. They are annually nominated by
 4, each college taking its turn, according to a
 l by the statutes. The business of the uni-
 its corporate capacity, is transacted by the
 d masters at large, in two distinct assemblies,
regiation and *convocation*. The former con-
 sists either *necessary* or *ad placitum*, including
 ctors, heads of houses, professors and tutors
 i, its business being chiefly confined to the
 f degrees and dispensations; the vice-chan-
 cery negative on its proceedings, and the proctors
 have the same privilege. Convocation is the
 assembly of the university, comprising all
 d masters resident or not, whose names are
 oks of a college or hall; and its business is
 extending to all subjects affecting the credit,
 nd welfare of the corporate body. The sta-
 ver, cannot be altered, nor any new laws be
 before the matter has been referred to the
 d meeting of the vice-chancellor, proctors, and
 houses, who, if they approve of the measure,
 se terms in which it must be promulgated in
 n. The hebdomadal meeting was first insti-
 tuted in the reign of Charles I.

olic professorships of Oxford are of 3 classes,
 blished by royal foundation, and those sup-
 private endowment. The regius-professor-
 ship of divinity, civil law, medicine, Greek, and He-
 brew, founded by Henry VIII., and canonries in
 rich cathedrals are attached to the chairs of
 and Hebrew. George I. did found a regius-
 ship of modern history in 1734, which was
 George II. in 1738. There is also, as at Cam-
 bridge, a regius-professor of divinity. The other
 hips are, 1. of natural philosophy, founded by
 edley, in 1618; 2. geometry and astronomy,
 d by Sir H. Savile; 3. moral philosophy, by
 s, in 1621; 4. ancient history, by W. Camden,
 in 1626; 5. Arabic, by Archbishop Laud,
 in 1633; 6. poetry, in 1708; 7. Anglo-
 1730; 8. common law, by Charles Viner, in
 clinical medicine, in 1731; 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. anatomy,
 of medicine, and chemistry, by Dr. Aldrich, in
 political economy, in 1835; and, 16. Sanscrit, by
 Joden, in 1830. There are also lectureships or
 ps of Arabic, anatomy, experimental philoso-
 phy, and geology; there being, in all, 28
 or readers.

tures are delivered either in the public schools,
 building near them, formerly the university
 office. An edifice, however, is in course of erec-
 tion for which are provided by the munificence
 of the late Michael Angelo Taylor: it will be,

when completed, one of the finest buildings belonging to
 the university, and will comprise several large lecturing
 theatres for the professors, besides a noble picture-gal-
 lery for the reception of the numerous portraits and
 other pictures belonging to the university.

The public orator, who delivers the *Crowleian oration*
 alternately with the professor of poetry, is chosen by
 convocation; and his office is to write public letters and
 make addresses on grand occasions in the name of the
 university. The archives are kept by a registrar, elected
 also by convocation: this office was first established in
 1634. The Clarendon press is superintended by 3
delegates, of whom the vice-chancellor and proctors form 3
ex officio; the rest are heads of houses. The present
 building, opened in 1829, is of great extent, the bible
 department is on a magnificent scale, and the editions of
 classical and other works printed at this establishment
 are celebrated both for beauty and accuracy. The Bod-
 leian library, founded by Sir Thomas Bodley, is the prop-
 erty of the university, and its affairs are regulated by
 the vice-chancellor, proctors, and the five *regii profes-*
 sors, its officers being a librarian, 2 under-librarians, and
 3 assistants. It has received many valuable additions from
 the libraries of Selden, Archbishop Laud, Bishop of Exeter,
 Browne Willis, Hearne, Gough, Malone, &c.; and it now
 comprises, exclusive of about 300,000 printed books, a
 great number of valuable MSS. it is entitled, also, to a
 copy of all new works published in the United Kingdom.
 It is said, however, to be of less utility than might have
 been supposed. Owing to a justifiable apprehension of
 fire, the library is very inadequately warmed, and is very
 uncomfortable in winter; and the books are not allowed
 to be removed from the library. But though this be
 a very proper regulation as respects the rare and more
 valuable works, all the more common works might be
 lent out here as in Edinburgh, on lodging a deposit
 equal to their value, without any loss to the library, and
 with very great advantage to the students. The
 Radcliffe library, founded by Dr. Radcliffe, in 1718, and
 erected at an expense of 40,000*l.* is under private trustees,
 and has little or no connection with the university. The
 books in this collection are principally on medicine and
 natural history. An observatory was erected in 1773, out
 of the funds of the library, by the same munificent individual, and
 the observer (commonly the Savilian professor of as-
 tronomy) is appointed by the Radcliffe trustees. The Ash-
 molean museum was built in 1683, for the accommodation
 of a rich collection of natural objects and articles of virtu,
 brought together by Elias Ashmole: large additions are
 annually made to it; and in the department of natural
 history, this museum is inferior only to the British Mu-
 seum, and that of the Zoological Society. It is under the
 care of official visitors, appointed by Ashmole's
 will.

The few remarks we ventured to make, under the
 article CAMBRIDGE, on the system of education followed
 in that university, apply with little variation to Oxford.
 This, like its sister institution, is essentially a scholastic
 establishment, and is well fitted to make good Greek
 and Latin scholars, and perhaps good divines. But it is
 obviously quite unsuitable, as a place of instruction, for
 the *élite* of the youth of such a country as this. It must
 be entirely changed before it either send forth legis-
 lators capable of appreciating the various interests of
 this vast empire, or individuals capable of promoting and
 extending those manufacturing and commercial pursuits
 to the success of which we are mainly indebted for our
 unparalleled increase in wealth and population. (N. B.
 See last paragraph of article on CAMBRIDGE (University
 of).)

The university of Oxford received, in 1603, the priv-
 ilege of sending 2 representatives to the H. of C.; the
 right of election is vested in the vice-chancellor, doctors,
 and other members of convocation, of whom there were
 in 1840-50, 3,198. (*Guizot's ed. of Wood's Antiquities of*
the University of Oxford; Ackermann's Illustrations of
the University of Oxford, 3 vols.; *Ingram's Memorials of Oxford*, 3 vols.;
Oxford Calendar; and *Private Information*.)

OXUS (called by the natives AMOO or JIHOUN), a river
 of central Asia, flowing westward through the territories
 of Budukshan, Kunduz, Bokhara, Khiva, &c., into the
 Aral Sea, and extending between long. 58° and 74° E.,
 estimated length, 1,300 m. This great river was, in 1838,
 traced up to its source by Lieut. Wood, who ascertained
 that it rises in the mountain lake of Sir-i-kol, within
 the district of Pamir, lat. 37° 47' N., long. 75° 40' E., at
 an elevation of 15,600 ft. above the sea. (*Wood's Journey*
to the Oxus, p. 354.) Its course hence is S.W. for about
 70 m. to Langer Kish, where it turns westward. In long.
 71° 40', it passes the ruby mines of Budukshan, near the
 town of Ishkashm, and is deflected northward by a large
 offset of the Western Himalayan chain. After another turn
 southward, its course is pretty regularly W.N.W. through
 extensive plains, and at the point where Sir A. Burnes
 crossed it on his way to Bokhara, he found it to be up-
 wards of 800 yards in width, about 20 ft. in depth, with
 muddy waters, and a current of about 3½ m. an hour,

and from Kharjoo downwards, for 300 m., it is made available for commercial communication. (*Burnes' Travels*, ii. 214., and *Geog. Journal*, iv. 303.) The river passes about 30 m. N.E. Khiva, which is situated in a verdant plain, irrigated by numerous canals supplied from its waters. It forms at its mouth a pretty extensive delta, the apex of which is about 50 m. from its principal and only navigable embouchure in the Aral Sea, the breadth of coast from the W. to the E. mouth being about 45 m. The Oxus has numerous tributaries; few of which, however, have been satisfactorily explored. A large river, called the Kokcha, rises in the Hindoo-Koosh, near the celebrated lapis-lazuli mines of Budukshan, and, flowing N.W., joins it at Kilapack on the S. bank. About 75 m. lower its waters are further augmented by the Ghorri, an important stream rising in the Hindoo-Koosh, near the celebrated pass of Bamian, and having a general direction northward, passing in its course the large cities of Ghorri and Kundus. The only other affluent explored by Europeans is the Kulm, partly traced by Moorcroft, and joining the Oxus on its S. side, about 30 m. below the tributary last mentioned. Several tributaries flow in from the N. bank, bringing considerable volumes of water; but their extent is almost wholly unknown. The Oxus, according to Moorcroft, begins to rise in April, and remains full till July, when it again falls. When at its height it inundates the country, and especially on the right bank, the extent of the floods being marked by a belt of sedge, weeds, &c., and then by a thick jungle of dwarf trees and brushwood. (Moorcroft and Trebeck's *Travels*, ii. 498.)

The Oxus, regarded by some critics as the Araxes mentioned by Herodotus as flowing through the territories of the Massagete (i. 301–205.; iv. 11.), was supposed by Strabo and Ptolemy to fall into the Caspian; and the traces of a valley, nearly resembling the dry bed of a river, have induced some modern geographers to adopt the opinion, that in the course of ages the Oxus formed for itself a new channel, running into the Aral Sea. But, however confused our information respecting this river, it undoubtedly formed the boundary line between the more civilised and settled nations of W. Asia and the wandering hordes of Tartary. The Oxus was the northern limit of the territories subdued by Cyrus and Alexander, and it seems to have been used, at a very early period, as a channel for commercial intercourse between India and the countries bordering on the Caspian and Euxine. The schism mentioned by Strabo as one of its principal affluents; but his account is inconsistent, and unworthy of credit. (*Strabo*, xi.)

P.

PACIFIC OCEAN (THE), a vast expanse of water, extending between Asia and America, (sometimes, though improperly, called the South Sea,) and covering a large portion of the surface of the globe. Its extreme S. limit is the Antarctic circle, from which it stretches northward through 133 degrees of lat. to Behring's Straits, which separate it from the Arctic Ocean. Its greatest breadth from E. to W., measured along the equator, is about 10,100 m. Its shape is very irregular; but it becomes gradually narrower, as it extends northward, till at length the sea of Kamtschatka has a breadth of only 170 m. The American coast is pretty uniform, though high and bold, presenting the long range of the Andes close down to the shore. Its chief indentations are the Gulf of California and Bay of Panama; besides which, at the N. and S. extremities, it is broken and rugged, forming numerous islands and floras, similar to those of other high latitudes. The coast-line of Asia, on the contrary, is extremely irregular, formed into deep bays, and subdivided by groups of islands into separate gulphs or seas, as the sea of Okhotsk, separating Kamtschatka from Siberia, the channel of Tartary dividing Saghalien from the main land, and the Yellow Sea separating the peninsula of Corea from China; besides which numerous straits are formed between the islands of the Asiatic archipelago, as the Straits of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java; the Straits of Macassar, between Borneo and Celebes; Torres Straits, between New Guinea and Australia; Bass's Strait, between Australia and Van Diemen's Land, &c. The equator divides this vast expanse of water into the two grand portions of the N. and S. Pacific Oceans, both being remarkable for the numerous groups of small coralline and volcanic islands with which they are studded, and which constitute a separate portion of the world, entitled *Polynesia*, to which the reader is referred for further particulars. These numerous islands form several archipelagos, in which are reefs and sandbanks, that render the navigation extremely difficult and dangerous. The reefs are sometimes of great ex-

tent, stretching from island to island, upwards of 600 m. Earthquakes are felt in most of the islands; and all the archipelagos seem to be the seat of extensive volcanic action. (*Lyell's Geology*, iii. 236–239.)

The general motion of the Pacific Ocean is from W. to E., or from the coast of America to that of Asia; and this movement is very powerful in the vast and uninterrupted extent of its waters, though it gradually decreases as it approaches the shores of Asia, while its temperature increases: its average velocity is stated by Capt. Beechey to be about 28 m. a day. (*Geog. Journal*, i. 210.) Near Cape Corrientes, in Colombia, the sea, owing to this cause, appears to flow constantly from the land; and from Acapulco, in Mexico, ships are carried with great celerity to the Philippine Islands. In returning, however, it is found advisable to take a course N. of the tropics, in order to have the advantage of the variable winds and polar currents, as well as of a counter-current, which sets eastward in about lat. 10° N. In the S. Pacific, the Polar currents being less interrupted by land, proceed with less deviation from their general course than those in the N. hemisphere; and carry icebergs nearer to the tropical regions than is usual N. of the equator. The equatorial current, as it approaches the shores of Asia, is interrupted and broken by the vast chain of islands, shoals, and submarine banks, which stretch from China to New Zealand. The general direction is hence modified by the form of these lands, and the vast mass of New Holland is one cause of those dangerous currents around its shores, noticed by Cook, La Perouse, and Flinders. A current, also, sets eastward in the lat. of the Japanese islands, but turns northward about 150 m. from the shore, and probably joins the stream that runs N.N.E. through Behring's Strait; besides which there is a variable current on the E. side of Australia, setting southward from August to April, and northward during the rest of the year. The N.E. trade wind prevails uninterrupted between lat. 50° and 30° N.; and with the currents, enable vessels to sail from America to Asia with great rapidity, and almost without changing the sails.

The S.E. trade wind, which is not met with near the American coast, varies in its extent at different seasons; but it commonly prevails between the equator and 30° S., so that the region of calms in the Pacific extends over only 5 degrees of lat., or somewhat less than in the Atlantic. In this region, however, there are occasionally severe storms, attended with lightning and heavy rain. (See *Bennett's Whaling Voyage*, i. 150.) These winds are still stronger in the numerous straits of the Asiatic Archipelago, and in the neighbourhood of the Philippine Islands, and immediately N. of Australia, their violence becomes extreme, and even dangerous. The attraction of great masses of heated land also causes local variations in the wind, as is the case in New Holland, on the W. side of which there prevails a constant W. wind. Every island has, likewise, its land and sea breezes. In lat. 40° on both sides the equator, tempests and variable winds prevail; but it may be remarked generally, that N. of lat. 30° N., winds from W. and S.W. are more prevalent than any others; whereas in the regions S. of the trade winds, the prevailing winds are from S.W., and often extremely violent. Winds from the S., however, are found along the coast of Peru, and may be attributed in some measure, at least, to the strength of the polar current in the S. hemisphere. They are generally light, though steady; and N. of Guayaquil they always blow from S. E., extending westward as far as the Galapagos. (*Travels Phys. Geography*, 96. 199.; *Macle's Travels*, i. 337. 365.; and *Hall's America*, ii. App.)

Vessels in sailing northward from the coast of Chili are favoured both by wind and tide, so that they may safely run near the shore; but those going in the contrary direction sail south-westward, by means of the trade winds, till they arrive in the region of the variable winds, and are obliged to run as far as about lat. 20° S. before they can reach a port. Navigators traversing the ocean between Asia and America sail westward from Mexico, touching at the Sandwich Islands, and entering the Chinese sea between the islands of Luzon and Formosa; but from the ports of S. America the ordinary trade is westward, between the Marquesas, and Society Islands, beyond which it assumes a W.N.W. direction, and joins the former in lat. 30° N., and long. 125° E. The voyage from Asia to America is effected by seeking the region of the variable winds N. of lat. 30°, and making the coast of California; but from Sydney the course is pretty direct E. as far as the coast of America, where the winds and currents are favourable for reaching its principal ports. One track for vessels sailing from Sydney to India, through the islands N. of New Guinea; the other, however, by Bass's Strait, is more common, and is the only one used in making the passage from India to New South Wales. (See *Berghaus's Physical Map of the Pacific Ocean*, and vol. i. 573. of his *Geography*.)

This ocean, which received its name *Pacific* from Ma-

isa, in consequence of the prosperous weather with which he met while navigating its surface, was not known to the ancients, nor was the existence of so vast ocean at all suspected by Europeans, till, in 1513, Vasco de Balboa beheld it from the summit of the mountain near the Isthmus of Panama. Magellan traversed from America to Asia in 1521, and at the close of the century, Sir Francis Drake explored a great portion of the W. coast of America, in the view of ascertaining whether this ocean had any other communications with Asia than by the Straits of Magellan and round the Horn. The Pacific was pretty extensively explored during the 18th century; and to the observations Behring, Anson, Byron, Bougainville, Cooke, Vancouver, Broughton, and La Pérouse, we are principally indebted for the grand outlines of our best maps of this an. These navigators have been succeeded in the 19th century by Entrecasteaux, Krusenstern, Beechey, Troy, Bennett, &c., and means are now provided for the formation of a pretty accurate chart of this sea so thick studded with rocks and islands. Meanwhile the intercourse of the islanders with Europeans, and the efforts of European missionaries, have introduced among them the arts of civilised life; trade has gradually extended itself along the American shore as well as in different islands; and in Australia, and very recently New Zealand, the British have established numerous very flourishing colonies. For particulars respecting trade of its various ports, the reader is referred to articles MANILLA, CANTON, and NAGASAKI, on coast of Asia; to ACAPULCO, PANAMA, GUAYAQUIL, LAO, VALPARAISO on the W. side of America; and VORNEY, and ZEMLAND (N.W.), in Australia. (*Mathews's Geog. I. and II.; Dict. Geog.; Hall's S. America, II. Appendix; Geog. Journal, I. 198-222; Bennett's Sailing Voyage, &c.*)

ADANG. See SUMATRA.

ADERBORN, a town of Prussian Westphalia, regden, cap. circ. at the source of the Feder, a tributary of the Lippe, 52 m. E.S.E. Munster. Pop., in 1846, 1, principally R. Catholics. It is walled, is tolerably built, and has a good cathedral and several other rich churches, a Lutheran church, synagogue, gymnasium, episcopal seminary, female teachers' seminary, numerous almshouses, and other charities. It has a manufacture of starch, leather, &c.; but its trade is insignificant. It was erected into a bishopric by Charles V., who is said to have made it his head-quarters during his wars with the Saxons. It was the temporary residence of several succeeding emperors, and the palace occupied still exists. Paderborn was subsequently of the Hanse towns. In 1622 it was taken and pillaged by the Duke of Brunswick; and in 1802 it was annexed to Prussia. (*Bergk's Dict. Geog. &c.*)

ADHAM, a town and chapel of England, par. of Illey, co. Lancaster, and upon div. of land, Blackburn, on the Calder, a tributary of the Ribbles, 154 m. from London. Area of township, 1,700 acres; pop., in 1841, 1,000. The town, though small, is respectably built, and of considerable activity. The church, dedicated to that of Whalley, was rebuilt in 1766; but the tower, built at the close of the 15th century, is still standing. The Wesleyan Methodists and Unitarians their respective places of worship; Sunday-schools established. The inhab. are principally employed in manufacture of cotton goods. A market once held has been for some years discontinued. Fairs, 8th and 26th Sept.

ADSTOW (corrupted from *Patrickstow*), a sea-market-town, and par. of England, co. Cornwall, bund. Pyder, on the W. side of the estuary of the el, 11 m. N.W. Bodmin, and 220 m. W. by S. from London. Area of par., 3,270 acres; pop., in 1841, 2,145. The town, which is situated in a richly cultivated vale, is surrounded by bold rocks and hills, has been considerably improved by the erection of new houses; but the streets are inconveniently narrow, and many of the buildings antiquated. The church is in the perpendicular style; the living is a vicarage in the patronage of the deans of Dr. Prideaux, the learned author of the *us* historical work on the "Connection" of the Old New Testaments, a native of the town, where he was born in 1648. The Wesleyan Methodists have also a place of worship, and there are 2 Sunday-schools, belonging to a small endowed national school. Facing the town are good quays and a custom-house, the growth of customs' duty in 1840 being 2,018*l*. The entrance to the harbour is between Stepper Point, on the N. and Pentire Point, on the E., close to the former, the passage is narrow, and rather difficult, especially N.W. winds; it has from 13 to 18 ft. water at low ebbs. This is the only harbour between the Lizard and Hartland Point. (*Purdy's Sailing Directory for the English Channel*). In the reign of Edward I., Padstow furnished 3 ships for the siege of Leland; and in the time of Leland it carried on a considerable trade with Ireland and Wales. In Jan. 1850,

112 vessels, of the aggregate burden of 7,984 tons, belonged to the port. The town was incorporated by Queen Elizabeth, but the charter has lapsed by desuetude.

PADUA (Ital. *Padova*, an. *Patavium*), a city of Austrian Italy, gov. Venice, cap. deleg. of its own name, in a low and rather marshy situation, between the Brenta and Bacchiglione, at the termination of the canal of Monselice, 34 m. W. Venice; lat. 45° 24' 7" N., long. 11° 52' 15" E. Pop. circa, 45,000. (*Austrian Encyc.*) It is of a triangular shape, is surrounded with walls and a broad ditch, and intersected by canals. Mr. Rose speaks very slightly of Padua, and represents it as a city which, beyond all others, disappoints the expectations of the traveller. (*Letters, I. 51.*) It is, certainly, dull, damp, and gloomy, having numerous narrow, dirty, monotonous streets, bordered by arcades, without any leading thoroughfare; there are three or four squares or open spaces, which, however, are all of very limited dimensions, excepting the Prato della Valle, the principal public promenade. This, which occupies what was once a marsh, bears some resemblance to a London square, but the interior is differently laid out; being surrounded by a circular stream of running water, the banks of which are fringed with a double row of statues representing distinguished natives of Padua. The houses, though old, are generally well built and lofty. The principal public buildings are the churches, of which there are said to be nearly 100. The cathedral, a large brick edifice of Grecian architecture, was intended to have a stone front, which, however, has not yet been built. There is in it little remarkable; except a monument to Francesco, high, portrait, and some Madonna's, one of which is by Titian. The church of St. Anthony, begun in 1250 and finished in 1424, 325 ft. in length by 160 ft. in width, is a vast ugly pile, exhibiting 7 domes, a small octagonal tower above the gable of the front, 2 high octagonal towers, near the choir, and a lofty cone in the centre surmounted by an angel. (*Wood's Letters of an Architect, I. 246.*) The splendid shrine of the saint, with *mezzo-reliefs* in white marble; and 2 fine bronze panels, by Riccio, are the principal objects of interest within. The church of S. Giustina, begun and finished during the 16th century, is partly modelled on the foregoing, but is far handsomer. It is of brick, 367 ft. in length, by 252 ft. in the transept, and 82 ft. in height inside. It was built from a design by Palladio; its interior is generally admired. Forsyth says, "it is rich in the bones of 3,000 saints, and the disputed bodies of two apostles;" and it possesses a less questionable, if not so precious a relic, in a fine painting of Paul Veronese. The Benedictine Abbey, to which this church was attached, is now converted into a barrack. The churches of the Eremitani and the Annunziata, with some fine frescos by Giotto; la Madre dolente; S. Gaetano, &c. have all valuable works of art, or are remarkable for their architecture. The Palace of Justice, or town-hall, is one of the most striking edifices in Padua; it has a saloon, 276 ft. in length, 86 ft. in breadth, and 75 ft. in height, being one of the largest in Europe, unsupported by columns. The roof is of dark carved wood, shaped like a reversed keel, and sustained by a number of iron ties. The walls are ornamented with frescos, originally the work of Giotto. In the hall is a monument in honour of Livy, a native of Padua; and at the entrance are two basalt statues, brought from Egypt by Belzoni, who also belonged to the city. The tower of Erzelin, still used as an observatory; the theatre, the museum of antiquities, &c.; the mayor's, and several other official and private palaces; the *café Pedrocchi*, one of the oldest and best establishments of its kind in Europe; several good hotels; and the university buildings, are among the most conspicuous of the remaining public edifices; but, according to Mr. Woods, the last mentioned structure hardly surpasses mediocrity.

The university of Padua, founded in the 13th century, was in the height of its popularity during the 15th and 16th centuries, when it was not only frequented by vast numbers of students from all parts of Europe, but even by some from Mohammedan countries. Its medical school was particularly celebrated. Fallopius, Fabricius ab Aquapendente, Morgagni, &c. have been among its medical teachers; and Galileo, Guglielmini, &c. among its professors of philosophy. Dante, Petrarch, and Tasso were of the number of its pupils. Harvey took his doctor's degree here in 1602. Evelyn also studied here in 1645, and it was resorted to by many other distinguished foreigners. Defects of discipline and the quarrels of the students seem to have been the first causes of the decline of the university, which has for more than a century been in a languishing state. But it has still to boast of several distinguished professors, and ranks as the second seminary of its kind in Italy, that of Pavia being the first. It

* It is said in *Corder's Italy* (II. 152.), that Vesalini was professor of anatomy at Padua from 1537 to 1542; but this is an error. He was once the chair of anatomy, vacant by the death of the professor in 1564, the same year in which he died. (*Biographie Universelle, art. Vesale.*)

has faculties of theology, law, medicine, and philosophy, and 35 professors, with between 400 and 500 students. It is governed by a senate, composed of a rector and 12 other individuals chosen from its general assembly; which includes, with the directors, deans, and professors, all the doctors who have graduated at Padua, and reside in the city. The university library comprises about 70,000 vols., and it has a fine botanic garden, one of the oldest in Europe. Padua has a celebrated society of arts and sciences, an episcopal seminary, with an extensive library, formerly belonging to the Benedictine Abbey, a city-school, 2 gymnasia, a high female school, agricultural, veterinary, and various other schools, a famous chemical laboratory and cabinet of mineralogy, and several libraries and museums of the arts, &c., this city being the seat of one of the 5 sections of the literary union of Austrian Italy. Among the charitable institutions are a civil and military hospital, a workhouse, foundling and orphan asylums, a *monte de pietà*, &c. Padua is a bishop's see, and the seat of the council and superior judicial courts for the deleg. It has been celebrated, both in ancient and modern times, for its woollen manufactures; but these have greatly declined since the time of the Venetian republic. It has still, however, manufactures of woollen cloth, broad silks, silk ribbands and leather, and an extensive trade in wine, oil, cattle, garden vegetables. The fair of St. Anthony, which lasts 15 days, from June 13th, renders the city for a time a scene of bustle and gaiety; and the inhabs. derive some benefit from Padua being, for a part of the year, the residence of the Venetian nobility. It is very ancient, being said to have been founded by Antenor, after the siege of Troy—

"*His membra ille urbes Patavi seque locavit*
Troicorum, et nulli nocuit deinde." *Æneid*, l. 242.

The historian Livy was a native of Padua; and the alleged *patavinity* of his style has long been a topic for critical discussion. Padua was taken by Alaric Attila and the Lombards; but being restored by Charlemagne to something like its former grandeur, it became, under his successors, flourishing and independent. In 1318, it came into the possession of the Carrara family; and in 1405 was united to the Venetian territory. Under the French it was the cap. dep. Brenta.

PAIMBEUF, a sea-port town of France, dép. Loire Inférieure, cap. arrond., in the Loire, 22 m. direct distance W. Nantes, to which it is, in fact, the deep-water harbour. Pop., in 1846, 3,473. It consists principally of one good street, fronting the quays which border the river. It has a fine mole 300 ft. in length, a school of navigation, a communal college, and court of primary jurisdiction. Vessels of more than 200 tons trading with the port of Nantes stop here to load or unload their cargoes.

PAINSWICK, a market town and par. of England, co. Gloucester, hund. Blisley, on the S. declivity of Spouthead Hill, 3 m. S. Gloucester, and 50 m. W. by N. London. Area of par., 6,510 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,749. The town is small and irregularly built, the streets being neither paved nor lighted. The church, which is large, has at its W. end a fine tower and spire 174 ft. in height; but the building is rendered unsightly by the strange admixture of Doric and Ionic pillars, with the more ancient architecture in the Gothic style. There are, also, 2 places of worship for Dissenters, and 6 Sunday schools, furnishing religious instruction to about 500 children of both sexes. The town has an endowed free school for 26 boys, besides which 3 subscription schools, and an infant school, are attended by 300 children.

PAISLEY, a parl. bor., market and manufacturing town of Scotland, co. Renfrew, partly on rising ground, and partly on a plain, on both sides the White Cart, 3 m. S. Renfrew Ferry, on the Frith of Clyde, and 8 m. W. by S. Glasgow. The surrounding country is nearly a dead level, except on the S., in which direction the "Braes of Gleniffer" rise to a height of 760 ft. within little more than 1 m. of the town. Pop. of the town and par. in 1755, 6,799; in 1801, 31,179; in 1841, 60,963. Pop. of the town only, in 1831, 45,199; in 1841, 48,486.

Paisley, inc. its suburbs, is spread over a tract of ground comprising an area of about $2\frac{1}{2}$ sq. m.; but the boundary of the parl. bor. embraces an area of about 6 sq. m. Its main street runs from E. to W. for nearly 2 m., and forms part of the road from Glasgow to Beith, and the towns on the coast of Ayrshire. Another long line of road passes through it from N. to S. That part which lies E. of the river is called the New Town; the first houses in this important addition to the bor. having been erected in 1779. But, though well built, Paisley is not so handsome as some of the larger Scottish towns. Of late years, however, its appearance has been greatly improved by the substitution of numerous substantial houses for low thatched cottages. Improvements of this description are in rapid progress; but still, in passing along the streets, one observes a singular alternation of handsome with mean edifices. The streets are generally paved, and are lighted with gas; and the town is well supplied with water from the Gleniffer Braes, by means of reservoirs constructed under an act passed in 1836, at a cost of 60,000l.

In the neighbourhood are some elegant villas and baronial seats. The most important of the public edifices is that for the civil business of the town and county, incl. the gaol and bridewell, erected in 1830 at an expense of 28,000l.; but the former being deficient, an addition is now being made to it, which is to cost 10,000l. The original parish of Paisley has been divided into four distinct parishes. The Abbey Church, which is a collegiate charge, consists of the nave of an ancient monastery, being, with the exception of a small chapel, and a N. transept window, the only portion that now remains of that once splendid building. The High Church, on an eminence in the Old Town, or "the burrough," as it is commonly called, is an elegant building, with a spire 160 ft. in height. The Free church has 6 places of worship; but none of these require any particular notice, if we except the Free High Church, an imposing Gothic fabric. The Episcopal Chapel is a handsome Gothic building; and one of the Secession churches is of Grecian architecture. The New Town is connected with the bor. by 3 bridges; and the river is also crossed by the line of the Glasgow, Paisley, and Ayr and Greenock railways, which pass through the town. Several years ago, the bor. were erected in one of the suburbs for the accommodation of a battalion of infantry. Here, also, is a theatre, with 3 assembly rooms, and other places of amusement. In 1845, a cemetery was laid out on rising ground to the W. of the town, and the taste displayed in its arrangement, and the scenery it commands, have made it a favourite promenade.

In addition to the churches of the establishment and the Free church (one of which is for discourses in Gaelic), there are no fewer than 7 Presbyterian dissenting churches, besides 2 Baptist places of worship, 3 Methodist chapels, 3 Independent chapels, and separate churches belonging to the R. Catholics, Episcopalians, Unitarians, and New Jerusalemists; and there are two or three additional dissenting chapels in Johnston, a large village within the par. Within the parl. bor., 19,812 persons belonged, in 1836, to the established church; 22,430 to other religious denominations; the remainder not being known to belong to any Christian denomination. But in consequence of the establishment of the Free church the adherents of the establishment must now be considerably diminished. Paisley has a seminary for theological instruction, connected with the Reformed Presbyterian Synod, with an extensive collection of theological books.

The grammar-school, a royal foundation (though the endowments have nearly disappeared), established by James VI., in 1576, and confirmed by subsequent royal deeds, is in a highly efficient state. There are, ex. sundry schools, about 60 schools in the town and par., all of which, with some trifling exceptions, are unendowed. A ragged school was instituted last year. About 10 years ago, Mr. Neilson of Nethercompton, in 1797, left a large sum to found a charitable school; and an extensive and elegant school-house, which will be one of the finest buildings in town, is now being erected by the trustees under his will. A Philosophical Institution was founded here in 1808, in which courses of lectures on different branches of science and literature are delivered. A small library and a museum are attached to it; but the institution is not in a very flourishing condition. An Athenæum, instituted in 1847, has a news-room, classes for modern languages and music, a discussion or mental instruction class, a library, &c. Fee 15s. a-year. An Artisan's institution similar to the last was also opened in 1847. Fee 8s. a-year. Here, also, is a Mechanics' Institute. No newspapers are printed in the town; but Paisley editions are published of 3 of the Glasgow newspapers. Among the eminent characters that Paisley has produced may be named Alexander Wilson, the celebrated American ornithologist, and Robert Tannahill, the Scottish poet. Dr. Witherspoon, author of various theological works, and afterwards president of the college of New Jersey, was, for ten years, one of the ministers of the town. The "Public Subscription Library," containing about 5,000 volumes, is now incorporated with the Athenæum.

Poor rates were introduced into the bor. so early as 1752; and into the Abbey par. in 1785. The annual assessment in 1849 in the former was 9,487l., and in the latter 6,457l.; the number of paupers in both, inc. occasional and permanent poor and children, was, at the same time, 3,973. There is an hospital or workhouse in the bor., erected in 1762. A large and handsome hospital for the Abbey par., with a lunatic asylum, has just been erected in the south part of the town; it cost above 10,000l., and accommodates 600 inmates. About 10 acres of land are attached to it. The infirmary, which has been recently enlarged at an outlay of from 3,000l. to 3,000l., accommodates from 150 to 200 fever, and 50 surgical patients. The children are boarded and educated in the country. The town was visited by cholera in 1832 and 1834, and slightly in 1849. The deaths in 1850 amounted to 1,416, viz., 680 males and 736 females, being a decrease of 375 from the previous year, and being the lowest mortality since 1845.

Manufacture.— Paisley was early distinguished by its manufacture. The first impulse given to this department was by pedlars or travelling merchants, who, soon after the Union, bought the goods made here, and sold them in England. A good many of these merchants, having made some money, settled in the town. The articles then manufactured were striped linen cloths, handkerchiefs, and Bengals; these were succeeded by plain lawns, some of them chequered with cotton, and others ornamented with a great variety of figures; and by linen gauze.

One of the principal branches of industry carried on in the town during last century was the manufacture of fine linen sewing thread, called "Ousec" or "Nan's" thread. At the close of the century the annual value of this article was estimated at about 60,000*l.*; but it has since been almost wholly superseded by the employment of cotton thread. This change has not, however, been disadvantageous to Paisley; for, at present (1851), the production of the latter gives employment to 10 factories and about 1,700 work-people. The thread is generally woven on small iron bobbins, made of birchwood, of which about 60,000,000 are annually disposed of! The sales of thread, i.e. bobbins, amount at present to about 30,000*l.* a year.*

In 1769 the making of silk gauze was first attempted, in imitation of that of Spitalfields; and it soon attained great importance, both in the town and villages round, to the distance of 30 m. This trade afterwards declined; but not till the Spitalfields manufacturers had been driven out of the market, and some of them had acquired their establishments to Paisley. It has again partially revived.

In 1768, when the silk gauze trade experienced a temporary interruption, many of the principal houses in the town entered into the muslin manufacture, which rose to great height of prosperity. But with the exception of sea muslins, embroidered with fancy needle-work, this branch has been wholly abandoned. The embroidery is executed by females in the villages in Ayrshire and in the west of Ireland, about 2,000 being now in the employment of the only Paisley house engaged in the trade.

The shawl manufacture introduced in 1806, is one of the staple branches carried on in Paisley. Imitation silks of all kinds have, at different times, been made here, — such as Thibet shawls, Cashmere ditto, and brae; the last being so called from their resemblance to the skin of the zebra. The genuine Cashmere wool imported for making the Cashmere shawls; but Arabian and fine German wools are also used. It is a curious and not easily explained fact, that the yarn is generally spun in France, and that the attempts to produce it here have not hitherto been successful. Edinburgh had long the lead in this manufacture, but it has been nearly beat out of the field; and, though a shawl is still made in Norwich, Paisley is at present without a British rival in this department. It has, nevertheless, a close and keen competition to sustain with Parisian shawl manufacturers, who have attained to perfection in the art. At present (1850) it is said to none but an experienced dealer can distinguish between a first-rate Paris and Paisley shawl.

Next in importance to the imitation Indian shawls are the tartan and woollen shawls, especially the latter, in tartan and other patterns. A similar description of woollen vils, but of a coarser fabric and an inferior dye, are at Galashiels. Cotton-crape and embroidered vils are, also, produced, but only to a limited extent; this is the case with the elegant shawl, called *Chemise-caterpillar* from its variegated colour, its roughness the softness of its feel.

Within these few years the printing of thin woollen vils, with *monnaies-de-lance*, cottons, and silks has been introduced into the town, since 1851, to some extraordinary importance. Some of the print works are actively employed by London houses, who send their shawls here to be printed. The business employs in the only about 2,500 hands, and from 1,000 to 1,200 in country.

Until recently the finest woollen cloths used in printing all brought from France, and the other qualities Bradford; but lately the Paisley manufacturers succeeded in producing cloth equal to that formerly

imported; and in some establishments the whole process of manufacturing, from the carding of the wool to the sale, is conducted on the premises. The value of the sales of textile fabrics in 1850 has been estimated at 1,100,000*l.* to 1,200,000*l.* About 2,320 looms are

now employed in the manufacture of "Nan's" thread was introduced by a lady, Shaw, afterwards Mrs. Miller, who found means to import machinery required to produce it from Holland. This lady is well, though less favourably known in the annals of superlative crime. When 11 years of age she pretended, or imagined to have been bewitched; and no fewer than 14 persons, 5 of whom were found guilty and executed in Paisley in 1807, were hanged and buried charge. (*Jacob's Criminal Trials; New Account of Scotland, art. Paisley.*)

at present employed in the town, and 2,000, on Paisley capital, in the country. Of the town looms, 270 work for Glasgow houses. Machinery is advantageously employed in finishing shawls, particularly in dressing and clipping.

All the trades depending on and subordinate to the shawl manufacture have largely increased, especially that of dyeing. This branch employs from 600 to 700 hands. A silk-mill employs 324 hands. There are 3 power-loom factories for the weaving of the cottons used in printing; but it is a curious fact that the yarn used in their manufacture is all imported; the cotton spinning mills, of which there were formerly 10 in the bor., having been all abandoned except one.

The town has 4 iron and brass foundries; a large tan-work; several large works for machinery, and a very extensive manufactory of agricultural implements; 3 breweries; one large malt distillery; a soap-work, which produced in 1849, 1,391,640 lbs. soap, several extensive bleachfields in the neighbourhood, and various other minor branches of business, i.e. the manufacture of fine shawls from sego. The foregoing accounts, generally speaking, are confined to Paisley and its suburbs, and do not include Johnston, Elderslie, and other villages at some distance, though within the limits of the original par. of Paisley. (*Vide Johnston, in this work.*)

From 1825 to 1847 the trade of Paisley was subject to great vicissitudes, and so depressed was its situation that in 1841-42 no fewer than 14,921 persons were at one time in the receipt of charity. But since 1847 there has been a very material improvement. Employment has been steady and fairly remunerated. Various branches of industry have been opened; and the population is not so dependent as formerly on the caprices of fashion. The credits formerly given, with the greatest improvidence, by the banks, have been restricted: the manufacturers no longer confine themselves to the supply of a few large wholesale houses; but are now in the habit of dealing with various parties in each locality, so as probably to receive even a better profit, while their business is rendered much safer. The working classes are recovering from their long depression, and are enabled to avail themselves of the full advantages of the liberality of Sir Robert Peel. In 1847, a suitable building was erected as a School of Design. It is aided by an annual grant from government, is attended by above 60 pupils, and promises to be of increasing benefit as it becomes better known.

Renfrew, or Renfrew Ferry, 3 m. from the town, is, properly speaking, the port of Paisley; but the White Cart, which falls into the Clyde, 3 m. from the bor., and only a few hundred yards W. of Renfrew, is navigable to Paisley for vessels of 80 tons. Much has been done to improve the navigation of this river. A railway, worked by horse power, has been opened between the town and Renfrew Ferry. A railway from Glasgow passes through the town, where it divides itself into two branches, one going to Ayr, with a branch by Kilmarnock to the Dumfries and Carlisle line, the other leading to Greenock. The Glasgow, Paisley, and Johnston Canal, opened in 1811, commences at Port Eglinton, near Glasgow, passes Paisley, and terminates at Johnston, a distance of 11 m. There are four branch banks; and a Savings' Bank, or Provident Bank, instituted in 1838, the deposits in which amount to 43,734*l.* The neighbourhood of the town produces coal, ironstone, fire-clay, and potters' clay; and there are manufactures of sulphate of iron, or copras, alum, muriate of potash, and sulphate of ammonia.

Previously to the passing of the Reform Act in 1832, Paisley, notwithstanding its great wealth and importance, had no parliamentary representative; but the Act in question conferred on it the important privilege of sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered voters in 1849-50, 1,108. Archibald Campbell, a native of the bor., has been for some years a mem. of par. representative. He deservedly enjoys the esteem and confidence of all classes. The bor. is governed by a provost, 4 bailies, a treasurer, and 10 councillors. Municipal revenue, 1848-49, 2,000*l.* The sheriff courts of the county were transferred from Renfrew, the capital of the shire, to Paisley, so early as 1708.

Paisley is very ancient, and is supposed to occupy the site of the Roman station *Fandaharia*. In 1164, Walter, son of Allan, Lord High Steward of Scotland, founded a monastery here, of which nothing remains but the nave and its collateral appendages, now used as the parish church. This abbey, the precincts of which were enclosed with a wall about 1 m. in circ., was the burial-place of the Stuart family till they became kings of Scotland. At the Reformation, this property passed into the hands of a branch of the house of Hamilton, now represented by the Marquis of Abercorn, in whose possession (with a slight interruption) it has ever since remained. Paisley, in 1463, was regularly constituted under the jurisdiction of the abbot. The "Black Book of Paisley" has lately been ascertained to be simply a

MS. copy of Fordun's "Scotichronicon." The "Charter of Paisley" was printed in 1829 by the Maitland Club of Glasgow. Sir William Wallace is said to have been born at Elderslie, about 2 m. S.W. of the town. (In addition to the works already quoted, see *Chalmers's Caledonia*, vol. iii.; *Crawford's Renfrewshire*, 3d ed., 1818; and *Priv. Inform.* obtained from the highest authority.)

PALEMBANG. See SUMATRA.

PALENCIA, a city of Spain, k. of Leon, cap. prov. of its own name, on the Carrion (crossed here by 2 bridges), 57 m. S.E. of Leon, and 118 m. N.N.W. Madrid. Pop., according to Minato, 10,813. Principal public buildings, the cathedral (one of the largest Gothic structures in Spain), 5 parish churches, a well-endowed hospital, a poor-house, founding asylum, the bishop's palace. Palencia had a university prior to the establishment of that at Salamanca; and it still possesses a superior seminary, with about 60 students, of grammar and philosophy. It has manufactures of woollen goods, blankets, coverlets, and serge, which meet with a ready sale throughout Spain; and of hats and earthenware, with tanneries, &c.

PALESTINE (an. *Palestina*, from *peal*, all, and *esue*, a station for ships, from the number of vessels that frequented its port), the cap. city, and principal sea-port of Sicily, on its N. coast, towards its W. extremity; lat. (observatory) 38° 6' 44" N., long. 13° 20' 15" E. Pop., in 1831, 173,478; and, though diminished by the occurrences in 1849, it may now (1850) amount to about 182,000. It is built along the S. W. side of an extensive bay, in a plain which, from its luxuriance, and from being surrounded by mountains on three sides, has been termed the "golden shell" (*concha de oro*). In front of the city, the numerous steeples, cupolas, and towers of which give it a noble appearance from the sea, is the Marina, a raised platform or terrace, extending above 1 m. along the bay, and about 80 paces in breadth. At the E. extremity of this walk is the Flora, a public garden, laid out in walks, interspersed with statues, fountains, and summer-houses. People of all ranks are admitted, and in fine evenings it appears the rendezvous of the whole city. Adjoining the Flora is the botanical garden, at the entrance of which is a building similar to an ancient temple, in which botanical lectures are delivered. The garden is well laid out, and contains an extensive collection of valuable plants. On the W., Palerme extends to the foot of the rocky and abrupt mountain Pellegrino, but on the E. a reach of well cultivated grounds ascends gradually to Cape Zaffarana, which bounds the bay on that side. The city is surrounded by an old wall, of little or no strength, some of the bastions being occupied by gardens, while others have been cut away to increase the breadth of the Marina. It is, however, defended by a citadel and several other forts, which are tolerably strong towards the sea; though from being much scattered they would require a large garrison, and could not hold out against a force investing the city by land.

Palerme is regularly built, and, if better finished, might be esteemed an elegant city. Two large streets, the Cassaro and Strada Nuova, each upwards of a mile in length, intersect each other at right angles, dividing the city into four equal parts, and each leading to one of the four principal gates. These streets are well paved with large flat blocks of lava, and are faced throughout their whole length with handsome buildings. The central space where they meet is an octagon (*Piazza Ottogona*); each of its sides consists of an edifice three stories in height, combining the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian orders; and it is besides enriched with statues and fountains. A *comp-d'arcil* of similar magnificence to that enjoyed from this piazza is, perhaps, not to be met with in any other city of Europe. (*Russell's Sicily*, 43.)

There are several other public places or squares adorned with obelisks, jets-d'eau, and sculpture, of which the principal are the column of St. Dominic, and the superb fountain opposite the pretorian palace. But all the streets, except those above named, are irregularly laid out, narrow, and ill built. The houses are almost all high, and a number of them have balconies with iron railings. These projections lessen the symmetry of the architecture, but this is more than counterbalanced by the convenience they afford of enjoying the cool evening breeze in so warm a climate. Almost every house has a common stair; and each story of apartments forms, as in the old houses of Paris and Edinburgh, the separate residence of a family. Several of the mansions of the nobility are admired for their architecture, but their interior is usually deformed by a multiplicity of false ornaments. Many have marble columns, either in front, or in the large court, which they generally inclose; but their effect is frequently destroyed by the meanness of the adjoining buildings. Altogether Palerme presents an incongruous mixture of pomp and poverty, exemplified in noble ranges of palaces disgraced at their bases by shops and stalls, and in shabby equipages parading the same streets with sturdy mendicants vociferously demanding food, or slyly taking

their seats on the pavement. Swarms of priests, nobles, officers, and other loungers, seen on chairs before the coffee-houses; and artisans of every kind at their respective employments outside their shop doors, usurp the sides of the streets, obliging foot passengers to walk in the centre among the numerous carriages. The constant calling out on these occasions on the part of the coachmen, added to the hurry of business, and the groups round the ice-water stalls, form an animated and singular if not a pleasing scene.

The supply of water is peculiarly abundant, and most of the houses have fountains, even in their second and third stories; hence the city is in general clean, except after heavy rains, when, from the lowness of its site, it becomes extremely muddy, and recourse is sometimes had to movable iron bridges for crossing the streets. There is an excellent supply of provisions of every description; and during the absence of the moon, the principal streets are tolerably well lighted. The city, excepting on the site of the ancient port, where malaria is generated in autumn, is healthy. The temperature of winter seldom falls below 50° Fah. In summer, however, the thermometer keeps for months between 80° and 90°; and these high heats, generally shared by their houses and shops a little before noon, keeping them shut for 3 or 4 hours, an interval during which all is silence and stagnation. The *Sciocco* is very oppressive, but fortunately not of frequent occurrence.

Palerme has a great number of public edifices and institutions. Convents and churches are particularly numerous; of the former there are even said to be nearly 701. Most of the churches are sumptuous; but they discover no taste, and offend the eye by a profusion of ornament. A striking monotony reigns in their construction, being generally built with an elevated facade, a large nave, and 2 side aisles, bounded by lateral chapels, dedicated to various saints, and decorated with pillars, paintings, statues, flowers, and candelabra. Some, however, as that formerly belonging to the Jesuits, must be excepted from this censure. The cathedral, erected about 1180, by Archbishop Waller, an Englishman, is externally of Gothic architecture; and, though not in the best taste, is a tolerable specimen of the style of the 12th century. It has, however, been spoiled by the modern addition of a cupola; and its interior has been somewhat recently altered to the Greek style. Within are many fine red porphyry sarcophagi, of considerable antiquity, in which have been deposited the remains of different sovereigns of the island, including Roger the founder of the Norman kindg. of Sicily, the emperor Frederick II., &c. The church of St. Giuseppe, also on the Cassaro, is profusely and richly ornamented, and has some fine columns of grey Sicilian marble, nearly 60 ft. in height. The royal palace, the residence of the viceroy, is a spacious building of mixed Arabic and Norman architecture. It has many spacious apartments, a gallery with some good paintings, and a neat armoury; on the summit is the observatory erected in 1748, whence Piazzi discovered the planet Ceres. Attached to the palace is the beautiful little church of St. Peter, which, with its crypt and superb mosaics, forms one of the most complete specimens of Saracenic magnificence extant. The square in front has a statue of Philip IV. of Sicily, surrounded by four other statues. The tribunal of justice and the custom-house occupy a large edifice on the Marina, formerly the palace of the Inquisition, abolished in 1782. The public prison, in one of the main streets, built round a large court yard, though well supplied with water, is dirty, and in many respects badly provided. The Jesuit's College, a magnificent edifice in the Cassaro, with various schools, and a fine library, in which the Sicilian parliament formerly held their sittings; the university, the archbishop's palace, and the principal government pawn-bank, a spacious building, with a neat portico, are among the remaining most remarkable edifices. There are several theatres, but they are generally ill constructed, and not to be compared to those of Naples, Paris, or London.

At the N. W. extremity of the city is the arsenal, from which a fine mole, fully 1-4th m. in length, having a lighthouse and battery at its extremity, projects S. into 9 or 10 fathoms water, forming a convenient port, capable of accommodating a great number of vessels. This important work cost about 1,000,000 sterling; but the lighthouse, though a splendid structure, is said to be very ill lighted. Ships that do not mean to go with the mole may anchor about half a m. from it, in from 16 to 23 fathoms. There is an inner port, reserved for the use of the arsenal, with large naval magazines, prisons for galley-slaves, &c. There is also a small cove in front of the town, called the *Caia felice*, the representative of the two ancient harbours, and capable of accommodating vessels of from 150 to 200 tons. On its E. side is the pratique office; the lazaretto, a dirty and inefficient establishment, is in a rocky bay at the back of the mole.

Few indications exist of the ancient splendour of the city, except the remains of a naumachia, and some ve-

tiges of an amphitheatre. In the senatorial hall are preserved fragments of various marbles, &c., and in the royal palace are two ancient bronze rams, brought thither from Syracuse, and said to have been made by Archimedes! (*Smyth's Sicily*, p. 73.)

In the neighbourhood are many fine specimens of Moorish architecture; the principal being the Saracenic fortress of Kuba, now used as cavalry barracks; and the Zisa, a palace erected in the 9th or 10th century, still in good repair, and occasionally used as a royal residence. Near the latter is a Capuchin convent, with a cadaver, or receptacle for the reception of dead bodies. A royal residence, in the Chinese style, stands outside the walls, near M. Pellegrino; and about 10 m. E. Palermo, near the bay, is La Bagaria, the favourite residence of many Sicilian nobles. Several of the villas of the nobility are richly adorned, both by nature and art: that of Prince Palagonia, however, is chiefly noted for its statues of all sorts of monsters.

Palermo is the see of an archbishop, who is primate of Sicily; the seat of an intendant and council of intendency; a departmental council; a supreme court of justice, with 14 judges; a civil and criminal court for the intendency, and a tribunal of commerce. It has a university, the second in the Neapolitan dom., attended by about 600 students, comprising several eminent names among its professors. It has a library of upwards of 30,000 vols., a printing press, several museums; but only a few lectures are given, and the education is worthless in the extreme. Palermo has also a high female seminary, second to that of Naples; a college of nobles, an episcopal seminary, and many inferior schools; numerous charities, including large hospitals, a lunatic and a foundling asylum, houses of industry for mendicants, &c.; public baths, and several public libraries and scientific associations. Silk manufactures were established here in the 11th century, and they still form the chief branch of manufacturing industry, though much less flourishing than formerly. Cotton fabrics are also produced, with oil-cloth, leather, &c.; and there is here a glass work, the only one in Sicily. The tannery employs from 900 to 1000 hands, and 3,500 sheepskin. But the principal resources of the shab. depend on Palermo, being the residence of the icery and the seat of government, and on her trade. The latter, indeed, is but trifling, compared to what it could be were Sicily under an enlightened government, capable of calling forth its vast resources. But even at present it is far from inconsiderable. The great articles of export are shumac, fruits of various sorts, including oranges and lemons, wine, manna, brimstone, &c. Subtitled is a

Statement of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles exported from Palermo in 1847.

Articles.	Quantities.	Value in Pounds Sterling.
Argols and cream of tartar - - -	cwt.	5,641
Bark - - - - -	-	4,461
Brimstone - - - - -	-	1,480
Brumstone - - - - -	-	927
Cantharides - - - - -	-	10,456
Camphor - - - - -	-	1,300
Essences - - - - -	-	15,000
Flax, mixed - - - - -	-	10,700
Fruits - - - - -	-	2,060
Grain - - - - -	-	160
Grain - - - - -	-	26,240
Grain - - - - -	-	33,464
Grain - - - - -	-	40,091
Grain - - - - -	-	5,019
Grain - - - - -	-	1,440
Grain - - - - -	-	2,490
Grain - - - - -	-	6,318
Grain - - - - -	-	12,419
Grain - - - - -	-	20,521
Grain - - - - -	-	4,372
Grain - - - - -	-	2,190
Grain - - - - -	-	9,387
Grain - - - - -	-	6,730
Grain - - - - -	-	798
Grain - - - - -	-	97,337
Grain - - - - -	-	12,833
Grain - - - - -	-	20,064
Grain - - - - -	-	15,160
Grain - - - - -	-	307,464
Grain - - - - -	-	97,353
Grain - - - - -	-	4,700
Grain - - - - -	-	2,350
Grain - - - - -	-	No.
Grain - - - - -	-	57,000
Grain - - - - -	-	817
Grain - - - - -	-	144,234
Grain - - - - -	-	17,362
Grain - - - - -	-	29,227
Total - - - - -	-	282,761

Of the above, goods to the amount of 108,468*l.* went to U. States of America; 108,876*l.* to Great Britain and colonies; 24,692*l.* to France; 1,976*l.* to the Baltic; 15*l.* to Belgium and Germany; 2,553*l.* to the Italian coast; and 12,370*l.* to other countries. The imports consist principally of sugar and other colonial products; cotton, linen, silk and woollen fabrics; hardware, and other manufactured goods; stuffs, spices, &c.

The city funds, derived principally from landed property, the land-tax, and taxes on consumption, are said amount to about 100,000*l.* a year; but for many years the expenditure has exceeded this sum, and the city was deeply in debt.

Sicilian writers have made many absurd and ridiculous statements concerning the foundation of Palermo; but most rational and generally received opinion, con-

firmed by the authority of Thucydides and Polybius, is, that it was founded by a colony of Phœnicians; the beauty of the situation, and the convenience of the port, whence, as already seen, it derived its name, being powerful inducements to a trading people, to make it a settlement. (*Thucyd.* lib. vi.; *Polybius*, lib. i. cap. 38.) It subsequently fell into the hands of the Carthaginians, who made it the capital of their Sicilian dominions. Soon after the beginning of the first Punic war, it passed into the hands of the Romans, who established a colony in it (*Strabo*, lib. vi.), conferred on it various privileges, and allowed it to be governed by its own laws. In a subsequent age, the Saracens made it the capital of their Sicilian territories; and since their time, with the exception of some short intervals, it has been the capital of Sicily. It was the residence of the court of Naples during their exclusion from that city from 1806 to 1815. (*Smyth's Sicily*, 70-89, and *Append.*; *Servigne's Sicily*, 70-89; *Rassell*; *Simond*; *Von Haussner's Italy*, ii.; *Port. Reports*, &c.)

PALESTINE. See SYRIA and PALESTINE.
PALHANFOOR, a fortified town of Hindostan, prov. Gujrat, cap. of a Mohammedan principality, 68 m. N.N.W. Ahmedabad. Lat. 24° 11'; long. 75° 20' E. Pop. 30,000 (?) It is about 14 m. in circ., and is surrounded by a brick wall, flanked with towers, the gates being defended by outworks, mounted with small cannon. It is of considerable political importance, being a frontier town on the desert separating Gujrat from Sind and Cutch, and on the main route from Rajpootana southwards. The state of which it is the cap. extends from 20 to 40 m. round, including two towns, and about 130 villages, and producing a yearly revenue of about 24 lacs rup. (*Hamilton, E. J. Gaz.*)

PALMA. See MAJORCA.
PALMAS, the principal town of the Canary Islands, which see.

PALME, or PALMI, a town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Calabria Ultra i., cap. distr. on the Gulf of Gioja, 214 m. N.E. Reggio. Pop. about 7,000. It was partially destroyed by the earthquake of 1783, but has since been restored. It is well built; its streets being regular, and its houses mostly of stone, and in good taste. In its centre is an elegantly sculptured and well supplied fountain. It has some manufactures of silken and woollen fabrics, and trades in oil, liquors, &c. (*Cramer's Tour*, 292.)

PALMYRA, (the Tadmor of the Scriptures, by which name it has always been designated by the Arabs,) a celebrated city of antiquity, and the cap. of the region of Palmyrene in Syria, in an oasis in the midst of deserts in the modern path. of Damascus, 147 m. S.E. Aleppo, and 187 m. S.S.W. Damascus, lat. 34° 39' N., long. 38° 46' E.

This once famous city is now all but deserted, not having more than 100 inhab., and it derives its whole importance from its classical associations and the number and magnificence of its ruins. These, which stand near the E. declivity of a mountain range running from N. to S., may occupy a space of about 3 sq. m., though it is probable that the ancient city extended over a larger area, exclusive of the tombs on the tops and sides of the adjacent hills. The oasis, in which the city is situated, is traversed by two streams, which, though hot and sulphureous, are said to be wholesome, and not disagreeable. But the water used in the ancient city was of the best quality, being brought from a considerable distance by a large subterranean aqueduct, of which there are still some remains. The first view of the city is described by all travellers as extremely magnificent. "On opening upon the ruins," says Captain Mangles, "as seen from the Valley of the Tombs, we were much struck with the picturesque effect of the whole, presenting altogether a most imposing sight. It was rendered doubly interesting by our having travelled through a wilderness destitute of a single building, from which we suddenly opened on these innumerable columns and other ruins, the snow-white appearance of which, contrasted with the yellow sand, produced a very striking effect." (*Irby and Mangles's Travels*, p. 362.) The ruins are not, however, to be compared, as respects the size of the gates, columns, and temples, with those of Baalbek and Thebes; but they are more remarkable than either for their vast extent, and they are less encumbered with modern fabrics than most other ancient remains.

The ruins now extant comprise the fragments of two or three temples, several gateways, (one of which is more perfect than the rest), colonnades, sepulchres, &c. With respect to the antiquity of these ruins, it is difficult to form a conjecture: the tombs are evidently the oldest, but even these do not date as far back as the Christian era. The other buildings are considerably more recent, and most of the fine and expensive edifices appear to have been constructed during the three centuries ending with the reign of Diocletian.

On approaching the city a ruined mosque, built by the

Sarcophagi, introduces the stranger to a fine gateway, having a lofty central arch, flanked by two others of smaller size, which lead directly to a grand avenue, which, from the remains, must have been nearly 1 m. in length, and bordered on either side by rows of Corinthian columns, of which, however, only 114 now remain. This avenue leads to a gateway, beyond which are ranges of pillars supporting a frieze and entablature, supposed by Mr. Addison to be the ruins of two noble gateways, that may have led from the central avenue to other colonnades now entirely destroyed. A circular colonnade, of which eighteen columns only are now standing, has in its centre a small but richly ornamented building, with niches for statues; and immediately beyond it are the prostrate remains of a magnificent building, constructed of a species of marble superior to that found in other parts of the ruins. It appears to have comprised two very large rooms; but whether it was a temple or palace, is difficult to determine. By far the most extensive ruin, however, is the Temple of the Sun, the grand entrance to which was supported by four fluted Ionic pillars, and adorned with rich carvings of vine-leaves and clusters of grapes in bold and spirited relief, beautifully chiselled. The outer precinct, which encloses a quadrangular space of 220 sq. yards, is formed by a lofty wall, adorned with pilasters both within and without. Inside this court are the remains of two rows of noble marble pillars, each 27 ft. in height, and another row of columns 50 ft. in height, appears to have encircled the temple, which, however, was only 100 ft. in length by 45 ft. in breadth: it has since been converted into a mosque, and its interior is disfigured by passages from the Koran written round the walls.

The sepulchres, which are, perhaps, the most interesting of all the ruins, occupy the tops and sides of the surrounding eminence, some presenting mere heaps of rubbish; others half fallen, exposing their shattered chambers; while one or two still exist almost entire. They are built in the shape of square towers, from 3 to 4 stories in height, each forming a sepulchral chamber, with recesses divided into compartments for the reception of the bodies. Some of the chambers are ornamented with Corinthian pilasters and sculptures, in almost perfect preservation, executed in high relief; the walls are of white stucco, and the ceilings are divided into diamond-shaped compartments, delicately ornamented with white stars on a blue ground: over the doorways are tablets with inscriptions both in Greek and Palmyrene. A few of the streets may be traced with some difficulty, and the foundations of houses are distinguishable in some places; but not a vestige remains of the old walls destroyed by Aurelian, though a wall still exists that has been made of materials from the sepulchres, and was probably erected soon after the demolition of the older fortifications. The inscriptions are both in Greek and in the unknown Palmyrene language; all of those on the columns are honorary, generally to the effect, that the senate and people inscribed them in honour of an individual whose pedigree is given through several generations. The inscriptions on the tombs are in Greek, and tolerably perfect. Fac-simile copies of them are given in the great work of Messrs. Wood and Dawkins, which also contains drawings of all the principal buildings of Palmyra.

History.—The earliest accounts of the existence of Palmyra, are derived from the sacred writings, which state that "Solomon built Tadmor in the wilderness and all the stone cities which he built in Hamath" (3 Chron. viii. 2, 4); and his motive for thus founding it was, according to Josephus, "because in that place were fountains and wells of water. He gave it the name of Tadmor, which is still prevalent among the Syrians; but the Greeks name it Palmyra." (*Ant. Jud.* i. viii. ch. 6.)

Pliny has noticed the city, and the peculiarities in its situation to which it owed its rise and importance: *Palmyra urbs nobilitate sita, divitiis soli et aquis amata; vasto undique ambitu arealis includit agros; ac velut terris exemplum a rerum natura, privata sorte fateri duo imperia parvum, Romanorum Parthorumque, et prima in discordia amplexu strinxerit cura.* (*Hist. Nat.*, lib. v. cap. 25.) The fertility of the oasis round Palmyra made it a suitable situation for a small town; but its position in other respects was still more advantageous, from its being the resting-place of the caravans between the Persian gulph and the great cities on the Euphrates and Tigris, and Aleppo, Damascus, and the ports on the Mediterranean. Palmyra thus became a principal emporium of the commerce between the Eastern and Western worlds; and to this, no doubt, is to be ascribed the wealth and importance to which she eventually attained. Being situated between the empires of Rome and Parthia, it was an object of great importance with the Palmyrenians to preserve a strict neutrality, and to keep on good terms with them both. But after the victories of Trajan had established the unquestionable

preponderance of the Roman arms, Palmyra became a dependency of Rome, and attained to the rank of a colony. "It was during that peaceful period, if we may judge from a few remaining inscriptions, that the Palmyrenians constructed those temples, palaces, and porticoes* of Grecian architecture, whose ruins, scattered over an extent of several miles, have deserved the curiosity of our travellers." (*Gibbon*, cap. 9.)

The most splendid period of the history of Palmyra was that which immediately preceded her fall. Valerian, emperor of Rome, having been made prisoner by Sapor, king of Persia, Odenathus, a citizen of Palmyra, who had attained to the principal direction of her affairs, joined the Roman forces, and had a large share in avenging the insult offered to the majesty of Rome. He attacked the Persians, drove them beyond the Euphrates, penetrated as far as their capital city Ctesiphon, and captured the treasures and women of the great king. For these services, the senate, with the approbation and applause of the Roman world, conferred on Odenathus the title of Augustus, and associated him in the empire with Gallienus. These honours, however, he enjoyed only for a brief period, being soon after (A.D. 263.) assassinated by his nephew. The vacant throne was seized by his young, warlike, and beautiful widow, the famous Zenobia, who broke the alliance with the imbecile Gallienus, and assumed the title of Augusta, Queen of the East. The accounts that have come down to us of this extraordinary woman of Arabian ancestry, which we may not unreasonably suspect them of being exaggerated, in the view, perhaps, of enhancing the merit of her conqueror Aurelian. But, that she was highly accomplished, there can be no doubt. "Her manly understanding was strengthened and adorned by study. She was not ignorant of the Latin tongue, but possessed, in equal perfection, the Greek, the Syrian, and the Egyptian languages. She had drawn up, for her own use, an epitome of Oriental history, and familiarly conversed the beauties of Homer and Virgil, under the tuition of the sublime Longinus. The success of Odenathus was, in a great measure, ascribed to her incomparable prudence and fortitude." (*Gibbon*.)

Zenobia, who boasted of being the descendant of Cleopatra and the Ptolemies, sent, after the death of her husband, on pretence of this relationship, an army into Egypt, which she annexed to her dominions. But her troops were unequal to a contest with the disciplined legions of Aurelian. After being defeated in 2 great battles, Zenobia shut herself up in Palmyra. But, seeing that it must fall into the hands of Aurelian, she attempted to make her escape; and being intercepted in her flight, the city soon after surrendered. The victor sullied the glory of his conquest by ordering the execution of Longinus, author of the famous treatise on the sublime, and other advisers of the unfortunate queen; but, in other respects, the city was treated with great lenity. Unhappily, however, as soon as it was understood in Palmyra that the emperor, with his captive princess, had crossed the Hellespont, the citizens rose in rebellion, and, having massacred the Roman governor and prisoners, proclaimed their independence. The instant Aurelian heard of this revolt, he at once, without a moment's hesitation, began to retrace his steps, and hastened to the ill-fated city with an irresistible force, and an insatiable thirst for vengeance. The sequel may be learned from his own words:—*Mulieribus non peperimus, infantes occidimus, senes jugulavimus, rusticos intereminus: cui terras, cui urbem decerpere reliquimus? Perendum est ut qui remanserunt.* (*Flavius Vopiscus in Hist. August.*, p. 218.) At the same time the walls of the city were rased to the ground, and, in the words of Gibbon, "the seat of commerce, of arts, and Zenobia, gradually sunk into an obscure town, a trifling fortress, and, at length, a miserable village. Zenobia herself was taken to Rome to grace the triumph of Aurelian, who, however, behaved towards her with a generous clemency seldom exercised by the ancient conquerors, and presented her with an elegant villa at Tibur, where the Syrian queen insensibly sunk into a Roman matron, her daughters married into noble families, and her race was not yet extinct in the fifth century." (*Decline and Fall*, ii. 44—46.) Palmyra afterwards fell with the surrounding country under the power of the Mohammedans; but history is entirely silent respecting the causes and period of its total desolation. (*Wood and Dawkins on the Ruins of Palmyra; Addison's Damascus and Palmyra*, li. 284—292; *Irbid and Mangel's Travels*, p. 262—267; *Mod. Trav.*)

PAMIRS, a town of France, d^ép. Ar^dge, cap. arrond., on the Ar^dge, 11 m. Foix. Pop., in 1806, 5,932. It is well situated, and is generally well built and laid out. The cathedral, several other churches, the bishop's palace, a Carmelite convent, the court-house, and a large

* According to Stephanus Byzantius, these were mostly erected by the emperor Adrian; but there is no evidence that such was really the fact, though he may have done so in some extent.

civil hospital, are its principal buildings. No remains exist of its castle, built during the crusades, and called *Apamona*, from the Syrian town of that name, whence, by corruption, the present name of this town. (*Hugo, &c.*)

PAMPALUNA, or PAMPALONA, a fortified city of Spain, cap. kingd. of Navarra, on a hill near the left bank of the Arga, 48 m. S. Bayonne, and 198 m. N.E. Madrid: lat. 45° 49' 57" N., long. 10° 39' 45" W. Pop., according to Mifano, 15,000. It is surrounded by a strong wall, with bastions, but derives its principal defence from 3 castles, one within and the other outside the walls, the latter, the citadel, being situated on a rock (of which the only accessible part is covered by a moat), and encircled by a deep ditch. The interior of the town comprises several wide and straight streets, lined on both sides with trottoirs; 3 public squares, in the largest of which bull-fights are held; 6 public fountains, supplied with water from a fine aqueduct 3 m. in length; and the *Taconera*, a public walk. Outside the walls are 3 other planted walks, and 6 bridges across the river, connecting the town with the suburbs. The houses are irregularly built; and the public edifices, which comprise a cathedral, 4 parish churches, 2 palaces, a prison, poor asylum, and small theatre, are more remarkable for antiquity than beauty.

Pampaluna is supposed to have been built by Pompey, after the defeat of Sertorius, and called by him *Pompeopolis*. After the foundation of the kingdom of Navarra, it was made its capital city, and sustained several sieges. But the most memorable event connected with the town is the contest for its possession between the English and French at the close of the peninsular war. In June, 1813, on the sudden retreat of the French army from Vittoria, the road to Pampaluna was alone open, and this fortress was hastily garrisoned and provisioned. It was forthwith invested by the British; but the approach of Marshal Soult, with an army, towards the close of July, promised it an early deliverance. It was in the vicinity of Pampaluna that the obstinate conflicts of the 8th and 30th July took place, and the French being compelled to retreat the Pyrenees with great loss, Pampaluna was cut off from all supplies, and surrendered on 31st October.

PANAMA, or DARIEN, (ISTHMUS OF), the narrow neck of land which connects the continents of N. and S. America, forming a prov. of the republic of New Granada, between the 8th and 10th degs. of N. lat. and the 77th and 81st of W. long., having E. the Colombian prov. Choco, W. that of Veragua, N. the Atlantic, and S. the Pacific Ocean. Its shape is that of an arc, the convex side facing the N.; length, W. to E. about 300 m.; general breadth about 40 m., but, where narrowest, not more than 26 m. from sea to sea. Pop. of prov. in 1836, 75,955. The Cordillera, or chain of the Andes, is here interrupted by several remarkable breaches of low and level land, through which it is proposed to carry a canal or railway. The isthmus is extremely well watered; and though without any river of considerable length, several of its streams are partially navigable. The dry season lasts from Dec. to April, and the wet during the rest of the year. The quantity of rain is prodigious; but a very remarkable phenomenon occurs throughout the isthmus, in the height of the rainy season, of which no satisfactory explanation has yet been offered. On the 5th of June the rain ceases for five or six days, and the sun shines out during the whole day with the utmost splendour; nor is any instance known of irregularity in the recurrence of this singular break in the ordinary course of the season. (*Geog. Journ.*, i. 78.) The temperature and salubrity vary greatly. Porto Bello is one of the hottest and most unhealthy places in the world. On the opposite coast, at Panama, the thermometer in the rainy season does not rise higher in the day-time than 76°, and though at other times it is very sultry, it can hardly be called unhealthy. Rice, maize, cocones, and some sugar, are cultivated. *Storax*, caoutchouc, various dyestuffs, and the finest timber trees, abound in the forests.

Near Panama is a considerable extent of cultivated land; but round Porto Bello, and on the E. coast, most part of the surface is uncultivated. Elsewhere, the landlords keep their estates chiefly in grass; few of the inhabitants are industrious; and many, indeed, depend almost wholly on the chase. Doves of wild hogs, deer, and a variety of other wild animals, are met with; monkeys are frequently used as food, as are sharks, guanas, &c. Horses are small, but hardy animals, the favourite beasts of burden, fetch sometimes 150 dollars each.

Gold was formerly obtained in the isthmus, but the search after it has been abandoned for a lengthened period. The pearl fishery, also, which used to be prosecuted in the bay of Panama, has now, we believe, been all but wholly relinquished. The inhabitants, indeed, are strangers to all sorts of enterprise and industry; and are said to be

less advanced in civilisation than their neighbours, low as is the point to which the latter have attained.

Passage across the Isthmus.—It seems probable that the isthmus is destined speedily to undergo a great change. Latterly, indeed, on the discovery of the mineral riches of California, it has become a great thoroughfare, vast numbers of individuals having crossed from the port of Chagres on the Caribbean Sea to Panama on the Pacific Ocean, and conversely.

The port of Chagres is within the mouth of the river of that name, in lat. 9° 18' 6" N., long. 79° 55' 2" W. A bar at the mouth of the river has only from 10 ft. to 13 ft. water, though within the bar the river deepens to from 4 to 6 fathoms. It is probable that the bar might be deepened without much difficulty, and a canal might be cut from the bottom of the fine bay of Mansanilla to the river, from which it is only 3 m. distant. A short while ago the town (if so it might be called) was a mere cluster of huts, unhealthy, and without any accommodation for passengers. But having latterly become one of the starting points in the nearest and shortest route from the E. to California, it will now, no doubt, be greatly improved.

The country between the ports of Chagres and Panama would seem to be decidedly the best fitted for the formation of a canal, or a railway, uniting the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean. The direct distance, at this point does not exceed 34 m. or 35 m., if so much. The river Chagres either is, or might without much difficulty be made navigable for vessels of considerable burden to Barbacoa or Gorgona, nearly half-way across the isthmus; and there are no great, and certainly no insuperable physical difficulties, in the way of constructing a canal, or railway, or both, from Barbacoa to the bay of Panama: Or vessels might ascend the navigable river Trinidad, which falls into the Chagres, and the canal be thence conducted to the navigable portion of the Rio Grande, which falls into the bay of Panama. The highest point of land that would have to be passed over is said not to be more than from 30 ft. to 40 ft. above the level of the sea; but there are no measurements of this sort on which it would be safe to place much reliance. The doubtful salubrity of the country, and the difficulty of getting labourers to carry on the works, would be among the most serious of the obstacles to the success of the undertaking. But these would not be so great here as at Nicaragua, while the length of the transit, and the extent of the works, would be inconsequential. Even should a canal be carried across the isthmus by way of Nicaragua there can be little doubt that a rival communication will be effected by the isthmus of Panama. There will be ample business for two or more lines. See NICARAGUA (LAKE OF).

A company has, in fact, been already formed in New York for the construction of a railway across the isthmus, to run from sea to sea; and we understand that they have either begun, or are about to commence carrying the project into effect.

PANAMA, a city and sea-port of Colombia, on the Pacific, 26 m. S.E. Chagres. Lat. 9° 36' N.; long. 79° 31' 2" W. Pop. 7,000. It stands on a rocky Peninsula, projecting into the bay of Panama, and has an imposing aspect from the sea. Its streets are well ventilated, and it is said to be cleaner than most Spanish American cities. It is encircled by irregular and not very strong fortifications, constructed at different periods. The houses are partly of wood, straw, and other fragile materials; but many are substantially built of stone, the larger having courtyards, or *pacios*, in the old Spanish style. It had a cathedral, four convents, a nursery, and a college. Most of these establishments were lately falling into ruin, as was a large and fine Jesuits' college. But, like Chagres, its state has most probably changed very materially within the last two or three years. Its roadstead is one of the finest in the world: there are a number of islands, a short distance from the main land, which afford secure anchorage for ships of any burden, and from which supplies of provisions, including excellent water, may usually be obtained. The tides daily rise and fall from 20 to 27 ft., so that it is peculiarly well fitted for the repair and building of ships.

Previously to 1740, when the trade with the Pacific first began to be carried on round Cape Horn, Panama was the principal entrepôt of trade between Europe and W. America. From that period, however, it fell off; and its decay has been peculiarly rapid since the independence of S. America, and the opening of the other ports of the Pacific. But within the last two or three years it has again rapidly increased. And should a canal or railway be carried across the isthmus, of which there can be little doubt, it will in all probability attain to greater commercial distinction than ever. In the course of the present year (1850) as many as 13 steamers are said to have been employed, at the same moment, in the trade between Panama and San Francisco.

Old Panama, founded by the Spaniards in 1518, stood about 3 m. to the E. of the present town. It was de-

stroyed by the buccaneer Morgan in 1670. Shortly after which the existing city was commenced. (*Dampier's Voyages*, i. cap. 7, &c.; *Hall's Voyages*, ii. 144-162.; *Humboldt, Nouvelle Espagne*, 2do ed. i. pp. 217-231.; *Lloyd in Geog. Journal*, i. 85., &c., and in *Times* of December, 1850; *Chevalier, sur L'Isthme de Panama*, 108-137, &c.)

Colony of Darien.—The place marked New Edinburgh, in Arrowsmith's map on the W. coast of the Gulph of Darien, derived its name from its being the site where, in 1698, the Scotch attempted to form a settlement. This colony was projected by a Scotch gentleman of the name of Paterson, the founder of the Bank of England, and was zealously patronised by all classes of his countrymen, who formed a joint stock company, and subscribed large sums to carry the project into effect. It was, however, extremely ill-suited for a country in the then situation of Scotland; and provoked the well-founded hostility of the Spaniards, and the bitter, though unreasonable and unfounded jealousy of the English West India merchants and ship-owners, who either were, or pretended to be, seriously alarmed lest this new settlement, in an unoccupied and unhealthy country, should seriously injure their commerce and navigation. The selfish opposition of these interested parties to the project, having been abetted by the English parliament, the king disavowed the company, and even issued orders to the governors of the West Indian and American colonies, charging them not to permit any intercourse with the Scotch at Darien! In consequence of these vindictive measures, and of the threatened hostilities of the French and Spaniards, the settlement was abandoned. This event was most acutely felt by the Scotch, whose pride was mortified by the failure of a scheme, of the success of which they had formed the most exaggerated expectations; and many of whom were ruined by the loss of the sums they had embarked in the project. It farther inflamed the existing prejudices against the English, and against the projected union of the two kingdoms, which happily, however, was not long after effected. (*Laing's History of Scotland*, iv. 261-277.; *Burnet's History of his Own Times*, iii. 299-300.)

PANIANY, a commercial town and sea-port of British India, Presid. Madras, prov. Malabar, on the Paniany river, 38 m. S. Calicut. It has numerous mosques, being principally inhabited by Moplas, or fishermen of Arabian descent. It exports teak, cocoa-nuts, iron, and rice; and imports wheat, pulse, sugar, salt, catechu, and spices; but the mouth of its river is closed by a bar which only admits boats of small burden.

PAPA, a considerable market-town of Hungary, beyond the Danube, co. Wespirm, 83 m. S. E. Vienna. Pop., in 1837, 13,222. It was formerly fortified, and has a large castle belonging to the Esterhazy family. It has numerous churches; Rom. Cath., Lutheran, and Calvinistic colleges; manufactures of earthenware, glass, and paper, and an active trade in agricultural produce.

PAPAL STATES (THE), STATES OF THE CHURCH, or POPEDOM, an independent country of Europe, occupying the greater part of Central, with a portion of N. Italy, being principally comprised between lat. 41° and 45° N., and long. 12° and 14° E.; having N. Austrian Italy, from which it is separated by the Po, W. Modena, Tuscany, and the Mediterranean; S. and S. E. the Neapolitan dom., and N. E. the Adriatic. It is very irregularly shaped; the length of a line drawn from its N. to its S. extremity may be about 270 m. Its breadth is very various. Area, 17,218 sq. m. The pop., inc. about 10,000 Jews, amounted in 1842 to 2,908,115. The country is subdivided into legations and delegations.

The Apennines, which intersect the papal territories nearly in their centre, have here an average height of about 4,000 ft.; but Monte de la Sibilla rises to 7,221 ft. (*Braguier*); and several other peaks are not greatly inferior in elevation. The provs. of Perugia, Spoleto, Camerino, and the others constituting what was formerly called the March of Ancona, are those principally covered with the ramifications of the Apennines, which, in this part of Italy, approach more nearly to the Adriatic than the Mediterranean, leaving, however, an extensive plain on either side: that on the N., between the Po and the Adriatic, comprises the legation of Ferrara, and the greater part of the legations of Bologna, Ravenna, &c. It includes the *Val di Comacina*, a very extensive marsh, but, with this exception, is highly fertile and productive. The plain to the S. of the Apennines is of still more ample dimensions, embracing all the vast undulating tract known by the names of the Campagna and Maremma, extending between the declivity of the mountains and the sea from the frontiers of Tuscany on the one hand, to those of Naples on the other. The S. portion of this great plain, or that next Naples, consists of the district called the Pontine Marshes (an. *Pomptinæ Paludes*), which, notwithstanding the vast sums expended upon it, still very imperfectly drained. We have elsewhere fully described the present state of this

vast and naturally fruitful plain, famous in antiquity for its fertility, but now, unhappily, the seat of pestilence and death. (See *ant.*, p. 57.)

The Po, which forms the N. boundary, is the largest river of the Papal States; but by far the most celebrated is the Tiber. The latter rises at St. Albion in Tuscany, and runs generally S. or S. E., but with a very tortuous course, to within about 26 m. N. N. E. Rome, whence it flows mostly S. S. W. to its mouth in the Mediterranean, 18 m. below Rome, after an entire course of about 300 m. Before entering the sea the Tiber divides into two arms, enclosing the small island of *Isola sacra*. At Rome the greatest breadth of the Tiber is only about 400 ft., or scarcely one third part of the breadth of the Thames at Blackfriars Bridge, and nearly approaching that of the Seine at Paris. It is justly entitled to its ancient epithet *fluvius*, being almost constantly loaded with yellow mud, from the crumbling and disintegration of its banks. Its principal affluents are the Toppino, Nar, and Tevere on the left or E., and the Chiana on the right bank. It is navigable for boats to near Perugia. Except the Tiber, no river of any consequence falls into the Mediterranean in this part of Italy. The country to the E. of the Apennines has, however, a great number of rivers, though none of them be of any very considerable magnitude, falling partly into the Po and partly into the Adriatic. Several of the most celebrated Italian lakes are in the Papal States, as those of Perugia, (an. *Lacus Trasimenus*) Bolsena, and Bracciano, (which see). The lakes of Vico, Albano, Nemi, Gabii, &c., though insignificant in point of size, are interesting from the classical associations with which they are connected. They are situated in a mountain region, and evidently occupy the craters of extinct volcanoes.

Geology.—The primary rocks in the Apennine region consist mostly of serpentine, mica, claystone, and quartz. Gneiss is met with in various places along the coast. Mountain limestone is frequent, and indeed a large portion of the country consists of calcareous formations; but the region round the cap. is of volcanic origin, and abounds with volcanic products, as sulphur, alum, &c. Rome is principally built of volcanic tufa, which composes the general soil of the Campagna. Some sulphur springs also exist at Poretta, N. of the Apennines, and various kinds of mineral springs are common elsewhere.

Climate.—In the legations N. of the Apennines, the thermometer often sinks in winter to 10° Reaumur, and oranges, lemons, &c., do not flourish in the open air. But the greater portion of the Papal States is situated within the 2d Italian region. Vegetation is here scarcely interrupted at any period of the year. The air in the mountain districts is pure and salubrious; but the plains of Ferrara and Bologna, the Campagna di Roma, and the Pontine Marshes, are at that season very unhealthy: the latter especially are subject to malaria. The origin of malaria has been a subject of much dispute, and we have already noticed some of the circumstances that have conspired to reduce the Campagna to its present all but desert state. (See *ant.*, p. 57.) In antiquity it was bordered along the shore by dense forests; and it is believed by many, that the destruction of the woods has been a principal cause of the increase of malaria. "The ancients," says M. Simond, "planted, or preserved these woods, under an idea, probably erroneous, that they screened them from certain winds carrying noxious vapours; but though mistaken as to their real mode of agency, they were quite right in supposing them useful. To the destruction of the woods the increase of malarial fevers has been clearly traced; the one having uniformly followed the other. During the decline, also, and after the fall of the Roman empire, those stupendous aqueducts, which in earlier times brought whole rivers to Rome, having been broken and overturned, in some places poured their waters over the land, which became a marsh; and the population, diminished by wars, was further and still more reduced by pestilence. The country became more unhealthy as it was less inhabited; in the course of a few centuries the millions of ancient Rome dwindled down to 30,000; and it was not before the 16th century, under Leo X., that the scanty pop. grew more numerous. Another cause of the increase of malaria is, that steady ridge gradually thrown up on both sides the mouth of the Tiber for many leagues; various outlets, natural and artificial, are thus choked up; and hence the Pontine marshes, formerly confined to a narrow space near the promontory of M. Circeio, now extend under other names all along the coast." (*Tour in Italy*, pp. 380-389.)

Agriculture.—It has been estimated that of 590,000 *rubbi* of productive land (about 2,554,000 acres, or less than 1 part of the entire surface), 942,000 are arable, 162,000 in pasture, 14,600 in vineyards, 1,400 in gardens, &c., and 170,000 in woods. In the March of Ancona, and other mountainous districts, and round the towns and

villages, both the properties and farms are small; but it is otherwise in the Campagna and the plain of Bologna. The whole of the Campagna is divided into about 600 estates, varying from 500 to 1,000 hectares and upwards each. The largest of these vast estates, which are mostly held in mortmain, belongs to the chapter of St. Peter. The value of land is very various; the rent in the Campagna varies from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 scudi per hectare. Beyond the maremme, as the pop. increases in density, the rental rises to perhaps 20 scudi per hectare, for land on which there are olive, vine, or mulberry plantations; or where there are adjacent markets for corn. In the neighbourhood of Rome, where the land is rented at a fixed price, it readily sells for 40 years' purchase; while lands farmed on the metayer principle do not generally sell, owing to the greater difficulty of collecting the rent, for more than 35 or 36 years' purchase. Lands in the maremme are frequently rented by middlemen, who underlet them in smaller portions to the actual cultivators. But speaking generally, land is everywhere held under the metayer system, the occupier paying a certain proportion, generally a half of the produce, to the owner. The soil is mostly fertile; but owing to the badness of the government, which oppresses the occupiers with injudicious taxes; the want of capital, skill, industry, and markets; the ignorance of the cultivators, the number of holidays, and the prevalence of the metayer system, agriculture is in the most wretched state. The implements of husbandry made in the country are as rude as those described by Virgil; and heavy custom-house duties prevent the introduction of improved implements from abroad. The cultivated part of the maremme produces wheat, maize, beans, and vines; but the lands often lie fallow for from 3 to 7 years; and Mr. MacLaren states that, from what fell under his observation, not 1 acre in 8 is under the plough or hoe (*Notes on Italy*, 58.). In the more populous and best cultivated parts there is usually an annual change from spring grasses to corn produce; but by far the greater part of this region is in a state of nature. Formerly all the farms were let with a considerable stock of horses, cattle, &c.; but the proprietors, when in want of money, parted with them. In whatever direction the traveller may enter the Campagna from Rome, he would pass over at least from 30 to 80, and frequently from 50 to 60 m., without meeting with a single field cultivated by resident inhabs. In fact, though it embrace an area of about 4,000 sq. m., or 2,560,000 acres, it is not supposed to have a resident pop. of more than 16,000 or 18,000 inhab., mostly wandering shepherds. There is on each estate a *casale*, or large building, where the implements of husbandry are kept; but neither bakehouses nor kitchen gardens exist throughout the whole tract, the labourers being wholly supplied at a few scattered depôts with provisions, sent thither from Rome. The shepherds are in about as depressed a condition as possible; they have a sickly, cadaverous appearance; their clothing consists principally of sheep-skins, worn with the wool outside; and they sleep either on the ground in the open air, or in some of the ruins with which the country is strewed. They are paid, not in money, but in cattle pastured with those of the farmer. The shepherds in the Campagna are respected by peasants from distant mountainous districts, who come to it in companies of from 20 to 100 individuals. Even in favourable seasons, $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{3}{4}$ part of their number are attacked by fever; and in unhealthy seasons, the proportion is much larger. Many die in the hospitals of Rome, or in the Campagna; others perish on the road home; and others again return condemned to pass the remainder of their days a prey to intermittent fever, or other diseases brought on by the climate; and yet such is the poverty of the pop. in the mountainous districts, that the chance of earning a few pence in the Campagna tempts new adventurers to undergo the same risks.

In 1800, on the estate of Prince Rospiigliosi at Zagarolo, land was let out at a low fixed rate in lots of a rubbio each (about $\frac{1}{4}$ acres) to the peasantry to cultivate as they pleased; and this plan, it is alleged, had the best results. Cultivation extended for a considerable distance round Zagarolo into the plain beneath; and the climate of the neighbourhood was improved. Were such a plan followed round the other centres of civilisation, a considerable portion of the Campagna would, probably, soon lose a portion of its desolate and pestilential character, but neither the proprietors nor farmers show, in general, much disposition for change or improvement; and till the government and public economy of the state be completely changed, it were idle to expect that they should evince any such disposition. In order to arrest the depopulation of the Campagna, Pope Pius VII., in 1802, laid an impost of 5 pauli per rubbio on the uncultivated land immediately round the towns, and deducted 5 pauli per rubbio from the tax on cultivated land. But this miserable attempt to extend industry by fiscal regulations (though it appears to be approved by M. Sismondi) necessarily failed. The regulation, which never was acted upon, speedily became obsolete; and the peasantry

of the Campagna generally remain in the same condition as before the French invasion. (*Sismondi, Etudes sur l'Economie Politique*, li. 12.—129.)

In the mountainous parts of the Papal States, where the country is divided into small farms, and rather thickly inhabited, pease, beans, and kitchen vegetables, which form a large proportion of the food of the peasantry, occupy most part of the land; the remainder being appropriated to wheat, maize, &c. Little skill is evinced in agriculture; the crops being generally raised only for the supply of the cultivators, no one thinks of raising those products for which his land may be the best fitted, till after he has provided an adequate supply of grain or other produce for the use of his family. In the mountains near Rome, white crops are taken from the grounds for 2 or 3 years successively, without any manure being applied to the land; 3 crops of wheat may be succeeded by maize or kidney beans for 2 years, and once in 5 or 6 years, a crop of hemp or flax is, perhaps, raised. The grain is trodden out by horses, and winnowed by hand, immediately after harvest. The wages of a man in harvest time, amount, at Poli, to about 9 pauls a day, with bread and *pignette*, or weak wine; but they are generally higher the nearer the district to the capital. The herdsmen in the Apennines take charge of the cattle belonging to many different persons, and tend them on the mountains, night and day, receiving at the end of the season payment from each proprietor, at the rate of 2 scudi per month for every score of cattle. Besides bread and *pignette*, the food of the peasantry in the mountains principally consists of cheese, goat's or ewes' milk, onions, garlic, and other vegetables, and polenta, a kind of hasty-pudding, made with maize, pulse, &c. Goats' flesh and pork are sometimes eaten by the labourers, but very little other animal food. (*Graham's Three Months in the Mountains*, 7.—56.; &c.)

The provs. of Ferrara, Bologna, Romagna, and those forming the March of Ancona, produce rye, wheat, barley, and maize in abundance. Rice is grown in the legs of Ferrara and Bologna, but there only. Hemp and flax are cultivated along the Adriatic; and saffron, coriander, aniseed, wood, and great quantities of kitchen vegetables in the same districts and the N. provs. The export of hemp is supposed to average 30,000,000 lbs. a year. Tobacco is grown in several places, especially at Chiaravalle, near Ancona; but being a government monopoly, its culture is confined within narrow limits; Serristori states that for 300,000 lbs. of tobacco exported, 1,000,000 lbs. are imported. The sugar-cane, indigo, and cotton, are cultivated near Terracina, though neither be grown to any great extent. Olive plantations were long among the most productive investments; but they are now less so than those of the white mulberry. The olive is abundant in the S. provs.; and though the Roman oil be badly made, and mostly consumed at home, a million lbs. have occasionally been exported in favourable years. Vineyards are said not to yield returns proportioned to the outlay. The vine is tolerably well cultivated in the vicinity of Velletri; the plants in regular lines being tied to trellises of large reeds; but the most esteemed growths are the light, white, muscadel wines of Orvieto and Montefiascone, near Viterbo; they do not, however, bear transport well, and are seldom met with out of the country. The timber of the dense forests in the deleg. of Viterbo is not turned to much account from the distance of markets, and is cut principally for smelting iron ore, making charcoal, &c. Cork trees abound in the country about Claterna, Velletri, &c.

The rearing of live stock is, as has been said, the principal branch of rural industry. The number of sheep in the Papal States is estimated at 2,000,000. There are two varieties, the *segretti*, a small short-legged variety, in every respect resembling the *Châlemaison* of Italy, except that their wool, though good, is chocolate-coloured; and the *pouille*, a variety with wool of a whiteness almost equalling that of the breed of Aragon. Still, however, it would seem from the statements of Serristori that the total quantity of all sorts of wool exported from the Papal States does not exceed 800,000 lbs. a year, sent to Tuscany, Piedmont, France, and England. The ewes are mostly kept for their milk, and the greater part of the lambs are killed, the mutton not being good. About 1,000,000 lbs. cheese and 400,000 lamb-skins are annually exported, principally to the other states of Italy. Cattle breeding is extensively carried on in the marshes of the Po, in the provs. Bologna, Perugia, &c.; and about 40,000 oxen are exported. Many buffaloes and hogs are kept in the marshes; and about 100,000 ox and buffalo skins are annually exported. The horses are mostly of good breeds, and are exported to Tuscany and Lombardy. Goats are extensively reared, their flesh and lamb being the principal animal food. In Perugia and other delegs. great numbers of poultry, and in Forlì, Macerata, &c., many bees are kept. (*Châlemaison, Italy and its Agric.; Bouring's Report on the Roman States* *Graham; Sismondi; Sismondi, Etudes sur l'Economie Politique; Serristori, Statist. d'Italia*, Part v.)

The fisheries on the coast are almost wholly conducted by Neapolitan fishermen. Mining industry is also at a very low ebb. The government works the mines of alum at Tolfa, but the rest are left to private speculators. Iron ore is pretty abundant in some places, but only a few traces of other metals have been discovered. About 4,000,000 lbs. of sulphur are raised in Romagna at Pesaro, &c.; and 100,000 lbs. of vitriol at Viterbo, half of which is exported. Lime, building stone, potters' clay, variegated and statuary marbles, fuller's earth, bitumen, naphtha, and coal are met with; but the last, though under the French it was raised in considerable quantities, is no longer made use of. From 70 to 80 million pounds of salt are annually made at Cervia, Comacchio, Corneto, and Ostia, rather more than the half of which is sent to the adjacent states.

Manufactures, though in the most depressed and backward state, serve almost entirely for home consumption. Woollen fabrics are the principal, and include cloths, cassimeres, serges, woollen caps, blankets, and carpets. Rome, Spoleto, Matanello, Perugia, Norcia, &c., are the chief places in which these are made; but since their manufacture has ceased to be held up by government premiums, their production has greatly diminished, and their total yearly value does not exceed 300,000 scudi. Hats, of the value of 200,000 sc., are made principally at Rome; good felt cloth at Fabriano; silk goods at Rome, Bologna, Camerino, Perugia, Pesaro, &c.; leather and gloves at Rome; and paper, about 3,500,000 lbs. a year, are the other most prominent manufactures. Bologna was formerly famous for its crapes, but the value of the exports of these does not now exceed 30,000 sc. a year. The iron furnaces are estimated to yield 18,000,000 lbs. pig, and about 2,000,000 lbs. a year; but iron, razors, file-nails, needles, pins, screws, &c., are made in various towns; glassware, to the value of 90,000 scudi, copper goods to 80,000 do.; earthenware to about 150,000 do., &c. Roman musical strings enjoy a high and deserved celebrity, and are exported to most countries of Europe. The most flourishing branch of manufacture is the refining of sulphur, a product which, under a free system, might be supplied in unlimited quantities. (*Serristori, Statistica; Bowring, &c.*) Such is the meagre catalogue of Papal manufactures, that a govern. of Great Britain, of only 30,000 inhab., produces a greater quantity of manufactured goods than the three million inhab. of the Pontifical States! Notwithstanding the enormous sacrifices made by the Papal government, the protections, the prohibitions, the premiums given for the encouragement of what is called native industry, scarcely a valuable discovery has been introduced: the woollen spinning, in some cases by hand, in others by machinery, is far behind its state in England, Belgium, Prussia, or France. The looms, such as were generally employed in the 14th century, are little better than those used by the Indians of the Deccan; the rowing and carding are wholly done by solitary workmen, and with the ancient teazels and hand cards; the shearing with the antique hand shears, such as have been employed from immemorial time; and in some places the fulling is performed by men employed to trample on the cloth, a process probably not now to be found in any other part of the civilized world." (*Bowring's Rep.*, p. 84.)

Commerce.—From the circumstance of the Apennines dividing the country into two portions, between which there is little communication, some provs. are exporting while others are importing the same kinds of produce. The N. provs. have generally a superabundance of corn, while in the S. provs. the crops are insufficient for home consumption. On the other hand, oil is exported from the S., while in the N. legations, the Marche, &c., 3,000,000 lbs. are annually imported from S. Italy and Tuscany. Besides the articles of export previously specified, about 3,000,000 lbs. rags are sent every year from the N. legs., partly to Genoa, and partly for orange trees; planks to Spain, France, and America; and organized silk, about 200,000 lbs., chiefly to France and England; about 450,000 lbs. linseed; 3,000,000 lbs. charcoal; 1,000,000 lbs. potash, with vinegar, cork bark, tartar, wax, tallow, bones, honey, works of art and antiquities, are the other principal exports. The imports, in addition to those already noticed, are raw sugar, about 10,000,000 lbs. a year, and other colonial products from England and France, coarse wool for mattresses, cheese and butter from Lombardy, salt fish, pickards, &c., from England, to the amount of 8,700,000 lbs. a year; about 2,000,000 lbs. of iron ore from Elbe, and the same quantity of lead annually from England, and metals and manufactured goods of most kinds in N. and W. Europe. (*Serristori, Statistica d'Italia*.) Serristori estimates the total annual value of the imports at nearly 7,000,000 and that of the exports at above 5,000,000 scudi. The importation of salt, tobacco, alum, and some other kinds of native produce, including when the price is under 14 sc. the rubic on the Mediterranean, or 12 sc. on the Adriatic, is prohibited; as is the export of hempseed and wheat, when the price is above 16 sc. in the Me-

diterranean, and 14 sc. in the Adriatic ports, and other grains in proportion. The importation of such books as would communicate any useful information, as to politics, political economy, or philosophy, is of course absolutely forbidden. Notwithstanding the low state of manufacturing industry, high duties are levied on manufactured goods when imported. Woollen cloth, woollen and cotton fabrics, and cambrics, pay 100 sc.; dyed or stamped cottons, 80 sc.; and porcelain, 90 sc. per 100 lbs. The principal seats of the foreign trade are Ancona and Civita Vecchia. In 1838, 1,292 ships, of the aggregate burden of 66,528 tons, with cargoes of the value of 1,109,300 sc. cleared from the former port; and in 1837, 1,520 ships, burden 133,409 tons, cleared out of the latter. (*Parl. Reports, 1838; Bowring's Reports, &c.*)

Accounts are kept in *scudi* (crowns) = 4s. 3d., each, and divided into 10 *paoli* and 100 *bajocchi*. The Roman *libbra* or pound of 12 ounce and 588 *danari* = nearly 12 oz. avoird. The *barile* of wine, of 33 *boccali*, and 128 *fogliette* = about 13 galls.; the *barile* of oil contains only 28 *boccali*. The Roman foot = 11.7 Eng. inches; the palm of architects = about 8.5 inches; the Roman cubit = 1.75 Eng. yards. Generally, the measures of Rome have less extent than those of the N. dominions.

The Government is wholly ecclesiastical, no one being eligible to fill any civil office who has not attained the rank of abbot. The pope enacts all laws, and nominates to all clerical appointments. He is assisted, however, by the High College of Cardinals, comprising about 70 members; and the different branches of the government are conducted each by *Congregazioni*, with a cardinal at its head. Each leg. and deleg. is governed by a cardinal, assisted by 2 assessors, and a council of 4 individuals nominated by the cardinal himself, who are changed every 5 years. The jurisdiction of the temporal nobles is provisionally retained in some provs., but all the judicial officers of the nobility must be confirmed by the pope, and are subject to the general laws. In each cap. of a deleg. there is a tribunal of primary jurisdiction, which also decides in appeal on certain matters that first come before the district officers. The proceedings in these courts are public, but there is no jury. There are 4 courts of appeal, 1 at Bologna, 1 at Macerata, and 2 in Rome. The supreme tribunal of final resort, the *Uditore Santissimo* with a single judge, 9 tribunals of commerce also exist. Every town has its own jurisdiction and magistracy, and a municipal council of from 18 to 48 mems., according to the pop. The laws in force are nominally those of the Justinian code; but the pope has power to alter or annul any previous law, and, which is incomparably worse, the provincial judges have extensive discretionary powers. Criminal proceedings in the Papal States are very dilatory; and in all cases the accused is thrown into prison, whence there is no liberation on bail. In 1832, 2,708 criminals were confined in the various prisons, of whom 580 had been convicted of homicide, 284 of other offences against the person, 298 of burglary, and 1,073 of other offences against property, and 76 of state offences. Brigandage is less frequent than formerly; and the government has stationed five military posts along the road from Velletri to Terracina, for the protection of travellers. Still, however, the police and the law are equally defective; and assassinations and other crimes of violence are daily taking place without the perpetrators being ever brought to justice. The whole frame of government is, in fact, a tissue of abuses.

On the fall of Napoleon, the alienation of church domains was confirmed; but the compensation since made to their former owners, and the restoration of suppressed churches and convents, have cost the government prodigious sums, and are the principal causes of the wretched state of the finances. (*Von Rossum's Italy*.) Within the limits of the Papal States there are no fewer than 2 archbishops and 80 bishops' sees; and it is estimated that in Rome there is a clergyman for every ten families. It is needless to add that this superabundance of priests, instead of promoting religion and morality, is, in fact, a principal cause of their low state in the city. The outward deportment of the Papal court is, however, at present highly decorous. "Those times so disastrous, and disgraceful, when the Popes had so many nephews, and those nephews built so many splendid palaces and villas, called by the Romans, in derision, *miracles of St. Peter*," are now almost as much forgotten in Rome, as the time when horses were made consuls, and eunuchs emperors." (*Lynen's Polit. State of Italy*.)

Public Instruction.—There are 3 chief universities—in Rome and in Bologna, each having at least 36 professorships; and 6 universities of secondary rank—at Ferrara, Perugia, Camerino, Macerata, Fermo, and Urbino, each at least with 17 professors. The university of Rome was, in 1839, attended by 843 students (*Serristori*); that of Bologna, which ranks, in Italy, second only to Paris, is usually attended by from 500 to 600 students; that of Perugia by about 500; and those of

Camerino, Macerata, and Urbino by about 300 each. Altogether, upwards of 3,000 students annually attend the universities. (*Journal of Education*, vii. 310.) There are various other high colleges in Rome, &c., the principal of which is the Gregorian (*see* ROME). Secondary schools exist in most towns; but there is no general system of elementary instruction, and it has been estimated that only 1 in 50 of the male population are educated. The truth is, that education in the Papal States is in the most degraded state imaginable. It is wholly in the hands of the clergy; and is conducted on the principle, if we may so call it, of imbuing the pupils with the grossest prejudices, and of proscribing every study or pursuit that might tend to expand or enlighten their minds, or make them acquainted with their rights and duties. The university education, excepting, perhaps, in so far as respects medicine, is altogether contemptible. Even theology is not efficiently taught; and philosophy, politics, and political economy are as little relished in Rome as in Morocco.

The censorship of the press is severe in the extreme; and the gazettes published in the different towns insert nothing not approved by the censors. The journals, of which there are several, devoted to *Belles Lettres*, antiquities, the fine arts, &c., being under a less severe surveillance, occasionally display originality and learning; but the literature of the Roman States is, like their government, stagnant and imbecile. The Eternal City prohibits all the ems of the on mental philosophy. She has not one eminent man of science; and if she had a Cuvier or a Buckland, she would not permit him to lecture or to publish his discoveries to the world till they had been subjected to the pruning knife of some ignorant censor. The apathy and timidity, the dread of independent thinking and free inquiry manifested by the Papal government, seems, however, to admit of easy explanation. Its dogmas, its rites, its principles of action were framed in accordance with the opinions of the 13th century. It does make some changes silently, by dropping a few untenable pretensions; but it can make no great and marked change without abandoning its professed character of being the depository of immutable truth. The rulers of Rome, therefore, finding themselves unable to raise up their old institutions to the level of modern knowledge, endeavour to keep down this knowledge to the level of their institutions. They see the props and stays of their system dropping off, and one source of influence failing after another, and their prudential counsels them to shut out as far as they can, the light which is sapping their authority, and to look upon innovations, even of the most harmless kind, with suspicion. They are religious *Conservatives* in the strictest sense of the term." (*Macdaren's Notes on Italy*, p. 97.)

Charitable Institutions.—The Papal States are literally overrun with all kinds of charitable institutions. In Rome, especially, the sums expended on charitable foundations are, in proportion to its extent, twice as large as in Paris; so that, as Serristori exclaims, "*Terribile è la spesa che ogni Stato Pontificio fa molto più in Roma non esistesse carità.*" (*Statist.* p. 26.) But nowhere are the pernicious consequences of indiscriminate charity better exemplified than in the Roman States, where mendicity, wretchedness, and want prevail to a frightful extent. The universality of beggary removes all sense of shame; and a large proportion of the pop. are degraded enough to prefer subsisting on mats to making any attempts to provide for themselves. Here is a *mondo-di-pieta*, or government pawn-broking establishment, with a capital of 250,000 scudi; in Rome, & others in most of the principal cities, where also *ving's* banks have been established with considerable success. (*Bourning's Rep.* pp. 88—90.)

The army, if so it may be called, is under the direction of a cardinal-president, and a board of 2 general officers; it consisted, in 1850, of a permanent force of 14,000 n. (10,760 infantry, 3,239 cavalry, &c.); and a body reserve and national guard, together amounting to 30 men.

The principal fortresses garrisoned by the Pope are those of Rome, Civita Vecchia, Urbino, Castel Franco, Ancona, & Ancona; by the treaty of Vienna, the peror of Austria has the right to garrison Ferrara and Immacchio.

The taxes are very heavy, and are imposed in the most oppressive manner. The principal consists of a land tax; heavy duties are also laid on most articles consumed in towns and villages; and all sorts of grain, except rye, maize, barley, and oats, pay a heavy tax on ground at the mill. Salt, tobacco, alum, and oil, are monopolies in the hands of government. The *other* duties are probably, however, on the whole, the most oppressive and injurious. The lottery, also, notwithstanding its demoralising influence, is a fertile source of revenue; and contributes, in fact, about one tenth of the entire public revenue!

History.—The rise of the Popedom as a temporal power dates from 756, when Pepin, king of the Franks,

invested the pope with the exarchate of Ravenna; to which Charlemagne added the provs. of Perugia and Spoleto. Benevento was given to the pope by the emperor Henry III. in 1053; and in 1102 the marchioness Matilda of Tuscany, bequeathed to the holy see the provs. forming the Patrimony of St. Peter." In 1597, Corsi and the rest of Romagna, and, in 1564, Bologna, became portions of the Papal Dominion; and at the end of the 14th century the pope acquired full jurisdiction over Rome and Sabina. Ferrara was acquired in 1598, Urbino in 1626, and Orvieto in 1649.

The French invaded the States of the Church in 1797, after which the N. legations were annexed to the Cisalpine republic. In 1798, Rome was taken by the French, and in 1810 the whole of the Papal States were included in the kingdom of Italy. Since 1815, most part of the pope's former dominions have been restored; but his authority, especially in the N. legations, is far from being well established, and his power as a temporal prince depends wholly on the support given him by Austria.

Since this paragraph was written, 11 years ago, the Papal States have been the theatre of some singular events. The present Pope, having been elected to the chair of St. Peter, on the 16th of June, 1846, took the title of Pius IX. It would appear, in so far as an opinion may be formed from his proceedings, that he is a liberal minded, though, perhaps, rather a weak man. The commencement of his pontificate was characterised by some considerable reforms. These, however, though probably as much as could be undertaken with any prospect of advantage by the Papal government, served only to unsettle the minds of the Italians, and to inflame the passions of the Carbonari, and other headlong revolutionists. In this state of things the revolution of Paris in 1848, and the subsequent outbreak in Vienna, had a powerful influence in the peninsula, and especially in Rome. The moderate reforms of Pius were despised, his minister (Count Rossi) was assassinated in open day, and he was himself obliged to seek his safety by flight from the country. By what appears to be a curious contradiction, he has been restored by the arms of the only government called into existence by the revolutions of 1848. A powerful French force having arrived at Rome, in 1849, laid siege to the city, which they took after a resistance prolonged by the unwillingness of the besiegers to take any measures against the town that might compromise its great remains of ancient and modern art. The Pope returned to the Vatican on the 12th of April, 1850; but it is difficult to see how long he would continue there were not French force withdrawn. But it is not difficult to see, but obvious, that the only safe and really efficient Italian reformer, must be an intelligent general like Napoleon, at the head of 100,000 foreign troops.

PAPUA, or NEW GUINEA, a very large island, or perhaps a dense cluster of islands, in the E. Archipelago, third division; between the equator and the 9th deg. of S. lat., and the 130th and 150th degs. of E. long.; having N. and E. the Pacific Ocean, W. and S. W. the sea in which Gilolo Ceram, the Aroo Isles, the Celebes situated, and S. Torres Strait, separating it from Australia. It is indented by several deep bays; but even its coast line is in many parts unknown, and its interior has been but little explored, and is, in fact, a *terra incognita*. The coast, viewed from the sea, rises gradually into hills of considerable elevation; but no mountains of any remarkable height have yet been discovered. The whole island being covered with palm trees and timber of a large size, little can be said respecting its soil, which, however, is presumed to be fertile. The cocoa-nut, the two species of the bread-fruit tree, pine-apples, and plantains are found here: nutmeg-trees also grow wild; but it is not known whether they produce good spice. It is said that there are no quadrupeds in Papua, except dogs, wild cats, and hogs; and that to the E. of Gilolo no horned animals of any description are to be found. The woods abound with wild hogs, which the natives kill with spears and bows and arrows, in the use of which they are very expert. There is reason to believe that gold is found in the interior of the island. The natives of Papua appear to consist of two distinct races; those in the W. being identical with the negroes of the E. Archipelago, while the inhabs. of the E. part of the island belong rather to the sallow complexioned long-haired natives of the South Sea Islands (*see* POLYNESIA). The Papuan negroes, of whom a brief notice is given in the art. ARCHIPELAGO, EASTERN (I. 149.), continue, for the most part, in their original state of nakedness and barbarism, devoid of homes or clothing, and subsisting principally on the precarious produce of the chase, or on the spontaneous products of the forests. On the N.W. coast, which has been the most frequently visited by Europeans, the dwellings of the natives are raised on posts, as in other parts of the Archipelago and among the Ultra-Gangetic nations of the Asiatic continent. These tenements accommodate many families, who live in cabins on either side of a wide common hall that occupies the centre of the building. The cabins are miserably furnished; a

mat or two, a fire-place, an earthen pot, with perhaps a china plate or basin, and some sago flour. As they cook in each cabin, and have no chimney, the smoke issues at every part of the roof; and at a distance the whole building seems to be on fire. Their clothes are very scanty, but they contrive to bedizen themselves so as to attract the attention of European observers. Their hair is not so short, close, and woolly as that of the African negro, and they wear it bushed out round their heads to the circumference of 24 and 3 ft.; and, to make it more extensive, comb it out horizontally, occasionally adorning it with feathers.

The men in general wear a portion of the inner bark of the cocoa-nut tree, resembling a coarse kind of cloth, fastened round the middle; and the women use blue Surat baftas in a similar manner. Boys and girls go entirely naked till puberty. All are fond of glass and coloured china beads, and wear them about their wrist, &c. The women, as generally happens among savages, lead a laborious life; and Forrest says that he has often seen them labouring hard in digging posts in the ground for stages, in making mats, or in forming pieces of clay into earthen pots, while the men were sauntering about.

In the interior the inhabs. are supposed to practise gardening and some sort of agriculture, as they supply the inhabs. on the coast with food, in exchange for axes, knives, and other coarse cutlery. The natives on the coast purchase these from the Malays and the Chinese, particularly the latter, from whom they also buy blue and red cloths. In exchange the Chinese carry back missoy bark, slaves, ambergris, sea slug (*Wick de mer*), tortoise-shell, small pearls, birds of paradise, and many other species of dead birds, which the Papuas have a particular method of dressing.

The Dutch may have some trade with Papua; but Mr. Earl says that no intercourse whatever takes place between it and the British settlements in Australia, Singapore, or elsewhere in the East.

The inhabs. of the more westerly islands of the E. Archipelago buy the Papuas for slaves; and the natives of the W. coast of Papua make slaves of those of the E. and sell them to strangers. With a similar view, probably, they were formerly, and perhaps still are, accustomed to assemble in great numbers, and make war on the inhabs. of Gilolo, Ceram, Ambloco, and other islands still farther W.

The Arabians, in their early voyages, appear to have come into contact with the Papuas, whom they constantly describe as cannibals. Papua was discovered by Europeans in 1511, and frequently resorted to by the Portuguese during the 16th century. Towards the end of the 18th century, Forrest, McCluer, and other British navigators visited it; since which it has been but little noticed.

PARA, formerly called *Belém*, a city and seaport of Brazil, cap. prov. of same name at the confluence of a considerable river, with the great estuary of the Tocantins, or Rio Para, on its S. side, opposite the island of Joanes or Marajo, estimated about 60 m. from the Atlantic, and 300 m. W.N.W. Maranham; lat. $1^{\circ} 30' S.$, long. $48^{\circ} 22' 33'' W.$ Pop., estimated at 20,000, incl. comparatively few negroes. It stands in a fertile plain, and is one of the finest Brazilian cities, and is a well-straight, probably the houses almost all of stone, and both solid and elegant. The cathedral, and governor's palace, are said to be magnificent edifices. There are several other churches, but only 2 convents appear to exist at present, that of the Mercenarios having been converted into barracks, and the Jesuit's college into the episcopal palace and seminary. Para has a judicial tribunal, royal college, botanic garden, hospital, theatre, and arsenal. The harbour is confined, and is said to be diminishing in depth; the approach from the ocean is also rather difficult, and it is always expedient to take on board a pilot at the mouth of the estuary. The principal articles of export are cocoa, of which it exports above 35,000 bags; caoutchouc, of which it is the principal mart; with isinglass, rice, drugs, and cotton, amounting in all from 150,000*l.* to 170,000*l.* a year. The sugar grown in the neighbourhood is bad, the soil not being favourable for the cane. The communication with Great Britain is principally with Liverpool. Ships of war have been built here; and timber used to be exported to Lisbon for the use of the arsenals. The climate of Para is very hot; and thunder storms occur almost daily. It was formerly deemed very unhealthy, but in this respect it has latterly been materially improved. (*Manc's Trav. in Brazil*, 403, 404.; *Mod. Trav.*, xxx.; *Dict. Géog.*)

PARAGUAY, an indep. state of S. America, principally between the 21st and 27th degs of S. lat., and the 64th and 68th of W. long.; having N. and E. Brazil; S. E. and S. the territory of La Plata; and W. the latter repub. and Bolivia. Shape nearly oblong; length N. to S. about 460 m. Estimated area, 74,000 sq. m. Estimated pop. 250,000 (*American Almanac*, 1850); principally whites of Spanish descent, native Indians, negroes, and mixed races originating from the foregoing;

those of the Indo-Spanish descent greatly preponderating. Paraguay is an inland peninsula, inclosed E. and S. by the Parana and its tributary the Yajauri, and W. and N.W. by the rivers Paraguay and Blanco. A mountain chain, the Sierra Amambay, enters Paraguay on the N., runs through it near its centre to near lat. 26° , and then divides into two branches, inclosing the basin of the Tibiquari. From the undivided chain many rivers flow on either side to join the Parana or Paraguay; but none of them require any special notice, though in the rainy season they are all swollen so as to inundate a considerable extent of country. Respecting the Parana and Paraguay, see PLATA (Rio de la). There is but one lake, that of Ypao, worth mention; extensive marshes, however, abound in the W. The climate is temperate, but damp. Paraguay, in point of fertility, forms a striking and favourable contrast to the adjacent parts of the Argentine republic. It is well wooded, and diversified with undulating hills and verdant vales. Mr. Robertson, who entered it near Asuncion, states, "I was glad to meet with much more frequent traces of cultivation and industry than were to be found in the solitary tracts over which I had heretofore spent my monotonous way. Whitewashed cottages often peeped from among the trees, and around them were considerable fields of the cotton, yucca, and tobacco plants. The Indian corn and sugar-cane were also frequently to be seen in the vicinity of the farm-houses of a better character than the cottages; and there was abundance of wood and of the prickly pear. With the latter, the cultivated country, as well as the potreros or paddocks, were invariably well fenced." (*Letters from Paraguay*, i. 266, 267.)

Almost half the entire territory is national property. It consists of pasturage lands and forests, which have never been granted to individuals, the estates of the Jesuit missions, and other religious corporations; and a great number of country houses and farming establishments confiscated by the late dictator. The latter paid great attention from the commencement of his reign to the improvement of agriculture, and to rendering the government property and, by so doing, created a branch of revenue which, aided by time and a wise government, may be found sufficient of itself for all the wants of the state. He let a part of these lands at a very moderate rent, and for an unlimited period, under the single but indefinite condition, that they should be properly cultivated, or turned into pasturage. On other parts of these lands he established large farms, where thousands of cattle and horses are bred. These supply the cavalry with horses, and the troops with provisions; besides which, they also furnish great numbers of oxen for the consumption of the capital. For these the dictator required a high price, and would allow no one to undersell him. The farming establishments were objects of peculiar solicitude to him; and every month the master herdsmen were obliged to make a detailed report concerning them. (*Reuget and Longchamp's Reign of Francia in Parag.*, 174-6.)

The arbitrary measures of Francia certainly produced a salutary result on farming economy at large throughout Paraguay. Before the establishment of his sway, the farmers never thought of cultivating any but the ground tobacco, the sugar-cane, and yucca-root; while the gathering of the maté or Paraguay tea engrossed almost all hands. In 1820, an extent of country, 90 leagues in circumference, was devastated by locusts, and a famine impended over the inhabs. To avert this, the dictator compelled the proprietors to sow a second time, a large portion of the land which had been laid waste, and the harvest that followed was most abundant. On the complete success of this experiment, Francia determined to extend his measures to the whole country, so that, ultimately, every farmer was obliged to devote the necessity of employing himself in that particular branch of agriculture which the dictator pointed out! By these violent regulations, which, perhaps, were, at the outset, the best suited for the country, a total change in its rural economy was produced; it is no longer customary to import common necessaries from Buenos Ayres and the adjacent provs. The migration of the rural pop. has been forbidden. Rice, maize, yucca, kitchen vegetables, are now cultivated on a more extended scale; and the growth of cotton, which had formerly been wholly neglected from Corrientes, suffices for the consumption. The breeding of horses and horned cattle has been equally encouraged; and instead of receiving cattle from Entre-Rios, as previously, the farmers have now a surplus stock. The prohibition to interfere with the forests, and the total suspension of the intercourse between Paraguay and other countries, contributed very much to produce these results, as they turned to the cultivation of the soil all the industry which used to be applied to navigation, the cutting down of timber, and the collection of the yerba maté.

The latter, or Paraguay tea, is the leaf of the *Ilex Paraguariensis*, an evergreen about the size of an orange-

tree, growing wild and in great abundance in the dense forests in the N. and E. provs. to which the natives resort in great numbers for its collection. It is difficult to penetrate the country where it is found; but the profits derived from the article are ample, Paraguay tea being in as general demand throughout La Plata, Chili, and many parts of Peru, as the teas of China are in Europe. Its collection is undertaken by merchants in Assumption, who each employ a master-workman or *abillador*, and from about 20 to 50 peons, the master providing axes, knives, tobacco, mules, bulls for slaughter, and other provisions, with money advanced to him by the merchant. The boughs of the *yerba*, with the leaves attached, are first hewn down and scorched; the leaves being then roughly removed, and dried by being placed over a wide arch of wood work, underneath which a large fire is kindled; and, together with the small twigs, they are afterwards ground to powder by a rude wooden mill. The tea is next weighed and stored by the overseer, who pays the peons for it, at the rate of 2 rials or 1s. each arroba of 25 lbs. It is next rammed tightly into bags of bull's hair, which are left to dry in the sun, and to contain from 300 lbs. to 320 lbs. each; and in this state it goes to market. Mr. Robertson estimates that for six months' work, the peon may obtain about 57l. in wages; but he has run in debt to his master perhaps 12l. before entering the woods, and as much more while employed there, for neither of which sums he has got half the value. Of the remaining balance of 33s. he spends perhaps 12l. in ornaments for his horse, 6s. more in personal decorations, and the rest in gambling, to which all are very much addicted. "In a month the peon re-sells his horse-furniture and personal apparel, and in a fortnight after that he is left without a farthing; and in a week more he is to be found again naked in the *yerbales*." (*Robertson's Letters*, l. 134-150.)

Manufactures received a considerable impulse from the dictator's prohibition of foreign commerce. The people had previously imported cotton, woollen, and almost all other manufactured goods; and there used to be no such thing as a good workman in Paraguay. But the exercise of ingenuity was excited, not only by necessity, but by terror. The dictator caused a gibbet to be erected, and threatened a poor shoemaker to hang him up, because he had not made some belts of the size he required; and once he sentenced an unfortunate smith to hard labour, because he had improperly placed the sight of a cannon! (*Reugeter*, &c. p. 50.)

Francia, next to personal aggrandizement, appears to have been actuated by the short-sighted, barbarous policy of wishing to render Paraguay dependent solely on her own internal resources, and wholly unconnected in any way with any other S. American state. Except in special cases, he permitted no ingress or egress of individuals or merchandise to or from Paraguay. While Paraguay remained a Spanish prov., the yearly value of its exported produce fell little short of 1,500,000 dollars. 8,000,000 lbs. Paraguay tea were annually sent to Santa Fé and Buenos Ayres, besides 1,000,000 lbs. tobacco, large quantities of timber, cotton, sugar, molasses, spirits, &c. But the only trade, if so it may be called, which was being carried on of late years, was on account of the dictator. "When he wants an assortment of foreign goods, a permit is sent over to the adjoining prov. of Corrientes for a vessel to proceed to the opposite port of Neembuck. On her arrival there, the invoice of the cargo is immediately forwarded to him at Assumption, from which place, after selecting such articles as he requires, he orders a quantity of yerba-maté to be sent on board in payment. There is no appeal from his own valuation: no one is allowed to go on shore, and the ship is sent back as soon as the yerba is delivered. This article is in such demand, from his having stopped the trade in it, that the people of Corrientes are glad to get it upon his own terms. In the same manner, for a short period, he allowed a peddling traffic to be carried on between the Brazilian missions beyond the river Uruguay and the port of Ytapu, but that trade he altogether stopped about 10 years ago." (*Parish's Buenos Ayres*, &c., 224, 225.)

The government of Paraguay is an anomaly in the present times. It approached under Francia as near to an absolute despotism as can well be conceived, the dictatorship of Sylla in ancient Rome being the only model with which it may be compared. The state is nominally republican, having a so styled congress of several hundred members; but the entire power centred in the dictator, who was not only commander-in-chief, but head of the church, the law, and every other branch of the administration. The country is divided into 20 sections, or *commandancias*, exclusive of a territory in the S.E., called the Misiones, occupying 600 sq. leagues, and governed by a special officer. Besides Assumption, the cap., there are but four towns in Paraguay; the other collections of houses being mere villages. There was no law save what was

dictated by the caprice of the dictator; and his punishments were as barbarous as his policy was tyrannical and oppressive. The military force comprised about 3,000 men, principally cavalry; besides which, there is a militia, comprising every free male citizen, 17 years of age, and capable of bearing arms. The naval force consists of only a few brigantines and gun-boats. The amount of the public revenue is uncertain: it is derived from state property, the greater part of which has been confiscated; (titles in kind upon all articles of produce, the right to levy which is sold each year to the best bidder; taxes upon shops and store-houses in the cap.; the *droit d'habitation*, or right to the property of all foreigners dying in Paraguay; fines, postage, sale, stamp and commercial dues, &c. The principal state expenditure is for war-stores, and the support of the army. There is no public debt. Public education is not much encouraged; but there are many primary schools for male children, and, according to Reugeter and Longchamps, "it is a rare occurrence in this country, where no printing-press exists, to find a free man who cannot read and write." Morals are at a very low ebb.

Paraguay was discovered in 1526 by Sebastian Cabot. The Jesuits afterwards established many missions in the S. part of the country; and were supposed to have effected astonishing improvements in the condition and habits of the natives; but no sooner had they been expelled in 1768, than the fabric they had been so long in raising fell straightway to pieces, and the Indians relapsed into their former barbarism. In 1776 Paraguay became a prov. of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. In 1810, the Buenos Ayres revolutionary troops were defeated by the Paraguayans; but by a later season afterwards deposed their governor, and in 1813, proclaimed Paraguay a republic under two consuls. In 1814 the second consul, Dr. Francia, found means to get himself made sole dictator for 3 years, and at the expiration of that term, for life. In 1826 Francia declared Paraguay independent, and its independence was formally recognised by the emperor of Brasil in 1837. In 1841, General Lopez, the present president, succeeded to Francia, and the oppressive policy of the latter has since been considerably modified. (*Robertson's Letters on Paraguay*; *Reugeter and Longchamps the Reign of Dr. Francia*; *Parish's Buenos Ayres*, &c.)

PARAMARIBO. See GUIANA (DUTCH).

PARGA, a fortified town and sea-port of European Turkey, in Albania, sanjak Delvino, on the Ionian Sea, near the mouth of the Fanar (an. *Acheron*), 48 m. S.W. Yannina, and 13 m. E. Paxo; lat. 39° 15' 45" N., long. 20° 34' E. Pop. 4,000. It is built amphitheatrically on the side of a steep rock, surrounded on three sides by the sea, the summit of which is crowned by an almost impregnable fortress, commanding a magnificent view of the surrounding coast and country. It is surrounded by strong walls, and has a double harbour. The streets are narrow, steep, and dirty; it has no public buildings of importance, and many of the houses are in ruins. The inhabs. export oil, tobacco, different kinds of fruit, and some tolerably good wine, all being the produce of the fertile and well-watered tracts surrounding the town. Sir J. C. Hobhouse states that the Pargiotes were among the worst of the Albanians, and that their connexion with the Christian states had taught them only the vices of civilisation without diminishing their ferocity. (*Albania and Turkey*, p. 169.) The opinions of General Campbell and Colonel Leake are much more favourable; and Colonel de Boscet, who had excellent opportunities of estimating their character, pronounced them to be spirited and independent, though at the same time temperate, docile, and, if well treated, easy of command. The Albanians, however, mostly withdrew from the town on its being ceded to Ali Pacha, and the present inhabs. are principally Turks.

Parga is hardly mentioned in history until 1461, when it entered into an alliance with Venice, which continued nearly four centuries, until the subversion of the latter in 1797. Parga, being independent of Ali Pacha, tyrant of Albania, afforded an asylum to refugees from his violence, and was the seat of frequent cabals against his government; so that it became an object of importance for him to annex it to his dominions. In 1814, it was besieged by Ali, but being assisted by the British in Corfu, Ali was obliged to give up the siege, and the Pargiotes had reason to believe that they would be incorporated with the republic of the Ionian Islands. The British government did not, however, agree to this arrangement; they felt the importance of Parga to Corfu, but the dread of continued dissensions with the Albanians led to a negotiation for its surrender, on Ali paying a pecuniary indemnity to such of the inhabs. as should refuse to remain after a change of government. In consequence of this agreement, which was severely, and perhaps justly, censured, most of the Pargiotes withdrew to the Ionian Islands; and Ali had to pay, in all, about 200,000*l.* by way of compensation. The cession took place in 1819.

* Francia retained Bonaparte, the companion of Humboldt, within his just cause, in confinement in Paraguay for nine years!

PARIS (an. *Lutetia* or *Lucolectia*), a celebrated city of W. Europe, the metropolis of France, being the next European city to London in magnitude and importance, in the dep. of the Seine, of which, with its suburbs, it occupies the largest portion, on the Seine, about 110 m. (direct dist.) from its mouth, 210 m. S.S.E. London, and 159 m. S.S.W. Brussels; lat. (observatory) $48^{\circ} 50' 14''$ N., long. $2^{\circ} 20' 15''$ E. Pop. in 1826, (inc. the *arrondissement*, but excl. of troops and temporary residents), 890,431, and, in 1846, 1,053,897. The city stands in a plain, surrounded on several sides, but especially N. and N.E., by considerable eminences; and the geological constitution of the district is so peculiar that the French geologists have called it the Paris basin, in the same way that the English have called the tertiary formations near the English metropolis, the London basin. Here are found alternate strata, abounding with marine and freshwater shells, and containing also many fossil remains of extinct animals. Gypsum (known in England as *plaster of Paris*) is found in large quantities; and S. of the Seine is quarried good building-stone, of which, indeed, some of the principal edifices of Paris are formed: the older quarries, all of which were subterranean, have been converted into catacombs, or repositories for the bones of the dead, removed from the public graves that once abounded, greatly to the injury of health of the city.

Paris, like London, is situated on both sides a considerable river, which runs through it from S.E. to N.W., and divides it into two parts, of which the largest is on the N. side; the most ancient part of the city being, however, confined to the small islands within the channel of the river. In the course of centuries it has so extended itself, that it now occupies an area of about 14 sq. m., including the Champs Elysées, and other open spaces at its W. extremity. Many of the best streets are parallel to the river, and the open spaces, or quays along its banks, present an agreeable feature of which London is almost wholly destitute. A few of the streets more recently built are wide, and lined on each side with *trottoirs*; but generally speaking, the streets are narrower, less regular, than those of the British metropolis. The style of building, however, in the best street, is probably superior to that of London. "The houses are very high, and many of them comprise 7 stories, including the ground-floor; for there are *no sunk stories*. All the tenements have rich heavy cornices one story below the roof, and the fronts are invariably coated with plaster, and repainted from time to time. The town has, therefore, in its better parts, a gay and handsomer appearance than London; but internally, the houses (which are of great extent, inhabited by many families, and in some cases, formed round internal courtyards, accessible by *porte-cochères*), want the many comforts and conveniences which are found in English houses." (*Maclaren's Notes*, p. 12.) As in London, the fashionable part of Paris is at its W. end, while the districts of an opposite character are mostly in the E. and S. The *boulevards*, a succession of open, circular roads, similar to the "Circular Road" which surrounds Dublin, encircle the more densely peopled portion of the city. They occupy the site of the old fortifications built in the reign of Louis XIII., are from 60 to 70 yards in width, and, being planted with trees, form agreeable places of resort for all classes of the inhabs.

The city was originally divided into 4 quarters (*quartiers*), but as it increased, new allotments

became necessary, though the old name was retained; and hence we find that there are at present 48 *quartiers*. For electoral and municipal purposes, however, Paris is divided into 12 *arrondissements*, each comprising 4 *quartiers*, which respectively elect members to the National Assembly.

The following table exhibits the pop. belonging, in 1826 and 1846, to the different *arrondissements*, with the names of the *quartiers* comprised in each, the order of succession being from W. to E. on each side the Seine.

Arrondissements.	Quartiers.	1826.	1846.
1. N. of the Seine.			
I.	Quartiers du Roule, des Champs Elysées, de la Place Vendôme, des Tuilleries -	72,101	92,246
II.	Quartiers de la Chaussée d'Antin, du Faubourg du Palais Royal, du Faubourg Montmartre -	78,659	93,283
III.	Quartiers Poissonnière, de Montmartre, de St. Eustache, du Mail -	54,167	59,796
IV.	Quartiers de St. Honoré, des Marchés, du Louvre, de la Banque de France -	61,759	66,430
V.	Quartiers de Bonne-nouvelles, du Faubourg St. Denis, du Faub. St. Martin, de Montorgueil -	78,569	85,283
VI.	Quartiers du Temple, des Lombards, de la Porte St. Denis, de St. Martin des Champs -	90,481	98,315
VII.	Quartiers des Arcs, de St. Avoise, du Mont-Blanc, de la Madeleine, du Marché St. Jean -	73,908	66,544
VIII.	Quartiers des Quinze-vingts, de Popincourt, du Faub. St. Antoine, du Marais -	79,375	95,328
IX.	Quartiers de la Cité, de l'Arsenal, de l'Île St. Louis, de l'Hôtel-de-Ville -	57,736	67,680
2. S. of the Seine.			
X.	Quartiers des Invalides, de la Monnaie, de St. Thomas d'Aquin, du Faub. St. Germain -	90,623	96,137
XI.	Quartiers du Luxembourg, du Palais de Justice, de l'École de Justice, de la Sorbonne -	65,743	80,580
XII.	Quartiers de l'Observatoire de St. Jacques, du Jardin des Plantes, de St. Marcel -	97,222	91,680
		890,431	1,053,897

"Paris, however," observes Sir H. Lytton Bulwer, "is divided into quarters as well by its manners as its laws, and these different districts differ as widely one from the other in the ideas, habits, and appearance of their inhabs. as in the height and size of their buildings, or the width and cleanliness of their streets. The *Chaussée d'Antin* breathes the atmosphere of the Bourse, and the Palais Royal is the district of bankers, stock-brokers, generals of the empire, and rich tradespeople; and it is the quarter fullest of life, most animated, most rife with the spirit of progress, change, luxury, and elegance. Here are all the new buildings, arcades, and shops, and here are given the richest and most splendid balls. How different is the *quartier* St. Germain, the district of the long and silent street, of the meagre repast, and the large, well-trimmed garden, of the great court-yard, of the broad and dark staircase, inhabited by the administrations and the old nobility, manifesting no signs of change, no widening of streets, no piercing of arcades or passages: it hardly possesses a restaurant of note, and has but one unfrequented theatre. Further E., on the same side of the Seine, is the *quartier* of the students, at once poor and popular, inhabited by those eloquent and illustrious professors who give to France its literary glory. Then there is the Marais, the retreat of

old-fashioned judges and merchants, where the manners have been changed almost as little as the houses by the philosophy of the 18th century: here are no carriages, no equipages; all is still and silent; you are carried back to the customs of the grand hotels in the time of Louis XIII. Then there is the Faubourg St. Antoine, the residence of those immense masses that reigned under Robespierre, and which Napoleon, after Waterloo, refused to summon to his assistance. And behold the ancient city of Paris surrounded by the Seine, and filled by a vast and wretched population; there, proud amidst the sordid roofs around them, rise the splendid towers of Notre Dame, that temple of the 12th century which, in spite of the Madeleine, has not been surpassed in the 19th; there is the Hôtel-Dieu, the antique hospital as old as the time of Philip Augustus, and there is the Palais de Justice, where sat the parliament of Broussel, remarkable in the chronicle of De Retz! (*France, Social, Lit. and Pol. i. 44-47.*)

Barrières, Boulevards, &c. — Paris, as defined by the walls erected in the reign of Louis XVI., is of an irregular oval shape, its greatest length from N. W. to S. E., being 4½ m., and its greatest breadth from the Barrière de la Villette northward to the Barrière d'Enfer southward about 3½ m. In these walls are 58 gates, at each of which is a toll-house for the collection of the *octroi*, or local dues on goods entering the city; and on the outer sides of the walls are well-planted walks, called "the outer boulevards," abounding with *guinguettes*, wine-shops, &c., the favourite resort of the lower orders, the wine drunk here not being subject to the town dues. Between the outer and the inner or great boulevards, already noticed, are the suburbs or *faubourgs*, forming some of the best built quarters of Paris.

General Condition of Streets, Houses, &c. — The streets in the interior of Paris, except those of more modern construction in the fashionable quarters N. W. the Tuileries, have been formed more or less on the model of the narrow lanes and alleys constructed before the general introduction of carriages, at a time when the absence of police and the frequency of popular tumults rendered it necessary to defend the streets at night with cross-barriers or chains. Much attention, however, and large sums of money, have lately been devoted to the improvements of the great thoroughfares; *trottoirs* of basaltic stone from Auvergne have been laid down in many of the streets; and more recently the asphalt-pavement has been successfully introduced in the Rue Rivoli and on the Boulevards. Gas has been provided by two or three chartered companies; and the quarters of the Tuileries, Champs-Élysées, and Palais Royal, as well as the arcades and principal shops N. of the Seine, are now brilliantly lighted with gas. But in the streets of other quarters, and even in the best streets S. of the river, may still be seen the melancholy oil-lamps, or *reverberères*, suspended by a cord across the street, emitting only sufficient light to make darkness visible, till midnight, when all the lights are extinguished, and the town is plunged in obscurity, rendered more annoying and dangerous from the inefficiency of the night police. (*Mac-laren's Notes, p. 22.*) With respect to cleanliness, Paris, though greatly improved, is still very far from what it should be. The sewers, which were begun at the commencement of the 15th century, were at first wholly open, running through the middle of the streets, either directly into the Seine, or into its tributaries, the brook

Ménil-montant northward, and the Bièvre southward. In some of the closer and less wealthy districts this nuisance still remains; but by far the larger part of Paris is now supplied with subterraneous drains, arched with stone, some of them being of great size. Drainage, however, for separate houses, is still far from being common; there is a general want of water-closets; and domestic filth is in many cases allowed to accumulate, greatly to the injury of the public health, and in spite of police regulations, which, were they strictly enforced, might abate the nuisance. The houses, also, which are always five, and often seven, stories in height, though without cellars, consist, as in Edinburgh, of separate stories; and sometimes a single story, or floor, is divided into different sets of apartments, occupied by different individuals or families, the access to the different stories being from a common staircase, usually very dirty, and often, indeed, filthy to a degree revolting to an Englishman; and as water is seldom introduced into the houses by pipes, but is brought by porters from the public fountains in the streets, we need not be surprised at the deficiency of cleanliness. The more modern houses, however, are provided with better means for insuring this advantage; and in the new quarters we do not observe that *mélange* of inmates, from the prince *au premier* to the poor semstress *au sixième*, that distinguishes the houses of Paris from those of most other capitals of Europe. The broader streets have externally a pleasing appearance, owing to the regularity of the houses, the great number of windows (for which there is scarcely any tax), and the general use of balconies and "external shutters called *persiennes*, formed of thin bars of wood, turning on hinges, and folding back on the walls when not in use." (*Mac-laren, p. 28.*) The streets S. of the Seine are gloomy and monotonous: in the chief hotels of the nobility few windows face the street, and large *porte-cochères* lead to an inner court-yard, round which the building is arranged.

Principal Streets, Places, and Parks. — The leading street of Paris, corresponding with the Strand or Oxford Street of London, is the Rue St. Honoré, running westward from the *Marché des Innocens*, and forming, with its continuation, the Rue Faubourg St. Honoré, a line of streets very nearly 2 m. in length. The houses in this faubourg are large and handsome, belonging chiefly to the higher classes; but those in the part nearer the centre of the city consist principally of shops and residences of persons in trade. The Rue St. Honoré is connected eastward with the Rue St. Antoine, terminating in the *Place de la Bastille*, in which is the model of the projected *Fontaine de l'Éléphant*. These streets entirely intersect the capital from W. N. W. to E. S. E., and the continuous line measured from the Barrière du Roule westward, to the Barrière du Trône eastward, is exactly 5 m. in length. From N. to S. runs another and almost equally important avenue, formed N. of the Seine by the Faubourg and Rue St. Martin, crossing the river and isle of Paris by two bridges (the *Pont Notre Dame* and *Petit Pont*), the part S. of the river consisting of the Rue and Faubourg St. Jacques, terminating in the Barrière d'Arcueil, from which to the N. end of the line at the Barrière de la Villette is a distance of 3½ m. The Rue St. Denis runs parallel to the Rue St. Martin, connecting the Pont-au-Change with the N. Boulevards at the Porte St. Denis; and more westward, running in the same direction, are the Rue de Richelieu, Rue de Castiglione, and

Rue de la Paix connected with the *Place Vendôme*, the *Rue de Luxembourg*, and the *Rues Royale* and *Tronchet*, which run into the square containing the church of *La Madeleine*. These again are crossed by other streets running from W. to E., the principal being the *Rue St. Augustin*, which connects the Bourse with the *Boulevard des Capucins*; and opposite to the *Gardens of the Tuileries* is the *Rue de Rivoli*, a noble well-paved street, lined on its N. side by government buildings and fine hotels: it is about $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in length; and lined throughout its whole extent with colonnades. The chief streets S. of the Seine and parallel to its banks are in the *Faubourg St. Germain*, comprising the *Rue de Grenelle*, a handsome avenue lined with several large and handsome government buildings, the *Rue St. Dominique*, *Rue de l'Université*, and *Rue de Bourbon*, the last running close to and in a line with the *Quai d'Orsay*. Most of the streets at the E. end of Paris are narrow and irregularly built: the *Quartier Latin*, S. of the Seine, comprises several collegiate edifices; but the streets are confined and crooked, in fact, little better than mere lanes and alleys. Indeed, the only handsome streets of Paris, except the *Boulevards*, are to the W. of the *Palais Royal* on both sides the river. The quarters of the *Tuileries*, the *Place Vendôme*, and the *Chaussée d'Antin*, are the most fashionable districts N. of the Seine; but the houses, or *hôtels*, of the higher classes are chiefly in the *Faubourg St. Germain*. Besides the streets just mentioned, Paris has about seventy squares, or *places*, the principal of which are—1. the *Place de la Concorde*, an open space W. of the garden of the *Tuileries*, in the centre of which is the obelisk brought from Luxor, in Egypt, 99 ft. 3 in. in height, inc. its pedestal; 2. the *Place Vendôme*, an octagon surrounded on three sides by handsome buildings, with Corinthian fronts, and having in its centre a noble column, formed on the model of that of Trajan at Rome, covered with bronze castings, representing the achievements of the grand army in 1805, and surmounted by a statue of Napoleon*; 3. the *Place des Victoires*, originally formed in 1685, and having in its centre an equestrian statue of Louis XIV. on a marble pedestal, with bas-reliefs; 4. the *Place de Grève*, where public executions were formerly carried into effect, and having on one side the *Hôtel de Ville*; 5. the *Parvis Notre Dame*, in front of the cathedral of that name, and having on its S. side the *Hôtel-Dieu*; and 6. the *Place de la Bastille*, in the *Faubourg St. Antoine*, occupying the site of the *Bastille* destroyed 14th July, 1789: in its centre is the *Colonne de Juillet*, a large Composite column, erected in commemoration of the revolution of 1830, 163 ft. in height, surmounted by a colossal figure of the Genius of France. Paris has also 65 fountains, communicating by pipes with the Seine and the Canal de l'Ourcq: some of them, as the fountains of St. Sulpice, St. Eustache, Grenelle, the *Château d'Eau* in the *Boulevard de Bondi*, and that in the *Marché des Innocens*, are worthy of notice from their architectural beauty; though the supply of water from them be not only insufficient, but of bad quality. In consequence of the great depth to which the *calcaire grossier* of the Paris basin penetrates, there are no springs in the city itself, though aqueducts bring pure water from a

distance; but pipes, leading as in London to each house, are of very modern date, and only partially introduced.

Exclusive of several handsome gates and barriers, Paris has four splendid triumphal arches; those of St. Denis and St. Martin in the N. *Boulevards*, erected in honour of Louis XIV.; the *Arc de Carrousel*, forming the principal entrance to the palace of the *Tuileries*, built in 1806 on the plan of that of Septimius Severus at Rome, being 60 ft. in width, by 45 ft. in height; and the *Arc de l'Etoile*, at the W. end of the *Avenue de Neuilly*, commenced by Napoleon in 1806, and completed by Louis Philippe. The latter is a most magnificent monument, and is, indeed, by far the most stupendous structure of the kind ever erected, either in ancient or modern times. It consists of a single arch 96½ ft. in height, 48 ft. in width, and 73 ft. in depth, and of two smaller transverse arches; the whole structure being 147 ft. in length by 73 ft. in depth, and 162½ ft. in height! It stands quite separate from any other building, so that it is seen to the best advantage. It has numerous colossal groups of sculpture, depicting most of the great battles gained by the French during the revolutionary war. The effect of this prodigious structure is grand in the extreme, and is worthy the genius and magnificence of its founder.

Contiguous to the *Arc de l'Etoile* is the garden of the *Tuileries*, an enclosed space of sixty-seven acres, laid out by the celebrated Le Nôtre in broad walks and angular beds, and profusely ornamented with vases, statues, &c. It is a favourite resort of the Parisians, and is separated by the *Place de la Concorde* from the *Champs Elysées*, an open space about 1,000 yds. in length by 400 yds. in breadth, planted by Colbert in 1670, with pavilions along the sides provided with seats and entertainments. These parks, for so they may be called, constitute with the *Avenue de Neuilly* the Hyde Park of Paris, and, like it, are thronged on Sundays and festival days. S. of the Seine is the *Champ de Mars*, an oblong space bordered by a double avenue of trees, and used for reviewing troops, horse-racing, &c. It was the scene of the celebrated *Fête de la Fédération*, 14th July, 1790, as well as of the *Champ de Mai* during the 100 days. Races are held in it in May and September; but English sportsmen describe them as very inferior. Several minor gardens are dispersed in the different *fauxbourgs*; besides which, near the E. and W. suburbs respectively, are the *Parc de Vincennes*, about 2½ m. in length by 2 m. in breadth, and the *Bois de Boulogne*, a favourite resort of carriage company, as well as of duellists and suicides. Duels, however, have become much less frequent since the enactment of the law allowing damages to the family of the deceased party.

Palaces and Government Buildings.—Paris contains several palaces. The *Louvre* has not been the residence of a French monarch since the minority of Louis XV., and is now formed into a national museum and picture gallery. The *Palais Royal*, built by Cardinal Richelieu, and the favourite abode of Louis XIII. and Anne of Austria, consists principally of shops, *cafés*, *restaurateurs*, and *examinateurs*, crowded at all times, day and night, by almost every class of the Parisians. The *Palais du Luxembourg*, built for Marie de Medicis, widow of Henry IV., was lately devoted to the use of the Chamber of Peers. The palace of the *Tuileries*, erected in the 16th century, on the site of a manufactory of tiles (*tuiles*, whence its name), was greatly

* This column was originally surmounted by a statue of Napoleon in his imperial robes. But after the arms of the allies had replaced the Bourbons on the throne, they threw down the statue, which was noted to form part of the horse of an equestrian statue of Henry IV. On the supposition of the imbeciles who had made this miserable display of petty malignity, a fine statue of Napoleon in military costume was placed on the summit of the column.

enlarged by Henry IV., Louis XIII. and XIV. And additions have since been made to it by Napoleon and Louis Philippe, the latter having resided in it from his elevation to the throne till his expulsion on the 24th February, 1848. Its architecture is of a mixed character; but the earlier parts may be taken as a good specimen of the revived Italian style. Wings extend from the main building on the side towards the Place du Carrousel, one of which, on the S. side, connects it with the museum of the Louvre; and on the garden side are arcades extending through the central portion of the building, at the sides of which are handsome pavilions formed into state apartments, remarkable for their lofty windows, flanked by Corinthian pilasters. The general effect is extremely grand, especially on the garden side; but its grandeur results more from its great length and the variety of outline it presents, than from any excellence or congruity in the details. The state-rooms are on the first-floor, running the whole length of the garden-front, the principal being the *Salle du Conseil*; the state dining-room, known as the *Galerie de Diane*, from which other rooms lead to a vast saloon and state ball-room in the centre of the building, called the *Salle des Maréchaux*, adorned with portraits of the marshals of France, and unquestionably one of the finest rooms of the kind in Europe. The court of the Tuileries, on the E. side of the palace, was formed chiefly by Napoleon, and forms a wide space, separated by an iron railing from the *Place du Carrousel*, and now used for the inspection and review of the troops on duty in Paris. S. of the Place du Carrousel is the long gallery of the Louvre, connecting it with the Tuileries. The pictures are deposited in a splendid range of rooms on the first floor, facing the river, above $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in length; but nearly the whole interior of the palace, which forms a hollow square, is appropriated to the reception of museums, &c., which will be subsequently noticed. A portion of the basement story, however, in the S. wing, is divided into apartments for the residence of officers, attendants, &c. As respects its external architecture, the Louvre is undoubtedly one of the finest structures in Europe. Its E. front, facing the *Place du Louvre*, consists of a magnificent colonnade formed by 28 coupled Corinthian columns, rising above the basement story, and surmounted by a beautiful cornice and line of balustrades. The S., or river front, though much less ornamented, is still extremely handsome, being faced with 40 Corinthian pilasters, above which rise a balustrade and central pediment; the N. and W. fronts are quite plain, and form a striking contrast to those just described. The internal courtyard of the Louvre is a perfect square, each side being 400 ft. in length. The buildings surrounding it are of the Corinthian and Composite orders, highly adorned with sculpture. The *Palais Royal*, which stands to the N. of the mass of buildings just noticed, has towards the Rue St. Honoré a front with 2 wings, united by a screen which encloses a courtyard somewhat resembling the Horse Guards or Admiralty of London, not inelegant, though of a very impure style. Round the oblong space, at the back of the palace, the father of the late king of the French erected large houses and handsome colonnades, occupied by jewellers, tailors, *marchands-de-mode*, shoemakers, printsellers, *restaurants*, keepers of *cafés*, *examinateurs*, or smoking-rooms, &c. The gardens are tastefully laid out, the whole being "brilliantly illuminated with gas; and

hence the Palais Royal is the perpetual rendezvous of the idle and curious, as well as of the little *rentiers* of the capital. The *Palais du Luxembourg*, where, during the Republic, the Directory held its sittings, and which, on the re-establishment of the monarchy, was used by the Chamber of Peers, is a stately edifice, facing the *Rue de Valenciennes*, with 2 wings, connected by a screen and gateway; being remarkable for strength and solidity, as well as for the beauty of its proportions. The interior comprises several handsome apartments, the most interesting being the *Salle des Séances*, a semicircular chamber of no great size, round which are arranged chairs for the peers, while the flat side was occupied by the president's seat, and tables for clerks, &c. The gallery of the Luxembourg, which once boasted of a fine collection of old pictures, since removed to the Louvre, is now appropriated to the reception of works by living French artists; the gem of the modern gallery being "the bathing nymph," by Julien. The gardens behind the palace, laid out in the old French style, have a sheet of water in the centre. During the saturnalia that followed the revolution of 1848, the Luxembourg was the place of meeting of Louis Blanc and his socialist dupes. It is now appropriated to the meetings of different societies. Among the buildings devoted to the use of the government and legislature, the first place is due to the Palais Bourbon, now (1850) the *Palace of the National Assembly*. It was erected chiefly by the Prince of Condé, between 1722 and 1789, and it was occupied during the first revolution by the *Council of Five Hundred*. At the restoration of the Bourbons it was restored to the Condé family, with a proviso for the accommodation of the deputies in that portion of the building previously occupied by the Council; but the entire palace was subsequently purchased for the use of the legislature. The Corinthian portico fronting the *Pont Louis XVI.*, the pediment of which has lately been completed and exposed to public view, is of fine proportions; but, when compared with the building to which it is the entrance, it is much too large, and leads to no apartments of any great size, except the old Chamber of Deputies, a semicircular room ornamented with 30 Ionic columns of white marble, having gilt capitals. The president's chair and the tribune form the centre of the axis of the semicircle, round which rise successively the seats and desks of the deputies to the height of the basement supporting the columns. The walls are adorned with pictures and statues; and a spacious double gallery, capable of accommodating 700 persons, runs round the semicircular part of the chamber, fitted up with tribunes for high functionaries, the corps diplomatique, &c., and seats for the public. The existing legislative body does not, however, meet in this hall, but in a new and temporary hall constructed in the principal court of the palace. It is a plain building, without any pretension either to external or internal elegance. The hall is about 111 ft. in length by 88 ft. 6 in. in width. The place of each deputy is marked at the beginning and retained to the end of each session; but when a member addresses the assembly, he does not, as in the British H. of C., speak from his place, but ascends the tribune near the president's chair. The sittings are held chiefly by daylight. The library of the Legislature, a long and handsome gallery, contains about 60 000 vols., chiefly reports and law-books both French and English, including also a few rare MSS.

At the corner of the rue du Faubourg St. Honoré, is the *Palais de l'Élysée National*, now occupied by the President of the Republic. This palace has been the residence of a great variety of persons. It was built, in 1718, by Molet, for the Count d'Evreux. It was afterwards bought and occupied by Madame de Pompadour. At a later period it became the property and residence of Murat; and on his departure for Naples it was occasionally occupied by Napoleon, who was much attached to it. More recently it was inhabited by the Duke de Berry. And having become the property of the State, it is now, as previously stated, the residence of the president, Louis Napoleon. It contains some magnificent apartments. In one of these the emperor signed his last abdication.

Some of the government offices are extremely handsome edifices, especially the *Hôtel des Finances*, an insulated structure of vast size in the Rue Rivoli; and the *Hôtel du Quai d'Orsay*, a noble stone building, on the plan of the Farnese palace at Rome, and unquestionably one of the most magnificent in Paris, comprising about 800 rooms, divided into offices for the Council of State, the Cour des Comptes, and for the departments of the Interior and Public Instruction. The *Hôtel des Affaires Étrangères*, in the Rue des Capucines, is a building of considerable extent, but with few pretensions to architectural elegance. The *Hôtel des Monnaies*, or Mint, S. of the Seine, a little W. of the Pont Neuf, built in 1771, has 2 fronts, the principal of which facing the river, has a length of 300, with a height of 78 ft. All the operations of coining are carried on within this building; and it is the place of assay for all gold and silver articles made in Paris. In one of the apartments is a superb collection of medals and casts belonging to all eras of French history. Among other buildings nearly or more remotely connected with the government of Paris are the following: 1. The *Hôtel de Ville*, in the Place of the same name, commenced in 1549, but not completed till 1605, having a singularly uncouth front, with 2 side pavilions, higher than the rest of the edifice, and 2 gates leading to a quadrangle, in which is a bronze statue of Louis XIV. It comprises some fine apartments, particularly the *Grand Salle*, at one of the windows of which Lafayette, in 1830, introduced Louis Philippe to the populace as the best of Republicans! Its exterior is now undergoing extensive repairs. 2. The *Palais de Justice*, in the Isle du Palais, an edifice in a mixed style, erected between the 14th and 18th centuries, on the site of a still more ancient structure: in the interior a central staircase leads to a grand saloon, called the *Halle des Pas Perdue*, which comprises apartments for the Court of Cassation, the Cour Royale, and Cour d'Assize. 3. The *Hôtel de la Légion d'Honneur*, on the Quai d'Orsay.

Paris has 13 prisons. The model prison, or *Nouvelle Force*, rue de Mazas, recently constructed, is on a large scale, and is fitted up so as to carry out the solitary system to its farthest extent. It has 1,260 cells; and its arrangements, in regard to the security, the isolation and the surveillance of the prisoners, are said to be as perfect as can well be desired. Of the other prisons those of St. Pélagie and St. Lazare are the most extensive and best managed. The prison for juvenile offenders, in the Rue de la Roquette, is built on the *panopticon* principle. The *Abbaye*, so infamous in the annals of the revolution of 1789, is now exclusively employed for the detention of military offenders.

Religious Edifices.—The sacred buildings of

Paris, like those devoted to secular purposes, exhibit a great variety of styles; but from the close of the 16th century downwards, the Grecian has prevailed. The first place, however, both as respects antiquity and grandeur, must be ceded to the *Cathédrale de Notre Dame*, erected between 1010 and 1407: it is a cruciform structure, with an octagonal E. end, and double aisles surrounding the choir and nave; a third aisle also being occupied by a series of 7 external chapels. At the W. end are two lofty towers, evidently intended to have been the bases for steeples; but the tower usually seen at the intersection of the nave and transepts was destroyed during the revolution. The length of the church externally is 442 ft., the breadth 162 ft., and the length of transepts 352 ft.; the towers are 235 ft. high. The exterior, though not without beauty, is heavy, owing to the absence of steeples, pinnacles, &c., which give a light appearance to the majority of Gothic buildings. The W. front, however, with its 3 large gates and circular window, and the noble gateway on the W. side of the church, are highly worthy of admiration. The inside of the church has a very splendid and imposing appearance, owing to its numerous aisles and chapels; but the uniformity of effect has been entirely destroyed by the embellishments of the choir, which, though in themselves beautiful, are wholly unsuited to the rest of the building. The church of *St. Germain des Prés*, built about 50 years after Notre Dame, is cruciform, with a circular E. end. A considerable portion of the old building has gone to decay; and, out of three towers, only one remains; but the interior contains some good modern decorations, valuable pictures, old monuments, &c. There are 6 other churches, either wholly or in part of Gothic architecture; the most interesting of which is the church of *St. Germain l'Auxerrois*, not only from its structure, but from the fact that the signal was given from its belfry, on the 23rd August, 1572, for the detestable massacre of St. Barthélemy. Among the more modern churches in the Grecian style, the largest and most splendid is that of St. Geneviève, now called the *Panthéon*, in the quarter of the university. It was commenced in 1764 by Louis XV. The portico is composed of 22 fluted Corinthian columns, 60 ft. in height, supporting a triangular pediment 120 ft. broad by 24 ft. in height, in which is a sculptured composition, by David, representing the Genius of France (a colossal figure 14 ft. high), surrounded by the great men of the nation: on the frieze beneath is inscribed in gold letters—

"AUX GRANDS HOMMES, LA PATRIE RECONNOISSANTE."

The plan of the church is a Greek or equilateral cross, the exterior having no windows, and being ornamented only by a frieze and cornice. In the interior a gallery and colonnade line the nave and transepts on both sides, forming so many smaller naves and aisles. Semicircular windows rise above the colonnades, throwing a strong light into all parts of the building; and from the centre of the cross rises a dome 282 ft. in height, the lower part of which is encircled by a Corinthian peristyle of 32 columns, each 36 ft. high. The inside is now perfectly empty, without any embellishments, except its architectural decorations; but it is intended that it shall be enriched with statues of Voltaire, Rousseau, Lagrange, and other illustrious individuals, whose remains have been deposited in the spacious vaults beneath the pavement. The total length of the Pantheon, including the portico, is 352 ft.; interior length from E. to W. 295 ft.; length of

transept 265 ft.; uniform breadth 104 ft. On the whole, this church is a work of great merit: the general proportions are good, and there is much grace and elegance in the outline, as well as grandeur and simplicity in the design; but it is by no means entitled, either from size or composition, to be compared with St. Paul's. Among the other churches, the most deservedly celebrated is the Madeleine, at the N. end of the Rue Royale, on the model of the Parthenon of Athens, but larger, being 328 ft. in length, and 138 in breadth, while its archtype is only 228 by 100 ft. It is altogether a very noble structure, and is remarkable for purity and elegance of design. The church of St. Vincent de Paul, opened in 1844, is one of the finest in Paris. It is a parallelogram 243 ft. by 108 ft. It has a fine portico, and two lofty square towers. Paris has, in all, twelve parish churches, corresponding with the *arrondissements*, and 30 district churches, besides others unattached, and several belonging to hospitals, convents, &c.; but none of these, except that attached to the *Hôpital des Invalides* (for which see *Hospitals*), requires any particular description. There are also several places of worship for dissenters from the Roman Catholic religion; comprising French Lutherans, Calvinists, and Independents; besides which, there are English churches and chapels, American chapels, Jews' synagogues, and a Greek church; but none of them have any claims to architectural beauty, except the church of the Visitation, in the Rue St. Antoine, and the Gothic church belonging to the British embassy, in the Rue d'Aguesseau. The Roman catholic clergy of Paris comprise an archbishop, 12 vicars-general, 3 metropolitan and 34 diocesan officials, 16 canons of Notre Dame, 34 honorary canons, with curés, and vicars to the different churches.* The Protestant clergy comprise Lutheran and Calvinist pastors, French independent ministers, an English bishop, with sundry English episcopal clergymen, and several ministers of other denominations. Paris still comprises several convents for females; but those of the present day bear but a very slight resemblance to the old nunneries; and are now little more than religious boarding schools for young ladies, or lodging-houses for the numerous *sœurs de charité*, who devote themselves to the nursing of the sick in the hospitals, &c. There are, also, numerous societies, some of which are liberally supported, for the promotion of religion at home and abroad, as well as of religious education.

Judging from the statements of the most intelligent travellers, it would seem, whatever may be the other wants of the French capital, that an increase of church accommodation is not one of them. "Had I not looked into the almanack, I should never have found out which day was Sunday. The churches are open every day, and of course afford no criterion. The shops are open too; carts and carriages are plying on the streets, and placards invite you to vaudevilles at the theatres and ballets at the opera. Your first impression is that Sunday has been blotted out of the French calendar. On closer inspection, you discover there is a difference between this day and the other days in the week, though I am sorry to say it is a small one. In making a circuit about 12 o'clock through the Palais Royal, the Rue Vivienne, Boulevard des Italiens, Rue de la Paix, and Rue Rivoli, I found about 1 shop in 20 shut or half shut. At 4 o'clock, on a shorter tour, I found about half of them shut,

and at 6 o'clock, 3-4ths. The thoroughfare of carriages is perhaps also rather less, and that of loaded carts decidedly so. Some of the working classes, I understand, rest on Sunday, going to church perhaps in the morning, and in the evening to a theatre with their wives, or to a cheap café, and playing at dominoes.

"On Sunday-week I went to the once celebrated Café de Mille Colonnes, (now sunk to the character of an *estaminet*, or smoking-house,) to get a cup of coffee. It was about seven; I found two or three parties playing at billiards, and a score of little groups, of two, or three, or six individuals, busy with dominoes. Two of the parties near me consisted each of a man, with his wife and daughter. The greater proportion, however, of the working classes, ply their labours on Sunday till dinner-time, then rest in the afternoon; and that they may not want their holiday, go beyond the barriers, where wine is cheap, and spend the money in drinking and dancing. The over-rigid observance of the Sunday in Scotland, which sometimes disgusts young minds with religion altogether, is a light evil, when compared with this." (*Macdaren's Notes*, p. 17.)

Cemeteries. — The Parisians formerly interred their dead, like the ancient Romans, along the sides of the roads leading out of the city; but, as the pop. increased, and its boundaries were extended, these grave-yards became included within its precincts, and were at length almost in the centre of the town. They were, however, both few and small; so that the inhabs. were compelled to have recourse to other modes of interment; and, accordingly, large trenches (similar to those opened during the prevalence of the plague in London) were dug for the reception of corpses thrown in till the holes were filled, when they were covered over, and others opened close to them. This disgusting method of burying necessarily rendered the neighbourhood of these cemeteries extremely unhealthy; and at length government interfered to prohibit all funerals within the town, and ordered the formation of spacious cemeteries at a mile distance from the city walls, at the same time directing that the bones in the old grave-yards should be deposited in the subterraneous quarries or catacombs, under the Quartier St. Germain. Paris has now 5 large and well-laid-out cemeteries, similar in many respects to those which have since been formed on the same model near London, Liverpool, Lee's, and other large towns of England. The Père-la-Chaise, outside the E. barrier, is the finest of the Parisian cemeteries; and its advantageous situation on the slope of a hill, the number, as well as beauty, of its monuments, and the celebrity of many of those whose remains have been brought thither, make it one of the most interesting sights in the French metropolis. The Catacombs are very extensive, running under about $\frac{3}{4}$ part of Paris S. of the Seine: they are arranged into galleries lined with piles of bones, and the entrance is near the Barrière de l'Enfer; but, being deemed unsafe, they are no longer shown to visitors. (*Dulaure*, ix. 211—240.)

Hospitals and benevolent Institutions. — Hospitals for the relief of the sick, and *hospices* for the aged, infirm, or foundlings, existed in Paris from a very early period; but being exclusively under the direction of ecclesiastics, the objects of the founders were grossly perverted, and the revenues of these establishments applied to improper uses. No improvement took place till the revolution; when, by a decree of convention in 1793, the two old and only remaining hospitals were ordered to surrender a portion of the in-

* The curés in France are the incumbents of livings, the vicars being the merely salaried servants of the curés; and the same way as the stipendiary curates of England are the dependents of the rector and vicars, though protected by the bishop.

mates of their crowded and unhealthy wards to the convents and other houses that had become national property. An administration, consisting of a general council and administrative committee, was formed in 1801, for the purpose of improving the condition of the public charities of Paris: a tax of 8 per cent. on the sums received at theatres and other places of public amusement; a tax on cemeteries; a portion of the *octrois* of the city of Paris, with dues from the *Mont de Piété*, &c., being, at the same time, affected for their support. These institutions have since increased in number and magnitude with the increasing pop. of the city; and, in 1849, some further measures were taken in the view of rendering their administration more efficient. In that year there were 16 hospitals and 13 *hospices*, or alms-houses, in the city, having amongst them, inc. the founding hospital, 17,702 beds. The outlay on these institutions, in 1848, inc. the founding, and inc. also 1,920,795 fr. expended on out-door relief, amounted to 16,838,738 fr., or 673,550*l*. (*Annuaire de l'Economie Politique*, &c. for 1850, p. 274, &c.)

Of the hospitals, the *Hôtel Dieu* is entitled to the first notice, on account of its antiquity; for it is known to have existed in the middle of the 12th century, and, even at that early period, to have had some valuable endowments. It was enlarged between the reigns of Henry IV. and Louis XVI.; and since the revolution the buildings have been so much improved that at present the *Hôtel Dieu*, with its subordinate establishment in the *Rue de Faubourg St. Antoine*, has 850 beds: the average annual number of patients is 12,000; the mortality 1 in 8. It is in every respect extremely well appointed, and has among its medical officers the most celebrated physicians and surgeons of Paris: indeed, the *Hôtel Dieu* may be considered as the great normal hospital of France. The hospitals next in importance are those of *La Pitié*, *La Charité*, *St. Antoine*, *Beaujon*, *des Enfants Malades*, and *des Vénériens*; the whole number of these establishments under the civil administration amounting to 16, exclusive of 3 military hospitals, regulated by the minister of war. These hospitals, however, are, with two or three exceptions, situated in close neighbourhoods, and from the antiquity of the buildings, ill-planned; but the interior management is extremely good, and may bear a comparison with that of the first London hospitals. Among the *hospices*, the principal are the *Bicêtre*, for infirm old men, the *Salpêtrière*, for aged women, 3 *hospices des incurables*, and 1 for orphans and foundlings. There are also numerous *maisons de santé* in and about Paris, which receive patients at certain fixed scales of payment, and may therefore be called hospitals for the middle classes. A great number of minor institutions for the relief of the sick and poor are supported by private subscription.

Crèches, or public nurseries, have been established in different parts of Paris. In these, the infants of poor women engaged in factories, or other out-of-doors labour, are received and attended to. The women deposit their infants in the *crèche*, in the morning when they go to their work, return to suckle them at certain hours, and carry them home in the evening. The *crèches* are sometimes wholly supported by public subscriptions; but occasionally those who carry their children to them contribute small sums to their support. A proposal is now on foot for introducing *crèches* into Manchester, for which, indeed, they seem to be peculiarly well suited. (*See MANCHESTER*.)

Of all the establishments, however, in the French capital devoted to the support of the aged and infirm, by far the most important, both on account of the grandeur of its buildings and the benefits which it confers on its inmates, is the *Hôtel des Invalides*, intended for the support of disabled officers and soldiers, or those who have been in active service upwards of 30 years. The edifice, situated at the S. end of an avenue leading over the Pont des Invalides from the Champs Elysées, and begun in 1675, is a conspicuous object from a distance on account of its gilded dome, lantern, and spire rising to a height of 323 ft. above the floor. It is composed of 5 courts of equal form and size, surrounded by buildings 5 st. rise in height, and covers a space of nearly 7 acres; and is, on

the whole, a very heavy building, without any exterior beauty. The church of the establishment is indebted for its noble appearance principally to its magnificent dome supported by 30 pairs of Composite pillars. Besides about 170 pensioned officers, there are about 3,000 sub-officers and privates, who are boarded, lodged, and clothed, and receive a monthly stipend varying according to rank. The dormitories contain each from 50 to 60 beds; besides which there are large infirmaries for the sick. All, except field-officers, mess at public tables, and all wear the same uniform. Their only duty is to mount guard within the precincts of the hotel; and, when the President comes within its walls, they have the exclusive privilege of guarding his person. On the whole, the *Hôtel des Invalides*, though by no means so fine a building as Greenwich Hospital, near London, is entitled to rank with it as one of the grandest national institutions of Europe. And it is now more than ever deserving of notice from its containing the remains and the magnificent mausoleum of Napoleon, perhaps the greatest general, and perhaps, also, the greatest genius of modern times.

Commercial Establishments.—Paris, till 1826, abounding with fine public edifices, had no structure specially devoted to the transacting of commercial business. The merchants previously met in the *Hôtel Massary*, and afterwards in the *Palais Royal*; but the inconvenience to which they were subject led, in 1808, to the formation of a plan for constructing an exchange sufficiently large for the multifarious business of so great a capital. The form of the *Bourse*, which stands in a spacious square at the E. end of the *Rue St. Augustin*, is a parallelogram, 819 ft. in length by 126 ft. in width, surrounded by a peristyle of 66 Corinthian columns. The *Salle de la Bourse*, or great hall, on the ground-floor of the building, 116 ft. in length by 76 ft. in breadth, is surrounded by arcades of Doric architecture. A grand staircase leads to a spacious gallery supported by Doric columns, and to the hall of the *Tribunal de Commerce*. Corridors run round both the upper and lower hall, communicating with various rooms devoted to commercial purposes: and on the whole the arrangements are of the most complete description. The hours for transacting business are from 1 to 6; but the galleries and corridors are open from 9 to 12. The *Banque de France*, erected by Mansard in 1730, possesses little architectural beauty. The present establishment was founded in 1803, and received the exclusive privilege for 40 years of issuing notes payable to bearer. Its capital consists of 91,250,000 francs in shares of 1,000 francs each. The notes issued are for 500 and 100 francs. The customary rate of discount varies according to circumstances, but averages 4 per cent.; the bank, however, discounts no bills that have more than three months to run. It opens, also, *comptes courants* with all requiring them, and charges no commission, its only remuneration for such transactions arising out of the use of money placed in its hands. The government of the bank is vested in a council of 20, elected by the 200 largest proprietors; the governor and deputy-governor are appointed by the president. The institution is flourishing, and enjoys unlimited credit. The public establishments connected with the wholesale trade are called *halles*, the principal of which is the *Halle au Blé*, or corn-market, a circular building, completed in 1767. The *Halle aux Vins*, on the Quai St. Bernard, S. of the Seine, near the *Jardin National*, is an immense inclosure, having an area of 31,100 sq. yards, walled on three sides and fenced towards the quay by an iron railing about 850 yards in length. This great market is divided into streets called after the principal French wines; there are 7 in piles of buildings, four in front and three behind, one of which is fire-proof, and used solely as a store-house for spirits. The warehouses and vaults will contain 400,000 casks. Wines entering this *dépot* are not charged with the *octroi* till taken out for consumption; but they pay one franc per cask for warehouse room, &c. The hall is open from 5 to 6 in summer, and from 7 to 8 in winter; and the counting-houses of some of the principal wine merchants are within the premises. The consumption of wine in Paris in 1849 amounted to 1,035,129 hectolitres, and of spirits to 51,910 casks. The other wholesale markets are the *Halle aux Draps* and the *Halle aux Cuirs*, the *Halle aux Peaux*, near the Quai de la Tournelle, being now exclusively used by the chiffonniers for the sale and exchange of rags, &c. The *Mont-de-Piété* of Paris is a government establishment, enjoying the exclusive privilege of lending money on moveable effects at the rate of 9 per cent. a year, or 4 per cent. a month. The money which it lends is borrowed from government at the rate of 3 per cent., and the whole is under the management of a board of commissioners.

Markets, &c.—Paris has above 30 markets, the principal of which is that of St. Germain, opening on the *Rue de Seine*, and constructed from the designs of Blondel, which has served as a model for all the others since built. It is a parallelogram, 300 ft. in length by 480 ft.

in breadth. One of the most celebrated markets is the *Marché des Innocens*, in the centre of which, as already observed, is one of the noblest fountains in the capital: this, in fact, is the Covent Garden market of Paris, and has at least an equally fine and abundant show of fruit and vegetables; but connected with it, and in its immediate neighbourhood, are several other markets for fish, cheese, eggs, &c.; and indeed it may be termed a "quarter of markets." The *Marché du Vieux Linge* (old clothes market), built in 1609, partly on the site of the old *Temple* (the prison of Louis XVI. immediately prior to his execution), comprises four galleries containing 1,888 stalls or shops, in which are exhibited for sale all kinds of old clothes, shoes, iron, tools, &c.; and in the whole, not unlike the Rag Fair of Montmouth Street of London. The other markets are, generally speaking, commodious, but they require no particular description. Paris has also, five *abattoirs* (built in consequence of a decree of Napoleon, 9th Feb. 1810), where the animals necessary for the consumption of its inhabitants are killed. The abattoir of Montmartre is about 1,074 ft. long and 284 ft. broad, and that of Ménil-montant is nearly as large; the other three (two of which are S. of the Seine) are inferior both in size and arrangement.

Internal consumption.—All estimates respecting the consumption of provisions in a populous city must, of course, be extremely vague; but, perhaps, with regard to Paris, there is less uncertainty, owing to the octrois or duties levied on most articles coming across the barrier. It is very difficult to form any estimate of the consumption of bread, on account of the permitted exportation of wheat into the neighbouring districts, whenever the price outside the barriers exceeds that of the *Halle au Blé*, but the daily consumption of flour is supposed to amount to about 1,800 sacks. Cattle, sheep, &c., chiefly come from Normandy, the Isle of France, and Limousin.

The authorities of Sceaux and Poissy, the two great cattle-markets of Paris, have published the returns of the sales of cattle effected in those towns during the year 1848. They consisted, for the two markets, of—

125,368 oxen, at an average price of	96c. per kilog.
18,373 cows	89c.
48,945 calves	1 fr. 11c.
728,656 sheep	1 fr. 12c.

At the above price it was estimated that each ox cost 352 fr.; cows, 198 fr.; calves, 52 fr.; and sheep, 22 fr. 50 c.

The 125,368 oxen sold represented accordingly a sum of	Francs. 44,119,538
The 18,373 cows	1,643,856
The 48,945 calves	4,013,490
The 728,656 sheep	16,359,805
Total	67,536,767

We subjoin an account of some of the principal articles consumed in Paris in 1849.

Wine	- 1,035,193 hect.	Beeswax	- 7,329,407 kilog.
Spirits	- 81,910 —	Hay	- 6,508,782 bushels.
Cider and perry	- 9,074 —	Saww	- 9,252,218 —
Beer	- 75,187 —	Oats	- 770,155 hect.
Vinegar	- 17,774 —	Sea fish	- 5,548,095 fr. val.
Butcher's meat 62,165,406 kilog.		Quays	- 1,604,671 —
Pork	- 7,636,627 —	Fresh water	
Seamans, beans, &c.	- 713,704 —	Fish and	- 561,348 —
Prepared meats	- 110,561 —	Glaze	- 10,501,430 —
Cheese	- 1,279,446 —	Butter	- 10,796,584 —
Grapes	- 3,932,638 —	Eggs	- 5,516,347 —
Bread	- 140,000,200 —		

N.B.—The consumption of almost every article was considerably greater in 1846 and 1847 than in 1848 and 1849, a consequence of the interruption of all sorts of industrious undertakings, and of the shock to credit, occasioned by the revolution of 1848.

Among other articles of consumption, the tobacco sold in Paris amounts to about 800,000 kilog. Fuel, which is here one of the most costly articles of domestic expenditure, consists principally of wood; but considerable quantities of coal and charcoal are also made use of.

Industry, Commerce, and Trade.—Paris, besides being the political cap. of France, is one of the chief seats of the national industry and commerce. Many branches of industry are conducted on an extensive scale; the advantages resulting from the greater subdivision of employment, the greater command of scientific assistance, and of skilled workmen, being more than sufficient to counterbalance the higher wages and heavier expenses in other respects attending their prosecution in so great a city. Still, however, it is ludicrous to suppose that a city like Paris, without coal, and without the command of water power, should ever be able to come into successful competition with such places as Manchester, Glasgow, or Birmingham. The articles produced in Paris are, in fact, chiefly those of virtue, jewellery, the fine arts, or those immediately ministering to the luxurious wants of a great capital. In these, however, a great

increase has taken place within the last 30 years. Two large manufacturing establs. belong to the government, and, like all similar establishments, are carried on at a heavy loss. One of these, the *Manufacture Nationale des Gobelins*, so called from the place where it is carried on having originally belonged to a family of the name of Gobelins, who amassed great wealth as dyers; but the property having changed hands, it was converted into an establishment for weaving tapestry; and, becoming celebrated for the beauty of its products, was purchased by Colbert for Louis XIV. in 1662, since which it has been a government monopoly. The pieces of tapestry are most exquisitely executed, and the effect of some of them is scarcely inferior to that of the best oil paintings. The manufacture of a single piece frequently occupies three or four years, costing from 15,000 to 18,000 francs. Some splendid carpets are likewise manufactured in this establishment. Its products are chiefly destined for the public palaces and public buildings, or for presents to monarchs and distinguished personages: a few of the inferior pieces of tapestry are allowed to be sold, but the sale of carpets is forbidden. A drawing-school is attached to the manufactory, and lectures are annually delivered by the most celebrated chemists on the chemical principles of dyeing. The national manufactory of tobacco, conducted on a very extensive scale, in a handsome modern structure on the Quai des Invalides. About a fifth part of the entire produce of tobacco in France is manufactured in this establishment. It employed in 1849 no fewer than 1,400 women, and 300 men. The manufactory of Sèvres porcelain, though about 6 m. from Paris, and not in the department of the Seine, may be noticed in this place: it has been the property of the state since 1759. Some of the articles furnished by this manufactory bring very high prices, and are esteemed alike for elegance of form, and the beauty and brilliancy of the paintings. An exhibition takes place in September, when there is an extensive show of foreign china and earthenware, as well as of specimens in different stages of progress. The *salon-dépôt*, in Paris, is in the Rue Rivoli. Among the other manufactures of the cap. jewellery, works in gold, silver, bronzes, and steel, watchmaking, the manufacture of chemical products, hats, carpets, artificial flowers, and the compounding of all kinds of bonbons and sweetmeats, furnish employment to a vast number of persons; besides which, Paris has sundry woollen factories employing upwards of 1,200 hands, and producing broad-cloth, cashmere shawls, *schallis*, *serenels*, &c., one establishment for weaving silk shawls, and above 30 factories for cotton or mixed goods of cotton and worsted. The manufacture of both silk and cotton stockings is likewise conducted on an extensive scale. With respect to the wages of workmen in Paris, there has been a considerable fall since the revolution of 1848: stone-cutters, carpenters, masons, &c., receive from 3 to 4 francs a day, and a few of those engaged in the more delicate branches of handicraft may earn from 5 to 6 francs per day of 12 hours. Those engaged in the cotton and woollen factories receive only from 1 to 2 fr. per diem, and work for 12 hours; and the wages of females, in whatever branch they are employed, scarcely exceeds that rate. Young women in shops receive their food, washing and lodging, with wages varying from 160 to 400 fr. a year. The expenses of living to these classes range between 17 and 26 sous a day, and lodging may cost about 100 fr. a year. The Parisian workmen scarcely ever work on Sunday, and they are quite as fond as those of London of keeping holiday on Monday, devoting both these days to amusements in the guinguettes, theatres, &c. A great number of workmen belong to benefit societies, of which there are about 170; and the moral condition of the labouring classes has been greatly improved by the establishment of fire and life insurance companies, savings' banks, infant and primary schools, as well as by the abolition of lotteries and gambling-houses.

Previously to the revolution of 1848, the Paris savings' bank had nearly 80,000,000 fr. of deposits; but after the revolution the institution was compelled to stop payments. A law was afterwards passed providing for the funding of the deposits in a 5 per cent. stock at 80; but the subsequent fall in the funds again proved disastrous to the holders of *livrets*, and government found it necessary to come forward to their relief. In 1849, 15,542,974 fr. were paid into the bank by 173,025 depositors; the reimbursements during the same year amounted to 3,631,062 fr., paid to 18,066 holders of *livrets*.

The manufactures of Paris rapidly increased during the 30 years ending with 1847; and, though checked by the events of 1848, the increase still continues. The present (1850) value of those annually exported from Paris to foreign countries is estimated at about 80,000,000 fr., and that of those sent to the departments at about as much; making a grand total of 160,000,000 fr., or 6,400,000*l.* sterling. We subjoin [see next col.]

The retail trade of Paris is on a very extensive scale, and it is estimated that there are 6,500 retailers of food and drink, that 5,000 are employed in making and selling

An Account of the Number and Weight of the Packages, and of the Value of the Merchandise exported from Paris in each Year, from 1840 to 1847 both inclusive.

Years.	Packages.		Value.
	Number.	Weight.	
		<i>Kilogr.</i>	<i>Francs</i>
1840	177,787	15,387,177	154,005,000
1841	211,206	18,514,437	170,819,923
1842	183,208	15,224,195	157,078,496
1843	187,817	16,365,899	151,303,543
1844	196,548	17,195,216	168,801,628
1845	203,634	19,889,335	182,377,941
1846	203,863	19,864,584	185,150,981
1847	196,061	19,170,486	168,572,187

articles of dress or ornaments, 3,000 in building and furnishing houses, 850 in printing, publishing, and selling books, &c., 1,570 in trades connected with the fine arts, 350 in trades connected with mechanics, optics, &c., and about 650 in keeping hotels, restaurants, cafés, &c.; but these statements are all very vague, and not to be relied on. Above 50,000 tradesmen's licences are annually issued in Paris, producing about 9,000,000 fr. a year of revenue to government.

Paris has also 33 banking firms, 128 stock and insurance brokers, 1,350 doctors in medicine, 280 apothecaries, and about 400 persons keeping seminaries and *penitents* for children of both sexes.

Seine, Bridges, Quays, and Navigation.—Paris has not, like London, a deep broad river, navigable to the city by sea-borne vessels of large burden; but the Seine is, notwithstanding, a striking feature in Paris on account of its bridges and quays, as well as advantageous from its extensive boat-navigation. It enters Paris from the E.S.E. about 3½ m. below its junction with the Marne, at Charenton, and in its course forms a slight curve northward, its whole length from the *Barrière de la Chapelle* at the E. end, to the *Barrière de la Grenelle* at its W. extremity, being 8,000 metres, or nearly 5 m., in which space it forms 3 islets, the smallest but highest up the stream being the *Île Louvier*, used as a dépôt for wood-fuel, the *Île du St. Louis*, about 700 yards in length, and the *Île du Palais*, the site of the ancient *Lutetia*, about 5 furlongs in length by 2 do. in breadth. The river is crossed by 24 bridges, of which five are on the suspension plan, three of iron and stone, one of wood, and the rest of stone. These structures, though usually on a level with the quays, and on the whole convenient, will not bear to be compared with the bridges of St. Trinity at Florence, or St. Angelo at Rome, much less with the noble bridges crossing the Thames. "The Parisians," says Mr. Woods, "boast of their bridges, but without great reason: the *Pont d'Austerlitz* is fine for an iron bridge; the *Pont Neuf*, which crosses two branches of the Seine, and has 12 arches, has little pretension to beauty; the *Pont des Arts* is a light, not to say slight, construction of iron, for foot passengers; the *Pont Royal* is a well constructed stone bridge of 5 arches, but hardly a handsome one; the *Pont de la Concorde* is a stone structure of 5 very uneven-looking flat arches, and the *Pont de Jena* is a caricature of flattened elliptical arches, and apparent lightness, its entire merit being confined to some ingenuity in the construction in order to obtain this effect, which, nevertheless, is certainly a blemish." (*Letters of an Architect*, l. 22.) The islets in the river are connected with the N. and S. banks by 10 bridges, some of stone and others of wood, of inferior size and little beauty. The banks of the Seine are not blocked up, like those of the Thames, with coal-wharfs, warehouses, and irregularly built houses, running close down to the water's edge, but have fine open quays, affording uninterrupted walks, extending on both sides the river from one end of the city to the other, Paris being in this respect greatly superior to London. Wharfs and landing-places are formed in different parts, particularly towards the E. end of the city. *Dépôts* for fire-wood are to be found along the river, and on all the outskirts of the town, and the boats along the wharfs on both sides the *Île du Palais* furnish supplies of wood and charcoal. The navigation of the river is effected by large boats called *cokets d'eau*, by barks, and within the last few years by steamers, the number of which is progressively increasing. From the higher parts of the river about 11,000 boats arrive every year with fruit, corn, and flour, hay, wine, paving-stones, bricks, &c., besides about 4,000 barks laden with timber, charcoal, and fire-wood. Barges of from 40 to 60 tons burden come from Rouen with colonial produce, cotton goods, rider, salt, foreign corn, &c., and steam-boats ply daily between Rouen and Paris, and others during summer between Paris and Montreuil. The river dues are light, and do not average more than 700,000 francs a year, exclusive of the octrois.

Canals and Railways.—The canals N. of the Seine consist of 2 or 3 branches connected with an undertaking for uniting the waters of the Seine and Ourcq, with the

view not only of making an inland navigation, but also of supplying the capital with water of better quality than that of the Seine. The Canal de l'Ourcq receives the waters of the Ourcq about 28 m. N.E. Paris, and after collecting several minor streams falls into a basin in the N.E. suburb of the city, from which branch several canals almost encircle the N. side of Paris. These canals, however, are less used for navigation than for supplying the city with water. Though inferior in respect of railway accommodation to London, Paris is now the terminus of several railways. Among others may be specified the line to Rouen and Havre; that to the Belgian frontier by Amiens, Arras, &c., with branch lines to Boulogne, Calais, &c.; the line to Rennes, by Versailles and Chartres; the Lyons line opened, in 1849, as far as Châlons-sur-Saône, &c.; and when the latter line has been carried to Marseilles, it will considerably shorten the overland route to India. The Orleans line has been continued to Tours, and is intended to be continued to Bordeaux. Other railways will, in all probability, be formed within a few years; and there is reason to hope that the country may, at no distant period, possess a large portion of the facility and speed of communication which distinguish England and Belgium from the other countries of Europe.

A curious statement has been published by authority, of the various carriages, horses, &c., belonging to Paris in 1849. We have deduced from it the following results, viz., Ordinary and supplementary hackney carriages, 1,828, i.e. ordinary cabs 733, supplementary ditto 51; ordinary chariots 62, supplementary ditto 31; ordinary hackney coaches 847, and supplementary ditto 94. The job carriages are 3,000; omnibuses 400; carriages called *concoms* 26; stage carriages to the environs of Paris, and special carriages in connexion with railway stations 2,000; private cabs on two wheels 4,000; private carriages on four wheels 13,000; total of carriages circulating in Paris 34,256. Carts, tumbrils, drays, market carts, vans, trucks, &c., 25,000; water carriers' carts 1,000. The number of horses employed in Paris for such purposes is 24,000. The distance performed by each omnibus averages 16 leagues (40 m.) per day. They carry each, at an average, 150 passengers in the course of the day. The number of these omnibuses is 400; consequently the total number of persons conveyed in a day is 60,000, 1,900,000 in a month, and in a whole year 21,600,000.

Establishments for Education.—The university of Paris, which appears to have been established in the 13th century, though some writers have traced its antiquity up to the time of Charlemagne, comprised, before the revolution of 1789, 10 great and 26 minor colleges, which had each faculties of divinity, law, physic, and arts. The professors appear to have been attached to colleges rather than to the university as an abstract body, and the number of students living in the colleges was very considerable. The revenue of the university arose out of a 28th part of the rent paid by the farmer-general of the royal posts and messageries, which, with the students' share of the large income; and the extensive buildings, still remaining, testify the importance once attached to these institutions, at the same time that the literary annals of France prove that, speaking generally, the various functionaries performed their duties pretty efficiently. At the revolution, however, the colleges were abolished, their estates confiscated, and the whole establishment was remodelled. Further alterations were made by Napoleon; but the present system dates from the restoration of the Bourbons. The university of Paris, as now constituted, is in fact the central establishment for education in France, and has under its direction all the faculties, colleges, and schools of the country; indeed, it may be considered as a mere government establishment, since the minister of public instruction is *ex-officio* rector of the university, which has jurisdiction over the five national and two private colleges of Paris, the college of Versailles, and all the *institutions* and *penitents* within certain limits. There are four faculties for higher degrees, granted by the Academic Council; but no students can be admitted to them without having previously taken the degree of bachelor of letters. Professors are attached to each faculty, and deliver gratuitous courses of lectures, to a certain attendance on which, as well as other exercises, is necessary for obtaining degrees. Candidates for the degree of bachelor of letters must produce certificates of having studied at least one year in one of the colleges of the university, in some authorised *Institution*, or under the charge of a regular tutor. Examinations are publicly held four times a year under four professors appointed by the Academic Council: they include numerous oral questions on philosophy, literature, history, and the elements of mathematics, with papers in written composition, and the translation of Greek and Latin authors. The examination of each candidate must last 14 hours, but may be protracted at the pleasure of the professors. All the higher degrees are granted only after severe trials, and numerous candidates are annually

rejected. The number of regularly entered students in law amounted, at an average of the 5 years ending with 1844, to 2,619 a year. In 1849, there were about 1,300 students in the medical faculty. There are seven colleges in Paris, all of which have a certain number of attached bursaries, and receive boarders as well as day-pupils. The following table exhibits the numbers and classes of the students in the different colleges in 1840-41.

Colleges.	Bursars.	Fee-boarders.	Out-door Pupils.	Total.
Collège Louis le Grand	62	451	463	1,076
— de Henri IV.	53	406	326	880
— de St. Louis	91	372	431	964
— de Charlevoix	none	—	298	298
— de Bourbon	none	—	940	940
— Stanislas	50	—	360	410
— Rollin	47	242	—	289
Total	315	1,266	3,287	5,219

At the end of each academical year, in August, a grand distribution of prizes takes place in the public hall of the Sorbonne to the most deserving pupils of these colleges, and the degree of emulation thus excited among more than 5,000 students is immense. The minister of public instruction presides at this ceremony, the professors deliver Latin orations, and the company comprises the most distinguished functionaries and literati of France.

Paris, besides its colleges, has numerous *institutions* and *pensions* for boys, with corresponding institutions and pensions for girls. These are similar in all respects, except in size; the institutions being on a larger scale, and the course of study more general and more advanced in them than in the pensions. The conductors of these establishments must be at least graduates of letters, and are bound by law not only to follow the course of study prescribed by the university, but to send their pupils daily to one of the royal colleges in order to attend the professors' lectures. It is their duty, also, to assist them in their studies, and prepare them for the lessons to be gone through in the public class-rooms of the colleges. All the permanent students of the colleges wear a military-looking uniform, and are summoned to their duties by beat of drum. There are no colleges for girls, and their education varies according to the system followed in each particular establishment; the mistresses, however, of the different schools are obliged to pass an examination before persons authorised by the university. (See the work entitled *Paris*, pp. 1338-1408; and a valuable paper on the *Present State of superior Education in Paris*, in the *Statistical Journal of London*, iv. 50-66.)

Among the other establishments for education, the highest is the College of France, founded by Francis I. in 1530, and augmented at different periods. It consists of professors only, called *lecteurs*, among which are some of the ablest men in Paris. Their lectures are gratuitous, and open to everybody. The museum of natural history, in the *Jardins des Plantes*, has likewise an attached corps of 13 professors, who deliver courses of lectures on different departments of natural history, chemistry, agriculture, &c. These lectures are, also, perfectly open and gratuitous; as are those delivered on Oriental literature at the *Bibliothèque Nationale*; on painting, sculpture, &c., at the National school of fine arts; and on various branches of practical science at the *Conservatoire des Arts et des Métiers*. One of the best of the educational institutions to which the revolution gave rise is the *École Polytechnique*, established in 1794-96, for the promotion of mathematical and physical science and the graphic arts, and the preparation of pupils for the artillery, engineering, and mining departments. The school is under the control of the minister of war; but the details of management and instruction are left to a general council, and it underwent sundry modifications in 1848. The most distinguished masters in every branch of science are hired by government; and no students are admitted without having previously undergone an examination, to prove their competency in the classics and elementary mathematics. The pupils, of whom there have been about 300, study two, sometimes three years; and no one is admitted to higher departments of the military service without a certificate of attendance at this establishment. The late king founded 24 scholarships, 12 of which are in the gift of the minister of war, 8 of the minister of the interior, and 4 of the minister of marine. The establishment is supported by government; but the pupils pay an annual sum for board and lodging. The mathematical education at this institution is excellent, much superior, indeed, to what it is in most other institutions of the same kind. Another seminary of great importance, and closely connected with Paris, though not within the city, is the *Maison Royale de St. Denis*, established by Napoleon, and furnishing an excellent education to between 600 and 700 young ladies, the daughters, sisters, and nieces

of members of the legion of honour; of whom 400 receive their instruction gratuitously. This institution is in every respect admirably conducted, and might serve as a model for a large college of females; it has, also, two succursal houses, in which 400 pupils are gratuitously instructed. There are also several normal schools, with lectures, &c., for the purpose of forming teachers in the primary schools. The adult primary schools in the department of the Seine were attended, in 1849, by 4,686 pupils; and the primary schools for children were attended, in 1838, by 12,550 boys and 11,250 girls; the expense of these establishments being estimated at more than half a million francs a year. There are at present, also, between 30 and 40 infant schools in Paris, supported by subscription, and attended by about 6,700 children.

Literary Institutions.—Among the many chartered and private literary societies of Paris, the highest place is due to the institute, unquestionably the first establishment of the kind in Europe. A decree of the Convention, in 1793, annihilated the old *académies*, including among others, the *Académie des Inscriptions et des Belles Lettres*, the most celebrated academical institution that ever existed. In 1795, however, the *Institut* was formed, in the view of combining the literary and scientific academies into one body. In 1803, Napoleon divided the institute into 4 classes; and in 1832 a fifth was formed of moral and political science. The titular members, of whom there are 117, receive pensions from government, ranging between 1,200 and 1,500 fr. a year, besides whom there are 45 free academicians, 31 associates, and 219 corresponding members. The magnificent building in which this learned body meets is on the Quai Conté, near the Pont Neuf: it was built at the close of the 17th century, after the designs of Leveau, at an expense of 2,000,000 fr., left by Cardinal Mazarin, who intended it should be a college for natives of 4 provinces then recently annexed to the crown of France. The principal room of the palace (formerly used as a church) is now appropriated to the sittings of the different classes and is fitted with benches forming a semicircle facing the president's chair. The Mazarine library comprises 160,000 printed vols., with 4,500 MSS.; and the more recently formed library of the institute has upwards of 100,000 vols., chiefly scientific works. At one end of this library is Pigalle's celebrated marble statue of Voltaire. The interior is adorned with busts, bas-reliefs, &c.; and this palace is, on the whole, one of the finest public edifices in Paris. The *Bureau des Longitudes* is another important public body, formed in 1795, for the discovery of the best methods of ascertaining the longitude, and for the general improvement of navigation; its meetings are held at the Observatory (near the Barrière d'Arcueil), a building well suited for astronomical observations, and furnished with every description of philosophical instruments, and a good library of scientific works. The Bureau produces annually the celestial almanack, called the *Connaissance des Temps*, for the use of navigators; and another work of a more general character, the *Annuaire du Bureau des Longitudes*. The Royal Academy of Medicine, formed in 1776, and restored in 1820, is charged with making reports to government on a matter of public health; this establishment, as definitively organised in 1835, consists of 175 resident, and 25 country members, with 22 foreign associates. The following are among the principal learned societies of Paris supported by private subscription:—

• Société Nationale des Antiquaires de France.	Société Entomologique de France.
• — Nationale d'Agriculture.	Société d'Histoire Naturelle.
• — Géologique de France.	Athénée Nationale de Paris.
• — de Géographie.	* Institut Historique.
• — Grammaticale.	Athénée des Arts.
• — Philomathique.	Académie de l'Industrie Française.
• — de Statistique Univ.	— de Médecine.
• — d'Horticulture.	• Société pour l'Encouragement de l'Industrie Nationale.
• — Anatolique.	

Libraries, Museums, and Picture Galleries.—By far the most celebrated library of Paris, and probably the largest and most valuable that any where exists, is the *Bibliothèque Nationale*, or national library. This vast collection of books is deposited in the old Hôtel de Nevers, a long, inelegant-looking edifice in the Rue Richelieu. It was begun in the middle of the 16th century; and at the death of Louis XIV. it had 70,000 vols.: it was afterwards greatly increased by the addition of MSS. and printed books from the suppressed convents; and it is said to comprise at present above 800,000 books and pamphlets, 30,000 MSS., 100,000 medals, 1,600,000 engravings, and 300,000 maps or plans; though there is reason to think that these numbers are, in some instances, considerably overrated. It is open from 10 till 3 daily (except Sundays, and during a recess of six weeks in September and October), and every facility is given for literary research, except that the books may

• Those marked with an asterisk publish memoirs and bulletins of their proceedings.

not be removed from the building. Among the libraries attached to public establishments, the following are the largest:—That of St. Geneviève, comprising 200,000 printed vols. and 30,000 MSS.; the two libraries of the Institute, consisting together of 260,000 vols. and 4,500 MSS.; that of the Arsenal, 200,000 vols. and 6,300 MSS.; that of the Legislature, 50,000 vols.; that of the Louvre, late the private library of Louis Philippe, containing 85,000 vols.; and that of the Bibliothèque de la Ville, 60,000 vols., all open to the public. Paris has also several valuable museums, belonging either to the government or the university. The Museum of Natural History, in the *Jardin des Plantes*, may be said to stand at the head of every institution of the kind, not only in France, but elsewhere: it is conducted at an annual expense of 300,000 fr., and gives employment to upwards of 160 persons. The Botanic Garden, exclusive of a large collection of the exotic plants from all climates, comprises buildings fitted up as dens for carnivorous animals, with menageries for foreign birds and beasts, which are all provided with habitations suitable to their modes of life. This collection of living animals, perhaps the largest in Europe, has enriched the museum with many new species, and enabled zoologists to improve the study of comparative physiology. Large additions to the *ménagerie* have recently been made, and the collection is constantly on the increase. The Amphitheatre, the Jardin des Plantes, and the Museum of Natural History occupy a large space at the end of the garden: on the first floor of the latter is a superb collection of reptiles and birds; the second floor is devoted to the reception of mammalia, birds, insects, mollusca, &c., arranged according to the system of Cuvier (who here pursued those studies that have gained him an imperishable fame); and on the third story is arranged a general herbal, comprising upwards of 50,000 species, besides special collections, amassed by Tournefort, Jussieu, Humboldt, Desandolle, &c., the entire number of specimens amounting to nearly 400,000. Along the E. side of the garden runs a long gallery, in which is deposited a noble museum of geology and mineralogy, only recently formed, and even now second to none in Europe. The Museum of Comparative Anatomy is kept in a detached building W. of the garden; and the number of preparations, which fill 15 rooms, considerably exceeds 15,000. The menagerie is open every day; and the museums may be seen by tickets twice or three times a week. Paris has many minor collections of anatomy, mineralogy, &c. Attached to the School of Medicine, and to its numerous literary societies; but none of them are sufficiently extensive to require description. The *Conservatoire des Arts et des Métiers*, in the Rue St. Martin, deserves notice, both on account of its great extent and the astonishing variety of instruments and machines, specimens of manufacture, models of patents, &c., deposited therein; in fact, this gallery of practical science is one of the most interesting exhibitions in Paris; and having been re-arranged and catalogued, may be seen to great advantage. It is open during two days in the week; but the library is accessible 7 or 8 hours a day.

The great glory of Paris, however, as respects the fine arts, is the gallery of the Louvre, comprising a most extensive and valuable collection of pictures and statues. During the latter years of the reign of Napoleon, this gallery was the richest and most magnificent by far of any that has ever existed, having then to boast of the *chef-d'œuvre* of Rome, Florence, and, in fact, of the greater part of continental Europe, carried off by the conquering legions of France. But victory having deserted the eagles of Napoleon, these treasures were again restored to their former possessors, and the Louvre has no longer to glory in the Apollo Belvidere, the Venus de Medici, and other matchless productions. Still, however, the collection is a very noble one. Eighteen large halls, on the ground-floor, are filled with pieces of sculpture, including the choicest treasures of the Villa-Borghese, and many works that once embellished ancient Rome. Many of them are of great value; especially the *Diane à la Biche*, standing on a pedestal adorned with most exquisite bas-reliefs; a statue of Mars, supposed to have been modelled from a picture by Zeuxis, once in the temple of Concord at Rome; the celebrated Fighting Gladiator, by Agias of Ephesus; the Hermaphrodite of the Villa-Borghese; a statue of Jason, erroneously called Cincinnatus; and the magnificent group of Silenus and the infant Bacchus discovered in the garden of Ballust at Pompeii. Five other rooms in the basement story are devoted to the reception of works by modern sculptors; a large apartment was filled in 1830 with a collection of Egyptian antiquities, and a large gallery has since been opened, called the *Musée de la Marine*, comprising models and sections of vessels, plans of ports, and other naval curiosities. The great picture gallery, which is on the first floor, is approached by a grand staircase painted by native artists, and comprises a suite of nine apartments, the walls of which are lined by upwards of 1,200 pictures by artists belonging to the French, Flemish and Dutch, Italian and Spanish schools.

Among the pictures of the French school are 15 admirable landscapes by Claude, the best of which is the well-known "Disembarkation of Cleopatra;" 16 compositions, chiefly scriptural, by N. Poussin, among which may be distinguished an "Assumption" and "Holy Family;" and 17 beautifully coloured marine paintings by Veret. Among the Flemish and Dutch pictures, which, like those of the French school, occupy three apartments, the most distinguished specimens are Gerard Dow's "Dropical Woman;" several pictures by the Vandycks, particularly a sketch of the "Dead Saviour in the Virgin's arms;" 14 fine studies by Rembrandt, including his "Venus and Cupid;" and 38 pictures by Rubens, the principal of which are, the "Flight into Egypt," and a composition known to connoisseurs as the *Vierge aux Anges*. The schools of Italy and Spain occupy the three remaining apartments, which, indeed, contain the gems of the gallery. The following have been specified as those more particularly entitled to notice:—Raphael's "*Belle Jardinière*," and Holy Family, painted for Francis I., who paid for it upwards of 45,000 francs; Leonardo da Vinci's portrait of "Mona-lisa;" Correggio's group of "Jupiter and Antiope;" Domenichino's "St. Cecilia;" Guido's "Infant Saviour on the Virgin's knee;" Guercino's "Repentance of St. Peter;" a magnificent battle-piece, and the "Witch of Endor;" by Van der Meer; "The Virgin and the Child;" and Spagnoletto's "Adoration of the Shepherds."

The Louvre is open every day except Mondays, and on Sundays the concourse of visitors is particularly great. Owing to the want of room, the pictures of the ancient masters are removed from the Grand Gallery, or are covered over, from the 1st of Feb. to June, to make way for the annual exhibition of the works of the modern artists! This arrangement has been much objected to, and is, perhaps, the most defective of any connected with the fine arts in Paris. It is to be hoped that it may speedily be obviated, by providing some other place for the modern exhibition. The French metropolis comprises several valuable private collections, especially that of Marshal Soult, which has some fine specimens of the Spanish school: the gallery of the Palais Royal consists chiefly of works by modern artists.

Literature and Periodical Press.—Paris is the great centre from which emanates all the most important publications of France, and in which is congregated all the most distinguished French writers. The increase of publications appears to have been regularly progressive since 1817. And within the last 30 years a vast number of highly important and valuable new works, especially in history, philosophy, and science, have issued from the French press, as well as several republications of old standard works. These large undertakings are mostly conducted at the expense and risk, not of one, but of several publishers, on a joint stock principle. The periodical press of Paris is extremely extensive, is well conducted, and has great influence. The "Bibliothèque Universelle," the official morning journal of the government. "Galignani's Messenger," a well-conducted daily paper, in English, is extensively circulated in the principal cities and towns of continental Europe. The national printing-office employs about 400 workmen. The censorship of the press, which was early introduced, and was exercised, though with considerable indulgence, down to the revolution of 1789, was finally abolished after the revolution of 1830.

Theatres and other Amusements.—Paris may be regarded as the dramatic capital of Europe. Every Parisian, even of the lowest class, esteems himself, more or less, a critic of the drama; and the fondness for this species of entertainments makes the theatres be almost nightly crowded to excess: indeed, the receipts of the theatres have for some years been steadily on the increase, and lately amounted to about 9,000,000 fr. a year, of which a tenth goes to the support of public hospitals and charities. The most fashionable spectacles of Paris are the Italian and French operas. The former of these, in the Salle Ventadour, is confined to the representation of Italian operas, and its administration for many years has secured an almost unprecedented amount both of vocal and instrumental talent. The French opera house, belonging to the *Académie Nationale de Musique*, is partly supported by the government; the operas are represented by the pupils of the academy, the dancers in the ballet are the first in Europe, and the stage mechanism is brought to perfection. These theatres are supported chiefly by the higher classes, and as fashionable resorts may be considered analogous to the Italian opera in London. The other theatres, five or six of which are nightly crowded almost to suffocation, are supported by the middle classes, the small *rentiers*, and wealthy tradespeople. Vaudevilles and musical farces are the most popular entertainments; but among the lower classes frequenting the Porte St. Martin and Ambigu Comique, there is a marked predilection for the horrible, as depicted by Victor Hugo, Dumas, &c. The following is a list of the principal theatres now open in Paris:—

Académie Nationale de Médecine.
 Institut Olympe.
 Théâtre Français.
 Opéra.
 Théâtre de l'Opéra Comique.
 — des Variétés.
 — de la Renaissance.
 — de l'Amateur Comique.

Théâtre du Palais Royal.
 — de la Porte St. Martin.
 — de la Porte St. Antoine.
 — des Folies Dramatiques.
 — de la Porte St. Antoine.
 Gymnase Dramatique.
 Cirque Olympique, (for horsemanship).

The theatres, however, are by no means the only amusement of the Parisians: for they seem to be equally attached to their concerts, balls, and guinguettes, which abound in every part of the French metropolis. The Concerts Musard are in high estimation, and those in the *Jardin Turc*, near the Porte St. Martin, are almost equally celebrated. The *Bal masqué* of the opera deserves notice also, as being the nearest approach made by the French to the almost insane revelries of an Italian carnival.

Hotels, Clubs, &c.—Paris abounds with excellent hotels, *cafés*, and restaurants; about a dozen of which may vie in respectability and amount of accommodation with similar establishments in the W. end of London. They are uniformly clean, and in many cases elegantly furnished. "Indeed," says Mr. MacLaren, "in the interior of these establishments, two peculiarities immediately strike the eye of a stranger—the profuse use of mirrors and marble. Many apartments consist of three or four mirrors, very large sizes, and you will see a restaurant panelled all round with mirrors, each 3 or 4 ft. broad. The tables in these places are almost invariably slabs of marble, and the tops of cabinets and even basin-stands are of the same substance. In the *cafés* here, also, there are no fires visible, as in the London coffee-houses; but the stores are so managed as always to maintain an agreeable warmth throughout the apartments." (Notes, p. 14. and 20.) The *restaurants*, or dining-houses, are frequented by all classes of the inhabitants, female as well as male. In fact, however, it may be accounted for, whether it have originated in its greater advantageousness in an economical point of view, in the taste of the people for society, or whatever else, home, in the English sense of the word, has but few charms for the bulk of the Parisians, who may be said to live in public, dining in restaurants, spending their evenings on the Boulevards, or in the theatres or *cafés*, and, appropriately, it must be allowed, ending their days in the public hospitals! At the principal restaurants the bills of fare include hundreds of dishes, and the charges are necessarily high, but at many houses of great respect, a shilling dinner may be had for two or three francs, including half a bottle of *vin ordinaire*. Beaune and Pomard, however, are the wines commonly drunk by persons in good circumstances. The houses of the *travellers* are frequented almost exclusively by the trades-people and lower classes; but they also supply dinners to people at their own houses at a fixed price for each dish. Clubs, similar to those of London, have been established within the last few years; the largest and most respectable is the Club Anglais, the habitual resort of the leading men in the fashionable and diplomatic circles. The Jockey Club is frequented by sporting men, and a still more heterogeneous assemblage may be found at the Cercle. It may be remarked, also, that these clubs have been much more numerous attended since the suppression of the salons and other *licenced* gambling-houses, which, till very recently, infested the metropolis of France.

Local Government.—Paris, with its environs, forms the small department of the Seine, of which the form is nearly circular, and the diameter about 18 m. At the head of it is a prefect, under whom are twelve mayors, one for each of the twelve divisions of the town, and two sub-prefects for the country quarter. As to the administration of justice, the courts of Paris are less comprehensive than those of London, their jurisdiction comprising only the cap. and several adjoining depts.; but in all other respects Paris is as much the common centre of public business for France, as London is for England. The Court of Cassation is the supreme court of appeal from all the tribunals of France, and the *Cour des Comptes* has authority to examine all the public accounts of the kingdom. The *Cour Nationale* confines itself to the trial of criminals in the dep. of the Seine; besides which there is a tribunal of *première instance*. Paris is likewise the permanent residence of the President of the Republic, the place of meeting for the legislature, the seat of all the ministerial bureaux, and of the public offices generally. It is the seat of an archbishop, and the head-quarters of the first of the twenty-two great military divisions of France. It has also a numerous corps of national guards, or volunteers, composed of twelve *légiions*, comprising about 30,000 men. For mercantile purposes it has a chamber and several courts of commerce. Finally, it is the centre of almost all associations for public purposes, such as those for the promotion of national industry, for the management of prisons, for the diffusion of vaccine inoculation, &c.

Population, Health, &c.—In 1844, the pop. of Paris,

ex. troops and strangers, amounted to 1,068,897, and it is most likely about the same at this moment (1850). In 1849, there were 30,141 births, 4,816 marriages, and 48,101 deaths. Of the births, 15,259 were males, and 14,883 females. The illegitimate births were 9,941, being about a part of the whole number, while in France generally they are about 1 to 13. This gives but an unfavourable view of the morality of the French cap. Of the births, in 1848, no fewer than 6,990 took place in hospitals! Of the children so produced, above a half, probably, were sent to the Foundling Hospital, the total number of children sent to it in that year having been 4,315. It had been the policy in France for a considerable period to lessen the facilities for the reception of children in foundling hospitals; and, in 1835, the *tours* were abolished. But latterly infanticide is said to have largely increased; and public opinion having decanted strongly in favour of reopening the *tours*, it is probable it will be done. Of the deaths in 1849, 17,610, or between $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$ of the whole, took place in the public hospitals, 237 in prisons, and 202 were found dead, and deposited in the Morgue, or public dead-house, in the Isle de la Cité. The suicides in Paris average about 300 a year. The most densely peopled *arrondissements* are the 2d, 8th, and 12th; those most thinly peopled being the 1st and 9th. Of the entire pop. of the city it is supposed that nearly half are working people, the rest being composed of tradesmen, professional men, and persons of independent property. There are about 80,000 servants, and nearly the same number of paupers. The pop. of the prisons, though it varies, may be taken at about 5,000. About 15,000 patients are constantly in the hospitals, and, in 1848, 79,361 passed through them, of whom about 4-5ths were discharged cured. The foundlings may average about 20,000. The climate of Paris is not so variable as that of London, but the winters are sometimes very severe; snow does not lie long, fogs are not frequent, and, on the whole, the climate is favourable. There has been a great improvement in the health of the inhab. since the revolution, though it be far short of the improvement that has taken place in London during the same period. As was to be expected, the least densely peopled *arrondissements*, and those occupied by the wealthier classes, are by far the healthiest.

Fortifications.—In 1841, it was, after much opposition, determined to fortify Paris, by surrounding it on all sides with a continuous chain of fortifications. The sum of 140 millions francs (5,600,000 l.) was voted for the execution of the works, which are now completed. We believe, however, that most military men are of opinion that the fortifications in question will not oppose any effectual resistance to an invading army; and that it is, in fact, impossible successfully to defend so great a city. It is true, the fortifications may be serviceable as a means of overawing the Parisians; and it has been suspected that this has been with many the real motive that made them approve of their construction.

History.—When Gaul was invaded by Cæsar, Paris, then called *Lutetia*, was the chief town of the Parisii, a Belgic tribe, and was afterwards included by Augustus in the province of *Lugdunensis quarta* or *Senonia*. It attained no importance, however, till the middle of the 4th century, when it took the name of Parisii, and became the see of an archbishop. It was the favourite residence of the Emperor Julian, who, in his *Misopogon*, terms it his *παλις Ἀλεξάνδρῃ*; being taken by the Franks, under Clovis, in 494, it became the capital of his new kingdom. As late as the close of the 9th century, the walled part of Paris was still limited to the island of la Cité, though considerable suburbs were extending themselves along both banks of the Seine. It was greatly enlarged by Louis VI and VII; still more so by Philip Augustus; and after the battle of Poitiers, in 1356, new walls were raised on the N. side of the Seine. The treaty of Troyes, in 1430, gave Paris into the hands of the English, who held it till 1436, when it was recaptured by the French, and the English garrison put to the sword. The pop. of Paris, in the 16th century, is estimated by DuLac at 150,000, and great architectural improvements had been gradually taking place; but the police was so bad, that both life and property were insecure, and morals were almost at their lowest possible ebb. The city was further improved by Francis I., and the circuit of the walls was greatly enlarged by Charles IX. and Henry IV., under whose reigns the entire suburb of St. Germain was rebuilt. In the religious wars of the 16th century, Paris was the scene of a revolt against the troops of Henry III., known as "the day of the barricade." It was held by the League, from 1585 to 1594, when it surrendered to Henry IV. The palace of the Luxembourg, and the Palais Royal were built in the reign of Louis XIII., and the walls were so extended as to include nearly the whole space within the present boulevards; but the police was still wretchedly inefficient, and disorders were of almost daily occurrence, particularly in the turbulent quarter of the University. In the 17th century, Paris was the principal

scene of the tumult of the *Frondeurs*, supported by the inhab., against the French and Swiss guards; but notwithstanding these disturbances, the city still increased, churches, convents, and hospitals were built, the palace of the Tuilleries was finished, the quays and boulevards were laid out, sewers formed, and other improvements effected at a great expense. The most memorable scenes connected with the history of the French Revolution, from the destruction of the Bastille, in 1789, to the assumption of imperial power by Napoleon, were enacted in the metropolis, which has long had a preponderating, though not always a beneficial influence, over the affairs of the kingdom. Under the government of Napoleon, Parma was greatly improved, and many of those scientific and other establishments were either formed or remodelled, which have contributed to increase its literary and scientific renown. The work of improvement proceeded slowly during the reign of Louis XVIII. and Charles X.; but, since the revolution of 1830, which placed Louis Philippe on the throne, great activity has been evinced by the legislature in raising solid as well as splendid monuments, some of which, as the Madeleine, the Arc de l'Étoile, and the ministerial hotel on the Quai d'Orsay, may vie in magnificence with the finest European structures. At the same time, new pavements, bridges, sewers, markets, public gardens, and prisons, attest that no department of the metropolis has been neglected by the government; and whenever gas has been generally diffused, and water-closets, which, at present, are shamefully deficient, have been universally introduced into private houses, Parma will be one of the most comfortable as well as handsomest and most luxurious capitals of Europe. (*Dulaure, Histoire de Paris; Paris and its Historical Scenes, &c.; Galignani's New Paris Guide, &c.; and Private Information.*)

PARMA (DUCHY OF), an indep. state of N. Italy, between lat. 44° 20' and 45° 8' N., and long. 9° 20' and 10° 30' E. (exc. the detached distr. Guastalla), having N. Austrian Italy, from which it is separated by the Po, W. the Sardinian dom., S. the latter and Tuscan Lunigiana, and E. Modena. Area estimated at 2,368 sq. m. Pop., in 1850, 494,757. This duchy, lying between the Po on the N., and the Apennines on the S., is partly and principally included in the great plain of Lombardy; but a large portion of its surface is covered with the ramifications and slope of the Apennines, the crest of the ridge, here about 4,000 ft. in height, forming its S. boundary. It slopes to the N., and all its rivers fall into the Po. The soil, which is very fertile in the plain, where it is watered by numerous canals, is stony and arid in the mountainous districts. It is principally held by metayers; but while in the surrounding states such agreements are entered into between the metayer and his landlord as they may approve, in this duchy the law interposes to protect the tenant, who might be inclined to subscribe to peculiarly onerous conditions. Thus, a landlord may stipulate for more than half, but not for more than 3-3ds of the produce. If the landlord furnish the cattle, the farmer has a right to, at least, 1-3d of the profit thence arising; and if the tenant furnish the cattle, no lease is binding that does not leave him 2-3ds the produce. (*Von Rasmer, Italy, i. 307, 308.*) Along the Po, the further an advance to the E., the soil becomes deeper, richer, better watered, and more fertile. The dairy is here the great object of attention, and the famous cheese which derives its name from this duchy is still made to a great extent in the neighbourhood of Pavia, Lodi, &c. Farms are very small, and the husbandry inferior to that of Modena.

The acorns of the numerous oaks, along the banks of the Po, feed an immense number of hogs, which are generally preferred to those of any other part of Italy: in consequence many are sent to Tuscany and the Papal States, whither, also, and to Genoa, great numbers of fat hogs are sent. The sheep of the duchy are indifferent: the superior flocks pastured in the Farnese Apennines in summer, belong to Lombardy, Tuscany, and other adjacent states. Both poultry and bees are abundant. Malt, wheat, beans, tobacco, fruit and wine, are the principal products of the plain country. The only raw materials manufactured are silk and hemp; but, according to Serriotti, the produce of the former only amounts to 100,000 lbs. a year. Rice is grown in the district of Guastalla, and near Parma. In the mountains but little corn is grown; and the climate is too cold for the vine. Cheesemilk and skimmed milk, with cheese made from the milk of goats and ewes, form the principal food of the population. Potatoes were not introduced into the mountain districts when the duchy was visited by Châteaubleux. The inhabitants of these districts make a good deal of charcoal; but their principal revenue is derived from their migrations: for all the active inhabitants quit their homes at the favourable season, to work in Lombardy and Tuscany. The money they gain and save from this source forms almost all the capital circulating among them.

Iron, copper, vitriol, and petroleum, are found in the

mountains; but the principal mineral product is salt, of which about 12,300 quintals are made annually. Manufactures, excepting such as are domestic, are of trifling importance; silk fabrics are the principal, and are made in all the larger towns. There are several iron forges; and hats, glass, earthenware, paper, and gunpowder are made in Parma, Piacenza, and San Donino. The value of the imports, which consist mostly of woollen and linen cloths, colonial goods, and articles of luxury, is estimated at 800,000 lire; while the value of the exports, including 8,000 head of cattle, and 27,000 hogs, has been estimated at under 200,000 lire a year. (*Serriotti, Statist.*) But it is hardly necessary to say that there can, in fact, be no such discrepancy between them; and either the one statement or the other, or perhaps both, must be completely erroneous.

The government is an unlimited monarchy, hereditary in the male line. This duchy was assigned, by the treaty of Vienna, to the Archduchess Maria Louisa, ex-empress of France. At her death, however, in 1847, it fell, according to previous arrangements, to the Duke of Lucca, or his heirs, who, on his part, ceded Lucca to Tuscany. The administration is conducted by a cabinet of six ministers. The duchy is divided into five districts: chief towns, Parma, the cap., Piacenza, Borgo San Donino, Borgo Taro, and Guastalla. There are 38 inferior courts of arbitration, consisting of a single judge, and courts of primary jurisdiction and appeal in Parma and Piacenza. Criminal trials take place in public, but without the intervention of a jury: the judges composing the court decide by a majority of votes. The code of Parma, promulgated since 1820, is bottomed upon the Code Napoleon, but has much that is peculiar to itself. Secret societies are prohibited, and associations for definite objects, if consisting of more than 20 members, require to be authorised by government. All games of chance are prohibited, under penalty of fine and imprisonment. Public provision is made for the poor; and beggars are either punished with imprisonment, or sent to a workhouse. If death ensue from a duel, the challenger is liable to imprisonment for from 10 to 30 years, and the challenged from 8 to 10. (*Von Rasmer, i. 314-316.*) The Rom. Cath. is the state religion, but others are tolerated. Public instruction is furnished by about 380 elementary schools, attended by nearly 10,000 pupils; there are also secondary schools in most of the towns; and superior academies in Parma and Piacenza. The military force consists of about 3,000 men, chiefly infantry. The public revenue, derived from state property, territorial and personal taxes, patents, custom duties, *octrois*, &c., amounted, in 1849, to 8,871,686 lire.

This territory anciently formed part of Cisalpine Gaul. Charlemagne gave it to the Holy See; but during the quarrels between the popes and the emperors, Parma and Piacenza became independent republics. They afterwards fell successively under the dukes of Milan, the popes, the Farnese family, and the Spaniards. By far the most celebrated of its native sovereigns was the famous Alexander Farnese. Though he served one of the most odious tyrants, Philip II., Farnese was alike generous and brave, and was certainly the most skilful and accomplished general of his age. In 1601, Parma was ceded to the French; and in 1606, it was principally included in the dep. Taro, belonging to the kingd. of Italy. Parma, a city of N. Italy, the cap. of the above duchy, on the left river of its own name, a tributary of the Po, here crossed by 3 bridges, 35 m. S.E. Piacenza, and 33 m. S.W. Mantua; lat. 44° 48' 1" N., long. 10° 26' 46" E. Pop. circa 36,000. Its walls are between 3 m. and 4 m. in circ.; it is surrounded by a glacis which forms a favourite public promenade. It is well built and laid out, especially its principal thoroughfare, which forms a part of the Flaminian way (via Flaminia). It has many good public and private edifices; they are mostly, however, of brick, and none is remarkable for beauty; many of them are, also, in a decaying condition, and its streets are "dull and dreary." The Farnese palace, though an immense pile, is little more than half the original design; it is raised on open arcades; and, though partly in a ruinous state, it served for the residence of the late archduchess, and accommodated the academy of arts. In the new picture gallery belonging to the latter are several masterpieces by Correggio, Parmegiano, Raphael, the Carracci, &c. The academy has also a museum, in which are many interesting antiquities from the buried city of Velletia (16 m. S. Piacenza), and an extensive and well-arranged library. Attached to the palace is the Farnese theatre, designed by Vignola on the model of the ancient theatres, 300 ft. in length, and capable of accommodating some thousand persons. It is built entirely of wood, and is well constructed for hearing; but it has been long disused, and is said to be in a very dilapidated and ruinous state. Another, but smaller theatre, exists on the same floor; and a third, built by the late archduchess, was finished in 1830.

The cathedral, an edifice of the 11th century, though in a mixed and semi-barbarous style, is, on the whole, a

magnificent building: its fine dome is ornamented with one of the last and most celebrated productions of Correggio. The city has a great number of other churches, several of which possess some fine works of art. It is a bishop's see, and a seat of the high court of revision for the duchy, besides several inferior courts; and was, till 1802, the seat of a university: it has now a superior school of divinity, medicine, and philosophy, attended by about 420 students; a college of nobles, founded in 1600; an episcopal seminary, some inferior schools, and several hospitals and other charities. The principal and most extensive establishment in the city is the famous printing-office of the Bodoni, established in 1765: it has produced some of the best specimens of typography, especially some of the most splendid editions of the classics of which modern Europe has to boast. The city is supplied with water by a conduit, said to be 50 m. (?) in length. The *Padana Giardini*, and a large public cemetery, are situated without the walls. Parma has some silk and other fabrics; but its manufactures and commerce are comparatively insignificant.

Parma became a Roman colony A. U. C. 560. It suffered greatly in the civil war between Antony and Augustus; and was colonised anew by the latter, from whom it received the name of *Julia Augusta Colonia*. It was anciently much celebrated for its wool.

*Vallibus primis Apulia, Parma secundis
Nobilis.* MARTIAL, *liv. 55.*

(*Condor's Italy*, li. 36—39.; *Rampoldi's Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

PARNASSUS, a mountain-chain of Independent Greece, prov. E. Hellas, and nom. Phocis, famous in Grecian poetry and mythology, the favourite resort of Apollo and the muses, and especially sacred to Bacchus. It runs from W. N. W. to E. S. E., forming the connecting link between Mount Pindus and Mount Helicon; but the only part of it that requires any particular mention is its culminating point N. of Delphi, now called *Lithara*, lat. 38° 31' 57" N.; long. 22° 29' 26" E. According to M. Peytier, it rises 8,068 ft. above the sea, and being covered with snow during the greater part of the year, would have been rather an uncomfortable residence for the muses, who inhabited its lower regions, especially the laurel groves in the vicinity of the Castalian fountain. Dr. Clarke, who ascended this celebrated mountain, describes its summit as somewhat resembling that of Cader Idris in N. Wales; and adds that "after having been for years engaged in visiting the tops of mountains, he must still confess that he never saw any thing to compare with the view from the summit of Parnassus. The Gulf of Corinth had long looked like an ordinary lake, and it was now reduced to a pond. Northwards, beyond all the plains of Thessaly, appeared Olympus, with its many tops, clad in shining snow, and expanding its vast breadth distinctly to view. The other mountains of Greece, like the surface of the ocean in a rolling calm, rose in vast heaps according to their different altitudes; but the eye ranged over every one of them. Helicon was one of these; and it is certainly inferior in height to Parnassus. One of the principal mountains in the Morea, now called Tricla, not far from Patras, made a great figure in that mountainous territory; it was covered with snow, even the lower ridges not being destitute of it. We looked down on Achaea, Argolis, Elis, and Arcadia, as upon a model. The higher region of the mountain is of limestone, bleak and destitute of all herbage, except a few alpine plants." (*Travels*, vii. 261.) From the sacred town and temple of Delphi the mountain appears to have two summits, one of which was sacred to Phœbus and one to Bacchus—

"Parnassus gemino possit æthere colles,
Mœnæ Phœbeæ Nitæque sacre." *Lucan*, v. 72.

Running down the cleft between these two summits is the famous *Fons Castalis*, the genuine source of poetical inspiration. It is thus alluded to by Virgil, in connection with the neighbouring mountain—

"Sed me Parnassi deserta per ardua ducis
Regiæ anæm. Juvæne Juvæne, quæ aut priorem
Castalium molli dederit verba citro." *Georg.* iii. 195.

Even at present it is by no means unworthy its ancient renown. Mr. Dodwell says, "it is clear, and forms an excellent beverage. The fountain is ornamented with pendant ivy, and overshadowed by a large fig tree." Higher up the mountain is the Corycian cave, which, during the Persian war, afforded a safe retreat to the less adventurous Greeks after the battle of Thermopylæ. (*Herod.* viii. 36.) It is described by Mr. Raikes, the first modern traveller who has visited it, as a chamber 330 ft. in length, and nearly 300 ft. in breadth, with a roof studded with stalactites. Above this cave, and at a distance of about 80 stadia from Delphi, stood the town of Titihorea, taken and burnt by the army of Xerxes at the close of the Persian war. The ruins were found by Dr. Clarke, near the modern village of *Felitsa*. For further particulars see *Dissert.*

PAROS, a famous island of the Grecian Archipelago, group of the central Cyclades, to the W. of Naxos, from which it is separated by a strait, 5 m. across; Mount St. Elias, the most elevated point in the island, being in lat. 47° 46' N.; long. 35° 11' 25' E. Pop. 8,000. It is oval-shaped, being about 12 m. in length by 8 in breadth. Though rugged and uneven, it is, speaking generally, extremely fertile; and, if well cultivated, would support four or five times its present pop. It produces considerable quantities of cotton, with corn, wine, oil, &c. Tournefort says that the butchers' meat is good, that there are a great number of hogs, and that pigeons and partridges are extremely abundant. (i. 308. &c.) Port Nausa, on the N.E. coast of the island, is one of the best harbours in the Archipelago, and was used, in 1770, as the rendezvous of the Russian fleet. Paræchia, on the S.W. of the ancient city of Paros, on the W. coast of the island, is the capital. Its harbour is open to the W., and there are some sunken rocks in its vicinity, on one of which the *Superbe*, a French line-of-battle ship, was lost, in 1833. The present town consists of mean houses, which, however, are interesting, from their chiefly consisting of fragments of the old city, including portions of the shafts and capitals of columns, &c.: the cathedral church is said to be the best in the Archipelago.

Paros was famous in antiquity for its beautiful snow-white marble, whence Virgil has called the island *marem Paron*. (*Æneid.* lib. v. 126.) The finest of the ancient statues, including the *Venus de Medici*, the *Apollo Belvedere*, and the *Antinous*, were formed out of this material. Indeed, the best sculptors used no other, *omnes autem tantum candido marmore ut sunt a Paro insula*. (*Pin. Hist. Nat.*, lib. xxxvi. cap. 5.) The quarries were situated about 4 m. from the city of Paros, and remain exactly in the state in which they were left by the ancients. Dr. Clarke says they had been wrought with infinite skill; and that the blocks had been cut out with such precision that there was not the smallest waste. (vi. 138. &c.)

According to Thucydides (lib. i.), Paros was originally settled by Phœnicians. It early attained to great wealth and consideration, and established colonies in Thasos and other islands. During the first Persian war, it sided with the Persians; and after the defeat of the latter at Marathon, the city of Paros was unsuccessfully besieged by Miltiades. Themistocles, however, rendered it tributary to Athens. It produced several distinguished individuals, among whom may be specified Archilochus, the inventor of lambics.

In modern times, the only event of importance connected with the history of Paros is the discovery of the "Parian, or Arundelian Chronicle." This is a chronological account, cut in marble, of the principal events in the history of Greece during the period of 1818 years, beginning with Cecrops, and ending with the archonship of Diognetus, anno 264 B.C. The chronicle for the last 90 years is, however, obliterated; and the inscription is in many parts a good deal defaced.

The marble slab on which this chronicle is cut was purchased on the spot, in 1694, for the Earl of Arundel, whence it is now frequently called the Arundelian Chronicle; and being brought to England in 1697, the inscription was soon after copied, translated, and published by Selden and other eminent scholars. Unfortunately the marble afterwards met with the most barbarous treatment, having been broken, and a part of it employed, as is alleged, to repair a chimney in Arundel House. The portion that escaped this worse than Gothic usage was presented in 1667 to the university of Oxford, of which it is one of the most precious relics. (*Robertson on the Parian Chronicle*, pp. 43—48.)

For a lengthened period the Parian Chronicle was regarded as of unquestionable authority, and was referred to as such by all inquirers into ancient history. In 1788, however, its authenticity was assailed, in a singularly clear, able, and ingenious dissertation, by the Rev. John Robertson, who contended that it was altogether spurious, and had been fabricated in modern times. As was to be expected, this dissertation elicited various answers, by Mr. Hewlett; Porson, the celebrated Greek scholar; Gough, the antiquary, &c.; and at present it seems to be generally concluded by the ablest critics and scholars, that the objections of Robertson have been satisfactorily disposed of, and that there is no good or sufficient reason for doubting that the Parian Chronicle was really compiled about 264 years B.C.

PARSONSTOWN, or BIRR, an inland town of Ireland, King's Co., on the confines of Tipperary, on the Birr, a branch of the Lesser Brooma, 7½ m. above its confluence with the Shannon, and 62 m. W. S. W. Dublin. Pop., in 1821, 5,406; in 1841, 6,336. It has a large square, in which is a pillar surmounted by a statue of the Duke of Cumberland, erected in commemoration of

• The *Dictionnaire Géographique* says that the famous sculptor Phidias and Praxiteles were natives of Paros. In point of fact, however, the former was born at Athens, and the birthplace of the latter is unknown.

the victory of Culloden, in 1746, and some good streets. Its public buildings are the parish church, a fine R. Cath. chapel, the cathedral of the see of Killaloe, 2 meeting-houses for Independents, 1 for Quakers, and 2 for Methodists, a fever hospital, a dispensary, a court-house, and a bridewell. Near it are large barracks. It has various schools, and is the seat of a manor court, general sessions and petty sessions; it is also a constabulary station, and has two distilleries, a brewery, and an extensive retail trade. The river is navigable for 2 m. from the Shannon, for barges. Markets on Saturdays; fairs, Feb. 11, May 5, Aug. 25, and Dec. 10. Post-office revenue in 1830, 9977; in 1836, 1,367. Branches of the provincial and agricultural banks were opened in 1833 and 1836.

Close to the town is Birr Castle, the seat of the Earl of Rosse, the head of the noble family of Parsons, whence the town has its name, and to whom it is greatly indebted. The castle, which is of considerable antiquity, has been completely modernised, and greatly improved by its present proprietor.

PASCO, or CERRO DI PASCO, the principal mining town of Peru, dep. Junin, prov. Huanaco, in an irregular hollow on the table land of Bombon, nearly 14,000 ft. above the level of the sea, and 60 m. S. by W. Huanaco. Pop. varying at different seasons from 4,000 to perhaps 12,000. It is a mean, wretched place, which, previously to the establishment of the Peruvian Mining Company, in 1825, had not a house with a chimney, fireplace, or glass window; and even now its dwellings are principally covered with thatch, a frequent cause of destructive fires. The town—of which the very adobes, or unburned bricks, partly used in some of the houses, contain silver—is so burrowed under, that a person is in no small danger of inadvertently falling into old mines, or rather pits, sometimes superficial, sometimes deep and fathomless, and half-filled with water. There are several hundred well-known mines, from which silver has been and still could be extracted in large quantities, provided a perfect drainage were effected. But during the revolution a great many of the mines were allowed to fill up with water, and only about 30 are now wrought for eight months a year. From 1825 to 1826 inclusive, 2,190,655 marcos of silver were reduced to bars in the foundry at Cerro Pasco; the produce in the latter year having been 237,440 marcos. These mines have the advantage of being near a coal mine, which has of late years been opened; but turf, dung, timber, &c., are the kinds of fuel most commonly used. The miners choose whether they will be paid in money or a proportion of the ore. In the former case they get 100 reals, or 2s. a day; but they prefer of course payment in ore, if the mine be productive; and sometimes realise, in this way, very high wages. But the gambling nature of the pursuit has the worst effect on all parties engaged in it. The miners are almost universally profligate, and involved in debt; and but few of the undertakers have made fortunes. (*Smith's Peru as it is*, ii. 1—20.)

PAS-DE-CALAIS, a dep. of France, reg. N., formerly comprised in the prov. of Artois and Picardy, between the 50th and 51st deg. N. lat. and 1° 35' and 3° 10' E. long.; having N.E. and E. the dep. Du Nord, S. Somme, W. the English Channel, and N. the Strait of Dover, or Pas-de-Calais, whence its name. Area, 655,645 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 695,756. There are several chains of hills, but none of any considerable height. The Scarp, Lys, and Aa, rise in this dep.; besides which the principal rivers are the Liane, Canche, and Authie, having mostly a N.W. course. Except about Boulogne, the coasts are generally low, and in some places bordered with sandy downs, which are, however, prevented from increasing to an inconvenient extent by being carefully planted. The soil is, for the most part, good; and agriculture is, on the whole, well conducted. Of the surface, in 1834, 492,274 hectares were supposed to be arable; 46,210 in pasture; 21,852 in orchards, gardens, &c.; 42,107 in woods, and 18,945 in heaths and wastes. Near Boulogne, farms vary in size from 85 to 260 acres; but, in general, they do not exceed 140 acres. Few are cultivated by the proprietors, being usually let to farmers who pay a money rent, and are also charged with the payment of the land tax. All kinds of corn, but principally wheat and maslin, and large quantities of beans, peas, and oleaginous seeds, are raised. About 1,522,000 hectol. of potatoes were grown in 1835; and a good deal of land is devoted to the growth of beet-root. The annual produce of beer is estimated at 360,000 hectol.; of cider, at 36,000 h.; and of malt spirits, at 11,000 h. In 1830, there were estimated to be nearly 200,000 oxen and cows, and 300,000 sheep in the dep.; the produce of wool averages about 663,000 kilogr. a year. The farmers, though not prosperous, are contented with their condition; and there are few paupers requiring permanent relief. In 1835, of 223,002 estates subject to the *contributions foncière*, 101,918 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 39,402 at from 5 to 10 fr. Some coal is met with;

but the greater part of that made use of in the dep. is brought from Belgium; and wood and turf are the principal species of fuel. About 8,964,000 kilogr. of beet-root sugar were made in this dep. in 1836, a greater quantity than in any other French dep., that of the North excepted. Arras is famous for lace and ginger bread. A portion of the pop. of Boulogne and Calais is occupied in the manufacture of tulles; in the arrond. of Bethune many hundreds are employed in making linen stuffs and yarn; and manufactures of cotton stuffs and yarn are pretty general. Spirits, leather, gunpowder, soap, glass and earthenware, tobacco pipes, &c. are also produced. Artesian wells (so named from the prov. Artois) originated in this dep. The Pas-de-Calais is divided into 6 arronds.; chief towns, Arras, the cap.; Bethune, Boulogne, Montreux, St. Omer, and St. Pol. Calais and Boulogne are the principal sea-ports, and have a considerable coasting trade, and share in the cod, herring, and mackerel fisheries. The dep. sends 8 mems. to the Ch. of Dep.; number of electors in 1836—39,4512. Total public revenue (1831), 18,913,372 fr. (*Hugo, art. Pas-de-Calais; Dict. Géogr.; French Official Tables; and Parl. Reports on Agriculture, 1834.*)

PASSAU (an. *Castra Bataria*), a fortified frontier city, principally belonging to Bavaria, circ. Lower Bavaria, of which it is the cap., on the Danube, where it is joined by the Inn, and also by the small river Ilz, 68 m. E. S.E. Ratisbon, lat. 48° 34' 30" N., long. 12° 28' 5" E. In 1845, 10,211. It consists of a very proper bastion in the angle between the Danube and Inn, and of three smaller portions beyond the Danube, the Inn, and the Ilz, the latter being within the Austrian dominions. These different parts are connected by bridges, and surrounded with fortifications; and are further defended by two citadels, and some inferior forts; this being, in fact, one of the most important fortresses in the line of the Danube. The defile, in which the town is situated, is highly picturesque; and it has a striking appearance from the river, though not generally well seen. The cathedral, however, is a magnificent modern edifice, in the Italian style, and several of the other churches are handsome: the old Jesuit's college, now a lyceum, the bishop's palace, several hospitals, an orphan asylum, and the post office are the other principal public buildings. On a hill, adjacent to the Innstadt, is the shrine of *Maria-Hilf*, a celebrated place of Rom. Cath. pilgrimage. Passau is the seat of circle, police, and taxation boards, and has an episcopal seminary, a school of industry, manufactures of leather, tobacco, and pottery-ware, docks for ship building, and an active trade both up and down the Danube. It was long the cap. of an ecclesiastical principality, secularised in 1805. Here, in 1552, a treaty was concluded between Maurice, elector of Saxony, on the one hand, and Ferdinand, king of the Romans, on the part of the Emperor Charles V., on the other, by which the latter agreed to set the landgrave of Hesse at liberty, and to allow the Protestants full freedom of conscience. (*Berghaus; Sketches of Germany*, ii. 101, 102, &c.)

PATAGONIA, an extensive country of S. America, comprising nearly the whole of the continent S. of lat. 38° S., and having N. the territories of La Plata, and Chili, S. the Strait of Magellan, separating it from Terra del Fuego, E. the Atlantic, and W. the Pacific. Little is known respecting this region beyond its coast outline. The Andes in Patagonia appear to consist of but one cordillera, the mean height of which may be estimated at 3,000 ft.; but opposite Chiloe there are some mountains probably from 5,000 to 6,000 ft. in height. (*Geog. Journ.* i. 157.) The W. coast is abrupt, very much broken, and skirted with a great number of irregularly shaped rocky islands. The E. coast has been most explored. The surface of the country appears to rise from the Atlantic to the Andes, in a succession of terraces, all of which are alike arid and sterile, the upper soil consisting chiefly of marine gravely deposits, covered with coarse wiry grass. No wood is seen larger than a small thorny shrub, fit only for the purpose of fuel, except on the banks of a few of the rivers subject to inundation, where herbage and some trees are occasionally found. This sterility prevails throughout the whole plain country of Patagonia, the complete similarity of which, in almost every part, is one of its most striking characteristics. It is stated, however, by the Indians on the Rio Negro, which forms the N. boundary of Patagonia, that near the Andes, wheat, maize, beans, lentils, peas, &c., are raised. This latter region is not, however, placed under the same circumstances as the country more to the eastward, nor is it subject to the causes which mainly occasion its sterility.

A great deal of rain falls in the Andes, and the country immediately E. of the mountains is thickly wooded, and is injured by too much rain. This rain, from the moisture which the W. winds that prevail throughout most part of the year, bring with them from the Pacific, being condensed and precipitated in the mountains and immediately adjacent territory; so that after passing these

regions the winds are quite dry; and E. winds, which are very rare in Patagonia, are those only which convey any moisture to the desert E. of the Andes. Porphyry, basalt, sandstone, containing numerous organic remains, and a friable rock, greatly resembling, but not identical with, chalk, are among the mineral formations hitherto remarked as the most prevalent in E. Patagonia. The zoology of the country is as limited as its flora. Guanaco are met with sometimes in herds of several hundred; and their enemy the puma, and a small kind of fox, are almost the only other wild quadrupeds at all abundant, except mice. The latter are of many species, and so numerous that, according to Mr. Darwin, Patagonia, poor as she is in some respects, can, perhaps, boast of a greater stock of small rodents than any other country in the world. (*Voyage of Adventure and Beagle*, iii. 215.) The condor and the cassowary are included among the few species of birds. The reptile and insect tribes present nothing remarkable.

The Patagonian Indians are tall and bulky, and, though not absolutely giants, they are said, after rejecting the exaggerations of the early and the contradictory statements of later travellers, to be the tallest people of whom we have any accounts, the average height of the men being probably not under 6 ft. Their heads and features are large, but their hands and feet small; and their limbs are neither so muscular nor so large-boned as their height and apparent stoutness would induce one to suppose. Colour a dark copper brown; hair black, lank, and coarse, and tied about the temples by a fillet of plaited or twisted sinews. A large mantle of guanaco skins loosely gathered about them and hanging from the shoulders to the ankles, is, with a kind of drawers and loose buskins, almost their only article of dress, and adds much to the bulkiness of their appearance. They neither pierce the nose nor lips, but disfigure themselves greatly with paint. They lead a nomadic life, living in tents formed of poles and skins, and subsisting on the flesh of the wild animals they catch. Both men and women ride on horseback, and are often furnished with saddles, bridles, stirrups, spurs, and Spanish goods of various kinds, which they obtain from Valdivia and other places in S. Chili. Their arms consist generally of a long tapering lance, a knife or scimitar, if one can be procured, and the bolas, a missile weapon of a singular kind, carried in the girdle, and consisting of two round stones, covered with leather, each weighing about a pound. These, which are fastened to the two ends of a string, about 8 ft. in length, used as a sling, one stone being kept in the hand, and the other whirling round the head till it is supposed to have acquired sufficient force, when they are together discharged at the object. The Patagonians are so expert at the management of this double-headed shot, that they will hit a mark not bigger than a shilling with both the stones at a distance of 15 yards. It is not customary with them, however, to strike either the guanaco or the ostrich with them, but to discharge them so that the cord comes against the legs of the ostrich, or the fore legs of the guanaco, and is twisted round them by the force and swing of the balls; so that the animal being unable to run, becomes an easy prey to the hunters. These people live under various petty chiefs, who, however, seem to possess but little authority.

Patagonia was discovered by Magellan in 1519. The badness of its harbours, which are mostly difficult and dangerous of access, and afford little or no security for vessels above the size of a brig, has hindered the formation of any European settlements except at Port St. Julian, about lat. 49° 10' S., and long. 67° 40' W., where the Spaniards settled about 1779, but speedily abandoned the establishment. A few expeditions have been undertaken to the interior in the last century, and latterly by the officers of the *Adventure*, principally up the larger rivers; but the coasts are rarely frequented by any other than whaling vessels, and the nature of the country is not such as to hold out any hope of its ever emerging from its present state of savage barbarism. (*Parish's Buenos Ayres*, &c., 58—98.; *Voyages of the Adventure and Beagle*; *Geog. Journ.*, i. vi.)

PATMOS (bod. *Patmos*), a small island of the Grecian Archipelago, belonging to the Sporades, celebrated in ecclesiastical history as the place of St. John's exile, during Domitian's persecution, 11 m. N.W. Lero, and 20 m. S. the W. extremity of Samos; its chief town being in lat. 37° 17' 2" N., long. 26° 38' 14" E. Pop., according to Burgess, about 4,000. It is of very irregular shape, about 10 m. in length, 5 m. in breadth, and 26 m. in circ. Tournefort, whose authority is entitled to the highest respect, describes Patmos as the most barren rock (*mechain escuël*) of the Archipelago (i. 438.); others, however, extol its fertility; and Dr. Clarke says, that from all he could collect on the subject, it is about as fertile as any of the neighbouring islands, were it not for the danger to which property is exposed from the continual incursions of pirates. (vi. 66., 8vo. ed.) It has numerous harbours, of which that of La Scala, on the E. side, deeply indenting the island, is the principal.

Above the landing-place is a small village, comprising about 50 houses and shops. On the ridge of a mountain, overlooking the port, is the cap. of the island, comprising about 400 substantial stone houses: its streets, however, are steep, ill paved, and extremely narrow, few being more than 8 ft. wide. The monastery of St. John's, on a mountain close to the town of Patmos, built in the commencement of the 13th century, is, in fact, a pretty strong fortress, and commands a noble and extensive view of the sea and surrounding islands. It is peopled by about 30 monks, and has an attached church, and a library containing some early printed books and numerous MSS., some of which were purchased by Dr. Clarke. The famous grotto, or cavern, covered by a chapel, where St. John is said to have written the apocalypse to the dictates of the Holy Spirit, is situated on the face of the hill, about half way between the town and the port. Clarke says that it is not spacious enough to have afforded a habitation even for a hermit; but the monks, to quash all doubts as to its being really the retreat of St. John, show the crevices in the rock through which, as they allege, the divine commands were communicated to the apostle! In point of fact, however, there is not a sentence in the apocalypse to warrant the inference that it was written in a cave; and if there had, any other cave in the island would have answered the purpose quite as well as this.

The island produces only a few grapes, and is furnished with corn and other articles of subsistence from the Black Sea, Samos, and Smyrna. The male inhabitants are chiefly seamen, and from their pretty extensive intercourse with different European nations have become more enlightened than the generality of Greeks. The women (who, according to Tournefort, are generally pretty, though much disfigured by their strange costume,) are chiefly employed in knitting cotton stockings. Tournefort mentions that for every man on the island there are at least twenty women; but this disproportion was, no doubt, occasioned by the men being mostly at sea, and is not mentioned by later writers. (*Tournefort, Voyage du Levant*, i. 438.; *Clarke*, vi. 27, &c.; *Burgess's Greece and Levant*, ii. 24—25.)

PATNA, a city of British India, presid. Bengal, prov. Bahar, of which it is the cap., on the S. bank of the Ganges, 14 m. E.N.E. Benares, and about 300 m. N. W. Calcutta; lat. 25° 37' N., long. 85° 18' E. Pop. estimated at upwards of 300,000. (*Hamilton*.) Within the walls it is not much more than 1½ m. in length, by 3-4ths m. in average breadth; but, including its straggling suburbs, it extends for 9 m. along the banks of the river, and 2 m. inland. The town itself is very closely built, and surrounded with fortifications in the Hindoo style, which are now, however, completely decayed. At a short distance, it has a very striking appearance; being full of large buildings, with remains of old walls and towers, and bastions projecting into the river, and backed by irregularly elevated land. It has, however, but one wide street, all the other thoroughfares being narrow, crooked, and mean. The houses are partly built of brick, and many have terraced roofs and balconies; but the greater number are of mud, with tiled roofs. E. of the city is a large suburb, with many well-built storehouses, and in the same direction are the gardens belonging to the palace of Jaffer Khan, two or three miles in circuit. The suburb of Bankipoor, where the East India Company has most of its offices, and where are most of the residences of its servants, is W. of the city; here is also a remarkable edifice erected during the governorship of Warren Hastings, and originally intended for a grain magazine, but now used as a dépôt for military stores. Patna has a small citadel, but there do not appear to be any other public buildings worth notice; though the Hindoos, Mohammedans, Sikhs, &c. have many religious temples. The Portuguese inhab. have a Rom. Cath. church; and there is a British seminary with about 100 pupils. But though Patna be the seat of one of the 6 courts of circuit in the Bengal presidency, the residence of a sillah judge, collector, a commercial resident, and an opium agent, it has but few English inhab. This city is not celebrated for any particular manufacture; but most articles of foreign and domestic produce may be procured in its bazaars. The neighbouring country produces the finest opium and saltpetre, and great quantities of wheat and other grains, sugar, indigo, &c. The opium and saltpetre are monopolised by government, and produce a large revenue; but a considerable trade is carried on in the other articles. It was at this city that the English first established a factory in the eastern provinces of Hindostan; and it is indebted to the European trade for most part of its growth and prosperity. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*; *Heber*, &c. in *Mud. Trav.*, ix.)

PATRAS (an. *Patraz*), a town and seaport of Independent Greece, on the N.W. coast of the Morea, and on the E. side of the gulph of its own name, about 5 m. S.W. the mouth of the Gulph of Lepanto, 107 m. W. by N. Athens, lat. 38° 14' N., long. 21° 46' 40" E. Pop., acc

to Burgeas, about 4,000, exhibiting a decrease of nearly two-thirds since the commencement of the revolution. It is built amphitheatrically on the side of a hill rising from the shore, which has at its summit the acropolis, commanding a fine view of the surrounding coast and country. The fortifications are in good repair, and have been recently much enlarged. The interior comprises one pretty broad and well-built street, with numerous narrow lanes and alleys lined with mean wooden tenements, the overhanging eaves of which nearly meet over the street. The Greeks have a few good houses; but those of the European consuls are the best. Every considerable house is surrounded with a garden well stocked with oranges, figs, pomegranates, and other fruit trees, which give the town an agreeable aspect, and conceal the greater part of the poorer habitations. The only public buildings are two hospitals and several churches; the remains of ancient buildings are but inconsiderable.

The bay in front of the town being unsafe, and exposed to heavy seas, particularly in winter, vessels go a little farther up the Gulp, where the port is situated, and where there is a mole for their security. Patras has a pretty extensive trade. The principal exports are currants (by far the most important article), oil, wax, wool, wine, raw silk and cotton, and woollen ware. The imports here, as at the other Greek ports, consist principally of colonial produce, manufactured goods, salt fish, cordage, hemp, deals, &c., chiefly from the Ionian Islands and Great Britain, Venice, Trieste, Leghorn, and Marseilles. The imports from Great Britain amounted, in 1838, to 13,490*l.*, the shipments to Great Britain in the same year being valued at 171,340*l.*; but this discrepancy is apparent only, the excess of exports being balanced by the imports of British produce from the Ionian Islands and other places. According to the tariff now in force, the rate of duty (without distinction of foreign or native flags) is 10 per cent. *ad valorem* on imports, and 6 per cent. *ad valorem* on exports.

The ancient Patra is supposed to have been founded by the Ionians. Herodotus enumerates it among the 12 towns of Achæa (l. 146.). Its inhab. took an active part, and the town suffered greatly in the Achæan war. After the battle of Actium, however, it was raised to its former flourishing condition by Augustus, who made it a colony by establishing in it some of his veterans. In Strabo's time it was a large and populous city; and in the beginning of the 3d century it was still prosperous, though remarkable for the dissoluteness of its inhab. (*Pausanias, Achaic.*, c. 31.) It was the seat of a dukedom under the Greek emperors, and in 1408 was bought by the Venetians, from whom it was taken by the Turks, in 1446. It was pillaged by the Albanians in 1770, and was the stronghold of the Ottomans from 1831 down to the period of the emancipation of Greece. (*Burgess's Greece and Levant*, l. 124-128.; *Mod. Trav.*; *Cramer's Greece*, li. 68-69.)

PAU, a town of France, d^{pt.} Basses-Pyrénées, of which it is the cap., on the Pau, here crossed by a fine stone bridge of seven arches, in a fertile though marshy plain, 58 m. E. by S. Bayonne. Lat. 43° 17' 29" N.; long. 0° 22' 30" W. Pop., in 1846. (in com.) 13,920. It is regularly laid out and well built, consisting principally of one long and broad main street. It has, however, several squares, or open spaces, and is environed by public walks. Its principal, and by far the most interesting edifice is the castle, in which Henry IV. first saw the light on the 13th Dec. 1553; it was founded by the princes of Béarn in the 10th century, is situated on a commanding height to the W. of the town, and forms an irregular collection of massive towers, having a fine terrace on the side fronting the river. It was much injured during the Revolution, having been converted into military quarters; but it has since been completely repaired and renovated.

The chamber, memorable as the birthplace of Henry IV., retains its ancient portraits and furniture, the tortoise-shell cradle of the king, &c. There is a marble statue of Henry in the vestibule of the castle, and another statue in bronze in the *Place Royale*. The other principal buildings comprise the prefecture, hall of justice, college, and one or two hotels.

Pau has a royal court of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, boards of taxation and forest economy, a royal college, an *académie universitaire*, a society of agriculture, a school of design and gallery of paintings, a public library of 18,000 vols., &c. Its manufactures include cotton stuffs, linen cloths or *toiles de Béarn*, &c., and it has considerable dyeing establishments and tanneries; it has, also, a pretty extensive trade in manufactured products, and in wines, Bayonne hams, salted geese, &c. It has two large weekly markets, and three important annual fairs. Inglis says, "Pau has always enjoyed the reputation of being one of the most interesting cities of the S. of France. It is clean, airy, and abounds in every convenience and in most luxuries. It is a great resort for strangers, particularly English; and, excepting Bayonne, is probably

the most desirable of any of the towns selected by foreigners as a residence. Excellent houses are to be obtained at a very moderate expense, and the markets are both abundant and cheap. There are generally 50 or 60 English families in Pau and its neighbourhood; and the number, I understand, is upon the increase." (*Switzerland, the Pyrenees*, &c. 309, 310.)

Besides the "great" Henry, Pau has produced several distinguished persons, among whom may be specified Marshal Bernadotte, now king of Sweden; and Viscount Orthes, governor of Bayonne, who nobly refused to execute the orders issued by Charles IX. for the massacre of St. Bartholomew. (*Ætzo*, art. *Basses-Pyrénées*; *Guide du Voyageur*, &c.)

PAVIA (an. *Ticinum*), a frontier city of Austrian Italy, Lombardy, cap. deleg. of its own name, on the Ticino, 19 m. S.S.W. Milan; lat. 45° 10' 47" N., long. 9° 9' 48" E. Pop., in 1837 (ex. com.), 23,531. It is surrounded with old walls, and communicates with a suburb across the Ticino by a bridge of 7 arches, constructed in 1851. This structure, partly of stone, but principally of brick, is one of the most singular monuments of the 14th century; it is 300 ft. in length by 12 in breadth, and is covered with a curious roof, supported by a row of rough granite pillars. At one end is the Austrian and at the other the Sardinian custom-house, the Ticino separating their respective territories. This is a magnificent venerable city; but its buildings and its fame belong to another age, and it has long been in a state of paralysis and decay. From the bridge, the *Strada Nuova* or *Corso* extends through the centre of the city to a superb gate, begun under the viceroyalty of Prince Eugene. In this street the principal palaces of the Pavian nobility, mouldering and dismantled, are mingled with shops, churches, colleges, cafés, theatres, and hospitals. From the main street others of greater antiquity branch off at right angles, some terminating in piazzas opening before vast and cumbersome palaces, now half ruinous and dismantled. From its numerous public edifices, Pavia was formerly called the "City of a hundred Towers;" but these are now greatly diminished. It has, however, a ruined castle, once the residence of the Lombard kings, and several other buildings traced up to the time of the Lombards, particularly the church of St. Michael, in a barbarous and grotesque style. The church of *San Pietro in Cielis d'Or*, which is said though on doubtful authority to contain the remains of St. Augustine, and which certainly contains those of Boëthius, is in the same early and rude style; but, *tempora mutantur*, the venerable edifice is now converted into a granary or barn! The cathedral has little that is remarkable; it was begun in 1486, and is of large dimensions; but it yields in interest to the churches of the Carmine, San Francesco, S. Salvador, &c. The palace of Theodoris was destroyed in a popular tumult in the 11th century; and the tower in which Boëthius was confined and wrote his famous treatise, *De Consolatione Philosophiæ*, no longer exists. On the site of the latter, however, is the Malcapina Palace, at the entrance of which is a marble monument and bust of the philosopher. Previously to the reign of the emperor Joseph II., Pavia had 46 wealthy convents; but few, if any, exist at the present day. The theatre and the university buildings are almost the only other structures worth notice: the interior of the former is rendered dark and gloomy by the black marble of which it is constructed, and the latter, according to Mr. Woods, are magnificent rather by their extent than by any merit in their architecture.

The university of Pavia, the first and most frequented in Italy, was founded by Charlemagne, and restored by Galeazzo Visconti in the 14th century; but it owes its present form and institutions to the Empress Maria Theresa, and her minister Count Firmian. It has faculties of law, medicine, and philosophy; being particularly celebrated as a school of medicine. It has no faculty of theology, but in every other respect its constitution is similar to that of Padua (which see). It has at present 28 professors, 3 adjuncts, and 11 assessors; and in 1837 had 1,507 students, of which 287 belonged to the philosophical, 438 to the legal, and 563 to the medical faculty. Its revenues are derived principally from imperial treasury grants, legacies, municipal and communal funds, and fees paid by students on obtaining degrees; which last average about 150,000 *lire* a year. The whole expenditure for the university amounted, in 1837, to 250,000 *lire*. The professors have annual salaries of from 3,000 to 6,000 *lire* (18*l.* to 340*l.* sterling); and enjoy, by special privilege, the distinction of personal nobility. Several of the most distinguished names in the history of Italian literature and science, have been professors in this university. Among others may be specified Vassula Cardan (a native of the city), Spallanzani, Volta, Scarpa, Tamburini, &c.; and it has still to boast of many eminent teachers. The university has an extensive library, which it chiefly owes to Count Firmian: a fine botanic garden, instituted by the French; a valuable collection of natural history, physical and anatomical

museums, &c. Students are lodged and boarded gratuitously, in 3 colleges attached to the university. The *Collegio Caccia*, founded by a noble family of Navarra, receives 30 boarders from that city and district; the *Collegio Borromeo*, a stately and venerable edifice, founded by the famous Cardinal Borromeo, supports 36 students; and the *Collegio Ghislieri*, founded by Pope Pius V., receives 60 students; but the greater number of the students are extra collegians. Pavia has also a gymnasium, a high school and female school, 3 hospitals, numerous asylums, and charitable institutions, a *monte di pietà*, &c. It is a bishop's see, the seat of the superior court of the deleg., and a chamber of commerce. It has some silk manufactures, and a considerable trade in agricultural produce with Milan and the cities on the Po. It is connected with Milan by a navigable canal, traversed by boats like the Dutch *treckschuyts*. A good deal of the cheese, called Parmesan, is made in this neighbourhood. About 4 m. N. Pavia, is the celebrated Certosa, the most magnificent of Italian monasteries, founded by John Galeazzo Visconti in 1396; and dissolved, and in part stripped by the French, in 1798.

Ticinum, which was an important city under Augustus, began to be called *Pavia* (whence its present name), during the Gothic dominion in Italy. In modern times it has sustained numerous sieges; but it is principally distinguished in history by the battle of Pavia, a battle that took place in its vicinity on the 24th of Feb. 1525, between the French army, that had undertaken the siege of Pavia, under Francis I., and the Imperialists, under the viceroy Lannoy. The French were totally defeated. Francis, who had displayed the greatest heroism, and the king of Navarre, were taken prisoners; and exclusive of many generals and persons of distinction, between 9,000 and 10,000 private soldiers were left on the field of battle. The French army was, in fact, entirely destroyed; and there was quite as much of truth as of point in the caustic epistle addressed by Francis to his mother after the battle. "Madam, we have lost all except our honour." (*Austr. Nat. Encyc.*; *Von Raumer's Italy*; *Journal of Education*; *Wood's Letters*; *Corder's Italy*; *Robertson's Charles V.*, book iv., &c.)

PAXO (an. *Paseo*), the smallest of the seven principal Ionian Islands, in the Ionian Sea, 10 m. S. by E. Corfu, and about the same distance W. the main land of Greece; its area, 26 sq. m. Pop., in 1836, 5,387. It is oval-shaped, and extremely mountainous; its soil being stony, and destitute of moisture, that in summer the inhale are obliged to procure fresh water from the neighbouring continent. The climate is extremely mild and agreeable; but the island produces little else than olives, almonds, and vines, the quantity of corn raised being altogether insignificant. Mules and goats are reared in considerable numbers; and fish are abundant on the coast. Port Gai, the principal port on its E. side, affords good anchorage for a few vessels; but a more secure harbour is formed by the channel between this and the neighbouring islet of Antipaxo. The town has a pop. of 4,000 persons, but in appearance is little better than a mean village.

PAZ (LA), a city of Bolivia, cap. dep. of its own name, 196 m. N.N.W. Chuquisaca, lat. 17° 30' N., long. 68° 25' W. Pop. 20,000. It is situated on the E. declivity of the Andes, at an elevation of 12,170 ft. above the sea, and at no great distance from the sources of the Beni, a principal affluent of the Amazon. It has a cathedral, four other churches, several conventual establishments, and is a bishop's see, with very considerable revenues. It is the centre of a considerable trade in Paraguay tea.

La Paz was founded in 1548, and received its name in commemoration of the peace that ensued after the defeat of Gonzalo Pizarro and his associates. It suffered considerably a few years ago during a revolt of the Indians, but still ranks as a city of some wealth and importance. (*Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

PEEBLES, an inland co. of Scotland, having N. Mid-Lothian, E. Selkirk, S. Dumfriesshire, and W. Lanark. Area, 204,160 acres, of which comparatively small portion only is arable. This is almost wholly a pastoral district; the surface consisting of mountain moor, and bog, with the exception of a limited extent of low, level land along the banks of the Tweed, which rises in and runs through the co. The highest mountains are in the S. part of the co. adjoining Dumfriesshire, where the Tweed has its source. The summit of Broadlaw rises 2,741 ft. above the level of the sea; and this, which is about 100 ft. above the altitude of the contiguous summit of Hart-fell, is the highest elevation in Scotland S. of the Firth of Forth. The hills are generally smooth, and afford good sound sheep pasture. In the low parts of the co. agriculture has been very much improved; but it is now pretty generally believed that tillage had been too much extended during the late war. The buildings on farms of any importance have been entirely renovated, principally within the last 30 years. The black-faced breed of sheep

were, at no very distant epoch, diffused over the whole co., to the exclusion of every other; but about 1795 Cheviots began to be introduced; and their numbers have since so rapidly increased, that, even in the parish of Tweedmouth, which is the wildest and most exposed, there are now 3 Cheviots to 1 black-faced sheep. The total sheep-stock at present in the co. may be estimated at above 100,000. Property in a few hands, farms being very large; average rent of land in 1843, 6s. 7d. an acre. Neither minerals nor manufactures of any importance. Peebles is divided into 16 parishes, and returns 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 563. Peebles is the only town of any importance. In 1841, this co. had 2,118 inhab. houses, and 10,499 inhab., of whom 5,118 were males, and 5,381 females. Valued rent, 61,881. Scotch. Annual value of real property in 1815, 64,182.

PEEBLES, a royal bur. and market town of Scotland, co. Peebles, of which it is the cap., and the only town, romantically situated in a mountainous pastoral district, on the Tweed, which is here crossed by a bridge of five arches, at the point where it is joined by the Ed-diestou. 2½ m. S. Edinburgh. Pop. in 1841, 1,898. It is divided by the Ed-diestou into the Old and New Towns. The main street runs E. and W., in a line nearly parallel with the Tweed. The houses are unusually substantial and good for so small a town. It has a par. church, with a handsome spire, 3 Presbyterian dissenting chapels, an episcopal chapel, a town-house, and school. The grammar-school enjoys a high reputation, and is well attended. A scientific association established in the town, at which lectures are given, has an average attendance of no fewer than 190 mems! Though the town has no manufactures, it supports 2 banks. It is regarded as peculiarly salubrious; and is much resorted to in summer as a favourite country residence.

Peebles was long a hunting residence of the Scottish kings, particularly of Alex. III., who founded in it a monastery for Red Friars, in 1263, of which the ruins are still pretty entire. The Poem "Peblis to the Play" was written by James I. of Scotland. Neldpath Castle, inhabited by the Earls of March till 1778, stands on a rocky promontory overhanging the Tweed, ¼ m. W. of the town. Mungo Park, the traveller, practised as a surgeon in Peebles for some time previously to his second mission (1806) to Africa. Before the passing of the Reform Act, Peebles was united with Falkirk, Linlithgow, and Lanark, in sending a mem. to the H. of C.; but it was then merged in the co. constituency of *Perthshire's Description of Tweeddale*, 1815; *New St. Act. of Scotland*; *Boundary Returns*.)

PEGU, a former kingdom of India beyond-the-Brahmaputra, forming at present the S. portion of the Bir-mese empire. (See *BIRMANIA*.)

PEGU, a decayed city of the Bir-mese empire, and the an. cap. of the above kingdom, on the Pegu river, a tributary of the Irrawaddy, 50 m. Rangoon. Lat. 17° 40' N., long. 95° 12' E. While it remained the cap. of an indep. state, it is said to have had a pop. of 150,000; but being taken in 1757 by the Birman monarch Alompra, he razed most of its buildings to the ground, and reduced its inhab. to a state of slavery. At present it consists of only two streets, one parallel to the river, and the other leading to the celebrated Shoe-madoo, or great pagoda. This, the most famous edifice in the Birman empire, boasts of high antiquity, and is raised on successive terraces in a manner similar to the religious structures of the Mexicans, as described by Humboldt. It stands on an apparently artificial hill, the sides of which are sloped into two terraces, and ascended by steps of hewn stone. The lower and greater terrace forms an exact parallelogram, and is about 10 ft. in height; the upper and smaller terrace is of similar shape, and rises about 30 ft. above the lower terrace, or 30 ft. above the level of the ground. According to Col. Symes a side of the lower terrace is 1,391 ft. in length, and of the upper, 684 ft. The earth forming the terraces appears to have been taken from the ditch which formerly surrounded the city, and which may still be traced, enclosing a quadrangular space nearly ½ m. on each side. The brick walls sustaining the sides of the terraces were formerly covered with plaster, wrought into various figures, but they are now in a ruinous state. The area of the lower terrace is strewn with fragments of decayed buildings, but the upper is kept free from filth, and is in tolerable order. On the second terrace is the pagoda, a pyramidal building of brick and mortar, without excavation or aperture of any sort, octagonal at the base, each side measuring 162 ft., and diminishing in breadth abruptly till it becomes of a spiral form. Its entire height from the ground is about 360 ft.; it is surrounded by two rows of small spires, a great variety of mouldings, ornaments in stucco, &c.; the whole being crowned with the *tee*, a sort of umbrella of open iron work, gilt, 66 ft. in circumference, surrounded by a number of small bells, and from the centre of which, when Symes saw it, rose a rod with a gilded pennant. At the time of his visit, also,

there were temples in miniature of the larger, at all the angles of the upper terrace, various saloons embellished with carving and gilding, numerous sculptures in masonry, idols, flying pennants, three large bells used by devotees on the N. side of the temple, many dwellings for priests on the lower terrace, &c.: probably most of these still exist, for a recent traveller states that the pagoda, with its appendages, is in tolerable preservation. (*Malcolm*, i. 89.) Pegu has several other temples, but they are mostly in ruins; and the site of the ancient city is almost wholly under water, probably from neglect of the drains and sluices. Mindjere Fraw, king of Birmah, in 1790, endeavoured to restore Pegu to a portion of its former importance, by transferring thither the provincial government from Rangoon, but he did not succeed. Zangnongang, however, on the opposite side of the river, is a prosperous town, and adjacent to it, for many miles, is a succession of thriving villages. (*Malcolm's Travels in S.E. Asia*, i. 88, 89; *Symes in Mod. Trav.*; *Asiatic Researches*, &c.)

PEKING or PEKIN, (Chin. *P'ing-king*, meaning "the northern capital,") the modern metropolis of the Chinese empire, prov. Pechee, in a vast sandy plain, between the Pei-Ho which has its embouchure in the Gulf of Pechelee, and its important affluent the Hoen-Ho, within about 5 or 6 m. of each, and being united to the Pei-Ho by a canal, 562 m. N. by W. Nankin, and 100 m. W.N.W. the Gulf of Pechelee, in the Yellow Sea; lat. (observatory) $39^{\circ} 54' 12''$ N., long. $116^{\circ} 27' 45''$ E. We know nothing certain of the population, except that it is very great: some writers estimate it at two millions, and others at three millions; we believe, however, that even the smallest of these estimates is beyond the mark, and probably it dwells much exceeded, if it be not under 1,500,000. Klaproth estimates it at 1,300,000. A large portion of the space within the walls is occupied by gardens and enclosures; and there is no heaping up of one family above another as in European towns.

The city is divided into two principal portions, exclusive of the suburbs. The most northerly portion, which is nearly a perfect square, is called *nei-king*, or the inner city; it contains the palace of the emperor, and the principal government officers, and is mostly occupied by Manchoes, whence it is sometimes called the "Imperial," and sometimes the "Tartar city." The other, or more southerly portion, denominated the *wai-king*, or outer city, is a quadrilateral rectangle, entirely occupied by Chinese, and is at once the seat of business and the residence of the great bulk of the population. Both divisions are surrounded by walls, the extent of which may be about 18 m. The walls of the Chinese city are 30 ft. in height, and 25 ft. broad at the base, and 12 ft. on the top, the slope being mostly on the inner side; but those of the Imperial city are 40 ft. in height. Square towers project from the outer side at intervals of about 70 yards from each other, and each of the 16 city gates is surmounted by a tower nine stories in height, with port-holes for cannon.

The principal streets are of great width, and perfectly straight, (*tirées au cordeau*, Duhalde), running between opposite gates in the divisions of the city to which they respectively belong; those in the northern being, for the most part, better built, and preferable to those in the southern division. The other streets, however, are very narrow, and are, in fact, mere lanes branching off at right angles from the principal thoroughfares. It is singular, that though the great roads leading to the capital be paved with large blocks of granite, the streets are not paved, which makes them dusty and disagreeable in hot, and dirty, and, in parts, all but impassable in wet weather. "*En général*," says M. Hyacinthe, "*l'inégalité, le mauvais entretien des rues, ou plutôt des sentiers, qu'on est obligé de suivre dans les rues, est un juste sujet de blâme contre la police Chinoise*." (P. 12.) The houses, which rarely exceed a story in height, are built of brick, and covered with tiles; but, according to Sir John Barrow, "they are void of taste, grandeur, beauty, solidity, and convenience;" none but the great shops have either windows or openings in the front wall; but most of them have a sort of terrace, with a raised balcony or parapet-wall, on which are placed pots of flowers, shrubs, or stunted trees. The houses in the smaller streets or lanes, many of which are occupied by public functionaries, are very similar to those in the larger streets; and the regularity with which the streets intersect each other, the uniformity in the size and appearance of the houses, and the absence of towers, spires, domes, and even of chimneys (of which not one is to be seen), give the city an extremely monotonous appearance, resembling, in fact, a vast encampment. (*Barrow*, 93.)

"The shops, in the principal streets, make an ostentatious display of painting and gilding. Sky-blue and green, mixed with gold, are the prevailing colours upon the walls. The goods are not only displayed within, but exposed in heaps in front of the houses. Before these are generally erected wooden pillars, whose tops are

much higher than the roofs of the houses, bearing inscriptions in gilt characters describing the goods to be sold, and assuring the buyer he will not be cheated! To attract more notice they are generally hung with various coloured flags, streamers, and ribands, exhibiting the appearance of a line of shipping, dressed in their different colours. Lanterns of horn, muslin, silk, or paper, are arranged before the doors, and exhibit such variety of form, that the Chinese appear to have exhausted on them all the powers of imagination. The streets are peculiarly crowded, in consequence of the number of trades that are carried on in the open air. The numerous movable workshops of tinkers and barbers, cobblers and blacksmiths; the tents and booths where tea, fruit, rice, and other eatables, are exposed to sale; the wares and merchandise arrayed before the doors; the troops of domesticaries laden with coals from Tartary; the wheel-barrow and hand-carts stuffed with vegetables, leave in the broadest streets only a very narrow space unoccupied." Room, indeed, is scarcely allowed for the frequent processions of men in office, with their numerous retinues and strange insignia, or for the pompous trains which attend at funerals and marriages. With the confusion of the multitude buying and selling their various commodities, are mixed the cries of jugglers, conjurors, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, quack-doctors, comedians, and musicians. It is, however, a curious fact, that the crowd and bustle are wholly confined to the great thoroughfares: the cross streets and lanes being perfectly still and quiet. "Women are frequently seen among the crowd, either walking, or riding on horses, which they bestride like men; but they are all Tartar females, whose manners alone admit of such exposure; the Chinese ladies being more rigidly confined to the house in the capital than on the rest of the empire." (*Barrow's Travels*, p. 94-95.)

At the four points, where the great streets intersect each other, are singular looking erections, somewhat resembling triumphal arches, but, in fact, monuments to the memory of those who had deserved well of their country, or who had attained an unusual longevity! They are built sometimes of stone, but more generally of wood, and consist invariably of a large central gateway, with a smaller one on each side, covered with a network of iron and painted in gilt, and varnished.

The northern city, which comprises the residence of the emperor and the principal government officers, consists of three inclosures—an outer, a middle, and an inner. The latter contains the Imperial palace and the houses of the different members of the Imperial household, the second is chiefly inhabited by Chinese merchants, and the third, or outermost enclosure, constitutes the open city. The inner portion, or that comprising the Imperial palace and its dependencies, including gardens and pleasure grounds, occupies an oblong space about 24 in circuit. This is surrounded by a "forbidden city," is surrounded by a high wall, similar to that surrounding the city, being, like it, flanked with towers, and faced with yellow tiles. Each side of the wall has a large gate surmounted by a tower; the walks, leading to the principal halls, being paved with large slabs of white and grey stone. The "Meridian gate," through which alone the emperor can pass, is by far the most splendid of all the approaches to the palace: here he distributes presents to foreign ambassadors, views the captives that may have been taken by his "invincibles," and shows himself whenever he dispenses mercy. In the *Tae-ho-men*, or "gate of extensive peace," which is a superb building of white marble, 110 ft. in height, the emperor receives congratulatory visits of ceremony from the various officers of his court; but by far the most sacred, as well as richest and most magnificent portion of the palace is the *Keen-ling-kong*, or "tranquil palace of heaven," the emperor's private retreat, which none may approach without special permission.

As used also as a cabinet where the great officers of state assemble for consultation, and where candidates for office receive their appointments. The palace of the empress is also very extensive; and beyond it is a gate leading to the Imperial flower-garden, laid out in walks, filled with pavilions, temples, and groves, and interspersed with canals, fountains, lakes, and beds of flowers. Near the empress's palace is a library, alleged, by the Chinese, to comprise a collection of most books published in the empire. Within the precincts also is a temple, to which the emperor comes on certain stated occasions to obtain blessings from the manes of his ancestors, and to show his filial piety. Six palaces are occupied by the princesses of the Imperial family; and other ranges of building constitute the residences of the emperor's stewards, &c.; besides which there are halls for councils, courts, &c., and a large printing establishment. (*Outcliff's China Opened*, i. 61. 63.)

The reader, however, would form a very inaccurate notion of these buildings, if he supposed they bore any considerable resemblance to European palaces, or that the magnificence of the buildings at all corresponded with

their imposing names. The truth is, that there is but little of pomp or splendour in the imperial residence. "The buildings that compose the palace, and the furniture within them, if we except the paint, the gilding, and the varnish, that appear on the houses even of plebeians, are equally void of unnecessary and expensive ornaments. Those who should rely on the florid relations, in which the missionaries and some travellers have indulged, in their descriptions of the palaces of Peking, and those of Yuen-min-yuen, would experience, on visiting them, a woful disappointment. These buildings, like the common habitations of the country, are all modelled after the form of a tent, and are magnificent only by a comparison with the others, and by their number, which is sufficient, indeed, to form a town of themselves. Their walls are higher than those of ordinary houses, their wooden columns of greater diameter, their roofs are immense, and a greater variety of painting and gilding may be bestowed on the different parts: but none of them exceeds one story in height, and they are jumbled and surrounded with mean and insignificant hovels. Some writer has observed, that the king of England is worse lodged at St. James's Palace than any other sovereign in Europe. Were I to compare some of the imperial palaces in China to any royal residence in Europe, it would certainly be St. James's; but the apartments, the furniture, and the conveniences of the latter, are infinitely surpassed by those in China. The stone or clay floors are, indeed, sometimes covered with a carpet of English broad-cloth, and the walls papered; but they have no glass in the windows, no stoves, fire-places, or fire-grates in the rooms; no sofas, bureaux, chandeliers, nor looking-glasses; no book-cases, prints, nor paintings. They have neither curtains nor sheets to their beds; a bench of wood, or a platform of brickwork is raised in an alcove, on which are mats or stuffed mattresses, hard pillows or cushions, according to the season of the year; instead of doors they have usually screens, made of the fibres of the bamboo. In short, the wretched lodgings of the state-officers at the court of Versailles, in the time of the French monarchy, were princely palaces in comparison of those allotted to the first ministers of the Emperor of China, at the capital as well as at Yuen-min-yuen." (*Barrow*, 194.)

The second enclosure, in the northern city, is called *Hwang-ching*, or the "august city," about 6 m. in circumference, surrounded by walls 30 ft. in height, and entered by 4 large, and 3 small gates. This section of the city comprises several idol temples, a depository of military stores, extensive public granaries, and a military seminary. It has also an artificial mountain in the centre of an extensive park. The third inclosure, or that called the "imperial city," contains the offices of the 6 superior tribunals of the empire. The Russian mission, the temple of *Yung-Ao-Kang*, or "of eternal peace," the largest and most sacred edifice in the city, having connected with it an institution for the instruction of lamas for the service of Tibet. Here is the National College, in which is concentrated all the learning and literature in China. All the literati of the empire, all the colleges and principal schools, are subordinate to this establishment, which nominates the examiners of the compositions required of candidates for civil offices. Manchoo, Chinese, and Russian literature meets here with equal attention, and all religions are sanctioned within its precincts. (*Gutzlaff's China Opened*, l. 68.) Indeed, it is somewhat strange that Peking, the cap. of the most exclusive empire in the world, should enjoy, besides its numerous temples and pagodas, a magnificent mosque, a Greek church and convent, and a Rom. Catholic chapel!

The S. division of the city is the grand emporium of all the merchandise brought for sale from other provs.; and as this portion is not subject, like the other, to the rigour of military discipline, it is frequented by those who are in search of business, amusement, or repose. Its buildings do not, however, require any special notice. But it should be stated that it contains an enclosure, where sacrifices are offered up to the god of agriculture, and where the imposing ceremony of the emperor holding a plough annually takes place.

There are suburbs round most of the gates of the city, some of which extend more than a mile from the wall, and comprise several large temples, with a few other public buildings.

The streets are not lighted at night. Sir John Barrow says that the cross-lanes were generally watered, but that that did not appear to be the case in the main streets. A large sheet of water, comprising several acres, within the N. division, furnishes an abundant supply to that part of the city and to the palace; and a small stream, which runs along the W. wall supplies that neighbourhood. There are, besides, numerous wells; but the water of some of these is dreadfully nauseous; and, mixed with tea, the well water is, to Europeans at least, particularly disgusting. But good potable water is brought from beyond the barriers. (*Hyacinthe, Ville de Pékin*, p. 13.)

"Although Peking cannot boast, like ancient Rome or modern London, of the conveniences of common sewers to carry off the filth and dregs that must necessarily accumulate in so large a city, it enjoys one important advantage rarely found in capitals out of England: no kind of filth or nastiness, creating offensive smells, is thrown out into the streets, a piece of cleanliness that perhaps may be attributed rather to the scarcity and value of manure than to the exertions of the police officers. Each family has a large earthen jar, in which is carefully collected every thing that may be used as manure; when the jar is full, there is no difficulty of converting its contents into money, or of exchanging them for vegetables. The same small boxed carts, with one wheel, which supply the city with vegetables, invariably return to the gardens with a load of this liquid manure. Between the palace of Yuen-min-yuen and Peking, I have met many hundreds of these carts. They are generally dragged by one person and pushed on by another; and they leave upon the road an odour that continues, without intermission, for many miles. Thus, though the city be cleared of its filth, it seldom loses its fragrance. In fact, a constant disgusting odour remains in and about all the houses the whole day long, from the fermentation of the heterogeneous mixtures kept above ground, which in our great cities are carried off in drains. To counteract this offensive smell, they make use of a variety of perfumes, and strongly-scented woods and compositions." (*Barrow*, 98.) This statement is completely borne out by that of Hyacinthe, who speaks of the *puanteur insupportable d'urine* felt in walking along the streets.

About 10 m. from Peking is a large park, belonging to the emperor, having an extent of at least 12 sq. m.; it exhibits all the great features of nature, lakes and rivers, mountains, rocks, and forests thrown together in the boldest and most irregular manner. It comprises 30 distinct palaces, and a village of no inconsiderable size; but these palaces are ill-arranged, falling to decay, and wholly unworthy of the name.

The highest class of inhabs. is composed of the Manchoo troops and officers, most of whom are in poor circumstances, though a few possess considerable property. Next to these rank the Chinese merchants, many of whom are extremely wealthy; and below these are the artisans and other labourers, most of whom come from the provinces to procure employment. The poor are employed in cleaning and watering the streets, gardens, &c., and in cultivating the ground; but, notwithstanding the general discouragement of pauperism, and the severity of the police, it is alleged that there are in Peking many thousand persons, who, being without employment, have recourse to robbery and cheating. The cross streets are shut, and the others are patrolled at night; and in consequence, says Duhalde, *la paix, le silence, et la sûreté règnent dans toute la ville*.

Hired carriages and sedan-chairs are common in all the public thoroughfares; but the ladies of the higher classes almost universally ride on horseback, though many of them keep their private carriages.

Peking is indebted for its importance to its being the residence of the emperor and the seat of government; and a very large proportion of its inhabs. depend for subsistence on employment in one or other of the departments connected with the army, the administration, or the court. It is to China in respect of literature what Paris and London are to France and England. The printing and bookselling business is very extensive. A great many works, especially upon history, issue from the imperial press, and are sold at a low price to the booksellers. It is not distinguished by any peculiar manufacture, unless it be that of coloured glass; nor has it any foreign commerce or trade, other than that directed to the supply of its own wants. This, however, is necessarily very considerable. The country round the city being sandy and poor, a large portion of its supplies are brought from a distance, partly from sea by the Pei-ho, but principally by the Grand Canal and the Ea-ho, which connect it with Nankin, and most of the E. provinces. Mutton and beef, however, which constitute the principal food of the Manchoes, are brought principally from Mongolia. The Chinese prefer pork; and hogs, consequently, form a principal article of import. Geese, ducks, and chickens, are the common domestic fowls; and in winter the shops are well supplied with partridges, pheasants, and other game.

A considerable portion of the taxes imposed on the different provinces is paid in kind; and a part of the rice and other grain so collected, being sent by canal to the capital, is stored in public granaries, whence it is issued to the troops, and others engaged in the public service. But notwithstanding this resource, it not unfrequently happens that the supply of corn proves deficient, and that numbers of the inhabs. are involved in the greatest privations. Tea, of excellent quality, is the common beverage; but they also use a strong spirit made of rice.

The Pei-ho is navigable for vessels of considerable burden to Tientsin, nearly 40 m. from its mouth; and it may be ascended in flat-bottomed boats to within 19 m. of the capital. Peking might, consequently, be easily attacked from the sea. There are no forts or other obstacles to the navigation of the river, which might be effected, with the greatest facility, by the aid of steam tugs.

The early history of Peking is involved in obscurity; but it is generally regarded by native authorities as one of their most ancient cities. It is clear, however, from the statements of Marco Polo, who describes Peking under the name of Cambaluc, as the seat of the N. Imperial or Tartar city, was either built or restored by Kublai Khan. Marco Polo describes it, as it now exists, as having perfectly straight streets, lined on each side with booths and shops. The Mongul dynasty, founded by Kublai, continued to occupy this city till it was expelled from China, in 1367. In 1421, the third emperor of the Chinese dynasty of Ming transferred his residence thither from Nankin, since which it has been the cap. of the empire. (*Marco Polo, by Marsden, lib. ii. cap. 7.*)

PELEW ISLANDS. See art. *POLYNESIA* in this Dictionary.

PEMBROKE, a maritime co. of S. Wales, the most westerly in the principality, having N. St. George's Channel and the co. of Cardigan, E. the latter and Caermarthen, and S. and W. the Bristol Channel and St. George's Channel. The coast line is very irregular, being deeply indented with arms of the sea, including Milford Haven and St. Bride's Bay. Area estimated at 390,400 acres. In the N. part of the county the highest point of the Prescelly mountains rises to the height of 1,754 feet above the level of the sea; but with this exception the surface elsewhere is merely undulating. It is watered by the Cleddau, Cleddy, and other streams, and owing to the number of its deep bays, it has, in most parts, every convenience for water-carriage. The soil is very various: in the S. it rests on a limestone and sandstone bottom, and is, speaking generally, very fertile; elsewhere the soil rests mostly on a slaty rock, and though not so fertile as the other, it is still, with few exceptions, far from unproductive. Principal crops, wheat, barley, and oats. The sheep, sand, or marl, may almost everywhere be had; and, in fact, were this co. well farmed, it would be one of the most productive districts of the empire; but we regret to have to add that its agriculture is very far behind. There is a great want of drainage, and of a proper rotation of crops: the land is often foul and exhausted; and the implements of husbandry, and the mode of using them, are alike bad. Latterly, however, some improvements have been introduced. Leases for 14 years have been substituted for leases for three lives; and clauses have been inserted in the leases for the preservation of over-cropping. But a vast deal still remains to be done before agriculture in this and the adjoining Welsh co. attains to even a medium state of advancement. Owing to the great mildness and humidity of the climate, and the nature of the soil, this co. is extremely well suited for grazing and dairying; and a good deal is done in both departments: the cows used in the dairies are now generally a cross with the Ayrshire breed. There are some large estates; but property is notwithstanding a good deal subdivided: farms are of all sizes, but mostly rather small. The modern farm-houses and offices are generally good and commodious, but many are still very inferior, and very inconveniently situated. Not a few of the older farm-houses and many of the cottages have mud walls, about 5 ft. in height, with a "wattle-and-daub" chimney, and are both mean and miserable dwellings. Luckily, however, they are gradually becoming less numerous, and will, it is to be hoped, be at no distant period wholly superseded by a more comfortable and healthy class of dwellings. Anthracite coal, slate, and limestone are found in large quantities. Manufactures unimportant. Principal towns, Pembroke, Tenby, Haverfordwest, and St. David's. It is divided into 7 hundreds, and 148 parishes, and returns 3 mems. to the H. of C., one for the co., and one each for the Haverfordwest and the Pembroke districts of bors. Registered electors for the co. in 1849-50, 8,016. In 1841, Pembroke had 18,832 inhab. houses, and 98,044 inhabs., of whom 40,250 were males and 47,794 females. Sum contributed to the relief of the poor in 1847, 36,079. Annual value of real property, in 1813, 320,391*l.*; and in 1843, 361,642*l.*

PEMBROKE, a parl. bor., market town, and sea-port of S. Wales, co. its own name, of which it is the cap., on the margin of Downpoint, a creek on the S. side of Milford Haven, 20 m. W. S. W. Caermarthen, and 200 m. W. London. Pop. of parl. bor., which includes the connected town of Paterchurch, 1841, 7,312. The town is built on a tongue of land, dividing the creek into 2 branches, one of which runs on the N. side, while the smaller branch bends southward under the suburb of Monkton. It consists of one long street, running along the ridge of a hill, on

which are sloping gardens; and, though it be the co. town, its small size is general, quietness gives it more the appearance of a village. The public buildings comprise a town-hall, custom-house, and 3 churches, one of which is in the suburbs. St. Michael's, at the E. end of the town, is a cruciform structure of Norman architecture; St. Mary's is in the pointed style, and somewhat more ornamental: St. Nicholas', the parent church, is in the W. suburb of Monkton. The livings are united in a single vicarage, in the gift of Sir John Owen. There are several places of worship for dissenters, most of which, as well as the churches, have Sunday-schools for children of both sexes. Pembroke has also a small endowed grammar-school. On a high and rocky eminence W. of the town, is the castle, an octagonal structure, nearly surrounded by water, which, on account both of its extent and beauty, ranks among the most splendid monuments of military architecture in the principality: it was built in the 11th century, and dismantled in 1649, after a brave defence by its royalist garrison. The keep is 70 ft. high to the dome, and 153 ft. in circumference at its base, the mean thickness of its walls being 18 ft. It consists of 4 stories, and is still covered in with a railed terrace roof. About a m. N. W. the town, and within St. Mary's par., is Paterchurch, now more commonly called Pembroke or Paterdock, from the government dockyard transferred thither from Milford in 1814. It is pretty regularly built, and contains the houses of the persons connected with the dock-yard. It has a handsome market-place, and many good shops, most of which, however, belong to the tradesmen of Pembroke.

The dockyard, which is defended eastward by a strong battery, occupies about 60 acres of land; and when the improvements now in progress are completed, it will be one of the finest building-yards in the kingdom, capable of having on the stocks, at once, five or six first-rate ships, and several others of smaller size. There is also a small private dockyard. A very fine jetty has recently been completed, and as ships of any burden may come up to the dock, there can be little doubt that the importance of the place will rapidly increase, especially as the packet establishment has lately been removed here from Milford. "The inhabitants of the co. consist, at present, of shop-keepers, people of small independent fortunes, and a few persons whose business is at Pembroke Dock. Pembroke serves, in a great measure, as a depot for the neighbouring district. Stone-coal is brought from a distance of about 6 m. eastward, and bituminous coal from Swansea, Llanelly, Newport, and the S. coast in general. The articles of export are confined to cattle, corn, and butter; the imports consist chiefly of articles of ordinary consumption." (*Man. Corp. and Board. Rep.*) The bor. of Pembroke was incorporated in the 10 Hen. vi.; and is divided into two wards, under a mayor, 5 other aldermen, and 18 councillors. It has likewise a commission of the peace, under a recorder. Corporation revenue, in 1848, 346*l.* Pembroke returns 1 mem. to the H. of C., in connexion with Tenby, Wiston and Milford. Registered electors of the united bor., in 1849-50, 962. The electoral limits of the bor. were left untouched by the Boundary Act. It is also one of the polling places at elections for the co. A county court is established here, before which 405 plaints were entered in 1848. Markets on Saturday: fairs, April 12, Trinity Monday, July 16, Oct. 10, and Nov. 30. (*Nicholson's Camb. Guide; Corp. Board. Reports, &c.*)

PENKRIDGE, a market-town and par. of England, co. Stafford, E. div., hund. Cuttleshope, on the Penk (a tributary of the Trent), crossed here by a stone bridge, 5 m. S. Stafford. Area of township, 14,500 acres. Pop. in 1841, 2,498. The town, which is very ancient, is supposed by some to be the *Pennocrucium* of the Romans. The church is a somewhat college-like, in a large building in the early English style, with a square tower: the living is a curacy in the gift of Lord Lyttelton. The Wesleyan Methodists and Baptists have likewise their respective places of worship, with attached Sunday-schools. There is also an excellent charity-school, in which 13 boys and 8 girls are boarded, clothed, and instructed; and a national-school, established in 1816, furnishes instruction to about 300 children of both sexes. Petty sessions for the hund. are held here; and Penkridge is one of the polling-places at elections for the S. div. of the co. It is also the chief place of a poor-law union, comprising 31 pars. Market day: fairs, April 30, and first Monday in Sept., a very large horse fair.

PENNSYLVANIA, one of the largest and most important of the U. States of N. America, between lat. 39° 40' and 40° N., and long. 74° 40' and 80° 40' W.; having N. W. Lake Erie, upon which it has a coast-line of 80 m.; N. and N.E. the state of New York; E. New Jersey; S. Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia; and W. Ohio. It is separated from N. Jersey by the Delaware River and the upper part of Delaware Bay, which also unites it with the Atlantic. Length, E. to W., 300 m.; average breadth nearly 150 m. Area estimated at 48,960

sq. m. Pop., in 1840, 1,794,922, of whom only 64 were slaves. The Alleghany Mountains occupy all the central part of this state, covering, with their ramifications, more than half its area. The W. and E. parts are comparatively level, the W. plain being by far the larger, and watered by the Alleghany and other tributaries of the Ohio, as the E. is by the Delaware and its affluents the Schuylkill, Lehigh, &c. The centre of the state is traversed by the Susquehanna. This river, the largest of those falling into the Atlantic in the U. States, rises in Oswego Lake (New York), near the sources of the Mohawk, and runs, with a very tortuous course, generally southward, till it falls into the bottom of Chesapeake Bay, lat. 39° 30' N., long. 76° W., after an entire course of at least 600 m. It receives numerous tributaries, but its channel is so much interrupted that it is but little available for navigation. Most of the other rivers in the state are obstructed. The soil in the E. is partly light and sandy, but in the interior plains and valleys it is a deep rich loam; there are few absolutely sterile tracts, and, in general, this is one of the most productive portions of the Union.

The climate is changeable; though, upon the whole, one of the most agreeable and temperate in the U. States. The season of frost and snow seldom exceeds three months; the winter commencing on the 1st to the 15th of December, and terminating from the 1st to the 15th of March. The heat of summer is seldom oppressive, except in low situations. Near the sea-coast the temperature of winter is severe, varying in the months of January and February from 14° to 30° Fah. The elevated parts are healthy; but the climate there is described as a compound of most others. "In spring it has the moisture of Britain; in summer, the heat of Africa; the temperature of Italy in June; the sky of Egypt in autumn; in winter the cold and snow of Norway, and ice of Holland; the tempests of the W. Indies in every season, and the monthly variable winds and weather of Great Britain."

Pennsylvania yields all the fruits and products of the N. and middle parts of the Union, and is better adapted for the culture of the mulberry and grape than the greater number of the other states. Most of the finer fruits of temperate climates are raised in the greatest luxuriance, and the cider is particularly excellent. Almost every variety of grain is raised, but wheat is the staple; and Pennsylvania is emphatically a wheat-growing state; the crop of 1840 was barely estimated at above 13 millions bushels. Most branches of agriculture are in a comparatively advanced state.

"The whole district of country," says Mr. Stuart, "through which I travelled was equal in point of appearance of cultivation, and in the style and size of the farm-houses and office houses (generally of brick), to what is to be seen in the best districts of England or Scotland; but thorn hedges, and in general dropping trees, are wanting, even in this district, to make the picture of a beautiful English farm complete. The crops of rye and clover were particularly fine, and the gardens good, and in good order. In some respects, however, the farmers here have great advantages. They are all proprietors of the soil, and of course not liable to be removed; and in such easy circumstances, that every one of them keeps his own comfortable open carriage." (*Stuart's Three Years in America*, ii. 498, 499.)

Horses and cattle, especially the former, are particularly good; and this is, next to N. York, the principal wool-growing state of the Union. It is, also, remarkable for its mineral wealth, possessing vast quantities of iron, coal, and salt. Anthracite coal is found E. of the Alleghenies, in fields extending altogether over a supposed area of 800,000 acres; and though, in 1824, the trade was in its infancy, only 9,541 tons being brought to market, it has since increased with such astonishing rapidity, that in 1824, 463,700, and in 1840, no fewer than 3,285,777 tons were brought to market! Bituminous coal is said to be found nearly everywhere W. of the mountains, and large quantities are consumed at Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, &c. in the smelting of iron. Salt is obtained from springs to the amount of about 1,200,000 bushels a year. Marble, limestone, copper, zinc, &c., are also met with. Manufactures are both various and extensive. Pittsburgh, in the W. part of this state, on the Ohio, is the Birmingham of the Union; besides ironmongery of every description, including steam-engines and machinery, cutlery, nails, stoves, &c., it has numerous other manufactures. (See Pittsburgh.) Cotton stuff, and yarn, are extensively produced in Pennsylvania, which ranks, perhaps, next to Massachusetts, as a manufacturing state. The principal foreign trade of the state centres in Philadelphia; but it is partly also carried on through New York, Baltimore, and New Orleans, so that its total amount cannot be easily ascertained. During the year ending the 30th of June, 1840, however, the total value of the imports is stated in the official returns at 10,645,500 dollars, while that of the exports amounts to only 5,243,431 dollars, of which foreign produce re-exported made 492,549

dolls. During the same year there belonged to the state 281,633 tons of shipping, principally owned in Philadelphia.

Pennsylvania has a very extensive system of internal communication, partly effected by private companies, but principally by the state government. The grand canal between Philadelphia and Pittsburg, a distance of 266 m., connects the Delaware with the Ohio, and is second in importance only to the Erie Canal in the state of New York. It has, with its various branches, an aggregate length of 590 m.; and has, besides, 2 railroads connected with it, one, 82 m. in length, extending from Philadelphia to Columbia, and the other, 36 m. in extent, crossing the Alleghenies, and uniting the E. and W. divisions of the canal. All these works belong to the state; the total expense of their completion having been nearly 4,000,000, sterling. (*Stevenson's Civil Engineering in N. America*; *Amer. Alm.* 1841.) The principal private undertakings are the Schuylkill canal from Philadelphia to Port Carbon, 108 m. in length, with 139 locks, and completed at a cost of 2,500,000 dollars; and the Lackawaxen canal, 25 m. in length, with which a railroad is connected, the total cost of both having been 2,000,000 dollars. The coal districts are traversed by upwards of 100 m. of railroads. In 1840, 974 m. of railway had been undertaken in the state; 1,037 m. had been completed, at a cost of 23,745,250 dollars.

By the constitution as amended, in 1838, the legislative power is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and a house of representatives. The members of the latter, of whom there are 100, are chosen annually in each co. by all the white free male citizens, 21 years of age, who have resided for a year in the state, and for 10 days immediately previous to election in the co. for which they offer to vote, and who have within 3 years paid a state or county tax. The senators, of whom there are 28, are chosen for 3 years, 1-3d being elected annually at the time of the election for representatives. The General Assembly meets every year in January. The supreme executive power is vested in a governor, who holds office for at least 3 years. Judges are appointed by the governor, with the consent of the senate, for terms varying from 5 to 15 years. The state is divided into 19 judicial districts; Harrisburg is the legislative cap., but Philadelphia the chief city. The other principal cities and towns are Lancaster, Pittsburg, and Reading. The state militia (with a few exceptions) consists of all free, able-bodied white male citizens between 18 and 45; and, in 1850, included 376,070 individuals. Pennsylvania has a university, and had, in 1849, 9 colleges, with numerous academies and female seminaries, and 7,848 common schools, attended by 360,606 pupils. Total public revenue in 1848, 3,831,776 dollars, of which 1,860,585 dollars were produced by canal and railway tolls. Total public debt at the end of 1848, 40,424,737 dollars, annual interest on the same, 2,039,043 dollars.

The pop. of this state is very mixed, including a great number of Germans, &c., whose manners were originally attracted thither by the broad principles of toleration laid down by Penn. Religious creeds are no less various; Methodists, Presbyterians, Lutherans, Baptists, German Reformed, and Friends, are, however, the prevailing sects.

Previously to its conquest by the English, in 1664, this territory had been colonised by the Dutch and the Swedes. It was granted by charter to William Penn, in 1680, and taken possession of by him in the following year, and continued afterwards a proprietary government. Pennsylvania acted a conspicuous part in the revolution: the declaration of independence was drawn up in Philadelphia. (*American Almanack*, 1850; *Pitt's Geog. of the U. States*; *Darby*; *Bradford*, &c.)

PENRITH, a market-town and par. of England, co. Cumberland, ward Leath, in a valley watered by the Ramont and Lowther, which unite their streams about 1 m. below the town, 17 m. S.E. Carlisle, and 42 m. N. Lancaster. Area of par., 6,640 acres. Pop., in 1841, 6,480. The town, which mostly consists of a principal street along the line of road from Kendal to Carlisle, is clean and neat, built chiefly of red free-stone, much improved of late years. The church is a large and handsome structure, nearly rebuilt in the beginning of last century: on its walls are many curious old inscriptions, and in the church-yard is a rude monument called the Giant's Tomb, consisting of 3 stone pillars 10 ft. high, and 18 ft. apart. The living is a vicarage in the gift of the Bishop of Carlisle. The Independents, Wesleyan and Primitive Methodists, and the Secession church of Scotland, have also their respective places of worship, with attached Sunday-schools. A free-school was founded here by Queen Elizabeth, and there are several charity-schools. On an eminence W. of the town are the remains of Penrith castle, a square structure surrounded by a deep fosse and rampart: it is supposed to have been built during the wars of the roses, and was destroyed in the time of the Commonwealth. Northward is an excellent enclosed race-course, on which races take place

at the beginning of October. The inhabs. are principally employed in agriculture and linen-weaving; but the town has also a considerable retail trade, and large markets. Its situation, too, on the great road to the W. of Scotland, and in the neighbourhood of the lakes, occasions a large influx of visitors. Quarter and petty sessions are held here; and a county court is established in the town, before which 384 pleas were entered in 1848. Penrith is also one of the polling-places at elections for the E. division of the co. Markets on Tuesday and Saturday: fairs April 25th and 26th, Sept. 27th, and Nov. 11th, for horses, cattle, &c.

Penrith is a town of considerable antiquity, and often suffered in the border wars. There are some interesting objects in its vicinity, among which may be specified Lowther Castle, a magnificent modern structure, the seat of the Earl of Lonsdale; with Brougham Hall, Eden Hall, Greystoke and Dacre castles, the Giant's cave, King Arthur's round table, and other British antiquities scattered over the district. (*Tattnall's Guide to the Lakes.*)

PENRYN, a par. and mun. bor., market-town, and township of England, par. of St. Gluvias, co. Cornwall, and E. div. hund. Kerrier, on the slope of a hill at the mouth of a small river running into Falmouth harbour, 1½ m. N.W. Falmouth (of which, indeed, it may almost be considered a suburb), and 78 m. S.W. Exeter. Pop. of new mun. bor. in 1841, 3,317; and of par. bor. (which includes the neighbouring bor. of Falmouth), 12,160. The town consists chiefly of one wide street, crossed by 3 or 4 others of inferior size, its principal buildings being the town-hall, with a small attached school, and a par. house. The church is a large plain building; the living is a curacy subordinate to the vicarage of St. Gluvias, the church of which is on the opposite side of the river. The Wesleyan Methodists and Baptists have, also, their respective places of worship; and there are 3 Sunday-schools. "Penryn possesses no manufacture of consequence, nor is the general trade such as to warrant the expectation that the town will increase materially in wealth or importance. The commodities imported are confined to those required for the consumption of the town, and for the use of the mines in the immediate neighbourhood. The principal and almost only export is the granite which is quarried on the moors a few miles from the town; and this trade has of late been on the decline. There appears, however, to be a considerable general trade; and the shops are very numerous." (*Parl. Bound. and Corp. Reps.*)

The bor. of Penryn was incorporated in 18 James I. Its mun. boundaries were considerably enlarged by the Mun. Reform Act; under which its corporate officers consist of a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 12 councillors. Corporation revenue in 1848-49, 402*l.* Penryn has sent 9 mems. to the H. of C. since the reign of James I., the right of election down to the Reform Act having been in freeholders, resident leaseholders for 99 years, and householders, after a residence of six months. The Boundary Act enlarged the electoral limits of the par. bor. so as to include with the old bor. the entire par. of Falmouth, with portions of the pars. of St. Gluvias and Budock. Registered electors in 1849-50, 898. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday. Fairs, May 12, July 7, and Dec. 21.

PENZA, a government town in Russia in Europe, between 50° 48' and 50° N. lat., and 49° 26' and 46° 41' E. long., having N. the government of Nijni-Novgorod, E. Simbirsk, S. Saratoff, and W. Tamboff; area, 14,350 sq. m. Pop. (1846), 1,087,200. Surface, flat or feebly undulating; soil, extremely fertile; climate, mild. Rivers numerous, but except the Sura and the Moksha, affluents of the Wolga, the others are of little importance. Produce of the corn crops estimated at from 9,000,000 to 10,000,000 chetwets, of which large quantities are exported. Considerable attention is paid to the raising of cattle, sheep, and horses, particularly the latter. Forests very extensive and valuable. There are valuable iron mines near Troitzk; and in some parts there are quarries of mill-stones. Large quantities of coarse linen and woollen stuffs are prepared in the cottages of the peasantry; and there are besides several considerable cloth manufactories; with tan-works, soap-works, glass-works, iron-foundries, &c.; in 1832, there were six manufactories of beet-root sugar. (*Schneider, La Russie*, &c. p. 681, &c.)

PENZA, the cap. of the above government, on the S.E. frontier, near the Sura, lat. 50° 11' N., long. 45° 38' E. Pop., near 11,000. Houses and government offices of wood; but the cathedral, a large building, and some of the churches, are of stone. Tanning and the manufacture of soap are extensively carried on; and it has a considerable commerce.

PENZANCE, a mun. bor., sea-port, market-town, and township of England, par. Madron, near the W. extremity of co. Cornwall, and on the N.W. side of Mount Bay, only 7 m. E. by N. Land's End, and 86 m. W. S.W. Exeter. Pop., in 1841, 9,578. The town consists chiefly of 4 streets, meeting at right angles, in the market-place: they are all badly paved, and, for the most part,

lined with mean-looking houses. A handsome town-hall, chapel of ease (subordinate to the par. of Madron), and places of worship belonging respectively to Methodists, Presbyterians, and the Society of Friends, are its chief public buildings. It has a free-school, 3 Sunday-schools, a dispensary, a natural history society, and other societies, as well as the valuable museum, belonging to the geological society of Cornwall, which has its head quarters in this town. "Besides its local advantages, arising from soil, climate, and scenery, Penzance is the market-town of an extensive district, and the port from which the produce of the neighbouring mines and fisheries is exported in considerable quantities. On the whole, the town is fast increasing both in extent and prosperity, and many good houses have been erected within the last 3 or 4 years." (*Mun. and Bound. Rep.*) Tin and copper are extensively wrought in the vicinity, and the fishery of pilchards, whiting, &c. is carried on with great activity. The gross customs' duties received at this port in 1846, amounted to 16,475*l.* The harbour is not suitable, except for the smaller class of vessels, its depth at high water springs being only 13 ft., and at neaps only 9 ft. (*Poerdy's English Channel*, p. 80.) The pier is upwards of 600 ft. in length, having a lighthouse at its extremity. On the 1st of January, 1850, 97 vessels, of the agg. burd-n of 9,490 tons, belonged to the port. The mildness of the climate, and the fertility as well as beauty of the surrounding district, render it a desirable residence for invalids, many of whom are settled here, and for whose accommodation baths, libraries, boarding-houses, &c. have been established within the last few years. The scenery of Mount's Bay is also extremely fine, and on the N.W. coast of Mount's Bay is a rock of conical form, having a base of nearly a mile in extent, and gradually diminishing to the summit, which is crowned with a chapel, its tower being 250 ft. above low-water mark.

The bor. of Penzance was incorporated in the 13 James I., when it was also made one of the coineage-towns of the duchy of Cornwall. The Municipal Reform Act considerably enlarged its limits; and, at the same time, it was divided into 2 wards, its municipal officers being a mayor, 5 other aldermen, and 18 councillors. It has a commission of the peace, under a recorder; and a county court has been established here, before which 726 pleas were entered in 1848. Corporation revenue in 1848-49, 4,064*l.*

Petty sessions for the W. division of the hund. are held here, and Penzance is one of the polling places at elections for the W. division of Cornwall. Among other distinguished citizens, Penzance has to boast of Sir Humphry Davy, born here on the 17th of December, 1778. He also received his early education, and served an apprenticeship as surgeon in the town. Markets on Thursday and Saturday, large fairs, Thursday before Advent, and Thursday after Trinity Sunday, for cattle, farming produce. (*Municipal Corp. and Boundary Reports*, &c.)

PERIGUEUX (an. *Perenna*), a town of France, dép. Dordogne, of which it is the cap., on the Isle, here crossed by a handsome bridge, 68 m. E.N.E. Bordeaux, lat. 45° 11' 8" N., long. 4° 43' 84" W. Pop., in 1846, 10,933. It consists of the city proper, and Puy-St.-Front, which, previously to 1260, formed a separate town, but was then included within the walls. The old ramparts are now laid out in public walks, which give Perigueux a prepossessing appearance from without; but in the old city the streets are narrow, and rendered gloomy, by the large, lofty, and antique buildings with which they are bordered. The quarter termed the New Town is, however, much more pleasant, and Perigueux has the advantage of many planted promenades, including the *Cours de Poursuy*, in the highest part of the town, and an elegant public garden bequeathed to the city by a wealthy citizen. The cathedral of St. Etienne is one of the most ancient churches in France, if not in Christendom. It appears to have been founded towards the end of the 4th century, and restored about the beginning of the 6th; and portions of the edifice are still supposed to date from these remote epochs. Its architecture is partly Roman and partly Gothic, and, though it have little elegance to boast of, it is altogether a bold and majestic structure. (*Guide des Voyages*, &c.) A church, formerly belonging to the Jesuits, and having a remarkable piece of carving; the prefecture, town-hall, hospital, barracks, and a handsome theatre, are the other principal buildings. Perigueux is a bishop's see, the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, and has a communal college, a museum of antiquities, a botanic garden, and a public library of 16,000 vols., with manufactures of coarse woollen, hosiery, and liquors, and a considerable trade in cattle, poultry, game, *pâtis-d-la-Perigord*, &c. Its hog-market is considered the largest in France. Here are several Roman antiquities, including the remains of a more extensive amphitheatre than that of Nîmes. The town continues to the present day in the possession of the English; and was a stronghold of the Calvinists

during the religious wars. (*Hugo, art. Dordogne; Dict. Géog., &c.*)

PERM, an extensive gov. of the Russian empire, extending from the 56th to the 63d deg. of lat., and from 52½ to 64 degs. E. long., having W. the gov. of Viatska, and E. that of Tobolsk. It is divided by the Oural chain into two unequal portions, the larger, or that on the W. side, being in Europe, and the smaller, or that on the E. side, in Asia. Neither the area nor the pop. has been exactly ascertained, but the former may be taken at about 56,000 sq. miles, and the latter at 1,600,000 or 1,700,000 individuals. More than 3-4ths of the surface is covered with dense forests. The W. side of the government is traversed by the Kama, one of the principal affluents of the Volga: the rivers on the E. side of the Oural mountains fall into the Obi. The climate is very severe, and the soil beyond the 60th deg. of lat. is hardly susceptible of cultivation. The mines in the Oural mountains furnish employment to about 100,000 work-people, and yield large quantities of gold, silver, copper, iron, salt, &c. (*See Russia.*) The corn produced in the government is insufficient for the consumption of the inhabs.

Perm, the chief town of the government, is situated on the Kama, lat. 56° 1' N., long. 56° 29' 15" E. Pop. 10,000. It is built entirely of wood, and is the seat of an archbishopric, and has several public establishments. The inhabs. are principally employed in smelting the iron, copper, and other products, of the adjacent mines.

PERNAMBUCO, a city and sea-port of Brazil, inferior only to Rio Janeiro and Bahia in commercial importance, cap. prov. of its own name, on the Atlantic, at the mouth of the Capabaribe, 210 m. N.E. Bahia; lat. 8° 47' 2" S., long. 34° 51' 44" W. Pop. estimated at 63,000. It consists of the separate towns of Olinda, Recife, Boa-Vista, and St. Antonio; the first of which is on the mainland, and the others lie S. from it on a succession of low sandy banks, separated by saltwater creeks and different arms of the river, but connected with each other by two bridges. Recife, or Pernambuco proper, the most southerly, about 4 m. S.W. Olinda, is defended by the principal forts, and comprises the dock-yard and the larger merchants' warehouses. Most of its streets are narrow; its houses are chiefly of brick, and sometimes from three to five stories in height, but usually less lofty. Several churches, the port admiral's residence, and the custom-house, are among its most conspicuous public buildings. St. Antonio, the residence of the greater number of the provincial authorities, has broad streets and large houses, the ground floors of which are appropriated to shops, warehouses, stables, &c. When Koster visited Pernambuco, the shops were without windows, the only light being admitted by the door. There existed, also, very little distinction of trades, all kinds of goods being sold by the same person; the bridges of the city were crowded with shops; neither the streets of this town or those of Boa-Vista were paved, but it is probable that since that period many important improvements may have taken place. In St. Antonio are the governor's palace, formerly the Jesuit's convent; the treasury, town-hall, prison, barracks, several convents and churches handsomely decorated within, and several good squares; and it has a gay and lively appearance. A long embankment connects this town with the main land. Boa-Vista is extensive, but irregularly laid out; it has one handsome street, and comprises the residences of many of the richer inhabitants of the city, surrounded with gardens, various churches and convents, &c. Olinda is beautifully situated on small hills, the sides of which are alternately either broken down abruptly, or covered with a most luxuriant tropical vegetation; amid which, the white cathedral, the convents and churches, the bishop's palace, and numerous villas, &c. are picturesquely effect. But Olinda is in a state of decay, having been deserted by many of its pop. for Recife and the other parts of the city.

The harbour of Pernambuco is defended from the swell of the ocean by an extensive reef (*recife*); which, according to Koster, continues along the whole coast from Maranhão, at a variable distance from the shore, and has numerous breaks, through which ships approach the land. This reef, which is said to be of coral, "is scarcely 16 ft. broad at top; it slopes off more rapidly than the Plymouth breakwater, to a great depth on the outside, and is perpendicular within to many fathoms." (*Graham in Modern Traveller*, xxx. 228.) This natural break-water forms the harbour; for, though at high water, the waves beat over it, they strike the quays and buildings of the town with diminished force. Along the sandy neck of land between Olinda and Boa-Vista, however, which is uncovered by the reef, the surf is very violent; and the harbour itself is not considered very safe. It consists of 3 parts: the Poco, capable of receiving vessels of 400 tons and upwards, entered across a bar on which there are from 17 ft. to 30 ft. water; and the Moqueiras, much better protected than the former, but on the bar of which there are but

7 ft. water at ebb tide. Vessels trading with Pernambuco ought not to draw more than from 10 ft. to 13 ft. water. (*Brown's American Coast Pilot*, 519.) The harbour is defended by several strong military works, the principal being the stone forts of Do Buraco, and Do Brum; and has at its entrance a lighthouse with a revolving light.

The exports consist principally of cotton to the extent of from 20,000 to 35,000 bags a year; sugar to the extent of from 50,000 to 60,000 tons; and hides and dyewoods. At an average, the value of the exports may amount to from 1,200,000*l.* to 1,400,000*l.* a year. In 1850, 175 vessels cleared at Pernambuco for foreign ports, of which 42 were for England. The value of the imports from England, in the course of that year, was estimated at about 600,000*l.*, consisting principally of cotton and linen manufactures, hardware and cutlery, apparel and slates, earthenware, &c.

PERNAU, a fortified sea-port town of Russia, gov. Livonia, at the confluence of the Pernau with the N. angle of the Gulf of Riga, lat. 59° 21' 30" N., long. 24° 29' 15" E. Pop. 9,000. It comprises an old town, a new town, and two suburbs; and has three churches, and a Latin school. There is a bar at the mouth of the river, which can only be crossed by the smaller class of vessels; those of larger burden having to load and unload in the roads, where the anchorage is not very good. It has a considerable export trade, especially in corn, hemp and flax, linseed, &c.; the aggregate value of the exports amounting to about 2,500,000 or 3,000,000 *roubles*.

PERONNE, a fortified town of France, dép. Somme, cap. arrond., on the Somme, 29 m. E. by N. Amiens. Pop. in 1846, 3,860. It has a handsome town hall, a Gothic par. church, in which one of the Merovingian kings is interred; but the edifice possessing the greatest interest is its old castle, in a tower of which Charles the Simple was confined by a count of Vermandois, and subsequently Louis XI. by Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy. The latter circumstance forms the basis of one of the finest episodes in Scott's novel of *Queenie Darnley*.

Peronne has been frequently besieged by the Spaniards, but unsuccessfully; and it had not been taken till it was stormed by the British about a week after the battle of Waterloo. At the castle of Appincourt, near Peronne, the famous "league" was concluded, in 1576, between Henry III. and the Duke de Guise. (*Hugo, art. Somme; Guide du Voyageur.*)

PERIGNAN, a strongly fortified town of France, dép. Pyrénées-Orientales, of which it is the cap., on the Tet, where it is joined by the Basse, 80 m. S.W. Montpellier; lat. 43° 49' 30" N., long. 3° 49' 9" E. Pop., in 1846, 18,264. It is built partly on a declivity, and partly in the plain beneath; and is separated by the Basse from *les Blanquerries*, or the new town, and by the Tet from a suburb. Each river is crossed by a bridge, that across the Tet consisting of seven arches. The fortifications of Perignan have been improved considerably since 1815; and it is now one of the best fortified towns of France. It is surrounded with walls of brick and stone, flanked by several bastions, and encircled by ditches, beyond which are numerous outworks. It is further defended by a citadel, with a double line of ramparts, besides outworks; within which are the barracks and the castle, formerly the residence successively of the counts of Roussillon, and of the kings of Aragon and Majorca. The town is not well built, though improving. There are a few good streets and squares, and some pleasant public promenades; but the public thoroughfares generally are fatiguing to pedestrians, from being paved with small round stones. The cathedral is a handsome Gothic edifice, a masterpiece of the 15th century, 255 ft. in length by 64 ft. in breadth, and remarkable for the beauty and boldness of its nave and vault; which last is sustained without the aid of any columns rising from the area of the building. The old church of St. John, an edifice of the 11th century, and several other churches; the Castillet, a defensive work of uncertain date, but similar to structures erected by the Moors in Spain; the town-hall, mint, arsenal (formerly a large convent), theatre, hall of justice, and prison, are the other chief public buildings. Perignan is a bishop's see, the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, and of boards of artillery, engineers, and customs. It has a communal college, a museum, a botanic garden, and a library of 18,000 vols., with manufactures of woollen stuffs, lace, corks, soap, and playing cards, and is an extensive entrepôt for the wines, brandies, liqueurs, wool, silk, oil, and other products of the S. of France. (*Hugo, art. Pyrénées-Orient.; Guide du Voyageur.*)

PERSEPOLIS (the *Istakhar* of the anc. Persians), a celebrated city of antiquity, and during a considerable period the cap. of Persia, and residence of its monarchs, prov. Farsistan, in a fine plain at the foot of a mountain, against which it abuts, near the Araxes, or *Bundamir*, 20 m. N.E. Shiraz; lat. 29° 59' 30" N., long. 52° 30' E. The

city appears to have covered a large surface; bricks, fragments of walls, and rubbish being found widely scattered; but the only extant ruins of any interest or importance are those of a vast building, of rather series of buildings, supposed to have been the palace of Darius, burned by Alexander the Great.

It would be impossible, without the aid of plates, to give any intelligible description of these vast ruins. We may, however, state, that they occupy the summit of a platform about 1,430 ft. in length, 804 ft. in width on the S., and 926 ft. on the N. side, and about 80 ft. in height, formed by levelling the summit of a marble rock. This platform is ascended by easy flights of steps, cut into the rock on its W. side, and, when entire, consisted of 3 fronts or terraces, the mountain forming its E. side.

The ruins consist of the remains of vast portals or gateways (one of which is formed of two enormous sphinxes), pillars, walls, on which, but especially on the sides of the staircases, figures are cut in *baso-relievo*, which are highly interesting as illustrating the costume and armour of the ancient Persians. Some of the remaining columns are 60 ft. in height, and though their capitals and form be very different from what we have been accustomed to consider classical, they are extremely beautiful, and many of the sculptures are executed with infinite spirit. Numerous tombs have been cut into the mountain, on which, as already stated, the palace abuts. (*Porter's Travels*, i. 582-583; *Rich's Babylon and Persopolis*; *Niebuhr, Voyage en Arabie*, li. 98-131; *Mod. Trav.*, &c.)

Perhaps, however, the most curious portion of the ruins of this vast palace consists of the inscriptions in arrow-headed or cuneiform characters, similar to those on the bricks of Babylon, found in great profusion on most parts of the walls. Very discordant opinions have been entertained with respect to the nature and value of these characters; but Dr. Grotefend, who has bestowed the greatest pains on the subject, has shown that the cuneiform marks are real *alphabetical* letters; that every inscription is treble (the first being in Zend, and the others in different Persian dialects); that the inscriptions are to be read from *left to right*; and that all of them belong to the period between Cyrus and Alexander. Heeren considers that these characters are the *Ἀρχαία γράμματα* mentioned by Herodotus (iv. 87.); but, in point of fact, notwithstanding the investigations of Grotefend, we are still far from being well informed as to the true meaning of these inscriptions.

The history of Persopolis is, for the most part, hidden in obscurity; but it seems to be an established fact that this city is identical with the *Istakhar* of Persian historians, the foundation of which is ascribed to Cyrus the Great, the *Jemshedd* of Oriental writers (whence the modern name of the ruins, *Takht-Jemshedd*). Herodotus, Ctesias, and the older Greek writers do not mention it, and it may not then have been a permanent royal residence. The inscriptions, however (if they have been correctly interpreted), show that it must, occasionally at least, have been visited by Darius, and the several monarchs called Xerxes. It is, at all events, certain that this city was the residence of the unfortunate Darius Codomannus, who, with his court, fled from it after his defeat at Arbela or Guagamela (anno 331 B. C.) by Alexander the Great. The conqueror soon after took the city, and gave it up to military execution. Alexander himself set the palace on fire, under circumstances which, if we may believe Diodorus, have been accurately as well as admirably depicted in Dryden's noble Ode. But Arrian, a far less questionable authority, has given a very different account of the matter. He states that Alexander destroyed this palace contrary to the advice of Parmenio, not in a drunken frolic, but in cold blood, and on principle, in retaliation of the destruction of the Greek temples by the Persians. (*Arrian*, lib. iii. cap. 18.) From the few notices that now exist, it appears that *Istakhar* was an important city under the Sassanian dynasty. In the 7th century it was taken by the Mohammedans, who, having founded Shiraz, made it the capital of Persia; and Persopolis, long on the decline, rapidly sunk to a state of total decay. It may be right to mention that Persopolis has been regarded by some writers as identical with Pasargade, and it may be fairly inferred, from the statement of Arrian (lib. iii. cap. 18.), that the palace destroyed by Alexander belonged to the latter; and though the question as to their identity be not free from difficulty, we are, on the whole, inclined to prefer this conclusion to the contrary theories of later writers.

PERSERIN, a considerable town of Turkey in Europe, pach. Albania, sanjak Scutari, near the Drin, at the foot of a mountain, 72 m. N.E. Scutari. Pop., according to the *Diet. Géog.*, 16,000; but, in Horschsmann's *Scetia*, it is stated at only 1,000. Its inhab. are principally Armuts, but partly, also, Mohammedans, and partly Christians. It is the residence of a Greek Bishop, and of a military governor, who occupies a fort of no great import-

PERSIA.

ance. Albania is said to be principally supplied with fire-arms from its factories.

PERSHORE, a market town of England, co. Worcester, hund. its own name, on the W. bank of the navigable river Avon, crossed here by a stone bridge, 7 m. S.E. Worcester. Pop. of its two par. (exclusive of the out-townships), in 1841, 2,812. The town, which consists of one principal street, nearly 1 m. in length, is well built, and paved, having many respectable and a few handsome houses. The church of Holy-cross, formerly attached to a Benedictine monastery, of which there are still some remains, is a large cruciform structure, with a lofty square tower. That of St. Andrew is small and mean looking; both livings are in the patronage of the dean and chapter of Westminster. The Wesleyan Methodists and Baptists have their respective places of worship; and there are three Sunday-schools and a national school. Some of the inhabs. are employed in the manufacture of stockings; but the town depends principally on its retail trade for the supply of the neighbouring gentry. The petty sessions for the hund. are held here, and Pershore is the chief place of a poor-law union, comprising 40 par.; the expense of maintaining its own poor having been 1,002*l.* in 1847. It is also one of the polling-places at elections for the E. div. of the co. Markets on Tuesday; fairs, Easter Tuesday, June 26., and last Tuesday in October.

PERSIA, a celebrated and very extensive country of central Asia, between the 39th and 56th deg. N. lat., and the 44th and 62d deg. of E. long. The political boundaries of the country have varied at different times with the character or exploits of its monarchs; sometimes embracing Armenia and Georgia on the W., Kharezm and Bokhara on the N., and Afghanistan on the E.; and sometimes being reduced to less than its natural limits. The latter on the S. are the Indian Ocean and the Persian Gulph; on the S.W. and W. the Tigris; on the N. the Aras, the Caspian Sea, and an indefinite line in the desert, that separates Persian Khorasan from the territories of Kharezm or Khiva, stretching from the Attrick, which falls into the Caspian, to about the 56th deg. of N. lat. and the 61st deg. of E. long.; whence a wavy and undefined line, drawn southward, separates the Persian territories on the E. from those of Cabul and Afghanistan. At present, however, the actual limits of Persia are much more circumscribed. The extensive province of Beloochistan, along the Indian Ocean, is quite independent. (*See* *BELOOCHISTAN*.) The Turkish territories embrace a large portion of country to the E. of the Tigris; and the country of Talash, to the S. of the Aras, belongs to the Russians. But still, even with these deductions, its area probably exceeds 450,000 sq. m.; though, from the vast extent of its deserts, the business of the government, and the want of industry, the pop. does not probably exceed 8 or 10 millions.

Name.—The most ancient name of this extensive region is that of *Elam* (Genesis, x. 22.). The name of *Persia*, by which it was afterwards known in Europe, appears to have been derived from that of the prov. of *Pars*, or *Phars*, which being changed by the Greeks to *persis*, was applied by them to the whole country. This designation has not, however, been adopted in the East; the Persians, both in ancient and modern times, having styled their country *Iran*. The countries occasionally subject to the Persian monarchs beyond the Gihon, or Oxus, have usually been called *Aniran*, or *Touran*, that is beyond Iran. (*Ancient Universal History*, v. 49., 8vo. ed.)

Face of the Country.—Persia may be considered as an elevated plateau, diversified by many clusters of hills, chains of rocky mountains, extensive plains, and barren deserts, with two extensive declivities, or lower tracts—one on the S. shore of the Persian Gulf, and the other on the S. shore of the Shat-el-Arab, and the other along the S. shore of the Caspian. The more southerly portion of the former consists of a succession of sandy or gravelly plains, where water is so scanty that vegetation is only seen in patches where a well or a rivulet enables the inhabs. to irrigate some portions of the soil. This region is called by the natives *Dushtistan* and *Germair*, that is, the hot country; and, according to Morier, "dreariness, solitude, and heat" are its principal characteristics; but in the province of Kustistan, to the E. of the Shat-el-Arab, this low tract is comparatively well watered by numerous streams, and its upper portion is naturally very productive. The low country along the banks of the Caspian is extremely well watered, and is covered with forests and verdure: it unites on the E. with the desert, which stretches from the E. shore of that sea to the Tartarian steppes.

The plateau, or elevated space which lies between these two lower slopes, and which rests, as it were, on two great ranges of mountains, may rise to an elevation of from 3,500 to 8,000 ft. above the sea, and the high chain of mountains rear themselves to various altitudes, seldom, however, exceeding 7,000 or 8,000 ft. above the sea, and including sometimes between their ranges valleys of va-

rious dimensions, and sometimes rather appearing as islands in the extensive plain.

The most striking features of Persia are its chains of rocky mountains; its long arid valleys without rivers; and, above all, its vast salt or sandy deserts.

Mountains.—There are two great chains of mountains, which, while they support the plateau of Persia on the N. and S., seem to be the stocks from whence all the minor ranges proceed. The most northerly of these, striking off from the Caucasus, crosses the Kur, to the W. of the plains of Moghan, and from Ardebil runs parallel with the southern shore of the Caspian Sea to Asterabad. It thence passes in an E. direction to Mashhad, and stretching S. of Balkh to the Hindoo Kooch, is lost in the range of the Himalaya, and that stupendous central knot of mountains where the largest rivers of Asia take their rise.

This immense chain, in its extent of more than 30 degs. long., sends forth every where a number of branches, which in some places sink into the plains or deserts on the E. of Persia, and sometimes connect themselves with other elevations. Of these, the Sahund Mountains, striking off from the lake Urmeeh in a N. E. direction, spread themselves over Aserbaïjan, and connect more or less with the spurs of the Caucasus that extend a great aggregation of mountains in which the Euphrates, Tigris, Zab, and other large rivers, have their sources, and whence they derive their supplies. The range of the Taurus may be considered as a great branch from this central knot, which spreading out in all directions, covers the pachalics of Diarbekir, Erzeroum, Bayazid, Van, and Koordistan, with piles of immense mountains. These rise to a great height between the lakes Van and Urmeeh, particularly to the W. of the latter, where the Peaks of Jovar are supposed to attain the height of 15,000 or 16,000 ft. above the sea. From this mass a chain of mountains, varying in height and breadth, runs S. E. through Koordistan, bounding at a distance the valley of the Tigris, forming the high lands of Louriستان and the country of the Buchiaries, and giving birth to the rivers Kerah, Karoon, Absool, &c. After passing to the S. of Shiraz, it trends still more to the E., and following at uncertain distances the line of the Persian Gulph and Indian Ocean, and occasionally almost disappearing, joins the ranges of Beloochistan and Mekran, and finally sinks into the deserts of Sind or is lost in the high peaks which diverge from the mountains of Afghanistan.

From these two ranges may probably be traced every ridge or knot of mountains that cover Persia as with a network of rocky lines; though many even of those which attain a great degree of altitude appear almost insulated. Among the loftiest peaks may be mentioned that of Demawend, 50 m. N. E. of Tehran, from 12,000 to 13,000 ft. above the sea; Elwund, near Hamadan, nearly as high; Sahund, near Maragha; the Koh-i-Zerd, near Isfahan, &c., which have not been measured. These mountains include among them an intricate system of valleys and plains, differing in size and productiveness, according to their nature and climate. Wherever water abounds they are fertile, but moisture is the boon of which nature is least liberal in Persia: except in some happy regions, even streamlets are rare, and of its few rivers scarcely any are navigable beyond a short distance from their mouths.

Rivers.—Though the Tigris, being assigned as one of the natural boundaries of Persia, can scarcely be set down as a Persian river, there are many large streams which descend from the Persian mountains to feed it. Of these the principal are the Karoon, supposed by D'Arville to be the *Choaspes* or *Euxinus* of Herodotus, the Uial of sacred writ; but Kinneir supposes that the Kerah, or Karasid, represents the *Choaspes*; and that the greater and lesser Zab, which have their sources in the chain of Zagros and the mountainous districts of Koordistan, are the ancient *Cepus* and *Zabelus*. On the N. the Arras, or Araxes of classical writers, though a boundary line of the present Persia, derives much of its waters from Persian Koordistan; and the salt lake of Urmeeh receives from the same hills, and from the Sahund mountains, a number of streams. The provs. bordering the Caspian are as remarkable for their moisture as the rest of the country is for its aridity; but their rivers are chiefly torrents, sometimes full and foaming, at other times nearly dry. The Kizilsoein, which rises in Ardelan, and passing by Miana falls into the Caspian in the prov. of Ghilan; the Heraux, which flows through Amol; and the Tejen, which passes by Saree, both in Mazanderan, are the largest. The Attruck and Googhan, both considerable streams, falling into the S. E. corner of the Caspian, are fed from the N. face of the Elburz of Asterabad. It is a singular fact, as Sir J. Malcolm remarks, that from the mouths of the Indus to those of the Karoon and Euphrates, there is not found one river navigable more than a few miles from the ocean; and, in fact, the rivers that fall into the Persian Gulph and the Indian Ocean, on the shores of Laristan and Kerman, are mere torrents, almost dry during the long period of the summer and autumn heats.

Lakes.—In a country so arid there can be but few sheets of standing water, and those which do exist are chiefly salt. Of these the lake Urmeeh or Shakes, in Aserbaïjan, near the frontiers of Turkey, 95 m. W. Tabreez, is the most remarkable, both for size and intensity of saltness. According to Kinneir, it may be about 300 m. in circumference, and it has several islands. So saturated is the water with the salt it holds in solution, that immense quantities are deposited, assuming the appearance of a pavement under the shallow water near the brink, and its shores are covered with saline efflorescence. Its waters, like those of the sea, appear to be dark blue, streaked with green, and are pellucid in the highest degree. The lake of Bahagan, near Shiraz, is another of these sheets of salt water, but on a smaller scale; as is the lake Zurrab, in Selistan. Excepting small pools among the mountains, which are the well-heads of streams, there are no lakes of any considerable size; but on the banks of the Caspian Sea, the beating of the surf, by damming up the mouths of streams, has given birth to some extensive lagoons.

Deserts.—Those which are the most striking of its physical features, Persia shares with a large portion of Central Asia and Africa: they consist of salt deserts, called by the natives *Kum*, and of waterless caldes, *Sabrs*. The great *Desert Kaezer*, or salt sea, as it is called, is of prodigious dimensions, and may be said to be Persia what the great desert of Sahara is to Africa. It commences on the N. at the foot of the Elburz mountains, in about the 36th deg. N. lat.; and, uniting with the desert of Kerman, extends S. to about the 30th deg.: on the other hand, it extends from about the 51st to the 60th deg. of long., occupying all the central and eastern portion of the country. It has a few oases, or cultivated spots; but they do not amount to 5 percent. of its extent. The cultivated portions of the country lie round the margin, as it were, of this vast desert plateau, principally to the N. W., W., and S. W., but partly, also, as already seen, to the N., along the Caspian. S. of the desert is Beloochistan, and E. Afghanistan.

The nature of this desert varies in different places. In some the surface is dry, and even produces a few saluginous plants; in others, it is covered with a crackling crust of earth, white with saline efflorescence. A considerable portion is marshy; and during winter the melting of the snows increases the torrens, causing an accumulation of water in its lower parts, which, being evaporated in the hot months, leaves behind a saline incrustation in cakes upon a bed of mud. In extensive tracts sand predominates, either in the shape of level plains or wave-like hillocks, easily drifted by the wind, and sometimes so light and impalpable as to be carried to a vast distance by tempests. In some places the plain surface is broken by ridges of bare black rocks. Nothing can be more dreary than these dismal wastes. When the traveller has traversed some distance into them, the boundless expanse around, black with utter barrenness, and howling with bitter salt, glistening and baking in the rays of a fervid sun, only broken here and there by masses of dark rock, distorted by the powerful refraction into a thousand wild and varying forms, impress him with a sense of desolation that cannot be described.

Forests and Appearance of the Country.—Although the greater part of Persia is bare of vegetation, there are a few tracts exempted from this sterility. Among these are the provinces of Ghilan, Mazanderan, and Asterabad, bordering the Caspian Sea. The strip of low land constituting these provinces, with the N. face of the lofty mountains by which it is overhung, is covered with dense forests of oak, elm, beech, sycamore, and all sorts of fruit trees, amongst which the vine grows with the greatest luxuriance. The swamps and back waters are bordered with alders of magnificent size, and amongst the underwood is found abundance of box, of a magnitude unknown in Europe. In the S. the chain of Mount Zagros, including Persian Koordistan, Louriستان, and the Buchiaries mountains, is partially covered, and in many places densely, with forests of oak, which, however, does not attain any great size; and parts of Kuzistan are overrun with low jungle, the haunt of wild beasts. The district of Behaban is rich in wood; and Kinneir praises highly the beauty of the finely-wooded vale of Ram-Hormus in Upper Kuzistan. But except in those districts, which bear but a small proportion even to the inhabited portions of the country, its appearance is dreary in the extreme, and lacks almost every thing that gives interest and beauty to European landscapes. It has no green plains or grassy slopes, no parks nor inclosures, no hedges nor woods, no magnificent seats nor comfortable-looking cottages, and, excepting in spring, even the portions cultivated round the villages can hardly be distinguished from the brown, arid expanse, that every where meets and fatigues the eye of the traveller. And if the reader will further figure to himself towns and villages, consisting mostly of mud houses, partly in a state of decay, and many of them wholly deserted; roads, if so we may call wretched paths,

wholly impracticable for carriages, and unsafe even for horsemen; property insecure, and tyranny and rapine every where lords of the ascendant, he will be able to form a pretty accurate notion of the state of this celebrated country. (*Fraser's Persia; Edinburgh Cabinet Library*, p. 29; *Kinncir's Persia, passim*, &c.)

Soil.—Lime in various shapes abounds every where, and being mingled in the glens and valleys with the remains of decayed vegetables and other detritus, forms a loamy soil of inexhaustible fertility. Indurated clay is often found to mingle with the calcareous matter. Artificial irrigation is here, almost every where, essential to the raising of crops. It is, in fact, the great business of the Persian agriculturist: and is well understood, having been practised from the remotest antiquity. Wherever, indeed, it is neglected, the land is, for the most part, barren and unproductive.

Climate.—This is found to vary to almost the greatest possible extent in different provinces; and the statement of the Younger Cyrus, that one extremity of his father's dominions stretched into those climates that were uninhabitable through heat, and the other into those uninhabitable through cold, is nearer the truth than might be supposed. The summer heats in the S. provs. are almost insupportable; while the cold of winter in those of the N. rivals that of Canada or Russia. In summer, however, even in the N., the heat is so great that all who can leave the towns and villages of plains in the months of June, July, August, and September, resort to temporary lodgings or tents in the mountains. In the low provs. on the Caspian, the heat, though great in summer, is not so excessive as in the S., partly perhaps from the evaporation that takes place, as well as from the breezes from the sea: but the climate is here extremely unhealthy, and in the end of autumn putrid and intermittent fevers prevail to a great degree.

Minerals.—The mineral riches of Persia are almost wholly unexplored. Iron, copper, and lead are, however, known to abound in all the great mountain ranges. The first is not largely produced, and much of the required supply is imported from Russia. Copper has been worked in several places, particularly in Khorasan and Aserbajan; but the distracted state of the country has hitherto prevented much progress being made in such undertakings. Of late, however, an enterprising native, whose mind has been enlarged and his knowledge improved by a residence in England, has commenced working mines in Kadradun upon favourable appearances of success; and, from the connections he has formed, he may perhaps escape the extortions which others of his countrymen would probably be exposed. The mines of Fars and Kerman supply the greater part of the demand for lead, though some is also brought from India. Antimony is found, but is little used. Gold and silver are said to exist, but there are no mines of either worth notice. The turquoise is almost the only gem found in Persia, to which it is peculiar, the mines near Nishapur yielding this precious stone in an abundance and of a beauty unknown in any other part of the world. It is found disseminated in veins, nodules, and in the regular shape, in beds of porphyritic conglomerates or limestone deeply tinged with iron, and often veined with micaceous iron ore. Garnets are also found in various parts, especially near Hamadan, of great size and beauty. Rock salt is very abundant all over the country; and the mines of Khameer furnish abundant supplies of sulphur, which is also found in other places. Coal has been discovered in Aserbajan, and naphtha is abundant, cheap, and useful.

Vegetable and Animal Productions.—As Persia embraces a variety of climates, its vegetable productions necessarily vary in different parts. The climate of many of the northern provinces resembles that of Europe, so that most European fruits and vegetables are found there in great perfection and abundance, with several belonging to more southern latitudes. The forests of European trees, that cover the Caspian provs., and the woods that more thinly cover the southern mountains of Louriéan and the Buchtiarees, have already been noticed; and to these may be added the stately chinár, or *Platanus orientalis*, the Lombardy poplar, willow, jujube tree, and, in the warmer parts, the cypress and pistachio. The plains are covered with a stunted and prickly herbage, among which the camel-thorn, wild liquorice, wild rue, and many aromatic plants, are conspicuous. Among the rest, the tall stalk of the gum-ammoniac rears itself on most of the gravelly plains of Irak and Khorasan, dropping its bitter tears upon the waste. The *asafoetida* plant abounds in parts of Khorasan. The orchards of Persia are rich in all the fruits of Europe: cotton, tobacco, the opium poppy, figs, pines, and the mulberry, abound in every where. The Palma Christi (castor-oil plant) is reared for lamp-oil in the warm districts, and the manna-bearing tamarisk is found in many low moist spots.

Among the animals are found most species common to Europe, with the addition of the camel, wild ass, wild sheep (or Argali), lions, tigers (rarely), leopards, hunt-

ing leopards, tiger-cats, lynxes, and hyenas. There are many celebrated breeds of horses, of which those of the Toorkman plains and the Chaab district are held in highest repute. They have been a good deal improved by crossing with Arab horses, and though not handsome, at least in the estimation of Englishmen, have great strength, speed, and the most extraordinary power of enduring fatigue. The Persians are extremely fond of, and take great care of their horses. They are clothed with the greatest attention, according to the season of the year; and in warm weather are put into the stable during day, and taken out at night. Next to camels and dromedaries, mules are in greatest repute as beasts of burden, and form the bulk of the caravans employed in transporting goods from one part of the country to another. There is a great variety of birds, and the Caspian is well supplied with fish.

Persia is not, in general, much infested by reptiles or insects; but the black scorpion and large centipedes are met with in various parts, and the plains in some places swarm in summer with immense Phalangid and enormous spiders, the bite of which is venomous. The stories of the poisonous bug of Miana are believed to be grossly exaggerated; but no words can exaggerate the swarms of gad-flies and other stinging insects which set upon the traveller who enters the jungles of Mazunderan in summer, nor the clouds of mosquitoes which are bred in its swamps and other low marshy localities. Hosts of locusts, too, occasionally visit the land, destroying every green thing, and themselves supplying food to myriads of wild fowl.

Tenures of Land, and Agriculture.—Property in land is of a fourfold description: 1st, *Khalissa*, or crown lands; which, since the confiscations of Nadir Shah, have become very extensive; 2d, those which belong to private individuals; 3d, those granted to charitable or religious institutions; 4th, those granted by the king for military service, or in payment of salaries or annuities. Persons may become proprietors of land by inheritance, by purchase, by gift from the crown, or by reclaiming it from waste by producing the means of irrigation. In any of these cases, except the third, the proprietor's right (he not being the occupant) amounts to the privilege of exacting from the cultivator a tenth part of the produce. In the third case—that of being an assignee of crown lands—he may exact 3-10ths, which include all government dues, and what he can get from the farmers. If the assignment be on the estate of another, he can only demand 2-10ths. If the proprietor be the occupier of his own land, he makes what bargain he pleases with his cultivators; but the regulations for the protection of the husbandman have little or no practical influence. Almost the whole expense of government has to be defrayed by taxes on the land, the amount of which is perpetually varying, not only with the necessities of the government, but with the character and dispositions of the governors of the different provinces. The state of the country is such that "the cultivator rarely expects to reap the fruit of his labours. His lands and houses are liable to be plundered by the retainers of every petty chief; and he and his family may, in an instant, be deprived of all their little capital, and reduced to beggary and want." (*Kinncir*, 27.) Under such circumstances, agriculture must necessarily be in the most depressed possible state. No improvement is ever dreamed of; only the most easily worked portions of the soil are cultivated, and the instruments of husbandry are of the rudest and most primitive construction. Such, however, is the fertility of the land, that, despite the want of skill and attention on the part of the husbandman, wherever the means of irrigation can be commanded, from 10 to 30 returns of the seed are said (though we attach little weight to such statements) to be usually reaped, and in many places the produce reaches fifty and sixty fold. The grains chiefly cultivated are wheat, barley, maize, and rice; the latter being most abundant in the low and well watered provs. of Mazunderan and Ghilan. Oats are very little, if at all, raised. In the greater number of provs. there are two sorts of cultivation, wet and dry, or by means of irrigation and without this assistance. In the former, which is also by far the most extensive, the ground is roughly turned up by a wooden plough, sometimes slightly shod with iron, and drawn generally by two oxen; and the seed being harrowed in, the fields of each individual are laid under water as frequently as may be required, or as he has a right to; for the water of each stream is portioned out by *time* into shares, which are bought and sold as property. The water is derived either from natural rivulets or from under-ground canals, constructed with great skill, and carried to a great distance. These are the property of those who construct them, the natural streams belong to the sovereign, or to those who have purchased them, or on whom they may have been bestowed. All disputes about irrigation, like those on other subjects, are settled by the *kethoda* (magistrate) or elders of the village. The dry cultivation is conducted, as to tillage, in nearly

the same way as the other, but the grain is left to be nourished by rain only; so that, in this arid country, it must be confined to particular spots which experience or observation have pointed out as fit for it. Manure is very rarely applied to corn-land. Near cities, the melon, cucumber, and vegetable gardens are enriched with manure from the soil of the caravanserais, &c.; and in the neighbourhood of Isfahan pigeon dung is so highly valued in the culture of the fine melons, for which that district is celebrated, that pigeon-houses are built for the purpose of collecting this manure, which sells at an enormous price; but these are almost the only instances in which the land is artificially assisted. The use of lime as a manure is unknown in this, as in other Asiatic countries; and fallows appear to be the only means resorted to for the improvement of the land.

Sheep, particularly the large-tailed variety, are every where very abundant. Their flesh is almost the only meat used as food, exclusive of poultry and game; beef not being at all esteemed, nor of good quality. Sheep's wool is universally used for clothing, and sheep skins with the wool on, for jackets and cloaks. The property of the wandering tribes of Persia consists of sheep, with cattle, horses, camels, asses, &c., in large flocks and herds. Wool might become a very valuable article of export. In Kerman they have a breed of goats which yield a down, not much inferior to the Cashmere wool, which might be greatly increased all over the mountainous parts of the country.

Manufactures are chiefly confined to articles of home consumption. Till lately almost all the clothing of the poorer classes, both cotton and woollen, was home-made; but for some years past most of the coarse chintzes and printed cottons in use have been supplied from England and Russia by way of India, Turkey, and the Caspian. Still a great deal of cotton cloth is made, both plain and printed, some of which goes to Russia and Turkey. In silk, also, a good deal is done, the fabrics resembling our gros-de-naples, taffetas, satins, veivets, brocades, and handkerchiefs, &c., produced at Cashan, Yazd, Mushed, Astrabad, Isfahan, and many other places, are not only celebrated, but in request for export to Russia and Turkey, as well as for home consumption. Besides these, shawls are manufactured at Kerman, of the wool of that country, in imitation of those of Cashmere, and which, though deficient in softness and fineness, are still a handsome fabric, and in great request both for home use and exportation. Carpets and felts for sitting on are also made in various parts, the best of the former being produced at Herat, and in the central districts of Irak, and generally by the wandering tribes. The best are made in Khorasan; but they are chiefly for use in the country, few being exported. There are also manufactures of arms, swords, daggers, guns, and of cutlery, as scissors and knives. The former are chiefly made at Shiraz and Mushed; the guns of Kermanshah, and its vicinity, are highly prized, and the cutlery of Isfahan and Shiraz has obtained some celebrity in Persia; but the knives and scissors of Birminghams are so far superior in cheapness and quality, that there is a great demand for these wares, even in China, and all superior pottery, is imported; but a little coarse glass is manufactured in the country. There is also a manufactory of leather and saddlery at Hamadan.

Commerce.—In a country where there are no made roads, navigable rivers, or canals, and scarcely any exports or shipping, and where there is but little security of property, it might be inferred that there can be no commerce. Yet, with all these disadvantages, Persia has a good deal of trade, and there is no inconsiderable degree of commercial spirit among its inhabitants. The means of land-carriage, as over most of the E., is by caravans of camels, mules, and small horses, called Yaboo, for there is not a wheel carriage in the country. The two latter are particularly suited to the stony roads and high mountain passes which occur in almost every day's journey; and in this way is brought the whole merchandise from Bokhara, Caubul, much of that from India, and from all the nearer countries, to the various marts; the returns being transported in like manner. The only sea-ports are Bushire, Benderabbe, or Gombroon, Congoon, and some still smaller places on the Persian Gulph; and Busellée, Balfroosh, and Ateharah, upon the Caspian. Of these Bushire, on the Gulph, and Balfroosh and Busellée on the Caspian, are the most considerable, the former being the mart of all the trade with India, and the two latter of that with Russia; and from these the communication with the interior is kept up by caravans, as already mentioned.

The principal trade of Persia is with India, Turkey, Russia, Bokhara, and Afghanistan, and of late direct with England. From the first the imports are chiefly indigo, chintzes, muslins, and calicoes, gold and silver brocades, precious stones, china, and earthenware. Sugar and sugar-candy, cashmere shawls, iron, lead, copper. From Turkey, European goods from the Le-

vant, and specie. From Russia, iron, broadcloth, coarse and fine printed calicoes, gold lace and metal buttons. Trunks of all sizes; tea, coarse cutlery, leather, glassware, tea-urns, and copper in sheets, quicksilver, furs, paper, in great quantity; cochineal, &c. &c. From Bokhara black lambkins, raw hides, dried prunes, rubies, and other gems; shawls, china ware, camlets; Indian and Russian produce by that route. From England broad cloth, and narrow woollens of all sorts; cotton manufactures, imitation shawls, jewellery, arms, cutlery, watches, spectacles, earthen and glass-ware, iron, tin, copper, &c. &c. From Arabia coffee, pearls, horses, &c.

The exports are chiefly, to England, silk, gall-nuts, a little wool, wadder, yellow berries, occasionally a few pearls and precious stones, and specie to be converted into bills at Constantinople. To India, specie, dried fruits, tobacco, wine, drugs, dates, sulphur, torquosels, Kerman shawls, rose-water, swords, horses, greyhounds, raw silk; copper (from Turkey), saffron, &c. To Turkey, grain, raw silk, tobacco and pipe-sticks, cotton, lamb and fox skins, carpets, silk manufactures, cotton do., salt, sheep; besides foreign articles in transit from India and Bokhara. To Bagdad much the same as to Turkey; to the Uzbeks and Turkmen, Kerman shawls, and woollens; silk stuffs, gold embroidery; copper ware from Cashan. Cotton goods, arms, Hamadan leather shoes, and clothes, torquosels; sugar, raw and refined, opium, and some Indian goods; to Arabia, dates, dried fruit, rose-water, cloaks, &c.

To Russia, raw silk and cotton, ice, grain, timber, tobacco, raw hides, lamb-skins, fish, gall-nuts, naphtha, drugs, torquosels, Kerman shawls, silk and cotton goods, brocades, besides foreign produce, as Cashmere shawls, pearls, &c.

Where no official records are preserved, where every art is put in practice to disguise the true amount of imports and exports, and where, also, the existing state of things is always changing from external or internal causes, it is impossible to arrive at a just estimate of the value of commerce. In 1830 the export trade of Persia was estimated by Mr. Fraser at about 1,225,000*l.* a year. Since then the imports have undoubtedly increased, in spite of great distress in the country from three years of plague and famine; for, in 1835, from the best materials that can be collected on the subject, they appear to have nearly amounted to 34 millions sterling, and the imports of 1835 to Trebizond, of European produce, the greater part of which finds its way to Persia, exceeded a million sterling; and there is every reason to expect a gradual increase from all quarters, though doubtless liable to occasional fluctuation.

Shipping.—Scarcely any vessels belong to Persian owners. The trade between India and the Gulph is carried on in bottoms belonging to Indian, Arab, or Armenian merchants resident at the sea-ports; and that of the Caspian, in vessels from Astrakhan. The Russian government discouraging any vessel in that trade which is not owned by one of their own subjects, the Persian or Armenian merchants who have embarked in it generally become subjects of Russia, which leads to their ultimate residence in Astrakhan. There are, however, some vessels, of from 50 to 150 tons, built at Busellée.

Money.—The coins chiefly current in Persia are bajeles, or Persian ducats; sahebkerans, commonly called koronees, a silver coin, nine of which go to the bajelee; and copper coins, called pool-e-ah, or black money. There are also several pieces of one or more abbeases or shahees, the abbease or shahee being the fourth or fifth part of a koronee; there are about four pool-e-ahs in an abbease. The old toman of gold, and real or rupee of silver, are now seldom seen, although used at times in calculation; the toman being equal to 10 koronees, or 8 real. Except the Russian or Austrian ducat, which is in common use, there is little foreign coin now current.

Races.—Population.—The ancient Persian stock has been much intermixed in the course of ages by the settlement of other races in the country, especially by the influx of Greeks during and after the conquest of Alexander the Great; and more recently by that of Arabs and Turks. Still, however, the distinguishing characteristics of the family appear to be pretty well preserved. The complexion is fair, but not transparent, and there is little or no colour in the cheek. Hair long, straight, and almost always jet-black; beard abundant, bushy, generally black, but now and then with a reddish tinge. Features regular and handsome, though generally minute, and, excepting the beard, rather effeminate. Stature little short of the European standard; body gracefully, but not very strongly formed, being, altogether, less robust than that of the Europeans. Though early civilized, they have made no considerable progress in arts, science, or arms; and though remarkably clever, and not deficient in bravery, they have never been able to establish any thing like a free system of government, or to set any limits to the caprice and tyranny of their rulers. They have occasionally gained

some advantages over other Asiatic nations, but they have never been able to oppose any effectual resistance to Europeans. In antiquity, a small army of Greeks overthrew the Persian empire when in the zenith of its power; and, in more modern times, it has been overrun by the Arabs, and even the Afghans. At present it owes its existence to no intrinsic vigour of its own, but merely to the forbearance and jealousies of its enemies. The Persians have, in fact, contributed nothing to the improvement or civilisation of mankind; and excepting Zoroaster, have not produced a single benefactor of his species known to history.

At present the pop. of Persia may be divided into two distinct classes, the fixed and the nomadic. The first comprise all who live in towns and villages, and have fixed habitations; the second consists of the various tribes, indigenous and of foreign extraction, who lead a pastoral and erratic life, having no regular habitations. But the whole body of the people may more conveniently be divided into four classes: first, those who are attached to the metropolitan and provincial courts, including the functionaries of government and military; second, inhab. of towns, comprising merchants, shopkeepers, artisans, with men of the religious orders, of business or of learning; third, those employed in agriculture; and, fourth, the tribes, including the *Bedouits*, or *Illyats* (dwellers in tents), or nomades.

The officers of court are more remarkable for skill in business, versatility, politeness, and courtesy, than for probity, honesty, or good principles. Fervid, in self defence, to dissimble and control their feelings, they do so successfully, and, looking to wealth as the best means of purchasing favour in the day of adversity, as well as of enjoyment in prosperity, they stick at no means by which it may be acquired. Accordingly, they become, in general, great intriguers; and are at once deceitful, sensual, venal, treacherous, and, when they dare, arrogant and overbearing. Ministers of state are generally selected from among the men of business or meanness, who, though less arrogant than the nobles, are equally corrupt and immoral; they do not assume so much state as military chiefs, and are distinguished by a roll of paper stuck in their girdle, instead of a sword or dagger. One remarkable class of court dependants are the royal gholams, or body guards, the confidential and devoted guardians of the monarch's person; whence the name *gholam*, or slave. They are usually either Georgian captives or sons of respectable families; and resemble somewhat the *mousquetaires* of the old French government. They are employed in lucrative and confidential services, and the situation is much sought after; but their tyranny and insolence know no limits, and the arrival of a gholam-e-shah in a district, creates a sensation not unlike the attack of a pestilence.

The towns-people, *shehercees*, as they are called, are a mingled race of all those who have ever conquered or had intercourse with Persia, grafted on the original stock — Turks, Tartars, Arabs, Armenians, Georgians. They are a more industrious and less depraved class than the first; but being nurtured in falsehood and deceit, they are adepts in these vices, being at the same time, however, cheerful, polite, sociable kind masters and good servants. The merchants are numerous and often wealthy, and, having more intercourse with foreign nations, are usually of more cultivated and enlarged minds than others of their countrymen. The shopkeepers are, of course, a grade lower.

The ecclesiastical body, which is also numerous, is, with some rare exceptions, more remarkable for hypocrisy and profligacy than for piety and morality; originating, most probably, in the want of a suitable provision to live on, and the consequent necessity of practising fraud and imposition.

The cultivators of the soil are those on whom the tyranny of their rulers falls most heavily; yet it cannot be said that they exhibit much misery. They are themselves, as well as their wives and children, for the most part sufficiently, though poorly, clad, and have abundance of wholesome, though coarse, food, as wheat or barley bread, cheese, sour milk, rice, &c. &c. Extortion and tyranny are met, as usual, by cunning and deceit; and, as the peasantry are active and intelligent, they contrive to avoid being completely deceived.

The fourth class is an interesting and extensive one. It consists not only of the native nomades of Persia, who occupied the south-western and southern ranges of mountains long before the Mohammedan conquest, but of all those of Nomadic origin who came with the various conquerors that have overrun the country since that era, as the Arabs, Ghisnavides, Seljuks, Toorkmans, Moghuls, Toorks, Usbecks, &c. But the greater number consists of those of Arab and Turkish origin, particularly the latter. It may be remarked, as a singular anomaly, that these nomadic tribes supply not only the principal military force of the country, but, as a consequence, probably, its only hereditary aristocracy, and, generally, its sovereign himself. Of these tribes, a

portion is always approximating more nearly to the habits of fixed life; but the greater part by far are strictly nomadic, living in tents, which they shift from place to place, according as lack of pasture for their flocks and herds, or change of season, suggests. In these their wealth consists; and though many of them cultivate a little grain, they live by the sale of the surplus of their stock, and by their produce in milk, wool, and flesh. Their character and habits are every where much the same. Being poor, they are frugal and abstemious; and unaccustomed to more civilised manners, they are rude and blunt, fond of independence, and passionately fond of martial exercises, of the chase and war. Predatory both from inclination and education; but hospitable, comparatively honest when their faith is pledged, and brave. Their chiefs, seen among their own people and in their own country, appear to great advantage, as frank, liberal, and generous, though hasty and passionate; at court they are constrained to assume somewhat of the manners of the place, and do not shine so much as at home.

The Koords come under the denomination of the "tribes," though less erratic in their habits. They claim a high descent; some pretending to be the descendants of the geni of the air by terrestrial women, and others the progeny of certain persons saved from the tyranny of Zohak. But their antiquity is unquestionable, and, probably, they may be descendants of the Carduchii described by Xenophon.

The Toorkman tribes, inhabiting the desert on the N. or Khorassan, are likewise to be reckoned among the eelleats of Persia. They are wholly addicted to robbery and pillage, their chief occupation being that of making plundering parties, which destroy whole villages, carry off the inhabs. into slavery, and their cattle and property. But to enumerate, far more to describe, the various nomades of Persia would greatly surpass our limits; and we must refer our readers, on this interesting subject, to works where it is treated of at greater length.

National Character. — In general, it may be said of the Persians that they "are handsome, active, and robust; of lively imagination, quick apprehension, and agreeable and prepossessing manners. As a nation they may be termed brave; though the valour they have displayed, like that of every other people in a similar state of society, has, in a great degree, depended on the character of their leaders and the nature of the objects for which they have fought." (*Malcolm's Hist. of Persia*, ii. 638.) Unhappily, however, their vices are far more prominent than their virtues. Though the despotism to which they are subject be similar to that which weighs down all the Eastern nations, they have a peculiar and distinctive character. As compared with the Turks, they are not unlike what the Irish are as compared with the English or the Scotch, being gayer, livelier, more active, more versatile, and less to be depended on. Though easily inflamed into passion, and when under its influence abusive in the highest degree, they are, speaking generally, courteous, affable, and polite. They flatter with equal skill and profusion of compliments. Their language is extravagantly hyperbolic; and a stranger, ignorant of their character, would suppose them ready to devote their fortune and life to his service. A foreigner, therefore, on his first arrival, can hardly avoid receiving the most favourable impression of their friendly disposition. A longer acquaintance, however, proves that their flattery is nothing to their insincerity. However it may be accounted for, whether it be ascribed to the despotic nature of their government and the frequency of revolutions, the influence of their religion, or whatever cause, all travellers are agreed that the Persians have reduced dissimulation and falsehood to a system, and have practised them so long and so universally, that it would be difficult for them, even if they intended it, to speak the truth. Their whole conduct is a tissue of fraud and artifice; and they rarely think of fair dealing till they find they have to do with one who sees through their impostures. "There is no deceit, degradation, or crime to which they will not stoop for gain; and their habits of falsehood are so inveterate, that untruths flow, as it were, spontaneously from their tongue, even without any apparent motive." (*Fraser's Khorassan*, p. 174.) Mr. Kinneir's estimate of their character is, if possible, still more unfavourable. "They are generally haughty to their inferiors, obsequious to their superiors, cruel, vindictive, treacherous and avaricious, without faith, friendship, gratitude, or honour." (*Memoir*, p. 22.) Presents, a necessary instrument of business over all the East, are expected in Persia with peculiar avidity. Without presents no inferior can approach a superior, or any individual ask a favour from another; and the donation, being supposed to confer honour, is made in the most public place and manner possible. They are said to be, with few exceptions, incorrigible spendthrifts; their dials, horses, harems, &c. are generally arranged on a scale exceeding their means, and intended for ostentation; and the difficulties in which they are thus involved

make them resort to any expedient, however mean and discreditable, for raising money.

These statements must, however, be understood as applying more particularly to the sedentary pop., and especially to the *inhabs*, of cities and towns. "The *Ecilents* have the virtues and vices of their condition: are sincere, hospitable, and brave; but rude, violent, and rapacious. They are not in need of falsehood and deceit, and, therefore, not much in the habit of practising them; but, if they have fewer vices than the citizens of Persia, it is evidently the absence of temptation, and the ignorance of luxury and refinement, which give them all the superiority they boast; for it is remarked that they never settle in towns, or enter them as visitors, without exceeding the inhabs, in every species of prodigality." (*Malcolm*.)

"The natives of Persia do not recline on cushions, in the luxurious manner of the Turks; but sit in an erect posture on thick felt, called a *senned*. They have seldom, if ever, fires in their apartments, even in the coldest season, and, in order to be warm, fold themselves in a fur pelisse on a *barrower*, which is a handsome robe of crimson cloth, lined with shawls or velvet. Like other oriental nations, they rise with the sun; and having dressed and said their prayers, take a cup of coffee, or, perhaps, some fruit. They then enter upon the business of the day, if they have any; and, if not, smoke and converse until about 11 o'clock, at which time they usually have their breakfast, and then retire into the *harem*. Here they remain until about 3 o'clock, when they return to the hall, see company, and finish their business; for with these people the most important affairs are discussed and transacted in public. Between 9 and 10, the dinner, or principal meal, is served up. This chiefly consists of *pilaws*, and of mutton and fowl, dressed in various ways; of which, however, they eat but moderately. Wine they never taste before company; although, in private, they are the most notorious drunkards, and invariably drink before they eat. They are passionately fond of tobacco, which they smoke almost incessantly from the moment they rise until it is time for them to retire to rest: it constitutes, indeed, the principal source of amusement to a man of fortune; and were it not for his *calcas*, I am at a loss to imagine how he would spend his time. In this respect, indeed, there seems to be something peculiarly inconsistent in the character of the Persians. When without an incitement to exertion, he resigns himself entirely to luxury and ease; and the same person who, with his *calcas* in his mouth, would appear to pass the day in a state of stupor, when roused into action, and mounted on his horse, will ride for days and nights without intermission. Hunting and hawkling as well as various gymnastic exercises, are favourite amusements of the Persians. By these means their bodies become hardened and active; and as they are taught to ride from their youth, they manage their horses with great boldness and address. They frequently use the 'warm bath,' but seldom change their linen." (*Kinastir's Persian Empire*, 245.)

The Persian females, at least those of the sedentary part of the pop., are for the most part closely concealed. The wives of the great pass their time in visiting their friends, and amusing themselves with diversions of one kind and another, and with intrigues. The bath is, however, the principal scene of their enjoyment and relaxation, where, secure from interruption, they give full scope to merriment and scandal. They differ equally from us in their notions of beauty and of taste. Large, soft, and lustrous black eyes constitute, in their opinion, the perfection of beauty. But they disfigure their natural charms by painting their faces, and sometimes also by tattooing their skins of various colours, while constant smoking spoils their teeth and mouths. Many of the women of Shiraz and other cities are as fair as those of Europe; but they want, owing to their confinement, the bloom so essential, in our estimation, to female loveliness. The Persian ladies would seem to be totally devoid of delicacy and refinement. "Their language," says Mr. Scott Waring, "is often gross and disgusting, nor do they feel more hesitation in expressing themselves before men than they would before their female associates. Their terms of abuse and reproach are indelicate to the utmost degree. I will not disgust the reader by noticing any of them; but I may safely avow, that it is not possible for language to express, or the imagination to conceive, more indecent or grosser images. When they leave the house, they put on a cloak which descends from their head to their feet, and their faces are carefully veiled, holes only being left for the eyes. It is curious to see a number of tall and elegantly formed figures walking in the streets, and presenting nothing to your view but a pair of sparkling black eyes, which seem to enjoy the curiosity they excite. The veil appears to be essential to their virtue; for so long as they conceal their face, they care not how much they expose the rest of their person." Like the Mohammedans, the Persians are restricted to four legitimate wives, but they may have as many concubines as they please; the latter being acquired by purchase or

hire. Few, however, unless they belong to the richer classes, indulge in the luxury of a plurality of wives, or keep concubines. Marriages are usually celebrated with great splendour, and often entail a ruinous expense on the parties.

Amount of Population.—There are no existing data on which to found any thing like an accurate estimate of the amount of the population. Pinkerton supposed it might amount to about 10 millions, which Sir John Malcolm thinks may be a pretty close approximation to the truth. Another writer (Fraser) has set down the fixed population at about 7 millions, and the migratory population at from two to three millions, thus approaching to Pinkerton's estimate. But besides the loss of territory which Persia has since suffered from her wars with Russia, a great depopulation has taken place within the last ten years, from plague, famine, and various prevailing maladies, and there is reason, besides, to believe that this estimate of the migratory pop. was much beyond the mark, so that it is probable the pop. of the countries subject to the shah does not exceed 8, and is certainly under 10 millions. We subjoin from the *Freimär Almanac* an estimate of the area and pop. of the different provinces; but it is needless to say that it is but little to be depended on.

Provinces.	Area in sq. m.	Pop.
Irak-Ajemi	93,576	2,460,000
Tabaristan	6,932	130,000
Mazanderan	7,517	135,000
Ghilan	5,215	260,000
Ardabiljan	30,537	1,000,000
Roumdistan	12,932	450,000
Kazvin	29,056	900,000
Fan	126,160	1,700,000
Kerman	65,446	600,000
Kohistan	25,574	170,000
Khorasan	81,132	1,700,000
Total	483,130	11,250,000

The government of Persia, like that of most Eastern countries, is, in principle at least, an absolute despotism. The shah is regarded as the viceregent of the prophet, and, as such, is entitled to implicit obedience. His word is law; he is absolute master of the lives and properties of his subjects; and the first man in the empire may, at his command, be instantly stripped of all his dignities, bastinadoed, or strangled! The only control on his actions being the risk of provoking rebellion or assassination. The two principal ministers are the grand vizier, or *Wazir Acm*, and the lord high-treasurer, or *Amir-e Doulah*. The former superintends every thing connected with foreign relations, and, in the absence of the sovereign, commands the armies; while the latter, who is subordinate to the other, superintends the internal arrangements, the collection of the revenue, &c. The whole executive government is in the hands of these two functionaries, whose authority, so long as they continue in power, is as absolute as that of their master; but their greatness, being built on the favour of a tyrant, is of the most unstable kind, and they are very often precipitated from their slippery elevation.

The duties of a monarch, who either regards his own safety or the well-being of his people, are numerous and weighty. One of the most important is the distribution of justice. The Mohammedan law, both civil and criminal, is founded on the precepts of the Koran and the oral commentaries and sayings of the prophet's immediate successors. This is called the *Sacra*, or written law, and is the rule in all regular courts, where persons of the ecclesiastical order, such as *Moohtedh*, preside. But there is also the *Urf*, or customary law, administered by secular magistrates, having the king as their head. It is more arbitrary, and the judgments of the king and his lieutenants are more summary, than those of the other court, and enforced with greater vigour. But there is an appeal to the superior functionaries, and the power of life and death rests with his majesty, who seldom delegates it, except to princes of the blood royal, or to governors of remote provinces. Theft is always punished with extreme severity.

The system of civil government is simple. Each province, or important district of a province, including some large city, has a *Beglerbeg*, or governor, usually a prince of the blood or nobleman of rank, who appoints his lieutenants, or *Hakims*, over the districts and subdivisions; and each village has its *Keikhoda*, or magistrate, generally one of the elders or more respectable inhabitants, who is the organ by which communication is kept up with government. There are also governors of cities and towns, *Daroghas*, or lieutenants of police, and *Keloreniers*, or chief magistrates of cities, in which each *mukhad*, or parish, has its *keikhoda*, or head, who are in general practically chosen by the people, and who look to the *Kelounie* as their head.

The *Beglerbegs*, like the Turkish pashas, are, at the expiration of a certain period, cited to court, where, admitting their conduct to have been ever so irreproach-

able, persons are not wanting to accuse them of injustice and mal-administration; and unless the demands and avarice of the court be completely gratified, their eyes are put out and their property confiscated. Conscious, therefore, of the necessity of amassing a sufficient sum of money to answer the rapacity of the king and his ministers, and aware, at the same time, that, provided the money be forthcoming, no inquiry will be made respecting the manner in which it has been acquired, the same mode is applied by the Beglerbegs to the Hakims and other subordinate authorities; who, in turn, oppress the heads of villages and the cultivators, so that the land becomes the prey of a subordination of vultures, and venality and extortion pervade every class from the throne to the cottage. (*Kienicer's Memoir*, p. 31.)

But, after all, the principal evil under which the country labours consists in the perpetual insurrections and the sudden changes of sovereigns and dynasties. The insecurity, devastation, and proscriptions, to which this state of things has led, have necessarily gone far to extinguish all industry, and many provinces that were formerly well peopled and well cultivated are now all but deserts. It has, also, prevented any idea of stability being associated with the existing state of things; and has made change, and the insecurity and falsehood inseparable from it, almost a necessary state of existence. Neither under existing circumstances does it seem reasonable to expect that any reform can be effected from within; and its subjugation by a European power would certainly be the most desirable event that could happen for the country.

The revenue of the Shah has been variously estimated, but does not probably amount to more than 1,500,000, or 3,000,000. As already stated, it is principally derived from taxes on land and farms, capitation taxes, duties on imports and exports, tributes paid by the nomadic tribes, &c.

Religion.—The Persians are Mohammedans of the sect called Schiites, or Sbeahs, or of those who look upon Ali, the son-in-law of the prophet, as his legitimate successor. They repudiate the first three caliphs, Abubekr, Omar, and Othman, and their successors, as usurpers of the right of their patron Ali, holding that of his sons Hasan and Hoessein to the caliphate as indefeasible, and acknowledging their 12 immediate descendants as the 12 high priests, or imams, of their religion; with one of whom, Imamu Mehdee, they consider as still alive, though (*ghaib*) concealed for a time, so that no other can exercise the office. This doctrine is quite opposed to that of the Turks, who belong to the sect of Sunnites, and between whom and the Persians the most rancorous and irreconcilable animosity exists as to religious doctrines.

The priesthood consists of many orders, of which the Moshtheeds is now the chief. There are seldom above four or five of this dignity, and these are elected as much by the public voice as by that of their brother Moshtheeds, by whom they must be declared for the Shah has no voice in their appointment. The Sheikh-ul-Islam, or ruler of the faith, is next in rank, but he receives his appointment and a salary from the Shah, and there is one in all large towns. In every mosque of consequence, and at every considerable shrine or place of pilgrimage, there are at least three regular ecclesiastical officers: the Mouturellie, who manages its temporal affairs; the Muezzin, or cregree to prayers; and the Mollah, who conducts the ceremonial. If the establishment be rich, there are several Mollahs, from among whom are selected a *peesh assaats*, who recites the prayers and goes through the motions and genuflections to guide the congregation. They also preach occasionally sermons from texts of the Koran. Of all these, except the Sheikh-ul-Islam, the income and means of life depends chiefly on the celebrity of the individual for wisdom, virtue, and religious sanctity; so that there are no means of estimating the income of individuals; but most mosques and shrines have large property in land and villages, the gift of the crown or of pious individuals, and out of this the priesthood attached respectively to each is maintained. Besides those above enumerated, there are in every city, and in every seminary of learning, a crowd of Mollahs who live by their wits, waiting for the chance of employment, but having little of the priest but the name. They practise astrology, write letters and contracts for those who cannot do it for themselves, and descend to all manner of meanness and vice for a livelihood.

The Persians, though there are many enthusiasts and bigots amongst them, are not generally intolerant; they listen without anger to the professions or arguments of those who hold a different belief, and do not allow this circumstance to cause any interruption of social intercourse. The only exception is in the case of the Guebres, or fire worshippers, who are probably rendered odious to the modern rulers of Persia by connecting with their faith an attachment to its ancient laws and political system. This unfortunate race is now almost entirely extirpated, only a small remnant being found in Yezd, and other cities of Kerman. Indifference, scepticism, and free-thinking, are, however, making a rapid progress.

This last, which may be identified with what is called Scofficism, extends every day. There is, if we may so speak, a religious and a sceptical Scofficism; the former is a sort of a mystical or fanatical aspiration after the mysteries of divine love, but without laying any or much stress on the rules and regulations of the Koran: the latter is of a bolder character, and approaches nearer to the European notions of free-thinking; its votaries affect no particular respect for religion, but are a species of metaphysical Deists, regarding the Koran merely as an elegant work, embodying sound moral doctrines, but not otherwise entitled to attention. Hence all who profess or are suspected of Scofficism are hated or persecuted by the Mollahs. But Mohammedanism in Persia, as in other countries in which it is professed, appears decidedly on the decline, and Scofficism is likely to be one great instrument of its overthrow.

The ancient religion of the Persians, which is not yet entirely extirpated, was materially reformed and renovated by the famous legislator Zoroaster, or Zerdusht. The life, and even the epoch of the birth, of this great reformer, are involved in the utmost obscurity; but the profane opinion seems to be that he flourished about the 6th century B.C. He inculcated the doctrine of an eternal, self-existing, supreme Being, from whom every thing else has its origin; and from whom are sprung two antagonistic powers, Ormuzd, the source of all good, and Ahriman, the source of all evil; of which, however, the former, though this point be extremely obscure, is destined, in the end, to obtain the ascendancy. The doctrines of original sin, the immortality of the soul, the happiness of the good and the misery of the bad in another life, are all laid down by Zoroaster. But the distinctive feature in the religion of the Persian sage is the extreme veneration paid to fire, light, and heat, which he regarded as symbolical of the Divinity. *C'est par lui que tout respire: la terre lui doit sa fécondité; l'animal, son existence; l'arbre, sa végétation. Non seulement il anime les êtres, il forme encore leurs rapports, et son action, par conséquent, n'est pas moins ancienne que le monde.* (Pastoret, Zoroaster, Confucius, &c., p. 30.) Herodotus says, that the ancient Persians neither erected temples nor statues to their gods, but sacrificed to them on the tops of mountains, or other high places. (*Herod.*, lib. i., cap. 131.) They had, also, the singular, and, as it appears to us, barbarous custom of exposing the bodies of the dead to be devoured by birds, (*Herod.*, lib. i., cap. 140.); and Niebuhr distinctly states that this custom was observed in his time by the Parsees at Bombay. (*Voyage en Arabie*, ii. 39.) The magi, or priests, established by the Persians, had great influence.*

Education.—In former reigns, particularly in the time of the Sufavians, when literature was more encouraged than now, considerable attention was paid to education. Masters or colleges were built and endowed, in which mollahs and teachers of suitable abilities were placed to instruct the students. These buildings consisted of a quadrangle, the interior sides of which were pierced with small cell-like apartments, like those of a caravanserai, in each of which a student lived. But these institutions were rather for students of more advanced age; for younger pupils of the lower classes there are schools kept by private persons, where reading and writing are taught, and some knowledge of the practice of religion is imparted, with perhaps, to some who are destined to become "men of the pen," a little superficial instruction in logic and grammar. The children of the higher orders are taught at home by *mollahs* and *lillaks*, or tutors, who, after the elements of Arabic and Persian are acquired, instruct their pupils in the duties of their religion, and teach them to read the Koran, with such works as are calculated to impress them with a strong regard for Sunnite doctrines. Next come the works of Saadi and Hafiz, with a superficial course of grammar, logic, and philosophy. All this time athletic exercises, riding, hunting, and the use of arms, are not neglected; and from the earliest age every boy is carefully schooled in all that regards the ceremonial of social intercourse. He is taught how to sit down and rise up, and to stand in the presence of his elders or superiors; and so much stress is laid on these matters, that it is most uncommon to observe the least deviation from due etiquette even in children of 5 or 6 years of age. But the whole system is artificial, more showy than solid, and tends in no small degree to nurse up the rising generations to that disposition to accept, and hypocrisy which marks so strongly the national character.

Military Force and Resources.—Frugal in his diet, robust in his constitution, capable of enduring astonishing fatigue, and inured, from his infancy, to the extremes of heat and cold, to hunger and thirst, nature seems to

* The *Zend-Avesta*, the most important work on the religion of the Persians, was translated and published in 5 vols. etc. by Anquetin de Perros in 1771; but it is believed by some of the ablest critics that the most ancient portion of this work is less posterior to the age of Zoroaster.

have formed the Persian for a soldier. But as, according to the ancient customs of this people, it is deemed degrading to a person, who has money sufficient to purchase a horse, to travel on foot, the infantry of Persia has been, from the earliest ages, contemptible; whilst her numerous bodies of irregular cavalry have more than once carried terror and defeat amidst the disciplined legions of Rome." (*Kiasr's Memoir*.)

Her forces, however, both cavalry and foot, have varied in amount and efficiency with the varying abilities and martial skill and daring of the different monarchs. Until lately that attempts have been made to form regular corps, disciplined after the European fashion, the army has mostly consisted of levies of irregular cavalry, furnished by the chiefs of the different wandering tribes, according to their presumed numbers and strength, and also by the different cities and towns, on a plan corresponding in many respects with the feudal levies of the middle ages in European countries. The troops thus collected, though brave, are totally deficient in organisation and discipline, and could make no serious impression on a body of European troops. Inasmuch, too, as the arms and horses on which the horsemen are mounted do not belong to the state, but to the individuals, and frequently constitute their whole property, they are very apt to prefer their safety to other considerations; a circumstance which, on more than one occasion, has proved fatal to the reputation of the Persian army. The whole force that might thus be collected on an emergency might, perhaps, amount to 100,000 or 150,000 men. In the late reign, the first attempt was made to introduce European discipline and tactics among the Persian soldiers. The Prince Royal, Abbas Mirza, obtained leave from his father and officers from the E. I. Company to raise and discipline a body of troops in Azerbaijan, with a view of opposing the Russians, and strengthening his internal government; and he did form a corps amounting, with cavalry and artillery, to about 12,000 men. Of these the horse artillery were particularly good and efficient; but after the peace of Goolistan with Russia, the men composing this corps were wisely permitted to return to their homes, mustering only occasionally; the officers remaining useless appendages of state at the court of the prince. On the commencement of the war with Turkey in 1829, the British officers could not serve against a power on friendly terms with Great Britain, they were dismissed; but the army of 35,000 men, regular and irregular, with which the prince marched against the Turks, was victorious, until dispersed by the cholera; and from that time until 1833-34 there were only one or two British officers retained to drill and to command the serbs, or regular troops, which were still maintained in Azerbaijan. When the Prince Royal, however, proposed to subdue the rebellious chiefs of Khorasan, and to reduce some of the other more remote provinces to order, he felt the want of more efficient aid to reorganise his military force, and applied to the British government of India for a supply of commissioned and non-commissioned officers, who only reached Persia after his death, in 1833. His son, Mahomed Mirza, the present Shah, has pursued his father's plans, but with less ability and consistency, for though desirous to increase and improve his army, he has never employed these officers in the way to render their services most useful.

In the late disastrous campaigns in Khorasan, and particularly against Herat, the army suffered much from sickness, casualties, and desertion; so that no calculation can be made of its actual state. In 1837, however, when the Shah made every possible effort to bring a large force against Herat, the besieging army did not certainly exceed 35,000 men of every description. The falling off in the amount of the army from the Russian war of 1827-28, is very striking; for the Prince Royal had then a well-appointed army of 40,000 men, with all its complement of baggage, cattle, and attendants on the frontiers; while the Shah, who chose with another army of 50,000, it might be doubted, however, whether the attempt to introduce European tactics and discipline into such a country, and under such a government as that of Persia, an ever succeed; and whether it would not have been better policy to trust now, as of old, mainly to levies of cavalry, and endeavouring to improve and amend the defects in their constitution and discipline. What may be called the household troops of Persia, consist of kind of militia of about 10,000, quartered in the capital & its vicinity, and liable to be called out at a moment's warning. The *gholams*, royal slaves, or body ard, have been already noticed.

Arts, Language, Sciences, and Literature.—Of Persian proficiency in these, previously to the Mohammedan conquest, little or nothing is known, all that may have existed being destroyed by the Moslems. But we may infer, from the relics of sculpture of the Sassanian era that remain, and from accounts of contemporary authors of other countries, that some of the arts, at least, were then successfully cultivated. In the days of the Saffavians, painting has received some attention, and architecture

still more; but though attempts at depicting the human form, as well as animals and landscapes, are numerous among the Persians of this day, they are but rude and unsuccessful, the total absence of all drawing and perspective rendering their performances ludicrous, if not disgusting. In fact, being quite without models for either painting or sculpture to copy from, excellence is scarcely to be looked for, especially in a country where the tyrannical spirit of the government and nobility would render such attainments dangerous rather than profitable to the owner. Their most successful performances are the inkstands and small boxes, made chiefly at Shiraz and Isfahan, which are ornamented with figures of boys and girls, birds and flowers, finished with surprising minuteness and accuracy. The stone and seal cutters of the same cities are also famous for their workmanship.

When the Arabs overran Persia, about the middle of the 7th century, three languages were spoken in the country, the *Parsee*, *Pehlvi*, and *Deri*, exclusive of the *Zend*, or language dedicated to religion. The first of these languages has superseded the rest, which are now only known by name and become the universal language of the country. It is of simple structure; and, like the English or French, has few or no inflections, prepositions governing its cases, and auxiliary verbs its tenses and modes. Many of its roots can be readily traced to the Sanscrit; and in the course of time, it has received a large accession of Arabic words. All the existing literature of the Persians dates from the Arabic conquest, and mostly, indeed, belongs to the 10th and 16th centuries.

In science the Persians are scarcely more advanced than in art. Astronomy, judicial astrology, metaphysics, logic, mathematics, and physics, are among their less sedulously cultivated. But their efforts in the first are contemptible; their theories, founded on the Ptolemaic system mixed up with fantastic notions of their own, are utterly useless, unless to aid their dreams of astrology. Their firm belief in this science is universal, and no Persian will undertake the most trivial affair without consulting some professor of its mysteries for a lucky hour. Their metaphysics and logic are scarcely less puerile. The first consists of little more than a collection of disputations, sophisms turning on wily and unprofitable paradoxes; the second is an ingenious method of playing upon words, the object being not so much to arrive at truth, as to display quickness of mind and readiness of reply, in the discussion of plausible hypotheses. Geography is no better understood. Their knowledge of countries, and their relative positions, is extremely confused; nor can they describe, with any exactness, even those places or regions with which they are most familiar.

Mathematics, though not much more beneficially applied, are taught upon better principles; for the Persians are acquainted with the works of Euclid. Chemistry is unknown; but alchemy is a favourite study, and the search after the philosopher's stone continues to be eagerly prosecuted. In medicine, though they profess themselves pupils of Galen and Hippocrates (*Iskenoo* and *Bocrat*), they practise only the most wretched empiricism, united with the exhibition of a few simples, the qualities of which experience has taught them. Diseases are classed into hot and cold, moist and dry, upon no apparent principle, and each disease is combated by a remedy supposed, as vaguely, to be of an opposite quality. They are quite ignorant of anatomy, and even of the circulation of the blood, so that their knowledge of surgery is no greater than that of medicine. Yet, though they admire the skill of Europeans, and eagerly possess themselves of their remedies, they adhere obstinately to their own practice; and all the persuasion of the British mission, and its medical men, were for ten years exerted in vain to introduce vaccination, although the ravages of the smallpox were frequently dreadful. The profits of such a confined to those who are regarded as proficient in divinity, astrology, and physics. The two former, when combined, thrive best.

The Persians make high, and, in a few respects, not ill-founded, pretensions to literature. Their treatises on the sciences now mentioned are in a great measure borrowed from the Arabians; and little improvement has been made of late in these branches. Their historical works are of a higher cast, and include some of considerable merit; but these belong chiefly to the earlier and brighter times of the empire. Among the more modern may be noticed a History of Nadir Shah, a flowery but authentic record of the life of that extraordinary monarch. But it is in poetry the Persians claim peculiar excellence; and they, no doubt, can produce the names of more eminent authors in this department than any nation of the East. From the highest to the lowest, they possess an exquisite relish for poetical compositions: from the men of letters to the lowest groom they recite passages from their heroic poets, or chant odes of Hafiz; and if you find fault with a tent pitcher, he probably replies with a stanza from Rudaki, or a moral

apothegm from Saadi. It is singular, however, that the moral lessons inculcated by their poets and learned, and, as it should seem, admired by the people, should be wholly inoperative in practice; the Persians being certainly as corrupt, sensual, and immoral, as any people of Asia.

Their poetry may be divided into epic and narrative, moral and lyric. Of the first class Ferdousi is the father, though Dukessee did compose about 1000 verses of the Shahnameh, in which the former is also said to have been assisted by Asidi. Next to Ferdousi ranks Nisami, who composed a poetic life of Alexander the Great; but this, like the Yusseff and Zuleika of Jami, another on the same subject by Ferdousi; the Lella and Mignoon of Hatife; Khosroo, Shirreou, and others, recited with rapture all over Persia, are, in fact, poetic romances, called Musnavees.

Of the didactic poets the chief, without question, is Saadi, whose Goolistan and Bostan abound in beautiful maxims and fine moral precepts. Sheikh Saadi, was born at Sheras (A.D. 1194), and in his youth was a great traveller. While in Syria he was taken by the Crusaders, and actually compelled to labour as a slave at the fortifications of Tripoli. From this condition he was relieved by a merchant of Aleppo, who not only paid ten crowns for his ransom, but gave him his daughter with 100 for her dowry. The lady, however, proved a shrew, and Saadi, in several parts of his works, gives vent to the chagrin caused by this marriage. Among other taunts she is said to have reproached him with having been bought from the Christians by her father for ten crowns: "Yes," replied the unhappy moralist with a sigh, "and he sold me to you for an hundred." He died in his native city at the extreme age of 120 lunar, or 116 solar years; and his tomb is still to be seen near the place of his birth,—a small mosque-like edifice, within an enclosure, in which are some fine old fir trees and some cypresses.

In the mytic and lyrical strain there is none who can come into competition with Hafiz, to whom also Shiras had the honour of giving birth. He flourished in the time of Tamerlane or Timour Bec, who, when he came after the defeat of Shah Mansora to the place where the poet dwelt, desired to see and converse with him. With feigned or real displeasure, the conqueror demanded to know how he dared to dispose of his two noble cities of Samarcand and Bokhara, which, in a beautiful stanza, he declared he would give for a mole on the cheek of his mistress: "Can the gift of Hafiz ever impoverish Timour?" was the reply, which changed the monarch's wrath into admiration, and elicited reward instead of punishment. The poetry of Hafiz is considered by Persian scholars as of a singularly original character—simple and unaffected, yet possessing a wild and peculiar sublimity. Like most lyrical effusions, his odes will not brook translation, so that his beauties can never be comprehended by the mere English reader. In his own country, however, he is fully appreciated; and perhaps no poet of any country ever attained greater popularity among those for whom he wrote than the khanjeh of Shiraz. His mortal remains rest near the city whose praises he has celebrated, not far from the tomb of Saadi, and near his favourite stream of Roknabad. The tomb is in a small enclosure, whither the people of the place resort to sit under the shade of the old cypresses, recite the odes of their favourite bard, and draw omen from the pages of his works.

Next to Hafiz, in celebrity, has been placed Abdul Rahman Janie, a famous doctor of laws, and no less famous scold, whose *Diwan*, or collection of odes, is in high estimation with the enthusiasts of his sect. His wit is said to have been equal to his poetic genius.

To these already mentioned, might be added many names scarcely less celebrated, whose works it would require too much space to particularise or describe. But it is not to be imagined that their perusal would give any pleasure to European readers. They contain, it is true, many beautiful thoughts, and their diction is frequently euphonious and expressive; but they have the vice of most Eastern works, that of being disfigured by the wildest extravagance and bombast, and by an endless repetition of metaphors and similes.

History.—Modern Persia comprises the countries known in antiquity by the names of *Media*, *Susiana*, *Caramania*, *Hyrcania*, and Persia Proper. Its ancient history is intimately connected with that of Greece and Rome. In more modern times it has been the theatre of endless civil wars, revolutions, and changes devoid of all interest to foreigners. Towards the end of the 16th century, however, order was restored, and Persia rose to distinction under the government of Shah Abbas, who surmounted the Great, who defeated the Turks in several battles, taking from them the city of Taurus and the province of Georgia, and Ormuz from the Portuguese. Abbas was succeeded by a series of imbecile tyrants; and, in 1727, the country was overrun by the Afghans.

* Beautifully, though freely, translated by Sir William Jones.

At length the famous Thamas Koull Khan, a brigand chief, was raised to the throne by the title of Nadir Shah, and distinguished himself alike by his victories and his ferocity. Nadir being assassinated, in 1748, his death was followed by a long-continued civil war. After a vast deal of blood had been spilt, the eunuch Memhet Khan, succeeded, by his superior ability and good fortune, in establishing his authority over most of the provinces now comprised in Persia; and transmitted his authority to his nephew Futteh Ali Shah.

This prince waged an unsuccessful war with Russia, who stript him of a large territory in Armenia, and obliged him to pay 2,500,000*l.* as an indemnity for the expenses she had been put to in the contest! Futteh Ali kept an enormous harem; and it was his practice to disperse his sons over the empire, as governors of provinces, towns, &c., of which, speaking generally, they were the scourges. On the death of Futteh, in 1835, his grandson, the present sovereign, son of the prince royal, Abbas Mirza, succeeded to the throne in terms of his grandfather's will. A few of his uncles, who were reckoned most dangerous, were deprived of sight; but on the whole the succession was unusually tranquil and bloodless. This sovereign is understood to be favourable to the interests of Russia, or rather, perhaps, he thinks it most prudent to keep on good terms with those who have the greatest means of injuring him. His uncles, it is expected, will again be said to have been undertaken at the instigation of Russia.

PERSIAN GULPH. an extensive arm of the Indian Ocean, separating Persia from Arabia, between the 24th and 30th degs. N. lat., and the 47th and 57th E. long., uniting with the Indian Ocean by the strait, about 32*m.* across, between Cape Musseldom (lat. 26° 19' N., long. 56° 30' E.), and the opposite coast. This gulph has somewhat of an oval shape, extending about 550*m.* N.W. and S.E. with an average breadth of about 160*m.*; but towards its S.E. end it is upwards of 320*m.* in width, though it soon afterwards on taking its northern bend previously to its junction with the ocean, becomes much narrower. It receives at its N.W. end the united waters of the Euphrates and Tigris, about 70*m.* below Busorah; but it has few or no other affluents of any importance. These streams, however, assisted in some measure also by the shape of the gulph itself, tend to diminish the height of the tides, which is considerably less than in the Red Sea. (*Travels in Persia*, Geog. p. 116.) The climate round the shores of this gulph is extremely hot; and notwithstanding the prevalence of N.W. winds again, the thermometer in some parts stands at a higher elevation than in almost any other locality with which we are acquainted. Owing to the number of small islands, and the number and extent of its reefs, the navigation of this sea, especially along the coast of Arabia, is hazardous, difficult and tedious: it is less encumbered along the Persian coast. The trade carried on in the ports, on or connected with the gulph, is very considerable. Busorah is the principal inlet through which Indian and other eastern products find their way into the Turkish empire, and thence, in the Persian territory, is the chief entrepot of the trade between that country and Bombay, whence it receives the products of Europe, China, and the E. Archipelago. The chief interest, however, that attaches to the Persian Gulph, is its pearl fishery, on which indeed the inhab. of the S. coast mainly depend, as the land produces only a few dates, and is insufficient to support the pop. (For details as to these fisheries, see the article *BARBARIN ISLANDS*; and see also *BUSORAH* and *BUSHIRE*, in this Dict.) This sea was surveyed between 1821 and 1828; but, although much information has come to us through charts and memoirs in the *Geog. Journal* (vols. v. and viii.), we are far from possessing any satisfactory information respecting its islands, which are, in all probability, more numerous and important than has hitherto been supposed. The ancient importance of the Persian Gulph is principally owing to its connection with the conquests of Alexander, and its commercial intercourse with India. Were the scheme for the steam navigation of the Euphrates to succeed, this sea might again become, as it was during a certain period of antiquity, a thoroughfare for the commerce between the E. and W. worlds; but the advantages in this respect enjoyed by the route by the Red Sea and through Egypt, are so very superior, that we have no doubt it will continue to engross by far the larger portion of the trade not carried on by the Cape of Good Hope. The islands and shores of the Red Sea have been at all times a favourite resort of pirates. At present, however, they are, in consequence of the exertions of the British government, nearly extirpated.

PERTH, one of the largest and most important cos. of Scotland, nearly in the centre of that part of the U. Kingdom, but communicating by the Frith of Tay with the German Ocean, having N. the cos. of Inverness and Aberdeen, E. Forfar, S. Fife (from which it is mostly separated by the Frith of Tay), Kinross, Clackmannan, the Frith of Forth, and Stirling, and W. Dumbarton and Argyle. Exclusive of a small detached portion on

the Frith of Forth, it is of a compact circular form. Area 1,638,330 acres, of which 32,000 are water. This great co. comprises within itself almost all that is peculiar to or characteristic of Scotland; having every variety of surface and soil, from rugged, sterile mountains to low, level, fertile vales. Its lakes and rivers are also on a grand and varied scale; and its climate is as different as its surface, being severe in the more elevated, and mild and early in the lower districts. The contrast in the inhab. is equally great; the Celt being found on the mountains and the Saxon on the plains, and each differing widely from the other in language, dress, and manners. Perth is naturally divided into highlands and lowlands: all the country, including the Ochill and Sidlaw hills, from its S. frontier to the foot of the Grampians, being included in the lowlands, and the remainder in the highlands. The part of the Grampian chain in this co. comprises some of the highest mountains in Scotland, among which may be specified, Ben Lawers, 3,945; Ben Marc, 2,944; Ben Glac, 3,690; Schichallion, 3,550; Ben Achougie, 3,028; and Ben Ledi, 2,953 ft. above the level of the sea. Besides the mountains and hilly districts, there are very extensive, though progressively diminishing, tracts of moor, moss, and bog. There is, also, a large extent of natural wood and plantations. The latter were much extended by the operations of the late Duke of Atholl, who planted above 15,000 acres! But notwithstanding these deductions, the cultivated land is estimated at from 320,000 to 560,000 acres, or at about a third part of the entire surface. The most valuable tract of low land is denominated the Carse of Gowrie, being the district bounded by the Tay on the S. and W., the Sidlaw hills on the N., and Forfarshire on the E. Its soil is mostly a deep rich clay loam; and, in point of fertility, it is not, perhaps, surpassed by any land in the kingdom. The lower part of Strathearn, from Forteviot to the confluence of the Earn and Tay, consists of a similar soil, and is hardly less fertile. Exclusive of these, and the low lands along the T., above Perth, there are in the valleys of the Teith, Forth, and other rivers, extensive tracts of carse land, and of sandy, gravelly loam. Light gravelly soil is, indeed, predominant in Perthshire. There are some very large estates; but there is, also, a fair proportion of the smaller class of proprietors. Arable farms vary in size, from 50 to 600 acres. The same plan that formerly prevailed in Argyle (which see) of holding lands in common, prevailed throughout the highlands of Perthshire; but examples of it are, at present, rarer in the latter than in the former. Farms in the lower districts are universally let on lease, generally for nineteen years; large stock farms are also let on lease; but some of the small highland occupiers hold from year to year. Buildings and other accommodations of the farmers, in the lower districts, are for the most part substantial and excellent; but in some of the highland districts they are still, in many instances, bad and deficient. Wheat and beans, of excellent quality, are the prime articles of cultivation in the Carse of Gowrie, Strathearn, parts of Strathmore, the valley of the Forth, and Teith, &c. In the midland districts, barley, and, in the higher, oats, are the principal crops. Potatoes everywhere cultivated, largely consumed, and recently exported in large quantities to the London market. Turnip culture extensively prosecuted. Considerable quantities of fruit, as apples, pears, &c., are produced in the vales, particularly in Gowrie. Breeds of cattle various, but none peculiar to the country; the stock differs with the varying quality of the land on which it is pastured. Number of sheep yearly increased within the last 40 years, and the Cheviot breed now generally diffused. "It begins to be generally understood that the land cannot stand a constant system of cropping without intervals of rest. The sheep husbandry is, therefore, daily gaining ground; and the breed of cattle has been improved both in size and earliness of maturity." (*New Statistical Acc. of Scotland, Perthshire*, p.196.) Roads signally improved; as much so, certainly, as in any other Scotch co. Coal is found in the S. part of the co. contiguous to the Frith of Forth; and limestone and freestone are pretty generally diffused. Average rent of land, in 1846, 7s. 7d. an acre. The linen and cotton manufacture has been introduced, particularly into the city of Perth; but neither has had much success; so that, on the whole, Perthshire may be regarded as an essentially agricultural district; and we are glad to say that the progress of agriculture during the present century has been most satisfactory. The following statements by the author of the account of the par. of Wester Foulis in the *New Statistical Account of Scotland*, are generally applicable to the whole co. "Since the date of the last statistical account great improvements have been made in rural economy. Waste ground has been planted and brought into cultivation. The roads are in a superior condition, and new ones have been constructed. Farm steadings were then covered with thatch, and indifferent in building and accommodation; but they are now all slated, well built,

and adapted for every necessary purpose. Wheat, potatoes, turnips, and artificial grasses, are cultivated in a much greater breadth. More manure is laid on the soil, and it is ameliorated by fences, cleaning, and draining. Horses and harness, the different breeds of cattle and sheep, and all the implements of husbandry are much improved." Principal rivers, Tay, Forth, Earn, Teith, Lyon, Garry, Tummel, &c. Fisheries on the Tay about the most valuable in the kingdom. Perth is divided into 80 parishes, and returns 2 mems. to the H. of C. 1 for the co., and 1 for the city of Perth. Registered electors for the co., in 1845-50, 4,327. Some parishes in the S.W. part of the co. are joined, for election purposes, with the par. of Culross and Clackmannan; and the bor. of Culross unites with that of Inverkerthing, Dunfermline, &c. in returning 1 m. to the H. of C. Principal towns, Perth, Crieff, and Dumbane. In 1841, Perth had 28,993 inhab. houses, and 137,390 inhab., of whom 64,978 were males, and 72,412 females. Valued rent, 339,832*l*. Scotch. Annual value of real property, in 1815, 555,532*l*. do. in 1843, 613,164*l*.

PERTH, a royal and parl. bor. and manufacturing town of Scotland, co. Perth, of which it is the cap. on a plain on the right bank of the Tay, 33 m. N. by W. Edinburgh, lat. 56° 23' 40" N., long. 3° 25' 20" W. The town is surrounded, except on the line of the Tay, with gently rising, verdant, or richly wooded hills. Pop. in 1801, 14,878; in 1841, 20,167 within the parl. boundaries. Present (1850) pop. supposed to be about 22,000. It is connected by a handsome bridge of 9 arches, 880 ft. in length (built by Smeaton in 1771, at an expense of 25,532*l*.), with the village of Biddenden, on the left bank of the Tay. The main street runs N. and S., nearly parallel to the river; and it and the other streets are for the most part straight, and connect with each other at right angles. Many of the more modern streets and crescents are of freestone, and altogether the town is remarkably neat, clean and well-built, and has a substantial, wealthy appearance. It is lighted with gas, and the side pavements are good. The inhab. are well supplied with water, raised by a steam-engine from the river into a reservoir, whence it is conducted by pipes through the streets. North and south of the town are the two large public greens, called the North and South Leches, inc. about 170 acres. The former, which is flanked on the W. by Athole Crescent and Rose Terrace, has the race-course; the latter is surrounded by stately trees and elegant villas.

In addition to the gas and water-works, the public edifices are the co. buildings and gaol, of Grecian architecture, fronting the river, erected in 1819, at a cost of 32,000*l*.; the church of St. John, a building of very ancient but unascertained date, surmounted by a pyramidal spire of wood covered with lead, and divided into three places of worship, appropriated to three distinct parishes; St. Paul's Church, built in 1807 at an expense of 7,000*l*.; the Academy, also erected in 1807, at a cost of 6,000*l*.; lunatic asylum; the theatre; barracks; Marshall's monument (built in commemoration of a late lord provost), containing the public library and the museum of the Perth Antiquarian Society; the new city hall, 96 ft. by 68, and the old town hall. Public baths were erected some years ago, and have been well supported by the working classes. A little way S. from the town, an extensive military prison, capable of accommodating 7,500 captives, was constructed, in 1812, at an expense of 130,000*l*., but it has since been converted into the central and model prison for Scotland.

The town has 5 parochial, and 4 Free churches, in one of which the service is performed in Gaelic. There are 5 United Presbyterian chapels, comprising the United Secession the Original Seceders, and the Relief, now all merged in the same general body; with chapels belonging respectively to the Independents, Baptists, Methodists, Glasites, Scotch Episcopalians, and Roman Catholics. Within the last 18 months, a large portion of a new cathedral, called St. Ninians, in the decorated style prevalent in the 14th century, has been erected. It will, when completed, be the principal ecclesiastical edifice of the Scotch Episcopal communion in Scotland.

The grammar-school of Perth was at an early period the most celebrated in Scotland, being attended by pupils from every quarter of the kingdom. It was the first seminary in Scotland in which Hebrew was taught. (*McGrie's Life of Knox*, li. 14-16.) Its eminence may be said still to continue. The academy, which embraces the most ample course of instruction, scientific, literary, and commercial, was founded in 1760; its first rector, Dr. Robert Hamilton, afterwards of Aberdeen, is well known by his able work on "The National Debt." These 2 seminaries are endowed; and there are, besides, about 28 other schools, of which 6 are endowed; in addition to which a large seminary has recently been erected, partly by public subscription, and partly by a grant from government, for the education of 400 poor children. Perth has 6 public libraries, one of which contains 5,000 vols.; a literary and antiquarian society; a reading-room; and 3 weekly newspapers. Printing and the publishing of literary works were at one time carried on here to a greater extent than in

any town of a similar size in Scotland, perhaps in the empire. This branch has now, however, materially declined.

Poor rates have been introduced into the town, the assessment being, for the year ending 1st July, 1850, 5,740*l*. 16*s*. 3*d*., in addition to the church collections, which average about 700*l*. The number of paupers in 1850 exceeded 800. The incorporated trade, in addition to this, give an annual allowance of above 2,000*l*. to their poor members, whose number is generally about 200. A hospital for behoof of the poor was founded by James VI. This institution has a revenue of about 750*l*., distributed among 63 out-pensioners, the building being let. There are two dispensaries and an infirmary, in addition to the lunatic asylum above noticed.

About 60 years ago, Perth had an extensive trade in gloves; those made here having a preference throughout the kingdom. Latterly, however, Dundee has quite superseded Perth in this department. In consequence, the business of tanning, which principally depended on the glove trade, has greatly declined. The manufactures consist at present principally of coloured cottons, especially for umbrellas. A great quantity of handkerchiefs, checked and striped gingham, imitation India shawls, scarfs, trimmings, &c., are also woven. The aggregate number of weavers is about 1,600, some of whom are employed by Glasgow and Paisley houses. There were some years ago 4 flax-spinning mills; but these are now being converted into power-loom factories, and one into granaries. A large bleach-field at Tulloch, 2 m. W. of the city, employs 250 individuals. There are in the town several breweries, corn-mills, and 2 considerable iron-foundries. The working classes are, speaking generally, well employed at fair wages; and for these two years past they have, owing to the low price of provisions, been comparatively prosperous. The salmon fisheries on the Tay, belonging to the city, bring a rent of 1,200*l*. per annum. The quantity of salmon in c. grilles, shipped and sent by rail from Perth for London, amounts, at an average, to about 4,500 boxes, or 225 tons a year.

The Tay is navigable, at high water, to Perth for vessels drawing 14 ft. water; but the navigation was formerly much obstructed, and a great deal was required to be done for its improvement. In this view an act was obtained in 1834 for deepening the bed of the river, and forming a new harbour and wet dock, and great part of the works have been executed with much advantage to the navigation. There belonged to the port on the 1st January, 1850, 85 vessels of the agg. burden of 8,104 tons, and about 800 coasting-vessels annually enter the port. The exports consist chiefly of manufactured goods, corn, salmon, and potatoes, large quantities of the latter being shipped for London. The town supports 2 native banks and 4 branch banks: it has also a savings' bank, established in 1838, which, on the 20th January, 1849, had 107,354*l*. deposits, 2 weekly markets and 5 annual fairs. Gross customs revenue, 1849, 17,041*l*. Perth is a principal centre of railway travelling, being directly connected with Dundee, Cupar Angus, and Aberdeen; with Stirling and Glasgow; and with Burntisland and Edinburgh.

Perth is very ancient; and some authorities refer its origin to the Romans. It was a bor. at least as early as 1106. Its church being consecrated to John the Baptist, it was long called St. Johnstown. Prior to the reign of James II., Perth was the capital of Scotland; and from its central situation it is, perhaps, to be regretted that it did not continue to enjoy that distinction. The kings were crowned at Scone, about 2 m. N. of the city, and had a residence in the town. The "Parliament House" of Perth remained standing till 1818, when it was pulled down. Scone Palace, long a royal residence, has been rebuilt by its noble owner, Earl Mansfield, and is now a splendid modern mansion. The famous stone, reckoned the palladium of Scotland, on which the Scottish kings were crowned, was transferred from Dunstaffnage, in the 9th century, to Scone, whence it was removed by Edward I., in 1296, to Westminster Abbey; since which it has been enclosed within the frame-work of the regal chair on which the British sovereigns have been crowned since Edward II. There were no fewer than four monasteries in Perth (ex. one in Scone), two nunneries, and eight chapels. But the violence of the Presbyterians at the Reformation may be said not to have left a relic of these buildings. Here, in 1437, James I. was assassinated in the Blackfriars' Monastery. And here, in August, 1600, Gowrie house was the scene of that most mysterious incident in the history of Scotland, entitled the *Gowrie conspiracy*; of which, if not the contrivers, Earl Gowrie and his brother were, at all events, the victims. The house was pulled down about 30 years since, to make room for the county buildings, which occupy its site. Perth is associated with many other important events in Scottish history; but we limit ourselves to mentioning that, in 1644, it was taken by Montrose, after his victory at Tippermuir. In the neighbourhood; in 1651 it capitulated to Cromwell; and it was occupied by the insurgents in the rebellions of 1715 and 1745.

At Ruthven Castle, now called Huntingtower, 2 m. W. Perth, took place, in 1582, the singular occurrence in the history of James VI., called the *Raid of Ruthven*.

Before the passing of the Reform Act, Perth was united with four other bors. In sending I mem. to the H. of C.; but that Act conferred on it the important privilege of returning a representative for itself. Registered voters in 1848-50, 1,039. Perth is an opulent bor.; the corporation revenue for 1848-49 amounted to 5,273*l*.

Perth, though it never was the see of a bishop, is called a city; and, in the rolls of the Scottish parliament, it held rank next to Edinburgh. Its chief magistrate has the title of Lord Provost. It has also, a Dean of Guild, ranking next to the Lord Provost, as a councillor, but not as a magistrate; 4 bailies, a treasurer, and 19 other ordinary members of council.

The situation of Perth is one of the finest in Scotland. Close to the city, on the E., is the hill of Kinnoull; the summit of which, of easy access, commands one of the noblest prospects that is anywhere to be met with. Towards the S. and E. is the valley of the Tay, and the confluence of the Tay and Earn; to the W. is a finely variegated country, and to the N. the prospect is bounded by the stony girdle of the Grampians. The country round Perth is amongst the most fertile in Scotland.

PERU, a celebrated country of S. America, formerly one of the most valuable possessions of the Spanish crown. It then included the modern republic of Bolivia (S. or Upper Peru); but at present the term is restricted to the republic of N. or Lower Peru, lying chiefly between lat. 2° and 21° S., and long. 65° and 81° W.; having N. the Columbian republic of Ecuador, E. Brazil, S. E. and S. Bolivia, and W. the Pacific. Extreme length, S. E. to N. N. W. about 1,500 m.; breadth varying from 40 to 600 m. The area is estimated at about 500,000 sq. m. It is divided into 10 provs.; and is supposed to have from 1,500,000 to 1,700,000 inhab.

Physical Geography, &c.—The country is naturally divided into 3 regions; that between the coast and the Andes; that occupied by the latter; and the region E. of the Andes, forming a part of the basin of the Amazon. All these divisions differ widely in their physical character. The coast region from Tumbez, on the N. frontier to the river Leche, is mostly a desert; and wherever, in fact, the coast region is not traversed by streams, or is unsusceptible of irrigation, it consists principally of arid sandy wastes, and is in some places even barren. The Andes and their ramifications have been roughly estimated to cover, in Peru, an extent of 300,000 sq. m. They consist here, as in Bolivia, of two main chains, or Cordilleras, connected in various parts by cross ranges, and inclosing several extensive and lofty valleys. Round Cuzco is a vast knot of mountains, occupying about three times the extent of Switzerland; and round Pasco, in lat. 13° S., is another knot surrounding the plain of Bomabon, 13,500 ft. above the sea level, and in which are the rich silver mines of Cerro Pasco. The Peruvian Andes are met in Ecuador as elevated as the Bolivian; though many of their peaks rise far above the limits of perpetual snow. The loftiest summits are towards the S., where the Nevado de Chuquibambá (about lat. 15°) reaches to 21,000 ft. in height; and several other mountains surrounding the valley of Desaguadero, which belongs partly to Peru (see BOLIVIA, I. 401.) may at least approach this elevation.

In Bolivia the E., but in Peru the W., Cordillera is the highest. At the mountain-knot of Pasco, the Andes separate into 3 collateral chains, which, proceeding N. separate the basins of the Marañon, Huallaga, and Ucayali. The last range of the Andes to the E., in Peru, extends between the 6th and 15th parallels of lat., at a distance varying between 200 and 400 m. from the Pacific, and separates the basin of the Ucayali from those of the Yari, Beni, and other affluents of the Amazon. Probably no part of this range rises above 10,000 ft. in height. (See *Andes*, Vol. I.)

The space enclosed between the gigantic ridges of the E. and W. Cordillera, called the Sierra, is partly occupied by mountains and naked rocks, partly by table lands yielding short fine grass, and extensive high pasture ground, very like, in general outline, to the Highlands of Scotland, though destitute of heath, and partly by extensive and fertile valleys, that once supported a much larger amount of population. The third region, or country E. of the Cordilleras, is very little known: it is mostly covered by all but interminable forests; and a large portion of it can scarcely be said to belong to Peru, since only a few R. Cath. missions are here and there scattered over its surface, the rest of the country being in the exclusive possession of the native Indians.

Peru gives birth to some of the largest rivers in the world. The Tunguragua, generally regarded as the proper source of the Marañon or Amazon, and its vast confluents the Huallaga and Ucayali (the latter formed by the junction of the Apurimac and Puro), have their sources on the E. side of the W. Cordillera, between 104 and 16° S. lat.; and pur-

sea, though with many windings, a northerly course till they leave the country. These great rivers are mostly navigable; and, with the assistance of steam-navigation, will no doubt, at some future period, carry the riches of this remote region across the continent to the ports on the Atlantic. The great lake of Titicaca (which see) is mostly in Peru; but, excepting it, there is no other large lake; there are, however, some smaller lakes, one of which, the lake of Llauncococha, to the N. of the Cerro do Pasco, gives birth to the Tunguragua. (*Geog. Journ.*, v. vi. viii.; *Pöppig. Reise in Peru*, &c., ii.; *Meyen, Reise um die Erde*, &c., passim.)

The coast is throughout rugged and lofty. In the N. provs., some miles of a loose sandy desert intervene in a few places between the high lands and the ocean; but in general, the cliff approach close to the shore, which has not, perhaps, in an extent of 1,600 m. a dozen secure harbours. The best are those of Callao, Payta, Sechura, Salina, Pisco, Islay, Iquique, and a few others. Truxillo and Lambaëque have only open roadsteads. The water being almost uniformly deep, vessels are obliged to approach within $\frac{1}{2}$ m. of the shore, before they can anchor; and the prodigious swell which rolls in unbroken from the Pacific occasions a heavy and dangerous surf. The operation of landing is, except in a few places, at once difficult and hazardous; it is effected by means of *balsas*, or platforms raised on inflated skins, and differing in different parts of the coast. The *balsa* used by Captain Hall of Mollendo, was "made of three seal skins inflated, placed side by side, and connected by cross pieces of wood, and strong lashings of thongs; over all a platform of cane mats forms a sort of deck, about 4 ft. in width, and 6 or 8 ft. in length. At one end, the person who manages the *balsa* kneels down, and by means of a double-bladed paddle, which he holds by the middle, and strikes alternately on each side, moves it swiftly along; the passengers, or goods, being placed on the platform behind him. All the goods which go to the interior, at this part of the coast, are landed in this manner. The great bars of silver, and the bags of dollars, also, which are shipped in return for the merchandise landed pass through the surf, on these tender, though secure conveyances." (*Hall's S. America*, i. 305, 306.)

Climate.—The year may be divided into 2 seasons; the wet and the dry. From June to October, the coast lands in all the S. and central provs. are covered during the night and morning with a dense fog, the only moisture supplied by nature to this part of the country. These fogs diminish as we proceed N. and in the N. prov. of Piura, which is celebrated for its dry atmosphere, rains occasionally occur; and when such is the case, the *arenales*, or arid sands, are speedily clothed with the most exuberant vegetation. While, however, the dry season prevails on the coast, and especially from Jan. to March, heavy rains fall in the mountains, frequently accompanied with thunder, which never occurs along the coast. The extensive valleys between the Cordilleras, such as that of Cusco, 10,000 ft. above the level of the sea, enjoy an admirable climate; and though between the Tropics, are, in consequence of their elevation, all the advantages of the best climates of the temperate zone, with but few of their disadvantages. Beyond this, and at the level of about 14,000 ft., commences the limit of perpetual snow. Even in the coast region the temperature is not so high as might be supposed from the latitude; cooling S. winds being uniformly prevalent, and the sea-breezes by day alternating with others blowing from the land at night. The mean temp. of the year in Lima is about 70° Fahr. Wheat, and other European cereals, though but little cultivated, succeed admirably in the elevated valleys of the Sierra; potatoes thrive best at an elevation of from 11,000 to 18,000 feet. The country is, on the whole, salubrious. Cholera, bilious and inflammatory diseases, small-pox, and hydrophobia are common; but in Lima, and many other parts of the country, individuals frequently live to an advanced age.

Peru is more subject, perhaps, than any other country, to the tremendous visitation of earthquakes. Shocks are felt every year; and they occasionally become so violent, as to be productive of the most disastrous consequences. The earthquake which occurred in 1746 swallowed up the entire sea-port of Callao, and destroyed the greater part of the city of Lima. The years 1687, 1806, and 1828, were, also, distinguished by the occurrence of severe and most destructive shocks.

Minerals and mines.—Peru, like Mexico, is famous for her mineral products; and we have been long accustomed to associate her name with the almost unlimited abundance of gold and silver. But, though the most exaggerated notions of the value and importance of the Peruvian mines were long, and, perhaps, are still prevalent in Europe, they have, no doubt, furnished vast supplies of the precious metals. The famous mine of Potosi in Bolivia, or Upper Peru, was discovered by accident in 1545: it produced, for a lengthened series of years, vast quantities of silver; but it is now comparatively neg-

lected, and is supposed to be nearly exhausted. The greater number, as well as the most productive of the mines that are at present wrought, are situated in the Cerro di Pasco, in the dep. of Junin. They were, like Potosi, accidentally discovered in 1630.

The produce of the Peruvian, like that of the Mexican mines, has materially declined since the commencement of the revolutionary struggle. Humboldt, who had the best means of obtaining accurate information, estimated the annual value of the gold and silver produced in Peru at the commencement of the present century, at 6,340,000 dols. (1,248,000*l.*) But at present (1841), owing to the anarchy and insecurity that has prevailed, their value is probably not much above half this amount. The silver smelted in Peru, from 1820 to 1834, is said to have amounted to 3,296,573 marcs, worth 5,604,175*l.*

The following is a statement of the quantities of silver reduced to bars at the different smelting-houses of Peru in 1834 (*Board of Trade Tables for 1839*):—

Departments.	Marcs.	Departments.	Marcs.
Lima	15,881	Ayacucho	2,417
Truxillo	15,267	Puno	51,379
Junin (Pasco)	272,556	Arequipa	4,562
Total	341,804	marcs, worth 561,068 <i>l.</i>	

It is estimated that over and above the quantities given above, 1-3d part more is actually raised in the different departments, except in Junin, where 1-5th part of excess is produced, and smuggled out of the country in the state of *plata fina*, or native silver. In 1838, 900 marcs of gold, and 267,258 oz. of silver were coined at the several mints of Peru. Perhaps, on the whole, allowing for smuggling, &c., the total produce of the gold and silver mines of Peru, including Bolivia, may now (1841), amount to from 700,000*l.* to 750,000*l.* a year. Huancavelica has one of the richest quicksilver mines in the world, one portion of which (St. Barbara), furnished 5,000 quintals a-year of quicksilver, for 2 centuries. It is said that the metal might be procured here at an expense of 65 dols. the quintal; though, in 1837-38, quicksilver was so scarce in Peru, as to cost from 200 to 220 dols. per quintal. These mines were then, of course, unwrought; but a private company has since been formed to work them, which has proceeded to a considerable extent with its operations. (*Smith's Peru*, ii. 24.)

Exclusive of the above Peru produces iron, copper, tin, coal, salpêtre, &c. The latter, indeed, under the name of nitrate of soda has, within the last few years, become an important article of export.

Vegetable products are numerous, and very dissimilar. Sugar, rice, tobacco, yams, sweet potatoes, and cocoa, are raised in the warmest situations; the vine, wheat, and quinoa (*chenopodium quinoa*) are planted in colder places, and potatoes on the highest cultivated grounds. The grapes are well-flavoured, but the wine made from them is inferior. The sugar cane is mostly the creole species. Three sorts of maize are cultivated, and this grain, which forms the principal farinaceous food of the modern inhabitant, appears to have been also the principal formerly in use among the Indians, large quantities having been discovered in subterranean granaries, where it had probably remained from a period previously to the Spanish conquest. Cotton is grown in almost every part of Peru, and the Peruvian ranks immediately after the Sea Island and Egyptian cotton in the English markets. Except in the prov. Piura, it is all short stapled. The culture is rapidly increasing, and it may now be considered one of the staple products of the country. Lucerne is a good deal grown for provender; it reaches the height of three feet, and is cut five times a year. Culinæ vegetables abound; beans, with potatoes, forming the principal food of the lower classes in the uplands. Olives succeed well in certain districts, and oil is extensively produced, but it is inferior to that of France or Italy. Plantain, bananas, guavas, and other tropical fruits, with oranges, lemons, nectarines, plums, and others common to Europe, are found in great profusion. Bark, and numerous medicinal plants, with cedar, ebony, mahogany, walnut, and other valuable timber trees abound in the forests. The valuable and well-known drug called Peruvian bark consists of the rind of the *cinchona lancifolia*, *oblongifolia*, *califolia*, &c., and is, consequently, of several varieties. The genus *cinchona* is supposed to be confined to the Andean ranges between lat. 10° N. and 22° S., where it grows luxuriantly to the height of 10,000 ft. above the sea. The provs. of Loxa, Ecuador, and Huanuco, are those in which the bark is principally obtained; and during a lengthened period after its first introduction into Europe in 1640, it was called Loxa bark, from the former of these provs. Its collection begins in May and continues till November. The trees are cut down close to the root; the stems are then divided into pieces of uniform length; and about three or four days afterwards the bark is taken off in broad stripes. The price which

the article fetches depends on the rapidity with which it is dried, which is effected by exposing the bark with the least possible delay to a hot sun, which makes the pieces roll up and sometimes form a solid cylinder, without any cavity in the centre. It is afterwards carefully packed in bales of 4 or 5 arrobas each, and exported in chests closely covered with skins. (*Poeppig, Com. to Bot. Mar.* i. 249) Coca, the dried leaf of the *Erythroxylon coca*, is largely used by the Peruvians for chewing, much in the same way as betel in the East. Poeppig says that indulgence in its use brings on a gloomy kind of mania; but other authorities deny that it has any such effect.

Agriculture, which was never in a prosperous state, has, like every other branch of industry, been greatly neglected since the revolution. Dr. Smith gives an account of the agriculture of a district between the Cordilleras, which he says may serve for that of the Sierra generally. "The agriculture of Huanuco, though alluring to the eye of the ordinary traveller, who only glances at its rich and waving fields of maize, inclosed within tapias or fences of mud, and hedges of the Indian fig and aloe or maguey plants, is in every way defective. The fields owe their luxuriance to nature rather than man, except in the single advantage of water, which he often directs and supplies to them. Manure is a thing never thought of; and the implements of husbandry are of the rudest kind. The plough, slight and single-hated, is constructed out of wood, without a mould-board. The ploughshare is a thick iron blade (or, where iron is not at hand, a piece of hard iron-wood), only tied, when required for use, by a piece of thong, or lasso, on the point of the plough, which divides the earth very superficially. Harrows they have, properly speaking, none; but sometimes use, instead, large clumsy rakes, or a green bough dragged over the sown ground, with a weight upon it to make it scratch the soil. Instead of the roller, they break down the earth intended for cane-plants, after it has got eight or ten ploughings, and cross-ploughing with the heel of a short-handled hoe. For smoothing down the clods of earth, some Indians use a soft, flat, round stone, about the size of a small cheese, which has had a hole beaten through its centre by dint of blows with a harder and pointed stone. To the stone thus perforated they fix a long handle; and as they swing it about they do great execution in the work of *cupiando* or field levelling. Lucern, or *alfalfa*, is cut down, and used green, cattle and working oxen for the plough and sugar-mills being fed on it; yet the scythe is not in use among the great planters, who find it necessary to keep two or three individuals at the sickle to cut down food for herds, which, in the day time, are fed on irrigated pastures, but at night in corrals or pens. The Indians are accustomed to break up potatoe grounds on the face of steep hills with deep narrow spades having long handles. In the same manner the soil is turned up by those who have neither plough nor oxen, but who yet sow maize on the temperate flats on the hill sides. People thus circumstanced make holes in the ground with a sharp pointed stick, where they bury the seed. The Indian sows the white grained maize in preference to the yellow, as he considers that when toasted it makes the best "*cancha*," or substitute for bread; and that when boiled it makes the best "*mote*," or simply boiled maize: it has moreover the credit of making the most savoury *chicha* or beer, which they home-brew whenever they have a little surplus grain. They also make a kind of beer from the fermented juice of the maize stalks compressed between small rollers of wood turned by the hand. Dry maize leaves and stubble are most used in the foddering of cattle. The sugar mills in the valley of Huanuco are mostly made of wood, and wrought by oxen. On the larger estates small brass rollers are used; but water-power is not thought of, the proprietors adhering to the old practice of working with oxen day and night throughout the year, barring accidents, and feasts, and holidays." (*Peru as it is*, ii. 40—46.)

The wild animals include the puma, or American lion; the *uturuncu* (*Felis onca*, L.), a kind of tiger cat; the *acumari* (*urus Americ.*, L.), a black bear inhabiting the mountains; the *anas*, or skunk; great numbers of deer, wild boars, armadillos, &c., which are objects of the chase; and several varieties of animals, as the llama, al paca, guanaco, vicuña, used by the Indians by the native Peruvians, previously to the Spanish invasion, as beasts of burden. (Copious descriptions of these animals may be found in *Stevenson's Trav.* ii. 85—92., and *Smith's Peru*, &c., ii. Appendix.) Four varieties of the condor are included among the native birds. Alligators are met with in the rivers; but neither the reptile nor the insect tribes appear to infest Peru so much as the country around Guayaquil and some other regions within the tropics.

Of the foreign quadrupeds acclimated in Peru, sheep appear to have succeeded best. They have increased to an amazing degree on the great commons or pastures of the Andes, at an elevation of 12,000 or 14,000 ft. above the sea. Few sheep are bred on the coast; but

during certain months, large flocks are driven from the interior, and fattened for the Lima market. Many of the ewes are in lamb, and the common bargain between the drover and the farmer is to give the lambs for the pasturage, the farmer calculating on receiving 150 lambs for every 100 ewes. Besides this increase, which is greater than in England, the ewes bear twice a year, generally in June and Dec. (*Stevenson*, ii. 2.) Little attention has been hitherto paid to breeding sheep, so as to improve the wool; but as the latter is now becoming an increasing article of export, more care will doubtless be bestowed on this object. The largest quantities of wool exported are from Ilay, and are chiefly produced in the neighbourhood of Lampa, Puno, and Cusco. It is soft and similar in appearance to English wool; but, being badly cleaned, it does not fetch more than 5d. or 10d. per lb.; that from the mountains between Lima and Pasco, being better cleaned, usually brings 1d. per lb. additional. The wool produced on the coast is of very inferior quality. Vicuña wool is exported, but only in small quantities. In the high region, cattle, horses, asses, &c., are of a stunted size; but in the valleys and on the coast they are large, spirited, and showy.

The cattle of Peru are not so large as those of Lincolnshire; but at an average, they are as large as the English, French, and Spanish cattle: when fed on lucern, the meat is well flavoured, fat, and juicy, and the bones very small. (*Ibid.* i.) The black cattle of the Sierra do not agree with the climate of the coast, and when brought there speedily die. Ordinary horses and mules fetch from 45 to 50 dols. each. Piura is noted for its excellent breed of the latter, and many mules are taken thence to Truxillo, Lima, &c., where they sometimes fetch 250 dols. each. The same prov. is also famous for its goats. A good many pigs are reared in Peru; they are considered fit for market at from 10 to 16 months old, when they sell at from 6 to 9 dols. each, if of good breed.

The *Populace* consists principally of native Indians, Spaniards, negroes, and the races of mixed origin derived from the foregoing; but of the number of each we have no authentic estimate. The accounts of the Indians given by recent travellers are in many respects conflicting and various; we believe, however, that the statements of Ulloa may, on the whole, be safely depended on. That excellent observer represents them as in the lowest stage of civilization, without any desire for the comforts and conveniences of civilised life, immersed in sloth and apathy, from which they can rarely be roused, except when they have an opportunity of indulging to excess in ardent spirits, of which they are excessively fond. (*Voyage* ii. liv. vi. cap. 6.) With the exception of Mr. Stevenson, most recent travellers say that they are dirty in the extreme, seldom taking off their clothes even to sleep, and still more rarely using water. (*Modern Traveller*, Peru, p. 286.) Their habitations are miserable hovels, destitute of every convenience or accommodation, and disgustingly filthy. Their dress is poor and mean, and their food coarse and scanty. Their religion is still tainted with the superstition of their forefathers; but they are great observers of the ceremonies and ceremonies of the church, and spend large sums of money in masses and processions; a species of profusion to which they are excited and encouraged by their priests, who profit by it. We have previously made some statements illustrative of their attainments in the arts at the epoch of the Spanish invasion. (*See* Vol. i. 84.) The oppressions to which they have since been subject have probably sunk them to a lower point in the scale of civilization than they then occupied; and, no doubt, it would be possible, were proper care taken, materially to improve their habits and condition. A good deal, too, of their apathy and little progress in arts and industry, must be ascribed to the physical circumstances under which they have been placed—the mildness of the climate and the fertility of the soil, which, on the one hand, by diminishing their wants, and, on the other, by enabling them to supply those which they do feel with comparatively little exertion, take away and greatly weaken some of the most powerful motives that prompt to labour and invention. Still, however, we are well convinced, notwithstanding the statements and reasonings to the contrary of M. d'Orbigny* and others, that the Indians are naturally an inferior race, and, indeed, wholly incapable of any degree of civilization.

The principal burden to which the Indians were subject, under the Spanish government, was that of the *mita*, or compulsory labour in the mines. All male Indians from 18 to 50 years of age were compelled, during a certain specified period, to undergo this servitude. Its severity had, however, been materially abated previously to the revolution, and it was then entirely suppressed.

Mammiferes are in a very backward state, though many of them make considerable ingenuity. In Tarma they make ponchos, or loose cloaks, of great beauty and fineness, and on the colder table lands warmer

* See the learned work entitled *L'Homme Américain*, passim.

coarser blankets, ponchos, &c. In the valleys, goat is made into cordovans, cow-hides into saddles, and travelling cases for bed and bedding, and mass carpeting from rushes. Cordage for packing is manufactured from the maguay in Piura; and at Guamanga is the fine Aligree silver wool, for which inland Peru is celebrated. But in general, the manufactures of Europe, in the larger towns, supersede those of the natives, and are supplied to Peru in exchange for raw produce.

Trade.—Bullion is by far the most important of all the articles exported from Peru. Its value may at present (50) amount to about 1,600,000*l.* a year. Among the articles exported are, wheat, and sheep's wool, of which we imported 3,665,419 *lb.* in 1848; salt-petre, suits' bark, copper-ore, hides, cotton, chinchilla skins, &c. The latter is found in large quantities on the parts of the coast of Peru; but it is principally dug from some small islands opposite to Pisco, where it is found in immense quantities. The stock in Chincha, one of the islands referred to, was recently estimated at out 17,000,000 tons; and that in the whole group at out 40,000,000 tons! Being within the rainless region

Peru, the guano of these deposits is much superior to that which has been found on the Chilean coast, and in the parts of Africa. In 1848 we imported the large quantity of 73,567 tons Peruvian guano. The entire value of the exports from this country to Peru, in 1849, amounted to 878,261*l.* They consist principally of cotton, woolen, and linen manufactures, especially the first, the machinery and mill-work, hardware and cutlery, stoneware, &c. We subjoin

An Account of the different Articles (ex. Guano), exported from Peru in 1839, with their Values.

Articles.	Value of Exports in 1839.	
	Dollars.	£ sterling.
Bark - - - - -	50,327 4	1,065 10
Bullion and specie - - -	6,554,141 0	1,310,229 4
Chinchilla skins - - -	11,016 0	2,303 4
Copper ore, barilla - - -	91,093 0	18,117 16
Copper in bars - - - -	1,637 0	337 8
Cotton - - - - -	371,500 2	74,560 1
Hides, ox and cow - - -	6,498 0	1,271 16
Horn core - - - - -	268 0	55 0
Seal skins - - - - -	6,266 4	1,111 8
Salt-petre, nitrate of soda -	299,152 0	59,330 8
Sugar - - - - -	524,150 0	10,420 0
Tin - - - - -	61,867 0	12,373 8
Wool, Vicuña - - - - -	752 2	50 9
Sheep's - - - - -	232,032 0	50,406 8
Alpacas - - - - -	397,650 0	79,330 0
Total - - - - -	8,161,519 4	1,632,869 18

In addition to the above articles of produce there were also exported on British vessels, as returns for goods sold in Peru, the produce of Ecuador, New Granada, and central America, to the amount of 51,964*l.* The exports of bark, copper ore from Bolivia, Chinchilla skins, salt-petre, &c., manifested a considerable increase in the above over the previous year: the export of seal skins ad diminished. Hides cannot become an article of very considerable export, for though the greater part of theanned leather for shoes, &c., is imported from Ecuador, yet from the want of building timber on the coast and able lands, hides are necessarily used as a substitute for rood. The export of all articles of native produce, except the precious metals, is free of duty.

The remains of the Incas' road, extending through the entire of Peru from Quito to Cuzco, a distance of 1,500 *m.*, may, according to Humboldt, be compared with the most Roman roads; though, when it is recollected that the Peruvians were ignorant of the arch, and that their ridges were made of osier ropes, this statement will probably appear not a little extravagant. Various asses were also cut in the steep acclivities of the Andes by the Peruvians before the Spanish conquest. The roads laid down by the European masters of the country are no comparison with the foregoing. The country, indeed, with a few exceptions in the vicinity of the large cities, only of foot tracks for horses or mules; and, in point of fact, goods are exclusively conveyed on the backs of the latter. In the dep. Junin, however, Dr. Smith says that laudable efforts have been lately made for improving the roads; but no regular post-houses are yet anywhere established, and at this moment the want of roads and of improved means of communication, is the greatest obstacle to the improvement of the country. So much is this the case, that Lima and some other towns along the coast find it more convenient to receive supplies of corn from Chill by sea than from the interior of their own country! We have elsewhere described the sort of ridges in use in the Andes (see art. ANDRES, Vol. I. 113, 14.).

The Government is popular and representative, the sovereignty, in theory at least, emanating from the

people. Peru has a senate or chamber of deputies, consisting of an uncertain number of members, which delegates the executive power to a president and the other high authorities of the state. The chamber of deputies consists of representatives elected by the electoral colleges of provs. and parishes. The parochial electoral colleges consist of all the citizens resident in a par. for every 300 of whom an elector is nominated; and in every village with an amount of pop. entitling it to name an elector, a municipal body is established, subject to the approbation of the departmental *juntas*. The electoral colleges of provs. are composed of parochial electors constituted according to law, who elect depts. to congress in the proportion of one for every 30,000 inhabs. The prov., however, in which the whole pop. does not come up to 10,000, may nevertheless send a deputy. The government of every dep. is vested in a prefect, that of a prov. in a sub-prefect, that of a district in a governor, and that of every town or Indian village in an *alcalde*, who is entrusted with the command of the local police. To fill the foregoing appointments, it is required that the candidate should be an active and approved citizen above 30 years of age. The prefects are charged with the economical administration of their respective depts., but are prohibited from interfering with the course of popular elections, or the functions of the departmental *juntas*. The latter are bodies sitting in the capital of each dep., composed of 3 mems. from each prov. elected in the same manner as the mems. of the senate, and whose functions include the assessing of taxes, examining the accounts, and determining the military force, of the dep.

Justice, in all the depts., is administered in the name of the republic; and in every town are justices of the peace, whose business is to endeavour to bring about an amicable termination without a formal law suit, few suits being, in fact, admitted without some preliminary attempt at settlement. In some provs. the functions of the judge are exercised by the sub-prefect. Justice is not said to be positively corrupt, but, the law being ill understood by many judicial functionaries, civil suits especially have been frequently decided on erroneous principles. Few of the municipalities have revenues adequate to the maintenance of a sufficient police; the latter is said to be better in Junin than in the other depts. The prov. prisons are bad and insecure. Slavery is extinguished except as respects those who were slaves previously to the declaration of Peruvian independence in 1820. Except those individuals, a traffic in whom still goes on in the interior, every one enjoys the right of citizenship, excepting only vagrants, gamblers, drunkards, and those who, without cause, abandon their wives, or are divorced on account of misconduct.

The state religion is the Roman Catholic; and, Peru having been the country in which the direct influence of Spain was perhaps more felt than in any other of her transatlantic possessions, a great deal of intolerance was formerly shown toward individuals of a different creed; though we believe considerable portions of the people appeared since the establishment of the republic. Lima is the seat of an archbishop, who holds the chief ecclesiastical authority. The Jesuits in the 17th century, and afterwards the Franciscan monks, established various Indian missions in the E. parts of the country. But these have almost all gone to decay; and the former missionary college of Ocopa, about 12 *m.* S. E. Tarma, suppressed at the revolution, but afterwards restored, is by no means flourishing, and many Indians of the interior are relapsing into paganism. The clergy are said to be careless of their duties, and lax in their morals. "The Indians and curates are often seen chattering and driving hard bargains in relation to first fruits (for tithes are collected by the state), marriages, burials, and religious festivals, which latter are closely interwoven with the entire social system of the country. The Sierra curates are men commonly much worn out in constitution at the age of 40. These gentlemen, when their home becomes irksome, start off, swayed by some sudden impulse, to the nearest town of white inhabs., where they enjoy a finer climate and more gratifying company. The curates not unfrequently resort to a mining village, under pretext, perhaps, of selling his 'primicia,' or first fruits, in grain, gambling with the miners day and night, till the primicia be all swallowed up; and the poor residentary returns home involved in a debt which he cannot pay for the next six months, even should his curacy be worth 4,000 or 5,000 dollars a year, though it be oftener much less." (*Peru as it is*, l. 211, 212.)

Schools for reading, on the Lancasterian plan, are common in the capital, and exist in the larger provincial towns; and all the white children are taught the elements of instruction. Lima has a university and several other colleges; but the former has seldom more than 50 students, and the latter establishments have mostly dwindled into insignificance. Superior education is confined to a very few among the whites, and ornamental almost universally takes precedence of useful instruction: the negroes and Indians have rarely any education

except what is necessarily acquired in the ordinary intercourse between man and man. There are some good libraries in the cap, and a medical college; but medical science generally is at a very low ebb. In the rural districts especially, what is called medicine is the grossest quackery; and other branches of general science are not in a much better condition. There are a few hospitals or other charitable institutions, such foundation having been mostly suffered to fall into decay.

The constitution provides that a national militia shall be raised throughout the country; but in most of the provs. it can hardly be said to exist, except in name. The standing army is estimated at 3,000 men, and the naval force is quite insignificant. (*Smith, Peru as it is*, li. 65—142.) We cannot form any clear estimate of the public revenue and debt of this state: the *Weimar Almanack* roughly states the probable amount of the latter at 20,000,000 piastres.

History.—When the Spaniards under Pizarro and Almagro arrived in Peru, in 1532, they found that country under the dominion of the Incas, who, according to the traditions of the Indians, had held the sovereignty about four centuries. The first Inca, Manco Capac, had either immigrated from some distant country or been a person of very superior acquirements. He pretended that his sister, Ocollo, whom he married, and himself were children of the sun, and that they were sent to instruct this rude and barbarous nation in the duties of religion and in arts and civilisation. He made Cuzco the cap. of his dominions; and, having erected a temple to the Sun in that city, appointed 12 virgins of the blood royal to act as priestesses to the divinity, and became both the high-priest and law-giver of his people. The government and manners of the Peruvians were, as compared with those of the Mexicans, mild in the extreme. Still, however, a considerable number of the attendants of the Incas were sacrificed on their death, and interred with them, so that they might appear in the next world with their former dignity, and be served with the same respect. The remains of the roads, aqueducts, palaces, temples, and other structures, scattered over the country, attest the advanced state of civilisation at which the Peruvians, as compared with most other Americans, had arrived. The empire of the Incas fell an easy conquest to Pizarro and his bloodthirsty comrades. It continued in possession of the Spaniards till 1821, when Lima, having submitted to a Chilean army under San Martin, its independence was declared on the 28th of July. Since that time Peru has been, like the other *ex-ouest* Spanish colonies, involved in all but perpetually occurring vicissitudes. (*Ulloa; Robertson's America; Stevenson's Residence in Peru; Smith, Peru as it is; Humboldt; Hall; Miller; Geog. Journal*, &c.)

PERUGIA (an. *Perusia*), a town of the Papal States, cap. deleg. of the same name, nearly in the centre of the Italian peninsula, and on the main route between Rome and Florence, about equidistant from the Mediterranean and Adriatic, and 95 m. N. Rome; lat. $43^{\circ} 6' 46''$ N., long. $12^{\circ} 22' 13''$ E. Pop. 30,000. It stands on the summit and declivity of a hill, 700 or 800 ft. in height. It is fortified, though not strongly; being defended, exclusive of its walls, by a castle, erected by Pope Paul III., in 1543. It is irregularly laid out, but well-built, and has several public buildings and remains of antiquity that are worth notice. The cathedral is a large Gothic edifice, which would be handsome, were it not so partly-coloured. Like many of the other churches, it is rich in works of art, having paintings by Barocci, Guido, and Perugino, exclusive of four famous pictures by Raphael—the Annunciation, Circumcision, Assumption, and Adoration of the Magi. The churches of St. Dominico and St. Francisco are interesting; the last being a very handsome specimen of early Italian architecture. The *palazzo pubblico* is a remarkable specimen of Italian Gothic. Among the antiquities are an arch, reported to have been built by Augustus, though, according to Mr. Wood (*Letters of an Architect*, li. 104.), it is probably later; a circular building, still tolerably perfect, which is evidently of Roman origin. There are numerous public fountains; one of which, in the principal square, has been ornamented with bas-reliefs and statues by Arnolfo da Lapo. Perugia has a university, with about 300 students, several academies, numerous convents, two theatres, a bull-ring, and an admirable ground for playing *pallone*. This city is the residence of a Papal delegate, a bishop's see, the seat of a tribunal of primary jurisdiction, and a board of police, and the residence of the directing engineer of bridges and roads for the deleg. of Perugia, Spoleto, and Rieti. It has manufactures of carpets, silk goods, prepared skins, hats, cream of tartar, soap, and wax-candles, and some trade in wines, oil, and other agricultural products.

Perugia is scarcely inferior in antiquity to Cortona, and was its equal in rank among the cities of Etruria. Antony having shut himself up in the city, it was taken, after a stubborn resistance, by Octavius Cæsar, who dismissed Antony; but the city was hardly dealt with, more, as Velleius says, through the irritation of the soldiers than

the inclination of the general. (lib. ii. cap. 74.) It was annexed to the Papal dominion by Julius II., in 1512. The famous painter, Vanucci, surnamed Perugino, was a native of this city. (*Wood's Letters of an Architect; Shaw's*, &c.)

PESAKO (an. *Pisaurum*), a coast town of central Italy, Papal State, leg. Urbino, on the Toggia, near its mouth, in the Adriatic, 20 m. N. by E. Urbino; lat. $43^{\circ} 55' 10''$ N., long. $12^{\circ} 34' 5''$ E. Pop. about 15,000. It is surrounded with fortifications, and is well built. The streets are clean and airy, and it has in general a neater appearance than most towns of Italy. Its market-place is ornamented with a fountain, and a marble statue of pope Urban VIII. Being the see of a bishop, it has, of course, its cathedral, and the usual complement of churches and convents. It has no harbour, but merely an open roadstead. Some of the churches are remarkable for their paintings, as are several of the houses of the higher ranks. The palace of the former dukes of Urbino is now occupied by the Papal legate. There are many handsome private residences, 2 hospitals, a foundling asylum, a good theatre, &c. The aqueduct, which conveys water to different parts of the town, is supposed to be a work of the Romans; and there are the remains of an ancient bridge and theatre. Silk and cotton stuffs, glass bottles, cream of tartar, &c., are produced on a small scale; but the inhabitants are principally employed in the trade in agricultural produce, the surrounding country, which is rich and well-cultivated, producing the best figs in Italy, with wine, olives, silk, &c. There are several handsome villas in the vicinity; one of which was occupied, in 1818-19, by Queen Caroline of England. *Pisaurum* was a Roman colony. It is noticed by Catullus,

— moribunda sede Pisauri. Carm. 82.

But the defects in its climate, which made it be so characterised, have not been to a considerable extent obviated by the drainings of some adjacent marshes. The famous musical composer, Rossini, was a native of, and resided in this town. (*Rampoldi, Woods, Stark*, &c., *passim*.)

PESHAWER (The "Advanced Post"), a considerable city of Afghanistan, cap. of a principality of the same name, which for some time belonged to Runjeet Singh, but which is now, probably, included in the dom. of the Caubul sovereign. It stands in a nearly circular plain, about 35 m. in diameter, and watered by many branches of the Caubul river, 140 m. E. by S. Caubul, and 236 m. N.W. Lahore; lat. $34^{\circ} 6'$ N., long. $71^{\circ} 13'$ E. Pop., formerly estimated by Mr. Elphinstone at 100,000, but it is now certainly much less. It is built on uneven ground, and is upwards of 5 m. in circ. The houses are mostly built of unburnt brick, inclosed in wooden frames, and are commonly three stories high; the lower story being usually occupied by shops. The streets, though narrow, are paved, and have a kennel in the middle. Two or three brooks run through the town, skirted with willows and mulberry-trees, and crossed by bridges. There are many mosques, but no public buildings, is said to deserve public notice, except the *Bala Hisar*, or citadel, and a fine caravanserai. The former, a castle of no strength, on a hill N. of the town, commands an extensive and beautiful view, and when visited by Mr. Elphinstone in 1809, had some fine halls, and was surrounded with spacious gardens, being the occasional residence of the king of Caubul; but when Moorcroft saw it about a dozen years afterwards, it was a heap of rubbish, and the only use made of it by its Seikh rulers was as a quarry whence to procure materials for dwellings of their own erection. Many of the houses in the city were also, at the latter period, untenanted and in ruins; in the plain numerous villages were deserted; and in the immediate vicinity of the town the Seikhs had inflicted more mischief than many years' labour could remedy, by destroying gardens and orchards, and demolishing the wells, and channels of irrigation. (*Moorcroft's Trav.*, li. 327.)

Peshawer is well situated for trade, and should the Indus come to be extensively navigated by British vessels, Peshawer would most likely become a considerable entrepôt for the trade between India and Afghanistan, Khorassan, and the countries N. of the Hindoo Koosh. The inhabitants are very mixed, but principally of Indian origin, and occupied in commerce. The shops are well supplied with fruits and other provisions, saddlery, boots and shoes, woollens, hardware, books, and other manufactured goods.

It is said by some authorities to have been founded by Acer; but the district of Peshawer is mentioned in the histories of the 10th century; and it is more probable that it should have taken its name from a city already existing, than the reverse. Peshawer was, however, greatly improved and enlarged by Acer, in the 16th century. (*Elphinstone's Caubul*, li. 72-81; *Moorcroft's Travels*, li. 327, 338; *Burnes's Bokhara*, &c.)

PESTH, a city of Hungary, on the E. side of the

Danube, 136 m. E. S. E. Vienna, immediately opposite to Buda, with which it is connected by a magnificent suspension bridge, opened in 1848. (See BUDA.) It is the seat of the chief judicial tribunals of the country, as Buda is the residence of the viceroy and other chief state authorities. Pop. (excl. garrison and strangers), about 3,000, principally R. Catholics; or, together with Buda (whence) and its suburbs, probably 110,000. (*Berghaus*.) Pesth, with its suburbs, occupies a space about 64 m. in arc. It stands on level ground; and being almost wholly of modern date, is much more regularly laid out and handsomely built than Buda. The streets, which are mostly wide and straight, are paved and partially furnished with trottoirs, some of them being, in the splendour of their shops and their elaborately painted signs, little inferior to those of Vienna. "After a fashion, once common with us, and of which one or two specimens still exist in London, every shop has a name and sign; so that you may buy your cigars at the *Young Prince*, your ravaits at the *Three Graces*, and bonbons at the *English Lord*; and for the instruction of those who do not read, or to attract the attention of those who do, these subjects are all illustrated by large paintings, in a style by no means contemptible." (*Paget's Hungary*, i. 343-4.) The quares are generally very well built; but from the want of some object in the centre, they look bare and deserted; besides affording room for the accumulation of those eaps of sand with which the city is infested, but which might probably be prevented by planting round the outskirts. The growth of Pesth within the last few years has been most rapid. Along the riverside, which, a few ears ago, was nothing but a marsh, is now a wide quay, artificially paved and walled in, and lined for upward of a mile by a succession of handsome buildings. Near the centre of these are the new theatre, and *Kedventes-szal*, a public hall-room; and at one end, ornamented with a portico like the last named edifice, is the National Casino, an institution similar to the clubs of London, established by Count Szechenyi. It is open to strangers, who may use it during their stay in Pesth, and its reading-room is furnished with the leading newspapers and magazines of Europe. A part of the establishment is appropriated as a Casino for tradesmen; and in the centre of the building is a very fine ball-room. Among the most conspicuous of the public edifices is the *Neveszade*, in the suburb of Leopoldstadt, begun by Joseph II. in 1786; a structure of immense size, 4 stories in height, lined round 4 spacious areas, and now used as a barracks and artillery depot. Pesth has only a small number of churches in proportion to its size and pop., and none particularly distinguished for architectural beauty. Service is performed in them according to the United Greek, R. Catholic, Dissenting Greek, Lutheran, and Calvinistic rituals; and in the German, Hungarian, Slavonic, and Greek languages. There are also several synagogues. Besides the large theatre on the quay, an elegant new national theatre, opened solely for Hungarian performances, has recently been completed by the aid of a grant from the Diet. The grenadiers' barracks, county hall, Jesuit college, and two or three of the hospitals, are worth notice. But, in respect of public buildings, Pesth must eld to Buda; it has, however, many noble palaces and her private residences, and excellent hotels and coffee-houses. This city is also distinguished by its establishments devoted to the higher branches of scientific instruction. A university, established at Tyrnau in 1633, and transferred thither from Buda, by Joseph II., in 1784, is the only one in Hungary, and one of the most richly endowed in Europe. The instruction is entirely gratuitous; and it has about 50 professors, an observatory on a Blockberg in Buda, a large botanic garden, a veterinary hospital, and a library of 60,000 vols. In 1846, it had about 1,000 students. The National Museum, founded 1802, has a fine library, rich in Hungarian MSS.; a complete collection of Hungarian coins from the 10th century; collections of minerals, fossils, antiquities (principally Roman, and others, found in Hungary and Transylvania); historical relics, specimens of manufactures, &c. The Hungarian academy of sciences, originally founded for the cultivation of the Magyar language, has received many munificent donations, and has an income of about 2,000,000. A year. It publishes transactions, and gives annual prizes for the best works in Hungarian. Pesth has, also, a gymnasium, Rom. Cath. and Lutheran seminaries, an English conventual school for noble ladies (*Anglisch Fräulein*), a teachers' seminary, many primary, and Greek, Protestant, and Jewish schools, a medical school, &c. The chief judicial tribunals are the *via Regia*, or Royal Table, and the *Septemviral Tafel*, termed because it originally consisted of 7 members, it was extended so as to include the palatine, 4 preses, 9 magistrates, and 7 other nobles. There are various aritable institutions. Several newspapers are published in the Hungarian language. Though near the extreme verge of European civilisation towards the E.,

Pesth has all the appearance and conveniences of a city of W. Europe. It is well furnished with provisions of every kind, and, in some respects, its inhabitants are better off than those even of the capitals of England and France. "The *flaccr* is none of the heavy, shabby, slow coaches found on the stands of London; but a very clean, smart, open calèche, with two high-bred little horses, which whisk along at a famous rate; and a driver as far superior in sharpness and wit to his wooden-shod confrère of Paris, as the equipage is to that of London. In winter, instead of the open calèche, a neat close chariot takes its place; for he is a very poor *flaccr*, in Pesth, who has not a winter and a summer carriage." (*Paget*, i. 280.)

The greatest variety of costume may be seen in Pesth, especially at the four great annual fairs, which are attended by at least 20,000 strangers, many of them from very distant parts. The business transacted at these fairs is very extensive. (See *Bright's Travels in Lower Hungary*, pp. 217-223.)

Pesth manufactures silk and woollen fabrics, leather, straw hats, oil, tobacco, &c.; but its principal manufacture is that of *mevackassum* pipe-bowls. These, which consist of the species of earth called *agash*, dug in the Crimea, are first rudely fashioned in *Coqeslepe*, but are finished for the German markets in Pesth. They are thence conveyed to Vienna, and ultimately to the fairs of Leipzig, Frankfurt, Mannheim, &c.; where the best fetch from 3*l.* to 5*l.*; and even 7*l.* sterling. A considerable intercourse is kept up between Pesth and Buda; all classes pay toll on passing the bridge.

The amusements of both cities differ little from those of the German capitals. The theatres, coffee-houses, and public gardens in the neighbourhood are the favourite places of resort. Immediately beyond the barriers of Pesth is the *Rákoss Mező*, a wide plain on which the diets of Hungary were held for many centuries; and on a part of which horse-races, somewhat after the English fashion, are now held yearly in May or June.

Pesth is supposed to occupy the site of the *Transacium* of the Romans, on the ruins of which a town was afterwards built by Arpad. Bela IV., in the 13th century, surrounded the town with walls; and it subsequently rose to considerable commercial importance. It was held by the Turks 160 years. The present town, one of the best built and handsomest in the Austrian dominions, may be said to have wholly grown up since the reign of Maria-Theresa. It suffered severely in 1838 from an inundation of the Danube, which is said to have destroyed 1,200 houses in the older part of the city. (*Est. Nat. Encycl.*; *Berghaus*, *Allg. Länder, &c.*; *Paget's Hungary*, i. 223-245; *Bright's Travels in Lower Hungary*, &c.)

PETERBOROUGH, an episcopal city and parl. bor. of England, in liberty of its own name, co. Northampton, on the navigable Great Ouse, crossed here by a wooden bridge, 37 m. N. E. Northampton, and 75 m. N. by E. London. Area of parl. bor. (which includes the entire par. of St. John the Baptist, with the Minister precincts), 1,480 acres. Pop. in 1841, 6,391. This small city consists of several streets close to the N. bank of the river, regularly laid out, well-paved, and lighted with gas, the houses generally being well-built, and some of recent erection. The principal public building is the cathedral, formerly attached to a Benedictine monastery, founded here in 870, and regarded at the Dissolution as one of the most magnificent abbeys in the kingdom. It is a regular cruciform structure of Norman and early English architecture, erected during the 12th century. The dimensions of the interior are, length, 476 ft.; breadth of nave and aisles, 78 ft.; breadth, including the great transept, 203 ft.; breadth of transepts, 69 ft.; height of ceiling, 78 ft.; ditto of lantern, 135 ft.; length of the W. front 156 ft.; height of the central tower, 150 ft. A tower and spire once stood over the N. W. transept; but the latter has been taken down. The approach to the cathedral has a very massive appearance. "Passing under a Norman gate, with later additions, a court is entered, the right side of which is formed by the domestic buildings of the abbey; and at the end is the noble front of the church, consisting of three fine early English arches; but their beauty is much impaired by the small chapel or porch, which, in another place, would have been very beautiful. The E. end is circular, and the aisles are made out square by perpendicular additions. The choir has a wooden groined roof of very inferior workmanship; a handsome stone screen has recently been substituted for one of wood, and the fittings of the choir have been entirely renewed, under the direction of Mr. Eliot. The nave is a very good specimen of that description of Norman work which has its piers composed of shafts; the proportions are good, and the general appearance is fine, without that overwhelming heaviness seen in those edifices where the great circular piers are used." There are few monuments, shrines, or chantry chapels, the parliamentary troops having plundered the church of most of its ornaments of this description. Catherine of Arragon and Mary Queen of Scotland, were interred

here; but their graves are not marked by any sepulchral monument. "The remains of the monastic buildings in the court fronting the cathedral are of somewhat varied style, but present, on the whole, a valuable specimen of bold and varied outline, both of plan and elevation. In the same court, also, leading to the cemetery on the N. side of the church, is a late perpendicular gate remarkably rich in ornament, and near the S. transept are some remains that may have been the refectory, or infirmaries chapel of the ancient monastery." (*Rickman's Gothic Architecture*, p. 209.) The cathedral corporation consists of the dean and six prebendaries, who divide among them a nett revenue of £1,184.; there are also four minor canons and a precentor. Peterborough was erected into a bishop's see by Henry VIII., and the diocese now comprises the cos. of Northampton, Rutland, and Leicester. The nett revenue of the see amounted, at an average of the three years ending with 1831, to 2,108*l.* a year; but it has been since augmented by an order of council to 4,500*l.*, the deficiency being supplied from the surplus funds contributed by the larger sees.

The par. church is a spacious building, lately remodelled, and put in very complete repair: the living is a vicarage in the gift of the bishop. The Independents, Baptists, and Wesleyan Methodists have also their respective places of worship, and there are Sunday-schools attended by upwards of 200 children of both sexes. The cathedral grammar-school, founded by Henry VIII., is attended by about 30 boys, and endowed with 3 scholarships and a fellowship at St. John's College, Cambridge. There are 2 charity-schools for boys, and a national school is attended by about 300 boys and 120 girls. There are numerous other charities, including a pretty large infirmary and a dispensary. The town-hall is a small but neat structure, the area beneath being used as a market-place. The goal and house of correction for the city and liberties are both "small and miserably deficient in accommodation." (*Prisons Report*.) There is also a small theatre, open during the summer months.

The trade of Peterborough arises chiefly from the transit of corn and malt, large quantities of which are brought down the Nen from the interior; it also imports coal, timber, bricks, stone, and other goods. The city is not incorporated, but is under the jurisdiction of the dean and chapter, whose steward holds a court for the trial of civil actions within the city. Quarter sessions are likewise held here for the liberty of Peterborough, and it is one of the polling places at elections for the N. division of the co. Peterborough has returned 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the 1st Edward VI., the right of election down to the reform Act being in the inhabs. paying scot and lot. The electoral limits were enlarged by the Boundary Act, so as to include with the old bor. the remainder of the par. and the extra-parochial precincts of the cathedral. Registered electors, in 1843-50, 542. Markets on Saturday: fairs, July 1. and Oct. 1., chiefly for cattle.

PETERHEAD, a parli. and mun. bor. and sea-port of Scotland, co. Aberdeen, on the point of a flat, rocky, promontory, projecting into the German Ocean, 27 m. N.N.E. Aberdeen; lat. 57° 32' N., long. 10° 47' W., being the most easterly point of land in Scotland. Pop., in 1841, 5,759. Peterhead was erected into a bor. of barony by the family of Keith, earls marischal, on whose estate it was built, in 1593. On the attainder of that family, it was purchased by the York Buildings' Company, who sold it to the governors of the Merchant Mariners' Hospital of Edinburgh, who are now the superiors of the town, and have always been its liberal and munificent patrons. It did not, however, attain to any distinction till about 1770, soon after which the famous engineer, Smeaton, was employed to construct a harbour on the S. side of the promontory on which the town is built. This harbour, though on a small scale, was sufficient to demonstrate the importance of the place, and the advantage that would result, not merely to the town itself, but to the shipping employed on the E. coast of Scotland, from the improvement of the harbour. In consequence measures have been undertaken and carried into effect during the present century for excavating the rocks that obstructed the S. harbour, and for constructing a new and extensive harbour and graving dock on the N. side of the peninsula. These great works have since been completed, at an expense of above 30,000*l.*, and Peterhead is, in consequence, rendered one of the best harbours on the E. coast of Scotland. The area of the S. harbour is 6-6, and that of the N. nearly 11 acres. They are formed by strong moles projecting into the sea. The harbour dues, which, in 1808, amounted to only 367*l.*, had increased, in 1837, to 2,879*l.*, and are now about 3,000*l.*

"The general appearance of the town is airy and healthful; the streets are wide and well paved; and the houses are built of the fine red granite which abounds in the neighbourhood, and is an object of traffic." (*Parli. Board Report*.) The streets are well lighted with gas, and the town is supplied with excellent water, brought from a distance of above 2½ m. Among the public build-

ings may be specified the town-house, with a handsome spire 125 ft. in height, and the par. church, a respectable building 118 ft. in height. A handsome cross, consisting of a Tuscan pillar of granite, surmounted by the arms of the earl-marischal, was erected in 1832. The town has a fine church, an episcopal chapel, with chapels for the Associated Dissenters, Independents, and Methodists. It has, also, a scientific association, a news' room, a valuable museum, 9 public libraries, 4 branch banks, and various friendly societies. There are mineral springs within the bor. that used to be a good deal resorted to; but they are now comparatively neglected. Except ropemaking and ship-building, Peterhead has no manufactures.

In 1850 there belonged to Peterhead 23 vessels of the aggregate burden of 6,342 tons. The inhab. early engaged in the N. sea whale-fishery, and carried it on for a lengthened period with great vigour and success. In 1823, 15 ships belonging to this port brought home 2,217 tuns of oil! This, however, was the maximum of prosperity, and the business has since declined, though in the past year (1849), Peterhead had 11 ships engaged in the trade. It is now, also, next to Wick, the most important station for the herring fishery; no fewer than 85,146 bar. herrings having been cured here in 1849. The cod or white fishery is also prosecuted to a considerable extent.

The products of the fishery form, of course, a considerable portion of the exports from the port; but, exclusively of these, very considerable quantities of corn, butter, and other agricultural products, are exported. Great quantities of granite are also occasionally exported.

The Reform Act conferred on Peterhead the privilege of sending a mem. to the H. of C. in conjunction with the bors. of Elgin, Banff, Cullen, Inverury, and Kintore. Registered electors in the united bors., in 1849-50, 894; in Peterhead, only 326. The bor. has 19 councillors.

PETER-LE-PORT (ST.). See GUERNSEY.

PETERSBURG, a governm. of Russia in Europe, being that in which the cap. is situated, between 58° and 60° 30' N. lat. and 28° and 34° E. lon.; having N. the Gulph of Finland, the gov. of Wyborg, Lake Ladoga, and the gov. of Olonetz; E. and S. E. Novgorod; S. Pskov; and W. the Lake Pelupus, and the gov. Revel. Area, estimated at about 15,000 sq. m. Pop., in 1846, 642,700. The country is generally flat; but in the N. and S. E. are a few undulating hills. The general slope is towards the N. W.; all the rivers, the principal of which is the Neva, flow to the Gulph of Finland, or Lake Ladoga. The soil is mostly sandy and thin; and the climate damp, severe, and unhealthy. At an average, frost prevails more or less, for 150 days in the year. Rye, barley, oats, and some wheat are grown, but the climate is unfavourable to the culture of corn; and nearly 2-3rds of the prov. is covered with wood, marshes, and lakes. Timber, indeed, forms the chief source of what may be called wealth, deals and masts being the great articles of export, and the villagers subsisting chiefly by making wood-work of different kinds. The trade is limited, in a great measure, to the capital. The best agriculturists are German peasants, who raise fax, hemp, and, above all, kitchen vegetables, for the supply of the capital. Russians form the majority of the inhabs.; the remainder consists of Finns, Carelians, Livs, Germans, &c., most of whom are Lutherans. This gov. is divided into 9 districts; Petersburg, the cap., is the only place of importance.

PETERSBURG, the modern metropolis of the Russian empire, and one of the largest cities of Europe, at the E. extremity of the Gulph of Finland, where it receives the river Neva, by which the city is intersected, lat. 59° 56' 31' N., long. 30° 18½' E. Pop., circa 500,000. The city, which is of a circular form, stands partly on the main land, on the S. side of the Neva, and partly on islands formed by its branches. It owes its existence to the genius and power of Peter the Great, by whom its foundations were laid in 1703. At first all the public buildings and houses were of wood, and were huddled together without regard either to regularity or convenience. But brick and stone buildings were soon after introduced; and the streets were laid out on a regular plan, crossing each other at right angles. This was greatly facilitated by the ravages of destructive fires in 1736 and 1737, which having destroyed some thousands of the old houses, enabled government to lay down judicious regulations for their reconstruction. The empress Elizabeth did much to improve the city; but it is chiefly indebted for its regularity, beauty, and magnificence to

empress Catherine II. Under this princess the principal channel of the Neva was faced by granite quays; several new streets and quays were opened; and seven of the finest buildings and monuments were either built on an improved plan, or constructed afresh. The late and present emperors have also distinguished themselves by their efforts to improve and embellish the city. It is now certainly one of the finest in Europe, and is unequalled for the width and regularity of its streets, the length and magnificence of its quays, the elegance of its squares and public buildings.

Among the latter, which are principally situated on the quays bordering the main channel of the Neva, and in the street entitled the Nefski prospect, may be specified the Winter Palace, or ordinary residence of the emperor, a vast heavy building. It communicates by a gallery with the Hermitage, another palace, long the residence of Catherine II.; the latter has attached to it the court theatre, and contains a picture-gallery, a valuable library, and an extraordinary rich collection of engraved stones, &c. There are also the Marble Palace, Palace of Anichkov, formerly occupied by reigning monarch, the Taurida Palace, built by Catherine II. for her favourite Potemkin, &c. Admiralty, an immense brick building, occupies the centre of the city; it contains stores, docks for the construction of men-of-war, a very extensive collection of objects connected with navigation and natural history. The signal tower of the admiralty, erected by the empress Anne in 1734, is one of the most striking objects in approaching Petersburg. Among the public buildings are the hotel of the academy of the fine arts, accounted one of the finest in the city; the Exchange; the palace of the senate; the hotel de l'état major, a magnificent building; the barracks for the guards; the new mint; the exchange bank; imperial library; medical hospital; hotel of the land cadets, and many others.

The citadel, founded by Peter the Great, but afterwards reconstructed, stands on an island in the middle of the city. It is a regular hexagon, and has a tower 360 ft. in height.

Among the churches may be specified the cathedral of our lady of Kasan, consecrated in 1811. It is built on the model of St. Peter's at Rome, and is one of the finest ornaments of the capital. The cathedral of St. Peter and St. Paul was founded by Peter the Great in 1712; it is of great dimensions; but it derives its principal interest from its containing the tombs of all the Russian sovereigns, from its illustrious founder to the late emperor, with the exception of Peter II., interred at Moscow. The church of the convent of St. Alexander Nefski, the end of the magnificent street to which it gives its name, occupies the third rank among churches of Russia. The mausoleum of the empress Elizabeth is of solid silver; several distinguished persons are interred in the church; and there is attached to it a grammar-school on a very large scale, having generally about 800 pupils. The cathedral of St. Isaac is one of the largest and most magnificent churches in the city. The total number of churches in 1836 amounted to 58, of which belonged to the established Greek faith, 11 Catholics and Protestants, and 4 to dissenters. There were, also, at the same epoch, 91 Greek chapels in private houses, and one monastery.

Petersburg contains some noble monuments; the head of these may be placed the magnifi-

cent equestrian statue of Peter the Great, by Falconet. "The monarch is represented in the attitude of mounting a precipice, the summit of which he has nearly attained. His head is uncovered, and crowned with laurel; he wears a loose vest, in the Asiatic style, with half boots, and sits on a housing of bear skin; the right hand is stretched out, as in the act of giving benediction to his people, and the left holds the reins. The design is masterly, and the attitude bold and spirited. The horse is springing upon the hind legs, and the tail, which is full and flowing, appears slightly to touch a serpent, artfully contrived to assist in supporting the vast weight. The contrast between the composure of Peter and the fire of the horse, eager to press forward, is very striking. The simplicity of the inscription corresponds to the sublimity of the design—*PETRO PRIMO, CATHARINA SECUNDA, 1782.*" (*Cox's Trav.*, ii. p. 112.) The pedestal on which this noble statue is erected is a gigantic rough block of granite. It was found at a distance of several miles from the capital, and its conveyance thither was a work of extraordinary difficulty.

The column erected in honour of the late emperor Alexander is one of the finest of its kind. It is 150 ft. in height; the pedestal is of granite and bronze; the shaft of the column consists of a single piece of red granite, 84 ft. in length, and 14 ft. in diameter. This, which is the largest monolith in the world, was cut from the quarries of Pyterlar, in Finland, several m. from Petersburg. The column is surmounted by a capital and a small dome in bronze, on which is placed a statue emblematical of religion.

The cottage occupied by Peter the Great during the foundation of Petersburg is still preserved, and will be regarded by most persons as the most interesting monument in the city. It is built of wood, painted in the Dutch style, and is not 20 ft. high.

Petersburg has a great variety of institutions for the promotion of education and literature. The university, founded in 1819, has already attained to considerable distinction, and had, in 1846, 700 pupils and 69 professors. The *medico-surgical academy*, founded by Peter the Great, and re-organised by the emperor Alexander, for the instruction of medical men, enjoys a high reputation; two hospitals, on a large scale, are attached to it; the instruction is gratuitous, and the number of pupils may amount to 520. A sum of 386,290 roubles a year is appropriated to the support of this establishment. The education is good, and the examination strict. Among the educational institutions may be specified the military schools (see art. RUSSIA); the theological academy; the school for training and instructing schoolmasters; the Oriental institution, founded in 1823; the school of commerce and navigation; the technological institution; the Protestant school of St. Peter, at which above 600 children of both sexes are educated; two gymnasiums or colleges; the schools of Sendtufel and St. Catherine, for the instruction of nearly 700 young ladies; the military orphan school; the grammar-school of St. Alexander Nefski, already alluded to, and a number of others.

According to the official returns, the pupils at the various schools and educational institutions in the city, in 1836, amounted, in all, to 11,993. Now, if we take the stationary pop. of the city at 400,000 (see *post*), this would give the proportion of scholars to the pop. at about 1 in 32. But when every body is educated, the proportion at school cannot well be less than 1 in 10. The number of children in Petersburg is, no doubt, less in proportion to the pop. than in most other great towns; but it is, notwithstanding, sufficiently obvious that the means of elementary instruction are insufficient.

Petersburg has some noble libraries, and scientific and literary collections. The Imperial library, one of the largest and finest in the world, contains about 445,000 printed vols. and 20,000 MSS. The academy of sciences, founded by Peter the Great in 1724, has long occupied a distinguished place among such bodies. It contains a valuable library, an Asiatic museum, with cabinets of medals, natural history, &c. It is also furnished with an observatory, whence the Russian geographers reckon their first meridian. The Imperial Russian academy, the academy of fine arts, &c., are celebrated all over

Europe; and there are besides a great number of similar institutions. The botanic garden is extensive, and has a valuable collection of exotics.

The hospitals are numerous, and well endowed. The most celebrated is the founding hospital, founded by Catherine II., and much improved and enlarged by the late benevolent empress, Maria Fedorovna. But however well intended, it is pretty certain that this foundation has always been productive of infinitely more evil than good. The mortality used to be enormous; and, notwithstanding the improvements that have been introduced, it continues, necessarily perhaps, to be very great. From 1822 to 1831, the admissions were 39,114, and the deaths 31,779! The establishment costs about 1,000,000 roubles a year. The city hospital, and the Imperial hospital, for sick poor, are both on a large scale; there is also an institution for deaf and dumb persons, a blind asylum, &c.

The Neva is deep, rapid, and its waters as clear as crystal. The main stream, which is broader than the Thames at London, is crossed by two bridges, and its branches by three. These are all of boats, and are removed in the beginning of winter, before the river is frozen over. But there are a great number of other bridges joining the various portions of the city: some of these are of iron, some granite, others wood, &c. The granite quay, along the S. side of the Neva, is stupendous work, above 3 m. in length. The S. side of the town is intersected by canals, of which the Fontanka is the finest.

The streets are, for the most part, paved with stone; a few, however, are still floored with logs of timber; and recently some have been macadamised. The foot pavements are generally good; but the carriage ways, in wet weather, become very dirty.

Many of the brick houses are stuccoed and painted, so as to have the appearance of stone; but the number of genuine stone houses is very limited indeed, and wooden houses still predominate. According to the official account, there were in the city, in 1836, 8,641 houses, of which 3,094 were brick and stone, and 5,547 wood. The better class of houses are covered with iron or copper, and the inferior with tiles. The principal houses have arched door-ways, under which carriages enter, and spacious court-yards, in which wood for fuel, &c., is stored up.

Owing to the barren nature of the soil round the city, most part of the provisions required for its consumption have to be brought from a great distance by canal or by sledges. An extraordinary market for butchers' meat, game, fish, &c., is held at the conclusion of the fast, ending the 28th Dec. (O. S.), at which a large proportion of the inhabs. supply themselves with provisions for the remainder of the winter. The carcases of the vast quantities of oxen, sheep, hogs, fowls, &c., brought to this market, are all frozen; the smaller animals are piled up

in pyramids, but the larger ones, which are skinned, and set on their legs, in rows, alongside each other, have a ghastly and frightful appearance to persons not familiar with such exhibitions. They are cut in pieces with hatchets; and when carried home are preserved in snow cellars, of which each house has one. Previously to its being dressed, the frozen meat is thawed in cold water, but it loses much of its flavour, and all families of condition use fresh killed meat. The length and severity of the winter necessarily occasions a great demand for fuel. This consists partly of coal from England, but chiefly of wood; and as the neighbourhood does not afford a sufficient supply, vast quantities are brought from the interior. The barges, too, which arrive from the latter are almost all broken up, and used either as timber in the construction of houses, or as fire-wood. Flour and billet magazines have been erected by government, for the accommodation of the poor in scarce and severe seasons.

Some manufacturing establishments are carried on upon account of the crown, but the greater number belong to private individuals. Among those belonging to the crown are manufactures of gunpowder, tapestry, and porcelain, and a cannon foundry. Among the private manufactures are those of silks, cottons, sail-cloth, woollens, paper, leather, stuffs, tobacco, wax-cloth, soaps, types, &c.; there are extensive glass-works at Oserki, near the city; and there are great numbers of watch-makers and jewellers, coachmakers, mathematical and musical instrument makers, carpenters, &c.

Petersburg has the most extensive foreign trade of any city in the N. of Europe. This arises not so much from its great pop. as from its being the only great maritime inlet on the Gulph of Finland, and from its vast and various communications with the interior. By means partly of canals, but principally of rivers, Petersburg is connected with the Caspian Sea, goods being conveyed from the latter to the capital, a distance of 1,434 m., without once landing them. The iron and furs of Siberia and the teas of China are received at Petersburg in the same way; but, owing to the great distance of these countries, and the short period during which the rivers and canals are navigable, they take 3 years in their transit by water. Immense quantities of the less bulky and more valuable species of goods are also brought to the city during the winter upon the ice in sledges.

The principal article of export is tallow; and, next to it, are hemp and flax, iron, copper, grain, particularly wheat; timber, potatoes, canvases and coarse linen; lined and unlined; linseed and hempsed oils; furs, hides, leather, bristles, fox, hare, and squirrel skins; cordage, caviare, wax, isinglass, tar, &c. The principal imports are sugar and other colonial products; cotton yarn, raw cotton, and cotton stuffs; dye stuffs, wines, silks, woollens, hardware, fine linen from Holland, Silesia, &c.; salt, lead, tin, coal, &c.

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles exported from Petersburg in 1849, specifying the Countries to which they were exported, and the Number of Vessels that cleared out for each.

Destination.	No. of Ships.	Copper.		Iron.		Hemp.			Flax.			Potash.		Tallow.	Wool and Woollen.	Bristles.	Linned.
		Poods.	Poods.	Poods.	Poods.	Poods.	Poods.	Poods.	1st sort.	2d sort.	Poods.	Poods.	Poods.	Poods.	Poods.	Poods.	Poods.
Sweden	55	-	-	15,317	30,681	46,880	24	16	3,564	102,135	199	132	-	-	-	-	-
Norway	24	-	-	15,129	15,287	6,474	97	72	5,658	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Prussia	51	22,194	-	6,419	1,720	5,556	33	9	96,476	125,899	5,641	127	1,175	-	-	-	-
Denmark	44	-	4,000	17,817	6,431	46,421	808	255	24,964	11,447	-	6	4,310	-	-	-	-
Hanse Towns	64	500	-	5,099	6,635	24,635	-	-	30,565	69,473	828	488	-	-	-	-	-
Holland	85	3,250	6,750	35,574	16,125	54,941	-	-	35,426	63,865	193	445	51,187	-	-	-	-
Belgium	24	1,500	2,915	5,606	5,748	410	-	-	16,164	171	8,357	2,054	20,138	-	-	-	-
U. Kingdom	845	31,185	217,860	1,064,297	905,573	178,898	110,764	497,702	11,703	2,502,684	27,570	58,585	123,118	-	-	-	-
France	82	5,255	10,850	895	9,231	8,368	34,869	18,450	36,107	189,261	11,967	7,977	2,119	-	-	-	-
Naples and Leghorn	15	-	11,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
New York	36	272	29,101	106,890	12,087	-	5,051	4,284	-	-	-	-	8,002	2,155	-	-	-
Elsinore, for Denmark	24	-	-	1,241	1,414	4,935	230	67,605	1,552	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
All other places	16	-	-	8,436	1,779	7,175	-	-	10,576	7,271	12	111	360	-	-	-	-
Totals	1,365	64,086	281,476	1,278,020	2,198,873	363,563	141,876	583,399	184,408	3,071,996	55,207	78,292	308,508	-	-	-	-

The total export of corn, and of seeds of all sorts, in 1847, amounted to the immense quantity of 2,518,797 chetverts, equivalent to 1,812,606 quarters. But though very large at all times, this exportation, owing to the scarcity that then prevailed in this and other countries, was greatly beyond the average.

This great trade is principally conducted by foreigners, especially the English. Cronstadt, 30 m. lower down the gulph, is properly the port of Petersburg. All ships drawing more than 8 or 9 ft. water stop at the former, their cargoes being conveyed to and from the city by means of lighters. Hence Cronstadt is included in the Petersburg custom-house; and vessels clear indifferently for the one or the other. The number of vessels entering the port varies from 1,000 to 1,600 a year, of which, as seen above, the English are by far the most nu-

merous. The Russians have few native ships. A commercial bank was established here in 1818. (For further details as to commerce, &c., see Russia.)

In most large towns females predominate over males; but it is quite otherwise in this capital: of 451,974 individuals, composing the pop. in 1836, 230,564 were males, and only 121,410 females! This extraordinary discrepancy is accounted for, partly by the great number of soldiers in the city, very few of whom are married, partly by the great number of unmarried male domestics in great houses, and partly by the fact that the wives and families of many of the peasants are established in the districts of the country to which they belong. Deducting military and strangers, the permanent population of the city does not exceed 400,000.

Though well situated for commerce, the position of the city is, in most other respects, far from good. The ground on which it stands is low and swampy, and the surrounding country partakes of the same character, and is covered with forests. No one less bold and enterprising than Peter the Great would have dreamed of building a large city in such a situation, and no one with so gigantic means at his disposal would have been able to carry such a project into effect. But no art can ever overcome the defects inherent in its situation. The climate is severe, foggy, wet, and variable in an unusual degree. The sub-soil is so very porous and saturated with water, that it is hardly possible to excavate a cellar anywhere in the city, and there is the greatest difficulty in constructing sewers to carry off filth and other impurities. But the great drawback on Petersburg consists in its little elevation above the level of the sea and the river, and its consequent exposure to the most dreadful inundations. These are generally occasioned by a V. or S.W. wind, accumulating the water of the gulph at the mouth of the river, and preventing the free exit of the latter. The years 1752, 1777, and 1794 have been particularly distinguished by these inundations, the last of these visitations was the most appalling and destructive. The whole city was laid under water; above 8,000 individuals perished, and property to a vast amount was destroyed.

The amusements of Petersburg are modified by the religion and the climate. There are four theatres, and plays are acted in Russian, German, French, and sometimes English. The actors are all paid by government, and do not, in any degree, depend on their audiences. The persons of the theatres comprises about 1,800 individuals. During winter the national amusements are ledge-driving and sliding down artificial elevations, similar to those called in Paris the *Montagnes Russes*. All classes use the vapour bath: the public and private baths in the city are estimated at about 350.

The country in the vicinity of Petersburg being flat and marshy, presents few rural beauties. The imperial family have country residences at Oranienbaum, on the gulph of Finland, Ramzanoff Ostroff, Peterhof, Csarkoelo, &c. Csarkoelo, situated on the Nera, about 6 m. from Petersburg, is an exception to the general rule, inasmuch as it stands on an eminence rising 230 ft. above the river; Paulsk, in the vicinity of Csarkoelo, is also considerably elevated.

The palace of Csarkoelo is reckoned the finest summer residence belonging to the Russian monarchs. The town, though small, is handsome and improving. It has a lyceum, with 14 professors, a forest school, and is the ap. of a circ. Paulsk has also a pretty little town dependent on it. These have been, for some time past, favourite resorts of the citizens of Petersburg; and the presumption is that they will be more resorted to now than ever, a railway—the first of the kind constructed in the empire—having been opened between them and the capital. A railway, on a magnificent scale, intended to unite Petersburg and Moscow, about 430 m. in length, has, also, been commenced, and proceeded with to a considerable distance. Its completion will be of vast consequence to the empire.

We have consulted, in drawing up this article, the *Voyage de Des Français dans le Nord de l'Europe* (an accurate and valuable work), *Storch's Picture of Petersburg*, &c.; but we are principally indebted to the excellent account of the city in Schnitzler's work *La Russie, La Pologne*, &c., p. 187—201., and the official accounts published by the Russian government.

PETERSBURG, a town and river-port of the United States of N. America, state of Virginia, on the Appomattox, a trib. of the James River, 21 m. S. by E. from Richmond; lat. 36° 30' N. long. 76° 30' W. Pop., in 1840, 11,136. The town, which was rebuilt, in 1816, after an extensive fire, is regularly laid out, and comprises many handsome houses, with churches and other public buildings, including a masonic hall. Its inhab. carry on an active trade in cotton, flour, and tobacco; and it has a pretty extensive manufactures. The falls of the river, close to the town, furnish ample water-power, and it had, in 1835, three cotton-mills, six flour-mills, a brass and iron foundry, tanneries, oil-mills, &c. The river is navigable up to the town for vessels drawing 7 ft. water; but large ships unload at City Point, near the mouth of the river: aggr. burden of ships belonging to be port in 1849, 2,736 tons. (*Murray's Encyc. of Geog.*, Amer. ed. iii. 525.; *Encyc. Amer.*, &c.)

PETERSFIELD, a par. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Southampton, and hund. Finch-dean, near the Loddon, 15 m. N.N.E. Portsmouth. Pop. of par. bor. (which includes with the old bor. the tithing of Sheet, the several pars. of Buriton, Lyp, and Frosfield, 3 tithings belonging to the par. of E. Meon and the hamlet of Sides, with the exception of 3 tithings), in 1841, 5,301; ditto, of town, 1,448. It is a small, clean, country-town, its principal street crossing the Ports-

mouth and London road, nearly at right angles. The church is a large brick structure, with a low, square tower: the living is a curacy subordinate to the rectory of Buriton. The Wesleyan-Methodists and Baptists have their respective places of worship, with attached Sunday schools. The endowed charity school, called Church's College, was founded in 1732, and furnishes clothing and food, with general and mathematical instruction, to 10 or 12 boys. "Petersfield has but little trade, and any consequence which it possesses arises entirely from its position on the high road between London and Portsmouth," an advantage, however, which it will not enjoy after the completion of the Portsmouth branch of the South-western railway. (*Earl. Board.*) The bor. was incorporated in the reign of Elizabeth, and is governed by a titular mayor and common council, chosen annually at the court-leet of the lord of the manor. It returned 3 mems. to the H. of C. from the reign of Edward I. down to the Reform Act, the right of election being in the freeholders in general within the bor., though, in point of fact, it has been for many years a close bor. belonging to the lord of the manor. The Reform Act deprived it of one of its mems., and the Boundary Act enlarged the electoral limits, so as to include with the old bor. the additional pars. and tithings mentioned above. Registered electors in 1849-50, 358. It is also one of the polling-places at elections for the N. div. of Hampshire. Markets on Saturday, and fortnightly cattle fairs on alternate Wednesdays; other fairs, Mar. 8., July 10., and Dec. 11., for sheep and horses.

PETERWARDEIN, or **PETER-VARA**, the cap. town of the Slavonian military frontier, and one of the strongest fortresses in the Austrian empire, on a sandy rock, on the S. bank of the Danube, opposite Neusatz, 46 m. N.W. Belgrade. Pop., with its suburbs, about 4,800, exclusive of its garrison, which is usually about 3,000 strong, though there are barracks adapted for 10,000. Peterwardein has several churches, schools, &c., and communicates with Neusatz by a bridge of boats defended by a strong *tête de pont*. It is the residence of the general commandant of the Slavonian military frontier and several subordinate military authorities. It is supposed to occupy the site of the ancient *Avincula*, and derives its present name from Peter the Hermit, who marshalled here the soldiers of the first crusade. (*Encycl. Nat. Encyc.*, Berghaus; *Stade*, Paquet, &c.)

PETHERTON, NORTH, a market-town and par. of England, co. Somerset, hund. its own name, 7½ m. N.E. Taunton. Area of par., 11,080 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,759. The town consists of one long street, in which are many well-built houses and a spacious market-place. The principal buildings are, the par. church, a handsome edifice, a chapel-of-ease, and an endowed school for 30 boys. The inhab. are chiefly employed in retail trade and agriculture. A large corn-market was formerly held here; but it has long since declined in favour of that held at Bridgewater. Fairs, May 1. and the Monday before Nov. 13.

PETWORTH, a market-town and par. of England, rape of Arundel, co. Sussex, hund. Rotherbridge, on the Arun, 13 m. N.N.E. Chichester, and 43 m. S.W. London. Area of par., 6,140 acres; pop., in 1841, 3,864. The streets are very irregular, but there are many well-built and some handsome houses, besides a fine market and sessions-house near the centre of the town. The church, a neat stone edifice recently enlarged, has a square tower: the living is a rectory in the gift of the Earl of Egremont, the lord of the manor. The Wesleyan-Methodists and Independents have also their respective places of worship, and there are various Sunday schools and a national school. Here are almshouses, an hospital, and a house of correction on the plan of Howard. A considerable retail trade is carried on for the supply of the neighbouring gentry; but most of the inhab. are engaged in agriculture. Two Epiphany and Easter quarter-sessions for the W. div. of Sussex are held here, and petty sessions on alternate Saturdays. Petworth is one of the polling-places at elections for the W. div. of the co. Markets on Saturday; fairs, Holy Thursday, July 29., and Oct. 3.

Close to the town is Petworth House, the seat of the late Earl of Egremont, which, both for the elegance of its exterior and the sumptuousness of its internal fittings, may vie with the finest mansions of the English nobility: the park, which is inclosed by a wall, 13 m. in circ., is beautifully laid out, and commands many picturesque as well as extensive views.

PEZENAS (an. *Piscenas*), a town of France, dép. Hérault, cap. cant., near the junction of the Hérault and Peiro, 24 m. W.S.W. Montpellier. Pop., in 1846, 7,317. It is finely situated, and its old castle commands a magnificent prospect. Several of its streets are wide and lined with good houses. It has a handsome par. church, and had formerly many conventual churches; but one of these has been converted into a distillery, and another into an hotel, and a third into a theatre! Pezenas is the seat of a tribunal and chamber of commerce, and a

comm. coll. It has manufactures of woollens, cotton stuffs and yarn, linens, &c. But it is principally celebrated for the great fair, held here in September, which is attended by dealers from all parts of the S. of France. A great deal of business is then transacted in wool, woollens, cottons, and other fabrics. (*Hugo, art. Hérauld, &c.*)

PHILADELPHIA, the second city, and formerly the cap. of the U. States of N. America, state Pennsylvania, between the Delaware and Schuylkill, about 6 m. above their confluence, 80 m. S.W. New York, and 123 m. N.E. Washington; lat. (observatory) $39^{\circ} 57' 5''$ N., long. $75^{\circ} 10' 37''$ W. Pop. in 1850, 409,043. The city, which is about 4 m. in length N. to S., by about 2 m. in breadth, is divided into square compartments by wide and well-paved streets crossing each other at right angles. It is lighted with gas, and drained by sewers, which discharge themselves into the Delaware. It is also admirably supplied with water from the Schuylkill, by means of some very extensive dams and reservoirs erected at Fairmount, near the city, at an expense of 432,512 dollars.

"There is a great air of neatness, and of almost peculiar cleanness about the city; but the extreme regularity of the streets is tiresome. The steps of the outer stairs of a great part of the houses are of white marble, and the tops of the outer railings of brass, and both, as well as the windows, are not only cleaned every morning, but made bright with a degree of care which I never before witnessed. The streets are very generally shaded with trees—a very desirable luxury in this hot climate." (*Stuart's America*, 1, 366.)

The public buildings, which are generally constructed of white marble, are among the most elegant in the U. States. The late United States Bank, built on the model of the Parthenon; the Pennsylvania Bank; the Mint of the U. States, a handsome edifice, with Ionic porticoes, 62 ft. in length on each front; the Exchange, ornamented with Corinthian columns, and comprising a spacious hall and news-room, the post-office, &c.; the Girard Bank; Girard College, a noble structure, entirely surrounded with a colonnade of Corinthian columns; Masonic Hall, &c., are the buildings most remarkable for beauty; but the most interesting is the State-house, whence the Declaration of Independence was promulgated, on the 4th July, 1776.

There are an immense number of churches and places of public worship, including two synagogues; the U. States arsenal; the State penitentiary, on the panopticon principle; the courts, which are a massive granite building, in the castellated Gothic style, with upwards of 400 cells; and the debtors' prison demand notice. The Schuylkill is here crossed by two wooden bridges, one of which has an entire length of 1,130 ft.; the other is a single arch, and probably the widest existing, its span being 394 ft.

Philadelphia is remarkable for the number and excellence of its benevolent institutions. On the bank of the Schuylkill is the alms-house, consisting of four distinct ranges of building, comprising nearly 4,000 rooms. The Pennsylvania hospital, established in 1753, is one of the first institutions of the kind in the Union. The whole extent of the buildings from E. to W. is 278 ft., and detached from the hospital is another building of 3 stories, calculated to accommodate numerous patients. There are belonging to the hospital a valuable anatomical museum, and a library. In 1817, a handsome building was erected for the accommodation of West's painting of "Christ healing the Sick," which is a valuable source of income to the hospital. The U. States marine asylum, capable of accommodating 400 men; Willis' hospital; and the various institutions for the blind, the deaf and dumb, &c.; the Magdalen, and orphan asylums, &c., are established upon a most liberal scale. The academies and learned institutions are equally distinguished. The university of Pennsylvania, founded in 1756, occupies a large edifice originally built for the President of the U. States. It has faculties of arts, medicine, natural science, and law; with an attached junior academy and charity school. It has an excellent philosophical apparatus, and a considerable library. This university is chiefly distinguished as a medical school; in 1840 it had all, 583 students, of whom 444 were medical. There are here 2 other medical colleges, attended by about 200 students. The Philadelphia library, which originated with Dr. Franklin, and was incorporated in 1742, occupies an elegant edifice, in front of which is a statue of Franklin in white marble. There are belonging to it a museum, a philosophical apparatus, and the Philadelphia library and the Loganian library, which, together, have about 22,000 vols. The American philosophical Society, established here in 1769, has a library of 9,000 vols. The Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture was instituted in 1768, and has a small library, a cabinet of minerals, and a repository for agricultural implements. The oldest seminary in Pennsylvania is that incorporated by William Penn, under the title of Friends' Public Schools. It has considerable funds, and supports a number of schools, which give instruction in

the Latin and Greek languages, mathematics, and natural and experimental philosophy. The astronomical observatory in the city belongs to this institution; and it has an extensive philosophical apparatus. The Athenæum, incorporated in 1815, has a library of 5,000 vols., a cabinet of minerals and medals, and upon its tables are to be found the principal newspapers of the United States and Europe, and a numerous collection of American and European magazines. The Academy of Natural Sciences has a good cabinet, and a library of 5,000 vols.; the Pennsylvania Historical Society, and the Franklin Institute, have both published valuable transactions. There are several good theatres and excellent market-houses: the markets are, perhaps, the best supplied of any in the U. States.

Philadelphia is distinguished as a manufacturing city, having shot, nail, cotton, paper, rope, glass, &c., manufactures, with numerous printing-offices, marble works, tanneries, breweries, distilleries, &c.; and is inferior only to N. York, N. Orleans, and Boston in the extent of its commerce. It has the advantage of a double port: that on the Schuylkill, being the shallowest, is the grand *dépôt* for the vast quantities of coal brought from the interior; while the other, on the Delaware, having water sufficient to float the largest merchantmen close by the quays, is exclusively resorted to by the shipping engaged in foreign trade. The city communicates by numerous canals and railroads with the interior of Pennsylvania and the states bordering on the Mississippi. The value of the imports from foreign countries may be estimated at from 10 to 13 million dollars a year; but the principal business of the port is its coasting trade with New York, Baltimore, Boston, and other American cities, which she supplies with various descriptions of manufactured goods, flour, and provisions. At an average from 200,000 to 350,000 barrels of flour are annually exported from the city; and it is also a great mart for the export of beef, butter, salt, &c.

We subjoin—

An Account of the Value of the Imports into Philadelphia, and of the Duties accruing on the same in the under-mentioned Years.

Years.	Value of Imports.	Duties.
1830	\$9,525,893	\$3,537,516
1831	11,673,755	4,378,525
1832	10,018,195	3,500,392
1833	11,153,757	3,900,000
1834	10,686,078	2,110,477
1835	11,568,249	2,501,681
1836	16,116,685	3,146,458
1837	10,130,338	1,930,995
1838	10,417,815	2,109,955
1839	14,533,589	3,884,984
1840	8,621,481	1,317,308
1841	9,918,596	1,935,681
1842	6,291,177	1,812,848
1843	4,916,535	1,437,837
1844	4,410,864	9,981,573
1845	7,491,497	2,370,515
1846	8,308,615	3,604,063
1847	15,445,383	3,904,745
1848		\$7,762,088
1849	10,545,500	

Account of the Exports of Flour and Corn from Philadelphia during each of the 8 Years ending with 1844.

Years.	Wheat Flour.	Rye Flour.	Corn Meal.	Wheat.	Corn.
	Bbls.	Bbls.	Bbls.	Bushels.	Bushels.
1841	195,550	26,886	108,822	56,571	30,366
1842	161,866	22,580	97,984	87,953	85,773
1843	124,617	22,303	106,484	52,235	74,613
1844	196,453	91,980	101,336	23,575	110,664
1845	301,956	17,998	115,101	86,008	189,856
1846	366,610	19,730	141,857	245,136	275,924
1847	420,684	30,407	300,381	523,538	1,102,210
1848	178,507	15,537	140,014	207,092	817,051

The shipping, as well as the trade of Philadelphia, has increased very rapidly. During the year ended 30th June, 1849, the aggregate burden of the vessels belonging to the port amounted to 188,087 tons. In 1849, the value of the native produce exported to foreign countries amounted to 4,890,873 doll. There were, in 1850, 47 banks and 5 branches in Pennsylvania, with an ag. cap. of 17,182,174 doll. Of these, about a third belong to the city.

For municipal purposes, Philadelphia is divided into six wards, or districts, and is governed by a mayor, a recorder, 15 aldermen, and a select and common council, annually chosen by the citizens. The mayor's court has the same jurisdiction as the county courts of quarter sessions. The city sends seven representatives and two senators to the state legislature.

Philadelphia was founded by William Penn, in 1682. The first Congress of the Union was h-d here in 1774, and in 1776 the Declaration of Independence issued from its press. It was occupied by the British in 1777 and 1778. It continued from the last-mentioned year down to 1800, to be the cap. of the Union. (*Murray's En cyclop.*)

Account of the Quantities of Corn, Coal, Salt, &c., measured at Philadelphia in each of the 11 Years ending with 1848.

Years.	Wheat.	Maize.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Seeds.	Beans.	Coal, &c.	Salt.
	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>
1838	319,215	593,296	163,045	48,162	272,104	22,344	1,401	158,712	356,497
1839	449,290	455,270	113,933	48,132	302,374	11,503	327	96,455	291,468
1840	710,285	699,858	133,891	56,542	298,473	18,348	608	165,740	257,143
1841	467,943	781,278	51,371	44,536	167,308	19,704	5,701	118,108	395,152
1842	469,720	492,951	36,334	55,378	194,208	25,198	1,616	9,003	151,250
1843	484,384	518,671	68,013	80,012	272,715	1,580	1,580	151,900	174,134
1844	355,627	640,459	95,227	58,690	375,578	42,558	1,402	97,000	217,815
1845	796,502	768,186	55,357	46,630	377,677	31,434	3,930	261,538	146,451
1846	983,273	665,172	20,839	40,829	526,938	18,868	3,895	148,961	257,453
1847	917,578	1,023,361	75,972	38,210	569,171	7,398	676	268,760	346,158
1848	745,094	1,202,318	46,980	62,534	527,733	9,770	459	537,227	309,174

Geog., Amer. edit.; Encyc. Amer.; Stuart's America, &c.; Official Tables.

PHILADELPHIA. See ALA-SUMRA.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS. A group of islands of the eastern Archipelago, principally included in its 5th division, forming, Cuba excepted, the most valuable colonial session still belonging to Spain, between the 5th and the deg. N. lat. and the 117th and 124th deg. E. long., lying N. the Balintang channel, which divides it from the Batanes and Basilan Islands; E. the Pacific Ocean; the Strait of Basilan, separating it from the Sooloo Archipelago to the E. of Borneo; and W. the Chinese Sea. Aggregate area (according to Berghaus), including the rest of very inferior size, their extent and pop., 1837 (from an official return), being respectively as follows:—

Islands and Provinces.	Area in sq. m.	Pop. in 1837.
Luzon (15 provs.)	56,604	2,264,907
Mindoro	4,135	99,632
Panay (3 provs.)	4,516	406,030
Isla de Negros	5,774	55,698
Zebu	2,162	250,817
Layte	4,198	92,165
Samar	5,470	99,635
Maabate	1,215	2,510
Luzon	7,358	11,997
Magindano (2 provs.)	85,637	74,560
Other islands, including the Isles of Calamianes	8,296	15,000
Total of 30 provs.	134,115	3,500,000

The islands of Palawan and Magindano, however, are very imperfectly known, portions of them being subject to the colonial government of Manila, the rest being governed by chiefs of native tribes.

Luzon, the largest of these islands, and that also which is best known to Europeans, is of extremely irregular shape, but may be described as a long and narrow island, running N. and S., with a peninsula (called Cagayan) stretching out at its S.E. side, its length from the northernmost point to the Point Calan southward, being about 450 m., and its breadth ranging from 10 to nearly 140 m. The coast generally is rocky, indented with numerous bays and gulfs; on the N. side is the Seno de Lamon, a deep narrow inlet, separating the peninsula of Camarines from the rest of the island, and on the W. side are the gulphs of Lingayen, the bay of Manila, the Ensenada de Baguio, and the Seno de Ragay. A large portion of the surface is covered with mountains; and N. of Manila the chains are divided by the Cagayan, the great river of the island, into two nearly parallel ranges, called Sierra Madre and Sierra de los Carabes, that terminate respectively in the Points Cabila and St. Vincent, the extreme N. points of the island. The latter range is the most elevated; but even the highest peaks do not rise more than 6,000 ft. above sea level. S. of Manila the chain may be traced into the peninsula of Camarines, a large portion of which it is, and finally terminates in the Punta de Lamon, a plain of Pampanga N. of the city of Manila, extending northward nearly as far as the gulph of Lingayen, which it is separated by a ridge of rather lofty mountains, it is about 90 m. in length by about 30 m. in breadth, and being watered by a river falling into the bay of Manila. It is extremely fertile, and is covered with plantations, and densely peopled. (Berghaus, *Mezzer Erklärung der Karte von den Philippinen*, p. 16.) S. of Manila is the Laguna de Bahla, 20 m. in length and 10 m. in breadth, the waters of which are conveyed into the Bay of Manila by a wide, shallow, and rather deep stream, the Baguio, flowing through the city of Manila. A few miles further S. is the Laguna de Taal, which communicates with the Seno de Balayan, by the deep river Bonbon; it is nearly circular, being 11 m. in diameter, and contains the island of Taal, which is a volcano, with two active craters. About 10 m. S. of Taal is another volcano; and more to the S. is the Seno de Camarines, ten volcanoes, one of which is the most elevated; in fact, throughout Luzon and the rest of the Philippines, volcanic eruptions are frequent. The estimate includes only the Spanish portion of these islands.

most of the Philippines, the igneous formations have been found in constant connexion with the primitive rocks, and there can be no doubt that they form a part of the great volcanic band extending from Kamtschatka, through Japan and Formosa into Borneo, Java, and Sumatra. Gold, iron, and copper, have been found in the mountains of Luzon, and rock-salt is so abundant in some parts as to be an article of export. Luzon is separated from Mindoro by the strait of that name, about 5 m. broad, and from Samar by the Embocadero de San Bernardino, the common passage for vessels navigating the Pacific on their way to China.

The Bisayan group, which lies S.W. and S. of the great island last mentioned, comprises about eight or nine considerable islands, the most westerly of which is Mindoro, and that most easterly Samar. With the exception of Panay, which is triangular, these islands are generally long and narrow; Mindoro, Negros, Samar and Masbate, are very mountainous, and only moderately productive; but Panay and Zebu contain much good level land, and are, on the whole, the most important islands of the Philippine group. The Salawan, the extreme W. island of the Philippines, extends from N.E. to S.W. about 250 m., with a breadth of not more than 1-10th its length; it is reported to be extremely mountainous; but the greater part is inhabited by savages, and it has been little visited by Europeans. (Berghaus, p. 65.) A small portion only at its N. extremity belongs to Spain.

Magindano, or Mindanao, the largest of the Philippine islands after Luzon, is of very irregular shape, having a peninsula stretching 150 m. from the main part of the island; its length from N. to S. is about 300 m.; its average breadth exclusive of the peninsula, 95 m. Dampier and Forrest are the principal authorities from whom we derive any knowledge of this still imperfectly known island. In the interior, near the Bay of Illano, is a considerable lake, which, according to Forrest, is between 15 and 20 m. in width. The E. coast is mountainous, and numberless hills occur in the W. and S. districts, which are generally well-covered with timber; large tracts, however, are found in some parts quite destitute of trees, and covered, like the savannahs of America, with long, rank grass. So large an island must necessarily have large rivers; but only 2 of them are known, one on the N. side, flowing into the Bay of Butnan, and another, called the Pelangy, flowing westward into the Bay of Illano, opposite the island of Bunwrit. The Spanish settlements, chiefly on the N. side, form 2 provinces in the capitanata of the Philippines. The interior is inhabited by *Horaforas*, who are treated as slaves by the Malays occupying all the S. coast; they acknowledge the supremacy of a native sultan.

The climate of the Philippines, owing to their extent, is more variable than in the other groups of islands lying so near the equator. In and about Manila, the district usually visited by Europeans, the mean temperature of the hot season (from August to October) may average about 82°, and that of the cold season, usually preceding the rains, about 70° Fah. The year, as in other tropical countries, is divided into a wet and dry season, here depending on the monsoons: the former lasts from May till the commencement of November, and the latter during the rest of the year. In the S.W. monsoon immense quantities of water falls, and the rain frequently lasts for 12 or 14 days without intermission. A large part of Luzon is within the region of the *typhoons*, which are as formidable as the tornadoes of the W. Indies: they last from May to December, but seldom continue more than 6 or 8 hours at a time. In Luzon (with which we are better acquainted than the rest of the group), the inhabitants suffer from agues and dysentery, in consequence of the great extent of marshy and low grounds inundated during the rainy months, and of the pestilential vapours during the rest of the year. (Meyen, *Reise um die Erde*, ii. 281.)

The agricultural products of the Philippine islands include rice, millet, and maize; sugar, indigo, hemp, tobacco, coffee, and cotton; with a great variety of other articles of inferior importance; but with the modes of culture we are little acquainted, though, according to Moor (*Malayan Archip.*, p. 81.), the Chinese imple-

means are pretty generally used in husbandry. Rice is the chief support of the pop., and hence is raised in large quantities throughout the group, the marshy nature of the country in many parts being favourable to its cultivation. In other districts, however, upland rice is cultivated. The sugar-cane is raised on the great plain of Pampanga and in the island of Panay: the mode of extracting the sugar is defective, but the sugar is excellent; its culture is also rapidly extending, and it now forms by far the most important article of export from the Philippines. Tobacco grows well, and might be produced on a very extensive scale; but its growth is limited, from the manufacture of cigars, in which form alone tobacco is exported, being a government monopoly. Indigo, also, is pretty extensively cultivated, but is inferior in quality to that of Bengal. Sapan wood constitutes the chief timber of the hilly districts, and is exported in large quantities to China. The coffee-plant was introduced by the Spaniards at the close of the last century, and grows wild on the W. side of Luzon, though not in the other islands. The coffee exported from Manila is almost wholly procured from these wild plants, and is alleged to be almost equal to that of Bourbon or the Mauritius. The banana is found on nearly all the islands, and hemp is produced very abundantly in the neighbourhood of Manila, as well as in Panay and Zebu. Furling-maria, both for cordage and a strong coarse cloth woven by the Malays (*Meyers*, ii. 779). Excellent sago grows in most parts of Luzon, and the cocoa-nut, which was introduced from Guatemala, is very abundant, and superior in quality to that of Peru. The shrub-cotton (*gossypium herbaceum*) thrives well; but, owing to some imperfection in the mode of breaking the pod, the cotton is of inferior quality, and little is exported. Cinnamon, the betel-pepper, and the clove-tree are found wild in many of the islands, and the bread-fruit, mango, and shaddock are raised very abundantly and with little labour. The other fruit-trees are few in number and of very indifferent quality. The mountains produce excellent timber for building both houses and ships; and the bamboos, used in the construction of the houses of the Malays, are very long, some being as thick as a man's thigh. The fauna of the Philippines comprises buffaloes of uncommon size and strength, a small, but hardy, breed of horses, introduced by the Spaniards, goats, pigs, and a few sheep, with immense numbers of ducks and fowls both wild and domestic. Land-tortoises are plentiful in most of the islands, and these shells constitute an important article among the exports. There are no beasts of prey; but caymans are found in most of the rivers and lakes, and are particularly numerous in the Laguna de Bahía. Among the birds may be noticed the swallows which supply the edible nests. Fish abound on the coasts, and the native fishermen are equally expert with the other islanders of the E. Archipelago. Pearl-oysters also are found in large quantities, and the shells are exported to China. The sea-slug, or *holothuria*, is also an important article of commerce.

Manufactures are of very little importance. The plaiting of straw and chips of wood into hats, cigar-cases and matting is carried on pretty extensively, and the hats are highly prized by the Spaniards. Domestic weaving occupies most of the females; and cotton cloth was till recently an article of export to Mexico. Considerable quantities of earthenware are made in Luzon, but of very inferior quality to that of China. The manufacture of cigars is a government monopoly; and, according to *Meyers*, ii. 811, the royal manufactory at Manila employs about 2,000 persons, two-thirds of whom are females.

Commerce.—Considering the great fertility and varied productions of the Philippines, and their peculiarly favourable situation for carrying on commerce, the limited extent of their trade, even with its late increase, may excite surprise. This, however, is entirely a consequence of the wretched policy of the Spanish government, which persevered until very recently in excluding all foreign ships from the ports of the Philippines, confining the trade between them and Mexico and South America to a single ship! Even ships and settlers from China were excluded. "Provisions," says La Pérouse, "of all kinds are in the greatest abundance here, and extremely cheap; but clothing, European hardware, and furniture, bear an excessively high price. The want of competition, together with prohibitions and restraints of every kind laid on commerce, render the productions and merchandise of India and China at least as dear as Europe!" Happily, however, this miserable policy, the effects of which have been admirably depicted by M. de La Pérouse, has been materially modified within the last few years. The events of the late war destroyed for ever the old colonial system of Spain; and the ships of all nations are now freely admitted into Manila and the other ports in the Philippines. An unprecedented stimulus has, in consequence, been given to all sorts of industry; and its progress will, no doubt, become more rapid, according as a wider experience and acquaintance with foreigners makes the

natives better aware of the advantages of commerce and industry, and disabuses them of the prejudices of which they have been so long the slaves.

In 1837, among other articles exported from Manila, were 222,183 piculs (about 13,250 tons) sugar; 49,457 pic. hemp; 126,003 coyangs rice; 4,598 boxes cigars, with considerable quantities of indigo, hempen cloth, sapan wood, and a great number of other articles; the total value of the exports amounting in the course of that year to above two million dollars. Cotton manufactured goods constitute the great article of import. The foreign trade of the islands centres almost entirely in Manila, which see. It is, in fact, the only port in the Philippines to which either Spanish ships to or from Europe and foreign vessels generally are allowed to trade; but Spanish vessels trading with China and Singapore, may proceed to the outposts of Pangasinan, Ylver, and other places, to take on board their outward-bound cargoes. (*See MANILLA.*)

The population of the Philippines is extremely various; and, independently of foreign settlers, the natives consist of a great number of distinct tribes, partly of Malay, partly of Papuan origin, and speaking several distinct languages or dialects. Some of the natives still adhere to the polytheism they professed before the advent of the Spaniards; but the great proportion has been converted to the Catholic faith, which, indeed, is the common bond between them and their new masters, and the principal means by which the latter have so long been able to maintain their ascendancy. The natives are said to be the most active, bold, and energetic of any belonging to the E. Archipelago. "These people," says M. de La Pérouse, "appear in no respect inferior to those of Europe. They cultivate the earth like men of understanding; are carpenters, joiners, smiths, goldsmiths, weavers, masons, &c. I have walked through their villages, and found them kind, hospitable, and communicative; and though the Spaniards speak of them and treat them with contempt, I perceived that the vices with which they are charged, ought rather to be imputed to the colonial government." (*Voyage*, chap. 15.) The people here described, however, are the Malays, who have pretty generally acknowledged the supremacy of the Spaniards, by whom they are treated as free subjects, and allowed to be proprietors of land; the Papuans, who chiefly occupy the higher parts of the country and less frequented islands, are probably savages, incapable of civilization, and avoiding all communication with foreigners. The rest of the population comprises European and Creole Spaniards, Spanish and Indian mestizos, Mohammedans from the E. Indies, and Chinese. The Spaniards, however, do not, perhaps, exceed 4,000 or 5,000.

The seat of government is at Manila, the residence of the captain-general of the Philippines; but there are lieutenant-governors in the most important of the other islands, and alcaldes in each of the prov., which also are subdivided into *pueblos* having their separate intendents. The revenues of the Philippines are principally derived from *ad valorem* duties on imports and exports, and from a capitation tax, and the tobacco monopoly. Foreign commodities, imported in foreign vessels, pay 14 per cent., and in national vessels from 7 to 9 per cent.; but there are some exceptions, and wines of all sorts, except Champagne, pay from 40 to 30 per cent., according as they are brought in native or foreign bottoms. Spanish products, imported by Spanish vessels, pay 2, and, by foreign vessels, 6 per cent. Exports (in which are comprised commodities produced in the island, and imports from foreign countries for consumption) pay from 1 to 14 per cent. *ad valorem*, by Spanish, but from 2 to 3 by foreign ships. Tobacco, however, and hempen rope, made at Manila, may be exported free of duty. Spaniards may export rice free of duty; but foreigners are charged 44 per cent. The capitation tax, or annual tribute, is charged at certain rates on all the inhabs. except European mestizos. The Chinese, who constitute the chief portion of the shopkeepers, traders, mechanics, coolies, and household servants are divided into four classes, paying rates, varying from 13 doll. 6 rs. to 120 doll. 6 rs., to which they are subject from the age of 16 to 60; but no Chinese is allowed to settle on the islands after the age of 40 years. Chinese and Indian mestizos pay 1 doll. 3 rs. annually, from the time of puberty till death, and Indians of both sexes pay 5 rs. 6 gr. each, during the same period. The number of tribute payers amounted, in 1837, to 1,806,142, of whom 901,594 belonged to the 17 provs. comprised in the island of Luzon. The archipelago consists of about 7,000 men, of whom only 700 are Spaniards, and the rest Malays. The cavalry are chiefly European; but the Malays are said to be good soldiers, and occupy most of the fortresses in Luzon.

The Philippines were discovered by Magellan in 1521, but were not claimed by the Spanish till 1565, soon after which Manila was constituted the cap. of their posses-

in this part of the world. The islands received present appellation in honour of Philip II. when of Spain. The Dutch and Chinese tried to make settlements here in the 17th century, though without success, owing to the determined and jealous opposition of Spaniards. In 1763, Manila was taken by the lab, who gave it back to Spain in 1764; since which have held it without interruption. The government, however, is inefficient and unable to protect the island from the ravages of the Sooloo and other pirates, who capture vessels, plunder villages, massacre or rob the inhabitants, and commit other enormities with impunity. (*Berghaus's Atlas*; *Myers*, ii. 210-264; *the Malayian Archipelago*, p. 76-85; *Mayer's Hist. of the Philipp. Islands*; *Hamilton's Gaz.*)

ACENZA (an. *Placentia*), a city of N. Italy, duchy of, cap. prov. and duchy of its own name, on Emilia Way, near the Po, where it is joined by Frebbia, 37 m. W.N.W. Parma, and 37 m. S.E.; lat. $45^{\circ} 9' 44''$, long. $9^{\circ} 42' 32''$. Pop., 30,000, of an oblong form, surrounded with ramparts, partly converted into public promenades, and defended by a citadel, garrisoned by Austrian troops. Streets are wide and regular, especially the principal, the *Stradone*, which is one of the handsomest in Italy; but they are dull and deserted. The houses are of brick. The principal square is mostly surrounded with old and mean buildings, but includes the house, with the prison, an antique structure, with Gothic tracery-work; the governor's palace, an old ruin, with new front, raised by the French; and a church: in the centre of the square are the bronze statues of Alexander Farnese and his son. Farnese palace, an unfinished edifice of singular structure, designed by Vignola, is now converted into a barracks; its walls were formerly adorned with the works of Raphael, Correggio, Parmegiano, &c.; but these mostly removed when the last Duke of Parma set his brick palace of Piacenza for the throne of a king. Piacenza abounds with churches. The cathedral, a heavy-looking building of the 12th century; its cupola is ornamented with fine frescoes by Guercino, Franceschini; and it has an altar-piece of high value, by Procaccini, with other paintings by that artist, the Caracci, Parmegiano, &c. Many of the other churches, also, boast of fine paintings; but that formerly belonging to the Augustine convent, an elegant structure by Vignola, has been converted into a granary. The city has a pretty theatre, good hotels, a public library, said to comprise 30,000 vols.; two orphan asylums; and about 1 m. distant, a bridge crosses the Po. Piacenza is a bishop's see, the seat of the high court of appeal for the duchy, two inferior tribunals, a seminary, with about 300 students, schools of fine arts, architecture, and other professions, &c. It has a few manufactures of silk twist, muslin, stockings, hats, earthenware, &c.; but chief trade is in agricultural produce. It has a fair in April.

It was colonized by the Romans, *sævo* a. c. 319. Piacenza was the most important and strongest city in Cisalpine Gaul; and it afforded a secure retreat to the Romans, after the unfortunate battles of the Ticinus and Trebia. Its fine amphitheatre, beyond the walls, destroyed in the war between Otho and Vitellius, was, with its territory, was taken possession of by Julius II., and given by Paul III. to L. Farnese, since which followed the fortunes of Parma. Gregory X., Cardinal Albornoz, Pallavicini, Landi, were among the remarkable natives of this city. (*Soldi*; *Cramer's Anc. Italy*, i. 79-82; *Corder's Hist.* 18-22, &c.)

ACZAZ, a town of Sicily, near its centre, intend. of Isecta, 18 m. S.E. city of that name. Pop. in 1829. It is built upon a high hill, and is a nothing remarkable in its buildings; but it is famed for the richness of its territory, and the great of the contiguous country. The *chiesa madre*, church, several convents, and a college, are the chief edifices. It is a bishop's see; but, from the attention paid to it by classical writers, and the use of any vestige of antiquity, it was evidently a place of no great consequence in early times. (*Hoare, C. Classical Tour*, ii. 238, 244.)

ARIDY, one of the former provs. of France, now ded among the depts. Aisne, Somme, Pas-de-Calais, and Oise.

ARKING, a market-town and par. of England, co. York, W. div. of wap. Pickering-Lythe, S. side of the Egton Moors, 18 m. S.W. Whitby, m. N.E. York. Area of par., including 6 townships, 12,760 acres: pop. of township in 1841, 1,992. The situation on a gentle eminence near a small tributary of the Ouse, is old and cragging. Near its W. end are the ruins of a castle, in which Richard II. died after his deposition, and prior to his final flight to Pontefract. The church is a fine old building, L. 11.

with a lofty spire: the living is a vicarage in the gift of the Dean of York. The Wesleyan-Methodists, Independents, and other dissenters, have their respective places of worship; and there are various Sunday schools and a well-endowed charity school for 180 children of both sexes. The town sent 3 mems. to the H. of C. in 23 Edw. I.; but the privilege was discontinued in the same reign, and has not been restored. It belongs to the duchy of Lancaster, and comprises in its jurisdiction several neighbouring villages, the whole forming what is called "the Honour of Pickering." A railway, 24 m. in length, connects this town with Whitby. A manor-court is held here at Easter and Michaelmas, for the recovery of debts under 40s., and petty sessions are held on alternate Mondays. Markets on Monday; fairs the Mondays before Feb. 14, July 6, and Oct. 11, chiefly for cattle.

PIEDMONT, a country of N. Italy, composing the principal portion of the continental dom. of the kingdom of Sardinia. (*See* SARDINIA, KINGDOM OF.)

PIERRE (ST.) *See* MARTINIQUE.

PILLAU, a sea-port town of the Prussian States, prov. of Pomerania, at the point of a tongue of land, on the N. side of the opening from the Baltic into the large maritime inlet, called the Frische Haff. Pop. 3,600. Pillau has a pretty good port, but the water is rather shallow, not exceeding 11 or 13 ft. in depth, so that vessels of large burden must anchor outside the bar. A lighthouse, having the lantern elevated 90 ft. above the level of the sea, has been erected on the S. side of the town, contiguous to the port, lat. $54^{\circ} 39' 4''$ N., long. $19^{\circ} 54' 4''$ E. Pillau is properly the sea-port of Königsberg and Elbing, and is, in consequence, largely frequented by shipping.

PILSEN, a town of Bohemia, cap. circ. Pilsen, on the Beraun, a tributary of the Elbe, 53 m. S.W. by W. Prague. Pop. in 1845, 9,798. It is one of the best built towns in the kingdom, and has a fine Gothic parish church, and town-hall, a gymnasium, military and other schools, a theatre, &c. Its manufactures of woollen goods are flourishing, and it has others of Morocco leather, iron and horn wares, and alum. Being on the high route from Prague to S. and Central Germany, it has a considerable transit trade, and a large annual fair is also held in Pilsen, attended by traders from every part of Bohemia. (*Aust. Nat. Encyc.*; *Bergbau*.)

PINEROLO (Fr. *Pignerol*), a town of the Sardinian dom., in Piedmont, divis. Turin, cap. prov. on the Clusone, near the foot of the Alps, 21 m. S.W. Turin. Pop. in 1838, 13,601. It was formerly a place of strength; but on its cession to Savoy in 1713, its fortifications were blown up by the French; and at present it is surrounded only by a slight wall. It is irregularly nor well built, but contains a spacious place of arms, with a handsome hospital and cavalry barracks. It has a fine cathedral, and numerous convents. The manufactures comprise coarse woollens, silk, twist, paper, and leather; and the inhabitants have a considerable trade in these articles, and in corn, wine, spirits, and fire-wood.

PISA (an. *Pisæ*), a famous city of Central Italy, the cap. of one of its most celebrated republics, and now the cap. of the prov. of its own name in the grand duchy of Tuscany, in a fertile, though rather marshy, plain on the Arno, about 8 m. from its mouth, 13 m. N.N.E. Leghorn, 50 m. W. Florence, and 12 m. S.W. Lucca; lat. $43^{\circ} 42' 11''$ N., long. $10^{\circ} 24' 24''$ E. The pop., which, in the 13th century, was estimated, though probably far beyond the mark, at 150,000, was, in 1846, only 22,000! The walls of the city are nearly 5 m. in circuit. In the days of its prosperity it was celebrated for the strength of its fortifications, its patrician towers, its profusion of marble, and its grave magnificence; but it is now only "the shell of a great city." (*Addison*). Its ancient gravity has been raised into dustiness by its commerce, though no longer a mark of nobility, may be traced in its modernised houses; and it can still boast of many marble edifices, and of one of the finest marble bridges in Europe. Its streets, though crooked, are wide, and paved, as in Florence, with large flag stones; the river is embanked with stone quays; and a street, the *Lung-Arno*, which extends along both its banks, has a most majestic appearance. Some of the houses have curious old fronts, and one street is wholly bordered with arcades. In a large grass-grown square, at the N. angle of the city, are 4 remarkable buildings—the cathedral, baptistery, leaning tower, and *Campo Santo*; "all," says Forsyth, "built of the same marble, all varieties of the same architecture, all venerable with years, and fortunate both in their society and their solitude." The cathedral is an edifice of the 11th century, and principally interesting as a specimen of the style then prevalent in Italy. Its length is 277 ft., breadth 108 ft.; and it has a front 127 ft. in height. Internally it is divided into 5 aisles by 68 isolated columns of Corinthian or archæic architecture; and 4 piers support an elliptical cupola. There are some beautiful altars, 3 magnificent bronze doors with sculptures

In relief by John of Bologna, and many fine paintings and bas-reliefs by some of the first Italian masters. But incongruities are numerous: "The marble pulpit is supported by a naked figure of most gross design; Bacchante and Meleager's hunt are encrusted on the walls; an ancient statue of Mars is worshipped under the name of St. Politus; and the heads of satyrs are carved on a cardinal's tomb" (*Forcysk.*). Among the 80 other churches are many which are best of rare works of art. The baptistery, opposite the cathedral, was built between 1162 and 1164, when Pisa was so populous and rich, that a voluntary contribution of one florin from each family is said to have sufficed to pay for its erection. This building is an immense polygon, above 160 feet in diameter and 176 in height, surmounted by a cupola and a cone terminated by a figure of St. John the Baptist. Nearly the whole of the exterior is of marble, and the interior is handsome; but, according to Mr. Woods, the building wants finish, and is not altogether well proportioned. The famous *campanile*, or Leaning Tower, is an edifice of little actual beauty, but rendered extraordinary by its inclination from the perpendicular. It was begun about 1174, but not finished till the middle of the 14th century: it consists of 2 concentric walls, each 2 ft. thick; the diameter of the circular well in the centre being 32 ft.: it is 8 stories, or 190 ft., in height, with outside galleries projecting 7 ft. The topmost story overhangs the base on one side about 15 ft., and to a spectator looking down from the top, the effect is terrific; though, as the centre of gravity is still 10 ft. within the base, it is perfectly safe. The view from the summit is alike extensive and beautiful. It has been supposed by some that the inclination is not accidental, but intentional, and that it was so constructed originally; but the more probable opinion seems to be, that it is a consequence of the sinking of the foundation. The observatory and baptistery have also a slight inclination, which is, no doubt, owing to the same cause.

The *campo santo*, or cemetery, is the most beautiful edifice at Pisa, and unique in its kind. It is an oblong or rhomboidal court, 383 ft. in length, by 127 ft. in breadth, surrounded by arcades of white marble, adorned with ancient Etruscan, Greek, and Roman bas-reliefs, busts, and other sculptures; and the walls covered with fresco-paintings, &c. by the earliest Italian masters. In its centre is an enormous mound of earth, said to have been brought thither from Palestine during the crusades, and formerly used as a burial ground. Pisa has a grand ducal residence, and several other palaces, which, with the nobility's club-house and bank, are fine buildings: the 3 bridges are handsome; and the hospitals, theatre, modern aqueduct 4 m. in length, &c., are well adapted to their purposes. Various remains of antiquity exist, as those of the aqueduct of Caldocoll, of the *hypocaustum*, &c., supposed to have been constructed by Nero, but especially a *sudatorium*, or vapour-bath, near the Lucca gate. About 3½ m. distant, on the Lucca road, are the *Bagni di Pisa*, supposed to be the baths mentioned by Strabo and Pliny, and still frequented by numerous visitors.

Pisa has a university, formerly among the most celebrated in Italy, and remarkable for its tolerance; its degrees, except in divinity and canon law, being attainable by persons of all creeds. It is still the head university of Tuscany; and, in 1836, had 545 students, 255 in jurisprudence, 173 in medicine and surgery, 20 in physical and mathematical sciences, and 26 in theology. Its library comprises 55,000 vols.; and attached to it are the Ferdinand College, a fine botanic garden, cabinet of natural history, chemical laboratory, and observatory. This university was one of the first to revive the study of the civil law; though there be no good foundation for the common story that this revival was a consequence of the Pisians having found a copy of the Pandects among the spoils of Amalphi, sacked by them in 1140. The university has had many illustrious names in the roll of her professors, including, among others, Galileo, Torricelli, Redi, Malpighi, Thomas Dempster, Borelli, Castelli, Gronovius, &c. Besides the university, Pisa has an episcopal seminary, with about 80 students, several conventual female schools, normal and Lancasterian schools, &c.; and is an archbishop's see. Its manufactures, which are unimportant, consist chiefly of soap, white lead, vitriol, glass, and a few other articles; and its trade has sunk in proportion to the rise of that of Leghorn. The city is connected by navigable canals both with Leghorn and the Serchio; but it is a curious fact that no vestige can now be found of its ancient port or roadstead at the mouth of the river, though, in the 15th century, it accommodated large fleets. This singular result is supposed to have been brought about by a change in the course and embouchure of the Arno.

Pisa derives some advantage from its being the winter resort of the grand duke and of the Tuscan court, as well as of numerous invalids, attracted thither by the mildness of the climate. On the shore near the city, amidst an extensive forest of ilex, is a farm belonging to the grand duke, where a number of camels

have been reared, it is said, from the time of the crusades; and whence most of the zoological collections in Europe are supplied with these animals.

Morals seem to be at a lower ebb in this, than even in most other Italian cities. According to Simond, idleness, ignorance, and profligacy, form the general character of the inhab. Every day one hears disgusting stories of meanness and dirty artifice in every transaction of life. Foreigners cannot hire a horse, or make a bargain of any sort, without being cheated. Most of the ladies have their *cavalieri serventi*.

Most writers attribute the foundation of this city to colonists from Pisa in the Peloponnesus soon after the Trojan war.

"——— Alphabet ab origine Pise
Urbs Etrusca solo." *Ensid.* lib. v. v. 179.

It became a Roman colony, and its port was, in the time of Strabo, an important naval station. It did not, however, attain to any great distinction till the 10th century, when it took the lead among the commercial republics of Italy. In the 11th century, its fleet of galleys maintained a superiority in the Mediterranean, commanding the coasts of Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, and Barbary, and assisting the French in the crusades. But in the 12th century, a struggle commenced with Genoa, which, after many vicissitudes, ended in the total ruin of the Pisians. The latter were defeated near the island of Meloria, in 1284, in a great naval engagement by the Genoese, with the loss of the greater part of their fleet, and above 16,000 men killed and taken prisoner. Pisa subsequently became the prey of various petty tyrants, and was finally united to Florence in 1406.

Galileo, so celebrated for his discoveries in astronomy and natural philosophy, and for the persecution to which they exposed him, was a native of Pisa. He was born here on the 15th February, 1564. (*Eustace.* iii. 440—461; *Wood's Letters of an Architect.* ii. 333—398. *Matthews & Williams: Forcysk; Conder's Italy.* iii. 1—20.)

PISTOJA (an. *Pistoria*), a city of Central Italy, grand duchy of Tuscany, prov. Florence, on the Ombrone, a tributary of the Arno, at the foot of the Apennines, 20 m. N.W. Florence. Pop. in 1845, 12,287. It is between 2 and 3 m. in circuit; is surrounded by old walls said to have been originally constructed by Desiderius, the last of the Lombard kings, and is further defended by a citadel built in 1252. It is clean, handsome, and well built, with unusually broad streets, and many curious and splendid edifices; but, like many other Italian towns, is dull, monotonous, and silent. Its cathedral is in the same style of architecture as that of Pisa and that of Lucca, but inferior to either; it has, however, some interesting monuments. The baptistery, constructed by Andrea Pisano, in 1337, is a small and handsome octagonal Gothic edifice. Several of the inferior churches are remarkable for their style of architecture or works of art; and the court-house is a fine old building. Instead of the suppressed Jesuits' college, there is a seminary for priests; and a large hospital is kept in good order.

Pistoja has a well-supplied market, a museum, two small public libraries, a large theatre, assembly rooms, and a race-ground. Provisions are cheap and good; the climate is cool and healthy; and the city is the residence of many noble and respectable families. The manufactures, which are on a small scale, include silk twist, straw hats, paper, musket barrels, cutlery, nails, iron wire, &c.; and near the city are some tolerably extensive iron works.

Pistoja is with Prato a bishop's see, and has an episcopal college, a superior private lyceum, with normal, girls', Lancasterian, and various inferior schools. In the middle ages it was the cap. of a republic, which became subject to Florence about the same time with Pisa. (*Rampoldi; Bourring's Report; Conder's Italy.*)

PITCAIRN'S ISLAND. See POLYNESIA.

PITTEENWEEM, a royal and parl. bor. and seaport of Scotland, co. Fife, on the N. shores of the Firth of Forth, 35½ m. N.E. by N. Edinburgh. Pop. in 1841, 1,309. It was created a bor. in 1837, and bears the marks of antiquity and decay. In addition to the parish church, the Episcopalians and the Relief Synod have each a chapel. Pitteenweem has a small harbour; but the only business connected with it is that of fishing to a limited extent. Here are the remains of a monastery of Augustine Friars. Dr. Douglas, Bishop of Salisbury,

"The scourge of impostors, the terror of quacks,"

was born here in 1721.

Pitteenweem unites with St. Andrew's, the two Anstruthers, Crall, Cupar, and Kireenny, in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors in this bor. in 1845—50, 44. Corporation revenue, 1845—9, 699*l.* Number of councillors, 24.

PITTSBURG, a city of the U. States of N. America, state Pennsylvania, whose extensive iron-works have made it be called the Birmingham of America, on

a triangular piece of land between the Alleghany and Monongahela, where those rivers meet to form the Ohio, 254 m. W. by N. Philadelphia, and 334 m. N. E. Cincinnati. Pop. of Pittsburgh proper, in 1840, 21,296; but if we include the town of Alleghany, N. of the river of that name, the rising brook of Birmingham, S. of the Monongahela, and other suburbs, the pop. in 1850 probably exceeds 60,000. The city is of a triangular shape, compactly and in some parts handsomely built, though the smoke of the different works has given to the houses a blackened and rather gloomy appearance: water is supplied from the Alleghany by means of a powerful steam-engine. The public buildings include numerous churches, an exchange, mansion-house, state penitentiary, different banking establishments, the western university of Pennsylvania, the Alleghany arsenal, (occupying, with its magazines, barracks, &c., an area of 31 acres,) and buildings belonging to the Pittsburgh high school, two theological academies, and a public library.

Pittsburg is admirably situated for manufactures and commerce: it has an all but unlimited command of inland navigation, and is connected not only with New Orleans and the various ports on the Mississippi, and its tributary streams, but also, by means of canals and railways, with the Great Lakes, and with Philadelphia, and other parts on the E. coast of the Union. (See PENNSYLVANIA.) And in addition to its advantageous geographical position, it has the command of inexhaustible supplies of coal and iron. In consequence it has become a principal seat of American manufactures, especially of those of hardware and glass. There were, in 1848, 11 rolling mills in Pittsburg, with a great many foundries, consuming about 150,000 tons a year of pig iron produced in the vicinity. Here, also, are very extensive glass works, with works for the production of steam-engines and other descriptions of machinery, cotton factories, nail works, earthenware works, &c. Though Pittsburg be above 2,000 m. from the sea, ship-building, especially of steamers for the navigation of the Ohio, Mississippi, and their connected streams, is carried on upon a very large scale; and most part of the machinery used in the steamers built at New Orleans, and other ports in the valley of the Mississippi, is produced here. It may, also, be truly affirmed, that, notwithstanding their rare increase, the manufactures and commerce of Pittsburg are yet only in their infancy; and that they must necessarily continue to increase with the increasing wealth and population of the vast countries of which she is a principal workshop and emporium. In 1838, the aggregate burden of the steamers, belonging to Pittsburg, amounted to 11,868 tons; but such has been the increase in the interval that it amounted on the 30th June, 1849, to 36,771 tons; and this despite the competition of Cincinnati, and other places on the Ohio. The ships who are mixtures of all nations—Germans, Irish, English, Scotch, French, &c., are industrious, frugal, economical, and without show. But here, as elsewhere, the American spirit of enterprise predominates. Pittsburg derives its name from Pitt Fort, a fortress constructed on the site of the city by the British previously to 1760; and round which a town began, in the course of time, to grow up. But it did not make much progress till 1790, since which it has steadily and rapidly advanced in industry, wealth, and population. In 1760, British and Colonial force, under General Braddock, sustained total defeat on the ground now occupied by the city. (*Stuart's America*, li. 478, 479; *Murray's* *Ac. of Geog. Amer.* ed. iii. 511; *Encycl. Amer.*; *Off. of Returns*, &c.)

PLASENCIA, a fortified city of Spain, in Estremadura, on a peninsula almost surrounded by the Jerte, a b. of the Tagus (crossed here by three bridges), 102 m. by E. Badajoz, and 130 m. W. by S. Madrid. Pop., according to Mifano, 6,797. It stands in a plain, surrounded N. and E. by high mountains, is surrounded by small hills, covered by a mixture of all nations—Germans, Irish, English, Scotch, French, &c., are industrious, frugal, economical, and without show. But here, as elsewhere, the American spirit of enterprise predominates. Pittsburg derives its name from Pitt Fort, a fortress constructed on the site of the city by the British previously to 1760; and round which a town began, in the course of time, to grow up. But it did not make much progress till 1790, since which it has steadily and rapidly advanced in industry, wealth, and population. In 1760, British and Colonial force, under General Braddock, sustained total defeat on the ground now occupied by the city. (*Stuart's America*, li. 478, 479; *Murray's* *Ac. of Geog. Amer.* ed. iii. 511; *Encycl. Amer.*; *Off. of Returns*, &c.)

LASSEY, a village of Bengal, on the Hooghly river, m. N. Calcutta, and 30 m. S. Moorshedabad. The site may be ever richly be a scene of the great victory gained by

Lord (then Colonel) Clive, on the 23d of June, 1757, over Suraj Dowla, soubahdar of Bengal. Clive's army consisted of only 900 Europeans, 5,100 Sepoys, and 100 Topasses; yet, with this small force, he did not hesitate to attack the soubahdar's army, of 50,000 foot, and 18,000 horse, supported by a formidable train of artillery! This, however, was not so Quixotic a proceeding as it may at first sight appear; for Clive knew that the native troops had no confidence in their general, and, in fact, they instantly gave way, so that the victory was at once complete, and easily won. The result of this contest threw Bengal into the hands of the English, and laid the foundations of our empire in India. (*Mil's India*, iii. 156.)

PLATA, LA. (REPUBLIC OF), or ARGENTINE REPUBLIC, an independent state, or rather confederation of states, in S. America, extending between the 23d and 41st degs. of S. lat. and the 54th and 73d of W. long., having N. Bolivia; E. Paraguay, Brazil, and the Banda Oriental, from all which it is separated by the Paraguay, Paraná, and Uruguay rivers; S. the Atlantic Ocean and Patagonia; and W. Chili and Bolivia. Sir Woodbine Parish gives the following estimate of the area, population, and subdivisions of this territory:—

Provinces.	Area in sq. m.	Estim. Pop.	Chief Towns.
Buenos Ayres		180,000 to 200,000	Buenos Ayres
Santa Fé		15,000 to 30,000	Santa Fé
Entre Rios		25,000 to 30,000	Paraná
Corrientes		35,000 to 40,000	Corrientes
Córdoba		80,000 to 85,000	Córdoba
Santiago		45,000 to 50,000	Santiago
Tucumán	725,000	40,000 to 45,000	Tucumán
Salta		50,000 to 60,000	Salta
Catamarca		30,000 to 35,000	Catamarca
L. Rioja		18,000 to 20,000	Rioja
San Luis		20,000 to 25,000	San Luis
Mendoza		35,000 to 40,000	Mendoza
San Juan		62,000 to 35,000	San Juan
Total	725,000	600,000 to 675,000	

Inasmuch, however, as the pop. of the city of Buenos Ayres may itself be estimated at about 100,000, we are inclined to think that this estimate is under the mark, and that the pop. may be set down at about a million. It has sometimes, indeed, been estimated at two millions and upwards; but there can be no doubt that this is very far beyond the mark. The Indians, who are not included in any of the above estimates, are, probably, under 50,000.

On the W. this territory is bounded by the great Cordillera of the Andes; and the N.W. prov. of Salta is almost wholly mountainous, as are extensive portions of the adjacent provs. of Catamarca and Tucumán. Some parts of the Despeñado chain in Salta rise probably to the height of 12,000 ft.; and in Cordoba are isolated chains, which any where but in the neighbourhood of the Andes would be called mountains. Still, however, after allowing for these and other deductions, five sixths of the country consist of plains, several of which are of vast extent. But notwithstanding its freedom from mountains, and the number and magnitude of its rivers, it is far from being the fertile region that it is so generally supposed; and a large proportion of its surface is, in fact, condemned to perpetual sterility. In the N. is the S. portion of the immense tract known by the name of the *Gran Chaco*, a vast plain, occupying the whole triangular space between Bolivia on the N. and the great rivers Paraguay on the E., and Salado on the W. This immense plain, which probably covers from 110,000 to 120,000 sq. m., is but little known; in the N. it is covered with extensive forests, but its more S. portion, between the Vermejo and Salado, is, in fact, a sandy, arid, and uninhabitable desert. This, also, is the character of the extensive tract between the Salado and the Rio Delos, and W. from the latter, which extends as far as the Sierra Velasco, in about the 68th deg. of W. long., extends the great Salt Desert of Salinas, in great part covered with saline efflorescence, and extremely hot. The great southern plain, or that which extends over the whole country S. of the 33d deg. of lat., is, fortunately, of a very different character from those previously noticed. This vast tract, which includes an area of above 300,000 sq. m., is called the *Pampas*. It may, taking its vast size into account, be regarded almost as a dead level, its slope towards the E. being gradual and imperceptible. It is interspersed with innumerable lakes; but these, as well as most of the rivers by which they are fed are brackish, the soil through which they flow being strongly impregnated with salt. Perfectly fresh and potable water is, however, found at the depth of from 30 to 50 ft. Substantially, however, the Pampas are divided into several regions, differing in climate and produce, though under the same lat. "On leaving Buenos Ayres, the first of these regions is covered, for 180 m. with clover and thistles alternately; the 2d region, which extends as far as 450 m., produces long grass; and the 3d, which reaches the base

of the Cordillera, is a grove of low trees and shrubs. The 2d and 3d of these regions have nearly the same appearance throughout the year, for the trees and shrubs are evergreens, and the immense plain of grass only changes its colour from green to brown; but the 1st region varies with the four seasons of the year in a most extraordinary manner. In winter the leaves of the thistles are large and luxuriant, and the whole surface of the country has the rough appearance of a turnip field. The clover in this season is extremely rich and strong; and the sight of the wild cattle grazing in full liberty on such pasture is very beautiful. In spring, the clover has vanished, the leaves of the thistles have extended along the ground, and the country still looks like a rough crop of turnips. In less than a month the whole region becomes a luxuriant wood of enormous thistles, which have suddenly shot up to a height of 10 or 11 ft., and are all in full bloom. The path is hemmed in on both sides; the view is comparatively obstructed; not an animal is to be seen; and the stems of the thistles are so close to each other, and so strong, that, independent of the prickles with which they are armed, they form an impenetrable barrier. The sudden growth of these plants is quite astonishing; and though it would be an unusual misfortune in military history, yet it is really possible that an invading army, unacquainted with the country, might be imprisoned by these thistles before it has had time to escape from them. The summer is not over before the scene undergoes another rapid change: the thistles suddenly lose their sap and verdure, their heads droop, the leaves shrink and fade, the stems become black and dead, and they remain rattling with the breeze one against another until the violence of the pampero, or hurricane, levels them with the ground, where they rapidly decompose and disappear; the clover rushes up, and the scene is again verdant. The vast region of grass in the Pampas for 450 m. is without a weed, and the region of wood is equally extraordinary. The trees are not crowded, but in their growth such beautiful order is observed, that one may gallop between them in every direction. The whole country is in such beautiful order, that if cities and millions of inhabitants could suddenly be planted at proper intervals and situations, the people would have nothing to do but to drive out their cattle to graze, and, without any previous preparation, to plough whatever quantity of ground their wants may require.

"The climate of the Pampas is subject to a great difference of temperature in winter and summer, though the changes are very regular. The winter is about as cold as our month of November, and the ground at sunrise is always covered with white frost, but the ice is seldom more than 1-10th of an inch thick. In summer the sun is oppressively hot. The difference, however, between the atmosphere of Mendoza, San Luis, and Buenos Ayres, which are all nearly under the same lat., is very great; in the two former, or in the regions of wood and grass, the air is extremely dry; there is no dew at night; in the hottest weather there is apparently very little perspiration, and the dead animals lie on the plain dried up in their skins. But in the prov. of Buenos Ayres, or in the region of thistles and pamperos, the vegetation clearly announces the humidity of the climate, and the dead animals on the plain are in a rapid state of putrefaction. On arriving at Buenos Ayres, the walls of the houses are so damp that it is cheerless to enter them; and sugar, as also all deliquescent salts, are there found nearly dissolved. This dampness, however, does not appear to be unhealthy. The S. part of the Pampas is inhabited by Indians, who have no fixed abode, but wander from place to place as the herbage around them becomes consumed by their cattle. The N. part and the rest of the prov. of La Plata are inhabited by a few straggling individuals, and a few small groups of people, who live together only because they were born together. The travelling across the Pampas is really a very astonishing effort. The country has no road but a track which is constantly changed. The huts, termed *postos*, are at different distances, but, upon an average, about 30 m. from each other, and in travelling with carriages, it is necessary to send a man before to request the *gaucho*s to collect their horses. The country is intersected with streams, rivulets, and rivers, with *pendoncos* (marshes), &c., through which it is absolutely necessary to drive. In one instance, the carriage, strange as it may seem, goes through a lake, which of course is not deep. The banks of the rivulets are often very precipitous, and I constantly remarked that we drove over and through places which, in Europe, any military officer would, I believe, without hesitation, report as impassable. The most independent way of travelling is, however, on horseback, without baggage, and without an attendant. In this case the traveller has to saddle his own horse, and to sleep at night upon the ground on his saddle; and as he is unable to carry any provisions, he must throw himself completely on the feeble resources of the country, and live on little else than beef and water." (*Head's Journeys across the Pampas*, p. 2-10. 46-50).

Many of the minor plains are of a very different character from either this or the Gran Chaco; and some, as those of Tucuman, yield corn and maize, rice, tobacco, the sugar-cane, &c. in the greatest abundance. The provs. of Cordova, Salta, &c. are also in parts very fertile. In general, the N.W. provs. are the most productive of grain, while the E. provinces, or those between the Parana and the Uruguay, and the S.E. provinces, abound most in cattle, and furnish the greater portion of the exports from Buenos Ayres.

The Argentine republic, excepting a small portion towards its S. extremity, watered by the Rio Colorado, and a few smaller rivers, is wholly comprised in the basin of the Plata. (See next art.) Its vast branches supply the most extensive means of internal communication; though the utility of some of them be at present a good deal impaired by the prohibitory measures of Dr. Francia, dictator of Paraguay. Many large rivers water the great plains; but several of these lose themselves in the considerable lakes previously noticed, without finding their way to the sea. The principal of these is the Rio Doce, which intersects the provinces of Tucuman and Santiago, and falls into the lake *de los Porongos*, or great salt lake, 35 m. in length, by 20 m. in breadth. Several lakes and swamps, of a size little inferior to this, are laid down in maps as existing in the Pampas; but the largest lake, or lagoon, is that of Ybera, in Corrientes, which extends over 1,000 sq. miles, and supplies four considerable rivers; it is probable that the Parana formerly took its course through this lake: at present no stream runs into it, and it is supposed to derive its waters through some underground drainage.

Geology and Minerals.—The N. E. and S.W. shores of the Rio de la Plata present the greatest contrast in their geological features. The N. shore is elevated, and, like the islands in the river's bed above Buenos Ayres, composed of granite, gneiss, and clay-slate; while, on the S. side, every trace of rock is entirely lost, and for hundreds of miles inland, not even the smallest pebble is to be met with. As far as we are yet acquainted with it, the whole of the vast level forming the Pampas appears to be one immense bed of alluvial sand, quietly deposited, during the lapse of ages, in what was anciently a gulph of the Atlantic, of which the estuary of the Plata is now the only remaining portion. The same process appears to be, at present, going on here also: this estuary, which, in the 16th century, is reported to have been deep enough for ships of any burden, is gradually silted up, and we may expect that, at some future period, instead of discharging itself by a wide mouth as at present, or as the Nile probably, in the most ancient times, the Plata will enter the ocean by a delta, like the Amazon, the Ganges, or the Nile of our day. In the alluvium of the Pampas, vast quantities of marine shells, and the remains of the *Megatherium clypeodon*, &c., have been found, and, according to Mr. Darwin, its whole area is one wide sepulchre for extinct quadrupeds. (*Voyage of the Adventure and Beagle*, iii. 153, &c.; *Farish's Buenos Ayres*, 164, 168.)

Iron, &c. in the region of thistles and pamperos, &c., are found in different parts of the country; but, speaking generally, its mineral riches have been very imperfectly explored. Gold and silver have, however, been obtained in considerable quantities, in various districts in the N.W. and W. provinces connected with the Andes, especially at Famatina, in Rioja, where the ores of silver are said to be very rich. Humboldt estimated the total value of the gold and silver obtained from mines and washings in the captain-generalship of Buenos Ayres, at the commencement of the present century, at nearly 5 millions dollars a year. But the greatest portion of what is now called Bolivia was then included within the limits of the government; and we have seen no late accounts of the produce of the mines on which it would be safe to place the smallest reliance: perhaps it does not, at present (1841), amount to 400,000*l.* a year. Iron is also believed to exist in the Chaco, in extensive veins, intermixed with small proportions of nickel and cobalt; and Sir W. Farish considers it extremely probable, that the immense mass of metal presented by him to the British Museum, and considered meteoric, is rather a production of the soil. (*Buenos Ayres*, 268-263.)

Salt is the most abundant mineral, and exists in a state of efflorescence over the surface of immense tracts, in a multitude of brackish springs and pools, and in mines of rock salt. Epsom and Glauber salts, limestone, gypsum, alum, mineral pitch, and an abundance of sulphur, are to be met with along the Cordillera, besides bituminous shale, with appearances of coal in many places; and it is said, though the statement requires confirmation, that there are extensive beds of coal in the extreme S.W. angle of the country.

The vegetable products in the N. provinces include most of those which flourish between the tropics; while in the S. they are in general similar to those of S. Europe. But even as far S. as Corrientes, cotton, tobacco,

rice, sugar cane, indigo, and many other articles of primary importance in the markets of Europe, may be produced to almost any extent; and a large extent of country is extremely well adapted to the culture of wheat, maize, and other grains. Wheat, which, till of late, was little cultivated, has now become an article of export. But the implements and processes of agriculture are still in the rudest possible state. "In many towns of the interior, a common wheelbarrow is as yet unheard of; while in the capital itself, the first pump ever seen in a private house was put up a very few years ago by an Englishman!" (*Parish's Buenos Ayres*, p. 367.)

The immense tract annually inundated by the Plata, now wholly in a state of no might. It is said, he could make available for the culture of rice on a most extensive scale. The inhabs. of Aranco, a department of La Rioja, are principally employed in the culture of the vine, and make annually from 8,000 to 10,000 small barrels of a strong sweet wine, which is sent to Cordova and the neighbouring provinces. A good deal of strong and full-bodied wine and brandy is also sent from Mendoza to Buenos Ayres.

The demand for sugar in the inland provs. is not sufficient to induce the country people to attend much to the cane; but tobacco is pretty largely cultivated, and finds ready sale in Tucuman and the adjacent provs. Catamarca supplies all the surrounding states with cotton of a superior quality, for their domestic manufactures; and exports large quantities of red pepper to Buenos Ayres. The cactus, which feeds the cochineal insect, grows in Santiago, Salta, and elsewhere in the W., and to an unusual size; and from the first-named prov. from 8,000 to 10,000 lbs. a year of cochineal were formerly sent to Chili and Peru. Aloes are equally abundant, and from their macerated fibres the Indians of the Chaco make yarn, ropes, shawls, &c. and a variety of bags and pouches, for which there is always a demand among their more civilised neighbours; these articles are dyed in indelible colours, prepared by the Indians from native plants. The cocoa plant (*Erythroxylon peruvianum*), which, when mixed with lime, forms a stimulant served by the Peruvians, as the betel in S. Asia, grows plentifully in Salta. Bonpland found 3 new species of indigo in Corrientes; madder is indigenous in several places; and on one species of shrub a small insect called the *cassino* is found, which affords a most beautiful green dye.

The E. banks of the Andes, and the banks of the W. affluents of the Paraguay, are covered with dense forests; which are, however, for the most part, useless, being at so great a distance from the Plata and sea-ports of the republic. The trees are mostly of the mimosa family; and, from the fruit of the algaroba, mixed with maize, the Indians make cakes; and by fermentation, produce their *chicha*, a strong intoxicating spirit, in very general use. The *quinaquina*, or Peruvian bark tree, various palms, and the *gerba-mali*, or Paraguay tea, are indigenous in Salta, &c. Figs, oranges, peaches, walnuts, apples, and other fruits, have been introduced by Europeans, and flourish with great luxuriance in many of the central and S. provs.; the want of pop. being, for the most part, the only great drawback to the development of the vast natural resources of the country.

But the chief source of wealth is the immense herds of horned cattle which wander over the widely-extended plains of the Pampas. Formerly, the greater number of these were unappropriated, like the land they roamed over, and were lassoed and destroyed at pleasure for their hides or fat, though sometimes, also, for their flesh, and sometimes for their tongues only, the rest of the body being left to beasts and birds of prey. But the Pampas are no longer unappropriated; a large part has been carefully measured by the government officers, and allotted to individuals, the extent and boundaries of whose *estancias*, or estates, are duly registered. Every animal a year old is branded with the mark of the owner, and that mark, being registered by the authorities, entitles him to claim his property wherever found. According to Sir W. Parish, it has been estimated that in the single prov. of Buenos Ayres there are from 3 to 4 million head of cattle, and above another million in the other provs. The number must certainly be immense; or hundreds of thousands have, on some occasions, perished through inundation and drought without sensibly affecting the supply for the market.* But all estimates of the number of cattle in these provs. are purely conjectural, and entitled to little weight; though we incline to think that Sir W. Parish has much under-rated the numbers of cattle in the provs. other than Buenos Ayres. In Entre Rios, before the revolution, "an estate of 3 leagues in length, by 2½ in breadth, that is of 12½ sq. leagues, might have had upon it generally about 8,000 head of horned cattle, and 15,000 horses. The price of it, with stock, &c., might be—the horned

cattle at 2s. each = 8000; the horses at 6d. each = 3750, and fixtures 1000; cost, therefore, of stock and fixtures, 1,2750, leaving the estate of 37½ sq. m. as a bonus to the purchaser!" (*Robertson's Letters on Paraguay*, II, 515, 516.)

Cattle-rearing estates are frequently of vast size; and Candiotti, probably the largest landholder of La Plata, is said, by Mr. Robertson, to have been the proprietor of 300 sq. leagues of territory, with 250,000 head of horned cattle, and 300,000 horses and mules. The annual increase upon a well-regulated *estancia* varies from 30 to 40 per cent., which yields an enormous profit to the proprietor, whose expenses are comparatively trifling. And since the revolution, which has thrown open the trade of S. America, the cattle, which were previously not worth more than 3s. or 4s. a head, are now worth 20s. and for these 20s. the farmer can buy double the quantity both of necessities and luxuries (his own commodity of cattle always excepted), which he could procure for them before. The *estancieros* of Santa Fé were formerly among the richest in the viceroyalty, and furnished by far the greater part of the 50,000 mules yearly sent to Salta for the service of Peru; but the stoppage of the trade with the latter country and Paraguay, and the attacks of the Indians, have impoverished and depopulated that province almost to the last degree. The mules were commonly sent, when two or three years old, to a periodical fair, near Salta, to which the purchasers from Peru repaired, and bought them in droves, at the rate of from 14 to 16 dollars each. The struggle for independence stopped this traffic; for Peru being to the last in the possession of the royalists, all intercourse with Salta was long cut off, and not having been renewed to any great extent, the breeding of mules has declined considerably in La Plata.

The horses of the Pampas are similar to the common Spanish horse, and of all colours: like the cattle, the original stock was introduced from Europe. They wander wild in immense herds, being caught indiscriminately by the gauchos, whenever they are required. Though as servicable to the gaucho as to the Arab, the former, owing, no doubt, to the animal being raised without any attention on his part, cares very little for his horse; he goads it in the most unmerciful manner, and when it drops with fatigue, he forthwith lassoes and mounts another, abandoning the exhausted horse to the wild animals. Mares are better treated by the Spaniards; but among the Indians, mares' flesh is the ordinary animal food. It may be supposed that mutton is neither very excellent nor dear in this country, since, by an old royal edict, the inhabs. were forbidden to drive sheep *alive* into the brick-kilns for fuel! The wool, also, a few years ago, was hardly worth the expense of cleaning, but it has latterly much improved in quality; and the export of this article, which, in 1830, reached only 19,444 lbs., amounted in 1837 to 2,307,391 lbs. Still, however, the breed of sheep, like that of goats and hogs, is very inferior. The singular animal, the *coppo*, which furnishes the skins known in commerce by the name of *sestria*, is abundant in Buenos Ayres, its skins forming a principal article of export: the chinchilla also abounds in various districts. Along the Andes are found guanacos, llamas, vicuñas, &c. Wild boars, deer, with jaguars, pumas, armadillos, &c., are also met with. The *biscacha*, a rodent quadruped, which makes travelling over the Pampas dangerous from its numerous burrowings, is very abundant; and condors, vultures, and numerous birds of rich plumage, inhabit the country. Its greatest pests are giant ants, locusts, immense bugs, musquitos, and other insect tribes.

The *gauchos*, or native peons, are the descendants of European colonists, and many of them have sprung from the best families of Spain. They are at once the most active and the most indolent of human beings; living, when not on horseback (which they generally are), in the rudest manner in mud huts. They are without agriculture, subsisting almost wholly on the flesh of oxen and game of various kinds, which they catch by means of two singular weapons, in the use of which they are extremely dexterous, the *lasso* and the *bolas*. The former, used by most natives of La Plata and Chili, is a strong plated thong of green hide, about 40 ft. in length, with an iron ring at one end forming a running noose, the other end being fixed by the peon on horseback to his saddle-girth. The gaucho, when about to seize an animal, whirls the noose with a portion of the thong horizontally round his head, holding the rest of the lasso coiled up in his left hand; and when near enough to the object at a precise point of its rotation, flings off the noose, which seldom or never fails to secure the animal. If a horse, it invariably falls over the neck; if an ox, over the horns. As soon as the rider has succeeded in his aim, he suddenly turns his horse, which sets its legs in a position to resist successfully the pull of the entrapped animal. The dexterity evinced in this operation, and the certainty with which an animal run

* In the last drought of 1831-32, it was estimated that from 1 to 1½ to 2 millions of animals died;—the borders of the lakes were bare, and the prov. of Buenos Ayres was long afterwards white with their bones. (*Parish's Buenos Ayres*, p. 371.)

ning at full speed, is caught, are very striking. The *boles*, used also by the Indians, is briefly described in the art. PATAGONIA, in this vol.

The Indians are of Araucanian origin (see CHILI, Vol. I. p. 692.), living, like the gauchos, chiefly on horseback, but partly in movable tents made of hides. To their main food, the flesh of mares and colts, if they add any thing it is maize, obtained from the Spaniards in exchange for salt, cattle, and blankets, made by their women. They live together in different tribes, each governed by a cacique. Some are friendly to the whites, but the greater part are bitterly hostile; and the two races maintain against each other an exterminating warfare. A few Indians in the provs. of Salta, &c., are employed by the whites in agriculture; receiving in payment for their services some coarse woollen cloths, beads, baubles, and a few other articles of dress; but, in general, the independent tribes wearing only a *poncho*, or short cloak, boots of goat-skin, and other articles of domestic manufacture, place little value on European goods. Numerous settlements were made in the 16th century by the Jesuits in the Missiones, S.E. of Corrientes, and civilisation is said to have made some progress among the Indians of this quarter; but after the expulsion of the Jesuits, in 1767, they speedily lapsed into their previous barbarism.

La Plata has scarcely any manufactures. Ponchos, saddle-cloths, blankets, &c., are made by the Indian women, and sold in great numbers to the people of Tucuman and Salta. Cordova is the principal manufacturing town; but the above kind of goods and morocco leather, with wooden bowls and dishes, comprise almost all the articles made there. The foreign imports consist principally of European goods for the white colonists; mostly from Great Britain. "The gaucho is everywhere clothed in British manufactures. Take his whole equipment—examine every thing about him—and what is there (not of raw hide) that is not British? If his wife has a gown, ten to one, it is made at Manchester; the camp-kettle in which he cooks his food, the earthenware he eats from, the knife, spurs, bit, are all imported from England." (*Parish*, 358.). The foreign trade of the republic is increasing; as it wholly centres in Buenos Ayres, the reader is referred for an account of it to the article on that city in this Dict., I. 463, 464.

Education, as may be supposed, is not very flourishing in the provinces; but in the chief towns it is not, upon the whole, so backward as in some other parts of S. America. Cordova has a university, and Buenos Ayres a good public library. Newspapers are published in several towns, and the press is quite free.

The Government is nominally a representative republic or confederation, each of the provinces being, to a certain degree, independent of the rest, as in the U. S., Mexico, &c. But, in 1835, General Rosas, who was unanimously called to the presidency, refused to act, unless invested for a period with extraordinary powers. These were accordingly granted him, so that at present the government is a nearly absolute dictatorship, presenting, however, a favourable contrast to the dictatorship in the neighbouring state of Paraguay. There is a *junta* or parliament of 44 deputies, half annually renewed by popular election; and a senate of 2 deputies from each province. The provincial government consists of a popular assembly, which nominates the governor. But though democratic in theory, they are quite otherwise in practice; the lower classes bowing with obsequious deference to the nominees of the upper: and "If any appeal to the people be ever made by the latter, it is generally from the necessity of supporting by a demonstration of brute force the pretensions of some particular candidate."

The powers of the president are constitutionally very extensive: he appoints to all civil, military, and judicial offices; but he, as his viceregent, is responsible for every new measure, and liable to impeachment before the Senate and House of Representatives. The military force is of uncertain amount; but, during the late war with Brazil, about 10,000 troops were collected, besides a numerous militia. The prov. of Buenos Ayres alone supports the government expenditure; the other provinces contributing nothing to the general expenses of the Confederation. The public revenue was estimated, in 1837, at 12,000,000 dollars, a sum insufficient to meet the ordinary expenditure. The public debt, at the same period, amounted to 35,917,156 dollars, bearing 6 per cent. interest.

This country was first discovered in 1517, and settled by the Spaniards in 1535. It was long dependent on Peru; but, in 1778, was erected into a viceroyalty, comprising, together with La Plata, Bolivia, Paraguay, and Uruguay. The English made an unsuccessful attempt on this country in 1807. In 1810, the struggle began between the inhabs. of Buenos Ayres and Spain, which terminated, in 1816, in the independence of the former. The first congress met at Tucuman, but the federal cap. was soon transferred to Buenos Ayres. In 1827 a

war broke out between the republic and Brazil, respecting the possession of Uruguay (Banda Oriental), established as an independent state in 1828; and more recently La Plata has been involved in disputes with both Bolivia and France. These wars have contributed to retard the march of her prosperity; but with all her accumulated difficulties, La Plata appears only to require a few years of repose to develop her abundant natural resources, and to become a comparatively flourishing country. (*Parish's Buenos Ayres*; *Head's Journales across the Pampas*; *Andrew's Journey in S. America*; *Robertson's Letters on Paraguay*; *Scarlett's*; *Miers's Darwin*; *Amer. Almanack*, &c. *passim*.)

PLATA (RIO DE LA) (*River of Silver*), a large river of S. America, draining with its numerous affluents the greater part of the states of La Plata, Banda Oriental, and Paraguay, with smaller portions of Bolivia and Brazil. It is formed by the union of two important branches, the Parana and Uruguay; and, gradually increasing in width, becomes a very large estuary, entering the S. Atlantic Ocean between Punta Negra (lat. 34° 15' S., long. 56° 9' W.) on the N.E., and Cape St. Antonio (lat. 36° 21' S., long. 56° 49' W.) on the S.W.; having on its N. bank the city and port of Monte Video and the colony of San Sacramento, while, on the opposite side, 124 m. from its mouth, is Buenos Ayres. The basin of this great river is estimated to occupy about 1,250,000 sq. m., being inferior in extent only to those of the Amazon and Mississippi: its length, from the source of the Paraguay to its mouth, is about 2,450 m.

The longest and most direct river, and that of the largest volume, belonging to this great water system, is the Paraguay, which, on receiving the waters of the Parana at Corrientes (27° 30' S. lat.), assumes the name of that branch. It has its sources between lat. 13° and 14° S., in the low ranges connecting the great mountains of Peru and Brazil, which constitute the water-shed between the affluents of the Amazon and those of the Rio de la Plata. Many navigable streams join it from the E., as it passes through Brazil; but those on the W. side, though not so numerous, are much more extensive. Between the 17th and 19th degs. of S. lat. occurs that wide region of swamps called the Lake of Kararay, which, during the periodical inundations of the river, is flooded so extensively as to form a great inland sea, stretching from E. to W. between 300 and 300 m., and from N. to S. upwards of 100 m., with a depth of 10 or 12 ft. At the close of the rainy season, these waters are carried off by the Paraguay, which is navigable from this point to its mouth for vessels of 40 or 50 tons, a direct distance of 1,200 m. The other western affluents are the Pilcomayo and Vermejo, which fall into it between Assumption and Corrientes, both saving their sources in Bolivia, and flowing S.E. through the great chaco, or desert. The Pilcomayo, after a course of 1,000 m. on the main stream, has two branches, about 60 m. apart: it is shallow, and not navigable even by canoes. The Vermejo, which falls into the main river about 135 m. below that last mentioned, rises on the E. slope of the Andes, and is navigable for large boats through the whole of the level country for nearly 700 m.

The Parana (which, as we have before observed, joins the Paraguay at Corrientes, and gives it its own name to its lower part) rises in the table-land of Brazil, in lat. 21° S., hardly 120 m. from the shores of the Atlantic. It flows S. and then curves westward, separating Brazil from Paraguay, and, lower down, divides the latter country from the states of La Plata. It has numerous affluents, but though the main stream be upwards of 1,000 m. in length, it is not navigable for more than 100 m., owing to the *saltos*, or falls, the lowest of which, close to the island of Appe, is in lat. 27° 36' S., long. 56° 47' W. From this point the river at once becomes navigable for vessels of 300 tons. The most important fall, however, is considerably higher up the stream, in lat. 25° 30' S., being upwards of 50 ft. in height. From Corrientes, the united river, now from 14 m. to 2 m. in width, flows through a vast channel, much broken by islands, overrun with trees, and subject to inundation. The only considerable trib. of the Parana below Corrientes is the Salado, which rises in the E. Cordillera of the Andes, and after a devious course through the mountains, runs south-eastward through the Pampas, to its junction with the main river, near Santa Fe, in lat. 31° 40' S. Here the Parana divides into numerous branches, formed by pretty large islands, becoming more frequent lower down the stream, which at length opens into the estuary of La Plata, by a long, but narrow delta, having two principal branches. The depth at the mouth is seldom less than 2 fathoms, and there is an uninterrupted navigation throughout the year for vessels of 300 tons from Assumption, upwards of 800 m. from the mouth. It has been estimated, says Mr. Darwin, that "the river, at its source, has only a fall of 1 ft. per mile, and much less lower down in its course; indeed, a rise of 7 ft. at Buenos Ayres may be perceived 180 m. from the mouth of the Parana. But notwith-

tending these advantages, we met during our descent very few vessels. One of the best gifts of nature seems to be willfully thrown away; so grand a channel of communication being left nearly unoccupied: a river in which ships might navigate from a temperate country, as surprisingly abundant in some productions as destitute of others, to another, possessing a tropical climate, and a soil, perhaps unequalled in fertility in any part of the world. How different would have been the aspect of his country if English, instead of Spanish colonists had in good fortune first called up this splendid river! "*Voyage of the Idæ and Beagle*, iii. 164." The inundations of the Paraguay and Parana bear a close analogy to those of the Nile. "Both rivers," says Sir Woodbine Parish, "rise in the torrid zone, nearly at the same distance from the equator; and both, though holding their courses towards opposite poles, disembody by deltas in about the same lat.: both are navigable for very long distances, and both have their periodical risings, bursting over their natural bounds, and inundating immense tracts of country." The Parana begins to rise about the end of Dec., soon after the commencement of the rainy season in the S. tropic, and increases gradually till April, when it begins to fall somewhat more rapidly till the beginning of July: a second rising, called *repente*, is occasioned by the winter rains S. of the tropic of Capricorn; but it seldom overflows the banks.

The ordinary average of the increase below Corrientes is 12 ft.; but at Assumption, where the river is more confined, the rise is said to be sometimes as much as 5 or 6 fathoms. Occasionally, however, these floods are much higher; penetrating into the jungles of the interior, and drowning numbers of wild animals, the carcasses of which poison the air for months afterwards. The river at these times is exceedingly turbid, from the great quantity of vegetable substances and mud brought down by it: the velocity of the stream in the higher and narrower parts at first prevents their deposition; but as it approaches the lower lands, or pampas, they are spread over the face of the country, forming a grey slimy soil, which increases vegetation in a surprising degree. The extent of ground thus covered during the inundations is estimated at 30,000 sq. m. The Uruguay, the other great branch of the estuary of La Plata, takes its name from the numerous falls and rapids which mark its course. It is upwards of 800 m. in length, rising in lat. 27° 30', on the Sierra de S. Catherina, in the province of that name, only about 75 m. W. the Atlantic Ocean. Its course is at first nearly due W., but is afterwards turned southward by a mountain-range, separating it from the Parana. It receives several important affluents, of which the Negro, the principal river of Banda Oriental, is the chief. It joins the estuary of La Plata about 60 m. below the junction of the latter; and its clear blue waters may be distinguished from the muddy stream of the Parana for miles after their union. The country through which the Uruguay flows is of a very uneven and rocky character; in consequence of which the navigation is broken by many reefs and falls, only passable during the periodical floods. Of these, the lowest are the Salto Grande and Chico, in at. 31° 30', about 190 m. above its mouth.

The estuary of the Rio de la Plata, the recipient of these great rivers, is about 185 m. in length; its breadth at the mouth being about 180 m., though it gradually becomes narrower, till, opposite Buenos Ayres, it has a width of only 29 m. The coast on the N. side is in general high and rocky; whereas on the opposite side the shores are low, extending inwards in immense sumpas. The depth of the river increases towards the north, where it averages 10 fathoms; but at Monte Video it scarcely exceeds 3 fathoms, and gradually lessens, so that vessels drawing more than 16 ft. water cannot ascend above Buenos Ayres. E. of Monte Video an immense bank of sand and shells, called the English bank, besides what are many other sand-banks, is covered when the river is low with only about 8 ft. water, one of which, called the Ortiz, is in some parts between 11 and 13 m. in width. The currents are extremely irregular, both in rate and direction, a consequence of the immense volume of water brought down at certain seasons by the Parana, as well as of the influence of the winds at the mouth of the river: indeed, his variability of the winds and currents constitutes one of the chief difficulties in navigating the Plata, which, on this account, has been termed "*El Inferno de la Marinería*."

In calm weather the currents are generally very slack, and almost as regular as tides, setting up and down the river alternately. The effect produced by the *pampaseros*, or S.W. gales, so called from their blowing over the pampas S. of Buenos Ayres, is remarkable from the singular fluctuations in the depth of the water before and after their occurrence; the river being always higher than usual when they begin, whereas, after they have continued for a few hours, the water is forced out to sea, so that the sand-banks begin to appear, and, on some occasions, even

the anchoring grounds have been laid bare! The tides are so much disturbed, and, as it were, hidden by the currents, that it has been affirmed they have no existence; but, according to the *American Coast Pilot*, they are clearly discernible in calm weather, though their rise seldom exceeds 6 ft. (*Amer. Coast Pilot*.)

The Rio de la Plata, which, with its affluents, furnished an internal navigation of many thousand miles, must, of course, even in its present neglected state, have a considerable commerce, of which Buenos Ayres and Montevideo are the great entrepôts, and to which the reader is referred for further details. The river trade, however, is far less extensive at present than is generally supposed; the intercourse with Chili and Peru having greatly decreased since the establishment of independence at Buenos Ayres, and that with Paraguay having been all but annihilated by the exclusive and despotic policy adopted by its present dictator, Dr. Francia. The river is pre-eminently well adapted for steam navigation, and, under more happy circumstances, might become the medium of a trade inferior only to that of the Ganges and the Mississippi. (*Sir W. Parry's Buenos Ayres and La Plata*, p. 175-206; *Voyages of the Adventure and Beagle*, ii. and iii.; *Amer. C. Pilot*, &c.)

PLATEA, a considerable city of ancient Greece, now wholly in ruins, in Boeotia, at the N. foot of Mount Cithæron, about 7 m. S.W. Thebes. This town has acquired an immortality of renown from its having given its name to the great battle fought in its vicinity, on the 22d September, anno 479 B.C., between the combined Greek forces under Pausanias, and the Persian army under Mardonius, generalissimo of the forces sent to the defence of Greece. The Grecians gained a most complete victory. Mardonius was killed in the action; and the camp to which the fugitives retreated having been forced, a prodigious slaughter took place. In fact, with the exception of about 40,000 horse, who escaped under Artabazus, the entire Persian army, said to have been nearly 300,000 strong, was all but entirely annihilated. (*Herod. lib. ix. cap. 63*.) The victorious Greeks, besides securing the independence of their country, found an immense booty in the camp of the Persians. A tenth part of the spoil was given to Pausanias, the general, whose great talents materially contributed to the success of the day; and another tenth was set apart as offerings to the gods. From the produce of the latter was presented to the shrine of Delphi a golden tripod, supported on a brazen pillar formed of three serpents twisted together. And it is a singular and curious fact, that this identical pillar, having been carried to Constantinople, still exists in the Hippodrome of that city! (*Herod. lib. ix. cap. 80*; and the arts. CONSTANTINOPLÉ, and DELPHI, in this work.)

Notwithstanding the services the Plateans had rendered to the common cause in this great struggle, their city was, at a subsequent period, anno 374 B.C., taken and razed by the Spartans. But she was afterwards restored, and her walls rebuilt, by Alexander the Great. The existing remains of the city date from the era of that conqueror. (*Dodwell's Greece*, i. 278.)

PLAUEN, a town of the k. of Saxony, circ. Zurichau, cap. districts Plauen and Pausa; on the White Elster, 58 m. S. by W. Leipzig. Pop., in 1837, 9,485. It is built on uneven ground, walled, and has several churches and hospitals, a gymnasium, and a royal castle. It is a thriving town, with manufactures of linens, and cotton goods and yarn; it has also considerable markets for wool. Pearls are occasionally found in this part of the river; and there is a royal pearl fishery at Oelanitz, in the neighbourhood. (*Berghaus; Murray's Handbook for S. Germany*.)

PLYMOUTH and DEVONPORT (for, though separated in their municipal and political privileges, they constitute, in fact, parts of the same town), two parli. bors. and sea-port towns of England, co. Devon, and hund. Roborough, making together the principal naval port of Great Britain after Portsmouth, at the bottom or N. end of Plymouth Sound, on a kind of rocky promontory between the Tamar and Plym, 36 m. S.W. Exeter, and 193 m. W. by S. London; lat. old church, 50° 32' 14" N., long. 4° 7' 32" W. The pop. of the different towns and districts, popularly included under the term Plymouth, has been, in 1801, &c., as follows:—

	1801.	1811.	1821.	1831.	1841.
Plymouth - -	16,040	20,803	21,591	21,080	35,597
Devonport - -	23,747	30,093	33,578	34,883	35,728
East Stonehouse -	3,407	5,174	6,043	9,671	9,711
	43,194	56,060	61,212	75,534	81,036

These towns had together, in 1841, 8,799 inhab. houses. There is a large excess of females, the latter having amounted in the same year to 45,115, and the males to only 35,045. The towns are built on rather unequal ground; Plymouth being on the E., and Devonport on the W. side of the space (3 m. broad) between the two rivers: the

medial suburb of Stonehouse connects (with the help of a bridge over Stonehouse-pool) the two towns.

Plymouth is old, and irregularly laid out; several of its streets are narrow and ill-built, a few also being steep. Many improvements, however, have been made within the last few years, and it has now several handsome streets and good squares, lined with substantial stone houses. Devonport, formerly called Dock, may be said to be the new town of Plymouth, having been almost entirely built since 1760; most of its streets are straight and wide, and the older houses are being gradually replaced by handsome and more substantial buildings. Its wide, handsome streets, which cross each other at right angles, are paved with limestone quarried in the neighbourhood. Both towns are well lighted with gas; and water is abundantly supplied to Plymouth by the corporation, and to Devonport by a joint stock company.

The principal public buildings of Plymouth are, a modern, though by no means handsome, guildhall, with a small attached bor. gnoi; an exchange, and custom-house; a very elegant edifice, called the Athenæum, belonging to the Plymouth Literary Institution; a public library; a splendid hotel and theatre, built by the corporation, at an expense of nearly 40,000*l.*; the Royal Union Baths, and a plain stone structure called the Freemasons' Hall. A new and extensive market-place has also been formed, at an expense of more than 10,000*l.*; and it has several barracks, hospitals, and prisons belonging to government. The Naval Hospital, at Stonehouse, is of great extent, and admirably arranged; and opposite to the water-entry of this hospital is the Royal Military Hospital, with an arcade of 41 arches, supporting a terrace, and covered promenade below; there is also a large military prison at Mill-bay, capable of accommodating nearly 3,000 persons. One of the most striking features of Plymouth is its citadel, erected on a commanding eminence in 1670: it has five bastions, and is surrounded on three sides by a deep ditch and counter-scarp: the interior comprises a governor's house, residences for numerous military officers, and extensive barracks. The victualling office, erected about 10 years since, at Duval's or Devil's Point, S. of Stonehouse, is of large size, and replete with every convenience. W. of the citadel is the elevated walk called the Hoe, which commands a fine view of the Sound and the surrounding country, including Mount Edgumbe, with the Cornish hills in the W., the high land of Dartmoor in the N., and Saltram, its neighbourhood, and distant towns in the N.E. Plymouth is divided into two parishes, St. Andrew and Charles the Martyr, of the annual value of 920*l.* and 612*l.* respectively: both have been till very recently in the patronage of the corporation. St. Andrew's church, erected at different periods between the 12th and 18th centuries, is a large and rather handsome structure, with a square embattled tower; its interior comprises accommodation for 2,500 persons, and is, on the whole, elegantly arranged. Charles's church, built towards the close of the 17th century, and named after King Charles I., is a neat building, with a square tower surmounted by a light steeple. There are two chapels-of-ease, one in each par., besides the chapel in the citadel, and the mariners' church, for which a new structure, called Trinity Church, is in course of erection. There are 2 Baptist chapels, and 2 others belong to the sect denominated "Plymouth Brethren." The Wesleyan, Associated, and Bryanite Methodists, Independents, Presbyterians, and Unitarians, have each one or more chapels; and there is a meeting-house for the Society of Friends, and a synagogue. Five Sunday-schools are attached to the Established Church; and religious instruction is furnished by the Dissenters to several hundred children of both sexes. A grammar-school, in the patronage of the corporation, is attended by from 30 to 30 boys; and another school, formerly proprietary, furnishes a good general education to about 80 boys. There is, likewise, an endowed charity-school for 80 children of each sex. Dame Rogers's charity gives clothing and instruction to 52 girls; and a Lancasterian school is attended by 176 boys, and 120 girls. An orphan asylum was established some few years ago; and there are 4 sets of almshouses, besides the "South Devon and East Cornwall Hospital," and "Public Dispensary," for providing the poor with gratuitous medical aid; and other benevolent and religious institutions supported by voluntary contributions. The literary establishments comprise the Plymouth Institution, or Athenæum, for the promotion of science and literature; the Natural History Society of Devon and Cornwall; a public library with 6,000 vols.; a medical library, established in 1794; a law library, established in 1815; a theological library; and a mechanics' institute. There are 5 weekly newspapers, of which 2 belong to Plymouth, and 3 to Devonport.

Devonport, unlike Plymouth, is a regularly fortified town, surrounded by lines commenced in the reign of George II., but since much improved. It is also defended by the fortress of Mount Wise, between the town and the harbour on the S., and by a fort on Mount Pleasant to the N., and a battery at Obelisk Point on

the peninsula of Mount Edgumbe, on the opposite side of the harbour. Inasmuch, however, as several of the adjacent heights command the town, it could not oppose any effectual resistance to an army attacking it by land; but it is quite secure from any attack by sea. Close to the fort of Mount Wise is the governor's house, a handsome stone building, fronted by a parade, forming a favourite promenade: on its N. side is the port admiral's house, a recent and capacious stone building. A town-hall was erected a few years ago, and other edifices for various purposes have been built since the grant of the charter in 1838. Opposite the town-hall (which is a neat Doric structure) stands a fluted column, intended to commemorate the naming of Devonport, in 1634: its summit commands a fine view of the harbour and surrounding scenery. The par. church is at Stoke Damerel, nearly 1 m. N.E. the town; but there are 3 Episcopal chapels of ease, one of which is attached to the dock-yard. The Baptists, Independents, Wesleyan Methodists, and Unitarians, have each places of worship, with attached Sunday-schools; there are also several endowed and subscription schools, furnishing instruction to nearly 5,000 children of both sexes. A public dispensary and savings bank have also been established. Devonport, however, is mainly dependent on its dock-yard, which, indeed, constitutes by far the most interesting feature of the united town.

Plymouth has been, for a lengthened period, the second naval harbour of Great Britain. The dock-yard at Devonport, commenced in the reign of William III., is one of the finest establishments of its kind in Europe. It extends along the shore of Hamoaze 2,500 ft., with an extreme breadth of 1,200 ft., including an area of 73 acres; the entrance on the land side is from Fore Street, one of the principal thoroughfares of Devonport. The basin of the dock is only 200 ft. in length, and 180 ft. in width; but the excellence of Hamoaze as a natural harbour renders a larger basin of less importance. The wharf-wall extends along the shore; and the depth of water is such as to allow the largest ships of the line to come close up to the principal jetties to take in stores.

The dock-yard is divided into two pretty equal parts by a canal (similar to that in Portsmouth), which furnishes easy access for boats to the storehouses, ropewalks, smithies, &c. In the N. half, adjacent to the harbour, are 2 dry docks for ships of 120 guns, with jetties for their accommodation after having been undocked. A fine double dock, for ships of 74 guns, communicates directly with the harbour, and a smaller dock opens into the older basin, in addition to which a capacious new basin is now being formed in the S.W. part of the yard. The roofs of the docks are extraordinary specimens of architectural skill, each being formed of a single arch, unsupported either by buttress or pillars. Workshops and sheds are erected in various parts, and a quadrangular range of fire-proof stone buildings comprises magazines of stores, sails, rigging, &c. At the N. end, also, is a range of handsome houses, with attached gardens, forming the residence of the principal officers. On the S. side of the yard are building-slips for large vessels, and others for those of inferior size: near these is a building in which planks are steamed, when required to receive any particular curvature; and in this part, also, are extensive timber-berths, sawpits, and mast-houses, besides a large pond in which masts, yards, &c. are kept soaked to prevent their cracking by exposure to the sun. The blacksmith's shop, about 200 ft. square, comprises many forges. Anchors are made in it of the largest size. The ropery, which is the finest in the kingdom, comprises 2 ranges of building, each 1,900 ft. in length, and 3 stories in height, built entirely of stone and iron, as a security against fire: contiguous to them is the hemp-magazine. In this part of the yard, also, is the model-loft, in which are the patterns of the various parts of ships ordered to be constructed by the Admiralty.

The gun-wharf, or arsenal, separated from the Dock-yard by North Corner Street, includes within the walls about 4*l.* acres: it has two principal warehouses for accoutrements, keels, pistols, and other small arms, with sheds for gun carriages, a powder magazine, and a coopers.

A great number of men are employed in the different departments of the dock-yard, especially during war, or when a fleet has to be fitted out; and the scale on which the various operations are conducted, the diversity of the employments, the perfection of the machinery, and the activity prevalent throughout the establishment, are all objects of admiration. But no individual who is not in uniform, or is not well known to the authorities, is allowed to enter the dock-yard, unless by special permission.

The harbour of Plymouth is double, being formed by the estuaries of the Plym and Tamar, opening into the N.E. and N.W. angles of Plymouth Sound: the estuary of the Plym forms the Catwater, a convenient and capacious harbour for merchant-vessels; and that of the Tamar expands into the noble road or harbour of Hamoaze, about 4 m. in length, by about $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in width: it is almost completely land-locked, and has moorings for 100 sail of the line, with secure anchoring-

round for a still larger number; its average depth is fathoms at ebb tide, and the largest ships float close to the quays. Subordinate to the harbour of Catwater is Sutton-pool, a small tide-basin, to the E. of the citadel, surrounded by quays for the convenience of coals, and fishing vessels, and fishing smacks, by which it is almost exclusively frequented. In Mill-bay, also, to the W. of Plymouth, a pier is in course of being constructed for the accommodation of the largest steamers at all times of the tide. Spring tides rise from 15 ft. to 18 ft., and eaps from 6 ft. to 8 ft.

The bay or arm of the sea, called Plymouth Sound, into which these harbours open, is used for the accommodation of the ships that have been refitted in the dockyards, and as a safe asylum for all sorts of ships in stormy weather. During, however, to the heavy swell thrown in from the S., it was formerly a very unsafe place for anchoring; and, to obviate this inconvenience, a stupendous breakwater, or mole (similar to that of Cherbourg, or rather to that of Civita Vecchia, constructed by the emperor Trajan, — *see CIVITA VECCHIA*), has been formed in the middle of the Sound, stretching in a line, straight in the middle but inclined inwards at either extremity, about 1 m. in length, between Cawsand Bay on the one side, and Bovisand Bay on the other. From the commencement of the work to July 31, 1841, 3,777,063 tons of stone, procured from quarries on the banks of the Plym, consisting of rough cubical blocks, each weighing from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 tons and upwards, had been employed in this great work. The top presents a flat surface, about ten ards in width, whence it slopes on both sides to the bottom, the principal slope being on the side next the sea. A lighthouse is now being erected on its W. extremity.

This great national undertaking has cost a very large sum, but the important object in view in its construction has been completely attained. That part of the sound within the breakwater has been rendered one of the very best roadsteads in the world: it is accessible on either side, and is sufficiently capacious to admit the largest fleets, which ride under cover of this immense bulwark during the stormiest weather in perfect safety. The Eddystone lighthouse (which *see*) stands about 4 m. S. by W. the breakwater, and is an important appendage to the harbour, the entrance to which would, out for this beacon, be subject to great danger, in consequence of the hidden rocks on which it is placed. Within the breakwater, and opposite to and commanding the entrance to Hamoaze, is St. Nicholas Island, which has been strongly fortified, and constitutes, with the redoubt, at itadon height, above Bovisand quay (near which is formed the reservoir for supplying H. M.'s ships with water), the principal defence of the town and harbour on the side of the sea.

The Hamoaze is bounded on the S. directly opposite Devonport, by the beautiful peninsula of Mount Edgum, the seat of the noble family of Edgumbe. On the upper part of the Hamoaze, and on its W. side, is the town of Saltash (which *see*).

In Catwater harbour there are wet and dry docks, formerly suited to the construction of 74-gun ships; but for many years they have been used exclusively for merchant-casels. On the E. side of the Catwater are the villages of Oreston and Turnchapel, mostly occupied by persons engaged in the dockyards, or otherwise connected with the trade of the port. In this direction, also, are the well-situated villages of Upper and Lower Hooe, Mount Batten, at the S.W. extremity of the Catwater, opposite Sutton-pool, is a very picturesque object. It is surmounted by an ancient castle.

The trade of Plymouth is of considerable importance: the gross customs' duties amounted in 1849 to 122,385*l.* there belonged to the port on the 1st Jan., 1850, 428 sailing vessels, agg. burden 39,322 tons, and 5 steamers.

A large part of the trade of the town depends on the oakyard, and timber is, of course, a principal article of export. Steamers touch here almost daily, on their passage between London, Dublin, Bristol, &c., and boats come twice or thrice a week to and from Southampton. The manufacturing establishments of Plymouth comprise a very extensive sail-cloth factory, a sugar-refinery, a glass-house, starch-factory, and a soap-boiling establishment, which produced, in 1848, 4,117,170 lbs. hard soap. The communication with the country E. of the Plym is effected by an iron bridge of five arches, raised on granite pier, built at the sole expense of the late Earl of Morley; and mail-coaches, carriages, horses, passengers, &c., are carried over to Cornwall by a kind of floating steam-bridge, running every quarter of an hour between Tavistock and Devonport. Plymouth is united by railway with Exeter, Bristol, and the metropolis, the journey being performed in less than 6 hours. The Bank of England has a branch here; and the Western District

Banking Company, the Devon and Cornwall Banking Company, and the National and Provincial Bank of England, have establishments both at Plymouth and Devonport; besides which there are the "Naval Bank," and two private banks.

Plymouth was incorporated in 13 Henry VI. Its present municipal officers are a mayor, 11 other aldermen, and 36 councillors, the bor. being divided into six wards. Corporation revenue, in 1847-8, 14,153*l.* Quarter and petty sessions are held under a recorder; and there is also a borough-court for the trial of civil actions. A county court is established here, before which 1,760 plaints were entered in 1848. Devonport has also been made a corporate town, and divided into wards; its municipal officers being a mayor, aldermen, and councillors. It has a commission of the peace under a recorder. Corp. rev., in 1848-9, 7,394*l.* Plymouth has regularly sent 3 mems. to the H. of C. since the reign of Henry IV.; but it occasionally exercised the franchise at an earlier period. The electoral boundaries were enlarged by the Reform Act, so as to include with the old bor. a small portion of land N.E. the town on the Exeter road. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 2,384. The Reform Act constituted Devonport a pari. bor., and conferred on it the privilege of returning 2 mems. to the H. of C. The electoral limits comprise the par. of Stoke-Damerell and town of Stonehouse. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 2,410. Neither Plymouth nor Devonport is attached to poor-law unions; but the expenditure of the united bors. in 1849 amounted to 17,345*l.*, of which above 10,000*l.* were expended on the poor of Plymouth. Markets, in Plymouth, on Monday, Thursday, and Saturday; in Devonport, on Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday; both abundantly supplied with every kind of provisions.

Plymouth, originally called Tameoworth, and afterwards Sutton or South-town, received its present name at the period of its incorporation in the reign of Henry VI. The town received a considerable accession of wealth on the dissolution of the monasteries, and in the reign of Elizabeth was greatly benefited by a supply of good water, conveyed by a channel, 24 m. in length, from Dartmoor, planned by the famous Sir Francis Drake, a native of the town. During the same reign, Plymouth Sound was the rendezvous of the fleet opposed to the Armada, and also of the fleet sent against Cadix. The town suffered greatly, on three occasions, from the plague, which, in 1625, carried off 2,000 persons. During the parliamentary wars it embraced the cause of the parliament, and was besieged by Prince Maurice and the royalists, though without success.

Devonport, as is already stated, is quite a modern town, which owes its rise to the rapidly increasing importance of the dockyard during the American and French wars. Stonehouse, which connects Plymouth with Devonport, is still more modern, and has been wholly built within the present century. All these towns suffered most severely in 1832-33 from the cholera. (*Parl. Board, and Man. Reports, 1833-4*).

PLYMOUTH, a town and sea-port of the U. States, in Massachusetts, cap. of its own name, 35 m. S.E. Boston; lat. 41° 57' N., long. 70° 43' 30" W. Pop., in 1831, 4,758. It has a court-house, gaol, bank, several churches, &c., and some cotton and woollen factories, iron-works, and mills, the machinery of which is impelled by a rivulet intersecting the town. The harbour, though spacious, is so shallow that vessels drawing more than 10 or 11 ft. water must partly unload at a distance from the wharfs. The burden of the shipping belonging to the port amounted, in 1834, to 22,821 tons. Plymouth is the oldest town in New England, its foundations having been laid in 1620.

PLYMPTON EARLE, or PLYMPTON MAURICE, a decayed bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Devon, hund. its own name, 4 m. E. Plymouth. Area of borough and parish, which are co-extensive, 170 acres. Pop., in 1841, 933. The town comprises two streets disposed in the form of the letter T; and it has an old guildhall, under which is held the corn-market. The church is small, and the living is a curacy subordinate to the adjoining parish of Plympton St. Mary. The Wesleyan Methodists and Independents have places of worship. N. of the town are the ruins of a once magnificent castle, occupying nearly 2 acres of ground: it was built by Richard de Rivers, Earl of Devonshire, to whom the town was granted, with "the honour of Plympton," by Henry I. Plympton Earle claims to be a bor. by prescription, but received a royal charter in the 13th Edward III. It was one of the stanary towns; but for many years it has been in a decaying condition, and the bor. was not considered of sufficient importance to be included in the provisions of the Municipal Reform Act. But, decayed as it is, it sent 3 mems. to the H. of C. with some interruptions, from the reign of Edward I. down to the Reform Act, by which it was most properly disfranchised. Markets on Saturday; fairs for cattle and woollen cloth, Feb. 25, April 5, Aug. 12, and Oct. 28.

PO. See ITALY.

POCKLINGTON, a market-town, par., and township of England, E. riding co. York, Wilton, Beacon, div. of wap. Harthill, on a small trib. of the Derwent, 12½ m. E. by S. York. Area of par., including 4 townships, 4,380 acres. Pop. of township, in 1841, 2,338. It is a good county-town; and the market-place, though small, is conveniently arranged. The church, in the centre of the town, is a large cruciform structure, with a handsome tower at its W. end, and a chancel containing some carved stalls: the living is a vicarage in the gift of the dean of York. A free grammar-school was founded here in 1566, and endowed with lands that now yield upwards of 1,000 a year: the master is appointed by the master and fellows of St. John's College, Cambridge. A national school also was established in 1819. It has no manufactures, but a considerable trade has grown up, chiefly in corn, flour, timber, coal, and general goods, since the completion of the canal from E. Cottingham on the Derwent, to Street Bridge, about a mile from the town. Markets on Saturday: fairs for horses, cattle, &c., March 7, May 6, Aug. 6, and Nov. 8. Great show of horses, Feb. 24, and Dec. 17.

PODOLIA, a government of Russia in Europe, chiefly between the 48th and 50th degs. of N. lat., and the 26th and 31st degs. of E. long.; having N. Volhynia, N.E. Kiev, S.E. Kherson, S.W. Bessarabia, and N.W. Galicia. Length, N.W. to S.E., 240 m. Area estimated at 16,300 sq. m. Pop. in 1846, 1,708,000, principally Poles, but including some Russians, and about 150,000 Jews. The greater part of the country is flat; but a low branch of the Carpathians extends through it in an easterly direction. The general slope is towards the S.E. Principal rivers, Bug and Dniester, which last forms the S.W. boundary. The climate is healthy, and mild enough for the vine and mulberry to flourish in the open air. Soil stony, but in general very fertile, and Podolia formerly ranked among the most valuable provs. of Poland, as it now does of the Russian empire. Corn is produced in abundance; the produce of wheat, in 1820, was estimated at 8,000,000 cheverts, a quantity exceeding the home consumption by 1-3d. Hemp, flax, tobacco, hops, beans, and various fruits are grown. The culture of the vine, though on the increase, is not yet of any importance; and orchard and garden husbandry is conducted in a negligent manner. Pastures luxuriant. Cattle-rearing is an important business; and many head of cattle are sent into Germany, where they are much prized for their beauty and excellence. The sheep yield but indifferent wool. A good many hogs are kept, as well as poultry and bees. The forests are estimated to cover 991,442 *deciatines*, or nearly 3 million acres; only a small proportion of which belongs to the crown. Game is scarce, but the fisheries are highly productive. Saltpetre, lime, and alabaster, are the principal mineral products. Manufactures are quite insignificant; except distilleries, there are only a few woolen cloth, leather, potash, and saltpetre factories. The trade, which consists mostly of the export of grain to Odessa, and cattle to Galicia and Germany, is wholly in the hands of the Jews. Podolia is divided into 15 districts; its cap. is Kamienetz. It is one of the 10 governments privileged with respect to its judicial administration and the distillation of spirits: it is subordinate to the government of Kiev, both as to military affairs and public instruction. Most of its inhabitants belong to the Greek church.

Podolia was long governed by its own princes; but, in 1568, it was united to Poland, who erected it into the two voivodes of Podolia and Bracław. It has belonged to Russia since 1793. (*Schönbeler, La Russie; Passart, &c.*)

POITIERS, or POICTIERS, (an. *Limoum*, and afterwards *Pictavi*), a city of France, dep. Vienne, of which it is the cap.; on the Clain, a tributary of the Vienne, 58 m. S.S.E. Tours, and 78 m. N.E. by E. La Rochelle; lat. 46° 35' N., long. 0° 30' 30" E. Pop., in 1846, 28,606. It is surrounded by old walls, flanked with towers. Few French cities occupy a greater extent of ground; but a large space within the walls consists of fields and gardens. The streets are inconveniently steep, ill-paved, and gloomy, and the city generally is ill-built, its houses being without either taste or dignity. It has but one good square, the *Place Royale*, in which was formerly a statue of Louis XIV. Previously to the revolution, few towns in France had so many churches; and though much diminished, many of them still exist; but there are few other public edifices worth notice. The cathedral is a large, though rather low Gothic edifice, said to have been founded by Henry II. of England. The church of St. Radegonde is much more ancient, being said to owe its origin to the wife of Clovis, in 567. The crypt containing her tomb, and some other portions of the original edifice, are still extant, but the rest of the building mostly dates from the 11th century. The church of Notre Dame is very handsome, and several of the other churches have some curious tombs and monuments. The hall of justice, public library, with 12,000 vols., bishop's palace, theatre, cavalry barracks, and baths, are the

other most conspicuous buildings. Poitiers is the seat of a royal court, of tribunals of original jurisdiction and commerce, a university academy, faculty of law, and royal college; and has societies of agriculture, arts, and sciences, a departmental nursery ground, botanic garden, &c. It is the see of a bishop, whose diocese comprises the déps. Vienne and Deux Sèvres. Its manufactures, though not extensive, comprise very various articles, as coarse woollen cloths, blanketing, hosiery, cotton netting, lace, hats, prepared sheep-skins, and goose-down. It has a considerable trade in agricultural produce, and six annual fairs.

Poitiers is one of the most ancient towns in Gaul. The vestiges of a Roman palace, an aqueduct, and an amphitheatre, are still visible. The Saracens were totally defeated in 732 by Charles Martel, in a great battle between this city and Tours. But Poitiers is chiefly memorable for the signal victory obtained in its vicinity on the 19th Sept., 1356, by an English army commanded by Edward the Black Prince, over a vastly superior French force commanded by king John. The French army was wholly dispersed; and, besides many thousand common soldiers, a vast number of persons of distinction were killed or taken prisoners, the king and one of his sons being among the latter. (*Hugo, art. Vienne; Dict. Géog.*)

POITOU, the name of an extensive prov. of France, previously to the revolution: it is now distributed among the departments of Vienne, Deux Sèvres, and Vendée.

POLA, in antiquity, a splendid city, but now a poor, decayed sea-port town of the Austrian empire, gov. Trieste, on the W. side, and near the S. extremity of the peninsula of Istria; at the bottom of a bay of the same name lat. 44° 58' 18" N., long. 13° 50' E. Pop., about 900. It is surrounded by walls flanked with towers constructed by the Venetians in the 15th century, is the seat of a bishopric, has a castle, a cathedral, a Greek church, and 3 convents. The harbour is one of the best on the Adriatic. The entrance to it is narrow, but the water is deep, and within it expands into a large basin, land-locked and safe. It might easily be rendered an excellent station for a fleet intended to command the Adriatic. The chief occupation of the inhabs. is fishing. The sand used in the Venetian glass-works is brought from its environs.

Pola owes all its celebrity to its ancient greatness, and to the magnificent remains of antiquity of which it has still to boast. The principal of these is a noble amphitheatre, standing outside the town, and near the bay. This splendid monument is in a very perfect state of preservation, and is scarcely exceeded in magnificence by that of the Colosseum at Rome, while, in point of dimensions, it is in a very small degree only inferior to the amphitheatre of Verona. It is in the form of an ellipsis, its longest diameter being 436 ft. 6 in., its shortest 346 ft. 2 in., and its height, in the most perfect parts, 57 ft. 6 in. It is estimated to have been capable of accommodating above 20,000 spectators. The height is divided into 3 stories, and the whole circ. into 72 arches. It is constructed of Istrian stone of a very superior quality, and which, in appearance and durability, is equal to the purest marble.

Within the town are two temples which, when perfect, must have been exactly similar, and worthy the best period of the Augustan age. The best preserved is dedicated to Rome and Augustus Cæsar. There is, also, an arch raised, as the inscription announces, by a Roman lady, in testimony of her affection for her husband. It is a beautiful and elegant structure, admired for its simplicity and admirable proportions. Part of a Roman gateway, containing three arches, was discovered by Messrs. Stanhope and Allason, in 1816. The cathedral has apparently been built on the site of an ancient temple.

These ruins sufficiently attest the former magnitude and wealth of this now miserable place. Strabo, Pliny, and Mela, say that it was founded by a colony from Colchis; and of its great antiquity there can be no doubt. It became a Roman colony, and was for a lengthened period the principal town of Istria. *Pala promontorium Colchicæ, ut ferunt, habitata (in antiquum ceteri transierunt) nunc Romanæ colonia.* (*Mela, lib. ii. cap. 3.*)

Malte-Brun says that it was destroyed by Cæsar for its devotion to Pompey, and rebuilt by Augustus, at the intercession of his daughter Julia. But there is no evidence whatever of its having been so destroyed, or of its restoration in the way now mentioned, other than what may be derived from the fact of its having been sometimes called *Pietas Julia*!

At present it is very unhealthy in summer, owing to marshes near the town; but these, it is said, might be easily drained. (*See Allason's Picturesque Views of*

Mr. Murray, in his *Handbook*, says that it is 366 ft. long, and 324 broad; but the dimensions in the text are those given by Mr. Allason, the architect, from measurements taken by himself on the spot.

Antiquities of Pola; Murray's Handbook, p. 286; *et al.* *Recher. Voyage d'Italie*, &c., l. 48. 12mo. edit.)

OLAND (Lat. *Sarmatia*; Pol. *Polsk*, signifying a plain country), formerly the name of independent and extensive country of E. Europe, comprising the territories between the 45th and 58th degs. N. lat., and the 15th and 33d E. long.; including, with Poland Proper, Prussia, Samogitia, Courland, the Ukraine, Lithuania, and other provs. now belonging to Russia, with Galicia, belonging to Austria, the govts. of Posen, and some other districts in Prussia. But missing kingdom of Poland, constituted by the govts. of Vienna in 1818, and now united to the Russian Empire, is of comparatively limited dimensions, extending between the 50th and 55th degs. of N. lat., and 20th and 30th degs. of E. long.; having N. Prussia and the Russian govts. of Wilna; E. the govts. of Grodno, Bialystok, and Volhynia; S. Austrian and the territory of Cracow; and W. Prussian and (the grand duchy of) Posen and Silesia. Area, subdivisions, &c., as follows:—

Governments.	Area in sq. m.	Pop. in 1847.	Chief towns.
Posen	14,290	1,355,950	Warsaw.
Prussia	9,389	854,284	Radom.
Lithuania	11,915	1,091,454	Łódź.
Samogitia	6,420	619,507	Płock.
Ukraine	7,367	547,319	Suwałki.
of Warsaw	-	166,997	
Total	49,300	4,857,700	

the pop. about 3-4ths consist of Poles, 1-10th of Russians, and the remainder principally of Germans, Gypsies, and Tartars. The whole country, except in the S., where are some wooded heights from the Carpathian Mountains, is an open plain, with a general slope towards the Baltic, which its principal rivers have their embouchure. So are the Vistula, with its tributaries, the Wisłoka, Narew, Piliza, &c., the Niemen, and the Warta. The Vistula, after bounding the kingdom for a lengthened distance on the S., traverses its centre, leaving it near Thorn, Niemen, Biebr, and Bug bound nearly all the E.; the Protna, a tributary of the Warta, a considerable of the western frontier. These rivers are all more or less navigable. There are innumerable smaller streams, and being an extremely well-watered country; and in the N., E., and W. are a great number of lakes and very extensive marshes. The surface, though is abundantly diversified, presenting alternately fertile lands, savage steppes, rich pastures, sandy heaths, dense forests, and dreary swamps. The climate is rigorous: the cold of winter is often as great as in Sweden, in a lat. 10 degs. higher; and in 1798, the thermometer descended to 37° below zero (Réaumur). In summer, however, the heat sometimes rises to 120° (Fah.). The mean temperature of the year at Warsaw is about 50°. The atmosphere is humid, rainy and cloudy occupying half the year. Between the Vistula and Prussian frontier the soil is generally fertile, the productive districts being in the govts. of Cracow and Sandomir, and the neighbourhood of Warsaw. In the N.E. are also some very fertile tracts; but there, in the govts. of Płock, Lublin, &c., the surface is in part waste.

The traveller in Poland sometimes finds himself in spaces of surface, almost without a house, a tree, or a single object large enough to attract his notice. He, however, is deceived the skirts of some vast tract fringing the distant horizon; and, on entering it, he is surprised to find a road, or more or less, winding through a vast tract, through lofty pines, &c., precluded from the view of all objects but trees and shrubs. Sometimes, in the midst of a forest, we meet with a small spot of ground, example, of 10 or 20 acres) cleared and cultivated; and the pretty scenery by the green surrounding woods. Sometimes a small lake is found thus situated, its borders ornamented in a similar manner; and these, generally speaking, are the prettiest scenes which Poland furnishes. In some places, the forests are 15 and even 30 m. in extent. Indeed, if we exclude morasses and the pasture lands, perhaps not more than half of the country, speaking generally, is cleared. At distant intervals are found plains of some extent, affording rich pastures. The best are those contiguous to the Vistula, some of which are periodically overflowed by that river. Such are those in the neighbourhood of Warsaw, which supply that town with "good butchers' meat."

Metz's View of Poland, p. 29—33. This description written early in the present century; and, though a considerable proportion of forest land has been cleared in the interval, it is still substantially accurate. Of 741,000 a of land comprised in the kingdom, 265,000 a. are

supposed to be arable; 205,000 in forest; 171,000 in natural pastures, rivers, and marshes; 46,000 in meadows; 28,000 occupied with roads and buildings; and 26,000 in gardens. Poland has, for a lengthened period, been the granary of a great part of Europe. But Volhynia, Podolia, and Galicia, formerly included in the Polish domain, were the principal corn-growing provinces in the existing kingdom of Poland, with the exception of Sandomir and Cracow, the land, according to Mr. Jacob, is so poor that it can scarcely be made to yield a medium crop of wheat more than once in 9 years. The soil is mostly thin, sandy, or sandy loam, resting chiefly on a bed of granite, through which the heavy rains gradually percolate. S. of the Piliza, however, the appearance of the land and the face of the country improve; and as we proceed southward to the Vistula, the surface becomes more undulating, and the soil stronger and more tenacious. In this quarter there are extensive tracts of clayey loam, requiring three or four horses to plough it, and yielding, when tolerably well managed, excellent crops of wheat and oats. Where, in this district, any thing like a system of rotation is adopted, the crops are very heavy.

Some of the estates belonging to the nobility of the highest rank are of enormous extent; and, not long since, those of Prince Czartoryski and Count Zamoycki, taken together occupied a space nearly equal to that of the extent of England! In the times of the republic, the former contributed 30,000, and the latter 10,000 men to the army. Owing, however, to the practice of dividing the land equally among the children, unless a majorat be established in favour of the eldest son, which is sometimes the case, much of it is possessed in smaller allotments. These, however, we should still call large, for they mostly vary from 5,000 or 6,000 up to 30,000 or 40,000 acres each. The rent and price of land is generally low; depending much more on the number of peasants than the extent of the farm. The crown-lands, comprising 1-2d part of the whole surface, or about 10 million acres, include perhaps 3 million acres of wood, the remainder being chiefly arable land, leased to tenants, who, in consequence, acquire right to the services that may be legally demanded from the peasantry. The tenants of the crown are exempted, as well as their peasants, from some taxes, to which the other occupiers of land are subject, and, in consequence, the crown estates are better stocked with peasants. With this freedom from taxation and ample supply of labourers, the rent of 8,000,000 acres of land is said by Mr. Jacob, from whom we have borrowed these details, to have amounted, in 1837, to no more than 4,000,000 florins, about 25,000,000 sterling, or somewhat less than 2d. the English acre. But a large extent of land is included in this average that is literally of no value; so that, according to Mr. Jacob, the rent of the cultivable land may be fairly set down at from 8d. to 14d. per acre. It might, however, have occurred to Mr. Jacob, that, in point of fact, the money rent of land, in a country like Poland, without towns and without a market for its produce, affords no test whatever of its real value. Land belonging to private individuals are rarely, indeed, ever let, except for services to be performed on the other parts of the same estate; and the value of the land is to be determined not by the amount of the money rent it will bring, but by the amount of subsistence it affords, or the number of individuals it will maintain in an average state of comfort, according to the customs and habits of the society. Nothing, indeed, can be more perfectly ineffectual and absurd than to set about measuring the value of land in such a country as Poland by the same standard by which it is measured in England. Formerly the whole lands of the republic were the property of the nobility or gentry, and could not be held by any one else. The possession of land was, in fact, of itself, a proof of nobility; and the owner of an estate of 3 acres in extent voted in the elections of nuncios, and, in respect of political rights and privileges, was on a level with the richest nobleman in the country. But this state of things is now wholly changed. Landed property is no longer the appanage of a particular class; but may be indifferently held by nobles, burghers, and peasants. Jews only are prohibited from becoming proprietors of the soil, though they have numerous mortgages thereon. When they foreclose, the lands must consequently be sold; and as the Jews, who engross the greater part of the money capital of the country, cannot become purchasers, the prices they yield are very trifling. Later, however, some modifications have been made in the regulations respecting the Jews, and various privileges have been conceded to them.

The most numerous class of cultivators are peasants, who are a species of quasi-proprietors of the land they occupy, holding them under condition of working a stipulated number of days in each week on their lord's demesne, and paying him, in addition, specified quantities of poultry, eggs, yarn, &c. The extent of their holdings varies according to the quality of the land, the quantity of work to be performed, and of payments in

kind to be made. On a large property examined by Mr. Jacob, the peasants had each about 48 acres of land, for which they were bound to work two days a week with a pair of oxen. If their further labour was required, they were paid at the rate of 3d. a day for two days more, and if beyond that number, they received 6d. a day. On another property, the peasants had about 36 acres, for which they worked 2 days a week with 2 oxen; when called upon for extra labour, they were paid 6d. a day for themselves and their oxen for the next 3 days, or, without the oxen, 3d.

Under the republic, the Polish peasants were slaves, and did not, in fact, enjoy any greater consideration than the blacks of Carolina and Georgia in the present day. They were the absolute property of their masters. Down to 1768, a lord who had killed his slave was merely amerced in a small fine; and though, in that year the offence was made capital, such an accumulation of evidence was required to prove the fact, that the enactment was rendered quite nugatory. (*Cose*, i. 113.) It was customary to make the slaves work five days a week on the estates of their lords; the latter, also, might seize on whatever wealth the slaves had accumulated, might inflict on them corporal punishment, and might sell them as if they had been so many head of cattle. The boasted freedom of Poland was, in truth and reality, merely the license of the gentry to trample under foot the mass of the people, to browbeat their sovereign, and sell their votes. It is due, however, to the nobility to state that some amongst them, as the Zamoyas, the Czartoryskis, and others, perceived the miserable consequences of such a state of society, and were most anxious for the improvement of the peasantry on their estates, of whom they emancipated considerable numbers. Generally, however, the Polish gentry were not inclined to establish or give efficacy to any regulations in favour of the peasantry, whom they scarcely considered as belonging to the same race of beings as themselves, or as entitled to the common rights of humanity. Under these circumstances, no one will be surprised to learn that the Polish peasantry, at the dismemberment of the republic, were in the lowest state of degradation, being at once ignorant, indolent, addicted to drunkenness, poor, and improvident in the extreme. (*Cose's Travels*, i. 14.; *Voyage de deux Français dans le Nord de l'Europe*, p. 105.; *Bushington's Geog.*; *Introduction to Account of Poland*, § 4.; *Connor's State of Poland*, passing Coyer, *Vie de Sobieski*, i. 129.; Malte Brun, *Tableau*, &c.)

The servitude of the peasants was modified by the constitution of 1791, and it was wholly abolished in the grand duchy of Warsaw, nearly identical with the existing kingdom, in 1807; the labour and services due by the peasants to their lords having been since regulated and defined by law. Owing to the ignorance of the peasantry, the influence of this great and salutary change was for a lengthened period less considerable than might have been supposed. Though the peasants may now leave one part of the country to settle in another, they must first pay off any debt that may be owing their lords; and from inability to do this, and various other circumstances, they do not often quit the estates on which they were born. When a young peasant marries, his lord assigns him a certain quantity of land, sufficient for his maintenance and that of his family in the way in which they have been accustomed to live. Should the family grow numerous, some little addition is made to the grant. At the same time, the young couple obtain also a few cattle, as a cow or two, with steers to plough their land. These are fed in the stubble, or in the open places in the woods, as the season admits. The master also provides them with a cottage, with implements of husbandry; in short, with all their little moveable property. Owing to the powerful influence of old habits, but few peasants improve the little stock committed to their management; their conduct, according to Mr. Jacob, being most frequently marked by carelessness and a want of forecast. This, however, is by no means uniformly the case: there have been many instances of accumulation; indeed several of the peasants have become proprietors, while others have hired a larger extent of land. But it will require the lapse of a lengthened series of years before any very general change be made in the habits and condition of the bulk of the people.

Speaking generally, the houses of the Polish peasantry are miserable hovels. They are all built of wood: even those of the better class have merely the ground floor. On the exterior they are, in every point of view, humble, very often mean in appearance; the interior is occasionally somewhat better, though an Englishman looks in vain for any thing like comfort. There are usually 2 or 3 ordinary rooms, whitewashed, though only one serves, for the most part, as a sitting-room. The floors are sometimes of earth only, but more frequently planked. A bed stands almost always in every room." (*Burnett's Travels*, p. 126.) The villages, which are of the most

wretched description, are thinly scattered, rather along the skirts than in the midst of the forests, and sometimes in vast bare heaths, where no other object is to be seen. They consist of from 10 to 50 miserable huts, rudely constructed of timber, and covered over with straw, turf, or shingles; and afford so imperfect a shelter, that the inhabs. are glad to stop up the chimnies in winter, and to be half smothered with smoke, rather than die of cold. Each of these huts consists generally of only one apartment, with a stove, round which the inhabs. and their cattle crowd together. Bad as these villages are, you may travel 10 m., even in the clear part of the country, without seeing one, or indeed beholding any human habitation. The common diet of the peasantry is cabbage; potatoes sometimes, but not generally; peas, black bread, and soup, or rather gruel, without the addition of butter or meat. Their chief beverage is the cheap whiskey of the country, which they drink in quantities that would astonish the best customers of the gin-palaces of England. Their houses generally have little that merits the name of furniture; and their clothing is at once coarse and disgustingly filthy. These, however, are only their general characteristics. The condition of the peasantry depends much on the character of their lord, and upon the more or less embarras of the estate, and the party on which they may be settled. On the estates of opulent and enlightened landlords, it is wholly different from what it is on the estates of those of an opposite description, and may, indeed, be said to be decidedly comfortable.

It is, perhaps, hardly necessary to state, that from the labour applied to the lords' estates being rendered as compulsory service, it is performed in the most negligent and slovenly manner possible. Mr. Jacob says that all the operations of husbandry are very ill executed; the ploughing is shallow and irregular, the harrows, with wooden teeth, do not penetrate sufficiently to root up weeds in following; so that the land is always foul, and in bad order. The same want of attention prevails in thrashing. In short, the natural effects of the system of duty-labour are strikingly visible in the whole administration of most of the large estates where it is followed; and is hardly even prevented from exhibiting itself on the estates belonging to the few proprietors who have intelligent and active managers, and are free from pecuniary embarrasments. The common course of crops is the old system of a whole year's fallow, followed by winter corn, and that by summer corn, and then a fallow again, so that 1-3d part of the land bears nothing. The winter crop, in the N. of Poland, consists of wheat and rye, the latter being to the former nearly as 9 to 1, the little manure that is preserved being laid out on the wheat land. In the S. part of the kingdom, the wheat bears a larger proportion to the rye, amounting, on the more tenacious soils, to 1-5th, and in some cases to 1-4th part, or upwards. On a well-managed farm in the prov. of Lublin, the quantities of seed and produce are said by Mr. Jacob to have been as follows: Potatoes, about 30 bushels to the acre planted, and about 300 bush. raised; wheat, 2 bush. sown, and from 16 to 20 reaped; rye, 2 bushels sown, and from 12 to 15 reaped; buck-wheat, 3 bushels sown, and from 10 to 15 reaped. The barley and oats scarcely yield four times the seed. Manure is applied after potatoes for the wheat, the former having the benefit of fallowing. This farm was one of the few in which all the labour, except that of the oxen and their drivers, was paid for in money, and not in produce. The common plan of thrashing is to give the thrasher a certain proportion of the corn, varying, according to circumstances, from the 14th to the 16th bushel. In the generality of farms, the increase is considerably less than the above; the average produce of wheat being estimated at not more than 14 or 15 bushels; rye, 10 or 12; barley, 14 or 16; and oats and buck-wheat, from 8 to 12 the acre; or at not more than half the average produce of similar crops in England. In the S. parts of Sandomir and Cracow the crops are more than usually heavy; but they are celebrated more for the excellent quality of their corn than for its greater produce. In Sandomir, a narrow district about 60 m. in length extending along the Vistula, produces the heavy and fine grain known in London as Danitic white wheat, but the average growth is rarely beyond 30 bushels an acre.

The stock of cattle is small in proportion to the extent of land and the number of the inhabs. The Polish horses, formerly held in high estimation, have much degenerated, and a good breed is to be met with only in a few studs. A miserable race of colts is employed to transport merchandise, and field labour is almost wholly performed by oxen or cows. The latter are small, and generally kept in bad condition, both as to feeding and cleanliness. They are mostly stunted, but, from negligence, yield very little butter, and no good cheese. The common breed of the country may be worth from 2*l.* to 3*l.* a head; but considerable numbers of a superior breed are annually imported from the Ukraine, which may be worth 2*l.*, or upwards, a head. Previously to the late

lution, the total number of sheep in Poland was highly estimated at about 3 millions; but though the sheep are extremely well adapted for sheep breeding, Polish breeds were greatly inferior to those of Saxony and there were very few flocks of fine-woolled sheep. However, the Polish wool has improved very much in point of quality; and is now sent in large quantities to the markets of Leipzig, Berlin, and Breslau, where it sometimes brings a very high price. Hogs, though not very numerous, are of a good breed, originally Hungarian.

The burdens laid directly on the land are not very heavy. Tithes are moderate, and principally compounded at fixed rates. A small sum is levied in each district for the repair of roads, bridges, and other local purposes; but that and the land-tax do not exceed 25 per cent. on the presumed annual value of the land, which is very far below its real value. The other taxes fall chiefly on the different classes of the community. That which is due to farm by the government to the brewers, and duties are laid on foreign commodities, such as coffee, wine, &c. The great mass of the population cannot, however, afford to purchase such luxuries, content themselves with honey, dried chicory, and key.

The forests are highly important, and in the govts. of Poznan and Plock they cover more than a third of the surface; though in some of the other govts. have been much neglected, and wantonly cut down; especially in the gov. of Cracow, where, however, the use of wood-fuel is supplied by coal. Scotch pine, fir, alder, aspen, oak, beech, ash, maple, linden, elm, are the principal forest trees, and the Polish fir timber is decidedly preferable to that of America.

Most of the larger forests belong to the crown, are felled in portions annually, so as to cut them every 50 years. Mr. Jacob states, that the wood cut in one year on the forest land belonging to the crown, produced 100,000 sterling, being at the rate of 5s. 6d. the acre on the basis of the woods, or 24s. on the part actually cut.

On the Report on the Agric. of Poland; Burnett's View of Poland; Cox's Travels, &c. Among the wild animals may be specified the bison (*Zubr*), found in the vast forests of the prov. of Plock, traversed by the Narow. The Emperor Alexander prohibited the chase of the bison, of which, perhaps, the only remnant in Europe is now to be found in Plock and the adjoining Russian prov. of Bialystock. (See *Brum, Tableau de la Pologne*, p. 56.) The other animals include the elk, roebuck, wild boar, badger, foxes, hares, &c., the skins of which last form the basis of export.

Minerals are more numerous and valuable than might be expected in so flat a country. Bog iron is found almost everywhere; but the principal mining districts are in the S. in the govts. of Cracow and Sandomierz. Coal is raised in considerable quantities at Bend-Roden, Niemcy, &c. Zinc, which is exported in considerable quantities, is found in the vicinity of Cracow at Oihuas; and copper at Kielce. Iron of excellent quality is also mined in Sandomierz.

The domestic manufacture of woollen and other stuffs is almost universal throughout Poland. Almost every agriculturist has a loom for the manufacture of the cloth required for their consumption. The yarn is partly imported from foreign countries, but a large spinning factory has been established at Lodz, which occupies 500 hands, and produces, by a quantity of linen cloth. In 1829, the wool cloth made in the country was estimated at 7,000,000 ells, worth upwards of 70 millions s., about a third of which was sent into Russia. During the period which followed, the production of Polish cloth sank to one third of what it had previously been; but it has lately revived in consequence of the relaxation of Polish cloths into Russia, duty free, where there is an extensive demand for the clothing of the soldiers, and other purposes. They are, also, sent in considerable quantities to Kiachta, on the borders of China. Leather is the manufacture next in importance; and then follow linen and cotton fabrics, sail-cloth, bleached wax and wax candles, alum and chemical products, glass, printing types, jewellery, &c. Generally, however, the articles are sold on a very small scale; and notwithstanding the want of labour, they are mostly from the want of capital on the part of the workmen, at once high-priced and poor. Poland, in fact, is an agricultural country; except a few of the more bulky and coarser articles, and, were the citizens permitted to resort to the nearest markets, derive almost all its manufactures and luxuries from other countries, in exchange for wool, timber, tallow, flax, spirits, and such like. Spirits are distilled in every village from grain, but their sale is still, as formerly, a monopoly, each lord of a manor having the exclusive sale rights within his domain. There are breweries in

Warsaw, and in some other large towns; and mead, and drinks made from raspberries, cherries, &c., principally in the S. provs., are favourite beverages of the people. Of late years several beet-root sugar factories have been established.

The trade of Poland is almost wholly in the hands of the Jews. The internal commerce is carried on chiefly by means of fairs, at which, also, a considerable portion of the foreign trade is conducted. The latter is principally with Russia, Prussia, Austria, and the republic of Cracow: in 1830 the following was the value of the several exports to, and imports from each of these states, according to the *Petersburg Commercial Gazette* for 1833.

Exports.		Imports.
	Polish Florins.	Polish Florins.
Russia	14,514,496	19,282,999
Prussia	37,596,281	18,239,106
Austria	2,54,879	9,866,295
Cracow	2,703,241	825,184
Totals	45,073,137	47,712,584

During the revolution the exports decreased greatly, while the imports were considerably augmented. Since that period, however, the balance has been in a great measure restored. England, Holland, France, and sometimes even America, take off, through Danzig, most of the corn which Poland has to export. But in years when prices are high in England, and when, consequently, there is great demand for corn in Danzig, a good deal of the supplies brought to that port come from Galicia. The customs and octroi duties produced in 1830, 8,794,231 fl., and in 1832, 9,230,003 do. Goods are conveyed in summer by heavy waggons, and in winter by sledges; but the roads are generally bad, and during the late insurrection were much cut up; latterly, however, government has been exerting itself for their improvement. Steam navigation is but in its infancy; and merchandise is at present forwarded down the rivers by flat-bottomed boats to the Prussian ports. But Russia seems to be endeavouring to put a stop to the intercourse between Poland and the Prussian ports on the Baltic, by constructing a great commercial road from the S.W. angle of Poland to the Baltic; and a railway has been planned, for which the capital is already subscribed, and the works begun, to convey to the harbours of Windau and Libau the goods which formerly went to Tilsit or Memel, or by the Pregel to Königsberg. (*Russia under Nicolas*, l. pp. 124, 125.) A similar purpose is served by the canal of Augustow, connecting the Narow and Vistula with the Niemen, and which is to be continued to the Baltic by the Windau Canal, in the gov. of Wilna. The canal of Augustow is 96 m. in length, from 5 to 6 ft. in depth, and of sufficient breadth for two large boats to pass each other with ease. It has 17 locks, and several convenient basins in different parts of its course. It was wholly completed between 1821 and 1829, and is now the means of an active traffic. These, however, are all violent and unnatural measures, and can have no useful or permanent result. No one can take up a map without being satisfied at a glance that the Vistula is the proper highway of the country, and Danzig the proper shipping port.

Accounts in Poland are kept in *zlots*, *groschen*, and *forins*: the *forin* = about 9d., is divided into 30 gr. The Polish lb. is about equal to 14 oz. avoird.: the ship-pound = 416 lbs.

Government.—Previously to 1831, Poland had its two legislative chambers, those of the deputies and the senate; but since the unhappy attempt at a revolution that then broke out, Russia has suppressed these chambers, and Poland is governed nearly in the same way as the other portions of the empire. The council of administration for the kingdom consists of 3 directors (one of the interior, justice, and finance), a comptroller-general, and other persons appointed by the sovereign. The reports of this council are submitted to the emperor by a secretary of state for Poland residing in Petersburg. There is also in that capital a department for Polish affairs, established since 1832, to which the government of Poland is confided. The legislative power is vested in the sovereign, and the proposed laws for this kingdom are submitted for his sanction by the Russian council of state. The local administration is exercised by civil governors, with the same powers as those established in the different govts. of Russia.

The civil and commercial codes at present in force are, for the most part, the same as in France: the criminal code is modelled on that of Prussia and Austria. Personal and religious liberty are nominally guaranteed; and those who do not interfere with policies are as secure in Poland as anywhere else. But those who wish to enjoy this security must have a care not to find any fault with any action of the government. The press is under the controul of censors, who are stricter here than even in Russia. Justices of the peace decide in civil causes up to the amount of 500 forins; above which the latter

come before the tribunals of original jurisdiction in the caps of the several governments. At Warsaw, besides a court of appeal, there is a supreme court of cassation, and commercial tribunals are established in all the principal towns. Criminal causes are tried in separate tribunals, of which there are 4 in the kingdom. Political offences come under the cognizance of a council of war, or a commission specially appointed.

Religion.—Until lately, upwards of 3-4ths of the Poles belonged to the Rom. Cath., or the United Greek church, the Greco-Russian communicants being but few in number. But of late the Russian government has, by every means, been endeavouring to shake the spiritual dependence on the court of Rome, not only of the Poles, but of the United Greeks throughout the empire; and its measures, in this respect, appear to have been attended with so much success, that, in 1839, from three to four millions of United Greeks, including most of those of Poland, had joined the orthodox Greek church. Until 1832, the Greco-Russians had no prelate in Poland; but at that period an archimandrite was appointed, who resides at Warsaw. The bishop of the United Greek church resides at Heline, in Lublin. The Rom. Catholics have an archbishop and eight bishops, nominated by the Pope on the recommendation of the Emperor of Russia; and the bishop of the government of Cracow exercises authority over the city and its territory, and its jurisdiction. There are a number of convents possessing territorial revenues; but the secular clergy receive a regular stipend from the government, the landed possessions formerly belonging to them being now public property. The parish priests, however, receive tithes, the amount of which is sometimes very considerable. The Lutherans and Calvinists, amounting together to about 220,000 persons, are principally Germans. There are a few Mennonites and Moravians, and some Mohammedans.

Public Instruction.—Previously to 1830, education was scarcely diffused at all, except among the nobility and upper classes residing in the towns; and the total number of persons receiving instruction at that period is said not to have exceeded 16,000, or about 1 in 260 of the pop. After the suppression of the insurrection, the schools were shut for several months, and when reopened, were organized upon the same plan as those of Russia. Private schools are subject to the same inspection on the part of the government as public schools. In 1834 there were, in all, 48,794 pupils in public and private establishments; and in 1835, a teacher, or 1,159 schools of all kinds, was estimated at 70,000, or 1 to every 62 individuals. (*Russia under Nicholas I.*, p. 184.) In 1836 an order was issued by the Russian government, directing that there shall be a teacher of the Russian language in every primary school; and that all children attending such schools shall be obliged to learn the Russian language: it was, also, at the same time, ordered that no individual should be employed as a tutor unless he possessed a testimonial signed by the proper authorities, certifying his ability to give instruction in the Russian language; and that no person unacquainted with Russian should be promoted to any civil or military employment.

This regulation, as was to be expected, gave much offence to the Poles, and has been the theme of much idle declamation in this and other countries. Russia, no doubt, wishes to secure her hold over Poland; and every thing that tends to Russianize the latter, and to give her people the same tastes, habits, and modes of thinking as the Russians, must necessarily contribute to this end; and we believe it will be generally admitted, that of all the means to bring about this consummation, the gradual substitution of the Russian for the Polish language will be one of the most effectual. If there were any rational prospect of Poland being able to emancipate herself from the yoke of Russia, one might regret the measure. But as there is no such prospect, the interests of both countries will be best promoted by their being, as far as possible, consolidated into one people.

The Polish army, which before 1831 amounted, in time of peace, to 34,000 men, is now amalgamated with that of Russia.

The Poles are a remarkably fine race of people, being well formed, strong, and active. In their general appearance, they are said to resemble the western Asiatics rather than the Europeans, and are, most probably, of Tartar origin. The gentry are haughty and brave, but, at the same time, frank and generous. The peasantry, however, bowed down by continual oppression, are cringing and servile; their whole behaviour evincing the state of abject servility from which they are now being emancipated. The nobility are very numerous in Poland, amounting at present to not less than 263,490 individuals. According to the old laws of the republic, the nobles were *terragraves*; every person who possessed a freehold estate, how small soever, or who could prove his descent from ancestors formerly possessed of such an estate, and who had not debased himself (1) by

engaging in any sort of manufacture or commerce, was a nobleman or gentleman, the terms being in Poland synonymous. The gentry were all held to be equal to each other, the titles of prince, count, &c., which some of them enjoyed, not being supposed to add any thing to their real dignity. Under the republic, the nobility were every thing, and the rest of the people nothing. The former were the absolute lords of their estates, and of the boors by whom they were occupied. They enjoyed the royal privilege of maintaining troops, and constructing fortresses; and they only could elect the sovereigns. No noble could be arrested without previous conviction, except in cases of high-treason, murder; or robbery on the highway; and then only provided he were taken in the fact! His house was a secure asylum to all to whom he chose to extend his protection, whatever might be their crimes. Even his vassals could not be arrested, nor their effects seized; they were exempted from all payment of tolls and other direct duties; and though the king might bestow titles, he had no power to create a nobleman or gentleman, that being the exclusive privilege of the Diet. Happily, however, this state of things has been wholly changed. Under the vigorous governments of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, the oppressive privileges of the nobles have been suppressed; they can no longer trample with impunity on their inferiors, nor oppress the commons with impunity, subjecting them to the full penalty of the law; and a poor gentleman no longer considers it a degradation to engage in some department of industry. (*Busching, Introduction to Poland*, § 4; *Malte Brun, Tableau de la Pologne*, 366.; *Coxe*, i. 102., &c.)

Though modernised in a considerable degree, the richer Polish nobles continue to live in large castles, in a state of rude hospitality, entertaining great numbers of their dependants and such strangers as may happen to visit them. At these feasts the practice of sitting below the salt is still kept up, the best dishes and the best wines being appropriated by the *déité* of the guests.

Jews are more numerous in Poland than in any other European country, having amounted, in 1838, to 411,307 individuals, of whom 338,577 lived in towns, and 72,730 in villages, or in the country. They are, as already stated, in the exclusive possession of the commerce of the country; they, also, are the great manufacturers and sellers of spirituous and fermented liquors; advance money on lands and goods; are the only jewellers and silversmiths; and are the great pecuniary dealers. Those in the towns are mostly all burghers; and they may be said to engross all the most lucrative businesses. But notwithstanding all this, the majority of the Israelites are extremely poor. They seem, also, to be in a lower state of civilization than any other class. Even the richer individuals, though they occupy the best houses in the towns, appear to care little for cleanliness or comfort; and the lower orders live in a state of filth and discomfort that would be intolerable any where else.

There are in Poland many instances of longevity, and, on the whole, the country may be said to be healthy, the people are, notwithstanding, especially liable to endemic diseases, such as small pox and fevers, which frequently make great havoc. Among the diseases peculiar, or nearly so, to Poland and Lithuania, the *plica polonica* is the most remarkable. This is a disease of the head, which terminates by affecting the hair, which it dilates, softens, and clots into one undistinguished mass. This disgusting malady spares neither age nor sex, gentry nor peasants, though it be more frequent among the latter than the former. Various theories have been formed to account for its origin: most probably it is occasioned by the bad water, unwholesome food, and filth of the people.

Poland suffered much from the outbreak in 1831, in consequence partly of the destruction of property, and partly of the proscriptions and oppressive measures which it occasioned. Within the last few years, however, the country has again begun to revive.

The municipal revenues of Warsaw amounted, in 1834, to 4,094,000 fl., an increase over their amount in 1830 of nearly one fourth; and the value of insured buildings, throughout Poland, in 1835, was estimated at 508,167,000 fl., being an increase of 113,304,000 fl. over that of the buildings insured in 1829. Population has increased still more rapidly; having amounted, in 1838, to 4,088,369, and to 4,298,993 in 1839. The old roads, also, have been materially improved, at the same time that several new ones have been undertaken; so that, on the whole, however depressed in some respects, the country is certainly advancing in improvement.

History.—The history of Poland commences from the 10th century. In 1139, Boleslaus, under whom Christianity had been introduced into the country, divided the kingdom among his four sons, which was the source of a lengthened series of civil wars, and of all sorts of disasters. At length these different portions were united under one sovereign, in 1296. The reign of Casimir the Great, which began in 1333, and terminated in 1370, is

most brilliant in the Polish annals; still, however, foundations were laid in it of that anarchy that destroyed the kingdom. Casimir, having no children of his own, and being anxious that the crown should devolve, at his death, on his nephew Louis, king of Hungary, in preference to the legitimate heirs, obtained, for that purpose, the sanction of a general assembly of the nobles, and Louis agreed to the conditions under which he offered him the crown (*Kościuszko des Époques*, t. 264.); establishing in this way, a precedent for like interference on future occasions. On the death of Louis the grand duchy of Lithuania was united to the crown by the marriage of Jagellon, its grand-duke, to the daughter of Louis, who had succeeded to the throne. The house of Jagellon continued to occupy the Polish throne for about two centuries; but at each change of a sovereign an assembly of the nobles or *diet* was held, at which the new sovereign was formally elected to the throne. On the death of the last of the Jagellons, in 1792, the throne of Poland became substantially as well formally elective, and it was called not a kingdom but republic. Henceforth, on the death of a sovereign, the nobility or gentry repaired in vast numbers, sometimes the amount of 100,000, on horseback, and armed, with oaths of attendants, to a sort of camp in the neighbourhood of Warsaw, to elect his successor, who had to subscribe, and make oath to observe, the *pacta conventa*, conditions under which he had been elected. These were such as to reduce the royal authority within the narrowest limits, to secure already the privileges of the nobility and clergy, and to perpetuate the degradation of the people who, being slaves in the fullest extent of the term, were not supposed, in fact, to have any legal existence! The famous John Sobieski, the saviour of Vienna, elected to the throne in 1674, was the last of the great monarchs of Poland. But in the latter part even of his reign the vices of the Polish constitution, and their fatal operation, became obvious; and they thence continued to increase in number and virulence till the total subversion. (See the *Histoire de Vienne*, by the Abbé Coyer, passim.)

Exclusive of the diets* for the election of the sovereigns, ordinary diets were held, at least, once every two years, at which all matters connected with the government of the country were discussed and decided upon. It is easy to see, from what has been already stated, that this form of government could not fail to produce great party contests and disorders, and that it must have afforded every facility to the surrounding powers for acquiring a preponderating influence in the diet. Probably, however, the secure already noticed might have been repaired, but for the principle, if we may so call it, first introduced in 1653, that no decision could be made upon any matter submitted for consideration, unless the diet were unanimous. Hence the singular and extraordinary privilege of the *liberum veto*, by which any single member of the diet was permitted to interpose his absolute veto, and, by doing so, could nullify its whole proceedings! And, which is even more extraordinary, this absurd privilege, which allowed the whim, caprice, or bad faith of an individual to prevent the adoption of any measure, however necessary and however generally approved, was, for a lengthened period, regarded by the Poles as the palladium of their liberties! (*Abbrégé de l'Histoire du Nord*, li. 683.)

It is plain, from these statements, that latterly the whole powers of the state were engrossed by the nobles, or gentry, many of whom, though enjoying the same political rights and franchises as the others, were miserably poor. In consequence, corruption, intimidation, and such like arts, had full scope in the Polish diets, particularly in those held for the election of sovereigns; and latterly the crown was, in fact, either sold to the highest bidder, or the election was decided under the influence of foreign force. And if, while the government was in this state of abasement, we bear in mind that the whole people, with the exception of the nobles or gentry, were slaves, on whom every indignity might be practised by their masters, it will be seen that there is but little to regret in the subversion of such a state of things.

Indeed, the only wonder is, that Poland was not sooner erased from the list of nations. Its partition had, in fact, been proposed by the Swedes in the reign of Casimir V., a short while previously to the election of John Sobieski, as the only method by which the disorders that agitated the country could be put an end to, and the inconvenience thence arising to the surrounding states be obviated. (*Ruhlière, Anarchie de Pologne*, l. 68.) But it was not till more than a century after that the first par-

tition was agreed upon, in 1772, by the emperor of Austria, the empress of Russia, and the king of Prussia, by which about a third part of the kingdom was dismembered, and added to the dominions of the partitioning powers! But it was not to be supposed that having once begun to share in so rich a spoil, these powers would rest satisfied with this acquisition. The pretexts for farther interference still continued undiminished. Poland, as before, remained a prey to all sorts of dangers, and the Russian ambassador, and not the king, was the real sovereign.

In 1791 the majority of the nobility and gentry, then assembled in a diet, which had been made permanent, being desirous to raise their country from the miserable state into which it had fallen, and stimulated by the events connected with the French revolution, drew up the project of a new constitution on a more liberal and broader basis, abolishing the *liberum veto*, and making the crown hereditary, on the demise of the king, in the Saxon family. This constitution was accepted by the king; but the great bulk of the nation did not, and could not, take any interest in the change; and the government was wholly without the means of supporting the new order of things. Russia had little difficulty in fomenting fresh disorders; and the unfortunate Poles, with an imbecile sovereign, without forces, and abandoned and betrayed by their pretended allies, were again compelled to submit to a fresh dismemberment of their country.

Provoked by these repeated indignities the Poles, under Kosciuszko, rose in rebellion in 1794. But their means were totally inadequate to the struggle in which they had engaged; after displaying prodigies of valour, Kosciuszko was defeated and taken prisoner (10th October, 1794), and Praga, the suburb of Warsaw, being taken by storm, that city forthwith surrendered; and there being no longer any obstacle in the way, a dismemberment of the remaining territories of the republic took place in 1795, and Poland was finally obliterated from the map of Europe.

The powers who dismembered Poland had, in reality, nothing to allege in justification of their conduct, save that the robber's plea, that the power to commit an act makes it at once right and expedient! But, how objectionable soever the motives by which they were influenced, and how dangerous soever the precedent which they established, there can be no reasonable doubt that their measures have been decidedly advantageous to the great bulk of the Polish people. The vices inherent in Polish society were such that it is idle to suppose they could have been eradicated by any remodelling of the constitution. There was no middle class (or none worth notice) in the country; nothing between nobles, jealous of their rank and privileges, on the one hand, and newly-emancipated slaves, brutalised and degraded by a long course of oppression, on the other. To restrain the first within the limits prescribed by law, and to raise the second class, was a work that could only be undertaken by a powerful government, such as there were no means of forming out of native materials. It is to be regretted that Russia obtained the lion's share of the spoil; but even in Russian Poland the condition of the people has been very decidedly changed for the better; and in Austrian and Prussian Poland, the improvement in their condition has been signal and extraordinary.

The existing kingdom of Poland originated in the grand duchy of Warsaw, established by Napoleon in 1807. It was assigned to Russia by the Congress of Vienna, and obtained from the Emperor Alexander a representative constitution. Unfortunately, however, the disgust occasioned by the brutality of the Grand Duke Constantine, commander-in-chief of the Russian forces in the kingdom, conspiring with the excitement produced by the French revolution of 1830, and the abuse of Russia in intemperate and ill-judged speeches in the H. of C. and Ch. of Dep., which made it be believed that England and France were ready to assail that power, precipitated the Poles into an insurrection. The result was such as all men of sense anticipated from the outset. The Poles made a gallant stand in defence of their liberties; but in the end every vestige of their independence was totally destroyed. The name of the kingdom remains; but its peculiar privileges have been subverted, and it is now substantially and in fact a part of the Russian empire.

POL-DE-LEON (S.T.), a sea-port town of France, dep. Finistère, cap. cant., on the Channel, 10 m. N.W. Morlaix. Pop. (inc. comm.) in 1846, 6,655. Though ill-built, it is clean, well paved, and remarkable for its antique edifices. Its cathedral, a structure of the 16th century, has some excellent carving; and a tomb, said to be that of the first Breton king. The church of Kreischer, built in the 14th century, has a spire 294 ft. in height, and one of the handsomest in France. (*Guide du Voyageur*.) St. Pol has some trade in cattle, horses, linen, hemp, &c., but no great extent.

POLIGNY (an. *Castrum Olimum*), a town of France, dep. Jura, cap. arrond., on elevated ground, 13 m. N.E. Lons-le-Saulnier. Pop., in 1846 (inc. comm.), 5,835. It consists principally of 4 long parallel streets, and is well

* The diets consisted, 1. of the senate, composed of the bishops, palatines, or perpetual governors of provinces, deans of chapters, or governors of towns, and the grand officers of the crown; and, 2. of the *sejmiks*, or representatives of the nobles, or gentry. These bodies did not, however, deliberate separately, but together; and, as well as immediately seen, they could come to no resolution without being unanimous.

built, clean, and ornamented with several handsome fountains. Among its public edifices is a well-constructed slaughter-house. Poligny was formerly a place of importance, and a favourite residence of the sovereigns of Burgundy. It has a few manufactures of common earthenware, saltpetre, glue, &c.; and is a sub-prefecture, though the superior courts for the arrond. sit at Artois. (*Hugo, art. Jura, &c.*)

POLTAVA, a gov. of European Russia, lying along the W. side of the Dniépr, by which it is separated from the governments of Kherson and Kieff, having the gov. of Tchernigoff on the N., and those of Kharkoff and Katerinoslaw on the E. and S. Area estimated at 19,000 sq. m. Pop., in 1846, 1,783,800. (*Körppen*.) Surface quite flat; soil excellent; in some parts there is a scarcity of wood. Besides the Dniépr, the principal rivers are its affluents, the Vorskla, Priol, and Sula. This and the surrounding governments constitute what may be called the granary of Russia. It is one of the best cultivated districts of the empire: the return of the corn crops is said to be as 6 to 1, the total produce being about 6,506,000 chetwerts, of which about 1,500,000 are exported. The grazing grounds are excellent, affording pasturage for large herds of the fine Ukraine breed of oxen, and for immense flocks of sheep, the breed of which has latterly been much improved. Some peasants have above 100 bee-hives. Manufacturing industry has not made much progress; but there are factories of cloth and linen, with numerous distilleries, and establishments for the preparation of tallow, candles, &c. Large quantities of corn, tallow, and other products, are annually sent from this government to Odessa, and oxen to Moscow, Petersburg, &c. (*Schmilz, La Russie, &c.*, p. 465.)

POLTAVA, the cap. of the above gov., on the Vorskla; lat. $49^{\circ} 35' 4''$ N.; long. $34^{\circ} 41' 15''$ E. Pop. 9,500. It stands on an eminence, and is built principally of wood, with broad and straight streets. There is a good square, with brick houses, embellished with a granite monument in honour of its deliverer, and the restorer of Russia, Peter the Great. It is surrounded by a rampart, and has a cathedral, gymnasium, convent, &c., with three great fairs annually, and a considerable commerce.

Charles XII. of Sweden having besieged this town in 1709, Peter the Great marched to its relief; and in its vicinity, on the 27th of June of the same year, was fought the famous battle of Poltava. The Russians gained a complete victory. The Swedish army was entirely destroyed: it lost above 9,000 men left dead on the field of battle, and from 2,000 to 3,000 made prisoners in the pursuit; while the residue, consisting of about 14,000 men, under General Lewenhaupt, after escaping from the battle, were compelled to lay down their arms and surrender on the 12th of July. Charles, with only a small escort, effected his retreat across the Bug, and took refuge in Turkey. This great victory established the power of Peter on a solid foundation, and secured not merely his empire, but the success of his vast projects and plans for the civilisation and improvement of his people. To use the words of Voltaire—"Ce qui est le plus important dans cet bataille, c'est que de toutes celles qui ont jamais eu lieu, c'est la seule, qui ait été le lieu de se produire, que la destruction, ait servi au bonheur du genre humain, puisqu'elle a donné au Czar la liberté de polir une grande partie du monde." (*Histoire de la Russie sous Pierre le Grand*, part. i. cap. 18.)

POLYNESIA, "the region of many islands," a collective term used by geographers to designate the numerous groups of volcanic and coralline islands scattered over a great part of the Pacific, but especially between the tropics, extending eastward from the Philippine Islands and New Guinea to the coast of America. Supposed aggregate pop., 1,500,000; but all calculations of this kind are merely conjectural, as there are few or no data. The equator forms a convenient dividing line between these groups, which may accordingly be comprised under the heads of N. and S. Polynesia, as follows, the order being from W. to E. [See next column.]

The whole of Polynesia may be considered as a series of submarine mountain ranges; for no portion of the earth's surface has more numerous inequalities, and nowhere, except in America, have the chains so marked a course from N. to S. Indeed, all the archipelagos have, more or less, this direction, and it not unfrequently happens that the small chains are individually terminated by an island of larger size than the others with which it is connected. Many of the larger islands, and particularly those which shoot up to a considerable elevation from the sea, consist of basalt, as well as other igneous formations; and in many of them are distinct traces of volcanic action, with a few active volcanoes. To this class belong the Friendly Islands (the largest of which, called Otaheite, has a mountain rising to the height of 10,000 ft. above the sea), the Marquesas and Sandwich Islands, in the last of which are several, both extinct and active, volcanoes, rising from 12,000 to 16,000 ft. above the sea. The desert group of the Galapagos is likewise in a state of igneous action, and the whole is a mere

Names of Insular Groups.	Situation.	
	Lat.	Long.
I. N. Polynesia.		
Pelew Islands — — — —	about 8°	N. 135° E.
Ladrone — — — —	17°	147°
Caroline — — — —	7°—12°	150°—170°
Radick — — — —	6°—10°	164°—170°
Sandwich — — — —	20°	156° W.
Galapagos — — — —	19°	92°
II. S. Polynesia.		
Admiralty Islands — —	2°	S. 148° E.
New Ireland, New Britain, and New Hanover — — —	6°—9°	152°
Louisade (little known) —	10°	148° E.
Solomon's Islands — —	8°	152°—164°
New Hebrides and New Caledonia —	9°—22°	164°—170°
O. Friendly — — — —	12°	166°—170°
Friendly — — — —	13°—21°	178° E.—160° W.
Navigators' — — — —	13°	173°
Rocky — — — —	13°—21°	168°—173°
Dangerous Archipelago —	12°—19°	144°—139°
Marquesas — — — —	6°—11°	140°
Pitcairn Island — — —	37°	135°
Bouvier — — — —	47°	169°

mass of lava and similar productions. The numerous small islands that stud the Pacific S. of the equator, and W. of the Friendly Islands, and particularly those that rise but a short distance from the level of the sea, are based on reefs of coral rock. Of those examined by Captain Beechey, none were more than 80 m. in diameter; they were of various shapes, chiefly formed of living coral, or at any rate encompassed by a reef of that substance. Most of them have lagoons in their centres, the bottoms and sides of which are likewise formed of coral; and the generally circular form of these islands, the existence of these lagoons, and the shelving conical form of the submarine mountains, has led to the supposition that they are nothing more than the crests of submarine volcanoes, having the rims and bottoms of their craters overgrown with coral. It is also well known, that the Pacific is a great theatre of volcanic action, and every island, yet examined in Polynesia, consists either of volcanic rocks or coral limestone, and in many instances of basalt and lava, having a girdle of coral. (*Lyell's Geology*, iii. 226—229.) The formation of coral, which, according to Captain Beechey, is very gradual, ceases as soon as it reaches the surface of the water; but it serves as a basis for a vegetable soil, which in these regions is soon covered with plants, cocoa-nut and other trees. The larger islands of Polynesia are indented with deep bays, furnishing tolerably good harbours for shipping; but the convenience of the largest is less than 200 m., so that their extent does not admit of the formation of any important lakes or rivers. By far the larger portion of Polynesia is between the tropics; but the small extent of the islands procures for them the temperature of the ocean, and a succession of light sea and land breezes. Hence the heat never becomes oppressive, even to Europeans. Hurricanes and earthquakes are of rare occurrence.

The numerous islands of the Pacific afford an extremely diversified vegetation; and among the many plants covering their surfaces, several of high utility for human support, especially the bread-fruit tree (a favourite article of food among the islanders), cocoa-nut, yam, the root of the *Arum coccineum*, the banana, plantain, and sugar-cane, which last grows naturally in the Sandwich Islands, and succeeds better than in any other part of the world. A native chestnut, called *Rata* (*Tuscarpus edulis*), furnishes the natives with a sweet nut, that forms an agreeable substitute for bread-fruit; besides which, the *Ahia* (*Eugenia malaccensis*) bears a pulpy fruit, shaped like an apple. The Ti-root (*Draconia terminalis*) furnishes an inferior spirit, called *ava*, the preparation of which is pretty well known by most of the islanders, and has produced very demoralising effects. The use of foreign spirits, however, has, in the groups best known to Europeans, almost superseded the necessity of drinking this nauseous stuff. The tropical productions of the American continent have been successfully introduced by European navigators and missionaries; so that many of the islands, besides their indigenous productions, bear an abundance of oranges, citrons, shaddock, pine-apples, guavas, figs, and Cape mulberries. The vine also, introduced, was destroyed by the natives in their wars: fresh plants have more recently been imported, and thrive well in some of the islands. The growth of corn has been more than once attempted, without success; owing more, however, to the imperfect means of tillage than the unfitness either of the soil or climate. Pumpkins, melons, cucumbers, cabbages, and kidney-beans flourish better, and with less trouble, than any other foreign vegetables. The hills of the more elevated islands are clothed with forests of stately trees; the most valuable of which are the *spago* and *tepaia*, which yield excellent timber for canoes, and the candle-tree (*Aburites triloba*), the oil of which is used for domestic illumination. The principal trees growing on the plains are the tamanu (*Calophyllum inophyllum*), and the *Hc.*

Acacia villosa (highly valued as materials for furniture, canoes, &c.), the Chinese paper mulberry (*Morus papyrifera*), and the sandal-tree, the timber from which last is exported from the Sandwich Islands to Europe and China.

The fauna of Polynesia is characterised, like that of Australia and its surrounding islands, by the absence of beasts of prey, and, indeed, all the larger animals. Hogs, dogs, rats, and lizards were the only quadrupeds originally found on the islands. The native hog is different from the European breed since introduced, and has now almost disappeared: the present breed is reared in great numbers, and pork constitutes the favourite food of the natives. The flesh of the dog is also esteemed a luxury, especially by the Sandwich Islanders. Rats were occasionally eaten uncooked by the Friendly Islanders; but that practice has been discontinued. Cats have been domesticated in most of the houses. Horses, asses, horned cattle, goats, and sheep have since been added, and thrive exceedingly well. The oxen are a fine breed, chiefly imported from New South Wales. The horses come from S. America, and, being used only for the saddle, are never shod. Among the indigenous water birds may be noticed the albatross, tropic bird, several kinds of petrels, herons, and wild ducks. Woodpeckers, urticæ, and pigeons are common; besides which, the parrot (of the species *trichoceros*) is abundantly distributed over all the islands; and in most of them the domestic fowl and several species of wild fowl appear to be indigenous. Fish are numerous on the coasts and in the lagoons of all parts of Polynesia: the albacore, bonito, ray, and shark are eaten by the natives; in addition to which the shores abound with a great variety of delicate rock-fish. The freshwater streams are swarmed with salmon, eels, &c., and many varieties of molluscous creatures, with turtles, are caught on the coral rocks. Among the whales that frequent the coasts of Polynesia, the largest and most valuable is the *cachalot*, or sperm-whale the male of which, according to Mr. Bennett, sometimes yields from 70 to 90 barrels of oil, and about 15 barrels of permance, the Cape-whale, hump-back, and black-fish; besides which, porpoises and other small cetaceous animals are extremely abundant. (*Ellis's Polynesia Researches*, i. 30-77; *Moerenhout*, i. 367-381; *Bennett's Whaling Voyage*, i. 36, and appendix.)

Polynesia has of late years been much visited by Europeans, partly curious to inquire into the habits of people differing essentially from those of the rest of the world, and partly anxious to communicate to them the arts of civilisation and a knowledge of the Christian religion. Its isolated inhabitants were found to possess many interesting features of character, but at the same time to be plunged in the grossest barbarism, sensuality, and idolatry. Cook traced among some of the Islanders a confused notion of a supreme intelligent deity; but they almost exclusively worship a number of inferior gods, particularly marine and aerial deities, animals, birds, and fishes. Their rude idols were supposed to exercise a powerful influence; the temples were polluted with human sacrifices; and divination, witchcraft, &c., were practised by the chiefs as political engines for overawing their subjects. (*Ellis's Pol. Researches*, i. ch. 13, 14.) At the same time, morality, as understood by Europeans, had no existence among this wild people, and the grossest animal appetites had full way, their gratification being encouraged, also, by their religious institutions. The law of the strongest prevailed: fierce and bloody wars frequently took place between the different insular tribes on the most trivial pretext, and conquest was generally followed by acts of the most horrible cruelty, including the extermination of the vanquished tribe, and occasionally even an indulgence in cannibalism. The female sex, too, was found as in licentious, degraded, and oppressed a state as in the vilest districts of Africa. A kind of civil marriage appears to have been generally observed; but as the sex was too much despised to allow the existence of affection, the wives were repudiated on the slightest pretext, or neglected for more fascinating concubines. Polyamy was common in nearly all the islands, and in some groups it is still prevalent. Moerenhout, indeed, tells us, with the statement savoured strongly of exaggeration, that some chiefs in the Fidjies have as many as 30 wives. (*Voyage au G. Océan*, iii. 68-69.) Female virtue was formerly wholly unknown; and notwithstanding the labours of numerous missionaries during upwards of 30 years, chastity is still, we apprehend, extremely rare. Sexual indulgences, and even infanticide, were encouraged by a singular institution called the Arooi society, the baneful influence of which appears to have been pretty generally diffused over the islands of the Pacific. The missionaries state that about two-thirds of the children born were destroyed by their parents; and notwithstanding the introduction of Christianity, the practice still prevails: but we are not disposed to attach implicit credit to these statements, which, no doubt, go on beyond the mark.

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Cannibalism is still practised in the Marquesas, and some of the other groups. The Islanders, however, do not live in the rude independence of savage life, but acknowledge the arbitrary sway of hereditary chiefs, whose power is controlled only by those subordinate to them in particular districts. Some attempts have been made to introduce governments of a more liberal character; but they have signally failed.

The habits of the natives are still in many respects those of barbarians. Their houses, almost without exception, are confined to a single story; usually, though not always, of oblong shape, and very simply constructed with stakes of the bread fruit-tree, driven into the earth for the purpose of supporting the roof, which is commonly thatched with the leaves of the *Pandanus odoratissimus*, or cocoa-tree. The framework of the walls is composed of bamboo or hibiscus rods, and a large portion of one side is open, being covered only at night with a kind of cloth curtain. The interior comprises only a single apartment, sometimes with a boarded floor; and the furniture consists simply of a few mats and cotton-stuffed pillows spread on the floor, a few low wooden stools, a trough and stone pestle for preparing their favourite paste called *poi* (made from the *Arum coccineum*), some cocoa-nut shells, used as cups, with a fishing-spear, and perhaps a musket. Bunches of fruit hang from the walls; and occasionally may be seen a sow with a litter of pigs occupying a space in one corner, rallied off for her accommodation. A separate shed is employed for cooking; and in the more advanced islands a plot of enclosed ground, planted with useful vegetables or favourite flowers, surrounds many of the houses. (*Bennett's Whaling Voyage*, i. 100; and *Moerenhout*, ii. 86-90.) Some of these huts are exceedingly large. Mr. Ellis mentions one belonging to a native prince that was nearly 400 ft. in length; and houses 100 ft. in length are by no means infrequent. (*Polyn. Researches*, i. 175.) The domestic habits of most of the natives are not only unsocial, but irregular, as respects refreshment and sleep, labour and amusement. Their meals are arranged according to their avocations or the supply of their provisions. They usually eat in the forenoon; but their principal meal is in the evening, when, if well supplied, they eat to excess. They rise early, and go late to rest; but the men are often buried in sleep during many hours of the day, while every species of household drudgery is performed by the females, who are oppressed and degraded in the last degree. The habit of frequent bathing prevails throughout Polynesia, and the natives are remarkable for cleanliness; and most of them pay great attention to personal ornament: indeed, says Mr. Ellis, "their appearance on public occasions is in a high degree imposing." The hair, in particular, is regarded as an object of great attention by both sexes, and the females commonly appear in loose ringlets entwined with flowers. (*Researches*, i. 133-136.)

The dresses of the Islanders originally consisted of cloths woven by the women from the bark of trees, and wrapped loosely around the body, leaving a large part of it uncovered; but since their connection with Europeans, they have introduced a very droll *mélange* of native and European costume. The practice of tattooing the body prevails more or less through all the islands, though attempts were made a few years ago to abolish this barbarous custom in Oahu. Tattooing is performed during childhood; and in the Society Islands at the early age of 8 or 10. The patterns vary in the different groups; but nowhere is the body so extensively disfigured as in the Marquesas, the inhab. of which have a most hideous appearance. In some of the islands the face is left in its natural state, the legs, arms, and breast being the only parts tattooed. (*Moerenhout*, ii. 121-4.) The natives of all the best known groups, except the Sandwich Islands, are, like the half-civilised inhab. of most tropical countries, extremely indolent, having, in fact, little occasion for industry, owing to the abundance with which the fruits of the earth are spontaneously produced. Their principal employments are agriculture, fishing, canoe-building, and the manufacture of cloth. Agriculture, as previously observed, is in the rudest state that can well be conceived, the only tillage that the earth receives being by a rude iron-shod stick, about as broad as a European chisel. Fishing is a far more favourite employment, and the methods are numerous and sometimes highly ingenious. The fish are sometimes caught in circular fences, built up in the shallow parts of their lakes, and simply taken out with a hand net; these enclosures are also excellent preserves for fish not wanted for immediate use. Large nets, made of the twisted bark of the hibiscus, are used for fishing salmon, herrings, &c.; and on most of the islands the natives exhibit a surprising dexterity in the use of the fishing spear. In fact, nowhere are there more skilful fishermen; and considering that before their intercourse with Europeans they were entirely destitute of iron, their variety of fishing apparatus was astonishing. The situation of these Islanders necessarily imparts a

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maritime character to their habits, and much of their attention is, accordingly, devoted to the building and management of their vessels. Their canoes are of various size, as well as shape, and are either double or single. The largest of those seen in the Society Islands are nearly 70 ft. in length, with very high stems and sterns, but only 3 ft. wide. Those used in war are between 40 and 60 ft. in length, firmly built, of rather elegant shape, highly ornamented with carving, and when in use decorated with gay-coloured flags and streamers. In the double canoes (which are merely single canoes lashed together), planks are thrown across to form a kind of deck for the accommodation of passengers, and over it is sometimes spread an awning of platted cocoa-nut leaves. The paddles, made of the hibiscus, are not heavy; but as they are used alternately on each side of the boat, the labour of rowing is by no means inconsiderable. The canoes used in fishing on the reefs are single, and are commonly the excavated trunks of trees; they seldom carry more than two persons. Many of the canoes have moveable masts, which are only raised when the sails are used. The latter, of which there are sometimes two, but more frequently only one to each canoe, are made with matting of the pandanus leaf, in the shape of a half oval, and the rigging is of the simplest description. On the whole, the canoes of the Society Islands are decidedly superior to those of the other groups; those of the Sandwich Islands are large and strong, but less elegant; those used in most of the other islands are of smaller size, and less skilfully constructed. The dexterity of the natives in managing these frail barks when out at sea is also, perhaps, unparalleled among the inhab. of savage countries. (*Ellis*, i. 138-170.)

The manufacture of cloth, which is more or less carried on in all the islands, is almost exclusively conducted by females, the materials commonly employed being the inner fibres of the bark from the branches of the bread-fruit tree. These fibres, after having been macerated, are beaten on a long board with a grooved mallet, the blows from which cause the moist fibres to interlace with each other, and to assume the appearance of woven cloth. By this process bales are sometimes made containing upwards of 300 yds. of cloth, 4 yds. wide. The colour of the unbleached cloth is a darkish brown; but it is always either bleached or coloured with vegetable dyes. Skill in the manufacture of this fabric was formerly highly prized by females of all ranks; but since the introduction of European cloth, it has been made in much smaller quantities, and its use (in the Sandwich, Society, and Friendly Islands) is now confined chiefly to women, children, and the lower classes. The missionaries tried to introduce the weaving and spinning of cotton, but with little success; and this pursuit has been since abandoned. A kind of delicate matting is made in some of the islands from the bark of the hibiscus; the fabrics thus formed being either bound over the loins, or worn as mantles on the back. In the manufacture of this last article the islanders of the Palliser group far excel all others. A coarser kind of matting, also, is made of palm-leaves, for bedding, and the sails of canoes.

As respects foreign trade, it may be said to have had no existence in these islands till a late period; the intercourse is chiefly kept up by means of the whaling ships, and the number of vessels touching at the Sandwich Islands may average about 80 annually. Trading intercourse has made the islanders aware of the value both of goods and money; and beads, looking-glasses, and buttons have wholly lost their former commercial value.

Most of the islanders of Polynesia are of a lively excitable disposition; hence, when not employed in the graver pursuits of fishing, canoe-building, or war, they give themselves up with great ardour to a variety of amusements, among which dancing is, perhaps, the most prominent, being common on all occasions, not merely of pleasure, but also of religion and state ceremony. Some of these dances are stated by the missionaries to have been very objectionable; while others were of a graceful and more dignified character. The exchange of a Christian profession for a debasing polytheistic idolatry has diminished the frequency of these exhibitions, though they still occasionally take place. The musical instruments of the islanders consist of a long narrow drum, a trumpet formed of a species of murex, into which is inserted a bamboo cane for a mouth-piece, and a flute of bamboo, about 16 inches long and about 1 inch in diameter. Boxing and wrestling, also, used to be favourite amusements; but these exercises, as well as many other national entertainments, have been all but abandoned since the introduction of Christianity, though there be, after all, but too much reason to suppose, that the efforts of missionaries have produced little radical change for the better in the morals of the mass of the pop.

The islanders of the Pacific, as respects physical character, may be divided into 3 distinct classes. The most ancient tribe is composed of Papuan negroes, who are distinguished by darkness of skin, smallness of stature,

and black woolly or crisped hair: they chiefly inhabit the Admiralty Islands, New Britain, New Ireland, New Hebrides, New Caledonia, and the Solomon Islands. The other tribe, which is far more widely dispersed over the numerous groups of this great ocean, exhibits many of the features belonging to the Malays and aboriginal Americans, but is, in some respects, so different as to form a separate and intermediate race. The people of each cluster, also, are distinguished by minor peculiarities. The inhabs. of the Society Islands are of good stature, and well made; of olive complexion, with open, prepossessing features, with a facial angle as perpendicular as in the European head; a bright, full, and jet-black eye, placed under well-arched eyebrows, a straight or aquiline nose, well-formed mouth, and moderately high forehead, with straight though not wavy hair, either black or brown. The Sandwich islanders have more firm and muscular limbs, but in other respects bear a close resemblance to those just described; and they are generally active in their movements, graceful and stately in their gait, and perfectly unembarrassed in their address. Both sexes incline to corpulency in advanced life. It is remarkable, also, that the chiefs, and persons of hereditary rank, throughout the islands, are, almost without exception, superior to the common people, in stateliness, dignified deportment, and physical strength; indeed, so great is the difference, that Bougainville, and others, have supposed them to be a distinct race, whose ancestors at some remote period had brought the aborigines into permanent subjection. (*Ellis's Pol. Researches*, i. 78-84.; and *Moerenhout*, ii. 247-253.)

With respect to the languages of Polynesia, Marsden first ascertained that there is one general language pervading the whole of the South Sea Islands, and extending, with its different dialects, from the E. Indian archipelago to the E. extremity of the Polynesian groups: "Indeed," says M. Moerenhout, "it is impossible to avoid observing the close analogy between the dialects spoken in the many different islands. So striking a similarity is there between the languages of the Society Islands and New Zealand, that the natives mutually understand each other: the inhabs. of the Sandwich, Marquesas, and Society Islands converse after only a few days' practice, and the occupants even of the far distant Easter Island are intelligible to the whole of the other islanders both N. and S. of the Equator. It has been believed by some linguists that all these dialects are branches, more or less, of the Malay language; and many words certainly bear some analogy to those in the Malay vocabulary; but, in fact, "there is no living language either of Asia or America, which can be demonstrated the parent-stock of the great Polynesian language." (*Crauford's Indian Archipelago*, ii. 80-86.; *Moerenhout*, i. 295-308.)

1. The *Caroline Islands* (sometimes called the New Philippines) extend over about 20 deg. of longitude, and are divided by Captain Lutke into 46 groups, comprising several hundred islands, a few of which are high and rising in peaks, but by far the greater number are low, and merely of coralline formation. They were discovered in 1586 by a Spaniard, who named them after Charles, king of Spain. The productions of these islands are very similar to those of the Sandwich and Society Islands; but the bread-fruit is found only in a few of the groups, and the hog is wholly absent; hence these islanders live chiefly on fish. The inhabs. are reputed to be the most expert sailors and fishermen of Polynesia; and, notwithstanding the tempestuous sea by which they are surrounded, they have a considerable trading intercourse in canoes with the Ladrone Islands and the E. Archipelago.

The *Sandwich Islands* (10 in number, of which 8 are inhabited) form a volcanic mass, hundred miles distant from all the rest. The area of the largest island, Owhyhee (or, more properly, Hawaii), is estimated at 4,200 sq. m., being more than half that of the entire group, and is, indeed, by far the largest island of Polynesia. It rises in high and towering cones to an elevation of nearly 16,000 ft. from the sea; and not only is the gigantic volcano of Kilauea, with its immense crater, 3 m. in length by nearly 1 m. in width, and several hundred feet deep, in a constant state of terrific ebullition, but the whole island is one complete mass of lava; and, being perforated with innumerable apertures in the shape of craters, may be considered as forming a hollow cone over a vast furnace in the heart of a stupendous submarine mountain. (*Ellis*, iv. 226, 269.) The pop. of the Sandwich Islands was estimated, in 1847, at about 112,000. The males are of a darker complexion than those in the Society Islands; the females have coarse and disagreeable features, and both sexes are gloomy and reserved. The natives generally are remarkable for their attention to the arts of industry, and have distinguished themselves above all others by their efforts to introduce European civilisation. Christianity was introduced by the American missionaries in 1820, and is now the religion of the state; schools

have been established, churches have been built, and the forms of religion are, at least, pretty generally observed. European usages have also become fashionable, and the costume of the better classes, women as well as men, closely resembles that of the Anglo-Americans. Honolulu, in the island of Oahu, lat. $21^{\circ} 15' 2''$ N., long. $157^{\circ} 55' W.$, is the cap. of the group, and has a considerable pop., of whom about 1,000 are foreigners. Many houses are built of stone; but the natives still prefer living in their huts, so that the town is grotesquely irregular. The harbour (formed by a barrier-reef of coral, having a single opening) has accommodation for between 70 and 30 vessels of from 500 to 600 tons. This group of islands has attracted much notice of late years. For a considerable period they have been visited by the whaling ships in the Pacific; and the settlement of Oregon and California, and the intercourse which has already sprung up, and which, no doubt, will continue to increase between them and China, has given the islands great additional importance, from their peculiar aptitude to serve as a station for the steamers and other ships that may be engaged in that trade. In consequence, there has lately been a rapid increase in the town of Honolulu, and the ground round the harbour is now wholly occupied. English churches, with English newspapers, schools, hotels, boarding-houses, shops, &c., have been established. It is a curious fact that the native pop. has been rapidly decreasing for several years, and does not now, probably, exceed a third part of its amount at the epoch of their discovery. It has recently been proposed, in consequence of the extraordinary demand for agricultural produce by the foreign vessels frequenting their ports, to bring settlers from China to supply this deficiency. In 1846 about 600 vessels touched the islands. The value of the exports of articles of native produce, in 1844, was estimated at 100,686 doll., but it must now be much greater. The natives have several ships, and others are owned by the foreigners in the islands. The government is a limited monarchy, with two chambers.

Captain Cook, who, after Columbus, ranks as the greatest of modern discoverers, was killed in a collision with the natives of Owhyhee on the 14th February, 1779.

3. *The Society Islands* consist of 6 larger and several smaller islands. The principal of these, called Otaheite or, more properly, Tahiti, is 108 m. in circ., and has a pop. of about 7,000. It is extremely mountainous, some parts attaining an elevation of near 7,000 ft.; but "extensive as well as fertile vales open on every side towards the sea, and the entire land is clothed from the water's edge to its topmost heights with a perennial verdure, which for luxuriance and picturesque effect is certainly unparalleled." (Bennett, l. 63.) Next in importance to Otaheite, and about 130 m. N.W. that island, is Ulitea, or Raiatea, nearly 60 m. in circ., encircled by a reef of coral, bordered by numerous islands; it has a bold, mountainous appearance, and is scarcely less picturesque than that last mentioned. Riméa is another mountain island, with an abrupt rocky coast, and is chiefly distinguished as the central station of the missionaries on this group: a school and printing-office are established here. The forms of Christian worship are observed here as well as in the Sandwich Islands; but civilization is considerably less advanced, and European costume considerably less prevalent. (Bennett, l. 70.) The seat of government and principal port of Otaheite is Papeété, which exhibits the same combination of European houses and native huts as the cap. of the Sandwich Islands. The harbour is a spacious sheet of smooth water, of a circular shape, and so completely land-locked as rather to resemble a large dock-basin than a natural harbour. The commerce, consisting in the exportation of pearls, shells, sugar, cocoa-nut oil, and arrow-root, in exchange for European manufactures, chiefly cloth and hardware, is carried on exclusively by foreigners. This port is also frequently visited by whalers coming here to refit or to obtain supplies; but Otaheite is not and never can be so important a commercial station as Oahu, in the Sandwich Islands.

4. *The Marquesas*, which were discovered by the English in 1593, consist of 11 islands, extending about 30 m. from N.W. to S.E. The largest, Nukihiva, is about 10 m. in circ., and is the only one generally frequented by shipping. The coast-scenery is neither picturesque nor inviting, its principal features being black naked hills and barren hills; but in the interior are many fertile vales, and very picturesque scenery. The inhabitants regard to personal beauty, are superior to most of the Polynesian tribes; and the women, though short in stature, are well-proportioned, and sometimes even handsome. In civilization, however, they are far behind the Sandwich Islanders; and are generally characterized by coarseness, irascibility, love of revenge, and gross sensuality. Cannibalism was practised by them within a very recent period; and they have steadily resisted all attempts to convert them to Christianity. Polygamy, however, though not forbidden by law, has fallen into disuse.

5. *The Friendly Islands* are low, encircled by dangerous coral reefs. The soil is almost throughout exceedingly rich, producing, with very little care, the bananas, bread-fruit, and yam. The pop. may amount to about 90,000; but the natives, though favourably mentioned by Capt. Cook, appear to be as treacherous, savage, and superstitious as any in the worst parts of Polynesia.

6. *Pitcairn Island*, which stands alone, near the E. extremity of Polynesia, is chiefly interesting on account of its having been the refuge of the mutinous crew of Captain Bligh's ship, the *Bounty*. The mutineers, after having turned their captain and a few of the crew out into an open boat, tried to make a settlement in the Society Islands, but afterwards fixed themselves in this isolated spot, where a few of them, with their descendants, were found by Captain Beechey, in 1825. It is not more than 7 m. in circ., with an abrupt rocky coast, and rises about 1,050 ft. above the sea. The present pop. comprises about 80 persons, who (being the descendants of Europeans and native women) form an interesting link in person, intellect, and habits between the European and Polynesian races. They are tall and robust, though not handsome, with black glossy hair, and frank, honest, good-humoured dispositions. They are further said to be industrious, and strictly observant both of morality and religion.

7. *The New Hebrides* (discovered in 1506, and so named by Captain Cook, who surveyed the entire group) are considerably hilly, though well clothed with fine timber; and the valleys are extremely abundant, producing figs, nutmegs, and oranges, besides the fruits common to the rest of Polynesia. The inhabitants present about the most ugly specimen extant of the Papuan race: the men live almost in a state of nudity; and the women, who are used as mere beasts of burden, wear only a petticoat made from the plantain-leaf. Their canoes are more rudely fashioned than in most of the other islands; and, on the whole, these people seem to be among the most degraded of the islanders of the Pacific.

8. *New Caledonia*, which is the largest island of the W. groups, is far less fertile, and produces a smaller variety of fruits and vegetables, than any of the islands yet mentioned. The natives closely resemble in habits, and the total absence of civilization, those of the New Hebrides; though, owing to the ravages caused by famine, they are infinitely more wretched. The Pelew Islands, to about lat. $7^{\circ} N.$, long. $135^{\circ} E.$, are chiefly known from the accounts of Captain Wilson, who was wrecked on them in 1783. He describes the inhabitants as hospitable, friendly, and humane. Breeds of cattle, goats, poultry, &c., were subsequently sent to the islands, and have succeeded extremely well.

Our knowledge of the many extensive groups of islands comprised in Polynesia is still very far from being satisfactory. Magellan began the work of discovery early in the 16th century, and he was followed at the close of the century by Mendana and other Spanish navigators. The Dutch made further discoveries in the 17th century; but to England mainly belongs the honour of having explored and laid down the exact position of the principal groups of the South Sea Islands, and the names of Byron, Wallis, Cook, Vancouver, and Beechey, must ever rank high in the estimation of geographers: great credit is also due to La Pérouse, D'Entrecasteaux, Freycinet, and other learned navigators, sent out on exploring voyages by the French government. In consequence of the labours of these and other navigators, aided also by the information gained from missionaries resident in the islands, we have gained a pretty intimate acquaintance with the condition of the natives in the principal groups of Polynesia; but there remains a great number of islands, especially on the W. side of the Pacific, that have very seldom been visited by Europeans, and are occupied by people as savage and uncivilized as the Sandwich Islanders of the last century.

POMERANIA, a large prov. of the Prussian states, lying along the S. coast of the Baltic, from long. $12^{\circ} 30'$ to $18^{\circ} 2'$ E., having E. and S. West Prussia and Brandenburg, and W. Mecklenburg. Its form is oblong, its length (from E. to W.) being above 300 m., while its breadth varies from 20 to 60 m. Area, 13,178 sq. m. Pop. in 1846, 1,168,073, of whom 1,145,598 were Protestants. It is divided into three regencies, and these again into 96 circles. Surface flat. Principal towns, Stettin, Stralsund, Greifswald, Stargard, Stolpe, &c. Principal rivers, Oder, Leba, Stolpe, Rega, Persante, Ucker, Peene, and Ihna. The Haff is a large bay, or rather lagoon, of an irregular form, which communicates with the Baltic by the mouths of the Oder. Along the sea the land is in many parts so low that it would be overflowed, were it not protected by ranges of sand-hills, and where these are wanting, by dykes, as in Holland. Soil mostly sandy, and unproductive, except along the rivers and lakes, where it is marshy and comparatively fertile. A large part of the country is covered with forests and heaths, and there are also many shallow lakes. Agriculture is in a very backward state; but

since the abolition of vassalage in 1811, it has made considerable progress. Wheat and barley are grown; but rye, buckwheat, and oats, are the principal corn crops; potatoes are largely cultivated, and form, indeed, a principal part of the food of the people; flax and hemp are also grown, with tobacco, &c. The breeding of cattle, sheep, and hogs, is a favourite occupation. Geese are reared in immense numbers; and besides those consumed in the province, large quantities are exported smoked and dried. Very few farms are occupied by tenants holding under a lease, but are chiefly farmed by or on account of the proprietors. The peasantry live in mean dirty cottages of wood or clay; their clothes are all of home manufacture. Common agricultural labourers earn from 6 to 8 stiver groschen a day, exclusive of subsistence. Minerals unimportant. The woollen manufacture in a domestic state is pretty generally diffused; and linen, leather, &c., are also produced. There are numerous breweries and distilleries, and dram-drinking is as prevalent here as in other parts of the monarchy. The flattery, particularly of sturgeon and salmon, is carried on along the coast, and in the creeks and rivers.

POMONA, one of the Orkney Islands, which see.

POMPEII (called by the Greeks *Pompēia*), a long-buried city of ancient Italy, in Campania, not much celebrated in ancient history, but now an object of the greatest interest in consequence of its rather recent discovery and exhumation. It was originally close to the sea; but it is now nearly $\frac{1}{4}$ m. inland, and is about 5 m. S. by VV. the crater of Vesuvius, and about 18 m. S.E. Naples. The area of its foundation, as well as the greater part of its early history, is involved in obscurity; but the presumption is, that it was settled by Osci and Pelasgi prior to the establishment on this coast of the Greek colonies from Euboea. About anno 440 B. C. it fell into the hands of the Samnites, from whom it was taken, with their other possessions, by the Romans about 80 years afterwards. Pompeii revolted, with the other Campanian towns, during the Social War; and little more is known of it till it was visited by an earthquake (A. D. 63.), which occasioned great devastation. *Motis terræ, celebre Campaniæ oppidum, Pompeii, magna ex parte prostratum.* (Tacit. Annal. lib. xv. cap. 22.) The repairs consequent to this disaster were incomplete, as is seen by the state of the excavated ruins, when the city, with Herculaneum, Stabiae, and other towns in its vicinity, was wholly overwhelmed by an eruption of Vesuvius A. D. 79. This tremendous calamity has been admirably described by the Younger Pliny, whose uncle was one of the sufferers, in a letter to the historian Tacitus:—"Præcesserat per multos dies tremor terræ, minus formidolosus, quia Campaniæ solitus; illa vero nocte ita invalidus at non moveri omnia sed everti crederetur. Mare in se retractor et tremore terræ quasi repenti viduamus. Cerni processerat litus. Theatrum ad insulas maris ætæ æternæ detrahatur. Ad altero latere nubes atra et horrenda ignei spiritus tortis vibratibus discursibus rupta in longas flammarum figuras dehiscit; fulguribus illæ et similes et majores erant. . . . Mos audires ululatus feminarum, infantium queritibus, clamores strorum: alii parentes, alii liberos, alii conjuges vocibus requirebant, vocibus noscebant: hi eorum casum, illi eorum miserabatur: erant qui metus mortis mortem precarentur. Multi ad deos manus tollere. Nec defuerunt qui factis menditiis terroribus vera pericula augerant. . . . Mos dies veras, sol tutum cunctis, turpidus tamen: — occurrant trepidantibus adhuc oculis mutata omnia, atque cinere tanquam nive obducta." (Plin. Epist. vi. 20.) It seems probable, however, from the small number of skeletons discovered, here and at Herculaneum, that the inhabs. of both cities not only found time to escape during the confusion, but also to carry with them their most valuable effects.

From this time forward, for about 1669 years, Pompeii continued buried under the ashes, pumice-stone, and other volcanic matter by which she had been overwhelmed, and her situation was matter of doubt and conjecture. It is surprising, however, that her ruins did not sooner attract attention; for, in 1592, the celebrated architect and engineer, Domenico Fontana, having been employed to construct an aqueduct to convey water to Torre, fell in with the remains of the buried city. But this discovery appears to have attracted little or no attention; and it was not till 1748, that peasants employed in cutting a ditch fell in with the ruins of the city, that they became an object of interest and attention. The excavations were commenced in 1758; and have since been pretty constantly, though not very vigorously, prosecuted. Not having been overwhelmed by lava, but with tufa, ashes, and scoræ, the excavations are much more easily effected here than at Herculaneum. (*Description de Pompeii, par Bonucci, p. 31, &c.*)

Pompeii, to borrow the words of an intelligent observer, is "the most wonderful of the antiquities of Italy; and it is perhaps the only one which never disappoints a traveller who is even moderately acquainted with the history of ancient Rome. The impression which

it gives of the actual presence of a Roman town, in all the circumstantial reality of its existence 2,000 years ago, is so vivid and intense, that it requires but a small effort of imagination to place yourself among the multitudes which once thronged its streets and theatres, and occupied its now voiceless chambers. The expression so often used, that you expect to see the inhabitants walk out of their houses to salute you, is scarcely a figure of speech. Many things, in fact, concur to foster the illusion. You see a street before you carefully paved and well worn, and bordered with *trotoirs*, in good preservation, as if it had been in use on the preceding day. The houses generally extend in unbroken lines, and even the dilapidation is in some measure concealed by the small modern roofs placed over the walls to protect them from farther waste by the weather. The doors and windows, indeed, are all open; but so they generally are in the modern houses of Italy; and the sombre brown tints of the walls is not very different from what is seen in the decayed towns of the same country at the present day. You turn to the right and the left, and wander from street to street, and still you have the perfect image of a town before you, except that no inhabitants appear, and these you may suppose have only left it a few days before. We have detached public buildings of many kinds elsewhere; but here we have a Roman forum, with all its accompaniments of temples, porticoes, curia, &c., not indeed perfect, but only so injured that what is missing can be replaced, and what is mutilated restored. We have also many shops, with their utensils of trade in them, and about a hundred private houses of all descriptions, from the poor cottage to the patrician mansion, enabling us, for the first time, to obtain a distinct idea of the form and arrangement of a Roman house, and giving us, as it were, a glimpse of the domestic life and manners of the people. The public baths here, which were almost entire, have thrown new light on the structure of those buildings. Lastly, the *tout-ensemble* of the walls, gates, streets, forum, houses, temples, fountains, theatres, associated as they are with each other, give us a conception of a Roman town incomparably more clear and satisfactory than any number of such objects scattered over distant localities could have furnished." (*Maclear's Notes, p. 100, 102.*)

It seems evident on an examination of the superincumbent strata, which consists of various layers, that intervals had taken place in the original eruption, which lasted for three days; and it is farther probable that some of the uppermost layers may have been the result of subsequent eruptions.

This resuscitated city, of which about 1-4th part is now laid open to public view, is of a somewhat oval form, $\frac{1}{4}$ m. in breadth and $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in length, covering an area of 160 acres, or about 2-3ds of the new town of Edinburgh; and considering the narrowness of the streets, the nature of the houses, and the mode in which the slave population generally were lodged, the entire population could scarcely have exceeded 25,000 inhabitants. The walls, which have been traced on every side, except towards the sea, are about 30 ft. thick, and nearly equally high, being faced with blocks of lava inside and outside. There are six gates, and many towers, rising high above the ramparts, and pierced with arches. The best approach to Pompeii is by the Appian way to "the Gate of Herculaneum," which is nearest the sea, and at the N.W. angle of the city. Along each side of the road, approaching this gate, extends a line of tombs, many of which remain perfectly entire, their angles being as sharp, their inscriptions as legible, and their whole appearance almost as fresh as if they had been erected only a few years ago. The monuments vary greatly in size, pattern, and material: many are mere cenotaphs, while others have niches for urns; and a pretty common form is that of a small oblong temple, adorned with columns or pilasters. On the whole, these tombs are not unlike the more ambitious monuments in our own churchyards, but there is nothing resembling our single upright alab. or flint grave-stones. The gate of Herculaneum consisted, like the others, of a large central and two smaller side-gates, not unlike those of Temple Bar in London, the central archway being about 30 ft. in height and 15 ft. in width. The streets appear to have been arranged pretty regularly in parallelograms; but they are very narrow, the most usual breadth being 18 or 20 ft., of which 1-3d is occupied by the trottoirs, which invariably lie both sides of the horseway. An exception, however, must be made in favour of the "Street of the Silversmiths," which is 40 ft. in width, and decidedly the finest in Pompeii. The middle of the road is paved, like the Via Appia, with masses of lava of irregular shapes, and from one to two ft. in diameter, the most level surfaces being placed uppermost; and in many parts the ruts produced by the wheels are still obvious. The trottoirs, which are raised about 10 inches above the rest of the street, average about 4 ft. in width: they are generally made of a sort of compound of lime, earth, and

avel, not unlike the asphalt used for modern pavements in London and Paris.

The largest excavated space in Pompeii, and that which exhibits most architectural magnificence, is the forum, an extensive oblong area, once paved with large slabs of marble. The feelings of a classic traveller, on holding, for the first time, such a monument of antiquity, are well described by Mr. Maclaren. "I felt at it was not a trifling incident in my life, to stand in veritable Roman forum. There it lay distinctly before me, rifled of the greater part of its marble pavement, of its statues, and some of its columns, yet retaining enough of its ancient lineaments, to give a perfect idea of its form, extent, and distribution of its parts. It had been terribly injured by the earthquake A.D. 62, and as rebuilding, when the great catastrophe occurred, the forum was the great place of public resort: the people came here to inquire after news, the busy to talk of business, friends to keep appointments, patrons to meet their clients, voters to attend the courts, candidates for office to solicit votes; here the orators harangued, and the people shouted, the magistrates met in council, and the tax-gatherers collected the revenues: here the decrees of the senate were promulgated *viva voca*, and the laws, festivals, and gladiatorial shows, were advertised by short notices badly spelt, painted on the walls in indelible letters." (P. 131.) The entrance from the N.W. corner, (that nearest the gate of Herculaneum), by a flight of steps leading downwards through a brick chimney into an oblong area about 490 ft. in length by 114 ft. in width, "surrounded by columns, and the ruins of temples, triumphal arches, and other public edifices, the remains of which can in general only be conjectured. The masses of brick divested of their marble casings, the brown and yellow tints of the tufa, the fragments of white stucco attached to the shattered walls of the different edifices, and the pedestals which once supported statues in honour of illustrious patriots, are all that now remain to attest its former beauty and magnificence." (P. 131.) The Doric colonnade ran round three of its sides, and the forum was occupied by a temple of Jupiter. The colonnade formed a species of covered gallery, raised above the central area, and a second row of smaller columns, placed on the top of the first, formed a second gallery, which would afford a view of every thing passing in the forum. The temple of Jupiter had a prostyle portico, supported by 12 very beautiful Corinthian columns, and its total length, from the front steps to the back wall of the cella, was 120 ft., the uniform breadth being 48 ft. On the W. side of the enclosure stood the prisons and public granaries, a pictorial temple of Venus, having a façade looking southward, of nine Corinthian columns, and a Basilica, or court of justice, which is the largest building in Pompeii. It is oblong shaped, 220 ft. in length by 80 ft. in breadth, and is entered through a vestibule having five door-ways of masonry. The roof of the interior was supported by a peristyle of 28 Ionic columns, and at the further end are some remains of what was once the prætor's tribunal. At the N. end of the Forum, which was also ornamented by a triumphal arch, are the remains of three buildings of equal size, and similar shape, that may have been tribunals, or places of assembly for the magistrates: these, however, are of very confined dimensions, and possess little interest. On the E. side, opposite to the Basilica, and flanked on one side by the Street of the Silversmiths, is a large enclosed building, in the shape of a parallelogram, within which was an oblong peristyle of white marble Corinthian columns; it is commonly called the *hælicidicum*, and was built by Eumæchis (whose statue is still standing), but its former use seems to be quite original, though Gell and Donaldson seem to think, from some of the pictures and other remains found there, that it may have been a kind of cloth-hall. Adjoining it, and fronting the forum, is a small temple of Mercury, the court of which is an altar of white marble, beautifully sculptured in bas-relief, representing a sacrifice. What the next building may have been is very doubtful; but as it has an altar, without a cella, we incline to think that it may have been a seneculum or hall of meeting for the town-council. Lastly, the space close to the N.E. angle of the forum is occupied by a very large enclosed peristyle structure, supposed to have been a pantheon dedicated to the twelve *Dii Consentes* of Roman mythology, and comprising, besides an *aulæa* or raised chapel, numerous cells for the accommodation of the priests. Under the colonnades of the forum, close in front of the Pantheon, the entrance to which is by a rather narrow vestibule, are the remains of seven recesses or shops, in some of which the pedestals of the tables are still visible; these may possibly have been the *tabernæ argenteæ*, common to most Greek and Roman towns. (For further particulars respecting these several buildings, and the monuments contained in them, the curious reader is referred to the accurate and very instructive little

work on Pompeii, in the Library of Entertaining Knowledge.)

Next in importance to the excavation of the Forum, is that of the quarter occupied by the theatres. Its best approach from the Forum is by the "street of the silversmiths;" the space cleared comprises two theatres of unequal size, a square usually called the soldiers' quarter, and two temples, with other buildings of minor importance. The theatres will not bear to be compared, in point either of size or splendour, with the magnificent structures at Rome; but still they have the remains of considerable beauty, and the largest, at least, would be considered of large size in any modern city. It has six entrances, leading to different parts of the building, and six inner doors, or *vomitoria*, opened on an equal number of staircases running down from the external circular corridor to all parts of the house. The benches were about 1 ft. 2 in. in height, and 2 ft. 4 in. in width, and it would appear that they may have been capable of accommodating about 5,000 males, chiefly of the middle classes; those of high rank sat on chairs in the orchestra, and the women occupied a gallery running round the top of the building over the corridor. All the benches as well as the orchestra seem to have been entirely covered with marble, of which, however, there are now but few vestiges. Like the Coliseum, and other ancient theatres, it was open at the top; but on the outside wall may still be seen the iron rings inserted to receive the masts supporting the awnings. Of the scene itself, enough remains to show that the three chief doors were situated in deep recesses, and that behind them was the postscenium. The smaller theatre, which communicates with that last mentioned, is built on the same plan, and similarly arranged, having had accommodation for about 1,500 spectators; but, unlike the other, it seems to have been permanently roofed. Its shape, also, is rather elliptical than semicircular. Close to the theatre is a large open space, supposed to have been soldiers' barracks; and near it is a Doric temple of Hercules, the oldest in the city, and said to have been erected at least 800 years B.C. The great amphitheatre occupies a large space at the E. angle of the town, quite separate, and at some distance from the rest of the excavations. Like other amphitheatres, it is oval-shaped, the extreme outside length being 430 ft., and its breadth 335 ft. The seats rise above each other in 24 successive rows, and must have accommodated upwards of 10,000 persons.

The baths, which occupy a space, not far from the Forum, of about 100 ft. sq., are interesting not so much from their size as from the simplicity of their construction, which makes their arrangements more intelligible than in the complicated buildings of this kind in Rome and elsewhere. As, however, it would be impossible without a diagram to give a satisfactory account even of those at Pompeii, we pass at once to the domestic architecture of the city, which, indeed, is one of its most interesting features. Mr. Maclaren closely examined about a dozen of the private houses, which, he says, are so different from those either of Britain or modern Italy, that it is not easy to comprehend the use of their several parts. Indeed, most of them are so dissipated that they could not be understood at all without the aid of Pliny and Vitruvius. "The present condition of the houses and shops resembles what we see in our tenements after the occurrence of a fire. The roof, upper floors, doors, and all the woodwork, have disappeared, the furniture has been carried off, and nothing remains but the half-dilapidated walls, the pavement of mosaic on the ground-floors, columns entire or in fragments, stone counters, and a few bulky or heavy articles of too small value to be worth removing. The apartments, however, have been carefully cleaned out; and not only the houses but the streets were completely free of foreign matter, except a thin covering of ashes and scorie, deposited by the recent eruption of Vesuvius, and which was easily removed by a besom or whisk of straw." The paintings, also, are still on the walls, and remarkably fresh. The house of Pansa, though not the largest, is better calculated than any other to convey to the reader an idea of a private town residence; and, taking this as a guide, we may remark that the houses generally consisted of a square or oblong enclosure surrounded by blind walls, the central court being open, and chambers formed round it, over which sheds (*compluria*) projected inwards, which discharged the rain water into a stone or marble basin (the *impluvium*), in the centre of the court. The larger houses, however, have a second court, with its corresponding *impluvium*, surrounded by columns; and hence, while the outer court is called simply *atrium*, the inner one (divided from it by a square apartment, called the *tablinum*, from being usually adorned with pictures and statues) is denominated the peristyle, and was devoted to the use of the family. Bed-rooms and parlours run round both courts, a garden extends some

way at the back of most of the houses, and the front entrance, in Pompeii at least, is by a passage 8 or 10 ft. wide. Paper, horn, mica, and even pretty thick glass, were pretty generally used; and in cold or hot weather awnings were commonly thrown over the impluvium; but no fire-places are seen in the houses, and, like those in modern Italy, they seem to have been wholly built for summer use. The exterior of the houses is generally of brick, covered with plaster, and formed into pannels: in the interior, also, the walls are coated with fine plaster, which serves as a ground for frescoes, which are found pretty abundantly in all parts of the larger houses throughout the town: and these paintings, if they do not equal other extant specimens of Roman art, are highly valuable for the light which they throw on the costumes, habits, and amusements of the ancient inhabitants. The shops, like those of Naples, seem to have been extremely small, scarcely exceeding 14 ft. square, and wholly open in front, with the exception of a low counter, being closed by shutters at night, somewhat in the same manner as the butchers' stalls and shops in England. Some of the implements of trade still remain, such as earthen jars, ovens, mills, cooking-pans, &c.; and we have reason to believe that the ancient inhabitants pretty well understood the division of trades. Most of the shops and other places of public entertainment, not excepting those belonging to the *Domus Libere*, had images or figures over the doors, serving, like the signs in modern towns, to indicate the profession or business of the occupant. The household furniture and domestic utensils found in the excavations both here and at Herculaneum have, with a few slight exceptions, been removed to the Museo Borbonico at Naples; and the number of articles of every kind and material is truly immense. "Among these," says Mr. Maclaren, "are several iron chairs, like our garden-chairs; braziers for burning charcoal or wood, keys and locks, metallic mirrors, pots and pans, glass bottles and drinking vessels, lamps of copper and earthenware, vases and urns, marble statues and bas-reliefs, ancient armour, seals, styles and inkstands, bells, moulds for bread and pastry, gilded plates for the table, scales and steelyards, spoons, ear-rings, and similar articles." The discovery of Pompeii has, in fact, thrown a strong and steady light on many points connected with the private life and economy of the ancients that were previously involved in the greatest obscurity. An acquaintance with its remains is indispensable to the classical student; and he cannot study them to more advantage than in the volumes already referred to in this article, or in the more elaborate and better illustrated works of Gell, Donaldson, David and Marchesi. (*Pompeii*, 3 vols. passim; *Gell's Pompeiiana and Illustrations*; *Macclaren's Notes of Pompeii*, Soc. of Useful Knowledge; *Maclaren's Notes*, pp. 99-132; *Lyell's Geol.*, U. 98-102.)

PONDICHERY (Fr. *Pondichéry*), a town of Hindostan, and the principal French settlement on the Asiatic continent; on the Coromandel coast, 63 m. S.S.W. Madras; lat. $11^{\circ} 57' N.$, long. $80^{\circ} 34' E.$ Pop. in 1835, 52,127, of whom 696 were Europeans. Standing on a flat sandy plain, near the shore, it has a very imposing appearance from the sea; and it is in reality a handsome regularly laid out town. The streets in the European quarter are of uniform breadth, built with remarkable regularity, and intersecting each other at right angles. The houses, which are of a good height, have flat terraced roofs, the walls being stuccoed white and yellow, and not intermixed with native huts. Nearly in the centre is a spacious square, laid out in walks, shaded by rows of trees, with the government house on the N. side, and open on the E. to the sea. The black, or native town, to the W. of the former, and separated from it by a canal, crossed by several bridges, is laid out with nearly the same regularity as the European town, though the houses are very inferior. Pondicherry was formerly strongly fortified; but the only portion of its works that now remains is an old brick tower, on which the flag is hoisted. The chief buildings are the government house, an edifice of a single story, adorned with columns, and surmounted by a ballustrade; the church, built by the Jesuits, and a good market-place. It has a college for Europeans, a school for the Indians, a botanic garden, and a government pawn-bank.

The French possessions in India, comprising Pondicherry, Chandernagore, Karikal in the Carnatic, Mahé in Malabar, and Yanam in Orissa, with the territory attached to each, have a total pop. of about 165,000, of whom 1,000 are whites. The territory attached to Pondicherry is considerably larger than the rest, and had, in 1835, 10,613 hectares under culture, producing 6,488,640 kilogr. rice, 6,734,000 kilogr. other grains, 6,900,000 cocoa nuts; with some betel, and a little indigo, tobacco, and cotton. The total value of the imports into these settlements, in the same year, amounted to 1,744,360 fr., and that of the exports to 5,399,610 fr. The trade is by far the greater part of which centres in Pondicherry, is chiefly with the rest of the Coromandel coast, Sumatra, the Isle de Bourbon, the Mauritius, and Senegal. The

governor of the French settlements in India is usually a peer of France, and resides at Pondicherry, where also is the royal court for these colonies, a tribunal of primary jurisdiction, police court, &c.

This town was purchased by the French from the Bejapoor sovereign, in 1672. It was successively taken by the British in 1761, 1776, 1793, and 1803; but was finally restored at the treaty of Paris, in 1815. (*Hugo's Official Reports*; *Hamilton's E. I. Ges.*, &c.)

PONT-A-MOUSSON, a town of France, dep. Meurthe, cap. canton, on the Moselle, by which it is intersected; 16 m. N. Nancy. Pop., in 1836, ex. com., 7,008. It derives its name from a bridge of 8 arches which here crosses the river, and led formerly to the old castle of Mousson, now in ruins, on an eminence E. of the town. It is surrounded by planted boulevards, and has several good edifices, including a Gothic church, built towards the end of the 12th century, a town-hall, St. Mary's Abbey, now converted into a seminary, large cavalry barracks, a good hospital, and a building termed the *Maison des Sept Pêches Capitales*, from its front being ornamented with old sculptures intended to represent the cardinal sins! This town has manufactures of coarse woollen stuff, printing-types, earthenware, tobacco-pipes, and beet-root sugar. (*Hugo, Guide du Voyageur*, &c.)

PONTECORVO, a town of S. Italy, the cap. of a detached territory, surrounded by the Neapolitan dom., but belonging to the Papal States, edifice. Fromozze; on the Garigliano, 20 m. S.E. Fromozze, and 37 m. N.W. Capua. Pop. about 5,500, chiefly occupied in agriculture. It has several churches and convents, and an old castle. Napoleon conferred on Marshal Bernadotte the title of Prince of Pontecorvo, which he enjoyed till he became king of Sweden. Near it are some considerable ruins, supposed to indicate the site of the ancient *Interamna ad Lirum*.

PONTE-DELGADA, a sea-port, and the largest and most populous city (though not the cap.) of the Azores, on the S. side of the island of St. Michael; lat. $37^{\circ} 41' 15'' N.$, long. $25^{\circ} 41' 15'' W.$ Pop., estimated at 22,000. Its appearance from the sea is far from picturesque, exhibiting a compact uniform mass of bright-looking buildings, backed by a few conical hills, some of which, however, are covered with a luxuriant vegetation. It had, when visited by Captain Bold, in 1831, 6 churches, 8 monasteries, and 4 convents; but the latter, which were celebrated alike for their artificial flowers made of birds' feathers, their sweetmeats, and the easy virtue of the vestals by which they were occupied, have since luckily been suppressed. The houses are substantial; but the streets are very ill-paved, and disgusting filthy. Its markets are abundantly supplied with fish, poultry, eggs, and vegetables of all sorts, including Spanish beans, yams, sweet and common potatoes, oranges, lemons, &c.; and every thing is remarkably cheap. When contrasted with the other towns in the Azores, it displays considerable wealth, activity, and industry. The exports consist of oranges, wines, brandy, roccella, &c. A mole has been constructed for the accommodation of the smaller class of vessels; but those of considerable burden have to anchor in an open roadstead. The town and harbour are situated on the W. by the castle and fort of St. Elizabeth, mounting 90 pieces of cannon, and on the E. by the forts San Pedro and Rosto de Cao. The governor of the islands St. Michael and St. Mary resides at Ponte Delgada. (*Bold's Azores*, 112-116; *Dict. Géog.*)

PONTEFRAC (vulgo *Pomfret*), a pari. and mun. bor., market-town and par. of England, W. riding co. York, upper div. wap. Osgoldcross, on a commanding eminence about 8 m. S.W. the Aire, 10 m. E. Wakefield, and 21 m. S.W. York. Pop. of pari. bor. (which includes, with the old bor., the extra par. dist. of Pontefract, the vicarage-precincts, and also the townships of Tanaholm, Monkhill, Knottingley, Ferrybridge, and Carleton), in 1831, 9,875. The town, which is well paved, and has been lighted with gas since 1832, is well-built, with open, spacious, and clean streets, lined by handsome houses, chiefly of brick, the principal thoroughfare running N.E. past the ruins of the old castle, at the N. end of the town. The principal public buildings are a modern-built town-hall, with an attached gaol, "now used only for debtors and prisoners under remand," and a court-house for the quarter sessions of the W. riding, a well-constructed market-house, &c. The par. church, originally built in the reign of Henry I., has subsequently been so altered, that little remains of the olden edifice: a more ancient, and once parochial church is now in ruins; but the tower at the intersection of the nave and transepts, is nearly entire, and is worthy, according to Rickman, of attentive examination. The living is a vicarage in the gift of the chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster. There are also places of worship for Rom. Catholics, Wesleyan and Primitive Methodists, Independents, and the Society of Friends.

A grammar school, founded in the reign of Edward VI. was revived and rechartered in 1793: it is 1 of 13 schools privileged to send candidates for Lady E. Hastings' ex-

hibitions at Queen's College, Oxford. Another charity-school for children of both sexes, endowed with 95*l.* a year, has been incorporated with a national school; and a neat building, formerly the theatre, has been converted into school-rooms capable of accommodating 400 children. The town has 4 Sunday schools, and 6 hospitals, or almshouses, of various foundations, furnishing lodging, clothing, and a small stipend to 53 aged people of both sexes. A subscription library, mechanics' library, and news-room have recently been formed; but the races, formerly held here in September, are now extinct.

"PONTFRAC is not a manufacturing, but a very substantial and respectable country town. A considerable trade is carried on in malt, which is said to be increasing. The corn-markets generally are also improving; but there does not appear any prospect of a material change taking place in the condition of the bor." (*Mun. Corp. Rep.*)

The neighbouring village of Ferrybridge within the bor. is on the Aire (crossed here by a stone bridge of three arches), and till recently enjoyed considerable advantages from its position on the Great North Road: it is now in a state of decay. The vicinity of Pontefract is famed for its gardens and nurseries, which furnish vegetables in great abundance for the markets of York, Leeds, Wakefield, Doncaster, &c. The deep loamy soil around it is also well adapted for the cultivation of liquorice (*glycyrrhiza glabra*), which is grown here in large quantities, and supplied extensively to London and other large towns. Filtering stones are quarried on the castle-hill, and are in great request in all parts of the kingdom. Pontefract received its charter of incorporation in 2 Richard III. Under the Municipal Reform Act, it is governed by a mayor and 3 other aldermen, with 12 councillors, having also a commission of the peace under a recorder. Corp. rev., in 1847-8, 305*l.* The bor. has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C., with some interruptions, since 23 Edw. I.; the right of voting down to the Reform Act having been in the inhab. householders within the bor. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 674. The spring quarter sessions for the W. riding are held here in Easter week. Markets on Saturday, and large fortnight fairs for cattle, besides eight other annual fairs.

The principal celebrity of Pontefract is owing to its castle, once of great extent, but now a mere ruin, its site having in a great measure been converted into garden-ground. It appears to have consisted of several towers, with intervening walls and other buildings, the round-tower, or donjon keep, having occupied an eminence at its W. extremity. It was finished in 1080. In the beginning of the 14th century it became, by marriage, the property of the Earls of Lancaster, and in the reign of Henry IV. was attacked with the rest of the duchy to the crown. For the space of many centuries it stood the ornament and terror of the surrounding country, till the civil wars of Charles I., when, after sustaining three successive and desperate sieges, it was finally taken by the parliamentary army in 1649, when it was unroofed and demolished by order of parliament. This castle has been the scene of various tragical events in English history. In the reign of Edward III., Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, was brought a prisoner here, and detained till the day of his execution. Richard II. was confined, and eventually murdered here; and in it, also, Anthony Woodville, Earl Rivers, Richard Lord Grey, Sir Thomas Vaughan, and Sir Richard Hawse, were put to death by order of Richard III., without even the form of a trial. (*Mun. and Bound. Rep.*; *Inspector of Prisons, 2d and 4th Reports.*)

PONTINE MARSHES. SEE ITALY.

PONTOISE (an. *Briève laire*), a town of France, dep. Seine-et-Oise, cap. arrond., on the Oise, where it is joined by the Viosne, 20 m. N. Versailles. Pop., in 1846, ex. comm., 4,503. It stands upon an abrupt rocky hill, and was formerly surrounded with walls, portis which still exist. The greater part of the town is tolerably well built and paved, but has no building of importance except a new and good hospital. The rivers here turn numerous flour-mills; and in addition to these Pontoise has iron and copper works, tanneries, and manufactures of watches, jewellery, cotton yarn, &c. It was frequently taken and retaken in the wars between England and France; and the parliament of Paris sat here several times during the 17th and 18th centuries. (*Dict. Geog. &c.*)

PONT-ST. ESPRIT, a town of France, dep. Gard, cap. cant., on the Rhodé, 31 m. N.N.E. Nîmes. Pop., in 1836, 4,160. It derives its name from its famous bridge over the river, constructed between 1255 and 1300, 875 yards in length; it has 23 arches, but is only about 12 ft. in breadth. It is kept in perfect repair, and has of late been made practicable for carriages. The town, which is ill-built, with narrow, winding streets, has a small port on the Rhodé, and a considerable traffic in corn, wine, oil, and silk. (*Hugo, &c.*)

PONTYPOOL (corrupted from *Pont ap Howell*), a market-town and township of England, par. Trevechin, hund. Abergavenny, co. Monmouth, 154 m. S.W. Monmouth, and 125 m. W. by N. London. Area of par. and

township, 10,460 acres. Pop. in 1841, 14,542. The town, occupying the side of a steep hill, near a rivulet trib. to the Usk, and nearly surrounded on all sides by mountains, is large and straggling, with two principal streets, lined with neat houses and numerous shops. The church, on an eminence near the town, has an embattled square tower; and there are two chapels of ease, besides places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists and Independents, with attached Sunday-schools.

Pontypool was formerly celebrated for its manufacture of japanned goods, introduced by Thomas Allgood, their inventor, in the reign of Charles II.; but this branch of industry has greatly declined, owing to the successful competition of Birmingham, which now nearly monopolises the trade. Its present importance is derived from the iron and tin mines in the surrounding district, chiefly belonging to Capel Hanbury Leigh, Esq., and from the iron-works, situated a little S.W. from the town, and conducted upon a very large scale. It is connected partly by railway and partly by canal with Newport, its shipping-place for the produce of the mines. Petty sessions for the hund. are held here. Markets, on Saturday, and cattle fairs on the last Monday of each month, besides others, April 22, July 6., and Oct. 16.

Pontypool Park, the seat of the Hanbury family, is at a short distance N.E. the town; it is finely wooded with oak and other forest trees; and the house, on a perpendicular cliff above the Avon-Livvy, commands a fine view of the surrounding country. (*Nicholson's Cambrian Guide, &c.*)

POOLE, a parl. and mun. bor., sea-port, market-town, and par. of England, and a co. of itself, with separate jurisdiction, on a peninsula on the N. side of the extensive and almost landlocked harbour, whence it derives its name, 20 m. E. Dorchester, and 97 m. W.S.W. London. Pop. of parl. bor., which includes, with the old bor., small portions of pars. of Camford and Hamworthy, in 1841, 8,449. The town consists of several streets intersecting each other at different angles, the principal running in a N.E. direction through the market-place, in which is the town-hall, a convenient building, with attached shambles. The modern houses are generally substantial, and regularly built; but the older parts of the town have a mean, shabby appearance. The church is of modern erection, and there is a chapel of ease, both livings being in the gift of the parishioners. The Wesleyan Methodists and Independents have their respective places of worship, and the town has 4 Sunday-schools, a free grammar-school, several charity schools, and 2 or 3 well-endowed almshouses. There is a small gaol, and the par. workhouse has lately been formed into a union with 7 other pars., the expense of supporting the poor of this par. having been 2,631*l.* in 1839. "The whole town, with its inhabs. and trade, may be described as in a prosperous and increasing state. Several vessels from the port are engaged in the Newfoundland fisheries; besides which it has a large and increasing coasting-trade, the exports being principally Purbeck clay (for the Staffordshire potteries) in exchange for coal." (*Parl. Bound. Rep.*) The port has also a considerable foreign trade: there belonged to it in January, 1850, 126 ships, of the aggregate burden of 15,062 tons. Gross customs duty, in 1846, 8,856*l.* The entrance to Poole harbour, about 4 m. in width, has a shifting bar, over which there are seldom more than 15 ft., even at high water. Vessels drawing 14 ft. water may, however, come up to the quays. "It is a considerable and singular advantage to Poole harbour, that the tide ebbs and flows twice in 12 hours. It first flows regularly 6 hours, and ebbs for 14 hours; it then flows for 14 hours, and ebbs during the remaining 3 hours. The second flood seems to arise from the peculiar situation of the entrance; for, being in a bay facing the E., the tide of ebb from between the Isle of Wight and the main, falls into that bay, forcing its way so as to raise the water for 14 hours, at which period the water without the bar, by its falling to a lower level than that within, produces a second ebb till low water." (*Purdy's Sailing Directions for the English Channel*, p. 29.)

Near the mouth of the harbour is a bank, from which large quantities of oysters are taken, to be fattened in the creeks of Essex and Kent.

Poole, which claims to be a bor. by prescription, has received several new charters, the principal being in the 10 Eliz. Under the Mun. Reform Act, it is divided into two wards, and is governed by a mayor, 5 other aldermen, and 18 councillors. Corp. rev., in 1848-9, 1,653*l.* The bor. has returned 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the reign of Edward III., the right of election down to the Reform Act being in the members of the corporation, resident and non-resident. The electoral limits were enlarged at an above mentioned by the Boundary Act; and in 1849-50, it had 498 reg. electors. Markets on Monday and Thursday; fairs, May 1. and Nov. 2.

PQONAH, a distr. of British India, presid. Bombay, principally between the 17th and 19th degs. of N. lat., and the 74th and 76th of E. long.; having N. Ahmed-

nuggur, W. the Concan, S. the Sattarah dom., and E. those of the Nizam. Area, 8,281 sq. m. Pop. about 556,000. The face of the country is mountainous and irregular, but interspersed with many fertile and well-watered valleys. The climate is good and invigorating, and more suitable to Europeans than most parts of India. A good deal of the surface consists of the black and red cotton soils common in the S. of India: rice grounds comprise about 1-16th part of the land in cultivation, and gardens about 1-10th. The land is assessed on the village system: land revenue, in 1877-8, 15,16,323 rupees. Poonah is the only city; but there are several other considerable towns, at which coarse woollen, cotton, and silk fabrics, and metallic ornaments, are made. The celebrated cave-temples of Carlee, and several places of Hindoo pilgrimage, are in this district. (*Parl. Reports; Hamilton's E. I. Geog.*)

POONAH, a city of British India, presid. Bombay, formerly the cap. of the Mahratta dom., but now the cap. of the above distr., on the Moolla, a tributary of the Beemah, 80 m. E.S.E. Bombay. Lat. 18° 30' N.; long. 74° 29' E. Pop. estimated at about 110,000. It stands in an extensive and bare plain, about 2,000 ft. above the sea, at the foot of a small insulated hill, crowned with a pagoda. It is without walls, and can neither lay claim to antiquity nor beauty; it is very irregularly built and paved, with mean bazaars, deep ruinous streets, and no large or striking edifices. Heber says, "that it has as few evidences as can well be conceived of its having been, till lately, the residence of a powerful sovereign." But according to Hamilton, "its principal street is wide and handsome; and the mixture of rude paintings, in illustration of mythological legends, with the carved frame-work of dark-coloured wood, gives the fronts of the houses a fantastic and cheerful appearance." The principal palace is surrounded by high and thick walls, with four round towers, and is entered through a pointed archway. There are several other palaces, but they are small and insignificant. A little west of the city is the British cantonment, on an elevated site, with wide streets, a spacious church, a good station-library for the soldiers, and another library for the officers, and regional schools, supported by subscription. This city has a Hindoo college, established in 1821, for 100 students, with classes for Hindoo divinity, medicine, metaphysics, mathematics, and astronomy, law, logic, rhetoric, grammar, &c., which costs 15,250 rupees a year. Poonah is the residence of the British collector and judge for the distr., and has a well conducted distr. jail, several British schools, a Rom. Catholic church, &c. East of the city is an excavated temple, apparently dedicated to Siva. Poonah is first noticed in history early in the 17th century; but it did not become the permanent residence of the Mahratta sovereign till the middle of the 18th century. It came into our possession in 1818. (*Hamilton; Heber, in Mod. Trav., &c.*)

POPAYAN, a city of Colombia, cap. of the gov. of Cauca, New Granada, on an extensive table-land, nearly 6,000 ft. above the sea, having the Cauca River, about a league distant, on the N., and a mountain named M., from its resemblance to that letter, on the E.; 230 m. S.W. Bogota, and 235 m. N.E. Quito; lat. 2° 28' 38" N., long. 76° 31' 30" W. Pop. estimated at 25,000. Like most other Spanish-American cities, it is laid out on a perfectly regular plan, its broad streets being bordered with stone footways. The houses have for the most part only one story, and are usually built of unburnt brick; but, according to Mollin, some of them would not discredit a European capital; and that traveller would have preferred this to most South American cities, had it not been that the myriads of disgusting insects rendered a residence in it all but intolerable. It has several squares, one of which is spacious and handsome; several and other churches; and a numerous conventual building, some of which are now converted into barracks, or appropriated to other uses, and was formerly the seat of a royal mint and of a tribunal of finance. Two bridges are thrown across the Molina, a tributary of the Cauca, which runs rapidly through the city, and drains it of its filth. Popayan is principally inhabited by Negroes and Mulattoes, the number of whom, a few years since, was double that of the whites. It was formerly the *entrepôt* of the trade between Bogota and Quito, and had a large traffic in the precious metals; but the revolution, by turning the trade into other channels, gave a blow to its prosperity, from which it has not hitherto recovered. It has still, however, some trade in woollen stuffs, salt, flour, sugar, cocoa, &c.; and its markets are always well supplied with provisions. Popayan was the first city built by Europeans in this part of the New World, having been founded by Benalcazar in 1537. A considerable portion of the city was destroyed by an earthquake in 1827. (*Geog. Account of Colombia; Mollin, in Mod. Trav., &c.*)

POPERINGEN, or POPERINGHE, a town of Belgium, prov. W. Flanders, cap. cant., on the Schipvaert

PORT-GLASGOW.

canal, near the French frontier, 7 m. W. by N. Ypres. Pop. about 9,000. It has several churches, a handsome town-hall and college, some rather extensive woollen manufactures, with oil-mills, &c. It has also a considerable trade in hops. It sends, along with Thielt, 3 mems. to the States of the prov. (*De Cloet; Dict. Géog.*)

PORT-GLASGOW, a parl. bor. and sea-port town of Scotland, co. Renfrew, on the S. side of the Frith of Clyde, 16 m. W.N.W. Glasgow, and 2 m. E. Greenock. On the W. the town is flanked by a steep range of hills, about 400 ft. in height; and is, in fact, so much overshadowed by these hills, that the rays of the sun do not reach it for about 6 weeks in winter. Pop., in 1790, 4,046; in 1841, 6,943. The town is neat and regular; the streets, which are straight, for the most part cross each other at right angles; while the houses, which are generally lofty and substantial, have a pretty uniform appearance. The only modern buildings worth notice are the town-house, and par. church. The latter is ornamented in front with a portico, resting on 4 massive fluted pillars, and is surmounted with a handsome spire, rising from the centre. In addition to the par. church, there is a good secular chapel belonging to the establishment, and a chapel in connexion with the Associate Synod. There are 8 schools, one of which is parochial; and another an endowed seminary, called Beaton's School, from the name of its founder. There are 3 public libraries, and a reading-room. A legal assessment for the support of the poor has been introduced, and amounted in 1847 to 917*l.* ex. voluntary contributions. A savings' bank, under the designation of the Provident Bank, has existed here since 1818; and there are various friendly societies.

Two sugar-refining houses employ about 80 men; and a rope-manufactory about 45. But the most important branches of business are ship-building, and the manufacture of canvas for sail-cloth and coarse linen fabrics. The former gives employment to a large number of men, ex. apprentices; wages 1*l.* or 1*l.* 1*s.* a week. The building of steam-boats, some of them of the largest class, is extensively carried on. A flax mill employs about 400 hands.

Port-Glasgow, as every one knows, was the sea-port or deep-water harbour of the city of Glasgow; and was long regarded as a mere dependency of the latter. It has two capacious harbours, furnished with ample quay and shed room, together with a graving dock, the oldest in Scotland. A large and commodious wet-dock has been constructed. Formerly the trade of this place was almost entirely carried on in ships belonging to merchants resident in Glasgow. Of late years, however, the people of Port-Glasgow have themselves become ship-owners, and at present the greater part of the shipping belonging to the port, amounting in all on the 1st January, 1850, to 12,217 tons, ex. some small steamers, is owned by residents in the town. It is the principal port on the Clyde for the importation of N. American timber, the quantity imported having varied during the last 15 years, from 16,000 to 30,000 tons a year. Owing to the great improvements that have recently been effected in the navigation of the Clyde, the greater part of the trade belonging to Glasgow that formerly centred in this port, has been transferred to the former. The town, consequently, is not improving. The tonnage belonging to the port engaged in foreign trade has ranged, for several years back, at about 10,000 tons; but the customs' revenue has very materially decreased; a consequence of a large proportion of the goods formerly warehoused here being now carried direct to Glasgow. Thus, the customs' revenue which, in 1830, amounted to 243,349*l.*, had sunk, in 1849, to 139,392*l.* More than half the trade of the port is with the British N. American possessions; about a fourth with the W. Indies; and the remainder with the E. Indies, the Mediterranean, and the U. States. There is now little coasting trade between the town and Glasgow; but the numerous steam-boats that navigate the Clyde, except those that ply to comparatively distant ports, touch here in passing and re-passing.

The Glasgow, Paisley, and Greenock Railway, passes close on the W. of Port Glasgow. We have already seen (Vol. I. 907.) that the magistrates of Glasgow, in order to provide a deep-water port for their city, purchased, in 1662, the ground on which Port-Glasgow stands, and laid the foundations of the town and harbour. The town supports three branch banks. The intercourse between Glasgow and its newly acquired port was at first carried on principally by land; but the improvements effected in the Clyde navigation have been such as to make Glasgow all but independent of this or any other port, except its own. The ruins of the castle of Newark, which originally formed the seat of the proprietor of the estate on which Port-Glasgow is built, stands on the shore, immediately contiguous to the town on the E. In 1790, it was created a barony, and a municipal constitution was conferred on it. The Reform Act united it with Renfrew, Rutherglen,

Jenabton, and Kilmarrock. In sending I mem. to the 1. of C. Registered voters. In 1849-50, 184. Municipal election, 1848-9, 8,0614. (Vide the article GLASGOW, in his work; *New Stat. Account of Scotland, & Revenue Reports*, pp. 63-74; *Bound. Reports; Factory Returns, &c.*)

PORT JACKSON. See SYDNEY.

PORT LOUIS. See MAURITIUS.

PORT MAHON, a sea-port of the island of Minorca, which see.

PORT-PATRICK, a sea-port town of Scotland, co. Argyll, on a gentle declivity on the E. coast of the Firth of Clyde; bounded on the land side by hills which suddenly rise, in a romantic semicircular form, to the height of 200 or 300 ft.; 109 m. S.W. Edinburgh, and 11 m. N.E. Donaghadee, Ireland. Pop., in 1791, 512; in 1841, 996, of whom about a third are Irish, or of Irish descent.

The principal street is in the form of a crescent, parallel to the bay; and there are 3 smaller streets connected with it, stretching at right angles towards the hills. The houses are, in general, well built, comfortable, and adorned with a garden. With the exception of the parish church, erected in 1839, and of a free church, there are no public buildings, nor any other places of public worship, though there are dissenters of all kinds in the town and ar. Education is at a low ebb; lower, perhaps, than in any other place of similar size in Scotland. There is a small parish library; and a still smaller one connected with the Sunday-school. There are no manufactures; and the cod fishery is carried on to some extent.

Government steam-packets, in the service of the post-office, used to ply between Portpatrick and Donaghadee. The shortness of the passage from the latter makes Portpatrick, previously to the introduction of steam navigation, a principal port of entry, not merely for passengers coming from Ireland to Britain, but also for cattle exported from the former to the latter. But after a direct communication by means of steamers had been established between Ireland and Holyhead, Glasgow, Liverpool, Bristol, &c., the passage by Portpatrick was all but wholly abandoned. Even the trade in cattle fell off to almost nothing. Thus, while about 30,000 horses and asses were imported into Portpatrick in 1812, only 1,087 were imported in 1837, and the numbers have since declined.

Formerly the harbour of Portpatrick was a mere inlet between two ridges of rocks, and was one of the worst and most dangerous on the W. of Scotland. Whenever a vessel approached the harbour, the inhabs. assembled to draw her to the beach, there being no quay or creek to afford shelter from the waves. But a quay and reflecting light-house were built about 60 years ago; and it having been determined to make the place a steam-packet station, a new harbour has been constructed, protected by two piers, curved to resemble a horseshoe, and furnished with jetties near their extremities, by which the entrance is contracted to 180 ft.; the area of the basin thus formed being about 7 acres. In accomplishing this great work, rock to an immense extent required to be excavated, which was effected by means of puddle-dikes and the diving-bell. The original estimate was 120,000*l.*; but the total expense exceeded 300,000*l.* After all, however, the entrance to the harbour is very difficult in rough weather; and in truth Portpatrick should not be selected as a packet station. Latterly, indeed, has been found necessary to abandon it; and the mails on the N. of Ireland for Scotland, which formerly were received here, are now forwarded to Greenock, on the Clyde. Portpatrick has still, however, a few coasting-vessels and an inconsiderable trade.

Portpatrick was long resorted to as the Gretna Green of Ireland, and was celebrated for its run-away, or regular marriages. The lowest sum charged was 10*l.*, payable to the parochial clergyman, who performed the marriage ceremony, and 1*l.* to the session clerk. The custom was abandoned in 1826, owing to the interference of the church courts; but in the records of these marriages during the preceding period of 50 years, there are the names of 196 gentlemen, 15 officers of the army, and 13 noblemen. (*New Stat. Acc. of Scotland, Wicklow-shire*, p. 129-161; and *Priv. Inform.*)

PORT-AU-PRINCE, now called PORT-REPUBLICAIN, a city, and sea-port, and the modern cap. of the pub. of Hayti, on the W. coast of the island, at the foot of the Bay of Gonaves, 90 m. S. Cape Haytien, 416 m. W. St. Domingo; lat. 18° 32' 42" N., long. 72° 11' W. Pop. variously estimated, probably from 10,000 to 30,000. It is partially fortified on the land side, the harbour is protected by a battery on a small island near the shore. The streets are laid out with great precision, crossing each other at nearly right angles; but the town is irregularly built; the houses are principally wood, and as they seldom exceed 2 stories in height, give a paltry appearance. Except the palace, which is a fine building, with a handsome flight of steps leading to good reception rooms, there are no public buildings of any importance. The arsenal, church, mint, lyceum,

military hospital, and courts of law, are all insignificant. The adjacent country is low and marshy; and the heat in the summer months being excessive, the climate is then exceedingly unhealthy. The entrance to the harbour is between White Island and the S. shore. The depth of water varies from about 18 ft. at ebb, to 20 ft. at full tide. It is customary, but not compulsory, to employ a pilot in entering the harbour. Ships moor head and stern at from 100 to 500 yards from shore; loading and unloading by means of boats, as there are neither docks nor quays to facilitate these operations. The harbour is perfectly safe, except during hurricanes, which may be expected from Aug. to Nov. The markets are tolerably well supplied with beef, mutton, fowl, fruit, and vegetables; but the supply of fish is uncertain; and such is the indolence of the inhabs. and their neglect of the most obvious resources, that though turtle abound in the bay, they are rarely found in the markets.

Port-au-Prince is the seat of government, the supreme court of justice, court of session, a tribunal of original jurisdiction, &c. It is also the residence of the principal foreign consuls in Hayti, and the grand entrepot of the commerce of the island, which, however, is trifling, compared to what it was previously to the commencement of the disturbances and atrocities that devastated this fine colony. (See HAYTI.) It is of late origin, having been founded in 1749. It is very subject to earthquakes, by one of which it was nearly destroyed in 1770. (*Machene's Notes on Hayti*, 1. 5-26; *Encyc. Amer.*; *Comm. Dict.*)

PORT-ROYAL, a town and sea-port, and formerly the commercial cap. of Jamaica, at the extremity of a narrow point of land, bounding Kingston to the S. and E., about 8 m. S.W. Kingston. It formerly had 2,000 houses, and was handsomely built; but having been in great part destroyed by an earthquake in 1692, and having subsequently suffered severely by fires and hurricanes, its public offices were transferred to Kingston, and it is now insignificant as a town. It is still, however, strongly fortified, and is the seat of the royal navy yard, the naval hospital, and of some regimental barracks.

PORTARLINGTON, a pari. bor. and inland town of Ireland, prov. Leinster, on the Barrow, which divides it into two portions, the larger of which is in Queen's, and the smaller in King's co., 40 m. S.W. by W. Dublin. Area of pari. bor., 460 acres; pop. of ditto, in 1841, 3,106. It consists principally of a single street, nearly 2 m. in length, extending on both sides the river, which is here crossed by 3 stone bridges. This is, perhaps, the best-built, and cleanest country town in Ireland. Few towns of its size have so respectable an appearance, which arises, not from its trade or manufactures, for of these it has none beyond the retail trade consequent on its pop., but from the unusual number of its resident gentry. (*Mem. Bound. Reports*.) A considerable part, perhaps, of the distinguishing features of this town may be ascribed to the fact of a colony of French Protestant refugees having been settled in it by William III. It has two churches, in one of which, frequented by the refugees and their descendants, divine service was performed in the French language within the course of the present century. It has, also, 3 Rom. Cath. chapels, a Methodist meeting-house, a market-house, and a dispensary. The schools belonging to this town have long enjoyed a high reputation, especially those for French; and in them two of the most illustrious individuals of whom Ireland has had to boast, the Duke of Wellington, and his brother the Marquis Wellesley, received the rudiments of their education. Under a charter of Charles II., in 1667, the corporation consisted of a sovereign, 3 portreeves, 12 burgesses, and a commonalty; but this body was dissolved by the Irish Municipal Act. The bor. returned 2 members to the Irish H. of Commons to the Union, since which it has returned 1 mem. to the Imperial H. of C. Registered electors in 1849-50, 158. An obelisk on a hill adjoining the town commands an extensive prospect. Manor courts and petty sessions are held here; and it has two constabulary stations, one in the portion of the town in each county. Markets on Wednesdays and Saturdays; fairs on 5th Jan., 1st March, Easter Monday, 22d May, 4th July, 1st Sep., 12th Oct., and 22d Nov. The town, with an extensive surrounding district, was granted, in the reign of Charles II., to Lord Arlington (Sir H. Bennett; the Eliab of Dryden's Absalom and Achitophel), one of the famous CABAL. The town, which was previously called Cultydro, took the name of its new owner, the prefix Port being given to it in consequence of its having a small landing-place on the Barrow. Lord Arlington, however, soon afterwards sold the property; and, after passing through various hands, it was acquired by Mr. Dawson, an ancestor of the present Earl of Portarlington. Emo House, the residence of this noble family, is about 4 m. S. from the town. (*Mem. & Earl. Boundary Reports; Fraser's Guide to Ireland, &c.*)

PORTLAND, a city and port of entry in the U. States,

State Maine, of which, till 1832, it was the cap.; on a peninsula in Casco Bay, 60 m. S. S. W. Augusta, and 80 m. N. N. E. Portsmouth; lat. (observatory) $49^{\circ} 30' N.$, long. $70^{\circ} 30' W.$ Pop. in 1848, 19,013. It is the largest town in the state, and is well built and laid out, having numerous churches, an elegant court-house, market, arms and custom houses, an Athenaeum with a good library, and several banks. The harbour has deep water, is safe and capacious, and is never frozen, except for a few days in the coldest winters. Its entrance is marked by a lighthouse, 70 ft. in height, on Cape Elizabeth, 3 m. S. by E. from the town. The town and harbour are protected by two forts. The inhabs. of Portland carry on an extensive coasting and foreign trade, and have a considerable share in the fisheries. In 1849, the aggregate burden of the shipping belonging to the port amounted to 84,869 tons. There are numerous schools for children of either sex. The city was incorporated in 1786. (*Encyc. Amer.*; *Blair's Amer. Coast Pilot*, &c.)

PORTLAND (ISLE OF), a noted and almost insulated headland, on the S. coast of England, co. Dorset. It stretches lengthwise from N. to S. about 5 m., being concave on its W. and convex on its E. side. Where widest it is nearly 3 m. across; area 2,970 acres. Pop. in 1841, 2,852. It consists of a vast mass of freestone, rising in its highest point to about 450 ft. above the level of the sea. Its quarries, which have long been famous, have furnished the stone used in the building of St. Paul's and many other edifices. It has a village, several hamlets, a prison for convicts, with churches, schools, and two old castles. It is well watered, and the soil, though in most parts thin and light, is fertile, yielding fine herbage, with wheat and other grain, but not in sufficient quantities for the supply of the inhabs. The custom of gavelkind prevails in the island. Near its S. extremity, denominated "Portland Bill," in lat. $50^{\circ} 31' 22'' N.$, long. $9^{\circ} 36' 49'' W.$, are 2 lighthouses with fixed lights, elevated 198 ft. above high water. The "Race of Portland" lies to the S. of the Bill. It is a rippling of the water, occasioned by the ruggedness of the ground, which impedes and breaks the course of the tide. At springs it is rather dangerous, at least for small loaded vessels. In the angle between the N. coast of the island and the opposite shore of the mainland, is Portland or Weymouth Roads, where there is excellent anchorage, with W. or N. winds, for the largest ships. But gales from the S.S.W., S.E., and E., throw in a very heavy sea; and to protect the Roads from their influence, a gigantic breakwater is now being constructed, for a notice of which see WEYMOUTH. The sea is perpetually encroaching on this island; and in 1665, 1761, and 1792, portions of the cliffs and of the land, having been undermined, fell into the sea, and sunk to a lower level. The Isle of Portland has recently been made a depot for convicts, who are employed on the breakwater. (*Hutchin's Dorset*, ii. 324, 2nd edit.; *Norie's Sailing Directions for the English Channel*; *Lyell's Geology*, i. 416, 3rd ed.; and *Portl. Papers*.)

PORTO-BELLO, a famous sea-port and town of Colombia, on the Caribbean Sea, on the N. side of the Isthmus uniting the two great continents of N. and S. America, at the point where it is less than 40 m. across; lat. $10^{\circ} 34' 39'' N.$, long. $79^{\circ} 43' 35'' W.$ The town was now greatly fallen off, is built along the shore, at the foot of a mountain range which surrounds and shelters the harbour. But this barrier, at the same time that it protects the port, prevents the circulation of the air, and, combined with the heavy periodical rains, the influence of the surrounding forests, and the excessive heat, renders this locality a favourite seat of yellow fever, and one of the most unhealthy places in the world. Owing, however, to the excellence of its port, which is one of the finest that can be imagined, and its contiguity to Panama, on the opposite side of the Isthmus, it was, in a lengthened period, an important commercial entrepôt. Down to 1740, the galleons from Old Spain, with merchandise for the Spanish Main, Peru, and the W. coast of America, used to rendezvous at Porto-Bello, about the same time that the Peru fleet arrived at Panama, the gold and silver, and other produce brought by the latter, being conveyed across the Isthmus by means of oxen, and conversely. As soon as the galleons had unloaded, and the merchandise from Panama had arrived, a fair was held, which was attended by a great concourse of strangers, and when a great deal of business was transacted. But in 1740 the galleons ceased to resort to Porto-Bello, the commerce with Peru and W. America having been since carried on direct by vessels that sailed round Cape Horn. In consequence, the importance of Porto-Bello rapidly declined; and the advantages of its port not being sufficient to counteract the unhealthiness of its climate, it is now comparatively deserted. But should the project for effecting a communication across the Isthmus, by canal or railway, take effect, it is probable that Porto-Bello may recover some portion of its former importance. The climate is said to have been improved by an opening made in the mountains that

encircle the town, and by the cutting down of a portion of the adjacent forests. (See PANAMA.)

Notwithstanding Porto-Bello was formerly very strongly fortified, it was taken, with little loss, by Admiral Vernon in 1739. The importance of this exploit, and the abilities of the admiral, were, at the time, much overrated; and it was supposed that if he were furnished with an adequate force he would have little difficulty in reducing all the Spanish settlements in this quarter. But the events that took place during the next two years, and especially the failure of the attack on Cartagena, undeceived the public.

Porto-Bello was discovered, in 1502, by Columbus, its name being derived from the excellence of its harbour. (*Alcedo's Dictionary*; *Geog. Account of Colombia*, i. 308; *Amoeller's Hist. of England*, cap. 18, &c.)

PORTOBELLO, a pari. bor. and sea-port of Scotland, co. Mid Lothian, in a plain on the S. bank of the Frith of Forth, 3 m. E. Edinburgh. Pop. in 1841, 3,693; but in summer its pop., owing to the influx of visitors from Edinburgh, is much larger. It has no public buildings, except a chapel of ease attached to the establishment, a Free Church, and chapels belonging to the Episcopalians, Independents, and Relief. The main street lies along the line of the public road running E. and W.; a number of cross streets diverge from it, leading down to the sea beach, or stretching in the opposite direction. Some of these consist of lines of detached villas. Separate villas, also, abound throughout the town, some of them fronting the sea. No fixed plan has been observed in laying out the town, which has a straggling appearance, and some of the older parts are very mean.

Adjacent to Portobello is the village of Joppa, now almost a part of it. There is no harbour at either place. There are manufactories of bricks, tiles, earthenware, glass, and crystal. Fire-clay abounds on the E. point of Joppa, where fire-bricks are manufactured to a considerable extent. A branch bank has been established in Portobello. It is estimated that the average number of visitors for sea-bathing in the town, from May to October, amounts to 500 or 600. And, owing to the salubrity of its situation, many families resort to it as an eligible permanent residence.

Portobello derives its name from the first house having been built by an individual who had been with Admiral Vernon, in 1739, at "Portobello." The Reform Act united it with Leith and Musselburgh in sending 1 member to the H. of C. Registered electors in 1849-50, 250. Municipal councillors, 9.

PORTO FERRAJO, a sea-port and the principal town of the island of Elba, which see.

PORTO-RICO (Span. *Puerto Rico*), one of the W. India islands belonging to Spain, being the smallest and most E. of the Greater Antilles; chiefly between lat. $17^{\circ} 56'$ and $18^{\circ} 30' N.$, and long. $65^{\circ} 40'$ and $67^{\circ} 28' W.$; having N. the Atlantic, and S. the Caribbean Sea, separated on the E. from the Virgin Islands by the Virgin Passage, and from Hayti on the W. by Mona Passage, 80 m. across. Its shape is that of a parallelogram, the length E. to W. being about 100 m., and the breadth about 28 m., or 2,700 sq. m. Under the old colonial system of Spain, in 1788, the pop. did not exceed 50,000, whereas it amounted, in 1836, according to the official returns, to 357,086, of whom only 41,818 were slaves; and it is now (1850) probably little, if at all, short of 500,000 or 530,000. A mountain chain runs E. and W. through the centre of the island; the highest summit of which, at the N. E. extremity, is about 3,000 ft. in height. Numerous rivers have their sources in this chain, flowing on either side to the sea, some of which are navigable for 2 or 3 leagues from their mouth, for schooners and coasting vessels. The coast line is indented with numerous bays and creeks, some of which form excellent harbours for ships of large burden. The surface, which is finely diversified, is well watered, and the soil is generally rich and fertile. The climate is supposed to be less unhealthy, and better adapted to Europeans, than in most of the Antilles; it differs widely, however, in different parts; the N. coast being especially subject to heavy rains, and the S. to droughts. Violent hurricanes often do immense damage. Porto-Rico is singularly destitute of wild animals. There are almost no indigenous quadrupeds; and scarcely any of the feathered tribe are to be found in the forests. The birds are few both in number and species; you may travel whole leagues without seeing a bird or even hearing their chirp. On the rivers there are a few water-fowl, and in the forests the green parrot. Almost every other island in the W. Indies is infested by snakes, and other noxious reptiles. There are none. But rats of an enormous size, and in great numbers, ravage the country, and sometimes commit dreadful ravages on the sugar-canes; and although continually persecuted, their numbers do not decrease. (*Pickers's Puerto-Rico*, 53.)

The resources of Porto-Rico are wholly agricultural; no manufactures exist, nor have any mines of gold or

silver, or other mineral products, been hitherto explored. According to an official return the lands under the different species of culture in 1830, and their produce were as follows:—

Articles of Culture.	Area in Culture.	Produce.
Sugar-cane	14,805	Sugar (masc.) 414,660 cwt.
Plantains	30,780	Molasses 1,307,760 lbs.
Maize	16,194	Rum 12,165 buckets.
Rice	14,356	Plantains 617,825 loads.
Tobacco	2,389	Maize 65,750 bushels.
Manioc	1,120	Tobacco (cured) 24,640 cwt.
Yucca potatoes	2,925	Cassava bread 30,419 loads.
Yams	6,988	Sweet potatoes 29,570 cwt.
Pulse	1,100	Yams 7,626
Coffee	16,928	Coffee 4,270 —
Cotton	3,079	Cotton 250,000 —
Fruit-trees and gardens	140	
Total acres in culture	109,587	

But during the last 20 years there has been a great increase of pop., and consequently, also, of production. Many thousand acres of land have been cleared and brought under tillage; and a very great increase has taken place of the staple products of the island. Indeed, it will be seen from the account of the exports in 1847 and 1848, that the sugar and molasses exported in the course of those years more than doubled the entire quantity grown in 1830. Indeed, we have little doubt, supposing the previous return to be nearly accurate, that the lands under cultivation in Porto-Rico may at present (1850) be estimated at about 300,000 acres.

In 1828, 1,437,285 acres of land were held by 19,140 proprietors, giving to each, at an average, 75½ acres. At the same time 423 individuals were proprietors of estates regularly established with slaves; 975 being sugar-estates, and 148 coffee-plantations. The remaining 17,440 proprietors bred cattle, and raised provisions and small quantities of coffee. In consequence of the small capital equipt, the labors, formerly applied themselves almost exclusively to the latter branches of industry: so much so was this the case, that at the commencement of the present century, there were but 29 sugar estates on the island; and in 1809 the total value of the exports did not exceed 37,500 dollars. At present, however, the case is widely different; the commerce of the island is generally occupied with sugar-plantations, and in 1847 the exports of sugar amounted to no less than 930,150 cwt., or 46,500 tons. But, with the exception of the S. coast, most parts of the island exhibit a promiscuous cultivation, plantations of sugar being intermixed with those of coffee, and with field-rice, maize, plantains, tobacco, and pasture. Artificial irrigation is no where practised; but notwithstanding the drought which prevails in the S., plenty of water for the cane is found at about 2 ft. below the surface. The average produce of sugar per acre, for the whole of Porto-Rico, is estimated by Flinter at 30 cwt., being more than double the quantity raised on the best lands in the most favoured of the British Antilles! (Puerto-Rico, 180.) The coffee is of a peculiarly good quality, much care being taken in plucking and preparing it. The trees, which mostly belong to small proprietors, grow to a great height, and sometimes yield from 20 to 50 lbs. each. Every poor family has 20 or 30 trees; and even in the woods trees are to be found in a wild state, laden with coffee. The free labourers at the harvest one into the market, come with 30 lbs. others with 40 wt., and so on, being the surplus of their little crops, after leaving enough for the use of their families for the season. This they sell to the merchants, to purchase articles of clothing. The plant on the large estates, cultivated by slaves, is pruned and cut low, and yields, at an average, 1 lb. per tree. Flinter estimates that, in 1830, the 148 coffee estates may have produced 300 cwt. each, or altogether 44,400 cwt.; and that the remaining 205,600 wt. of the estimated produce (260,000 cwt.) of that year was the growth of free labour. The tobacco of Porto-Rico, which is but little inferior to that of Cuba, is wholly the produce of free labour. Poor families, white and black, plant $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{2}$ acre, and cure and dispose of the produce to the shopkeepers in the villages, who are generally agents for the more extensive merchants of the capital. These shopkeepers furnish clothes and money in France, at an enormous interest, to the cultivators, from whom they receive their crop at a certain price, generally less than half its value. The soil in many places is particularly suitable for the growth of cotton, the culture of which has been very greatly extended within the last 10 or 12 years. Indigo grows spontaneously, but is not cultivated; and few European vegetables are raised, though the greater number might be produced without much difficulty.

The pasture lands in the N. and E. are superior to

any in the W. Indies for breeding and fattening cattle; the total number of which in Porto-Rico, in 1830, was estimated at about 300,000. Cattle-breeding is, perhaps, more profitable here than any other branch of agriculture; but, owing to the subdivision of property, few individuals possess so many as 1,000 head of cattle. In the breeding districts, where there are no arable lands, the cattle are permitted to roam at large, as on the American continent, but on a smaller scale; elsewhere they are penned up in enclosed meadows. They are mostly reared in the valleys distant from the coast, whence the carriage of sugar and coffee would be too expensive for the cultivator. The larger proprietors, who have from 100 to 150 head, if they have not sufficient pasture land of their own, divide their stock among the poorer land-owners, giving them cows, and calves already weaned, to be taken care of; and dividing the produce of the animals, when sold, with them, in a certain proportion. The cattle are turned into the fattening pastures at a year old, and in 3 or 4 months are fit for sale. A considerable traffic has long been carried on in cattle from this island with the French, English, and Danish W. I. Islands; for, in consequence of their being tamer, they are easier managed on board ship, and are no so liable to die, as those off at sea as the wilder cattle of the American continent; they fetch about 33½ dollars per head. The home supplies of cheese and butter are insufficient for the consumption. The island is not adapted for wool growing, the fleece of the sheep degenerating into a species of hair; but the mutton is excellent. The numbers of sheep, goats, hogs, mules, and asses are, however, very limited; but there are, probably, above 80,000 horses of a tolerably good breed. The value of the live stock in 1830 was estimated at about 7,858,000 dollars; of which the cattle made 4,000,000, and the horses 3,200,000. The forests in the interior supply timber of the best quality for ship and house building; and to prevent their decrease, the government has ordered that three trees should be planted for every one cut down.

Previously to 1815, Porto-Rico, being excluded from all direct intercourse with other countries excepting Old Spain, was either stationary or but slowly progressive, the entire value of the exports in that year having amounted to only 65,374 dollars! But at that epoch a royal decree appeared, which exempted the trade between Spain and the Spanish colonies and Porto-Rico from all duties for 15 years; and she was then, also, permitted to carry on a free trade, under reasonable duties, with other countries. In consequence principally of these wise and liberal measures, but partly, also, of a considerable immigration of rich Spanish colonists from S. America, Porto-Rico has latterly made a most extraordinary progress. Great improvements have been effected in the police and internal administration, and roads have been constructed in all parts of the island.

The following statements as to the trade of Porto-Rico are taken from the *Balanza Mercantil*, published in the capital, and afford the most conclusive proof of the advancing prosperity of the island.

Account of the Values of the various Articles exported from Porto-Rico in 1845 and 1846, specifying the Values sent to different Countries.

	1845.	1846.
Spain and the adjacent islands	1,593,395 dolls.	712,242 dolls.
Cuba	49,906	45,861
The Antilles	354,838	255,364
United States	1,297,073	1,644,636
Austria	13,437	53,166
Belgium	25,354	10,648
Brazil	1,493	—
Bremen and Hamburg	359,469	398,974
Sardinia	147,465	132,327
Denmark	117,929	90,782
France	633,472	1,043,439
Holland	14,934	4,499
England	946,482	859,974
Canada and Newfoundland	211,494	263,219
Venezuela	9,680	8,060
Totals	6,257,599	5,369,019

The Quantities of some of the principal Articles exported in 1846, 1847, and 1848, are subjoined.

	1846.	1847.	1848.
Rum	hhd. 653	537	—
lbs.	689,973	677,146	—
Cattle	No. 4,510	4,476	—
Tobacco	lbs. 3,935,538	2,270,852	—
Sugar	— 87,740,014	101,178,523	95,456,575
Cotton	— 491,463	369,125	—
Coffee	— 10,473,886	13,466,269	—
Molasses	galls. 3,444,152	4,487,021	5,705,372

Among the leading articles imported in 1846 were—cotton manufactures, to the value of 783,801 dolls.; woollen do., 67,644 dolls.; drapery goods, 438,567 dolls.; and silk manufactures, 96,419 dolls.

Probably, however, the most advantageous circumstance in the condition of this island is the decided preponderance of the white and free-coloured pop. According to the census of 1886, the inhab. consisted of—

Whites	-	-	-	183,899
Free mulattoes	-	-	-	101,273
Free blacks	-	-	-	26,124
Slaves	-	-	-	41,918
Total	-	-	-	352,066

This is a better distribution of classes than prevails in any other part of the W. Indies, Cuba not excepted; and the deep-rooted antipathy that exists between the white and black races in the other islands is nearly unknown in Porto Rico. The slaves have always been particularly well treated in the Spanish colonies; and here they are decidedly comfortable, being well clothed, well lodged, and not over-worked.

"The necessities, and many of the comforts of life are enjoyed by the great majority of the inhabs. of Porto-Rico. The Xivaro, a name applied to all the whites below the better classes, swing themselves to and fro in their hammocks all day long, smoking their cigars, and scraping a guitar. A few coffee plants and plantain trees, a cow and a horse, an acre of land in corn or sweet potatoes, constitute the property of what would be denominated a comfortable Xivaro; who, mounted on his meagre and hard-worked horse, with his long sword protruding from his basket, dressed in a broad-brimmed straw hat, cotton jacket, clean shirt, and check pantaloons, sallies forth from his cabin to mass, to a cock-fight, or to a dance, thinking himself the most independent and happy being in existence.

"The houses of all classes, in the country, are usually built of wood. The windows have no glass: they are shut with sliding boards; so that when it rains, or when the wind blows with violence, the family remains in darkness. The roofs of the better class of houses are covered with wooden shingles. There are no inns for travellers either in the towns or country." (*Flinter*, pp. 242-251.)

The government, laws, and institutions are nearly similar to those established by Spain in the rest of her Transatlantic colonies. Porto-Rico is governed by a captain-general, whose authority is supreme in military affairs, and who is president of the royal *audencia* for civil matters. The latter court is composed of the captain-general, a judge, a fiscal, a fiscal, two reporters, and a marshal, and is superior to all other constituted authorities, including the ecclesiastical tribunal. The captain-general has a *junta*, or council of the principal military officers. In the seven towns and villages, which are the caps. of departments, justice is administered by the mayors: in the smaller towns and villages by inferior magistrates, called lieutenants, who determine debts under 100 dollars, act as justices of the peace, collect the duty of subsidy, receiving 6 per cent. on the collections, &c. They are appointed by the captain-general, who also appoints the clergy to their different livings, on the recommendation of the bishop. Public instruction is very backward; but schools, though few, are increasing. The island is divided into seven military depts., each under the command of a Spanish colonel. The regular military force comprises about 10,000, and the militia about 46,000 men. The naval force consists of only a man-of-war, a schooner, and about a dozen gun-boats. The tithes and alcavala duties were abolished in 1818, and the subsidy, or direct contribution on landed property, established instead. In 1832, the total revenue of the island amounted to 798,400 dollars; the direct taxes producing 307,140 dolls., the custom-house duties 493,390 dolls., and the indirect taxes (on cock-plts, billiard-rooms, lotteries, stamps, saleable offices, legacies, bulls, &c.) 97,000 dolls. The duties on imports, which, in 1839, produced 734,761 dolls., consist of certain rates charged on different articles, according to the presumed value. On some articles they are very heavy, and there is, in consequence, a considerable contraband trade. Articles imported in Spanish vessels pay one third less duty, and Spanish produce imported in Spanish bottoms pays a half less. The chief towns of the island are San Juan de Porto-Rico, the cap., Mayaguez, Ponce, Aguadilla, and Fajardo.

Porto-Rico, when discovered by Columbus, in 1493, is supposed, though probably on no very good grounds, to have had 600,000 inhabs., who were, in no very long time, almost exterminated. In the latter part of the 17th century, it was taken by the English; but from the prevalence of dysentery, they were soon after obliged to abandon it; since which, it has been mostly in the quiet possession of Spain. A revolutionary movement, which broke out in 1820, was happily put an end to in 1823. (*Flinter's Present State of Porto-Rico*; and *Official Returns*.)

PORTO RICO (SAN JUAN DE), the principal city, and sea-port of the above island, of which it is the

cap., on rising ground, at the extremity of a peninsula, joined to the land by a narrow isthmus; lat. 18° 25' N., long. 66° 7' 24" W. Pop. 13,000? The town, which lies along the E. side of the harbour, is strongly fortified. The streets cross each other at right angles; being on a declivity it is well drained, and may be considered as one of the best and healthiest towns in the W. Indies. In the earlier part of the present century, most of the houses were of wood; but at present, except in the suburbs, not a wooden house is to be seen, and they are principally two stories high. There are some good public buildings; including the bishop's palace, and seminary; the royal military hospital, with 350 beds; public god, house of correction, a handsome theatre, town-house, with a magnificent public hall, several convents, &c. The government house, though old and sombre looking, has some fine apartments. The cathedral is a large, unfinished, heavy fabric; there are several other churches, with a custom-house, arsenal, &c. The harbour has a striking resemblance to that of the Havannah, to which it is but little inferior. Its entrance, about 300 fathoms in width, has the Morro Castle, at the N.W. corner of the city, on its E. side, and is defended on the W., or opposite side, by forts erected on two small islands. Within it expands into a capacious basin, the depth of water varying from 5 to 6 and 7 fathoms. On its W. side, opposite to the city, there are extensive sand-banks; but the entrance to the harbour, and the harbour itself is unobstructed by any bar or shallow. Porto-Rico is the residence of the governor, and the seat of the superior courts, &c., for the island. It has a society for the promotion of the fine arts, with numerous public schools, hospitals, &c. It engrosses the larger portion, by far, of the commerce of the island, and has, in consequence, attained to considerable distinction among the emporiums of the W. Indies. (*Flinter's Porto-Rico*; *Commercial Dict.*, &c.)

PORTSMOUTH, including its suburb of Portsea, a parl. bor., and a celebrated sea-port town of England, being the principal naval arsenal of Great Britain, and the grand station of the fleet, hund. Portadown, co. Hants, on the W. side of Portsea Island, at the entrance to Portsmouth Harbour, opposite Gosport, and on the N. side of the channel, separating the Isle of Wight from the mainland. 16 m. S.E. Southampton, and G3 m. S.W. London; lat. 50° 48' 34" N., long. 6° 5' 59" W. The area of the parl. bor. and the pop. at the under-mentioned decennial periods have been as follow:—

Parishes.	Area in sqr. acres.	Pop. in 1801.	Pop. in 1811.	Pop. in 1821.	Pop. in 1831.	Pop. in 1841.
Portsmouth -	110	7,359	7,103	7,959	8,083	9,354
Portsea -	4,980	94,337	51,365	54,745	58,199	62,678
Portsmouth & Portsea Guildable		1,060	5,099	5,994	4,107	43,673
Total	5,090	53,266	40,567	45,648	50,389	65,047

Portsea Island, which has Portsmouth at its S.W. extremity, is about 4 m. in length (N. and S.), and from 2 to 3 m. in breadth, between Portsmouth harbour on the one side, and Langstone Harbour on the other: it is connected with the main land, at its N. extremity, by a stone bridge, and is generally fertile and well cultivated, producing excellent crops of corn, and large quantities of particularly fine garden vegetables. Besides the above towns, Portsea Island has several villages; and its coasts are well defended, at numerous points, by strong military works, including, together with the fortifications of Portsmouth itself, Fort Cumberland, Southsea Castle, a long line of entrenched works at Hilsea, &c. The external appearance of Portsmouth and Portsea is greatly embellished by the fine trees which ornament their ramparts; and few towns exhibit so imposing an approach as Portsea at its principal entrance from London. The entrances to Portsmouth, the older and more southerly part of the parl. bor., are much less striking; but its interior is far superior to that of its neighbour. Portsmouth may be generally described as consisting of three or four parallel streets, crossed at right angles by two or three other lines of thoroughfares. High Street, the principal, with its angular continuation, Dover or Point Street, runs entirely through the centre of the town; it is wide and handsome, having on either side many large and excellent houses, several public buildings, and some very superior hotels. It has also been much improved by the removal, in 1836, of the old town-hall, an unsightly brick building, which previously stood about its middle, blocking up the greater part of the coach-road. Many good private houses are to be met with in some of the other streets, and on the Grand Parade, a spacious open area, used for garrison inspection, and for the daily muster of the several guards; but in general the private buildings are of an inferior character, and the back streets, particularly those at the Point and toward the

* Portsmouth Guildable is that part of the par. of Portsea not within the jurisdiction of the bor. of Portsmouth previously to the passing of the *Mun. Reform Act*.

part of the town, are of the lowest character, and, in fact, worse, disgustingly filthy. The Point is a long peninsula stretching W. to form the mouth of the harbour, and mostly beyond the walls of the town, with the opposite part of Portsea, the principal seat of naval traffic, most of the ship agents, brokers, &c. having their offices here, and, in time of war especially, it presents a scene of the greatest activity.

Portsea, which has entirely grown up since the beginning of last century, on a tract formerly called Portsmouth Common, N. of Portsmouth, now greatly surpasses the latter in extent and pop. It is divided into nearly equal parts by its main thoroughfare, Queen's Road, which runs for about $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in a direct line from the sea to the town, and is lined on each side with shops, many of which emulate those of the Strand or Fleet Street. Some of the other streets, as St. James's Street, King's Road, the Common Road, &c., are tolerably broad and well built; but except these, none of the others approach to mediocrity. The houses in Portsea are rarely more than two stories in height, and their fronts are but meanly stuccoed. It has but one handsome open space (George's Square), and few public buildings; and, indeed, till within the last few years, it had scarcely an edifice deserving the name. Both towns are well paved, and supplied with water, and well lighted with gas, but the police is said to be very defective.

The suburbs beyond the walls comprise at least half the pop. of the town, their more densely peopled portion extending over a space fully as large, if not larger, than that occupied by the two towns. Of these suburbs, Southsea is the most extensive, and has no pretensions to beauty. It consists of a succession of well built terraces facing the sea, and the ramparts of Portsmouth, being inhabited principally by naval, military, and government civil officers, and persons resorting thither during the summer season. And these terraces are a number of tolerable streets, and some new squares, &c.

Imperial Grove and Somersdown are sections of this suburb; the former, a little further eastward, is a series of elegant detached villas, surrounded by fine plantations and dense, commanding prospects of Spithead, the Isle of Wight, &c., and inhabited by opulent individuals. Landport, Flatheuse, &c., immediately to the E. and N. of Portsea, have nothing, in point of appearance, to recommend them; their inhabitants are, in a great measure, retail tradesmen and workmen employed by government. Newnham (Mile End), Kingston, Buckland, &c., E. of the foregoing, are cheerful and agreeable suburbs, principally extending along the London Road, and inhabited by the same classes as those residing in Southsea.

Immediately without the walls of Portsmouth, stretching along the shore, is Southsea Common, a fine large open space, used for reviews and military inspections, and a favourite place of public recreation.

The importance of Portsmouth, like that of Plymouth, depends wholly on the excellence of her harbour, and on a convenient situation as a place for the outfit and removal of the fleets in the channel, or of those cruising the coasts of France and Spain. It is of this that has made her be selected as the principal station of the navy, and has consequently advanced her to the highest destination as a naval depot.

The harbour, which is unequalled in Great Britain, surpassed but by few in the world, has a narrow channel, not exceeding 320 yards in width, between Portsmouth and Gosport; but within its width increases, and it expands into a noble basin capable of containing a greater part of the navy of Great Britain. There is a bar outside the entrance to the harbour; but as it has not less than 15 feet water over it, even at the lowest spring tide, it can hardly be said to be any obstruction to the navigation; and within the harbour there is water sufficient to float the largest men-of-war at any time of the year. The anchoring ground is excellent, and, being free from sunken rocks, or other obstructions, ships lie securely in it as if they were in dock.

The dock-yard, which comprises about 130 acres, lies along the E. side of the harbour. It comprises all the establishments necessary for the construction and repair of ships of war, and for their outfit with the greatest dispatch, including numerous building and graving docks, partly opening into the harbour, and partly into a large basin, which communicates with the latter. Along a quay, fronting the harbour, extends a noble line of warehouses, having in the centre a handsome octagonal secretory, on the top of which is a telegraph connected with a line of signal stations, with the Admiralty in London. In the rope-house, nearly 1,500 feet in length, the cables are twisted that are sometimes 30 inches in circumference; and the anchor-forging produces anchors of the largest size. The iron and copper mills, the copper works, where the copper is rolled into sheets for sheathing by steam-power, the rigging and mast-houses, miter berths, saw-pits, seasoning sheds, mast-ponds, &c. are all on the most extensive scale. Probably, however, the most interesting machinery is that invented, or, at

all events, vastly improved by Sir Isambard Brunel, for cutting blocks. It is exceedingly ingenious, and has been productive of a vast saving of labour. During the late war upwards of 4,000 working men were employed in Portsmouth dock-yard, of whom 1,500 were shipwrights and caulkers; but in time of peace the numbers are greatly reduced.

In the Dock Yard are the Navy Pay-office, the residences of the port-admiral, the admiral-superintendent, and the heads of the principal departments of the establishment. The port-admiral's residence, formerly that of the commissioner (whose duties are now performed by the superintendent), is an elegant edifice of white brick, surrounded by gardens. Near it is the Royal Naval College, a spacious brick edifice, erected in 1783, its centre surmounted by a cupola and observatory well furnished with instruments. Here youths intended for the navy were formerly instructed in navigation, &c.; but, in 1839, the college was remodelled, and is now appropriated to the instruction of junior naval and marine officers in the higher branches of science connected with their profession, and especially the principles and practice of naval gunnery. The officers belonging to this establishment are boarded and lodged in the college, but are borne on the books as part of the complement of a ship of the line in the harbour. Immediately facing the residence of the port-admiral, is a handsome white brick building, intended originally for a school or college of naval architecture, for the education of a "superior class of shipwrights;" a plan which, though on no very satisfactory grounds, has since been abandoned. On the green, in front of the last mentioned building, is a bronzed leaden statue of William III. Adjacent to the college is a neat chapel-of-ease for persons attached to the dock-yard. The latter was, during last century, the scene of several conflagrations. One of these, in 1776, was clearly the work of an incendiary, who was convicted and executed for the offence. The dock-yard is, however, daily open to the inspection of visitors who apply for admission at the gate.

To the S. of the dock-yard, and nearer the mouth of the harbour, is the "Gunwharf," or arsenal for ordnance stores. This is an extensive and very complete establishment. As a depot for cannon, it is inferior to the arsenal at Woolwich, but, in most other respects, it is very superior to the latter. It comprises many extensive and handsome storehouses, filled with all kinds of ammunition; a neat armoury roofed with copper, and containing small arms for 20,000 men; a laboratory, and various other offices, spacious quays along the harbour, and a terrace of excellent residences for its officers, fronted by a finely planted inclosure. This establishment is separated into the two divisions of the old and new Gun-wharf by the Mill-pond; a dammed up creek between Portsmouth and Portsea, which supplies the moats of both, and also turns a considerable flour mill formerly attached to the victualling office, but now in private hands. The Victualling department, which formerly occupied some large piles of building within the town of Portsmouth, was, in 1826, removed to Weovil (see Gosport); and its former storehouses have partly been purchased by merchants of the town, and partly given place to a handsome row of modern dwellings, the new almshouses, and the building of the Philosophical Society. The Custom-house is an insignificant building, but in a convenient situation. The functions of governor are exercised by a lieutenant-governor, who occupies a noble mansion in High Street, formerly the residence of the port admiral.

Portsmouth appears to have been originally fortified by Edward IV. Its works were greatly augmented and improved during the reigns immediately succeeding, and in those of Elizabeth, Charles II., and James II. Under William III. they were completed, nearly as at present, the town being almost wholly enclosed within a bastioned *cintre*, the ramparts faced with masonry, and encircled with broad moats, with a glacis beyond. But, owing to the rise of Portsea, the N. side of these works soon became useless; and, in 1770, the government began also to surround Portsea with works on a still more extensive scale. At present a continuous line of ramparts extends round both towns, and the belt of fortification is completed by the works surrounding Gosport, on the opposite of the harbour. The ramparts, being planted with elms and poplars, form the favourite promenades of the inhabitants; and facing the sea is the Platform, a fine stone battery, mounting 25 pieces of cannon, and commanding an extensive and beautiful view. Portsmouth is entered by four, and Portsea by two carriage gateways, some having considerable architectural beauty. Besides the town batteries, Spithead, and the approaches to the harbour, are defended by Southsea Castle, and Forts Cumberland, Blockhouse, and Monkton. Southsea Castle, founded by Henry VIII., about 1 m. S.E. Portsmouth, is built almost wholly of stone; as are Forts Monkton and Blockhouse on the main land, Fort Cumberland, on the E. extremity of Portsea Island,

a structure of the last century, covers a very large space, and has earthen ramparts faced with brick, and barrack-room for 3,000 men. The town, its suburbs, and auxiliary fortresses are garrisoned by the Portsmouth divisions of royal marines, and marine artillery, and a certain number of infantry of the line. Within the town are several capacious and excellent barracks; and there are others in the gun-wharf, at Tipner, Hilesea, &c. Portsmouth has a military hospital, and a Marine Infirmary situated between the custom-house and the gun-wharf. But Haaler hospital for the reception of sick and wounded seamen, the principal establishment of its kind in the kingdom, is on the opposite side of the harbour at Gosport (which see). The chief engineering department for the S. and W. of England, and the residences of the commanders of the marines and engineers, are among the other principal government buildings.

The par. church of Portsmouth, founded about 1290, but principally rebuilt in 1693, is a spacious stone edifice with a square tower, 120 ft. in height, surmounted by a cupola and vane, which forms an important landmark. Among other monuments, it has one to Villiers, duke of Buckingham, assassinated here in 1628. The vicarage, value 555*l.* a year, is in the patronage of Winchester College. Adjoining the grand parade is the garrison chapel and burying-ground. In Portsea are two chapels of ease, St. John's and St. George's. St. Paul's, Southsea, and All Saints, Newtown, are elegant Gothic edifices of similar architecture, the former built, in 1893, at an expense of 15,220*l.*, and the latter, in 1897, at a cost of 12,464*l.* Two new churches are in progress of erection, one at Landport, and the other in the town of Portsea. Portsea par. church is an antiquated edifice at Kingston, about 1½ m. from the town, and surrounded by a very extensive cemetery. The living is a vicarage, in the patronage of St. Mary's College, Winchester, value 696*l.* a year. There are numerous places of worship for Independents, Baptists, Wesleyans, Brynians, &c.; the Scotch Presbyterians, Unitarians, Rom. Caths., and General Baptists have each a chapel, and the Jews a synagogue. The town-hall and jail tower occupy a large edifice; the latter which is clean, convenient, and well-conducted, is under the jurisdiction of the bor. magistrates. A new market-house and exchange, the general dispensary, savings' bank, workhouses, female penitentiary, beneficial society's hall, literary and philosophical institution, with a handsome edifice, and a good museum and library; Hampshire library with 5,000 vols., the King's Rooms at Southsea, with an excellent bathing establishment, Green Row and York Rooms, used for balls, &c., and a theatre, are the other principal buildings of public interest. There are Lancastrian and national schools, an endowed free-grammar school for 50 boys, and St. Paul's school, a joint-stock subscription academy for superior classical and mathematical instruction; besides several good private academies, a mechanic's institute, forensic, philharmonic, &c., societies, and various charities. On the London road, about 1½ m. from the town, is a new and spacious public cemetery, with an elegant entrance, a chapel, officiating minister, &c.

In addition to its other conveniences, Portsmouth harbour enjoys the important advantage of opening into the celebrated road of Spithead, between the Hampshire coast and the Isle of Wight. It derives its name from a sand-bank called the Spit, extending about 3 m. in a S.E. direction, from the narrow neck or tongue of land on which Gosport is built. A ship of war was formerly kept moored, as a guard or receiving ship, at the head of this bank; but since the peace this practice has been discontinued, and the roadstead is merely marked by buoys placed at regular intervals. It is here that ships fitted out in the docks and harbour rendezvous before going to sea; and it is also a secure and convenient asylum for the channel fleet and other vessels, during the occurrence of storms. From its safety and capaciousness this roadstead is called by sailors, "*the king's bed-chamber*." "Thus," to use the words of Dr. Campbell, "it appears that Portsmouth derives from nature all the prerogatives the most fertile wits and most intelligent judges could devise or desire; and that these have been well seconded by art, without consideration of expense, which, in national improvements, is little to be regarded. Add to all these the striking excellence of its situation, which is such as if Providence had expressly determined it for that use to which we see it applied, the bridling power of France, and, if I may so speak, the peculiar residence of Neptune." (*Survey of Great Britain*, i. 870.)

Inasmuch as Portsmouth depends for support on its being a great naval port and arsenal, its prosperity is necessarily greatest during war. At present, however, if we compare it with previous periods of peace, it may be said to be flourishing. It necessarily has a considerable trade in the importation of the various articles required in its numerous establishments, and for the supply of

the inhab., and the victualling of the fleet. In Jan. 1850 there belonged to the port 244 vessels, of the aggregate burden of 14,974 tons, ex. 4 steamers. Gross customs' duty in 1849, 47,968*l.* Excepting some extensive breweries, no manufacture, unless it be that of ships of war, is carried on within the town. About 5 m. N.E. were some extensive salt-works, so very ancient as to be referred to in Domesday-book; but they have been abandoned within these few years.

Portsmouth is connected with Arundel and London by a navigable canal, and communicates with Gosport by a floating bridge for passengers, carriages, &c., the property of a company incorporated in 1838. It is, also, directly connected by a branch line with the S.W. Railway, which brings it within about 2 hours' travelling of the metropolis; and it is, also, connected by railway with Chichester, Brighton, &c. Steam-packets ply during the year to Ryde, Cowes, Lynington, Havre, Plymouth, Dublin, London, New York, &c. A branch of the Bank of England, and 5 private banks, are established here; and it has a weekly newspaper.

Portsmouth received its first charter from Richard I., which was confirmed by various subsequent monarchs. Under the Municipal Reform Act it is divided into 7 wards; its municipal officers being a mayor, 13 aldermen, and 42 councillors. Corporation revenue in 1848-49, 8,522*l.* It has a commission of the peace under a recorder; and the boundaries of the municipal and par. bor. are co-extensive. Petty sessions are held 3 times a week, and a county court is established here, before which 2,181 plaints were entered in 1848. Portsmouth has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the 2nd Edw. I.; the right of election down to the Reform Act being vested in the mayor and corporation, the number of which seldom exceeded 60. The electoral limits were enlarged by the Boundary Act, so as to include all the parish of Portsea with the old borough; and, in 1849-50, there were 2,269 registered electors. Portsmouth is one of the polling places at elections for the S. division of Hampshire. Markets on Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays. The charter of Richard I. established a fair in the town, called the "*Fair Mart*," which lasts for 15 days from July 10, and is succeeded by a 3 days' fair on Portdown Hill, attended by a great concourse of people.

The earliest mention of Portsmouth occurs in the Saxon chronicle, which states that it existed in 801. It probably owes its origin to the sea having retired from Eprechester, probably the anc. *Portus Adurni* at the upper end of the harbour; on which account the inhab. removed thither, and built a town at the mouth of the Port. It was taken and burnt by the French, in 1377, before as soon recovered; and in the reign of Henry VIII. had become the principal naval arsenal of England. (*Boundary, Municipal, &c. Reports; Charpentier's New Portsmouth Guide; Private Information.*)

PORTSMOUTH, a town and port of entry in the U. States, being the largest town, though not the cap., of New Hampshire, on a peninsula in the Piscataqua, 3 m. from the Atlantic, 40 m. E.S.E. Concord, and 50 m. N.N.E. Boston; lat. 43° 4' 30", long. 70° 45' W. Pop. in 1840, 7,884, being one of the few towns in the U. States the pop. of which has decreased (198 individuals) since 1850. It is well built; and having suffered severely at different times from fire, is now mostly constructed of brick. It has many handsome houses, and there are several good public buildings, including a fine episcopal church, various other churches, a court-house, gaol, almshouse, academy, atheneum, &c. Its harbour is one of the best in America; it is completely landlocked, and is accessible to vessels of the largest size, having 40 ft. water in the channel at low tide. It is defended by several forts; and on Great Island at the W. entrance is a light-house, with a fixed light 90 ft. above the sea. Two wooden bridges cross the Piscataqua at Portsmouth, one of which is one-third of a m. in length. On Navy Island, opposite the town, is a navy-yard, belonging to the U. States, with three docks, and other establishments fit for the construction of large ships of war. Portsmouth has a considerable but not an increasing trade, it being the only sea-port of New Hampshire. In 1849, the aggregate burden of vessels owned in the port and district amounted to 25,349 tons. (*U. States' Trade Report; Encycl. Americana, &c.*)

PORTUGAL (KINGDOM OF), anc. *Lusitania*, the most W. state of Europe, occupying the greater part of the W. portion of the Spanish peninsula, between the 37th and 42nd degs. lat., and the 6th and 10th W. long., having E. and N. Spain and S. and W. the Atlantic. Length, N. to S., about 350 m.; average breadth, rather more than 100 m. Area, pop., subdivisions, &c. as follow:—[See top of next column.]

Geographically considered, Portugal can be regarded in no other light than as a dependency on, or portion of Spain; and, in fact, all the mountain chains and great rivers by which she is traversed originate in the eastern

Provinces.	Area in sq. m.	Pop. 1841.	Pop. to sq. m.	Chief Cities.
Minho	2,044	466,780	228.3	Braga.
Douro	2,372	436,928	184.2	Porto.
Tras-os-Montes	4,028	300,540	74.6	Vila Real.
Beira, Upper	5,893	589,038	101.4	Viseu.
Beira, Lower	5,893	326,250	55.4	Coimbra.
Estremadura	7,255	738,873	102.0	Lisbon.
Alentejo	10,917	376,590	34.5	Evora.
Algarve	2,151	180,329	83.8	Faro.
Total	55,360	5,412,500	96.7	

and more extensive portion of the peninsula. The principal mountain chain, the Sierra de Estrella, runs S.W. and N.E. from the Spanish frontier, near Almeida, to Cape Roca, near Lisbon, the most westerly land in Europe, lat. $38^{\circ} 46' 30''$ N., long. $9^{\circ} 30' 24''$ W. The culminating point of this chain, near Covilha, is 7,524 feet above the sea. Another chain, the Sierra Monchique, runs across the prov. of Algarve, the most southerly in the kingdom, terminating in Cape St. Vincent. There are a great number of inferior chains, and the provinces to the N. of the Douro are especially encumbered with mountains.

The great rivers, the Tagus, Douro, Minho, and Gaudiana, have their sources in Spain, though they are joined by some considerable affluents in their passage through Portugal. (See the names.) There are but few lakes, and those of no importance; but mineral and hot springs are not uncommon. Water, in many districts, particularly in the S., is both scarce and bad; and, in consequence, extensive tracts in the great plain of Alemtejo and other provinces are nearly uninhabitable. The climate is, in general, milder and more agreeable than in Spain, owing to the height of the mountains, and the great extent of coast. In the rugged tracts of the N.E. (Tras os Montes) the air is in many parts keen. In the valleys, and in the S. part of the kingdom, the case is generally very different; but all along the coast, the heat is tempered by the sea breezes. Snow seldom lies on the low ground; but the rains of winter are often heavy and long continued; and at this season the vicinity of Lisbon and other parts of the country are very subject to earthquakes. Violent hurricanes are also of frequent occurrence.

The general aspect of Portugal is similar to that of Spain, and even more luxuriant.

—It is a goodly sight to see
What heaven hath done for the delicious land!
What fruits of fragrance blush on every tree!
What goodly prospects o'er the hills expand!

Childe Harold, canto I. st. xv.

The Vegetable Products are very various, as well from difference of latitude, as from the great variety of elevation. Wheat, barley, oats, flax, hemp, and other products of a northern latitude, are raised in the high grounds; vines and maize in those of warmer temperature; and rice in the low grounds. The chief fruits are olives, oranges, and lemons; but the last two grow only in the warm and sheltered valleys of the S. and central parts of the kingdom. The woods are extensive; in the N. they consist principally of oak; in the central provinces of chestnut, and in the S. of sea pine, kermes, and cork trees. Algarve produces the American aloë, date, and other intertropical products; and Portugal is supposed to have a greater number of indigenous plants than any other part of Europe. (Bailly, *Essai Statistique*, l. 145.) Silk is produced of very good quality; and in general, any deficiency, whether in vegetable or animal products, is to be imputed not to the soil or climate, but to the indolence and unskillfulness of the people.

The Agriculture of Portugal, though recently it has begun to improve, is still, speaking generally, in the most backward and degraded state imaginable. A variety of circumstances have conspired to bring about this result; among which, the heat of the climate and the want of water, especially in the southern provinces, have, no doubt, a very considerable influence. Probably, however, the mildness of the climate has been still more injurious than its aridity, for this has at once encouraged the indolence, and lessened the wants of the people. And if these powerful physical causes we add the pernicious practice of exempting the clergy and nobility from those direct taxes which were made to fall with their full weight on the cultivators; the vast amount of property in mortmain, and prevented from coming into the hands of those who would turn it to the best account; the want of a proper method of letting, and the consequent insecurity of the occupiers; the want of a manufacturing pop., and of great towns, that is, of markets for agricultural produce; the extreme badness of the roads, and the difficulties in the way of internal communication; the number of Saints' days, fasts, and other superstitious observances; and the ignorance of the people; we shall certainly have little cause to wonder at the low state of agriculture in most parts of the country.

In the greater portion of the kingdom the farmers are quite unacquainted with the rotation of crops, and, one

would be almost disposed to conclude, of the differences of soil, inasmuch as they continue to raise the same crops indiscriminately from all sorts of land. Their implements are of the clumsiest and rudest description; the harrow and the hoe were, till lately, nearly unknown, and thrashing was usually performed by trampling the grain under the feet of horses and cattle. Though, in so dry a country, the command of water and the irrigation of the lands be indispensable, this, in many extensive districts, is quite neglected. In consequence, the country is in parts but little occupied, and the traveller sometimes proceeds a distance of 15 or 20 m., without discovering any houses. To show the deficiency of the means of communication, it may be sufficient to state, that on travelling from Abrantes to the Spanish frontier, along the N. side of the Tagus, a distance of about 100 m., there are six rivers to cross without a single bridge, though they are fordable only in dry weather.

It must not, however, be supposed that these statements apply equally to the whole country. The inhabitants of the greater part of the provs. of Entre-Douro-e-Minho and Tras-os-Montes, to the N. of the Douro, and of the adjoining portions of Beira, participate, to a considerable extent, in the industrious qualities of their neighbours the Galicians. (See GALICIA.) An abundant supply of water is here provided, partly from natural streams, but principally from wells dug in the sides of the mountains; and, in consequence, good corn crops are raised in the lower grounds, while the hills are covered with vineyards, and olives and other fruits are also extensively raised.

But, with these exceptions, agriculture in Portugal is, at this moment, probably in a more backward state even than in Spain or any other European country. We incline, however, to think that this will not long be the case. The more intelligent classes have at length become aware of the vicious nature of the institutions which have so long prevented the development of industry; and, of late years, most important changes have been effected in the tenures under which landed property is held, and in its distribution. The feudal rights of the nobility and other landed proprietors have been suppressed; an equal system of direct taxation has been introduced; and a large extent of crown property and of estates belonging to monasteries, sold at low prices, has mostly found its way into the hands of industrious proprietors. Hence, though the want of capital, the ignorance and indolence of the peasantry, be most formidable obstacles to the rapid spread of improvement, it has notwithstanding already made a considerable progress. In proof of this we may mention that, despite the facilities afforded for the importation of corn and other bulky products from the interior into Lisbon, by means of the Tagus, which runs through the centre of the kingdom, that city was long indebted to foreign countries for a considerable portion of her supplies of corn; but this we are glad to say, is no longer the case; and, in 1839, for the first time for centuries, considerable quantities of Portuguese corn were shipped from the Tagus! Flax, hemp, and potatoes are grown only to a small extent; and, owing to the want of due care and attention, the olive oil is of an inferior quality.

Wine, however, is the staple produce of Portugal, and that by which she is best known in this country. The red wine, called port, from its being all shipped from Oporto, is produced in the Upper Douro, about 50 m. above Oporto, on a succession of low hills on both sides the river, having the finest soil and exposure. The produce of this district is generally divided into two sorts of wine, the *winho do Feltoria*, or Factory-wine, for exportation; and the *winho do ramo*, an inferior wine for home-consumption and distillation. Great complaints having been made, about the middle of last century, by the merchants in England and their agents in Oporto, of the bad quality and adulteration of the wine, the matter came under the notice of the Portuguese government; and the method which it took to redress the evil is singularly illustrative of its sagacity and principles of action. Instead of leaving the matter to be adjusted between the growers of the wine and the merchants, or, at farthest, contenting itself with confiscating such wines as were found to be adulterated, it made over the whole district to a joint stock company, and invested them with almost despotic privileges! Thus, the agents of the company were authorised to class the wines belonging to individuals, and to fix their maximum price; so that the company became, in fact, the sole buyer, at its own price, of the wines produced within the limits of its charter.

But for the rooted taste for the wines of the Upper Douro established in this country through the influence of the long-continued high discriminating duty on French wines, it is probable that the institution of the company would have destroyed the Portuguese wine trade. It has, however, owing to the continued demand for the British markets, continued to keep its ground, or rather to increase, though not nearly to the extent that,

under other circumstances, might have been anticipated. We have elsewhere seen (art. Oporto) that, at an average of the three years ending with 1840, the shipments of port wine from Portugal amounted to 34,790 pipes a year. It is a curious fact, that the Oporto wine company, after being suppressed by Don Pedro, as a nuisance, has been re-established, though with less oppressive privileges. (*Handbook on Wines*, 198-214.) In addition to port, considerable quantities of Lisbon, Calcavella, and other white wines, are exported. Some red wine is also exported from Figueiras.

The pastures in Minho, and in the Sierra Estrella and some other parts, are excellent. But throughout most part of the kingdom they are very much neglected. In consequence of the great number of fast days enjoined by the church, few cattle were reared; and a large proportion of those required for the consumption of the principal towns were imported from Galicia and other adjacent Spanish provinces. Horses are scarce; oxen being commonly used for draught, except in towns. Mules, however, are numerous, and of an excellent breed; and, with asses, are generally preferred, on account of the rugged nature of the country, to horses for travelling. Sheep breeding is principally conducted in Beira, whence large flocks are sent to winter in Alemtejo. The wool of the Portuguese sheep might, no doubt, with a little attention, be rendered equal to that of the Spanish sheep; but no pains have been taken to improve its quality. Goats and hogs are numerous; and the latter are of a superior kind, and yield excellent hams. The fisheries, which were formerly important, are now insignificant; except in Algarve, where tunny, pilchards, &c., are taken. Galicia and England supply the greater part of the fish made use of.

The mineral products are considerable, though few mines except those of iron have been wrought, in consequence partly of the scarcity of fuel, and partly of the supply of minerals (chiefly copper and lead) from Brazil. The mountains abound in fine marble, and contain traces of gold and silver. Large quantities of salt of a very superior quality are produced in bays along the coast by natural evaporation, especially at Setubal or St. Ubes, whence it is largely exported.

Gold dust is obtained by washings; and in antiquity the Tagus was famous for its golden sands: *Tagus auriferis arenis celebratur*. (*Pitt. Hist. Nat.*, lib. iv. cap. 22.) Coal is found near Oporto and elsewhere; and lead, antimony, &c., are raised, but not to any considerable amount.

Manufactures and Trades.—An Englishman can with difficulty form an idea of the backward state of manufactures in Portugal: they are in general carried on in separate cottages, like the coarse woollens of North Wales, or the linen of Normandy, and are founded on the primitive plan of every family manufacturing for its own consumption. Manufacturing establishments are but few in number, and are principally for the production of woollens, silk, and earthenware. Cotton has, also, been attempted of late years; and paper, glass, and gunpowder are made in a few places.

One might be disposed to think from the pompous enumeration of factories made by Balbi, and his vindication of the Portuguese from what he is pleased to call the reproach of being without manufactures, that, on the contrary, manufacturing industry was in a very flourishing state amongst them. He even goes so far as to say that the cotton yarn produced at Thomar is at least equal to that of England! It was hardly necessary, perhaps, to notice such ridiculous statements. The cottons, woollens, linens, hardware, and earthenware of England, are all largely imported into Portugal, and are used by all but the very lowest classes. To suppose, indeed, that there should be any thing like really successful manufacturing establishments in a country like Portugal, is to suppose what is all but contradictory and absurd.

A very superficial knowledge even of some of the commonest arts exists. A carpenter is here the most awkward and clumsy artisan; and the way in which the doors and wood-work belonging to the good houses are finished would have suited the rudest ages. Their carriages of all kinds, more particularly their waggons and carts, their agricultural implements and management, their cutlery, locks, and keys, are ludicrously bad. The chief forte of the Portuguese appears to lie in ship-building and stone-masonry; they also excel in embroidery, and make good artificial flowers, and lace." (*Baillie's Lisbon*, i. 17. &c.)

The navigation and commercial intercourse of Portugal are of more importance; and though even in the times of Emanuel and Albuquerque, they were by no means so extensive as is generally supposed, they were, notwithstanding, very considerable, and appeared immense from the small amount of the shipping and trade of other nations. For a long time past, the import and export trade of the country has been conducted chiefly by foreign merchants, particularly British, settled in Lisbon and Oporto. The exports consist almost en-

tirely of raw produce, or of wine, oil, salt, wool, fruits, cork, &c. The imports have hitherto included corn and flour, but, as already seen, these will now probably be dispensed with; the other articles are cotton goods (by far the most important article), hardware, woollens, fish, linens, earthenware, drugs, tea, coal, &c.

Nearly all the foreign trade centres in Lisbon and Oporto, which see. It is principally carried on with England and Brazil. At an average of the six years, ending with 1838, the real value of the British produce and manufactures exported to Portugal amounted to 1,242,114*l.* a year; but of this a considerable portion was subsequently re-exported for, or rather smuggled into Spain. Perhaps, at an average, the value of the imports and exports of Portugal may each amount to about 2 millions a year. Formerly, Lisbon had about 400 large ships employed in the trade with S. America, but now she has not more than 50 or 60 ships in all departments of her foreign trade, and those, too, of comparatively small burden. We subjoin an

Account of the Quantities of the Principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise Imported into the United Kingdom from Portugal in 1843.

Articles.	Quantities.	Articles.	Quantities.
Figs - cwt.	3,545	Brandy - galls.	4,188
Lemons and oranges - packages	115,975	Sheep's wool - lbs.	781,689
Olive oil - tons	806	Wine (Portuguese) - galls.	2,839,397
Rhumac - tons	21	Cork (unmanufactured) - cwt.	51,940
Lamb skins (undressed) - No.	94,000		

The internal traffic of such a country is, as may be supposed, inconsiderable. There is no navigable canal; and till of late years, not a single road in Portugal was practicable for carriages for more than 30 or 30 m. from Lisbon. In fact, the only mode of travelling by land from Lisbon to Oporto is in a litter, or on the back of a mule or horse; and in the wine country of the Douro, or in the province of Minho, two oxen sometimes take a whole day to convey a pipe of wine 5 or 6 m.; and to prevent the cart from being overturned, it is attended by 2 men. Accounts are kept in reis and milreis; the milrea contains 1,000 reis, and in worth about 4*s.* 6*d.* The *dobro*, or doubloon, = 3*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.*; the *crusado* = about 2*s.* 6*d.* The lb. is 4,889 killogr., or rather more than the lb. avoird.; the arroba = 32 lbs.; the quintal = 4 arrobas. The mayo for grain, &c., = 34 bushels; the almuado = 4½ gallons. The Portuguese foot is a little longer than the English.

Constitution.—Like the peninsular kingdoms of Castile and Arragon, Portugal had anciently her Cortes or assemblies of the states. One of these assemblies, held at Lamego in 1141, conferred the title of king on Alfonso Henriquez, who had two years previously defeated the Moors in the great battle of Ourique. The Cortes at the same time enacted a law for regulating the succession to the throne; in which, among other things, it is laid down that females shall not be eligible to the crown, though in the direct order of succession, if they have married a foreigner, and that their marrying a foreigner when on the throne shall be considered equivalent to an act of abdication. The powers of the Cortes corresponded, in other respects, with those of similar assemblies in other countries; but their privileges and those of the sovereign were very ill defined; and the latter contrived, in the course of time, to engross all the powers of the state; the government of Portugal became, in all respects, as despotic as that of Spain; and the last convocation of the Cortes took place in 1697. (*See L'Art de vérifier les Dates*, part II. tom. vii. 1-40., 8vo. &c.)

From this period down to the administration of the Marquis de Pombal (1760-1776), every abuse continued to multiply, and Portugal was distinguished only by the imbecility of her government, the power and profligacy of the nobility and clergy, and the poverty and insolence of her people. The Marquis de Pombal suppressed the order of the Jesuits and confiscated their estates; he also suppressed some of the more oppressive privileges of the nobility and clergy; and effected various important reforms in several departments of the administration. In other respects, however, his policy evinced the narrowest and most illiberal views; and on his dismissal from power, most part of the old abuses in the government revived, and the country continued in its former state of apathy and abasement.

The events connected with the late war in the peninsula, the emigration of the court to Brazil, the long continuance of the English armies in the country, the organisation of the Portuguese army on an improved footing, and the influence of the changes in Spain, laid the foundations of a new order of things. The nation was disaffected with the continued residence of the court in Brazil, which, in fact, made Portugal a dependency of the latter, and the wish for some fundamental changes in the frame of the government became general.

At length, in August, 1820, a revolution broke out, and a free constitution was soon after established, having for its basis the abolition of privileges, the legal equality of all classes, the freedom of the press, and the formation of a representative body in one chamber. Our limits preclude our attempting to trace the obscure history of the Portuguese government from this period. Suffice it to say, that the constitution of 1820, which was violently opposed by the clergy and privileged classes, having been suppressed, in 1823, was replaced, in 1826, by a constitutional charter, granted by Dom Pedro; and that, in 1836, the latter was suppressed, and the existing constitution established in its stead.

Under this constitution, the government is an hereditary monarchy, with an upper and a lower representative chamber, both of which are elective, the franchise being vested in the holders of a certain small amount of fixed property. The Cortes meet and dissolve at specified periods, without the intervention of the sovereign, and the latter has no veto on a law passed twice by both houses. At present, therefore, the constitution of Portugal is decidedly liberal, probably too much so for a country in its peculiar situation. Each province has a governor, to whom the details of its government are entrusted. Justice is administered in the first instance by the *Justices de Fora*; and appeals are made to the *corregedores* of the provs., and from these to the *Casa de supplicação* at Lisbon, and the *Relação do porto* at Oporto. All these tribunals are, however, subordinate to the royal court in Lisbon. Great abuses are said to exist in almost every department, both in the judicial and administrative branches, the inadequacy of the salaries leading to the acceptance of bribes. Assassination is more frequent here than it has ever been in Italy; the law and the police being impotent alike either to secure property or life. It is stated in an official return published by the Cortes, that in 1837 there were no fewer than 176 assassinations, and 228 robberies in the district of Oporto; and 166 assassinations, and 234 robberies, in that of Guará. The country, in fact, teems with ruffians and crime.

The religion of Portugal is the Rom. Cath., unalloyed with any taint of Protestantism, and contributing but little, if anything, to the morality of the people. The inquisition no longer interferes with freedom of conscience, having been abolished in 1821. The Portuguese church is under the jurisdiction of a patriarch, with extensive powers; 3 archbishops, and 14 bishops.

Notwithstanding the hostility of the Marquis de Pombal to the monks, who used to say of them that they were *a sermão la plus dangereuse qui puisse vomir un fatal*, their numbers previously to the late revolutions were estimated at about 8,000, and the revenue of the conventual establishments was supposed to exceed 1,200,000l.

year! Luckily, however, an end has been put to this repulsive state of things: the monks have been turned out of their establishments, to support themselves as they best may, on a small stipend that has been allowed them, so that the public wealth is no longer wasted in maintaining hordes of idle, profligate drones. The nunneries (11), it is most probable, share the same fate.

It is said that infidelity is now very prevalent among the more intelligent classes in Portugal; and it is natural that such should be the case. They have never seen religion except in association with all that was most revolting. In Portugal its ministrations have consisted only in idle and unmeaning ceremonies; and its priests have uniformly been the enemies of every thing like popular rights, and the supporters of the most oppressive and offensive privilege. But now that they are reduced to their proper sphere, and are no longer used as instruments for the debasement of the people, it is probable that juster religious views will begin to be entertained; and that the profligacy and corruption of the clergy will cease to react upon religion itself.

The language of Portugal is merely a dialect of the Spanish, differing but little more from the latter than Scotch from English. Education is, at once, little valued and of bad quality. There is a university at Coimbra; besides which, 17 high seminaries, and numerous schools exist, affording instruction to about 1,000 pupils. With the exception of Camões, few Portuguese authors are known beyond the limits of their country. The army consists of about 38,000 men; 21,500 infantry, 3,700 cavalry, and 2,400 artillerymen. The forces of Portugal, whether naval or military, have in general been very inefficient. A virtual stimulus was given, in 1760, to the Portuguese navy, by a German commander, the Count de la Lippe; and after his death his plans were not followed up; and was not till 1860, that Portuguese troops, recruited by British funds, and disciplined by British officers, became worthy the ancient renown of their country. It remains, however, to be seen whether if left to their own resources, and without the example and assistance of foreigners, they would preserve the laurels they gained during the late war. The navy comprises only 2 ships of the line, 4 frigates, 6 brigs, and some smaller vessels.

The public revenues and expenditure for the year ending with June, 1837, were as follow:—

Revenues.		Expenditure.	
	Milrees.		Milrees.
Rent of gov. property	676,086	Royal family, Civil	
Direct taxes	1,674,459	Diat. Acc.	4,766,727
Indirect do.	4,344,140	Ministry of Interior	1,068,727
Various sources	1,686,030	Justice, &c.	972,562
	145,358	Finance	663,386
Insular, &c. rev.	1,071,213	War	3,194,734
		Marine	1,068,463
		Foreign	
		affairs	245,424
		Insular, &c. expend.	1,575,355
Totals	9,491,566		13,077,658
Deficit			3,586,792

The public debt, in 1834, amounted to 5,689,229 milrees.

The Portuguese are but little indebted to the accounts given of them by travellers. But their character, as drawn by Du Chatelet, though not very flattering, is, we believe, nearly correct. "Il est, je pense, peu de peuple plus laid que celui de Portugal. Il est petit, basané, mal conformé. L'intérieur répond, en général, assez à cette repoussante enveloppe, sur-tout à Lisbonne; où les hommes paroissent réunir tous les vices de l'âme et du corps. Il y a, au reste, entre la capitale et le nord de ce royaume, une différence marquée sous ces deux rapports. Dans les provinces septentrionales, les hommes sont moins noirs et moins laids, plus francs, plus lians dans la société, bien plus braves, et plus laborieux; mais encore plus asservis, s'il est possible, aux préjugés. Cette différence existe également pour les femmes; elles sont beaucoup plus blanches que celles du sud.

"Les Portugais, considérés en général, sont vindicatifs, bas, vain, railleurs, presomptueux à l'excès, jaloux, et ignorans. Après avoir retracé les défauts que j'ai cru appercevoir en eux, je serois injuste si je me taisois sur leurs bonnes qualités. Ils sont attachés à leur patrie, amis genereux, fideles, sobres, charitables. Ils seroient bons chrétiens, si le fanatisme ne les aveugloit pas. Ils sont si accoutumés aux pratiques de la religion, qu'ils sont plus superstitieux que dévots. Les hidalgos, ou les grands de Portugal, sont très bornés dans leur éducation; orgueilleux et insolens; vivant dans la plus grande ignorance, ils ne sortent presque jamais de leur pays pour aller voir les autres peuples." (*Voyage en Portugal*, i. 69-71.)

The Spaniards and Portuguese regard each other with a deep-rooted national antipathy.

"Well doth the Spanish hind the difference know
Twixt him and Lusian slave, the lowest of the low."

"Strip a Spaniard of all his virtues, and you make a good Portuguese of him," says the Spanish proverb. "I have heard it more truly said," says Dr. Southey, "add hypocrisy to a Spaniard's vices, and you have the Portuguese character." The two nations differ, perhaps purposely, in many of their habits. "Almost every man in Spain smokes: the Portuguese never smoke, but most of them take snuff. None of the Spaniards will use a wheelbarrow; none of the Portuguese will carry a burden: the one says, 'it is fit only for beasts to draw carriages'; the other, that 'it is fit only for beasts to carry burdens.'" (*Southey's Letters*, ii. 64.) In one respect, however, their tastes are identical, bull-fights being quite as popular among the Portuguese as among the Spaniards. Semple's statements, as to the Portuguese character, coincide with those of Du Chatelet. "The Portuguese are generally dark-complexioned and thin, with black hair, frascible and revengeful in their tempers, and eager in their gestures on trivial occasions. They are also said to be indolent, deceitful, and cowardly; but they are temperate in diet, and that may be classed at the head of their virtues, if, indeed, they have many more. They have no public spirit, and, consequently, no national character. An Englishman, or a Frenchman, may be distinguished in foreign countries by an air and manners peculiar to his nation; but any meagre swarthy man may pass for a Portuguese." All classes seem to despise cleanliness; and Lisbon, and the Portuguese towns generally, are, certainly, entitled to the most unfavorable distinction, of being about the filthiest in Europe. The morals of both sexes are lax in the extreme; and, as already stated, assassination is a common offence. On the whole, we incline to think, that, owing to vicious institutions, the Portuguese rank about as low in the social scale as any people of Christendom. But the fair presumption is, that, under the beneficial influence of the new constitutional arrangements, the abuses that have depressed and degraded the nation will be extirpated; and that the Portuguese will once more recover their ancient place among European nations.

History.—This country, anciently called *Lusitania*, was taken possession of by the Romans about anno 200 a. c.; previously to which some Phœnician and Cartha-

ginian colonies are supposed to have been planted on its shores. It remained a Roman province till the 5th century, when it was invaded by the Suevi, Visigoths, &c.

The Moors landing in the S. of Spain in the early part of the 8th century, and meeting with little resistance from its thinly spread population, easily overran the greater part of Portugal; but the nature of the country, favouring the operations of the inhabitants, they were not long in recovering possession of its more northern and mountainous portion. The name of Lusitania seems to have been exchanged about this period for that of *Portucale*, subsequently changed into Portugal, from the circumstance of Oporto, the principal strong-hold of the Christians, being then called *Calle*, or *Porto Calle*. (D'Anville, *Etats formés en Europe*, p. 199.)

In the 11th century Portugal became an earldom, under the kingdom of Leon and Castile; and during the 12th it was erected into an independent kingdom. Its power now rapidly increased; and by the acquisition of Algarve, in 1249, it arrived at its present limits. In the latter half of the 14th century the voyages and discoveries commenced which have shed immortal lustre on the Portuguese name. During the 15th century, Madeira, the Canaries, and Azores were discovered, and colonized; and in 1498 Vasco de Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and opened a new route to India.

In the following century the Portuguese explored the coasts of Newfoundland and America; took possession of Brazil; made important acquisitions in India and the Persian Gulph, and discovered the Moluccas; by which successful enterprises they monopolized the commerce of the East, and a great share of that of the West. But the prosperity of Portugal was short-lived. After the disastrous defeat and death of King Sebastian, in Africa, in 1578, Philip II. of Spain seized on the kingdom, which remained a Spanish prov. from 1580 to 1640; and when she regained her independence, the greater part of her commerce, and her foreign possessions, were in the hands of the Dutch.

But, notwithstanding the emancipation of Brazil, Portugal still preserves the Azores, Madeira, Cape de Verd, and Guinea Islands; the settlements of Angola and Mozambique, in Africa, and those of Goa, Dilli (Timor), Macao, &c., in Asia. In 1807, Portugal was invaded by the French, when the royal family removed to Brazil. John VI. dying in 1826, Dom Miguel usurped the throne in 1827, which he held till 1833; when, after a lengthened contest, Donna Maria II. was established in its possession. (*Baldi*, *Essai Statistique sur le Royaume de Portugal*, &c.; *De Orelant*, *Voyage en Portugal*; *Baldi's Lisbon*; *Scmple*, *Southey*, *Murphy*, &c., in *Mod. Trav.* xix.; *Journal Statistique*, 1838; *Urculuti's Geog.*; *Convers. Lexikon*, &c.)

POSEN, a prov. of the Prussian monarchy, comprising the portion of Poland assigned to Prussia by the treaty of Vienna in 1815, having N. the prov. of Prussia and Brandenburg, E. Poland, and S. and W. Silesia and Brandenburg. It is of a triangular shape. Area, 11,374 sq. m. Pop., in 1846, 1,364,399, of whom 866,390 were Catholics, 416,648 Protestants, and 81,299 Jews. Principal towns, Posen, Bromberg, Nakel, &c. It is divided into two regencies, and these again into 6 circles. Surface generally flat, and in part occupied by extensive marshes and forests. Principal rivers, Warta, Netze, and Obra. Soil various, but generally clay and black loam intermixed with sand, and naturally very fertile. Principal products, corn, timber, wool, honey, &c. Minerals and manufactures unimportant. A vast number of leeches are taken in this prov., especially in the circle of Bomster: above 1,800,000, worth, on the spot, above 66,000 rix-dollars, were exported in 1840; and, in 1859, the exports were still more extensive. This is the most backward of the Prussian provinces. When it first came into the possession of Prussia, in 1793, the great bulk of its inhabitants were in a state of predial slavery, and were as ignorant and brutalized as can well be imagined. The vigorous and enlightened government of Prussia at once put down the excesses of the nobles, and has exerted itself by introducing an improved judicial system, establishing schools and otherwise, to improve the habits and condition of the people. These efforts, combined with the total abolition of serfdom (see *Pestel*), have had the best effects; though a lengthened period will still have to elapse before the vices and habits engendered by centuries of slavery and degradation be completely eradicated, and the population become as intelligent and industrious as in the more advanced provinces.

POSEN, a city of Prussia, cap. prov. and reg. of the same name, at the confluence of the Prozna with the Warta, 147 m. E. by S. Berlin; lat. 52° 39' N., long. 16° 50' E. Pop., in 1846, 40,309. Since the peace of 1815 its fortifications have been vastly improved, and it is now one of the bulwarks of the kingdom on the side of Russia. Though an old town, it is pretty well built. Principal edifices, cathedral and town-house. It is the residence of the provincial authorities, and of an archbishop; and has a court of appeal, a gymnasium, or college, a theo-

logical seminary for the education of Catholics, a school of arts, &c. The business of watch-making is carried on to some extent; and there are manufactures of leather, linen, fire-arms, &c. It has three great annual fairs. Here, as in the rest of Poland, the buying and selling of goods is chiefly managed by Jews, who occupy a particular quarter of the town.

POTENZA, (an. *Potentia*), a city of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Basilicata, of which it is the cap., on a hill in a wild and rocky tract, near the source of the Basento, 64 m. E. Salerno. Pop., circa 9,000. It is fortified, and has a cathedral, several other churches, and convents, a seminary, a royal college, lyceum, hospital, government pawn-bank, &c.; but, speaking generally, it is poor and meanly built. It is a bishop's see, and the seat of the superior judicial courts for the prov. It suffered greatly from earthquakes, especially in 1684, and 1812. (*Rampoldi*, *Corografia*; *Dici. Geog.*)

POTOSI (SAN LUIS DE), a city of Mexico, cap. of the state of same name, near the source of the river Tampico, 165 m. W. Tampico, and 75 m. N.N.E. Guanaxuato; lat. 23° N., long. 103° 1' W. Pop. of the city itself about 16,000 (*Poinsett*), but including the *deserrios*, or suburbs, which cover a large extent of ground, it may amount to from 50,000 to 60,000 (*Ward*). "It presents a fine appearance: the churches are lofty, and some of the very handsome. The streets are well built, very clean, and intersect each other at right angles. The houses in the square, and in the principal avenues leading to it, are of stone, and two stories high; those in the suburbs are low, and of adobes (sun dried bricks). The government house, in the square, is not yet completed; but the front, which is of cut stone, and ornamented with ionic pilasters, would do credit to any city in Europe. The market-place is well supplied with meat, fruits, and vegetables. Pedlars hawk up and down the coarse manufactures of the country. Stalls are erected and set out with *camacho*, blankets, leather breeches and leggings, saddles, bridles, huge wooden stirrups, iron spurs, weighing at least 2 lbs., and a great variety of manufactures from the flaments of the Agave: ropes, cord, twine, and thread, matting, bags, saddle-cloths, &c. &c. Here, as in every part of Mexico, the vendors were satisfied with one-half of their asking price, and frequently with one-third part of what they, the instant before, had sworn on their consciences the article was worth." (*Poinsett's Notes on Mexico*, pp. 343-346.)

From its situation, this city is the natural *dépot* of the trade of Tampico with the N. and W. Mexican states. Its foreign trade is at present almost wholly in the hands of natives of Old Spain or of the U. States. The European imports consist principally of French brandies, wines, silks, and cloths, English hardware and printed cotton goods, with some mantas or ordinary cotton manufactures from the U. States. In addition to its foreign trade, San Luis supplies the neighbouring states of Leon and Cohahuilla with home-made goods of various kinds. The town abounds in tailors, hatters, leather dressers, and smiths; and the whole pop. seems industrious (*Ward's Mexico*, ii. 227). The people are better dressed, and there are fewer beggars, than in almost any other part of Mexico. The mines in the neighbourhood have long ceased to be wrought, from exhaustion of the ores; they were, however, formerly very productive. A college, founded by voluntary subscription, and in a flourishing state, affords gratuitous instruction to poor students in Latin, jurisprudence, theology, and constitutional rights. The city was founded in 1598. (*Poinsett's Notes on Mexico*, p. 343-346; *Ward's Mexico*, ii. 226-230.)

Potosi, a city of Upper Peru or Bolivia, famous for its rich silver mines, on the N. declivity of the Cerro di Potosi, a mountain belonging to the Andes, lat. 19° 26' S., long. 67° 21' 45' W.; 64 m. S.W. Chuquisaca. Early in the 17th century this city is said to have had 160,000 inhab.; but it is now almost deserted. It is built on uneven ground, and has a spacious square in the centre. The government-house, the town-house, and the jail, under the same roof, occupy one side; the treasury and government offices another; a convent, and an unfinished church the third; and private houses the fourth. Extensive suburbs, once tenanted by Indians and miners, are now without an inhab., and the vestiges of the streets are all that remain. Among the most remarkable public edifices is the mint, substantially built of stone, in 1751, at a cost of 1,148,000 dolls. In the principal square an obelisk 60 ft. high was erected in honour of Bolivar, in 1825. The houses of Potosi, generally, are of stone or brick, and of only one story, with wooden balconies, but without chimneys. The country round is perfectly barren, and the climate disagreeable; the rays of the sun are scorching at noon, while at night the air is piercingly cold. The market is well supplied; though, from many articles having to be brought from a considerable distance, the necessaries, as well as the luxuries of life, are very dear.

The Cerro di Potosi, which is 16 m. in circuit, and

to the height of 16,037 ft., is supposed to be a solid either of the ore or the matrix of the precious s., of which it has produced a vast quantity. The discovery of its wealth was made by an n. who, in hunting some goats, slipped, and, to save it, took hold of a shrub, which, in coming away the ground, laid bare the silver at its root. The were first wrought systematically, in 1845, from a time till 1858. They are said to have produced 500,000 plastrs. or 70,388,334. Worth of silver on a duty was paid; and during the same period they produced a large quantity of gold; at the same time great quantities of both metals were smuggled, or into circulation without payment of the duty. At 5,000 openings are said to have been made in the vein; but the number of mines wrought during the 19th century has rarely exceeded 100. At one time, mines yielded about 30,000 ducats a day; and for a hinged period they produced about 9,000,000 dollars r. But they had begun to decline long previously to that situation; and since then they have been, whether their exhaustion, defects in the mode of working, or want of capital, nearly unproductive. The ore is mined in water-mills, worked with overshot wheels, from 1 to 10 m. from the city; but, according to it, both the mining and reduction of the ore were acted in the most bungling manner. (*Andrius; r.; Mod. Trav.*, xxviii.; *Geog. Journal*, v.; *Encycl. Ricca, &c.*)

POTSDAM, a town of the Prussian states, prov. Brandenburg, cap. reg., at the confluence of the Havel, on an island formed by the two rivers, a l. and lakes, 17 m. S.W. Berlin. Pop., in 1846, 37,542. It has been appropriately termed the Versailles of sla. It is a favourite royal residence; streets straight, d. and well paved; and the houses, though freely small, and not very commodious within, have, the most part, splendid fronts. It is encompassed by s. and palisades; has numerous gates and bridges, s. of which are highly ornamental, and is divided three parts, the old and new towns, and Frederickstadt. The most remarkable edifices are, the palace, a magnificent structure on the Havel, having attached to it theatre, menagerie, and spacious stables; the church in the garrison, in which are deposited the remains of Frederick the Great; the church of St. Nicholas; the military orphan hospital, &c. In the old market-place is an obelisk of red Silesian marble, 75 feet high, pedestal of white Italian marble; on the base are inscribed the names of the great elector and his successors. A large garrison is always kept at Potsdam, and the barracks are very extensive. There is a sem., a military school, with various public schools inferior note, and sundry literary establishments. There are also, exclusive of the military orphan hospital, mentioned above, an infirmary, workhouse, &c. Potsdam was formerly said to be more of a barrack than town; but for a good many years past it has been distinguished in various branches of manufacture, such as silk, hardware articles, arms, &c. Being situated on a navigable river, communicating by canals, with many large towns, and with the Elbe and the r., it has a good deal of commerce.

Potsdam is a very old town, having existed in the 8th century; it did not, however, become a place of any importance till the elector Frederick William selected it a residence, and began the palace. It was materially improved by the king, Frederick William I.; but, like Berlin, it owes its principal embellishments to the taste and liberality of Frederick the Great. In its environs is the favourite residence of that illustrious prince, and the place where he expired, on the 17th August, 1785. The new palace and the marble palace are in its vicinity.

POUGHKEEPSIE, a town and river-port of the U. S., Dutchess co. New York, on the Hudson, 70 m. N. New York. Pop., in 1840, 10,006; but it now (1850) probably exceeds 12,000. The river-bank here is 300 ft. in height, but the town has five convenient landing places, occupies a flat of about 1,800 acres; on which some streets have been laid out; several of which are well ed. Many of the stores (shops), in the main street, equal to those of the Broadway in New York; and numerous private houses exhibit both wealth and taste. Between 1831 and 1836, upwards of 100,000 dollars were sent in the improvement and enlargement of the m., and 35,000 dollars in the construction of reservoirs, &c. In the latter year, there were 10 churches, a court-house, a gaol, a co. workhouse, an academy, a Lanthan school, four banks, and several whaling and er companies. Poughkeepsie has a considerable de; and communicates regularly, by steam boats, to New York, Newbury, &c. It was founded by some rich families, in 1735, and incorporated in 1801. (*New York Gazetteer.*)

PRAGA, a suburb of Warsaw, which see.

PRAGUE, a city of Bohemia, of which it is the cap., near the centre of the kingdom, on the Moldau, by which it is intersected, 73 miles S.E. Dresden, and 152 miles N.E. Vienna: lat. 50° 5' 18" N., long. 14° 25' 15" E. Pop., in 1846, 68,995, ex. garrison, inhabs. of the citadel, and strangers; whose united numbers raise it to upwards of 100,000. It stands in a basin, surrounded on all sides by rocks and eminences, upon the slopes of which the buildings rise tier after tier, as they recede from the water's edge; and few, if any, cities of Germany, or, indeed, of any country, have so grand and imposing an external appearance. It is divided into 4 quarters, of which 2, the Altstadt and Neustadt, are on the right, and the others, the Kleinsseite and Hradschin, on the left bank of the Moldau. The Altstadt, or most ancient part of the city, stretches along the margin of the river, and for a considerable distance up the ascending ground; it comprises the university and the archbishop's palace, the municipality, the principal churches and public edifices, the theatre, and all the superior shops. It is the district of commerce and general activity; and is crowded with a dense and active pop. Its streets are generally narrow, dark, and winding; the principal edifices massive and gloomy; and the private buildings, usually of stuccoed brick, are black with age and dirt, and so lofty as to exclude the light from the avenues between them; but, on the other hand, there is an air of antiquity, and a singularity of architecture about many of the edifices, public and private, that renders them at once venerable and interesting. The open places are often surrounded by low heavy arcades, beside which are the churches or public buildings, exhibiting a fantastic mixture of Gothic and Italian decorations; while at every turn the eye is met by some memorial of historical events. Beyond the Altstadt, surrounding it on 3 sides, and separated from it only by a large wide street termed the *Graben*, from its having been formerly the city ditch, is the Neustadt (new city), founded by the emperor Charles IV., the most splendid of Bavarian monarchs; the streets of which are much more open and spacious, and are generally rectangular. Here are the vast convents, hospitals, and other public buildings, which owed their magnificence to the Jesuits; but the houses are poor, and the inhabs. chiefly mechanics, artisans, and traders of the lower class. At one extremity of the Neustadt, up the river, is the fortress and arsenal of the Wlaschrad, erected on a bluff rock, and connected with the line of works which extends in a curve behind the old and new city, embracing them both, and descending to the river at each extremity. On the opposite bank of the Moldau, the surface of ground is for a small space comparatively even, behind which arises a range of high, bold, craggy hills. On the even space, and partly up the ascent, is built the Kleinsseite (small side); this is the quarter of the aristocracy; in it are the palaces of the ancient Bohemian nobles, with attached gardens and shrubberies, which often extend high up the irregular ascent behind.

The lofty ridge above the Hradschin forms a magnificent termination of the prospect, as viewed from the bridge below or from the opposite side of the river. Here, on the summit of a long bold eminence, is the vast palace of the old Bohemian monarchs; and close behind it rise the choir and tower of the cathedral. Further on, along the hill, are groups of stately edifices; and beyond these again may be seen, on a loftier point, the fine Premonstratensian monastery of Strahov, with its lofty towers and dark thick groves overhanging the river. The quarters of Prague on the left, like those on the right bank of the Moldau, are inclosed by fortifications; but these are of little strength, and were raised by Charles IV. merely to give employment to the working pop., as the chance of invasion was then but inconsiderable.

The bridge which connects Altstadt with the Kleinsseite, the only one hitherto constructed within the limits of the city, is the longest in Germany. It is a ponderous structure of stone, 1780 ft. in length, and 35 ft. breadth; with a lofty tower at each extremity, and colossal stone statues, single and in groups, among which is pre-eminent that of St. John Nepomuk, the tutelar saint of the city. Not far from the bridge, and attached to the Altstadt, is the Judenstadt, a district allotted to the Jews, whose number is about 8,000, living, as usual, in crowded filthy abodes, forming a labyrinth of narrow winding streets. (*Turnbull's Austria*, &c., i. 93-96., and *Reeve's Sketches of Bohemia*, No. ii.)

The Hradschin, or palace on the hill, is a vast pile, more remarkable, however, for extent than beauty. It is said to be larger than the palace at Vienna, and to comprise 440 apartments, including the Hall of Ladislaus, Imperial Audience-room, Hall of Assembly for the States, &c. On a narrow terrace immediately below the palace, 2 obelisks mark the spot where the imperial commissioners, and their secretary, sent thither with the most intolerant edicts against the Bohemian Protestants, were indignantly thrown out of the windows

of the Green Chamber, by the deputies of the kingdom, in 1618. Notwithstanding the great height of the windows whence they were ejected, the commissioners escaped unhurt, by falling, as is said, on a dunghill. This event may be regarded as the commencement of the 180 years' contest, ended by the peace of Westphalia in 1648, which, while it secured the liberties of the rest of Germany, unfortunately consummated the slavery of Bohemia, which had long been foremost in freedom and toleration. The cathedral, begun in 1344 and finished in 1466, is within the precincts of the Hradshin. It is a fine specimen of Gothic architecture, and is surmounted by lantern-crown similar to that on the tower of St. Giles, Edinburgh. The choir, built by Charles IV., and the unfinished chapels that surround it, are much admired. In the cathedral are the tombs of many Bohemian sovereigns and other distinguished individuals; a fine altar piece and other paintings; mosaics, and the costly shrine of St. John Nepomuck, &c. Others of the numerous churches, as that of the *Thémakirche*, in which is the tomb of the famous astronomer, Tycho Brahé, who died here on the 13th October, 1601, are interesting for their monuments. Prague had formerly a great number of convents; but Joseph II. secularised most of these establishments. Among the chapels is one which is an exact representation of that of Loretto.

The town-hall, arsenal, military hospital, military orphan asylum, lying-in hospital, principal workhouse, and theatre are among the finest of the numerous public edifices. Of the private palaces, that built by the famous Wallenstein, duke of Friedland, is the most remarkable. Though unfinished, it is of immense extent, 100 houses having been pulled down to make room for its site. It still belongs to a collateral branch of Wallenstein's family: the apartments and furniture, which are said to remain in their original state, are shown to strangers, and the park attached to the palace is thrown open to the public; but the residences of the nobility in the *Kleinseite* are mostly deserted. "They are generally large ugly buildings, some, however, with a good deal of architectural decoration; and the dirty rubbishy appearance of their brick walls, half covered with worn-out stucco, conveys the idea of prisons or poorhouses rather than of mansions of distinguished nobles. Their proprietors have transferred themselves and their wealth to the Austrian capital; leaving to the Bohemians these sad memorials of times, when the court of Prague might have looked with scorn on the inferior splendour of Vienna. Yet, in some of these desolate abodes, covered with dust and rubbish, we found immense collections of books. The Lobkowitz library is said to comprise more than 70,000 vols., the Kinsky 40,000, the Klobesberg 18,000, the Klam Martinits 21,000, and others equal or superior numbers. In some of these palaces a few rooms are fitted up and occupied during winter by minor branches of the family, and in many of them are offices for the stewards and managers of the Bohemian estates; but when, on particular occasions, as, for instance, at the coronation of a sovereign, it is requisite for the proprietors to visit Prague, they usually occupy apartments in some hotel, their own palace being quite unfit for their reception: there are, however, a few exceptions to this general emigration. Here and there may be found the mansion of some great noble, who still upholds the local dignity of his ancestors; and below these highest magnates are a considerable body of resident nobles, inferior in wealth, though perhaps not in blood, who take a part in the provincial administration, and who form among themselves in the winter season an agreeable and elegant society." (*Theraput's Austria*, &c., i. 101.) In the palace of Count Negitz is a gallery rich in cabinet pictures of the Dutch and Flemish masters; and in that of Count Sternberg is the national museum, comprising extensive collections of paintings, books, fossils, and natural objects. The library, in the St. Sion monastery, one of the finest apartments of its kind in Europe, comprises a collection of about 50,000 vols.

The university of Prague, founded by Charles IV. in 1348, occupies a large edifice termed the *Carolinum*, and is remarkable as the first great public school established in Germany. The students were formerly divided into 4 nations, and are said, though there can hardly be a doubt that the statement is grossly exaggerated, to have amounted, early in the 18th century, to 40,000! In consequence, however, of a measure proposed, in 1403, by Huss, who was then rector, to abridge the privileges of the foreign students, more than half the pupils attending the university withdrew to Leipzig, Heidelberg, Cracow, and other seminaries. The Carolinum is now exclusively devoted to instruction in medicine, law, and the sciences; while education in theology is conducted in the *Clementinum*, an immense building, founded by Ferdinand III., in 1633, as a convent and seminary for Jesuits. The university library, in the latter, comprises about 150,000 vols.; it was also an observatory, botanic garden, and various museums; and was attended, in 1840, by about

1,700 students; but it must be borne in mind that the censorship of the press, the prohibition of foreign works, and the jealousy of the government, oppose the most formidable obstacles to the diffusion of knowledge, and hinder any real progress being made in political or even philosophical science. The same causes render the newspapers and other journals published here of little interest or importance. There are 5 gymnasia, preparatory to the university, with several other high schools, ecclesiastical, teachers', and Jewish schools; a polytechnic institute, conservatory of music, academy of the fine arts; and many orphan and deaf and dumb asylums, and other charities. The Jews settled here at a very early period, and have an infirmary and orphan-asylum of their own, and as many as 9 synagogues, one of which is very ancient.

Prague has manufactures of printed cotton, linen, silk, and woollen stuffs; leather, hats, liqueurs, earthenware, refined sugar, &c.; and is the grand centre, not merely of the commerce of Bohemia, but of an extensive and rapidly increasing transit trade. It owes this distinction to its situation on the Moldau, or principal arm of the Elbe, which is navigable by large boats to Edwessa (60 m. direct dist. S. from the city), where it is joined by a railway from Lintz, on the Danube. Prague is thus rendered the centre, as it were, of the communication between Hamburg on the one hand, and Vienna on the other; and is, besides, intimately connected with Dresden, Leipzig, and other German cities. Several annual fairs are held here, including a large wool fair in June.

Owing to the number of its palaces, churches, public buildings, and other splendid remains of its ancient grandeur, Prague is more imposing than Vienna, and far preferable as a residence; the situation being much more salubrious, and the climate more mild and equable, the cold in winter rarely exceeding 34° Reaum., and generally averaging between 7° and 10°; while, during the greatest heat of summer, the thermometer seldom rises above 33°. Dr. Stults, a celebrated German physician, who has written upon the relative salubrity of German towns, considers Prague as one of the most healthy in the empire, and affirms that it is no uncommon occurrence for the inhabs. to attain the age of 100, and even, sometimes, 115. Provisions are good and cheap; and an excellent red wine resembling Burgundy is produced in the neighbourhood. The Italian equals that of Vienna, and the musical department and orchestra cannot be too highly praised. Public and private concerts are also very frequent; and, except Vienna, there is no town in Germany where music is cultivated with so much success; indeed, this taste may in the Bohemians be termed truly national, for they excel both in vocal and instrumental music; and not a few of the natives travel to Italy, acquire the language, Italianise their names, and make large fortunes in Vienna. The same appears to a stranger their native instrument; for we meet with itinerant harpists in every part of the country, whose strains generally accompany the midday repast at every inn, however small, whether in the capital or the provinces. Their language, which is rich and expressive, is also musical, and sounds as pleasing as the Italian when wedded to melody." (*Spencer's Germany and the Germans*, i. 207-8.)

Jerome, the friend of the great Bohemian reformer John Huss, was a native of this city, and was thence surnamed "of Prague." He suffered the same fate as his illustrious friend, having been burnt alive, in pursuance of a sentence of the Council of Constance (see CONSTANCE), on the 30th of May, 1416. A very interesting account of the unfair and barbarous treatment he experienced on his trial, and of the singular ability, courage, and eloquence with which he defended himself, and exposed the malignity and bad faith of his adversaries, is given in a letter of Poggio-Bracciolini, who was present on the occasion. (This interesting document may be seen in *Shepherd's Life of Poggio*, or in the art. *Jerome*, in *Smith's Biographical Dictionary*.)

Prague is very ancient; but the date of its foundation is uncertain.

Bohemia is one of the few countries in which persecution has been successful. At one time the Protestant faith was that of a great and decided majority, not of the citizens of Prague only, but of the whole kingdom. But the sovereigns of Austria having succeeded, in 1526, to the Bohemian crown, succeeded, after a lengthened struggle, partly by force of arms and partly by the most atrocious persecution of which history has preserved any account, in exterminating every germ of the reformed faith, and in totally subverting the free institutions of the country. For more than 150 years the language of the people was proscribed, their spirit was broken, and they were subjected to every species of insult and indignity. But since the middle of last century, and especially since the reign of Joseph II., the government has been conducted in a more tolerant and liberal spirit; and Prague, with the rest of Bohemia, is now advancing as rapidly in prosperity as any part of the Austrian monarchy. Prague was taken by the

ians under Frederick the Great in 1741, but they soon after obliged to evacuate the city, and it has since been held by the Austrians. (*Oesterr. Nat. c.*; *Berghaus*; *Revue's Sketches of Bohemia*, in *p.* *Ming.*, 1837; *Turnbull, Strang, Glegg, Murray*, &c., *passim*.)

PRATO, a town of the grand duchy of Tuscany, cap. on the Bisenzio, a tributary of the Arno, 10 m. Florence. Pop., in 1836, 10,849. It is surrounded a wall and ditch; the streets are regular, and the city generally good. It has several squares, of which the most is the Piazza Mercatale; but the chief ornament of the town is the cathedral, a fine edifice of white marble, with ornamental parts of dark serpentine. Several other churches are handsome, and worth notice. It has two workhouses, several hospitals, the Clog-college for secular instruction, normal Lancasterian infant schools, &c. The manufacture of straw hats bounnets employs nearly 1,000 females; and it has manufactories of woollen stuffs and caps, the latter exportation to the Levant; with iron and copper works, paper-mills, a rope-walk, a glass factory, &c. The average wages of the working classes at Prato may be reckoned at 24 paoli, or 10d., a day. (*Bouring's Rep. on com.*, p. 34, 35.) In the middle ages, Prato was the cap. of a republic, conquered by the Florentines in 1533. A poet Casti was a native of the town. (*Wood's Hist.*; *Cooper's Italy*; *Bouring's Rep.*; *Geog. Dict.*)

PRATA (PORTO), a sea-port town of the Cape de Verde islands, which see.

PRESTON, a town of the Prussian states, the chief city in that part of Brandenburg called the Ucker Mark, he point where the river Ucker escapes from the lake at name, 32 m. W.S.W. Stettin. Pop., in 1837, 10,508. It is thriving and well built; has various churches, schools, hospitals, a valuable public library, and manufactures linen, woollens, and tobacco, with breweries, tanneries, &c. In 1806, a conflict took place in the suburbs of the town, which ended in the surrender to the French 30,000 Prussian troops, escaped from the battle of Jena.

PRESBURG, or **PRESSBURG**, (Hungar. *Pozsony*, *Pozsonum*), a royal free town, and formerly the cap. of Hungary, and still the seat of the Diet, immediately within its W. frontier, cap. of its own name, on the bank of the Danube, 34 m. E. by S. Vienna; lat. 48° 50' N., long. 17° 0' 15' E. Pop. in 1837 (excluding Irish and strangers), 37,360. Travellers differ greatly in their statements as to the appearance of Presburg; the latest and best authority, Mr. Paget, says it is still situated along the banks of the Danube, and, for town of its size, offers a greater number of handsome buildings than are often seen together. It has, however, more of the characteristics of a German than a Hungarian city, and has few public buildings worth notice. The most conspicuous of the latter is the castle, a huge wall of brick structure, built upon a height above the town. It is now a ruin, having been burnt in 1811, by an allied regiment in the French service; it is, however, memorable as the scene of the appeal made in 1741 by Maria Theresa to the Hungarian states, which was so generously responded to by the latter. The hall of the Diet, or *Landschass*, is a plain unpretending edifice, both externally and internally. The two chambers, which constitute the Hungarian Diet, meet in apartments furnished simply with long tables, round which are benches for the members who speak, as in the H. of C., from their places, and not, as in France, from a tribune. The lower chamber, visited by Paget, "is a long plain hall, traversed in nearly its whole length by two tables covered with green baize, at which the deputies sit, with pens, ink, and paper before them. At the upper end is a raised part occupied by the president, vice-president, and secretary; and behind these sit the judges of the royal assembly." In the interval between the sessions of the Diet, this apartment is used as a concert-room. The members attend the Diet armed, in full national costume; and, since 1825, the debates have not been carried on in Latin, but in Hungarian. They are sometimes very stormy. The cathedral, a Gothic edifice, supposed to date from the 11th century, and in which the kings of Hungary are crowned; the county-hall, German theatre, barracks, and archbishop's palace, are the other principal public buildings. There are several handsome noble residences, but they are seldom occupied, for Presburg is not a favourite place of abode with the Hungarian nobility; and most of the members of the Diet, when assembled, live in lodgings, dining at one of the numerous *restaurants* in the town. Presburg was formerly surrounded with walls, but it has long outgrown these, and they are now mostly demolished. It is a bishop's see, and the residence of the archbishop of Gran, primate of Hungary. It has a Rom. Cath. academy and a Calvinist lyceum, both possessing good libraries; a Cath. high gymnasium, Cath. seminary, college for poor students, and various other public schools; 8 hospitals, including one supported by the Jews,

who are very numerous here, and have a quarter to themselves; and many charitable institutions. A fine library, belonging to Count Appony, is open to the public; and, according to Mr. Paget (l. 23-4.), the book-sellers' establishments are well supplied with good works. The manufactures, which are various, include silk and woollen goods, salt-petre, rosoglio, tobacco, &c.; and the town has a large transit trade in corn, linen, and Hungarian wines. Immediately outside the town is the *Königsberg* (king's mountain), a small circular mound to which the king of Hungary proceeds to perform an important ceremony, immediately after his coronation. A very beautiful and fertile country extends along the other bank of the Danube, opposite Presburg; and on that side are the favourite resorts of the inhabs.; the promenade in the Au; public gardens; arena, or theatre in the open air for theatrical performances, &c.; the communication across the river being kept up by a bridge of boats. Presburg is very ancient. Joseph II. transferred its previous title of cap. of Hungary to Buda. The treaty which gave Venice to the French and the Tyrol to Bavaria was concluded here in 1805. (*Austr. Nat. Encycl.*; *Berghaus*; *Paget's Hungary*, &c., l. 1-28; *Glegg, Elliot*, &c., *passim*.)

PRESCOT, a market-town, par., and township of England, hund. W. Derby, co. Lancaster, 8 m. E. by N. Liverpool, and 23 m. W. by S. Manchester. Area of par., 24,000 acres; do. of township, 240 acres. Pop. of township in 1841, 8,451. It is situated on a high ground, over a large and rich coal-field, and consists of one long principal street, well paved and lighted with gas, on the turnpike road between Liverpool and Manchester, about 1 m. N. the railway between those towns. The principal public buildings are a town-hall, sessions-house, prison, and mechanics' institute. The par. church, an ancient structure, has a modern tower and steeple 156 ft. in height, forming a conspicuous object to the surrounding country; the living is a vicarage, of the annual value of 932l., in the gift of King's College, Cambridge, to which the par. belongs. In the out-townships are 5 district churches, the patronage of 6 of which is with the vicar. There are places of worship in the town for Wesleyan and Primitive Methodists, Independents, and Unitarians, besides which there are within the par. 3 Rom. Cath. chapels, and 2 meeting-houses for different denominations of dissenters. A grammar-school, with an endowment producing 160l. a year, has about 30 foundation-boys (sons of inhabs.) with other pay-scholars, those born and educated in the par. having a preference to 7 fellowships and several good exhibitions at Brasenose College, Oxford. Several almshouses, erected in 1708, furnish lodging for 19 old women, and there are numerous money-charities. The other benevolent institutions are a ladies' charity, bible society, and savings' bank.

Prescot has long been celebrated for its manufacture of watch-tools and movements, in both of which branches it greatly excels: files, also, of first-rate quality, and engravers' tools, are made here. In 1826, 100 men were employed in file-making, and 600 in the construction of watch tools, motion work, &c. The manufacture of coarse earthenware has for many years been carried on, the clay of the neighbourhood being well adapted for such a purpose. Cotton-spinning is carried on in 2 mills, employing, in 1826, 340 hands; and there is a small flax-mill. Coal-mines are wrought in every direction round the town; it is estimated that upwards of 2,000 men are employed in the collieries within the par.; and Liverpool receives from Prescot its chief supply of coal. Many of the out-townships are very populous, St. Helen's and Eccleston having attained to some importance as manufacturing towns. Prescot has petty sessions, and a baronial court for the recovery of small debts. Markets on Saturdays. (See *St. Helen's*.) (*Baines's Hist. of Lancaster*; *Butterworth's Stat. of Lancs.*, &c.)

PRESTEIGN, a par. bor. and market-town of S. Wales, hund. New Radnor, co. Radnor, near the S. bank of the Lug, in a fertile and well-cultivated valley, adjoining the confines of Herefordshire, 12 m. E. by N. Leominster. The par. of Presteign, which extends partly into Wigmore hund., co. Hereford, had, in 1841, 2,228 inhab., of which the par. bor. had 1,560. This is a well-built town, and notwithstanding its limited size, is the cap. of the co., the assizes and quarter sessions being held in it. A woollen manufacture was once carried on here; but that is now given up, and there is no manufacture at present in the town, unless it be that of malt, which is made in large quantities. It is a sort of metropolis of the country for 8 m. round, supplying it with groceries, drapery, iron-work, and shop goods in general. It has also a considerable trade in timber. The inhab. are principally professional men, tradesmen, mechanics, handicraftsmen, and a few farmers. There are also some persons of small independent incomes, who reside here for the sake of the cheapness of the place." (*Parish Bound. Reports*.) The church, which is very ancient, has some curious monuments and fine old tapestry. The living,

a rectory of the annual value of about £600., is in the gift of the Earl of Oxford. The Wesleyan and Primitive Methodist, and Baptist, have places of worship. The co. hall is said to be a handsome structure, and there is also a co. gaol and a free-school. The latter, founded and liberally endowed in the reign of Elizabeth by a clothier of the town, furnishes a plain English education to between 50 and 60 boys; and there are other minor schools and Sunday-schools attached to the Church and the Wesleyan connection. At the N. end of the town is a fine circular mound, laid out in public walks, presented to the inhab. by the Earl of Oxford. Presteigne unites with New Radnor and other small bors. in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors in the whole bor., in 1849-50, 457. It is governed by a bailiff and constables.

The Rev. Richard Lucas, author of the "Enquiry after Happiness," was a native of Presteigne, having been born here in 1648. The work now referred to, which has passed through a great number of editions, and is still held in considerable estimation, was written after the author had become blind. (*Altk's Biographical Dict.*)

PRESTON, a parli. and mun. bor., market-town, and par. of England, in its own div. of hund. Amounderness, co. Lancaster, on the N. bank of the Ribble, crossed here by 3 handsome bridges, 19 m. S. Lancaster, and 26 m. N.N.E. Liverpool. Area of parli. bor. (which comprises Preston and Fishwick townships), 2,560 acres. Pop., in 1831, 33,871; in 1841, 50,832. The town, which consists of a broad principal street, running N.E. from the river, crossed by several others in different directions, is "well built, well paved, with handsome dwelling-houses and thriving factories; having a perfect drainage and good roads leading from it." (*Bound. Rep.*) The streets are well lighted with gas, and there is an abundant supply of water. The market-place, at the junction of Fishergate and Friargate, contains about 3,000 sq. yds. The public buildings comprise an elegant court-house, erected in 1836; an exchange or market-house, town-hall, assembly-rooms, theatre, borough prison, House of Recovery, and a large county penitentiary. The church, originally erected in the 16th century, was rebuilt in 1770: the living is a vicarage, of the annual value of £684., in the gift of the trustees of Hulme's charity. There are also 7 district churches, chiefly of modern erection, and 4 others have been built in the out townships. The places of worship for dissenters comprise 4 for Rom. Caths. (a numerous and increasing body), 2 each for Wesleyan Methodists, and Independents, with others for Unitarians, Huntingdonians, Primitive Methodists, Baptists, Sandemanians, and the Society of Friends; there being, in all, within the town, 8 churches and 17 dissenting chapels. National schools are attached to the several churches; and all or most of the dissenting places of worship have large Sunday-schools, furnishing religious instruction to between 7,000 and 8,000 children. A grammar-school, founded prior to 1688, has an endowment of 50*l.* a year; there is, also, a partially endowed blue-coat school, and several day and infant schools, supported by subscription. The other charities comprise 9 almshouses, and several money bequests; a dispensary, house of recovery, built in 1829; provident society, workhouse, and savings' bank. Among the literary establishments, the first place is due to the Preston Institution for Diffusing Useful Knowledge, which has a library of about 2,500 vols., and an excellent museum. The Palatine and Dr. Shepherd's libraries are open to all classes, and the town has a public law-library. An agricultural society was founded in 1811. Avenham Walk, on the summit of the hill which rises from the banks of the Ribble, is a favourite promenade, and is kept in order at the cost of the corporation. Two newspapers are published, each once a week.

Preston, from its central position, its vicinity to an important coal district, and its extensive means of communication with the interior by canals and railways, united to the skill and enterprise of its citizens, has of late years rapidly increased in wealth and pop., and is now, in fact, one of the great seats of the cotton manufacture. In 1838, there belonged to the town 35 cotton-mills, impelled by a steam power of 1,332 horses, and employing above 7,000 hands. It has, also, numerous hand-loom weavers, though owing to the competition of the power-loom, their wages had fallen in 1838 to about 7*s.* a week at an average. The manufacture of linen cloth, formerly the principal branch of industry in Preston, is still pretty extensively carried on; and in 1838, 6 flax-mills employed about 1,400 hands. It has also numerous iron foundries, and other establishments for making machinery and other articles. Leather is tanned in considerable quantities; and there is a small fishery on the Ribble, which abounds with salmon, smelts, and eels. Two banking companies have been recently established, and there are 3 private banks. The Ribble is navigable at spring tides, as far as Preston-marsh, for vessels of 150 tons; but, being ill adapted for sea-borne vessels, it is frequented almost exclusively by coasters. The naviga-

tion, however, which is impeded by sand-banks, is in course of being improved by a company incorporated in 1837-38; and it is expected that a depth of 18 ft. water, at ordinary spring tides, will be attained. The river dues produce about 1,000*l.* a year. The Lancaster Canal, formed in 1796, passes the town; and it is connected with other parts of the co., and of England generally, by the North Union Railway (234 m. in length), which crosses the Ribble on a viaduct of 5 arches, 68 ft. above the river, the Lancaster and Preston Railway, a portion of the great N. West line, the Preston and Longridge Railway, the Bolton and Preston Railway, and the Preston and Wyre Railway, which last connects it with the new seaport of Fleetwood, at the mouth of Wyre harbour, now rapidly rising in importance. Large markets on Saturday, with others on Wednesday and Friday for fish, butter, and vegetables. Great fairs in Jan., March, Aug., and Nov.; the first of which, called the "Great Saturday," is celebrated for its show of horses.

Preston is a bor. by prescription, and received its first charter from Henry II. By a subsequent charter, granted by Henry III., the officers of the bor. were authorised to hold a guild merchant for the renewing of the freedom of the burgesses, and other purposes. This privilege is made the occasion of great festivity. For a long time after their first institution, the guilds were held at irregular periods; but they have now for more than a century been uniformly celebrated every twentieth year, commencing on the Monday next after the decollation of St. John, which generally happens in the last week of August. The last was held in 1832. Processions of the corporation, and the different trades in characteristic dresses, as well as of ladies, and females employed in the factories, take place on two of the days; and the amusements, which are varied and interesting, continue for a fortnight. But for civic purposes, the guild books are open for an entire month. Under the Mun. Reform Act, Preston is divided into 6 wards, its municipal officers being a mayor and 12 aldermen, with 36 councillors. Corp. rev., in 1848-49, 8,106*l.* 1*st.* Quarter and petty sessions are held under a recorder. Quarter sessions for the bunds, of Amounderness, Blackburn, and Leyland are, also, held here, and there is a county court, before which 1,293 plaints were entered in 1848. Preston has sent 3 mems. to the H. of C. since the reign of Edward VI., the right of voting, down to the Reform Act, being in the inhab. at large. The Boundary Act enlarged the electoral limits, so as to include the township of Fishwick with the old bor. Reg. electors in 1848-50, 2,653.

Preston is supposed to have risen on the decay of the ancient *Aerigoniam*, or Ribchester, a city now reduced to the condition of a mere village, about 11 m. higher up the river; and it derived its name of *Priest's-town* from the number of religious houses established here, and of which there are still some remains. It was partly destroyed by Robert Bruce, in 1322. In the parliamentary wars of Charles I., its inhab. declared for the king, and it was besieged and taken by Sir Thomas Fairfax. In 1715, the Jacobite insurgents took possession of the town, and erected barricades for its defence; but, after a brave resistance, they were compelled to surrender to the royalist force under General Willes. In 1745, Preston was visited by the Pretender, on his retreat; but he was compelled to withdraw on the approach of the Duke of Cumberland. (*Baker's Hist. of Lancashire; Batterworth's Stat. Sketch of Lancashire*, p. 109-113; *Parli. and Bound. Rep.*)

PRESTONPANS, a bor. of barony and sea-port town of Scotland, co. Haddington, on the shore of the Frith of Forth, 7½ m. E. Edinburgh. In 1841, the par., which is one of the smallest in Scotland, had a pop. of 1,234, of whom the bor. had about 1,660. It is straggling and ill-built, consisting principally of a single street parallel to the Frith of Forth. It derives its name from its having, for a lengthened period, had a number of salt-works or pans for the production of salt by the evaporation of the sea water, and for the refining of rock salt. The latter branch of the business is now the only one that remains. It has, also, a brewery, at which some of the best Scotch ale brought to the Edinburgh market is produced, a soap-works, and two works for the manufacture of coarse pottery. There are extensive oyster beds in the vicinity of the town, whence the Edinburgh markets derive a large proportion of their supply. Morrison's Haven, the port of Prestonpans, about ¼ m. W. from the town, is a small creek, with not more than 10 ft. water at springs.

Near this village, on the 21st of Sept., 1745, the royal army, under Sir John Cope, consisting of about 3,100 regular troops, was totally defeated and dispersed with great loss, by the Highlanders, who were, but little superior in point of numbers, under the Pretender. The king's troops being panic struck, threw away their arms, and fled at the first fire, and were cut down almost without resistance. (*Johnston's Memoirs of the Rebellion*, p. 34-38.)

PREVESEA, a town of Turkey in Europe, prov. Al-

PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND.

at the entrance of the Ambracian Gulph, 88 m. V. Yanina. Pop. 4,000. It is ill built, badly paved; but it is in a good situation for commerce, as formerly the entrepôt of the trade of Epirus. A isthmus, connecting the peninsula upon which it is with the main land, are the remains of Nicopolis, ruins of the ancient walls, a theatre, some baths, and other vestiges of antiquity.

PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND, (formerly SAINT

John), an island of N. America, belonging to Great Britain, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, principally between the 46th and 47th degs. of N. lat., and the 62d and 63d of W. long., from 20 to 25 m. E. of New Brunswick. It is of a curved line, passing through its centre E. and W. about 140 m.; greatest breadth 34 m. Area estimated at 1,880,769 acres, or about 2,150 sq. m. Pop., in 1856, 62,578, principally Highland Scotch, Irish, and Anglo-French, with Englishmen, Dutchmen, Americans, and Swedes. A chain of hills of moderate height intersects it; but the surface in general is level, or most only undulating. It is well watered, and horses are deeply indented with numerous bays. Climate is milder than in any of the surrounding British colonies, and appears to be favourable to

evety. The atmosphere is nearly free from the fogs so prevalent in Cape Breton and the adjacent countries, and the thin vegetable mould the soil is generally of loam, resting on a base of sandstone; there are swamps, and pine barrens; but these bear only a small proportion to the whole surface. The island in general is well wooded, the principal trees being spruce, beech, birch, and maple. Oak, ash, larch, &c., are scarce, and the quality of the first is very inferior. All kinds of grain and vegetables raised in England come to perfection. Wheat is, at present, the principal object of cultivation; but it is an uncertain crop, and the farmer

better trust more to oats and barley. Potatoes have been extensively cultivated; and have had the same mischievous consequences here as in Ireland and elsewhere. Flax of excellent quality is raised, and manufactured into linen for domestic use. Hemp will grow, but not to the same perfection as in the adjacent colonies. It is, however, though we apprehend the statement must be taken with large qualifications, that had the natural advantages of this island been turned to proper account, it might at this time have been the granary of the British colonies, instead of barely supporting a poor and limited population.

Of nearly 1,400,000 acres contained in the island, only 10,000 are said to be unfit for the plough; but only 216,000 are now under cultivation. The origin of a state of things is ascribed, in Lord Durham's Report, to the injudicious grants made to absentee proprietors, under conditions that have been totally disregarded. "The absent proprietors neither improve the land, nor will let others improve it. They retain it in a state of wilderness." (Report, 1840-41.) What land is under the plough is cultivated in a very slovenly manner; though the establishment of an agricultural society of late years has done something to improve husbandry.

Pastures are good, and suitable for cattle and sheep; owing to the want of proper attention, hogs are said not to thrive so well as the former. Live stock used to suffer greatly from the ravages of bears, lup-erviers, and other wild animals; but these are much less numerous now than formerly. The island has no mines. Its fisheries might be of considerable importance; but owing to the want of capital and of a taste for the business, they are almost wholly neglected, and left to the undisturbed possession of the Americans. A good many ships are built in the colony; 78 vessels of the aggregate burden of 9,544 tons having been built in 1848. Fisheries, however, are mostly sold to the agents of shipping belonging to the colony on the 1st January, 1856, amounted to 8,320 tons. Total value of exports from the colony, in 1849, 55,605, principally corn and timber: value of imports in do., 115,205. The principal trade is with the other provs. of B. N. America. Declared value of exports from England to P. Edward's Island, in 1849, 1,421. Total colonial rev. in 1849, 12,411.

The constitution is nearly similar to that of Nova Scotia, and in all civil matters independent of any jurisdiction in America. The government and legislature is vested in a lieutenant-governor, a council of 15 members, and a House of Assembly of 18 representatives elected by the people. The governor is chancellor of the court of chancery; the chief justice and attorney-general are appointed by the sovereign; and the high sheriff is appointed annually by the local government. In the supreme court of judicature all criminal and civil matters of consequence are tried by jury. Cases of petty debt and breaches of the peace are decided by special magistrates and justices of the peace. There are superior schools in Charlotte Town, and 122 district schools. Total schools in 1848, 182, pupils 4,700. Charlotte Town, the cap. and seat of government, on Hillsborough river, near the S. coast, has one of the best harbours in the Gulf of

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St. Lawrence. The town, on gently rising ground, is regularly built, and clean, with about 5,000 inhabs. The court-house, episcopal and Scotch churches, several chapels, the barracks, and the fort, are its only conspicuous public buildings.

This island was taken from the French in 1756. It was annexed with Cape Breton to the government of Nova Scotia in 1763, but since 1768 has formed a separate colony. (Macgregor's America; Campbell's Report for 1848, &c.)

PRINCE OF WALES'S ISLAND (native Pulo Pinang, 'the Areca island'), an island and British settlement in the Eastern Seas, about two miles from the W. coast of the Malay Peninsula, lat. 5° 15' N. long. 106° 25' E. Length, N. to S., nearly 16 m.; breadth varying from 8 to 12 m. Area about 160 sq. m. Pop., in 1856, 38,450, principally Malays, Chinese, and Chulians, the Europeans being under 800. The N. part of the island is mountainous, and a range of hills runs through its centre, declining in height as it approaches the S.W. extremity. But two-thirds of the whole surface are level, or of gentle inclination, and, like the hills, covered with woods. The thermometer, in the plains, ranges between 76° and 90° Fahr., and on the higher hills at from 64° to 76°. Except in a few places, Pinang is considered very healthy. Refreshing showers fall at short intervals throughout the year. The climate of the high lands is said to resemble that of Funchal, in Madeira. The geological formations are primitive. Nearly all the hills are of granite; and the subsoil, where not alluvial, is principally the detritus of that rock. Tin ore is found at the base of the mountains. The island produces a good deal of timber, well adapted for ship-building and masts; and fine fruits; and it is well adapted for the growth of spices. As a commercial mart, this settlement is much inferior to Singapore; but, according to Mr. Newbold, "it bids fair by its plantations of nutmegs and cloves, to render us independent of the spice islands which we have given up to Holland." (Malacca, &c.)

The attention of the agriculturists is now almost exclusively directed to the improvement and extension of the spice-plantations, and dry waste land for that purpose may be obtained from the government on leases of 40 years, at a small quit-rent. The annual produce of the staple articles is estimated as follows:—

Articles.	Quantities.	Value in Spanish Dollars.
Nutmegs - - - - - piculs.	400	12,000
Mace - - - - -	150	18,000
Cloves - - - - -	2,000	80,000
Pepper - - - - -	16,000	
Total value - - - - -	- - -	114,000

The value of the nutmegs, mace, and cloves, exported in the years 1856-7, amounted to 156,800 rupees. A good many cocoa-nuts are grown; and gambir, indigo, cotton, areca, and tobacco in small quantities. Coffee, sugar-cane, betel nut and leaf, rice, cotton, and ginger, are also raised. The trade of Pinang is chiefly that of transit between Great Britain and the East India, on the one hand, and the Malay peninsula, and Tenasserim, provs. Siam, Anam, Borneo, Java, Sumatra, China, &c., on the other. A considerable trade in cotton cloths is kept up by the Chulians with the Coromandel coast.

The revenue of Pinang and Prov. Wellesley is derived from lands, customs, licences, and the sale of the government monopolies of opium, spirits, pork, betel-leaf, and the market. In 1855-56 it amounted to 178,900 rupees; but the disbursements, not including the expenses of the military and the convict establishment, amounted to 253,325 rupees, leaving a deficit of 74,425 rupees.

Province Wellesley, a dependency of this settlement, is a strip of coast land on the Malay peninsula, opposite Pinang, 35 m. in length, by about 4 m. in breadth. Area, 140 sq. m. Pop., in 1856, 47,555, of whom 43,000 were Malays. It has an undulating surface, chiefly of alluvial soil, and a healthy climate. Its principal products are rice, pepper, sugar, and cocoa nuts; and the gross value of its surplus agricultural produce is estimated at 80,000 Spas. dollars. It supplies Pinang with cattle and poultry. These settlements are under the Bengal presidency, and governed by a resident at George Town, and an assistant resident in Province Wellesley.

George Town, the cap., at the N.E. extremity of Pinang, has a pop. of about 13,000. It is built on level ground, and consists of a long and broad street, intersected by others of inferior dimensions. It has a fort, a handsome church, an Armenian chapel, two Rom. Catholic chapels, a court-house, gaol, public school, poor-house, the governor's offices, and the civil and military hospitals. An English weekly newspaper is published in the town, and a few shops are kept by Europeans, but the major portion by Chinese. There are cantonments for the native troops near the town. Pinang was purchased by the East India Company in 1786, and Province Wellesley in 1800. (Newbold's Malacca, &c.)

PROVENCE, one of the former provs. of France, in the S.E. part of the kingdom, now subdivided into the dépts. Basses-Alpes, Bouches-du-Rhône, Var, and a portion of Vaucluse.

PROVIDENCE, a city and port of entry of the U. States, Rhode Island, of which it is the cap., being, also, the second city of New England in point of pop., wealth, and commerce. It stands at the head of the tide-water in Narragansett Bay, about 30 m. from the Atlantic, 40 m. S.S.W. Boston; lat. $41^{\circ} 50' 40''$ N., long. $71^{\circ} 21' 30''$ W. Pop., in 1840, 23,171. It stands on elevated ground on both sides Providence River, an arm of the bay, here crossed by 2 bridges, one 90 ft. in width. It is a well-built, handsome, thriving town. Its chief public buildings are the state-house, Brown university, and the arcade. The last, which is the finest building of its kind in the Union, was finished in 1838; it is 223 ft. in depth; has 3 granite fronts 72 ft. in width, ornamented with Doric colonnades, and cost, in all, about 130,000 dollars. Providence has numerous churches, schools, and charitable institutions. Brown University, founded at Warren in 1764, and removed thither in 1770, comprises 3 colleges, and is governed by a board of trustees and fellows, all of whom must be Baptists. It has a library of 28,000 vols., and a very complete philosophical apparatus, and is attended by above 150 students. (*Amer. Almanack*, 1850.) The Friends have a boarding-school here, which has about 900 pupils. There are several literary societies, which possess libraries, &c., and many extensive private seminaries.

Providence is distinguished as a manufacturing town: its cotton factories employ from 12,000 to 14,000 spindles; and it has extensive bleaching-grounds and dye-houses; iron-foundries and machine-factories for the production of cotton machinery; with manufactures of combs, jewellery, glass wares, leather, boots and shoes, soap, candles, furniture, &c. Pawtucket, about 4 m. N.E., is also the seat of extensive cotton manufactures, the products of which find an outlet at Providence. Vessels of the largest burden come close to the wharfs, and the navigation of the bay is not often impeded by ice. In 1849, there belonged to this town 17,730 tons shipping.

Providence communicates with Boston, and with Stonington in Connecticut, by railways; with Worcester (Massachusetts) by the Blackstone Canal; and steamboats of a large class keep up a daily communication with New York. It was originally settled in 1636, by Mr. Roger Williams, to whom is ascribed the honour of having established the first political community in which perfect religious toleration was admitted. It was incorporated as a city in 1831. (*Encyc. Americana*; *Amer. Almanack*.)

PROVIDENCE, one of the Bahama islands, which see.

PRUSSIA, an important European kingdom, between the 49th and 56th deg. N. lat., and the 6th and 23d deg. E. long. The principal part of the Prussian dominions lies continuously along the S. shore of the Baltic, between Russia and Mecklenburg, comprising the N. part of what was formerly Poland, and most part of the N. of Germany. The inland frontier of this part of the monarchy on the E. and S. is sufficiently connected; but on the W. side it is very ragged, some small independent states being almost entirely surrounded by the Prussian dominions. But, exclusive of this principal portion, there is an extensive Prussian territory on both sides the Rhine, divided into the provinces of Westphalia and Rhine. This portion is separated from the rest of the monarchy, or from what may be called the Eastern States, by Hesse-Cassel, part of Hanover, Brunswick, &c. The Canton of Neufchatel, in Switzerland, and some detached territories in Saxony, also belong to Prussia.

Eastern Prussia has on the N. the Baltic; on the E. Russia, Russian Poland, and Cracow; and on the S. and W. the Austrian states of Galicia, Moravia, and Bohemia, with Saxony, and other German states. West Prussia, or the provinces on the Rhine, have on the N. and E. Hanover and other German states; on the S. France; and on the W. Belgium and the Netherlands. From the extreme eastern frontier of Prussia to Aix-la-Chapelle, in an E.N.E. and W.S.W. direction, the distance is about 775 m.; and from the promontory on the Baltic, above Stralsund, to the extreme southern frontier of Silesia,

in a N.E. and S.W. direction, the distance is 404 m. Owing, however, to the irregularity of the frontier, and the intervention of other countries, these measurements give no information as to the extent of the monarchy.

The disjointed state of the dominions of Prussia detracts materially from her power. The possession of Warsaw gives Russia a position whence she may attack the very centre of the monarchy. An alliance with Saxony would bring an Austrian army within a few days' march of Berlin; and the Rhenish provinces are exposed to be overrun by France. The government, aware of the weakness occasioned by the circumstances now alluded to, have systematically laboured to give a more compact form to its dominions. But they have only partially succeeded; and it is, in consequence, necessary for the public security that the military establishment should be placed on a very imposing footing.

Aggrandisement of Prussia.—The rise of the Prussian power has been rapid and extraordinary. The kings of Prussia are descended from petty German princes, who, in the 14th century, were burgraves of Nuremberg. In 1418, Sigismund, emperor of Germany, sold the marquisate (afterwards electorate) of Brandenburg to Frederick, one of these burgraves for 400,000 ducats, who, by this purchase, laid the foundation of the future grandeur of his family. (Ffiesel, *Histoire d'Allemagne*, anno 1417.) In 1515, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, was elected grand master of the Teutonic knights, who then possessed Ducal Prussia; and by a treaty concluded in 1525, this territory was secularised and erected into a duchy in favour of Albert and his successors. (Ffiesel, 1525.) In 1597, Prussia was acknowledged by Poland to be a free and independent state; and, after other aggrandisements, it was advanced to the dignity of a kingdom in 1700. Part of Pomerania was not long after added to Prussia.

But notwithstanding these acquisitions, when Frederick the Great ascended the throne, in 1740, his disjointed dominions did not contain 2,500,000 inhab., who had made but little progress in the arts, or in the accumulation of wealth. But this extraordinary man, with no extrinsic assistance, and by mere dint of superior talent, wrested, in the early part of his reign, the valuable and extensive province of Silesia from the house of Austria. He afterwards defended himself, during the seven years' war, against the combined efforts of Austria, Russia, and France, and forced these powers to conclude a treaty, by which Silesia was solemnly guaranteed to Prussia. In the latter part of his reign, in conjunction with Russia and Austria, Frederick planned, and partly carried into effect, the partition of Poland, acquiring as his share the western parts of Prussia, and secured, in addition to the increase of territory, an unrestricted communication between the different great divisions of his kingdom.

By these different acquisitions, Prussia, at the death of Frederick in 1786, had been increased in size nearly a half; while, owing to the superior fertility of the conjoined provinces, and the improvement effected in every part of his dominions, after the peace of 1763, the pop. had increased, according to the estimate of the Prussian writers, to about 6,000,000.

Prussia acquired by the subsequent partition of Poland in 1792, and its final dismemberment in 1795, a great extension of territory, including the important city of Dantzic, and upwards of 3,000,000 inhab. In addition to this, she acquired the bishopric of Paderborn and the principalities of Bayreuth and Anspach, with several lesser districts in Germany; so that in 1806, according to the statement of Krug, she contained nearly 8,000,000 geog. sq. miles of territory, and a pop. of 9,640,000.

Her disastrous contest with France in 1806, and her subsequent humiliation, are well known. But the spirit of the people was not subdued; and after Napoleon's campaign in Russia, the pop. rose *en masse*, and the zeal and bravery of the Prussians were mainly instrumental in effecting the final overthrow of Napoleon. At the general peace of 1815, Prussia became more powerful than ever. She recovered all her former possessions, except a portion of her Polish dominions assigned to the kingdom of Poland; but this was more than compensated by valuable acquisitions in Saxony, Pomerania, and the Rhenish provinces.

Considering, however, the importance of Prussia, as a counterpoise to Russia on the one hand, and to France on the other, it were to be wished that her territories were both more extensive and more compact. One of the greatest faults committed by the congress of Vienna was the diminution of the acquisitions of Prussia in Poland. This was to be regretted, as much on account

of the general interests of Europe, which requires that Prussia should be a power of the first order, as of the inhabs. of the provinces separated from her dominions.

Divisions and Extent of the Country. Population.—The Prussian monarchy is divided into 9 provinces, and

these again into 26 regencies, which are farther subdivided into 330 circles. Each regency takes its name from its principal city, as is seen in the following Table, which also shows their extent and population at different epochs.

Account of the Provinces and Regencies of the Prussian Monarchy in 1849, specifying their Extent in Geographical and British Square Miles; and their Population in 1816, 1825, 1846, and 1849.

Provinces and Regencies.	Area in Geog. sq. Miles.	Area in British sq. Miles. 60-15 to a degree.	Pop. in 1816.	Pop. in 1825.	Pop. in 1846.	Pop. in 1849.
Prussia East:						
Königsberg - - -	400-13	14,918	223,104	273,208	247,322	247,523
Gumbinnen - - -	298-21		261,056	478,640	628,268	614,047
	706-34		484,162	1,151,908	1,480,318	1,461,580
Prussia West:						
Dantzic - - -	152-28	9,862	223,058	310,244	405,806	404,667
Marienwerder - - -	819-41		525,184	427,117	615,300	621,248
	471-69		568,242	737,361	1,019,105	1,025,713
Posen:						
Posen - - -	321-68	11,530	570,758	708,396	900,430	927,339
Brumberg - - -	214-53		245,190	282,529	463,669	454,675
	536-51		815,948	1,031,925	1,364,199	1,382,014
Brandenburg:						
Potsdam and Berlin - - -	382-51	15,306	688,300	809,038	1,226,566	1,268,535
Frankfort - - -	251-63		565,876	654,882	840,127	860,087
	734-14		1,254,176	1,456,920	2,066,693	2,129,622
Pomerania:						
Stettin - - -	236-48	12,130	310,952	389,412	547,952	562,127
Ustulin - - -	252-13		254,421	326,118	454,141	445,516
Stralsund - - -	79-02		125,968	142,512	181,981	187,058
	574-33		671,361	859,642	1,165,073	1,197,701
Silesia:						
Breslau - - -	242-14	15,666	764,222	903,404	1,185,994	1,174,679
Oppeln - - -	243-08		616,619	647,399	987,318	965,912
Langens - - -	250-54		632,652	729,618	912,497	921,002
	741-74		1,914,083	2,280,621	3,065,809	3,061,598
Saxony:						
Magdeburg - - -	310-12	9,729	480,406	320,773	674,149	691,574
Merseburg - - -	182-76		458,581	352,584	784,686	767,151
Erfurt - - -	61-74		234,477	263,231	343,617	347,279
	480-63		1,180,413	1,344,087	1,742,452	1,781,297
Westphalia:						
Münster - - -	122-17	7,771	247,587	380,004	421,044	421,935
Minden - - -	95-68		235,608	269,904	436,833	465,225
Arnsberg - - -	140-11		574,113	427,652	564,842	579,757
	367-96		1,057,859	1,176,910	1,445,719	1,464,291
Rhine Provinces:						
Cologne - - -	72-40	10,289	224,632	263,886	484,393	497,930
Düsseldorf - - -	98-32		261,022	322,975	387,614	397,151
Coblenz - - -	109-64		337,478	392,575	499,557	504,294
Treves - - -	131-13		286,280	341,684	488,699	494,182
Aix-la-Chapelle - - -	75-65		307,294	336,085	408,617	411,225
	467-14		1,245,645	1,367,983	2,763,080	2,811,172
Total area and inhabs.	5,290-18	107,300	10,169,869	12,075,657	16,112,948	16,285,013

To which adding 46,174 for troops out of the country, the total pop., in 1849, will be 16,231,187.

Face of the Country. Mountains.—The surface of the Prussian states is generally flat. With the exception, indeed, of part of the Harz Mountains, in the prov. of Saxony, the Teutoburger Wald, and some other mountains in Westphalia and Saxony, the volcanic district in it and the Lower Rhine, and the Riesengebirge, or Giant's Mountains, on the S.W. confines of Silesia, there is no other tract that is more than hilly. Prussia is, in fact, a country of vast plains; and is in most parts so very level, that many marshes and small lakes have been formed by the inundations of the rivers. The eastern, or principal part of the monarchy slopes imperceptibly from the S. frontier towards the Baltic, the shore of which is low and sandy. From this circumstance, and the nature of the soil, which in many places consists of little else than mere loose sand, some geologists have supposed that the sea had at one time overspread the greater part of its surface; and there would seem to be considerable plausibility in the supposition. At a comparatively recent period the country was covered in most parts with immense forests, of which there are still very extensive remains. These, when they belong to the crown, are under the control of the administration of forests.

Soil.—The quality of the soil is very various. In Brandenburg and Pomerania it is generally poor; in many parts, indeed, it consists of tracts of loose barren sand, diversified with extensive heaths and moors; but, in other parts, particularly along the rivers and lakes, there is a good deal of meadow, marsh, and other comparatively rich land. In Ducal Prussia and Prussian Poland, including the prov. of Posen, the soil consists generally of black earth and sand, and is in many parts very superior. But Silesia, and the Saxon and Rhenish provs., are naturally, perhaps, the most productive. The plain of Magdeburg, on the left bank of the Elbe, is, perhaps,

the most fertile and best cultivated district of the monarchy.

Rivers and Lakes.—Prussia is extremely well watered. The Rhenish provs. are traversed by the Rhine, while their E. frontier is partly formed by the Weser. The Elbe traverses the Saxon provs.; the Oder, which is almost entirely a Prussian river, runs through the whole extent of the monarchy, from the S. frontier of Silesia to the Isle of Usedom, where it falls into the Baltic. Polish Prussia (or Posen) is watered by the Wartha; West Prussia by the Vistula; and Ducal Prussia by the Pregel and Niemen. And besides the above, there are many other large rivers, as the Ems, Moselle, Spree, Havel, Netz, &c.

Owing to the flatness of the country through which they flow, none of the great rivers are interrupted by cataracts, and they are all navigable—the Rhine, Elbe, and Vistula, throughout their whole course in the Prussian dominions; the Oder is navigable, for barges, as far as Ratibor in S. Silesia; and the Pregel and Niemen to a considerable distance inland. The establishment of steam-packets on these rivers, and the freeing of the navigation of the Rhine and the Elbe from the oppressive tolls and regulations by which it was formerly obstructed, have already been, and will no doubt continue to be, of vast service to the country. Canals have also been constructed connecting the Elbe, the Oder, and the Vistula; so that goods shipped at Hamburg may be conveyed by water to Dantzic, and conversely. (See the accounts of the above rivers, under their different names.)

Lakes are exceedingly numerous, particularly in Ducal Prussia and Pomerania. There are also along the coast several large bays, or rather lagoons, communicating with the sea by narrow mouths, and possessing more of the character of freshwater lakes than of arms of the sea. They are denominated *Haffs*, the principal being

the Curische Haß and the Frische Haß, on the coast of Ducal Prussia, and the Haß at the mouth of the Oder.

Seaports.—The principal sea-ports are Memel, Königsberg, or rather Pillau, Danzig, Stettin, and Stralsund. With the exception of Stettin, or rather of its outport, Swinemünde, the water at these ports is rather shallow, seldom exceeding from 10 ft. to 12 ft. But at Swinemünde there are from 19 ft. to 21 ft.

Climate.—The climate of Prussia is not less various than the soil. Along the Baltic it is moist, and in Ducal Prussia, especially, the winter is long and severe. It is also severe in the S. parts of Silesia, contiguous to the Carpathian Mountains. In N. Silesia, Brandenburg, and the Saxon and Rhenish provs., it is comparatively mild.

Minerals.—The Prussian monarchy is richer in minerals than might have been anticipated from its flatness. Iron is the most generally diffused. It is very extensively wrought in Silesia, principally on a count of the crown, but also by private individuals. The iron-works in the Rhine provs., near Dortmund, Solingen, Iserlohn, &c., and those near Schmiedeberg, Tarnowitz, Sprottau, &c., in Silesia, are very extensive. Coals are very abundant in the Rhenish provs., Saxony, and parts of Silesia, and large quantities are annually produced. Salt, which is a government monopoly, is produced principally in the Saxon provs., which also yield considerable quantities of copper and some silver. Silesia furnishes annually large quantities of zinc, lead, and tin; but the last-mentioned metal is partly, also, supplied by Brandenburg. Amber has long been known as a product of Ducal Prussia. It is principally formed along the low narrow tongue of land between the Curische Haß and the sea.

If we distinguish the mineral products into I. metals; II. combustible minerals; III. stones; IV. clay, sand, earth; V. salt, alum, &c.,—we have in Prussia

I. Metals.

Silver, in Saxony (Maaßfeld); Westphalia (Siegen); Silesia.

Copper, Saxony (Maaßfeld), Westphalia (Siegen); Silesia.

Lead, Silesia, Rhine, Westphalia, Saxony, and Prussia.

Iron and steel, in every province, but principally in the mountains of Silesia, Westphalia, and Rhine.

Cobalt, Westphalia (Siegen), and Saxony.

Arabic, Silesia.

Calamine and zinc, Silesia, Rhine, and Westphalia.

II. Combustible Minerals.

Sulphur, Silesia.

Amber, Prussia.

Peat-coal, Silesia, Westphalia, Rhine, Saxony.

Brown-coal, Saxony and Rhine.

Wool, in every province, principally in Brandenburg.

III. Stones.

Amethyst, agate, in Silesia.

Alabaster, Saxony.

Marble, Westphalia, Saxony, Rhine, Silesia.

Volcanic topkai, Rhine province, and very important.

Serpentine stone, Silesia.

Of limestone, red stone, in Silesia, Saxony, Westphalia, Rhine.

Gravel, or whet-stone, in Westphalia, Silesia, Saxony.

Limestone, in Silesia, Westphalia, Rhine, Saxony, Brandenburg.

Gypsum in the same provinces as limestone.

Wool, Westphalia and the Rhine.

IV. Clay, Sand, Berths.

Porcelain earth in Saxony, near Halle.

Pipe-clay and Potter's earth, Silesia.

Sand, suitable for the fabrication of glass, in all provinces.

Brick-clay and marl, in all provinces.

V. Salt.

Kitchen salt, in Saxony, Westphalia, Pomerania, Rhine.

Alum, Silesia, Saxony, Westphalia, Rhine, Brandenburg.

Salt-petre, in some provinces.

In 1835, there were produced in the monarchy 184,280 cwt. zinc, 1,658,277 cwt. iron, 10,896,433 tons coal, 181,534,150 lbs. salt, &c. The total value of the minerals produced in that year has been estimated at 5,195,368 rix-doll.

Vegetable and Animal Productions.—These do not differ materially in Prussia and Great Britain. Rye and wheat, with buck-wheat, oats, barley, potatoes (now very extensively cultivated), and flax and hemp, are the principal products of Prussian agriculture. About 700,000 eimers of very fair wine are made in the Rhenish provs. It is mostly consumed in the country, the exports being so very trifling as not to exceed from 5,000 to 6,000 eimers a year. The average price of Prussian wine may be estimated at from 15 to 30 rix-dollars per eimer. The animals of Prussia are the same with those of this country, except that wolves and wild boars, which were long since exterminated in Great Britain, continue to exist in considerable numbers in the Prussian territories.

Agriculture.—Down to a comparatively recent period, the state of landed property in Prussia, and the condition of the occupiers of the soil, was similar to its state and their condition in most parts of continental Europe. The country was mostly divided into pretty considerable estates; and down to 1807, none but nobles or privileged persons could acquire landed property. Such parts of an estate as were not in the immediate possession of the lord were held by occupiers, in a sort of predial slavery on condition of their paying a certain rent, consisting sometimes of services to be performed on the lord's land, sometimes of the delivery of a certain proportion (generally a half) of the produce, and more frequently, perhaps, of both the one and the other. In some places the tenants had acquired a sort of hereditary right to their possessions on their making the accustomed payments; but in other parts the title to the lands they occupied was only for life or for a certain number of years; though, by a most absurd regulation, the proprietor could not then resume the lands into his own hands, but was obliged to re-let them to an occupier of the same grade as the one who had left them! In 1807, however, the regulation which prevented peasants, tradesmen, &c., from acquiring land was abolished; and in 1811 appeared the famous edict which enacted that all the peasants who held perpetual leases, on condition of paying certain quantities of produce, or of performing certain services on account of the proprietors, should, upon

Territorial Division of Prussia after the most exact Data.

Provinces.	Arable Land.	Vineyards.	Meadows.	Pasturage.	Forests.	Waste Land.	Water.
Brandenburg - -	6,700,000	65,000	1,435,000	3,250,000	3,500,000	550,000	300,000
Pomerania - - -	4,600,000	80,000	1,700,000	2,390,000	2,300,000	600,000	635,000
Prussia - - - -	9,300,000	177,000	3,135,000	5,640,000	5,800,000	1,150,000	1,935,000
Posen - - - - -	2,670,000	80,000	1,630,000	2,530,000	2,600,000	450,000	100,000
Silesia - - - - -	8,000,000	130,000	2,190,000	1,410,000	2,800,000	370,000	340,000
Saxony - - - - -	5,300,000	130,000	1,600,000	1,110,000	1,800,000	240,000	130,000
Westphalia - - -	4,625,000	95,000	1,151,000	268,714	1,350,000	528,000	37,000
Rhine Province -	4,900,000	<div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> <div style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;"> 54,000 Gardens 350,000 </div> </div>	960,000	1,547,000	3,300,000	260,000	90,000
Total in Morgens -	47,325,716	1,099,176	14,246,429	16,922,714	23,780,000	5,591,000	5,922,844
Total in Hectares -	11,057,670	257,683	3,237,285	4,228,707	6,071,509	916,834	1,001,580
Total in Acres -	28,782,444	636,427	8,096,573	10,551,906	14,996,577	2,264,639	2,473,908

giving up one third part of the land held by them, become the unconditional proprietors of the other two thirds! And with respect to the other classes of peasants, or those who occupied lands upon life-leases, or leases for a term of years, it was enacted that they should, upon giving up half their farms, become the unconditional proprietors of the other half! This edict certainly effected the greatest and most sweeping change that was ever peaceably effected in the distribution of property in any great country. It was regarded at the time, and in some respects justly, as a dangerous interference with the rights of individuals. But the abuses which it went to eradicate were so injurious to the public welfare, and were, at the same time, so deeply seated, that they could not have been extirpated by any less powerful means. It has given a wonderful stimulus to improvement. The peasantry, relieved from the burdens and services to which they were previously subjected, and placed, in respect of political privileges, on a level with their lords, have begun to display a spirit of enterprise and industry that was formerly unknown.

Formerly, also, there were in Prussia, as there have been in England and most other countries, a great extent of land belonging to towns and villages, and occupied in common by the inhabs. While under this tenure these lands rarely produce a third or fourth part of what they would produce, were they divided into separate properties, and assigned to individuals, each reaping all the advantages resulting from superior industry and exertion. The Prussian government being aware of this, has succeeded in effecting the division of a vast number of common properties, and has thus totally changed the appearance of a large extent of country, and created several thousand new proprietors. The want of capital and the force of old habits rendered the influence of these changes at the outset less striking than many anticipated: but these retarding circumstances have daily diminished in power; and despite the too great extension of the potato, it may be safely affirmed, that the country has made a greater progress since 1815 than it did during the preceding hundred years.

The frequency of mortgages, and the embarrassed

of great numbers of the landed proprietors, are, however, loudly complained of. Perhaps the extent of evil is exaggerated; and we incline to think, that no inconsiderable degree ascribable to the insolence of land-banks, or rather of associations for the getting of money on the security of land. These associations were established with the most laudable intentions: but the facilities they have afforded of compound debt, coupled with the little risk there is of the debt ever being demanded, provided interest be paid, have tempted many individuals to indulge in inordinate expenditure, and have made them injurious to themselves.

It is used to be in Prussia an article of universal consumption, occupying the same place there that wheat occupies in England, and potatoes in Ireland. But we try to have to state that of late years it has been, to a great extent, superseded by the potato, the culture of which has increased with a rapidity to which there is no parallel. It now, in fact, forms the principal dependence of a large proportion of the pop. In proof of this we go to state that while the well-informed Prussian official, M. Dieterich, estimates the value of the produce of the various crops in Prussia, inc. wheat, at, &c., circa 1846, at 179,166,000 th., he estimates the value of the potato crop only at nearly double that, or at 341,000,000 th. This wonderful extension of potato cultivation sufficiently accounts for the rapid increase of pop. in Prussia. But it gives, at the same time, the most unfavourable view possible of the state of pop. It is not easy to see how it can avoid falling something like the wretched condition of the pop. of Ireland. Indeed several districts in the Rhine prov. are involved in extreme distress by the failure of the potato crop in 1846. (*La Prusse, son Progrès Politique*, t. 433.) The usual agricultural course is to follow the third year, taking either first a crop of rye, and wheat, or conversely. The greater part of the articles, whether of fancy, or domestic, or utility, produced in Prussia, are raised in Saxony and Silesia. Flax and hemp are raised for domestic use, and also for sale, in all parts of the monarchy, but especially in Silesia. The best flax is raised from foreign seed, the seed produced at home is used to make oil-cake. Tobacco, hops, madder, other plants used in dyeing, are also raised. Chicory is largely cultivated. Beet-root plantations are very extensive, and have recently made great progress, especially in Saxony and Silesia. It will be seen from the following account of the quantity of beet-root and colonial sugar consumed in the Prussian, or German Customs Union, in the 8 years ending with 1849, that the produce of the former has more than doubled since 1842.

	Beetroot Sugar.	Colonial Sugar.	Prop. of former to latter.
1842	865,714 cmt.	1,099,841 cmt.	11:3
1843	184,560	1,112,226	9:3
1844	216,390	1,285,959	14:4
1845	185,706	1,307,990	15:4
1846	296,434	1,147,190	20:9
1847	373,390	1,253,753	27:1
1848	511,774	1,095,491	51:9
1849	659,781	950,000	41:6

Prussia is supposed to produce about a half of this quantity. except on the crown estates, there are few farms. The considerable landed proprietors are accustomed to lease their estates by stewards; and, as already seen, smaller occupiers are mostly all proprietors. It is difficult to form any accurate estimate of the produce of the soil, differing as it does so very widely in the different parts. In the most fruitful and best cultivated districts, as near Magdeburg, the produce of wheat reckoned at from 14 to 16 scheffels, the *gergen* (1 scheffel = 6 bushel; 1 *morgen* = 1.53 acre); whereas, in Brandenburg and Pomerania, the produce of wheat is not reckoned at more than from 6 to 10 scheffels the *morgen*. The produce of rye varies in the best districts from 4 to 6 *h.* per *morgen*. But in the sandy and sterile portions of Pomerania, Brandenburg, and W. Prussia, the produce is often not more than 2 or 3 *sch.* per *morgen*. The rent of cultivated land is as various as the crops, and dependent partly on soil and partly on situation. The immediate neighbourhood of Berlin, the best land in the kingdom, is rented at 15 *rix-dollars* per *morgen*. In the country round Magdeburg the rent is in general about 10 *rix-d.* per *h.* in Brandenburg, if it be not in the neighbourhood of Berlin, the rent is seldom more than 2 *h.* per *morgen*; and in the sandy and sterile tracts, the rent is sometimes not more than 1 or 2 *sch.* per *morgen*. Horses, cattle, and sheep are raised everywhere throughout Prussia. The growth of the latter has been late years an object of much attention, particularly in Brandenburg, Saxony, and Silesia. In consequence of improvements effected by the introduction of merino sheep into Germany, the wool of Saxony, Silesia, and

some other provinces, has become superior even to that of Spain. The fall in the price of corn, subsequent to 1815, gave a great stimulus to this branch of industry. Wool now constitutes, in fact, the principal article of export from Germany, and has been productive of much wealth to many Saxon and Silesian proprietors, as well as to many in other provinces. The number of sheep in the Prussian dominions in 1843, amounted to 16,235,880, and the total produce of wool to from 90,000 to 110,000 quintals, of which about a third part is exported. In the same year the kingdom had 1,664,564 horses, 5,042,010 black cattle, and 2,115,313 hogs.

Manufactures.— Though more of an agricultural than a manufacturing country, Prussia has greatly distinguished herself, particularly of late years, in various branches of manufactures. The Rhenish provinces, Saxony and Silesia, are the districts most prominent in this department. Linens and coarse woollens for domestic consumption are made in every village, and, indeed, in most cottages throughout the kingdom. The linens that are exported are chiefly produced in Silesia, Westphalia, and the Ermeland, or portion of Ducal Prussia containing the circles of Braunsberg, Hellsberg, Rossell, and Allerstein. The total value of the linen stuffs annually manufactured is estimated at from 35 to 40 millions *rix-dollars*, of which a fourth part is exported. Hirschberg, and the adjacent towns and villages, are the principal seats of Silesian manufactures. Large quantities of silk, and cotton goods, linen, &c., are produced in Elberfeld, and other towns in the Rhenish provinces. Very superior broad cloth is largely manufactured at Eupen, Malmedy, Berlin, Aix-la-Chapelle, &c. Prussia occupies a respectable rank in the production of the useful metals. The total quantity of bar and pig iron annually produced may (1850) be estimated at about 200,000 tons. The articles of hardware, cutlery, &c., made at Iserlohn, Hagen, Solingen, Ulpe, Essen, &c., enjoy a high reputation; but in this respect they are very inferior to the cast-iron articles, whether of fancy, or domestic, or utility, produced at Berlin: these, as regards beauty and delicacy of execution, are unequalled by any made either in England or any other country. Porcelain, jewellery, watches, coaches, &c., are largely produced at Berlin and other towns. Vast numbers of books annually issue from the presses of Berlin and Halle. Beer and spirits are very extensively produced, and consumed in all parts of the monarchy. The consumption of spirits amounts, in fact, to from 160,000,000 to 180,000,000 quarts, or from about 40 to 45 millions imperial gallons (3.9 Prussian quarts = 1 imp. gall.) Now, it may be worth while observing, as illustrative of the habits of the people, that the entire quantity of British and foreign spirits entered for home consumption in the United Kingdom in 1840, amounted to only 25,517,326 galls., notwithstanding our pop. is about double that of Prussia. Indeed, if we take Prussia for a standard, the people of the United Kingdom may be said to be temperate in the extreme; for, while the consumption of spirits in Prussia amounts, at an average, to about 3 galls. to each individual, the consumption in Great Britain and Ireland is only about three fourths of a gall.; and we believe that the consumption of beer in Prussia exceeds its consumption in the United Kingdom in a corresponding proportion.

The principal manufacturing district of Prussia, and, probably of the continent, is in the Rhenish provinces on the Wupper, having Elberfeld and Solingen for its principal towns. It is well supplied with coal and water power; and the inhabitants are alike industrious and inventive. The pop. of Elberfeld, inc. Barmen, has increased during the present century from 11,720 to 67,940; and the progress of many of the other towns and villages in the vicinity has been hardly less remarkable.

Some of the manufacturing establishments in the Rhine districts are on a large scale, employing from 400 to 500 work-people. The first steam-engine used in Prussia was set up in 1780. In 1840, there were about 450 steam-engines in the monarchy, of which above 30 were in Berlin. The wages of the work-people employed in manufactures vary according to the work to be performed, the expense of living, &c. At Elberfeld, weavers earn from 2 to 3 *rix-dollars*, or from 6s. to 9s. a week, working from 10 to 12 hours a day. Children employed in factories make from 2d. to 4d. a day.

We subjoin an official return of the looms at work in the different provinces of the monarchy in 1843, specifying the departments in which they were employed. [See next page.]

Commerce.— The exports from Prussia consist principally of corn, wool, timber, Westphalian hams, zinc, flax, bristles, salted provisions, and other articles of raw produce; with linen and woollen cloths, silk wares, iron and hardware, jewellery, watches, and wooden clocks, Prussian blue, spirits, beer, &c. The imports consist chiefly of sugar, coffee, and other colonial products, raw cotton, and cotton twist and stuffs, indigo and other dye stuffs, spices, French and other wines, coals for the use of the ports on the Baltic, salt, &c. The

Account of the Number of Looms for the Manufacture of Silk, Cotton, Wool, Linen, and Stuff, in the different Provinces of Prussia in 1843.

	Silk.	Cotton.	Wool.	Linen.	Hosiery.	Ribbons.	Courses * Looms.	Courses * Woolens.
Prussia, east - -	-	83	292	371	19	6	95,409	2,365
" west - -	-	63	246	640	10	2	18,514	460
Posen - - - -	-	911	779	1,357	6	4	33,577	83
Brandenburg - -	-	2,409	5,990	4,876	302	157	25,956	114
Pomerania - - -	-	-	59	696	2,230	15	39,630	1,424
Silesia - - - -	-	62	21,395	12,098	281	222	12,650	572
Saxony - - - -	-	44	4,513	2,734	316	317	15,764	811
Westphalia - - -	-	132	4,448	4,810	231	960	25,528	425
Rhine - - - -	-	14,373	10,975	3,922	1,092	2,143	12,141	492
Totals - - - -	-	16,911	47,747	17,911	24,451	2,372	258,099	5,915

N.B. The looms in the columns marked * are those in the houses of the peasantry, and are employed only occasionally, as a secondary or supplemental business. Hence they are most numerous in the backward and least manufacturing provinces.

amount of the trade of Prussia cannot, owing to the free system of internal commerce now established in Germany, be ascertained with any precision; but it is very considerable, and is rapidly increasing. Except in dear years, when we are large importers of corn, our trade with Prussia is principally carried on at second-hand through Hamburg, Bremen, and the Netherlands ports. But we have elsewhere shown that the real value of our exports to Prussia may be fairly estimated at nearly 3 millions a year. (*Commercial Dictionary*.) Besides the facilities afforded to internal commerce by the rivers and canals already alluded to, others of a very important nature have recently been furnished. Previously to 1815, the roads in Prussia were, with few exceptions, about the worst in Europe. They were, in fact, mere pathways, without any artificial construction; and owing to the loose sandy nature of the soil, the wheels not unfrequently sunk in them to the axle, and the carriage was drawn rather through than over the ground. But since the period alluded to, a very great change has been effected. New roads, constructed on the most approved principles, macadamised, and equal to any in England, are now carried from Berlin to all the most distant parts of the monarchy. The cross roads have also been materially improved; and every day is adding to the means of communication thus afforded. In all, about 1,200 Germ. miles of road have been constructed since 1815, three fourths of which have been made at the expense of government, and the rest by the country districts. Mail coaches, which travel at the rate of about six miles an hour, are established along the principal lines of road. They are under the orders of government, and are well conducted. All travelling charges are regulated by a tariff fixed by the police. Railways have been opened, or are about to be, from Berlin to Potsdam, and from Cologne to Aix-la-Chapelle; and others either have been opened, or are in the course of being constructed.

More recently Prussia has been traversed by some very important railways. On the 1st January, 1847, the aggregate length of the different railways then open in the kingdom, amounted to 1,141 Eng. m.; 579 m. were then, also, in the course of being constructed; while plans for 628 m. additional had been adopted. Perhaps, we may estimate the total length of the railways now (1850) open in Prussia at about 1,800 m.; and but for the disturbed state of the country during the last two years sundry additional lines would have been completed. The state does not interfere with the construction or working of railways; but it reserves power to purchase them at a fair price at the end of 30 years. (*Lordship on Railways*, p. 468, &c.)

Within the last few years Prussia has prevailed on by far the greater number of the secondary and smaller German states to enter into a commercial league, by adopting a uniform tariff of duties on imports, and establishing a free system of internal commerce. Previously to the adoption of this plan, each petty state had its own custom-house, and its own system of duties and revenue laws: these frequently differed widely from those of its neighbours, so that the internal trade of the country was subjected to all the vexatious restrictions that are usually laid on the intercourse between distant and independent states, and was, in consequence, comparatively trifling. But these restraints are now entirely got rid of. Internal custom-houses and separate custom duties no longer exist. Each state participates, in proportion to its pop., in the amount of the duties collected at the frontiers of the league; and a commodity admitted at any one of the external custom-houses, may be subsequently conveyed, without let or hindrance, from Aix-la-Chapelle to Tilsit, and from Stettin and Danzig to the frontiers of Switzerland and Bohemia. It has been supposed by many that this system threatened to be very injurious to the trade of Britain and Germany; but there seems to be no ground whatever for any such apprehension. The freedom of internal commerce will do more to promote the prosperity of the countries included within the league, than any other measure their rulers could have adopted; and, as

population increases, and the inhabitants become more wealthy, there will, no doubt, be an augmented demand for foreign products. Generally speaking, the duties are moderate. It is, indeed, obvious that were any attempt made to raise them to an exorbitant height, the facilities for smuggling along the frontiers of the league, so very great that its territories would very speedily be deluged with overtaxed products. And in addition to this signal reform, the tolls and other impediments that formerly obstructed the free navigation of the Rhine to the Elbe are now mostly removed; and there are no longer any exclusive companies, or incorporated guilds or bodies, to obstruct the general freedom of industry and competition.

Shipping.—Considering the extent of sea-coast possessed by Prussia, and the facilities she enjoys for ship-building, the shipping is not very considerable. In 1860, there belonged to the different Prussian ports 977 sailing ships, of the burden of 183,654 Pruss. tons, besides 21 steamers; and exclusive, also, of small coasting vessels and river boats. Stettin, Stralsund, Danzig, and Königsberg are the principal ports.

Money, &c.—Accounts are kept in rix-dollars, or thalers, of 30 silver groschen. Each rix-dollar should contain 257·68 gr. fine silver, and is worth 2s. 11½d., but is generally taken at 3s. The centner, or quintal of 110 lbs., is equal to 113·381 lbs. avoirdupois. The last, by which ships' tonnage and freight are estimated, contains 4,000 Prussian lbs. One Prussian mile is equal to 3,440 English miles. The morgen is equal to 1·92 English acres. For an account of the bank of Berlin, see *BERLIN*.

Races; Population.—The people of Prussia belong mostly to the great German and Slavonian families; the Poles in Posen, W. Prussia, &c. belong to the latter, and the great bulk of the inhabs. in the other districts to the former. German is the language of the court, and of all the better informed classes in all parts of the kingdom. We have seen that the pop. of the monarchy, exclusive of Neuchâtel, has increased from 10,845,081, in 1816, to 16,381,187 in 1849. As only about 35,000 of this augmentation is due to an enlargement of territory (the Duchy of Lichtenberg, acquired in 1834), it is a more rapid rate of natural increase than has taken place during the same period in any other continental country.

No doubt a considerable portion of this increase may be ascribed to the changes already noticed in the distribution of property. It is more than doubtful, however, whether the influence of this change will continue to be as advantageous as it has been hitherto. With few exceptions, there are neither entails nor majorats in Prussia; but when an individual dies, his property, whether it consist of land or moveables, is equally divided among his children, without respect to sex or seniority. The influence of this law in causing the splitting of property was limited, previously to 1807, by the regulation that none but nobles could hold land. But, as it may now be held by any one, the system of equal partition will exert its full force; and there is but too much reason to fear that, in the end, it will occasion the too great subdivision of landed property, and an excess of agricultural population.

We regard this as being, next to the extension of the potato cultivation, the most formidable of the unfavourable contingencies to which Prussia would be exposed; and unless it be met by the organisation of such a system of poor laws as will make it for the interest of the proprietors to oppose themselves to a too great subdivision of the land, and a too rapid increase of population, the consequences may be most disastrous. Already, indeed, there are in several quarters unequivocal symptoms of an excess of population. This is a matter to which the attention of government cannot be too early and steadily directed.

Government.—Previously to 1823, the government of Prussia was a pure monarchy. The succession was hereditary in the direct male line; and the prerogative of the prince, which was nearly absolute in theory, was limited

privileges of the different ranks and of the people, and still more by their intelligence and the power resulting from their organisation. During the war which ended in the liberation of the country from domination of the French, the late king refused to grant, on the expulsion of the imperial institutions to his subjects. But the performance of these promises was delayed, by pretence and another, till 1823, and was very imperfectly fulfilled by the institution of provincial states, whose powers were exceedingly circumscribed, and who, also, deliberated in haste. An institution of this sort, far from meeting the reasonable demands and wishes of the people, served only to give them more.

It was expected that on his accession to the throne, the reigning monarch would have made some important constitutional concessions, and this expectation not being realised, the means for an extension of popular privileges presented from some powerful bodies; and it became obvious that a change to more liberal institutions could not be postponed much longer. At length, in February, 1847, an ordinance was issued, by which his Prussian Majesty commanded the separate provincial states into a general diet or parliament, vested with very considerable powers. And it is probable, but for events that occurred in France in the month of 1848, that the form of government established by the ordinance of 1847, would have been gradually consolidated and modified to suit the wants and habits of the people. The influence of the occurrences in Paris retarded the course of this safe and progressive plan, and gave a stimulus to revolutionary impulses and projects which the government could either the ability or the power to control.

In consequence, the measures of the representative body assembled at Berlin, indeed, no doubt, in a considerable degree by the weak and vacillating conduct of the king, a decidedly revolutionary cast. The latter, however, disgusted by the conduct of the assembly and encouraged by the check given to the liberals at Vienna, changed the place of the meeting of parliament from Berlin, where it was least measure at the beck of the mob, to Baden, and then pronounced its dissolution.

But fearing, apparently, the consequences of this tardy though necessary step, he, at the same time (5th December, 1848), issued the outline programme of a new constitution, in which he certainly bid high for popularity. This constitution having been revised was definitively promulgated at Berlin on the 1st of February, 1849, and was sworn to by the king on the 6th of the same month. It is given at length in the SUPPLEMENT to this work.

His constitution vests the legislative power in the king and two representative assemblies. The first of these, which may be called a senate proper house, comprises 90 members, elected by electoral districts, 30 members of the municipal councils of large towns, with princes of the blood, heads of noble houses, and members named for life by the king; but with the proviso that entire number of the latter classes shall not exceed that (120) of the first two classes.

The other, or lower chamber, corresponding to H. of C., consists of 350 members, who are chosen by electors in electoral districts. The electors in these districts are themselves chosen by universal suffrage, that is, by the votes of all the Prussians paying taxes (which they all do) 24 years of age. But to modify the effect of

the principle, the primitive electors are divided into three classes, determined by the amount of the taxes they pay; and these 3 classes of primitive electors, though their numbers be widely different, choose each a third part of the electors who directly elect the representatives. In consequence of this contrivance, the influence of the higher class of voters, or of those who pay the greatest amount of taxes, is not overborne by the mere numerical ascendancy of the other classes, and the chances are that the representative body will be rendered more conservative than it otherwise would have been. It is doubtful, however, whether this arrangement will be permanent.

Members of the first chamber must be 40, and those of the second 30 years of age; but a property qualification is not required in either. The chambers are to be annually convoked in the month of November, the duration of the first being limited to six, and that of the second to three years. The freedom of the press is made a fundamental article; and the maintenance of the old, and the growth of a new aristocracy are prevented by the abolition of existing entails, and their prohibition for the future.

It would be idle to attempt to foretell what may be the fate of this novel constitution. We cannot, however, help regretting that the king should have rushed headlong from one extreme to another, and have attempted to establish his government on the delusive basis of universal suffrage. This concession does not appear to have been dictated by any overwhelming necessity; and it appears to have been no sooner made than repented of; and hence the clumsy plan of indirect election by classified electors. Had a reasonable property qualification been adopted, the probability is, that the electors, and consequently, also, their representatives, would have been influenced to a considerable degree by conservative feelings and principles. But an assembly chosen by universal suffrage, even with all the guards that can be adopted, can hardly fail of being actuated by all those sudden and dangerous impulses by which the public mind is so apt to be determined; and there is nothing in the first or upper chamber that appears adequate to counteract, or even materially affect, the resolutions of the lower chamber. The former is also, in fact, a semi-representative body, and can impart to the Prussian constitution but little of that solidity and security which a more aristocratical and independent body might have given to it. Hence the probability would seem to be, that the new system will not work harmoniously, and that the king and the chambers will, sooner or later, come into collision;—a result which will most probably lead either to a republic or a despotism.

But, apart from these considerations, the destruction of the aristocracy and the rapid subdivision of the land, consequent on the law of equal succession, will, we apprehend, be as injurious to the freedom of the people as to their economical condition. Neither a throne surrounded by liberal institutions like what exists in England, nor a republican system like that of the U. States, can be established on the basis of a population characterised by an equality of condition, especially when that condition is one rather of poverty than of well-being. Such a population can act only by sudden impulses, and in masses, and can, in fact, be governed only by the sword. We entirely agree with Mr. Laing in thinking that liberty and equality cannot continue to co-exist. (*Notes of a Traveller, Second*

Series, p. 102. Liberty, property, and aristocracy may be combined into an enduring system. But liberty and equality of station, or of fortune, is a delusive combination that never fails to be consolidated into a despotism.

A president, with powers similar to those of a French *prefet*, and a salary of 6,000 rix-dollars (900*l.*), is placed at the head of each of the nine provs. into which the kingdom is divided. Each prov. has also a military commandant, a superior court of justice, a prov. director of taxes, a prov. consistory, all appointed by the king. The last is divided into three sections,—one having the superintendence of schools, another of ecclesiastical affairs, and another of the public health. The provs. are subdivided into regencies or counties, and these again into *kreise*, or circles (*arrondissements*), and the latter into *gemeinden*, or par. (communes). Each regency has a president and an administrative board or council; and the farther subdivisions have also their local authorities. The municipal organisation of the towns is more complicated than that of the communes. The principal functionaries are all elective; but the elections must be confirmed by the king or the authorities.

The system of law principally in force in the E. states of the Prussian monarchy is embodied in the well-digested code entitled *Landrecht für die Preussischen Staaten*, which received the royal sanction in 1791, and became law in 1794; but it is occasionally modified by custom; and Polish, Swedish, and German laws are still in force in certain parts of the monarchy. The Rhenish provinces follow, with some exceptions, the rules laid down in the *Code Napoleon*. The primary proceedings in judicial matters take place before local courts established in the circles and towns; thence they may be carried before the provincial courts (*oberlandes gerichte*); and in the last resort before the supreme tribunals at Berlin. The judges are independent; and justice is purely and cheaply administered. Juries are employed in the Rhenish provinces, but not in the other parts of the monarchy. Tribunals of arbitration have also been established in the provinces of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Prussia, Silesia, and Saxony, similar to those established in Denmark (which see), and with the same beneficial results. In 1836, of 13,831 cases brought before these tribunals, in the above provinces (excepting Prussia, from which there are no returns), 11,835 were settled, and only 1,996 sent to the higher courts. In no other country, perhaps, is patronage of so little consequence, and merit so sure to lead to distinction and advancement. Candidates for public employment go through a course of education appropriate to the functions they are desirous to fill; and before being appointed, have to submit to a severe examination as to their knowledge, conduct and fitness for the office. "*En Prusse*," says M. Cousin, "*tous les fonctionnaires sont salariés; et comme ils n'arrivent à aucune fonction qu'après des examens sévères, tous sont éclairés; et comme de plus ils sont pris dans toutes les classes, ils portent dans l'exercice de leurs emplois l'esprit général du pays, en même tems qu'ils y contractent l'habitude du gouvernement.*"

The king of Prussia is, next to the emperor of Austria, the most important member of the Germanic Confederation. His contingent to the army of the Confederation is 79,484 men.

Religion.—The royal family belongs to the reformed or Protestant religion; but all denominations of Christians enjoy the same privileges, and are equally eligible to places of trust or emolument. In 1846, the pop. consisted of 9,325,583 Protestants, 6,046,292 Catholics, 314,867

Jews, and 14,531 Mennonites. The Protestants predominate very decidedly in Brandenburg, Pomerania, Saxony, and Ducal Prussia; while the Catholics predominate in the Rhine province and Westphalia, in the regency of Oppeln, in Silesia, and in Posen. When Silesia was acquired by Prussia, the mass of the pop. were Catholics; but at present the Protestants predominate in the regencies of Breslau and Liegnitz, particularly the last.

The Protestant church is governed by *consistories*, or boards appointed by government, one for each province. There are also synods in most circles and provinces, but no general synod has yet been held. The constitution of the Catholic church differs in different provinces. In the Rhenish provinces it is fixed by the concordat entered into between the French government and Pope Pius VII. But in every part of the monarchy, the crown has wisely reserved to itself a control over the election of bishops and priests. In the entire kingdom, there were, in 1837, 5,740 ordained Protestant clergymen, and 140 assistant do.; there were, at the same time, 3,510 Catholic priests, and 2,033 vicars, chaplains, &c.; so that the proportion of Catholic clergymen rather exceeds that of Protestants.

The incomes of the clergy are very different. The higher Catholic clergy are paid by the state, the archbishop of Breslau receiving 1,700*l.* a year, and the other bishops about 1,135*l.* The incomes of the parochial clergy, of both sects, mostly arise from peculiar endowments. Generally government does not guarantee the stipend either of Protestant or Catholic clergymen; but in many par. the clergy enjoy a public provision from the state. This is peculiarly the case in the Rhenish provinces, in virtue of the concordat already alluded to. Proselytism, or the attempting to induce a person to change his religion, whether by force or by persuasion, is prohibited by law; and all controversial sermons, or peculiar displays of religious zeal, would certainly attract the notice, and incur the displeasure of the authorities. If we except the Rhine province and Westphalia, the pop. of which are bigoted Catholics, perhaps there is in no country less of religious acrimony and contention than in Prussia. For further details as to the religious state of Prussia, see the Parl. paper drawn up by Mr. Lewis from the official returns furnished by the Prussian government.

Education.—Prussia can boast of possessing a more perfectly organised and complete system of national education than has ever existed in any country. Frederick the Great has the merit of having introduced the system into Silesia, after he had wrested it from Austria; and such of our readers as are curious about these matters, will find in "*Adam's Letters on Silesia*," a very full and interesting account of the plans of Frederick in relation to this important subject, of the obstacles he had to encounter in carrying them into effect, and of their result. From Silesia the system has been gradually extended to the other provinces, and is now in full vigour in every part of the monarchy. Attendance at school is *enforced by law*. Every child, whether male or female, rich or poor, must attend a public school from the age of five years complete, till such time as the *clergymen of the par.* affirm that the child has acquired all the education prescribed by law for an individual in its station: generally speaking, the school time extends from 6 to 14 years complete. Should a child not attend, its parents or guardians must satisfy the public authorities that it is receiving an appropriate education at home or in a private seminary. The school fees are exceedingly moderate; and the children of such poor persons as are unable to pay them, are instructed gratuitously at the public expense. According to the census of 1843, the pop. of the monarchy, ex. *excl.*, was 18,447,440. It is calculated that of this number, 2,992,134 were between the ages of 7 and 14, complete; and it appears from the official returns, that of *this number* 2,528,146 were actually at school, or were otherwise receiving sufficient instruction. It must not, however, be supposed that the 663,978 (2,992,134—2,528,146) apparent excess of children not at school are not instructed. The 2,992,134 includes, as already stated, all the children between 6 and 14 years complete; but the school education of a good many children is completed by the time they complete their 12th or 13th year; and owing to the delicate state of their health &c. and other circumstances, a good many do not go to school till they have attained their 7th or 8th year. And to these have to be added the children from 7 to 14 years at the primary superior schools, the superior schools for burghesses, gymnasiums, lycæums, &c. Allowing for these circumstances, we believe it may be safely affirmed of Prussia, with the exception of a few districts in Posen, that every child born within her limits is educated! In so far, too, as we are able to judge, Prussian education is of a superior quality, though it involves, we believe, too much of amusements, and of military *regime*. The late king of Prussia deserves high praise for the zeal, perseverance, and discretion he displayed

in maturing this system. Nothing has been omitted that could render it perfect. In the schools for the instruction of the masters, the examinations to which they are subjected, and the supervision exercised over every part, the utmost anxiety is evinced to render it as perfect as possible.

No particular religious creed is allowed to be taught in any school; but on particular days, set apart for the purpose, the children are instructed by the clergymen of the different sects to which they belong. Their religious instruction is not, therefore, neglected; while the intermixture of the different sects from their earliest years, in a perfect footing of equality, removes all asperities and religious animosities. All matters relative to the public schools are managed in each province by a public board appointed for that purpose, and whose expenses are borne by the government. For further information as to the Prussian schools, see the work of Joseph Kay, Esq., in *the Social Condition of the People of England and of Europe*, vol. ii. *passim*; Cousin, *Sur l'Instruction Publique en Prusse*, &c.)

Exclusive of the gymnasia and superior schools, Russia has six universities, those of Berlin, Breslau, onn, Halle, Konigsberg, and Greifswald; and the two main-universities of Munster and Braunsberg. These are placed directly under the control of the minister of public instruction; and much pains has been taken to render them efficient and useful. The number of professors and subordinate teachers in the universities is very great; and we should incline to think that they have been endlessly multiplied. The university of Berlin is best rendered, and next to it those of Breslau and Bonn. In 17 there were, at the different universities, 1,196 students of Protestant theology, 450 do. of R. C. theology, 50 do. law, 886 do. medicine, and 906 do. philosophy, making in all 4,431 pupils. At present (1850) the total number of pupils is about 5,000.

Military Forces.—The situation of Prussia, surrounded by powerful states, and with a disjointed territory, requires for her security a large military force, as the revenue of the country is comparatively limited, it became indispensable to endeavour to organise an army so that it might embrace the maximum of force with the minimum of expense. The Prussian government seems to have pretty satisfactorily solved this important and difficult problem. The obligation of mil-

Military service is universal; every man (no substitutes or replacements being accepted of) is obliged to enter the army of the line, or the *Landwehr* (provincial army), between the ages of 20 and 23, as a private, and to serve in one or the other for three years. At the expiration of this term he may enter the army of the line for a limited period as a volunteer, or he may be selected for recruits it chiefly consists, or return home to prosecute some civil employment, his service in the army having secured for him various privileges. But the individuals whose period of service in the army of the line, or the *Landwehr*, has been completed, continue bound, for a further term of 20 and 22 years, to the *Landwehr* till they be 39 years of age. They are sometimes, however, called on to be exercised, and then only for limited periods. The *Landsturm*, or *levy en masse*, consists of all the men not in the army or the *Landwehr* up to the age of 50, and of young men between 17 and 20. This force is only called out in case of invasion. The total number of men in the *Landwehr* is about 132,000, and the 1st ban of the *Landwehr* to about 36,000. We borrow from the Budget of 1849-50, the following details in regard to the number and cost of the army.

Infantry.—For 8 regiments of guards, 1 battalion guard rifles, 1 ditto of light infantry, 7 battalions of line rifles, 40 regiments of the line, 7 reserve battalions (half invalids), 27 punishment companies or sections; in all, 17 battalions of guards (ex. *Landwehr*), 134 line battalions, giving a total of 97,078 men (on the peace establishment), and costing 5,490,868 rix-dollars.

Cavalry.—6 regiments of guards, 22 line (each of four squadrons), in all 28 regiments (ex. *landwehr*), giving 23,345 sabres and lances, and costing 1,930,512 rix-dollars.

Pioneers (Engineers, Sappers, Miners).—1 guard, 8 line divisions, 2 reserve companies—3,623 men, costing 100,223 rix-dollars.

Invalids.—The invalid company, and 104 sections of veterans—2,632 men, 153,080 rix-dollars; gendarmerie or mounted rifles, 61 men; army gendarmes, or privates, 152, cost 26,693 rix-dollars.

Thus resumed : —

Description of Troops.	No. of Officers and Men.	Annual Pay.				
		R.D.	5,450,000	being	63-06	2 1/2 per man.
infantry, guards and line	87,078				9 1/2	
cavalry	1,300,515				10 1/2	
artillery	5,945		1,310,040		22-36	33 1/2
engineers	2,094		105,528		51-00	4 1/2
signals	165,020		8,530		51-00	1 1/2
medical, dental, and veterinary	255		37,575		146-99	20 1/2
	121,819		9,081,543		74-11	11 1/2

of these 5,444 are officers, 1,427 non-commissioned staff, the remaining 114,978 privates and non-commissioned officers.

During the time of exercise of the *landwehr*, 98,940, including 2,966 officers, and 336 medical officers of arms, receive pay, and cost 733,036 rix-dollars. So the estimate for the peace establishment gives a total expenditure for the year of 9,764,381, exc. a small sum for money, which brings the total to 9,821,316 rix-dollars for the pay of the whole force. The expense of clothing the above number is set down at 1,437,371 rix-dollars. The *landwehr* of the 2nd ban, consisting of men of 32 to 39 years of age, comprises about 250,000 men, is called out in case of war or other grave circumstances.

The regular army and 1st ban of the land-
amounting to about 220,000 men, are ready to act
immediately against an enemy. There are numerous
at Berlin and elsewhere. For military educa-

The greatest pains are taken to have the officers instructed, and equal to their duties. Their appointments are good. The condition of the common soldier has also been vastly improved. He is seldom sent to corporal punishment; and his pay and rations have been nearly doubled since 1805. Their allowances, considering the cheapness of provisions in Prussia, place Prussian soldiers on a level, in point of comfort, with those of England or of any other country. No doubt, in fact, is omitted that seems calculated to benefit them, and to keep up the martial spirit of the people. The system imposes, no doubt, excessive privations on the public. But when established there was a necessity that it was indispensable; and its utility, and the impartiality of the laws, prevent its being felt as a peculiar burthen of the poor. It is a means, however, useful only in a class of wars; foreign invasions. It wants in the field the effect of regular troops, and the interruption given to industry when the 2d band is called out, makes it far more expensive than it seems to be: while it is apt to

diffuse a military aggressive spirit among the population. But, whatever be its demerits, it is, at all events, clear that it has *completely nationalised the army*; which must be always actuated by the sentiments and feelings that prevail among the mass of the people from which it is taken, and to which it is constantly being returned. When, therefore, it is said that Prussia is a "military monarchy," it is necessary to bear in mind that the army is not composed of mercenary troops, but of citizens serving for a limited period, and that it has very little loyalty to the Emperor and the Empire. (For further and ample information as to the Prussian army, see the excellent Essay of the Marquis Caraman, *Sur l'Organisation Militaire de la Prusse*, passim.)

Prussia has no ships of war.

Revenue and Expenditure.—The following is the budget of the revenue and expenditure of the Prussian monarchy for 1849 compared with 1848. [See next page.]

It should, however, be observed, that the above statement represents only the net amount of revenue after the expenses of collection are deducted. These are estimated at from 3 to 4 per cent. on the produce of the direct taxes, and at from 10 to 12 per cent. on the produce of those that are indirect. It will also be observed, that in the account of expenditure nothing is set down for the civil list, or for the support of the monarch and his court: a sum of 2,500,000 dollars is, however, specially appropriated for this purpose.

The tax on classes is a kind of poll-tax imposed on the inhab. of the country and towns, according to the amount of their property, and the pop. of the towns. The tax on industry or trades consists of the sums charged

National Debt.—Frederick the Great effected all his extraordinary achievements without contracting any debt, and left at his death a large sum in the coffers of the state. Though his successors were not so economical, still, at the breaking out of the war with France, Prussia

* We suspect there must be some error in this item.

WAYS AND MEANS.				BUDGET OF EXPENDITURE.			
	1849.	1848.			1849.	1848.	
Domains, forests - - -	4,645,471	4,568,766	Expenses of public debt - - -	-	7,540,000	6,822,900	
Sale of ditches and pines - -	1,000,000	1,000,000	Debtor to the treasury - - -	-	1,716,161	1,849,179	
Mines, fargen, salt works - -	1,117,218	1,167,218	Ministry of ecclesiastical, medicinal, and educational affairs - - -	-	5,379,510	5,292,041	
Posts - - -	1,000,000	1,000,000	Ministry of interior - - -	-	3,448,906	2,741,244	
Lottery - - -	824,000	875,000	Ministry of agriculture - - -	-	-	15,000	
Direct taxes - - -	19,341,095	19,391,681	Ministry of agriculture - - -	-	1,301,473	257,384	
Indirect taxes (customs, &c.) -	34,312,000	36,709,319	Foreign affairs - - -	-	661,480	731,803	
Salt monopoly - - -	6,450,900	5,199,000	War - - -	-	25,811,007	25,421,266	
Administration of justice - -	4,180,879	4,119,874	Proportional part of the expense of building, &c., fortresses of Ulm and Rastadt - -	-	878,870	378,579	
Charges on settling the accounts of rural tenures now abolished -	919,669	-	Ministry of domains and forests - -	-	6,771,107	5,367,346	
Share in profits of Royal Bank -	165,000	100,000	Ministry of finance department - -	-	86,350	101,017	
Maritime Association Company -	635,790	501,521	Ministry of commerce, &c. - -	-	168,940	171,281	
Remains - - -	63,591,042	65,379,379	Administration of treasury and mint -	-	6,771,107	6,967,344	
			Expenses of central administration - -	-	15,550	28,152	
			Presidents and regencies of provinces -	-	49,093	440,926	
			Pensions and life interests - - -	-	1,751,150	1,747,459	
			Daily pay of members, second chamber -	-	2,416,125	2,310,366	
			Unforeseen expenses - - -	-	100,000	800,000	
			Extraordinary expenses - - -	-	700,000	700,000	
			Reserve army fund - - -	-	5,666,519	3,700,000	
			Reserve fund for reconcessions - - -	-	-	506,473	
			Payment of Prussian interests - - -	-	300,000	450,000	
			Reserve in case of certain deficits - -	-	100,000	100,000	
					-	200,000	
			Of these, permanent expenses - - -	-	65,530,793	66,199,042	
			Extraordinary ditto - - -	-	5,668,519	5,668,519	
			Total - - -	-	65,591,042	66,199,042	
			Receipts - - -	-	65,591,042	66,199,042	
			Expenses - - -	-	65,591,042	66,199,042	
			Deficit - - -	-	5,608,700	5,608,700	
			It was expected to cover this deficit by the application of an overplus remaining from reserves of 1847 - -	-	1,000,000	1,000,000	
			And by the remainder of the voluntary loan, 1848 - - -	-	4,608,000	4,608,000	
					5,608,000	5,608,000	

was free from debt. In the course of that contest she was compelled to borrow pretty large sums, which, however, have been considerably reduced since the peace. The public debt of Prussia amounted, in 1850, to 167,160,273 rix-dollars, the interest, sinking-fund, &c., payable thereon being 7,491,073 rix-dollars.

Provision for the Poor.—The question as to the provision for the poor has only become of importance since the abolition of vassalage in 1810. Previously to that epoch they were provided for by their lords. At present poor persons, or those unable to provide for themselves, have a legal claim to support. But it is rarely necessary to resort to compulsory proceedings to enforce this claim, the necessities being generally provided for by voluntary subscriptions. There are workhouses in most large towns. That of Berlin had, in 1838, an average pop. of from 850 to 900 persons; which cost at an average 50 rix-dollars a year each.

Food, Dress, Diversions, and Habits of the Bulk of the People.—The food, dress, diversions, and habits of the people are very different in different provs. In general, rye is the ordinary bread-corn. About half a century since the consumption was estimated at from 5 to 6 scheffel per head, but now it is not more than 3 scheffel; the defect being made up by the increased consumption of potatoes. In many districts, indeed, potatoes are now almost the only vegetable food. Besides rye-bread and potatoes, the people use barley, buck-wheat, and milk. In the Rhenish provs., wheat is more extensively used than in the other provs. The wheat cultivated in Prussia Proper and Posen is rather for sale than for inland consumption. Beans and peas are extensively used in most parts of the monarchy. Coffee, mixed with chicory, is extensively used; and on Sundays it is used by all classes; tea is but little used. The consumption of sugar has rapidly increased; and now amounts, at an average, to about 4 lbs. per individual, notwithstanding the substitution of honey for sugar in very extensive districts. The consumption of butchers' meat is considerable, principally in towns. It is estimated over the whole monarchy at from 36 to 37 lbs. a tone to each individual. (Dieterici, *Statistische Übersicht*, s. 324.) But in the towns it may be from 40 to 50 lbs., and in the country, perhaps, not more than from 20 to 30 lbs. In Berlin the consumption of butchers' meat exceeds 100 lbs. per individual; and this, in all cases, is exclusive of poultry, fish, and game. Game, indeed, is only used by the richer families; but fish is an ordinary food of the peasantry in many districts. Poultry, especially geese, are largely used by the common people in Pomerania. There is also no want of butter for the peasantry, but the consumption of cheese is greater.

We have already seen that the consumption of spirits is quite immense; it is less, however, in the Rhenish provs., where wine is extensively used, than in other parts of the monarchy. Beer, also, is an ordinary beverage, and the consumption is very great. The consumption of to-

becco is estimated at 24 lbs. per individual. The common people (males) use, in winter, a woollen great coat, and in summer, a linen coat. Women wear a bodice and pretty extensive consumers of cotton stuffs; it is still, however, customary for the young female peasants to prepare stocks of linen in anticipation of their marriage. Wooden shoes are worn, but are not so frequent as in France or Ireland; and in bad weather, almost every body is well shod with leather boots and shoes; but in fine weather, the common people often go barefoot. Silks are only used by the wealthier classes.

It is usual for the peasants to go to church regularly on the Sunday forenoon; and it is customary for them to spend the evening of the day in diversions of some sort or other, frequently in the ale-house, and in Silesia in dancing-parties. Most little towns have shooting-places; and the meetings of the landwehr for exercise is looked forward to with much satisfaction. (Compiled from Official Documents and Private Information.)

PRUSSIA (PROPER), an extensive and important prov. of the Prussian dominions, divided into the provinces of East or Ducal Prussia, and W. Prussia, having N. the Baltic, E. and S. Russia, Poland, and the prov. of Posen, and W. Brandenburg and Pomerania. Area, 24,874 sq. m. Pop. in 1846, 2,499,432, of whom 1,791,542 were Protestants, 664,053 Catholics, and the rest Jews and Mennonites. It is divided into four regencies, and 57 circles. Principal towns, Königsberg, Danzig, Elbing, Tilsit, Marienwerder, &c. It consists principally of an immense plain, traversed by the Vistula, Pregel, Passarge, and other rivers, and interspersed with numerous lakes and immense forests. Soil various, but generally fertile, particularly the delta of the Vistula and the country watered by the Niemen. Principal products, wheat and other sorts of corn, timber, flax, provisions, wool, ashes, &c. Rye is more cultivated than any other sort of grain; wheat is also largely cultivated, but more for exportation than for internal consumption, rye being the ordinary bread corn. Oats, barley, and peas are also raised; and latterly potatoes have been extensively cultivated. Farming implements defective and ill constructed: the harrows are made of wood, without any iron, even for teeth. With the exception of the crown estates, which are let on lease, but little land is rented. In the circles of Danzig, Elbing, and Marienwerder, good land fetches, when let, from about 5s. 6d. to 5s. an acre, the tenant bearing all taxes. But in other districts the rent of the cultivated land does not exceed from 1s. 3d. to 2s. 6d. an acre. The wages of farm labour vary in summer from 4d. to 6d., and in winter from 3d. to 5d., without food; but with a cottage free, or at a low rent, a garden, and pasture for a cow. In harvest the wages are a good deal higher. The peasantry live in wooden or clay cottages, with but few luxuries, principally on potatoes, rye bread, and milk, rarely tasting animal food, but drinking great quantities of spirits and beer. Linen, from flax of their own growth, and wool

apart in their cottages, furnish their clothing. Domestic servants get butchers' meat, generally pork, once or twice a week. Wood and turf are almost everywhere abundant, and are the principal articles of fuel. Amber is found along the sea-shore, but otherwise minerals are quite unimportant. There are many distilleries and breweries, but, with the exception of Posen, this is the least manufacturing prov. in Prussia.

PSKOF, a government of European Russia, chiefly between the 56th and 58th degs. N. lat., and the 28th and 32d E. long., having N. Petersburg and Novgorod, of each of which govts. it formerly made a part; E. Tver and Smolensk; S. Wittepsk, and W. Livonia. Area estimated at 22,154 sq. m. Pop., in 1846, 775,800. The surface is nearly flat, with a slope to the N., the direction taken by most of the rivers. None of these are of considerable size; but the gov. is, notwithstanding, well watered. At the N.W. extremity is the lake of Pskof, connected by a strait with that of Pelpus. Marshes are numerous. The atmosphere is usually damp, though, on the whole, the climate is far from unhealthy. Soil thin, and not very fertile, but more corn is grown than is required for home consumption. A good deal of hemp and flax is raised. The forests are extensive, and abound with game. Cattle are not of great importance, and bees are less reared than in most provinces. Manufactures have increased during the present century, but they are still of no great consequence. Pskof is divided into 8 districts, the chief towns, Pskof, the cap., Toropets, and Velikie-Louki. Its pop. consists mainly of Russians, with some Lithuanians and Finns. Public education is little extended.

PSKOF, or PLESKOW, a town of European Russia, cap. of the above gov., on the Velikala, 165 m. S.W. Petersburg. Pop., above 9,000. It is mostly built of wood, but has two good edifices belonging to the archbishop and the consistory; a number of churches, two convents, and a high school. Its only manufactures are of leather; but it has a considerable trade in the export of the products of the country. A large annual fair is held here 1 Feb., at which large quantities of woollen, silk, and cotton fabrics, leather, books, jewellery, &c., are sold. *Schmitzer, La Russie.*

PUEBLA (LA), a city of Mexico, cap. of the state of its own name, on the declivity of a hill, 76 m. E.S.E. Mexico, and 125 m. W. by S. Vera Cruz, lat. 19° 0' 15" N., long. 98° 2' 30" W. Pop., 50,000. (*Ward.*) It is compactly and uniformly built. The streets, which, though not very wide, are paved with large diamond-shaped stones, with broad and well kept footpaths on either side. The houses, of stone, are generally two stories high, with flat roofs, having mostly a court in their centre, surrounded with open galleries, and a fountain of fine water, conveyed thither by earthen pipes, any have iron balconies toward the street, and their fronts are inlaid with highly glazed tiles, or else gaudily and fantastically painted. The apartments are spacious; and to Mr. Ward, they are mostly paved with carpets, and the walls are in use, and the walls are adorned with paintings in fresco. The family of the proprietor usually resides in the upper story, the ground-floor being occupied with shops, warehouses, or offices, and the second story by servants.

This would seem to be a perfect toehold of priests; when Ilock visited Mexico, Puebla had no fewer than 69 churches, 9 monasteries, 13 nunneries, and 23 colleges. says of the churches that they were the most sumptuous he had ever seen. "Those of Milan, Genoa, and no are built in better taste; but in the expensive ornaments or decorations, the quantity and value of the ornaments of the altar, and the richness of the vestments, are far surpassed by the churches of Puebla and Mexico." The cathedral, which forms one side of the principal square, has nothing remarkable in its exterior, its interior is very rich. The high altar, which, however, is too large for the building, is particularly splendid. Several of the other churches are handsome, and, like the cathedral, abound in gold and silver ornaments, images, statues, &c. The bishop's palace has a library. In length, which has a tolerable collection of Spanish and French books.

Many of the inhabitants are wealthy, and have handsome coaches drawn by mules; but, like Mexico, the city is swarmed with beggars, a consequence of the want of industry, occasioned partly and principally by the mildness of the climate, but partly, also, by the distribution of alms at the convent doors. It was formerly famous for manufactures of coarse woollens, cottons, glass, earthenware, soap, &c.; but most of these have declined since the decrease of the trade formerly carried on with Mexico, Callao, and the other ports on the Pacific. Manufactures of glass and earthenware, however, still retain their reputation, and the soap made here is sent to all parts of Mexico.

Puebla was founded by the Spaniards. The state which it is the cap. comprises the town of Cholula, &c. 11.

Tlascala, Huexotzingo, and other anc. Mexican cities; it also includes Popocatepetl, 17,716 ft. above the sea, being the highest mountain in N. America. (*Ward's Mexico*, li. 72-74; *Poinsett's Notes*, &c. p. 51-58; *Humboldt, Bullock*, &c. in *Mod. Trav.* xxv.)

PUERTA DE STA MARIA. See ST. MARY'S.

PUERTO-REAL, a town of Spain in Andalusia, prov. Cadiz, and on the bay of that name, 5 m. E. Cadiz, and 60 m. S.W. Seville. Pop., according to Milane and Ford, 5,000. It is tolerably well built, with straight, regularly formed streets, crossing each other mostly at right angles, and lined with good houses. The only public buildings are a parish church and 2 hospitals. Fronting the sea is a wharf rising about 14 yard above the level of the highest tides; and a mole, 60 yards broad, runs out 300 yards to low-water mark, having steps on each side for embarkation at all times of the tide: the whole is of stone, and has a handsome appearance. Near the town are extensive salt-works. The process of manufacture is by evaporation in wide and deep basins, communicating with the sea by locks.

PUNJAB (THE), (country of the Five Rivers), or LAHORE, a British territory of N. W. Hindostan, between the 28th and 35th degs. N., and the 70th and 78th degs. E. long., comprising the country between the Indus on the N. W., the Himalayal mountains on the N. E., and the Sutledge on the S. It is of a triangular shape, its apex being at the S. W. extremity. It has on its N. W. frontier the Cabul territories, N. E. Thibet and Ladakh, and S. W. Hindostan. It derives its name from its being watered by the 5 great arms of the Indus, viz., the Jhyilm, or Beuhl (an. *Hydaspes*); the Chenab (an. *Aceines*); the Ravee (an. *Hydraotes*), and the Sutledge (an. *Hysudrus*), with its tributary, the Beas (an. *Hypphasis*). Area estimated at 125,000 sq. m. Pop. probably 4,500,000, chiefly Sikhs, Jauts, Rajpoots, Hindoos of low caste, and Mussulmen.

Nearly the whole country is flat: it is in many parts fertile, especially along the banks of the larger rivers; but it also comprises some wide, sandy, and barren tracts, especially between the Indus and Hydaspes. Cultivation generally increases and improves as we proceed eastward. Of the 4 divisions of the Punjab E. of the Hydaspes, the two nearest to that river are principally depastured by herds of oxen and cattle; and that most to the E. is the best cultivated. Sir A. Burnes says, "there is, perhaps, no inland country which possesses greater facilities for commerce than the Punjab, and there are few better supplied with the products of the mineral, vegetable, and animal kingdoms. These relieve it from any great dependence on external resources. The wheat and barley of the plains are expended within the country; and such is the number of horses, that gram, bajree, and other grains reared in a dry soil, are imported. Rice is exuberantly produced under the mountains; but it is not a diet which suits the palate of the people. The cane thrives luxuriantly, and sugar is manufactured for exportation. The smallness of its stalk is remarkable; but it is said to produce the most saccharine fluid, and is preferred to the thicker canes of India. Indigo is reared E. of Lahore, and exported to the Mohammedan countries westward. A valuable oil is extracted from the *strya*, or sesamum plant, and used both for the lamp and culinary purposes. Esculent vegetables, such as turnips, carrots, &c., are produced everywhere; and most of the vines and fruit-trees common to Europe may be seen in the mountains. The climate is not very favourable to the cotton shrub; it is produced in the 'doab' between the Sutledge and Beas rivers; but it is also imported from the dry country S. of the former river. The mineral resources of the Punjab

have been very imperfectly explored. A range of hills, extending from the Indus to the Hydaspes, formed entirely of rock-salt, furnishes an inexhaustible supply, and, being a close monopoly, contributes to enrich the ruler. It is in general use throughout the country, and most extensively exported, till it meets the salt of the Sambre lake in Rajpootana and the Company's territories. There is another deposit of salt on the verge of the mountains towards Mundi, but of an inferior description. In the same vicinity, it is said, some mines of coal have been discovered; and there are also extensive mines of iron. The salt range, and the other high lands, yield alum and sulphur; and nitre is gathered in large quantities from the plains." (*Bokhara, &c.*, lii. 316-322.) The climate in the N., though hot in summer, is as cold in winter as that of France and central Europe, and is never sufficiently warm to mature the most valuable products of Hindostan. Rice is grown in the valleys, but in limited quantities, the usual food of the pop. being wheat or peas, made into a thick soup; and according to Sir C. Trevelyan (*Parl. Rep. on India*, 1840), the Punjab does not produce sufficient sugar for its own consumption, but imports it from British India. Mr. Elphinstone, who travelled both in the N. and S. parts of this country, states that not one third part of the surface seen by him was under tillage; and there can be no doubt of the correctness of his statement, that, except near the rivers, no part of the Punjab will bear a comparison for productiveness with Hindostan. (*Elphinstone's Cambol*, i. 109.)

The plains, which are diagonally intersected by so many rivers, might be successfully irrigated by canals; as is proved by the existence of some, and the remains of many others, the work of the Mogul emperors. The country abounds in cattle and horses, though the former be small and ill-conditioned, and no attention be paid to the breed of either. The salt mines, which were opened at a very early date, are one of the most productive sources of revenue. Burnes states that they yield about 800,000 maunds a year. The salt was sold at 2 rupees the maund, or at a third part of the price of that of Bengal; but the profit to the government amounted notwithstanding to 1,100 per cent. (*Burnes*.) The remainder of the public revenue, which amounted to about 2 crors rup., was principally derived from exorbitant taxes on land and agricultural stock. Moorcroft mentions a peculiar method of assessing the land tax, adopted, in his time, between the Beas and Sutledge, by a collector who had been chief financial minister to Runjeet Singh. "A given quantity of earth was put into a fine muslin sieve, and washed with water until all the mould was carried through, and nothing but the sand left, and, according to its proportion to the whole, a deduction was made from the assessment. Four rupees for 2 begas was the fixed rate for the rich soil; 3 if it contained one fourth of sand; 2 if it had a half; and 1 where the sand was three fourths the quantity. The general character of the soil of the Punjab, composed chiefly of mould and sand, renders this mode of appreciating its assessment more correct than might be supposed, and it was, at any rate, preferable to the old plan of assessing the land according to the estimated out-turn of the standing crops." (*Moorcroft's Trav. in the Himalayas*, vol. i. p. 121.)

As respects the commerce of the Punjab, the staple commodities are the shawls of Cashmere, which reach India and Europe wholly through this channel. The annual revenue from the shawl manufacture, exclusive of every expense, is rated at 18 lacs of rupees, though, from frauds of all kinds, this sum greatly exceeds the amount that actually reaches the treasury. It is a curious fact, that the silkworm is unknown in the Punjab, though the silks of the immediately adjacent state of Mooltan have a high reputation in India. The natives in the E. of the Punjab excel in the manufacture of cotton, and their looms furnish white cloth at from 2 to 1 rupee a yard, which, though inferior in appearance to that of British manufacture, is stronger and more durable. There is a considerable demand for foreign copper, brass, tin, and lead; all kinds of British hardware and woollens are much prized. There is a considerable importation of European articles; and British chintzes have wholly superseded those of Mooltan.

The Punjab is interesting to the classical scholar, from its being the theatre of Alexander the Great's

Indian victories. Mr. Elphinstone supposes the scene of the defeat of Porus to have been at Jetalpoor, on the Hydaspes, while, according to Burnes, it was most probably at Jelum, about 25 m. higher up the river. Burnes imagines he has discovered on the opposite sides of the Jhylum, about lat. $32^{\circ} 40'$ N., long. $73^{\circ} 40'$ E., the sites of Nicosa (victory town), built by Alexander at the point where he crossed the Hydaspes, and of Buccaphala, built in commemoration of his favourite horse, Bucephalus, which expired in this region. (*Mitford*, viii. 300.) Burnes joins Major Wilford in identifying the neighbourhood of the celebrated tope of Manikyal, between the Indus and the Hydaspes, with the site of the anc. Taxila. There are, however, very few Greek remains in the Punjab; and the statements of the historians of Alexander, as to the places where the great events in his Indian expedition occurred, are far too indistinct to allow of any certain conclusions being deduced from them. The Sikhs, now the ruling race in this quarter, originated as a Hindoo sect, about the middle of the 15th century, and remained in a turbulent feudal condition till early in the present century. About that period, Runjeet Singh, having subdued the other Sikh chieftains, established a despotism; which, though far behind the governments of Europe, was yet far in advance of most native governments in the East. He maintained an army of about 25,000 regular infantry, drilled as Europeans, 5,000 regular cavalry and artillery, and, perhaps, 50,000 irregular horsemen. His government was vigorous, without being either cruel or useless. Early in the year of his death, which occurred in 1839, and the assassination of his son and successor, the country became a prey to all sorts of anarchy. At length, in 1845, the several chiefs so far composed their differences, as to invade the British territories with a powerful and well-appointed army; but being defeated in a series of engagements, concluding with the battle of Soobraon, a treaty was concluded with them in 1846. They appear, however, to have entered into this treaty rather to gain time than with any other object, and in 1848, they again attacked the British. On this, as on the former occasion, they displayed the greatest bravery, and the contest with them was most severe; but being completely defeated and dispersed in the battle of Goojerat, the country was finally occupied by our troops, and incorporated with our territories, in 1849.

PUTIWL, or POUTIVL, a town of European Russia, gov. Kourak, pop. distr., on the Seim, a tributary of the Dniepr, 100 m. W.S.W. Kourak. Pop., 9,000.

PUTNEY, a par, and village of England, co. Surrey, on the Thames, 4 m. W.S.W. Hyde Park corner. Area of par. 2,860 acres; pop. of do. in 1841, 4,864. The village, which is well built, and has numerous houses occupied by parties who mostly prosecute their business in London, is connected with Fulham, on the opposite bank of the river, by a wooden bridge erected in 1729. The par. church, of an ancient date, was in great part rebuilt in the reign of Henry VII.; here, also, is a place of worship for dissenters, an endowed school for the sons of watermen, and 2 national schools. Putney is a station on the railway from Waterloo bridge to Richmond; and it has a constant intercourse with the city by means of steamers.

A college was lately established, in a fine situation on the banks of the Thames, a little to the E. of the village, for the education of civil engineers. The instruction in it is good; it is well attended; and it is well and economically conducted.

The greatest of English historians, the illustrious author of the "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," first saw the light at Putney, on the 27th April, 1757. (*Lyon's Encyclop.* i. 226, and *Private Information*.)

PUY (LE) (an *Recessio* and *Préfix*), a town of France, dep. Haute-Loire, of which it is the cap., on the Borne, here crossed by a bridge of 8 arches. *Pop.* 3,200. St. Etienne. *Pop.* in 1846, 12,522. It stands on a steep acclivity, and has, when seen from a distance, a picturesque appearance; but, in reality, it is ill-built, and the streets, which are narrow, dirty, and ill-paved with smooth pieces of lava, are frequently impracticable for vehicles of any kind, and even dangerous for foot-passengers. Lately, however, the commerce of Le Puy has revived, and the town has been a good deal improved. The cathedral, in a very conspicuous situation, a Gothic structure of the 10th century, has richly ornamented altars, on which is a statue of the Virgin brought by Louis IX. (St. Louis) from Egypt, and presented by him to the city in 1254, on his return from his unfortunate expedition to that country. Adjacent to the town is a very singular needle-shaped rock, about 300 ft. in height, on the summit of which another church is erected. Among the other public buildings are the prefecture, a handsome new edifice; a public library, with 5,000 vols.; town-hall, bishop's palace, seminary, college, hall of the tribunal of commerce, 2 hospitals, barracks, and theatre. Le Puy has a tribunal of original jurisdiction, a chamber of manufactures, a commercial college, normal school, a

city of agriculture, science, and arts, gratuitous courses of geometry and mechanics, applied to the arts, and a small museum of antiquities and paintings. It is celebrated for its manufacture of white and black lace. Lez is very ancient, but its origin is uncertain. It suffered considerably in the wars of the League; and till lately its trade and prosperity were much depressed.

PUY-DE-DOME, a central dep. of France, formerly part of Auvergne, between lat. 45° 17' and 45° 18' N., and long. 2° 20' and 2° E.; having N. Allier, E. Loire, S. Haute-Loire and Cantal, and W. Corrèze and Creuse. 79,738 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 601,594. This dep. almost wholly covered with mountains of volcanic nature, the highest of which, the Pic-de-Sancy, is 23 ft. in height: the Puy-de-Dôme, whence the dep. its name, has an elevation of 4,843 ft.* Principal rivers, Allier, Dord, Sioule, and Dordogne, most of which have a N. direction; the Allier intersects the dep. at its centre, and its valley, the Limagne of Auvergne, is exceedingly fertile. In general, however, the soil is sandy, stony, and otherwise unfruitful; and agriculture, owing to the poverty and ignorance of the peasantry, is in a more backward state than in most other parts of France. Great numbers of the inhabitants annually engage in search of field labour into the adjacent provinces, 904,356 hectares of the surface were said to be, in 1841, in pastures, 29,153 in vineyards, 82,289 in cereals, and 192,113 in heaths and wastes. Rye, oats, and wheat, are the principal grains cultivated. The annual value of wine is estimated at 400,000 to 500,000 francs; it is mostly of inferior quality, cannot be conveyed to place without the risk of being spoiled, and, generally speaking, is good for little, unless it be mixed with other wines. (*Julesk.*, 178.) The annual produce of wool is estimated at 900,000 kilogr. Chestnuts, timber, rye, walnut oil, and cheese, are among the principal products of its wealth. Puy de Dôme yields lead, antimony, coal, granite, &c. Its manufactures, which are confined to the arriere of Thiers and Ambert, are in the former principally of cutlery and hardware, leather, wax, lighters, &c.; and in the latter, of iron, linen, and cotton goods, lace, and paper. The dep. is divided into 5 arrondissements; chief towns, Clermont, Ambert, Issoire, Riom, and Thiers. RENEES, a lofty chain of mountains in S.W. France, separating Spain from France, and which, taken in the greatest extent, may be regarded as stretching from Creux, in Spain, on the Mediterranean, near the straits of France, W. to the coast of Galicia, a distance of 550 m. It is more usual, however, to confine the name to that portion of the chain which separates Spain from France:—

* *Pyrene celsa nimborum vortice arce*
Diximus Celsa late prospecta Iberis.
Aque morosa necesse manebat obsistere terra.

In this restricted, the chain terminates on the W. entablature, between lat. 45° 10' and 45° 20' N., and 2° 0' and 2° 20' W.; its length being about 270 m., its breadth about 30 m., and the area about 1,100 sq. m. This great range may be considered as consisting of two parts, both having the same direction, though not in a straight line, the point of division being formed by the d'Aran, near the head waters of the Garonne, of which the W. part is more southerly than that to the E. The escarpment is on the side of Spain; the slope of France being much more gradual, owing to the nature of the level districts about the Adour and Garonne. It may be remarked, also, that the French side of the crest of the chain by easy steps, more or less, while the opposite side presents a continued series of rugged chasms, abrupt precipices, and huge naked rock. The chain at each extremity descends towards the sea; but the fall on the E. is much denuded than on the W.; the elevation only 50 m. Mediterranean being 8,000 ft., whereas, on the W. side, this altitude is not found nearer than 70 m. to the coast. The following table gives the position of the principal summits of the Pyrenees top next col.

Summits marked with an asterisk, which comprise the highest points of the chain, are on its S. face. The highest, as in the Alps, on some of the higher peaks, but these masses of permanent ice are much less, the point of perpetual congelation being of 10,000 ft., or about 2,000 ft. higher than in the Alps, owing chiefly to the vicinity of the sea.

Peaks of the Pyrenees are numerous, and of various heights; for, whereas the depressions of

	Lat.	Long.	Height in feet.
Le Canigou	42° 31' N.	4° 22' E.	9,341
Pic Pedrons	42° 34'	1° 56'	9,311
Pic de Serre	42° 39'	1° 30'	9,616
Massif de	42° 41'	1° 38'	10,663
Pic des Estans	42° 40'	0° 37'	10,611
Caraboncles	42° 42'	0° 15'	10,435
Troncheine	42° 43'	0° 15'	10,496
La Maladetta, or Pic de Nèes	42° 26'	0° 12'	10,611
* Pic Poets	42° 40'	0° 31'	11,277
* Mont Perdu	42° 45'	0° 15'	11,168
Pic de Cosseron	42° 45'	0° 15'	10,745
Do. Vignemale	42° 45'	0° 15'	10,745
Do. Soule	42° 45'	0° 15'	10,276
Do. Moli de Bigneres	42° 55'	0° 12'	9,544

the Alpine system run from 40 to 70 m. nearly in the direction of the chain, all the great valleys of the Pyrenees are transversal, taking their origin at a col in the crest, and running N. and S., almost at right angles with the main ridge. The largest valleys are found in the central Pyrenees, the principal being those of the Garonne and Lavedan, each of which is from 40 to 80 m. in length. These transverse valleys are commonly the beds of rivers, or rather torrents; which, in the wider and less elevated parts, take a slow and serpentine course, but in the defiles become rapid and impetuous torrents, often interrupted by cascades, and sometimes by a series of falls. Lakes are frequently enclosed in the basins formed in the higher ridges of the valleys, and several of those in the central Pyrenees, which are sheltered from the sun, are perpetually covered with ice. Some valleys, also, instead of running in a deep and narrow defile, or a series of little basins, more or less extensive, rising by degrees to the height of the central ridge, present at their origin a single basin, surrounded on 3 sides by a lofty wall of rock, and opening by a narrow gully into the vale below; and these natural amphitheatres, or *cirques*, as they are termed (the principal of which is that of Gavarni, in the valley of Barège), constitute the grandest and most distinctive features of the Pyrenees. About 50 passes are formed through the valleys now noticed; but by far the greater number are practicable only for the peasantry, and contrabandists, who are found in all parts of the Pyrenees. There are only 5 good carriage roads over the chain:—1. the Col de Perthus, the extreme E. pass between Perpignan and Jonquera, practicable all seasons, and for all kinds of vehicles; 2. the Pass of Puymorens, leading from the valley of the Seine to that of the Arrighe (6,299 ft. high); 3. the Port de Caubère, between Pau and Saragossa (6,713 ft.); 4. the Port de Roncaneaux, between St. Jean and Pampeluna (5,771 ft.); and 5. the Pass of Bidassoa, along the high road connecting Burgos and Vittoria with Bayonne. The first and last of these passes are those most generally used by travellers between Spain and France. The two highest passes are the Port de Orre (9,843 ft.), and the Brèche de Roland (9,856 ft.); they are practicable only during about 2 months of the year.

The geology of the Pyrenees is still very imperfectly known. The extent of primitive rock is smaller than in the Alps; but its arrangement is very peculiar; not in isolated masses, bursting here and there through the transition and secondary formations, but in a band or zone running in the direction of the chain, but only occasionally falling in with the crest or central chain; the granite in the W. section is on the S., and in that to the E. on the N. side of the main ridge. The primitive formation is extremely simple, consisting of three rocks only, granite, micaceous schist, and primitive limestone, which, together, form a pretty continuous band, stretching three fourths across the isthmus. The transition rocks, comprising the great bulk of the mountain system, are arranged in vertical bands flanking the primitive formation, and consist of argillaceous schist, schistose and common grauwacke, with blue limestone; these strata occur mostly on the N. side, the beds S. of the primitive formation being chiefly secondary rocks, as red sandstone, Alpine and Jura limestone, &c. The calcareous and chalk formations are found in the lower parts of the chain on either side. The existence of volcanic action is proved by the trap and other similar formations, interspersed in different parts of the chain; by the peculiar manner in which many of the strata are upheaved; by the frequency of earthquakes on both sides of the range, and by the abundance of thermal springs, especially in the valleys on the French side of the Pyrenees. The most celebrated springs are those of Bagnères de Bigorre and Barège, Bagnères de Luchon and St. Sauveur; all of which are visited, during the summer months, by persons labouring under rheumatism and chronic disorders, as well as by others in search of pleasure and picturesque scenery.

Iron, copper, zinc, and lead are found in the Pyrenees; but, with the exception of iron, these ores are not wrought, though it be a well-known fact that great mineral riches were extracted from these mountains by

remains by the way, that it was here, on the 19th of Aug. the decisive experiments recommended by Fœnel, as the weight of the air, and its influence on the height in the barometer, were carried into effect, by conveying to the summits of the mountains. The result was precisely as anticipated, and the mercury falling the more the higher the elevation. (*See Mémoires, Histoire de la Météorologie, and Biographie Universelle, art. Fœnel.*)

the Carthaginians and Romans. Indeed, there are the remains of 300 or 400 deserted mines in different parts of the Pyrenees, some of which are said to be very rich. The veins of marble are numerous and valuable, one of them, a white marble, being equal, in purity and closeness of texture, to that of Carrara.

The flora of the Pyrenees comprises the rhododendron, the alpine rose, and a large variety of plants common to high elevations; the principal forest trees being the box, fir, pine, and, in lower situations, the deciduous oak. The fauna comprises the *chamois*, a species of chamois, the wolf, and the bear; with a variety of birds, many of which are migratory.

The Pyrenees give rise to numerous rivers. Those on the N. side comprise the Adour and its tributaries, the Pau, Oleron, Saison, Nive, &c.; the Garonne, with the Gers, Arrighe, and others of its affluents, all sending their waters into the Bay of Biscay; and the Aude, the Tet, and the Tech, falling into the Mediterranean. The rivers descending from the S. slope are mostly tributaries of the Ebro, the principal being the Arragon, Gallego, Cinca, and Segre, all of which have numerous branches; the other rivers of this slope are the Ter and the Llobregat, the latter flowing into the sea close to Barcelona.

With respect to the scenery of the Pyrenees, as compared with that of the Alps, Mr. Inglis observes, that each has its peculiar charm, but that scenery of savage sublimity are more frequently met with in Switzerland than in the Pyrenees; the N. lat. of the former, as well as the greater size of its rivers and lakes, adding to its features of wild grandeur. The Pyrenees, however, appear to exceed the Alps in elevation, owing to the much lower level of the valleys, as compared with those of Switzerland, some of which are nearly 4,000 ft. high, while those of S.W. France scarcely exceed 3,000 ft. The presence of oak, also, in the forests, clothing the sides of the mountains, gives a beauty to the Pyrenees which is wholly absent on the fir-covered steeps of the Alps. But, however worthy of the traveller's notice, these valleys will probably never become the frequent resort of the tourist, because access to them is extremely difficult, and the accommodation for travellers worse than indifferent; while Switzerland, accessible in several directions by good roads, is visited not only on its own account, but because it is the high road to Italy. (*Inglis's Swiss, France, and Pyrenees*, p. 342-5.)

The mountaineers of the Pyrenees are shepherds, and small proprietors both of land and cattle; but owing to the deficiency of nutritious vegetation, their condition as graziers is far inferior to that of their brothers of the Alps. They are patient and industrious, though seldom raised above want; besides which, they are in every thing, but especially in food and clothing, more simple and primitive than the Alpine mountaineers, than whom, however, they are unquestionably handsomer and more vigorous. Their food usually consists of rye or barley bread and paste, made from Indian corn, with, occasionally, salted beef's flesh and pork. Mr. Inglis speaks favourably of the character for kindness and generosity; adding, also, that "crime of every description is rare in the Pyrenees, theft very unfrequent, and murder altogether unknown." (P. 345.) On these mountains is found the extraordinary race of people, called *Cagots*, distinguished by their sallow and unhealthy countenances, stupid expression, want of vigour, relaxed appearance, imperfect articulation, disposition to gottres, and inferior share of mental capacity. They live in the most retired valleys, secluded from and studiously avoiding intercourse with the rest of the inhab., by whom they are looked upon as a degraded race; and though they are not persecuted, enslaved, and debarred the privileges of religion as formerly, they are "still a separate family, still outcasts; a people having evidently no kindred with those who live around them, but the remnant of a different and more ancient family." The origin of this curious race is hidden in obscurity; but M. Ramond and others conceive them to be the miserable remains of the Germanic conquerors of the Spanish peninsula.

The Pyrenees, which seem to have been known to the Greeks under the name of *Illyria*, are connected with many important historical events. Hannibal crossed them on his way to Italy, at the beginning of the second Punic war, most probably by the pass of Pertus, near the E. end of the chain. Julius Cæsar also traversed them with his army, when marching into Spain against Pompey. Charlemagne carried his victorious arms over these mountains, and added Spain to the empire of the Franks. Edward the Black Prince led his army over one of the western passes, when fighting in defence of Peter the Cruel against Henry of Trastamare; and these mountains have obtained a more recent celebrity from having been the scene of several obstinate struggles between the French and English at the close of the Peninsular war, the result of which set in a striking point of view the great military talents of the Duke of Wellington. (*Les Pyrénées*, par Chausseigne, p. 9-43; *Lafasson, Histoire Nat. des Pyrénées*, 3 vols. passim; *Encycl.*

PYRENEES (HAUTES).

Metrop., art. Pyrenees, by the Rev. G. C. Beaumont; Milano, Inglis, &c.

PYRENEES (BASSES), a frontier dep. of France, reg. S.W., formerly comprised in Gascony, between lat. 43° 47' and 43° 35' N., long. 0° and 1° 43' W., having N. Landes, S. Hautes-Pyrenees, and S. and W. Spain, and N.W. the Bay of Biscay, on which it has a coast-line of about 25 m. Area, 749,490 hect. Pop., in 1846, 457,532. The Pyrenees bound this dep. on the S.; their highest point in this part of the range, the Pic du Midi, being 9,546 ft. in height. Their ramifications cover the greater part of the dep., which is traversed by the rivers Gave de Pau, Oleron, Bidouze, Nivèze, &c., tributaries of the Adour, and flowing N.W. Small lakes, mineral springs, &c. are very numerous. Except on the mountains, the climate is temperate and healthy; the soil in the lower parts of the country is very fertile, while the mountain sides are covered with fine pastures and forests, which maintain great numbers of cattle and hogs. In 1834, 156,223 hectares of the surface was said to be arable, 66,364 in artificial meadows, 23,175 in vineyards, 130,173 in woods, and 240,733 occupied with natural pastures, heaths, wastes, &c. (*French Official Tables*). Between Betharram and Pau, the country is beautiful. The vines are training the rich valleys of Bearn, the vine lines of land is cultivated and the country is a constant succession of villages and houses. The principal products of this country are fruit, wine, and Indian corn, all of which grow in great perfection. It is in this district that the prunes so much prized in England are grown and prepared; and every description of fruit that is produced in the lower parts of Bearn is excellent of its kind. Here, too, we find the vine, not as it is found in the other parts of France, an insignificant shrub, covering the acclivities, and possessing not much greater beauty than a potato field; but trained from tree to tree, as in some parts of Italy and in the Tyrol. This district, excepting the valleys of the Pyrenees, is certainly the most beautiful part of France." (*Inglis's Switzerland*, &c., p. 308.) Agriculture, however, in a very backward state: by what would seem to be a singular contradiction, the sides of the hills are cultivated, while the plains, which, it may be presumed, would be much more productive, are left waste or in pasture; and the corn is insufficient for the home supply. Maize and wheat are the grains principally cultivated; fax and hemp are also, raised in large quantities. The produce of wine is estimated at about 300,000 hectolitres a year, of which about 1/3 part is consumed by the inhab.; some growths, particularly those of Jurançon, near Pau, are of a superior quality. In 1830, there were estimated to be nearly 117,000 head of cattle in the dep., and 464,000 sheep, the produce of wool being supposed to amount to about 1,000,000 kilogr. The breed of horses has been greatly improved by the stud at Pau; a great many mules are bred for export into Spain. The hogs furnish the hams so well known under the name of *Jambons de Bayonne*. In 1835, of 94,893 properties subject to the *contributions foncières*, 47,058 were valued at least 5 fr., while 14 only were assessed at 1,000 fr. and upwards. Copper, iron, sulphur, cobalt, slate, marble, and granite, are among the mineral products; and mining industry is carried on upon a pretty extensive scale. The manufactures comprise woollen and linen stuffs and yarn, printed handkerchiefs (called *mouchoirs de Bearn*), leather, hardware, earthenware, paper, chocolate, brandy, &c.; and the dep. furnishes supplies of planks, with cordage, &c., for the dock-yard at Bayonne. The value of the cattle, wine, hams, salted geese, &c., exported to foreign countries, especially to Spain, is estimated at 4,000,000 fr. a year, and that of the exports to other parts of France at about 3,000,000 fr. Bases-Pyrenees is divided into 5 arrondis.; chief towns, Pau, the cap., Bayonne, Mauleon, Oleron, and Orthes. It sends 5 mem. to the Ch. of Dep. Registered electors in 1836-9, 1,106. Total public revenue in 1831-2, 7,858,744 fr. (*Buge, art. Bases-Pyrenees*; *Dict. Géog.*; *French Official Tables*; *Inglis*.)

PYRENEES (HAUTES), a frontier dep. of France, reg. S.W., formerly included in Gascony, between lat. 43° 12' and 43° 39' N., and long. 0° 37' and 85° E., having N. Gers, S. Haute Garonne, W. Bases-Pyrenees, and S. Spain, the ridge of the Pyrenees forming the line of demarcation between the two kingdoms. Area, 452,759 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 351,368. Within the limits of this dep. are some of the most remarkable places of resort and objects of curiosity in the Pyrenees, as the baths of Bagnères, Bagnères, and Cauterets, the valley of Gavarnie, *Brèche de Roland*, &c. By far the greater part of the surface is covered with ramifications of the Pyrenees, among which the Gave de Pau, Gers, Adour, &c., take their rise. Small lakes are very numerous in the mountains. In 1834, of the surface of the dep. 94,893 hectares were estimated to be arable, 44,375 in meadows, 13,393 in vineyards, 84,611 in woods, and 173,575 in heaths, wastes, &c. There is a larger proportion of good soil in this than in the neighbouring dep. of the Bases-Pyrenees.

though the produce of corn (chiefly maize and wheat), be still *insuffisant* for the inhabs. Property is much subdivided: most of the peasants are proprietors of the soil they cultivate; and the greater number of the other proprietors are engaged in the cultivation of their own lands. In 1835, of 78,713 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, no fewer than 44,081 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 12,863 at from 5 to 10 fr., while only eight were assessed at 1,000 fr. or upwards. (*French Offic. Tables*.) Inglis describes a family in the mountains whose condition might be taken as a fair sample of that of the poorer mountaineers of the Pyrenees. "The property of the peasant," he says, "consisted of two cows and three goats. A small meadow in the neighbourhood of the hut was fertilized, and allotted to rye, and about a rood of land was laid out in potatoes and cabbages. The peasant and his family consumed the whole produce of the animals. Meat of no kind ever entered the cabin; but the lake, $\frac{1}{4}$ league distant, occasionally supplied a few fish. A kind of cheese, like some of the poorer Scotch cheeses, was made from the goats' milk; and the sale of this to the lower orders at Caucers was the only source of the money necessary for the purchase of clothes and whatever else was not produced by cows and goats." (*Switzerland and the Pyrenees*, &c., p. 280, 281.) The dep. produces about 270,000 hectolitres of inferior wine, about a half of which is exported or converted into brandy. A good many cattle are reared, and the horses bred in the plain of Tarbes are extensively purchased for the service of the light cavalry. Lules are bred for export into Spain. The produce of oil is reckoned at about 370,000 kilogr. a year; and a small deal of butter is made of the milk of the sheep. The produce of honey and wax is also considerable. Minerals and manufactures, though of little importance, are not quite valueless, there being good marble quarries, and some fabrics of woollen, linen, and cotton cloth, with tanneries, distilleries, &c. The dep. is divided into three arrondis: chief towns, Tarbes (the *cap.*), Argeles, and Bagneres de Bigorre. It sends three mem. to the Cham. of Dep. Registered electors, in 8, 29,545. Total public revenue, in 1831, 3,118,056 fr. *agn.* art. *Pyrenees-Hautes*; *Dict. Géog.*; *French Offic. Tables*.

PYRENEES-ORIENTALES, a marit. and frontier dep. of France, reg. S., consisting principally of the prov. of Roussillon, with a portion of Languedoc, having N. Ande, W. Arles, S. Spain, the ridge of the Pyrenees forming the line of demarcation between two kingdoms, and E. the Mediterranean. Shape ly triangular. Area, 411,623 hectares. Pop., in 1807, 794. The Pyrenees in this dep. are less lofty in the greater part of the rest of their course; still, *ver.*, the Canigou, their highest peak, attains to an elevation of 9,140 ft. The dep., though in great part mountainous, comprises a large extent of plain country. principal rivers are the Tet, Tech, and Agly, but of these are navigable. In 1834, 92,554 hectares of *rafice* were supposed to be arable, 9,796 in artificial es (probably meadows), 58,442 in vineyards, 43,877 ds, and 188,407 in heaths, wastes, &c. The arable are of two classes,—wet and dry. The irrigable, *s.*, are always under culture; in the rotation to they are subjected, they usually yield three crops *years*; one of which is wheat, and the others trefol, *is.*, maize, potatoes, hemp, or flax, when they are grass for an equal period. The dry, or non-irrigable are alternately under wheat or rye, or in fallut though agriculture be better conducted than of the adjacent depts., the corn continues to be of from the grain by treading out with horses, as *s.* The total produce of corn, chiefly wheat, and rye, was estimated, in 1835, at 442,160 hectopars, a quantity obviously much below the demand of the pop. The dep. also furnishes in ordinary years 300,000 hectol. of wine, and 12,000 of oil. *ordinaires* are highly coloured and heavy, and little drunk in a pure state in other parts of ut are extensively employed to give colour and weaker wines of other depts. The red wines and the white wines of Rivesaltes are, however, superior description. The former are *pleins de spiritueux, avec de la moelle, du velouté, et un vel.* *En vieillissant ils acquièrent de la finesse et un couleur de cor.* (*Julien*, p. 282.) The cat wine of Rivesaltes is said by the same authority to be decidedly the best *vin de oduced in France. Il est plein de finesse, de assem, il embaume la bouche et la laisse toube; et il est bien constant que ce vin est l'un rs de l'antérior, lorsqu'il provient d'une bonne ité a vieillir.* (p. 285.)

es of the dep. have been very much improved stud at Perpignan and otherwise; sheep and overver, the most valuable domestic animals; field annually about 50,000 kilogr. of wool for after supplying the home consumption.

The mulberry has been introduced, but this dep. ranks last among those in which silk is grown. About 300,000 kilogr. a year of cork are collected. Property is very much subdivided. Of 54,506 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, in 1835, 27,018 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 9,454 at from 5 to 10 fr.; only 23 properties were assessed at 1,000 fr. and upwards. Iron, copper, bismuth, and lead are raised, but in no great quantities. Many of the inhabs. of the coast are occupied in the tunny and anchovy fisheries; and there are manufactures of coarse woollen stuffs and hosiery, with iron forges, tanneries, paper-mills, distilleries, &c. The dep. is divided into three arrondis; chief towns, Perpignan, the *cap.*, with 18,264 inhabs., Céret, and Prades. Total public revenue in 1844, 4,047,929 fr. Roussillon belonged successively to the kings of Majorca and of Arragon, till Louis XI. took it from the latter. It was restored by Charles VIII., and remained attached to the Spanish monarchy till 1640, when it was finally annexed to France. (*Hugo*, art. *Pyrenees-Orientales*; *Dict. Géog.*; *French Official Tables*.)

Q

QUEBEC, a city and sea-port of Canada, of which, and of the British possessions in N. America, it is the *cap.*, on the N. W. bank of the St. Lawrence, at the point where it is joined by the St. Charles, about 340 m. from the mouth of the former, lat. $46^{\circ} 48' 49''$ N., long. $71^{\circ} 10' 45''$ W. Pop., in 1843, 31,507, in 1850, 40,000? It occupies the extremity of a ridge, terminating in the angle formed by the junction of the two rivers, in the point called Cape Diamond, rising to the height of nearly 340 ft. above the St. Lawrence. The Cape is surmounted by the citadel; and the town extends from it, principally in a N. E. direction, down to the water's edge. It is divided, from the difference of elevation, into the Upper and Lower towns. The old town, which lies wholly without the walls, partly at the foot of Cape Diamond, and round to the St. Charles, had narrow and dirty, and, in parts, steep streets. We say *had*, for the principal part of it was destroyed in two tremendous conflagrations in May and June, 1845. Though built of stone, the houses which were burnt down were mostly roofed with shingles; and to this the extent of the destruction occasioned by the fires in question is principally to be ascribed. In rebuilding the town care has been taken to have the streets properly laid out, widened, and otherwise improved. The ascent from the Lower to the Upper town is by a winding street, and by flights of steps. The streets in the latter, though narrow, are generally clean, and tolerably well paved, or macadamised. The public buildings, and most of the houses in it, are roofed with tin plates.

Quebec is very strongly fortified, and may, in fact, be called the Gibraltar of America. The citadel over Cape Diamond includes an area of about 40 acres; and is formidable alike from its position and its works, constructed on a gigantic scale, and on the most approved principles. The line of the fortifications, which stretches nearly across the peninsula on the W., and runs along a ridge between the upper and lower towns, is intersected by five gates, and has an inner circuit of about 2½ miles. Beyond the ramparts, on the E. W., are the extensive suburbs of St. Roch, St. John, and St. Louis.

The public buildings are substantial, rather than elegant. The Château St. Louis, the residence of the governor-general, a large, plain building, on a height overhanging the river, was burnt down early in 1835. The Rom. Cath. cathedral of Notre Dame, the Protestant cathedral, with sundry other Catholic and Protestant churches; the old episcopal palace, now the seat of the Canadian legislature; the quadrangular edifice formerly the college of the Jesuits, but now a barrack, in the upper town; with the Quebec bank; the Exchange reading room, well furnished with American, British, and other newspapers and periodical publications; and the government warehouses, in the lower town, comprise the principal public buildings.

There are three nunneries, one of which, the Hôtel de Dieu, is a very valuable hospital. The nuns are here, in fact, a most useful class of persons, acting as nurses to the sick admitted within these establishments, and as instructresses of young girls.

Among the establishments for educational purposes, the first place is due to the French college. It has a principal, and professors of theology, rhetoric, and mathematics, with 8 regents for the Latin and Greek classes. Here is, also, a royal grammar school, a classical academy, a national school, and many French and English private schools. A Royal Institution for the advancement of learning within the prov., and a Literary and Historical Society, respectively enjoy the patronage of the government and of the principal inhabs. A Me-

ehanic's Institute was established in 1830; and it has numerous benevolent associations. The city public library, though not very extensive, is said to be well selected, and to contain a great variety of standard works. The garrison, also, has a good library. Several newspapers are published in the city.

Though not a manufacturing town, Quebec has various distilleries, breweries, with tobacco, soap, and candle works; and numbers of fine ships have been launched from its yards. It has two or three banks, and a savings' bank. The markets are well stocked with most sorts of produce; but good fish is rather scarce and dear. The climate, though on the whole good and healthy, is in extremes. In summer the heat is equal to that of Naples, while the cold of winter is not inferior to that of Moscow. This inequality occasions a corresponding difference in the modes of life during the different seasons of the year. In winter travelling is carried on by means of sledges and carriages, in the same way as in Russia. The first view of Quebec in sailing up the St. Lawrence is striking in the extreme; and there is a magnificent prospect from the citadel on Cape Diamond.

The majority of the tide rising of French extraction, the French language which is still spoken in some of the best circles with great propriety, and the R. Catholic religion, predominate. Society is here more polished and refined than in any other town of British America; and the higher provincial gentry of French descent are distinguished by the courteousness and urbanity of their manner. But, in consequence, perhaps, of the seductive example of the mimic court established amongst them, all classes are much given to show, and generally indulge in expenses beyond their means. Hence Quebec is very expensive; and owing to the jealousies that exist, and the violence of provincial politics, society is split into different parties. Great attention is, also, paid to etiquette; and those admitted to the governor-general's parties rarely associate with those who do not enjoy that honour.

Vessels of the very largest burden arrive at Quebec. Its harbour or basin, between the city and the island of New Orleans, is of great extent, having in general about 26 fathoms water, the tide rising from 16 to 18 ft. at neaps, and from 26 to 30 ft. at springs. Ships lie alongside the wharfs along the St. Lawrence. There are extensive flats between the lower town and the St. Charles, where wet docks might be easily constructed.

The trade of the city is very extensive. It engrosses, with Montreal, almost the entire trade of the prov. with the mother country, the W. Indies, &c. Great numbers of emigrants leave this country for Canada; but the larger number subsequently re-emigrate to the U. States. (See art. CANADA, l. 618.) It has a regular intercourse, by means of steamers, with Montreal, and other ports higher up the St. Lawrence, and with Halifax, and other ports on the Atlantic. Still, however, it must not be forgotten that in so far as the United Kingdom is concerned, the trade with Canada and Quebec is, in a considerable degree, forced and factitious, and is not a source of profit, but the reverse. It is in fact, as has been already shown (1,322.), mainly a consequence of the high discriminating duties laid in our ports on timber from the N. of Europe. But for this preposterous arrangement, the trade between Great Britain and Quebec would be extremely unimportant. Of the total value of the imports from Canada, timber makes two thirds, the only other articles of any importance being furs and ashes. The corn and flour exported from Quebec is not the growth of the prov., but of the U. States. The principal articles of import into Canada consist of corn, cottons, woollens, silk, and other manufactured goods; glass ware, spirits and wines, iron and hardware, sugar and tea, &c. The total value of the imports into Canada (of which, however, by far the largest portion goes to Montreal) in 1848 amounted to 2,107,164*l.* currency (24*l.* 4*d.* cur. = 30*l.* ster.). Declared value of British produce and manufactures exported to Canada in 1849, 1,324,931*l.*

It is material, however, to bear in mind, that little more than half the imports are paid for by the exports; they are, in fact, principally paid for by the treasury at home, and are to be regarded as the means sent out by England to pay the troops and meet the other heavy expenses she has to incur in the preservation of this most unprofitable colony.

Account of the Number of Vessels and their Tonnage, which arrived at the Port of Quebec, in those bound for Montreal, from Sea, and the Number of Passengers that came by them, from 1846 to 1850, inc.

Years.	Vessels.	Tons.	Passengers.
1846	-	1,448	575,104
1847	-	1,175	474,545
1848	-	1,044	426,998
1849	-	1,056	38,496
1850	-	1,179	434,291

Of the vessels that arrived at Quebec in 1850, 96

QUEENBOROUGH.

were foreign, viz., 45 Norwegian, 24 American (U.S.), 19 Prussian, 3 Russian, 2 Portuguese, 1 Hanoverian, 1 Swedish, and 1 Dutch.

During the year, 1,054 vessels cleared at the port of Quebec; they were almost exclusively employed in the export of timber, and were nearly all of large tonnage.

Value of Exports from Quebec and Montreal.

Years.	Quebec.	Montreal.	Total Currency.
	<i>£</i> <i>s.</i> <i>d.</i>	<i>£</i> <i>s.</i> <i>d.</i>	<i>£</i> <i>s.</i> <i>d.</i>
1841	1,737,736 13 1	700,070 3 9	2,437,736 17 10
1842	991,430 8 9	725,739 14 9	1,715,219 3 6
1843	1,387,651 17 5	885,199 1 0	1,755,320 18 5
1844	1,684,548 17 9	754,321 2 8	2,438,869 20 7
1845	2,055,551 1 1	730,797 7 8	2,777,648 8 9
1846	1,866,456 16 5	658,338 6 8	2,284,793 6 1
1847	1,851,599 10 8	848,982 18 10	2,699,582 11 10
1848	1,357,536 6 1	391,245 5 0	1,748,167 11 1

Value of Imports at Quebec and Montreal.

Years.	Quebec.	Montreal.	Total Currency.
	<i>£</i> <i>s.</i> <i>d.</i>	<i>£</i> <i>s.</i> <i>d.</i>	<i>£</i> <i>s.</i> <i>d.</i>
1841	317,916 14 3	2,068,155 17 10	2,386,059 12 1
1842	216,669 13 11	2,021,106 12 1	2,237,776 6 0
1843	409,827 5 0	1,839,977 10 11	1,691,786 15 11
1844	655,968 15 8	2,475,054 5 8	3,130,993 1 4
1845	712,798 10 10	2,670,312 3 5	3,383,650 14 0
1846	750,992 11 5	2,503,998 12 11	3,054,891 4 4
1847	796,517 9 2	2,065,440 11 11	2,860,321 3 1
1848	625,845 2 11	1,481,418 17 9	2,107,264 0 8

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles imported into the United Kingdom from the British N. American Colonies in 1848.

Articles.	Quantities Imported.
Asbes, pearl and pot	Cwts. 82,968
Beef, salted	- 3,529
Wheat of B. possessions	Qrs. 37,120
Wheat-flour of B. possessions	Cwts. 654,473
Fish, of British taking	- 44,001
Oil, train and sperm-cast, of British fishing	Tons 11,327
Fork, salted	Cwts. 2,263
Skins and furs, undressed; viz.:-	
Bear	No. 6,303
Beaver	- 41,004
Fox	- 26,738
Lion	- 16,168
Marten	- 122,122
Mink	- 45,898
Musquash	- 84,550
Otter	- 10,633
Seal	- 630,597
Wolf	- 6,022
Timber, not sawn or split, of B. possessions	Loads 565,555
Deal, battens, or other timber, sawn or split, of B. possessions	- 498,081
Staves	- 30,540

Quebec, as every one knows, was taken from the French in 1759. A British army, under General Wolfe, having effected a landing near the city, attacked and defeated the French army under Montcalm, on the heights of Abraham, to the W. of the town. Wolfe fell in the moment of victory; and Montcalm, who was also mortally wounded in the action, expired some after. The French, panic-struck by the loss of the battle and the death of their commander-in-chief, surrendered the city before even a single battery had been opened against it. A monument was erected, under the patronage of Lord Dalhousie, in the gardens of the chateau, inscribed to the "Immortal memory of Wolfe and Montcalm."

QUEDLINBURG, a town of Prussian Saxony, reg. Magdeburg, circ. Aschersleben, on the Bode, a tributary of the Saale, 7 m. S.E. Halberstadt, and 35 m. S.W. Magdeburg. Pop. in 1846, 13,410. It is well built, and is surrounded by turreted walls, pierced by 4 gates. On an eminence immediately above the town is an old castle, now falling into decay, but which has a good library, and is in part converted into a school. It was formerly the residence of the abbesses of Quedlinburg, who were princesses of the empire, and had a seat on the Rhenish bench of bishops. Many of these abbesses are buried in the *Stiftskirche*, or church of the ancient abbey; in which are also the tombs of Henry the Fowler, his empress, the beautiful countess Künigsmark, mother of Marshal Saxe, &c. Quedlinburg has several hospitals, public schools, and various charities; with manufactures of woollen stuffs, distilleries, sugar refineries, &c. The rearing of cattle and hogs employs many of the inhabs. Klopstock, author of the "Messiah," was a native of Quedlinburg, having been born here on the 2d of July, 1724: since his death a monument has been erected to his memory in the Brühl garden, near the town. Quedlinburg was formerly a free imperial city, and has been frequently the residence of the German emperors and the seat of ecclesiastical councils. (*Berghaus, Allg. Ländert, &c.*, iv. 664.; *Murray's Handbook for N. Germany*.)

QUEENBOROUGH, a bor., sea-port, and par. of England, co. Kent, Lake Scray, on the E. coast of the

isle of Sheppey, at the junction of the channel of the Swale with the estuary of the Medway, 2 m. S. Sheerness, and 37 m. E. by S. London. Area of par. 1,850 acq. Pop. of do., in 1841, 634. The town, which is poor and medæval, is chiefly of a mud-brick, having the mudwall, with a gaol underneath, near its centre. The church, an ancient structure, has a tower 145 ft. W. end; and there is, also, a chapel for Independents. A charity-school for the education of the sons of the freemen used to be supported by the corporation and the parliamentary representatives for the bur., and there are some minor-schools, and a Sunday-school. The inhabs. are almost wholly engaged in the breeding and supplying of oysters for the London market.

inconsiderable as it has long been. Queenborough enjoyed the privilege of sending 2 members to the H. of C. from the era of Elizabeth down to the passing of the Reform Act, when it was most properly disfranchised. It was reckoned too unimportant to be included in the provisions of the Municipal Reform Act. A fine old castle in the vicinity of the town was demolished by order of parliament in 1650.

near of Parkington in New York.

QUINCE is an inland co. of Ireland, prov. Ulster, having N. King's co., E. Kildare and Carlow, and a detached portion of King's co., S. Kilkenny, and W. Tipperary. Area 366,810 acres, of which 69,972 consist of unimproved bog and waste lands. Surface generally flat; and soil, except where bog occurs, for the most part very fertile. Estates mostly large; but many of them are let on perpetual leases; the head leases on these estates forming the widest class of property. The farms are mostly let for 99 years, generally in smaller divisions, to inferior tenants; and these again have subdivided them to others; so that many of the occupancies are extremely small, and held by persons too poor to be able to make any improvement. The farms have been let on terminable leases, and are larger, and on these various improvements have been introduced, both as respects the rotation of crops, the implements of husbandry, and the mode of manuring, to some extent, and a good deal of credit is made for the Dublin market. Average rent 12s. and 13s. a acre. Coal and limestone are found in quarries; but the former is not wrought. Principal rivers, Barrow and Nore. It is divided into 8 baronies, 50 parishes; and sends 3 mems. to the H. of C., 2 for the co. and 1 for the bor. of Portlinton. Estimated electors for the co. in 1849-50, 328. The pop. in 25,483 inhab. houses, 97,484 families, and 390,140 inhab., of whom 75,403 were males, and 77,527 females.

QUEENSFERRY (SOUTH), a parl. bor. and sea-
of Scotland, co. Linlithgow, on the S. shore of the
of Forth, nearly opposite to N. Queensferry, 8 m.
of N. Edinburgh. It is a poor decayed place, which
originally founded for, and is still principally de-
pendent on, the ferry, which has long been estab-
lished at this point, across the Forth. Pop., in 1841, 3,233. It
is chiefly of one street, running parallel to the

The only public buildings are the parish church, a Wesleyan chapel, and the town-hall; it has a soap factory and a brewery. Newhall, immediately to the north of the town, is now the principal ferry station to the Forth: though, under certain circumstances, the Government men prefer the pier of the Forth.

By Queen's ferry, the pier opposite the
 is here less than 2 m. across, is still more incon-
 siderable. The principal ferry business across the Forth
 is, in fact, carried on between Newhaven and
 island, and Newhaven and Kirkcaldy. Dr. Williams,
 of the " Epigonidae," was a native of St. Quilke,
 having been born there in 1721. Queensferry
 with Dunfermline, Inverkeithing, Curossa, and
 in sending I mem. to the H. of C. Registered
 in this bor., in 1849-50, 31. Hopetoun House,
 a fine mansion of the Earl of Hopetoun, is situated
 W. from St. Queensferry. It occupies a com-

ST. QUENTIN, ST. (an. *Augusta Vermanduorum*), a thriving town on the canal, dep. Aisne, cap. arrond., 10,000 in. and on the France, st. Qu. Quentin, 24 m. from Paris, lat. 50° 25' N., long. 3° 45' E. (1816 (inc. comm.) 33,362. It was formerly a strength; but, since the time of Louis XIV., its have given place to suburbs and public walks; a public promenade extends on the E. side of along the banks of the canal. St. Quentin is well built; its principal streets being wide, its are handsome, and most of its houses modern. The centre of the town is a large square, in which is a hall, a curiously ornamented Gothic edifice, a church of the 15th cent., and a great majesty, 110 ft. in length. Internally, it has 212 ft. in the hospitals, the public library, with 14,000 court-house, belfry, theatre, and concert-hall, and other buildings worth notice. It has original jurisdiction and commerce, a chamber

of manufactures, a council *des prud'hommes*, &c., a communal college, drawing and commercial schools, courses of practical geometry and mechanics, and a society of arts and sciences.

St. Quentin was formerly the centre of an extensive manufacture of linen fabrics and yarns. This branch of industry has now almost disappeared; but its place has been supplied by the cotton manufacture. In 1834, within an area of 12 leagues round St. Quentin, embracing its arrondissement, with parts of the depts. Somme, Du Nord, and Pas de Calais, it was estimated that nearly 75,000 hands were employed in weaving, bleaching, and spinning cotton; besides many more employed in sub-branches of the industry. The principal articles are striped and spotted muslins, yarns, and the linen of the neighbourhood have about 700 bobbinet frames. The cotton spinners, whose number is about 4,000, reside principally in the town; the weavers live in the villages and surrounding country, where most of them are petty proprietors, occupied in agricultural labour for 3 or 4 months of the year. But it is obvious that goods produced by semi-manufacturers of this sort could never withstand, for a moment, the free competition of goods produced in factories supplied with the best machinery, and with a prompt distribution of the finished labour. Hence the most dangerous competition to the artificial market produced by the exclusion of cheaper articles. At St. Quentin the weaving of 1,200 and 1,400 checked muslins of a coarse description, 32 in. wide, and sold for 9d. per ell of 44 in., is paid at the rate of 10d. a day: a still coarser description is sold for 6½d. or 7d. the ell, and the weaver gets 8d. a day. For finer goods the weavers' wages vary from 1s. to 1s. 6d. a day: these prices are wholesale, with 5 or 8 per cent. discount, ready money. The wages are gross, the winding and picking being done by the manufacturer, and the average of the weavers' yearly income, children from 3d. to 6d., women from 7d. to 10d.; and men from 1s. 3d. to 2s. 6d. a day. In the cotton mills in the town, the average wages of a male adult may be from 6s. to 7 fr. a week. The workmen on the bobbinet frames get from 1 fr. 50 c. to 1 fr. 75 c. a day; and from 40 to 50 Mechlin frames have been set up, for the produce of which a considerable demand has arisen, and on which the wages amount to 6 fr. and 7 fr. 4 d. a day. The workpeople in the town, of all ages, would require 13 hours a day. In the country the hours are not regular, as they work nearly as long as in the town, especially in winter. (*Synopsis, in Handloom Weavers' Rev.*, p. 128.)

The cotton-mills of St. Quentin are by no means so extensive as those of the dep. Haut-Rhin: few employ more than 200 hands. Children are employed here at an earlier age than in the cotton-factories of Alsace; but the workpeople of all ages appear to enjoy much more health and vigour than those of the same age either at Mulhausen or Lille. "The working classes make no complaints; they seem all pretty well supplied with the necessaries, and many of the comforts of life. They are all well clothed, and have plenty of vegetables to eat. The meat is consumed, or desired by them."

linen (Hug.). Leather, soap and sulphuric acid are also produced here, and the commerce of the town with the adjacent parts of France, Belgium, and Germany is much facilitated by good roads and by the canal of St. Quentin. The latter connects the inland navigation of France with that of the Netherlands, by forming a communication between the Oise, the Somme, and the Scheldt. It is remarkable chiefly for the tunnels cut through the high ground, about 4 m. N. St. Quentin. The first of these is 160 ft. below the surface, 24 ft. in width, the same in height, and 4 m. in length. The second, tunnel, on a still larger scale, being 3 m. in width, and 400 ft. below the surface, is also permitted, at certain distances, by openings caused to the surface; and the tunnel being cut through a chalk rock, the sides are not built. It was finished in 1810. (Hugo, art. *Aisne*; *Fillemé, Tabl. des Ouvr.*; *Handloom Weavers' Rep.*)

other, *Watson's Philip II.*, as previously stated, was formerly strongly fortified, and was regarded as one of the bulwarks of France on the N. In 1557, in the earlier part of the struggles between Philip II. and France, the army of the former, under the Duke of Savoy, having threatened to attack the town, defended by the famous Admiral Coligny, and a weak garrison, the constable Montmorency advanced with a considerable army to its relief, and succeeded in throwing some reinforcements into it. On his retreat, however, he was overtaken by the Spaniards, when a general action ensued, which ended in the total defeat of the French, who lost all their artillery and baggage, with about 7,000 men killed, and 10,000 taken prisoners. The town soon afterwards fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The battle having been fought on the 10th of August, St. Lawrence's day, the vast palace of the Escorial, built by Philip II., was dedicated to the saint in commemoration of the victory. (*Watson's Philip II.*, vol. i. 70, &c.)

Pierre la Ramée, better known by his Latin name of

Ramus, one of the earliest and ablest opponents of the scholastic system of philosophy, and the Marquis Condorcet, were natives of the vicinity of St. Quentin, though not, as is frequently stated, of the town itself.

QUERETARO, a city of Mexico, cap. of the state of its own name, in a rich and fertile valley, 110 m. N.E. Mexico, and 60 m. E.S.E. Guanajuato; lat. $20^{\circ} 36' 39''$ N., long. $100^{\circ} 10' 15''$ W. Pop. at least 40,000. (*Ward*.) It is a well-built city, with three large squares, many handsome public and private edifices, and the usual excess of convents and churches. The Franciscan monastery is spacious, and surrounded with extensive gardens; and the convent of Santa Clara is an immense building, inhabited by 250 females, including many young ladies sent thither for their education. The streets have side pavements, laid with flags of porphyry: the city is well supplied with water, brought to it by an aqueduct about 10 m. in length, carried across the valley upon 60 arches.

It is divided into 5 parishes; 4 in the body of the town, and 1 in the suburbs, separated from the rest by a little stream. "We must struggle with the busy look of Queretaro, which has quite the air of a manufacturing town. More than half the houses contain shops, and the pop. is engaged either in small trades or in the wool manufactories, which are still very numerous. These are divided into two classes, *orabres* and *trapiches*. The first comprises the establishments that employ from 10 to 30 looms; the last those in which only one or two are in activity. In both coarse cloths, of different patterns and sizes, are manufactured; part of which are retailed upon the spot in the great Plaza, where a market is held every evening by torchlight, and part sent to the capital or other great towns of the confederation. The demand for these manufactures has decreased very much since the ports were opened to European imports; indeed, the woollen trade is now principally kept up by a government contract for supplying the army with clothing. The price paid for scarlet, green, and yellow cloths of the very coarsest texture, varies from 34 reales (12s.) to 15 reales (7s. 6d.) per vara; and there is no doubt that they might be obtained of better quality at a much lower price from abroad. The wool is brought principally from the northern states, San Luis de Potosi, and Zacatecas; its price fluctuates from 16 to 34 reales the arroba of 25 lbs., including carriage; but the wool most esteemed is the produce of the state itself. It acquires its value, not from any superiority in the breed of the Queretaro sheep, but from the circumstance of the flocks being so much smaller than those of the north that they can be better attended to, fed in richer pastures, and kept more clear from thorns, which deteriorate the fleece. This wool sells for 34 dollars (or 30 reales) the arroba." (*Ward's Mexico*, ii. 133, 134.) The manufactures of this city are conducted on the same nefarious system that prevails elsewhere in Mexico (see this vol., p. 316.), of inveigling the Indians into debt by the voluntary advance of money, and then shutting them up in the factories, under prison discipline, with criminals of all kinds, till they have liquidated the debt by their labour, a circumstance which every pains is taken to prevent, and which rarely occurs. (*Poinsett's Notes on Mexico*, p. 186, &c.)

QUIMPER-CORENTIN, a town and river-port of France, dep. Finistère, of which it is the cap., at the junction of the Elz with the Odet, about 11 m. above where the latter falls into the Bay of Benaudet, 115 m. W. by S. Rennes; lat. $47^{\circ} 58' 20''$ N., long. $4^{\circ} 6' 15''$ W. Pop., in 1845, 9,739. It stands on the declivity of a hill, and is divided into the old and new town. The former, surrounded by walls flanked with towers, is ill built; but in the new town there are some good streets and houses. The cathedral, a handsome Gothic edifice of the 15th century, and other churches; the military hospital; the college, a large structure formerly belonging to the Jesuits; the theatre, and some public baths, are the principal public buildings. The river is navigable as far as the town for vessels of 200 tons burden, those of greater size anchoring opposite its embouchure, in the Bay of Benaudet. It has manufactures of earthenware, and building docks; its inhabitants, also, engage in the pilchard fishery, and carry on a pretty brisk trade in provisions. Quimper is a bishop's see, and derived its present name from its first bishop, in the 5th century; previously to which, it was called *Corisopitum*. It was sacked by Charles of Blois in 1345.

Among the distinguished men, of whom Quimper has to boast, may be mentioned Hardouin, the commentator of Pliny, celebrated alike for his learning and his paradoxes; and Freron, the most voluminous, but, at the same time, the least valuable of the French critics of last century. (*Hugo, art. Finistère; Dict. Géog.* &c.)

QUITO, a celebrated city of S. America, cap. of the repub. of Ecuador (*Ecuador*), in a ravine on the E. side of Pichincha (a volcanic mountain, which, at no very distant period, was in a state of activity), above 9,500 ft. above the sea, 160 m. N.N.E. Guayaquil, and 460 m. S.W. Bo-

gota. Lat. $0^{\circ} 13' 37''$ S., long. $78^{\circ} 10' 15''$ W. Pop., variously estimated at from 40,000 to 70,000. Quito is, on the whole, one of the best built cities in the New World. It has four broad, straight, and well-paved streets, and three large and some smaller squares, in which are the principal public buildings, and the best private residences. The streets which run N. and S. are pretty level, but those which cross them ascend the skirts of the Pichincha on the one hand, and descend on the other towards a small river, over which is a small bridge; and from this unevenness of the ground some of them are so steep as to be impracticable for carriages, besides being, for the most part, narrow, crooked, unpaved, and almost impassable after heavy rains. So numerous, also, are the crevices in the mountain, that, in the suburbs particularly, several of the houses have been raised on arches. The houses, which are large and convenient, are mostly built of unburnt bricks, cemented with a species of mortar, used by the anc. Peruvians, which soon becomes extremely hard. On account of earthquakes, they are seldom more than one story in height, exclusive of the ground-floor, or *res-de-chaussée*. They are flat-roofed, and have usually a balcony towards the street. Generally speaking, they are indifferently furnished, and deficient in cleanliness. The city has an abundant supply of indifferent water, obtained from several streams, which flow through it in conduits. The principal square has, in its centre, a fine brass fountain; and on its sides are the cathedral, the bishop's palace, the town-hall, and the palace of the president. The last is a gloomy-looking building, with a terrace in front, ascended by two flights of steps. In it are the halls of the *audiencia*, treasury, and archives, the president's apartments, with the offices of the public secretaries, and the gaol. The cathedral, a plain building, with a steeple at one corner, is much less handsome than several of the other churches. Quito has numerous convents. The ex-Jesuits' college has a beautiful front, with Corinthian columns, finely sculptured by native artists. The interior of this edifice is very rich, and when visited by Stevenson it had a library, said to comprise 50,000 vols., including several rare works. A part of the edifice has been converted into halls for the university, and another part into barracks. Ulloa speaks in high terms of the Franciscan convent, which, he says, from its size, fine proportions, and beauty, might be classed with the best edifices in Europe. Previously to the Revolution, the churches and convents were richly furnished with silver ornaments, plate, paintings, &c.; but a part of this wealth has, we believe, been since turned to more useful purposes. It has a workhouse and orphan asylum on a large scale, and said to be well conducted, an hospital, &c.

Quito ranks pretty high, at least among Spanish American cities, as a place of education. It had two universities before the time of Charles III., but they were then united into one. Besides this university, which still exists, there are several colleges under the guidance of the different religious orders. Ulloa states, that young men of distinction usually studied philosophy, theology, and jurisprudence. "They succeeded pretty well," he adds, "in the exact sciences, but are extremely ignorant in all that respects politics, history, and those philosophical studies that contribute most to expand and enlarge the mind." There can be no doubt that this is a perfectly accurate statement; but we apprehend the students of Salamanca in Old Spain were, at the epoch of Ulloa's visit to Quito, but little more advanced than those belonging to the latter. It were absurd to suppose that colleges conducted by priests, under an arbitrary government, should supply any sound instruction, either in politics or philosophy.

The city was made a bishop's see in 1645, and is the residence of the President, and the seat of all the superior courts and offices of the republic.

Coarse cottons, and woollen cloths, baizes, flannels, ponchos, stockings, &c., are made in Quito, which is also highly celebrated for its confectionary; but its chief exports consist of the corn, and other agricultural products of the provinces. These, with some of its manufactures, are sent by way of Guayaquil to Central America, in exchange for indigo, iron, and steel; and to Peru in return for brandy, wine, and oil, and for gold, silver, and other metals, Ecuador not being very rich in mineral wealth. The foreign imports comprise all kinds of European manufactured goods, with iron, steel, and some other raw materials. "The European manufactures most in demand are English broad cloths, kerseymeres, coloured broad flannels, calicoes, plain and printed dimities, muslins, stockings, velvetines; Irish linens, in imitation of German *plaidings*; all kinds of hardware and cutlery, and foreign silk velvets, satins, &c., as well as English ribbons and silks. As for the Lima market, the articles should be of a good quality, and of the newest fashion; the more this point is attended to, the better the market will be found." (*Stevenson's S. America*, ii. 319.) The markets of Quito are abundantly

provided with beef, mutton, pork, and poultry, both cheap and good; vegetables and fruits of all kinds, bread, &c. The consumption of cheese is said to be very great, its cost price being estimated at from 80,000 to 50,000 dollars a year, and many of the neighbouring farmers are principally engaged in its manufacture.

The habits of Quito do not differ materially from those of other Spanish American cities; bull fights, masquerades, dancing, music, and religious processions being their principal amusements. When Ulloa visited the city, indolence was, and, we suspect, still is, the distinguishing characteristic, if we may so speak, of all classes. This, in great part, no doubt, to be ascribed to the mildness of the climate, and the ease with which the ordinary necessities of life may be produced. The city enjoys, as it were, a perpetual spring. Vegetation never ceases at any period of the year; but from Dec. to March violent storms of rain and lightning almost daily occur in the afternoon. Earthquakes are, also, frequent; and one of those visitations that occurred in 1797 is said to have destroyed in the prov. above 40,000 persons, and to have had a permanent influence over the climate. A plain, about 4 leagues N.E. from the city, was made choice of by the French and Spanish astronomers, in 1736, for measuring a degree of the meridian; and an inscription on a marble tablet on the wall of the ex-Jesuits' church at Quito commemorates the event, and the labours of the commission; but the most striking memorial of that war undertaking is to be found in the *Historical Voyage* of Ulloa, one of the best works of its kind that has ever been published. Quito was founded by Sebastian Benalzar in 1534, and incorporated as a city by Charles V. 1541. (*Ulloa*, liv. v. caps. 4, 5; *Stevenson's S. America*, ii. 279-325; *Geog. Account of Columbia*, &c.)

R.

RAAB (Hung. *Győr* or *Nagy Győr*, an. *Jaurinum*, lat. or *Arabanis*), a royal free town of Hungary, cap. co. Raab, at the confluence of the river of the same name with the Danube, 22 m. W.S.W. Comorn, and 39 S.E. Presburg. Pop. about 17,500. It stands in a low and marshy plain, and is rather unhealthy. Like most of the cities separated from the suburbs by its old fortifications, and an open glacis, planted with trees, and ringed public walks. Some of the streets are regularly paved, and, besides three or four churches and a cathedral, the city has the bishop's palace, the public buildings belonging to the co. and the corporation, and some noble residences belonging to the Esterhazy and other families. (*Bright's Travels*, 298.) It has, also, a university of law and philosophy; and Rom. Cath., Luth., and Lutheran high schools. In the centre of the city is an immense Capuchin convent, its roof surmounting two very high and conspicuous spires. There are also two conventual establishments, 2 works, 2 barracks, a theatre, arsenal, &c. Raab is the largest trade in corn than any other city in Hungary, and is a great depot for the trade of Pesth with Italy. (*Berghaus*.) It has several large fairs, its commerce depending, for the most part, on its favourable position on two navigable rivers. It has been long kept in a defensive state by the Hungarians, but it was twice taken by the Turks, and, in 1809, an Austrian force was routed by the French in its walls. (*Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.*; *Berghaus's Travels in Lower Hungary*; *Walsh's Conquest*, &c.)

CONIGI, or RACONIGI, a town of the Sarom., div. Coni, prov. Saluzzo, cap. mand., near Ibra, and 21 m. S. Turin. Pop., in 1838, inc. 0,102. It is walled, and tolerably well built; several good churches; but its chief ornament is a steeple and park, belonging to the Prince of Carignano, among the works of art in the castle are some (if they may be so called), beautifully executed silk weaving and spinning are the principal of industry in and round this town. (*Dict.*)

OR, an internal co. of England, S. Wales, having a cos. of Montgomery and Salop, E. Hereford, ck., from which it is separated by the Wye, and gan. It is of a triangular shape, and comprises 100,000 a. With the exception of some low and fertile tracts along the borders of Hereford, and in the valley of the Wye, the larger portion of this co. is wild, mountainous, and dreary. In *Davies's Survey of S. Wales*, published in 1800, it is said that the surface consisted of waste moor, but partly also bog! Several extensive enclosures have, however, been made since the interim; so that the extent of waste or moor, though still very great, has been diminished. At present, the wastes are mostly

depastured by sheep; and this co. rears, in proportion to its size, more sheep than any other in the principality. They are mostly of a small hardy breed. Numerous encroachments have, from time to time, been made on the wastes or commons by persons who had property adjoining, and by cottagers, who erected huts on their borders, and gradually extended their gardens, till they sometimes included acres of land. A good many of the manors on which these encroachments were made formerly belonged to the crown; and having been lately sold, the purchasers have attempted to oust those who had made these encroachments. But though, no doubt, the act was illegal, still, under the circumstances, it was beneficial rather than otherwise; and having been permitted in the first instance, their rights should have been protected. The farms in the low grounds vary from 20 to 200 acres: they are mostly held at will, or from year to year; and as there are no conditions to enforce a proper system of management, agriculture is in the most backward state, there being no proper rotation of crops, and the land being frequently foul and out of order. Many of the low farms have a portion of moor or common pasture attached to them. The cattle in the low grounds are principally of the Hereford breed: there are some extensive meadows, and irrigation is well understood. There are some rather large estates; but there are, also, many of an inferior size. Average rent of land, in 1810, 6s. 3d. an acre. The minerals and manufactures of the co. are of no importance. Radnor is divided into 6 hundreds and 50 parishes; and sends 2 mems. to the H. of C.; being 1 for the co., and 1 for New Radnor and its contributory bors. Reg. electors for the co., in 1849-50, 1,870. In 1831 this co. had 4,716 inhab. houses, and 25,356 inhab., of whom 12,826 were males, and 12,530 females. Sum contributed to the relief of the poor, in 1847, 11,080*l.* Annual value of real property, in 1843, 129,966*l.* The bor. of New Radnor, referred to above, is of great extent, embracing an area of nearly 30 m. in circ. In 1841, it had a pop. of 2,478; but the town itself is not more than 478 inhab., and would not be worth notice but for its being the head of the par. bor. PRESTEGN (which see) is the only town in the co. of any importance.

RAGUSA, a town of Sicily, prov. Syracuse, co. Modica, near the W. bank of the river of its own name, about 14 m. above the embouchure of the latter on the S. coast of Sicily, and 30 m. W.S.W. Syracuse. Pop., in 1831, 21,466. The inhabs., who are said to be active and industrious, have considerable cloth and silk manufactures, and a rather extensive trade in the corn, oil, wine, and cheese of the surrounding territory. It is near the site of the anc. *Hybla Heras*; but being seldom visited by travellers, little is known of its state. (*Rampoldi, Corografia*.)

RAGUSA (Slav. *Dubrovnik*, Turk. *Papronik*, an. *Ransium*), a sea-port town of the Austrian dominions, prov. Dalmatia, cap. circ. of its own name, on a peninsula in the Adriatic, 37 m. W.N.W. Cattaro; lat. 42° 30' N., long. 16° 11' 59" E. Pop., in 1837, 5,039. It is walled, and has two good harbours, one to the N.W., and the other to the S.E.; which, as well as the town, are protected by several modern forts. Its streets are narrow, except one, the Corso, which intersects it from N. to S.; its houses are well built, in the Italian style, but many of them are now unoccupied. It has a cathedral, a Greek church, a Piarist gymnasium, high school, military hospital (once the Jesuits' college), lazaretto, and theatre. It is the see of a Rom. Catholic vicar-bishop, and the seat of the superior judicial courts for the circ.; it has manufactures of silk, leather, and rosoglio. Though Ragusa has greatly declined from her former importance, she still has a considerable coasting trade; and in 1838, 236 vessels belonged to the port, 30 of which traded to the Levant and the western ports of the Mediterranean. Ragusa was founded in the 7th century by some fugitives from Epidaurus in Illyria, when that city was destroyed by the Slavs. It continued to be a republic under the successive protection of the Greeks, Venetians, and Turks, till 1806, when it was taken by Napoleon, who erected it into a dukedom, which he conferred on Marshal Marmont. On the fall of the former, Ragusa was given to Austria. (*Berghaus, Allgemeine Länder, &c.*, iv. 960; *Austria, Nat. Encyc.*, &c.)

RAJAHMUNDRY, a distr. of the Madras presid. in British India. (*See* CIRCARS, NORTHERN.)

RAJAHMUNDRY, a town of Hindostan, cap. of the above distr., on the Godavary, about 80 m. from its mouth, and 65 m. N.E. Masulipatan. It stretches along the river for some distance, and has an old fort, several mosques, a fine bazaar, &c. It is the seat of the district court, and a station for two companies of sepoy. (*Madras New Almanac*, &c.)

RAJEMAHAL (*The Royal Residence*), a town of British India, presid. Bengal, prov. Bhagulpore, on the Ganges, 66 m. N.W. Moorshehabad. Under Acbar, and Sultan Shujah, the brother of Aurungzebe, it

was the cap. of Bengal; and, though much decayed, it is still estimated to have 30,000 inhabs. It consists principally of one long street of stone or mud houses, generally with 2 stories; about a dozen market-places, scattered over a wide extent of ground; a few tombs and mosques, and the ruins of a spacious palace. The inhabs. have some traffic with the hill people of the district, but their main source of profit is derived from their supplying necessities to travellers on the Ganges. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*; *Mod. Trav.*)

RAJESHAYE, a distr. of British India, presid. and prov. Bengal, principally between the 24th and 25th degs. of N. lat., and the 88th and 90th of E. long., having N. Dinajpore, and Rungpore; E. Myemunsing, and Dacca Jelalpor; W. Farnesh; and S. the Ganges, separating it from Jessore, Nuddes, and Moorshedabad. Area, 3,950 sq. m. Pop., in 1832, 1,087,155; about 2-3ds Hindoos, and the rest Mohammedans. The whole surface is so low that from the beginning of July to the end of Nov. it is nearly submerged by the inundations. Towards the E. it is thickly wooded. Few solid edifices, and no fortresses exist, in this distr.; but it comprises many populous commercial villages, and the towns of Natore, Bauleah, and Hurrial. Land revenue, in 1829-30, 14,64,295 rupees. (*Parl. Rep.*, &c.)

RAJPOOR, the largest prov. of Hindostan, towards its N.W. quarter, between 34° and 31° N. lat., and 70° and 77° E. long.; having W. and N. Moultan and Lahore, E. Delhi and Agra, S. Malwah and Gujrat, and S.W. Sind. Its length, N. and S., is estimated by Hamilton at 350 m., and its average breadth at 200 m., giving it an area of about 70,000 sq. m. It comprises a large extent of sandy desert, but in the S. and E. are many fertile tracts. This prov., which is wholly subsidiary to the British, consists of a number of feudal principalities, the chief of which are Judpore, Jessel-mere, Jeypore, Odeerpore, and Bikanere, which see. For further and full particulars respecting this portion of Hindostan, the reader may consult the copious work on Rajasthan by Colonel Tod.

RAMGHUR, a distr. of British India, by far the largest under the Bengal presid., occupying all the S. part of the prov. Bahar, between the 22d and 25th degs. of N. lat., and the 83d and 87th of E. long.; having N. Shahabad, Bahar, and Bhaugulpore; E. Beerboom, and the Jungle Mehri; and S. and W. the territory ceded by the rajah of Benar. Area estimated at 22,435 sq. m. Pop. in 1832, 2,252,585. A large proportion of this distr. is rocky and unproductive, or covered with wood. Iron, coal, lead, and antimony exist in the hilly region of the S., but from want of capital and enterprise among the inhabants, few, if any, mines are wrought. Many of the zemindars have very extensive possessions, and are, in a great measure, independent of British authority. Slavery, though of a very mild character, is universally prevalent. There are many old brick forts in Ramghur affording protection to a band of hitliti, and other refractory persons; but few other durable buildings. This distr. has always been notorious for crime; and hitherto, notwithstanding its great extent, has been of little value to the British Indian government. The land revenue in 1828, amounted to only 161,233 rupees. (*Parl. Reps.*; *Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*)

RAMILLIES, an inconsiderable village of Belgium, prov. S. Brabant, 18 m. S.E. E. Louvain. This village is famous in history from its being the scene of the great victory gained on the 23d of May 1706, by the allied forces, under the Duke of Marlborough, over the French, under Marshal Villeroi. The French army amounted to about 80,000 men, being superior in numbers to that of the allies. The latter, however, owing, as is alleged, to the bad dispositions and incapacity of Villeroi, gained an easy as well as a complete victory. The French lost about 8,000 men, killed and wounded, and nearly 7,000 prisoners, including 600 officers, with all their artillery and baggage. The loss of the allies did not amount to 3,000 men. The Duke of Marlborough, whose gallantry was as conspicuous as his great talents as a general, had a horse shot under him in the action; and the head of Colonel Brienfield, who was assisting his grace to remount, was carried off by a cannon-ball! (*Smollett's Continuation of Hume*, cap. 9.; *Voltaire, Siècle de Louis XIV.*, cap. 30.)

RAMPOOR, a large town of British India, prov. Delhi; on the Cosilla, a tributary of the Ganges, 112 m. E. by N. Delhi. It has two brick palaces, a lofty mosque in the principal street, the magnificent mausoleum of a former chief, and some good houses; but the greater part of the town consists of sun-burnt brick houses, with thatched or tiled roofs. Its territory is exceedingly productive, and well cultivated.

Another town, called Rampoor, situated on the Sutlej, about 160 m. E. by N. Umritsir, is a favourite place of Hindoo pilgrimage, and an *entrepôt* for the commerce of Hindostan with the countries beyond the Himalaya, on which account it has a large yearly fair. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*)

RAMREE, a town of British India, prov. Aracan, cap. of the prov., and on the island of the same name, about 115 m. S. by E. Aracan. Pop. estimated, in 1832, at 8,000, and increasing. It stands at the head of a creek, in which there is a pretty good anchorage, and has a bazaar, supplied, though meagrely, with British goods. Its inhabants, who are a fine athletic race, carry on a brisk trade with Chittagour, Sandoway, Bassein, and Calcutta. (*Pemberton; Rep. on the E. Frontier*, p. 92., &c.)

RAMSAY, a town and par. of England, co. Huntingdon, hund. Hurstingstone. The par., which extends into the co. Cambridge, and has an area of no less than 17,680 acres, had, in 1841, a pop. of 2,680, of whom about 1,500 may belong to the town. The latter, about 10 m. N.W. E. Huntingdon, consists principally of one long street, running E. and W., with another branching off to the N. Houses mostly brick. The church, a fine old edifice, has a nave, chancel, and aisles, with an embattled tower at the W. end. The town formerly belonged to the Cromwell family, several of whom are buried in the church, but there are no monuments to their memory. It has a free-school, founded and endowed in 1663, which educates about 70 boys; and a charity-school, which educates about 80 girls, was founded towards the beginning of last century by John Dryden, in relation to the great poet. The town suffered severely from fire in 1731. Ramsay is within the great level of the fens; and in its vicinity are several shallow lakes, or meres, that called the Whitte-sea, about 4 m. N.W. from the town, being the largest in the kingdom. A magnificent Benedictine abbey, founded here in 969, acquired, in the sequel, great wealth and celebrity. At the dissolution, its revenues amounted to 1,984l. a year. A ruined gateway is all that now remains of this once famous fabric. *Market-day* Saturday; fair, 2d July, for pedlery.

RAMSAY, a town of the Isle of Man, which see.

RAMSGATE, a sea-port, watering-place, and par. of England, co. Kent, on the E. coast of the Isle of Thanet, 15 m. E. by N. Canterbury, and 65 m. E.S.E. London. Area of par., 260 acres. Pop., in 1841, 10,909. The town, which, till the beginning of last century, was little more than a small fishing village, has risen to its present importance, partly in consequence of the construction of its artificial harbour, the largest of its kind in England, but principally from its having become a favourite summer resort of visitors from the metropolis. Its edifices, portions, irregularly built, with narrow streets and mean-looking houses, occupied chiefly by the tradespeople, lie in a flat opening towards the sea by a narrow gulley, (here called *gate*, whence the name of the town,) between two very steep cliffs; the latter, which are ascended by stone steps, are now covered with good-looking, though, in general, not very substantial houses, laid out in terraces, crescents, &c. Building is still going forward on a pretty extensive scale. The town is well lighted with gas. Till 1838 the supply of water was insufficient, and constituted no small item of expense to the inhabs. of the houses on the cliffs, but an ample supply was then introduced from the neighbouring village of St. Laurence. A market-house stands at the intersection of the principal streets of the old town, opposite to which is the principal public library and town bank. Facing the sea are several hotels (in one of which are the assembly-rooms), a public library and well-constructed baths on the W. cliff, with the Clarence and other baths, bazaar, and a theatre, and in the lower part of the town, abutting on the inner basin. The church, recently erected, a large and handsome building, in the perpendicular style, with an octagonal tower, provides accommodation for about 2,000 persons: the living (created by act of parl. in 1837) is a vicarage of the annual value of 400l., patron the Archbp. of Canterbury. A chapel-of-ease, till lately the only episcopal place of worship in the town, is supported chiefly by voluntary subscriptions and pews; besides which, there are places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists, Independents, Baptists, and Unitarians, and a Jews' synagogue. The town has four Sunday-schools, attended by about 800 children, and there are national Lancasterian and infant schools, furnishing instruction to nearly 800 young persons of both sexes.

The most striking feature of the town, however, is its harbour, one of the most magnificent works of its kind in the kingdom, formed by double piers, built under the superintendence, successively, of Smee and Rendel. It was commenced, at the public expense, in 1750, with the intention of forming an asylum for vessels in the Downs, which might otherwise be driven on the Goodwin Sands. The E. pier extends, in a curvilinear direction, upwards of 300 yards into the sea, its total length, including its angles, amounting to 2,000 feet; that of the W. pier being about 1,500 feet. The width of the entrance is 340 ft., and the harbour area 48 acres.

The general breadth of the piers is 26 ft., including a strong parapet on the outer side next the sea. They are constructed chiefly of Portland and Purbeck stone.

After the piers were nearly finished, the deposition of sand and mud within the harbour being so great as to threaten ruin to the entire project, Sir James recommended the construction of a basin within the harbour, to be filled at high water and let out again at ebb tide, so that any deposit might be carried off by the artificial current. This was accordingly done, and has been found to answer the purpose; and, in 1787, an advanced pier was undertaken to facilitate the entrance of shipping in tempestuous weather. About the same period a dry dock was excavated, and storehouses erected. There is a light-house on the head of the W. pier, whence a clear red light is displayed at night, when there are 10 ft. water in the mouth of the harbour; this notice being given during the day, by a red flag from Lion Hill. A wet dock has lately been constructed near the basin for the repair of vessels. Still, however, it must be admitted that, though no cost has been spared to render this harbour as useful as possible to the shipping in the adjacent dangerous part of the channel, it is, owing to the want of water, very defective, and, as it can be entered only at certain times of the tide, it is far from realising the expectations that were formed of its being a good refuge harbour. It is under the superintendence of the Indian Company, and is managed by trustees, who appoint the chief and deputy harbour-master and other officers. It was made a royal port in honour of a visit from George IV. in 1821; and an obelisk near the pier-gates has since been erected to commemorate that most unimportant event.

Ramsgate had formerly an extensive commerce with the Baltic, but this has long declined. It has still some trade with France and Holland, chiefly in the importation of eggs, fruit, provisions, &c.; the gross customs revenue of the port (which includes Margate and Broadstairs), amounted in 1840, to 7,088*l.* Its coasting-trade is pretty extensive, chiefly with London, Newcastle, and Sunderland. A considerable fishery of turbot and soles is carried on off the coast by boats from the W. ports of England; but only a small share of it is taken by the inhabs. of Ramsgate. Indeed the town displays little activity beyond what is caused by the influx of visitors during the summer season, and for whose accommodation steam-packets daily to and from the metropolis. The smoothness of the sands E. of the harbour, and the clearness of the water, make the beach particularly well adapted for bathing, and it constitutes a favourite resort for visitors, hundreds of whom may here be seen in the height of the sun strolling about, lounging on chairs, and enjoying the sea-breeze. The pier furnishes another delightful promenade, and on the W. cliff, which is ascended from inner basin by a flight of stone stairs, is a fine broad terrace, extending westward towards Pegwell Bay. Two conducted bath establishments are replete with accommodation for invalids; and libraries, news-rooms of which is in a marquee on the sands, a bazaar, &c. furnish ample means of occupation and amusement. Ramsgate is a member of the Cinque Port, and is governed by a deputy, appointed by the mayor of that bor.; but judicial affairs are regulated by local magistracy under a local act, passed in 1812. On Wednesdays and Saturdays, but daily during the summer, and exceedingly well supplied.

NGOON, a town, river-port, and the chief, and almost the only, entrepôt for the foreign trade of the Burmese empire, prov. Pegu, on the E. and principal of the Irrawaddy (called the Rangoon river), about 50 m. S.S.W. Pegu, and 90 m. W. by N. from the sea, 16° 42' N., long. 96° 20' E. Pop., according to census in 1826, about 18,000, which is perhaps not far from its present (1850) amount, though it has been estimated to amount to 40,000, and even 80,000! The town extends lengthwise along the bank of the river about 1 m. by ½ in depth; but the houses are equally scattered over the area. The fort, or wooden stockade, which constitutes the town, is called, is an irregular oblong, entered by several sally-ports. (*Craufurd's Embassy*, ii. according to Mr. Malcolm, who visited Rangoon, the city is spread upon part of a vast meadow, above high tides, and at this season (May) resembles a neglected swamp. The fortifications are of no modern modes of attack. They consist of a row of wooden timbers set in the ground, rising to about 18 ft., with a narrow platform round inside for musketeers, and a few cannon as gateways in a useless condition. A dozen have brick tenements, very shabby; there are five small brick places of worship, for found a miserable custom-house. Besides these, of bamboo huts, in appearance as paltry as the eaves of the houses generally descend to 8 ft. of the ground; very few being of more, or having any other covering than that. The suffered most severely from one of which it is unknown, and all the houses are raised 3 ft. above the ground, for coolness and ventilation.

As the floors are of split bamboo, all dirt falls through; and what is not picked up by crows, dogs, fowls, &c., is occasionally swept out and burned. The streets are narrow and paved with half-bricks, which, as wheel carriages are not allowed in the city, are in tolerable repair. There is neither wharf nor quay: in four or five places are wooden stairs, at which small boats may land passengers; but even these do not extend to within 20 ft. of low-water mark. Vessels lie in the stream, and discharge into boats." (*Travels in S. E. Asia*, i. 76, 77.)

The river opposite Rangoon is about 600 yards across; and the town is accessible to ships of 1,200 tons' burden. The navigation, though somewhat intricate, is safe and rapid, with the aid of ordinary native pilots. At neaps the tide rises and falls about 18 ft., and at springs, from 25 to 30 ft. Rangoon presents many facilities for ship-building. The banks of the river are so flat and soft, as to render docks almost unnecessary; and there is nearly a complete water communication with the teak forests of Pegu, by far the most abundant in India. Ship-building has, in fact, been carried on at Rangoon since 1786; and in the 38 years which preceded our capture of the town, 111 square-rigged vessels of European construction had been built, the total burden of which amounted to upwards of 35,000 tons. Several were of from 900 to 1,000 tons. But Malcolm says that this branch of business is now almost annihilated.

The markets of Rangoon are well and cheaply supplied with many sorts of provisions, as rice, poultry, fish, &c. The foreign commerce of the town is still considerable, though greatly crippled by enormous port-charges and absolute prohibitions against exporting rice or the precious metals. Specie is, indeed, exported, but only clandestinely. The trade of the empire seaward is principally with the ports of Chittagong, Dacca, Calcutta, Madras, Masulipatam, and Penang, and occasionally with the Persian and Arabian Gulphs. No direct trade has yet been carried on between Birmah and any European country. The articles exported to foreign countries from Rangoon are teak wood, catechu, stick lac, bees' wax, elephants' teeth, raw cotton, orpiment, gold and silver, gems, and ponies, which are much esteemed at Madras. By far the most important of these commodities is teak timber; the quantity of this wood annually exported is said to be equal to 7,500 furnished trees. The principal imports are cotton piece goods from India and Britain, British woollens, iron, steel, quicksilver, copper, cordage, borax, sulphur, gunpowder, saltpetre, fire-arms, coarse porcelain, English glass ware, opium, tobacco, cocoa and areca nuts, sugar, and spirits. Of these by far the most important is cotton piece goods. In 1826-27, the exports and imports of Rangoon were estimated each at 300,000*l.* (*Craufurd, &c.*, in *Commerce Dict.*)

About 2 m. N.N.W. Rangoon, is the celebrated Shoe-dag temple, which, though rather smaller than that of Shoe-Madoo, at Pegu (which see), is much more highly ornamented. The two principal roads leading to it are lined on either side with numerous pagodas, some of considerable size. The great temple, similar to that of Pegu, stands on a planted terrace, raised upon a rocky eminence, and reached by an ascent of 100 stone steps. The area of this terrace is about two acres; the temple at its base is 310 ft. in diameter, and 338 ft. in height, surmounted by a *tee*, or umbrella of open iron rods, 45 ft. in height, and richly gilded. The golden temple of the idol may challenge competition, in point of beauty, with any other of its class in India. The building is composed entirely of teak-wood, and indefatigable pains are displayed in the profusion of rich carved work which adorns it. The whole is one mass of the richest gilding, with the exception of the three roofs, which have a silvery appearance. A plank of a deep red colour separates the gold and silver, which has a happy effect in relieving them. Around the principal pagoda are smaller temples, richly gilt and furnished with images of Gaudma, whose unmeaning smile meets you in every direction; and the sight of which, accompanied by the constant tinkling of the innumerable bells hung on the top of each pagoda, combines, with the stillness and deserted appearance of the place, to produce an impression on the mind not speedily to be effaced." (*Mod. Trav.*, xi. 124, 125.) This temple, having long enjoyed a higher reputation than any other in the Burmese dominions, is resorted to by numerous devotees; and near it live 150 families, called "slaves of the pagoda," to whose care it is entrusted. (*Malcolm's S. E. Asia*, i. 76-82; *Craufurd's Embassy to Ava*, ii. 51-57; *Mod. Trav.* xi.)

RASTADT, a town of W. Germany, grand duchy of Baden, circ. Middle Rhine, of which it is the cap., on the Murg, a tributary of the Rhine, 13 m. S.W. Carlsruhe. Pop., 5,650. It is walled, and has wide streets, several R. Cath. and Lutheran churches, a gymnasium, lyceum, various other schools, and a palace, the residence of the last margraves of Baden, in which is a curious collection of Turkish trophies. Rastadt is the seat of the superior judicial court for the circ. It has

manufactures of tobacco, chicory, carriages, and machinery and instruments of various kinds; but is principally noted for two congresses held in it; the first, in 1714, when a treaty was concluded between Marshal Villars and Prince Eugene; and the second, in 1798-99, which terminated abruptly in the unexplained assassination of two of the French envoys. (*Berghaus; Dict. Géog.*)

RATHKEALE, an inland town of Ireland, prov. Munster, co. Limerick, on the Deel, 17 m. W.S.W. Limerick. Pop., in 1831, 4972. It principally consists of one street, nearly 1 m. in length, which has many good houses and shops. A par. church, a R. Catholic chapel, with an Independent and a Methodist meeting-house, a fever-hospital, dispensary, court-house, and bridewell. Several families of German palatines are settled in the town. General sessions are held four times a year; petty sessions on Thursdays. It is a constabulary station, and has a considerable retail trade. Markets on Thursdays: fairs on 7th Feb. 4th April, 1st and 19th June, 5th Aug., 18th Sept., and 18th Nov. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 576*l.*; in 1836, 580*l.* A branch of the national bank was opened here in 1835.

RATISBON (Germ. *Regensburg*, an. *Castrum Reginum*, afterwards *Augusta Tiberi*), a city of S. Germany, cap. of the Upper Palatinate, in Bavaria, on the Danube, across which it communicates with its suburb, Stadt-am-Hof, by a bridge, 1,000 German ft. in length, 64 m. E.N.E. Munich. Lat. of St. Emmeran's Tower, 49° 0' 50" N.; long. 12° 5' 43" E. Pop. about 32,000, two-thirds being Rom. Catholics. It is one of the oldest towns in Germany, and has a proportionally antique appearance. Its streets are narrow and irregular; and its houses, though lofty, are altogether old-fashioned and inconvenient. Many have tall battlemented towers, loopholes for musketry, &c.; and among the large residences are several ornamented with heraldic bearings. The cathedral is a fine Gothic edifice, begun in the 13th century; but the greater part appears to have been constructed in the 15th; its interior was formerly crowded with a number of extraneous ornaments; but these have been removed. In it are a few fine works of art, including a *bas relief* on the tomb of the Primate Dalberg, designed by Canova. Two older cathedrals adjoin this edifice; one, now used as a baptistry, is supposed to date from the 10th or 11th century, and the other is of a still earlier date.

Near the cathedral is also a massive square tower, probably a remnant of an ancient Roman fortress. The church of St. Emmeran has some very curious monuments of high antiquity, but it is now half in ruins; and St. Emmeran's Abbey, a large though not a fine building, has been converted into the palace of the prince of Tours and Taxis. The establishment to which the latter belonged was founded long before the time of Charlemagne, by whom it was enlarged; and, at the time of its dissolution, it is said to have been 1,200 years old. The Scotch Benedictine convent, a monastic institution in Ratisbon, the small revenues of which has prevented its secularisation, supports two monks and five young Scotch ecclesiastical students. It has a very curious church, supposed to date from the 10th or 11th century. The town-hall, a gloomy and irregular structure, is interesting as being the seat of the German diets from 1653 to 1806. The apartments formerly occupied by the diet present little that is remarkable; but beneath the edifice are some dungeons, in which are preserved the rack, and other machinery of torture, formerly in use. (*See Murray's Handbook for S. Germany*, p. 66.)

The old bishop's palace, in which the emperor Maximilian II. died, is now a brewery. The ramparts of Ratisbon are no longer of use as a means of defence, but serve as public walks. Within the city is a monument to the great astronomer Kepler, who expired here in 1630. Ratisbon has a royal academy, Rom. Catholic lyceum, Lutheran gymnasium, theological seminary, observatory, public library with 20,000 volumes, school of design, museum of mathematical and philosophical instruments, botanic society, &c. Since it has ceased to be the seat of the German Diet, it has been mostly shorn of its importance; but a good many vessels for the navigation of the Danube are built here; and it has several breweries, distilleries, tanneries, and iron-works. It formerly enjoyed the exclusive right of the navigation of the Danube, up-wads to Ulm, and downwards to Vienna. This privilege is extinct, but it still has a large share of the traffic on the river. At Donauwassert, on the Danube, about 6 m. distant, is the *Falkenhäuser*, a fine Doric marble temple, built by the present king of Bavaria, for the reception of statues and busts of the distinguished men of Germany. This edifice, commenced in 1830, was to be completed in the course of 1841.

Ratisbon was the capital of the dukes of Bavaria, till their duchy was overturned by Charlemagne. It was afterwards a free imperial city, governed by a count of the empire. In 1809, some severe fighting took place

before it between a part of the grand French army, under Napoleon, and the Austrians, to the disadvantage of the latter, who were forced to retire towards Bohemia. (*Berghaus, Allg. Länder, &c.*, iv. 135; *Dict. Géog. &c.*)

RAVENNA, a city of the Papal States, cap. leg. of the same name, on the Montone, amid extensive but fertile marshes, 43 m. E.S.E. Bologna, 84 m. N.W. Ancona, and 44 m. from the Adriatic; lat. 44° 25' 16" N., long. 12° 19' 11" E. Pop., about 16,000. It is chiefly deserving of notice for its architectural remains. Having been the cap. of Italy during the last years of the W. empire, and successively the residence of Honorius, Valentinian, Odoacer, Theodoric, and the succeeding Gothic monarchs, it presents many interesting specimens of the architecture of that period, few of which are elsewhere to be found. The empress Placidia, from 423 to 450, and Theodoric, from 493 to 526, embellished it with the best edifices the times were capable of producing; and many of these exist in singularly good preservation. The church of San Vitore is said to date as far back as the early part of the 4th century; but, according to Mr. Woods, what remains of it, even if the date be accurate, is a mere barn, without character. The earliest perfect church is that of Santa Agata Maggiore, completed in the early part of the 5th century, having granite columns, rich marbles, &c., apparently taken from some more ancient edifice. San Giovanni del Sagra was built by Placidia, *anno* 438; St. Francesco apparently about the same date; St. Apollinare Nuovo, a foundation of Theodoric, and having mosaics of that period; St. Apollinare, at Chiasa, built by Justinian, on the ruins of an ancient temple of Apollo; and Spirito Santo, also of the 6th century. In all these churches the general plan and style are nearly the same. They consist of three naves divided by columns, supporting arches; the middle nave terminating in a semicircular recess, covered with mosaics. The roof is of timber, and not concealed. No very distinct marks of specific difference are observable in the workmanship, between the structures of the 4th and 6th centuries, except in the ornamental parts: the capitals and mouldings of the later period are much more fanciful. The cathedral of Ravenna was originally founded towards the end of the 4th century; but the present building is modern, and has some frescoes by Guido, *bas-reliefs*, and rich altars. Near it is the baptistry, an octagonal building, probably of the same date as the ancient cathedral, and almost covered with mosaics, attributed to an archbishop who lived about 480. The baptism of Christ is represented on the dome in mosaic, and the river-god seems also to be introduced into the composition. The church of San Vitale, another octagonal structure, dates from the first half of the 6th century. Here, also, is a little church built by Placidia, whose tomb it contains, with those of Honorius, Constantius, Valentinian III., &c. Without the city is the mausoleum of Theodoric, constructed by his daughter Amalasunta.

But by far the most interesting of all the structures to be seen at Ravenna is the tomb of Dante, the immortal author of the *Divina Commedia*, who expired here, in exile, on the 14th of Sept., 1321.

"Happier Ravenna! on thy heary shore,
Fetters of falling empire! honour'd sleep
The immortal exile." (*Childe Harold*, iv. 58.)

He was buried in the church of the Franciscan monastery, in a handsome tomb erected by his protector Guido da Polenta, restored by Bernardo Bembo in 1488, again restored by Cardinal Cordi in 1692, and replaced by a more magnificent sepulchre in 1790, at the expense of Cardinal Louis Gonzaga. The Florentines repeatedly demanded the ashes of the mighty dead, but these demands were uniformly met by a flat and firm denial.

The *Porta Aurea*, a triumphal arch at the W. entrance of the city, and a few remains, said to be portions of Theodoric's palace, and having, according to Woods, some similarity to those of the palace of Diocletian, at Spalato, comprise the principal remaining antiquities. The city has ramparts, which, however, are of little service as means of defence. Some of its squares are neat, and ornamented with statues of popes, &c.; and the streets are mostly wide and regular, but dirty; and the houses are old-fashioned, and gloomy. It has a few silk manufactures, and a large annual fair; but, like Padua, it is very dull, and fitter for study than for active business. A monastery has been appropriated to a public library, containing from 30,000 to 40,000 vols.; and a museum, with a few objects of natural history, antiquities, casts, and paintings. Few of the churches are rich in paintings, but there are some good private galleries. Byron praises Ravenna for its climate, and says, he found much education and liberality of thinking among the higher classes. It is an archbishopric, and the residence of a Papal legate.

Ravenna was originally founded by a colony of Thesallians, most probably on the sea-shore, but in the days of Strabo, it was, owing to the accumulation of mud,

surrounded by marshes. (Lib. v. p. 146.) Hence says
Silius Italicus

"*Lepta paludum pendebant stagnas Ravenna.*"
(Lib. viii. v. 602.)

Being difficult of approach, and well fortified, its advantages as a stronghold and a naval station were perceived by Augustus, who constructed a new harbour, about three miles from the old town, which he connected with the Po and the old city by a canal, and with the continent by a causeway. Ravenna henceforward became the principal station of the Adriatic fleet, and the new and old cities were nearly joined by intermediate buildings. But the same cause, the accumulation of mud and other matters, brought down by the Po and other rivers, that had destroyed the port of the ancient city, in no very long time destroyed that constructed by Augustus: it is now, in fact, about 4½ m. from the sea, and so early as the fifth or sixth century of the Christian era "the port of Augustus was converted into pleasant orchards; and a lonely grove of pines covered the ground where the Roman fleet once rode at anchor!" (Gibbon, v. 209, 8vo. ed.) But this very circumstance, though it lessened the naval importance, increased the strength of the new city, which, from the beginning of the fifth to the middle of the eighth century, was considered as the seat of government, and the capital of Italy. At length the Greek ex-archate being overthrown, the city and its territory was given by Pepin to the Holy See in 776. Subsequently Ravenna successively belonged to the Visi lords, the Bolognese, and the Venetians till 1509, when it reverted to the Pope. In 1512, the French, under the Duke de Nemours, gained a signal victory over the Spaniards, at a short distance from Ravenna; an event commemorated by an obelisk erected on the field of battle.

READING, a parl and mun. bor. and market-town of England, hund. its own name, co. Berks, of which it is the cap., on the Kennett, close to its junction with the Thames, and on the line of the Great Bath Road and of the Great Western Railway, 38 m. S. from London. Area of soil, and man. bor. which is co-extensive, 2,080 acres. Pop., in 1841, 18,498. "The town is of considerable size, of apparent prosperity, the inhabs. having increased rapidly within the last 15 years. A new high road into the heart of the town, lately completed, is an important improvement. There are many excellent houses, and the main streets are spacious, containing very good shops, and being well lighted with gas." (*Bowd. Rep.*) The town-hall, completed in 1788, is a substantial building, well adapted for municipal purposes. The borough is small and inconvenient; and the house of corporation, though large, is reported to be "deficient in its important requisites, badly ventilated, insecure, without punishment cells." (*Prison Inspectors' 6th Rep.*) Reading has three par. churches. St. Lawrence is a large structure with a fine tower of flint and stone, in the perpendicular style: the other churches are of a mixed architecture; and St. Mary's is remarkable for a handsome tessellated tower. Two of the livings are the gift of the lord chancellor, and St. Lawrence is to St. John's College, Oxford. There is a chapel-of-ease and a licensed episcopal chapel in the par. of Mary's, and a district church in that of St. Giles; there are places of worship for Rom. Catholics, Baptists, Wesleyan Methodists, and the Soc. of Friends. The town has numerous Sunday-schools, furnishing religious instruction to nearly 3,000 children, and there are several subscription day-schools, attended by about 800 children. The grammar school, fully founded in the reign of Henry VII., and endowed with property belonging to the decayed hospital of St. Thomas, received great additions from Archbp. Laud, and Thomas White, who founded it for the purpose of a n. Coll., Oxford. It enjoyed a high reputation as a classical seminary, while the Rev. Dr. Valpy was its headmaster, and was then attended by 180 boys, partly scholars and partly boarders; since then, however, it has declined; but it continues to be a respectable and is improving. The school is open to all other natives or residents of Reading; but none are admitted free. (*Char. Comm. 3rd Rep.*) A blue-coat school, founded in 1646, has an endowment producing an income of £504 a year, and furnishes clothing, and an apprentice-fee to 40 boys (elected by corporation): a girl's green-coat school, in St. Mary's, is supported by subscription. Reading has a almshouse, opened in 1839, and numerous almshouses and charities, few towns in England having so much of property held in trust for charitable purposes. A dispensary, eye-infirmary, and savings-bank have been established within the last few years. The Institution has an excellent library and a museum, and it has also a subscription news-room, a library, a small theatre, and two weekly papers are published.

The trade of Reading is very considerable, but more of a general than specific character. The manufacture of woollens was formerly pretty extensively carried on, chiefly in a large range of buildings known as the Oracle; but the business is now wholly abandoned, and the buildings are occupied by riband and silk weavers, of whom there is a considerable number in and about the town. Floor-cloth and sail-cloth are also produced, and there are several large breweries. The trade of the town was greatly facilitated by the Kennet and Avon Canal and the Thames Navigation, and it has been still more facilitated by the opening of the Great Western Railway, which has here a principal station.

Reading, "which claims to be a bor. by prescription," was incorporated by Henry III., and has received many subsequent charters. Under the Municipal Reform Act, the bor. is divided into 3 wards, the municipal officers being a mayor and 5 other aldermen, with 18 councillors. Corporation revenue in 1848-9, £3,269½. Quarter and petty sessions are held under a recorder; and a county court is established here, before which 1,000 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. The Lent assizes and winter quarter sessions for the co. are held here, besides weekly petty sessions. Reading has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the 23 Edw. I., the right of voting down to the Reform Act being in the inhabs. paying scot and lot. The electoral limits were left unchanged by the Boundary Act, and in 1849-50 it had 1,306 reg. electors. Reading is likewise one of the polling-places at elections for the co. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday; on the latter for coal, Feb. 2, May 1, July 28, and Sept. 21.

Reading is of great antiquity, though its origin be unknown. In 1063, Henry III. held a parliament here, and another was adjourned thither in 1432. In the great civil war it was successively occupied by the forces of parliament and of the king. Archbishop Laud was the son of a clothier in this town, where he first saw the light in 1573. In his prosperity he did not forget the place of his birth, to which he was a liberal benefactor.

REALEJO, a port of Central America, on the Pacific, see *Am. G. 1849*.

RED RIVER, see MISSISSIPPI.

REDRUTH, a market-town and par. of England, co. Cornwall, hund. Penwith, on an acclivity on the high road between Truro and St. Ives, 8 m. W. S. W. the former, and 11 m. E. the latter. Area of par. 3,770 acres. Pop., in 1841, 9,205. The town consists principally of one long street, built on the side of the hill. It has been greatly extended and improved of late years, having fully doubled its pop. since 1801; and is pretty well built, paved, and lighted with gas. Among the more recent buildings are a handsome square granite tower, with an illuminated clock in its upper part; and the savings' bank, a neat edifice with a colonnade in front. The par. church, at the foot of the Carn Bre Hill, ½ m. S. W. the town, was rebuilt about 1770. The living is a rectory, in the patronage of Lord de Dunstanville, of the gross annual value of 501£. A chapel of ease, in the pointed style, has, however, been erected contiguous to the town, partly by a grant from the parliamentary commissioners, and partly by subscription; the living is a curacy, in the patronage of the rectory. There are also meeting-houses for Baptists, Methodists, and Quakers; a grammar-school, erected by voluntary contribution in 1803; with various other private and Sunday schools, a subscription reading-room, and a small theatre.

Redruth owes its importance wholly to the extensive copper and tin mines in its vicinity. The Consolidated and United Mines, between it and Gwennap, are the most extensive of any in Cornwall. In 1836 they employed in all 3,196 individuals, and 21 steam-engines, some of which were of the greatest power. One of the shafts in these mines was more than 100 fathoms deep, the temperature at the bottom being from 92° to 99° Fah. ! (See *De la Beche's Geology of Cornwall*, p. 601; *Statistics of the British Empire*, i. 287.) The ore is conveyed by railways to Deveron, on a creek belonging to Falmouth harbour, and to Portreath, Hayle, &c., on the N. side of the peninsula. Redruth has a brisk general trade. Markets on Wednesday and Friday, which last is one of the largest corn-markets in the W. of England. Fairs, May 2d, Aug. 3d, and Oct. 12, chiefly for cattle. Tiddydy Park, the seat of Lord de Dunstanville, is about 2 m. from the town.

RED SEA (an. *Arabus Sinus*, or *Rubrum Mare*), an extensive inland sea between Africa and Arabia, connected with the Indian Ocean by the strait of Bab-el-Mandeb, less than 20 m. across, between lat. 12° 40' and 30° N., and long. 32° and 44° E. Extreme length, 1,420 m.; do. breadth, 280 m.; average breadth, 135 m.; estimated area, 165,000 sq. m. It runs in a pretty direct course from N. N. W. to S. S. E., being divided at its N. extremity into two arms, the longest and most westerly of which is the gulph of Suex, at the head of which is the port of the same name, whence sc. The other branch, which runs N. N. E., having a length of 120 m., is called

the gulph of Akaba, which sea. On the promontory between these gulphs is the mountain group of Djibbel-Musa, including mounts Sinal and Horeb, famous in Scripture history. The gulph of Suez is more than 180 m. in length, and its breadth may average about 22 m. The strait of Djubal, the entrance to this gulph, is nearly 16 m. across. The present charts of the Red Sea were formed in 1829, by order of the E. India Company, under the superintendence of Capt. Elwin and Moresby; but a considerable section of its S. part had been surveyed in 1801 by Sir H. Popham under Lord Valencia. The more recent, however, is the only complete survey that has been made of this important gulph.

The Red Sea, though, generally speaking, of great depth (probably averaging 100 fathoms), is in parts studded with rocky islets and hidden coral banks, which extend far into the channel, and sometimes impede the course of vessels. The islands are scattered pretty abundantly in all parts of the sea. Several occur near the entrance of the two northern gulphs; but by far the greater number are found at its S.W. extremity, nearly opposite Massouah, this group being denominated the Dhalak Archipelago. Further S. are several other islands, one of which (called Djibbel-Teer) comprises an active volcano, rising nearly 1,200 ft. above the sea. (See *Moresby's Sailing Directions for the Red Sea*, p. 26.)

The island of Camaran lies S.W. Lobela, and nearly opposite Hodeida, in lat. 16° N., is the group of the Bay of Islands. The coral reefs of the Red Sea are more numerous and extensive than in any other body of water of equal extent. They extend most commonly in long stripes parallel to and about ½ m. from shore, with which they are in many cases united: the deep waters runs close up to their edge; but the banks themselves are seldom more than 5 ft. below the surface. Among the reefs unconnected with the shore, several are at some distance from it, a channel intervening of sufficient depth to admit of navigation by small vessels, and having good anchorage in stormy weather. These reefs are more numerous on the E. than on the W. coast; but the Dhalak Archipelago is, perhaps, more extensively intersected with them than any other part of the sea. There are also many isolated reefs; but they present few obstacles, owing to the transparency of the water, which renders them easily discoverable. No surf is ever observed on them, how boisterous soever the weather, a circumstance attributed to the porous nature of the coral on the outer edge of the reef. (*Wellsted's Arabia*, II. 246.) After all, however, these reefs offer no considerable obstacle to the sailor, who affords the anchor in some cases facilitates navigation without decreasing its speed.

The existence of the islands and reefs just described has led to a division of the Red Sea into a central and two lateral channels. The central channel, between the outer extremities of the reefs extending from either shore, is very deep throughout, and in some parts no bottom has been found, even at a depth of 250 fathoms. The breadth of this channel in the parallel of Djidda is 110 m.; but further S. it diminishes, and is little more than 40 m., and continues gradually decreasing down to the strait of Bab-el-Mandeb. The inner channel, on the Arabian side, is formed partly by broken reefs and sunken rocks, partly by islands and long-continued reefs, a large part also being open to the sea: its average width is from 3 to 3 m., and the depth is very considerable, though the anchorage is so insecure as to afford little protection from the sea. The inner channel, on the opposite coast, is similarly bound to that now mentioned; but it is much narrower, and soundings can be obtained only in a few places: the harbours, of which there are seven or eight, furnish tolerably good anchorage, but it is very unsafe to anchor on the rocky shelves projecting from the reefs. Both these lateral channels are connected with the open sea by cross channels, some of which, especially N. of lat. 17°, are of great width and depth.

The winds of the Red Sea are not uniform in its different parts and channels. With respect to the central channel, it may be observed that the N.E. monsoon here becomes a S.E. wind of considerable force, decreasing, however, as it passes northward, and disappearing about lat. 18°, where it is replaced by the N. breezes that prevail during the warm season. The S. winds commence in Oct., and subside at the end of May, when they are succeeded by N.W. winds, which usually bring with them thick, hazy weather, especially on the Arabian side. In the lateral channels, N. winds, inclining to land and sea breezes, are more or less prevalent, land-squalls being very common both in April and May.

The currents of the Red Sea appear to be entirely governed by the winds; for it is observed that with S. breezes they set northward, and with N. winds to the south. It is probable, also, that they increase according to the strength of either, as little or no current is perceptible during the prevalence of light, variable breezes, just before the monsoon. N. of Djidda, however, both the winds and currents are very variable throughout the

year; but here even the latter depend on the former, and a strong S. wind will cause a current of 20 or 30, and even 40 m. a day. Tides have been observed in a few parts of the coast; but the rise and fall are not sufficient to allow of the conclusion that this sea is subject to lunar influence. The idea that the waters of the Red Sea were formerly at a higher level than the Mediterranean, and that the surface has been depressed by the constancy of currents flowing towards the Indian Ocean, is wholly chimerical: the fact is, that from May to October, during the prevalence of N. winds, the water is 2 ft. lower than the average level; whereas from December to February, when the currents run in an opposite direction, the water collects at the N. part, which accordingly becomes unusually elevated. (*Geog. Journ.*, vi. 82; *Wellsted's Arabia*, II. 300, and *Append.*; *Sailing Directions*, p. 211—219, &c.)

The country about the Red Sea is more or less mountainous, though the high lands seldom abut directly on its coasts: indeed, this sea may be described as the lower part of a valley bounded eastward by the tableland of Arabia, and westward by a range of mountains rising from 4,000 to 6,000 ft. above the sea. Between the high grounds and the shore, however, a level district intervenes, of some extent, and considerable fertility; but it is almost uncultivated, and the inhabitants living in idleness, and contenting themselves with the wretched pittance that may be obtained by pasturage, and the plunder of the Hadj seasons. No very rich mines can be conceived more wretched and degraded than the condition of the people dwelling in the villages bordering the Red Sea.

The principal harbours on the E. side of this sea are Mocha, Hodeida, Lobela, and Djidda, the first and last being by far the most important: Suez, Cosseir, Suakim, and Massouah, are the chief places on the African side; and a pretty active communication is kept up between the inhabs. of the opposite shores, more particularly as the sea is crossed by all the African pilgrims on their way to Mecca and Medina. The vessels employed in transporting the pilgrims and their merchandise may amount to about 400, each averaging 130 tons; and the pilgrims from Africa alone are said to average 20,000 annually. (*Geog. Journal*, vi. 89.) Grain, also, and slaves are large articles of trade between the two shores: the grain is shipped at Cosseir, wholly on account of Mehemet Ali, pacha of Egypt; the slaves are brought almost exclusively from Suakim and Massouah. Mocha being the only port whence goods are exported, the Red Sea has not, at all within the last few years, been so much frequented by foreign vessels, except those belonging to pilgrims from Persia and India, with the merchandise of both countries; wheat, tobacco, dates, and Persian carpets being brought by the former, and rice, sugar, muslins and other fabrics, indigo, spices, and handsome young females, by the latter. Coffee, frankincense, and gums are sent in exchange from Mocha; but the returns from the other ports are in cash, pearls, &c. (*Geog. Journal*, vi. 81.) Within the last few years, however, the navigation and commerce of this sea has greatly increased; and steamers have been regularly established between Suez and India, by means of which, and of the steamers from Alexandria to Marseilles, Bombay is now brought within less than 60 days' distance of England! The gales in the N. part of the Red Sea offer some impediments to steamers; but we learn from Wellsted and other Indian officers, who have engaged in the survey and packet-service, that there are no obstacles which experience and perseverance may not overcome. *Dépôts* for coal, &c., are already established in different parts, and the steam-packets now run with almost unvarying regularity. The beneficial consequences of this communication, too, will, in all probability, not be confined to England, Egypt, and India; for it is scarcely to be supposed that the Red Sea can become the high road from Britain to her Indian possessions, without a portion of the commerce carried on between the Eastern and Western worlds again reverting to this its ancient and most direct channel, and without the diffusion of industry and civilisation among the barbarous hordes that now inhabit its coasts.

The Red Sea is first mentioned in sacred history in connection with the miraculous passage of the Israelites across the Gulph of Suez. (*Exod.* xiv. 21.) In the time of Solomon two ports, Elath and Eziongaber, were established on the Gulph of Akaba; and the Phœnicians seem to have carried on a large trade on this sea, though, probably, they had no direct communication with India. The early Greek writers, including Herodotus, seem to have had very vague notions respecting the Red Sea; for the *Ἐρυθρὰ θάλασσα* apparently comprises, in their estimation, the whole extent of coast from the Indian to the coast of Africa. During the flourishing period of the Persian empire, the Persian Gulph was the medium through which Europe and Western Asia received the wealth of the East; but under the successors of Alexander, especially the Ptolemies, who exerted them-

ires to promote the trade of this sea, it became an important channel of intercourse between Europe and Asia and the East. This intercourse continued with the intermission, though not to the same extent at all times, till the discovery of the passage round the Cape of Good Hope, by which commerce was diverted into a wholly different channel. The time, however, seems now to have arrived when the Red Sea is again to receive a portion, if not the whole, of its ancient importance as a great commercial highway.

great discrepancy of opinion has prevailed respecting origin of the name. According to Pliney (*Hist. Nat.* vi. cap. 28.) and Quintus Curtius (lib. viii. cap. 9.), Greek name signifying red, is derived from Erythros, ing of the adjoining country. But the more probable opinion seems to be that it is derived from the great abundance of coral found in it. (*Wallstedt's Arabia*, vol. II. tit. 10; *Morley's Sailing Directions*, pp. 200-223; *Journ.* vols. vi. and viii. &c.)

REGGIO (an *Rhegium Julii*), the most S. city and port of Italy, in the Neapolitan dom., prov. Calabria I., of which it is the cap., on the E. side of the I. of Messina, 8 m. S.E. Messina, and 78 m. S.W. Anaro; lat. 38° 7' N., long. 15° 55' E. Pop. 8,000. It is inferior to its opposite neighbour Messina; it has a fine situation in the midst of orange groves, ill supplied with excellent water, and its climate is to be the best in all the continental dom. of Naples. The former town was destroyed by the earthquake of 1783. Reggio was recovered in 1784, and written. It has been laid out on a regular plan, which, completed, will render it a handsome city. A wide called the *Marina*, extends along the sea shore, and with which the principal street runs through the middle of the town. The houses are in general good; it stands on a gentle declivity, it is well drained. It has a collegiate and many other churches, several nuns, a royal college, hospital, foundling asylum, and a theatre. It is surrounded with walls, outside of which are several suburbs. Its ancient fort no longer exists. Reggio is the seat of an archbishop, and is a principal trading town. It is famous for its stockings of silk, and produces some wine from the filaments of the *Pinna marina*; which, like fruit, are its chief exports.

ancient Rhegium was one of the most celebrated flourishing cities of *Magna Græcia*. It was founded 700 years B.C., by a party of Chalcidians, Zaneleans, or Greek colonists; and was for 200 years the capital of the principal republics of S. Italy. The government was subject to the same mutations as that of the Greek cities, being sometimes under a democracy, or frequently under an oligarchy, or a sloop-

It was frequently under an oligarchy, of a tyrant, or a king, that it was besieged by the enemy. Syracuse, because, while having succeeded in capturing all its allies, she was on the one hand and on the other, reduced the inhabs. to such want of food, that a bushel of wheat is said to have sold for 5 minas, or, according to the usual of computing, about 15*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* At last, after the most dreadful privations, they were obliged to yield, when most of those who survived were taken to Syracuse. It, however, again recovered its former importance, and succeeded in an attack of Hannibal. Augustus established in the city. It produced several distinguished Pythagoras, some historians of celebrity, distinguished sculptors. It suffered in antiquity as in more modern times, from earth-
(Milford's Greece, v. 452, ed. 1838; Ancient History, viii. 29. 8vo. ed. &c.)

(an. *Regium Lepidi*), a city of N. Italy, cap. of the Duchy of Modena, between the Tessone v. tributaries of the Po, 16 m. W.N.W. Mo. 15 m. S.E. by E. Parma. Pop. about 18,000. led by ramparts and a citadel, and is a well-
 other handsome, though miserably dull town.
 are regular, and bordered with arcades. It
 handsome churches, numerous convents, a
 theatre, lyceum, public library, and a library
 m. of antiquities, collected by Spallanzani.
 ies remain, except a statue in the principal
 ditionally said to represent Brennus, the

ditionally said to represent Brutus, the Reggino, the manufacturer of silk and corn, wood, and various articles, etc.; with a cattail and agricultural produce, and large fests during the entire month of May. It has been founded by M. Emilius Lepidus, the famous Emilian way. It was here Brutus was slain by order of Pompey, and Reggio into a dukedom for Marshal among other distinguished individuals to whom has given birth, may be mentioned Ariosto, the greatest of Italian poets, born here on Sept. 1474; and the naturalist Spallanzani, who also to boast of being the birth-place of the painter, Antonio Allegri, surnamed Correggio.

(Cramer's *Anc. Italy*, l. 85.; Rampoldi; *Dict. Géog.*, 8c.)

REICHENBERG, a town of Bohemia, and, next to Prague, the largest and most flourishing in that kingdom, circ. Bunzlau, in a well wooded part of the Lausnitz mountains, 274 m. N.N.W. Gitschin, and 56 m. N.E. Prague. Pop. 13,500. It has 3 par. churches, 2 castles, a fine school-house, a new theatre, and the largest brewery in Bohemia. It has manufactures of woollen cloth and yarn, cottons and linens, with numerous dyeing-houses, &c. (*Aust. Nat. Encyc.*; *Berghaus*.)

REIGATE, a par. in box market-town, and par. of Enfield, co. Surrey, hund. its own name, in the valley of Holmestale, at the foot of a range of chalk-hills, traversing the co. from E. to W., 16 m. E. Guildford, and 18½ m. S.S.W. London. Area of par. bor., which is co-extensive with the par., 5,900 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,415. The town, which consists of a principal thoroughfare running E. and W., crossed at one end by another at right angles to it, is "small, but remarkably neat, with a greater number than usual of gentlemen's houses attached to it." (*Round. Rep.*) The church, in the fields a little E. the town, is a large structure, in the perpendicular style, with a spire that rises above the town. The interior of the building being of grey limestone: in the interior are many handsome monuments, and in an attached building is a public library. The living is a vicarage of the annual value of 418*l.*, in private patronage. The Wesleyan Methodists, Baptists, and the Society of Friends, have their respective places of worship, with attached Sunday-schools; there is, also, a large national school for children of both sexes, and a small grammar-school. The market-house and town-hall is a small brick building of no pretensions to beauty; and near it is a clock-house, occasionally used as a prison. A castle once stood on an eminence N. from the town; but the only parts now remaining are the moat, and a curious excavated chamber, once the site of a prison, and a store-house. The manor, the property of Earl Somers, an elegant modern mansion at the S. end of the town, built on the site of an Augustine monastery, has an attached park of 70 acres. Reigate formerly carried on a pretty considerable trade in oatmeal, no fewer than 20 mills being employed, previously to the American war, in its manufacture; but this business has since so much declined, that only one mill remains. At present it depends principally on its being on the line of the principal thoroughfare between Brighton and London; an advantage which, however, it will probably lose, now that the Brighton Railway, which passes about 1½ m. W. from the town, is nearly completed. The soil is a rich sand, and is found in considerable quantities in the neighbourhood, which produces an abundance of medicinal and other plants.

Manor. A baron is a bar, by prescription, its governing officer being the balliv of the lord of the manor. It sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the 23. Edw. I., down to the Reform Act, the right of election being in the burgage holders, of whom, in 1831, there were only 8, wholly under the influence of Earl Somers, the lord of the manor. The Reform Act deprived the bar. of one of its mems., and extended the electoral limits so as to comprise the entire par. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 213. It is a polling place at elections for E. Surrey. Petty sessions for the hund, and the spring courts sessions for the hund are held here by the co. magistrates. Markets for corn, on Tuesday; and a cattle market the first Tuesday in each month. Fairs, Whit-Monday, Sept. 14., and Dec. 9.

REMI, or REMY (ST.), a town of France, dép. Bouches-du-Rhône, cap. cant., in a valley 15 m. N.E. Arles. Pop., in 1836, ex. com., 3,238. It was formerly surrounded with a double line of ramparts; but these have been levelled, and their place is occupied by a fine circular promenade. Streets, narrow and irregular; but there are many good houses. The town-hall, new par. church, and a lunatic asylum are the principal public buildings. St. Remi is chiefly remarkable for its Roman antiquities, about 1 m. from the town, and supposed to belong to the an. *Glanum*. They consist of 2 edifices; one an arch somewhat similar to the central portion of that at Orange, but much mutilated, the other a Corinthian monument, square at its base, but circular above, appearing from an inscription to have been erected by Sextus L. Marcus to his parents, whose statues are in the circular portion of the structure. This relic of antiquity, an engraving of which is given in *Wood's Letters*, i. 159., appears to be in good preservation.

The Abbé Expilly, one of the most laborious and useful topographical writers of last century, was a native of St. Remi, where he first saw the light in 1719. His principal work, entitled *Dictionnaire Géographique, Historique, et Politique des Gaules et de la France*, in 6 tomes folio, is incomplete, reaching only to the letter S.: it contains a vast fund of information.

RENAIX, or RONSE, a town of Belgium, prov. E Flanders, arrond. Oudenarde, cap. canton, 20 m. S.S.W.

Ghent. Pop., in 1886, 12,290 (*Henschling*). It is in a fine situation, and is embellished with several public fountains: its old castle is now in ruins, but it has some good public buildings. It has manufactures of cotton, woollen, and linen stuffs, hats, beer, and chocolate; with a considerable trade in linens, a monthly and 2 weekly markets, and 2 large annual fairs. (*Vandermaelen, Dict. Fland. Orientale*.)

RENFREW, a small maritime co. of Scotland, having N. and W. the river and Frith of Clyde, S. Ayrshire, and E. Lanarkshire. Area, 145,360 acres, of which about a half may be arable. There is a large extent of hilly, moorish ground, in the W. parts of the co., and along the confines of Ayrshire; but from Port Glasgow, eastwards along the Clyde it is comparatively flat. Soil very various; being in parts thin and sandy, while in others it consists of a deep, loamy, fertile clay; and the country being in general well enclosed with hedges, and ornamented with gentlemen's seats and plantations, has a rich appearance. Tillage husbandry is still in a rather backward state, and neither the rotation of crops nor the management of the land is so well understood as might have been expected. "Much, however, has been done in the way of improvement during the last 40 years; enclosures have become general; new roads have been constructed; the land has been drained, and limed, and the rotation of crops improved." (*New Statistical Account of Scotland*, art. *Lockhart, co. Renfrew*.) Farm-houses and offices have, also, been greatly improved. On the whole, however, the co., from the humidity of the climate and the nature of the soil, is better adapted for grazing and dairying (the latter of these is extensively followed) than for tillage. There are several large estates, but property is, notwithstanding, a good deal subdivided. Farms of a medium size. Average rent of land, in 1843, 21s. 2d. an acre. There are valuable coal mines near Paisley and the eastern parts of the co., and limestone and freestone are very generally diffused. Paisley is the principal seat of the Scotch shawl manufacture; and, next to Glasgow, of the Scotch cotton manufacture; manufacturing industry is also extensively prosecuted at Pollockshaw, Neilston, and other places. Greenock and Port Glasgow, which are both in this county, are considerable sea-ports. Principal rivers, White-Cart, Black-Cart, and Gryfe. The co. is divided into 16 parishes, and sends 3 mems. to the H. of C., being 1 for the co., and 1 each for Paisley and Greenock. Renfrew and Port Glasgow are associated with other bors. in the return of a mem. Registered electors for the co. in 1849-50, 2,391. In 1841, this co. had 24,664 inhab. houses, and 155,073 inhab., of whom 72,859 were males, and 82,218 females. Valued rent, £9,172. Scotch; annual value of real property in 1835, 265,344. do. in 1843, 474,564.

RENFREW, a par. bor. of Scotland, co. Renfrew, of which it is the cap., within about ½ m. of the S. bank of the Clyde, 5 m. W. Glasgow. Pop., 1841, 2,012. It consists merely of a single street, from which several lanes issue. The only public buildings are the parish church, town-hall, and jail. There is no dissenting chapel. There are no native manufactures in the town; but about 260 looms are employed on account of Glasgow manufacturers. It is also a distillery, and a considerable dairy establishment. The bor. was connected with the Clyde by a canal in 1786, but it has been allowed to go into disrepair. A quay was constructed on the Clyde opposite to the town in 1835; and a railway, 3¼ m. in length, connects the bor. with Paisley. On the whole, however, it has but little trade or enterprise. The royal family of Stewart, so called from their office, had their original residence near this town. It joins with Port Glasgow, Dumbarton, Rutherglen, and Kilmarnock, in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors in this bor., in 1849-50, 101; councillors, 19; corp. revenue, 1848-9, 2,411l.

RENNES (an. *Condate*, afterwards *Redones*), a city of France, dép. Ille-et-Vilaine, of which is the cap., in a plain, at the confluence of the Ille and Vilaine, 61 m. N. by W. Nantes; lat. 48° 6' 50" N., long. 10° 40' 47" W. Pop. in 1846, inc. com., 33,323. The Vilaine divides Rennes into an upper and lower town. The former, which is the largest, is regularly built, and handsome; the lower town is quite the contrary. The houses in both are, however, of a dull grey stone, which gives the city a sombre appearance.

Rennes has several tolerable squares, as that of the *Palais de Justice*, in which was formerly a bronze equestrian statue of Louis XIV.; and the *Place aux Armes*, planted with lime trees, and forming a favourite promenade. But it has neither public fountains nor covered market-places; and, for a city of its size, there are few public buildings worth notice. Though not fortified, it has several gates, on one of which is an almost effaced Latin inscription in honour of the emperor Gordian. Opposite this gate is the cathedral, a heavy-looking edifice, with a front flanked by two square towers, and ornamented with five rows of columns of different orders.

Several of the other churches are in much better taste. The town-hall is one of the best public edifices. It has been rebuilt, together with a large part of the city, since a destructive fire in 1730, and comprises a large saloon, used for public fêtes, the halls of various judicial courts, a public library of above 30,000 vols., schools of design and architecture, and the apartments occupied by the mayor. The hotel appropriated to the use of the royal court, tribunal of commerce, law-school, &c., is a building in the Tuscan order, having some good paintings and arabesques.

Rennes has several hospitals, a house of correction, in which various manufactures are conducted, an arsenal, artillery forges, and various military schools. It is the seat of a bishop, whose diocese comprises the dép. Ille-et-Vilaine; it is also the seat of the royal court for the 5 dép. of Brittany, the cap. of the 13th military division, and has a chamber of manufactures, a faculty of law, a secondary school of medicine, 2 seminaries, a tolerable museum of painting, and some other scientific establishments. In the immediate vicinity are several good promenades; the principal, the *Thaëry*, formerly a garden of the Benedictines, on a height above the city, has a statue of Duguesclin.

Though favourably situated for trade, Rennes has few manufactures: the principal are those of sail-cloth, for the navy, &c., fishing-nets, and twine. It has, however, a considerable traffic in linens, butter, cyder, and provisions, which is much facilitated by the canal of Ille and Rance, and that between Nantes and Brest. It has 12 annual fairs.

Rennes was the cap. of Brittany from the 9th century to the Revolution. It has produced numerous distinguished men, among whom may be specified the famous Constable Duguesclin, born in the castle of Motte-Broon, in the immediate vicinity, in 1314; La Bletterie, the author of the lives of Julian and Jovian; Ginguène, the author of the *History of Italian Literature*, &c. (*Hugo*, art. *Ille-et-Vilaine*; *Guide du Voyageur*; *Dict. Géog.*)

REPTON, or REPINGTON, a par. and village of England, co. Derby, ham. Repton, a small ancient of the Trent, 6 m. S. W. Derby, area of par. with Bradby chapelry, 6,440 acres. Pop., in 1841, 2,341. The town consists principally of a street of scattered houses, about one mile in length; its inhabitants being chiefly agricultural. The par. church is a spacious structure, with an elegant spire, and several handsome monuments. The living, a perpetual curacy, in the gift of Sir G. Crewe, is worth 1224. a year. A free-school, well endowed in 1565, is held in the remains of a priory of Black Canons, established in 1172.

REQUEN (an. *Lorchum*), a town of Spain, in New Castile, prov. Cuenca, on the Magro (a tributary of the Júcar), 43 m. W.N.W. Valencia. Pop., according to Mifano, 10,893. It is surrounded with walls, and commanded by an old castle, built on an eminence: the streets are tolerably straight, lined with well-built houses, and, as in most Spanish towns, there is a spacious *plaza*, in the centre of which is an ornamental fountain. Three par. churches and a college are the only public buildings. The chief employment of the inhabs. is in weaving ribbons and silk goods. There has been a great increase of activity since the restoration of tranquillity; and Requena now furnishes a large supply of these articles to Madrid, Seville, and Cadiz. A fair is held annually in September. The neighbourhood, a portion of which is irrigated, is well cultivated, and furnishes corn, wine, fruit, saffron, and large quantities of silk. During the war of the succession, in 1706, the castle was taken by the English, but retaken the following year by the French under the Duke of Orleans. (*Mifano*; *Dict. Géog.*.)

RETFORD (EAST and WEST), a par. and mun. bor. of England, co. Nottingham, wapentake Bassetlaw, on the Idle, a tributary of the Trent, 36 m. N.N.E. Nottingham, and 199 m. N.N.W. London. Area of the former par. bor., which was extensive with the par. of East Retford, 130 acres; its pop., in 1841, being 8,681. The modern mun. bor., however, comprises, together with the par. of East Retford, parts of those of West Retford, Clarendon, and Ordsall, and may have a pop. of between 4,000 and 5,000. The town consists principally of several thoroughfares, which meet in a common centre, and are united by several cross streets. To the N.E. are the hamlets of Moorgate and Spital Hill; and to the S. South Retford and Thrumpton, to which last houses extend from East Retford, so as to form almost one continued line of buildings. West Retford is divided from East Retford by the Idle, the bridge over which being in the line of the streets of both towns, they seem to be, what, in fact, is substantially the case, a single town. The houses of East and West Retford have a respectable appearance, and the streets are lighted with gas. (*Mun. Corp. Rep.*.) East Retford church is a spacious edifice of different dates, with a lofty square tower. The church of West Retford is small, but has a handsome spire. The living of East

Revel is a village, value 140*l.* a year; patron, Sir R. Sutton: that of West Retford is a rectory, in the gift of the corporation of East Retford, value 364*l.* a year. (*Ecc. Rev. Rep.*) In the suburb of Moorgate is a new chapel of ease, in the Gothic style: there are in the town places of worship for Baptists, Independents, Wesleyans, &c. The town-hall is a convenient building, surmounted by a cupola, and having beneath a good market-place. There are 2 almshouses, one for old men, the other for women; a free grammar-school, founded by Edward VI., of which the municipal authorities are trustees; a national school, established in 1813, various minor charities, a news-room, and a small theatre. There is no manufactory of any kind in the town, which depends entirely for its support upon the retail trade carried on with the inhabs. of the surrounding agricultural districts. (*Man. Corp. Rep.*) Laiding was formerly extensively carried on, and hat-making and the manufacture of worsted were introduced; but these branches have nearly ceased. The town is not navigable; Retford, at its communication with the Trent by the Chesterfield Canal, which passes of the town, and is carried over the Idle by an aqueduct. East Retford is governed by 4 aldermen and 12 councillors, and had formerly petty sessions, &c.; but Municipal Reform Act orders that it shall not have omission of the peace unless upon petition or grant. Previously to this act, its police was reported to be very efficient, and the administration of the corporate and revenues had been very unsatisfactory. (*Man. Append.*) It is said to have been a bor. by prescription: it received many charters from Henry III. and several sovereigns, down to James I. East Retford owed 5 mms. to the H. of C. in the 9th Edward II., continued to enjoy this privilege down to 1836. But having been proved that gross bribery had been practised at the election that then took place, it was proposed no party to incorporate the adjoining hundred of etlaw with the bor., and by another to transfer the shire to Manchester, Birmingham, or some other of great towns that were then unrepresented. After heated discussion, the first-mentioned plan was adopted, so that the bor. of East Retford is now local with the hundred of Bassetlaw. Registered in 1849-50, 2,644. Markets at East Retford on days: fairs, March 23, and Oct. 2, for horses, and cheese. (*Parl. Reports*, &c.)

THEL, a town of France, dep. Ardennes, cap. d. on a steep declivity beside the Aisne, here d by a wooden bridge, 24 m. S.W. Mézières. Pop. 5, ex. com., 7,507. It is pretty well laid out, and roving; but the houses are still mostly of wood, ere is no remarkable public building. It was formerly the cap. of a co. of Champagne, a fortified. It has a court of original jurisdiction, a municipal college, society of agriculture, theatre, hospitals, and two prisons. It is chiefly noted for linen manufactures, which are estimated to employ 100 to 1,800 hands, mostly spinners. As in most manufacturing towns, the workpeople are generally d at their homes. The prices of labour are at lower than in Rheims; but provisions, &c., are and, on the whole, the woollen spinners of re in a better condition than those in that city. has been considerably augmented by the open canal of Ardennes: besides woollen manu. the town has many iron forges, breweries, and. (*Hugo, art. Ardennes; Villermé, Tableaux des*, i. 248-252.)

L., a gov. of European Russia. (*See ESTONIA*.)

(*Esth. Tallinn*, Russ. *Kolyvan*), a sea-port town in Europe, cap. of the above gov.; on a small S. side of the Gulf of Finland, 200 m. W.S.W. g; lat. 59° 26' 58" N., long. 24° 14' 30" E. Pop. 10,000. The city proper, included within the walls, is small; and although it has many good brick streets are narrow and irregular. There are therean, a R. Cath., and some Greek churches, offices; and various charitable and educational ents, the latter including a gymnasium, episcary, and a school (*penion*) for nobles. The modern edifice, is appropriated to the provincial; the municipal officers, who are elected by side in the town-hall. The admiralty is the main public building. The suburbs, consisting of wooden houses, cover a large extent along the shore. Revel is much resorted to for place, and has some good warm baths, a real clubs or casinos, and 3 or 4 public houses, the property of the city, is said by comprise 10,000 *veti*. This town is one of the he Russian fleet, and has a harbour defended batteries. This port, which was materially 1820, is deeper than that of Cronstadt, e difficult of entrance. The roadstead, some islands, is well sheltered: the long

duration of the frost is the principal drawback on Revel as a naval station, though that is a disadvantage which it shares in common with the other Russian ports in the Baltic. Though not connected with the interior by any navigable river, Revel has a considerable trade. Its principal exports are corn, spirits, hemp, flax, timber, and other Baltic produce; the imports consist of colonial produce, herrings from Holland and Norway, salt, cheese, wine, tobacco, fruits, dye stuffs, cotton yarn, stuffs, and other manufactured goods, &c. A portion of the customs' revenue is enjoyed by the town.

Revel was founded by the Danes in 1318, and afterwards sold by them to the Knights of the Teutonic Order. In 1561 it came into the possession of the Swedes, but was taken from them by the Russians in 1710. Near it is the Katharinenthal Palace, built by Peter the Great; the gardens of which are a favourite public promenade. (*Schnitzler; Possort*, &c.)

REUS, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, 9 m. W. Tarragona, and 54 m. W. by S. Barcelona. Pop., according to Mifano, 24,500. It stands on a plain gently sloping towards the coast, and comprises several streets lined with good houses, with numerous churches, hospitals, barracks, an orphan asylum, theatre, and handsome public fountains. The inhabs. are extensively employed in the manufacture of silk and cotton fabrics, hats, soap, &c.; besides which, there are large dye-houses, bleaching-grounds, tanneries, spirit-distilleries, glass-houses, &c.; in fact, Reus may be regarded as one of the most important manufacturing towns of Catalonia, and the numerous handsome houses in its neighbourhood sufficiently indicate the industry and prosperity of its inhabs. The town is connected by a canal with the port of Salou, whence its products are exported in exchange for rice, flour, cod-fish, anchovies, &c. Its weekly market is one of the largest in Spain, and is frequently attended by upwards of 10,000 persons. The town was founded in the middle of the 13th century; but its present importance is wholly consequent to the establishment of silk and cotton manufactories at the close of the last century. (*Mifano; Laborde, Itinéraire de l'Espagne; Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

REUSS, a territory of Central Germany, forming two indep. principalities, between 50° 20' and 51° N. and long. 11° 20' and 12° 15' E., having S. Bavaria, E. Saxony, and N. and W. the territories of Prussia, Cobourg, Gotha, and Weimar, the last dividing it into two unequal portions. Area, 691 sq. m. Pop. in 1846, 110,819. Surface generally hilly: in the N. it is watered by the Elster, in the S. by the Saale. Tillage is less an occupation of the inhabs. than the rearing of cattle and sheep. The most fertile tract adjoins the town of Gera. Woods comparatively extensive, and one of the chief sources of national wealth. Woollen, linen, and cotton fabrics are produced; mining is little followed, and the only metallic works are a few iron-forges. The inhabs. are almost all Lutherans. The territory of the elder branch of Reuss consists of the lordships of Greis and Burgh, having an area of 144 sq. m., and a pop., in 1838, of 33,100. Greis is the chief town, and seat of the superior judicial court, whence appeal lies to the tribunal of Jena. The public revenue amounts to about 80,000 dollars a year; the contingent to the army of the confed. being 523 men. The younger branch of Reuss has a territory of 447 sq. m., composed of the lordships of Schleis, Lobenstein-Ebersdorf, and Gera, with a pop. of 69,700; chief town, and seat of gov., Schleis. Appeal from the courts of this principality lies also to Jena. Public revenue, about 235,000 dollars; contingent to army, 522 men. Each branch has a separate vote in the full diet of the German Confed., and together with Hohenollern, Lippe, Liechtenstein, and Waldeck, the 16th place, and a vote in the committee. (*Berghaus, Allg. Länder*, &c., iv. 392-394.; *Altmannsch de Gottha*.)

REUTLINGEN, a town of Wirtemberg, circ. Schwarzwald (Black Forest), of which it is the cap., on the Neckar, a tributary of the Neckar, 19 m. S. Stuttgart. Pop. in 1838, 11,500. Reutlingen presents a contrast to many other old Imperial cities, having mostly regular streets, and well-built though antiquated houses. It has fortified, and has several suburbs. One of its churches has a tower said, by Berghaus, to be 220 ft. in height: the town-hall, lyceum, a well-endowed hospital, and orphan asylum, are the other most conspicuous edifices.

It has manufactures of leather, lace, net for women's caps, of the annual value of 100,000 florins; clocks and watches, &c., with dyeing and bleaching factories, and printing establishments, whence many pirated editions of German works have issued.

Reutlingen was the first town in Swabia which embraced the Reformation. (*Memminger Besch. von Württemberg; Berghaus*, &c.)

RHEIMS or REIMS (anc. *Durocora*rum, post. *Remi*), a celebrated city of France, dep. Marne, of which, though not the cap., it is by far the largest town, cap. arrond., in a plain near the Vesle, a tributary of the Aisne, 27 m. N.N.W. Châlons, and 95 m. E. by N.

Paris: lat. $49^{\circ} 14' 41''$ N., long. $4^{\circ} 27' 47''$ E. Pop. in 1846, 43,481. It is surrounded by ramparts faced with stone, which, being planted with trees, form agreeable public walks; and there are other promenades in the immediate neighbourhood. It is about a league in circuit, and is entered by six gates, one of which, the *Porte Neuve*, a triumphal arch, with handsome doors of open iron-work, was raised in honour of Louis XVI. at his coronation. Two principal thoroughfares, which meet in the *Place Royale*, divide the city into four unequal portions. It is tolerably well laid out, its streets being wide, straight, and generally clean: it has several good squares; but its houses are small, having mostly only two floors, and are constructed with monotonous uniformity. Water-works, beyond the walls, distribute the waters of the Vesle through the town, but, according to Hugo, in insufficient quantity; and there is not one handsome public fountain. It has, however, some remarkable public edifices.

The cathedral, one of the largest and most magnificent in Europe, is that in which the coronation of the French kings has taken place, with few exceptions, from the era of Philip Augustus. It was chiefly constructed between 1212 and 1242. It is 479 ft. in length, 99 ft. in breadth, and 144 ft. in height. It has a noble front, flanked with two square towers, 252 ft. in height. Of the three grand entrances on this side, the central is 304 ft., and those on either side 22½ ft., in width; above the former is a beautiful circular window. The whole front is ornamented with nearly 650 statues, and a great number of columns and bas-reliefs; and similar decorations abound in every part of the exterior. In one of the towers is a bell weighing 29,000 lbs. This cathedral has some fine stained glass, tapestry, marble pavements, &c.; a very fine organ; the "washing the feet," a *chef d'œuvre* of Poussin; various curiosities, including the font said to have been used in the baptism of Clovis, and the tomb of Jovinus, a citizen of Rheims, who arrived at the dignity of Roman consul *anno* 366. The last, an admirable specimen of ancient art, was transferred from the church of St. Nicaise, destroyed during the phrenzy of the Revolution.

Rheims, which was a place of great consideration under the Romans, had various other antiquities, but they were mostly destroyed or carried off during the period in question. The most remarkable ancient monument now existing is the *Porte de Mars*, one of the city gates; a triple archway, ornamented with eight Corinthian columns, and numerous bas-reliefs, though these are now greatly defaced. This arch appears to have been erected in honour of Caesar and Augustus, when Agrippa was governor of Gaul. Without the walls are the traces of an amphitheatre.

The church of St. Remi, constructed in 1041, is considered the oldest in the city. It occupies almost as much ground as the cathedral; and though much less lofty and ornamented, is in a similar style of architecture. It contains the remains of the ancient and curious mausoleum of St. Remi. The town-hall, an edifice of the time of Louis XIII., with whose statue its front is ornamented, the new prison, *maison rouge*, which has some historical interest, theatre, several hospitals, &c., are among the other chief objects of notice. In the centre of the *Place Royale* is a bronze statue of Louis XV., surrounded with allegorical figures, erected in 1818, to replace a similar statue destroyed in 1793. Rheims is the seat of an archbishop, whose suffragans are the bishops of Amiens, Beauvais, Châlons, and Soissons, and of courts of assize, original jurisdiction, and commerce, a council *des prud'hommes*, chamber of manufactures and arts, a royal college, &c. It has a public library of 24,000 printed vols. and 1,000 MSS., a botanic garden, schools of mutual instruction, a *mont de piété*, savings' bank, &c.

Rheims is the centre of the manufacture of woollen stuffs, which extends over nearly the whole d^{ép.} of Marne, and the adjacent d^{ép.}s of Aisne and Ardennes. In 1834 these manufactures were estimated to occupy 50,000 hands, of whom 13,000 were settled in Rheims. About 3,000 of the latter were weavers, 1-10th part of whom wrought at jacquard-loom; 1,500 were employed in spinning yarn, 4,000 in fulling, washing, and otherwise preparing the fabrics made. For the last 25 years the woollen manufacture of Rheims has made a considerable progress in most of its branches. Wages are good. Those of workmen vary, according to the work, from 1½ up to 4½ fr. a day; women from 75 c. to 1½ fr.; and children from 40 to 75 c. But the average is estimated to be, for 1st class workmen, 2½ fr. to 3 fr.; 2d class, 1½ fr. to 3 fr.; and women 75 c. to 1 fr. 25 c. daily. They usually work for about 12 hours a day; those living in the city being mostly employed in the workshops of the manufacturers. In general the workpeople are well clothed and well fed; but they are said to be improvident, and few save money. The vice of drunkenness is very prevalent; and morals are as bad or worse, perhaps, than in most manufacturing towns of France. From 1825 to

1835, the proportion of illegitimate to total births amounted to about 1 in 4. (*Villermé, Tableau des Ouvriers*, i. 216—247.) Rheims also produces soap, candles, biscuits, and gingerbread; and has breweries, tanneries, leather-factories, &c. It is a principal *dépôt* for the wines of Champagne, large quantities of which are stored up in cellars, similar to those of Epernay, which see. Besides its trade in woollen manufactures and wines, it has a considerable trade in cotton stuffs, flour, and other agricultural products, &c. Under the Romans, *Durocorium* was the cap. of Belgica II., and was distinguished as a seat of letters and philosophy. It became a bishopric before the irruption of the Franks, and received many privileges from the Merovingian kings. In 1295, Rheims successfully resisted the arms of Edward III. In 1547, a university was founded in it, which lasted till the Revolution, when it was suppressed. In 1814, it was taken by the Russians, who were soon after expelled by Napoleon, with great loss.

Among the great men of whom Rheims has to boast, the most distinguished by far is Colbert, minister of finance during the most splendid period of the reign of Louis XIV., born here on the 29th of August, 1619. It has also given birth to the Abbé de la Pluche, the historian Vely, &c. (*Hugo, art. Marne; Villermé, Tableau des Ouvriers; D'Anville, Notice de la Gaule*, 290., &c.)

RHIN (BAS, or LOWER-RHINE), a frontier d^{ép.} of France, in the E. part of the kingdom, which, with Haut-Rhin, formerly constituted the prov. of Alsace, chiefly being the 48th and 49th d^{ép.} of N. lat. and the 7th and 8th E. long.; having N. Rhenish Bavaria, and the d^{ép.} of Moselle, W. Meurthe and Voeges, S. Haut-Rhin, and E. the Rhine, separating it from the Grand Duchy of Baden. Area, 464,781 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 880,573. The W. part of the d^{ép.} is covered by the Voeges mountains, and their ramifications. The average elevation is from 3,000 to 3,800 ft.; but the Hochfeld rises to 4,460 ft., and the Schneeberg to 2,850 ft. The surface declines towards the E. Principal rivers, the Ill, with its numerous tributaries, the Moselle, Marne, &c. In 1854, the arable lands were estimated at 180,920 hectares; meadows 56,094 ditto, vineyards 13,123 ditto, orchards 5,994 ditto, and woods 117,754 ditto. The marshes in the E., and the stony tracts of the W., are unsuitable for agriculture; and though the middle of the d^{ép.} be fertile and well cultivated, the produce of corn is not sufficient for home consumption. More potatoes are grown than in any of the neighbouring d^{ép.}s; nearly 1,745,000 hectolitres having been produced in 1835. A good deal of tobacco is raised, and bought by the government. The annual produce of wine has been estimated at about 650,000 hectolitres; it is of a medium quality, but, speaking generally, is inferior to that of the Haut Rhin. About a half of the produce is consumed in the d^{ép.}, the rest being sent, partly to other d^{ép.}s and partly to Baden, &c. Hops, wood, hemp, onions, and other vegetables, are articles of extensive cultivation. The plough is usually drawn by horses. Horned cattle are pretty numerous, but sheep are scarce. Poultry are extensively reared near Strasburg; particularly geese, the livers of which serve to make the *pâté de foie gras*, for which that city is so celebrated. In 1835, of 221,956 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 141,923 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and only 83 at 1,000 fr. and upwards. Iron mines are wrought; lead, antimony, cobalt, coal, and bitumen are met with; and salt is made from springs, in the N. and W. The d^{ép.} has manufactures of cotton yarn, muslins, woollen, and linen cloths, leather, saddlery, carriages, glass wares, &c. There are many iron-forges; and fire-arms are manufactured at Mutzig and Kilsenthal. Strasburg is the seat of an extensive general commerce and transit trade. Bas-Rhin is divided into four arrondis; chief towns, Strasburg the cap., with 52,186 inhabs., Saverne, Schlestadt, and Wissembourg. Total public revenue (1844), 18,911,388 francs. The majority of the population is Protestant.

RHIN (HAUT, or UPPER RHINE), a frontier d^{ép.} of France, in the E. part of the kingdom, formerly comprised in the prov. of Alsace; between lat. $47^{\circ} 57'$ and $48^{\circ} 18'$ N., and long. $6^{\circ} 49'$ and $7^{\circ} 25'$ E., having N. Bas-Rhin, W. Voeges and Haute Saône, S. Doubs, and the Swiss cantons of Neuchâtel, Berne, and Basle, and E. the Rhine, separating it from the territories of Baden. Area, 408,032 hectares. Pop. in 1846, 487,308. In the W. are the chains of the Voeges and Jura; one summit of the former, the *ballon d'Alsace*, rises to 4,692 ft. above the sea. The rest of the surface is mostly plain. Except the Rhine, the Ill is the only navigable river; but the canal between the Rhine and Elzane intersects the d^{ép.} in its whole length. As in Bas-Rhin, the most fertile portion of the surface is in the centre of the d^{ép.}, where agriculture is in a pretty advanced state. In 1835, the arable lands were estimated to comprise 155,571 hectares; meadows, 82,866 do.; vineyards, 11,141 do.; orchards,

5,319 do.; and woods, 113,215 do. Principal crops, wheat and barley; 2,460,000 hectolitres of potatoes were said to be raised in 1835. The produce of wine is estimated at above 400,000 hectol. a year. Some of the white wines, especially those of Guebwiller, Riquevill, Thann, &c. are highly esteemed. The *vine gentils* are extensively purchased by the merchants of Cologne and Frankfurt, who mix them with the wines of the Rhine, to which they impart strength and vivacity. They keep for more than twenty years, improve as they grow older, and sustain no injury from travelling. The d  p. also produces excellent beer. In 1835, of 174,015 properties subject to the *contribution fonci  re*, 100,880 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 36,810 at from 5 to 10 fr. There are various iron and other mines, and good building stone and other minerals are met with in various parts.

Hand-loom weaving is scattered over nearly the whole of the d  p. of the Haut- and Bas-Rhin; the articles produced are chiefly muslins and fine calicoes. The wages of the hand-loom weavers vary: for the most skilled class, from 6 to 9 fr. per week; for the second-rate class, from 4 to 6 fr.; and for women and children, forming the third or lowest class, from 2 to 4 fr. These are nett wages, the manufacturers either beaming the warps and furnishing the looms in factories, or paying equivalently." (*Symon's Report*, p. 119.) Villerm   states that in 1834, the cotton manufactures of the Haut-Rhin employed 100,000 individuals, or nearly a fourth part of the entire pop.; and, since that period, he affirms the number has still further increased: but a large proportion of these persons prosecute the cotton trade as a subsidiary employment only, carrying it on in their cottages when they are not occasionally engaged in the culture of their little patches of ground. Mulhausen, Thann, Guebwiller, Sultz, and Sainte Marie aux Mines, are the chief seats of the cotton manufacture. "The homes of the weaving uses (in these towns) are, for the most part, dirty and unwholesome, and evince every symptom of bad management and poverty. Even those who have children in the cotton-mills do not keep up any appearance of comfort. The Alsatian weavers have, generally speaking, a sufficiency of food, though in all other respects they are ill off. In the mountains of the Vosges, the peasantry worse off still: the looms found there are chiefly on system of the 'customer' weavers of Scotland, but there are some who weave for manufacturers at very low rates." (*Symon's Reports*, p. 130.)

Villerm   gives a deplorable account of the abject poverty of a great proportion of the cotton weavers of Haut-Rhin, many of whom come from Switzerland beyond the Rhine. (*Tableau des Ouvriers*, t. 24—&c.) This d  p. has also manufactures of hardware, axes, and watches, with various iron and steel forges, is divided into 3 arrondis: chief towns, Colmar, Altkirch, and Belfort. It sends 5 mems. to the French Dep. Number of electors (1838-9), 1,866. public revenue (1831), 9,328,947 fr. Unlike Bas-Rhin, the majority of the pop. in this d  p. are Roman Catholics, but Protestants are numerous.

The d  p., which formed a part of the kingdoms of Alsace and Lorraine, afterwards belonged to the empire till 1268, when it became mostly independent. It subsequently belonged to Austria; but was finally annexed to France by Louis XIV. in 1697.

art. *Haut-Rhin*; Villerm  ; *Parl. Papers*; *Official Tables*, &c.

N.B., a large river of W. Europe, rising on the N. of the Alps, flowing through Switzerland, and Germany, falling into the North Sea or German Ocean, lat. 46   30' and 52   N., and long. 3   40' and 10   E. Length, measured along the stream, 850 m.; basin, including tributaries, 83,298 sq. m., or about one-third of Europe. It originates in two principal sources which have their sources on the N. side of the Alps: the principal of these, called by the Germans the *princpal* Rhine, is formed by the junction of two streams flowing from the N. side of Mount St. Gotthard, at an elevation of 6,581 ft. above the sea, lat. 46   55' E., long. 6   55' E., only a few miles from the source of the Rhine. Hence the main stream, which is enlarged by the affluence of numerous mountain torrents, takes at first a N.E. direction, the magnificent and stupendous ravine between the two peaks, enclosed on both sides by almost vertical rocks, rising 3,000 ft. above the river, and their very summits with stately firs. At the base of this valley, and only a few miles above Reichenau, the river is joined by its E. branch, the *princpal* Rhine, which rises on the side of the Moser Vogelberg, near the pass of St. Bernard. The river defects N., maintaining that general direction through a fertile and romantic valley, abundantly watered, as far as the lake of Constance, into its waters, their level at this point being above the sea, or 5,326 ft. below the source. The river, flowing in this beautiful lake at its W. end, near the base of the mountain, enters a smaller expanse of water,

called the Unter- or Zeller-See, in which is the island of Reichenau, and thence, narrowing its channel, runs W. to Schaffhausen; 3 m. below which the stream, pent between lofty rocks, and divided by craggy islets, falls over a ledge of rocks 76 ft. in height, forming one of the most celebrated European cataracts. (See *SCHAFFHAUSEN*.) The channel, from this point to Basle, is extremely tortuous, winding through lofty rocks, which confine the waters within a narrow compass, and consequently increase the rapidity of the current. At Zuzach, about 1 m. above the confluence of the Aar, occurs a second fall, down which, however, the natives venture their loaded barks, except during the spring-floods. The river maintains its W. direction through a rocky valley, interrupted with frequent crags rising above the stream, as far as Basle, where it is crossed by a wooden bridge, 600 ft. in length, with stone abutments. Here also commences the navigation of the river, its level at this point being 827 ft. above the German Ocean.

Basle, indeed, seems to be the proper point of division between the upper and lower Rhine; for the navigation above this town is so interrupted by falls and rocks as to be scarcely of any importance, whereas from hence to the mouth boats pass at almost all seasons of the year. Assuming at Basle a pretty constant N. course, the Rhine becomes the boundary between France and the grand duchy of Baden, and afterwards between Baden and Rhenish Bavaria, the cities and towns in this part of its course being Mannheim, on the E. bank, at the confluence of the Neckar, and Strasburg, Speier, Oppenheim, and Mayence, on the W. bank. At the last of these towns, at the junction of the Mayn, the stream takes a sudden turn W. to Bingen, on the W. bank, from which point the course of the river is pretty uniformly N.W. to the delta at its mouth. Coblenz, at the confluence of the Moselle, Bonn, Cologne, and Cl  ves, are the chief towns on the W. bank; those on and near the E. side comprising Wiesbaden, Dusseldorf, Wesel, and other places of inferior size. The delta of the Rhine is the largest in Europe, not even excepting that of the Volga: it extends, with its ramifications, 110 m. along the coast, from the E. shore of the Zuyder-Zee to the S. branch of the Maas; and the distance from the apex, about 10 m. below Emmerich, being 73 m., the total area of the country comprised within its limits is 4,160 sq. m. When the river divides, the left or S. arm takes the name of Waal; and the other retaining that of the Rhine, is connected, a little farther N., by an artificial canal with the Yssel. Still lower down the Rhine takes the name of the Leck, in order to distinguish it from the old Rhine, now sanded up, which passed by Utrecht and Leyden to the sea at Catwyk. The Rhine has at present three mouths. About two-thirds of its waters flow to the sea by the Waal, the remainder being carried partly to the Zuyder-Zee by the Yssel, and partly by the ocean by the Leck. The delta on which is the great Rhenish port of Rotterdam. These branches, however, are so interlaced with natural and artificial channels, and there are so many lagoons, marshes, &c. in this district, that a map becomes indispensable to any detailed description. (*Lyell's Geol.* ii. 52—59.)

The entrance to the Maas, leading to Rotterdam, lies in lat. 51   56' N., and is commonly called the Briel-gat or channel: it has a bar across, on which there are 7 1/2 ft. water at neap-tides. Spring-tides rise here from 11 to 12 ft., and neaps 6 or 7 ft. (*Norris's Sailing Directions for the North Sea*, p. 153.)

The breadth and depth of the Rhine in different parts of its course have been pretty accurately determined by repeated observations. At Chur, in the Grisons, it is about 250 ft. in width, or about as broad as the Thames at Richmond; at Schaffhausen the width is estimated at 370 ft., and at Basle about 550 ft. The breadth of the stream between Basle and Strasburg is much increased by the numerous islands that interrupt the current; but from the last-mentioned place to Speiers the width varies from 1,000 to 1,300 ft. The size of the Rhine thence downwards to Coblenz gradually decreases to near 500 ft. in width; but near that point it swells a mountainous deluge, and becomes much narrower, widening again at Cologne, where it is 1,400 ft. across; and lower down to its mouth, in the principal navigable branches, it has a breadth exceeding 2,000 ft. The depth of the channel from Basle to Strasburg averages about 12 ft.; and below the latter town the river is navigable by large steamers and vessels of considerable tonnage. July is the season when the river is fullest, and it then rises about 12 ft. above its average height. May and October are the seasons of low water. The descent of the river, and consequently the rapidity of the current, are extremely variable in different parts; but the mean inclination from Strasburg is estimated at about 1/3 ft. per mile; and the current may average somewhat more than 3 m. an hour, though below Cologne it is greatly decreased, the Rhine there becoming comparatively a sluggish river.

The affluents of the Rhine are very numerous; but the chief tribs. belong to the portion below Basle. The only navigable affluent above that point is the Aar, a stream which drains the greater part of Switzerland, and brings down nearly an equal volume of water with the Upper Rhine itself. It rises in the great mass of St. Gothard, passes through a narrow valley, in which is the cataract of Aarfall, 180 ft. in height, afterwards enters the lake of Briens, and thence, after passing through the lake of Thun (1,875 ft. above the sea) runs past Berne, and enlarged by different tribs., bringing down the waters of lakes Lucerne, Wallendstadt, Zurich, &c., joins the main river at Coblenz (47° 26' N., and 8° 18' E.), with a wide and powerful current. Its chief affluents are the Reuss and the Limmath; the former rising on the N.W. side of Mount St. Gothard, receives the waters of lakes Lucerne and Zug, while the latter rises in the Oberland Alps, and runs through the lake of Zurich, both joining the Aar on its E. bank, about a mile from each other; both are navigable except during the spring floods, but owing to the rapidity of the current boats ascend easily.

Below Basle the Rhine is joined by many large tribs., the most important of which enter from the E. or right bank. The first of these is the Neckar, which falls into the main river at Mannheim, about 314 m. below Basle. It rises in the Black Forest, about lat. 49° N., and 8° 30' E., and takes a very tortuous course, first N.E., subsequently N.W.W., and lastly W., of more than 180 m. It is navigable for large barges up to Heilbronn, and for small craft as far as Stuttgart. The Mayn, which enters the Rhine at Mayence, or Mainz, about 30 m. below Frankfurt, which is on its N. bank, is a most important tributary. Large river barges, vessels of 100 tons burden, ascend as high as Kitzingen, which is 165 m. from the mouth: its entire course is estimated at 320 m. (See MAYN.) The Lahn joins the Rhine about 48 m. below Mayence; it is about 140 m. long, but is not navigable above Limburg, 94 m. from the mouth. The Ruhr and the Lippe are two other considerable tribs. on the E. side; both navigable for about 100 m. The principal affluent on the W. bank is the Moselle, which rises on the W. side of the Vosges, at an elevation of 2,350 ft., and after flowing past Nancy, Metz, and Trèves (near which it is joined by the Sarre), enters the main river at Coblenz, after a course of 280 m. The confluence of the Meurthe, 160 m. below the source, marks the extent of the navigation. The Meuse, or Maas, rises in the deep. of the Upper Marne, on one of the W. offsets of the Vosges, and running with a tortuous course, somewhat like the letter S, past St. Mihiel, Verdun, Sedan, Mézières, Namur, Liege, and Maestricht, joins the Waal, or principal stream of the delta, near Gorkum, below which, as already observed, the main stream assumes the name of Maas down to its mouth.

The geology of the valley of the Rhine has been rather extensively investigated by Boué, Von Buch, Brongniart, and other French naturalists. The bed of the Upper Rhine, from its source to the Chur, is formed of primitive rocks, chiefly gneiss and porphyritic granite; but at this point, granitic blue limestone, and old red sandstone become the prevailing rocks, as far as the lake of Constance, where they are succeeded by tertiary formations, probably of more recent date than the gypsaceous strata of the Paris basin. Secondary and tertiary rocks line the river from Basle to the Neckar; but from this point to Bingen, below the confluence of the Mayn, granite, gneiss, and mica-schist form the substance of the high crags that line the river on both sides. Lower down the cliffs are composed of secondary limestone, with superimposed strata of new red sandstone, and in some parts volcanic rocks are found curiously interspersed with the inferior chalk strata. The coal formations are found in the upper parts of the Ruhr and Lippe, this part of Rhenish Prussia furnishing the chief supply of that mineral for the purposes of steam-navigation. Below Düsseldorf the tertiary rocks are replaced by diluvial and alluvial formations, which form the subsoil of the delta. Geologists, however, are of opinion that the numerous islands in this intricate delta have been formed not so much by deposits brought down by the river, as by the broads which the sea is continually making on this coast. (*Lyll's Geol.* ii. 53.; and *Encyclopédie Méthod.*, art. *Rhin*.)

The scenery of the Rhine has been justly admired by travellers. Wildness and rude grandeur characterise it in the defiles above the lake of Constance, and the country from the Unter-See westward, as far as Rheinfelden, 6 m. above Basle, is almost equally romantic. But at this point the character of the scenery changes, and the river, formerly an inconsiderable feature in the landscape, becomes a broad and majestic stream, flowing as far as Mannheim through a rich open valley, from 30 to 50 m. in breadth. The banks there begin to be more bold and rocky; but the scenery most generally admired is chiefly between Mayence and Coblenz. The Rhine here pursues a meandering course,

pent between lofty and craggy mountains, and resembles rather a succession of lakes than a river. Here, indeed,

The river nobly foams and flows,
The charm of this enchanted ground,
And all its thousand turns disclose
Some fresher beauty varying round.

(*Childe Harold*.)

"These mountains, however, are after all only mountains in miniature. They have often, indeed, the steepness, rudeness, and overhanging ridges of the mountains bordering the Rhine; but, as compared to them in size, they are but molehills. The groves on the hill-sides are few and far between; but there is no grove without a church spire rising in the midst, and overtopping the trees. Frequently a daring and fantastic cliff, crowned by an ancient castle, frowns over the river, or rises majestically from the brow of the steep; but the woods, unlike those of the Rhine, look like plantations, and the vines obtrude an unceasing idea of the artificial." (*Leitch Ritchie's Travelling Sketches on the Rhine*, p. 79.)

The Rhine, with its various affluents, comprises a navigation of about 1,500 m., and, in a commercial point of view, is perhaps the most important river in Europe, owing to the numerous states to which it affords a water conveyance. The following table exhibits the extent of the states, or portions of the states, included within the valley of this great river:—

Switzerland	12,400 sq. m.	Prussia	51,152 sq. m.
France	15,000	German States	4,100
Austria	860	Belgium	6,100
Baden	4,444	Netherlands	6,630
Bavaria	10,000		
Wurtemberg	5,380		83,336

The navigation of the Rhine has always been of considerable importance, but since the employment of steamers, and the abolition of the tolls, and other political obstacles to its free use, its importance as a channel of navigation and importance has been immeasurably increased. Vessels of large burden ascend the river to Cologne and Strasburg is reached by those of 80 or 90 tons. Recently, however, steamers have been regularly established on the Upper Rhine, between Strasburg and Basle, and an astonishing increase has taken place in the number of passengers, and the quantity of goods passing up and down the river. In 1827, for example, the number of passengers conveyed along the Rhine, in the Prussian territories, amounted to only 34,453; whereas, in 1836, they amounted to 146,961, and now (1841) exceed 300,000! The increase in the quantity of merchandises conveyed along this great international highway has been equally great; and its importance will, no doubt, be still more rapidly increased by the opening of railways, and improved methods of communication with the great cities on its banks.

Besides the goods conveyed up and down the Rhine in steamers and sailing vessels, immense quantities of timber are sent down in the form of rafts. The smaller rafts from the Upper Rhine, and the smaller affluents of the river, used formerly to rendezvous at Namey, near Andernach, where they were consolidated into rafts of a larger size, that were sent down the river to Dordrecht, where they were generally broken up, and the timber sold and forwarded to its final destination. Of late years, however, the plan of constructing very large rafts has begun to fall into disuse, though, as they are still sometimes met with, the reader may not be displeased to have them described.

"A little below Andernach the little village of Namey appears on the left bank, under a wooded mountain. The Rhine here forms a bay, where the pilots are accustomed to unite together the small rafts of timber floated down the tributary rivers into the Rhine, and to construct enormous rafts, which are navigated to Dordrecht, and sold. These machines have the appearance of a floating village, composed of 12 or 15 little wooden huts, on a platform of oak and deal timber. They are frequently 800 or 900 feet in length, and 60 or 70 in breadth. The rowers and workmen sometimes amount to 700 or 800, superintended by pilots, and a proprietor, whose habitation is superior in size and elegance to the rest. The raft is composed of several layers of trees, placed one on the other, and bound together: a large raft draws not less than 6 or 7 feet of water. Several smaller ones are attached to it, by way of protection, besides a string of boats loaded with anchors and cables, and used for the purpose of sounding the river and going on shore. The domestic economy of an East Indian or an English man of war is hardly more complete. Poultry, pigs, and other animals, are to be found on board; and several butchers are attached to the suite. A well supplied boiler is at work night and day in the kitchen; the dinner hour is announced by a basket stuck on a pole, at which signal the pilot gives the word of command, and the workmen run from all quarters to receive their messes. The consumption of provisions in the voyage to Holland is almost incredible; sometimes amounting to 40,000 or 50,000 pounds of bread; 18,000 or 20,000 of

fresh, besides a quantity of salted meat; and butter, vegetables, &c., in proportion. The expenses are so great, that a capital of three or four hundred florins is considered necessary to undertake a raft. Their navigation is a matter of considerable skill, owing to the abrupt windings, the rocks, and shallows of the river; and some years ago the secret was thought to be monopolised by a boatman of Ridesheim and his sons." (*Autumn on the Rhine*.)

The *Rhenus*, or Rhine (Gr. *Ῥῆνος*), became first known to the Romans by the conquest of Julius Caesar, who crossed it twice to punish the Germans. It is thus described by him—*Rhenus ortus ex Lepontia qui Alpes incolunt, et longo spatio per finces Nantuniarum, Helvetiorum, Sequanorum, Mediomatricorum, Tribuorum, Treverorum clatus ferit; et ubi occurrit appropinquat, in ripas diffusi partis multas ingentibusque insulis efficitur. pars magis a finis barbaricis nationibus incolitur, (ex quibus non qui placidius atque viri avium vivere custodiuntur), multaque capitibus in oceanum influunt.* (Bell. Gall. iv. 16.) Ancient writers, though agreed with respect to its general course, differ respecting the number of mouths by which it falls into the ocean. Tacitus (Ann. ii. 6.) speaks of two only, one of which, probably the modern Waal, he terms *Fahala*, and the other *Rhenus*. Pliny and Ptolemy, however, say that there were three mouths, the most northerly of which, called *Flevum*, was supposed to have been formed by a channel dug by Drusus, to connect the Rhine with the IJssel, which is most probably, identical with the Yssel, as Pomponius Mela (iii. 2.) assures us that it fell into the lake *Flevo*, or modern *Zuyder Zee*. No doubt, however, the channels of the river in the delta must have silted, both prior and subsequently to the accounts given by the classical writers; besides which, the inroads made by the sea on the coast of Holland render it impossible to ascertain what may have been the exact number of its mouths at any very remote period. (*Encyclopédie Method. art. 'Ain; Brugnot, Orig. de l'Europe; Conversations critiques; Angles Switzerland, &c. &c.*)

RHINE (PROVINCE OF). A prov. containing the portion of the Prusso-Rhenish states; having N. Holland, E. the prov. of Westphalia, Nassau, and other German states, S. France, and W. the latter, Belgium, & Holland. It lies between 49° 15' and 52° N. lat., and 9° 15' E. long. Area, 16,000 sq. m. Pop., in 1846, 63,080, of whom 2,074,153 are Catholics, and 658,874 Protestants. Principal towns Aix-la-Chapelle, Cologne, Biele, Dusseldorf, Elberfeld, Treves, Bonn, &c. It is divided into 3 regencies, and these again into 59 *kreis*. Principal rivers, Rhine, which traverses almost the whole extent of the prov. Moselle, Saar, Roer, &c. face very various. Its E. part to the N. of the Moselle consists principally of volcanic mountains, and a part of the same sort (Eifel Gebirge) runs across the border between Malmédy and Coblenz. The debris of igneous rocks being particularly suitable for the growth of the vine, it is very extensively cultivated; the produce of the vines of the Rhine and the Moselle being valued at about 700,000 emers a year, though but little is exported. Exclusive of wine, the principal raw materials consist of potatoes, corn, flax and hemp, timber, &c. &c. Manufactures in the Lower Rhine are both extensive and flourishing. In the town of Aix-la-Chapelle, Malmédy, Montjoie, &c., along the Netherlands frontier, and in Elberfeld, Barmen, and others to the N. of the Rhine, improved machinery is to be met with, and the manufacture of fine woollen cloths, castles, fine and coarse cottons, silks, &c. is prosecuted with great vigour and success. The iron works and arms manufactures are also important and valuable.

RHODE ISLAND, the smallest state of the N. American Union, in N. England, comprising a territory on the N. Narragansett Bay, having N. and E. Massachusetts, W. Connecticut, and S. the Atlantic. Area, 350 sq. m. Pop., in 1840, 108,380. This state takes its name from an island in Narragansett Bay, 13 length, by 3 m. in width; besides which, it includes several small islands in the Atlantic. Surface very broken and hilly; soil moderately productive. Rivers numerous; the principal are the Pawtucket and Narragansett; they all have their embouchure in Narragansett Bay, a fine sheet of water, extending more than 10 m. inland, and having several good harbours. Wheat, rye, oats, and in some places wheat, are produced in quantities sufficient for home consumption; cider is raised for exportation; artificial grasses are raised in quantities; cattle of a good breed; but the inhabitants have applied themselves more to commerce, manufactures, and manufactures than to agriculture. Marble, and freestone, are among the minerals there are extensive beds of anthracite coal; though good, has been hitherto little wrought. Manufactures, cotton and woollen goods, carding, and machinery; there are, also, calico printing and bleaching works, and numerous iron foundries. The value of the exports in 1849 amounted to

172,591 dollars, and that of the imports to 227,478 do. In the same year there belonged to the state 43,425 tons shipping. PROVIDENCE (which see) is the chief commercial town; and with Newport, the cap. and seat of government. Bristol, Warwick, and Coventry are the other principal towns. Rhode Island is the only state in the Union without a written constitution: it continues to be governed by the provisions of the old royal charter. The governor and lieutenant-governor are chosen annually; and with 31 other members, compose the senate. The House of Representatives consists of 69 members, elected annually. The General Assembly, composed of these two chambers, meets once a year. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, and a court of common pleas for each of the five coes. in the state. The judges, who receive no fixed salary, continue in office till removed by a vote of the General Assembly. The state appropriates 25,000 dollars a year for the support of common schools; a larger sum is raised by the towns for the same purpose, and the instruction fund receives considerable aid from private contributions. The most numerous religious sects are Baptists and Congregationalists. The militia of the state consists of all able-bodied males between 18 and 45 years of age, with but few exceptions. There were 63 banks in Rhode Island in 1849, the aggr. capital of which amounted to 11,240,398 dollars. This state was first settled, in 1639, by a person of the name of Williams, banished from Massachusetts, on account of his religious opinions. Williams obtained a charter for Rhode Island and Providence Plantations in 1644; but, in 1663, the present ruling charter was granted by Charles II. Rhode Island suffered greatly during the revolutionary war. It sends two representatives to congress.

RHODES, a famous island of the Mediterranean, off the S.W. coast of Asia Minor (an. *Lycia* and *Caria*), 10 m. S. Cape Volpe; the city of Rhodes, at the N.E. extremity of the island, being in lat. 36° 26' 53" N., long. 28° 12' 51" E. It is about 45 m. in length, N.E. and S.W., and is, where broadest, about 18 m. across. Pop., according to Savary, 36,500, of whom rather more than a third are Greeks; but Turner says it does not exceed 20,000. Probably it may be estimated at about 25,000, a number that would have been insufficient in antiquity to have peopled one of its three cities. A chain of mountains runs lengthwise from one end of the island to the other; their highest summit, Mount Artemis (an. *Alabyrus*, on which was a temple of Jupiter), commanding a noble view of the island and of the adjacent shores of Asia Minor. In antiquity this mountain chain was covered with dense forests of pine, whence the Rhodians drew supplies of timber for their fleets, and in modern times it has supplied considerable quantities for the dockyards of Constantinople. Speaking generally, the soil in the lower parts is dry and sandy; but it has some fine valleys, and is well watered by the numerous streams that descend from the mountains. In antiquity it was famous for its fertility—

A region pregnant with the fertile seed

Of plants, and herbs, and fruits, and fruitful grain:

Each verdant hill unsunder'd flocks dense flocks

Unnumber'd men possess each flowery plain.

PURBACH, by WEST: *Olympic Odes*, No. 7.

But, owing to the insecurity and extortion of which the inhab. have been long the victims, its agriculture is in the most depressed state, many of its finest fields being allowed to lie waste, and the island not producing corn sufficient even for its scanty population. Its wheat is still, however, of the finest quality; but, according to the statement of Mr. Turner, its wine, which he calls "tolerable, red, and sharp," must have sadly degenerated from that mentioned by Virgil as being fit for the feasts of the gods!—

Non ego te, Ditis et menibus acceptis secunda

Transierim, Rhodias, et tumidis, bumaste, racemis.

Georg. lib. ii. lin. 101.

It also produces oil, oranges, citrons, and other fruits; and, but for the grinding despotism by

Q q 3

which it is weighed down, it might produce, in profusion, most necessities and luxuries. Marble is quarried in several parts of the island.

The climate of Rhodes (*claram Rhodon, Hor.*) is probably the finest in the Mediterranean. "It is," says Dr. Clarke, "a truly delightful spot; and its gardens are filled with delicious fruit. Here, as in Cos, every gale is scented with the most powerful fragrance, wafted from groves of orange and citron trees. Numberless aromatic herbs exhale, at the same time, such profuse odour, that the whole atmosphere seems to be impregnated with a spicy perfume. The present inhabitants of the island confirm the ancient history of its climate; maintaining that hardly a day passes throughout the year in which the sun is not visible." (*Travels*, lii. 278. 8vo. ed.) The heat, which otherwise would have been oppressive, is tempered by the wind, which blows with little variation from the N. and N.W.

The only beasts of burden used in the island are mules and donkeys, there being no camels, and but few horses, and those only belonging to the richer Turks. Partridges are very abundant. Various species of excellent fish, with coral and sponges, are found in the adjacent sea.

The city of Rhodes is situated, as already stated, at the N.E. extremity of the island. It is built amphitheatrically, on ground rising gently from the water's edge; and is strongly fortified, having a moated castle of great size and strength, and being surrounded by walls, flanked with towers. These works were constructed by its former masters, the knights of St. John; and Mr. Turner says, that though he had known nothing of the history of the island, he should have perceived that its fortifications were the work of the same master hand that had constructed those of Malta. (II. 11.) The town consists generally of narrow winding lanes and mean houses. When in possession of the knights it had many substantial stone houses, some of which, as well as the public buildings, were ornamented with the arms of the knights in *alto rilievo*; but the greater number of these houses are now in a state of ruin, and such as have been rebuilt in their stead are mere wooden fabric. Contrary to what might have been expected, the best streets in the city are in the quarter inhabited by the Jews. The Greeks occupy a distinct quarter, behind and S.E. from the city properly so called. On the land side the city is surrounded by a burying-ground; and beyond it are the suburbs, consisting of detached and finely situated houses, surrounded by gardens, many of which, however, are said to be unoccupied. The ancient palace of the Grand Master is now the residence of the Pacha; the large and fine church of St. John is the principal mosque, and the grand hospital has been converted into a public granary. It has two harbours: the smallest, a fine basin, with a narrow entrance, is protected on all sides from the wind; but the Turks having allowed filth and sand to accumulate in the entrance, it can now be used only by the smaller class of vessels: the other harbour is much larger, and has deep water, but is safe only during westerly winds, those from the N.E. throwing in a heavy sea; on this account large vessels prefer anchoring in the roads in 21 fathoms water, from its being more convenient for getting out to sea, in the event of the wind setting in strong from the N.E. A lighthouse is erected on a mole between the two harbours. Several ships for the Turkish navy have been built at Rhodes; but the trade of the town is quite inconsiderable. There are some, though but few, remains of antiquity in the city: the barbarism of its Saracenic and Turkish conquerors, and the recurrence of destructive earthquakes, having destroyed most memorials of its former splendour.

Historical Notice.—Rhodes was early distinguished by its wealth, its naval power, the wisdom of its laws and institutions, and its superiority in art and science. Theopompus, a prince of Rhodes, distinguished himself at the siege of Troy; and the island could then boast of the then famous cities of Lindus, Jalyus, and Camirus. The city of Rhodes is much less ancient, having been founded during the Peloponnesian war. But its advantageous situation, and the excellence of its harbour,

soon gave it a decided superiority over the other towns of the island, many of whose inhab. withdrew to it; and it was, in fact, one of the best built and most magnificent cities of the ancient world. It had been constructed with the greatest regularity; its streets being wide and straight, and the houses in each being of the same height and built on the same model. Pliny calls it *ciuitas libera et pulcherrima* (*Hist. Nat.* lib. v. cap. 31.); and Strabo, who had seen Rome, Alexandria, and other great cities of the ancient world, gives the preference to Rhodes. "The beauty," says he, "of its harbours, streets, and walls, and the magnificence of its monuments, render it so much superior to all other cities, as to admit of no comparison." (*Lib. xiv.*) Its temples, especially those dedicated to Bacchus, Diana, Isis, &c., were celebrated alike for the magnificence of the building, and the statues and paintings with which they were enriched. In the noble ode already referred to, written about 500 years B.C., Pindar alludes as follows to the excellence of the Rhodians in statuary:—

Thence in all arts the sons of Rhodes excel;
The best their forming hands the cities pride:
This in each street the breathing marbles tell,
The stranger's wonder, and the city's pride.

The most famous of the works of art in Rhodes were two pictures, of the most transcendent merit, by Protogenes, the contemporary and rival of Apelles (*Strabo*, lib. xiv.; *Pliny*, *Hist. Nat.* lib. xxxv. cap. 10.), and the Colossus, the work of Chares of Lindus, deservedly reckoned one of the wonders of the world. This magnificent brazen statue, erected in honour of Apollo, the tutelary deity of Rhodes, is said to have been 70 cubits (about 108 ft.) in height, and of the most admirable proportions. It was set up about anno 278 a.c., and was thrown down by an earthquake 56 years thereafter; and it is a curious fact that it lay where it fell for nearly 890 years, or till A.D. 667, when the island, having been taken by the Saracens, they broke the statue to pieces, and sold the brass. Blaise de Vignerot, a writer of the 16th century, stated, for the first time, that the Colossus stood with a foot on each side the entrance to the port, and that the largest vessels, under full sail, passed between its legs. This story, which carries absurdity on its face, and for which there is not a shadow of authority in any ancient writer, having been adopted by Rollin, has thence found its way into most modern works. (*Pliny*, lib. xxxiv. cap. 7.; *Rollin*, *Hist. Ancienne*, iv. 137. 4to ed.; *Savary's Letters on Greece*, Eng. trans., 63.; *Biographie Universelle*, art. *Chares*.) Exclusive of this matchless work, Rhodes had 105 colossal statues; each of which might, according to Pliny (*loc. cit.*), have sufficed to illustrate the town.

The wealth of the Rhodians was derived partly from the fertile soil and advantageous situation of their island, but more from their extensive commerce and commercial navigation, and the wisdom of their laws, especially those having reference to maritime affairs. Such, indeed, was the estimation in which the latter were held, that the rule of the Rhodian law *de iactu* was expressly embodied in the Digest (lib. xix. tit. 2.), and has been thence adopted into all modern codes. Indeed, the fair presumption seems to be that most of the regulations as to maritime affairs included in the civil law were derived from the same source.

Rhodes was also famous for its science and literature. Æschines, on his retirement from Athens, opened a school of rhetoric in this city; and towards the termination of the Roman republic, and under the early emperors, Rhodes was held, as a school of eloquence, literature, and philosophy, to be little, if at all, inferior even to Athens; and these, combined with the genial temperature of the climate, and the luxurious refinement of the capital city, made it be resorted to by some of the most illustrious individuals of whom Rome has to boast, including, among others, Pompey and Cicero. Julius Cæsar, too, had set out to study at Rhodes, and was only prevented by being captured on his voyage by pirates. (*Suetonius*, lib. i. cap. 4.) Tiberius resided for about 7 years in the island. It seems also to have been a favorite retreat of the Romans who wished to withdraw from the factions and turmoil of Rome. (*Cicero*, *Epist. ad Fam.* lib. ii. epist. 26.)

The government of Rhodes, which, like that of most other Greek cities, was originally monarchical, was subsequently changed into a democracy, and thence into an aristocracy; under which it enjoyed a degree of tranquillity and prosperity to which most Grecian cities were strangers. It was taken by Mausolus, king of Caria, but recovered its independence under his widow, the famous Artemisia. From this period Rhodes continued to enjoy profound peace, till it was attacked by Demetrius, the son of Antigonus, one of Alexander's successors. The siege of the city of Rhodes by Demetrius is one of the most celebrated in ancient history; but all the science and efforts of Demetrius were defeated by the bravery and resolution of the Rhodians, and he was compelled to raise the siege, anno 303 a.c., after it had continued

ear. The expense of the colossus was mostly from the sums received by the Rhodians for the land and other engines used by Demetrius in the which he gave up to them. It may be worth notice the fact, mentioned by Hume, that this is the only example to be found in antiquity of ransom of a cartel for the exchange of prisoners. (See on the Populoussness of Ancient Nations.) Rhodians were subsequently ranked among the of the allies of Rome; they repulsed Mithridate made an attack on their city, and continued their liberty till the reign of Vespasian, when was made a Roman province. The island was taken by the emperor Sapor, being recovered by the emperor, it was presented, in 1306, by the Emanuel, to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem till 1522, when, after a desperate resistance taken by the Turks, under whose barbarous despotism it has sunk to the miserable condition which we now find it. "Beauty and mildness, fertility of soil, variety and abundance of nongreable articles, a situation favourable for enterprise and a prosperous trade, nothing is to this fine island, except to be delivered from a who possess, in so eminent a degree, the fatal converting the most happy abode into a spot to be avoided." (Savary's Greece, book 1, ch. 1, key 1. 166. Eng. trans. see, also, exclusively of already referred to, *Anc. Universal History*, -212, 8vo. ed.; *Savary's Greece, Letters XII. l.; Voyage d'Anacharsis*, chap. 73.; *Schomburgk's on the Maritime Laws of Rhodes*, passim, &c.) DEZ or RODEZ (*anc. Segodunum*), a town of dept. Aveyron, of which it is the cap., on a hill he Aveyron, 153 m. E. by S. Bordeaux; lat. 44° N., long. 3° 24' 29" E. Pop. in 1836, 11,773. Like most other very old towns, it is flanked steep, narrow, dirty, and dark from the m of the upper stories. The neighbourhood is, again, a small and low town, and the aspect from without, is closely surrounded dens and planted promenades. Almost the only north notice is the cathedral, a Gothic building, ted between the 12th and 16th centuries. Its er, which, it is said, may be seen at a distance of 0 m., is 266½ ft. high, square for two thirds its he octagonal, ornamented with delicate tracery, with a small cupola and a colossal statue of gin; it has minarets at each corner, on the sum- which are figures of the four evangelists. This is rich in arabesques, and has a fine organ. The palace, prefecture, royal college, formerly be- a palace, a theatre, a public library, a school, a town-hall, hospital, convent of Cordeliers of the 14th century, &c., are the other chief edifices. There is a bishop's see, and has courts of primary tion and commerce, a chamber of manufactures, of drawing, and for deaf and dumb persons; tures of coarse woollens for clothing troops, x candles, and playing cards; and some trade in wool, coarse linens, &c. It has four annual fairs. vicinity many mules are bred. Rhodes was an- to the dom. of the crown by Henry IV. (*Hugo*, *supra*, &c.) (Rhone, *anc. Rhodanus*), a celebrated river of S. W. rising in the Pennine Alps, traversing portions of Switzerland and France, and falling into the Mediter- between lat. 43° 19' and 46° 18' N., and long. 4° 20' E. Length, 560 m.; estimated area of basin, q. m. The highest source of this river is on the of the great mass of St. Gothard, between the Gailenstock, and Grimsel, at an elevation of above the sea; but it scarcely assumes the form river till its junction with three or four other s at the foot of the glacier of its own name, a bean- shaped cluster of ice, the lower edge of which is above the sea. Its course through the Valais is W. to Martigny, where it is joined by the Rhodan, the height of the river at this point being 5,523 e the sea; but here the stream assumes a N. N. W. on for about 24 m., entering the lake of Geneva at of 1,326 ft. above the sea, bringing with it a de- mud which has partially filled all the upper part lake. (*Lyeil's Geology*, l. 233, 324.) The Rhone, ing this lake at the town of Geneva, where it is l by two bridges, is soon afterwards joined by the and then enters a rocky defile between the Alps a chain, taking a S. W. direction for about 22 m., as the gorge called the *Porte du Rhone*, where it is hidden by limestone rocks nearly meeting the stream. Its course thence is nearly due S. to the city of St. Genes, at which point the river is still above the sea. Here, however, it takes a sudden o the W. N. W. which direction it maintains with ceptions to its junction with the Saone at Lyons, erage fall from the lake of Geneva to this city (a

distance of about 120 m. along the stream being estimated at somewhat more than 5 c. per mile. The *Perle du Rhone* is thus described by Mr. Bakewell as "a river, before arriving at *la Perle*, runs in a narrow bed, cut in soft clay strata reposing on a hard calcareous stratum; but on reaching this stratum, the waters have excavated a deep tunnel in it, into which they fall with considerable force; the rocks on each side approaching so close, that before the space was widened by the Sardinian government, to prevent smuggling, a man might have strode across and seen the Rhone pass at a great depth between his feet. This tunnel is divided half-way down by projecting ledges of rock into an upper and lower channel. In winter and early in spring the river runs below these ledges, and is so cooled, in one place, that masses of rock have fallen down, and entirely covered the lower bed of the river for about 60 yds. This part may be traversed when the river is low; but in summer, during the melting of the Alpine snows, it is much enlarged and flows over the intervening rocks." The Rhone was in this state at the time of Mr. Inglis's visit; and to this circumstance may be traced the disappointment felt by that traveller. (*Bakewell's Travels*, iii. 265, 266.; *Inglis's Switzerland*, p. 175.) The Rhone leaves the hilly country a few miles E. of Lyons, where it is deep, transparent blue, and very rapid waters are mingled with the N. by the sluggish and muddy stream of the Saône. The difference between these two rivers, that for many miles below Lyons, flows side by side, the E. portion being clear and blue, the other of a muddy yellow colour. The course of the Rhone close to the city is from N.N.E. to S.S.W.: it has a medium breadth of about 650 ft., and is so liable to inundations that embankments have been formed to protect the town and its suburbs. From Lyons the united stream holds a course nearly due S. to the Mediterranean, receiving numerous streams both from the W. and E., but chiefly the latter: the Isère, a considerable river, rising on Mount Cenis, joins it between Tournon and Valence; and the Aigne (where the Rhone is 117 ft. above the sea), it is joined by the Durance, a rapid and turbid stream, which collects the waters from the western face of the maritime Alps.

The Rhone enters the Mediterranean by four mouths: the first separation occurs at Arles, where two branches are formed: one called the great Rhone, running S.E., the other known as the little Rhone, pursuing a S.W. course, and both together enclosing the alluvial island of Camargue, which has an area of about 1,900 sq. m. Each of these again bifurcates a short distance above the mouth; but the E. channels are those only which admit of safe navigation. The Rhone, which has a very rapid course to Valence, and a Aigne down to the delta, discolours the Mediterranean as it flows into it, and there is every reason to suppose that there has been a constant, though slow, advance of the base of the delta during the last 18 centuries: indeed, Mese (an *Mæria Colida*), stated by Pomp. Mela to be almost an island, is now far inland; and Notre Dame des Ports, a harbour in the 9th century, is now a league from the sea. The confluence of the Rhone with the currents of the Mediterranean forms bars across the mouths of the river, and by these means considerable spaces become divided off from the sea, and subsequently from the river also, when it floods its channels of efflux. Some of these lagoons being subject to the occasional greatness of the river when fooded, and of the duration of the storms, are very dry and brackish and salt. Others, after being filled from the sea, become more salt by evaporation, and are, in fact, natural salterns. The sea, opposite the mouth of the Rhone, deepens gradually from 4 to 40 fathoms within a distance of 6 or 7 m., the bottom being characterised by very curious alternations of marine and freshwater shells. (*Lepell's Geology*, i. 341-345.)

Among the tribes of the Rhone, by far the most important is the Saône (an *Arar*), which rises on the Vosges, in that mass of high land which gives origin also to the Meuse, the Moselle, and the Meurthe: the source is at Viomenet, 200 ft. above the sea. Its course is, though generally S.E.W. as far as Chalons; 18 m. above which it receives on its E. bank the waters of the Doubs. This river rises at an elevation of 3,830 ft. above the sea, in one of the longitudinal valleys of the Jura mountains; and after running N.N.E. for about 60 m. is suddenly deflected southward by Mount Terrible, whence its course is S.W. past Beauneçon, to its confluence with the main river. The general direction of the Saône from Chalons is S. by W., past Macon, Trevoux, &c.; and the average fall from the former place to its junction with the Rhone at Lyons scarcely exceeds 1 ft. per mile; and the channel being extremely tortuous, it has a very slow current. (*Infant's Secretaire tentiste, les us occulta, les secrets de la nature*, *Journal de l'agriculture*, &c., vol. i. cap. 12.) Its waters are charged with marl, sand, and the debris of Jura limestone. The Isère and Durance have already been mentioned. They are extremely rapid, charged with deposit from the secondary strata flanking

the main ridge of the Alps. The only considerable W. trib. is the Ardèche, rising in the Cévennes, not far from the Loire.

Owing to the rapidity of its current, the Rhone was formerly of comparatively little use in navigation, the principal trade being carried on by vessels down the stream, mostly from Lyons to Beaucaire, the boats that ascended the river being usually dragged up by horses. But since the introduction of steamers, a vast impulse has been given to the navigation; the Rhone, Saône, and their greater affluents, have become important channels of intercourse; and their basins are now improving more rapidly than any other part of France. We extract the following details from the interesting work of Mr. Maclaren, who sailed down the Saône and Rhone, from Chalons to Marseilles:—

"I left Chalons at six A.M., and reached Lyons by the steam-boat at two, distance about 85 m. The fare was only 4 francs. From Lyons to Avignon the fare is 50 fr., the distance about 170 m.; at times about 13 or 14 hours per steam-boat. The steam-boats are English built, and worked by English engineers. They are about 100 ft. long, 25 wide, and are neat and commodious, though by no means splendid. They are very flat in the bottom, drawing only about 24 inches of water. The Rhone is full of sandbanks, which, owing to the rapidity of the current, are continually shifting, and vessels drawing a greater depth than two ft. cannot navigate the river with safety. The English engineer told me that his steam-boat went about nine m. an hour in still water; the current adds about five m. going down, and deducts as much going up; so that she moves at the rate of 14 m. the one way, and 4 the other.

"The Rhone passes through one of the most beautiful, picturesque, and delightful regions in the world. It is one continued vineyard, skirted and sheltered by mountains from 500 to 2,000 ft. in height, presenting every variety of form and aspect,—now round and smooth—now rugged and peaked—now bare and sterile—now clothed with vines or mulberries, or cut into terraces, and carefully cultivated to their summits. Mount Pilatre, and others of the high Cévennes, on the W., and the Alps on the E., capped with snow, appear through openings in the lateral chains at intervals. The valley is often contracted to a space of one m.; again it spreads out in the form of a rich plain, to a breadth of 10 or 12 m. Twenty times the river appears closed in by the hills, and you are puzzled to conjecture where it escapes, till a bend in its course clears up the mystery. To the natural beauties of the country are added those which it derives from the industry and taste of its inhabitants. There is an almost unbroken line of large towns, villages, hamlets, cottages, and neat villas, along each side of the river, and not merely on its banks, but reaching back to the mountains. The glittering cultivated lands, give vivacity to the scene, and fill the mind with images of peace, abundance, security, and contentment. From Chalons to Marseilles, the marks of progress meet the eye everywhere. The whole district, 270 m. in length, is advancing with giant strides. At every step, in descending the river, we meet with houses or manufactories building, quays forming on the river, bridges erecting, roads or towing paths, or embankments making. Two facts will show that this is no exaggeration. It is only eight years since steam-boats were introduced; and there are now six plying between Chalons and Lyons, and ten between Lyons and the sea, though the coal they use is brought from England, and costs about 50s. a ton. It is but ten years since suspension-bridges were heard of in the district; yet in the short intervening space, the industrious inhabitants of these districts have erected fourteen suspension-bridges over the Saône, and twelve over the Rhone. I doubt if there be as many at this moment in all England. And let it not be supposed that the bridges are paltry, or rude and imperfect works. They are light and elegant; the arches are often of great span, and the pathway is either level, or slightly and uniformly curved. Sometimes they have two arches, but in general three. The chains are sometimes single, but more commonly triple or quadruple; the suspension rods always single. The columns on the piers are sometimes slender obelisks of stone, sometimes thin tall slabs of cast iron. Taking them altogether, they are the lightest and most handsome structures I ever saw, and show great boldness, as well as skill and taste, in the engineer. But the fact on which I wish to fix attention is the enterprise, and the wealth which these works bespeak. The twenty-six bridges must have cost at least 200,000; and this sum has been raised by the public spirit of the district, and expended on one species of improvement, while many others were in progress." (*Notes on France*, &c., pp. 32–37.)

The basin of the Rhone is connected by canals with the other principal rivers of France. The canal of the Rhone and Rhine connects the Doubs with the Ill, an affluent of the Rhine; the Canal du Centre unites the

Saône to the Loire, and the canal of Burgundy connects the Saône with the Yonne, a navigable branch of the Seine; so that in this way the four principal rivers of France are all united. The navigation of the mouth of the Rhone is considerably improved by the canal of Arles, which runs close to the Great Rhone, and by the canal of Beaucaire, which leaves the river near the town of that name, and not only runs into the Mediterranean, but is joined by branch canals with the Canal du Midi, connecting the Garonne and the Bay of Biscay with the Loire by a railway, which passes through the important manufacturing town of St. Etienne. (*Saône-well's Travels*, li. 260–275.; *Lyell's Geol.* i. 340–345.; *Encycl. Méthodique*, art. *Rhône*.)

RHONE, a dép. of France, and next to that of the Seine, the smallest in the kingdom, though, from its containing the city of Lyons, it be among the most populous, reg. S. between lat. 45° 29' and 46° 18' N., and long. 4° 30' and 4° 55' E., having N. Saône-et-Loire, W. and S. Loire, and E. Ain and Isère, from which it is principally separated by the rivers Rhone and Saône. Length, N. to S., 55 m.; average breadth, about 20 m. Area, 279,081 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 545,536. Surface mostly mountainous, being covered with ramifications of the Cévennes. The dép. is well watered; but there are no navigable rivers, except the Rhone and Saône. In 1834 it was estimated that it had 142,120 hectares arable land, 36,399 ditto meadows, 30,562 vineyards, and 34,466 of woods. The produce of corn is far below the internal demand. The produce of wine, the chief source of agricultural wealth, is supposed to exceed 450,000 hectolitres a year. The wines produced in that portion of this dép. called the Beaujolais belong to the class of Macon wines. Of the other growths, probably the best is the Côte-Rôtie, a red wine raised near Ampuis. It is an excellent wine, possessing *du corps, du spiritueux, de la finesse, une saveur et un bouquet très-agréable*. (Jullien, p. 184.) It requires to be kept in the cask for five or six years before bottling. The white wines of Condrieux are also very good. The forests produce fine chestnuts; but the quantity of timber they yield is insufficient for the demand of the important manufacturing districts round Lyons and St. Etienne. Fortunately coal is abundant. Neither horned cattle, nor sheep are very numerous; but a great many goats are kept, and in some places they have been crossed with the breed of Thibet. From the milk of the goats on Mont d'Or a cheese is made which fetches a high price. The silkworm is reared in some places, but the culture of the mulberry appears to be diminishing. Rhone is rich in minerals. Besides coal, iron, copper, argentiferous, and in the dép. are the two most productive copper-mines in France, those of Chessy and St. Bel.

The principal manufacture is that of silk stuffs, which is carried upon a most extensive scale. It, however, has been fully noticed under the art. LYONS, to which the reader is referred. It has also manufactures of muslins at Tarare, linen and cotton thread at They and other towns, and of hardware, jewellery, glass, paper, paper hangings, chemical products, &c. In 1838, 81,044 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 31,384 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 12,356 at from 5 to 10 fr.; but 212 were assessed at upwards of 1,000 fr., exhibits a much greater proportion than ordinary of the larger class of properties.

Rhone is divided into two arrondis.; chief towns Lyons and Villefranche. It sends five mems. to the Ch. of Dep. Number of electors (1838–39), 4,361. Total public revenue (1831), 25,900,703 francs; expenditure, 18,301,371 francs. (*Hugo*, art. *Rhône*; *French Op. fiscal Tables*.)

RHONE, BOUCHES DU. See BOUCHES DU RHONE. RIAZAN, a gov. of European Russia, between lat. 53° and 55° 40' N., and long. 38° 20' and 41° 15' E.; having N. Vladimir, E. and S. Tambouf, and W. Tula and Moscow. Area, 16,500 sq. m. Pop., in 1846, 1,365,900. Surface generally flat. The Okla, running from W. to E., divides it into two unequal portions of very different aspect. The country S. of that river is more elevated; the air wholesome, and the soil fertile. In the N., on the contrary, the country is generally low, marshy, and covered with woods, or destitute of culture. More corn is grown than is required for home consumption; the average produce being between 5,000,000 and 6,000,000 chetabres a year. The forests, which are very extensive, cover about a third part of the surface: those belonging to the crown comprise about 428,000 deciatines, or 1,384,000 acres. Hops, tobacco, and garden vegetables are, in some districts, raised in large quantities. The proprietors of the pasture lands let them to graziers belonging to the Ukraine, who bring thither large herds. The breed of horses is good; the Russian gov. has a dépôt d'Etalons at Shopine. Bees are supposed to produce about 250,000 roubles a year. There are a few iron

nd stone quarries. Manufactures have made great progress. Those of glass and hardware occupy much of the town; and there are others of woollen, cotton, fabrics, cordage, potash, soap, &c., with dyeing, nents, tanneries, and distilleries. A portion of the manufactured goods is sent to Moscow, and by way of the Volga; but the principal exports are products of the gov., consisting of corn, rye, rye, rye, iron, timber and wooden articles. It is principally Russian; but partly of the Tartars.

Riazan is subdivided into 12 districts; chief among them are the cap., Zaratisk, and Kachimof. Education is backward. In 1832, the pupils at schools and seminaries amounted to only 1 in 334 of the population. Then, also, but one printing-press in the gov., a town of European Russia, cap. of the above is Troube, a tributary of the Oka, 110 m. S.W. of Riazan; lat. 54° 37' 41" N., long. 39° 15' 54" E. at 9,000. It consists of 2 distinct portions; an fortress, with an earthen rampart, inclosing churches, the episcopal palace, formerly the residence of the princes of Riazan, the consistory, &c.; town-proper, in which are also numerous with a fine edifice for the government-offices, a seminary and public library, hospital, &c. The town has greatly increased in size and importance in the last 50 years; but most of the houses are of wood, and planks occupy the place of paved streets. Riazan is the seat of a military garrison, and of the chief judicial courts of its gov. It is famous, to which a society of arts was attached school of drawing and architecture, founded for the children of official persons, &c.; and of the principal manufactures in the gov. The town of Riazan, destroyed by the Tartars in 1571, is distant about 33 m. S.E. (*Schmitzer, La Russie; usland, &c.*)

UVILLE (Germ. *Rappoltsweiler*), a town of p. Haut-Rhin, cap. cant., at the foot of the a. N. Colmar. Pop., in 1836, ex. com., 5,561. It is the remains of the old castle of Ribeauvillé in the immediate neighbourhood are some of fortresses, and the principal remains of the castle, called the *Heidenmauer* ("wall of the Paved at a remote period along the top of the ridge of the Vosges." It has manufactures of cotton handkerchiefs. It is a pari. and mun. bor., market-town, of England, the cap. of a district called hire, having a separate jurisdiction. W. div. of N. riding, co. York, on the declivity of a from the Swale, which half encircles the town, crossed here by a stone bridge, 11 m. S.W. and 41 m. N.N.W. York. Area of pari. bor., rises the par. of Richmond and Aske, 5,690 of town, in 1831, 4,000; ditto, in 1841, 4,300, which is most picturesquely situated, commands many points, very fine views of the Swale, city banks, and the well-wooded country. Its appearance is made more imposing by its castle and keep, built on a rock above the streets are irregularly laid out; but a broad avenue leads from the Darlington and roads into an extensive market-place, sur- the principal shops, town-hall, chapel-of- of the largest hotels in the N. of England (the assembly-rooms). In the centre of the town is a column, or cross, under which was a water, brought by pipes from the neighbour- of Aislbeck; but the supply being deficient, a new quantity has recently been brought from a new and larger reservoir has been con- its reception. The houses are mostly built sandstone; and the town, being well paved, gas, and kept remarkably clean, has a very nice. The church, built on a slope facing principally in the perpendicular style, with a tower; but some portions are clearly of

The living is a rectory in the gift of the or; but the perpetual curacy of the chapel- lately, been in the patronage of the cor- the Wesleyans and Baptists have places of there is a large Rom. Catholic chapel with school. The town has a national school, about 200 boys and girls, an infant school, schools. A free grammar-school, founded in 15, is well endowed with property under the of the corporation, who appoint its head natives, and the sons of residents within admitted gratis. The number of day- never, seldom exceeds 20; besides whom allowed to take boarders. The school had considerable distinction, having been der the superintendence of the eminent Rev. James Tate, whose eldest son is ad- master. Another free school, for com-

mercial purposes, is under the control of the corpora- tion; in whose hands, also, are several charity estates including endowments for almshouses. (See *Char. Comm. 7th Report*.) A scientific society and mechanics' institute have attached libraries, and there is a savings' bank. "There are no manufactures of importance at Richmond. Its market is a very considerable one for corn; but the quantity brought thither has recently de- creased, and the prospects of the town are not improv- ing. The failure of the lead-mines (about 12 m. higher up the river), the supply of corn from Ireland, and the facilities given by the railroad between Liverpool and Manchester, all contribute to its decline." (*Mun. Corp. Rep.*) It is, however, inhabited by many wealthy fam- ilies, who, with the neighbouring gentry, cause a pretty extensive retail trade. The training of race-horses is also a considerable business; and races are held annually in October, about a mile from the town, on a high moor, which has a commodious grand stand. About 14 m. N.N.W. is Aske Hall, a fine seat belonging to the Earl of Zetland; and near Catterick is Brough-hall, the re- sidence of Sir W. Lawson.

Richmond, which received its first royal charter in 13 Edw. III., and was incorporated in the 19 Eliz., is governed under the Mun. Reform Act, by a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 12 councillors. Corp. rev., in 1847-8, 1,634*l*. Quarter and petty sessions for the bor- are held under a recorder, and petty sessions for the wap. of West Gilling take place on alternate weeks. A civil court for the recovery of debts under 10*l*., another for the district of Richmondshire, and a court leet for the manor, are held occasionally; and there is a monthly ecclesiastical court, under the Archdeacon of Richmond. The bor. has returned 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the 27 Eliz., the right of election down to the Reform Act being in the holders of burgage tenures. The Boundary Act enlarged the limits of the bor. by the addition of the par. of Easby; and in 1849-50 it had 12 reg- ular electors. It is also one of the polling-places at elections for the N. riding of the co. Market on Saturday; three annual chartered and other fairs.

The history of Richmond is closely associated with that of its castle, founded by Alan, the first Earl of Richmond, who, having received from William the Conqueror the forfeited estates of the Earl of Mercia, built the castle and part of the town of Richmond, to protect his family and property. Under the Norman monarchs, the title and property were possessed by different families, allied to the blood royal; and in the contest between the houses of York and Lancaster, they also several times changed possessors, till at length they were vested in the crown by the accession of Henry, Earl of Richmond, to the throne, under the title of Henry VII. Since this epoch, the castle has been allowed to fall into partial decay. It still, however, bears marks of its former grandeur and import- ance. The keep tower, of which the walls are nearly entire, is a Norman structure, about 100 ft. in height, the walls being 11 ft. thick; the lower story is supported by a vast column in the middle, from which spring cir- cular arches, closing the top. The floors of the two up- per rooms have fallen in; but a modern wooden staircase leads to an older flight in the walls, by which the visitor may reach its summit, which commands an extensive and beautiful view of the surrounding country. The ruins of several other parts of the castle still remain, and latterly they have been partially repaired. In the S.E. corner of the area is a ruinous tower, in which is a dungeon, 13 or 14 ft. deep. The ground covered by the castle comprises nearly six acres: it belongs to the Duke of Richmond and Lennox, on whose ancestors it was conferred, with the title of duke, by Charles II. Here are also the ruins of a monastery of Gray Friars, the steeple of which is a remarkably fine specimen of the perpendicular style; and at Easby are extensive and highly interesting remains of an abbey, built in the 12th century, for Premonstratensian monks; the buildings are chiefly in the early English style; but the windows both of the chapel and refectory have some very elegant tracery, well worth examination. (*Richman's Arch.*, p. 276.)

RICHMOND (the Tivoli of London), a town and par. of England, upper div. hund. Kingston, co. Sur- rey, at the bottom, and on the slope and summit of an eminence rising from the S. bank of the Thames (crossed here by a handsome stone bridge of five arches), 10 m. W. by S. London. Area of par. 1,230 acres; pop., in 1841, 7,760. The principal street extends the whole length of the town, running along the ridge on its W. side to the summit of the hill, and being, in the lower parts, parallel to the river. The other streets are of very inferior importance. The houses in the lower part of the town are old-fashioned, and by no means large; but on the hill and outskirts are many handsome mansions occupied by families of distinction. The houses in the terrace and the Star and Garter Hotel, at the summit of the hill, command very exten- sive and noble prospects of the Thames and its rich val- ley, Windsor Castle being distinctly seen in the distance.

"Here let us sweep
The boundless landscape.
Heavens! what a goodly prospect spreads around,
Of hills and dales, and woods and lawns, and spires,
And glittering towns and glided streams, till all
The stretching landscape into smoke decays."
Thomson's *Summer*.

The church is a respectable structure, with a low embattled tower, and, till 1686, was a chapel-of-ease to Kingston, to the rector of which par. the patronage still belongs. It has been much enlarged and repaired within the last century; and contains the remains of Thomson, the poet of the *Seasons*, who died here on the 17th of Aug. 1748, of Dr. Moore, author of *Zeluco*, and of *Wives of Society in France*, Italy, &c., Gilbert Wakefield, the scholar, Kean, the actor, &c. A new district church has also been recently erected in the pointed style. There is a Rom. Cath. chapel, and the Independents, Baptists, Wesleyan and Calvinist Methodists, have places of worship, to most of which Sunday-schools are attached. A charity-school, founded here in 1713, and subsequently endowed, furnishes gratuitous instruction to about 250 poor children, 60 of whom receive clothing. There are also three sets of almshouses, with pretty considerable endowments, and numerous money charities. A theatre is open during summer, and there are several excellent hotels, that on the hill, already alluded to, being a very extensive establishment in a magnificent situation.

Richmond is infinitely more a place of pleasure than of business, though it has a considerable retail trade for the supply of the resident families and visitors. It is a principal resort of visitors from London during the summer months, conveyed thither partly by railway and partly by steamers and row boats: on the whole, however, the influx of visitors to Richmond, at least of the middle and lower classes, has materially diminished since the establishment of steamers on the river to Greenwich, Woolwich, Gravesend, &c.

Richmond park, the principal entrance to which is at the W. end of the terrace contiguous to the Star and Garter Hotel, formed by Charles I., comprises an area of 2,253 acres, being about 8 m. in circ. It consists mostly of poor soil; but has a great variety of surface, is well stocked with deer, and perfectly open to the public. The great lodge, which stands on rising ground, commanding a fine prospect, was built by Sir R. Walpole, ranger during the reigns of George I. and II., at an expense of 14,000*l*. Here, also, is a new or stone lodge, built for a hunting seat by George I., and given by George III. to Lord Sidmouth, by whom it was occupied till his death.

What is called the *Old Park* extends along the Thames from Kew to Richmond, and includes the royal garden and pleasure-grounds attached to Kew Palace (see Kew). This park is, however, inaccessible to the public, except on certain days; and is considered as belonging rather to Kew than to Richmond.

The *Green*, at the bottom of the town, forms a parallelogram almost as large as Lincoln's Inn Fields; it is used in summer for playing matches at cricket, bowls, &c.: on one side of the green is a handsome public walk, &c.

Richmond (formerly called *Saxen*) was for centuries the site of a royal palace; but at what period it was erected is uncertain, though it became a fixed residence of royalty as early as the 14th century. Henry V. rebuilt it in a magnificent style. Henry VII. held a tournament here, in 1492, soon after which, the building having been destroyed by fire, a new palace was erected by that monarch, who gave the manor its present name, being that of his own title, previously to his accession to the crown: he died here in 1509. But its principal distinction consists in the fact, that when the emperor Charles V. visited England in 1532, he was lodged in this palace. Queen Elizabeth was imprisoned in it by her sister Mary, and it afterwards became one of her favourite palaces, and here she died, on the 24th March, 1603. During the commonwealth, the palace was sold by the parliamentary commissioners for 10,782*l*.; and the whole appears to have been then dismantled and demolished, nothing now remaining except a few of the out-offices, its site being occupied by several modern mansions built on lease from the crown. On the N. side of the palace once stood a monastery, founded by Henry V. for Carthusian monks, the revenues of which, at the dissolution, were estimated at 963*l*. A Franciscan convent, founded here in 1494, by Henry VII., was suppressed with the other in 1539.

The custom of Borough English, by which, in the event of the father's dying intestate, lands descend to the youngest son, or, in default of heirs male, to the youngest daughter, prevails in the manor of Richmond.

RICHMOND, a city and port of entry of the U. S. of N. America, cap. state of Virginia, on James River, about 150 m. from its mouth in Chesapeake Bay, and 106 m. S. S. W. Washington; lat. 37° 30' N. long. 77° 31' W. Pop. in 1830, 16,760; in 1840, 20,153, and inc. its suburb of Manchester, on the opposite bank of the river, it may now (1850) have 30,000 inhabs. "The

situation of Richmond is very striking. The town is built on rising grounds of various shapes, descending to the eastward; but though it possesses every facility for being kept free from filth, it is the dirtiest city, with the worst kept pavements and streets, that I have seen in this country." (*Stuart, Three Years in America*, li. 72.)

The chief street is handsome and spacious; and there is a fine square, covering about 10 acres, planted with trees, and laid out in gravel walks. In this square is the capitol, an elegant building on the model of the *Maison carrée* at Nîmes, erected shortly after the war of independence. It has a statue of Washington, by Houdon. A public library has been established in the senate hall, which has also a portrait of Jefferson. Near it is the city hall, a neat Doric structure. The churches are numerous, and one occupies the site of the theatre destroyed by fire, with great loss of life, in 1811. The Virginian armory, the penitentiary, and a new theatre, include the other chief objects of notice. The city is abundantly supplied with water from three reservoirs. Richmond is favourably situated for commerce. It stands at the head of the tide-water, in James River, and is connected by James River Canal with Buchanan, 175 m. distant, and by railways with Aquia Creek and Petersburg. It is consequently the natural depot for the wheat, hemp, and other produce of a large extent of country. Immediately above the city are some falls, beyond which the river is navigable by boats for upwards of 300 m. The falls supply valuable water power, which is used to work flour, cotton, paper, and rolling mills. Richmond has also a cannon foundry, tobacco factories, &c. The suburb of Manchester is connected with Richmond by two bridges; and with some coal-mines, 13 m. distant, by a railway. But, notwithstanding its numerous advantages, neither the foreign trade nor the shipping of Richmond is so considerable as might have been expected. There belonged to the port, in 1849, 10,332 tons shipping.

RICKMANSWORTH, a market-town and par. of England, co. Herts., hund. Cashio, on the Gade, 18 m. N.E. London. Area of par., 9,740 acres. Pop. in 1841, 5,026. The parish church has been rebuilt within these few years, with the exception of the embattled tower, which belonged to the old church. The living, a vicarage, in the patronage of the Bishop of London, is worth about 510*l*. a year. It has an endowed national school, and other minor and Sunday schools, and two almshouses. It is governed by two constables and two head-boroughs. In its vicinity are several streams, on which considerable flour and paper mills have been erected. Its trade is facilitated by the Grand Junction canal, which passes close by the town. Moor Park, a seat of the Marquis of Westminster, in the vicinity, was once the residence of Cardinal Wolsey; but it has since been rebuilt in the modern style; the grove, belonging to Lord Clarendon, and other seats, are also in the immediate neighbourhood.

RIGA, an important city and river port of European Russia, cap. of Livonia, on the Dwina or Duna, about 9 m. from its embouchure in the gulph of Riga, lat. 56° 55' 12" N., long. 24° 0' 4" E. Pop. in 1833, including the garrison of 10,000 men, 77,241, about two thirds of the resident population are Lutherans, the rest consisting of members of the Russo-Greek church, Catholics, &c.

Riga is strongly fortified. It consists of the town, properly so called, and the suburbs; the former being entirely inclosed by the fortifications. Streets in the town narrow, crooked, and houses generally brick: in the suburbs, which are much more extensive, the streets are broad and regular, and the houses mostly of wood. One of the suburbs lies on the left bank of the river, the communication with it being maintained by a floating bridge about 2,400 ft. in length. Among the public buildings are the cathedral, consecrated in 1211, and rebuilt in 1547; the church of St. Peter, built in 1406, with a tower 440 ft. in height, being the most elevated in the empire, and commanding a fine view of the city and adjacent country; the castle, the seat of the chancery, and of the general and civil governors; hall of the provincial states; town-house; exchange; arsenal, &c. A magnificent column, surmounted by a colossal bronze Victory, was erected in 1817, by the mercantile body, in honour of the emperor Alexander and the Russian army.

Among the literary establishments are a gymnasium, a lyceum, a school of navigation, and various elementary schools, a public library, an observatory, a society of Lettonian literature, &c. Manufactures of no great importance, though, of late, materially improved. In 1833 there were in the city 35 different manufacturing establishments, employing in all 1,267 workmen, of which those of cotton, cloth, and rugs, were the most important. There are also various sugar-houses, tobacco manufactories, breweries, &c.

Owing to her situation on a large navigable river, Riga is the entrepôt of an extensive country; and is, in respect of foreign commerce, the next town in the Rus-

slan dominions to Petersburg. Corn used to be the principal article of export; but though its value be now usually surpassed by that of fax and fax-seed, it is still very considerable. Thus, in 1847, there were exported from Riga 586 chet. rye, 11,149 do. rye-meal, 96,264 do. wheat, 994 do. wheat-four, 84,468 do. barley, and 567,845 do. oats. The other great articles of export are hemp and hemp-seed, timber, including masts and deals, hides, tallow, coarse linen, and canvass, &c. The total value of the exports in 1843, amounted to 40,023,104 roubles, of which fax constituted about a half. In 1845 and 1847 the exports of fax amounted to 20,404 and 18,338 tons; in the same years, the exports of hemp amounted to 16,593 and 14,160 tons, but this is rather above the average. The imports consist principally of sugar, and other colonial products, dye-stuffs, wines, cotton, cotton-stuffs and cotton-yarn, woollens, salt, herrings, &c. The largest part by far of the trade is carried on with England. There is a bar at the mouth of the river which has usually from 12 to 13 ft. water; and it is customary for vessels drawing more than this to load and unload the whole or a part of their cargoes at Boldersa, a small port outside the bar. The entrance to the river, at Dunamunde, is guarded by a fort, where is also the custom-house. The ships arriving at Riga vary from 1,000 to 1,500 a year. Riga has increased very rapidly. Under Catharine II., the pop. did not exceed 20,000; in 1824 it amounted to 39,908; and in 1835, as already stated, to 57,338, exclusive of the garrison. It has occasionally suffered considerably from inundations. (See the official returns published by the Russian government; *Schmitzler, La Russie*, &c. v. 568; the art. *Dwina*, in this dictionary, &c.)

RIMINI, (an. *Ariminum*), a city of Italy, Papal States, leg. Forl. between the rivers Marecchia (an. *Ariminus*), and Ansa (an. *Aprua*), within about 2 m. of the embouchure of the former in the Adriatic, 254 m. S.E. Forl. and about the same distance S.E. Ravenna. Lat. 46° 5' N. long. 12° 54' E. pop. 40,000, about 1,500; but including the suburbs and immediately contiguous villages, the pop. amounts to 97,000. (*Ravennatidi*.) It is walled, and entered by several gates. A big street traverses it, terminating on the N. at the *via di San Giuliano*, whence emerges the *Emilian way*, leading to Piacenza; and on the S. at the *Porta marna*, where ends the *Flaminian way*, conducting thence from Rome. The town is well built, having good streets, and handsome marble palaces; like most other Italian cities, it has a dull, melancholy, and deserted appearance. The cathedral, said to have been built on the ruins of a temple of *Castor* and *Pollux*, was restored and altered by *Alberti* in the 15th century, and has a very elegant exterior, to which, ever, the interior offers a lamentable contrast. In some tombs of the *Malatesta* family, once lords of the city. According to *Eustace*, this building was conducted by the French into a military hospital. The *hof* of *San Giuliano* has a fine altar-piece by *Paul Veronese*, and several good paintings by *Guido*, and *masters*; in that of *St. Augustin* is a ceiling painted in fresco. It has a handsome town-hall, a bathing ground, and a good fish market; and the *Gambalunga* palace is an extensive library, lately thrown open to the public. The castle built by *Sigismund I.* is falling into decay. The prince's palace is embellished with a fountain, and a statue of *V.*; and in another of the open spaces is a small monument, or pedestal of a column, which, according to cryptal tradition, was the *suggestum* on which harangued his troops after passing the *Rubicon*; the entrance of the city is a triumphal arch, raised in honour of *Augustus*, and in most respects worthy of the age; but *Eustace* says, that it was surmounted by a *Golden chariot*, by which it was said to be *disfigured*. Both rivers are crossed by solid bridges, that over the *Marecchia* appears, from the inside, to have been commenced by *Augustus*, and by *Tiberius*. It is of marble, 220 ft. in length, and has five arches. Critics differ as to its value as a work of art; but being still in excellent order, there can be no difference of opinion as to its construction. Without the walls are the remains of an amphitheatre, and other remains of the Roman city. The port of Rimini, on the Adriatic, at the mouth of the *Marecchia*, is so much obstructed by sand, that small vessels only can enter. The surrounding country being very fruitful, considerable trade in corn, and furnishes quantities to the neighbouring towns.

Rimini was of far more importance in ancient times. It was the first considerable town on the coast of the peninsula, after crossing the boundary between *Cisalpine Gaul* and *Transalpine Gaul* (so called), and was regarded as one of the chief cities of the latter. A Roman colony was planted there in the year of the city 485, and at a subsequent period it was called *Colonia*. It was occupied by *Cæsar*

immediately after he had crossed the *Rubicon*, and was honoured with the especial patronage of *Augustus*. It was given by *Peplin*, with the rest of *Romagna*, to the *Holy See*, to which, with few intermissions, it has since belonged. (*Ravennatidi*, *Corografia dell' Italia*; *Wood's Letters of an Architect*; *Cramer's Ancient Italy* i. 255, &c.)

RIO DE JANEIRO, or simply *Rio*, a city and seaport of Brazil, of which it is the cap., and the largest and most important commercial city of S. America, on the W. side of one of the finest bays in the world, 80 m. W. Cape Frio, lat. (light-house, in Fort Sta. Cruz) 22° 54' S., long. 43° 7' 15" W. Pop. probably about 180,000, of whom about half are whites, and the rest mostly negro slaves. The city, which is in the shape of a parallelogram, is situated on level ground, at the foot of hills, and has a fine appearance from the bay. The older portion, or that adjoining the sea, is divided on the W. from what may be called the new town by a large open space, the *Campos da Honra*. The style of architecture is in general mean, resembling that of the older parts of Lisbon; and though great improvements have been effected since the emigration of the court of Portugal to Rio in 1807, a great deal remains to be done before it be entitled to rank even with a second-rate European town. The streets, which are mostly straight, and intersect each other at right angles, are pretty generally furnished with *travertine*, and paved with blocks of granite. But though many of them have been widened of late years, and otherwise improved, they are still, for the most part, narrow and dirty, with a water-course in the centre, the usual receptacle of the filth from the houses. (*Three Years in the Pacific, by an American*, i. 97.) The houses, which are mostly of granite, or of granite and wood, are seldom more than two stories in height, rough, or whitewashed, with red tile roofs. They are narrow, but deep in proportion to the height; the lower story is commonly occupied by a shop or workshop, and in the houses of people of distinction, by the stable and coach-house; the second story (and third, if there be one) comprising the family apartments. The mildness of the climate, which is here a perpetual spring, rendering artificial heat unnecessary, there are no fire-places except in the kitchens, and, consequently, very few chimneys, which, to a stranger from Europe, gives the city a bald and, as it were, truncated appearance. The windows in the second story generally open upon iron verandas, the *jalouses* having been removed by order of government. In the outskirts of the town the streets are unpaved, and the houses of only one floor, low, mean, and dirty, with doors and windows of lattice-work, opening outwards to the annoyance of the passengers. Inside the houses it is usual for all the apartments on the same floor to communicate above the partitions, which do not extend to the ceiling. This, though it destroys privacy, is advantageous, by allowing that free circulation of air so important in hot climates.

There are numerous churches in the city; but none of them can be called fine buildings, or are worth the notice of travellers from Europe. The cathedral or church of *Nossa Senhora da Gloria*, on a pretty hill on the S. side of the city, is a conspicuous object from a distance, and especially from the bay. There are several conventual establishments; a *misericordia*, with an attached hospital; a foundling hospital; an institution where female orphans, born of white married parents, are educated and portioned off in marriage, with other charitable institutions.

Water is conveyed into the city from a neighbouring lofty hill (2,208 ft.), called the *Corcovado*, by a magnificent aqueduct, constructed in 1740. The water is thence conveyed to public fountains in different parts of the city; and a good many persons earn a livelihood by carrying water from these fountains to private families. Nothing, however, would contribute so much to the cleanliness and health of the city as an increase in the supply of water, and its distribution by pipes to private houses. The town is very indifferently lighted. There are but few inns and hotels, and those mostly very inferior: they are wholly for the accommodation of strangers, being rarely visited by the townspeople.

The royal palace forms two sides of a large, or oblong space, opening to the bay near the principal landing-place. It consists partly of the old palace of the viceroys, and partly of a convent formerly belonging to the *Carmelites*, and is wholly destitute of architectural beauty. Among the other public buildings may be specified a new and handsome theatre, the exchange, the old college of the *Jesuits*, and the episcopal palace and royal villa of *Christovao*, in the environs.

Neither education nor literature is here in a very flourishing state. There are, however, sundry lyceums and grammar schools, and a great many private licensed academies. Among the principal educational institutions may be specified a school of surgery, military and commercial academies, an academy of arts, a national museum, &c. In the vicinity is a very good botanic garden, comprising about 4 acres, including, among other

exotics, numerous specimens of the tea plant. Near the Imperial palace is the public library, containing from 50,000 to 70,000 vols. Several daily and weekly newspapers issue from the Rio press; but they are said to be, without exception, the most worthless publications of their class any where to be met with. The police and health of the city have been materially improved within the last dozen years.

The market-place consists of a collection of filthy booths, for the sale of vegetables, which are at once abundant, excellent, and cheap. The farina of the *Jatropha Manihot* is here the grand substitute for bread stuffs, and is extensively used by all classes, forming, with bananas, the principal food of the negroes. The Yam supplies the place of the potato; and the finest oranges are sold at 10 to 25 cents per 100. Butcher's meat is found in shops, scattered up and down the city. The beef, though wholly without fat, is tender. Pork is good; mutton bad and dear. Fish abundant and good. The slave-market, described by Basil Hall and others, no longer exists; but the clandestine importation of slaves is still carried on to a very considerable extent. (*Three Years in the Pacific*, 1. 103.) Slaves, however, are, speaking generally, very indulgently treated. "We may," says a Rio circular, "assure our philanthropic friends abroad, that, as regards the slaves, they are here better fed, better clothed, are on the whole better treated, laugh more and weep less, than the major part of the labouring poor in Europe."

Commerce.—The trade of Rio is very extensive, and has increased rapidly during the last few years. It is now by far the greatest mart for the export of coffee. The shipments of this important article which, in 1820, amounted to 97,500 bags, have increased with such extraordinary rapidity that, in 1847, they amounted to above 1,650,000 bags, that is (taking the bag at 154 lbs.), to 254,100,000 lbs., or 113,388 tons! being equal to all the exports of coffee from all the other ports in the world. Bataria excepted! Sugar was formerly an important article of export from Rio, but latterly it has been decreasing, and does not now exceed 6,000 cases (15 cwt. each); the exports of sugar from Santos, which used to be considerable (10,000 tons), have, also, been latterly decreasing. (*See Santos*.) The other great articles of export from Rio are hides, rice, tobacco, rum, tapioca, ipecacuanha, manioc flour, and other inferior articles. The export of cotton has almost entirely ceased; and that of gold, diamonds, &c., is mostly clandestine, and not very considerable. We subjoin

Arrivals and Departures of Shipping at Rio de Janeiro, Coastwise and Foreign, in each Year from 1845 to 1849 Inc.

Years.	Coastwise.				Foreign.			
	Arrivals.		Departures.		Arrivals.		Departures.	
	<i>Fuzels.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Fuzels.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Fuzels.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Fuzels.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
1845	169,372	2,302	172,136	2,378	204,366	81	274,355	
1846	2,550	190,730	2,488	182,356	931	118,519	1,054	761,732
1847	3,497	180,348	2,475	180,523	867	306,547	867	306,437
1848	166,486	192,508	192,508	192,508	1,054	335,936	1,054	335,936
1849	2,407	185,534	2,503	194,064	1,198	304,739	1,246	427,570

Of the vessels which arrived in 1849, 753 had on board cargoes for the port, 202 were *en route* for California, 108 were in ballast, and 109 had on board cargoes for other destinations. Among the 753 vessels with cargoes for the port were 152 American, 124 English, 63 Portuguese, 65 Brazilian, 58 Danish, 40 French, &c.

The currency of Rio, and of Brazil generally, is in a very vitiated state. The par of exchange, when the silver currency was maintained, was 67½d., and the current rate was usually higher; but, for some years past, owing to the introduction of paper and copper, the exchange has fallen, so that its average rate in Rio, in 1840, was 30½d.

Harbour.—As already stated, the harbour of Rio is one of the finest in the world. Its entrance is marked by a remarkable hill, in the form of a sugar loaf, 900 ft. in height, close to its W. side, while on the opposite side of the bay, at the distance of about 1½ m., is the fort of Santa Cruz, on which is a light-house. There is, also, a light-house, having the lantern elevated about 300 ft. above the sea level, on *Ilha Rasa* (Flat Island), about 10 m. S. from the mouth of the harbour. Ships may enter either by night or day, there being no obstruction or danger of any kind. The water in the bay is sufficient to float the largest ships of war; and it is extensive enough to accommodate all the navies of all the countries in the world.

RIOM (an. *Rioomagus*), a town of France, dép. Puy-de-Dôme, cap. arrond., on a hill, 8 m. N. by E. Clermont. Pop., in 1846, ex. com., 9,588. It is well built, but the houses are mostly in an antiquated style, and being wholly constructed of Volvic lava, with which it is also paved, it has a singularly sombre appearance. It has several handsome public fountains, and its churches, hospitals, the various public offices, and the sub-prefecture, are good buildings. One of its promenades is ornamented with a statue of Desaix.

Riom is the seat of a royal court for the dép. Puy-de-

An Account of the Quantity of Coffee exported from Rio in the following Years:—

Years.	Bags.	Years.	Bags.
1820	97,500	1835	645,438
1821	105,386	1836	745,835
1822	134,018	1837	657,095
1823	185,000	1838	766,496
1824	224,000	1839	889,524
1825	185,156	1840	1,068,418
1826	266,000	1841	1,078,268
1827	185,900	1842	1,174,639
1828	369,147	1843	1,183,640
1829	375,107	1844	1,269,981
1830	591,885	1845	1,187,381
1831	448,000	1846	1,593,534
1832	478,950	1847	1,650,200
1833	561,692	1848	1,710,707
1834	560,739	1849	1,455,983

Of the quantity shipped in 1847, were to the U. States, 729,742 bags; Hamburg, 234,614 do.; Antwerp, 137,268 do.; Trieste, 110,309 do.; and to other ports, 429,253 do.

Sugar.—Quantity of Sugar in Cases exported from 1841 to 1849 Inc. —

Years.	Cases.	Years.	Cases.
1841	8,959	1846	8,115
1842	11,568	1847	8,511
1843	5,572	1848	5,848
1844	5,774	1849	5,979
1845	14,539		

Hides.—Quantity shipped from 1842 to 1849 Inc.

1842	-	189,181	1846	-	429,456
1843	-	345,918	1847	-	354,692
1844	-	354,405	1848	-	115,845
1845	-	221,563	1849	-	302,230

There were also exported in 1849, 11,189 half-tanned hides, 385,685 ox and cow horns, 4,280 pipes rum, 26,909 rolls tobacco, 30,717 bags rice, 22,357 planks ipecacuanha, 9,543 barrels tapioca, and 11,676 lbs. ipecacuanha.

The principal article of legitimate import consists of cotton goods, the value of which amounts to full one-third of the total value of the imports. Next to cottons are woollens, linen, and silk manufactures, wines, jewellery, and ironmongery; flour, meat, fish, butter, and other articles of provision; spirits, salt, earthenware, paper, and a host of other articles. The imports of slaves into the bay of Rio and the adjoining prov. are sometimes very extensive.

Dôme, Allier, Cantal, and Haut-Loire; and of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce. It produces cotton and linen cloths, candles, leather, and brandy; and has a large trade in agricultural produce. It was formerly the cap. of Auvergne, and the residence of its dukes, some remains of whose castle still exist; and it continues to rank as the second town within the ancient limits of that province. Among the distinguished individuals belonging to Riom may be specified Gregory of Tours, and the learned Jesuits J. and A. Sirmond. (*Hugo*, art. *Puy-de-Dôme*; *Dict. Gêog.*, &c.)

RIPON, a city, parl. and mun. bor. and market-town of England, N. riding co. York, lower div. wap. Claro, on the Ure, close to its confluence with the Skiff, both of which are here crossed by stone bridges, 22 m. N.W. York. Pop. of parl. bor. (which comprises the township of Ripon with part of the district of Bondgate), in 1841, 5,997. "The appearance of Ripon is that of a very respectable and wealthy country town. It is increasing in population, and, though it has no manufactures itself, there is an extensive manufactory of saddles in Bondgate. The neighbouring country is rich and well wooded, containing many objects of local attraction and interest; and this may, perhaps, account for the fact, that of late years many respectable families have been induced to settle here. The town has, therefore, increased in importance as a residence for persons of that class." (*Parl. Board. Report*.) The streets are irregularly laid out, but clean, and well lighted with gas, many of them meeting in the market-place, a spacious square surrounded with good shops, &c., having in its centre an obelisk 90 ft. in height, surmounted by the city arms, and on its S. side a particularly handsome town-hall, comprising courts, offices, and a handsome room for balls and public meetings. Ripon minster, erected in 1836 into a cathedral, and built in the 14th and 15th cen-

turles, is said to be one of the best proportioned churches in England. It is a cruciform structure, with a tower rising from the intersection of the nave and transept, besides two others (each 110 ft. in height) at the W. end. Its length, from E. to W., is 266 ft.; breadth of choir and aisles, 67 ft.; and length of transepts, 123 ft. "This venerable edifice," says Mr. Britton, "contains various parts worthy of attention, particularly its W. front, a very fine specimen of bold early English, and except the battlements and pinnacles, without alteration. A part of the church is Norman, and a great portion of the transepts but little later. The choir is partly decorated; and S. of it is a Norman crypt, above which are some Norman buildings used as vestries. At the E. end of the choir, which is sadly disfigured by heavy modern galleries, is a decorated E. window of five lights with very elegant tracery. The nave is very light, exhibiting some extremely fine composition; and there is a considerable quantity of good screen-work, both in wood and stone. The chapter comprises a dean, subdean, and six canons, who divide among them a net revenue of 633*l*. Ripon was erected into a bishopric in 1838, the diocese comprising most of the populous parts of the W. riding, with the liberty of Richmondshire in the N. riding. The annual revenue of the see is 4,500*l*., chiefly derived from her surplus fund formed out of the deductions from the revenues of the larger sees. Trinity church, built and endowed in 1695 at a cost of above 13,000*l*., is a Gothic cruciform structure, with lancet windows, and has accommodation for upwards of 1,000 persons. The Wesleyan Methodists have two places of worship, and there one each for Independents and Primitive Methodists. The town has several Sunday-schools, besides which are national schools both for boys and girls, and an endowed blue-cost school. A grammar-school, founded 1556, has an endowment producing about 370*l*. a year: a free for Latin, Greek, and English grammar, to the use of all residents, besides whom the master may receive boarders and pay-scholars. The town has several almshouses, money-charities, &c.; and a dispensary furnishes relief to the sick poor. A mechanics' institute, scripture library, and news-room are comprised in a public room; a large and rather handsome building erected by subscription, having attached gardens and sure-grounds. A theatre was built in 1793; but it been converted into a depot and riding-school for the Hussar yeomanry cavalry. Ripon was formerly celebrated for its manufacture of steel, and the expression, "as true steel as Ripon is," was once proverbial for men of integrity and pidity. It had also a considerable manufacture of woolen-cloth; but both these branches of industry long ceased to exist. Linen-weaving, mauling, and so on, are pursued to some extent, as seen above, and woollen saddlery are made in pretty large quantities. It is a large staple for wool, bought up here by shiers of Leeds, Halifax, &c.; and it has an excellent market. In 1767, the Ure navigation was opened to the town, which is thus rendered accessible for barges of 30 tons. The Knaresborough and Claro company and Wensleydale banking company ranches here, and, in addition to these, there are various banks and a savings' bank. Ripon is a bor. by prescription, but received a charter from James I. Under the Mun. Reform Act it is governed by 3 aldermen, and 15 councillors. Cor. revenue in 1847-8, 238*l*. The bor. has a committee of the peace under a recorder; a county court, which 448 plaints were entered in 1848; and a session-court held by the dean and chapter, having jurisdiction over the district, called "canon fee." Ripon sends 3 members to the H. of C. since the reign of VI., the right of election being previously to the M. Act, in the holders of burgate tenures, all had, for many years, been in the possession of an individual. The limits of the par. bor., as the Boundary Act, comprise the entire township with a part of the township of Almsbury, &c. Reg. electors in 1849-50, 365. Large in Thursday, abounding with all kinds of agricultural produce, and six yearly fairs. Ripon obviously derives its name from its position at the river Ure; but whether it be of Roman or Saxon origin is wholly unknown. A monastery, founded A. D. 661, attained considerable celebrity; but was destroyed by the Scotch in the reign of Edward I., and was not afterwards restored. RIVE-DE-GIER, a rapidly increasing town of France, capital of the depart. of the Gironde, a tributary of the Garonne, on the head of the canal of Givors, and on the left bank of the St. Etienne to Lyons, 13 m. N.E. the former, S.W. the latter. Pop. in 1846, ex. com., 10,000. It has since considerably increased. It was founded, but its works have been destroyed, principally remarkable for its commercial importance, largely in the growing prosperity of the

country along the Rhone (which see), and the districts around Lyons and St. Etienne. It has extensive manufactures of glass wares; and its coal-mines furnish a large proportion of the coal required in the hardware factories of St. Etienne. It has also hardware manufactures of its own. The offices of the Givors Canal company, and the noble reservoir belonging to that canal, are the most remarkable public works at Rive-de-Gier. (Hugo, &c.)

ROANNE (supposed to be the *Roanemus* of Ptolemy), a town of France, dep. Loire, cap. arrond., on the Loire, here crossed by a new bridge, 30 m. N. Montbrison. Pop. in 1836, ex. com., 9,334. It is a pretty, well-built, open, straggling town, with a good quay, a large hospital, a handsome theatre, and a communal college, having a good library and cabinet of natural history, &c. It is the seat of a tribunal of original jurisdiction, and a chamber of manufactures; and is a depot for the manufactures of Lyons and the S.E. of France, passing to the south and N.W. dep. It also manufactures muslins, calicoes, and woollen fabrics; and has some trade in corn, wine, flour, timber, and charcoal. Various remains of antiquities have been frequently discovered in and near the town. (Hugo, art. Loire; Diet. Glog.)

ROCHDALE, a par. bor., market-town, and par. of England, middle div., bund. Salford, co. Lancashire, on the Roch, trib. of the Irwell, 11 m. N.N.E. Manchester, and 37 m. E.N.E. Liverpool. Pop. of town and par. bor. (which comprises all within the limits of a circle described with a radius of $\frac{1}{4}$ m. from the town-hall), in 1841, 34,231; pop. of par. (which extends over 58,629 acres), 54,718. The town consists of several streets, greatly improved of late years; the principal thoroughfare, in which are the market-house and town-hall, being wide and lined with brick houses. The streets generally are well paved, lighted with gas, and well supplied with water from four reservoirs in the township of Wardleworth. Here are two assembly-rooms, a small theatre, a commodious gaol, and work-houses. The parish church, a structure of Norman and early English architecture, with a square pinnacled tower, stands on an eminence, to which there is an ascent from the lower part of the town by a flight of 136 steps; the living is a vicarage, of the annual value of 1,780*l*., in the gift of the Archbishop of Canterbury. The town has also two episcopal chapels; and within the par. are six others, chiefly in the patronage of the vicar. Here is a Rom. Cath. chapel, and 12 places of worship for different denominations of dissenters, among whom Methodists, Independents, and Baptists are the prevailing bodies. Each church and chapel has a Sunday-school, attended by great numbers of children. The town has a large national school, another well-endowed establishment, called the *Moss school*, for the gratuitous education of 40 boys and 20 girls; a free grammar-school, founded in 1564, and attended by about 48 boys (who owing to the smallness of the endowment, pay a fee of 6*l*. a year); an endowed girls' school, and numerous money charities. A dispensary and ladies' charity furnish relief to the sick poor; besides which, there are bible, tract, and other religious associations, a literary society, an horticultural society, and a savings' bank.

Rochdale is a principal seat of the woollen and cotton manufactures, especially the former: the woollen articles produced here consist principally of balles, fannels, and kerseys; and those of cotton of strong calicoes, fustians, &c. In 1838, there were in the parish (exclusive of Saddleworth township) 56 woollen mills, 96 cotton, and one flax mill, propelled by an aggregate steam power of 2,969 horses, employing, in all, 9,745 hands, of which 8,133 belonged to the cotton mills. There are also numerous hand-loom weavers, though power-looms have been extensively introduced within the last few years. Hat-making is pursued on a pretty considerable scale, and numerous hands are employed in the town and neighbourhood in making machinery. The Manchester and Liverpool District Banking Company have a branch here, and there are two private banks. Coal and stone abound in the neighbourhood, and the par. comprises 10 collieries. Iron ore has been found in considerable quantities in Butterworth township, and flags are quarried at Spotland. Rochdale has means of communication with Manchester and Liverpool westward, and with Halifax, Leeds, &c. eastward, both by canal and railway. The Rochdale Canal, which passes near the town, uniting westward with the Duke of Bridgewater's Canal, and eastward with the Calder and Ribblesdale Navigation, 33 m. in length, cost upwards of 600,000*l*., and is supplied, at its summit-level, by large reservoirs, one of which covers 130 acres. It was opened in 1804, and the daily traffic may amount to 1,400 tons. The Manchester and Leeds Railway passes through the district; and in Calderbrook township is a tunnel 2,860 yds. long, chiefly cut through the solid rock, 80 ft. below the surface. The total length of the line is 564 m., and the whole is now open.

Notwithstanding its pop. and manufacturing importance, Rochdale had no representative in the legislature

till the passing of the Reform Act, which conferred on it the important privilege of sending 1 mem. to the H. of C., the electoral limits being defined, as above stated, in the local act of 6 Geo. 4. c. 101. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 1,077. It is also a polling-place for the S. div. of Lancashire. The town is under the jurisdiction of the co. magistrates; and it has a county-court, before which 1,453 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. Markets on Monday and Saturday; fairs, May 14., Whit Tuesday, and Nov. 7., for horses and cattle. (*Baines's Hist. and Geog. of Lancashire*; *Butlerworth's Stat. of Lancashire; Parl. Reports, &c.*)

ROCHEFORT, a maritime town, and the third naval port of France, dép. Charente-Inferieure, on the Charente, about 12 m. (by water) from its mouth, opposite the Isle of Oleron, and 10 m. S.S.E. La Rochelle; lat 45° 58' 10" N., long. 0° 37' 34" W. Pop., in 1846, inc. com., 17,867; but said to have increased, in 1850, to upwards of 20,000. It is situated at the extremity of an extensive plain, and is shaped like a bow, the arc formed by the ramparts, and the choir by the river. The town, which is wholly of modern date, having been founded under Louis XIV., is well laid out and built, though the houses want elevation. Some of the principal streets are planted with double rows of poplars; and in the centre of the town is the *Place d'Armes*, a large and regular square, planted, and ornamented with a fountain; which, with other fountains, provide the inhabs. with an abundant supply of river water. The port is capacious, and deep enough to receive vessels of the largest size, having 20 ft. water at low ebb, and more than 40 ft. at high tide. The mercantile harbour, separated from the port militaire, admits vessels of from 800 to 900 tons. The naval yard is entered by the *Porte de Soleil*, a handsome gateway constructed in 1828; on either side of which are lodges for the guard, the agents for the surveillance of the port and officers of the customs. It comprises building-docks for ships of from 60 to 120 guns; sawing, brass and copper mills impelled by steam; a sail-loft, model workshop, a *bagne*, or prison, capable of accommodating 1,000 convicts; a rope-house, in which cables upwards of 400 yards in length are made, and a naval and military arsenal, black manufactory, and stores for materials of every kind necessary in the fitting out of ships of war. The cables and ship-biscuit made at this port are admitted to be the best in France. The naval hospital without the town comprises 9 separate buildings, furnishing accommodation for 1,300 patients. The residence of the naval commandant is a fine building, surrounded by gardens, which are open to the public. Rochefort is the seat of a maritime prefecture, and tribunals of original jurisdiction and commerce; and has schools of naval gunnery, hydrography (3d class), medicine, drawing, music, &c. a society of arts and literature, Bible society, public library, &c. It has a few vinegar factories, and sugar refineries; but ship-building is by far the most important branch of industry, and the ship-builders of the mercantile port construct handsome vessels for the coasting-trade and cod-fisheries. The little trade otherwise enjoyed by Rochefort is principally in corn, wines, salt, and brandy. The town was formerly very unhealthy; but it has been, in this respect, greatly improved by the drainage of the adjacent country. (*Ports and Arsenals of France*, 169-178.; *Guide du Voyageur en France*; *Dict. Géog.*)

ROCHELLE (LA), a town and sea-port of France, dép. Charente-Inferieure, of which it is the cap., on the Atlantic, 76 m. S. by E. Nantes, and 93 m. N.N.W. Bordeaux; lat. 46° 9' 21" N., long. 1° 9' 40" W. Pop., in 1846, 14,186. "Rochele is an admirable commercial position. The town forms, as it were, the bottom of a small gulph, which serves as an *avant port*. It is defended by 3 handsome towers, which, whether La Rochelle be approached by land or water, are seen at an immense distance. Opposite the town, at the extremity of the roadstead, are the Isles of Ré and Oleron. The harbour is safe and commodious; it is protected by a strong jetty, and is capable of receiving vessels of 400 or 600 tons' burden. There has recently been created a dock or *arrière port*, where vessels are careened. The town itself is clean and well built." (*Ports, &c. of France*.) The streets are wide and straight, and have foot-pavements, mostly under arcades, on which the houses are built. Few of the private buildings are lofty or of much size; but the town has, notwithstanding, a striking appearance. The fortifications, constructed by Vauban, consist of ramparts, with 19 bastions and 8 lunettes, the whole enclosed with ditches and a covered way. The town is entered by 7 gates, one of which, the *Porte d'Hercule*, is a handsome structure, apparently of the 16th century. There are several good squares; and without the walls are the promenades called the Mall and the *Champ de Mars*. The cathedral, town-hall, courts of justice, hospital, orphan-asylum, exchange, and a good bathing establishment, are the principal public buildings, though several more are worth notice. La Rochelle is

the cap. of the 19th military division of France, which comprises the déps. Charente-Inferieure, Deux Sèvres, and Vendée; the seat of a bishop, of courts of primary jurisdiction and commerce, of a royal academy of arts and sciences, &c., and the residence of several foreign consuls. It has a seminary and communal college, schools of navigation and design, a public library of 20,000 vols., botanic garden, &c.; several prisons, a mint, and a royal arsenal and foundry. Its trade is extensive, not only in wines and brandies, but in wood, iron, salt, cheese, butter, oil, sardines, and colonial produce.

La Rochelle appears to owe its origin to a castle constructed here to check the incursions of the Normans. It was for some time in the possession of the English, from whom it was taken by the French in 1294. During the religious wars, and especially after the massacre of St. Bartholomew, it was a stronghold of the Protestants. It was invested by the Catholic forces in 1572, and withstood a long siege, terminated by a treaty. The numerous infractions of that treaty, in the reign of Louis XIII., and under the ministry of Richelieu, led to a second siege, which commenced in August, 1627, and which was as violent, and longer and more decisive than the former. The king, the Duke of Orleans, Marshal Bassompierre, and all the most renowned generals of the time, were present at the siege. The circumvallation extended for 3 leagues round the town; but the sea being open, English vessels poured in provisions and ammunition. After 6 months of heroic resistance, the famous engineer, Métézeau, was directed to bar the entrance of the harbour by an immense dyke, extending 1,500 metres into the sea, and of which the remains are still visible at low water. The result was soon fatally apparent. Famine quickly decimated the ranks of the besieged; and after a siege of 14 months and 18 days, La Rochelle was compelled to capitulate. Richelieu made a triumphal entry into the city; the fortifications were demolished, and the Protestants deprived of their last place of refuge." (*Ports and Arsenals of France*; *Guide du Voyageur, &c.*; *Dict. Géog.*)

ROCHESTER, a city, pari. and mun. bor., and market-town of England, co. Kent, laiths Aylesford, at the W. end of and adjoining Chatham, on the S. bank of the Medway, crossed here by a handsome stone bridge of 11 arches, 28 m. W. by N. Canterbury, and 28 m. E. by S. London. Pop. of pari. bor. (which includes with the old bor. additional portions of the par. of Stroud), in 1841, 11,949. The bridge over the Medway connects the town with Stroud, on the opposite bank of the river; so that the three towns of Chatham, Rochester, and Stroud form, as it were, a continuous street, upwards of 2 m. in length, along the road from London to Dover. The houses in Rochester generally have a somewhat antiquated appearance; and among them are several built chiefly of timber, with projected gables and stories. The town is partially paved, and lighted with gas. Fortifications were erected for its protection in 1802; but Fort Pitt is now used as a military hospital, and Fort Clarence has become a lunatic asylum for soldiers. The town-hall, a spacious brick edifice, fronted by Doric columns, is open underneath, and above is a large hall with several portraits of public characters; at the back is a small borgaol. On the site of the former guildhall is the clock-house, a neat building erected in 1706, at the expense of the celebrated admiral Sir Cloudesley Shovel. A theatre is occasionally opened; there are also assembly rooms and baths, and a record room at the end of the bridge. At the S.W. angle of the town, rising abruptly from the river, is the castle, anciently a strong fortress, but which has, for a lengthened period, been in a state of decay. The walls, which are of Kentish ragstone, enclose a quadrangular area of nearly 300 sq. ft., and, with their towers, are now in ruins. The walls of the keep, however, at the S.E. angle of the court, are in good preservation; it rises about 104 ft. from the ground, and has turrets at the angles rising 12 ft. above the rest of the building. The style of the whole building is Norman, and it presents a fine specimen of the modes adopted at the date of its erection to enable a very small number within the castle successfully to resist a much greater number of besiegers; for which purpose, indeed, the access, the various successive gates, and other defences, are admirably calculated. The masonry in the interior is very good, especially that of the well, which is in one of the walls, and was accessible from several floors of the castle." (*Richman's Arch.*, p. 187.)

A little E. of the castle is the cathedral, originally founded by Ethelbert, about A.D. 600; but the present building was principally erected in the 12th century, from the plans of Bishop Gundulph, one of the first church architects of his day. It is a cruciform structure, with a central tower, of modern erection, rising from the intersection of the nave and transepts, with another, now unroofed, called Gundulph's Tower, on the N. side, close to the E. transept. According to Britton, the dimensions of the church are as follows: total inside

26 ft. of which 156 ft. belong to the choir; of nave and aisles, 66 ft.; length of the great transepts, 122 ft. and 90 ft. respectively; exterior front, 81 ft.

exterior appearance of this cathedral is not very good, and the exterior walls of the nave are either decayed or covered by modern repairs. The other part of the church are surrounded by buildings, so that more than one portion can be seen at a time. The choir is a fine specimen of Norman enrichment, but with large inserted perpendicular W. window. The Norman piers and arches, except those next the choir, with most of the E. portions of the church, English. There are other Norman portions on the side, which appear to be the remains of the other monastic adjuncts. The crypt is very extensive under the whole choir: its character English; but a portion under the N. aisle may be almost Norman. There are a few monuments they are more remarkable for singularity than for beauty. The whole cathedral, except the nave and the choir, is adorned with early English work, as at Canterbury, the floor of the choir is raised above that of the nave." (*Britton, Rickman's Arch.*, p. 184.)

Rochester has very recently been repaired in excellent style. The cathedral is one of the best of the early English style in the kingdom. The diocesan corporation comprises a dean and six clerics, who divided among them, in 1834, a net income of £1,065, and have the patronage of 30 benefices; also, 4 minor canons. The see of Rochester at an average of three years ending with 1831, was valued at £1,000 a year; but it either has been or is to be valued at £4,000 a year. The town has two parishes, one of which, St. Margaret's, is of very mixed character, and the other, St. Nicholas, in the perpendicular style; the living of the former is in the gift of the Bishop of London, and of the latter in that of the Wesleyan Methodists, Independents, Unitarians, &c. The Society of Friends, have places of worship, the Sunday-schools within the borough are at least 800 children. A grammar-school, founded in 1542, having six exhibitions at Oxford and Cambridge, is supported by the dean and chapter; there is an endowed mathematical school, founded in 1701. Two national schools give instruction to 500 children; and there are 2 or 3 smaller money-charities.

Chatham, like Rochester, was in a great degree ruined by the expenditure produced by the naval establishments at Chatham during the war, and a great part of that expenditure has been severely greater than the population consists of retail trade. There is no manufactory in or near the town, but a considerable quantity of coal and other articles are imported for the supply of the country inland, and there is a large export trade in *Municipal Report*.)

customs duty received here in 1849 amounted but by far the largest portion of this sum was derived from the trade of Chatham. The town is *Municipal Boundary Report*, to be prosperous; "the poor-rates have increased; houses are uninhabited, and there is less and less luxury among the upper classes than in 1848."

Rochester, first incorporated in the reign of Henry II., is divided, under the Municipal Reform Act, into three wards, and is governed by a mayor, 5 aldermen, and 18 councillors. Corporation revenue, in 1849, £10,000. It has a commission of the peace under the Municipal Reform Act, and petty sessions are held twice a week; a county court, before which 1,738 complaints were made in 1848.

has returned 3 members to the H. of C. since the Reform Bill, the right of election down to the Reform Bill, the freemen not receiving alms. The town was enlarged, as above mentioned, by the Municipal Reform Act, in 1849-50. 1,257 persons were returned, and for provisions generally, a great deal of importance connected with the town of Rochester is the descent made by the town.

See CHATHAM.

ROCKY MOUNTAINS, a very extensive mountain range in America. (See Vol. I. 78.)

ROCHELLE, a town of France, dép. Ardennes, cap. of the extensive plain, near the Belgian frontier, W. Metziers. Pop., in 1836, 3,639. It is a rampart strengthened with bastions and is the seat of a tribunal of original jurisdiction as a military hospital, a society of agricultural hardware manufactures.

It was besieged by a Spanish army in 1659 of Condé, then Duke d'Enghien, and

only 21 years of age, advanced to its relief, with an army inferior in numbers and in the quality of the troops. But the extraordinary talent and brilliant courage of the prince more than made up for his inexperience and the inferiority of his forces. The French gained a complete victory (19th May 1643). The Spanish infantry, which had hitherto been invincible, was cut to pieces; and the French arms acquired a superiority which they preserved for more than sixty years, or till the battle of Blenheim. The humanity of Condé, henceforth called "le Grand," was as conspicuous on this occasion as his talents and his courage. (*Voltaire, Siècle de Louis XIV.*, cap. 3.)

ROMANS, a town of France, dép. Drôme, in a fine plain, on the left, by which it is separated from the Bourg-de-Péage, on the opposite side of the river, the communication between the two being maintained by a fine bridge, 12 m. N.E. Valence, and 35 m. W.S.W. Grenoble. Pop., including Bourg-de-Péage, in 1846, 10,648. Romans, which is surrounded by an old wall flanked with towers, is said by Hugo to be a handsome well-built town, and has some fine promenades. The parish church is the only remaining portion of the famous monastery founded here by St. Bernard, in 1137, to which the town owes its origin. Romans has a theatre, a pensionnat, or school for the gratuitous education of young ladies, a tribunal of commerce, &c., with manufactures of silk and woollen stuffs, hosiery, gloves, &c. It has also an active trade in the produce of the dep., including silk, wool, wine, oil, truffles, &c., which is much facilitated by the junction of the Isère with the Rhone. (*Hugo, art. Drôme; Dict. Géographique.*)

The famous Baron Lally, who, having distinguished himself at the battle of Fontenoy, was subsequently sent as commander-in-chief of the French forces to India, was a native of Romans, where he first saw the light, on the 18th of January, 1702. Being of a violent, irritable temper, and involved in the greatest difficulties, Lally got embroiled with every body. After the fall of Pondicherry, in 1761, he returned to France, where, pursued by the hatreds he had excited in India, he was, after a lengthened imprisonment, tried by the parliament of Paris, and condemned to be decapitated. This unjust sentence was carried into effect on the 5th May, 1766. (See for a calm dispassionate statement of the case of Lally, the *Siècle de Louis XV.*, by Voltaire, cap. 24.: the article on Lally in the *Biographie Universelle* is by a partisan.)

ROME, the most celebrated of European cities (*Lux orbis terrarum, et ars omnium gentium*, Cicero, Catil. 4. cap. 6.), famous alike in ancient and modern history; first, as the metropolis of the most powerful nation of antiquity, and, afterwards, as the ecclesiastical capital of Christendom, and the residence of the pope, on both sides the Tiber, but principally on its E. bank, about 16 m. from its mouth, 115 m. N.W. Naples, and 145 m. S.E. Florence; lat. 41° 53' 54" N., long. 12° 29' 47" E. The pop., which in 1849 amounted to 167,181, inc. 15,696 foreigners, may now (1850) probably amount to 180,000.

Modern Rome, which interests alike by its classical associations, its antiquities, its churches, and its works of art, is surrounded by walls (mostly occupying the site of those constructed by the emperor Aurelian) in the form of an irregular polygon, about 14 m. in circ., the longest diameter being from the Porta del Popolo, N.W., to the Porta S. Sebastiano, S.E., about 3 m. in length. The city has 16 gates, three or four of which, however, have been walled up: of these, the principal are the Porta del Popolo, on the road to Florence and Ancona; the Porta Pia, on the road to Tivoli; the Porta Maggiore, leading to Palestrina; and the Porta S. Giovanni, leading S.E. to Albano and Naples. But not more than a third part of the enclosed area is covered with buildings, the rest consisting of ruins, gardens, and fields, with some churches, convents, and other scattered habitations. The older part of the ancient city, where the principal ruins are found, is about 1/2 m. S. from the modern city; but it is needless to add, that the former, under the emperors, was much more extensive than the modern town, inasmuch as, besides the space within the walls, it had very extensive suburbs. The ground occupied by the city is mostly low, being only from 35 to 45 ft. above the level of the sea. Exclusive, however, of the low grounds, several low hills, or eminences, are comprised within the limits of the city; and in consequence of ancient Rome being popularly said to stand upon seven hills, it was sometimes called *ars septuicollis*. The following measurements exhibit the height of the hills now referred to:—

Eng. Ft.	Eng. Ft.
Capitol, at the W. angle of the Tarpeian rock - 161	Esquiline hill (Quintus Natus at the Pope's palace) - 158
Do. at N. end - 160	Ancient pavement of the Forum - 59
Palatine hill - 170	Do. do. of Trajan's Forum - 43
Aventine - 156	
Caelian - 168	
Palatine - 218	

The Palatine hill, the nucleus of the city, comprises a space of about 40 acres, and appears originally to have

had precipitous edges; but excepting this, and the Capitoline hill, comprising about 16 acres, the rest have an easy ascent, and are, in fact, mere eminences. No doubt, however, owing to the accumulation of rubbish in the valleys, and the lowering of the hills by rains, the digging of foundations, &c., the elevations of the latter must have been much more striking in antiquity than at present. The seven hills, properly so called, on the E. bank of the Tiber, were included in the city so early as the reign of Servius Tullius; but at a later period the *Mons Pincius* (*Pincian hill*), to the N.E., and the *Mons Vaticanus*, and part of the *Mons Janiculum*, on the W. side of the Tiber, were enclosed within the city walls. The hills consist chiefly of volcanic tufa intermingled with thin beds of travertine, making good building stone, as well as of silicious sand, and a few layers of pumice and scoria, while the low ground which has been raised several feet above its ancient level, apparently by the deposits left by frequent floods, is covered with calcareous sands, marls, clays, or silt.

Rome is divided into 14 districts, or *Rioni*, 11 of which are in the portion now inhabited; but the more popular, and for general purposes more intelligible, distribution of the city is into a central portion on the low ground E. of the Tiber, the ancient Campus Martius, a division to the E. of the latter, on the Pincian, Quirinal, and Viminal hills, and a third division on the W. side of the Tiber. The first of these quarters is the chief seat of bustle and trade: it is intersected by the Corso, and has some other good streets. On the N.W. side of the Capitol is the meanest and dirtiest part of the city, chiefly inhabited by Jews, and many degrees worse than Moomouth Street or Houndsditch in London. The upper part of the city on the Pincian and Quirinal hills is less densely covered with houses, and chiefly comprises palaces and villas, churches, convents, and gardens; it is intersected near the pope's palace on the Quirinal hill by two fine avenues, crossing each other at right angles, and having four fountains at the point of intersection. Between the Quirinal and Esquiline hills are several streets inhabited by the lower orders, and extending to the Via Vaccina, a rather broad thoroughfare leading to the Roman forum. Beyond N., E., and S., are gardens and fields, studded here and there with villas, churches, and ruins, including the baths of Diocletian and Titus, and the Colosseum. That portion of Rome which lies on the right or W. bank of the river, consists of two parts: the Vatican, northward, in which are comprised the castle of St. Angelo and St. Peter's, the glory not merely of the eternal city but of Christendom; and the Trastevere or ancient Janiculum, southward, which has the street, called from its length (nearly 1 m.), Via Longara, a botanic garden, and the Villa Corsini.

Rome, meaning the modern city (as we shall afterwards notice the ruins), is dull, dirty, and, with a few striking exceptions, meanly built: "Indeed," says Mr. Forsyth, "whichever road you take, your attention will be divided between magnificence and filth." (*Italy*, p. 194.) Most of the streets are narrow, crooked, and badly lighted, with melancholy-looking *reservoirs*, or else by lamps hung over the statues of the Virgin, which seem to be indispensable to all considerable houses. From this general censure, however, must be excepted the Corso, already alluded to, extending, in a straight line, more than a mile, from the Porta del Popolo to the foot of the Capitoline hill, and which, in the greater part of its extent, is 50 ft. wide, with *trottoirs* at the sides, which, however, are so narrow, and so often encroached on, as to be, in fact, of little service: it is lined with many handsome palaces, some of which may vie in grandeur with the noblest in Italy. Two other streets, the *Strada di Ripetta* and the *Strada del Babuino*, diverging from the open space before his holiness's palace, are long, straight, and tolerably wide. These three streets are crossed by a line connecting the bridge of St. Angelo with the Pincian hill, and forming one of the most bustling thoroughfares in Rome. With these exceptions, however, the streets are mean looking, and the houses have a shabby, dilapidated appearance, wholly unworthy so celebrated a city. The private houses are usually from three to five stories in height, built of tufa or brick, and plastered over. With these are intermixed many huge old buildings (*palaces*), contrasting most strikingly with the surrounding slight, mean tenements, by their bulk, height, and air of antique grandeur. In consequence, however, of the decay of the families to which they belong, many of them are now turned into ecclesiastical colleges or hotels, or let to foreign ambassadors or noblemen; and in those which have escaped this fate, the lower story is sometimes let for shops, and sometimes retained for stables, coach-houses, and servants' rooms. The second story is generally a picture gallery, consisting of a suite of rooms all opening into each other, and richly adorned with marble and painted ceilings. The owner of the building occupies the third story, or, if there be a fourth, the third and fourth,

throwing open his galleries to artists and all who choose to give two or three *paoli* to his servants. "The great size of many of the palaces, and the abundance as well as bold projection of the ornaments, produce, indeed, a general impression of magnificence; but if we can get space enough in front to examine the parts distinctly, we often turn away dissatisfied with the absurdity and disproportion they exhibit. Generally speaking, these buildings exhibit great simplicity of design, usually presenting to the street one simple continued line of surface, rarely decorated either with columns or pilasters. Ornaments round the windows are never omitted, but are generally too large, and in bad taste. The stories are generally divided by horizontal mouldings along the front, and great space is left between the ranges of windows. The whole is crowned by a large and rich cornice." Such, according to Woods (*Letters of an Architect*, i. 438.), is the general external appearance of the best among these *palazzi*, of which Rome comprises in all upwards of 300, many, of course, being very inferior both in size and architectural beauty.

Rome has not a single square; and of the piazzas or paved areas, the Piazza del Popolo, the Piazza Navona, and that in front of St. Peter's, are the only three that deserve notice. They are adorned with obelisks, statues, and fountains; but the first and last being at the extremities of the town, are lost as places for walking in or meeting friends. The fine promenade on the Pincian hill, E. of the Piazza del Popolo, is planted with trees, and commands an extensive view; but it is of small extent, and is shut at sunset. Without the walls, however, on the N.E. side of the city, is the Villa Borghese, the grounds of which, nearly 3 m. in circ., planted after the fashion of an English park, and ornamented with statues, fountains, &c., are open to the public, and constitute the favourite resort of all classes, whether on foot or in carriages. Rome, like London and Naples, is destitute of promenades sheltered from the weather, and well lighted at night, a convenience which Paris has in perfection; and another defect is the absence of elegant shops, cafés, and restaurants, that form so striking a feature in the French capital. In the number and grandeur of its public fountains, however, and in the quality of its water, Rome surpasses every city. Almost every public piazza has its fountain, and almost every fountain has some peculiarity in its size, form, or situation, to attract attention. The finest of these, and perhaps the most magnificent in the world, is the fountain of Trevi, which has a white marble basin in a vast inclosure paved with large slabs of the same material. It represents a palace of Neptune placed on a rough, broken rock, and adorned with Corinthian pillars; in the centre of the building, under a rich arch, stands Neptune in his car drawn by sea-horses; and water runs down in torrents from the rock, making, as it were, a sea at its base. In the summer the waters overflow their usual limits, fill the whole marble basin, and rise to a level with the square, which after sunset is a favourite lounge of the inhabitants. The fountain in the Piazza Navona has an obelisk in its centre, surrounded by Tritons and salamis, seated on rocks, and spouting forth water in magnificent jets d'eau. The *Pontana Felice*, on the Viminal hill, discharges itself under an Ionic arcade through a rock, which a figure of Moses is striking with his rod. Other figures surround the prophet, and below are four lions hanging over the basin, as if eager to slake their thirst. These and the other fountains of the city are supplied from three only out of the numerous aqueducts which attest the luxuriance of the ancient city; and yet such is the quantity they convey, and so pure are the sources whence it is derived, that no city can boast of such a profusion of clear and salubrious water, poured forth spontaneously in jets d'eau without the aid of expensive machinery, as at Versailles, St. Cloud, and Chatsworth.

But, after all, water at Rome would seem to be provided rather for show than for use. Forsyth says that when he visited the city, the fountain of Trevi was inaccessible from filth! (*P. 194.*) There is, generally, in fact, a great deficiency of cleanliness, and a limited consumption of water, in all cities supplied by fountains, and wherever, indeed, it is not conveyed by pipes into private houses, and placed, as it were, under the hand of the occupiers.

The grand story of modern Rome consists in the magnificence of her churches, or rather in the matchless structure of St. Peter's.

"— thou, of temples old, or altars new,
Standest alone— with nothing like thee—
Worshipped of God, the holy and the true.
Since Zion's demolition, when that He
Perused his former city, he could see
Of earthly structures but his bowers proud,
Of a sublimer aspect? Majesty,
Power, Glory, Strength, and Beauty, all are dead!
In this eternal ark of worship—

This magnificent fabric occupies the site of an older structure raised by Constantine the Great. Pope Julius II. laid the first stone of the new building on the 18th

of April, 1500, having selected the famous Bramante for his architect. But the latter dying in 1514, other architects were employed to carry on the work, till, in 1546, it was fortunately committed to the illustrious Michael Angelo, who nearly completed the dome, and a large portion of the building. After Michael Angelo's death, in 1564, the work was prosecuted under other architects, till its completion in 1614. The colonnade by Bernini was added in 1655-57. "St. Peter's," says Mr. Maclaren, "unlike many other celebrated edifices, surpasses expectation. The front is too low, and as some other defects; but the vestibule is admirable, and the interior is solemn, grand, rich, harmonious, beyond any thing that I had conceived. It is unquestionably the noblest building ever reared by human hands, the only work of art, as Madame de Staël observes, which produces an impression of grandeur akin to that which we receive from the works of nature. So vast are its dimensions, that colossal statues and monumental groups of figures are stowed away in its aisles and recesses without impairing the unity and simplicity the plan, as they do in the St. Paul's of London. The interior of the dome (which is 140 ft. in diameter), as well as a considerable portion of the other surface, is covered with pictures, all of which, however, are, with a few exceptions, of mosaic. The eye forms most erroneous images respecting the height of the different parts of Peter's, and most visitors are on this account disappointed by first impressions. The splendid bronze Baldachin, or canopy, immediately under the dome and over the high altar, close also to the supposed tomb of Peter, is about 130 ft. high, though in appearance only the chair of St. Peter, too, behind the high altar, rises from a distance as if raised only a few steps from ground, whereas it is placed on an elevation 70 ft. above the floor. The pews seen in the band of the prophetess of the lower compartments of the dome might be used to be 12 or 13 inches in length, whereas its real height is 6 ft. The visitor has no adequate conception of the magnitude of the dome until he arrives at the roof passages of which are so contrived that one may ride on horseback, when he finds it rising before him like a mountain. The view from the external gallery of the lantern is exceedingly fine and extensive, embracing the Campagna from the sea to the Appennines; as well as, on looking at the roof of the church, its pinnacles give it somewhat the appearance of a town, so striking is its size. The depth of the floor, as seen from the interior of the lantern, appears to be less than 100 ft.; but it may be discovered that the eye is deceived, as the promenaders below appear only as tiny specks. When we stand in the interior gallery of the corresponding with the whispering gallery of St. Paul in London, and look at the mosaics on the concrete are surprised to find them composed of square coloured stone, half an inch broad, clumsily put together, often with intervals between them; yet, seen close, they might pass for oil paintings. We find the face of an angel close to us nearly as real as when we look across the gallery, a similar but really of equal proportions, seems to be of the size. The lights in this splendid edifice are imperceptibly well distributed, and kept in admirable profusion, also, of rare and beautiful marble, used in every part, together with the gilded roof, mosaics, monuments, mosaic ceilings and pictures, display of brilliant and unexampled magnificence requires weeks and almost years to comprehend." (Maclaren, 177, 178; Burton, ii. 131-143.)

The form of the church, as designed by Bramante, was Latin cross; but this was changed by Michael Angelo to a Greek cross, which has the advantage of giving the whole structure at one coup-d'œil. Still, however, the plans of the latter were departed from by Carlo Maderno. In the end, perhaps, unjust language of Forsyth, the English plasterer came down from Como to break up the unity of the master-idea, and him we must thank for the Latin cross, the aisles, the mosaics, and the low, ugly front." (Italy, p. 179.) However, the church is 395 ft. in length, and 156 ft. in width, with whatever defects it and other parts of the edifice may be charged, still there can be no question that Peter's is beyond all comparison the most magnificent ever raised by mortal hands to the worship of the Supreme Being. It is a spectacle that never may visit it every day, and always find something to admire. Then its temperature is delightfully cool in summer, as it is comfortably warm in winter. The fact is, that the walls are so thick that

the air is not affected by that without, so that, like a well-built cellar, it enjoys an equality of temperature all the year round." (Matthew's Diary of an Invalid, p. 86.)

Of the many august ceremonies performed in this magnificent temple, the most imposing is that of the Triduum, on the night of Good Friday, when the hundred lamps that burn over the tomb of St. Peter are extinguished, and a stupendous cross of light appears suspended from the dome between the altar and the nave, shedding over the whole edifice a soft lustre, delightful to the eye, and forming, with the objects animate and inanimate on which it sheds its light, a scene singularly striking, by a happy mixture of tranquillity and animation, of darkness and light, of simplicity and majesty; a scene, indeed, far more sublime and more deeply impressive than the illumination of the external dome on the night of St. Peter's day (June 29.). (Eustace, ii. 164-169.)

The dimensions of St. Peter's have been variously given by different authorities, and perhaps exactness is not attainable; but the following measurements are adopted by Gwill, and may, perhaps, be depended on. The dimensions of St. Paul's, of Milan cathedral, and St. Sophia's at Constantinople, are from Woods, Eustace, and Dallaway.

Dimensions.	St. Peter's.	St. Paul's.	Milan Cath.	St. Sophia.
Extreme inside length	FL 807	FL 510	FL 483	FL 369
Length of transepts	445	392	324	243
Height from cross to floor	458	363	356	
Width of nave	107		177	
Total area including outside walls	227,000	84,000		

Comparing the Roman church with the British cathedral, which, though longer *exteriorly*, may well claim to be the second in the world, the floor of St. Peter's covers nearly 5 English acres (nearly the size of the Colosseum), while that of St. Paul's occupies only 2 acres; and the actual bulk or entire contents of the former, as compared to the latter, are as 4 to 1. And taking into account the number and splendour of the decorations of St. Peter's, we need not wonder that it is supposed to have cost, with its monuments, gilding, and embellishments, from 2 to 16 millions sterling, whereas the cost of St. Paul's did not exceed 750,000 l. In the interior of these two noble buildings, the difference is scarcely less striking than between one of our old barn-like meeting-houses and the most elegant of our modern episcopal churches; but, as regards the exterior, all admit, that in symmetry, purity of design, and true architectural beauty, the English is superior to the Roman temple." (Maclaren's Notes, 177-180.)

It is to be regretted that the situation of this cathedral of Christendom has been remarkably ill chosen. "No building," says Mr. Woods, "of great consequence was ever so badly placed. There is no distinct point of view in which this church gives the notion of great magnificence, or from which it has the appearance of being such an immense building as it really is. This is owing to its situation in a hollow between the Janiculate and Vatican hills, which are connected by a neck behind it; so that on three sides it is surrounded by slopes rising almost immediately from it to about the height of the nave; and even in front, notwithstanding the large space before it, the building seems encumbered with houses, which occupy a strip extending towards the river. From the bridge of St. Angelo little can be seen but the dome itself; and even when a glimpse is at length caught of its front and of the circular colonnade by which it is approached, it appears much nearer than it is; and the magnificent avenue, the *chef-d'œuvre* of Bernini, seems a finer object than the edifice to which it leads." (Woods's Letters of an Architect, 1. 308.) This colonnade, which consists of two opposite semi-ellipses, forming each a broad covered passage leading to the front of the cathedral, comprises 256 Doric columns of travertine 40 ft. in height, arranged in four rows, and surmounted by 199 statues of saints. In the central space, between the colonnades, flanked by two fountains, is an obelisk, consisting of a single block of granite about 80 ft. in height, surmounted by a cross, the total altitude being 136 ft.: it was brought from Egypt to Rome by Caligula, and formerly stood in the circus of Nero, having been removed to its present situation by Pope Sixtus V.

"All churches," says Forsyth, even of the patriarchal class (those called *basilicæ*), stand at an awful distance from the majesty of St. Peter's." That of St. John Lateran, however, (as the S.S.R. extremity of Rome, far from the modern buildings, and upwards of 1 m. from the Coliseum), is entitled to the second place, and in former times was superior to St. Peter's. The chapter of the Lateran even now takes precedence, and the popes are always crowned here. This church was

work is made not far from the church, in a building, used for the office of the legation. The pieces forming these pictures are square pieces of a vitrified enamel, composed of glass, lead, and tin; and there is a different shade of colour. Marble was first used, and the polished surface was found to destroy the work. (Burton, ii. 140.)

built on the site of an older structure in the beginning of the 14th century. Its front, consisting of a magnificent colonnade, is certainly impressive, notwithstanding its numerous faults. There are 5 entrances; that in the centre having a bronze door taken from the Temple of Peace in the Forum; and on the top of the façade are 15 statues of our Saviour, and various saints. The interior is divided into 5 aisles, and in the pillars of the nave are colossal statues of the Twelve Apostles; this church comprises also a chapel of the Corsini family, in the form of a Greek cross with a central dome, gorgeously decorated with marbles, gilding, and pictures, and said to be one of the richest in Rome. Adjoining this church is a palace, which, after having been for many centuries the residence of the popes, was converted, in 1693, into an hospital for the poor; and at no great distance is the Scala Santa, a building celebrated for containing a staircase of 28 white marble steps, alleged to have belonged to the palace of Pilate at Jerusalem, and which orthodox Roman Catholics esteem a meritorious act of piety to ascend on their knees; indeed, so great is the number of the devotees, that, with a view to the preservation of the steps, they have been covered with planks of wood. At the top is a painting of our Saviour at the age of twelve, begun by St. Luke, but finished by miraculous agency! (*Burton's Rome*, ii. 177.) The church of St. Paul's, outside the walls, one of the handsomest in Rome, and in many respects superior to that of St. John Lateran, was burnt down in 1626, and is now a course, though very slowly, of a rebuild. The basilica of St. Maria Maggiore is a very fine and large edifice; but the profusion of its ornaments takes from the unity of the main design, and the narrow brick tower, rising above the whole, is in very bad taste. The interior has three aisles, the central one being lined by 36 Ionic pillars of white marble, which have a very beautiful effect: they are undoubtedly ancient, and may have belonged to the temple of Juno Lucina, that formerly stood here. A chapel in this church, belonging to the Borghese family, deserves notice for the richness of its decorations. The church of *St. Pietro in vinculo*, originally erected about *anno* 420, but since wholly rebuilt, presents to the eye a noble hall, supported by 20 Doric columns of Parian marble, open on all sides, adorned with some beautiful tombs, and terminating in a semi-circle behind the marble. But it is principally remarkable for its containing the tomb of Julius II., illustrated by the noble statue of Moses by Michael Angelo.* The other churches are so numerous that it would be an almost endless task to describe them: many of them command admiration from the splendour of their decorations and the articles of work which they contain; but perhaps the finest and most worthy of attention from the stranger are those of *Santa Agnese*, in the Piazza Navona, *San Carlo al Corso*, *San Ignazio*, the *Santi Apostoli*, the *Chiesa di Gesù*, and the *Chiesa Nuova*; all of which are abundantly rich in marbles, gilding, &c., though not always disposed in the best taste.

The *Pattica*, the most ancient and by far the most celebrated of the papal palaces, is a mass of buildings erected at various times by different popes, said to cover a space about 1,300 ft. in length by 1,600 ft. in breadth, and to comprise above 4,000 apartments. "The effect," however, says Burton, "is any thing but pleasing: from no point of view does it present any extent of front or magnificence of design; while its proximity to St. Peter's interferes most unfortunately with the view of that building." (ii. 255.) The interior consists of a suite of galleries of small breadth, which, if placed in a continuous line, would extend two miles in length. It contains a countless multitude of inscriptions, statues, busts, reliefs, urns, sarcophagi, and vases, and nothing of its literary and numismatic treasures, its books, MSS., drawings, the number of which the visitor can only guess at by counting the presses that conceal them from his sight. Taken altogether, it is by far the richest museum in Europe, and the precious objects it contains are magnificently lodged; for when the church was rich, she patronised the arts liberally both by buying and building, and even now the posthumous benevolence of popes and cardinals occasionally expends itself in erecting a new gallery or embellishing an old one. (*Maclean*, p. 174.) The collection of sculptures is behind all comparison the largest and most valuable in Europe, comprising, among other great works, the unequalled group of Laocoon and his sons, which even Michael Angelo despaired of being able to restore, the celebrated Apollo Belvedere (found at Antium, near the close of the 18th century), the well-known group of the Nile and his offspring, the Belvedere Torso of Hercules and Hebe, a noble statue of Adonis, and another of Marcellus, with an excellent bust of Pius VII. by Canova. The library of the Vatican is alleged to comprise about 60,000 printed books and 35,000 MSS.; but, in point of fact, its literary riches are unknown, the

catalogues having never been completed. There is reason, however, to think that its collection of ecclesiastical MSS. immeasurably surpasses any other in Europe; but it is very deficient in works of modern literature; and its value can be fully appreciated only by the churchman and the antiquary. The picture-gallery, which is by no means extensive, is, as compared with the collections now noticed, quite of modern creation. The frescoes of Raphael and Michael Angelo, indeed, have long adorned the walls of the Vatican; and the works of the former occupy three open galleries, called the *Loggia di Raffaello*, which go round three sides of a square court; but the oil-paintings have been collected wholly by Pius VI. and subsequent pontiffs, including the present pope, to whom we are indebted for the completion of the gallery. It comprises several of the *grand* productions of the Italian schools, including among others the "Transfiguration," by Raphael, usually considered his *chef-d'œuvre*, and the noblest work of art in the world; the "Madonna di Foligno" by the same master, the "Communion of St. Girolamo" by Doménichino, the "Martyrdom of St. Sebastian," perhaps Titian's very best work, the "Madonna of Monte Luca" by Giulio Romano, &c. The Vatican has two chapels, the most celebrated of which, known as the Sistine Chapel, was built by order of pope Sixtus IV.; its walls and ceiling were covered during the pontificates of Julius II. and Paul III. with frescoes from the masterly hand of Michael Angelo. Behind the altar is the magnificent painting of the Last Judgment, and the theme of so much eulogy and so much criticism; and on the ceiling are represented the Creation, the Deluge, and other scriptural subjects, the windows being adorned, somewhat inconsistently, with full-length figures of Prophets and Sibyls. It is a very large and lofty oblong room, with scarcely any of the furniture of a chapel: it is used on few occasions, except during the Holy week, when the *Tenebre* and the "overwhelming" *Miserere* of Allegri are sung by the papal choir. In this chapel also the cardinals meet in conclave for the election of a new pope. The *Sala Regia*, a hall of great size and good proportions, connects the above-mentioned chapel with another dedicated to St. Paul, which, like the first, is painted in fresco by Michael Angelo, and used only on great festivals. The Vatican is now seldom inhabited by the pope, except during the grand festival of Easter, the present abode of the pontiffs being on the Quirinal Hill (now called Monte Cavallo, from the two horses on its summit, taken from the baths of Constantine). This palace, which was begun by Paul III., presents two long fronts, plain and unadorned, like those of most of the other palaces, the court within being upwards of 300 ft. in length by 165 ft. in width, three sides being surrounded by porticoes, and the fourth having a double row of arcades surmounted by a clock tower. The grand staircase on the side to the right of the gateway conducts to the papal apartments, the gallery, and the chapel, all of which are on a grand scale, and adorned with fine paintings, especially those by Guido, which ornament a small private chapel. The adjoining gardens are spacious, refreshed in several fountains, and shaded by groves of laurel, plane, ilex, and poplar; but little attention being paid to them, they have a shabby, neglected appearance, made only more apparent by their great size. In front of the palace stands an Egyptian obelisk, flanked on either side by the statues of the horses which, as already stated, give the hill its present name. The Lateran Palace, near the church of St. John Lateran, has three lofty fronts of great extent and simplicity: a few apartments are reserved for the pope, when he comes to perform service at St. John's; but the rest is used as an hospital for 250 orphans.

Among the public buildings of modern Rome, the *Campidoglio*, or modern capitol, deserves notice, as being one of the best architectural works of Michael Angelo. The road to it is by a labyrinth of narrow dirty streets, leading from the Corso to two flights of steps, at the foot of one of which are two basaltic lions. At the top are colossal equestrian statues of Castor and Pollux, on a line with which stand several other statues and trophies. Opposite the steps of the senator's palace, the two other sides being occupied by the Palazzo dei Conservatori and the Museo Capitolino, the garden of which overhangs the Tiberian rock,

"Steepest rock of treasure's race,
The promontory whence the traitor's leap
Cured all ambition."

But, owing to the accumulation of soil at the bottom, this leap might now be taken without any very extraordinary risk.

The ancient buildings, to be noticed in the sequel, are nearly all gone; but there are many statues, and one in particular, a bronze equestrian figure of M. Aurelius, occupying the centre of the Piazza del Campidoglio, demands attention, not only on account of its beauty, but its acknowledged antiquity. In fact, quite enough is still furnished both by Nature in the commanding position of

* The magnificent ode or sonnet of Zappi, inspired by the contemplation of this statue, may be seen, with a spirited translation, in *Burton's Life of Leo X.* iv. 259, 3d ed. It is also given with a different translation in *Burton's Rome*, ii. 254.

the hill, and by Art in the various architectural embellishments forced principally of ancient materials, to call up in the mind of the classical student those by-gone days when deities issued from the capitol fraught with the destinies of a subject world.

"Age and ruins are crowded in this space,
The smooth, these shattered plan
The pyramid of evanescent pinnacles.
Hither the legends and the nations came
In suppliant crowds to learn their doom."

Childe Harold.

The Capitoline Museum comprises a few and not very valuable paintings by the old masters; but on the other hand, the collection of statues and marbles includes some of the most precious relics of ancient art, among which may be mentioned the "Dying Gladiator," the misnamed "Antinous," and the splendid group of "Cupid and Psyche." (*Cosser's Italy*, iii. 347.; *MacLaren*, p. 160-162.) The only other government buildings requiring notice are the new post-office, in the Piazza Colonna, near the Corso, and the castle or citadel of St. Angelo; the central tower of the latter was built by Hadrian (theater called *Mons Hadriani*) for a mausoleum, and was unquestionably the most superb sepulchral monument ever raised in Rome. It began to be used as a fortress when the city was attacked by the Goths: its defences were strengthened by various pontiffs, the last and greatest improvement having been made by Urban VIII., who completed the fosses and bastions towards the meadows. It is now used as a state prison and house of correction, but is better known to foreigners as the place whence are discharged the magnificent fireworks of the Easter festival.

Rome, as previously seen, comprises a great number of palaces, with the general plan of which the reader is already acquainted; but a few deserve more particular notice. The *Colonna Palace*, in the square of its own name, fronting the Corso, is entered by a noble painted staircase, leading to a gallery which, in point of size and architecture, is the finest in Rome: the roof of the saloon is supported by polished columns of *giacinto antico*, and the ceiling displays the battle of Lepanto, the event of which raised the Colonna to the honour of a Roman triumph. The collection of pictures, however, is about the worst of any in Rome. (*Williams's Letters*, ii. 60.) The *Borghese Palace* is also a very splendid building, remarkable for its extent, its porticoes, its granite lunna, and its long suite of apartments, being still distinguished by the well-supported magnificence it pervades every part, and gives the whole mansion, on the ground-floor to the attic, an appearance of wealth, order, and opulence. These are the words of taste; and, according to later writers, this palace is present equally well kept up. The collection, on the contrary to the usual rule, is on the ground-floor, and includes nine large rooms, and ranks among the first in the city. The *Doria Palace*, in the Corso, has three vast halls, and comprises a spacious-coart, surrounded by statues: the gallery is particularly rich in paintings by Italian and other schools, including many land- by Gaspar Poussin and Claude; in fact, nowhere in Rome is there so varied a collection, or one so suited for the purposes of study. (*Rome in the 18th century*, iii. 6-14.) The *Borghese Palace*, one of the best buildings in modern Rome, built from the designs of Maderno, Bernini, and Borromini, consists of a projecting centre, surmounted by a square and two smaller wings; it comprises, also, statues and paintings, a noble library, freely open to the public. The *Farnese Palace*, a structure, to erect which the Colosseum and the of Marcellus were despoiled of their choicest parts, had formerly a magnificent and, in some respects, unrivalled collection of ancient sculpture, painted books. But the king of the Two Sicilies having sold to the rich inheritor of this illustrious collection has been carried to Naples. On the wing of a gallery belonging to the *Rospigliosi* in the Monte Cavallo, is the famous *Aurora*, the work of Guido, which the beautiful engraving by must have made familiar to many of our readers. *Cicero* and *Corneille* palaces, and others too numerous to be mentioned, deserve attention for their great merits and the treasures of art with which furnished.

besides its palaces, has numerous villas, both without the present walls, built chiefly by a family, whose riches, taste, learning, and leisure, to create these beautiful retreats. The Villa has already been mentioned as including grounds that form the favourite resort of the Romans, and the mansion, with its collection of statues and marbles, is equally beautiful. The villa, outside the Porta Salara, is of exquisite taste, and Cardinal Albani, one of the great antiquaries of modern times: it was here, in his patronage, Winkelmann pursued those

studies that enabled him to write his history of ancient art. The collection, once far more extensive, is said to be extremely choice; in fact, it does not contain a single mediocre piece. The villas Aldobrandini, Pamfili, Lanti, and Ludovisi, are all, more or less, adorned with frescoes and ancient statuary; besides being well situated and surrounded with fine gardens. The magnificent Medici villa, on the Pincian hill, is now appropriated to the use of the French Academy.

The Tiber, including its windings, runs for three miles through Rome. The greatest breadth of the stream within the walls is only about 400 ft., and the smallest 200 ft., the average being somewhat less than one third the breadth of the Thames at London Bridge, and considerably less than that of the Clyde at Glasgow. It is deeper, however, than the Clyde, and has certainly a larger volume of water.

"Verticibus rapidis et multâ ferveat undâ
In mare præemptum." *Virg. Æn. vii. 51.*

It well merits the epithet of *fluvius*, as it is not only discoloured, but loaded with yellow mud beyond almost any other river; and this is not the consequence of accidental floods, for its waters are scarcely ever clear, and hence, no doubt, its ancient name *Albulis*. Its banks are low and tame, consisting for the most part of crumbling soil, without quays, and at many places without even protecting walls; and they are not ornamented by a single promenade or decent street. (*MacLaren*, p. 150.) There are only two places where there is a sort of quay, or landing-place, one called *Ripetta*, on the E. bank, above the bridge of St. Angelo, where boats from the inland provinces, land and provisions, &c., and the other at the S. end of the city, on the opposite bank, called the *Porto di Ripa Grande*, where sea-borne vessels land their cargoes, and where there is a line of warehouses, and a custom-house. Three bridges cross the river within Rome; that most northward is the Ponte St. Angelo (anc. *Pons Ælius*), built by Hadrian, and restored in its present form by Clement IX.: it is a structure of no great beauty, having a balustrade, on the top of which are several hideous-looking figures of angels. The next, proceeding southward, is the *Pons Sisto* (anc. *Pons Sublicus*), built by either Trajan or Antoninus Pius, and rebuilt by Sixtus IV. in the 16th century. About half a mile lower down is the island of San Bartolomeo, the ancient *Insula Tiberina*, of oblong shape, about 1,000 ft. in length, and 300 ft. in breadth, united with the E. bank by the Ponte San Bartolomeo (anc. *Pons Cæstius*), and with the W. bank and the district of Trastevere by the Ponte di quattro Capi, so called from a head of Janus Quadrifrons that formerly stood there; it is the Pons Fabricius of antiquity, and was constructed about 61, a.c. Within Rome, also, are the remains of three ancient bridges, the principal being the *Pons Triumphalis*, so called from the circumstance of the triumphal processions crossing it on their way to the capitol: it is now entirely destroyed, but the piers of it may be distinguished by the agitation of the water a little below the bridge of St. Angelo. About half of the Pons Palatinus, the most ancient bridge of Rome, is still standing, a few yards below the island of San Bartolomeo, and a continuation has been made of wood for the accommodation of foot passengers. The *Pons Sublicus* or *Emilius*, the most southerly of the old Roman bridges, has long disappeared. The Tiber is now, as it was in Virgil's time, subject to very high and also frequent floods, the water sometimes rising as high as the Piazza di Spagna, and very frequently laying under water all the streets in the busy quarter near the river. On the Porto di Ripetta are two pillars which mark the height of the different floods for some centuries past; and it appears from it that they have all happened between the months of November and February. The frequency of these inundations gave rise to various projects for preventing them, and Aurelian caused the banks to be raised and its channel cleared, though with what success we are not informed. The vast accumulation of soil, however, by which the surface of modern Rome is raised so many feet above the ancient city, must, undoubtedly, make it less liable to suffer from floods now than formerly. (*Burton*, i. 236.)

The CLASSICAL MONUMENTS of Rome are very numerous, their interest depending on their beauty, grandeur, and singularity, their intrinsic merit, or on the events and personages historically associated with them. Those who expect gratification from the first source will, in many instances, be disappointed, as the greater number present little to please the eye or gratify the taste. The *aqueducts*, for example, those astonishing efforts of human industry, which stretch across the Campagna in various directions, exhibit their real greatness only to the understanding. To the eye, these works (of which there seem to have been 14, coming from 9 different sources,) present merely a series of naked brick arches, scarcely higher than a house-door in span, or higher than a park-wall, and without any sort of ornament. Near the

mountains, and in crossing valleys, they may be lofty; but in the vicinity of the city they are low and tame: three only now remain in a state fit for use, viz. the *Acqua vergine*, *Acqua felici* (anc. the *Claudian aqueduct*), and the *Acqua Sabatina*, which supplies the Janiculum. The Roman roads, also, solidly built of large stones, may be called great works for their expense and utility, but they have no external attractions. The same remark applies to the *Cloacas*, of which a false idea is conveyed by calling them *sewers*. They were rather drains made to carry off the stagnant water of the pestiferous marshes, which occupied much of the low ground near the Tiber, and the spaces between the Aventine, Palatine, and Capitoline hills. They were constructed at a very early period (according to some, in the time of the kings), for the obvious reason, that the marshes separated the first inhabited parts of the city from each other, and their desecration became indispensable. The height and width of the *Cloaca maxima*, are equal, each measuring 18 1/2 ft.: a view of it may be obtained at its mouth, where it flows into the Tiber a little below the Ponte Rotto, another portion being visible near the Arch of Janus Quadrifrons.

The *baths*, as they now exist, are an assemblage of naked, half dilapidated brick walls, which surprise by their huge size and the extent of ground they cover. We know of the former existence of eight *thermae*, erected by different emperors; and the carcases of three remain in considerable masses, those of Titus, Caracalla, and Diocletian, the ruins of the first two of which are in vineyards, a great part of the last having been transformed by Michel Angelo into the church and monastery of Santa Maria degli Angeli. Each consists of a labyrinth of apartments, the uses of some of which antiquaries have scarcely been able to conjecture. Caracalla's baths covered an area of 36 English acres, a space nearly three times the size of Lincoln's Inn Fields, in London. "But we must keep in mind the multifarious nature of these establishments, which included not only baths, with their *caldaria*, *frigidaria*, *sudatoria*, &c., but porticoes and gardens, libraries, lecture and conversation rooms for the philosophers, academies and halls for declamation, gymnasia for the "fancy," theatres for the gay, temples for the devout, and, most probably, wine shops or places of refreshment for all; in fact, they were less baths than 'places of universal recreation.' The Roman citizen left his house early, and only returned at night to his bed, spending the day chiefly in the forum, the courts of justice, or at the baths. The latter establishments seem to have combined the uses of our coffee-houses, reading-rooms, libraries, lecture-rooms, and theatres, as well as baths. We may call them, indeed, national clubs, supplied with every species of accommodation then in vogue, and open to the whole free citizens of Rome. It is this circumstance which gives them their interest. We cannot tread these ghastly chambers, where no sound now falls on the ear save the echo of our own steps, without thinking of the animated throng that once peopled them, the crowd of Roman citizens of all grades and classes, from the emperor to the mendicant who received his monthly dole of wheat from the public granaries, the foreigners from every clime, princes, tax-gatherers, hostages, philosophers, soldiers, parasites, who came to the seat of empire for business or pleasure. All these must have resorted to the baths, some for ablution, exercise, or amusement, some to read in the libraries, some to listen to the philosophers, some to talk of the news and hear bulletins read from the armies, announcing battles on the Rhine or Euphrates, or insurrections in Spain or Gaul." (*Macdaren's Notes*, p. 142.)

Among the numerous temples that once adorned the ancient capital of the world, the Pantheon and the temples of Vesta, Peace, Fortuna virilis, and Bacchus, present extensive and very interesting remains; but incomparably finer than all the rest is the Pantheon (in the ancient *Comus Martius*), which, though stripped of its external ornaments, and disfigured by two modern bellies, erected by Bernini, is entire within. This exquisite temple was built, as Pliny tells us (*Hist. Nat.*, lib. xxxvi. cap. 15.), and as the inscription on the portico testifies, by Agrippa, the friend and general of Augustus, who dedicated it to Jupiter the Avenger, *Jovi uttori*. It is a perfect circle, 160 ft. in diameter.

"Relic of nobler days and nobler art!
Despoiled, yet perfect, with thy circle spread—
A hollow appealing to all hearts—
Art a wonder!"

Its beauty consists in its admirable proportions; and its portico, 110 ft. in length, by 44 ft. in depth, supported by 16 Corinthian columns of white marble, has the most majestic appearance. "The portal is more than faultless; it is positively the most sublime result that was ever produced by so little architecture." (*Forssyth*.) The dome is of great extent, and has a central aperture, from which the building receives its entire light. The Pantheon has been stripped of every thing that could be taken away, in order to furnish materials for the embellishment of St. Peter's. It is now made the receptacle of

monuments to those who have deserved well of their country, and contributed to sustain the reputation of Italy.

The great wonder of ancient Rome, however, is the Flavian amphitheatre, now the Coliseum, or more properly Colosseum*, unquestionably the most august ruin in the world, and by far the largest amphitheatre of which we have any knowledge.

"Omnia Cumesco cunctis labor amphitheatro,
Unum pro cunctis summa loquar opus."
Martial de Spect.

It consists of a vast ellipse, the length of the longest diameter measured from the outside of the outer wall being about 630, and that of the shortest 513 ft., so that it covers about 8 1/2 Engl. acres of ground. The longest diameter of the arena has been variously given at from 287 to 300 ft., and the shortest at from 180 to 190 ft.: the space between the arena and the outer wall (from 160 to 167 ft.) being occupied by the walls, corridors, and seats that rose tier above tier from the wall round the arena nearly to the top of the outer wall. The latter, which is about 179 ft. in height, consists of three rows of vaulted arches rising one above another, exclusive of which, it had, when perfect, upper works of wood. This colossal amphitheatre is said to have had seats for 57,000 spectators, and standing room for 20,000 more! There is really, therefore, but little of exaggeration in the statement of Addison that the amphitheatre

— "on its public shows unpeopled Rome,
And held, uncrowded, nations in its womb."

The arena was sufficiently extensive for the exhibition, on the grandest possible scale, of the bloody sports that delighted the ancient Romans; and here hundreds, and even thousands, of gladiators and of wild beasts have frequently contended at once—

"Butcher'd to make a Roman holiday!"

This magnificent ruin has been much damaged by earthquakes, lightning, and the destroying influence of time; but it has suffered incomparably more from the injuries inflicted upon it by the successive masters of Rome. In the 12th century it was occupied as a fortress; and in the course of the next century it became, what it long continued to be, a common quarry, whence materials were taken to build a large portion of the modern city. (*Hobhouse's Illustrations of Childs Harold*, pp. 263—266.) In consequence of these lengthened devastations, "not a single step is now remaining of all the seats of stone which rose in regular succession from the arena; but the wall which surrounded it to prevent the escape of the wild beasts, is nearly entire. The interior presents a most complete scene of destruction. By means of broken staircases, we may climb up a considerable height, and almost be lost in the labyrinth of ruins. It is from such a view of these remains that the best idea of their vastness is formed; and if viewed by moonlight, when the shattered fragments of stone, and the shrubs which grow upon them, are seen at a distance in alternations of light and shade, the mind receives mingled impressions of gratification and melancholy which, perhaps, no other prospect in the world could produce." (*Forssyth's*, li. ii. 55—56.) At length, however, an end was put to the spoliation of this most splendid relic of Imperial Rome. "Benedict XIV. consecrated the spot which persecution and fable had stained with the blood of so many Christian martyrs." (*Gibbon*, xli. 455.) And subsequent pontiffs have repaired and strengthened portions of the existing ruin.

"The pile speaks powerfully to the imagination, through the bloody rites once celebrated in it. It was the scene of those savage fights of gladiators, those combats of wild beasts which were unknown among other ancient nations, and have fixed a brand of infamy on the Roman name. The interior has been carefully cleared out, and the boundaries of the arena which was so often soaked with blood are distinctly seen. When we stand among the broken arches of this vast edifice, now the abode of bats and owls, silent as the grave, and with not a single building near it, our thoughts are irresistibly carried back to the thousands of all ranks and both sexes who once filled its ample benches, to the roars and yells of the wild animals lacerating each other, the shrieks of the slaughtered human beings, and the shouts of the blood-thirsty multitude now applauding the blow which took away a fellow-creature's life, and now calling out for fresh victims. These cruel exhibitions were characteristic of Rome, both republican and imperial. The Greeks, wherever they established their power, carried with them the elevated sentiments and graceful mirth of the stage; and you may trace the dominion of the Romans over the ancient world, by the amphitheatres built

* The amphitheatre of Vespasian and Titus was, in the lower ages, called *Coliseum*, or *Colosseum*, from the busts of the emperors, not, as has been sometimes stated, from a colossal statue of *Nero*, supposed to have stood near it. (*Cluverius's Antiquities of Rome*, a valuable work, p. 339.)

for the gratification of their ferocity." (*MacLaren's Notes*, 156-1.)

The Romans, always fond of shows and games, were especially attached to those of the Circus.

— *Donatus* termed *res maxime optatae*,
Plebs at Circus.

JOURNAL, Sat. 10. v. 81.

There are said to have been at one time no fewer than 15 circuses in the city and its environs. The principal of which were the Circus Maximus, Circus Agonalis, and the circus of Nero and Caracalla. Of the Circus Maximus (which *Amianus Marcellinus* describes as being at once "the temple, the dwelling-house, the public meeting, and all the hopes of the ancient Romans"), there are now no remains; but *Pliny* informs us that it was capable of accommodating 350,000 spectators; and *Juvenal*, using, perhaps, a poet's licence, goes the length of saying,

"Tantum hodie Romanis Circus capax."

The form of the Circus Agonalis (supposed to have been built by the Emperor Severus) may be traced in the Piazza Navona; and even the round end is not lost: it is about 750 ft. in length; and the races held there during the Carnival forcibly remind us of the uses to which it was formerly devoted. The Circus of Caracalla, outside the gate of San Sebastian, has its walls still entire, though the seats have fallen in, leaving a fill of terrace along the whole length of the wall. It appears to have been 1,575 ft. in length, 435 ft. in width, and to have been capable of accommodating 30,000 spectators. Of the other Roman ruins (excepting those of the forum and capitol), the two columns of Trajan and Antonine, and the three triumphal arches of Titus, Constantine, and Severus, principally deserve attention, from their beauty and the taste displayed in their execution. The column of Trajan, erected to commemorate that emperor's successes in Dacia, is 115 ft. 10 in. in height, including the statue of St. Peter, which Sixtus V. had the taste to substitute for that of his illustrious predecessor. A spiral staircase leads to the balustrade at top; and the exterior is adorned with sculptures in *alto rilievo*, spirally arranged round the column, representing the victories and achievements of the emperor. Napoleon's pillar at Paris is a good imitation of that of Trajan. The pillar of Antonine (or, more correctly, of Aurelius, for he erected it), in the Piazza Colonna, is 100 ft. high, and is now surmounted by a colossal statue of St. Paul; the bas-reliefs, similarly arranged to those of the other column, are not nearly so well executed, and the whole is much injured and defaced. The Arch of Constantine, built to commemorate his victories over the Jews, consisting of a single arch, was adorned with eight noble columns of the Composite order, and had its roof covered with sculptures, representing the emperor's triumph after the capture of Jerusalem; but it is in a state of great dilapidation, many of its rich decorations having been carried off to embellish the Farnese other palaces: latterly, however, some attempts have been made towards its restoration. Till the time of the IVth century, the bas-reliefs were not visible, so much soil accumulated and buried the arch; but that it ordered it to be excavated; and there is now a passage under it at the level of the ancient pavement, and, perhaps, on the pavement itself. The arch-entablature, at the foot of the Palatine hill, near the Mausoleum, is the most noble, because the best preserved structure of the kind in Rome; but it is inferior in chief beauty to the spoliation of the arch of which stood in the forum of that emperor, and the senate, with equal barbarism and servility, had it of its bas-reliefs and other rich materials, employed to ornament the new structure. It contained a large arch between two of smaller size, having side 4 fluted Corinthian columns of giallo-antico imitating the figures of 8 Decian captive warriors. It was adorned with the bas-reliefs taken from the arch of and with others of later date and of very inferior work. The soil which had accumulated round this excavated in 1864, when part of the *Via Trionfale* was brought to the light. The grass-grown plateau top was once, probably, occupied by the victor triumphal car; but this has disappeared. We are advised, that the paltry gateway in front of the old Palace is a wretched miniature imitation of (*Luximaden's Ancient Rome*, 327.)

pitoline Hill, "that rock of triumph, that high Rome embraced her heroes," naturally feeling of enthusiasm; but of the topography of ancient Capitol we really know next to nothing. Four temples, 16 chapels, 3 altars, the great treasury, a library, an atheneum, an area covered with the enrolment-office, all these are to be seen in a space 400 yards in length, and 300 in width of these, the last only can with precision be traced to the double row of vaults crowded with the inscription of Catulus was discovered. It may be believed to have extended along the

whole side of the hill." (*Hobhouse's Illustrations of Child's Harold*.) But however little be known of the precise position of these ancient buildings, here was situated the domus de canna straminibusque, which passed for the house of Romulus, and was preserved with religious care till the time of the emperors; here the Roman people celebrated their most sacred rites, and kept their treasures, archives, trophies, records, Sibylline books, and other valued relics; and here 300 conquerors, in the space of 1,000 years, deposited their spoils and consummated their glories, by the grand spectacle of a triumph. (*MacLaren*, p. 161.) The Roman forum, however, is, perhaps, the most melancholy object within the walls of "the eternal city." Its former grandeur is utterly annihilated; the ground has been applied to other purposes, and even the exact position of its various parts is much disputed, though it be probable that excavations, judiciously conducted, would set the question at rest. The forum, as described by Bunsen, the Prussian envoy, who took great pains on its investigation, appears to have been of no great size (about 2 acres), and to have owed much of its magnificence to the temples, basilicas, curias, and other buildings that surrounded it. Indeed it was in consequence of its inadequate size, that Julius Caesar built a new one. Augustus, Trajan, and other emperors, followed his example, and Rome had ultimately a multitude of forums. But though the ancient Forum Romanum and present Campo Vaccino be so desolate that we might apply to it Virgil's description of its appearance before the arrival of the Trojan settlers, (*Æn. viii. 360*.) :—

"... pœdum armenta videtur
Romanæque furo et laute magne carinis,"

the classical scholar turns with more pleasure to the pages of Byron :—

"The Forum, where the immortal accents glow,
And still the eloquent air breathes, burns with Cæsar!
The field of freedom, faction, force, and blood;
Where a proud people's passions exhaled
From the first hour of empire in the bud
To that when further words to conquer failed."

The forums of Augustus, Trajan, and Nerva, were laid out near the foot of the Capitoline Hill, close to, though separated by buildings from the Forum Romanum; and southward rises the Palatine Hill, on which was built that mere village or collection of huts of which the masters of the world, in the days of their grandeur, loved to speak as "the cradle of their empire, the acorn, whence sprung the mighty oak that overshadowed the world." Cicero had a house here, and the brick ruins are still extant of the golden palace of Nero; but at present this spot, which once lodged the whole Roman people, is occupied by a single villa, surrounded by vineyards and gardens. All the more conspicuous monuments above described belong to the imperial times, for scarcely a shred remains which can be referred with certainty to the ages of the Republic. The principal exceptions are the Tullian prison, comprising two dungeons, perfectly dark, and built with huge blocks of stone, answering, in all respects, to the striking description given of it by Sallust; (*Bel Catilinæ*, cap. 85.); there are also two ancient tombs (one of which belonged to the Cornelian family, and contained the bones of the Scipios); and the Cloaca Maxima already mentioned; but these structures have little beauty, and derive their interest almost exclusively from classical associations.

Population. — It is extremely difficult to arrive at any just conclusions with respect either to the population of Rome, or of any other of the great cities of antiquity. Generally it has been exceedingly exaggerated. The great actions of the Romans, the vast extent of their empire, and the magnificence and splendour of their capital, the original seat of their power, seem naturally enough to lead to the conclusion that its pop. must have been immense. The strong national spirit of the Roman writers led even the most cautious among them to magnify the power and importance of the eternal city, which were exaggerated beyond all bounds by orators and poets, anxious to gain the favour of the public by flattering their prejudices, and exalting their power and greatness. The statements, too, of the classical writers as to the pop. of Rome and other great towns, are not only in themselves very vague, but, being extremely liable to mistakes in copying, have, no doubt, in many instances been magnified by copyists and others, always prone to exaggerate what is really great, and of which they have no distinct knowledge. And in addition to this, all inquiries into the pop. of Rome, Athens, and other ancient cities, are rendered peculiarly difficult from the circumstance of the returns of the censuses, and the statements in the classical authorities founded on them, usually or always referring to such free citizens only as were capable of bearing arms, without including children or slaves, though the latter formed in most instances a large, if not the largest portion, of the pop. Our limits will not, however, permit of our entering into any detailed examination of the various statements that have been put forth with respect to the

pop. of Rome. The exaggerations of Voestus, Lipsius, Châteaubriant, and others, who give to imperial Rome 14, 8, and 3 millions of inhab., are too absurd to deserve notice. Hume, who in his masterly *Essay on the Populace of Ancient Nations*, has discussed the question of the pop. of Rome with his usual learning and good sense, arrives at the conclusion that Rome, when in the zenith of her greatness, might have been about as populous as London in 1760; in other words, that she might then have had from 700,000 to 800,000 inhab. Gibbon estimated the pop. at 1,300,000 (v. 286, 8vo. ed.); but it would appear that the more moderate estimate of Hume is the more accurate, though the probability be that even it is beyond the mark. It appears from the very learned and elaborate researches of M. Duran de la Malle (*Economie Publique des Romains*, liv. ii. cap. 10.) that the area of Rome, included within the walls of Aurelian, which have been traced and laid down with the utmost precision, amounts to very near 1900 hectares, that is to about 3-6ths the area of Paris; and the fair presumption is from the numerous forums and other open spaces in Rome, the number of the public buildings, and the great magnitude of many of the private residences, that its pop., as compared with that of Paris, would be in a still less proportion. To the pop. within the walls has, however, to be added that of the suburbs, the amount of which is the subject of elaborate inquiry by the same learned critic. On the whole, he concludes, apparently on good grounds, that the pop. of imperial Rome, including its suburbs, in its most flourishing period, may be fairly estimated, allowing for troops and strangers, at between 550,000 and 570,000 (l. 403.). And although we would not be understood as agreeing with M. Duran de la Malle in all his statements, we have no doubt of their general accuracy, and of his estimate coming very near the mark. And, in fact, how small soever it may appear when contrasted with the statements that have been long current as to its vast magnitude, a pop. of 600,000 is really immense for a city like Rome, without either manufactures or trade, and the inhabs. of which chiefly depended for subsistence on the gratuitous distribution of the corn supplied by the conquered provinces.

During the troubles that devastated Italy, and especially Rome, from the 13th to the 15th century, the pop. of the city rapidly declined, and did not exceed that of a third or fourth rate town of the present day. But from the 14th century it began again to increase; and in the "golden days" of Leo X., it is supposed to have amounted to about 85,000. Towards the middle of the 17th century it was estimated at 90,000. In 1709, the inhabs. amounted to 138,568; in 1740, to 146,080; in 1765, to 161,899. (*Gibbon*, xii. 429.) But, owing to the influence of the French occupation, they had fallen off, in 1821, to 146,000, exclusive of Jews. It has, however, again increased; and in the last census, in 1836, it had 148,908 inhabs. Owing partly to the unhealthiness of a portion of the town, and partly to the celibacy of large classes of the pop., the deaths uniformly exceed the births; so that were it not for the influx of inhabs. from all parts of Italy, and indeed, of Europe, the pop. would rapidly decline. The decrease in 1837 was chiefly attributable to the ravages of the cholera.

The *habitant*s, generally, are of a very mixed race; and it would be absurd to suppose, after so many changes, that they possess any considerable portion of ancient Roman blood. The men of the working and middling classes are generally stout and good-looking; though what are called Roman faces seem to be rarer than in England. The women, though good looking when young, soon become coarse; and, being large-boned, have a haggard appearance on losing their plumpness in old age. The men wear hats with crowns like a sugar-loaf, very wide cloaks wrapping round and round like a Scotch plaid; pieces of cloth tied about the legs with cords, instead of stockings, and sandals in lieu of shoes. The women generally wear a scarlet Spencer with sleeves; and, for a head-dress, a piece of white linen, thickened on the crown by numerous folds, and with the end hanging down behind to the shoulders. Want of cleanliness is a common vice. The streets, public places, houses, and persons of the bulk of the pop., would all be improved by scrubbing, washing, and combing. Some of the most interesting objects are inaccessible from the accumulation of filth; and the appearance of the monks is absolutely disgusting; they are not redolent of holiness, but of dirt and vermin.

The cardinals and bishops being (under the pope) the rulers of the country, constitute the court-party, and claim the highest rank, after whom come the lay nobility, subsisting on the revenues of their estates. The priesthood forms a very numerous portion of the inhabs.; for, besides 37 cardinals and bishops, it appears, according to the census of 1836, that there were then in the city 2,450 priests and monks, besides 1,364 nuns. The civil nobility, with a few exceptions, are few in number, poor, and without power or influence. The lawyers, who are divided into 4 classes (correspond-

ing nearly with king's counsellors, barristers, attorneys, and notaries), form a pretty extensive section. After them rank the artists, a very numerous body, with a good deal of influence in society; and next to these are the *mercanti di Campagna*, a wealthy class, who farm extensively, and have warehouses at Rome for the sale of their produce. Rome has about 5,500 shops; but their owners, with some few exceptions, rank below the classes above described. The foreigners, a mixed multitude, among whom the English and Russians are the most numerous, and, generally speaking, the best informed, constitute a class of themselves; enjoying also, in consequence of their wealth, many peculiar privileges. The police exercises no inquisitorial powers; and foreigners may live as they please without attracting attention, and do, with impunity, what would not be permitted to natives. To this circumstance, as well as to the fascinations of antiquity and modern art, we may attribute the visits of foreigners; for, of the English at least, a large proportion are led by motives very different from a love either of the fine arts or classic lore. (*MacLaren*, p. 145.) With respect to morals, it is admitted on all hands that they are extremely lax. The common people are intelligent, and obliging, but, on the slightest provocation, strike at each other with knives. Revenge and jealousy often lead, among the lower orders, to assassinations; rendered more frequent by the almost perfect impunity with which they may be committed. The statements as to conjugal infidelity are, perhaps, exaggerated; though the circumstances under which society is placed, the swarms of priests, monks, and others, having no excitement but that of intrigue, leave no doubt as to the prevalence of licentiousness, and the general laxity of morals. The modern Romans are prone to falsehood. "They never speak truth," says Mr. MacLaren, "at the expense of their own interest; and in the courts it is asserted that any quantity of false evidence may be got for money. Cheating, in all its forms, is practised by high and low; and provided it be cleverly done, and successful, they feel a pride in telling it. The judges and functionaries of all kinds have the reputation of being very corrupt. The higher classes are slaves to their vanity, and their indolent pleasures; the lower to the most abject superstition. This character, however, chiefly belongs to the past or passing generation. A large proportion of the young Romans in the middle and upper classes are described as liberal, gentlemanly, and honourable; but they, and indeed the educated classes generally of all ages, are Deists. They speak with contempt of the mummeries and pious frauds they daily witness, but go once a year to confession in order to avoid scandal. The Romans have, however, their redeeming qualities: they are very sober, social in their habits, fond of their children, and obliging to strangers. There is no town, perhaps, where foreigners feel so much at ease. They may dress as they please, live as they please, and indulge in all their personal tastes and eccentricities, without being annoyed, or even stared at. In private lodging-houses strangers often meet with much genuine and gratuitous kindness. Many of their vices may be ascribed to the operation of a bad political system on minds naturally acute and active; for falsehood, hypocrisy, and craft are the natural fruits of a government which crushes every liberty of thought." (*MacLaren's Notes*, 82.)

The manners of the upper classes are indicative of extreme indolence. They rise late, and are never to be seen until four in the afternoon, when they take a drive up and down the Corso, which, narrow as it is, may be termed the Hyde Park of Rome; after which, they resort to *sottées* in private houses, for the theatres are open only during the carnival. To walk in Rome is quite unfashionable; and a carriage of some kind or other is quite indispensable, even to those of the nobles or their wives, who live and income derive from a comfortable man. Dancing, conversation, and cards are the chief evening amusements; dinner-parties are almost unknown, and suppers are only given on great occasions. In the month of May, all the inhabitants that can afford it, go to the country for 3 months, and again in October for the same period, the air of the Campagna being then purified by the rains of April and September. On these occasions, they hire a house or lodging in one of the petty towns 10 m. or 15 m. from Rome; and their principal amusement during the *allottatura* consists in fishing and bird-catching; the chase, in any of its noble forms, being little followed.

The public amusements consist of theatrical representations, concerts, and religious ceremonies, with occasional frolics at the carnival and other festive seasons. There are three theatres, two of which, the opera seria and opera buffa, are open during a great part of the year; but the performances are of a very mediocre description; the concerts have little to recommend them, and among the people the large music fairs, but a small part of their enjoyment, though a few wandering harpers (*carciofaleri*) may sometimes be found trying

to inspire them with the love of sweet sounds. An amphitheatre (*arve*) for bull-fights, tumbling, horseriding, &c. has been formed out of an ancient mausoleum of Augustus, and when open is a favourite resort. The carnival would require some space for its description in detail; it may be sufficient here to observe, that in its license and licence its unbridled mirth, and its levelling of rank; say, even in the season of its celebration, it bears an obvious resemblance to the Roman Saturnalia; but it approaches, perhaps, more closely to the feast of Cybele, when, according to Livy (xlii. c. 14.), the richest draperies were hung from the windows, masquerading took place in the streets, and every one, disguising himself as he pleased, walked about the city in jest and buffoonery. If the historian had informed us in addition that one of the principal amusements was a promiscuous piling of sugar-plums or chalk-stones, he would have furnished us with a precise picture of the modern Carnival. Religious festivals are very frequent, but occur oftener between Advent and St. Peter's Day than at other seasons. The Pope celebrates mass and confers his papal benediction in St. Peter's on Christmas Day, Easter Day, Whit-Sunday, and other festivals, on which occasions the solemnities are unusually grand, and attract immense crowds to the church.

The exhibition of the illuminated cross has been already mentioned. The illumination of the exterior of the church is also very imposing: the appearance of this immense building, with its dome, lantern, and cross, all lighted with large paper lanterns, has a most striking and magnificent effect, which, however, is much heightened, when at a given signal thousands of dices and stars of vivid fire, suddenly ignited, as if self-kindled, blaze in a moment into one dazzling flood of light, all over that vast structure. Immediately after the above display, on the night of St. Peter's day, follows the *Granada*, an exhibition of fire-works, from St. Agnello, which is generally admitted to be superior to any other of the kind in the world. These festivals at the Papal treasury about 18,000 crowns a year.

We have already noticed (PAPAL STATUTES, *encl.* 462.) a wretched state of literature and education in modern Rome. It has, indeed, a university, a college, and numerous public schools; but they either afford no instruction in the higher branches of literature and philosophy, or it is only as if of the worst possible description. All signs of cultivation tend to be extinguished, and its attention the public mind is rigidly excluded; all native is must be submitted to the revision of the licensers; the only literary pursuits that meet with any encouragement are those having reference to antiquity and fine arts; and even they feel the paralysis that affects other and nobler branches of study. "Rome, once mistress of the world, the seat of arts, empire, and, now lies sunk in sloth, ignorance, and poverty, veiled to the most cruel as well as to the most contemptible of tyrannies, superstition and religious imposture." *Victor's Clergy*, l. 49, &c. ed.

There are numerous charitable institutions, the total revenue of which amounts to between 600,000 and 700,000 dollars, half of which comes from the papal treasury, the rest being supplied by endowments or voluntary contributions. But however large be the number of these establishments at Rome, "a great proportion of them are of doubtful, ill-directed, and even open charity. Not to speak of the foundling hospitals, or those which offer a premium to idleness and sloth; there are 13 societies for giving dowries to girls on marriage, and pecuniary gifts on taking; and of 1,400 women married here in a year all themselves of these societies." There is also private almsgiving, especially by the pope, who sends about 25,000 crowns a year. The consequence of indiscriminate charity is seen in the mendicancy, wretchedness, idleness, and want, that meets every step in the streets of Rome. There are in 11 establishments for the diseased, insane, and blind, of which 8 are public and 3 private; so that, on the whole, about 4,000 persons a year die of mortality is about 7 per cent. There are foundling hospitals, in which are nearly 4,000 of both sexes. In fact, Rome is one of the worst cities for abandoned children, brought thither from the provinces, and even from Naples. The state of these hospitals is absolutely frightful, up to the present.

That of the Papal government, its judicial system has been already given, with other details, in the article PAPAL STATES. The city is under an ecclesiastical governor, and a council (*senato*), appointed by the pope; and though the *governor*, or civil governor, he enjoys only the title of its authority; and the title has, for many centuries, been conferred exclusively on a native of another country. It has not been thought safe to entrust the police of the city to the hands of a foreigner, somewhat similar to the *gens d'armes*;

but the inefficiency of this body, which is said to be even more inefficient than the old town guard of Edinburgh, is proved by the frequent robberies and assassinations committed with almost total impunity.

Rome, though the chief manufacturing city of the Papal States, has no manufactures deserving much notice. The principal are silk and woollen goods, especially velvets, brocades for the clergy, and the more expensive kinds of silk goods. Hats of very good quality are made here to the value of about 900,000 crowns a year. The manufacture of mosaics and jewellery of an extremely varied character, occupies a great number of hands, and many also are employed in making casts, or imitations of antique models, &c. Leather, and prepared skins, gloves, parchment, strings for musical instruments, glue, glass bottles, are among the other articles manufactured in the city; but they are of no great importance; and with the exception of works connected with the fine arts, all the manufactures are conducted in the most clumsy manner. The Hospital of St. Michael has the privilege of furnishing cloth for the apostolic palaces and the pontifical troops. None but national wool is employed in the manufacture; the spinning is done by hand, chiefly by women in the prisons, the warping is effected also by manual labour, and it is made a boast that no machinery is employed where the work can be done without it. The establishment has 25 looms, employs 850 persons, and produces about 77,600 yards a year of the most costly, if not the best, cloth produced in Europe. Manufactures of some kind or other are carried on also, chiefly by hand-labour, in 13 conservatories, containing about 600 inmates. Rome has an insurance company, a public bank, besides two private banking-houses, a savings' bank, and a *monte di pietà*, the last of which had, in 1836, a circulating capital of 250,000 crowns.

A great discrepancy of opinion has prevailed with respect to the climate of Rome. The fact, however, seems to be, that wherever the houses are few, and the ground is mainly covered with gardens, fields, or ruins, malaria is felt during the summer months, though not in the same degree as in the open country outside the walls. Now, this is the condition of the greater part of ancient Rome, of all the districts E. and S. the Quirinal and Capitol; so that five of the seven hills are either wholly or partially unhealthy. The upper part of the Pincian hill, the head of the Tiber, and the Porta Pia, between the baths of Diocletian and the Porta San Lorenzo are also considered unhealthy, and there are districts of the same character hardly inhabited, having a convent here and there, the rest being laid out in gardens, vineyards, &c. West of the Tiber, the district of Lungara is unhealthy. The more densely peopled parts, on the contrary, are sufficiently healthy; and it may be said, with truth, that modern Rome, which extends from the Quirinal and the Capitol to the banks of the Tiber, is generally free from malaria. There are unhealthy seasons in Rome, as in most other cities, and in particular years epidemic fevers prevail to a fearful extent in the dirty and densely peopled districts; but these have no connexion with malaria, being attributable rather to the absence of sewerage, and the filthy habits of the lower orders. The temperature of the city is generally mild and genial. Frosts are not frequent, and though snow falls occasionally, it seldom lies on the ground more than a single day. The *tramontana*, however, a piercingly cold N. wind, sometimes blows for days together. Rains are frequent and heavy in November and December; but fogs are rare. In summer the heat is often oppressive, especially during the prevalence of the *scirocco*. In summer, the hour after sun-set is considered the most unwholesome period of the day, and then people generally avoid exposure to the air. (*For. Quart. Rev.*, xxi. 38, &c.)

The history of Rome, which includes, for many centuries, that of all the countries washed by the Mediterranean, and, at a later period, that of the Western Christian church, is far too extensive to allow of any considerable details in a work of this nature. Its foundation is hidden in the obscurity of an age respecting which few records remained in the time of its historians; and the investigations of Beaufort and Niebuhr have thrown much doubt on its early traditional history. Chronologists, however, are pretty well agreed in assigning its foundation to Romulus, its era, according to Varro, being 753 years B.C. According to the account of Livy, the founder was succeeded by 6 other monarchs; and the constitution during the kingly period was an *elective* monarchy, with a king, senate, and popular assembly, the king being, at the same time, chief magistrate, high priest, and commander of the army; though, in point of fact, as his election depended on the voice of the *comitia*, the "people" were the real source of power. The senate originally consisted of 100 members, to whom, in course of time, others were added. The *comitia* comprised the burghers only, and the decrees of the senate required their approval before they became law. The Romans during

this period being successful in war, added considerably to their previously confined territory. The public and private vices of Tarquinius Superbus led (anno 510 B. C.) to the abolition of kingly government, and the establishment of the republic, under 3 consuls, annually chosen, originally from the patricians only, but afterwards from either patricians or plebeians. The temporary ascendancy of the patrician party effected the institution (B. C. 509) of the dictatorship, by which, on extraordinary emergencies, the whole power of the state was committed to a single individual, who might act with despotical authority. In the sequel, after many delays, and much opposition, officers called tribunes were appointed by the people, who had a *veto* on the proceedings of the senate. The constitution was thus founded on the principle of a distribution of power between the aristocracy and the commonalty; and in this state it remained without any considerable change to the end of the Punic wars, the empire of Rome being in the meanwhile extended over Italy, Sicily, Corsica and Sardinia, the N. coast of Africa, and part of Spain. Amid these successes the distinction of patricians and plebeians seemed to have disappeared; but the unequal distribution of the public lands, or of those conquered by the arms of the republic, led to new, protracted, and bloody struggles between the patricians, who had appropriated to themselves the lion's share of these lands, and the plebeians, who sought to bring about their more equitable division. This occasioned the introduction by the latter of an *AGRICULTURAL LAW*; not, however, meaning by this, as is commonly understood, a law to interfere with or to effect an equal distribution of private property, but merely a law to limit the extent of the public lands held by individuals, and to subject them to a real and not a nominal rent. (*See Niebuhr, II. passim.*)

The history of the intestine troubles of Rome during the long protracted contests respecting this law, and the extension of the franchise to all Italian subjects and allies of Rome (the latter of which led to the Social War), would lead us into details quite unsuited to the nature of this work. It is sufficient here to state that the principle of representation not being adopted in the Roman constitution, it could not long survive, after the extension of the franchise to the Italians in general. The deliberations of the city assemblies were henceforth liable to be controlled by an influx of citizens from a distance, and full scope was given for the exercise of all sorts of corruption and intimidation. The soldiers, too, after they had carried their victorious arms beyond the boundaries of Italy, gradually ceased to pay their accustomed deference to the orders from Rome, and began to regard themselves rather as the servants of the generals by whom they were commanded, and to whom they looked for advancement, than of the republic. In consequence, the whole power of the state came to be engrossed by the great military leaders; and Marius and Sylla, Pompey and Caesar, Marc Antony and Augustus, were successively masters of the Roman world. The battle of Actium (anno n. c. 30) threw the whole power of the state into the hands of Augustus, and the public weary with intestine wars and revolutions, were glad to enjoy tranquillity under his supremacy. The emperor, who had previously been merely the commander in chief, now began to concentrate all the powers of the state in his own person. He became, in effect, perpetual dictator, and held the sovereign power free from all constitutional responsibility. The senate, indeed, continued to exist under the emperors, and the praetors or judges retained their names; but the decrees of the former were recommended, or rather dictated, by the emperors, and the *edicts* of the latter were superseded by summary decrees called *constitutiones principum*. In this state the government of Rome remained about 400 years. The succession depended partly on the will of the reigning emperor, who sometimes appointed his successor, either by adoption, or by giving him the title of Caesar. In the event of no successor being named by the previous emperor, the right of election devolved on the senate; but it was frequently usurped by the army and by the Praetorian guards; and sometimes rival emperors were chosen by the senate and the army, or by different armies, the pretensions of the candidates being decided in the field. Under such circumstances, and considering the degraded state of the Roman people, enervated by indolence, and corrupted by largesses, immunity from taxes, and indulgence in public shows, it may well excite surprise that the empire did not sooner fall to pieces.

Some speculative inquirers have classed the circumstance of the imperial dignity being elective among the causes that contributed to its decline; whereas it really appears to have been almost the only principle that enabled it to survive so long. In a government like that of Rome, where every thing had to be transacted directly by the emperor, a hereditary monarchy, which supposes the occurrence of minorities, was out of the question. And how unworthy soever the means by which

ROMNEY (NEW).

some of the emperors arrived at the imperial dignity, not a few of them owed it to their superior abilities. Nerva, Trajan, the two Antonines, Severus, Aurelian, and other able princes, gave new vigour to the tottering fabric, and prolonged its existence.

At the close of the 4th century, the Roman dominions, which still extended from Britain on the W., to the Euxarates on the E., were divided between Honorius and Arcadius. At this time, too, the barbarians, sensible of the growing weakness of the Romans, began to harass the empire with incessant hostilities, and one country after another was lost, till at length Italy itself was invaded by the Huns, and shortly afterwards by the Heruli, whose general, Odoacer (A. D. 476), dethroned the impotent Romulus Augustulus, assumed the title of *rex*, and fixed his residence in Ravenna. Thus fell the greatest empire of the world, exactly 1,293 years after its supposed foundation by Romulus. Odoacer gave way to Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, and during his reign Rome and all Italy enjoyed a period of peace and prosperity. But the calm was only temporary; Belisarius, the general of Justinian, and Totila the Ostrogoth, successively took Rome, which was stripped of some of its most splendid monuments, at the same time that its inhabitants were reduced to a state of wretchedness which they had not before experienced. After having become a province, or *exarchate*, of the eastern empire, Rome passed, in 776, under the union of the Romans, which retained it till the deposition of Charles the Great, in 857, after which the possession of Rome and Italy became, during more than three centuries, the subject of contention between the emperors of Germany, the numerous states into which Italy had been parcelled, and the bishops of Rome, who with the title of pope assumed a right to temporal power. Nicolas III. at length obtained from Rodolph of Hapsburg, in 1278, the grant of an independent territory, called the States of the Church; and thus began the sovereignty of the pope, which, with some interruptions, has continued to the present day. (Further details respecting this part of Roman history will be found under the head PAPAL STATES.)

ROMFORD, a market-town and par. of Essex, in the liberty of Havering-atte-Bower, on the high road from London to Norwich, 13 m. E.N.E. London, and 16 m. S. W. Chelmsford. Area of par., 3,240 acres. Pop., in 1831, 4,394. The town consists principally of a long wide street along the high road, having near its centre the market-house and town-hall, in which are held the petty sessions and the library. The church is an ancient structure, consisting of a nave, chancel, and N. aisle, with a tower at the W. end. The living is a curacy subordinate to that of Hornchurch, in the patronage of New College, Oxford, value 54*l.*, besides which the curate receives an annual stipend of 200*l.* (*Ecclesiast. Report*.) The Wesleyan Methodists and Baptists have their respective places of worship, with attached Sunday-schools; besides which there is a national school, partly endowed and partly supported by the town. The town has also several almshouses and benefactions for the poor. At a little distance from Romford are cavalry barracks, erected in 1795, but now disused. The inhabs. are chiefly retail dealers or persons employed in market gardening and agriculture. The town derives, however, its principal advantage from its situation on the London road, and more recently from being one of the stations on the Eastern Counties Railway. It is also one of the polling places for the S. div. of Essex. Markets, especially for calves, well attended, on Mondays, Tuesdays, and Wednesdays; fair, June 24, for cattle and horses.

ROMNEY (NEW), a cinque-port, decayed bor. market-town and par. of England, co. Kent, lathe Shepway, partly in lib. Romney-marsh, and partly in ham. St. Martin's Pountney, 19 m. S. W. Dover and 86 m. S. E. London. Area of bor. and par., 2,230 acres; pop. in 1831, 983. The town, which arose out of the ruins of Old Romney, was formerly in a comparatively flourishing condition, being a considerable sea-port; but the haven has for many years been completely filled up. It consists at present of a broad principal street crossed by one of inferior size, in which is the town-hall. Houses chiefly of brick, the market-house and town-hall being modern erections. The church is a spacious structure, consisting of a nave, aisles and chancel, partly Norman, and partly in the pointed style, with a large and curious tower at the W. end; the living is a vicarage in the patronage of All-souls' College, Oxford; of the nett value of 161*l.* a year. The Wesleyan-methodists have a small chapel, and there are 2 Sunday-schools, besides a free school and almshouses. The inhabitants, with a few exceptions, are employed in grazing cattle on Romney-marsh, a rich tract of land, extending about 7 m. N. and W. from the town, and comprising about 47,000 acres. This tract is defended from the encroachments of the sea by an immense embankment called Dymchurch-wall, along which is a good road for carriages; this sea-wall is kept in repair by a rate levied on the proprietors of the

marsh. The sheep depastured here furnish long clothing wool.

New Romney is a bor. by prescription, and returned 2 mens. to the H. of C. from the reign of Edward III. down to the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised. It was not considered of sufficient importance to be included in the provisions of the Municipal Reform Act; but it still retains certain privileges reserved in that Act for the Cinque-ports. Old Romney, 2 miles W. the town, has now only a few houses surrounding the church. Markets on Thursday: fair, August 26, for poultry, &c.

ROMORANTIN, a town of France, dép. Lot-et-Cher, cap. arrond., on the Seudre (a tributary of the Loire), where it receives the Morantin, 24 m. S.E. Biota. Pop., in 1846, ex. com., 6,806. It was formerly the cap. of Sologne, and was embellished by Francis I. It has an old castle, a spacious prison, a theatre, courts of original jurisdiction and commerce, and some manufactures of woollen stuff and yarn. Romorantin was taken by Edward the Black Prince in 1367. Cannon appear to have been used in the siege; but this, though one of the earliest, is not, as has been alleged, by any means the first occasion on which they were so employed. But it is better known in history, by giving its name to the edict of 1660, drawn up by the chancellor l'Hôpital, which gave to bishops, and took away from the parliaments, the power to try cases of heresy. It is said that the chancellor consented to this edict only to avoid a still greater evil, the establishment of the inquisition. (*Heraldic Herald, June 1860; Hago, &c.*)

ROMSEY or RUMSEY, a mun. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Hants, hund. King's Sombourn, the town being situated on the Test, a tributary of the Anton, on the Andover canal, 6 m. N.W. Southampton. Area of par., divided into Romsey-Extra and infra, 9,310 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,247. The town, which consists chiefly of a long and wide street, crossed at another at right angles, covers a considerable extent of ground. It has an audit-house, with a market-place beneath, and an old town-hall, in which no session is held; but by far the most remarkable public building the par. church. This interesting edifice is almost the only remaining portion of an abbey said to have been ended here by Edward the Elder. The present structure appears, however, to date from the beginning of the 14th century, and it is one of the most complete Anglo-Norman monuments in the kingdom. "It is a cross rich, with a low massive tower; the general exterior carvings are Norman, of very good character, and much unaltered. The W. end is early English, very plain in style, and its details accommodated to the Norman; but the inside of this W. portion is a very fine specimen of the early English, rich rather by composition than minute ornament. The central portion and the piers, with the sides of the chancel, are Norman, showing various singularities and mixtures of pointed round arches." (*Rickman, Goth. Arch., p. 176.*) The church has a fine high altar, much good tracery, and glass, &c.; and a curious peculiarity is, that a fruit-bearing apple tree grows from its roof. The vicarage is a fine residence, the value and character of which is worth 365*l.* a year. The Presbyterians' meeting-house in Romsey; and it has an almshouse, a charity school for 30 boys, a free school, &c. Corporation are trustees for several charities which, he affairs of the bor. generally, appear to have well managed. (*Mess. Corp. Appendix.*) The corporation consists of a mayor, 6 aldermen, and 12 capital ses.

The sole importance of Romsey is derived from its being goods by retail to a large agricultural district. The bor. is increasing in population, but the trade is decreasing. Formerly, many extensive manufactures of and other articles were carried on at Romsey; there is abundant and excellent water-power; introduction of steam has greatly diminished the Romsey." (*Mess. Corp. Appendix.*)

William Petty, one of the most extraordinary men of his age, was a native of Romsey, where his father was in the business of a clothier. He received his education in the grammar-school of his native town, and after his death, on the 16th December, 1687, his remains were deposited in the par. church under a tomb inscribed with his name.

UJA, a city of Spain, in Andalusia, prov. Granada, aud. diaro, 40 m. W. by N. Malaga, and 44 m. Gibraltar. Pop., according to Milano, 18,578.

UJA is peculiar, being built on lofty rocks between the river, across which, at a distance of 200 ft. surmounts, are thrown two bridges, one of which is a single arch, 110 ft. in span, and surmounted by a bridge of three arches, at a much greater distance.

A third bridge crosses the stream somewhat lower. The river is wholly unnavigable; and canals are formed close to the city. One portion of the Old City, overhangs the S. cliff, and is

enclosed by an old embattled wall, built by the Saracens, and flanked by extensive outworks, while the more widely spread buildings on the opposite bank bear the name of *El Mercadillo*, or New Town. Within the fortifications stands the royal palace of Abou-Melic, the Moor, now a vast heap of ruins. The only entrance to the city is through a succession of gates, leading to a long and narrow, but tolerably straight street, running N. and S. for about $\frac{1}{2}$ m. to the upper or new bridge. This street is lined with handsome shops; and from it lead off both rich and left numerous alleys, communicating with little courts and crooked passages, all of which, however, are lined with remarkably good houses. In fact, says, Capt. Scott, "this labyrinth is the Mayfair of Ronda, the aristocratic location of all the *Hidalguia* of the province, who, proud of the little patch of land won by the swords of their forefathers from the accursed Moors, would as soon think of denying the infallibility of the pope as of taking up their abode among the mercantile inhabitants of the mushroom suburb, which, however, is, beyond all comparison, the most agreeable place of residence." (*Scott's Ronda and Granada, 1841*) The principal streets of the New Town are wide and tolerably straight: it contains some fine open *plazas*; and although the houses are thus more exposed to the sun, they enjoy a freer circulation of air. The absence of an enclosing wall tends, also, in point of coolness, to give the *Mercadillo* an advantage over the city. It is nearly as difficult of approach, however, and as incapable of expansion as the walled city itself, for cliffs bound it on three sides, leaving the access free only on its N. side. The city has few public buildings except its churches, which are numerous, and gaudily fitted up; but they have neither paintings nor statuary of any merit. The New Town comprises a small, but commodious theatre, the stables of the *Real Maestranza* (or corporation of nobility for breeding horses), and the *Plaza de los Toros*, a circular covered building of stone, one of the handsomest in Spain, and capable of accommodating 10,000 spectators.

The inhabitants of Ronda are principally employed in agricultural and horticultural pursuits; though there are several manufactories of coarse woollen cloths and hats, two or three tanneries, and numerous water-mills. It is a place, also, of considerable commerce; its secluded, and, at the same time, central situation, making it a convenient *dépôt* for smuggled goods, in which, indeed, the present trade of Spain mostly consists. A very large fair is annually held here in May for cattle, horses, sheep, and general goods: it collects an astonishing concourse of people from all parts of the country, and offers an excellent opportunity for observing the costumes and shades of character peculiar to the inhabitants of the different provinces. "The society of Ronda is particularly good, consisting of some of the most ancient Andalusian families; who, with all the polish of the first circles, are exempted from the demoralising vices which distinguish the fashionable inhabitants of Madrid and other large cities. On the whole," continues Captain Scott, "I scarcely know a place where a few weeks can be more agreeably spent." (1. 118.) The climate of Ronda, also, is very delightful; the atmosphere is oppressively hot and disagreeably cold; and it is considered so favourable to longevity, that it has become a common saying,—"En Ronda los hombres de ochenta años son polluelos" ("at Ronda even men at eighty are chickens.")

The neighbourhood is not only extremely picturesque, but produces an abundance of wine, oil, and corn, as well as the fruits and vegetables peculiar to a more N. climate. Cattle graze in large herds on the plains, and the hills abound with many varieties of game, including deer and wild boars. About 3 m. S.E. of Ronda is the singular mountain, called *Cresta de Gallo*, consisting of two parallel ridges joined at the bottom, one red, the other white: both of them possess mineral riches, which, under a better system of national economy, might, probably, be turned to good account.

Ronda has been supposed, though, perhaps, with little foundation, to owe its origin to the Romans. Nothing certain, however, is known respecting it prior to the domination of the Moors, who made it one of their principal strongholds. In 1331 it became the court residence of Abou-Melic, son of the emperor of Fez, who erected the castle and fortifications. It was finally taken from the Moors by Ferdinand of Castile in 1485. (*Scott's Ronda and Granada, l. 99-123; Mod. Trav.; Milano, &c.*)

ROSCOMMON, an inland co. of Ireland, prov. Connaught, having N. Leitrim and Sligo, E. and S.E. Longford, Westmeath, and King's County, from which it is separated by the Shannon, S.W. and W. Galway, from which it is separated by the Suck, and Mayo. Area 560,405 acres, of which 131,063 are bog and mountain, and 24,787 water. There are some mountainous tracts in the N. parts of the co., and elsewhere; but, speaking generally, its surface is nearly flat, exhibiting, for the most part, either green fields or bogs. Substratum principally limestone.

Pastures most luxuriant. Stone fences, so common in Scotland, are, in Ireland, nearly peculiar to this co. Estates very large; many of them, however, are let on perpetual leases, the holders of some of which form an intermediate class between the great proprietors and the occupiers. A large proportion of land in pasture; but latterly tillage has been rapidly extending. Several improvements have been introduced both in the plan of husbandry and in the instruments employed in carrying it on. "But the general system of agriculture, excepting on lands held by wealthy individuals, still remains (1833) in a very imperfect state; and the smaller farms are cultivated in a manner at once slovenly and wasteful." (*Weld's Survey of Roscommon*, p. 664.) Tillage farms generally small. Oats and potatoes principal crops; but wheat is now rather extensively cultivated. A good deal of work is done by the *boy*, a species of spade. Cattle, long-horned; sheep, long-woolled; but breeds good; few dairies. Average rent of land, 12s. an acre. Some new cottages, on a few estates, are neat and comfortable, but the great majority continue to be as bad as possible. The same may be said of the farm buildings.

There are veins of coal and ironstone in the N. parts of the co., to the W. of Lough Allen. These have been occasionally wrought to some extent for a considerable period, but in general to the heavy loss of those by whom the works were carried on. It was, however, contended that this happened from the want of capital, or want of skill on the part of those employed; and the most exaggerated and delusive accounts were, at the same time, published of the value of the mines. At length, during the memorable year 1825, three companies were formed for working the coal and iron mines at Arigna and other places in this co. One of these, after examining the ground, prudently declined proceeding any farther: the energies of another were paralysed by the fraud, jobbing, and mismanagement of some of its directors and agents; and the third (the Irish Mining Company), an enterprising and well-conducted association, ultimately abandoned the undertaking, their collieries having proved, if not absolutely worthless, not worth the cost of working them. (*Weld's Survey*, p. 33, 77, 682, &c.) The linen manufacture was at one time pretty extensively diffused over the co., but it has latterly very much fallen off. Being washed throughout its whole extent by the Shannon, few Irish co. have greater facilities than Roscommon for the easy and convenient disposal of their products. It is divided into 6 baronies and 56 parishes, and sends 3 mems. to the H. of C. both for the co. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 516. Principal towns, Roscommon and Elphin. In 1841, this co. had 44,087 inhab. houses, 46,387 families, and 253,591 individuals, of whom 127,016 were males, and 126,575 females.

ROSCOMMON, an inland town of Ireland, prov. Connaught, cap. of the above co. 6 m. W. from Lough Ree, and 76 m. W. by N. Dublin. Pop. in 1841, 3,249. It has a par. church, a Rom. Catholic chapel, a public school, a market-house, a cavalry barrack, an extensive modern co. court-house and gaol, and an infirmary. Races are annually held in the vicinity. Under a charter of James I., in 1612, the corporation, which consisted of a sovereign, 12 burgesses, and a commonalty, returned 3 mems. to the Irish H. of C. till the Union, when it was disfranchised. It principally occupies the S. slope of a gently rising hill; but it is straggling, ill-built, and poor, its hovels stretching along the principal lines of road by which it is approached. Latterly, however, it has been somewhat improved. In summer, it suffers from a deficiency of water. A manor court holds pleas for debts to the amount of 10*l*. The co. assizes are held here; as are general sessions twice a year, and petty sessions every Monday. It is a constabulary station, and has manufactures of coarse woollens, linens, and brown pottery for the supply of the whole neighbourhood. The trade in corn is increasing. Markets on Saturdays; fairs on Whit-Monday and 5th Dec. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 800*l*.; in 1836, 966*l*. Branches of the Agricultural and National Banks were opened here in 1836. The ruins of an old Dominican abbey, founded in 1267, has a fine monument of its founder, one of the O'Connor family. Here, also, are the remains of a fine old castle, built by the English soon after their entry into this part of the co. The town, and a considerable contiguous estate, which has hitherto been much neglected, is the property of the Earl of Essex. (*Statistical Survey*; *Fraser's Guide*.)

ROSCREA, a town of Ireland, prov. Munster, near the N.W. extremity of the co. Tipperary, finely situated between the Silebh-Bloom and Devils-bit ranges of hills, on a branch of the lesser Borena, 40 m. N.E. Limerick. Pop. in 1841, 5,378. It is of great antiquity, having been made the seat of a bishopric in the 6th century, united to Killaloe in the 13th. Some remains of the old cathedral may still be seen in the W. front of the par. church; it has also a fine stone cross, a pillar tower, an old castle built by the Ormonde family, and

the ruins of a Franciscan monastery. The town is irregularly built. Among the public buildings are the par. church, a Rom. Catholic chapel, meeting-houses for Quakers and Methodists, a school on the foundation of Erasmus Smith, a fever hospital, cholera hospital and dispensary, market-house, bridewell, and barrack. A manor court, which holds pleas, to the extent of 10*l*. Irish, sits monthly: petty sessions are held on Mondays. It is a constabulary station. It manufactures coarse woollens, has several flour mills, two tanneries, two breweries and a distillery, and carries on a very extensive trade in grain: its retail trade is also considerable, the surrounding country having a more than usual number of resident gentry. Markets on Mondays and Thursdays; fairs on 25th March, 7th May, 21st June, 6th Aug., 9th Oct., and 23rd Nov. Post Office revenue in 1830, 814*l*., in 1836, 572*l*. Branches of the Agricultural and National banks were opened in 1836.

ROSETTA, or ROSSETTA (Arab. *Rasak*), a town and sea-port of Lower Egypt, on the W. branch of the Nile (the anc. *Bobbitine* mouth), near its embouchure, 36 m. E.N.E. Alexandria. Down to a late period, it was one of the most important commercial towns in the country, and had a pop. estimated at 25,000, and 28,000; but since the opening of the Mahmoudieh canal from Alexandria to the Nile, Rosetta has sunk into comparative insignificance; its pop. has dwindled down to about 4,000, and the principal traffic consists in the removal to Alexandria of the bricks, and other materials, of its buildings! It was principally constructed of red brick, plastered over and whitewashed. As elsewhere in the East, the streets are narrow, and the upper stories project, so as frequently to meet. Upon the whole, however, Rosetta is nearer than many oriental towns, and its situation in the midst of date, banana, and orange groves, is distinguished for beauty. The inhabs. are principally occupied in the rice, cotton, safflower, and leather factories established by the Pacha, at a wretchedly low rate of wages. There are now no resident merchants in Rosetta, and its shipping, which was formerly considerable, is reduced to a few boats. The port, though tolerably secure within, is difficult of entrance, there being a shifting bar at the mouth of the river, which can only be passed with safety during favourable winds, and at certain times of tide. Rosetta is famed for the supposed salubrity of its air, which attracts visitors thither during the summer and autumn months. It was founded by one of the caliphs about 870, near the site of the anc. *Bobbitine*, but has no antiquities of its own. Here, however, was discovered the famous *trilingual* tablet, called the "Rosetta stone," to which we are mainly indebted for the discoveries of Young and Champollion.

(*Private Information*.) ROSS AND CROMARTY, two cos. of Scotland, in the Highlands, forming together a maritime district of great extent, stretching quite across the island, and including Lewis, in the Hebrides. These cos., though in some respects distinct, are united under one sheriff, and Cromarty being a small co., consisting of several detached portions, most of which are wholly surrounded by parts of Ross, they may be most conveniently noticed under one head. They are bounded N. by the co. of Sutherland, E. by the Frithe of Dornoch and Moray, S. by Inverness, and W. by the Atlantic. Area, 1,204,460 acres, of which 1,335,800 are mainland, and 873,200 islands; the freshwater lakes cover a space of 44,800 acres on the mainland, and of 12,900 in the islands. The E. parts of the prov., consisting of the districts called the Black Isle, or the Peninsula, between the Beaulie and Moray Frithe, the Frith of Cromarty; and Easter Ross, or the Peninsula, between the Frithe of Cromarty and Dornoch, are comparatively flat and fertile. Easter Ross has a considerable extent of clayey loam, and of light sandy soil. The soil of the Black Isle is very various; much of it is poor, but the cultivated portions consist principally of clayey loam, good black mould, and sandy loam. In Strathpeffer, and the country round Dingwall, the soil is clayey; but with these exceptions the rest of the co. is wild, dreary, rugged, and mountainous, interspersed with lakes, and narrow glens, that afford pasture for sheep and black cattle. Estates, for the most part, very large; but there are several that are not of much value. Farms of all sizes; but the number of small occupancies, though still very considerable, is much diminished. Native breed of cattle hardy, compact, and well suited to the country; but in the W. parts of the co., the Skye and Argyllshire breeds, or one closely allied to them, is most prevalent. Cattle were formerly much more abundant than at present. Sheep-farming has, for many years past, engrossed almost the whole attention of the principal farmers and improvers; so that, besides a decrease in the number, it is also said that the breed of cattle has deteriorated. This, however, has been denied by others; and, at all events, the baneful practice of overstocking is no longer carried to any thing like the extent to which it was formerly prac-

fied in this, as well as in other Highland coas. At no very distant period, coas were extensively employed in field-labour; but they are no longer used for this purpose. All sorts of improvements, both in breeding and cropping, have been tried by the principal proprietors, and by many intelligent and enterprising sheep farmers that have immigrated thither from the S. Most part of Easter-Ross, great part of the Black Isle, with the country round Dingwall, and along the N.W. shore of the inner Firth of Caenarty, now ranks with the finest districts of Scotland. It is traversed in every direction by excellent roads, is well fenced, and has a more than usual number of seats and plantations. Agriculture has been wonderfully improved; and the crops of wheat and turnips are at present nowhere inferior to those in the more S. coas. But exclusive of these districts, a great extent of mountainous country is still occupied by the old Highland tenantry. These are a brave and hardy race; but poor, and without either enterprise or industry. They occupy the straths or valleys between the mountains, and along the rivers, which in some places are so thickly tenanted, that there is a family on every Scotch acre of arable land! On this they raise oats, barley, &c. (a species of barley), and potatoes; frequently cultivating the ground with a crooked spade (*aschom*) instead of a plough. The mode of ploughing, which was formerly general over the whole country, and which is still practised by the smaller tenants, is barbarous in the extreme. The smaller tenants uniformly possess a considerable extent of grazing ground, which is commonly reserved to them, at a considerable distance from their arable possession. Their huts are for the most part wretched; few of them have either chimneys or windows; they prefer, indeed, living in the midst of smoke and filth; and in winter, the cattle are generally housed under the same roof with the family. Except for a few months, when they are reaping their crops, preparing and saving fuel, &c., the greater part of their time is spent in pursuit of game, in fishing, or in idleness.

It is remarkable, too, that the distillation of whisky, which is commonly more prevalent, and is still sold on, though to a comparatively small extent. "It is to be said with truth that the class of people of the great majority of the pop. consists enjoy the best of life in even a moderate degree. Poorly fed, ill clothed, and miserably lodged, theirs is a life of misery and toil; exposed to the temptations of idleness without its ease, and to the slavery of labour, without its rewards, they drag out a wretched existence, under the continual fear of impending want, incited by any prospect of amendment in their condition." (*Art. Parish of Glenelg; New Statistical Account of Scotland*, No. 12, p. 200.) Under these circumstances, no reasonable person can doubt that the laws adopted by many landlords during the last half century for consolidating the small possessions held by the tenants, and introducing farmers possessed of capital and skill, have been, in a public point of view, highly beneficial. In some instances the change may seem hastily effected; but we hesitate not to say that the whole, being highly advantageous to the tenants themselves. Having been obliged to repair to the continent, they have also been obliged to leave their slothful habits; so that, in point of fact, the wealth and industry, but even the population, has gained materially by the introduction of the sheep-farming system that has been the cause of so much ignorant vituperation. In proof of this we may observe that the pop. of this district, according to the enumeration of Dr. Webster, in 1790, was 47,466. In 1800, it had increased to 55,577; notwithstanding the increase of sheep-farming, and the emigration in the interim, it amounted to 78,685. Minerals and manufactures of no importance. Average rent of land, including the islands, £54, an acre. Principal rivers.—Conon, Orin, &c. This district is divided into 33 parishes. 1. *Mem.* to the H. of C.; the bors. of Dingwall, and Cromarty being associated with others as a representative. Registered electors in 1849—50, 711. In 1841, Ross and Cromarty had 16,286 inhab. houses, and 78,685 inhab. of 79 were males, and 41,906 females. Valued at £. Scotch; annual value of real property, in 1841, £1,000,000.

town and par. of England, co. Hereford, tree, on the Wye, 15 m. W. by S. Gloucester. —, 2,540 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 3,778, of bors. had about 2,500. The latter is nearly an eminence above the river; but its streets are narrow and narrow. The church, in a consecrated, has a lofty spire, and is partly in the old style; but, according to Kickman, it has been altered and repaired. The living, a vicarage, vested in the patronage of the Hereford, is one of the best in the co., being

worth 1,300*l.* a year, nett income. There is a market-house, two charity schools, and an almshouse. In Camden's time Ross was celebrated for its cutlery and its cyder; the former, however, has entirely disappeared, but it continues to be distinguished by the excellence of the cyder made in its vicinity. It is governed by a sergeant and four constables. Market on Thursday.

The "Man of Ross," immortalized by Pope (*Moral Essays*, iii. lin. 250.), was a Mr. John Kyrie, a native of Scotland, where he died in 1734, at the age of 84. The splendid eulogium of the poet did not really go beyond Kyrie's merits. He expended his time and income in promoting objects of public utility and benevolence, by which the town continues to be benefited. His portrait is still preserved in his house, now an inn, near the entrance of the road from Gloucester.

ROSLIN, an inconsiderable village of Scotland, co. Mid-Lothian, near the N. Esk, 7 m. S. by E. Edinburgh. It is remarkable only for the ruins of its castle and chapel, and for the fine scenery along the river. The ruins of the castle, the extent and magnitude of which sufficiently evince its former strength and importance, stand on a peninsular rock, accessible only by a lofty bridge. The era of its foundation is uncertain. It was for a lengthened period the residence of the St. Clairs, earls of Orkney and Caithness, some of whom lived here in almost regal splendour. It was taken and burnt by the English, under the Earl of Hertford, in 1544. The chapel of Roslin, at some little distance from the castle, is the most exquisite specimen of the florid Gothic in Scotland, and is in good preservation, having escaped, with comparatively little injury, the iconoclastic ravages of the Reformers. It was founded in 1445. The inside is 69 ft. in length, 34 in breadth, and 40 in height, supported by two rows of clustered pillars, about 8 ft. in height, with an aisle on each side. The arches are Saxon-Gothic, and are extended across the side aisles; but the centre of the church is one continued arch, divided into compartments, and finely sculptured. The capitals of the pillars are enriched with foliage, and a variety of figures, most elaborately and minutely cut. The Earls of Orkney and Roslin were interred in a vault below the floor of the chapel; and it is a curious fact, that down almost to the era of the revolution they were buried, not in coffins, but in complete suits of armour. This circumstance has been alluded to by Scott, in his fine ballad of "Rosabelle," in the "Lay of the Last Minstrel."

The glen in which the Esk runs from Roslin to Laswade is mostly narrow; has in parts high, precipitous, rocky, and well-wooded banks, and is celebrated for its romantic scenery. A little below Roslin, on the opposite side of the river, is Hawthornden, the seat of Drummond, the contemporary and friend of Ben Jonson, and one of the best poets of his age. The house stands on the brink of a precipice, overhanging the river, and, with the estate, is now in the possession of the descendants of the poet. Below the house are extensive caves, or apartments cut in the sandstone rock.

Roslin is much resorted to in summer by parties from Edinburgh; and most strangers who visit there later, contrive to visit Roslin (*Panorama of Scotland*, iii. 264. ed. 1790; *Chambers's Geog. of Scotland*, &c.).

ROSSBACH, a village of Prussian Saxony, 16 m. S. Halle, celebrated in modern history for its being the scene of the great victory gained on the 6th of November, 1707, by Frederick the Great, with little loss to his own forces, over the French and Imperialists.

ROSTOCK, a commercial city and sea-port of N. Germany, being the largest town, though not the cap. of the grand duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, on the Warnow, 9 m. above its mouth in the Baltic, and 40 m. N.E. Schwerin; lat. 54° N., long. 12° 15' E. Pop., in 1845, 20,368. It is surrounded with old walls, and divided into 3 parts; the old, middle, and new town. It has several suburbs, which, with the city, are built in an old-fashioned style. It has been frequently the residence of the grand duke, and has a ducal palace, numerous churches, a convent, 3 hospitals, a town-hall, theatre, &c. The church of St. Mary's is interesting from its having a monument in honour of Grothius, the illustrious author of the treatise *De Jure Belli et Pacis*, one of the greatest men of modern times, who expired here on the 28th of August, 1645, far from his family and friends, an exile from his ungrateful country. In one of the squares, thence called *Blucher's Platz*, is a statue of the celebrated Prussian general, Blucher, who was a native of the town. The university of Rostock, one of the oldest in Germany, was founded in 1419. It has 4 professors of theology, 6 of jurisprudence, 6 of medicine, and 10 of philosophy; besides 3 extraordinary professors, and 10 private teachers, having attached to it a library of 48,000 printed vols., theological and other auxiliary schools, an anatomical theatre, laboratory, botanic garden, and various scientific collections. It is, however, but poorly attended, having, in 1836, only 96 pupils. Rostock has a society of natural history, and other learned associations, and a

commercial institute. It is one of the most active manufacturing towns in N. Germany, having numerous woollen factories, breweries and distilleries, vinegar and soap-works, &c. Rostock has a pretty extensive trade. The exports consist chiefly of good red wheat, barley, pease, rapeseed, and a few oats; with wool, rags of a very superior quality, oil cake, rape oil, bones, flax, horses, cattle, provisions, &c. The average export of all kinds of grain may be taken at from about 115,000 to 130,000 qrs. a year; and the total value of all sorts of exports may be estimated at about 280,000*l.* The imports consist of colonial products, spices, wine, manufactured goods, &c. There belong to the port nearly 300 vessels of from 150 to 250 tons, which trade with most European nations, the U. States, and Brazil. The outport of Rostock is Warnemünde, at the mouth of the Warnow. The depth of water at the latter varies from 10½ ft. to 12½ ft.; but when the W. pier, now in process of construction, shall have been completed, it is expected that the depth of water will be from 12 ft. to 14 ft. The depth of water in the river from Warnemünde up to Rostock is usually from 8 ft. to 9 ft.; so that vessels drawing more than this, must be lightened to get up to the latter. The commercial weights here are the same as at Hamburg. The duties are extremely moderate; on most imported articles they amount, in privileged vessels, to only 3 per cent., and in other ships to 4½ per cent., *ad val.* An export duty of about 6d. per quarter is charged on corn, and of about 1s. per bid. on wine: wool is not subject to any export duty.

Rostock having been formerly one of the Hans Towns, had, for a lengthened period, and till lately, some exclusive privileges. Its vessels bore the flag, not of the grand duchy, but of the city of Rostock; and it had its own separate jurisdiction, independent of the rest of Mecklenburg; appeals from its tribunals being carried to the central court at Lubeck. But it has now only a court of secondary jurisdiction, with appeal to the tribunal at Parchim; and its other privileges have been either curtailed or abolished. (*Berghaus; Allg. Länder, &c.; Stein; Comm. Dict.*)

ROSTOFF, a town of European Russia, on the Don, about 22 miles above where it falls into the Sea of Azoff. Pop., about 8,000. The town and the contiguous town of Nakhitchevan are the principal *entrepôts* of the trade of the vast countries traversed by the Don. The inhabs. of the latter are the more commercial, but Rostoff would seem to enjoy the special favour of the government, the *dépôt* of provisions for the army, the fortresses of the Caucasus, and of the eastern coast of the Black Sea, being established in it. The fort St. Dimitri, near the town, is a *dépôt* for the munitions of war required by the above-mentioned places. During the proper season there is a great deal of bustle and activity both here and at Nakhitchevan.

ROTHENBURG, a town of Bavaria, circ. Middle Franconia, cap. distr., near the Tauber, 40 m. W. Nuremberg. Pop., 5,700. It is beautifully situated, but irregularly laid out, and has few edifices worth notice. It was anciently a free city of the empire, and is surrounded by old walls flanked with numerous towers. It has manufactures of woollen stuffs, and an active trade in corn and cattle. (*Berghaus, &c.*)

ROTHERHAM, a manufacturing town, par., and township of England, W. riding co. York, liberty of Hallamshire, wap. Strathforth and Tickhill, on the Don, crossed here by a handsome stone bridge, and close to its junction with the Rother (whence the name), 6 m. E.N.E. Sheffield, and 14½ m. N.N.E. London. Area of par. (comprising eight townships), 12,810; do. of township, 2,140 acres. Pop. of town, in 1841, 5,505. The town, partly in a valley, and partly on the sides of two steep hills, has several steep, narrow, and irregular streets, lined with indifferently-built stone houses. Recently, however, great improvements have been made, the streets having been widened, new houses built, and gas generally introduced. The court-house, gaol, market-house, and public library, are handsome modern buildings. The church (chiefly built by Archbishop Rotherham, in the 15th century, and by him rendered collegiate) is a large cruciform structure of perpendicular architecture, with a central tower and spire fully enriched with pinnacles, canopies, and crockets: "On the whole," says Mr. Britton, "this is one of the finest par. churches in the N. of England, and deserves the most attentive examination, both as to its composition and most of its details." (*Arch. p. 274.*) The living, a vicarage in the gift of Lord Howard of Edingham, is worth 170*l.* a year. There is an episcopal chapel in the township of Tinsley; handsome churches have recently been erected at Greaseborough and Thorpe, and a church is in course of construction at Kimberworth. The town has a Rom. Cath. chapel, and places of worship for Wesleyan and Primitive Methodists, Baptists, and Unitarians; besides which, there is at Marsbrough, on the other side the river, an Independent chapel, with an attached academy for the education of young men intended for the ministry belonging to that

class of dissenters. There are seven Sunday-schools, a Lancasterian school for 400 children of both sexes, two endowed charity schools, and a grammar school, founded in 1564, slenderly endowed, but conferring certain advantages on its pupils at the English universities. A dispensary was established in 1806; and there are almshouses for poor unmarried females. An ecclesiastical college, founded here at the close of the 14th century, was suppressed by Edward VI.; a part of the building is now used as an inn.

Rotherham, from its position in the middle of a district abounding with iron and coal, has long been distinguished for its manufactures of cast-iron; and during the American and French wars it almost exclusively supplied the navy with cannon. The iron-works for Sunderland, Southwark, and other bridges, was also cast here. The manufacture is still carried on with great vigour, new establishments have sprung up; and at present fenders, engine-work, and every variety of hardware, are manufactured on an extensive scale. Glass, starch, ammonia, and soap are also produced; a flax-mill employs about 100 hands, and there are 2 extensive porter-breweries. The town enjoys great facilities for the transport of its manufactured produce. The Don was made navigable to Tinsley, above the town, in 1730, and is accessible to Rotherham for vessels of 50 tons. A railway to Sheffield was opened in 1833, and the distance between the two towns (24 m.) is performed in about a quarter of an hour. The N. Midland railway, also, passes close to the town, and the Marsbrough station is, in point of traffic, one of the most important on the line. The distance by railway to London is 171 m., and the journey is accomplished in about seven hours. Large markets for corn and cattle on Monday; fairs, Whit-Monday and Dec. 11. The town has no regularly constituted municipal authority; but a body chosen by the inhabs., called "the feoffees of the common land of Rotherham," employ the proceeds of certain rents for the improvement of the town. The midsummer quarter sessions for the W. riding, and weekly petty sessions, are held here by the co. magistrates; and it has a county-court, before which 888 plaints were entered in 1848. It is, also, the chief place of a poor-law union.

ROTHERSAY, a royal bor. and sea-port of Scotland, co. Bute, of which it is the cap., at the head of a beautiful bay on the E. side of the island, 30 m. W. by S. Glasgow. Pop., in 1841, 5,789. Port Bannatyne, a favourite sea-bathing residence, is 2½ m. N. W. Rotheray. Being protected on the land side by surrounding hills, and towards the sea by the opposite coast of Arryle only 3 m. distant, Rotheray has a very mild climate, and is much resorted to by sea-bathers, as well as by invalids. Exclusive of its castle, the principal public buildings are the town-hall and county building (under one roof), in the castellated form, with an elegant tower; 2 places of worship (one of them Gaelic), connected with the established, and 2 with the Free church; and chapels belonging respectively to the Associate Synod, Independents, and Episcopalians. The parish church is situated 1 m., and Mount Stuart, the seat of the Marquis of Bute, 2½ m. S. from the town. The means of education are ample. Here, also, is a subscription library, with 2 reading rooms, various friendly societies and charitable associations, 3 branch banks, and a savings' bank.

The cotton manufacture has been introduced; and two cotton mills employ above 400 hands. But the fisheries may be said to be the most important, as well as the oldest, branch of business carried on. The salmon fishery obtains to a limited extent, as also that of haddock, whiting, and sole. But the herring fishery is more extensive than all these together. The fishery, however, is not carried on in the Bay of Rotheray; or if so, only in a small degree; it centres chiefly in the kyles (straits) of Bute, and the adjacent salt-water lakes; but it is principally carried on with Rotheray capital. In the year ending 31st of January, 1850, 9,496 barrels herrings were cured at Rotheray. About 60 vessels, of 2,000 tons, exclusive of steamers, belong to the port. There are 2 small building-yards.

The castle of Rotheray, a noble ruin, is of great antiquity. It was at one time a favourite royal residence, and Robert III. expired in it in 1405. John, Earl of Bute, the favourite of George III., and Matthew Stewart, the mathematician, father of Dugald Stewart, were both natives of this bor. Previously to 1832, it joined with other bors. in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C.; but it is now merged in the co. representation.

ROTTERDAM, a celebrated commercial city of Holland, being, in point of pop. and importance, the second in the kingdom, pr. S. Holland, cap. arrond., on the N. bank of the Maas, where it is joined by the Rotte, whence its name, 17 m. (direct distance) from its mouth, and 35 m. S.S.W. Amsterdam; lat. 52° 55' 19" N., long. 4° 29' 14" E. Pop., on the 1st of Jan., 1840, 78,098, having increased about 10,000 during the previous ten years. It is of a triangular shape, the base of the triangle extending along the river. It is surrounded by a moat, and, like

every other Dutch town, is intersected by numerous canals, only one public thoroughfare, the High Street, being without a canal in its centre. This street, which runs in a direct line E. and W. through the city, is somewhat raised above the rest, being built upon the dam by which the Maas is prevented from inundating the country behind the town. Being the principal seat of retail commerce, it is lined with shops throughout. Rotterdam has a striking appearance from the river.

The fine quay, called the Boompjes, from the rows of trees with which it is planted, extends along the river for nearly a mile: behind the trees is a line of well-built houses four or five stories in height, mostly of dark-coloured brick, and having an aspect of much grandeur. The quay being crowded with shipping, this part of the city is the great seat of business, and presents a scene of incessant activity. "In penetrating through the town from the Boompjes, we come to street after street, each having a canal in the middle, lined with trees on both sides, and exhibiting a mixture of lofty fronts of houses, porches, and masts of shipping. The canals, or havens, stretch lengthwise and crosswise, like the meshes of a net, through the city; and at every short interval is perceived a drawbridge of white painted wood, constructed with ponderous balancing beams overhead, and raised by means of chains, for the passage of vessels. The ground beneath the trees is paved with small yellow bricks, and is chiefly occupied as quays for the landing of goods. The space from the trees to near the use is paved in the usual coarse manner for carts and rickshaws, and here the foot passengers are generally obliged to walk, for small outshot buildings, flights of steps, doorways, and such like interruptions prevent any unobstructed thoroughfare on the narrow brick trottoirs close to the houses. The havens are in a few places protected by chains from the streets, so that there is a constant liability to accidents, particularly at night, when darkness is but poorly relieved by oil lamps dangling, in the fashion, from the ropes stretched betwixt the trees and the houses. Latterly a portion of Rotterdam has been lighted with gas; but according to a parsimonious plan, the lamps are not lighted when the moon is expected to shine." (*Chambers's Tour*, p. 5, 6.)

The houses of Rotterdam are generally on a large scale, and lofty; in many of the streets they are really magnificent. Mr. Chambers speaks as follows of a large residence. "Each house may be considered the residence of a merchant, who both resides with his family, carries on the whole of his commercial transactions at the same set of premises. The front part of the house exhibits an elegant door of lofty proportions, 20 feet high for instance, at the head of a flight of steps. On getting a glimpse into the interior, you see a paved with pure white marble, and a stair of the material leading to the story above, which contains a suite of lofty rooms, and is the main place of business of the family.

One of the rooms are finished in a style of great elegance with rich figured cornices and roof, silk draperies, windows, smooth oak floors, and the walls most artistically painted as an entire picture or landscape, in oil, of great eminence. Near to the door of the house is a small mirror affixed to the wall, which, when the street, discloses a wide paved thoroughfare to an inner court, the buildings round which extend to the whole warehousing department of the town. The bulk of the edifices of this great trading of the kind I describe." The ordinary houses are heated, and are in other respects not very comfortable; but the poorest house in the city is as clean and bright and washing can make it, both inside and outside this respect, indeed, the Dutch have no equals. The minor peculiarities which strike an Englishman are a large Gothic brick building, with a small mirror affixed to the wall, which, when the street, discloses a wide paved thoroughfare to an inner court, the buildings round which extend to the whole warehousing department of the town. The bulk of the edifices of this great trading of the kind I describe." The ordinary houses are heated, and are in other respects not very comfortable; but the poorest house in the city is as clean and bright and washing can make it, both inside and outside this respect, indeed, the Dutch have no equals.

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Reformation. In it are the monuments of the celebrated Dutch admirals, De Witt, Kortenaar, and Brakel, each of which has an appropriate inscription. It has also a splendid organ, said to be superior in size to the great organ of Haarlem, generally considered the largest in Europe. This is 150 ft. in height, mounted upon a colonnade about 50 ft. in elevation, and has, according to Barrow, 8,500 pipes, the largest being 32 ft. in height, and 16 in. in diameter. In the market-place is a bronze statue of Erasmus, the most illustrious by far of the natives of Rotterdam. The house where this great scholar, "the glory of the priesthood and the shame," first saw the light, on the 28th Oct., 1467, still exists; but (*quoniam senatus*) it has been degraded into a gin-shop! Rotterdam has a naval dock-yard; but it is on a small scale, and contains little worth notice. In the neighbourhood of the city are many places of entertainment, as tea-gardens, &c.; and in the town are several clubs, where English as well as continental newspapers are taken in. Rotterdam is the seat of the marine department for the Maas, of the superior judicial courts for the province, and of a tribunal of commerce; the cap. of the 9th militia district of the kingdom; and the residence of a military commandant, a director of police, and numerous foreign consuls. It has a society of arts and experimental philosophy, founded in 1767, branches of the Societies of Public Good and the fine arts, a college, a Latin school; many superior intermediate and poor schools, in the whole of which, according to Chambers, about 8,000 children are instructed; and various private academies. The central prison of Holland for juvenile offenders is at Rotterdam; it has also various workhouses and charitable institutions; and a savings' bank, paying interest at 4 per cent. There are manufactures of tobacco, refined sugar, needles, and pins, glass wares, corks, dyed and chemical products, spirits, &c.; large markets are also held weekly for corn, flax, hemp, and other agricultural produce; and the annual fair of Rotterdam is the largest in Holland. (*De Cloet*.) Rotterdam is more advantageously situated in a commercial point of view than Amsterdam, or any other Dutch town. She is easily accessible from sea by the largest class of merchantmen; and from her position on the principal embouchure of the Rhine, as well as of the Maas, she is the grand emporium of the foreign trade of the countries which they traverse. The imports and exports are similar to those of Amsterdam, which see. The white Zealand and Rhenish wheat shipped here is of a superior quality; and it is the best market for madder, Geneva, cheese, &c. The imports, in 1840, comprised, among other things, 20,118 tons coffee; 30,067 tons sugar; and 8,092 chests indigo, mostly from Java, with 15,206 bales cotton, 17,411 hhds. tobacco, 31,013 slabs beeswax, &c. During the same year there entered the port 1,671 ships of the burden of 325,584 tons. Rotterdam has a regular intercourse by means of steam-packets with London and other great over-sea ports, and with Dusseldorf, Cologne, Maestricht, and other ports on the Rhine, Maas, &c. The railway from Amsterdam to Haarlem is to be extended to Rotterdam.

Besides Erasmus, the great painter Adrian Vander Werf, was a native of Rotterdam.

ROUBAIX, a manufacturing town of France, d. du Nord, arrond. Lille, canton on the canal of Roubaix, 7 m. N. E. Lille. Pop., in 1846, inc. comm. 23,142. Like most Flemish towns, it is well built. It formerly laboured under a want of water; but of late an adequate supply has been obtained by means of Artesian wells. After Lille, Roubaix is one of the chief towns in the dep. for the manufacture of cotton goods; it has been estimated that, in the town, and immediately adjacent country, about 30,000 hands are alternately employed in the manufacture of cotton and woollen goods; the latter from about June to September, and the former during the remainder of the year. The 2nd arrond. of Roubaix, the various weaving and spinning districts of this manufacturing d. du Nord, there is none more prosperous than Roubaix, which has increased prodigiously within the last 10 or 15 years. The articles chiefly manufactured are Thibets, waistcoat-pieces, and thick cotton goods. There are about 12,000 looms in this district, of which half are Jacquard looms. The latter are principally in the factories, the manufacturers finding it necessary to preserve the privacy of their patterns. A weaver will, on the cotton goods, earn at an average 30 sous (15s.) a day; on the second class work, from 30 to 40 sous (15s. to 20s.); and on the Jacquard loom, from 3 fr. to 5 fr. per day, the average being about 3 fr.: these are gross wages. Net earnings will be, weekly, about 12 fr. or 13 fr. for the Jacquard weaver, and from 6 fr. to 10 fr. for the plain weavers. Women and children obtain plenty of employment at the mills. Wages had risen by above 15d. in the last few years. I inspected a woollen spinning factory; the spinners were earning from 30 fr. to 24 fr. per week net, as a matter of course; and it is by no means uncommon for them to earn 30 "net." The girls earned about 7 fr. 30 cents, and the children 3 fr. per week. The rooms were all high, clean, and well

ventilated; and the machinery, built by an engineer at Rheims, though not of the newest description, was extremely good. The yarn spun was fine and even, and superior to what I have sometimes seen in Scottish mills. (*Handloom Weaver's Rep.*, pp. 129, 130.) The working-pop. of Roubaix is increasing by continual immigrations from Belgium. Some of the labourers live in the town; but the greater number reside in the neighbouring villages and hamlets, coming daily to and from the factories, in which they work from 14 to 15 hours a day. They live mostly on meat, soup, potatoes, and beer; using butchers' meat 4 days a week. Symons says, that the morals of the working classes here are decidedly worse than in most other districts; but, according to Villermé, who, in this respect, is a better authority, the work-people of Roubaix and Turoeurg are, whether as regards morals, cleanliness, clothing, lodging, food, or health, decidedly superior to those of Liège. Drunkenness is here, and, indeed, every where else throughout French Flanders, a prevalent vice; but, in other respects, the conduct of the work-people seems to be good; and they have established numerous societies for their mutual support and instruction. (*Villermé; Tableau des Ouvriers; Hugo; Dict. Géog.*)

ROUEN (an. *Rothomagus*), one of the principal cities of France, and the great seat of its cotton manufacture, dep. Seine-Inférieure, of which it is the cap., on the Seine, 44 m. (direct distance) from its mouth, and 67 m. N.W. Paris; lat. $49^{\circ}39'21''$ N., long. $10^{\circ}56'50''$ E. Pop. in 1846, 91,046; but if the inhabs. of all its suburbs be included, the pop. will amount to upwards of 100,000. (*Villermé, &c.*) This city, which stands in a fine and fruitful country, is most admirably situated on a navigable river, by which it communicates with the cap. on the one hand, and with the flourishing sea-port of Havre on the other; and it is surrounded by a verdant and delightful country. Its numerous spires and towers, and the vessels that throng its quays, give it a very imposing external appearance, to which its interior presents in most parts a striking contrast. Generally it is ill built. Streets mostly narrow, crooked, and filthy; houses principally of wood, or rather of lathe and plaster, though in the W. and sewer quarters of the city some are built of more solid materials, and have even considerable elegance. It is oval, or rather lozenge-shaped, and was for a lengthened period pretty strongly fortified; but its ramparts are now demolished, and their place is occupied by a series of boulevards, which separate the city proper from the *fau bourgs* Cauchols, Bouvreuil, Beauvoisine, Martinville, &c.

The Seine, here crossed by a bridge of boats, and one of stone, divides it from its large suburb of St. Sever. The boulevards, which are planted with trees, like those of Paris, and the fine broad quays and towers, which extend along the banks of the river, are the favourite and almost the only public promenades; the squares or open spaces are shabby and irregular, and except the *Place Royale*, near the centre of the city, are all of insignificant size. Some, however, are ornamented with public fountains, with which Rouen is well furnished: the *Fontaine de Lisieux* is a curious piece of antique sculpture, representing Mount Parnassus, with figures of Apollo, Pegasus, &c. In the square of La Pucelle, an indifferent statue of Joan of Arc is erected on the spot where that heroine suffered martyrdom in 1431.

The central parts of the city are the chief seat of general commerce; the upper classes principally reside in the faub. Cauchols, and the N. suburbs; while the lower quarters at the E. end of the town, and the faub. St. Sever, are almost wholly inhabited by the manufacturing classes.

By far the most celebrated and striking public edifice is the cathedral, one of the noblest religious structures in France, or even in Europe. It is a consecrated precinct, especially between the 12th and 16th centuries inclusive: entire length, 434 ft.; breadth, 103 ft.; length of transepts, 174 ft.; height of nave, 80 ft.* Its richly ornamented front has three fine portals, over the central of which is a square tower, and spire of iron work, reaching to a height of 444 ft.; flanked by two lofty but dissimilar towers, the *Tours Romane* and *Georges d'Amboise*. The former, which dates from a period long anterior to the rest of the building, is in a simple and undecorated style; but the latter, built at the end of the 15th century, is much admired for the beauty of its architecture. It is ornamented with numerous sculptures; and before the Revolution contained an enormous hall, which, with many others belonging to this cathedral, was then sent to the cannon foundry. The interior of the edifice is lighted by 120 windows, many of which are ornamented with stained glass; and contains a vast number of tombs, including that of Richard I. (*Cœur de Lion*) of England, many dukes of Normandy, and 17 archbishops of Rouen; and the fine mausoleum of the

* The dimensions are given by Hugo, and the *Gaule du Voyageur*, in French ft., which are here converted into English feet.

two cardinals d'Amboise. The latter is very perfect; but many of the other monuments were much mutilated in the religious and revolutionary wars.

The church of St. Ouen in the *Place-Royale* belonged to the oldest conventual establishment in Normandy, and occupies a larger extent of ground than the cathedral. It is an admirable specimen of the pointed Gothic: its fine octagonal tower rising from the centre of the building, is 265 ft. in height. The town-hall adjoining this church was originally a portion of the conventual edifice; and, besides various public offices, is appropriated to the museum and public library, which about 80,000 volumes. Several of the other churches in Rouen well deserve notice, and some are of high antiquity. The great city clock is placed in a square Gothic tower, erected in 1830, in the High Street. The *Palais de Justice*, with a noble saloon, was built for the parl. of Normandy, at the end of the 15th century. The mercantile halls of Rouen, for the exhibition and sale of different articles, are well adapted to their destination. They occupy three sides of a square, the centre of which forms an open exchange. A special apartment is devoted to every different kind of goods; the cotton-cloth hall, where the most important branch of traffic is conducted, is 280 ft. in length, by 53 ft. 4 in. in breadth. Every Friday, from 6 a.m. till noon, these halls display great commercial activity. There is another exchange adjacent to the quay. The *exchequer-office*, *chambre des comptes*, barracks, the *bécarie*, a spacious general prison, another prison for accused but untried persons, prefecture, archbishop's palace, mint, custom-house, college, 2 theatres, *Académie*, the general infirmary, which, according to Hugo, has commonly 2,000 inmates, Protestant church, and the remains of an old fortress, are among the other principal public buildings. Rouen has some private houses worth notice, especially those in which Fontenelle and Pierre Corneille were born; others in which are some curious works of art, &c. It is the seat of a royal court for the depts. Seine-Inf. and Eure; of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce; a chamber of commerce, and *council des prud'hommes*, royal and university academies, a royal college, and a mint established in the 9th century; the cap. of the 18th military division of France; the seat of an archbishop, whose diocese comprises the dep. Seine-Inférieure, and whose suffragans are the bishops of Bayeux, Coutances, Evreux, and Séez; the seat of a Protestant consistory; and the residence of many foreign consuls. It has a central society of agriculture; societies of public emulation, commerce, agriculture, medicine, &c.; a Bible society; schools of design and navigation; a botanic garden; savings' bank, and various charitable institutions.

Rouen is so eminent for its cotton manufactures that it has acquired the title of the French Manchester, and checked printed cotton cloths for women's dresses, are commonly known in France by the name of *rouenneries*. It was anciently celebrated for its linen fabrics, the manufacture and dyeing of which appear to have been carried on in it in the earliest times of the French monarchy. But so late as the middle of the last century, the workmen employed at Rouen were nearly all foreigners, Germans, Dutch, or Swiss; who remained in France only during a part of the year, returning to spend the remaining months in their native countries; and less than 50 years ago, the cotton yarn employed in the manufactures was wholly spun by hand. At present, however, both water and steam power are largely employed. The whole region round Rouen shares more or less in its branches of manufacture. Mr. Symons says there are 930 spinning mills in Normandy and the Seine, and 920,000 spindles. (*Handloom Weaver's Report*.) The prefect of the Seine-Inférieure, in 1838, estimated the weavers of cotton and woollen goods in that dep. to amount to about 120,000, 4-5ths of whom were resident in Rouen and its immediate neighbourhood; and Villermé (1840) states that 80,000 persons, men, women, and children, or about half the entire pop. of the city and suburbs, are engaged in the cotton manufacture. (*Tableau des Ouvriers*, l. 138-9.)

"The manufacturers of Rouen (says Mr. Symons) pride themselves greatly on the superiority of their products; and it is but justice to say that I have seldom seen printed cottons so good in colour and texture at 7d. per ell, as those of Rouen at that price. The goods produced by the Norman looms are in direct competition with third markets with those from the W. of Scotland. The wages of Norman weavers are, if any thing, lower than in Scotland, but provisions are at least 30 per cent. cheaper. So that no great difference is perceptible in the condition of the two classes; and were I to be forced to choose whether I would be a pullicate weaver in Scotland or in Normandy, I think I should be sorely puzzled which to select, or rather which to consider the greater infliction." (*Handloom Rep.* p. 126.) The net wages obtained by country weavers working on their own account on pullicates, thick calicoes, &c., are about 1 fr. a day, or 5s. a week,

and this may be taken as above, rather than below, the average. Children and women are both occupied in weaving at proportionate earnings. In the spinning mills, spinners get from 15 to 30 fr. a week, working from 80 to 84 hours; women and girls employed at the carding and drawing operations gain from 7 fr. to 10 fr. The power-loom weavers earn from 12 to 16 fr., and day labourers from 10 to 12 fr. a week. (*Hand-loom Rep.*)

In some branches, and especially that of spinning, wages diminished during the ten years preceding 1834; since which they have been somewhat augmented. According to Villermé, the working classes of Rouen are, upon the whole, in a much less depressed condition than those of Lille, and their health is also much better. Drunkenness is in both towns the prevailing vice among the lower classes; but it seems to be less prevalent at Rouen. The woollen manufactures of the city are unimportant; their chief seat in this dep. being at Elbeuf (which see). Broad silks, velvets, hardware, superior earthenware, chemical products, and confectionary, for which Rouen is famous, are the chief principal products. Vessels of 60 tons ascend to the city, which carries on a considerable trade with the countries both in the N. and S. of Europe, the Levant, America, and the other maritime dependencies; France; the greater part, however, of its foreign commerce is carried on through the intervention of Havre. Rouen was of sufficient importance in the third century to be created a bishop's see; it afterwards became successively the cap. of the kingdom of Neustria, and of the duchy of Normandy. Prince Arthur of Brittany being banished to Rouen, in 1203, by John king of England, Philip Augustus had a look at it in the year following. It was retaken by Henry V. of England in 1417, and retained by the English till 1449, when it was finally annexed to the French crown. The formation made great progress here; and the city erected much in consequence of religious funds. But individuals fell victims to the Massacre of St. Bartholomew and the phrensy of the Revolution in this city in most other large French cities.

Rouen has given birth to some of the most illustrious talents of which France is so boastful. Amongst them may be specified Pierre Corneille, deservedly surnamed *le grand*, one of the greatest modern dramatists, here on the 6th of June, 1666; his brother, Thomas Corneille; Fontenelle, the academician, born here in 1657; Bochart, the famous oriental scholar; Daniel Defoe; Brumoy, author of the *Théâtre des Grecs*; Hugo, art. Rouen; Villermé, *Tableau des Ouvriers*, -1855; *Hand-loom Weavers' Rep.*

VEREDO (Germ. *Rovereth*), a town of the Tyrol, frontiers of Austrian Italy, cap. circ. of its own name, 1,000. near its junction with the Adige, 13 m. S. of Trent. Pop. 7,200. It is well built, many of its edifices of marble. The most remarkable building is stile, on a height commanding the town. It has a civil, criminal, and commercial tribunals for the same, a gymnasium, and high school, and an English consular establishment. In and round the town are silk mills, which employ, according to the Encyclop., 8,000 hands. It has also tobacco factories. (*Oester. Nat. Encyc.*; *Bergheus*; *id.*; *Cronographia*, &c.)

IGNO, a sea-port town of Austrian Italy, circ. in the Adriatic, 89 m. S.S.W. Trieste. Pop. has numerous fine churches and other public edifices and female schools, and 3 hospitals. Its principal building after the model of St. Mark's at Venice. seat of civil, criminal, and commercial tribunals; harbours, one of which is tolerably secure; and in a considerable trade in wine, olives, timber, &c. and tunny. Its inhabs. are principally seafaring, or engaged in the fisheries; they are, however, occupied in ship building and making cables. The town are also carriers of superior marble. (*Encyclop.*; *Oester. Nat. Encyc.*; *Bergheus*, &c.)

RO (an. Rhodrigus), a town of Austrian Italy, circ. cap. deleg., on the Adige, a branch of it in the swampy tract of the Polessin, 36 m. S. of it, and 17 m. N. E. Ferrara. Pop. in 1837, 3,000. It is fortified in the old style, with walls flanked by a ditch, and a citadel; and is entered by 6 cordons to Rampoldi; it is rather a handsome town. The *Austrian Encyc.* says, it is ill-built, and it has numerous churches, a seminary, and 3 orphan asylums, a large and fine theatre, an observatory, and various superior public libraries of the Count Silvestri, comprising is open to the public. It is the seat of the courts for the deleg., and the residence of the bishop of Adria. Though much devoted to a considerable trade in corn, a large fair is held on the 29th, and 3 weekly markets. General Seated by Napoleon, Duke of Rovigo. (*Roman Encyc.*; *Austrian Nat. Encyc.*, &c.)

ROUEN, a town of Belgium, prov. W. Flanders, in the Mandelbeek, a tributary of the Lys,

36 m. W. by S. Ghent. Pop. in 1840, 10,777. It has a high school, manufactures of linen fabrics, leather, soap, oil, &c., and some trade in butter of a superior quality. (*Henschling*; *Dict. Géog.*)

ROXBURGH, an inland and frontier co. of Scotland, having N. the co. Berwick and a small portion of Mid-Lothian, E. and S. Northumberland and Cumberland, and W. Dumfries and Selkirk. Area, 457,992 acres, of which nearly a half is occasionally under the plough. It is partly intersected and partly bounded by the Tweed; and is traversed from its S.W. border, where it has its source, N.E. to Kelso, by the Teviot, whence it is sometimes called Teviotdale. It has every variety of surface, and soil. The low arable lands in the valleys of the Tweed and Teviot, consist principally of light turnip soil. The mountainous or pastoral district is principally in the S.W. parts of the co., along the Dumfries, Cumberland, and Northumberland border. The hills, however, like the Cheviots, to which they are contiguous, are mostly smooth, dry, and well covered with good sheep pasture. Property mostly in large estates; but there are several of the smaller class of proprietors. Farms generally large; and some farmers frequently hold three or more farms. Arable husbandry is as well understood and practised in the lower parts of this co. as in the most improved parts of the empire. It is also celebrated for having been the theatre where some of the principal improvements in modern farming were first introduced, and where others were first successfully practised in Scotland. Mr. Dawson, the great improver of Scotch husbandry, occupied the farm of Froden, near Kelso, in this co.; and in it, soon after 1760, he set to work the first plough drawn by two horses, driven by the ploughman, that was ever seen in Scotland! And if Mr. Dawson was not the first to set the example of raising turnips, he was the first practical farmer by whom they were profitably cultivated on a large scale. (*Survey of Roxburgh*, pp. 69, 90.) Fanners for dressing corn were also made and used in this co. before they were seen in any other part of Scotland. (*Ibid.*, p. 39.) Large quantities of wheat are now produced. Cattle, a mixed breed. Sheep, principally Cheviot. Within the last 30 years many important improvements have been effected in this district. A large extent of land that was entirely pastoral now bears luxuriant crops: bone manure has been introduced; agricultural management has been materially amended; a good deal of waste land has been planted; farm-houses and buildings have, in numerous instances, been rebuilt on approved plans; thrashing-machines have been erected on most considerable farms; and the habits and accommodations of the people have been materially improved. (*New Statistical Account of Scotland*, Roxburgh, p. 23. 35, 40, 125, &c.) There are some very productive orchards in the neighbourhood of Jedburgh, Melrose, and Kelso. Average rent of land, in 1843, 10s. 3d. an acre. Mari is found in vast quantities in several parts of the co., and it is also well supplied with limestone and freestone. Various branches of the woollen manufacture have been introduced, and are prosecuted with considerable vigour at Hawick and Winton; and in a lesser degree at Jedburgh, Melrose, and Kelso. The par. of Kirk Yetholm, in this co., is celebrated as being the residence of the largest colony of gypsies in Scotland. Roxburgh contains 21 parishes; and returns 1 mem. to the H. of C. for the co.; and the bor. of Jedburgh joins with other burghs in returning a mem. Registered electors for the co., in 1840-50, 2,001. Principal towns, Jedburgh, Kelso, Hawick, and Melrose. In 1841, this co. had 6,081 inhab. houses, and 45,035 inhabs., of whom 21,941 were males, and 24,094 females. Valued rent, 214,653*l.* Scotch. Annual value of real property, in 1843, 364,304*l.*

RUBICON. See ITALY, ante, p. 56.

RUDGELEY, a market-town and par. of England, co. Stafford, and E. div. of hand. Cutluthers, on the bank of the Trent, crossed here by a fine aqueduct of the Grand Trunk Canal, 8 m. S.E. Stafford, and 123 m. N.W. London. Area of par., 7,120 acres. Pop. in 1841, 3,774. The town is well built, comprising many good houses, and a few that may even lay claim to elegance. The par. church, an ancient structure, with a handsome tower at its W. end, has recently been enlarged and almost rebuilt. The living is a vicarage in the gift of the dean and chapter of Lichfield. There are places of worship for different classes of dissenters, and several Sunday-schools. A free grammar-school was founded here by Queen Elizabeth: an endowed school furnishes clothing and instruction to 35 boys; besides which there is a national and infant-school. Hopkins's Almshouses afford relief to aged poor women, and there are several money charities. The principal manufacture of Rudgeley is that of hats and felts; but other articles are made here. A stream, which runs through the town to the Trent, turns several colour and corn mills, and there are some iron-forges. At Brereton, within the par., are extensive collieries, employing from 500 to 600 men. The town derives considerable advantages from its position on

the great line of canal communication between the N. and S. cos. Its government is vested in 2 constables, chosen by the Inhabit. Markets on Tuesday: fairs April 17., June 8., and Oct. 21., for horses and cattle.

RUGBY (an. *Rochebrie*, or *Robkey*), a market-town and par. of England, co. Warwick, hund. Knightlow, on the Avon, 28 m. E.S.E. Birmingham, and 75 m. N.W. London. Area of par. 2,190 acres: pop. in 1841, 4,006. The town, on an eminence S. of the river, consists of 3 streets, one of which, leading to the church, is broad and lined with modern brick houses: indeed, great improvements have been made within the last few years, and the advantages derived by the town from its proximity to the Birmingham Railway seem likely still further to promote its prosperity: in the older part of the town, however, there are many houses of plaster and timber, denoting the former poverty of the place. The church is an ancient building, possessing little architectural interest, with a square embattled tower, having a turret at its S.E. angle: the living is a rectory, of the annual value of 610*l.*, in the gift of Earl Craven. There is also a district church, of very recent erection. The Wesleyan Methodists and Baptists have places of worship; and there are several Sunday-schools, a charity school for 30 children of each sex, with almshouses and other charities. The chief importance of Rugby, however, is derived from its great public school, to which the talent of several of its recent masters and the richness of its endowments have given a well-merited celebrity. It was originally a simple grammar school, founded in 1557, by Lawrence Sherfield, citizen of London, a native of the neighbourhood, for the benefit of the town and neighbourhood of Rugby. Any person who has resided during 2 years in, or within 10 m. of the town, may send his sons to be educated free of expense; but if the parent reside out of the town, his son must then lodge at one of the boarding-houses of the school, paying the same rate for his board as those not on the foundation. The number of boys on the foundation is unlimited; but the masters do not receive more than 350 boys and 20 on the foundation. The number of scholars may at present average about 280, about 60 of whom are on the foundation. The school property consists of land within the par., and of about 8 acres of land, called the Conduit Close, in the neighbourhood of Lamb's Conduit Street, London; the value of which has so greatly increased, in consequence of the buildings erected upon it, that the annual revenues of the school, which, at the middle of last century, were under 120*l.* a year, now exceed 5,000*l.* The management is vested in 12 trustees: the school is under a head master and eight classical masters, with subordinate teachers of writing, French, &c. The study of classical literature is carried quite as high as elsewhere, and the success of the boys at examinations for scholarships at Oxford and Cambridge, shows that their knowledge is of a substantial character; but at the same time, history, both sacred and profane, modern as well as ancient, physical and political geography, arithmetic and mathematics (as far as conic sections), and French, constitute integral parts of the course of instruction. An annual examination is held at Christmas, and the names of the boys that distinguish themselves are published in a class-paper. The school has 14 exhibitions, established by the founder. Three exhibitors are elected every year by the trustees on the report of examiners sent from the universities of Oxford and Cambridge. These exhibitions are of the value of 60*l.* a year, and may be held for seven years during residence in any college at either university. There are likewise six scholarships, of the annual value of 25*l.* each, supported by subscription: one scholar is elected every year, and his age must not exceed 14½ years at the time of his examination. The scholarship is tenable for six years, if the boy holding it remains so long at Rugby. The ancient buildings of this great seminary consisted formerly of a master's house, and two or three school-rooms, all of very limited size and shabby exterior, totally inadequate to the wants of the increasing establishment. In 1809, however, the erection of a large and handsome pile of buildings was commenced on the site of the old school-house at the S. extremity of the town. The edifice is of white brick, dressed with stone at the angles, windows, and cornices, the whole being of Tudor architecture. The principal front is 220 feet in length, and the schools are entered by a turretted gateway facing the street and leading to the principal court, a fine area, 90 ft. in length, by 75 ft. in breadth, having cloisters on three of its sides. The buildings on the S. side comprise the dining-hall of the head-master's boarders and three school-rooms; on the W. side is the great school-room, and on the N. side are schools for the French and writing classes. The apartments of the head master are handsome and commodious, communicating also with the various dormitories running round the quadrangle over the school-rooms. The school-chapel is a detached building, in the later pointed style, the interior being fitted up with stalls and handsomely carved

seats; the ceiling is decorated with paintings, and near the altar is the statue of Dr. James, a late head master, by Chantry. Rugby has no manufactures, and the inhabit. of the vicinity are principally agricultural. The trade of the town, however, has been greatly increased by the opening of the Birmingham Railway, which has one of its stations here; and it is now an important *entrepôt* between the surrounding country and the metropolis. The Oxford Canal passes also, within a short distance of the town, connecting it with the principal inland navigation of England. On an eminence N.E. of Rugby are some slight remains of a castle, supposed by Dugdale to have been erected in the reign of Stephen. Large markets on Saturday for corn and provisions; a great horse fair Nov. 22., and 12 other fairs. (*Cher. Comm.* 23th Report; *Journal of Education*, vii. 234-249; *Railway Handbook*, &c.)

RUGEN, an island in the Baltic, belonging to Prussia, opposite to Stralsund, and separated from Pomerania, by a strait varying from 1½ to 3 miles in width. It is of an exceedingly irregular shape, being deeply indented by bays and arms of the sea. Area, 361 sq. m. Pop., about 25,000. It is very fertile, and sends annually large quantities of corn, &c. to Stralsund. Rugen differs much in appearance from the mainland part of Pomerania, its coasts consisting mostly of high, precipitous, chalky cliffs. It is well wooded; and being intercepted by ravines, as well as deep narrow bays, its scenery is highly picturesque. This circumstance, and its facilities for sea-bathing, render it a favourite resort in summer. The Inhabit. are primitive in their habits and manners, industrious, and frugal. They are principally of the reformed religion; and their language is a patois of low German intermixed with Swedish. The fishing in the adjoining seas and bays is very productive. Unfortunately the island has no good harbour, and its coasts are very dangerous. A lighthouse, having the lantern elevated 197 ft. above the level of the sea, has been erected on the most northerly promontory of the island, in lat. 55° 41' 13" N., long. 12° 47' 27" E. Bergen, the capital, situated in the centre of the island, has 2,700 inhabit. After being long in possession of Sweden, Rugen became part of the Prussian dominions in 1815.*

RUNGPOOR (*Rangapora*), a distr. of British India, presid. and prov. Bengal, between lat. 25° and 27° N., and long. 86° and 91° E.; having E. Assam, S. Mymensing and Dinajpore, W. the latter and Purneah, and N. Sikkim and Bootan. Area, 7,856 sq. m. Pop., in 1822, 1,340,350. It is wholly on the N. side of the Ganges, and is intersected by the Brahmaputra and Teesta. The climate is not so hot as in most other parts of Bengal; the soil is inferior to that of the Dinajpore district. Tobacco is the staple product. Wheat is also a considerable crop; barley, oats, maize, cotton, and indigo, are little grown. A good deal of cotton-thread is, notwithstanding, spun in the district, the material being imported by way of Moorshedabad, &c. Total land revenue, in 1829-30, 1,063,178 rupees. Hindoos and Mohammedans are supposed to be nearly equal in point of numbers. Chief towns Rungpoor, the cap.; Mungul, Chalmray, and Goalparah. Rungpoor, in lat. 25° 43' N., long. 89° 29' E., has been estimated to have a pop. of from 15,000 to 20,000. For concise information respecting this district, and that of Purneah, the reader is referred to the surveys by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, in *Martin's British India*, vol. iii.; *Parl. Reports*, &c.)

RUPPIN (NEW), a town of the Prussian dom., prov. Brandenburg, gov. Potsdam, cap. circ., on the lake of its own name, 37 m. N.W. Berlin. Pop. in 1846, 9,941. It is well built, and has a council-house, high school, hospital, central prison, barracks, and a large covered military exercising ground; with manufactures of woollen goods, gloves, and leather. Its trade is greatly facilitated by the Ruppian canal between the Havel and the Rhin, forming a link in the communication between the Elbe and the Oder. (*Berghaus*, &c.)

RUREMONDE, or ROERMOND, a town of Belgium, prov. Limburg, cap. arrond., on the Meuse, where it is joined by the Roer, 37 m. N.W. Maestricht. It was dismantled by Joseph II.; but is still surrounded by ramparts, and is the residence of a military commandant. It is well built; is the seat of a court of primary jurisdiction, and a college; and has manufactures of woollen stuffs, and considerable trade.

RUSSIA, the most extensive, and one of the most powerful empires, either of ancient or modern times. It comprises the whole northern portion of the eastern hemisphere, from the frontiers of Posen and the Gulph of Bothnia on the W., to the Pacific Ocean and Behring's Straits on the E., or from the 18th to the 190th deg. of E. long., being a distance, on the 60th deg.

* It is very probable that Rugen was at one time joined to the mainland; but there is no foundation whatever for the statement that it was separated from it by a violent storm in 1520.

of lat., of nearly 6,000 m. Its extent, from N. to S., though less vast, is still very great, stretching from the 38th to the 70th, and in some parts to the 78th deg. of N. lat., exhibiting an average breadth of about 1,500 m. And, exclusive of this, Russia claims a very large tract in the W. part of America; and is mistress of Nova Zembla, and some other large islands in the Arctic Ocean, of the Aleutian islands off Kamtschatka, and of the Aland Isles, &c. in the Baltic. Her superficial extent has not been determined with any thing like accuracy. It is estimated by Hassel at 372,935 geog. sq. m., or Russia in Europe, including Finland, 286,969 sq. m.; Russia in Asia, 275,767 do.; and Russia in America, 24,000 do.: and Schnitzler, in his *Statistique Générale*, has adopted the estimate. The latest, however, and probably the most accurate estimate of the extent of this vast empire is that given by M. Kœppen, of the Academy of Sciences of Petersburg, in employment of government. According to this gentleman, the area of its different great divisions is as follows:—

	Geog. sq. m.
Russia in Europe, including the portions of the governments of Perm, Orenbourg, and Viatka, that extend into Asia	90,117
northern Asiatic Russia, or Siberia	225,780
northern Asiatic Russia, or Transcaucasian provinces	3,123
Grand duchy of Finland	6,400
Kingdom of Poland	2,390
American colonies	17,500
Grand total	345,340

This estimate, with the pop., is consequently given more in detail than any other, and will, we think, afford the reader may, perhaps, acquire a better idea of the extent of the Russian empire, when he is told that it includes nearly one seventh part of the terrestrial globe, and about one twenty-seventh part of its surface. But by far the greatest proportion of its surface is almost uninhabited, and is destined to perpetual sterility; a consequence of the extreme rigour of the climate in the contiguous to the Arctic Ocean, and partly of all the great rivers by which they are traversed: their embouchure in that ocean, and being, therefore, inaccessible either for the whole or the greater part of the year.

Of the Country. Mountains.—Russia is, in general, and comprises one of the most extensive in the world. That part of the empire which is in the northern hemisphere is naturally parcelled into the divisions of European and Asiatic Russia, by the Ural mountains, which stretch in a N. N. E. direction from the Caspian Sea to the Arctic Ocean; through the greater part of their course, the Ural mountains divide Europe and Asia. The highest points of the Ural mountains have an elevation of about 6,500 ft. above the level of the Caspian. In all the vast country, except the W. side of this central chain to the Caspian Sea, and Moldavia, there is hardly a single elevated Valdai hills, or elevated grounds, between the Ural and Tver, where the Volga, the Don, and the Arxar have their sources, are nowhere more than 10 ft. above the level of the sea, the country is a waving surface, and without any considerations. There is nothing, in fact, save the break or interrupt the course of the wind, in the sense space interposed between the Ural and the Ural mountains. The only great chain of mountains in western Russia is that of Caucasus, between the Caspian Sea, and this is almost the extremity of the empire. Siberia, or Asia, consists principally of a vast plain, extending to the N. Towards the S. and E., it is in parts mountainous, being separated from China and Manchouria by high and little extent, in which the great rivers that flow through the Ural Ocean have their sources.

A distinguishing feature in the appearance of the vast forests. Schnitzler, who estimates the European Russia at about 400 millions of decares that 156 millions are occupied by forests so very prevalent in the governments of Tver, between Petersburg and Moscow, in said a squirrel might travel from the one end without ever touching the ground. The Ural, at the source of the Volga, is the source of any in Europe. In the government of the Ural mountains, containing 18 millions, no fewer than 17 millions are co-

vered by forests! The forests of Asiatic Russia are, also, of vast size. In extensive districts, however, the surface is quite free from wood. This is particularly the case in the vast steppes or plains in the governments of Astrakhan and Omak, which in many parts, indeed, are a mere sandy desert.

Rivers and Lakes.—The rivers of Russia are usually divided into five groups or systems, corresponding to the seas in which they have their embouchure, viz., the Arctic Ocean, the Baltic, the Black Sea, the Caspian, and the Pacific Ocean. The first division is by far the largest. It comprises, in Europe, the Dwina, Mæsen, and Petchora; while in Asia it includes, among a host of others, the Obi, Jenisei, and Lena, three of the largest rivers of Asia. All these rivers run from S. to N.; and the last three have a course of from 2,000 to 2,500 m. The rivers which fall into the Baltic, though of far greater importance in an economical point of view, are of very inferior magnitude. The principal are the Neva, which has Petersburg at its mouth, the Duna, and the Niemen. The rivers which fall into the Black Sea equal those falling into the Baltic in commercial importance, and far exceed them in length of course and volume of water. Among others are the Dniester, Dnieper, Bug, Don, and Kuban. The basin of the Caspian has, however, to boast of the largest and most important of the rivers of Russia, the Volga. This great river has its sources in the government of Tver, about 180 m. S. by E. from Petersburg: including sinuities, its course is about 1,000 leagues, while that of the Danube is only about 450 l. (See Volga.) It is of vast consequence to the internal navigation of the empire. The Caspian Sea, also, receives the Oural and the Emba.

Owing to the flatness of the country through which they flow, and the vast length of their course, the rivers of Russia are but little interrupted by cataracts, flow with a tranquil stream, and afford great facilities to internal navigation. The severity of the climate no doubt prevents, during a considerable portion of the year, all intercourse by water; and, as already stated, renders the rivers falling into the Arctic Ocean of comparatively little value. Luckily, however, the frost, which interrupts navigation, affords the greatest facilities to land travelling. (See post.)

The lakes, as well as the rivers, of Russia are upon a gigantic scale. The lake of Balkal, in the government of Irkutsk, in Asiatic Russia, is one of the most extensive in the world. In European Russia, the lakes of Ladoga, Onega, Peipus, Ilimen, and Bielo Ozero, are also of great extent, particularly the first. The duchy of Finland is almost everywhere interspersed with lakes, and they are very abundant in other provinces, particularly in that of Olonetz.

Soil and Climate.—These, it is obvious, must differ exceedingly in so vast a country. Some provinces mostly consist of sandy barren plains, or vast morasses. But the most valuable portion of the empire, or that included between the Baltic, the Gulf of Finland, and the Volga, on the N. and E.; the Black Sea on the S.; and Austria, Poland, Prussia, &c. on the W.; has, speaking generally, a soft black mould, of great depth, mostly on a sandy bottom, easily wrought, and very fertile. In some places it inclines to sand or gravel; in many, from the want of drainage, it is peaty or boggy: in Livonia, and parts of Lithuania, it is clayey, but it nowhere inclines to chalk. The following statements by Pleschýeff, whose accuracy is well known, contain all the information with respect to the soil and productiveness of the country that seems to be required in a work of this description. "Russia," says he, "is divided into two great parts by the Ural mountains, which form an uninterrupted barrier through its whole breadth and separate Siberia or Asiatic from European Russia.

"That part of Russia which lies on this side of the Ural mountains, presents an immense plain declining westward by an easy descent. This plain, from its vast extent, has a great variety of climates, soils, and products. Its northern part, which sensibly declines towards the White and Frozen Seas, is covered with forests, marshy, and but little fit for cultivation. The other, and more southerly portion of this vast plain, includes the whole district along the Volga, as far as the steppes or deserts between the Caspian and the Sea of Azov, and constitutes the finest part of Russia: generally it has a fertile soil, the arable and meadow land preponderating over the woods and marshes.

"That part of the country which extends towards Vorontje, Tambov, Penza, and Simbirsk, as far as the deserts, is most remarkable for the superior quality of every kind of fruit and other produce. It has everywhere an excellent soil, consisting of black earth, strongly impregnated with saltpetre. But the tract which commences between the Sea of Azov and the Caspian, and extends near the shores of the latter, and between the Volga and Oural, as far as the Emba, is

little better than a desert, being level, dry, high, barren, and full of salt lakes.

"The country lying on the other side of the Oural mountains, known by the name of Siberia, is generally a flat tract of vast extent, declining imperceptibly towards the Frozen Ocean, and rising thence by equally imperceptible degrees, towards its southern border, where at last it is lost in the immense mountain ranges which separate the Russian and Chinese empires. It is unnecessary to notice in detail the different great divisions of this vast territory. In general it may be stated, that the more southerly portion of Siberia, or that between the S. frontier of the empire and the 57th or 60th deg. of lat., as far E. as the river Lena, has, for the most part, a fertile soil; and that, notwithstanding the severity of the climate, it produces most kinds of grain. But, owing to the increase of cold and the nature of the soil, the more northerly portion of the region now noticed, or that extending from the 57th or 60th deg. of lat. to the Frozen Ocean, and the whole country E. of the Lena, from the frontier of Manchouria northwards, is wholly, or almost wholly, unfit either for cultivation, or for the grazing of cattle. In the E. a portion of this vast tract is mountainous, but it mostly consists of immense levels, full of swamps and bogs, covered with moss, which would be totally impassable were it not that the ice, which never thaws deeper than a few inches, gives a firm under footing." (*Eng. Trans.* p. 8.)

Notwithstanding the heats that usually prevail during summer, especially in the southern provinces, cold, speaking generally, predominates very decidedly in Russia. With the exception, indeed, of the Crimea and the transcaucasian provinces, no part of Russia can be said to be generally hot; and even in them the frost in winter is often very severe. The climate of Russia is, in fact, proverbial for its severity; and this increases not only as we advance towards the N. but also as we advance towards the E.; the cold being decidedly greater in Siberia than in the same latitudes in European Russia, a difference which is also sufficiently perceptible in the provinces on the E. and W. sides of the latter. This, no doubt, is owing to various causes; but principally, perhaps, to the greater cultivation of the western provinces and their proximity to the Baltic; and to the vast extent of frozen sea and land traversed by the winds from the N.E. Beyond the 63d degree of lat. the ground is covered with snow and ice for about nine months in the year; and during the other three months ice is always found at a little distance below the surface. Corn crops cannot be depended upon in European Russia beyond the 62d degree of lat.; and the great agricultural provinces lie to the E. of the 58th deg. The fruits of temperate climates are seldom met with beyond the 52d deg. At Petersburg, in lat. 59° 56', the mean maximum of cold is about 32° and the mean maximum of heat 50° Reaumur. The Neva is commonly frozen over before the end of November, and the ice never breaks up before the end of March. At an average of ten years it is calculated that there are annually at Petersburg 97 bright days, 104 rain, 72 snow, and 93 unsettled. At Moscow, in lat. 55° 45', the cold is more severe than at Stockholm in lat. 59° 50'. At Astrakhan, in lat. 46° 21', nearly the same as that of Lyons, the Volga is sometimes frozen over so as to bear loaded waggons. The sea of Azov is usually frozen over from November to the beginning of April. In Siberia, as already stated, the cold is much more severe than in the provinces to the W. of the Oural mountains. The breaking up of the ice on the Lena does not take place before the beginning of May.

But this severe cold is not unhealthy, and is much less inconvenient than might be supposed. While the frost lasts the air is pure and bracing, and its severity is guarded against by warm clothing, and by having the houses properly constructed and heated. At Petersburg and Moscow the winter is, in fact, the finest season. The inhale seem to revive at its approach. Sledge-roads over the snow render travelling commodious and agree-

able; and a winter journey in a moderate frost by moonlight is a high enjoyment. The Russian peasants care only for warm covering for their legs and feet. At Petersburg, in a frost of 25° Reaumur, it is common to see women standing for hours together washing their linen through holes dug in the ice over the Neva!

Spring can hardly be said to have any place in the Russian calendar. The transition from frost to fine weather is usually very rapid. In a brief period after the snow and ice have disappeared, the fields and trees are clothed in the liveliness of summer, and vegetation makes an extraordinary progress. At Petersburg the summer is as mild and agreeable as in the S. of France; but there and in all the N. provinces it is very variable. As we advance towards the S. it becomes steadier, and the heats increase. At Astrakhan the mercury in the thermometer sometimes rises to 103° F.; and in the transcaucasian provinces it rises still higher. The autumn, or the period of transition from summer to winter, is the most unpleasant season in Russia. The sky is generally cloudy, and rains and storms are very prevalent. The Crimea, from its high S. lat., and its being embosomed in the Euxine, has the most agreeable climate in the empire.

Divisions, Population, &c.—The divisions of the Russian empire have differed materially at different periods. Peter the Great made some important changes in the distribution that had existed previously to his epoch. The whole, however, was remodelled and placed on a new footing by Catherine II. in 1775. She divided the entire empire into three great regions; those of the North, Middle, and South. Each of these regions was subdivided into governments, of which there were at first 42, and at the end of her reign 50. Paul made some ill-advised changes on this distribution, which were set aside on the accession of Alexander. The existing divisions were mostly fixed by the latter in 1822, nearly on the basis laid down by Catherine. The empire, exclusive of the kingdom of Poland, is divided into governments, exclusive of certain territories called provinces, or *oblasts*, not formed into governments. Some of these divisions, particularly those in Asiatic Russia, are of vast extent; but neither their boundaries nor their population are well ascertained. But, as the best that can be had, we subjoin M. Koppert's table of the area and population of the different provinces included in the empire. [See top of next page.]

Animal and Vegetable Products.—The animals of Russia include those commonly met with in the arctic circle, and in temperate climates, as well as some of those belonging more peculiarly to the intertropical regions. Exclusive of horses, corn, sheep, &c., ree deer and camels are both met with. The latter is employed in travelling through the deserts in some of the S. provs., while the former constitutes the principal wealth of the Kamtschatka, Kamtschatka, Ostiak, Tchoukitchia, and other tribes inhabiting the extreme N. parts of the empire. The dog is common everywhere; and in parts of Siberia, where there are neither horses nor reindeer, is of the very greatest utility; and besides being employed for draught and burden, is used as food. Beasts are abundant; but swans and other fur-bearing animals are also common; and in many parts the chase forms a principal part of the occupation of the people. The rivers and lakes swarm with fish.

All sorts of corn succeed in Russia; though, as already stated, the crops cannot be depended upon above the 62d deg., nor is cultivation attempted in any part of the empire beyond the 63d deg. Fruits of all sorts are abundant in the S. provs. The vine is cultivated in the vicinity of Astrakhan, in the Crimea, and in the Caucasian provs.; but the wine made from it is of a very low quality. Though mandarin are not abundant in Russia, the pasture in most parts are excellent. The forests will be afterwards noticed.

Minerals, Working of Metals.—Russia has for a lengthened period produced considerable supplies of the precious metals; but her importance in this respect has increased prodigiously of late years, and the now (1846) supplies a much larger quantity of gold than any other country. It is partly obtained from mines mostly situated in the Oural Mountains; but it is principally obtained from the auriferous sands of various rivers in Siberia, which have their sources in the Altai Mountains. Such has been the increase in the produce of the latter, that while, in 1830, little more than 6 pounds were obtained from the washings in Siberia, they yielded, in 1846, no fewer than 1863 pounds! We subjoin an

ACCOUNT OF THE PRODUCE IN GOLD OF THE MINES OF THE OURAL AND OF THE WASHINGS OF SIBERIA SINCE 1827, with their value in sterling.

	In the Oural Mountains.	In the Siberian Washings.	Total.	Quantity of fine Gold.	In Troy Weight.	Value at the Rate of 113/81 Grains Troy per £1 st.
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Lbs.	£
1827	209-58	133-97	443-50	402-68	17,669-60	900,673
1828	200-17	193-16	453-33	448-98	19,699-06	1,004,120
1829	209-78	133-30	492-98	448-61	19,968-00	1,008,408
1840	298-41	249-41	547-82	498-22	21,375-04	1,115,087
1841	296-48	350-20	646-67	588-66	26,830-40	1,216,628
1842	292-40	615-23	908-63	826-88	36,370-23	1,848,808
1843	318-78	981-00	1,299-78	1,178-25	51,701-61	2,685,366
1844	310-68	1,081-55	1,341-56	1,220-84	53,870-46	2,780,652
1845	328-00	1,043-90	1,371-90	1,248-22	54,777-18	2,792,185
1846	314-63	1,263-88	1,577-53	1,326-55	66,368-01	3,414,427

Names, Area, and Population of the different Great Divisions and Governments included in the Russian Empire in 1846:—

Governments.	Area in Geog. sq. m.	Pop. in 1846.	Governments.	Area in Geog. sq. m.	Pop. in 1846.
Northern Provinces:			Paltava - - - - -	897	1,785,800
Archangel - - - - -	15,519	253,000	Kharkoff - - - - -	875	1,467,100
Ararat - - - - -	2,784	163,100	Yaroslavl - - - - -	1,809	1,637,900
Volga - - - - -	6,967	822,200	Don Cossacks - - - - -	2,943	701,500
Western Provinces:			New Russia:		
Prussia - - - - -	970	613,780	Ekaterinoslav - - - - -	1,196	870,100
Norway - - - - -	2,313	907,900	Kherson - - - - -	1,332	847,400
Poland - - - - -	810	775,500	Taurida - - - - -	1,163	572,200
Finland - - - - -	1,019	1,170,500	Bessarabia - - - - -	858	792,000
Meuse - - - - -	893	1,372,500	Wides and Caspian Provinces:		
Twier - - - - -	1,224	1,387,700	Razin - - - - -	1,123	1,512,900
Yaroslavl - - - - -	661	1,004,100	Penza - - - - -	690	1,087,200
Kazans - - - - -	1,496	1,254,600	Saratoff - - - - -	1,313	1,518,900
Nijni Novgorod - - - - -	877	1,178,200	Samara - - - - -	3,525	1,718,600
Vladimir - - - - -	802	1,246,500	Astrakhan - - - - -	2,960	281,400
Riazan - - - - -	767	1,365,900	Caucasus, &c. - - - - -	2,650	526,400
Tambou - - - - -	1,302	1,750,900	Other Provinces:		
Tula - - - - -	555	1,227,000	Orenbourg - - - - -	6,373	1,949,500
Kaluga - - - - -	573	1,006,400	Fern - - - - -	5,073	1,637,700
Orel - - - - -	859	1,502,900	Yakutsk - - - - -	2,500	1,669,900
Kozak - - - - -	818	1,660,000	Total - - - - -	90,117	54,091,300
Baltic Provinces:			Siberia:		
Esthonia - - - - -	376	310,400	Tobolsk - - - - -	225,780	2,387,000
Livonia - - - - -	863	814,100	Tomsk - - - - -		
Courland - - - - -	496	553,300	Irkutsk - - - - -		
White Russia:			Yakutsk - - - - -		
Witepsk - - - - -	910	789,300	Kamtschatka - - - - -		
Mohilef - - - - -	885	851,500	Ochotsk - - - - -	3,123	2,648,000
Minsk - - - - -	1,622	1,046,400	Yemtschik - - - - -		
Albans:			Transcaucasian Provinces:		
Wilna - - - - -	768	865,700	Georgia, &c. - - - - -	5,123	2,648,000
Grodna - - - - -	693	801,000	Finland - - - - -	6,400	1,412,315
Kowno - - - - -	758	915,380	Kingdom of Poland - - - - -	2,780	4,857,700
Little Russia:			Russian America - - - - -	17,509	61,000
Volynia - - - - -	1,297	1,445,500	Totals - - - - -	345,240	66,008,315
Podolia - - - - -	774	1,703,000			
Kief - - - - -	914	1,605,300			
Tchernigoff - - - - -	1,000	1,450,000			

M. B. The 345,240 Geographical sq. m. of 15 to a deg. are equal to 7,293,250 Eng. sq. m. of 69'15 to a deg.

assisted Account of the Population of the Russian Empire in 1836, according to the Official Statement published by the Minister of Finance:—

	Males.	Females.		Males.	Females.
Russian priests - - - - -	23,331		Greeks of Nijni, gunmakers of Tula, &c. - - - - -	10,892	10,940
Deacons and sacristans - - - - -	63,178		Citizens of Bessarabia - - - - -	67,905	66,176
Male children of priests, deacons, and sacristans - - - - -	136,648		Inhabitants of Villages.		
Total - - - - -	254,057	249,748	Peasants (that is, slaves), the private property of the emperor and the imperial family, peasants annexed to the crown, &c. - - - - -	10,441,399	11,022,504
Peasants of the United Greek and Roman church - - - - -	7,823	7,318	Peasants the property of nobles - - - - -	11,408,721	11,838,873
Catholic priests - - - - -	4,497	345	Wandering Tribes.		
Armenian priests - - - - -	474	385	Calmucks, Circassians, and Mohammedans of the Caucasus - - - - -	244,716	261,083
Reformed church - - - - -	61	87	Territory beyond the Caucasus.	(Nearly)	(Nearly)
Mohammedan Mullahs - - - - -	7,850	6,971	Georgia, Armenia, Mongolia, &c. - - - - -	689,147	690,130
Others (Tartars) - - - - -	160		Poland - - - - -	2,777,311	2,110,911
Nobles.			Finland - - - - -	665,658	708,484
Hereditary - - - - -	264,751	253,499	Russian colonies in America - - - - -	20,761	20,292
virtue of service, &c., with their sons - - - - -	78,922	74,273	Total of population - - - - -	28,896,213	30,327,315
city officers who have left the army, and are employed in the civil service, &c. - - - - -	187,017	237,415	Grand total of both sexes - - - - -	69,183,566	
reigns of all classes - - - - -	22,114	15,815	In this table, however, the private soldiers of the army and navy, with their wives and children, are not included; so that the sum total, in round numbers, may be estimated at sixty-one millions. In addition to which must be reckoned the inhabitants of the mountains between the Black Sea and the Caspian, amounting to 1,445,000. There are also some wandering tribes of Circassians and others, whom it is impossible to number.		
literary colonies - - - - -	930,298	981,467			
Inhabitants of Towns.					
Merchants - - - - -	151,547	186,714			
shopkeepers, artisans, &c. - - - - -	1,389,454	1,433,562			
peasants in the eastern provinces - - - - -	7,268	6,966			

these quantities considerably more than half the of the Oural Mountains, and nearly the whole of the Siberian washings, are from private. For example in the last year the proportions

	Public Mines.	Private Mines.
Public Wash.	129'58	185'07
Public Wash.	1,204'85	1,677'53

produce of the private works, a duty varying 2 to 24 per cent. is charged, which occasions so much mugging, that the returns are estimated to be 10 per cent. below the actual produce. considerable quantities of platinum and silver, copper, &c. are also produced. The iron-mines furnish a more than sufficient for the wants of the empire. In the Oural mountains only are said to employ 50,000 labourers; and iron is also procured in all, Caucasus, the Valdai Hills, &c. The total of iron is said by Schultze to amount to 9 poods; and may now, perhaps, be taken at 12 millions poods, or from 160,000 to 180,000 poods only is used in the iron-works and foundries of Russia. Mercury, antimony, zinc, cobalt, &c. are found in Siberia.

Cast-iron articles are prepared at most mines where there are forges. There is an important cannon manufactory at Petrosavohak, in the government of Olonetz, which was brought to a high state of perfection by an Englishman of the name of Gascoigne. But the principal hardware manufactures are carried on at Tula, in the government of that name. (See TULA.) A great variety of articles of cutlery are produced; and the royal manufactory of fire-arms is very extensive, employing, it is said, about 7,000 male and 9,600 female workers. (Schnitzler, *La Russie, la Pologne, &c.*, p. 315.) Very different statements have been made as to the quality of the arms produced at Tula. Those of Dr. Clarke were speedily confuted by the exploits of the Russian forces; and no doubt the manufacture has been since materially improved. At present we are assured, on undoubted authority, that though the arms produced at Tula be inferior in point of finish to those made in England, they are of very good quality.

Russia is abundantly supplied with mines of salt and brine springs; but as most of them are at a great distance from the Baltic and western provs., there is a large importation of salt from England and Austria. The salt mines and brine springs in the government of Taurida (the Crimea), are the most extensive, and furnish annually about 16 millions poods (nearly 960,000

tons); those of Perm, which annually supply about 7 millions poods, are the next in importance; the mines of Irtetsk, in the government of Orenbourg, furnish about 300,000 poods, exclusive of what is furnished by the salt lakes, and additional supplies are obtained from various other mines and springs.

Agriculture.—Landed property in Russia is generally divided into estates belonging either to the crown or the nobility. Some of those belonging to the latter are very extensive; but, owing to the compulsory division of estates among the children of a family on the death of the father, there is not generally the case, and the too great subdivision of the land is, in fact, one of the evils with which Russia is threatened. The peasants occupying the crown estates are in a state of *predial*, and those occupying the estates of the nobility are generally in a state of *absolute*, slavery. The value of a Russian estate formerly depended more on the number of labourers or slaves belonging to it, and which may be either sold, or let out by the proprietor, than on its extent, or the quality of the soil; but since the increase of pop. this, in many districts, is no longer the case; and the proprietor is sometimes burdened with the charge of supporting and maintaining labourers, and paying the tax on them to government, for whose services he has little or no use. Different proprietors adopt different methods in the management of their estates. In the principal part of Great Russia, comprising all the central provs. of the monarchy, the system is very simple. The proprietors rarely farm any considerable portion of their estates, or interfere with the mode in which they are cultivated. They usually content themselves with distributing them among the peasantry; their revenue consisting in the produce of an *obrok*, or capitation tax, imposed on each male peasant, by way of rent. In the Baltic provs., on the other hand, the owners usually retain a quarter, or some other proportion, of their estates in their own possession, managing them either directly, or by the intervention of stewards or agents. The peasants on such estates are allowed cottages, having pieces of ground attached, generally, perhaps, about 15 acres, sufficient for their support; their obrok or tax being paid by labour, or *corvées*, performed on the lands held by the proprietor, or let by him to others. In the Ukraine and other 8. provs., the peasants are partly free; and these pay for the lands they occupy, sometimes money, but more frequently produce and labour rents. There is also a class of small proprietors who cultivate their own lands, but who have not the privilege of holding slaves.

It may seem at first sight that, provided its amount were moderate, the system of parceling out land to occupiers charged with an obrok or capitation tax, could not be fairly objected to. And when such is the case, and the landlord allows the occupiers to reap the fruit of increased economy and exertion, this is no doubt the preferable mode of dealing with slaves. But the vice of the system is that, except on the crown estates, every thing depends on the will of the proprietor, who, though occasionally enlightened and liberal, is too frequently ignorant of his real interests, careless, and unscrupulous. The occupier has, in fact, no security whatever. If he improve his farm, or have about him the appearance of getting rich, the chances are that his obrok will be immediately increased; or that a portion will be taken from his farm, and given to another family. Even the predial slaves on the crown estates, from whom only a certain amount of labour or of *corvées* can be legally demanded, are frequently exposed to the extortion of those to whom the lands are let, or of the officers employed to superintend them. Hence, in the generality of instances, the peasants invariably follow a routine system; they avoid labour by which they are not to benefit; and it is seldom, except on the lands managed by the proprietors themselves, or on those occupied by the few free tenants to be found in the country, that any considerable improvements are ever attempted. When the pop. of an estate parcelled among peasants is increased, a new distribution of the land has to be made; and, if unoccupied land cannot be assigned to the new families, they are provided for by diminishing the shares apportioned among the old ones. On such occasions, if the occupiers complain that their obrok or tax is too heavy, it is usual to grant those on whom the property can be parted, license to leave the estate; and, though they still continue slaves, many avail themselves of this permission, and migrate to towns where they exercise some trade or profession, from the profits of which they frequently pay a much higher obrok than was imposed upon them in the country, and accumulate sums with which to purchase their freedom.

It is evident from these statements, and from the influence of the compulsory division of estates in preventing improvements by the proprietors, that agriculture in Russia must be at a very low ebb. But though this be its general condition, it differs materially in different

• One seventh of a man's landed property goes, on his death, to his widow for ever; one fourteenth goes to each daughter; and the residue is equally divided among his sons. (*Practical Russia*, 132.)

provinces; and some estates, even in the most backward provs., have been greatly improved. In Livonia, and the provs. bordering on the Baltic, and also in parts of the Ukraine, the husbandry is very superior, and the implements quite equal to the best that are to be met with in most parts of Germany. But, with the exception of a few estates, it is quite otherwise in the rest of the empire. The plough is there a wretched implement drawn by one horse, and calculated rather to scratch than to turn up the soil. The harrow is made of wood; and rollers and hoisting machines are entirely unknown. Were it not that the soil is generally light, friable, and very easily wrought, it would be impossible to cultivate it by such means. But these suffice to make it produce more than enough for the wants of the inhabs. There is not, indeed, as Mr. Loudon has truly stated, another country in Europe where corn crops may be raised at so little expense of labour as in Russia.

Exclusive of the forests, and the sandy deserts of the south, vast tracts in the northern parts of the empire are, and always must be, unsuceptible of cultivation. Taking the whole surface of European Russia at 472 millions of decatiines, M. Schnitzler supposes that the cultivated land does not exceed 61½ millions, and the meadows (chiefly in Livonia and Courland) 6 millions decatiines. (*Essai Statistique de la Russie*, p. 34.) The products vary, of course, with the differences of soil and climate. All sorts of corn are raised; but rye being the common food of the peasantry, it is produced in much greater quantities than any other sort of grain. Next to rye is oats; and the value of the crops of these two, taken together, is supposed to be more than double the value of the crops of wheat, barley, and of every other kind of corn. Orel, Kasan, Nijni Novgorod, Penza, Tambov, and Koursk are the most productive provs.; and it is there that the greatest quantities of wheat is raised. According to the official returns, which, however, in these matters are little to be depended upon, there were sown in European Russia, in the latter part of 1834, 20,349,149 chetwerts winter corn (rye and wheat); and in the following spring, 30,398,046 chetwerts spring corn; the return to the former being, at an average, 4½ for 1, and that of the latter nearly 4 for 1. But, in the best districts, wherever the land is moderately well cultivated, the produce is much greater; and is, indeed, no-wise inferior to that of the most favoured countries. Corn in Russia is very frequently kiln-dried in the sheaf, before it is either stacked or thrashed. Flax and hemp are very extensively cultivated; and, besides what is made use of at home, are very largely exported. Potatoes succeed almost everywhere; and this, also, is the case with hops. Tobacco is confined to the S. provs., where it is an important article. It deserves to be mentioned, to the credit of the government, that it has lately been exerting itself in the most efficient manner for the improvement of agriculture. Professorships of agriculture have been established in the different universities; and an institution to which a model farm is attached, has been established near Mohilev for educating 20 pupils, so as to fit them to act as stewards or managers of large estates.

Horses are very abundant in Russia. Speaking generally, they are coarse and ill shaped, but hardy and active. In the southern provinces, however, whence the cavalry horses are brought, the breed is very superior. The khans or chiefs of the nomadic tribes occasionally possess as many as 10,000 horses.

M. Storch states that there is no country in Europe where so many cattle are reared as in Russia, and none where they are taken so little care of. (*Tableaux de la Russie*, ii. 156.) Exclusive of the numerous herds, which constitute a principal part of the wealth of the pastoral and nomadic tribes, every peasant has a few head, and even the beggar has a cow or a goat! The ordinary Russian ox is small, lean, and bony; but those of the Ukraine, Podolia, Volhynia, and some other provinces, are large and of a very fine breed. Many thousand head are annually sent from the Ukraine to Petersburg and other Russian towns, and also to Silesia and Germany. Tallow is at present, and has been for some years, the most important article of export from Russia: the increase of the exports of this article from Odessa within these few years has been quite extraordinary. The wool of the common Russian sheep is hard and coarse; but latterly considerable efforts have been made to improve the breed by importing fine woolled sheep from Germany; and wool, notwithstanding the increase of factories at home, is becoming an important article of export. Thus, during the period from 1814 to 1834, the annual average export of wool amounted to only 1,364,000 lbs., whereas, in 1838, it amounted to very near 13,000,000 lbs. valued at 552,000*l*. Hogs are everywhere abundant, and, in the northern provinces especially, furnish a principal part of the food of the people, while their bristles are an article of export. Geese are also abundant.

The rearing and management of bees is more attended to in Russia than in any other European country, and is,

in fact, the principal occupation of several tribes. The wild bee, however, greatly excels those that are domesticated. Their culture is principally attended to in the provinces of Kasan and Ourga. Individuals among the Bashkirs possess 100 hives in their gardens, and upwards of 1,000 in the forests! (*Storch, Tableau*, II. 245.) Honey is very extensively used in many parts instead of sugar. The export of wax is very considerable. In 1834, it amounted to 32,948 pounds, or 800,938 lbs.

Manufactures—are not generally in an advanced state. Since the reign of Peter the Great, their improvement and extension here, it is true, been favourite objects with the government; and heavy duties and prohibitions have, in consequence, been imposed on such foreign articles as it was supposed might interfere with similar articles of native growth. This, however, was a very erroneous policy. The slavery of the peasantry is an all but invincible obstacle, in so far as they are concerned, to the formation of those habits of industry, perseverance, and invention, necessary to insure success in manufactures; while the thinness of the population, the variety of natural products, and the fertility of the soil, all concur in pointing out agriculture, including under that term mines and fisheries, as the natural and most advantageous employment that can be carried on upon a great scale, till civilisation be more generally diffused. In fact, considering the peculiar circumstances under which Russia has been placed, and the deficiency of her capital, he wonder rather ought to be that she has made so great a progress as she has done in manufacturing industry, than that she should still be so backward. Among the peasantry generally, there is little or no subdivision of labour. Each family commonly supplies itself with all the clothing and furniture which it requires. Sometimes, however, a person superadds some particular employment to his ordinary avocations; and sometimes the principle is carried farther, and the inhabitants of entire villages devote themselves to some particular trade. It is only in pretty large towns that the division of labour, such as it exists amongst us, is carried to any considerable extent; and even there it is a common complaint at the native products, though showy, are seldom substantial or good. "*Si le génie de l'invention lui manque*," is Schnitzler, "*le Russe possède en revanche, ou plus ou moins, la facilité d'imiter ce que d'autres ont produit; un esprit vif et exercé lui fait diviser les procédés qu'il a vus. Mais, pressé de gagner, et manquant de reconnaissance, il travaille à la hâte, plutôt pour s'approprier que pour la durée, et les produits de toute espèce tombent rapidement au-dessous des ouvrages créés par des mains étrangères.*" (*Tableau de la Russie*, p. 125.) The versatility of the Russian peasant is nishing. He is truly a Jack of all trades, and will turn hand to whatever may be required. "He will plough any, weave to-morrow, help to build a house the third and the fourth, if his master need an extra coach, he will mount the box, and drive four horses as if it were his daily occupation. None of these actions, except, perhaps, the last, will be as well performed as in a country where the division of labour is thoroughly understood. They will all, however, be sufficiently well done to serve the two or three purposes in Russia. The people are very ingenious, but perseverance is wanting; and though they carry many arts to a high degree of excellence, they generally stop short of perfection; and it will be very long before their products come into competition, for finish, durability, or cheapness with English goods." (*Venables Russia*, p. 141.) In certain departments, however, Russia is not merely but even superior to other countries. Her leather is excellent; and for some purposes, such as bookbinding, is decidedly superior to any other material. The provision for the preparation of this important article has often attracted foreign travellers, who have been engaged in the business in Russia, with the view of trying themselves acquainted with the details, that might undertake it at home. But, whether it be owing to the want of the bark or the water, or to some other overruled cause, none of the attempts to produce leather in foreign countries have ever succeeded, and Russia continues to enjoy a monopoly of this valuable product, and to export it in large quantities. The cloth, cordage and canvass, tick, felt, mats, soap, candles, caviar, kishine, spirits, and some articles produced in Russia, are quite as good, or better than those of any other country. In 1788, almost all the cloth required for the use of the army was imported from abroad; but it is now wholly manufactured at home. Cloth of a superior quality is also made at Moscow and its vicinity, at Iamarsk, Petersburg, Sarepta, and other places; but, for speaking, it is both inferior to what might be made at home and dearer. Linen is principally manufactured in Vladimir, Kostroma, Moscow, and Kalouga; cloth and cordage in Archangel, Orel, &c. The manufacture of Moscow is extensive and thriving, carried on to a less extent in other towns. Nu-

merous establishments for the spinning of cotton have been recently founded. Generally, however, they supply only the coarser descriptions of yarn, the finer sorts being almost wholly imported from England. The cotton manufacture has recently made a rapid progress. It is principally carried on in the government of Vladimir; Choula and Ivanova being its chief seats. In 1828 they had 15,612 looms, and employed 24,257 workpeople. During the same year there were sold in the province 5,610,000 lbs. of foreign cotton yarn, and 660,000 lbs. produced by Russian spinners. (*Schnitzler, La Russie*, &c., p. 105.) The increase has been very great in the interval; for, it appears from the official returns, that there were in Vladimir, in 1830, 315 factories, which gave employment to 83,555 workpeople. The glass manufacture has, also, made a very rapid progress. Single plates are made at the Petersburg glass-works, that cost 600*r.* each. The glass-works of the brothers Maltzoff, in Tula and Twer, are deservedly celebrated. The home consumption of glass is great, and is rapidly increasing. The manufacture of snuff and cigars, potash, and soap has, also, very rapidly increased. Paper, coarse and fine earthenware, jewellery, &c., are produced at Moscow, Petersburg, and other places.

Industry of all sorts has made an astonishing progress since the peace of 1815. In 1812 there were, in the entire empire, 2,332 manufacturing establishments, employing 619,063 workpeople; whereas, in 1836, the former amounted to 6,015, and the latter to 269,673, of whom about a half were free labourers. During the next three years the progress was still greater, there being, in 1839, 1,855 manufactories, employing 412,931 workpeople, exclusive of those engaged in mines, smelting-houses, furnaces, &c. In 1837, the total value of the manufactured produce of Russia was estimated at 509,574,397 roubles, and it is now (1841) probably not under 650 millions. Among the different manufacturing establishments, in 1839, 616 were appropriated to the production of woollens, 227 to that of silk, 467 to that of cotton, and 367 to that of linen.

The progress of industry is strikingly evinced by the fact that while, in 1820, there were only two steam-engines in the government of Moscow, it reckoned about 100 in 1830! The same government had, in 1839, 1,058 factories, and 83,654 workpeople.

With the exception of the formidable restraints originating in the slavery of the peasantry, industry is quite free in Russia. There are no internal monopolies, save those of salt, spirits, and playing cards. There is nothing in the guilds, or corporations, to check competition; and all who are free may exercise any art or profession, either in town or country, as may be most agreeable to themselves. Slaves who have obtained a passport, or license from their owners to leave their estates, are, in this respect, in the same situation. Since 1836, lectures have been instituted in all the Russian universities, for the instruction of manufacturers or handicraft-tradesmen in mechanics, chemistry, &c.

Commerce.—The commerce of Russia is already, notwithstanding the paralyzing influence of the prohibitive system, very extensive. But this system is now being modified; and trade will, no doubt, continue to increase with the growing wealth and population of the empire, and according as more liberal principles may prevail. The principal articles of export are tallow, which is more largely exported from this than from any other country; grain, particularly wheat; hemp and flax; timber, potash, bristles, linseed and hempsed, linseed and hempsed oils, furs, leather; fox, hare, and squirrel skins; canvass and coarse linen; cordage, wool, caviar, wax, kishine, tar, &c. The principal imports are sugar, especially from the Havannah; cotton stuffs and yarn, the latter being the most important article sent from Great Britain to Russia; machinery and mill work; hardware and iron; coffee, but not in large quantities; indigo, and other dye-stuffs; woollens, oils, spices, wine, salt, tea, lead, tin, coal, fine linen from Holland and Silesia, &c.

The principal trading ports are Petersburg and Riga, on the Baltic, but particularly the former; Archangel, on the White Sea; Odessa, on the Black Sea; Taganrog, on the sea of Azof; and Astrakhan and Baku, on the Caspian Sea. Moscow is the principal entrepôt of the interior commerce of the empire. The trade with China is mostly carried on through Kiachta; and the fair of Nijni Novgorod is celebrated all over Europe. There are also very large fairs at Irib, Kharkoff, Kourak, and other towns. (*See these towns*.) The value of the goods offered for sale at the different great fairs, in 1839, is said to have amounted to 353,894,732 roubles. In 1839 the total value of the exports from the empire to foreign countries was estimated at 232,002,258 roubles (13,433,000*l.*); of which those from Petersburg amounted to nearly a half, or to 138,044,000 roubles. At an average of the six years ending with 1847, the real value of the articles of British produce and manufacture exported from this country to Russia amounted to 1,938,900*l.* a year, cotton-twist constituting nearly a third part of their total value.

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles of Russian Produce and Manufacture imported into the United Kingdom from Russia in 1848.

Articles.	Quantities.	Articles.	Quantities.
Barley - - - lbs.	2,411,505	Plain linen - - val.	13,077
Wheat - - - gra.	593,812	Rhubarb - - lbs.	16,802
Barley - - - "	47,520	Flax seed, and	
Oats - - - "	829,338	linseed - - bush.	3,854,504
Rye - - - "	5,000	Rape seed - - "	25,486
Flax and tow - cwts.	1,352,335	Calf, &c. skins	
Hemp, undressed -	635,638	untanned - cwts.	11,967
Hides, untanned -	11,967	Doals, nettles - loads	814,971
Tallow - - - "	974,614	Iron - - - tons	2,773
Tar - - - lasts	5,764,539	Asbes - - - cwts.	3,908
Schoon's wool - lbs.	15,077		

Water Communications.—The great road from Petersburg to Moscow is justly said by Lord Londonderry to be a most magnificent public work. It is nearly 500 m. in length, quite level, about double the width of the Great North Road in England, and is macadamised throughout, and kept along the whole line in the most perfect repair. *Towr*, l. 144.) But, with the exception of this and of a few other principal lines, there is a great want of good roads in Russia. This, however, is productive of less inconvenience than might be expected, from the circumstance of the frost rendering the worst roads fit for sledges travelling for a considerable period of the year; and from the number of navigable rivers and the extension that has been given to their navigation by the construction of numerous canals. By these means a water communication has been effected between the great navigable river the Volga, which has its embouchure in the Caspian Sea, and Petersburg and Archangel: the Volga has also been united with the Don, which falls into the sea of Azoff. The Pripiet, an affluent of the Dnieper, which falls into the Black Sea, has been connected with the Bug, an affluent of the Vistula, while the latter has been connected with the Niemen.

Few countries, in fact, have so extensive a command of internal navigation. Goods put on board in Petersburg may be conveyed to Astrakhan, a distance of above 1,400 m., or to any port on the Caspian, and *vice versa*, without once being landed. The iron and furs of Siberia and the teas of China are received at Petersburg in the same way; but owing to the great distance of these countries, and the short period of the year during which the rivers and canals are navigable, they sometimes take three years in their transit! Immense quantities of goods are conveyed during winter upon the ice in sledges, to the different ports, and to the nearest *prisons*, or places in the interior, where barks are built for river or canal navigation. They are put on board in anticipation of the period of sailing, that the barks may be ready to take advantage of the high water, by floating down with the current as soon as the snow and ice begin to melt. The cargoes carried up the river into the interior during summer are principally conveyed to their ultimate destinations by the sledge roads during winter. The conveyance by the latter is generally the most expeditious; and it, as well as the internal conveyance by water, is performed at a very moderate expense.

The barks that come from the interior are mostly of a very rude construction, flat-bottomed, and seldom drawing more than 20 or 30 inches water. When they arrive at their destination, they are sold or broken up for firewood. Those that leave the ports for the interior are of a superior description, and are comparatively few in number; the commodities imported being, at an average, of much greater value, relatively to their bulk and weight, than those that are exported.

As illustrative of the importance of the inland navigation of the empire, we may mention that, in 1839, no fewer than 46,568 boats and 17,469 rafts arrived from the interior at the different great ports and emporiums of the Russian empire, the goods so conveyed being worth 838,921,730 roubles. Of these, 22,843 boats and 784 rafts, value 196,974,904 roubles, arrived at Petersburg; 1,263 boats and 1,226 rafts, value 16,281,500, at Archangel; 1,968 boats and 1,373 rafts, value 22,437,378, at Riga, and so on.

Accounts in Russia are kept in roubles and kopeks: but the rouble is of two kinds, very different in value. The silver rouble is worth from 3s. 2d. to nearly 4s. Engl., varying according to the distance from the capital. The paper rouble, worth about 10s. Engl., and usually considered equivalent to a franc, is the basis of all mercantile calculations, and is divided into 100 kopeks. The kopek, worth consequently about a centime, is a copper coin. The only gold coin is the demi-imperial, value about 30 fr. Since 1826, platina coins, worth about 1*l.* sterling, have been struck; but they are not yet of any practical importance. The Russian *lb.* is rather larger than the avoirdupois *lb.*; the last = 13.8 quarters; the

chetwert, the measure for corn, = 8.75 Eng. bushels; the *decistie*, land measure = about 1.7 acres; the verst of 104.6 to a Geog. degree = 1,167 yards, 3 versts being about equivalent to 2 Eng. miles.

Native and Foreign Merchants, &c.—Every Russian carrying on trade must be a burgher, and have his name registered in the burgher's book; he thus acquires an unlimited freedom of trade. All whose names are in the burgher's books are either townsmen who have property within the city, or members of a guild. There are three guilds. Those belonging to the first report themselves to possess from 10,000 to 50,000 roubles: these may follow foreign trade, are not liable to corporal punishment, and may drive about the city in a carriage drawn by two horses. Those belonging to the second guild declare themselves possessed of from 5,000 to 10,000 roubles: they are confined to inland trade. A capital of from 1,000 to 5,000 roubles entitles its owner to admission into the third guild, which comprises shopkeepers and petty dealers. The rates paid by the members of these guilds amount to 1*g.* per cent. upon their declared capital, the statement of which is left to the conscience of every individual. Burghers are not obliged to serve in the army, but may provide substitutes, or pay a fine. The *gentry*, or foreign merchants who enrol themselves in the city, register on account of their commercial affairs, enjoy privileges nearly similar to those enjoyed by the members of the first guild.

None but native Russians are allowed to engage in the internal trade of the country; and hence a foreigner, who imports goods into Russia, must sell them to Russians only, and at the port where they arrive. A few foreigners, indeed, settled in Russia, and having connections with the natives, trade with the interior: but it is contrary to law, and the goods are liable to be seized. In 1836, the merchants of the three guilds amounted, in all, to 128,534 individuals.

The merchants engaged in foreign trade are mostly foreigners, of whom the English are the principal. The peculiar privileges formerly enjoyed by the latter are now nearly obsolete, and their rights, in common with those of other foreigners, are merely those of guests. The English factory at Petersburg is, at present, little else than a society formed of some of the principal English merchants, several of whom, however, do not belong to it: its power extends to little else than the management of certain funds under its control.

Owing to the scarcity of capital in Russia, goods, the produce of the country, are frequently paid in advance; and foreign goods are most commonly sold upon credit. From the month of November to the shipping season in May, the Russians who trade in flax, hemp, tallow, bristles, iron, &c., either come themselves to Petersburg or Riga, or employ agents to sell their goods to foreigners, be delivered, according to agreement, in May, June, July, or August. The payments are made according to the circumstances of the sellers and buyers; sometimes the buyer pays the whole amount, in the winter months, for the goods which are to be delivered in the summer or autumn; and sometimes he pays a part on concluding the contract, and the residue on delivery of the goods. The manufacturers and dealers in linen usually come to Petersburg in March, and sell their goods for ready money.

Foreign goods were formerly almost entirely sold at a twelvemonth's credit, and some at a still longer term; but of late years several articles, as coffee and sugar, are sold for ready money: still, however, the great bulk of foreign goods for the supply of the interior is sold on credit. Most of the Russians who buy goods on credit of foreigners, for the use of the interior, have no other connection or trade with Petersburg than merely coming there once or twice a year to make purchases; which, having accomplished, they set off with the goods, and the foreigner neither sees nor hears of them again till the bills become due. It is obvious, from this statement, that experience and sagacity are nowhere more requisite in a merchant than here. He has nothing, in fact, but his own knowledge of the native dealers to depend upon: and it is highly creditable to the Russians, that foreigners do not hesitate to trust them with immense sums on such guaranty.

Government.—In Russia all power emanates from the sovereign, whose authority is uncontrolled, except by the respect he may yield to established customs, to the privileges of certain classes, and the prejudices of the people. The will of the monarch has no legal limits, so that he may be said to be absolute. The act of election of 1613, which conferred the crown on the house of Romanoff, recognises the unlimited power of the sovereign. The empress Catherine and the emperor Alexander laboured to give order, simplicity, and regularity to the administration, and to reduce it to a system, so that it might be as independent as possible of the caprices of the sovereign. Alexander, indeed, proclaimed in 1811 that the law was in Russia superior to the sovereign, and gave to the senate the right of remonstrating against

anywhere (as an imperial decree is called) they thought contrary thereto. This, no doubt, seeing the way in which the senate is composed, is a very feeble check on the despotic power of the emperor. But it may well be doubted, whether, in the actual state of Russia, the present form of government be not better adapted to its wants than that which could be substituted in its stead. It is sufficiently clear, as well from general principles as from what has actually occurred, that Russian princes cannot safely follow a course of conduct generally disliked by the nation. On the other hand, however, the extent and unity of the sovereign power is the best security for the progress of civilisation, and for the improvement and well-being of the mass of the people. The latter being, for the most part, slaves, without property, intelligence, or influence, would be tyrannised over to an incomparably greater extent than at present, had the nobles any share in the government, or were they able to control its proceedings. What Poland as Russia would be, were the nobility or superior classes participating in the sovereign power. But the interests of the autocrat and those of the mass of the people are generally identical. Under his protectingegis civilisation is daily extending, and a class of free labourers is gradually growing up. The emperor is afraid of the nobles, not a few of whom are supposed to be tainted with liberal opinions; but he has nothing to fear from his slaves. Hence the despotic power of the emperor over the latter has been materially reduced; very real changes for the better have been made in the condition of the peasantry on the crown estates; and the government has gone steadily on, with quite as much agility as circumstances would warrant, endeavouring to improve and advance the servile portion, that is, the great mass, of its subjects, and to pave the way for their ultimate emancipation. An enlightened despotism is, in fact, the most suitable government for such a country as Russia. A representative constitution would merely put additional power into the hands of a comparatively small class, and would be as little adapted to the wants of such a country as an absolute government would be to England.

The monarch is the central point of the administration: his decisions are law. Every thing emanates from him in the first instance, and every thing is referred to him in the last. The labour he has to undergo is great, requires incessant activity, the public business is transacted, under the emperor, different boards, councils, or colleges, which have separate, but sometimes not easily distinguished functions. The *Imperial Council of the Emperor* was established, on its present footing, in 1810. It consists of a president, and an indefinite number of members, of whom the ministers always make a part. It is divided into five departments of legislation, war, civil and criminal justice, finance, and the affairs of Poland; and has superintendence of all matters connected with the internal administration of the empire. The second, or senate, was founded by Peter the Great, and is reckoned the most important body in the state, various functions, partly of a deliberative and partly executive character, set forth in a ukase of 20th 802. It is the high court of justice for the empire, and is all the inferior tribunals. The members are appointed by the emperor; at present their number is 100, and each receives a salary of 7,000 roubles a year.

The senate is divided into eight committees or *senates*, of which five sit at Petersburg, and three at Moscow. Each committee is authorised to decide in the first instance upon certain descriptions of cases, brought immediately before it, or by appeal from the inferior courts. In a few cases, however, parties dissatisfied with its decisions may petition the emperor. The members are mostly persons of high rank, or who fill high offices; but a lawyer of eminence presides over each, who represents the emperor, and without whose signature its decisions would have no force. In cases of general meeting of the sections, the emperor of justice takes the chair, as high procurator for the empire. Besides his superintendence over the court he examines into the state of the public and expenditure, and has power to inquire into abuses, to appoint to a great variety of offices, and remonstrances to the emperor. Monthly reports of the proceedings are published in the gazette. The first college consists of the *Holy Synod*, and to it is committed the superintendence of the religious affairs of the empire. It is composed of the principal dignitaries of the church. All its decisions run in the emperor's name, and have no force till approved by him. The second college consists of the *Committee of Ministers*, of whom there are eleven, viz. the ministers of the household, of war, finance, justice, interior, education, imperial domains, post-office, roads, building, and the vice-chancellor and commander-in-chief. The ministers have frequently colleagues to supply their place when they are either

sick or absent. They communicate directly with the emperor, or with his *Chancellerie particulière*, in whose hands all the executive authority is centred.

The local administration differs in different provinces; government having always allowed conquered or annexed countries to preserve their own laws and institutions, except in so far as they were hostile to the general constitution of the empire. Finland, for example, has a special form of government; and the provinces wrested from Sweden by Peter the Great, Courland, and those formerly belonging to Poland, have peculiar institutions and privileges, which, however, have lately been much modified. But, despite these exceptions, the form of the provincial government is, notwithstanding, sufficiently uniform.

The empire is divided into general governments, or vice-royalties, governments, and districts. There are, at present, 14 of the first, 50 or 51 of the second, and above 520 of the last. There are also, as already stated, extensive districts which, from the thinness of the population, or otherwise, are not organised into regular governments, which are called provinces, or *oblasts*. The viceroys, or general-governors, are the representatives of the emperor; and as such command the forces, and have the supreme control and direction of all affairs, whether civil or military. All the functionaries within their jurisdiction are subordinate to, and make their reports to them. They sanction or suspend the judgments of the courts, &c. A civil governor, representing the general governor, assisted by a council of regency, to which all measures must be submitted, is established in each province. In case of dissent, the opinion of the governor is provisionally adopted till the pleasure of the emperor with respect to the matter be ascertained. A vice-governor is appointed to fill the place of the civil-governor when the latter is absent or unwell. There are also, in every government, a council of finance under the presidency of the vice-governor, who manage the crown estates, and superintend the collection of the revenue; a college of general provision, which has the direction and inspection of all charitable foundations, prisons, workhouses, schools for the instruction of the poor, &c.; and a college of medicine, which attends to all matters connected with the public health, appoints district physicians, inspects pharmacopoeias, &c. The districts have each their local functionaries. The towns have a municipal body, elected once every three years by the different classes into which the free population is divided. And each town has, also, according to its importance, a commandant or bailiff, appointed by the crown, who has charge of the police, of the public buildings and magazines, and who executes sentences, pursues criminals, &c.

The Russian judicial system is complicated, and not easily understood, except by natives. There are civil and criminal courts in every circle; and a supreme court of justice, divided into civil and criminal sections, is established in every government. Cases decided in the inferior courts may be appealed to it. Its sentence is final in all criminal cases, and in all civil matters relating to sums under 500 roubles. Those involving property to a greater amount may be carried before the senate.

It is a curious fact that, notwithstanding the despotic nature of the government, all the provincial tribunals consist partly of elective functionaries. Thus, the superior court for a circle consists of a judge and secretary, and of two assessors chosen annually by the nobles, and two by the peasants; and the superior court of justice for a government, which is divided into a civil and a criminal chamber, consists of a president, secretary, and 4 assessors for each chamber, 2 of the assessors being chosen by the nobility, and 2 by the burghers. It is, in fact, a principle in Russia, that a portion of the judges in every court should belong to the same class as the party whose interests are under discussion, and be elected for that purpose by his peers. In the case of the nobility and burghers, this is a most valuable privilege; but in the case of the peasantry, who stand most in need of protection, this privilege is quite illusory; their slavery and ignorance making them utterly incapable of profiting by it.

Previously to the reign of the Empress Catherine II., the judges, particularly in the inferior courts, were wretchedly paid. That princess increased their salaries; but they are still far too low. And seeing that the judges are removable at pleasure, and owe their situation to favour rather than to merit, we need not wonder that the greatest abuses continue to exist in the administration of justice. The proceedings are dilatory in the extreme. The prohibition against taking fees from suitors is rarely complied with; and in most tribunals it is affirmed, that if justice cannot be altogether defeated, it may at least be indefinitely postponed, by the dint of money. These abuses have, however, been, in part, at least, obviated by the publication, between 1826 and 1833, by the Legislative Commission, of an extensive digest (*Svod Zakonov*, "Body

of Law") of all the laws then in force relative to the rights of citizens and the administration of public justice. This publication has greatly simplified the law; and it is of vast importance from its being, as it were, a charter of rights which may be appealed to on all future occasions, and which it will be very difficult for any succeeding sovereign to abridge. But it would, notwithstanding, be idle to expect any very material improvement in the ordinary administration of justice, until the judges be better trained, selected, and paid; and till the influence of public opinion, and of a comparatively free press, neither of which has at present any existence in Russia, be brought to bear on the administration of justice, and of public affairs generally. The latter, in fact, is the only security against abuse on which any reliance can safely be placed. Wherever judges are exempted from the control of public opinion, and the animadversion of the press, they are most commonly the obsequious instruments of government, and seldom scruple to commit injustice when they believe it will be acceptable to their superiors.

There is in Russia, particularly in the great towns, a very efficient system of police. The officers are empowered to discharge various functions besides those which come more peculiarly within their province; such as the decision of differences between masters and servants, &c. Crime is not frequent in Russia; and property is as well protected in it as in any other country. Houses being generally built of wood, fires in great towns are apt to be very destructive; and the most effectual precautions are taken to prevent their occurrence. All strangers arriving in Russia must produce their passports at the police office, and notify their arrival in the public papers.

Punishments.—Capital punishments are rare in Russia, treason being the only crime visited with death. In cases of murder, fire raling, and other capital offences, the criminal, after receiving a certain number of lashes from the knout (a heavy thong whip), under the infliction of which he sometimes expires, is condemned for life to forced labour in the mines of Siberia. This part of the legislation of Russia has been the theme of much, though, as it appears to us, of little deserved eulogy. We agree with Mr. Coxe, that the fear of death is to most men the most efficient check on the commission of crime; and though it were conceded that Russian malefactors undergo a much severer punishment, still, as people generally know nothing of it, it makes no impression on them, and has little or no influence in deterring others from committing similar offences. (See *Coxe's Travels in Russia*, &c. iii. 116.) The nostrils of criminals used also to be slit, and their face branded with a red-hot iron previously to their banishment to Siberia; but this needless aggravation of punishment was put an end to by the Emperor Alexander.

Torture was formerly universal in Russia, and was inflicted at the discretion of the superior justices in all parts of the country, by whom, as was to be expected, the power was often shamefully abused. Russia is indebted to the Empress Catherine for the abolition of this atrocious practice. And it is a singular fact, and worthy of the attention of those who are so fond of recommending immediate changes, that the prejudice of the Russians, in regard to the necessity of torture, was so deeply rooted that Catherine had to proceed with great caution in bringing about its abolition, which was effected rather by indirect than by direct means. (Coxe, *ibid. supra*.)

According to an official return there were, on the 1st of Jan., 1826, 97,191 criminals in Siberia, of whom 23,364 were females. Of the convicts, about 10,000 are condemned to forced labour in the mines, and otherwise; the others being mostly employed in agriculture. The greatest criminals, or (according to the interpretation of the Russian government), those sent thither for political offences, are mostly confined in N.E. Siberia, the climate of which is especially severe. The desertions amount to about 3,000 a year.

Division of the People into Classes.—The people of Russia are divided into four classes, viz. 1. nobles, 2. clergy, 3. burghers, merchants, and other farmers, and 4. the peasants, or slaves.

1. **Nobles.**—Previously to the reign of Peter the Great, the Russian nobility consisted principally of the descendants of the ancient petty princes of the country, or of lords possessed of vast estates. They were in the exclusive possession of all situations of trust and emolument, to which they succeeded according to their rank. Peter, who early saw the disadvantage of this state of things, and the necessity of undermining the influence of the nobles, most of whom were violently opposed to his projects for the regeneration of the country, had recourse, in furtherance of his plans, to the scheme of creating a new order of nobility. In this view he divided all the civil and military functionaries in the service of the state into 14 classes, enacting, at the same time, that the 8 highest classes should confer on the individuals in them the dis-

tinction of hereditary nobility; that some of the other classes should confer the distinction of personal nobility, or of nobility for life; and that those enrolled in the others should be deemed gentlemen, or *blancs robes*. Some modifications were made in this arrangement by the empress Catherine II.; but it is still maintained nearly as it was contrived by Peter the Great.

The creation of a new nobility, founded on merit, or on services rendered to the state, was, no doubt, a material improvement at the time. By illustrating many new families, it has served to lessen the influence of the old nobility, and to liberalise the order, at the same time that it has opened a prospect to all enterprising individuals of rising to the highest dignities. On the whole, however, it would seem that the system having served its purpose, might now be advantageously abandoned. "*En grossissant,*" says M. Schnitzler, "*à l'infinité, le corps de la noblesse, ne nuit-il pas à cette institution primitive nécessaire; et en dépeuplant le tiers état de tout ce qu'il a des citoyens distingués, n'affaiblit-il pas la considération dont il serait juste et utile d'entourer le classe laborieuse? N'enlevait-il pas à jamais aux arts et à l'industrie des hommes capables, qui auraient contribué à leurs succès, s'ils n'avaient pas eu à soutenir un rôle nouveau, et qu'ils ne craignissent de déroger à un rang auquel des longs efforts et les travaux de leurs pères les ont enfin élevés, en se livrant à des occupations qu'on regarde comme éparpillées?" (*Statistique Générale*, p. 344.)*

According to the official accounts, the order of the nobility comprised, in 1836, 591,255 individuals, of whom 338,160 enjoyed hereditary and the others personal dignities. In Russia, properly so called, the nobles are most numerous; but they abound in Podolia, Volhynia, and other provinces acquired from Poland, and especially in Poland itself, which, in 1837, had 353,430 nobles! Few, however, of the latter possess estates, and many of them are in a very destitute condition. In the Polish provinces, and in Courland, Livonia, and Esthonia, none but nobles can inherit landed property; but this is not the case in Russia Proper, though, with the exception of the crown estates, they are, in fact, almost the sole proprietors. The titles of prince, count, and baron have superseded those formerly in use. In the government of Tula, there are said to be more than 100 families having the dignity of prince. All the members of noble families are nobles and have the same title as the head of the family. On the death of a noble person, his estate is divided, according to a fixed scale, (see *ante*, p. 610.), among his children of both sexes. Nobles are exempted from all personal charges, and from the obligation to serve in the army, but they are obliged to furnish recruits according to the number of their vassals. Nobles are also exempted from corporeal punishment; have leave to distill all the spirits required for the consumption of their establishments; are engaged in manufactures or trade; have a right to all the minerals on their estates, &c. Precedence is determined, in Russia, by military rank; and an ensign would take the *pas* of a nobleman not enrolled in the army, or occupying some situation giving military rank. (Schnitzler, *Essai d'une Statistique*, &c., p. 112, &c.)

The property of a noble who has been condemned is not confiscated by the state, but goes to his family. The nobles also elect various local magistrates, assessors, &c., and deliberate at their meetings on various matters connected with the local administration. There is also in every government a committee of nobles to watch over the interests of the body, and to take care of the establishments that belong to it; and every circle has a committee of nobles who manage the estates and affairs of nobles who are under age. These privileges, which are obviously of considerable importance, were embodied and set forth in a ukase in 1763; and another ukase of the Emperor Alexander prohibits all government functionaries from interfering with the election of the assessors, and other functionaries chosen by the nobles.

It is not easy to form a fair estimate of the character of the Russian nobles. Generally speaking, their education is more superficial than solid; but many are, nevertheless, highly accomplished; they are all well acquainted with French, and numbers with the English and German languages; those who have travelled being distinguished by the superior polish and elegance of their manners. They are universally hospitable; and most of them affect, and many relish, the society of literary men and artists. That they are more sensual, more given to ostentatious display, and less distinguished by a gentlemanly bearing towards their inferiors, than the higher classes in England or France, is, no doubt, true. But the representations of their manners and conduct, given by Clarke, Lyall, and other travellers, of their caste, are, notwithstanding, mere vulgar caricatures, which though they may, perhaps, apply to a few individuals, are generally quite as wide of the truth as M. Pillot's account of our fair countrywomen. Considering, indeed, that the Russian nobility, have no exciting political occupation,

that in most parts of the empire there is no middle class, and that the occupiers of their estates are not freemen but slaves, the wonder is not that their tastes and habits should be, in some respects, barbarous, but that they should have made so great an advance as they have done since the reign of Peter the Great, and that they should be so intelligent and refined as they are found to be.

The Russian nobles, like those of England and other countries in feudal times, are in the habit of keeping great numbers of vassals in their houses as servants. The number of such retainers in some great families exceeds all belief, amounting sometimes to above 600! They receive only a trifling pittance as wages, but that is quite enough for their wants, as they are fed and clothed by their masters. Several Russian noblemen have recently distinguished themselves by their attention to their estates, and by the efforts they have made to introduce the improved processes and implements in use in more advanced countries. In some instances they have brought land stewards and labourers from England. Latterly, also, many of the principal nobles have become extensive manufacturers, and some of the greatest manufacturing establishments of the empire are at present in their hands. They are driven, in fact, to adopt this course by the circumstances under which they are placed. All agricultural, and most out-of-doors employments being suspended during winter, the noblemen, who must provide for the subsistence of their slaves, whether the latter be employed or not, naturally endeavour to avail themselves of their services during the interruption of husbandry pursuits, by settling on foot some species of manufacture. The latter, indeed, is frequently carried on only during winter, the peasants being employed in agriculture during the rest of the year. When, however, a nobleman establishes a manufacture on a large scale, and keeps it constantly at work, the peasants are usually put on the footing of hired labourers, and instead of getting an allotment of land, are paid for their work, and left to supply themselves with necessaries. Some manufactures conducted in this way have been eminently successful; though it be hardly necessary to add, that if they be of the higher class, or require any peculiar skill, economy, or attention, they are not of a kind that can be successfully carried on by the agents of nobles; and that the moment the protection afforded by private custom-house duties, under which they have grown up, is withdrawn, they will straightway fall to the ground. (See *Penables' Russia*, &c., p. 140.)

Mr. Coxe and Dr. Pirkerton, among the best and most trustworthy of the English travellers who have visited Asia, speak very favourably of the Russian nobility. The former says, that though they have adopted the fashions of French cookery, they neither affect to imitate their native dishes, nor squeamishly reject the joints which characterise an English repast. The rest as well as the choicest viands are collected from most distant quarters. At the tables of opulent persons in Petersburg may be seen stervils from the Wolga, mutton from Astrakhan, pheasants from the Ukraine, and pheasants from Hungary and Bohemia. Common wines are claret, Burgundy, and champagne; and English beer and porter may be had in plenty and abundance. It is usual to take a whet before dinner; but the stories engrafted upon this practice, of revellence of inebriety among the higher classes, wholly without foundation. In this respect they have undergone a total change since the days of Peter the Great; and they are now remarkable for sobriety. The peasant, however, often indulge to excess in potations. (Coxe, ii. 151.)

The lengthened stay of the Russian armies in the most modern and civilised European states, after the defeat of Napoleon's invasion, made a large number of nobles, and of the more intelligent classes (which in consist of the military officers), familiarly acquainted with a more advanced state of society, and a more of civil polity. This circumstance, also, gave rise to a stimulus to the desire for travelling that has prevailed among the nobility, many of whom have returned to France, England, and Italy. It is not to be wondered at, that the influence of these concurring circumstances, on various occasions, made itself sensibly felt in Russia; and that the government has sometimes reason to believe that a considerable portion of the nobility, and even some of the most distinguished, would not be displeased to see some limits set to the power of the czar. To counteract this feeling, and to prevent the introduction of foreign works, measures have been adopted to maintain the isolation of things; but, at all events, it is sufficient, from what has been already seen, that the existing circumstances, such as a revolution in Russia,

as should materially modify the power of the czar, would not be for the advantage of the bulk of the people, but the reverse.

2. *Clergy*.—This body will be more fully noticed under the head Religion. It comprises, in all, about 274,000 individuals, of whom about 254,000 belong to the Established Church. Including the wives of the priests, it is supposed that about 540,000 persons may belong to this class. They are exempted from all direct taxes, and from corporal punishment, and may acquire all sorts of fixed property.

3. *Merchants, Burghers, &c.*—This comprises the class intermediate between nobles and peasants, and is thus alluded to by the empress Catherine in her instructions for a new code of laws:—"This class, composed of freemen, belongs neither to the class of nobles nor to that of peasants. All those who, being neither gentlemen nor peasants, follow the arts and sciences, navigation, commerce, or exercise trades, are to be ranked in this class. In it should be placed all those who, born of plebeian parents, shall have been brought up in schools or places of education, religious or otherwise, founded by us or by our predecessors. Also the children of officers and of the secretaries to the chancery," &c. Merchants and traders belong to this class; and they, as already stated, are distributed into their guilds according to the amount of capital they respectively possess (see *note*), and enjoy various privileges on their paying a certain per centage on their declared capital. The burghers, or second division of this class, possess many privileges superior to the peasants; but they are distinguished from the merchants by being subject to the capitation tax and to enrolment in the army and navy. The Germans and other free colonists established in different parts of the empire, and the free cultivators and tenants found in certain districts, belong to this intermediate class. This class comprises about three millions of individuals.

4. *Peasants*.—Unhappily, however, the far largest portion of the people of Russia are slaves belonging either to the crown or to individuals; above 21 millions being the property of the former, and 23 millions of the latter. Count Cheremetief is proprietor of above 110,000 slaves, and the numbers of those belonging to some of the other great landholders are but little inferior. The nobles are obliged to pay a tax to government (at the rate generally of about 4 roubles per male), and to furnish recruits for the army according to the slave population of their estates. The time and labour of the slaves belonging to private individuals are absolutely at the disposal of their masters, who may seize whatever property they may happen to acquire. The most common practice is for the latter to impose on their peasants an obrok or capitation tax, which may amount, at an average for those resident in the country, to from 35 to 45 roubles per male, young and old; but those who have received licenses to reside in towns, or who have learned any profession, or have been successful, are charged far greater sums, sometimes even as much as 1,000 roubles a year or upwards! Others, instead of an obrok, perform task-work; others, again, deliver a certain portion of their produce; and from some all these are demanded. Run-away slaves are punished by imprisonment and hard labour.

Besides having power to dispose of his time and labour, the master may inflict corporal punishment on his slave; but he is forbidden by law (which, however, is often evaded) from treating him with any great cruelty, and he is guilty of a capital offence if death arise from his chastisement within 24 hours. When one class may exercise such power over another, very great abuses cannot fail to exist. The insecurity, too, under which the peasants are placed, is necessarily fatal to their industry. Oppression and ill-treatment are now, however, a good deal less common than formerly; and it is certainly true that the condition of the boors is by no means so bad as might, *a priori*, be concluded, and that, as respects their command over the necessities of life, they are in a much better situation than the peasantry of Ireland. Those on the estates of humane and enlightened landlords are in decidedly comfortable circumstances; while they mostly all have sufficient supplies of the articles they consider necessary to existence. Some licensed slaves have accumulated very large fortunes. One of this class of persons is mentioned as having 4,000 labourers in his employment; and another planned and built the finest church in Petersburg.

The peasants are of a sound constitution, stout and firmly built, and generally of a middle stature. They live in wooden cottages, formed of whole trees piled upon each other, and built together in villages, the gables to the road. Sometimes they consist of two stories, but more frequently only of one. They are heated by stoves, and though dirty, are not uncomfortable nor ill suited to the climate. Their furniture consists generally of wooden articles, with a pan or two. Beds are little used, the family generally sleeping on the ground, on benches, or on the stove.

The dress of the peasant consists of a long coarse drugged coat, fastened by a belt round the waist, but in winter they wear a sheep-skin with the woolly side inwards. Their drawers are of coarse linen; instead of stockings, woolen or flannel cloth is wrapped round the legs, and boots or shoes of matted linden bark are frequently substituted for those of leather. The neck, even in winter, is bare, and the head is covered by a peaked round hat or cap. (*Voyage de deux Français dans le Nord de l'Europe*, tom. iv. p. 323.)

The Russian peasant considers himself well fed if he have rye-bread, which is the staple article of food throughout the empire, and sour cabbage soup, with a lump of fat, or hogs'-lard, boiled in it, by way of relish. He uses butchers' meat on holidays, and at other times eggs, salt-fish, bacon, lard, and mushrooms, which, at the proper season, are extremely abundant; onions, &c. His favourite dish is a hodge-podge of salt or fresh meat, groats, and rye-flour, highly seasoned with onions and garlic. Salted cucumbers are a constant dish at the peasant's table all the year round. These and salted cabbages form an important article of national commerce. They are brought in large vats from the southern provinces, where the climate favours their production, to Moscow, Petersburg, and other large towns, and here they are constantly on sale in the public markets. The preparation, in autumn, of a sufficient supply of these pickled vegetables forming, in every family, an important part of domestic economy. This dependence of the Russian peasant on vegetable diet is, no doubt, a consequence of the extraordinary number of fasts and fast-days, of which he is a careful observer, and which are multiplied to such an absurd extreme, that it is said there are only from 60 to 70 days in the year on which it is permitted to use butchers' meat. Quas, a fermented liquor, made by pouring boiling water on rye or barley-meal, is the common beverage of the peasant. But he is also very fond of mead, and still more so of corn brandy, and other spirituous liquors. The consumption of the latter is immense, exceeding 50,000,000 gallons a year, and furnishing annually a large revenue to government. The use of tea is becoming more and more extended. A substitute for it, called *ribizen*, consisting of herbs, honey, &c. boiled together, is also extensively used by the peasantry.

The peasants are exceedingly superstitious. A vessel of holy water hangs from the ceiling of every room, and a lamp lighted on particular occasions. Every house is provided with a sacred corner, supplied with one or more pictures of their tutelary saints, coarsely daubed on wood, frequently resembling rather a Calmuc idol than a human head; but sometimes they are of a better quality, and neatly framed; to these they pay the highest marks of veneration. All the members of the family, the moment they rise in the morning, and before they retire to sleep in the evening, never omit their adoration to the saints: they cross themselves during several minutes, upon the sides and forehead, bow very low, and sometimes even prostrate themselves on the ground. Every person, also, on entering the room, pays his obsequiousness to these objects of worship previously to his addressing himself to the family.

The Russian peasantry have the vices incident to their situation. With a great capacity of endurance, and the most extraordinary talent for instruction, they have but little active vigour or steadiness of purpose. In accounting a person of consequence, or from whom they expect any favour or advantage, they prostrate themselves, touch the ground with their hands, and kiss the fringe of his garments. Their insecure position makes them anxious to enjoy the present moment; and their masters being obliged to provide for their support when they become old and infirm, they have little motive to providence or forethought. When they accumulate money, they most frequently bury it in the ground; a practice common to all countries where property is insecure.

The peasantry belonging to the richer nobles are, speaking generally, in all respects, much better off than those who belong to the class of poor and petty nobles; and, unfortunately for the peasants, the number of the latter is rapidly increasing by the subdivision of estates in every successive generation, and the constant augmentation of the nobility, from the influx into its ranks of individuals in the civil and military service. In 1822, however, the evil resulting to the peasantry from this state of things was partially obviated by restricting the right to purchase slaves to nobles possessed of a certain amount of property.

Previously to the reign of Peter the Great, it was customary for the Russian, of all rank, to marry their children very early, even before the age of puberty. Though restrained by Peter and Catherine II., this custom of early marriage still prevails, and is said to be fraught with many pernicious consequences. A ukase issued in

* This, according to the intelligent author of the *Voyage de deux Français*, is a decisive criterion by which to distinguish the genuine Russians.

1801, prohibits priests from solemnizing marriages, unless the man be 18 and the woman 16 years old.

The use of the vapour bath is universal in Russia, not being reckoned a luxury but a necessary; and public baths are met with in all parts of the country. They are resorted to by the peasantry, at least, once a week. Though the baths are highly heated, the bathers not unfrequently run out and in summer plunge into cold water, or, if it be winter, roll themselves in the snow! This sudden alternation of temperature is not found to be injurious to health. But, notwithstanding the frequent use of the bath, the boors are very deficient in cleanliness. (See *Coxe*, 6th ed. i. 309; *Schmidler*, *Essai d'une Statistique Générale*, passim; *Voyage de deux Français au Nord de l'Europe*, iv. 318-323; *Fraser's Russia*, pp. 62-80, &c.; *Foreign Communications on the Poor Laws*, p. 330, &c.)

Army.—The military power of Russia having been ridiculously exaggerated by some, and as ridiculously depreciated by others, deserves to be inquired into with some attention. The Strelitzes, the first regularly organized corps of infantry in the Russian service, seems to have had their origin about the middle of the 16th century; and continued, till their suppression by Peter the Great, to constitute the principal strength of the army. They enjoyed various privileges; were always about the person of the emperor; and, by their licentiousness and insubordination, as well as bravery, bore a close resemblance to the Proterian bands of antiquity, and the Janissaries of the Ottoman Porte. The abolition of this formidable corps, and the reconstruction of the army on a plan similar to that followed in the more civilized countries of Europe, was undoubtedly one of the greatest services rendered by Peter the Great. At his death, the regular army amounted to about 110,000, exclusive of the imperial guard; and the success which attended his contest with the Swedes showed that this army was a match for the best troops that could then be opposed to it.

Under Catherine II., the army was greatly augmented and improved. This able and ambitious princess augmented the pay of the troops and officers, and gave them a new, more commodious, and elegant uniform than that formerly in use. She formed the Cossacks into a light cavalry, which, after being successfully opposed to the Spahis of the Turks, has since distinguished itself in the great contests of more modern times. During the latter part of the reign of Catherine the regular army amounted to about 250,000 men; and little was wanting to place it on a level with that of the surrounding powers, save the better organization of the commissariat department, and the choice of better educated and more skilful native officers.

It is, however, to the emperors Alexander and Nicholas that the Russian army is indebted for the more efficient organization, discipline, and power by which it is now distinguished. The momentous struggles in which the former was engaged called forth all the military resources of the empire; many abuses were rectified, and improvements introduced; and the armies of Alexander were at length enabled to contend successfully with those of the greatest captain of the age. Under the present emperor, the discipline and organization of the army have been still further improved; and it is, at present, in a comparatively high state of efficiency.

The Russian army has been newly organized, by a ukase of the 9th August, 1835. Down to that period, two large armies were maintained; but those were then consolidated, and the staff of one of them reduced. The army is now divided into six *corps d'armée* of infantry, each corps into three divisions, each division into two brigades, each brigade into two regiments, and each regiment into six battalions of 1,000 men each; four battalions take the field, and two remain as a reserve; so that each regiment, in fact, is 4,000 strong, and each *corps d'armée* 48,000 strong. To each of these six corps there is attached one division of light horse, in two brigades (Hussars and Huhlans), each regiment of each of these brigades of light horse consists of nine squadrons of 160 horses each, eight of which take the field, and one remains as a reserve; so that a regiment in the field has 1,200, and a division 5,120 horses. Besides this, each corps has a division of artillery united to it, consisting of three brigades, with four batteries each of eight guns, and one brigade of horse artillery, one reserved battery, one park of artillery, and three sapper battalions, together 6,000 men. Thus a complete *corps d'armée* is 60,000 men strong, with 120 pieces of artillery; and the whole active army 360,000 men, and 720 pieces of artillery. Then comes the corps of guards, in three divisions of infantry, three divisions of cavalry, and one division of artillery, with 150 guns; then the grenadier corps, equal in strength to an infantry corps; both together 114,000 men, and 340 guns. There are two reserved corps of cavalry, each of two divisions (Huhlans and Cuirassiers), each division of two brigades of two regiments each, with two brigades of horse artillery, and a dragoon corps in two brigades of two regi-

ments each, and one brigade of horse artillery: altogether this cavalry corps consists of 30,000 men and horses. Finally, there are two independent corps d'armée, of the Caucasus and Siberia, the first equal in strength to a whole corps, the latter to half a one; so that the entire strength of the regular army in time of peace amounts to 254,000 men; which, at present, is equal to one per cent. of the population, as the Asiatics, and particularly those tribes who serve as irregular troops, are not included in this account. (*Supp. to the Conversations Lexicon of Geyger, Engl. trans. p. 158.*)

But exclusive of the above, the troops not of the line, or those forming the irregular army, constitute a very formidable force. They consist, 1st, of upwards of 50,000 men in garrison in different parts of the interior, and along the frontier; 2d, of above 100,000 veterans, mostly employed for the same purpose; and 3d, of the irregular Cossack cavalry, and the colonized regiments.

The really effective force of the Russian army may, therefore, be reckoned at about 600,000 men; but from this various deductions must be made. Two out of the six battalions of the different regiments are almost always absent, constituting, in fact, *dépôts*, being employed in public works, in the conveyance and training of recruits, &c. It is believed, too, that the forces actually mobilized rarely come up to the returns; the officers being driven, by the inadequacy of their allowances, to add to their means of subsistence by keeping up vacancies in the ranks. And if, in addition to these various causes of deduction, we bear in mind that Russia must always, in the event of her being engaged in foreign war, keep a large amount of forces at home to guard the frontiers, and to maintain tranquillity in Poland and other distracted provinces, it will be seen that, at present, she could have considerable difficulty in marching 300,000, even 150,000 men across the frontier. When Napoleon invaded Russia in 1812, the entire force brought to oppose him scarcely exceeded 200,000 men. During the last war in Turkey, the invading army did not exceed 150,000. Even if the troops really at the disposal of government responded with those in the official returns, Russia still find great difficulty in sending large armies into distant countries, and maintaining them when their finances are far from being in a flourishing state; owing to the abuses that prevail in her commissariat department, a great expenditure is incurred at the same time that the troops are often very ill-provided with the indispensable necessities.

At home, however, Russia is all but invulnerable. The severity of the climate renders it next to impossible in invading army to maintain any permanent footing in the country; whilst the nature of the ground, without being intersected with forests, rivers, and marshes, presents the greatest obstacles to the advance of an invading force, and still more to its retreat. Even though the army of Napoleon had not had to contend with the rigors of an unusually early winter, the result of his expedition could not have been materially different. He could not possibly have maintained himself during the winter at Moscow. Sooner or later he must have retreated; and a retreat through such a country, and in the presence of a powerful enemy, ready to take every opportunity of attacking, could not fail to be most disastrous. The troops of the Imperial Guard are a very fine body of men. Generally the Russian soldiers are, in respect of physical vigour, inferior, perhaps, to those of England, but have no enthusiasm; and in respect of activity and intelligence, are very far below those of England, France, and Prussia. On the other hand, however, the Russians, in the greatest perfection, the two first requisites of a soldier; the most unflinching courage, and the most implicit obedience. Subjected from birth to a discipline whose object is to make the soldier obedient to his law, the habit of prompt and ready obedience becomes, as it were, a part of his nature. Regardless of dangers or difficulties, they will do whatever they are ordered; and will accomplish the most undaunted resolution and perseverance in the face of the most arduous and dangerous duty.

They also endure, without a murmur, the most severe hardships and privations, and support themselves in situations where others would starve. The Russian, the Bashkirs, and other irregular cavalry, are brave troops, and are well calculated either to invade a country or to cover a retreat. Contrary to what has been expected, the artillery is the department in which the Russians have made the greatest advances; and it is said to be in excess as compared with the other arms of the service. Were the officers as intelligent as the soldiers are brave and docile, the Russian army would be most formidable. But this is far from being the case. Latterly, however, great efforts have been made to improve the education of the officers, and to improve the establishments for that purpose. At Moscow, a military academy was opened in 1832, where officers not above the degree of captain are instructed in military service; and in 1837 for 400 cadets for the artillery and engineers was founded at Woronesch. The pay of the officers, though

still miserably low, has been increased; and the present emperor has endeavoured to excite the martial spirit of the people, and to make the service popular, by instituting grand military spectacles. Some of these have been on a gigantic scale. At the grand military and religious festival in commemoration of the battle of Borodino, in 1839, no fewer than 120,000 troops were present! Marshal Marmont has spoken in high terms of the efficiency and discipline of the Russian forces he reviewed in the 8. provinces in 1834.

Recruiting.—The Army is recruited from the classes of peasants and artisans, every individual belonging to them being liable to compulsory service, provided he be of the proper age and stature. The levies are ordinarily in the proportion of 1 or 2 to every 500 males; but during war the proportion is at least as 3 or 3 to 500, and sometimes as much as 4 or even 5 to 500. This last proportion, however, of that of 5 to 500 males, may be taken as the *maximum* levy, and is rarely exceeded. The number of recruits to be furnished by the empire in general, and by each district in particular, is fixed according to the results of the preceding census. The nobles nominate such of their serfs as they please to complete their quotas, the only conditions being that they should have a good constitution, and be of the requisite size, and not less than 18 nor more than 40 years of age; and, as idle, ill-disposed individuals are sure to be nominated in preference for recruits, those who are averse from the service endeavour to distinguish themselves by industry and good conduct. The *minimum* standard height for infantry is not less than 1 metre 284 millimètres; and for cavalry, 1 metre 660 millimètres. The recruits are first sent to the recruiting establishments, and thence forwarded to the corps to which they are assigned. Nobles, magistrates, clergymen, and students are exempted from the service. Merchants and traders enlisted in the different guilds are also exempted; the levies furnished by the Cossacks are regulated by particular treaties; and many half savage tribes are excused, partly on account of their diminutive size, and partly because of their great aversion to a military life. Generally, it is found that a levy of 2 on every 500 males produces a supply of about 90,000 or 100,000 men. Substitutes are allowed, and may be effected by mutual consent, provided the noble be informed, and do not oppose it.

A ukase of the 8 (15) Sept. 1837 fixes the period of service at 20 years in the Imperial guard, and 22 in the other corps. Every individual, with his family, if he have one, becomes free the moment he is enrolled in the ranks of the army. In case of desertion, he is again enslaved; but desertion is exceedingly rare in Russia.

The guard is recruited from the grenadiers; the latter from the infantry of the line and light chassours.

Promotion.—After two years' service a soldier may become a sub-officer. The sub-officer who has served twelve years obtains of right the rank of sub-lieutenant or ensign.

Children of soldiers are educated at public military schools, or at schools belonging to the regiment: those who pass their examination with credit become sub-officers. There are at Petersburg schools for page, engineers, officers of artillery, sub-officers of the guard, &c.; the rank of ensign being given to pages who have gone through a certain course, and to gentlemen cadets who have been two years in the service. But the principal establishment for the education of officers is that of the *Corps des Cadets* at Petersburg, founded in 1731. It has about 700 pupils, the sons of noble parents, that is, of those who have attained to the rank of captain in the civil or military service. The pupils are divided into five classes, and on leaving school become ensigns in regiments of the line. This school has materially contributed to diffuse information among the inferior nobility, and to supply the army with able officers. There are also schools for cadets at Moscow, Woronesch, Polotsk, Tula, Tamboff, and other towns. The pupils leave after a fixed time, and are ranked as ensigns.

During peace promotion depends upon seniority, from the rank of ensign to that of colonel: during war it is determined indifferently, by gallantry, selection, and seniority.

Pay, &c.—The Russian army is supported at very little expense. Exclusive of their pay, the higher class of officers receive considerable allowances, as messengers, &c., and they generally contrive to eke out their emoluments in various indirect ways. The pay of the subalterns is the most inadequate; and it is hardly possible for any one to serve as a subaltern in the cavalry, especially in the cavalry of the guard, unless he have private resources. Officers are allowed, according to their rank, one or more servants (*deutchiks*), maintained by government, but equipped at the expense of their masters. They are taken from among the recruits, the least suitable for active service. The pay of a common Russian soldier does not exceed 25s. a year! and various deductions are made even from this miserable

pittance. He gets a new uniform each year; and is allowed, in addition, 3 barrels of flour, 24 lbs. of salt, and a certain quantity of rye or oatmeal. On fête days the soldiers of the guard receive a certain allowance of butchers' meat, but this is very rarely tasted by their fellows. At home the soldier is paid in paper; but when he crosses the frontier he is paid in silver roubles; and as one of the latter is equivalent to four of the former, his pay, when abroad, is, of course, augmented in the same proportion. This may, perhaps, have been partly intended as a stimulus to the soldier to undertake offensive operations; but, besides having this effect, it was absolutely necessary, to enable him to subsist among foreigners without robbing. The cavalry horses are very good; and, fodder being very cheap, they are well kept.

Soldiers leaving the army on the expiration of their compulsory service are entitled to a small pension; and those who have been maimed or wounded are received and supported in some of the hospitals established in that view in different parts of the country. Soldiers who continue in the army after their term of compulsory service has expired acquire several advantages. They receive, exclusive of the retiring pension to which they are entitled, double pay; and after five years' voluntary service they are entitled to a retiring pension equal to three times their original full pay.

The inadequate pay of the officers and men is the grand evil in relation to the Russian army. It compels all classes to resort to underhand methods of making money; and hence the jobbing and corruption of the first, and the thievish habits of the latter. Government is plundered in every possible way; and while the army loses in strength and efficiency, it may be questioned whether it would not be more advantageous, even in a pecuniary point of view, for government to increase the pay of the officers and troops, so as to raise them above the necessity of indulging in practices injurious to the service, of the existence of which it is well aware, but at which, as matters now stand, it is obliged to wink.

Capital punishments are at all times rare in the Russian army, and are never inflicted except during war. During peace culprits are uniformly condemned to transportation to Siberia, and to forced labour in the mines. Corporal punishments may be ordered by the commanding officers of regiments, but they cannot be carried beyond twenty strokes of the knout, and are not to be inflicted except for very grave offences. Soldiers who continue in the army after their full period of compulsory service is exhausted cannot be corporally punished except by command of a council of war.

Military Colonists.—Exclusive of her ordinary forces, Russia has a considerable force of military colonists. These are a sort of agricultural soldiers established by a ukase issued in 1818, agreeably to the suggestion of General Arakhtchief. The object was to create a military force at the least possible expense, by engrafting military service upon the agricultural labours of the peasants. For this purpose certain districts belonging to the crown were selected in the environs of the lake limen, in the government of Novgorod, and in some of the southern governments, a territory of which was distributed among the peasants at the rate of about 15 desiatines, or 45 acres of arable land to each head of a family, villages on an improved and uniform plan being at the same time erected for their accommodation. The stock and implements necessary for the cultivation of this land are furnished to the colonist by the crown, and he is charged with its cultivation, with contributing to the common magazine of the village, keeping up the roads, &c.; the surplus produce, after these outgoings and the provision for his family are deducted, being at his disposal. A soldier is assigned to each colonist, to be maintained by the latter; but the soldier is, in return, obliged, when not absent or engaged in duty, to assist the colonist in the labours of his farm. The colonists, as well as the soldiery, are deprived of their beards, and wear uniform, every thing within the colony being subject to military regulation: there is no restraint on the marriage of the soldiers; and their male children, and those of the colonists, are all bred up to be soldiers. The girls are educated in separate schools; and, though there be no regulation to that effect, are generally married to the young men belonging to the colonies. Exclusive of the principal soldiers already alluded to, there is in every cottage a substitute or supplementary soldier, generally chosen from the colonist, who is bound to take the place of the principal soldier in the event of his death or sickness, so that the regiments distributed among the colonies can never want their full complement of men.

The colonies may contain in all from 50,000 to 60,000 troops; but, notwithstanding what Marshal Marmont has stated to the contrary, the experiment is now generally regarded as a failure. It will always, indeed, be found to be impossible successfully to combine the business of agriculture with the military service. The soldiers get attached to their farms and families, and be-

come unwilling to leave them and impatient of military restraint. Few, indeed, at all familiar with such subjects, will be surprised to learn that considerable discontent has, at different times, prevailed among the colonies in question. A dangerous mutiny, in which several officers lost their lives, was not suppressed except by the presence of the emperor, who discovered on this occasion his usual courage and decision. Indeed, the general opinion is that the military colonies will be gradually abandoned.

Navy.—Russia has a very considerable naval force, the fleet comprising about 50 ships of the line, 35 frigates, 10 steam ships, and about 600 smaller vessels. She is indebted for her naval power, as she is for her ascendancy by land, her civilization, and, indeed, every thing else, to the creative genius of Peter the Great. Previously to his accession, Russia had no sea-port, other than Archangel, and did not possess a single gun-boat. As soon, however, as Peter had acquired a footing on the Baltic, he set about creating a navy; and the better to qualify himself for the task of its construction, he visited Holland, where he not only made himself acquainted with the principles of naval architecture, but with the practical business of a ship's carpenter, by working himself at this employment! The monarchs since Peter, and especially Catherine II. and the present emperor, have all exerted themselves to increase and improve the fleet; and it is now, perhaps, in as high a state of efficiency as it is likely to attain.

The truth, however, is, that though the naval force of Russia be sufficient to give her an overwhelming influence in the three inland seas connected with her empire, or in the Baltic, the Black Sea, and the Caspian, it is not in the nature of things that she should ever be able to cope with the maritime powers situated on the ocean. The Baltic, in fact, affords no proper field for the training and exercise of a fleet. Besides being limited in extent, it is frozen over for half the year; during all which time the ships have to be laid up; and the crews being on shore, cannot possibly attain that skill in seamanship, and dexterity in manœuvring, that is attained by sailors constantly afloat. And, by a singular contradiction, instead of attempting to obviate this state of things, and sending squadrons into the open seas, and keeping them afloat all year, it is a rule of the Russian service, that every third year the seamen, if so we may call them, shall not go to sea at all! Nothing, therefore, can be more idle and unfounded, than the statements so frequently put forth as to the danger to be apprehended from the increasing naval power of Russia. Such dangers are wholly imaginary. The physical circumstances under which she is placed must always prevent her from becoming a great naval power. She is superior, by far, to any other power on the Baltic, the Black Sea, or the Caspian; but there her ascendancy naturally stops; and any attempt on her part to construct fleets to cope with the maritime powers, properly so called, would be a most absurd and imprudent waste of the national resources.

Russian ships, both in the Baltic and Black Sea, last but a very short time, and, consequently, are very expensive. The great naval stations are Cronstadt, in the Gulf of Finland, and Sevastopol, in the Black Sea.

Education in Russia is at a very low ebb. There have for more than a century been schools in all the great towns; but these are but few in number; and the rural population is too much dispersed, even if it were not enslaved, and tied down to routine practices, to allow it to reap much benefit from country schools. But, notwithstanding the difficulties in its way, education is making progress, and has been much improved and extended within the present century. It has always been, and continues to be, on object of great solicitude with the government. A plan for a national system of instruction was laid down in a ukase of the Emperor Alexander, issued in 1803; which, though it has undergone various modifications, contains the outline of the system that is still followed. The empire is divided in respect of education into a certain number of districts, each of which has, or is intended to have, a university, with a certain number of lyceums (at which the young men intended to fill civil offices are mostly instructed), gymnasiums, high schools and elementary schools, varying according to its extent and population. At present the districts are those of Petersburg, Moscow, Kharkof, Kasan, Dorpat, Kieff, Helsingfors, Odessa, White Russia, the Transcaucasian provinces, and Siberia; but of these only the first seven have universities. A curator, or inspector, is placed at the head of each district, who is in constant communication with the minister of public instruction. The subjects and courses of study, the examinations to be gone through, the fees to be paid, &c. are all fixed by government. The sum placed annually at the disposal of the minister of public instruction amounts to above 3 millions roubles.

The Report of the minister of public instruction to the emperor, at the close of 1835, gives various details as

to the ten states of the higher departments of public instruction; and has partly supplied us with the following information:—

1. *University of Petersburg.*—This university, founded in 1819, had, in 1838, 73 professors and subordinate functionaries, and 360 students. The six governments dependent upon it had eight gymnasiums.

2. *University of Moscow.*—At the above epoch this university, founded in 1774, had 99 professors or functionaries, and 611 pupils. In its library were near 45,000 volumes. It had nine governments within its jurisdiction; and in these there were, in 1835, a lyceum, an institution for nobles, nine gymnasiums, five free schools, 75 central schools, and 152 parish schools. The surveillance of the system is committed to the care of an inspector and five sub-inspectors. A school has since been founded in Moscow for the gratuitous education of the sons of 50 decayed merchants.

3. *The University of Kharkov,* founded in 1808, had 81 professors, &c., and 816 pupils. The eight governments under its jurisdiction had, in December, 1835, seven gymnasiums.

4. *The University of Kazan,* founded in 1804, had, in 1838, 78 professors, &c., and 170 pupils. The nine governments under its jurisdiction had each a gymnasium. The Arabic, Persian, Turkish, and Mongolian languages are taught in this university.

5. *The University of Dorpat,* founded in 1632, one of the most celebrated in Russia, had, in 1838, 74 professors, &c., and 563 pupils. The university library had 58,596 volumes; and there is attached to the institution a botanical garden and a museum. The three governments under its jurisdiction had, in 1835, four gymnasiums, and 166 public schools with 3,750 pupils.

6. *The University of Kiëff,* called St. Vladimir, was founded in 1834, being intended to supply the place of that of Wilna, suppressed after the late Polish insurrection. It had, in 1838, 88 professors and subordinate functionaries, and 308 pupils. It is well endowed, its revenues having amounted, in 1835, to 250,000 roubles. here are four governments under the jurisdiction of its university, in which were one lyceum, seven gymnasiums, and 26 free schools with 461 pupils. Government orders for the education of 50 pupils at this university, whom 26 are trained to be teachers, and 24 are to be instructed in the law, so as to enable them to fill judicial or other civil office in the old Polish provinces.

7. *The University District of White Russia* includes governments and a province. It has as yet no university; but it had, in 1835, 12 gymnasiums and a high school.

8. *The University of Helsingfors,* in Finland, founded in 1827, instead of that of Abo, destroyed by fire in course of that year. In 1832 it had about 40 professors, &c., and 425 pupils. There are in the grand duchy of Finland about 290 establishments for educational purposes.

9. *University District of Odessa.*—In this, as in the rest of White Russia, no university has as yet been established. But there is a lyceum in Odessa; and in three governments and provinces subjected to its action, there were, in 1835, 5 gymnasiums, and 13 schools.

In the *Transcaucasian district* there is a gymnasium, a free school, and 12 central schools.

The number of schools in Siberia is not specified; and it is said to be a great want of teachers there, as in most other divisions of the empire.

Among the above there are various schools founded for particular objects, and not coming directly under the order of the minister of public instruction. Among these may be specified the military schools in Petersburg, and other towns; schools for the special education of nobility; the schools of the medico-military of Petersburg, Moscow, &c.; schools founded by individuals, and those founded by and under the control of the clergy.

But, as to the theological schools, intended principally for the instruction of the sons of the clergy, are the most ancient and important of any in Russia. They consist of principal academies at Kiëff, Petersburg, and Kazan, which give instruction in various branches, and confer the degrees of A. M. &c. of 36 diocesan schools; and of between 250 strict schools, at which considerable numbers of the poorer classes are instructed; and of a still greater number of parish schools. The total number of schools of 4 descriptions of schools may vary from 1,000. Though the sons of the clergy generally profess of their fathers, this is not always the case. Occasionally they enter the civil service, and are most celebrated statesmen, historians, poets, &c., have sprung from this class. (*Dr. Feiler's* p. 251; *Schmidt's* &c.)

Public instruction is in the most depressed state. By the ukase of 1802, a grammar school should be established in every district, and an elementary school

should be established in every parish, or at least in every two parishes, according to the population. But these regulations have, in very many instances, not been complied with: and when it is considered that the advantages of education are but little appreciated by the peasantry, and that it is frequently discouraged by the nobility, to whom it occasions some expense, it will not appear surprising that such should be the case. In despite, however, of every obstacle, education has made and is making a very considerable progress. This is seen from the following statement of the schools in existence in 1804, 1834, and 1835.

	1804.		1834.		1835.	
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.
Schools under Minister of Public Instruction -	499	35,481	1,411	60,922	1,631	85,707
Military schools -	15	1,000	117	105,255	152	175,580
Ecclesiastical do. -	100	15,000	54	20,000	611	67,484
Special do. -	13	51,775	46	41,200	1,282	127,264
Totals	627	109,256	2,118	265,224	2,936	460,275

Of the total schools existing in 1835, 2,841 were maintained at the expense of government. Among the scholars, no fewer than 252,311 enjoyed bursaries, or were educated gratis. The total expense incurred that year by government for school purposes amounted to 28,734,141 roubles. Since 1835 the number of schools has been considerably increased: and if we add to the pupils at school those receiving instruction at home, it will be seen that education has made a rapid progress in Russia; and that though very backward, especially in the country districts, it is far more generally diffused than is generally supposed.

Since the epoch of the Polish insurrection, the government of Russia has discovered considerable jealousy with respect to education. In consequence all Russian subjects have been forbidden from studying at any foreign university; a strict surveillance is exercised over all descriptions of schools; no private schools are in future to be opened without permission from the proper authorities, and all masters and mistresses of such seminaries must be native Russians; and it is further ordered, that no one shall be a teacher in a private family without being accredited by a university, and having a certificate of capacity and good conduct. The sciences principally taught in the universities are the history, literature, geography, and statistics of Russia.

Lectures on politics or political economy would be esteemed dangerous, and are forbidden. The object of these regulations is manifest; and we are not surprised that some of them should have been adopted. But, whatever may be the case with the higher branches, the government has had sagacity to perceive that the diffusion of elementary instruction, including the principles of the useful arts, would not tend to shake the stability of the existing order of things, while it would do more than any thing else to raise the peasantry from the state of ignorance and debasement in which we now find them, and to develop the resources of the country. Great numbers of new schools have been opened within the last half dozen years; and lectures on agriculture, and the application of science to art, have been established in the different universities.

The fact is, that a taste for instruction and reading is beginning to be widely diffused among the town population. Many new works, some of them of distinguished merit, annually appear; and many foreign works are translated into Russian. Numerous literary and scientific journals issue from the presses of Petersburg, Moscow, Riga, Odessa, &c.

The journals of a political caste being subjected to a severe censorship, afford no means of judging of the prevalent political feelings of the mass of their readers. All works and journals imported from abroad must also be submitted, under heavy penalties, to the inspection of the censors. This jealousy of whatever might tend to expand the minds of the people, and to make them acquainted with their rights and duties, is the grand obstacle to the civilisation of the higher classes and burghers. But, notwithstanding the censorship, about 250,000 volumes of foreign works, principally French and German, are annually imported.

Professors and teachers in universities and other seminaries obtain rank, and rise according to merit and seniority; and when unfit for the active duties of their station, they receive a small pension. But their regular salaries, like those of almost all other Russian functionaries, are totally inadequate to support their rank and station in society. A professor has only about 80*l.* a year, and his assistant 32*l.*; a professor of languages has 94*l.*, and each of the students, supported by the crown, 8*l.* a year! The institutions of Moscow and Tsarskoi-Zelo

are the most distinguished of those intended for the instruction of nobles. In the first there are about 800 boarders, paid for by their parents; the rest attending as day-scholars. The first class pay 32*z*, a year, and the second 24*z*. (*Pinkerton's Russia*, p. 256.)

The pedagogical institution of Petersburg is one of the most important and valuable in the empire. It is exclusively appropriated to the education and training of schoolmasters. In 1855 it had 45 functionaries and 144 pupils.

Young men belonging to great families used formerly to be, for the most part, educated at home by foreign tutors, of whom not a few were ignorant, unprincipled, and servile. But an edict of the emperor Alexander contributed to subvert this practice, by excluding all young men, not educated at a public seminary, from the higher class of public employments; and, as already seen, it has been still farther discouraged by the present emperor.

Races.—The Russian empire embraces at present an immense variety of different races; but the great bulk of the nation, or the Russians properly so called, with the Poles, and also the Bulgarians and Servians, belong to the great Slavonic family. The Slavonians are most generally supposed to be the descendants of the *Sarmatæ* of antiquity; but, though probable, this is by no means certain. At all events, they are radically distinct from the Goths, on the one hand, and from the Tartars and other Eastern nations, on the other. There is no foundation whatever for the common opinion that they were denominated Slavonians from their being originally slaves. On the contrary, when first known to history, the Slavonians were as free as the Goths. The practice of slavery was gradually introduced; and in Russia it was not completed till the beginning of last century. (See Dr. Pinkerton's *Russia*, p. 276., and the authorities there referred to.) The individuals of Slavonic origin at present within the limits of the Russian empire are supposed to amount to about 46,000,000, being about three fourths of the entire pop.

The next principal race is that of the Ourallians or Finns, inhabiting the grand duchy of Finland, Esthonia, Lapland, and several districts in the north of the empire. The Finnish population is believed to amount, in all, to above 3,000,000 individuals. The Letto-Lithuanian race, amounting to nearly 2,000,000, is principally found in Lithuania and the W. provinces. There are, also, about 2,000,000 Tartars; 2,000,000 Georgians, Armenians, &c. The Germans settled in various parts of the empire may be taken at about 450,000; and there are, besides, 1,064,000 Jews, with Samoyedes, Mongolians, Kamchatskades, Americans, &c.

Language.—Those who are aware of the various races and the numbers of different people included within the Russian empire, need not be surprised that about forty distinct languages are in use, having attached to them an immense number of different dialects. The individuals belonging to the Slavonic race have two languages.—the Russian and the Polish, both derived from the ancient Slavonic. This mother-tongue, augmented and modified by the influence of Christianity, which introduced into it a number of Greek words, and by the dominion of the Tartars, by whom it was loaded with Turkish and Mongolian terms, was gradually formed into the Russian. The primitive idiom continued, however, to be employed in the liturgy and the sciences till the reign of Peter the Great, when the Russian gained that ascendancy in religion and science it had already gained in conversation. The extraordinary advances that were then made in civilisation occasioned the introduction of an immense number of new words. At length the language became tolerably well fixed. The alphabet, which consisted originally of 45, has been reduced to 37 letters, some of them borrowed from the Greek and others from the Latin. Some characters are, however, quite unlike those of any other language, and can hardly be pronounced by any save Slavonians. The grammatical forms are not well defined, and the conjugations are exceedingly irregular. Otherwise the language is rich, sonorous, flexible, natural, and elegant. The variety of its terminations is very remarkable. There is very little *poetic* in Russia; the language of the country differing but little from that of the towns. There are, however, three principal dialects; 1st, the *Great-Russian*, the pure or cultivated language of the nation, spoken in Moscow, and all the central parts of European Russia; 2d, the *Mal-Russian*, or language of the S.E. parts of Russia in Europe; and 3d, the *White-Russian*, or dialect spoken in Lithuania, Volhynia, &c. It is a curious fact, that the first grammar of the Russian language appeared at Oxford in 1696. The best grammar is that of Dobrowski, published at Vienna in 1822. The Russian Academy has published a dictionary of the language in 6 vols. 4to., 1806–1822.

Literature.—Russia has had several distinguished natural philosophers and mathematicians, but they have been chiefly foreigners (Germans principally) resident in the country. At present the literature of Russia occupies

a respectable place in that of Europe. The introduction of Christianity was marked by the growth of a taste for letters among the ancient Slavonians; but the only remains of that early literature are some fragments of chivalrous poetry, and the annals of the monk Nestor. The Tartar invasion arrested the progress of literature, and Russia fell back into the abyss of barbarism, whence she did not begin to emerge till after the accession of the house of Romanoff. The attempts of the restorers of literature were at first confined to some feeble dramatic performances; and towards the close of the 17th and the beginning of the 18th centuries, to miserable imitations of French and other foreign works. In the course of the 18th century, however, Lomonosoff created, by his precepts and his example, a national literature. Soumarokoff carried the drama to a high degree of perfection, and since then a crowd of writers have distinguished themselves in all departments, from the *epopeia* down to eclogue and fable; and the national literature continues to flourish with undiminished vigour. The *History of Russia*, by Karamsin, now in course of publication, is a work of great merit. Numerous journals or periodical publications, in different languages, devoted to politics, literature, and science, appear in different parts of the empire; but so long as these are subjected to a severe censorship, and as the government looks with jealousy on anything approaching to the expression of a free opinion, the political and philosophical works of Russian writers can be but little deserving of attention. The first Russian press was set up at Kieff in 1551. Previously to 1800, there had not been printed above 1,000 works in Russia; in 1807, the number of such works was about 4,000; in 1831, they amounted to 13,248, and at present (1840) to more than double this number, about a third part being translations from the French and other foreign languages.

Russia has some splendid libraries and museums. The imperial library at Petersburg contains about 400,000 vols. and 17,000 manuscripts; and the Romanzow Museum contains a large collection of national antiquities and of every kind of curiosities.

Religion.—Most religions to be found in the ancient continent have their adherents in Russia. The court, however, and the great body of the nation profess the Russo-Greek Christian faith, denominated by its votaries the orthodox or true Catholic faith. The points in which it principally differs from the Roman Catholic faith, are, its denying the spiritual supremacy of the pope; its prohibiting the celibacy of the clergy, and its authorising all individuals to read and study the Scriptures in their vernacular tongue. The prohibition of celibacy is carried to such an extent, that no priest can perform any spiritual function before he is married nor after he becomes a widower; and as he is not allowed to remarry, the death of his wife and the cessation of his functions as a priest (unless he be specially allowed by the bishop to continue them) are necessarily identical! The priests may, however, on the death of their wives, enter into a convent, and enjoy the barren privilege of becoming eligible to be dignitaries of the church. Pictures of saints are admitted into the Russo-Greek churches and houses; but all statues, bas reliefs, &c., are rigidly excluded. There are several fasts, of which that of Easter, which continues for seven weeks, is the longest and strictest. Divine service is performed in the native tongue; and singing in churches is unaccompanied by any sort of instrumental music. The total pop. professing the Russo-Greek faith may be estimated at about 30,000,000. No country in Europe possesses such a number of fine churches as Russia. The meanest village is generally furnished with a temple ornamented with gilded domes and spires. These edifices are nearly all in the Grecian style of architecture, substantially built of brick, plastered and painted with much taste, forming a striking contrast to the huts or izbus of the peasantry by which they are surrounded.

There are in all Russia nearly 500 cathedrals and about 29,000 churches attached to the established faith, the latter employing about 70,000 secular or parochial clergy-men. There are also about 580 convents, of which 429 are for men and 70 for women. Adjoining to each church or near it, there is always a *kolokolnia* or belfry, commonly of great height, and provided with large bells, which are tolled several times during every service, and on holidays kept ringing the whole day. The Russians are passionately fond of the sound of bells, and larger and finer ones are nowhere to be found; every church has in its steeple four or five of different sizes; and in many this number is doubled and even trebled. (*Pinkerton's Russia*, p. 268., &c.)

The Russian church was long sub-ordinate to that of the Eastern empire, its metropolitan being nominated by the patriarch of Constantinople. But after the capture of the latter city by the Turks in 1453, the Russian clergy appointed their own metropolitan. This practice continued till the reign of Peter the Great, who declared himself the head of the Russo-Greek

church, appointing, at the same time, a synod for the management of its affairs. The clergy are either secular or regular—the former consisting of the parochial clergy, and the latter of the higher dignitaries, monks, &c. The hierarchy is composed of bishops, archbishops, and metropolitans. There are in all thirty-eight dioceses.

In Russia, as in most other countries, the piety, or superstition of individuals, had conferred great wealth on the church, particularly on the monasteries. This having occasioned many abuses and irregularities, afforded a pretext, of which Peter the Great availed himself, not only to suppress various monasteries, but to deprive the church of the greater part of its wealth. In the reign of Catherine II., the degradation of the clergy was completed by the appropriation of the whole immovable property of the church to the use of the state, pensions being assigned, in its stead, to the different functionaries to whom it had belonged. But, with the exception of a few livings in Petersburg, Moscow, and other principal cities, the stipends of the clergy, even when increased by the offerings of the people, and by the perquisites on occasion of birth, marriages, funerals, &c., are quite inadequate to provide for their comfortable subsistence. The total number of established clergy, of all ranks and orders, may be taken at about 254,000; and the sum allowed as stipends by government is so very small, that they are almost wholly dependent on their flocks. The revenue even of the senior metropolitan, the highest dignitary in the hierarchy, did not recently exceed 600, or 700, a year; and an archimandrite, or abbot, the class next below a bishop, had not generally more than from 400 to 500, a year (*Pinkerton's Russia*, p. 241.) Mr. Coxo says, that "besides the surplice fee which in the poorest benefices amounts to 4*l.* a year, and in the most profitable to but 20*l.*, they have only a wooden house, scarcely superior to that of the meanest of their parishioners, and a small portion of land, which they generally cultivate with their own hands; while the highest dignity to which they can ever attain, as long as they continue married, is that of a prototype cathedral, whose income scarcely exceeds 20*l.* a year." (*Travels in Russia*, &c. lib. liii. 143.)

When such is their depressed condition, we need not wonder at the low state of learning and want of refinement among the great bulk of the Russian parochial clergy. Coxo tells us, that when he was in Russia, many of the par. priests were so miserably ignorant as to be unable to read, even in their own language, the gospel they were commissioned to preach! But, though still far behind, such gross ignorance is now much less common than formerly. The duties of the Russian clergy of all orders are very laborious. Dr. Pinkerton, whose authority is unquestionable, says, that we find in the daily circles of the secular or parochial clergy, a degree of culture and good manners peculiar to themselves. A description of clergymen wear long beards, and form, next, like the priests of old, a kind of distinct class, or caste. None but the sons of clergymen are educated for the church; nor is there one instance in a thousand of one belonging to any other class entering the ranks of a secular clergy. The regular, or dignified clergy, on the contrary, though often the sons of priests, not frequently receive recruits from among the nobles and gentry; and all the higher stations in the church are due to be filled up from their ranks. (*Pinkerton's Russia*, p. 250.) Orders, and other marks of distinction conferred on the Russian clergy; and at present a priest is little thought of unless he be decorated with an ar and ribbon of some order of knighthood.

The Russo-Greek church has, from an early period, been schismatic and bigoted. The heresies are said to be into about 70 sects. They are classed under the denomination of *raskolniki*. The ritual, or service, of the Russian church is contained in *twenty volumes*, in the Slavonic tongue! The exception of the restraints laid on the Jews, who are excluded from Russia Proper, almost all religions may be freely professed anywhere in the empire. A member of the Russo-Greek church is, however, obliged to renounce his religion; and when a man takes place between one of its members and one belonging to another faith, the children must all grow up in the established faith. Catholics are numerous in the Polish provinces; there are, also, numbers of Lutherans, chiefly in the Baltic provinces, Mohammedans, Jews, worshippers of the lama, Feticists, &c.

—Owing to the low state of civilization in parts of the Russian empire, and the want of manufactures and great towns, the public revenue is means so great as might be supposed from the extent of the empire, and the magnitude of the population. However, the cheapness of most necessaries in Russia, and the small rates of pay for civil and other public functionaries, her limited resources a great way, and she is able to meet out-

goings that elsewhere could not be met with less than twice or three times the sum.

Most topics connected with the public revenue and expenditure, are involved in a mystery which it is not always possible to penetrate. The former is derived from a few sources, consisting of,

1. The capitation tax, charged on all the male boors belonging to individuals, and also on some descriptions of freemen. At an average it may be estimated at about 4 roubles a head; and estimating those subjected to it at 10,000,000, it will give 40,000,000 roubles.

2. The *Obrok*, or rent paid by all male boors on the crown estates. Estimating this tax at 10 roubles, and those subjected to it at 9,000,000, it will give a sum of 90,000,000.

3. The tax of 1*l.* per cent. on the declared capital of the merchants. The amount of this tax may be taken at 8,000,000.

4. The customs' duties in 1839 produced very near 92,000,000 gross revenue. The expenses of collection amount to about 7*l.* per cent. of this sum.

5. The spirit duties produce a very large sum. In Russia, properly so called, government reserves to itself a monopoly of distillation; but in the rest of the empire the produce of the distilleries, which any one may construct, is subjected to an excise duty. The consumption of spirits is very large; and the revenue thence arising may be estimated at 100,000,000. Among their other privileges the nobility may distil all the spirits required for their establishments free of duty.

6. The salt-mines and brine-springs are monopolized by government, which sells their produce at the rate of a rouble per pool. This monopoly is supposed to produce about 10,000,000 a year.

7. The crown mines, and the duties payable by the proprietors of private mines, produce together about 16,000,000.

8. The seigniorage on coin may be taken at 8,000,000.

9. Stamps, licenses, &c., and the tax laid on the sale of immovable property, may be estimated at 7,000,000.

10. Miscellaneous items, such as the sum paid by the nobles to be exempted from furnishing recruits for the army, the rent of crown property let on lease, the profits of crown manufactures, &c., may be taken at 8,000,000.

Hence it may be concluded that the public revenue of the Russian empire amounts, in all, to 379,000,000 or 380,000,000 roubles a year, that is, to about 18,856,000*l.*

The taxes are partly farmed, and partly collected by government officers. There is, as already stated, a government, a council charged with the administration of every thing relative to the finances.

Our information with respect to the expenditure is even less accurate than that respecting the income of Russia. In time of peace, however, they are understood to be nearly equal; but during war, or on extraordinary occasions involving an increase of expenditure, the ordinary revenue is quite insufficient to meet the outgoings, and it is usual both to increase the rate of taxation and to resort to loans. The expense of the army and navy (the latter being about one fifth or one sixth part of the former) amounts to more than half the revenue. The next great items are the interest and sinking fund on account of the public debt; the civil list, internal administration, public works, &c.; the diplomatic service, and various other items.

According to the report of the minister, M. Kankrin, the public debt amounted, in 1837, to 956,323,574 roubles.

Historical Sketch.—The ancients had very little acquaintance with the vast countries included in the empire of Russia. The monarchy is usually regarded as having been founded by Rurik about anno 863, his dominions, under his immediate successors, comprising Novgorod, Kieff, and the surrounding country. In 980, Vladimir introduced Christianity, and founded several cities and schools. But, from this period down to 1237, when the country was overrun by the Tartars, Russia, with few exceptions, was the theatre of civil war. In 1238 the seat of government was transferred to Moscow; and in 1481 the Tartars were finally expelled. In 1613 the house of Romanoff, whence his present majesty is descended, was raised to the throne; and from this period the empire acquired strength and consistency. Under Alexis Mikhailovitch (1645—1676) White Russia and Little Russia were conquered from the Poles, and the Cossacks of the Ukraine acknowledged the supremacy of the Czar, various internal improvements were effected, and the power of Russia began to be felt and feared by all her neighbours. At length, in 1696, Peter the Great ascended the throne, and the destinies of Russia and of the northern world were immediately changed. This prince, who has, probably, a better claim than any other that ever existed to the epithets of "great" and of "father of his country," gave to the arms of Russia a decided preponderance in the north of Europe; he also gave her a fleet; conquered large provinces on the Baltic; laid the foundations of the noble city which bears his name; and introduced among

his people the arts, the literature, the customs, and, to some extent also, the laws and institutions of the more civilised European nations. The difficulties he had to encounter in his projects for remodelling and civilising his dominions were of the most formidable description; and could not have been overcome by any one possessed of less authority, or of a less stern decided character.

From this period Russia has progressively advanced in power and civilisation. Under Catherine II. (1762-1796), a princess of extraordinary talent, Russia acquired a vast accession of power by her acquisitions in Poland and on the Black Sea, where she has now the same ascendancy as in the Baltic. The history of Russia, during the present century, is known to everybody. The attempt of Napoleon to dictate a peace to the emperor Alexander, in the ancient capital of the Csars, led to the overthrow of his colossal power, and gave a vast accession of influence and consideration to Russia; which has been maintained and extended under the present emperor.

It would be idle to speculate upon the permanency of the present order of things in Russia. A great deal, in such an empire, depends on the personal character of the sovereign. The present occupier of the throne has every quality—good sense, undaunted courage, great decision, and the utmost vigilance and activity—required in the ruler of such a country. But should the government fall into less able and skilful hands, it is not improbable that Russia may become the theatre of revolution and change, for which, at present, she certainly is not fitted.

The following table gives a view of the extent of the Russian dominions at different epochs:—

	Germ. sq. m.
In 1535, at the accession of John the Terrible, his dominions comprised	37,200
— 1585, at his death	144,000
— 1612, at the accession of Michael Romanoff	148,000
— 1645, at his death	256,000
— 1725, at the death of Peter the Great	280,000
— 1741, at the accession of Elizabeth	325,000
— 1796, at the death of Catherine II.	376,000
And at present (1841)	564,000

Tables similar to the above have been the theme of much silly declamation about the grasping, insatiable ambition of Russia. No doubt her rulers have the same desire to extend her territories as those of France, England, or any other power; but certainly they are not, in this respect, at all peculiar. In point of fact, however, by far the greater part of the territorial acquisitions of Russia have consisted of mere deserts, or of countries occupied by roving barbarians, and are worth little or nothing. Her really valuable acquisitions have been confined to those on the side of Poland and the Black Sea. Her conquests in this direction have added materially to her power; and it is but fair to add, that they have also added materially to the well-being and civilisation of the inhabitants.

RUSTCHUK, or RUTSCHCHUK, a fortified city of Turkey-in-Europe, prov. Bulgaria, cap. Sanjak, on the Danube, 56 m. E. of N. Nicopolis, and 62 m. N.W. Shumla. Pop. variously estimated, but may probably be about 30,000. It is built on a steep bank, up which the streets ascend from the river. It is surrounded on three sides by walls, in the manner of Turkish fortifications; but towards the river it is partly open. At its N.E. extremity is a ruined citadel, on an abrupt height above the Danube. "The description already given of Belgrade applies, with very little modification, to this Bulgarian city, except that Rustchuk is not in such a state of dilapidation, and the Turks here appear more civilised than the Servians: they have schools for their boys; and several of the houses are furnished with glass windows. The comfort of fountains, simple as they are in exterior, and the luxury of coffee-houses, are not unknown to the Bulgarians; on the contrary, the one and the other abound in Rustchuk." (*Elliot's Trav.* i. 180.) The streets are narrow and gloomy; on either side they present only dead walls; and as in all the rest of Bulgaria and in Roumelia each of the larger houses is a fortress in itself. The governor's palace, some of the mosques, and some public baths are the only edifices worth notice. Many of the buildings are white-washed, and their tall chimneys are visible at a great distance. Woollen, silk, and cotton stuffs are made here; and there are many Turkish, Greek, and Armenian merchants in the town, who carry on considerable trade with Vienna, Wallachia, &c., in cloth, corn, and indigo. Mr. Quin observed in the shops of Rustchuk, "a rich display of military saddles and bridles, belts, and cartouch-boxes, gaily ornamented; of Persian carpets, Broussa silks, staghorn, pistols, pipes, umbrellas, Greek caps, scarlet jackets, yellow slippers, gold-headed canes, fine cloths, woollen and cotton stockings, and every article of grocery, fruits, vegetables, meat, fowl, fish, hardware, and jewellery. The floors of these shops were usually elevated above the level of the street, and the owners and their assistants sat inside upon the floors, some

working as tailors, some as saddlers, and artisans of the ordinary trades." (*Voyage down the Danube*, 314-15.) In 1812, the Russians took and burned the citadel and a part of the town; and, in 1829, they entered the town after little opposition. (*Elliot's Trav.* i. 178-182; *Quin's Voyage*, 298-315; *Blade's Germany and Russia*, 187-189.)

RUTHERGLEN (pronounced Ruglen), a royal and parl. bor. of Scotland, co. Lanark, on the left bank of the Clyde, 24 m. S.E. of Glasgow. Pop. in 1841, 5,231. It consists of one leading street, straight and well-paved, nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in length, 112 ft. broad, and of the parallel lane called the Back Row. From both sides of the main street, which lies in a direction nearly E. and W., go off a few cross lanes. There are no public buildings except the par. church, a *quoad sacra* place of worship connected with the establishment, a chapel belonging to the Relief, and the town-hall. A small cotton-mill employs about 80 hands; and there are two print-works in the vicinity, a Turkey red dye, and a chemical work. About 500 hand-loom muslin weavers are employed by Glasgow manufacturers.

Rutherglen was created a royal bor. in 1136, at which time it was of more importance than Glasgow, the latter being included within its municipal boundaries. But in 1236, Alexander II. granted a charter to Walter, Bishop of Glasgow, relieving his town from certain servitudes previously due to Rutherglen. (*Mss. Corp. Rep.* 1838, part ii. p. 371.) Previously to the passing of the Reform Bill, in 1832, Rutherglen, unimportant as it has been, enjoyed the same parliamentary privileges as Glasgow; being united with it and two other towns in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Glasgow has since that period had 2 representatives for itself; while Rutherglen joins with Kilmarnock and 3 other bors. in choosing a mem. Registered voters, in 1849-50, 166. Municipal councillors 18; corporation revenue, 1648-49, 855*l*. (*New Stat. Acc. of Scotland*, § *Lanarkshire*, p. 373-396; *Ure's Hist. of Rutherglen*, 179*h*.)

RUTHIN (Welsh *Rhudd-ddyn*, or *Rhuthyn*, the "Red fortress"), a parl. and mun. bor., market-town, and par. of N. Wales, co. Denbigh, hund. Ruthin, in the vale of Clwyd, 17 m. W.S.W. Chester, and 45 m. N.W. Shrewsbury. Pop. of mun. and parl. bor. in 1831, 1,376. The town, situated on rising ground, chiefly E. of the Clwyd, consists of a principal avenue, entered by several other inferior streets. At the summit is the market-place, in which is the town-hall, a substantial building, erected in 1663, but recently repaired. The co. hall, a fine modern stone structure, forms with the gaol an interesting feature in the town. The gaol, recently enlarged by the addition of a building for female prisoners, has suitable arrangements for the classification of the inmates. The church, originally conventual, belonging to a community of Benedictines, is an ancient structure of mixed architecture; the tower, S. and W. fronts, being comparatively modern, and much inferior to the rest of the building. The interior is elegantly fitted up with stalls, tabernacle-work, &c., and the roof is of carved oak, pannelled, and richly sculptured. It was made collegiate in 1310 by John de Grey, who formed an establishment for regular canons, and endowed it with valuable lands and numerous privileges. A part of the cloisters has been converted into a residence for the warden of Christ's Hospital, founded here by Dr. Gabriel Goodman, for the support of 13 decayed housekeepers. The warden and pensioners are impropriators of the great tithes of Ruthin and Llan-Rhydd; and the warden, who is appointed by the dean and chapter of Westminster, is the vicar of both parishes, with an income of 263*l*. a year. The free grammar-school is endowed with a moiety of the tithes of Llan-Elidan, and is under the superintendence of the warden, though the appointment of the head-master rests with Jesus College, Oxford: the school ranks as one of the best in N. Wales, and is attended by about 80 boys. A national school is established here for 40 children of each sex; and there are Sunday-schools attached to the chapels of the Independents, Wesleyans and Calvinist Methodists. No particular trade or manufacture is carried on in the town, exclusive of what is necessary for the accommodation of the inhabs., who are principally employed in agriculture; and no change of any consequence appears to have taken place in it for several years, neither are any causes in operation or likely to operate towards the extension of the town beyond its municipal limits. (*Mss. Bound. Rep.*)

The corporation of Ruthin consists, according to the Mun. Reform Act, of a mayor, 3 aldermen, and 12 councillors. Corp. rev., in 1836, 145*l*. The bor. unites with Holt, Wrexham, and Denbigh, in sending one mem. to the H. of C., the right of election down to the Reform Act having been vested in the resident burgesses. The parl. limits, according to the Boundary Act, include, with Ruthin, parts of the pars. of Llan-Furrog, Llan-Rhydd, and Llan-Fair-Dyffryn-Clwyd. Reg. electors, in 1830-40, for the united bors., 941. Ruthin is likewise one of the polling places at elections for the co., and the

aside town; besides which the quarter sessions are held alternately here and at Denbigh. Markets, well supplied with corn, on Monday, and a provision market on Saturday. Fairs, March 19, Friday before Whit Sunday, Aug. 6, Sept. 30, and Nov. 10.

Ruthin, according to the Welsh historians, is of high antiquity; but we have no authentic information respecting it prior to the reign of Edw. I., who built here a magnificent castle, overlooking the Clwyd, on the W. bank, which he presented, in 1281, to Reginald de Grey. The ruins have been restored with admirable taste by the present proprietor. The manor of Ruthin belongs to the Lady Grey de Ruthin, daughter of the 19th baron of that name, who has been a great benefactress to the town.

RUTLAND, an inland co. of England, surrounded by Lincoln, Leicester, and Northampton. It is the smallest of the English co., containing only 95,360 acres, of which about 80,000 are arable, meadow, and pasture. Surface, only varied; air pure; and the soil almost every where sandy and rich. The W. part of the co., in which is the ale of Catmose, celebrated by Dryden, is under grass, and the E. chiefly in tillage. It is particularly celebrated for its wheat, cheese, and sheep. Estates and farms of various sizes. Average rent of land, in 1843, 37s. 5½d. an acre. The river Welland runs along its S.E. border, on the Buckingham to near Stamford; and there is a canal in the river Soar to Oakham, the principal town. It is divided into 5 hundreds, and 56 parishes; and returns tribute, to the H. of C. both for the Reg. and the Poor, in 1840-50, 1,908. In 1841, Rutland had 4,304 ab. houses, and 21,302 inhab., of whom 10,731 were males, and 10,561 females. Sum expended for the relief of the poor, in 1848-49, 7,965½. Annual value of real property, in 1815, 138,316½; ditto, in 1843, 156,967½.

RYE, a town, sea-port, and watering-place of England, on the N. side of the Isle of Wight, par. of Newchurch, and hund. of E. Medina liberty, 8½ m. E.N.E. port. Pop. of Newchurch, in 1841, 8,370, of which 5,840 belonged to the town of Rye. The latter peculiarly happens to appear in the annals of Portsmouth, a site to which it lies, at a distance of about 5 m.; its houses, interspersed with gardens and plantations, ranged in successive rows upon a tolerably steep sky, rising directly from the sea, backed by bold and surrounded with cultivated land. It consists of a principal street, running upwards from the shore, intersected by others, some of which comprise detached residences, well adapted for the numerous who flock thither during summer. It has two s-of-cess, one of which is a handsome modern ere, places of worship for Wesleyan Methodists, and Independents, with attached Sunday-school, and an endowed charity school; it has also a theatre, assembly-rooms, libraries, baths, &c., and good hotels. The accommodations for summer have been greatly improved within the last few years. Rye has risen into favour; and a pier, composed of wooden piles, runs ½ m. into the sea, making town accessible seaward at all times of the tide. Boats run nearly every hour in the day, during the season, between Rye, Portsmouth, Cowes, and Southampton; and the opening of the South-western railway has occasioned a great influx of visitors to this and its watering-place, W. Cowes. The air is salubrious, the environs are many agreeable walks commanding land and sea views; but as a bathing place, inferior to Southsea, on the opposite coast of Hampshire, or to Cowes, on account of the shallow water for a lengthened distance from shore. Manufactures, and its trade is principally composed of supply of visitors and the inhab.

RYE, a par. and mun. bor., cinque port, market-par. of England, co. Sussex, hund. Godstow, and reg. on the Rother, about 3 m. from its mouth, N. of Brighton, 163 m. S.E. London. Pop. 1,100. A bor. (which comprises with the par. of Rye and Chilsea, and 6 others, with a portion of the par. of Rye, in 1841, 7,667. The town, which stands on an extensive tract of marsh land, running out as far as Hythe, consists of several regular streets, lined with old, but respectable houses, many of which command fine views of the sea and surrounding country. In the centre of the market-house and town-hall, with an old clock tower, the Ypres Tower, occasionally used as a public library is supported by subscription, and a small theatre. The church is a large cruciform structure, with a central tower, partly of Norman or early English architecture: the aisles of the nave have lancet windows, and there is a large perpendicular E. window. The living is a sinecure, the gift of the Earl of Burlington. The Methodists, Independents, and Baptists, have places of worship, with attached Sunday-school. It has a small endowed grammar-school, school, with several almshouses and other

charities. "There is no manufactory in the town, which depends upon being the port and market through which the surrounding rich agricultural district is supplied. Some years since it is said to have been in a declining condition; the reverse, however, is now the case, and it appears to be, indeed, in an eminently thriving state. This is mainly attributable to the improvements lately made in the harbour and in the navigation of the river, which have made the town accessible to vessels of 300 tons. By means of the Rother and its branches it supplies the surrounding country to a distance of 8 m. with coals and other articles; and there is a project in contemplation to extend the navigation as far as Robert's Bridge, a distance of 15 m. in a straight line. This, if carried into execution, will be a source of considerable advantage to the town, which will then become the port through which the country, as far as Battle, will be supplied. In January, 1850, there belonged to the port 75 vessels of the agg. burden of 4,314 tons. In 1849 the gross customs' duties amounted to 2,357½. The exports are chiefly wool, oak timber, and bark. A considerable quantity of hops is raised in the neighbourhood, for the drying of which large quantities of Welsh coal are annually imported. (*Mun. Board. and Corp. Rep.*)

RYE is a bor. by prescription, and is governed under the Municipal Reform Act, by a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 12 councillors, styled "the mayor, jurats, and commonalty of the ancient town of Rye." Corp. revenue in 1847-48, 776½. Courts of session are held under a recorder; and there is a court for the recovery of debts under 40s. Rye returned 3 mems. to the H. of C. from the 43 Edw. III. down to the Reform Act, which deprived it of one of its members, and at the same time enlarged the electoral limits, so as to comprise with the old bor. the rest of the par. of Rye, the town and par. of Winchelsea, with six other entire pars., and a small portion of the par. of Brede. Reg. electors in 1848-50, 574. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday; fairs, Whit-Monday and Aug. 10.

RYE is very ancient, but its early history is little known. It appears to have been an original Cinque Port, and is mentioned as a member of these ports in a charter granted by Henry III. In the reign of Edward III. the town was so considerable, that it sent 3 armed vessels to the royal fleet when the king undertook the invasion of France. In the next reign, A.D. 1377, it was plundered and burnt by the French, but it soon recovered its consequence. The rise of other ports on the same coast during the last century, and the filling up of its port, occasioned a considerable decrease of its importance, which, however, as above seen, it has now a fair prospect of in some measure regaining.

S.

SACKETT'S HARBOUR, a village or town and port of entry of the U. States of N. America, state New York, co. Jefferson, on a bay at the E. end of Lake Ontario, at the mouth of Black River, 41 m. N.E. Oswego, and 150 m. N.W. Albany. This is a prosperous, rapidly increasing town: in 1835 it extended a mile along the bay, and had three places of worship, several schools, stores for all goods in ordinary demand, a steam-engine factory, saw and other mills, barracks for the accommodation of 2,000 men, and many dwellings substantially built of limestone, &c. We have no late account of the pop., which, however, we understand may be taken at about 7,000. The harbour is the best on the Lake, and is used by the American government for ship-building, and as a naval depot. A peninsula juts out from the lower extremity of the town, forming an inner and outer harbour, the latter of which has water sufficient to float the largest ships of war, within 3 fathoms of the shore. Near the mouth of Black River is another equally good port; and vessels of the largest class are built at both. A considerable trade is carried on from this port by the Lake and the St. Lawrence; and by the Oswego, Erie, and Welland canal. Numerous vessels for the navigation of the lake are built here. Agg. burden of shipping belonging to the port, 30th June, 1849, 8,776 tons. Here is a waterfall sufficient to work machinery. (*New York Gaz.*)

SAFFI, AZAFFI, or ASFI (an. *Sofa*), a city and sea-port of Morocco, prov. Abda, on the Atlantic, near Cape Cantin, and 95 m. N.W. Morocco. Pop. estimated at 12,000, including about 3,000 Jews. (*Grüberg of Hemsu.*) It is built in a sterile ravine between two hills; being very hot in summer, and disagreeable in winter, "as the waters from the neighbouring mountains, occasioned by the rains, discharge themselves through the main street into the ocean, deluging the lower apartments of the houses." (*Jackson.*) It has thick and high walls, and a

neat palace, formerly the occasional residence of the emperor's sons; a little way N. of the town is a small fort. Its roadstead is safe in summer, but in winter, when the winds blow from the E. or S.W., vessels are obliged to run to sea; which they have been known to do several times in the course of a month, while taking in their cargoes.

Saffi was formerly an emporium of the European trade with Morocco, but its commerce has declined with the rise of Mogadore; on the foundation of which, in 1760, the emperor ordered the removal thither of all the merchants of Saffi. The Moorish and Bedouin inhale are fanatical and intolerant, and said to be inimical to Europeans, with whom, however, they have now little intercourse. In the environs are many Mohammedan sanctuaries. This city is supposed to have been founded by the Carthaginians. In modern times, it belonged to the Portuguese, from 1508 till 1641. (*Graberg's Atlas, Specchio di Marocco; Jackson's Morocco, &c.*)

SAFFRON-WALDEN (an. *Saffron-walden*), "the woody hill abounding with saffron"), a municipal bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Essex, and hund. Uttlesford, 23 m. N.N.W. Chelmsford, and 37 m. N.N.E. London. Pop. of mun. bor., in 1841, 6,111. The town, in a valley close to a tongue of high land, surmounted by the church, comprises several good streets and a spacious market-place, with a neat town-hall. Many of the houses are good, and the place generally bears an appearance of neatness and comfort. The church, which stands so high as completely to overtop the town, is an elegant structure in the perpendicular style, with an embattled tower at its W. end: the living, a vicarage in the gift of Lord Braybrooke, is worth 237l. a year. The Independents, Baptists, Unitarians, and Friends, have each places of worship. A free grammar-school, endowed by Edward VI., has an exhibition at Queen's College, Cambridge; but the education is now conducted on the national plan, and connected with it is a girls' school, the whole furnishing instruction to about 850 children of both sexes. There are likewise several Sunday-schools, some almshouses lately rebuilt, and various other money charities. Saffron-Walden has several large malting establishments, and enjoys a good retail trade for the supply of the numerous wealthy families in its vicinity; besides which it has well-attended markets for corn, cattle, and provisions. The neighbourhood is extremely productive, and well cultivated; but the growth of saffron (whence the name of the town) has been abandoned. The bor. was incorporated by Edward VI., in 1549, and is governed, under the Mun. Reform Act, by a mayor, 3 aldermen, and 15 councillors. Corp. rev. in 1847-48, 670l. Petty sessions for the hund. are held every alternate week, and there is a court for the recovery of debts under 10l. Saffron-Walden is also one of the polling places at elections for the N. div. of Essex, and the principal town of (a poor law union, embracing 24 par. Markets on Saturday; fairs, for horses and cattle, Saturday before Midlent Sunday, and Nov. 1.

SAGHALIEN. See JAPAN.

SAHARA, or the great Central Desert of Africa. (See Africa, l. 23.)

SALIDA (Sidon), a town and sea-port of Asiatic Turkey, celebrated in remote antiquity as one of the greatest emporiums of the Mediterranean, and as being the parent city of Tyre. Its modern representative is seated on the N. side of a cape extending into the Mediterranean, 22 m. N.N.E. Tyre, 30 m. S.S.W. Beyrout, and 55 m. W. Damascus; lat. 33° 34' 5" N., long. 34° 22' 40" E. Pop. estimated by Mr. Robinson at 4,000 to 5,000 only, of whom more than half are Christians of the Greek church. Olivier says, "Sidon may be compared with Beyrout as to its pop. and extent, and its streets are equally irregular and filthy; but its situation is more pleasant and advantageous, its houses are better built, and it has better (hotels or private residences) of considerable extent, and which would not disgrace any city of Europe. Most of these have their own fountains, independent of those distributed through the town. The Aila supplies Said with water, which is brought from it by a channel kept in ill repair, for a distance of more than a league." (*Voy. dans l'Emp.*, Oth. iv. 58 transl.) The streets in the upper town, which stand upon an acclivity, are narrow and gloomy, being arched over in many places, like those of Jerusalem. The lower part of the town is more cheerful. The bazaars are well supplied, especially with leather goods. (*Robinson's Syria, &c.*, l. 320-270.) Most of the houses have gardens attached. On the land side the town is defended by a high wall, now partly in ruins, as well as by a fortress, on a hill to the S., said to have been constructed by Louis IX. of France. There are several mosques, both within and without the town. It has been generally supposed that the ancient city was about 3 m. further inland, and, like many other maritime cities of antiquity, at some distance from the sea-shore, on which its port was situated. The non-existence of any antiquities worth notice at Said seems to favour this opinion; while, at a place

called Old Sidon, at about the distance above stated, some traces of ancient walls and other buildings are still discoverable.

There can, however, be no doubt that the harbour on the N. side of the present town was the port of the ancient as well as the modern town. Here is a quay formed of very thick walls, in parts of which a tessellated pavement of variegated marbles, with representations of animals, festoons, &c., still exists in tolerable preservation. Many granite columns are also wrought into the walls, and others stand as posts to a bridge of several arches, which runs from the main land, to a castle built in the sea, by Fahr-ed-Din, the celebrated emir of the Druses, in the 16th century. The latter, aiming to render himself independent of the Porte, not only fortified Said, but, in order to make its harbour inaccessible to Turkish galleys, choked it up by sinking boats filled with the debris of ancient buildings. This measure gave a severe blow to the commerce of the town, the roadstead being so insecure that scarcely a fisherman's skiff can lie in it safely. (*Bourring's Report*); but even at the end of the last century, the French merchants of Said had a considerable trade with Marseilles, to which they exported cotton, silk, and woollen goods, fruits, corn, oil, scammony, galls, soda, and wax. At present the principal resource of the inhabitants are derived from dyeing, and from the manufacture of leather and silk goods.

Sidon is first mentioned in Gen. x. 15. 19.; and appears to have risen into importance at a very early period, since it is spoken of in Joshua as the "great Sidon," (ch. xi. 8.; xix. 28.) In the division of Palestine it was allotted to the descendants of Asher, but we learn from Judges, i. 31, that it never came into the actual possession of that tribe. Its inhabitants were anciently eminent in ship-building, and were employed by Solomon in the construction of the Temple, there being among the Jews, none who had "skill to bear timber like unto the Sidonians." Pliny states that it was also famous for its glass manufactures. In its commercial importance, it appears, however, to have been early eclipsed by Tyre, and afterwards generally followed the fortunes of that city. In the middle ages, during the Latin kingdom of Jerusalem, it was a lordship, and an episcopal see under the Tyrian primacy. The Crusaders, who lost it in 1111, recovered it from the Saracens in 1150; but were finally obliged to surrender it to the latter in 1290. In its neighbourhood is the convent of Mar-Elias, the residence of the late eccentric Lady Hester Stanhope. (*Robinson's Syria and Palestine*, l. 258. 272.; *Olivier, Voyage en Syrie*, ch. ii.; *Bourring's Report on Syria*; *Mod. Trav.*, vol. ii., &c.)

SAL-GON, a city, river-port, and the chief emporium of the empire of Annam, prov. Tiampa, of which it is the cap., on the river of its own name, about 50 m. above its mouth; lat. 10° 47' N., long. 107° 5' E. Pop. loosely estimated at 180,000, among whom are many Chinese. It consists of two distinct towns, about 3 m. distant from each other, though the intermediate road be lined all the way with straggling houses. Pingeb, which has the citadel, and is the seat of the governor, is on the W. bank of the great Sal-gon river; whereas, on the proper, the main seat of commerce, is on a smaller river, which, however, is navigable for good-sized boats. The two towns are nearly of like size. The streets, which are regular, and intersect each other at right angles, are in some instances of great width. Along these, or along canals, many of which traverse the city, the houses are disposed in straight lines, and close to each other. They are built chiefly of mud, enclosed in bamboo frames, and plastered; sometimes they are tiled, but more frequently thatched with palm-leaves or rice-straw: they have seldom more than one story; but some of the better sort are surrounded with an open court-yard, with a gate towards the river. In Sal-gon proper, some of the streets are paved with flags; and quays of stone and brickwork extend nearly a mile along the river. The citadel, in Pingeb, constructed by a French engineer in 1790, has not been completed. It is a quadrilateral fortress, with earth ramparts, bastions, horn-works, a regular glacis, esplanade, and dry ditch. When Mr. Crawford visited the city, no guns were mounted on it, though there were several French cannon in the arsenal; and at present it is not capable of a regular defence. The interior, which is neatly laid out, has barracks, officers' quarters, and the governor's residence. In the N.E. part of the city, on the bank of a deep creek, are the naval yard and arsenal, one of the most complete establishments in the empire, where many good junks and war-boats have been built. The rice magazines, the naval arsenal, and the royal palace, a brick edifice, are the other principal public buildings. Sal-gon communicates with the Cambaja river by a canal 23 m. in length, about 80 ft. in width, and 12 ft. in depth. Its foreign trade, which is principally with China and Siam, is much less considerable than that of Benkoek. The principal articles exposed for sale in the shops are Chinese earthenware,

silk, paper, tea, &c. A few glass bottles and some broad cloths may be met with, but scarcely any other European goods. The markets are well supplied with poultry, hogs, oxen, &c.; and the flesh of other animals less suited to a European taste, as dogs and alligators. Fruit is in great abundance, and the variety and excellence of the fish can hardly be surpassed. According to Mr. Crawford, Saigon is far preferable as a place of residence to Bunko. Its vicinity is well cultivated with rice, areca palm, &c. (Crawford's *Embassy to Cochinchina*, 1. 317-348; *White's Voyage*, &c.)

SAINTES (on *Mediolanum* aft. *Santones*), a town of France, dep. Charente-Inferieure, cap. arrond., on the Charente, here crossed by a stone bridge, 30 m. S.E. La Rochelle. Pop. in 1846, ex. com., 7,969. Its situation is good, and it is entered from the S. by a finely planted promenade; but it is ill laid out, and is for the most part badly built. It has, however, some remarkable public buildings, and antiquities. The cathedral was founded by Charlemagne, and the tower, with the principal entrance, is said to have belonged to the original edifice; but the rest of the structure dates principally from the 16th century. The church of St. Eutropius has a fine steeple, constructed under Louis XI. A celebrated abbey was founded here in 1043, into which Eleanor of Guienne retired, after her divorce from Louis-le-Jeune; its buildings are now converted into cavalry barracks. The sub-prefecture, formerly the bishop's palace; the hospital, originally the seminary; the Protestant church, hall of justice, public library, and theatre, comprise the other chief public buildings. It has cabinets of natural history and antiquities, a communal college, and departmental nursery grounds; and manufactures of hosiery, earthenware, dyeing-houses, anneries, &c. Saintes is in the centre of a district, furnishing the best Cognac brandy; in which, and in corn and wool, it has a large trade.

Under the Romans, *Mediolanum* was one of the chief cities of Aquitaine. Some Roman baths exist on the banks of the river; and without the walls, are the remains of an amphitheatre, almost as extensive, though not nearly in such good preservation, as that of Nîmes; adjacent to a bridge is a triumphal arch dedicated to Tiberius Julius and Germanicus (*Guide de l'Yonne*); and the ruins of an aqueduct, a circus, &c. are still traceable. It was the cap. of the dep. Charente-Inferieure, m. 1790 till 1810. (*Dict. Glog.*)

SAINT HELENA. (See ST. HELENA, and so for all other articles having the prefix of Saint.)

ALAMANCA, (an *Salamanca*), a celebrated city of Spain, in kindg. of Leon, and prov. of its own name, on the Douro (a trib. of the Duero), crossed here by a handsome stone bridge of 27 arches, 92 m. S. by W. Leon. 119 m. W. N.W. Madrid. Pop., according to M. 13,918, not including the clergy and university, and on the small hills, and is surrounded by streets generally steep, narrow, and crooked, very dirty, and with a decayed melancholy aspect. There are numerous public places and fountains; but only one worth notice is the *Piazza mayor*, a fine sq., each side of which is 298 ft. in length, surrounded by houses of three stories, all of equal height, exact symmetry, with iron balconies, surmounted by one balustrade: the lower part is open, forming a wide running all round the square. Bull-fights are held here in June. Among the public edifices, by far the largest is the cathedral, a Gothic building with a profusion of carving on the exterior: it is 378 ft. in length and 181 ft. in breadth, the height of the nave 30 ft. In the interior are some good paintings, fine organ with horizontal pipes. The chapter consists of a bishop, 10 dignitaries, and 26 canons. There are also 25 par. churches; but few of them merit notice. The church of St. Stephen, however, as formerly attached to a Dominican convent, *ad vie* in splendour of decoration with the case itself. Salamanca has, for many centuries, been regarded as the seat of a university, and the numerous colleges belonging to the various orders constitute a feature in the city; indeed, so proud are the owners of the collegiate edifices of Salamanca, that even the pompously termed *Roma la chica* (the little Rome). The university was founded in 1229, and revenue, in 1826, of 1,300,000 reals, or 13,500,000 francs. Though this has since been much diminished by the suppression of the convents, and the application of its funds to secular purposes. In the 15th and 16th centuries the university of Salamanca was attended by 15,000 students; but its former glory is now past, and we question whether it have now 200 students. It is thus to be at all regretted, for what advantage can derive from the profections of Spanish monks? literature, the philosophy of Aristotle, and Thomas Aquinas, Roman jurisprudence, canon law? Attached to the university is a library, furnished with a few modern books and classic divinity.

Formerly there were 24 public and 25 private colleges; but many of these have fallen to decay, and others were destroyed by the French during their occupation of the city. Few of the remaining colleges retain any traces of their former magnificence, their most valuable effects having been carried off during the Peninsular war, while the monastic libraries were burnt by wholesale in 1808. Before the suppression of the monasteries, Salamanca had 260 clergymen; and before the closure of the churches and convents were emptied to supply the wants of the state, ample provision was made for the support of imposture and idleness. Every street swarmed with vagabonds, not merely those who were proper objects of compassion, but those also who, if compelled to work, would have been found abundantly able to maintain themselves. Mendicancy still prevails; but the want of public support must eventually compel the mendicants to apply themselves to industrious callings.

The manufactures of Salamanca are inconsiderable, comprising some fabrics of broad-brimmed hats (*combreros*), several tanneries, two or three establishments for weaving woollen cloths, and a few others for making starch, glue, earthenware, &c. besides a pretty large manufacture of shoes. A weekly market is held here, and an annual fair in September. The suburbs abound with well-planted walks; the *Aseria*, or irrigated tract near the river, is planted with fruit trees; corn, and leguminous plants abound throughout the neighbourhood (the husbandry of which, according to Townsend, is superior to that in most parts of Spain), and the hills, clothed with oak trees, are depastured by oxen, sheep, and goats, celebrated for the delicate flavour of their meat.

Salamanca, though mentioned by the classical writers under the name of *Salamanica*, appears to have been of little importance under the Romans, though a Roman road and some other monuments are still extant. Salamanca is celebrated in the history of the late Peninsular war for the victory gained in its vicinity on the 22d July, 1812, by the Anglo-Portuguese army, under the duke of Wellington, over the French, under Marshal Marmont. The struggle was most severe; but the British were completely successful at all points. (*Twiss's Spain and Portugal*, v. 56-63; *Townsend's Spain*, II. 72-82; *Milman's Dict. Glog.*; *Encycl. Metrop.*; *Napier's Peninsular War*, IV. 168.)

SALANKMENT, a small village of the Austrian dominions, prov. Slavonia, on the Danube, nearly opposite to the embouchure of the Theiss, 23 m. E. by S. Neusatz. It deserves notice from its having been the spot where the first decisive check was given to the progress of the Turks. A powerful army of the latter, commanded by the justly celebrated Visier Kluperl, was encountered here on the 19th of August, 1681, by the Imperialists, under Prince Louis of Baden. After an obstinate action without result, the Turks, without advantage to either party, Kluperl fell; when the Turks, panic struck by his loss, were totally defeated, leaving above 20,000 men on the field of battle. The loss of the Imperialists did not exceed 8,000 men. (*La Croix, Abrégé de l'Histoire Ottomane*, anno 1681.)

SALEM, a town or city, and sea-port of the U. States of N. America, state Massachusetts, co. Essex, on a tongue of land projecting into the sea, and forming two inlets called N. and S. rivers, 18 m. S.E. Newbury Port, and 18 m. N.E. Boston, with both of which it is connected by railways. Lat. 42° 24' N., long. 70° 54' W. Pop., in 1840, 15,092. Though not regularly laid out it is well built, and healthy; and with respect to pop., commerce, and wealth, is one of the first towns in New England. It has an Athenaeum, with a good library, a valuable museum, belonging to the E. I. Marine Society, numerous banks, insurance offices, charitable institutions, schools, &c., a custom-house, and various public buildings, most of which are substantial brick edifices. The goal is of stone, commodious and spacious. In the centre of the town is an enclosed common, comprising about 10 acres, partially planted with trees. The harbour, formed by South River, has good anchorage; but vessels drawing more than 12 or 14 ft. water have to be lightened at a distance from the wharfs. On Baker's Island, at the S. side of its principal entrance, are two lighthouses, one being 117 ft. and the other 126 ft. above the level of the sea. The town and harbour are protected by two forts. The inhabs. of Salem have long been very largely engaged in the India and China trade, and both their foreign and coasting trade is still considerable. They have also recently engaged in the whale fishery. There belonged to the port, in 1842, 29,411 tons shipping. A bridge, upwards of 1,500 ft. in length, across N. river, connects Salem with Beverly, a town of about 5,000 inhabitants, engaged in similar pursuits. Next to Plymouth, Salem is the oldest town in Massachusetts, having been founded in 1626. (*Encyc. of Geog.*, Amer. edit.; *Bunt's American Coast Pilot*; *Offic. Tabler*.)

SALEM, a district of British India, presid. Madras, between the 11th and 13th degs. of N. lat., and 77° and 80°

degs. E. long.; having N.E. and E., N., and S. Arcot; S. E. and S. Trichinopoly; S.W. and W. Coimbatore, from which it is separated by the Cavery; and N.W. the Mysore territory. Area, 6,518 sq. m. Pop., in 1836-7, 905,190. Its whole surface is above the E. ghauts; and its climate is cool and bracing, which makes it be much frequented by European invalids. It comprises the Barramahli districts, a rich table-land forming its N. portion. Except the Cavery, and Poniar, it has few rivers, and no lakes. In 1836, of 4,178,870 acres, 1,118,720 were estimated to be under culture; exclusive of 661,500 ft for cultivation, and 2,361,600 acres that were barren and mountainous. About three fourths of the land is assessed under the ryotwar, and the remainder under the semindar system. Rather more than half the pop. is supposed to be actively employed in agriculture. Malae, rice, and a little cotton are grown, and great quantities of teak, sandal, and black woods grow on the hills; but the principal exports are cloth, ghee, tamarinds, turmeric, jagghery, oil seeds, and iron. Iron ore is very abundant, and good steel is made. Cloth is, however, the staple commodity, and is manufactured for export to the W. Indies and America. The chief imports are areca nuts, silk, and black pepper. Total revenue of the district, in 1837-8, 1,950,563 rup.; of which sum, 1,625,434 rup. were contributed as land-tax. Salemi, the chief town, and residence of the British authorities, stands in about lat. 11°37' N., long. 78°13' E. It has some trade in cotton cloths, saltpetre, &c. (*Madras New Almanac; Hamilton, E. I. Gaz.*)

SALEMI, a considerable town of Sicily, intend. Trapani, cap. cant., on a hill, 30 m. E. Marsala. Pop., in 1831, 12,162. It is finely situated, but has a most abrupt appearance. Its inhabs. are indolent, and the town has no trade, being, according to Russell (*Trav.*, p. 64.), distinguished only by filth and superstition. Salemi occupies the site of the anc. *Halyetia*. Sir R. C. Hoare supposes that it derives its present name from a Saracen chief of the 9th century. (*Classical Tour in Sicily*, li. 85.)

SALEMO (an. *Salernum*), a celebrated city and sea-port of S. Italy, in the Neapolitan dom., prov. Principato Citra, of which it is the cap.; at the foot of a hill on the N.E. shore of the Gulf of Salerno, 17 m. S.S.W. Avellino, and 28 m. S.E. by E. Naples, with both of which cities it is connected by good roads. Lat. 40°44' N.; long. 14°46' E. "The modern city, with 16,000 inhabitants, is by no means well built; and the narrow and dirty streets running on different levels from the immediate edge of the sea, some way up the mountain, give its interior a gloomy appearance, and afford but inconvenient residences; but its situation is most happy, and a marina, or promenade, which skirts its whole length along the shore, was added by the French, and contributes to render its aspect from the sea extremely imposing. There is no port; though a broken mole, affording protection to the smallest vessels only, offers the semblance of such an accommodation." (*Craven's Tour*, &c., pp. 369, 370.)

The principal square has a good public fountain, and is surrounded with several Gothic edifices, including the intendency, the new theatre, and the cathedral. The houses are lofty, and the streets paved with lava. Ancient Gothic walls, in tolerable repair, enclose the city; and on the hill above, amid the principal remains of the ancient Salernum, is a ruined citadel. The cathedral, a heavy Gothic structure, is the most interesting of its public edifices. It was erected by the Normans on the site of an ancient building, and is dedicated to St. Matthew, who is said to be buried within its walls. "The *atrium*, or court before it, is spacious, and surrounded by a portico of antique columns of porphyry, granite, &c., said to have been brought from Paestum 23 m. S.S.E., by Robert Guiscard; upon which the Normans constructed a range of brick arches, bent more after the Saracenic than the Gothic or Grecian manner; these support a regular set of apartments. In the centre is a basin of granite, 15 ft. in diameter, constantly filled by a fountain of excellent water. Many excellent sepulchres are placed in the colonnade, and the church contains also some monuments of remarkable personages, as Roger and William, dukes of Apulia, Margaret of Durazzo, and the restless pontiff Gregory VII., who died of chagrin at Salerno, in 1055. On each side the entrance of the choir is a pulpit raised upon pillars. Their panels are formed by rich mosaic of many colours, disposed in knots and stars. The choir is inlaid with square and oval plates of verde-antique, porphyry, and serpentine; the great altar is decorated in the same barbarous, but splendid manner." (*Swinburne's Tour*, li. 119.) Though the cathedral has but few paintings, it has, luckily, an ample supply of miraculous images. There are numerous other churches, one of which is said, but on doubtful authority, to be the burial place of John of Procida, a native of Salerno, celebrated as the principal contriver of the conspiracy against the French in Sicily, which terminated on the 30th of

March, 1282, in the massacre known by the name of the "Sicilian Vespers." Salerno has two hospitals, a work-house, three government pawn-banks, a seminary, a royal lyceum, and a university. To the last belongs a school of medicine, which was once among the most famous in Europe, but which has, for a lengthened period, lost its pre-eminence. But the lyceum in this town is said to be superior to most others in the kingdom.

Salerno is an archbishop's see, the residence of the provincial intendant, and the seat of a superior criminal court, and of a civil tribunal. Previously to the period when Naples attained to a decided lead among the cities of S. Italy, Salerno carried on a considerable commerce by sea; that, however, has now wholly disappeared, though it continues to possess a pretty extensive inland trade, and has two large annual fairs.

Its climate is mild; but it is unhealthy from the proximity of marshes and rice-ground, the culture of which occupies many of the inhabs. It is doubtful whether the ancient Salernum was contiguous to or at some distance from the sea; but, on the whole, the probability seems to be that it did adjoin the sea, or that it was within such a short distance of it as to justify its being reckoned among maritime towns. (*Cellaris, Geograph. Antiqua*, l. 86.) After the fall of the Roman Empire, Salerno became the cap. of a flourishing republic, the sovereignty of which was contested by the Greeks, Saracens, Lombards, and Normans; the latter of whom obtained possession of the city in 1076. Having been mostly burned down by the emperor Henry VI., it subsequently became a feudal possession of the Colonna, Orsini, and Sanseverini families, till it was re-annexed to the royal domains by the emperor Charles V. (*Rampoldi; Craven; Swinburne.*)

SALFORD. See MANCHESTER.

SALINS, a town of France, dép. Jura, cap. cant., in a narrow valley on the Furieuse, 36 m. N.E. Luxeuil-le-Sauvage. Pop., in 1846, 6237. It is walled, and commanded by two forts on adjacent heights. Its principal street is paved, and lined with substantial houses. There are several churches, a spacious college, a public library, good barracks, a theatre, hospital, and prison: these buildings are nearly all new, the town having been almost wholly destroyed by fire in 1825. Salins has several iron-forges, stone works, and brandy distilleries; but its name and principal importance are derived from its brine springs, which were wrought in the time of the Romans. They occupy a large space in the middle of the town, inclosed by turreted walls. According to Hugo, the produce amounts to 140,000 cwt. of salt a year; in addition to which a considerable quantity is made at Arc, about 4 leagues distant, to which an aqueduct conducts a portion of the water of the Salins springs. (*Hugo; Dict. Géog.*)

SALISBURY, or NEW SARUM, a city, part bor., and market-town of England, co. Wilts., of which it is the cap., hund. Underclit, on the Avon, here crossed by 3 stone bridges (one of which has 10 arches), 21 m. W. Winchester, and 80 m. W.S.W. London. Pop. of part bor., which includes, with the city, the extra-parochial district of the Cathedral Close, 10,000 of pars. Fisherton and Milford, in 1841, 11,698. It is built with great regularity, having 6 principal streets running from N. to S., crossed by the same number, intersecting them nearly at right angles. The houses generally are large and respectable, some, also, laying claim to considerable architectural elegance. It is well paved, lighted with gas, and kept remarkably clean by means of brooks running down the middle of the streets. The market-place, a large open square on its W. side, has, at its S.E. angle, the council-house, a brick structure, with a Doric portico, erected at the close of the last century, at the expense of the Earl of Radnor, and since greatly enlarged. The interior is divided into court-rooms, offices, &c. for the business of the assizes, quarter-sessions, and corporation, and it has several good modern portraits. On the opposite side of the market-square is a curious old hexagonal-shaped building, having a conical roof supported by pillars; it is called the Poultry or Butter-cross, and was probably built in the reign of Edward III. In another part of the same square is the public library and reading-room, founded in 1819, and supported by subscription. The most striking feature in Salisbury, however, is its cathedral, which stands in the large open space called the Liberty of the Close, on the S. side of the city. The situation is remarkably good; the precinct or close is kept in the best order, and comprises some very fine trees, which, as well as those in the palace-grounds, serve to embellish the views of the cathedral. The W. front, the N. side, and the E. end of the latter are all open, and may be seen from peculiarly favourable distances: indeed, the N.E. view is perhaps the best general view of a cathedral to be had in England, and displays the various portions of this interesting edifice to the best advantage. Salisbury cathedral has the advantage of being built in one style, the early English, and

a uniform and well-arranged plan. The centre tower and spire (the entire height of which is estimated at 404 ft.) are of later date, but admirably accommodated to the style of the building. The plan is that of a complete cathedral, having spacious cloisters, an octangular chapter-house, and a tower for a library and muniment room: there are 3 transepts: each of which has an aisle eastward, and the nave has a large N. porch. The extreme length of the church (including the Ladye chapel) is estimated at 474 ft.; breadth of nave and aisles, 78 ft.; height of nave, 80 ft.; and width, including the great transepts, 310 ft. Modern alterations have taken away the altar-screen, and thrown the Ladye chapel open to the choir: the organ-screen, also, as well as a large portion of the tabernacle-work in the choir, is of modern construction. The E. window is filled with a beautiful painting on glass of the Resurrection, from the designs of Sir Joshua Reynolds; another window exhibits a painting on glass of the Elevation of the Serpent in the Wilderness: there are other painted windows, and in various parts of the church are several ancient monuments, some of which are extremely curious. The W. front is a beautifully enriched specimen of the pointed architecture, peculiar to this church: the angles are terminated by tolerably massive square towers, surmounted by spires and pinnacles; and over the grand central entrance is a series of canopied arches, beneath the great W. window, which is formed in three divisions. The exterior of the church is enriched with a number of recesses situated in tiers at different heights all round the building. Many of the statues still remain, and it is supposed that originally there must have been at least 300. The cloisters are remarkably magnificent, forming an exact square, each side of which is 183 ft. in length. The cathedral library is built over the E. side of the cloisters, and adjoining them, in the same direction, is the chapter-house. "On the whole," says Mr. Rickman, "the cathedral presents an object for architectural study hardly equalled by any in the kingdom: the purity of its style and the various modes of adapting that style to the purposes required, deserve the most minute attention." (*Rickman's Gothic Architecture*, p. 257, 258.)

Within the close, formerly surrounded by a wall, and still entered by several ancient gates, deserving admiration, are the residences of the bishop, dean, canons, &c. The deanery-house is opposite the W. front of the cathedral; and at a little distance S.E., surrounded by gardens, is the bishop's palace, a very irregular building, of different styles of architecture, having been enlarged and repaired at various periods, from the middle of the 5th century down to a recent period. The gardens are on a large scale, comprising an area of several acres, well planted with fine, large old trees. The episcopal see was moved from Old Sarum to Salisbury under the authority of a papal bull, in 1217, about which time the cathedral was founded; the expenses of its erection, exclusive of the chapter-house, tower, and spire, being estimated 40,000 marks, or 36,667*l.*, an enormous sum in those days. The chapter comprises (besides the bishop) a dean, precentor, chancellor, and six canons residentiary, holding among them a net revenue of 2,800*l.* annually, having residences and separate revenues, with the patronage of 18 benefices. There are likewise 31 prebendaries, besides choral vicars, &c. At an average of three years ending with 1881, the revenues of the see amounted to 3,398*l.* a year; but it either has, or is to be augmented to 5,000*l.* a year. The bishop also a large portion of the cathedral patronage, besides that of 36 benefices; his diocese extends over the counties of Wiltshire and a portion of Shropshire. Salisbury has three other churches, one of which, St. Edward's, is in the gift of the bishop, and that of St. Andrew's in the patronage of the dean and chapter. St. Andrew's is a perpendicular structure, with large windows and good tracery, the chancel having been modernized. The tower fell down, and was rebuilt in the 15th century. St. Thomas's is a large perpendicular church of good composition, with its tower standing on the side of the S. aisle: it has a nave and chancel, with a clerestory. St. Martin's is a large church, early English style, with some more recent parts. The church at Fisherton is small and of mixed architecture. The Roman Catholics have a handsome chapel; there are places of worship for Independents, Baptists, Wesleyan-Methodists, and Unitarians, with attached Sunday-schools. A grammar-school is attached to the cathedral for the instruction of the choristers; and another in the city, founded by Queen Elizabeth, under the patronage of the corporation. The bishop has a good school; and there is also an orphan and the different parishes have their respective infant schools, &c. There are several charities, which may be mentioned that of Bishop Le Poor, at Fisherton Bridge; Trinity Hospital, founded in the reign of Richard II., for 12 aged matrons; and Bishop College for clergymen's widows; with several almshouses, money charities, &c. An infirmary,

founded near Fisherton bridge in 1766, is liberally supported by subscription; a mendicity society has been established with considerable success, and there are various minor benevolent institutions, bible, and tract societies, &c.

A county-gaol has been recently erected in Fisherton, and there is a small, but neat theatre, little patronised, with assembly and concert rooms. A weekly newspaper, called the "Salisbury and Winchester Journal," has a pretty extensive circulation. Races are annually held near the town in August. "The town of Salisbury cannot be considered as increasing, or in a state of improvement, having very little trade. An extensive woollen manufacture was formerly carried on here; but it is now confined to a single factory; and cutlery, for which this town was once famous, is now brought for sale from Birmingham." (*Parl. and Municipal Board Report*.) It has derived very great advantage from being connected with the S. Western Railway by a branch line from Bishopcote, which passes close by Rumsey.

Salisbury received its first charter from Henry III., which was afterwards renewed by several monarchs. According to the Municipal Reform Act, it is divided into 3 wards, and governed by a mayor, 6 aldermen, and 18 councillors. Quarter and petty sessions are held under a recorder; besides which the assizes and quarter sessions for the co. are held here. A court for the recovery of debts to any amount is held monthly by the bishop's bailiff; and it has a county court, before which 503 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. Salisbury has returned 2 members to the H. of C. since the reign of Edward I., the right of election down to the Reform Act being vested in the corporation, consisting, in 1831, of 35 members. The limits of the parli. bor. were enlarged by the Boundary Act, so as to include, with the old bor., the cathedral close, and certain parts of Fisherton and Milford parishes, as before mentioned. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 695. Salisbury is also the chief election town for the S. division of Wiltshire. Markets on Tuesday and Saturday, with large cattle fairs on alternate Tuesdays. Fairs, Tuesday after Jan. 6; Tuesday after March 25; Whit Monday and Whit Tuesday for horses, and Oct. 29, for butter and cheese.

Salisbury owes its foundation to the removal of the ecclesiastical establishment from the once important, but now decayed borough of old Sarum, the Roman station of *Sorbidonnum*, about 3 m. N. from the modern city. The quarrels between the troops of Henry II. and Roger Le Poor, the turbulent prelate of that day, induced the latter to establish his clergy in a more peaceful and advantageous situation: a city soon arose round the cathedral, and by the influence of the monarchs and clergy, soon became an important place, while the other fell to decay, and was ultimately deserted by its inhabitants. Henry III. granted the city a charter, entitling it to the same privileges as Winchester, and conferring extensive local powers on the bishop of the see. Parliaments were occasionally held here during the 13th and 14th centuries. The city became celebrated, after the death of Charles I., for the abortive attempt of the royalists under Colonel Wyndham, to proclaim Charles II. Two large monasteries existed here prior to the Reformation; but there are no extant remains of these foundations. Among other distinguished individuals to whom Salisbury has given birth, may be specified James Harris, the author of the "Hermes," and of other learned and ingenious philological and metaphysical treatises, born here in 1709. Thomas Chubb, a clever, but not very learned, deistical writer of the last century, was also a native of this city. N.W. from Salisbury stretches the vast tract of downs and heaths, called Salisbury Plain; and about 6 m. N. of the city is the stupendous monument of Stonehenge, which see. (*Parl. and Mus. Reports; Rickman's Architecture*, &c.)

SALON, a town of France, dep. Bouches du Rhone, cant. in a fertile plain, about 3 m. N.N.W. of the canal de Craponne, and 39 m. N.N.W. of Marseilles. Pop. in 1846, 4,390. It is divided into an old and a new town, separated from each other by a planted boulevard. It has, according to Hugo, an air of opulence, of which many larger towns are destitute: its streets are regular, and it has many good houses and public buildings; including a church built by the Templars, the par. church, with several curious sculptures, town-hall, &c. On a rocky height, at the extremity of the town, is an old castle, now converted into a house of correction (or, according to Hugo, a barrack). It has manufactures of cotton, twist, hats, soap, and olive oil, and a brisk general trade. The remains of a temple in honour of Tiberius have been discovered here. (*Hugo, Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

SALONICA (an. *Thessalonica*), a celebrated city and sea-port of European Turkey, cap. sandjak of its own name, at the N.E. extremity of the gulph of same name, 185 m. N.N.W. Athens, lat. 40° 30' 47" N., long. 22° 57' 13" E. Its pop. was estimated by Mr. Walpole at about 42,000, by M. Beaujour at 60,000; and by later,

though, perhaps, less cautious authorities, at 70,000, of whom about three fifths are Turks, and the rest chiefly Jews and Franks, with a few Greeks. Its appearance, when approached from the gulph, is very imposing, as it is seen from a great distance, placed on the acclivity of a steep hill, amid cypress trees and shrubs, surrounded by lofty white-washed walls ascending in a triangular form from the sea, and surmounted by a fortress with seven towers. The domes and minarets of numerous mosques rise from among the other buildings, and, being surrounded with cypresses, give an air of splendour to its exterior.

The circ. of the city walls probably exceeds 5 m.; but, according to Dr. Clarke, "a great part of the space within is void." (vii. 443. 8vo. ed.) Its interior presents the same irregularity, and many of the deformities common to Turkish towns; but, on the whole, as respects cleanliness and internal comfort, it may contrast favourably with most other places in Turkey of large size and pop. The houses are generally built of unburned bricks, and, for the most part, little better than many low hovels." (*Clarke*.) Those of the principal inhabs. Greeks and Turks, have here, as in Yannina, small areas connected with them, generally occupied by a few trees. The bazaars, at the lower end of the town, are very extensive, forming several long, but narrow streets shaded either by trellises with vines, or by projecting wooden sheds, with branches of trees thrown across. The dealers are principally Greeks and Jews; and the shops are well filled with manufactured goods and colonist produce; but in jewellery, shawls, and the richer articles of oriental dress, they appear inferior. Some of the mosques are worthy notice from their size and antiquity, especially two which were formerly Greek churches. Another remarkable edifice, called the Rotunda, after having successively served as a heathen temple and Christian church, has been converted into a mosque: it has evidently been built on the model of the Pantheon at Rome. The cupola is adorned with mosaic work, appearing like a frontispiece of fine buildings, and in the dome is a circular aperture, as in that of the Pantheon. A fourth mosque has been formed out of a fine temple of the Thermen Venus. This was originally a perfect parallelogram, 70 ft. in length, and 38 ft. in width, supported on either side by 12 columns in the Ionic order, of the most exquisite proportions. The Greeks spoiled this beautiful building by endeavouring to make it cruciform; but the six columns of the *pronaos* remain; and M. Beaujour says, that if the Gothic disfigurements were stripped off, the original edifice would be found in the highest state of preservation, and would be reckoned one of the finest remains of antiquity. Among the other ancient structures are two triumphal arches, one of which, now forming a part of the city walls, was erected to Augustus after the battle of Philippi, and the other, of which encased with marble, is the honour of Constantine, on the piers of the latter are some fine groups in bas-relief, having a great deal of spirit. The Augustan gate, however (now called the Vardar gate, because it leads to the river of that name), is said by Dr. Clarke to be a work of superior taste. Its original height appears to have been 43 ft.; but the lower part, to the depth of 27 ft., is below the present surface: the span of the arch is 12 ft., and the masonry is of squared white marble blocks, having inscriptions and appropriate bas-reliefs. In the middle of the city is a magnificent ruin, called *Iskendria* by the Spanish Jews resident here, supposed to have been the *propyleum*, or entrance to a circus, consisting of 6 Corinthian columns, supporting an entablature on which are several figures much defaced, as large as life, and still exhibiting the traces of a master's hand. The castle, which forms a large area, separated by a rampart from the city, has lofty and well-built walls; and, at its highest point, stands the fortress surmounted, like that of Constantinople, by 7 towers, called by the Turks *Yedi-kule*, and by the Greeks *ἑπτὰ πύργους*. These towers, however, though occupying the site of the old acropolis, are comparatively modern, having been built by the Venetians.

Salonica, during that period of the late war, when the anti-commercial system of Napoleon was at its height, became an important depôt for British goods, whence they were conveyed to Germany, Russia, and other parts of Europe. They were transported on pack-horses, by long and laborious journeys, into the centre of Europe, through Boemia into Austria, and through Bulgaria into different parts of Hungary, Transylvania, &c.; the time occupied in travelling from Salonica to Vienna being about 35 days. At all times, however, it has had a considerable trade, which, of late years, has rather increased, particularly as regards the importation of British cotton manufactures. The exports principally consist of silk and tobacco, wool, raw cotton, wheat, and other species of grain, linseed and hempseed, timber, nuts from Mount Athos, &c.; the entire value in 1837 being estimated at 138,614*l.*, while the imports for the same year (consisting principally of British manu-

factures, and colonial produce), were valued at 98,318*l.* The import-trade of the rajahs, most of whom are Jews, who purchase by firms the same commercial privileges as the Franks, is carried on by credits on Vienna, few of the importers having any capital; and orders to England are commonly paid for by drafts on Vienna, where the charge for credit is at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum. Goods are generally sold in the interior at an advance of 10 or 14 per cent. on the invoice cost, leaving a profit varying from 4 to 8 per cent. for the importer. We subjoin

An Account of the Number of Ships, their Tonnage, and the Value of their Cargoes, that entered and left Salonica in 1847, specifying the Countries to which the Vessels belonged.

Flags.	Entered.			Cleared.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Value of Cargoes.	Ships.	Tons.	Value of Cargoes.
Russian	21	1,364	29,264	21	1,364	29,264
Neapolitan	5	92	2,456	5	92	2,456
British	49	12,089	66,552	61	12,516	102,097
Maltese	7	1,419	730	7	1,419	13,754
French	15	2,150	7,773	15	2,130	40,976
Austrian	9	1,030	1,459	12	2,092	4,643
— steamers	26	5,097	36,342	26	5,097	29,809
Sardinian	71	10,163	9,215	74	10,618	14,725
Neapolitan	52	8,815	35	52	8,815	28,614
Greek	16	16,533	13,999	37	12,833	42,330
Turkish	125	11,875	63,764	160	16,374	42,171
— steamers	46	11,509	19,229	46	11,509	18,280
Other counts.	22	2,972	2,900	23	3,164	21,259
Totals	672	82,010	243,125	689	83,709	322,615

The intercourse with England was a few years ago principally carried on through Malta by Maltese or Greek vessels; but the trade is now almost exclusively carried on in English bottoms. The ordinary import and export duties are those common to foreign trade in Turkey, viz. 3 per cent. *ad valorem*, being farmed by the Porte under certain restrictions to the pacha, or governor of the city. Salonica has no port; but there is excellent anchorage in the roads opposite the town, which, from the configuration of the gulph, are nearly landlocked. Accounts are kept in plasters of 40 paras, or 120 aspers, the weights are similar to those of Constantinople (which see). The weights and measures are the same as those of Smyrna, except that the *kiloz*, or corn measure of Salonica, = 3.78 kiloz of Smyrna.

The commercial classes consist chiefly of Jews and Franks, the Greek pop. having greatly diminished since the war of independence. Salonica, however, is a metropolitan see, with 8 attached bishoprics, and there are numerous Greek churches. The Jews form an important section of the pop.; they are chiefly of Spanish descent, and obtain a livelihood by commerce and retail trade in the bazaars, those of the lower orders being employed as porters on the quays or in similar offices. The Franks, most of whom reside in the lower part of the city, consist almost exclusively of French and Germans, who have establishments for the management of the transit trade. The situation is said to be unhealthy, especially in autumn, owing to the vicinity of the marshes at the head of the gulph: intermittent fevers are then exceedingly common, as well as chronic visceral complaints, the result of repeated attacks of those diseases.

Thessalonica was at first an inconsiderable town under the name of *Therma*, by which it was known to Herodotus, Thucydides, and *Æschines*. *Xerxes* stayed here some days with his army (*Herod.* vii. 128.), and it was occupied for a short time by the Athenians during the Peloponnesian war. According to Strabo (*lib. vii.*), *Cæsar* changed its name to that of his wife *Thessalonica*, the daughter of Philip, and sister of Alexander the Great. After the conquest of Macedonia by the Romans it was made the capital of the second of the four districts into which that country was divided; it was the residence of *Cicero* during a part of the time he continued an exile. *Valerian* raised it to the rank of a colony; and it had an amphitheatre, a hippodrome, and numerous splendid public buildings. It is also extremely interesting from its connection with the early history of Christianity; having been visited by St. Paul, who made many converts, to whom he addressed the Epistles to the Thessalonians. (*Holland's Travels*; *Clarke's Travels*, vii. 441–478.; *Morning Chronicle* for July 14, 1836; *Catlin's Geog. Antiqua*, i. 1044.)

SALOP, or SHROPSHIRE, an inland co. of England, having N. Denbigh, a detached portion of Flint, and Cheshire, E. Stafford, B. Worcester, Hereford, and Radnor, and W. Montgomeryshire. Area, 689,000 acres, of which about 790,000 are supposed to be arable, meadow, and pasture. Aspect much diversified. No part of the surface is quite flat; but the great plain of Salop, or Shrewsbury, is comparatively level. It extends, lengthwise, from Whitechurch, on the confines of Cheshire, S. to Church Stretton, a distance of about 30 m.; and from Oswestry, on the confines of Denbigh, to Colebrook

Dale on the E., about 36 m. The Wrekin-hill rises out of this extensive plain on its E. side. The S., or rather the S.W. part of the co., contain several ranges of flat-topped square-shaped hills, divided by beautiful valleys. Soil various, but generally fertile. In the E. it consists of a red sandy loam, like that of Cheshire; in the S., a mixture of clay and loam is most prevalent; and in the W. there is a good deal of gravelly light soil. The harvest is said to be a fortnight earlier on the E. than on the W. side of the co.; a difference depending partly, no doubt, on the greater elevation of the ground on the W. side; but partly, also, on differences of soil. Salop is principally under tillage; but, in the S. and W., breeding and dairying are carried on to a considerable extent. A good deal of cheese, sold under the name of Cheshire, but inferior to the genuine article, is made in this co. The wool of the hilly tracts used to be of a peculiarly inequal quality, but it has deteriorated during the present century in consequence of the efforts of the farmers to increase the size of the sheep and the weight of the fleece. The total stock of sheep in the co. is supposed to exceed 420,000; producing annually above 7,000 packs of wool. Hops are produced on the borders of Hereford, mostly variously divided; some estates being very large, while there are many of very inferior degree of soil. On the borders of Wales, farms very small, many not exceeding 30 acres; but on the E. side of the co., in the vicinity of Shifnal, Wellington, Newport, &c., they vary from 100 to 500 acres or more.

The district of Clun Forest, in the S.W. part of the co., is divided into small freehold properties, varying in value from 5*l.* to 180*l.* a year, the majority being of the latter class. Their occupiers, who, in most cases, are the owners, employ few labourers, the principal part of the work on their farms being executed by themselves and their families. Leases less common now than formerly, and farms generally held from year to year. Agriculture improving; but, owing to the want of a reasonable length, and with proper commons as to management, it continues to be very defective. The number of corn crops, taken in succession, has been materially diminished since 1820; but two at crops still not unfrequently follow each other. Our remarks do not, however, apply to the district on the E. side of the co. mentioned above; where the soils are large; for there the tenants are active and enterprising, and agriculture highly improved. Turnips actively cultivated, and, for the most part, in drills; oats grown. Cattle of mixed breed, and rather inferior. Pork and bacon much used by the people. Large quantities of turkeys raised by some farmers. Drainage in places much wanted. Average rent of land, in 2*as.* 5*d.* an acre. Principal mineral products, iron, lead, limestone, and freestone. With the exception of Wales, Staffordshire, Lanarkshire, Derbyshire, and Cumberland, more iron is made in this co. than in any other of the empire; the Salop furnaces having produced above 73,000 tons of iron in 1830, and about 100,000 in 1848. The furnaces are principally in the W. of the co., between Wellington and Willey. Excelsior ware, and a very superior species of pottery, made at Coalport on the Severn and its vicinity; nails, &c., made at Broseley; carpets at North Shropshire at Ludlow, &c. Some branches of iron manufacture are carried on in Shropshire neighbourhood; but by far the largest portion of iron sold in its markets is brought from Merioneth and Denbigh. The Severn, which becomes navigable at Poole, co. Montgomery, traverses this co. in a direction, dividing it into two not very unequal parts; and it is besides intersected by very important roads formerly very bad, but now a good road, though still susceptible of much amelioration. Salop is divided into 16 hundreds, or districts, all of the same denomination, and 216 parishes. It remains to the H. of C., viz. 4 for the co., and 3 for the borough of Shrewsbury, Bridgnorth, and Wenlock for Ludlow. Registered electors for the co., 50,807, of whom 4,632 were for the N., and the S. division of the co. In 1841 Salop had habited houses, and 229,048 inhabitants, of whom 119,638 males, and 119,638 females. Sum expended for relief of the poor, in 1848-49, 99,806*l.* Annual real property, in 1815, 1,083,702*l.*; do., in 1843,

bring it down to particular spots, whence it is carried away by dealers in the article, who deposit in its place a payment, settled by custom, of rice, clothing, and iron tools.

The most remarkable objects of Salsette are the cave-temples of Kennerly, among the most remarkable Buddhist excavations in India. They are of various sizes and forms, being scattered at different elevations over both sides of a high knoll, belonging to a range of hills which divides the island into two nearly equal parts. The largest, and most remarkable cave, bears a great resemblance to that of Carlee (which see I. 539.), and was converted by the Portuguese into a church. It is entered through a fine and lofty portico in front, a little to the left hand of which is a detached octagonal pillar, surmounted by three lions seated back to back. On either side of the portico is a colossal statue of Budh, nearly 30 ft. in height. The screen which separates the vestibule from the temple has in its centre a large door, above which are three windows in a semicircular arch; elsewhere, it is covered with carved figures. The apartment within is 9½ ft. in length, and 36 in breadth, semicircular, and surrounded on every side, but that of the entrance, with a colonnade of octagonal pillars. Of these, 12 on either side nearest the entrance have carved bases and capitals; the rest are not finished in this manner. In the semicircular end is a dome-shaped rock, the *dagoba* of Buddhist temples, traditionally said to have once supported the *tee*, or sacred umbrella. The roof, like that of the Carlee temple, is a semicircular arch, supported by slender ribs of teak-wood. The various other caves in this hill are square, or flat-roofed, and attached to many are deep and well-carved cisterns. There are other cave-temples in the island, at the villages of Mompester, and Ambowlee; and at the former are ruins of a very handsome Portuguese church and Jesuit monastery. (*Forbes; Lord Valentia; Heber, &c., in Mod. Trav.*)

SALTATA, a city of S. America, cap. of the prov. of its own name, republic of La Plata, on the high road from Buenos Ayres to Potosi, 820 m. N.W. the city is lat. 24° 30' N., long. 64° 1' 30" W. Pop. from 8,000 to 9,000. "Upon the whole it has a neat appearance, and boasts of a cathedral and many churches. It is, however, badly situated in the bottom of a valley, through which flow the rivers Arias and Silleta (tributaries of the Salado); the latter of which has, of late years, abandoned its ancient bed, and seems to threaten, at no distant period, to burst over the low marshy grounds upon which the city stands." (*Parish's Buenos Ayres*, p. 272.) Its air is unhealthy; but its vicinity abounds with wheat, rye, cattle, &c., in which, and in salt, wine, hides, and mules, the city has an active trade. It was founded by Don Philip de Lerma in 1582.

SALTASH, a decayed bor., market-town, and par. chapelry of England, co. Cornwall, S. div. hund. of East, 17 m. S.S.E. Launceston, and 4 m. N.W. Plymouth. Pop. of bor., in 1841, 1,541. It stands on a steep rock, near the Tamar, from which the principal street runs at right angles, the houses rising one above another to the hill-top, on which stands the chapel and town-hall. The latter is supported by pillars, the open space beneath being used for a market. Streets narrow and ill-built; the houses being, for the most part, little better than cottages, though chiefly of stone from the rock on which the town stands. The chapel is small; and the living is a curacy subordinate to the vicarage of St. Stephen, value 45*l.* a year. There are also two places of worship for Dissenters, with attached Sunday-schools, and there is a small free-school. Saltash, which appears to have been formerly of more importance than at present, is principally inhabited by fishermen, or persons connected with the docks and shipping of Devonport; and in summer is a favourite resort for the people from Plymouth and the surrounding neighbourhood. It is likewise one of the chief entrances into Cornwall from Devonshire, and is approached by a ferry over the Tamar, the revenues of which belong to the corporation. Saltash was made a free bor. in the reign of Henry III., and returned 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the reign of Edward VI. down to the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised. It was considered of too little importance to be included in the provisions of the Municipal Reform Act. Markets on Saturday: fairs, Feb. 2, July 25, and the Tuesday before each quarter-day.

SALT COATS, a seaport town of Scotland, co. Ayr, partly in the par. of Ardrossan, and partly in that of Stevenston, 34 m. S.W. Glasgow, and about 1 m. S. Ardrossan. Pop., in 1841, 4,238. It has some good houses; but, on the whole, is indifferently and irregularly built, and mean looking. It has a town-house, with a handsome spire, clock and bell. Its name is derived from the salt-works, established in the town for the production of salt, by the evaporation of sea water; but since the repeal of the duty on salt, they have been nearly abandoned. Magnesia, however, still continues to be produced to some extent. The principal

SATTE, an island on the W. coast of Hindostan, unhabited, immediately N. of Bombay island, which it is connected by a narrow causeway, 3 m., with an average breadth of about 13 m. It is estimated at 50,000, about 1-5th of whom are Portuguese Christians. There are two towns and, Tannah and Gorabunder; the first being flourishing, with a small fort, several churches, and considerable British cantonment. The more remote parts of the island are inhabited by wild tribes, who have no intercourse with the Hindoos, who being occupied as burners of charcoal,

dependence of the inhab. is on the weaving and sewing of muslins, for the Glasgow manufacturers. There may, in all, be about 500 looms so employed; principally on lappets, gauzes, shawls, trimmings, silks, &c. About 20,000 tons of coal are annually shipped here for Belfast, Dublin, &c. A good deal of ship-building was formerly carried on; but latterly it has declined. Two congregations belong to the United Associate Synod, and one to the Reister; and there is a Gaelic chapel. It has a subscription library, a parochial school, a free school, managed by a committee of ladies, and other schools, a savings' bank, and some friendly societies, a branch of the Ayrshire Banking Company, &c. The harbour is very defective; and in this respect it labours under great disadvantages as compared with Ardrossan. (*New Statist. Acc. of Scotland, Ayrshire, parishes Ardrossan and Stevenston.*)

SALUZZO (Fr. *Saluces*), a city of the Sardinian dom., div. Consl. cap. prov., at the foot of the Alps, on an affluent of the 30 m. S.W. Turin: Pop., in 1838, 14,436. It consists of two portions, one on the summit and declivity, and the other at the foot of a hill. The upper town is walled, tolerably well built, and has a castle, which was, for three centuries, the residence of the Marquises of Saluzzo; one of whom, between 1478 and 1480, constructed the gallery through the Col de Viso. (*Murray's Handbook for Piedmont*, 244.) The lower town is the more populous, and continues on the increase. The cathedral, a handsome building, is in a suburb. Saluzzo has several convents, an intendency, a court of primary jurisdiction, and a royal college. It is a bishop's see. Its chief manufactures comprise silk, leather, hats, and hardware; and it has some trade in wine, corn, and cattle. Under the French, Saluzzo was the cap. dep. Stura. (*Rampoldi, Corr.*, &c.)

SALZBURG, a city of Upper Austria, cap. of the etc., as it formerly was of an archbishopric of the same name, on the Salzach, a tributary of the Inn, 67 m. S.W. Linz, and 70 m. E.S.E. Munich. Lat. 47° 48' 10" N.; long. 12° 1' 25" E. Pop., in 1848, about 12,000, having decreased considerably since Salzburg ceased to be the cap. of an archbishopric. The Salzach, which here flows impetuously between two masses of rock, divides the city into two portions, connected by a stone bridge, 370 ft. in length. It is walled, and entered by eight gates; and on a lofty point, commanding the town and adjacent country, is the *Hornsteinberg*, formerly the feudal citadel and residence of the prince-archbishops, but now used as a barrack. On the opposite side of the river is the *Capucinerberg*, a similar height, surmounted by the Capuchin convent. Owing to the number of its churches, the profusion of marble statues, and flat-roofed houses, Salzburg has the aspect of an Italian city. According to Turnbull, one of the principal hotels, which he says, forms a fair specimen of the general style of building, "is a heavy pile of masonry, five stories in height, and composed of walls, floorings, and internal divisions, from the basement to the roof, entirely of stone." Generally speaking, the city is dull and gloomy, and its streets narrow, irregular, and grass-grown. The cathedral, constructed in the 17th century, on the plan of St. Peter's at Rome, is large and imposing, and has numerous monuments, sculptures, paintings, and other works of art. It has a fine facade of white marble, occupying the whole side of a public square, with three entrances, flanked by two rows of marble statues. Several of the other churches are highly gilt, and decorated. Monasteries are numerous, but the number of their inmates has been much reduced. In the church of the Benedictine convent is the tomb of Michael Haydn, the musical composer, who, as well as Mozart, was a native of Salzburg. The Mirabel palace is a handsome modern edifice. One of the greatest curiosities in the city is a gateway or tunnel, 490 ft. in length, cut through the solid rock (*Spencer*), though for what purpose we are not informed.

Salzburg has a military and three civil hospitals, several charitable institutions, a government pawn-bank, and a prison. It had formerly a university; but this is now reduced to a lyceum of two faculties, medicine and jurisprudence, with a library of 20,000 vols., and probably of 120 MSS., some of the 8th and 9th centuries, a botanic garden, zoological museum, &c. In the Benedictine convent is another extensive library, with collections of coins, &c. It has, also, a gymnasium, Ursuline female school, a spacious public cemetery, a public museum, and a theatre. Salzburg is still the residence of an archbishop, who has five suffragans; and is the seat of the superior courts for the circle, &c. It has manufactures of cotton yarn, leather, starch, gunpowder, iron wire, and flies, and some transit trade, though this has very much diminished. It is well and cheaply supplied with provisions; but the prevalence of *goutre* is a drawback to its advantages. All travellers agree that it is hardly possible to exaggerate the romantic beauty of the scenery of the neighbourhood. Salzburg is supposed to occupy the site of the anc. Ju-

varia, destroyed by Atilia in 448. In 803, Charlemagne and the ambassadors of Nicephorus, emperor of the East, met in this town to settle the boundaries of their respective empires. In the 13th century the city became the cap. of a territory, governed by its archbishops till 1802, when it was secularized. (*Cent. Nat. Encyclop.; Bergkass; Turbault's Austria*, i. 128-143; *Spencer; Germany and the Germans*, ii. 309-312.)

SAMARANG, a town and sea-port of Java, on its N. coast, the cap. of a prov., near the mouth of the river of its own name, 340 m. E.S.E. Batavia; lat. 6° 46' S.; long. 110° 27' E. Pop. supposed to be at least 30,000, including many Chinese and some Europeans. It is tolerably well built, and is fortified with ramparts and a wet ditch, capable of resisting a native force. It has many good houses, a large church, town-hall, and hospital, a military school, theatre, and observatory. Before it is a deep morass, and it communicates with the sea only by two raised causeways and the river: it is, however, less unhealthy than the lower parts of Batavia. Provisions are cheap; and near the town are many country houses. "The river, or rather creek, is very shallow, and cannot be entered by loaded boats at low water. The roads are also exceedingly insecure; the town owes its importance, therefore, solely to the industry of the natives in the adjoining districts, who raise large quantities of coffee, pepper, and rice. Many ship-loads of the latter are annually exported to China, and to different countries in the Archipelago." (*Earl's Eastern Seas*, p. 42.) Samarang is the seat of one of the three civil and criminal courts, and courts martial in the island, and the residence of a governor with extensive authority.

SAMARCAND, a city of Indep. Tartary, in Bokhara, on the Sogd, or Zer-Afshan, 130 m. E. Bokhara, lat. 35° 30' N., long. 68° 50' 15" E. Pop., according to Sir A. Burnes, about 10,000. The out-works are said to be about 30 m. in circ., enclosing gardens, parks, fields, and extensive suburbs: the inner wall surrounding the city is of earth, and has four gates. Samarcand has the appearance of having been magnificently built; but it is now in a decayed condition, and gardens, fields, and plantations, are the place of its numerous streets and mosques. There were formerly upwards of 200 mosques, many of which were of white marble; but most of these have become mere ruins. Of the 40 *medresas*, or Mohammedan colleges, only three are perfect, one of them forming the observatory of the celebrated Ulug Beg being extremely handsome, ornamented with bronze and enamelled bricks. Another college, called Sherard, is likewise of very beautiful architecture. The tomb of the famous Timour Bec, or Tamerlane, and his family, still remains; and the ashes of the emperor rest beneath a lofty dome, the walls of which are superbly adorned with Jasper and agate.

Samarcand has several bazars, and three large khans; but its commercial importance is all but extinguished: Bokhara having been for many years the great entrepôt of the caravan-traders, as well as the modern capital of the country. The ancient city, however, is still regarded with high veneration by the people, and till a king of Bokhara has annexed Samarcand to his rule, he is not viewed as a legitimate sovereign: indeed, his possession becomes the first object on the demise of one ruler and the accession of another. Paper, made of silk, is said to have been early manufactured at Samarcand; but ordinary paper is now supplied from Russia. The situation of the city has been deservedly praised by Asiatics, since it stands near low hills, in a country elsewhere plain and level. The climate is dry and healthy; good water is supplied from a great number of fountains, communicating by pipes with the river, and the neighbourhood furnishes abundance of fruit, and other supplies for the market.

Samarcand, which was taken in 1220 by Jenghis-khan from the sultan Mahomet, became under Timour the capital of one of the largest empires in the world, and the centre of Asiatic learning and civilization, at the same time that it rose to high distinction on account of its extensive commerce with all parts of Asia.

It was reunited to Bokhara by Abdullah at the close of the 16th century, since which it has gradually fallen to its present rank as a mere provincial town; and we may now search in vain for its ancient palaces, the beauty of which is illustrated by the Arab historians. (*Burnes's Bokhara*, ii. 270-273; *Hagenmeister sur l'Asie Occidentale; Ritter's Asien*, vol. v.; *Dict. Geog.*)

SAMBOER, a town of Austrian Poland, cap. circ. of same name, on the Danest, 44 m. S.W. Lemberg. Pop. nearly 10,000. (*Bergkass.*) It is tolerably well built, and has several R. Catholic and United Greek churches, a hospital, a criminal tribunal, mining court, salt intendency, gymnasium, &c. Its inhabs. are employed partly in the manufacture and bleaching of linens, and partly in making salt. Rhubarb is cultivated in the neighbourhood. (*Cent. Nat. Encycp.*)

SAMOS, a famous island of the Egean Sea, now belonging to Turkey, off the W. coast of Asia Minor, from which it is separated by the narrow strait called the

Little Bogan, only 2 m. across. It has on the N. the Gulf of Scla Nova, is about 30 m. in length, E. and W., by about 8 or 9 in mean breadth; Mount Kerkli, on its W. extremity (an *Catadactylus*, from its collecting clouds and generating thunder), being in lat. $37^{\circ} 43' 49''$ N., long. $26^{\circ} 39' 11''$ E. The pop. was estimated by Tournetfort at 12,000; Mr. Turner, a later, though inferior authority, estimates it at 60,000; but this, we have little doubt, was decidedly beyond the mark, even at the time when it was framed; and since the revolution in Greece, there has been a good deal of emigration from the island. A chain of mountains runs from one extremity of the island to the other: most of them are covered, as in antiquity, with forests of oaks and other timber, though in parts they are precipitous and bare. Tournetfort says that they consist principally of white marble. It has several pretty extensive valleys, especially on its S. shore, which, being well watered by streams from the hills, produce, even with the most deficient culture, excellent crops of wheat and other grain, with olives, figs, oranges, and other fruits, wine, silk, cotton, &c. In antiquity it was celebrated for its extraordinary fertility; it was then, also, cultivated with the utmost care, and the walls still exist which were built to form the sides of the mountains into terraces, and to facilitate their culture. (Tournetfort, l. 407.) It still continues to be the most productive island of the Archipelago. It annually exports considerable quantities of corn: from 25,000 to 30,000 cantars grapes, and about 15,000 barrels raisins. The only thing which Strabo did not admire in Samos was its wine (lib. xiv.); but Tournetfort says that when properly made, its muscad wine is very superior. Perhaps it was not produced in antiquity. Oil and valonia are also considerable articles of export. Wolves and other wild animals occasionally commit ravages among the oxen and sheep; poultry are excellent, and partridges exceedingly abundant. Exclusive of marble, it is said to furnish iron, lead, and even the precious metals.

Having voluntarily surrendered to the Turks, this island has been less harshly treated by them than most others in the Archipelago. It, however, zealously espoused the cause of the other Greeks during the revolutionary struggle; and, though it was assigned to the Sultan by the treaty which recognised the independence of Greece, the inhab. refused at first to submit to his officers. Previously to this event, the government of the island was substantially vested in three primates, chosen by the inhab. But this, if we may believe Mr. Turner, by whom the higher order of Sasanians are called "the most unprincipled miscreants in existence" (lib. ii.), would seem to have been no great boon. Besides being oppressed by the agents of the Sultan and the Primates, the island has, also, been seceded by a swarm of Caloyers, apas, and other Greek priests, whose only claim to live the public expense is, that they are able to repeat mass on memory. A considerable sum is remitted to the shop of Nicaria for his important service in blessing, once a year, the water and cattle of the inhabitants! (Tournetfort, l. 408.)

The present cap. of the island, called Khora, or Melikhora, is on its S. side, about 3 m. from the shore, on the lower extremities of a mountain, on the summit of which the citadel of the ancient city was situated. Though not without some good houses, it is a miserable town, having stony, steep, unpaved, and hardly passable streets. Vathi, on the N. side of the island, is larger than Khora, and has an excellent harbour; but it is a wretched place, with streets from 6 to 8 ft. in breadth, execrably paved and steep. (Turner, lib. 107.) Such is the present state of an island that, in antiquity, one of the most famous in the Egean Sea. Samos attained to great distinction. She was one of the most powerful of the states belonging to the Ionian confederacy; and was able, by means of her fleets, to maintain independence after Croesus and Cyrus had reduced the rest of Ion, on the Continent. The city of Samos, on the shore of the island, was extensive, and populous, highly fortified, and adorned with many noble public buildings. Among the other great works executed by the ancients, Herodotus specifies a tunnel, which they had dug through a mountain, to convey a supply of water to the city; an immense mole, constructed for the security of the harbour (of which the remains still exist), about 100 ft. in height, and which advanced in a curved line from the land into the sea; and the largest temple of which Herodotus had any knowledge. (Herod., lib. iii. 2.)

The temple to which the venerable historian alludes was dedicated to Juno, and stood a little to the W. of the city, near the Imbrasus. The island, indeed, was espoused to Juno, and was supposed to have been the place of her birth, and where she espoused Jupiter. says Virgil, speaking of Carthage, where the Gods also a temple—

The statue of the goddess in this temple was very ancient, having been the work of Smilla, a contemporary of Dædalus. Among other statues in and near the temple, were those of Jupiter, Minerva, and Hercules, by Myron, one of the most celebrated sculptors of antiquity. Mark Antony carried off these statues to Rome; but Augustus made those of Minerva and Hercules be returned to Samos, retaining only that of Jupiter.

The Hærean games, instituted in honour of Juno, called by the Greeks *Hæa*, were celebrated here with extraordinary splendour. Like other great temples, that of Juno was an asylum for all who implored the protection of the goddess; and Tacitus notices the arrival of deposites from Samos, at Rome, praying that the *secessus Asyli* might be confirmed. (Amm., iv. cap. 14.) The subsequent history of this famous edifice is but little known. It has, however, fallen a sacrifice to the ravages of time, or of barbarians, or both. When visited by Tournetfort, more than a century ago, portions of two columns were all that remained standing.

Among other things Samos was famous in antiquity for its pottery, which was everywhere in great request; and the art of manufacturing it is even said to have been discovered in this island.

The government of Samos experienced the mutations common to the governments of most Greek states. Originally it had kings, who were superseded by a mixed government, inclining sometimes to democracy, and sometimes to oligarchy; while occasionally it was subject to tyrants. Of the latter, the most celebrated is Polycrates, who attained to the sovereignty in the 6th century B.C. His object seems to have been to retain the government partly by force, partly by corrupting and reducing the inhabs., and partly by engaging them in schemes of foreign conquest. (Mitford's Greece, l. 480.) At a period subsequent to the death of Polycrates, who was investigated and crucified by the astrag of a neighbouring province, the Samians were attacked by the Athenians, under Pericles; who, after an obstinate struggle of 9 months' duration, succeeded in reducing their city; and at a somewhat later period it received a colony from Athens. During the contest between Mark Antony and Augustus, Samos was, for a while, the head quarters of the former and of Cleopatra, who kept court here with more than regal magnificence. After Augustus had become the master of the Roman world, he passed a winter in this island, which he restored to its freedom, and at the same time conferred on it other marks of his favour. It afterwards became subject to the Greek emperors; and finally, in the 16th century, to the Turks, under whose brutalising sway it has been reduced to the miserable state in which we now find it.

Of the many illustrious individuals that Samos has produced, Pythagoras is by far the most distinguished. The era of his birth is not quite ascertained, but it appears to have occurred about 560 years B.C. He early visited Egypt and other ancient seats of learning; but, on his return from his travels, being, as is said, dissatisfied with Polycrates, he emigrated to Magna Græcia, and founded at Crotona a school of philosophy, that speedily attained to the highest celebrity. Samos also gave birth to Rhæcus, said by Herodotus to have been the architect of the temple of Juno, to Theodoros the sculptor, and a host of others. Anacreon was among the distinguished guests invited by Polycrates to Samos.

The narrow strait between Samos and the mainland is famous in ancient history for the great victory gained in it and the adjacent promontory of Mycale, over the fleet and army of Xerxes, on the same day that the forces he had left in Greece, under Mardonius, were destroyed at Plataea. (Exclusive of the authors already referred to, see *Ancient Universal History*, viii. 259–284, and xiii. 510. 8vo ed.; *Anacharsis*, cap. 74.; *Paccioliati Lexicon*, voce Samos, &c.)

SANA, a city of Arabia, the cap. of Yemen, and the residence of the Imâm, in a valley from 6 to 9 m. in breadth, and 4,000 ft. above the level of the ocean, near the head of the Shab river, and about 180 m. N.N.E. Mocha. Exp., according to the estimate of Mr. Crutenden, in 1830, 40,000. The city is walled; and is also its suburb of Bir-el-Arab, which was open in Niebuhr's time. The city and suburb, together, are said to be 54 m. in circ. The walls are mounted with cannon, but these are in a very bad condition. At both the E. and W. extremities of the city is a castle, having each a palace of the Imâm. The streets of Sana are narrow, though broader than those of Mocha, and some other Arabian cities. A handsome stone bridge is thrown across the principal street, down which a stream of water runs in wet weather. Houses principally built of brick, with open holes for windows, closed when necessary with wooden shutters; but some belonging to the higher classes, have glass windows, beautifully stained. The palaces are built of hewn stone, plastered over with grey-coloured mortar. All the private resi-

dresses in Sana appear to be furnished with fountains. There are about 30 mosques, very elaborately adorned, many having their domes gilt, especially those in which are the tombs of the Imams. The public baths are both numerous and good; they are on the same plan as those of Egypt, and "a favourite resort of the merchants, who meet here to discuss the state of trade, and the news of the day over their cup of kashr, and their never-falling hookah."

A part of the city is appropriated to the Jews, who amount to about 3,000. Each pays about a dollar a year for permission to reside; and a sheikh is appointed, who is responsible for the regular payment of this impost, and of the heavy taxes laid upon their vineyards, gardens, &c. The Jews subsist chiefly by the sale of silver ornaments, gunpowder, and spirituous liquors, and many by working as common artisans, such as shoemakers, &c. There are also many Hindoos among the population, who, like the Jews, are obliged to conceal as much as possible the property they possess, for fear of exaction. The Mohammedan merchants are generally wealthy, and live in good style. The principal trade of Sana is in coffee, the city being in the heart of the coffee country of Yemen. The article is brought into the market in Dec. and Jan., and considerable quantities of it are retained in the warehouses. It is, however, little used for home consumption, the favourite beverage being *kashr*, an infusion of the husk. The coffee-husk accordingly fetches here the higher price of the two, from 4 to 12 dollars per 100 lbs. being paid for it. Very fine silk goods, spices, sugar, &c., are exposed for sale in the bazaars. The imports are principally piece goods and Persian tobacco; with dates, and a great quantity of thread, or rather twist for weaving. Glass is in great request, and is principally supplied from Egypt. The import duties at Sana are so slight as to be almost nominal.

The climate is too dry to be healthy; rain seldom falls, and famine appears to be a frequent result. Some inscriptions, supposed to be in the ancient Himyari character, have been discovered here (see *Geog. Journal*, vii. 267.), but travellers have hitherto found few, or no other antiquities. The greater part of the fortifications, and an aqueduct now ruined are said to have been the work of the Turks, who held the sovereignty of the country till about two centuries ago. (*Cruise, in Geog. Journal*, vii.; *Niebuhr, Voyage en Arabie*, &c.)

SANDWICH, a cinque-port, mun. corp. par. bor. of England, co. Kent, lathe St. Augustine, hund. Eastry, on the Stour, about 2 m. from its mouth, and 65 m. E. by S. London. Area of town and port, 1,960 acres. Pop., in 1841, 2,912. The par. bor. however comprises, with the foregoing, the pars. of Deal and Walmer, and the extra-parochial hamlet of St. Bartholomew, having an aggregate area of 3,810 acres, and a pop., in 1841, of 11,194. Sandwich is divided into the three pars. of St. Mary, St. Peter, and St. Clements. It was washed on the N.E. by the river Stour, and surrounded on every other side by a dyke, the remains of its old fortification. It is irregularly built, and has a more ancient appearance than, perhaps, any other town in the county. The streets are well paved, and lighted, and the inhabs. are supplied with excellent water from the river, and from a spring which rises near the Eastry, and is brought to the town by a canal, 3 m. in length. St. Clement's church is a spacious building, with a massive tower of Norman architecture rising from four semi-circular arches in the centre of the building, and supported on strong piers. In some parts it is curiously ornamented. The living is a vicarage, with a net income of 310*l.* a year. St. Mary's is also a vicarage, worth 117*l.* a year nett. Both the foregoing pars. are in the gift of the archdeacon of Canterbury. St. Peter's is a rectory, in the gift of the crown and the corporation of Sandwich alternately, worth 144*l.* a year nett. There are places of worship for Independents and Wesleyans; two hospitals, one founded in the 12th century, and accommodating 16 residents, who must be free-men; the guildhall, built in 1579, and a new house of correction, comprise most of the remaining public buildings. The free grammar school of Sandwich was founded in the reign of Elizabeth, and received considerable endowments in lands in 1563. Its governors are the mayor and corporation; it has four scholarships in Lincoln College, Oxford, of which two are in the appointment of the governors of the school, and two in that of the rector and fellows of the college; and four in Caius College, Cambridge, nominated in a similar manner. It has, also, a national school and other charities. The town has been for several years in a depressed and declining state. It has no manufactures, and its trade is trifling, consisting principally in the importation of coal for the use of the town and neighbouring country. The scheme of straightening the course of the Stour to the sea so as to form a canal, has been abandoned for want of capital and enterprise. (*Munic. Board. Rep.*)

Sandwich was first incorporated by Edward III. Its corporation consists of 4 aldermen and 12 councillors,

styled the mayor, jurats, and communality of the town and port. Their jurisdiction extends over Ramsgate, Sarr, and Walmer, and did formerly over Deal, which are all members of this cinque-port. Sandwich has, however, no commission of the peace, except upon petition or grant. It has sent 2 mems., usually styled barons, to the H. of C. since the 4th of Edw. III. Previously to the Reform Act, the right of voting was in the freemen, resident and non-resident, the freedom being acquired by birth, gift, marriage, apprenticeship, ownership, and residence. Registered electors in the new par. bor., in 1848-50, 988; corp. revenue, in 1847-8, 3,348*l.*

Sandwich, formerly called Landswich, appears to have risen into consequence, on the decline of Richborough, the an. *Ralswipum*, about the 6th century. It was long a place of considerable trade, and continued, till a comparatively late period, to be a kind of out-port to London, many goods being conveyed by land to and from the capital. Markets, Wednesday and Saturday; fair, Dec. 4., for clothing, &c. (*Mun. and Board. Reports*, &c.)

SANDWICH ISLANDS. See POLYNESIA.
SANGHAR, a royal and par. bor. of Scotland, co. Dumfriesshire, in the valley of the Nith, and near the left bank of that river on the road from Dumfries to Ayr, 28 m. N.W. the former. Pop., in 1841, 1,700. It consists principally of a main street along the line of the high road. It has a town-hall, with a tower and clock, a handsome par. church, built in 1832, a Free church, 3 chapels in connexion with the Associated Secession Church, and a chapel for Anabaptists; with a parochial and other schools, a subscription library, a savings' bank, &c. The inhabs. are principally dependent on the weaving of cottons, and on the sewing and embroidery of muslins for the Glasgow manufacturers. There is an extensive carpet manufacture at Crawick Mill, about 1 m. from the town.

Sanghar seems to have derived its origin from its fine old castle, now in ruins. This, which formerly belonged to the lords of Sanghar, having been purchased in 1600 by an ancestor of the last duke of Queensberry, became, on the demise of the latter, with other vast possessions in Dumfriesshire, the property of the family of Buccleugh. It was created a royal bor. in 1806, and is united with Dumfries, Annan, Lochmaben, and Kirkcudbright in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1848-50, 51. Corporation revenue, in 1848-9, 18*l.* Councillors, 17. (*New Statistical Account of Scotland*, art. Sanghar; and *Official Returns*.)

SANTA CRUZ. (See TENESSIFE.)
SANTANDER (an. *Fortus Blendum*), a city and sea-port on the N. coast of Spain, cap. prov. of its own name on the W. side of the bay of the same name, running into the Bay of Biscay, 50 m. W.N.W. Bilbao. Pop., acc. to Milano, 18,716. It is built on the slope of a hill, and has wide streets lined with tolerably respectable houses, the principal public edifices being the cathedral, 2 par. churches, and 3 hospitals. Few of these, however, possess any architectural merit; and Captain Cook, an intelligent traveller, states, that "Santander is almost the only place in Spain of similar magnitude, where no artist in any department has left a memorial of his skill." (*Sketches in Spain*, i. 76.) It is a thriving town, however, with a considerable number of new houses, very unusual in Spain; and it is the chief sea-port of Old Castile, it having been the principal object of the government for some years back to make it one of the principal marts for the supply of Madrid. It has a large trade with Cuba, to which it sends the wheat of Castile, large mills being erected in the neighbourhood for converting it into flour previous to embarkation. The exportation of wool is at present shared with Bilbao; but when the roads are completed, it will have the superiority over that port from its greater proximity to the wool-bearing districts. There are iron-mines in the neighbouring mountains; but, owing to the disturbed state of the country for some years past, they have been little wrought. The *astilleros*, or building establishment of the marine, formerly much employed, is now almost in ruins; and the forests of the Montaña, which once supplied Spain with nearly all the timber for the navy, are now seldom used, except for the supply of fuel. The harbour of Santander is large, well sheltered, easily accessible, and sufficiently deep for all trading vessels. The vicinity produces an abundance of wheat and other grains, fruits of several varieties, and large quantities of cattle; the coast also swarming with salmon and other kinds of fish. (*Cook's Sketches*, i. 75-78.; *Milano*, &c.)

SANTAREM (an. *Præsidium Julium*) a river-port and town of Portugal, formerly the residence of the court, prov. Estremadura, cap. comarca, on the Tagus, 45 m. N.W. Lisbon. Pop. estimated at 5,000. It is built on a hill, and consists of 3 separate parts; the Maravilla on the summit, the Ribera on the E. declivity, and the Alfange on the W. and S., descending to the river's bank, and commanded by the fortress of Alcanaba. Only

a few portions of its old walls remain. It is well built, and has some good public edifices; but these are much neglected, and several have almost fallen to ruin since the removal of the court to Lisbon, in the 16th century. Besides numerous churches and convents, Santorini has several hospitals and asylums, and two Latin schools; and it is the seat of the Patriarchal seminary, the highest ecclesiastical establishment in the kingdom. Its environs are fertile, and well cultivated, and it has an active trade with Lisbon. (*Dict. Géog.* &c.)

SANTORINI (*m. Thera*), an island of the *Ægean Sea*, belonging to the *S. Cyclades*, 65 m. N.N.E. from the nearest point of Crete, Mount St. Elias, the highest point of the island, being in lat. $35^{\circ} 30' 45''$ N., long. $25^{\circ} 28' 9''$ E. Pop. 12,000. This island is shaped like a crescent, or rather bow-shoe, the concave side to the W., forming a bay, sheltered by the islands *Therasia*, *Aspronisi*, &c. The island has a dismal appearance from the sea, consisting wholly of black volcanic rocks, without wood, rivers, or rivulets; but it has, notwithstanding, some very fertile districts, the decomposed volcanic rocks and ashes supplying a fruitful soil, which being carefully cultivated, produces corn, cotton, and large supplies of wine. The inhab. have no water, other than that which they collect in cisterns; and the calcined rock, being of a light consistency, the houses are rather excavated in it than built. Pyrgos in the centre of the island near the seat of the ancient Thera, and Scario, on the coast of the bay, are the only towns of any consequence. The inhab. are very industrious; and have sustained little other inconvenience from the Turkish dominion except that of paying the tribute due to the Porte.

It was the general opinion of the ancients, that this island, and others in its vicinity, had been thrown up from the bottom of the sea; and Piny says that his event occurred in the 4th year of the 13th Olympiad. (*Hist. Nat.* lib. ii. cap. 37.) No doubt; however, his date is erroneous as it appears from Herodotus that the island was inhabited 1,560 years B.C., or 1313 years before the epoch assigned by Piny for its appearance. (*Herod.*, lib. iv. caps. 147, 148, and 151.) Probably, unless the date given by Piny be vitiated, he may have referred to some eruption that had occasioned an enlargement of the island. The convulsions of which it is so anciently the theatre, have not been suspended in more modern times; a new island having been thrown near its coast in 1573, and another in 1707, each being caused by a violent volcanic eruption. The antiquity it was called *Caliste*, or the beautiful, an epithet it never could have been applied to it, had its appearance then been at all like that which it now exhibits. The ruins of its ancient city, Thera, on the hill now called St. Elias, evince its extent and magnificence. (*Narrat.* i. 261., &c.; *Sonnini's Greece and Turkey*, &c. Eng. trans.; *Herodote per Larcher*; *Tab. g. art. Thera*, &c.)

ANTOS, a town and sea-port of Brazil, prov. St. I., in a low and unhealthy situation on the N. side of island St. Vincent 35 m. from the S. E. of Paul, lat. $16^{\circ} 15' 8''$ S., long. $49^{\circ} 0' 18''$ W. Santos is a place of considerable trade, being the storehouse of the great slaving of S. Paulo, and the resort of many vessels to the Rio de la Plata. It is tolerably well built; its pop., consisting chiefly of merchants, shoppers, and artificers, amounts to 5,000 or 7,000. (*See*, p. 83.) The pop. has, however, increased mainly since the publication of Mawe's work. Several streams flowing from the mountains unite in one great little above the town. The port is formed by the indent and the island St. Amaro. There are two bays, but that of the S. is alone navigable by large ships; the other, which is formed by the river Berbeing fit only for small craft. The harbour admits of large burden, which are sheltered from all winds; those from the S. S.W. round to the S. E. A is not absolutely necessary on entering. "In going into the river Santos, you will have 10, 9, 8, and 7 m. water, until you near the bar, upon which are only from 4 to 5 fathoms; the entrance is narrow, the starboard side is the S. E. 84. Paul, lat. 16 m. water close to the shore. After passing the *arra-grande*, the water deepens to 15 and 16 fathoms within 12 fathoms of the shore. The best anchorage will be abreast nearly of the centre of the 17 fathoms, on a bottom of mud. Provisions are at, and good water may be obtained by sending about 7 m. farther up the river." (*Blunt's Sailing* &c.) The part called the Narrows is defended by a battery.

At the commencement of Santos will not bear to be compared with that of Rio de Janeiro, it is very considerable. It has lately been decreasing. The imports are to those of Rio, which see. Being, as it were, of St. Paul's, an extensive intercourse is carried on with the latter. We subjoin

AN ACCOUNT OF THE EXPORTS OF SUGAR FROM SANTOS during the three Seasons ending with 1830-40.

Shipped for	1830-1840.	1835-1839.	1837-1839.	1836-1837.
Europe	Arrebes, 176,000	Arrebes, 130,000	Arrebes, 12,000	Arrebes, 31,000
River Plate	165,500	74,000	108,500	929,000
Ports of Brazil	180,250	26,500	48,000	145,000
Venezuela	162,000	101,000	65,500	140,000
United States	100,000	50,500	15,000	7,000
Total	624,750	397,100	249,000	550,000

SAONE (HAUTE), a *dép.* of France, reg. E.; between lat. $47^{\circ} 18'$ and $48^{\circ} 30'$ N., and long. $5^{\circ} 35'$ and $7^{\circ} 20'$ E., having N. the *déps.* Vosges, E. Haut-Rhin, S. Doubs, and W. Côte-d'Or and Haute-Marne. Length, N.E. and S.W. about 70 m., breadth varying from 25 to 40 m. Area, 630,980 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 347,095. In the N. and E. are the Vosges mountains, and their ramifications. The general slope is to the S.W., in which direction the Saône traverses the *dép.* throughout its centre. The Oignon forms its S.E. boundary. There is a considerable extent of rich soil. In 1824, the arable lands were supposed to comprise 256,108 hectares, meadows 86,928 do., vineyards 11,769 do., and woods 184,230 do. Agriculture has made some progress within the present century; but it is still very backward. The produce of corn, pulse, &c., exceeds the demand for home consumption. Wheat, oats, and barley, are the principal crops. In 1835, according to the official returns, nearly 1,830,000 hectol. of grain of all kinds were harvested, besides about 1,000,000 do. potatoes. The vineyards form a principal source of wealth. The produce may be estimated at about 350,000 hectol. a year. The wines of Ray, Charley, Navenne, Quincy, Gy, and Champillet-le-Château, are the best; they have a fine colour, body, and bouquet, and may be kept for a long time. On peas les comestibles comme les bons vins d'ordinaire de très-bonne qualité. (Jullien, p. 135.)

Near the Vosges, large quantities of cherries are grown for the manufacture of *kirchwasser*. Timber is an important product; and the annual produce of wool is estimated at 130,000 kilogr. In 1835, of 129,212 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 67,334 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 20,485 at from 5 to 10 fr.; while only 91 were assessed at 1,000 fr. and upwards. In minerals, this *dép.* is one of the richest in France. Its iron forges employ about 5,000 hands; and bar iron, iron plates, and wire, steel, and various iron goods are made to the annual value of 14,000,000 fr. Glass and earthenware, cotton goods, paper, and hats, are also produced: the exports are, however, mostly confined to agricultural products, and iron goods. Haute-Saône is subdivided into three arrond.: chief towns, Vesont, the cap., Gray and Lure. It sends four mems. to the Ch. of *Dép.* Registered electors, in 1838-39, 1,062. Total public revenue (1831) 7,861,563 fr. According to Hugo, "Les habitants de la Haute Saône ayant été moins mêlés avec les conquérants francs ou bourguignons que ceux d'autres parties de la France, restent encore assez étrangers par leur extérieur, l'ancienne race Gauloise ou le peuple Gallo-romain." (Hugo, art. Haute Saône; French Official Tables.)

SAONE-ET-LOIRE, a *dép.* of France, reg. E. principally between the 46th and 47th *décs.* of N. lat., and long. $3^{\circ} 40'$ and $5^{\circ} 30'$ E., having N. Côte d'Or, E. Jura and Ain, S. Rhone and Loire, and W. Allier and Nievre. Area, 856,473 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 565,019. The E. and W. parts of the *dép.* are level; the centre is mountainous, the mountains dividing the basins of the Loire and the Saône. These two rivers are, however, united in this *dép.* by the canal du Centre. Nearly half the surface consists of a rich and fertile soil. In 1824, the arable lands were supposed to comprise 456,323 hectares, meadows 126,655 do., vineyards 17,936 do., and woods 150,694 do. The produce of corn exceeds what is required for the consumption of the *dép.*: in 1835, 2,568,000 hectolitres, principally wheat and rye, are said to have been harvested, besides 2,250,000 hectolitres potatoes; which last form the staple food of the inhab. of the mountains. Some of the vineyards in this *dép.*, especially those in the arrond. of Chalon-sur-Saône, produce wine that ranks in the first class of Burgundy. The wines produced in the other districts are known in commerce by the name of *vins de Mâcon*. They are excellent as *vins ordinaires*, but cannot be compared with the first-rate growths. Jullien says that their proper place is in the second class of burgundies, immediately after the finest growths of Beaune; and that they are *en général corrés, spiritueux, quelquefois trop fumeux, et toujours agréables* (p. 131.) The produce of wine is estimated at about 500,000 hectol. The arrond. Charolais has some fine pastures; and, in 1830, the *dép.* was supposed to possess 250,000 head of cattle, and 405,000 sheep, being a much larger stock than in any of the neighbouring *déps.* A great number of hogs are reared. In 1835, of 129,212 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 70,987 were

assessed at less than 5 fr., 26,306 at from 5 to 10 fr., and 22,247 at from 10 to 20 fr.; and 269 at 1,000 fr. and upwards. Coal, iron, manganese, and marble are raised; the glass and iron works and potteries are important. The commerce of the *dép.* centres principally in Chalons-sur-Saône. This *dép.* is divided into five arrondis.; chief towns, Mâcon, the cap., Autun, Charolles, Chalons, and Louhans. It sends 7 mems. to the Chamber of Deputies. Registered electors, 1838-39, 3,343. (*Dict. Géog. French Official Tables*.)

SARAGOSSA, ZARAGOZA (an *Cæsarea Augusta*), a city of Spain, kingdom of Aragon, prov. of its own name, in a fine plain on the Ebro, crossed here by two bridges, 87 m. S.E. Pampeluna, 166 m. W. by N. Barcelona, and 176 m. E.N.E. Madrid; lat. 41° 40' N., long. 42° 45' W. Pop., according to Mifano, 43,440. The limits of the town are marked by a wall partly of turf and partly of stone; and there are 8 principal and 2 smaller gates. It is divided into 4 quarters and 2 suburbs, comprising upwards of 300 long, narrow, ill-paved, and dirty streets; indeed, there is only one wide street, in the whole city, viz. the *Corsu*, which sweeps round the outside circ. of the town on the land side, connecting the market-place and the Ebro. (*Cook's Sketches in Spain*, i. 108.) The houses, generally speaking, are of brick, and 3 stories high; but few of them have any pretensions to architectural display. The town has an immense number of churches, 3 of which are cathedrals, thus characterised by Mr. Townsend:—"That called *El Aca* is vast, gloomy, and magnificent, exciting devotion, inspiring awe, and inclining the worshipper to fall prostrate and adore in silence the God who seems to veil his glory; the other, called *El Pilar*, being spacious, lofty, light, elegant, and cheerful, inspires hope, confidence, complacency, and makes the soul impatient to express its gratitude for benefits received." (*Spain*, i. 306.) This church, however, was nearly destroyed during the siege in 1808-09; and several of the other churches and convents were then also destroyed. The chapter of the united cathedrals comprises an archbishop, dean, 12 dignitaries, and 30 canons. Among the numerous other churches, 16 of which are parochial, that of *Santa Engracia* first drew notice on account of its valuable paintings, sculptures, &c.; and the conventual church of St. Domingo, in the *plaza* of the same name, is remarkable for a fine altar-piece and mausoleum of white marble. There are 5 *hospicios*, or public almshouses, one of which, the *Casa de Misericordia*, has accommodation for 700 sick and aged persons of both sexes, and another affords a refuge for upwards of 1,000 orphans and foundlings. The exchange, near the *Puerta del Angel*, is an antique-looking, square building, ornamented with busts of the kings of Aragon, enclosing a spacious hall supported by 50 Doric columns, contiguous to which is the session-hall of the *ayuntamiento*. There are two sets of barracks, and in the suburbs are several extensive and well-planted walks. A little W. of the city is the fortress of Aljaferia, so called from its founder, the Moorish king Ben-Aljaf, who made it his palace. A university was founded here on the expulsion of the Moors, in 1118, but was not incorporated till 1474: it was well attended at the close of the last century, but is now comparatively deserted. Among the other establishments may be mentioned, a royal economic society, with professors of chemistry and agriculture, botany, rural economy, &c.; a royal academy of the fine arts, a public library, and a *monje de piedad*. The manufacturing industry of Saragossa, once very considerable, has all but fallen to decay; the only manufactures, at present, being those of coarse woollen cloths, parchment, shoes, and leather. The town enjoys also considerable advantages for commerce, owing to its position in the midst of a fertile country, and on the canal of Aragon, which runs from near Tudela to Sagago: its trade, however, is confined chiefly to the transport of grain to Tortosa in exchange for articles of home consumption.

"On the whole, Saragossa may be said to be on the decline, like all the provincial caps., many of the old families having gone to hide their poverty at Madrid; and many magnificent houses, on a scale not exceeded any where in Spain, are now let out in tenements. Provisions of all sorts, corn, wine, oil, mutton, game, and vegetables, are cheap, abundant, and excellent, this being probably the best country for living in Spain. The people, generally, are civil and polished, as in all the old cities; but the lower classes have a bad reputation, and assassinations are said to be common. The peasants of the environs wear a Moorish costume, like those of Valencia, and in manners they are ruder and more ferocious-looking than almost any other peasantry of the Peninsula." (*Cook's Sketches*, i. 111.)

The climate is temperate and healthy, though somewhat damp; the neighbourhood produces good crops of wheat, barley, and maize, kidney-beans and other vegetables, wine, oil, fruits, and silk. The neighbouring hills depasture great numbers of sheep, chiefly belonging to the *ganaderos* or sheep-grazers of Sar-

gossa, an old and highly privileged association. (*Townsend*, i. 306-312; *Cook's Sketches*, i. 108-111; *Modern Trav.*; *Mifano*, &c.)

Saragossa is very ancient, being said to have been founded by the Phœnicians or Carthaginians. It was greatly enlarged by Julius Cæsar, who made it the head quarters of the veteran legion; and Augustus gave it the name of *Cæsarea Augusta*, with the privileges of a free colony. Of its Roman buildings, however, which, according to Strabo, must have been numerous and handsome, there are scarcely any vestiges. Towards the close of the 5th century it was taken by the Goths, who were expelled in 713 by the Saracens; and at length, in 1017, it was made the cap. of a separate Moorish state. A century afterwards it was besieged and taken by Alphonso of Aragon; and it was subsequently united to the kingdom of Castile. But it is principally known in modern history from the obstinate resistance made by its inhabitants, under Palafox, in 1808-9 to the French, commanded successively by Marshal Mortier and Lannes. The siege lasted with some slight intermissions, from July 15, 1808, to Feb. 21, 1809; when, after a loss of about 6,000 men killed in battle, and of above 30,000 men, women, and children carried off by hunger, pestilence, and the fanatical excesses that raged in the unfortunate city, it surrendered to the French. General Napier's account of this famous siege has stripped it of more than half the romance with which it was early invested in this country. The "heroic" Palafox "for more than a month preceding the surrender never came forth of a vaulted building which was impervious to shells, and in which there is too much reason to believe, that he and others, of both sexes, lived in a state of sensuality, forming a disgusting contrast to the wretchedness that surrounded them." (*Napier*, ii. 49. 3d edit.) In obstinacy, fanaticism and savage cruelty, the Saragossans seem to have borne a striking resemblance to the Jews besieged by Titus. The loss of the French in the siege did not exceed 4,000 men.

SARANSK, a town of European Russia, gov. and dist. Penza, on both sides the Saranga near the Isnar, 70 m. N. by E. Penza. Pop. 8,730. Most of its houses are of wood; it has here, however, two cathedrals, nearly a dozen other churches, a convent, various manufacturing establishments, and a large annual fair. (See, also, PENZA.)

SARATOP, an extensive government of European Russia, between the 48th and 53d degs. N. lat., and the 42d and 50th E. long., having N. the gov. of Penza and Simbirsk, E. that of Orenbourg, S.E. and S. Astrakhan, and W. Tambov, Voroneje, and the country of the Don Cossacks. Length, and greatest breadth, about 350 m. each. Area estimated at about 73,500 sq. m. Pop., in 1846, 1,718,500. The Wolga intersects it from N. to S., dividing it into two portions of nearly equal size, but differing considerably in general character. The E. division is a wide steppe, destitute of wood, and covered in many parts with salt lakes, from one of which 10 million poods of salt are said to be annually obtained. The W. division is in part hilly, and though stony towards the S., has some tolerably fertile tracts in the N., where agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabitants. Rye, wheat, oats, millet, and pease, are raised, and in ordinary years the produce, after supplying the demand for home consumption, leaves a considerable quantity for exportation. Potatoes, flax, and hemp, are also produced, and the cultivation of tobacco, hops, and wood, has been introduced by German and other colonists. The climate, in some situations, is sufficiently mild for the culture of the melon, grape, and mulberry. The principal forest trees are oaks, poplars, Siberian acacias, and firs. The woods are mostly in the N.W.; and those belonging to the crown are estimated at about 418,500 decatiines; but the supply of timber is not adequate to the home demand. The raising of live stock is conducted on a large scale; and the more wealthy proprietors are endeavouring to improve the breed of sheep, by the introduction of Merino flocks. The rearing of bees and of silkworms is on the increase. The fisheries in the Wolga furnish large supplies of fish, both for home consumption and exportation. Next to salt, mill-stones and a little iron are the chief mineral products.

The population is very mixed, including Tartars and Kirghizes, and on the Wolga are numerous colonies, founded principally by German and other immigrants from W. Europe, originally attracted thither by grants of land, and privileges conferred by the empress Catharine, in 1763. In 1811, their numbers amounted to about 55,000; and in 1838, they are said to have increased to nearly 118,000. The colonists are free, and in most respects subject only to their own jurisdiction. They conduct the most important manufactures of the government, which consist of linen, cotton, and woollen fabrics, hosiery, iron ware, leather, and earthenware. There are numerous flour-mills and distilleries. This government is favourably situated for commerce: it contains

sitates by the Volga with the Nijni-Novgorod and the Caspian Sea, and by the Medveditsa and Don, with the Sea of Azof. The Tatars have a large trade in sheepskins, and the Kalmaiks in horses of a very fleet, though weak breed. About 5,000 merchants, trading in corn, salt, fish, caviar, cattle, tobacco, and fruits, had a few years since an aggregate capital of 11,175,000 roubles. Saratof is divided into 10 districts; chief towns Saratof, Volk, and Tsaritayne. The population are mostly divided among the Greek, Protestant, and Mohammedan religions. Education, except in the schools of the colonists, and of the capital town, is at a very low ebb; and in 1830 there was but one printing-press in the government.

Saratof a town of Russia in Europe, cap. of the above gov., on the Volga, 335 m. S.E. Nijni-Novgorod, and 360 m. N.W. Astrakhan. Lat. 51° 31' 34" N., long. 46° E. The pop. (including military), according to the official accounts, exceeds 35,000; but this is believed to be beyond the mark. It consists of an upper and lower town; but, though founded so late as 1655, it is neither regularly laid out nor well built. It has some good and even handsome stone residences; but most of its houses are of wood, and it has frequently been in great part destroyed by fire. There are about a dozen Greek-Russian churches, some convents, a Protestant and a R. Catholic church, a mosque, and a *gostinits-dvor*, or bazaar, a large stone building for the warehousing, exhibition, and sale of merchandise. Since 1833, a new and handsome archbishop's palace has been constructed; and there are several hospitals, a gymnasium, and an ecclesiastical seminary, established in 1828, and having at present (1841) about 500 students. The inhabs. manufacture cotton fabrics, cotton and silk stockings, cloaks and watches, ether, war lights, tallow, vinegar, beer, &c. Saratof, which is intermediate between Astrakhan, on one hand, and Moscow and Nijni-Novgorod on others, has an extensive trade, its exports being principally corn, salt, fish, hides, cattle, and native manufactured goods; and its imports, tea, coffee, sugar, iron, glass, and earthenware, cotton, silk, and cotton stuff, peltry, &c. It has three annual fairs. (*Schmidler, La Russie; Poesart, as Kaiserth, Russland*, p. 591—616.)

SARATOGA SPRINGS, the great watering place of the U. States, in the state of New York, co. Saratoga, 34 m. N.W. Albany. Resident pop. in 1840, 2,500. This incorporated village consists of a fine broad street fringed with trees, and has many large and excellent hotels, a Wesleyan church, post-office, and numerous boarding-uses. The springs, which came into repute through the Indians in 1767, are spread over a tract 13 m. across, and the most celebrated, was discovered in 1792. A gallon of its water holds in solution 385 grains of sea-salt; 3.5 do. hydrochloric acid; 8.983 do. carbonate soda; 93.788 do. bi-carbonate magnesia; 10. carbonate lime; 5 do. carbonate iron; and 1.5 do. x. Above 1,500 people have been known to arrive in a week, coming from all parts of the states, even a New Orleans, a distance of between 3,000 and 3,000 during the winter season in the S. States. A profitable trade is carried on by the proprietors in several springs in the water, which is bottled and to distant parts. The spring water loses its purity, however, and its iron is entirely deposited, by too long kept in bottles.

The vicinity of Saratoga is especially interesting, from the scene of one of the leading events in the independence, the surrender of General Burgoyne, the British troops under his command, to General H. 17th Oct. 1777. (*New York Gaz.; Stuart's America*, 189, 190.)

SARDINIA (Ital. *Sardegna*, Fr. *Sardaigne*, an. *Ich* from its resemblance to the print of a foot, *post via*), an island of S. Europe, and next to Sicily, it nearly equals in size, the largest in the Mediterranean. It lies principally between the 39th and 48th of N. lat., and the 8th and 10th of E. long., separated from Corsica on the N. by the Strait of Cio. It is of an oblong form; length, N. and S., 160 m.; average breadth, about 60 m.; area with adjacent islands, 9,240 sq. m. Pop., in 1844, 548,307. Sardinia differs from Corsica in being more diversified, richer, and richer in minerals. A large proportion of its surface is hilly or mountainous. The principal chains extend from N. to S., at no great distance from the E. coast; but in various parts of the here are ranges of considerable length stretching in opposite direction. The general elevation of the island is from 1,000 to 3,000 ft.; the peak of Limone, however, is 3,686 ft., and that of Gergentiu, in N. of that name (the *Insani Montes* of antiquity), in height, an altitude which enables the people to trade in snow for the consumption of the (*Smyth's*, p. 67.)

There are many extensive plains, the principal being Ozieri and Sassari in the N., that watered by the Tiri, and the *Campidano*, between

Ozieri and Cagliari, in the S. The Tiri, Flumenco, Coginas, Mannu, &c., flowing through these plains, are considerable rivers; the minor *campi* are watered by numerous small streams. Around the coasts are many lagoons, and several considerable bays, as those of Cagliari, Oristano, Sassari, Oriseli, &c.

The mountain-chains of Sardinia and Corsica have a similar formation, being composed of granite, schist, primitive limestone, &c. Through the centre of Sardinia, from N. to S., extends a remarkable tertiary formation of a calcareous nature; and various volcanic products are scattered over this formation, while the traces of extinct craters are visible in many parts of the island. Earthquakes, however, are rare; nor are storms frequent, though the climate is proverbially variable as to temperature. According to Capt. Smyth the mean temperature of the year, at the level of the sea, may be taken at 61.7 Fah., and the medium height of the barometer at 29.69.

Extensive districts are very unhealthy, and in antiquity the island was celebrated alike for the excellence of its soil and the badness of its air. *Sardinia fertilis, et soli quam casti melioris; atque ut fecunda, hic pene pestilens.* (Pomp. Mela, lib. ii. cap. 7.) "The intemperance, as the malaric is here called, appears to be somewhat different from the malaric of Italy and Sicily; for though equally, or even more acrimonious in effect, it does not always produce the swelled bodies and sallow skins which are the symptoms of the latter. Both diseases usually commence when the summer heat, assisted by light showers, disengages the impure gases from the low grounds, and continue until the latter end of November, when heavy rains have precipitated the miasma, and purified the air. But they differ, inasmuch as malaria is generally supposed to be weak in its effects unless imbibed during sleep; whereas intemperance, though worst at night, is pernicious at all times." (*Smyth's Sicilia*, p. 82.) The chief source of insalubrity appears to consist in the exhalations from the numerous marshes and stagnant pools of the plains, and might, therefore, it may be fairly concluded, be greatly abated by a proper system of drainage. Fire is said to be a powerful antidote against the evil; and the lords of Oristano were formerly accustomed to light large fires round the town, which had the effect either of rarefying or destroying the mephitic vapours.

Notwithstanding her extent, the richness of her soil, her position in the centre of the Mediterranean, and her convenient harbours, Sardinia has been strangely neglected, not only by her own governments, but by the European powers generally; and has remained, down to our own times, in a semi-barbarous state. A long series of wars and revolutions, followed by the establishment of the feudal system in its most vexatious and oppressive form; the fact of her having been for a lengthened period a dependency of Spain, and, if that were possible, worse governed even than the dominant country; the division of the island into immense estates, most of which were acquired by Spanish grandees; the want of seas and the restrictions on industry have paralysed the industry of the inhabs., and sunk them to the lowest point in the scale of civilisation. Since 1760, however, improvements of various kinds have been slowly, but gradually gaining ground; and, within the last few years, several important and substantial reforms have been introduced, that will, it is to be hoped, conspire to raise this fine island from the abyss into which it has been cast by bad laws and bad government.

Besides that portion of the island occupied by lakes and marshes, there are large sandy or stony districts, called *macchie*, which comprise, in the aggregate, more than 1-3d part of the island; a similar extent may be assigned to forests and pastures; the remaining portion of the surface being laid out in corn-fields, vineyards, olive-grounds, orchards, gardens, &c. About 1-5th part of the cultivated land is supposed to be allotted to the growth of corn, which, even under the present system of agriculture, is said to give a return of 7 or 8 for 1; and, in some favoured districts, the average is said by Smyth to amount from 16 to 30 for 1. Of the capacity of the island for producing the most luxuriant crops of corn, there can, indeed, be no manner of doubt. In antiquity, Sardinia was reckoned, along with Sicily, the granary of Rome. "*Siciliam et Sardiniam benignissimas urbes nostre nutritricas.*" (Val. Max., lib. vi. cap. 6.)

Utrique frugiferis et insula nobilis arvis.
Nec plus Hisperiam longinquos mœnibus ullis,
Nec Romanæ magis compleret horrea terre.

Lucan, lib. iii. 66.

But the unfavourable political and municipal regulations under which the island has latterly been placed, have gone far to neutralise the advantages it owes to nature. The agriculturists of Sardinia principally consist of two great classes — those who cultivate small farms on the *metayer* principle, and those who work on the estates of others, getting, in most instances, a patch of land for their support, and cultivating it at such times as they

are not employed on the lord's lands. Both classes are excessively poor. The agreements under which the former class hold are seldom for more than a year; the landlord furnishing the seed as well as the land, and receiving half the produce. Those who occupy land for which they are obliged to pay a rent in corn, or other feudal services, are, if possible, still worse off; having usually to borrow the seed either from the landlord or from the *Monti Frumentarii* established for that purpose, and having also to defray the tithe and a host of other burdens. Another disadvantage, under which all classes labour, is the want of houses on their farms: the peasants live together in villages, and have frequently to perform a journey of several miles in going to and coming from their farms. Probably, also, this may, in some degree, account for the frequent change of occupancies by the Sardinian peasants; though, as Marmora has truly observed, their circumstances be rarely improved by such changes.

Lands belonging to a canton or commune are frequently cultivated on a kind of partnership system, being divided into three portions: one of these, called *vidaxzone*, comprises all the lands that are in cultivation, and which are distributed by lot among certain individuals, while the other two portions are occupied in common as pasture. But, as a new distribution takes place every year, it is plain that no individual can take any interest in the improvement of the soil; and this sort of tenure becomes, in fact, the most effectual that can be devised for the extinction of industry. Latterly, however, the government has been making efforts to promote the formation of inclosures and the division of the lands; which, though opposed by the prejudices of the people, have made some progress. (*Marmora, Voyage en Sardaigne*, lib. v. cap. 1.)

Even these, however, are not perhaps the greatest discouragements to agriculture. As if to annihilate the possibility of the peasantry emerging from their depressed condition, and to oblige them to confine their industry to the supply of the indispensable necessaries, it has been enacted that no corn shall be exported if its price exceed 80 reals the *starella*; and a heavy duty is laid on all that is exported, as a substitute for a general land-tax. Most other articles of export have been loaded with similar duties; and it would really seem that every device that ignorance and short-sighted rapacity could suggest had been practised to reduce this "benighted nation" of imperial Rome to a state of poverty and destitution.

Happily, however, the bounty of nature has proved an overmatch for the perverse ingenuity of man; and such is the fertility of this fine island, that notwithstanding the influence of the duty now referred to, and the wretched system of agriculture, it exports in good years about 400,000 *starelli*, or 500,000 bushels of wheat, 300,000 st. barley, 6,000 ditto malt, 100,000 ditto beans, 200,000 ditto peas, and 1,000 ditto lentils. The culture of the vine is gradually increasing in importance, and about 3,500 Catalah pipes are exported, chiefly from Alghero and Ogliastro. Olive oil, owing to the little care taken in its preparation, and its consequent bad quality, has hitherto been but little exported; but it is susceptible of an indefinite increase, and might be made an important article. Tobacco, a robust monopoly, and brought about 800,000 lire a year into the public treasury. Flax, linsed, saffron, hemp, and barilla are grown to some extent; silk is produced only in limited quantities, but its produce might, no doubt, be vastly increased; some cotton is produced, and also small quantities of madder, which last grows wild in the island. The mountains are clothed with forests of oak, beech, chestnut, and other timber; but, from the want of roads, these are nearly useless. The agricultural implements and processes are excessively rude. The Sardinian plough, the counterpart of that described by Virgil, rises little more than scratch the ground. It is within a couple, and is very frequently wholly constructed of wood. Oxen only are used in ploughing and other field labour. Most of the garden grounds are wrought by the hoe, the spade and mattock being unknown, except to the Piedmontese labourers on the new roads. The corn is left in the fields till it be thrashed, an operation effected by the primitive practice of treading with horses and oxen.

We are glad, however, to have to state, that within the last few years some very important changes for the better have been introduced into the island, and that some of the worst of the abuses previously noticed have been obliterated. In 1836, in pursuance of inquiries previously commenced, the feudal jurisdictions were completely abolished; and since then the feudal system has been wholly subverted. And if, as is to be hoped, government follow up the enlightened course of policy on which it has entered, by giving freedom to commerce, the probability is, that the island will, at no very remote period, recover a large share of its ancient prosperity. According to a law passed in 1839, all lands were declared to be the property of individuals, communes, or the crown; the latter becoming the possessor of all waste lands, or those to which neither private parties nor communes could show any title. Lands

which had been cultivated or applied to use, whether enclosed or not, were assigned in perpetuity to the occupiers, undisturbed possession being held to confer a sufficient right to the property in the absence of any other title: those whose interests were at all affected by the new changes received compensation in money or lands, or by an assignment of public funded property. The king substituted himself in the place of the barons: he took all the feudal rents into his own hands; and their value being estimated at 20 years' purchase, public securities to the amount, bearing five per cent. interest, were made over to the nobles in exchange for the privileges of which they had been deprived. All kinds of vassalage were, at the same time, made redeemable; and courts of law placed under the direct control of the state were substituted in the place of the feudal jurisdictions where the barons were at once suitors and judges! It is impossible to overrate the importance of these changes; and there cannot be a doubt that they will have the greatest and most beneficial influence. (*Von Raumer, Italy*, &c. i. 285—301.)

The greater number of the oxen, horses, and other live-stock, wander wild over the island, bearing the mark of their owners, and browsing in the woods in winter, there being no wolves. They are generally, as might be expected, very inferior; but considerable pains are taken in the breeding of some descriptions of horses, and horse-races are a prevalent amusement. It is singular, notwithstanding the badness of the roads, that mules should be unknown. The Sardinian sheep is said, by Marmora, to be remarkable only for its degeneracy: its wool is of a very low quality, and is worth little, except in the island. Cheese, made of the milk of sheep and goats, is extensively exported; but this is a result, not of the goodness of the milk, but of its extensive supply, arising from the great number of these animals, there being about 800,000 sheep, and 560,000 goats. (*Marmora*, p. 44.)

The mouflon (the *Ophion* of Pliney, *Hist. Nat. lib. xxxviii.* cap. 9.), whence some naturalists suppose the sheep to be derived, is a native of Sardinia. "It is a ruminating animal, frequenting only the highest and most secluded woods; where, from its timidity and fleetness, it is with difficulty shot. The form of the ears, head, legs, and hoof, identify the mouflon with the sheep, though in size it be rather larger, and is, moreover, clothed with hair instead of wool. The horns are neither full nor deciduous, but hollow, and precisely similar to those of the ram, while the bleat is the same: it propagates also very readily with the sheep, the mixed produce being the 'umbrò.' Though so shy in its wild state, the mouflon soon accommodates itself to domestic habits." (*Smyth*, p. 120.) Deer, wild boars, and a variety of game, abound in the forests; and the skins of about 60,000 rabbits and hares, from 4,000 to 5,000 foxes, and 2,000 martins, are annually exported, besides 5,000 cantars of cornacci, or dried skins, for making glue.

Though various improvements have been effected of late years, it is still true that the interior of this island exhibits, at this moment, a degree of barbarism which can with difficulty be believed to exist in Europe. The shepherd and the hunter, who occupy the mountainous parts of the island, are in the habit of wearing only coverings of tanned leather, or of shaggy goat or sheep skins. They are constantly armed to protect themselves from banditti; roaming with their flocks over the uninhabited tracks, enjoying a bare subsistence, and acquainted with no laws but those of their own formation. They sometimes sow small patches of wheat and barley round their temporary dwellings; but they subsist chiefly on fruit, game, and the produce of their flocks, each family constituting as it were a patriarchal association. Though this part of the pop. be inoffensive, the number of banditti in the mountains formerly rendered it unsafe for any one, whether a foreigner or Sardinian, to venture far into the interior without an escort; and the farmers in the plains have been accustomed to rely for protection from the depredations of their highland neighbours on a long established corps, called the *barancelli*. This is an armed association, chosen annually in the village districts; the members of which are bound to make restitution for all thefts, provided they receive immediate ratification of the robbery. Their remuneration arises from an annual sum subscribed by every landholder. An attempt was made by the government, in 1813, to disband this force, but it was unsuccessful; and, on the whole, the *barancelli* are well adapted to the condition of the country.

The banditti have long infested and still continue to infest parts of this island, owe their origin to a variety of causes, among which, no doubt, may be included the influence of the feudal system, and the opportunities afforded by the state of the country, full of natural fastnesses, without roads, and without an efficient system of police, for their carrying on their depredations with impunity. Latterly, however, some stringent measures have been adopted for their suppression. The privileges of

centuries have been in most instances abolished. Roads have been made into districts that were previously inaccessible; the right to wear arms has been restricted; and these measures, combined with the abolition of the feudal system, and the establishment of royal courts for the speedy and more equal distribution of justice, will, probably in no very lengthened period, go far to suppress the robberies and assassinations which have so long disgraced the island.

The houses of the peasantry are most wretched, consisting usually of only one story without windows; or, if there be windows, they are not glazed. A whole family frequently dwells in a single room in which kids, chickens, and dogs, each indiscriminately accommodated with the naked children; whilst an ass is usually employed turning a corn mill (*mola asinaria*) in the corner! The centre of the room has a square hole in the clay floor, for the fire, but there is no outlet for the smoke, except accidental holes in the roof or door. A few small low chairs, with an equally low table, constitute the usual movables. Earthenware not being common, the ordinary substitute is an oblong wooden dish. More flesh is used than in Sicily, but less potatoes. Omelisks of curds, &c., and raw vegetables, are favourite articles of diet.

The towns and villages are mostly large and well situated; but with unpaved, narrow streets, mean houses, and a want of every convenience. Immense dunghills, the collection of ages, disfigure the principal entrances. In the N. half of the island the villages are constructed of freestone or granite; but most of the country houses in the S. are built with sun-dried bricks made of mud and straw. In the towns some pretty good mansions are met with, though they are ill fitted up, and their *atria* generally as dirty as those of the ancients in the days of Juvenal. (*Present State of Sardinia*, p. 164, &c.)

The fish on the coasts and in the harbours of Sardinia are mostly caught by foreigners: Sicilians, Neapolitans, Tuscans, Genoese, &c. Pilchards have become rare; but in 1838, upwards of 17,000 tunnies were taken, besides several thousands liberated from the nets, from the fishermen not having the means of curing them. The lagoons of Oristano, Cagliari, &c., abound with fine mullet, bream, and eel. From 200 to 300 boats used to arrive every year from Naples and Genoa, to the coral fisheries on the coasts; but these have latterly been decreasing, owing to the vexatious custom-house regulations imposed on the coral boats.

Sardinia has ores of silver, copper, lead, and iron, which, if wrought, would, it is believed, be among the most valuable of her resources. But the code of regulations for the working of the mines proves an effectual staple to all mining speculations. It obliges speculators to work their mines under the direction of government engineers, or officers of the royal corps of miners, or are to be consulted and furnished with plans on the erection of smelting mills, &c. Speculators are also protected from exposing for sale, or exporting the produce of their mines, without permission from the intendant-general, and are, besides, to keep a journal of the daily produce of their mines, the same to be exhibited in a rate statement of the intendant's office of each district. (*Macgregor's Report*, 75.) The produce is, that mining, and the quarrying of the fine grey, basalt, marble, &c. of the island, is almost entirely neglected.

It is a royal monopoly, and affords a considerable revenue. Until recently, Sweden drew almost all her tea of this article from Sardinia; and it continues exported in considerable quantities. It is obtained from the natural evaporation, principally near Cagliari. The taxes incurred by government in producing salt do not exceed 9 real the salm; whereas the continental salt of the crown buy many thousand salms at 50 or 60 reals each.

For the royal gunpowder, salt, and tobacco manufactures, a few for cotton, woollen, and silk goods, and coarse pottery and glass works, Sardinia has no manufacturing establishments, except such as are employed in preparing raw produce for sale. Very little is shown by any of the artisans; and watches, and even coarse cutlery are all imported. The roads have hitherto proved a serious obstacle to commerce, as well as to every other branch of industry. A good road, practicable for wheel carriages, never been formed within the last few years from Genoa to Sassari, and cross roads are being carried out some of the most considerable places in the island. But previously, scarcely any roads were passable for carriages, except on horseback or on oxen, the latter being unknown. A cart for luggage was used; but this vehicle was a mere ladder mounted on wheels fixed to the axle-tree, and stuck round the sides with triangular nails, being, according to Captain Gordon, a machine than any he had seen in Spain, Calabria.

The commerce of Sardinia has long been stationary, so

that a statement of its trade in 1834 will be nearly applicable to the present time. In that year the value of the principal articles of export and import were estimated as follows:—

Imports.		Exports.	
Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Timber, &c.	Fr. 250,372	Brandy, wine, &c.	Fr. 906,871
Hosiery	125,165	Grains, &c.	272,825
Hemp and cordage	133,025	Skins and leather	437,514
Cotton goods	1,039,093	Fish, cured and fresh	150,000
Foodstuffs	627,789	Salt	150,000
Woolen goods	203,538	Meats, forage & needs	1,258,574
Hardware and metals	366,217	Cattle	70,809
Skins and leather	315,460	Timber, &c.	121,834
Lines fabrics, &c.	160,514	Tobacco	50,000
Various	1,174,368	Various	248,750
Totals	4,849,110		4,987,177

The custom duties received in the above year amounted to 997,593 fr. (*Marmora*, 460.)

Amounts (when not estimated, as above, in francs) are kept in lire, soldi, and denari: the lira of 20 soldi and 12 denari = about 1s. 6d.; the real of 5 soldi = 4d.; the scudo of 10 reals = 1s. 9d. The Sardinian m. of 12 oz. = 14 oz. 8 dr. avoird.; the rubbo = 25 lbs.; the moggio or starello (of corn) = about 1 bush, 1 peck; the palmo = 104 Eng. inches; the starello or moggio (of land) of Cagliari = 3 roods 37 poles 19 yards; of Sassari = 1 rood 28 poles 24 yards.

Sardinia is governed by a viceroy, whose commission generally lasts for 3 years, and who is the chief of the civil and judiciary administrations, and the commander of the forces both by land and sea. The island is subdivided into 3 grand divisions, those of Cagliari, Sassari, and Nuoro, and into 11 provinces subdivided into districts and communes. The seven cities, or principal towns, are under the administration of the magistrati, municipal bodies, each composed of 6 mems. Each commune has a council of 3, 5, or 7 mems., presided over by a sindaco. The Udienza Reale, created in 1661, and reformed in 1822, is the highest tribunal in the island. It is composed of 13 judges and 3 presidents, and is divided into 3 chambers, 2 civil and 1 criminal; and has at its head the regent, the first functionary in the island after the viceroy. Besides its functions as a supreme judiciary court, it participates in the legislative power, the decree of the viceroy published with the concurrence of the Udienza Reale, having the force of laws. Sassari has a tribunal resembling the Udienza Reale of Cagliari, to which appeals may be made from its decisions. In the two cities last named are tribunals of commerce. In the provinces justice is administered by prefects, whose decisions are final in civil causes to the amount of 10 scudi, and who have primary jurisdiction in criminal cases. The *corte*, or district tribunals, have a very limited jurisdiction.

Sardinia has a parliament, called the *Stamenti*, consisting of three chambers: the ecclesiastical, selected from the prelates; the military chamber, comprising all the nobles, 30 years of age, with or without rank; and the royal chamber, composed of the deputies of the towns and communes under the *capo governo* of the capital. The *stamenti* are convoked and holden during the king's pleasure, but meet only on extraordinary occasions. Each section holds its sittings apart; and after separately discussing the matter under debate, they communicate by deputies. The deliberations of the ecclesiastical body, respecting donations, must be submitted to the pope for his approval, before passing into a law. The Supreme Council of Sardinia has its seat in Turin: it is composed of a president and five counsellors-senators, and is similar to the ancient Supreme Council of Aragon. Beyond this tribunal there is no appeal; and it gives its opinion in all state affairs transmitted to it from the government of the island. (*Report on Sicily and Sardinia*, p. 77.)

The laws of Sardinia are partly comprised in the code entitled the *Carta de Logu*, promulgated in 1356, and said to be drawn up, considering the period when it was issued, with great discretion and good sense. It has, however, been materially modified by the successive acts of the *Stamenti*, the edicts of the different sovereigns of the house of Savoy, and the *pregros* or decrees of the viceroy. In consequence of the numerous and in many instances conflicting enactments that have thus been issued, the law has become exceedingly obscure. This encourages litigation, and the island is, in fact, to use the forcible expression of Marmora, *una mine inestricabile pour la chicane* (261). Recourse is had to the courts to determine the most trifling questions; and unfortunately the means of legal redress are at once tedious, expensive, and uncertain.—"The country judges are extremely poor; and venality is so common, that sentences are just and equitable only when the government takes a criminal matter in hand. This is one of the leading causes of the assassinations that have so stigmatised the island. It is

landlord receiving half the produce, and paying the taxes and repairing the buildings. On the whole, however, the agriculture of this part of the Sardinian dominions bears so close a resemblance to that of the rest of Lombardy, that we beg to refer the reader for farther particulars to the *ART. ITALY (AUSTRIAN)* in this vol.

Few countries have so large a disposable produce as Piedmont. It has an immense number of cities and towns; and yet the Riviere of Genoa, Nice, and the country as far as Toulon, are supplied with corn and cattle from its superabundant produce. The produce of maize is considerable; and it constitutes the principal support of the country population, who make use of it under a variety of forms. The most usual course of husbandry consists of what would be called in England a four-shill, the first year being maize, the second wheat, the third clover or fallow, and the fourth wheat. It is customary to mix French beans and hemp along with the maize. Wheat is sown on narrow ridges, and is sown over by the plough; which in Piedmont is an implement of a better kind than in most parts of Italy.

Wheat harvest takes place in the beginning of July: it is thrashed by means of cylinders drawn by horses over the straw, which is turned up by forks. According to Arthur Young (*il. 309.*), the common produce of the wheat crops in Piedmont does not exceed six times the seed; which, considering the quality of the soil, he is justified in calling "miserable;" but the better crops yield between 10 and 12 seeds, or even more; and with a better rotation, and more care, this might be made the average produce of the plain.

To the corn crops must be added those of hemp, which is sometimes considerable, and silk, for which Piedmont is famous, with wine, vegetables, and fruit; the produce of the farm-yard, and the profit of rearing and fattening stock. The latter branches are the principal sources of profit from cattle; for though the latter be very abundant in Piedmont, the farmers have not learned, like those of the Milanese, to derive much advantage from their milk. A farm of medium size was estimated by Chateaufieux to consist of about 50 acres, 1-4th being in pasture. Such a farm would support a family of 9 or 10 persons, maintain upwards of 90 head of live stock, produce silk to the value of 25*l.* a year, and more wine than was required for home consumption. The crops of maize and French beans go far to maintain the labourers, so that nearly the whole crop of corn may be carried to market, as well as a considerable quantity of the inferior articles. (*Chateaufieux*, 30, 31.)

Savoy, which is remarkable for the grandeur and beauty of its scenery, though a poor country, produces enough to supply the wants of its inhabitants. The seasons are all, or mostly all, propitious. The plough is in use only in the valleys; on the high grounds the peasants break up the soil with the pick-axe and spade, and improve it, carry up mould and manure in baskets on the valleys. Small reservoirs are prepared near the tops of the hills and mountains, from which water is let out at pleasure in spring and summer; while, to prevent the earth from being washed down the declivity, tall stone walls are erected, so that, by dint of skill and industry, cultivation is extended over tracks which would otherwise be a continuous surface of naked rock. Wheat, oats, barley, rye, and hemp, are the principal grains cultivated; in some favourable situations the vine grown; and the white wine of Montmelian is especially esteemed. The walnut is the olive of Savoy, supplying the inhabitants with oil, not only for home consumption, but also for exportation to France and Geneva. kernels are crushed by a mill, into a paste; which is used to extract the oil, and afterwards dried in a called *pasta amara*, eaten by children and poor people. A good many cattle and sheep are reared, and sent for sale into Piedmont and Lombardy. The most important products of Savoy are of good quality, and of great value. Many mules and horses are bred to transit trade between France, Germany, and Italy. The olive, though but little grown in the other parts of the kingdom, is the chief article of culture S. of the Alpes. The land in the Genoese territory is generally hilly and rocky; but has mostly a S. aspect, suited to the olive and the vine. The cultivated land is said to comprise about 1-4th part of the surface. and here is divided into very small farms, those of towns comprising only about 6 acres, and those of the interior about twice as much. Only a small proportion of the land is cultivated by proprietors: it is let on leases of 3, 5, 7, or 9 years, but never the rent of cultivated land near Genoa is very high.

In the greater part of the Genoese territory the stated, in a report from Genoa, in the *Parl. paper*, No. 84, 6, that the average rent of cultivated land near Genoa is 20*l.* to 24*l.* an acre; that wood and pasture land, in a station, fetches 12*l.* an acre of rent; and that the rent of red, or white stone and granite is 2*l.* 9*l.* an acre; and that this is pretty much on a level with the statement in *Parl. paper*, that the government of Tamboff, in Russia, annually 38,000,000 quarters wheat! (*See Tamboff*.)

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rent is paid in cash or in produce, as wine, oil, grain, &c. rated at a fixed price; but in the provs. of Novi and Levante the rent is paid, as is usual in the rest of the kingdom, on the *metayer* principle; the landlord furnishing the land and 1-3d the seed, and receiving 2-3ds the produce. Wheat and maize are generally sown alternately on the same land; and good land is said to yield usually from 4 to 6 for 1, or double that quantity when it is tilled with the spade, as is customary in some parts. Each farm of 4 or 5 acres supports a family. Labourers get from 2*l.* to 3*l.* a year, with board and lodging. Their usual diet consists of Indian corn, chestnuts, potatoes, beans, and fruit; making little or no use of butchers' meat. Women work in the fields, and tend the cows, in addition to spinning, weaving, and other domestic work, in which they are very industrious. The occupiers of farms are not in a prosperous condition; and we may add, that they never will be in such condition while farms are so very small, and held under such a tenure. Paupers, however, are more numerous in the towns than in the country. The government makes no provision for the support of the poor; but there are various private charities for their assistance. (*Parl. Rep. on Agriculture*, 1836.)

The mineral riches of this country are little explored; but iron of good quality, lead, copper, sulphur, manganese, and cobalt, abound in the mountains of Piedmont and Savoy. The mines of Pesey, in the Tarentaise, formerly yielded from 30,000 to 40,000 cwts. of lead, and about 4,000 marks silver a year. Alabaster, fine marble, serpentine, slate, &c. are plentiful. Salt is found both in mines and in springs; and near Moutiers are government salt-works, said to produce 3,000,000 lbs. a year. There are some forges, and other iron-works; but the principal manufactures consist of silk stuffs, velvets, and stockings, mostly consumed in Italy. Coarse woollen and linen goods are made in several provs.; and coarse stuffs for the rural pop. in Savoy. Sail-cloth, cables, house furniture, paper, white lead, glass, earthenware, optical and surgical instruments, jewellery, and works of art and *viras*, are among the articles made at Genoa, Nice, and other principal towns; and there are numerous brandy and liqueur distilleries, and tanneries.

Trade.—The great articles of export from the Sardinian States consist of raw and thrown silks, with silk stuffs and velvets, which are largely produced at Genoa; then come olive oil, woolsens, paper, rice, vermicelli, and a variety of inferior articles. The leading articles of import consist of corn from the Black Sea, principally for the supply of Genoa and the surrounding district; raw cotton and cotton fabrics, sugar and coffee, indigo and other dye stuffs; hardware, cutlery and iron; sail-fab, tobacco, &c. It is difficult, however, to form any fair estimate of the trade of the kingdom; for, on the one hand, a large proportion of the imports are not destined for the use of the country, but are merely received *in transitu* for France, Switzerland, Germany, &c.; while, on the other hand, a considerable, though a less, proportion of the exports, consists of products from the adjacent territories; and no distinction is made in the official returns between the portions of the imports and exports now referred to. In 1843, the total value of the imports was estimated at 186,000,000 lire, and that of the exports at 158,000,000 do. Genoa, Nice, and Cagliari, especially the first (which see), are the principal seats of the foreign trade of the kingdom.

All transit duties on goods passing through the Sardinian states have been abolished. The duties on consumption in the interior of the kingdom are moderate. The imports of corn are principally from the Black Sea, but partly also from Sicily.

Government.—Down to 1849, the government was purely monarchical. It deserves credit for having constantly endeavoured, for a lengthened period, to restrain the extravagant privileges of the nobility, clergy, and corporations, and to enlarge the rights and immunities of the bulk of its subjects. Hence, says Count Pecchio, "Piedmont was the first country which, in 1793, abolished nearly the whole system of feudal authority and personal service, leaving scarcely any but honorary privileges in force. It then also limited the right of primogeniture and of entail, and consequently gave greater scope to the free cultivation of the soil; and diminished the powers of the clergy, more particularly that of investing land in mortmain. These constitutional reforms were revised and confirmed in 1770." (*Hist. of Pol. Econ.* p. 322.)

But a strong desire for a more liberal system of administration had long been growing up in the country; and so powerful did it ultimately become, that it could no longer be thwarted without the imminent risk of revolution, or, at all events, of civil war. Under these circumstances, the late king, Charles Albert, issued, on the 8th February, 1848, an ordinance, establishing a representative system of government, from which we extract the following paragraphs, viz:—

"Art. 1. The Catholic, apostolic, and Roman religion, is the sole religion of the state.

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"The other forms of public worship at present existing are tolerated in conformity with the laws.

"Art. 2. The person of the Sovereign is sacred and inviolable. His Ministers are responsible.

"Art. 3. To the King alone appertains the executive power. He is the supreme head of the state. He commands all the forces, both naval and military; declares war, concludes treaties of peace, alliance, and commerce; nominates to all offices, and gives all the necessary orders for the execution of the laws without suspending or dispensing with the observance thereof.

"Art. 4. The King alone sanctions and promulgates the laws.

"Art. 5. All justice emanates from the King, and is administered in his name. He may grant mercy and commute punishment.

"Art. 6. The legislative power will be collectively exercised by the King and by two Chambers.

"Art. 7. The first of these Chambers will be composed of members nominated by the King for life; the second will be elective, on the basis of the census to be determined.

"Art. 8. The proposal of laws will appertain to the King and to each of the Chambers, but with the distinct understanding that all laws imposing taxes must originate in the elective Chamber.

"Art. 9. The King convokes the two Chambers annually, prorogues their sessions, and may dissolve the elective one; but in this case he will convocate a new assembly at the expiration of four months.

"Art. 10. No tax may be imposed or levied if not assented to by the Chambers and sanctioned by the King.

"Art. 11. The press will be free, but subject to repressive laws.

"Art. 12. Individual liberty will be guaranteed.

"Art. 13. The judges, with the exception of those of *mazamoras*, will be irremovable, after having exercised their functions for a certain space of time, to be hereafter determined.

"Art. 14. We reserve to ourselves the power of establishing a district militia (*arma militia comunale*), composed of persons who may pay a rate which will be fixed upon hereafter. This militia will be placed under the command of the administrative authority and in dependence on the Minister of the Interior.

"The King will have the power of suspending or dissolving it in places where he may deem it opportune so to do.

"The fundamental statute which is about to be prepared by our command, in conformity with these bases, will be put in force when the new organization of the communal administrations shall have been carried into effect.

"Whilst we thus provide for the highest emergencies of political order, we are unwilling to defer any longer the accomplishment of a desire which we have cherished for some time—namely, that of reducing the price of salt to 80 centimes per kilog. from the 1st of July next ensuing, principally for the benefit of the poorer classes of society, persuaded, as we are, that we shall find amongst the wealthier that compensation for the public treasury which the necessities of the state require."

This liberal system of government has since been fully established; and, notwithstanding the critical circumstances under which the country has been placed by the prevalence of revolutionary doctrines in Italy, the unsuccessful termination of the contest with Austria, and the abdication and death of its author, the new system has succeeded extremely well; indeed, the proceedings of the Sardinian chambers contrast most favourably with those of the greater number of the continental representative assemblies.

In each prov. the whole power of government is entrusted to an intendant, who, like other functionaries, is appointed by the king; who, of course, may, also, dismiss him at pleasure. Intendants of an inferior grade are appointed for districts and towns, who manage all the public business of their respective localities, though every town has also a magistracy, varying in its number of members according to circumstances, which regulates its municipal and private affairs. In each district is a judge, with authority in civil causes, to the amount of 800 lire; but from whose decision appeal may be made, when the amount exceeds 100 lire. Each of the 40 provs., into which the country is now divided, has a tribunal, with a president, from two to six councillors, a government advocate, &c. In 1838, a new code of laws for the Sardinian States was adopted, which, though certainly an improvement on the heterogeneous code it replaced, exhibited some glaring defects. Among others, the use of torture was retained in certain cases; the most arbitrary means were used to extend the Roman Catholic religion; and Jews were subject to the most illiberal restrictions. But some very important changes have since been made in the interim; and, notwithstanding the strenuous opposition of the clergy, all cases, whether of a civil or

criminal nature, in which they are parties, are now tried by the ordinary tribunals of the country. The whole population is Roman Catholic, except about 7,000 Jews, 21,000 Waldenses in the N. W. part of Piedmont, and a few Protestants in Genoa, and elsewhere. Public instruction is less diffused than in Austrian Italy, and is in general of a very inferior kind. The principal university at Turin has four faculties, and about 1,500 students. Genoa, also, has a university, and there are secondary universities at Chambéry, Asti, Mondovì, Nice, Novara, Saluzzo, and Vercelli, with 37 royal colleges in the larger, and 54 communal colleges in the smaller towns. The professors may be either clergymen or laymen, but where the candidates are otherwise equal, clergymen are usually preferred. It is due to the old Sardinian government to state that it discovered of late years a very enlightened spirit, and did much for the improvement of its subjects. Schools and colleges, as well as most branches of the public service, were materially ameliorated. Various new and wholesome laws were enacted for the regulation of communes, roads, weights and measures, sanitary police, vaccination, prisons, forests, the game laws, &c. A good many roads, canals, and bridges, were constructed, and hospitals, museums, baths, and public establishments of all kinds, were founded; the harbours were improved; light-houses and barracks built, and the army was re-organized.

The Piedmontese infantry is composed of two classes of soldiers, viz., the permanent and the contingent (Provincial). The former serve 8 years in the standing army, and at the end of that term receive their discharge from all future service. The latter serve nominally 16 years, during 8 of which they are considered as forming part of the standing army, and the remainder they belong to the reserve. They are consequently divided into 16 annual contingents, 8 for the first period, and 8 for the second. Each soldier has to perform active services for 16 months after his enlistment, on completing which he may return home; but subject to be called upon during the remainder of the first term of 8 years to re-enter temporarily the ranks, for the annual formation of a camp of manoeuvres, or upon any occasion of state emergency. The Sardinian army on the peace establishment consists of about 38,000 men; but in time of war it may be raised to 147,500 men, of whom 113,000 are infantry, 11,000 cavalry, 10,500 artillery, and the remainder guards, veterans, &c. Perhaps no country in Europe has a better organised army, or a finer soldiery, in proportion to its extent. The subaltern and field officers are, in general, a fine body of young men, well educated in the duties of their rank. But the general officers are not supposed to possess the experience adequate to the proper exercise of their commands, inasmuch as they mostly owe their rank to court intrigue and royal favour, and not to the value or length of their services. In this respect, however, Sardinia is not singular. Napoleon and Frederick the Great selected their officers, because they were aware of their merit, and cared for nothing else. But ordinary sovereigns can do nothing of the sort; and court favour and parliamentary influence, without regard to merit, must, speedily, generally, be all direct employment in the disposal of places in the army, as in everything else.

According to the statement of the finance minister, Signor Nigra, the revenue, in 1850, was estimated at 90,978,466 lire, and the expenses at 110,400,000 lire. But this was an exceptional year, the expenditure being increased by including in it a portion of the expenses of the late war. The debt amounts to 280,600,000 lire, including 74,000,000 borrowed on account of railways, and 75,000,000 of indemnity to be paid to Austria. The only exemptions from the land-tax are in favour of the royal palaces, domains, and manufactories; the residences and gardens of the clergy, churches, and churchyards.

Savoy was the nucleus of this monarchy. It was governed, as early as the tenth century, by its own counts, whose descendants acquired Nice in 1380, and Piedmont in 1418. The sovereigns of Savoy and Piedmont were long celebrated for their ability and the skill with which they preserved and extended their limited dominions, notwithstanding the difficulty of their position in the immediate vicinity of the great European powers. This territory was recognised as a separate kingdom at the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. Savoy was then added to the Piedmontese dominions; but, in 1738, it was exchanged for the island of Sardinia. Genoa and its territory, Monaco, &c., were annexed to the Sardinian crown at the peace of 1815. In 1848, the king, Charles Albert, put, or rather was compelled to put, himself at the head of the movement in Italy for the expulsion of the Austrians. At first his efforts met with some success; but having been defeated in the decisive battle of Novara, he abdicated in favour of his son Victor Emmanuel. The latter immediately concluded a treaty dictated by the Austrians, who stipulated that they should be paid, as stated above, an indemnity of 75,000,000 lire, on account of the expenses of the war. Charles Albert died at Oporto on the 28th July, 1849.

SAREPTA, a town of European Russia, near the frontiers of the government of Saratoff, on the Sarpa, near its confluence with the Volga. Pop. above 3,000. This town was founded, in 1765, by a colony of Hérnuths in Moravia: it is well built, neat, clean, and fortified, so as to be secure from the predatory incursions of the contiguous nomadic tribes. Its inhabs. are distinguished by their industry: they manufacture linens: silk and cotton stuff, with stockings and caps, in great request all over the empire. They also raise and manufacture tobacco, distil spirits, &c.

SARGUEMINES, a town of France, dép. Moselle, ca. around the town, m. E. by N. Metz. Pop. in 1846, 4,460. This town, under the name of Guemund, was formerly one of the strongest in Lorraine; but no portion remains of its ancient fortifications except a dismantled citadel, now appropriated to the *gendarmérie*. The sub-prefecture, hall of justice, and college, occupy the buildings of a Capuchin convent, founded in 1731. There are some spacious prisons. Sarreguemines has manufactures of cotton thread, forks, spoons, and earthenware of a superior quality; and is the *entrepôt* for the paper-maché stuff-boxes made in the surrounding villages, and of which it is said to export 100,000 dozen a year. (*Dict. Géog.; Guide du Voyageur*.)

SARI, a very ancient city of Persia, prov. Masanderan, of which it is the cap., about 18 m. from the S. shore of the Caspian, and 115 m. N. E. Teheran. Previously o 1826 it is said to have had from 20,000 to 40,000 inhabs. who carried on a brisk trade with Astrakhan, and the interior of Persia (see *Fraser's Trav. on the Caspian*, v. 14.); but about that time it was nearly depopulated by the plague. "Sari is surrounded by a ditch and a mud all, flanked by pentagonal brick towers. The gateways are fallen down, and roads have been broken through the wall in every direction. The appearance of the town differs essentially from that of any other in Persia of Elburz. The houses are built of burnt brick, and stily tiled; some of the streets are well paved; and, though the marks of ruin are every where visible, Sari is something of the appearance of an English village, or all market-town." (*Major d'Arcy Todd, in Geogr. anal.* viii. 104.) Sari is frequently mentioned by the Persian writers. Its vicinity is flat, woody, and well wooded. (*Klüber's Persian Empire*, 163.)

ARK, or **SERQ**, one of the islands belonging to the British in the English Channel, long. 49° 30' N., 2° 34' W., intermediate between Guernsey and Jersey, 7 m. E. the former, and 9 m. N.W. the latter; and greatest breadth, about 3 m. each. Pop. in 1785. It is divided into two portions, Great and Little Sark, united by a narrow neck of land. It differs from the adjacent islands in its physical features. The soil is sandy, and produces most kinds of grain & vegetables. A good many fish and sea-fowl are taken in its coasts. The inhabs. make cheese, and knit gloves, Guernsey jackets, &c.; which they send in the W. of England, in exchange for com and manufactured goods.

SARNO, a town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Principato, cap. cant., at the head of the river Sarno (an. v.), 11½ m. N.W. Salerno. Pop. estimated at 12,000. Well built and flourishing town, having a handi-craft, several convents, an old castle, belonging to the Barberini family, a seminary, hospital, some baths, and manufactures of paper and copper

is celebrated in history for the desperate battle of its vicinity, anno 553, between the troops of under Narses, and the Goths under their king Totila. The entire defeat of the latter, and the death of the king, terminated the Gothic kingdom and Italy. (*Gibbon's Hist.* vii. 391.; *Craven's Tour in the It.* ii. 185-188.)

SARTE, a dép. of France, reg. N.W., between lat. 46° 40' N., and long. 0° 25' W. and 0° 50' E.; Orne, E. Eure-et-Loir and Loir-et-Cher, S. Loire and Maine-et-Loire, and W. Mayenne. Compact shape, 60 m. in length, N. and S., by same in breadth, E. and W. Area, 621,600 'pav. in 1846, 474,576. Surface generally level, the N.W., where there are a few hills. The river is the Sarthe, with its tributaries the Mayenne, and Loir. The Sarthe rises near Morvilliers, dép. Orne, and runs with a very tortuous and S.W., to the vicinity of Angers; near which it joins the Loir, and unites with the Mayenne to form the Sarthe, after an entire course of nearly 160 m. In 1834, the arable lands were 38,120 ditto, 383,486 hectares, meadows 58,120 ditto, 681 ditto, orchards 19,479 ditto, and woods 19,479 ditto, and rye are the principal

corn crops; and are sufficient, along with potatoes, so which at least 1,150,000 hectol. were raised in 1836, for the consumption of the pop. The produce of wine is not enough for the consumption; but about 220,000 hectol. of cider and perry are said to be annually manufactured. Live stock pretty abundant and good. Bees are but little reared; and the wax, in which Le Mans has a considerable trade, comes mostly from the neighbouring dép. In 1835, of 124,521 properties subject to the contrib. foncière, 46,667 were assessed at below 5 fr., 22,949 at from 5 to 10 fr., and 20,482 at from 10 to 20 fr. Hardware, paper, woollen fabrics, leather, wax, candles, sail-cloth, glass and earthenware, soap, and other articles of necessity, rather than of luxury, are the goods principally manufactured in Sarthe. The iron forges, &c., produce annually about 1,000,000 kilogr. of good iron. The *étamines* of Maine formerly enjoyed a great celebrity, but other fabrics have superseded them; so that St. Calais, and other towns where they were chiefly made, have fallen into decay. Sarthe is divided into 4 arrondissements; chief towns, Le Mans the cap., La Flèche, Mamers, and St. Calais. It sends 7 mems. to Ch. of Dep. Registered electors, 1838-39, 2,245. Total public revenue, in 1831, 10,538,207 fr. In this dép. the females among the peasantry, and even in the classes above them, appear to enjoy but little consideration. "Si la maîtresse (la fermière) accouche, on demande: 'Est-ce un gas?' Quand le contraire arrive, on dit: 'Ouen, ce n'est qu'une crêmiature' (une fille); et, en effet, un homme a ici quatre ou cinq fois autant de valeur qu'une femme. Telles forte et robuste servante, propre à tous les ouvrages, ne gagne que 36 fr. et se nourrit par an, tandis qu'un labourer est payé de 180 à 200 fr. pour l'année." (*Hugo, art. Sarthe; Dict. Géog.; French Official Tables*.)

SARUM (OLD), an ancient, and now totally ruined city and bor. of England, co. Wilts., on a hill, 2 m. N. Salisbury, or New Sarum, which see. It was the *Isuriodunum* of the Romans; and, being surrounded by walls and defended by a castle, became a place of considerable consequence under the Saxons. Under William the Conqueror, the bishop of Shireburn and Sunning removed his see thither; and such was its importance, that parliaments were held in it under subsequent Norman kings. But it always laboured under various inconveniences, the principal of which was the total want of water; and in consequence of this, and of disputes between the crown and the church as to the possession of the castle, the inhabs. began gradually to remove to the more convenient situation of New Sarum, or Salisbury; and the seat of the bishopric being translated to the latter, in the reign of Henry III., Old Sarum fell into a state of total decay, and was almost wholly deserted in the early part of the reign of Henry VII. For a lengthened period there has been hardly even any vestiges of its ruins. (*Camden, Gibson's ed.*, p. 114.)

Old Sarum sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. in the reign of Edward III.; and notwithstanding its total decay, the proprietor of the burgate tenures in the bor., or of the land on which it once stood, was permitted to exercise this privilege till the name was given to the passing of the Reform Act, when it was disfranchised. Not having a single house or inhabs., Old Sarum afforded the most perfect example of a nomination bor. The property several times changed hands; and though the estate was of little intrinsic value, the privilege it possessed of manufacturing two law-makers for the British empire, made it sell for a very large sum. It may well excite astonishment that such an outrage on the principle of representation should have been permitted to exist for so lengthened a period.

SARUN, a district of Hindostan, presid. Bengal, prov. Bahar, and one of the richest and most prosperous in British India, between lat. 25° 30' and 27° 30' N., and the 84th and 86th degs. of W. long.; having W. Gorumkpoor, S. Ghazepoor, Shahabad, and Patna; E. Tirhoot, and N. Nepaul. Length, N. to S., about 110 m.; breadth, varying from 25 to 80 m. Area, 5,760 sq. m. Pop. in 1822, 1,464,075. It is well watered; the Ganges forms its entire S. boundary, and the Gunduck intersects it near its centre; it supplies in abundance all the principal products of the East, besides good timber for ship-building, manna, spars, &c. There is little jungle or waste land; cattle, though not numerous, are of good quality. Manufactures few; the principal is that of saltpetre, a great deal of which is produced in this district. The Mohammedans form but a small portion of the entire pop., Chief towns, Chuprah, Bettiah, and Malay. Total land revenue, in 1829-30, 15,60,563 rupees. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.; Port. Reports*.)

SASSARI, a city of Sardinia, cap. of its N. division, in the N.W. part of the island, on the Turritano, about 10 m. from its mouth at Porto Torres, in the gulf of Sassari, 58 m. N. by W. Oristano, and 100 m. N.N.W. Cagliari. Lat. 39° 29' N.; long. 8° 35' 20" E. Pop. in 1833, including its commune and port of Torres, 24,408. It is surrounded by a wall, strengthened by square towers, with five gates and a citadel, the latter being now

used merely as a barrack. It has a good main street; and is surrounded by public walks, shaded by trees. Sassari has numerous churches, convents, and nunneries, a Tridentine seminary, and a public hospital. The cathedral, a massive structure, has a disproportionately large, and very elaborate façade; but its interior is clean and airy, and it has several good sculptures, including a monument by Canova. The university is established in the former Jesuit's college. The palace of the governor is an extensive edifice, and the public buildings in general are well adapted for their intended purposes. There are some pretty good inns and coffee-houses, and the shops are fully equal, if not in some instances superior, to those of Cagliari. (*Smyth's Sardinia*, pp. 267, 268.) It is the seat of an archbishop, of a tribunal of secondary jurisdiction, with appeal to the *Audienza Reale* of the island, and of a tribunal of commerce; and is the residence of the vice-intendant and vice-treasurer of Sardinia, and of a military governor. It has a considerable trade in tobacco, oil, fruits, &c.

Porto Torres (an. *Turrà*), its port, 10 m. distant, can only accommodate small vessels; ships of large size being obliged to anchor in the roads nearly one mile outside, where, however, the anchorage is pretty good. Sassari rose on the decay of Turris, during the insecurity of the middle ages. Agriculture appears to be better conducted in its vicinity than in any other part of the island. Immediately without its walls is the fountain of Rosello, an abundant source of water, embellished with much architectural ornament. (*Smyth's Present State of Sardinia*; *Official Reports*, &c.)

SASSBACH or Salsbach, a village of the Grand Duchy of Baden, badrich of Achern, at the foot of the mountains of the Black Forest, on an affluent of the Acher, 17 m. E.N.E. Strassburg. This village, which has about 1,000 inhab., has acquired a high degree of historical interest from the famous Marshal Turenne having been killed in its vicinity, by a random shot, on the 27th of July, 1675. The circumstances attending the death of this great general have been detailed by Voltaire (*Sicèle de Louis XIV.*, cap. 12.), and other distinguished writers. His remains, deposited by order of Louis XIV. in the royal burying-place in the abbey of St. Denis, escaped, at the era of the Revolution, the fanatical violence that scattered the bones of so many kings. At length, after various vicissitudes, they were deposited in the church of the Invalids, by order of the still more illustrious captain now entombed within the same sacred precincts. A monument, in honour of Turenne, erected in 1781 on the place where he fell, was repaired in 1801 by Moreau, and was reconstructed of granite in 1829. The funeral orations in honour of Turenne, by Flechier and Mascaron, are *chefs-d'œuvre*.

SATALLIEH, or ADALIA. See ADALIA.

SATTARAH, a considerable town and fortress of Hindostan, prov. Behar, about 60 m. S.E. Poonah. Lat. 17° 42' N.; long. 74° 12' E. The fort stands on a scarped hill; at the foot of which is the town, built partly of stone, and partly of mud or unburnt bricks, but comprising no edifice of note. If we except a new palace built within the last 20 years. The fort, though naturally strong, was taken by Serajee from the Bepa-poor sovereign in 1673, by Aurungeze in 1690, and by the British in 1818. The British cantonments are about 3 m. to the E. Sattarah was, under Serajee and his immediate successors, the cap. of the Maharratta Empire. The Sattarah rajah, however, had been reduced to the condition of *rois fainçants* by their ministers, the Peishwas, for a lengthened period previously to 1818, when the British vested the rajah with a limited authority over a portion of the dominions of his ancestors. The Sattarah territories since then have comprised an area of about 8,000 sq. m., with a pop. of, perhaps, 1½ millions. In his evidence before the committee of the H. of C., in 1830, Colonel Briggs stated, "The administration of the government of Sattarah may be deemed a good specimen of the management of a native government. The country is divided into districts, each yielding from a lac to 14 lacs of rupees, containing from 150 to 200, and even 300, villages. Over this district is an officer, called a soubadar. That district is then subdivided among a great number of junior officers, each having from 6 or 8 to 30 villages under his charge. The whole civil and judicial business is conducted through those officers. The annual assessment of the land is fixed with reference to the sum yielded in former years; the assessment varying every year with the quantity of land cultivated. The revenue is always paid in money." In 1828, it amounted to about 15,00,000 rupees. This state was subsidiary to the British till about 1830, when the rajah, having been detected in a conspiracy against the British authorities, was dethroned, his dominions having since that time been amalgamated with and administered under the Bombay Presidency. (*Hamilton's Gazetteer*; *Parl. Reports*.)

SAVANNAH, a city and port of entry of the U. States, state Georgia, on the river of its own name, about 13 m. from its mouth, and 80 m. S.W. Charlestown; lat. 32° 2'

N., long. 81° 2' W. Pop., in 1840, 11,214. It stands on a bluff sandy point, rising about 40 ft. above the river, from which it has an imposing appearance; its spacious and regular streets, and handsome public buildings, being interspersed with many trees, &c. Previously to 1830, when it suffered from a terrible fire, it was mostly built of wood, and it was formerly also insalubrious from the contiguity of rice swamps. This evil has, however, been effectually obviated; and being now principally of neat stone houses, it is one of the handsomest towns in the S. states. It has numerous churches, an exchange, academies, &c. It is one of the principal ports in the States for the export of cotton, the shipments from it, in 1848, being 405,456 bales, whereof 217,655 were for foreign ports. It also exports considerable quantities of rice. Almost the entire foreign trade of the state, the exports from which amounted, in 1849, to 5,847,806 doll., is carried on from Savannah. The imports are trifling, being only, in the same year, 371,034 doll. There belong, to the port, in June, 1849, 19,222 tons shipping. (*American Official Returns*, &c.)

SAVE (Germ. *Saw*, an. *Savus*), a river of the Austrian empire, and one of the principal tributaries of the Danube; it rises towards the N. extremity of Carniola, is about lat. 46° 30' N., long. 14° E., and runs at first S.E. through the government of Laybach and Croatia, to about lat. 45° 15', long. 17°. It thence has more of an E. direction, forming the boundary line between the Austrian prov. of Slavonia on the N., and Turkish Croatia, Bosnia, and Servia on the S., till it enters the Danube at Belgrade, after a course of about 590 m. (*Berghaus*.) Its chief affluents are the Kulpa, Una, Verbas, Bosna, and Drina. Though not very rapid, its inundations are often very destructive. Being so variable as far as the mouth of the Kuhsa, for vessels of from 150 to 300 tons, it is a good deal used for commercial purposes. Few towns of any consequence are, however, situated on its banks, the principal being Brod and Krainburg; Laybach, Agram, Petrinia, and Poesna are, however, at no great distance, and some of them are seated on its tributaries.

SAVERNE (an. *Toberna*), a town of France, dép. Bas-Rhin, cap. arrond., on the Zorn, a tributary of the Rhine, 19 m. N.W. Strassburg. Pop. in 1846, inc. com., 5,271. Though finely situated, it is but a differently built, and has remarkable edifices, except an old palace, formerly belonging to the bishop of Strassburg, but now used for the police barracks and prison. The town has manufactures of woollen cloths, hosiery, hardware, &c., with some trade in timber floated down from the Vosges by the Zorn.

SAUGUR, or SAUGOR, a large town of Hindostan, prov. Malwa, in the ceded districts on the Nerbuddah, lat. 23° 48' N., and long. 78° 47' E.; taken by the British in 1818. Saugur is also the name of an island of the Sunderbuds, at the mouth of the Hooghly, about 60 m. S.S.W. Calcutta. A railway to connect it with that city was projected a few years ago, and is now probably completed.

SAUMUR, a town of France, dép. Maine-et-Loire, cap. arrond., on the Loire, 28 m. S.E. Angers. Pop. in 1846, inc. com., 11,067. The Loire here forms several islands, and is crossed by five or six bridges, one of which, a stone bridge of 12 arches, 384 yds. in length, long considered as one of the finest in France, connects the town with its suburb of La Croix Verte. Saumur is built partly at the foot, and partly on the declivity, of a hill crowned by a citadel. Its lower portion is tolerably well laid out, and has a handsome quay and terrace facing the river; but the upper town is irregular, and the streets inconveniently steep. The castle, which appears to have been constructed at different periods between the 11th and 13th centuries, was the occasional residence of the kings of Sicily and the dukes of the house of Valois: for some time previously to the Revolution it was a state prison; it now serves as an arsenal. There are several churches worth notice; one of which, curious for its antiquity, is supposed to have been constructed in the 6th or 6th century, and another, *Notre Dame des Ardilliers*, is remarkable for its beauty; having a fine dome supported on Corinthian columns, an altar-piece by Philip de Champagne, &c. The barracks are among the best of that description of edifices in France; they are four stories in height, and can accommodate 1,500 men. The town-hall, public library, public baths, and theatre, are the other principal buildings. Not far from the town is a famous riding-school. It has manufactures of linen cloths, handkerchiefs, neckerchiefs, copper and iron wares, leather, saltpetre, &c., with a brisk trade in provisions, and 4 large annual fairs. English as well as French greatly prefer Saumur as a residence to Angers; it is more airy and lively, the country quite as beautiful, and provisions are a shade cheaper. (*Switzerland*, &c., p. 247.)

Saumur was taken in 1096 by Fulk of Anjou, and, after many vicissitudes, was annexed to the French crown in 1370. A Protestant academy, founded here by the Anjou

Dupleix Moray, the friend of Henry IV., governor of the town for a lengthened period, was dissolved by Louis XIV. in 1684. (*Hisq.*, art. *Maine-et-Loire*; *Guide du Voyageur*; *Dict. Géog.*)

SAVONA, a town and sea-port of N. Italy, in the Sardinian States, div. Genoa, cap. prov. on the Mediterranean, 30 m. S. W. Genoa. Pop. (1838), with comm., 16,211. It has ramparts, which, however, are of no great strength, and many good public and private buildings; but its streets are narrow, winding, and badly paved. It had formerly two harbours, the best of which was filled by the Genoese in 1538, from jealousy of its capabilities; the other, formed by a mole projecting E. into the sea, is small, and is rather difficult of approach, from the accumulation of sand and mud near its mouth. Savona is a bishop's see, and the seat of judicial and commercial tribunals; it has manufactures of silk goods, iron and earthenware, and exports oranges and lemons, grown in its vicinity. Savona was the birthplace of Popes Sixtus IV. and Julius II., and is said to have been for some time the residence of Columbus. Pope Pius VII. was also detained in it in 1810-11, by order of Napoleon. (*Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

SAXONY, or SAXONIA (kingdom of).

SAXONY (KINGDOM OF), a secondary state of Central Europe, and of Eastern Germany, principally between lat. 50° 10' and 51° 30' N., and the 12th and 18th degs. of E. long.; having W. the indep. Saxon principalities; N. Prussian Saxony and Brandenburg, and S. Bohemia. It is of a triangular shape. Length, E. to W., about 140 m.; greatest breadth nearly 90 m. The area, pop., subdivisions, &c., are as follow:—

Circles.	Area in sq. m.	Pop. 1846.	Pop. to sq. m.
Dresden	1,670	464,107	277.9
Leipzig	1,338	417,791	311.6
Zwickau	1,786	569,114	318.6
Bautzen	963	246,171	255.6
Total	5,759	1,836,433	318.8

The pop., as given above, comprises 45,886 Wends or Vandals.

The *Erzgebirge* (ore mountains), and the *Riesengebirge* (giant mountains), extend along almost the whole of the S. and S.E. frontier, but they nowhere rise to 600 ft. of elevation. Their declivity is more gradual and undulating on the Saxon than on the Bohemian side; so that they cover the greater part of the country in their ramifications, rendering it either mountainous or hilly. There is, however, a very considerable extent level ground, extending from the foot of the hilly ct, or from Collitz, Meissen, and Bautzen, northward, all along the frontier of Prussian Saxony. The ntry to the S.E. of Dresden, where the Elbe forces its way through the mountain chain, has been called the *Saxon Switzerland*. It is about 30 m. in length by n breadth, diversified, and highly picturesque; but is likely to convey a wrong impression of its height, its highest summit, the Schneberg, being only 2,150 ft. in height. The spurs given off by the *Erzgebirge* to the N. enclose the valleys of the Elbe, the Muldas, the Zochoppau, Elster, Pleisse, &c., all rich flow to N.W., and, except the first, which is able throughout the whole extent of the kingdom, Saxony.

There is a milder climate than most parts of continental Europe in the same lat.; the mean temp. of the about 47° Fahr., that of the winter quarter being 36°, the summer 69°, at an average of the entire country has a mean elevation of about 1,100 ft. above the level of the sea. The properties are rather of limited size; but in rural districts the people appear to be contented, the whole comfortable; pauperism is rare. According to Mr. Gleig, "There is, perhaps, no country where more is made of the land than in Saxony. Every spot of earth which seems capable of return is cultivated; and the meadows are twice or thrice in the course of each summer. We meet with such a thing as a common or the forests are all guarded with a strictness unto their value. As farmers, I should say Saxons were more clean and industrious than the fields are always well cleared of weeds, and crops they have a succession; but the fallow is rye; and either because it does not require much manure, or that manure is a scarce article, they do not seem disposed to fatten the soil with it." (*Germany*, &c., i. 237-38.) Rye, wheat, are scarcely grown, except in the low mountain region they are met with only in oats and potatoes being the chief crops here, millet, rye, flax, oil seeds, tobacco, and vegetables, are pretty generally cultivated; and

from this extract, that Mr. Gleig knows nothing of the testimony as to the appearance of the country, of some value.

artificial grasses are nearly universal. But, notwithstanding the improvement of agriculture, and the industry of the people, considerable quantities of corn have to be imported. A great deal of fruit is grown; and between 7,000 and 8,000 morgen of land are occupied with vineyards. In 1838, upwards of 53,000 cimers of wine were made, some of very tolerable quality. The forests, which occupy about 1-4th part of the entire surface, consist of fir, pine, beech, oak, elm, maple, larch, &c. Upwards of 1-3d part of the woods belongs to the crown, yielding an annual revenue of 2,000,000 dollars; and nearly 10,000 individuals are engaged in wood-cutting.

Saxony is celebrated for her breeds of sheep, which are among the finest in Europe. The late king, when elector of Saxony, introduced the breed of Merino sheep into his dom., and exerted himself to promote the growth of this valuable race of animals with such success, that they are now found to succeed better in central Europe than in Spain; and, notwithstanding the rapidly increasing importations from Australia, the greater portion of the immense quantity of wool that we import still continues to be brought from Saxony and other German states. According to Berghaus, there are only 626,000 sheep in the kingdom; but we apprehend that there must be some signal error in this statement, and that their number must be very materially greater. Indeed, they are stated, in *Horschelman's Stein* (ii. 475.), to exceed 2,000,000. We may farther state that, in 1837, Prussian Saxony had above 2,000,000 sheep; and though it be more extensive than the kingdom of Saxony, we believe it is not so well stocked as the latter. The best wool is produced on the sheep-walks of the Saxon Switzerland. The cattle of Saxony, the number of which exceeds 550,000, are also of a superior description; but the butter is usually indifferently, while, to increase its weight, it is frequently overloaded with salt. But, such as it is, the demand for it is universal. "Never," says Mr. Strang, "did I witness so much butter daily consumed, as I have seen since I entered this kingdom. Here, in short, bread and butter is the order of the day at all hours. It is the perpetual family staple, and essential as a make-weight at every meal. You find it with equal propriety at breakfast, at lunch, at dinner, and at supper. A larder in Saxony may well be called the *buttery*!" (*Germany*, &c., i. 140.) Horses are not so extensively reared as other live stock, and hogs are not numerous. The game laws are very rigidly enforced, all sorts of birds being included in their enactments; and rights of fishing, &c., appear to be preserved with the most scrupulous tenacity.

Mining is one of the principal occupations of the inhabitants. Few parts of Europe equal the *Erzgebirge* in the variety and extent of their mineral riches. The basis of these mountains is granite, covered by gneiss, mica, and clay slate in succession, between which are other strata containing metallic ores. Upwards of 500 mines are wrought, which are said to employ about 11,000 workmen; and between 50,000 and 60,000 men, or about 1-30th part of the entire pop., derive their subsistence from mining industry and the manufacture of metallic products. The total annual value of the metals obtained is estimated, by Berghaus, at 1,760,000 dollars; the silver producing nearly 930,000, and the iron and iron-ware 400,000 dollars. Lead, bismuth, arsenic, antimony, cobalt, and manganese are the other principal metals. Freiberg (which see, i. 868.) is the centre of the silver mining district. The neighbourhood of Meissen yields the fine porcelain clay, of which the "Dresden China" is made. About 14 million *scheffel* coal are annually produced. Salt is scarce, since the salt mines, formerly included in the Saxon kingdom, were separated from them in 1815, and this important necessary is mostly imported from Prussia. Serpentine marble, and fine building stone, are abundant; as are various gems, including the topaz, jasper, agate, tourmaline, &c.

The most important branch of manufacturing industry in Saxony is that of cotton. Its extension has been attributed to the nearly contemporaneous introduction of the potato, called by German writers the "king of the mountains," and which has enabled the Saxon weavers to obtain a sufficiency of food at exceedingly low wages. In 1830, there were in Saxony 86 spinning establishments, having 361,393 spindles, employing 5,380 adults, and 2,443 children: of these establishments, only 3 were wrought by steam. In 1837, there were 124 spinning establishments, with 490,325 spindles. (*Bourgeois's Rep. on the Prussian Commercial League*, p. 85.)

Most descriptions of cotton fabrics are now produced, and many new factories have been established at Chemnitz, Zwickau, Auerstadt, Freyburg, &c. Great efforts are making to improve the construction of machinery; and joint-stock companies for the purpose have been established near Chemnitz and Dresden. Coal has within these few years been found in the neighbourhood of Dresden; and it is said that the mines are becoming productive, and promise a good supply. Cotton-printing works are on the increase, and have been much improved

within the last few years. Although the Saxon prints, in general, are not equal to the best English in beauty of pattern or brightness and fastness of colouring, they are said to make up for these deficiencies by the cheaper rates at which they can be produced. (*Keyser, in the Handloom Weavers' Report*, part II. 810, 811.) The only article, however, in which the Saxons come into competition with us in the American and other foreign markets is cotton hosiery, particularly the inferior descriptions. Dr. Bowring says that he had seen some stockings intended for the American market which were sold at the rate of 3s. 4d. a dozen. The number of stocking-frames amounted, in 1815, to about 9,000; in 1831, to 14,000; and in 1836, to 20,000. The number of master-workmen, in 1831, was 7,165; hired workmen, 3,444; apprentices, 2,892; in all, 13,461 persons. The number of frames in work was 13,841, and the average weekly return per frame was 1 doll. 4 gr. = 3s. 4d. sterling. There is no branch of industry which seems more appropriate to Saxony than this. It requires only a small outlay of capital for the stocking-maker; his wooden frame is not expensive; the cost of his stock of cotton twist is small; and by associating agriculture with manufacturing industry, he supplies himself from his own little farm with the principal necessities. If we may depend on the statements of Bowring and others, it would appear that the stocking-weavers of Saxony are in a state of progressively increasing prosperity. Most of them are independent labourers, buying for themselves the raw material and selling their manufactured stockings to a number of small collectors, who furnish the Chemnitz or the Leipzig markets. (*Bowring's Report*, p. 36.)

We confess, however, that we are not a little sceptical as to several of these statements, and have very great doubts whether persons in the condition of the Saxon stocking-weavers can ever come into competition with those of England in the production of any but the coarsest description of goods. In illustration of what is now stated, we may mention, that during the year ended the 30th of September, 1839, hosiery of the value of 412,410 dollars was imported from the Hanse Towns into the United States, of which, probably, the principal portion was from Saxony; and this, with yarn of the value of 22,310 dolls., made up the whole of the imports of cotton goods into the United States from these ports in the course of that year! (*Official Report by Congress*.)

The manufacture of linen in Saxony is also of considerable importance. The weaving business employed, in 1839, from 12,000 to 13,000 looms; of which about 950, employing about 3,000 persons as weavers, loom-builders, pattern-drawers, &c., were appropriated to the weaving of damasks and table-linen. The weekly earnings of the damask weavers vary from about 2s. 3d. up to 7s. 6d.; but for white linens the utmost amount of a man's wages, per week, would be from 2s. to 3s. 4d. sterling. The spinning of flax employs numerous hands; but notwithstanding about 10,000 cwt. of raw flax annually imported from Silesia, Bohemia, &c., and latterly there have been considerable importations from England. (*Handloom Rep.*, p. 811.)

In 1837 there were in Saxony 126 establishments for spinning woollen yarn, with 71,086 spindles, and 18 establishments for combed yarn, with 30,756 spindles; making together 101,851 spindles, being an increase of 31.1 per cent. since 1834, and of 127 per cent. since 1831. The progress of the Saxon cloth manufactures in the three years from 1834 to 1837 is stated, in an official report, to have been greater than in the 30 years preceding! Great improvements have been introduced, not only in the fabric, but in the finish of woollen goods, particularly by the introduction from the Netherlands of a new steam brushing machine. In 1839 the woollen manufacture employed from 3,000 to 4,000 looms, which produced about 160,000 pieces of cloth. Much attention has been paid of late to the manufacture of machinery; though it be still far behind what is met with in the manufacturing districts of Great Britain. The Jacquard loom is gradually being introduced, and there are schools of manufactures at Dresden, Chemnitz, Plessen, &c. Fine and figured silks, of very fair quality, are made at Annaberg, Penig, and Frankenberg. The government is very desirous of promoting the culture of silk, and some establishments for the propagation of the worms exist at Dresden and Leipzig; but in such a climate they can hardly be expected to have much success. Wooden wares are made in the country, of the estimated value of about 200,000 dollars a year (*Berghaus*); and Saxony supplies furniture of every description, musical instruments, &c., to a great part of Germany. Porcelain, and modern *antiquaries*, are articles made in large quantities, particularly at Meissen. The china produced here formerly enjoyed a very high reputation throughout Europe, but, owing to the extraordinary improvements made in the manufacture in this and other countries, Meissen china has declined considerably from its ancient celebrity. Almost every article of use or luxury is made

in Saxony; the chief deficiency is in paper, of which the Saxon manufactures do not produce nearly enough for the immense consumption of the presses of Leipzig and Dresden.

The extension of the cotton and woollen manufactures of Saxony, since 1833, is wholly, or almost wholly, ascribable to the circumstance of her having then joined the Prussian Commercial League. This opened a widely extended market for her products among the German States, from the greater number of which they had previously been either wholly excluded, or admitted only clandestinely, and under great difficulties. Saxony, in fact, has derived the greatest advantage from the League, much more, in proportion to her extent and population than Prussia. Little or no cloth of Saxon manufacture has hitherto found its way to the United States.

The extensive commercial relations of Saxony owe their origin to the enlightened policy of Frederick Augustus, the Elector, afterwards, King of Saxony, who, at a time when protecting and prohibitory tariffs surrounded his state, adopted a liberal commercial system, and converted Saxony, and especially Leipzig, into one of the most important marts, not merely for the supply of central and northern Europe, but even of Asia, with all sorts of manufactured produce. The fairs at Leipzig were for a lengthened period the great sources whence Russia, as far as the borders of China, Poland, the provinces on the Danube, and many parts of the Turkish and Persian dominions, were supplied with manufactures; and though they have latterly declined, they still continue to be much resorted to. Leipzig has been for a lengthened period the centre of the book trade of Germany, being, London and Paris only excepted, the greatest literary emporium in the world. The value of the works sold at the Easter fair of late years has been estimated at about 3,000,000 dollars; and as many as 600 booksellers are said to have been assembled at some of these fairs from all parts of Germany to dispose of their publications and adjust their accounts! (*See LARSEN*.)

The Convention dollar, coined in Saxony, = 32 groschen, or 4s. 14d. Engl.: the Saxon dollar of 24 gr. is an imaginary coin. 100 Dresden *schellings* are equivalent to 196 of Berlin. The other measures, &c., are comparatively unimportant, and the coins of Prussia are generally current.

Government.—Saxony is an hereditary and limited monarchy, having a senate or upper house, and a house of representatives. Previously to 1830, it had states; but these had comparatively little power; and the imposition of taxes and other public burdens, and the regulation of the public expenditure, mostly depended on the pleasure of the king. But the French Revolution of 1830 was speedily followed, in Saxony, by some very important political changes. The king was obliged to associate his nephew, the present sovereign, with him in the government, a representative system was organised on a new principle, and the abuses incident to the feudal system were suppressed.

The senate consists of 52 mems., and the house of representatives of 300. Of the senators, some take their seats by virtue of their offices, as the Rom. Cath. bishop, the king's principal chaplain, a Protestant bishop, the dean of the university, and one or two great officers of state. Of the remainder, some sit in the right of their estates, and transmit their privileges, as senators, with their estates, to their children; while others are elected for each parliament by a constituency of their own order. The qualification for a seat in the senate is the same that is required to entitle a man to vote in the election of a senator, viz. a landed estate worth 6,000 dollars a year. The lower house is elected by a species of household suffrage, or by such heads of families as contribute in any way to the public burdens. The candidate must possess property to the amount of 1,000 dollars a year. Senators receive 7 dollars a day during the sitting of parliament, and deputies 3 dollars. But owing to the high qualification required for deputies, and other causes, the new constitution is not so popular as might have been expected. "Though," says Mr. Gleig, all money-bills must pass, as known ourselves, originate in the Ch. of Dep. the minister has but to propose his plan through an agent, and he is sure to carry it. Meanwhile the constituency, especially in the rural districts, complain loudly that their parliament is worse than useless; that it saddles them with burdens which, under the old system, they were not required to bear; that now they have 350 sovereigns to maintain instead of one! The rigid censorship still exercised over the press keeps the Saxon public profoundly ignorant of what is passing in their parliament; though as to speaking, such a thing is unknown in the Ch. of Dep. In the upper house the case is somewhat different; for it is composed of men who do occasionally speak." (*Gleig's Germany* in 1837, i. 182—194.)

But with all its defects the newly organised representative system is of great importance to the kingdom; and it will, no doubt, acquire greater influence and inde-

possessions according to experience makes the despotism better acquainted with their rights and duties.

Perhaps, however, the interest made on the feudal system, which was maintained in the rural districts nearly to the fullest extent, was the most advantageous of the various changes effected in 1830.

Hereditary jurisdictions were abolished, except in very rare cases; and the more oppressive privileges enjoyed by the lords were, at the same time, suppressed. All towns now elect their own municipalities, and are governed by laws of their own making; while the rural districts, being divided into departments, each of which has its own magistrates, whom the people not only choose, but may, also, in case of malversation, degrade from office. The municipal officers, also, though elected by the citizens for life, are liable, on conviction of incapacity or unfair dealing, to be degraded. Their powers are very considerable in reference both to person and property, for they regulate the police, hear and determine civil causes, and both fix the amount of local rates to be levied on the citizens, and determine how the produce shall be expended. In the election of the magistrates, every rate-payer has a voice. They are all salaried officers. It is necessary, however, to enable any one to be appointed to the magisterial office, that he should have received a legal education, and be possessed of some small portion of land, and of the house in which he resides.

There are civil and criminal courts in the cap. of each circle, and a high court of appeal in Dresden, in which latter all capital cases are tried. Executions take place by decapitation. There are special military tribunals, a superior fiscal court, university court at Leipzig, mining tribunal at Freiberg, patrimonial tribunals, &c. The reigning family is Rom. Catholic, but there are not more than 25,000 Rom. Catholics in the kingdom, the great bulk of the pop. being Lutherans. Literature and the fine arts have flourished more in Saxony than in any other part of Germany; and there is scarcely any country in Europe where primary instruction is so widely diffused: the number of the individuals attending schools, and other seminaries, is said to be as high as one in six of the population. The university of Leipzig is the principal seminary.

Every male inhab. 20 years of age is, with certain exceptions, obliged to serve in the army for six years in time of peace, and for three years subsequently in the service corps. The armed force is pretty extensive; it consists of about 130,000 men, of whom 10,000 are privates der armee; besides the reserve corps of 300,000 more. Its kingdom holds the 4th rank among the German states, having four votes in the full diet and one in committee, and furnishes a contingent of 13,000 men to the army of the Confed. Its public revenue from 1840 to 1841 has been fixed at 5,500,297 doll., and its expenditure 5,424,755 doll. At the end of 1838 the public debt amounted to 10,926,457 doll.

The Saxons are among the best specimens of the old teutonic race. In person, manners, &c., travellers have remarked that they bear a striking resemblance to the Irish agricultural pop. The Saxon royal family is said to be descended from Witthind, sovereign of this country in the time of Charlemagne, and the kingdom of Saxony was created an electorate in 1433, which title it retained till 1806, when Napoleon erected it into a com. During the late war the king of Saxony was, he battle of Jena downwards, a firm ally of Napoleon; he made extensive additions to his dominions; he did not abandon the fortunes of his benefactor in the battle of Leipzig had compelled the French to evacuate Germany. This conduct led to the dismemberment of the kingdom by the treaty of Vienna: some of its most valuable provinces were then ceded to Prussia, and, but for the opposition of Austria, it is probable that Saxony would then have to exist as a separate state. (*Berghaus, Allg. &c.; Stein; Strang's Germany and the Germanic's Germany, &c.; passim.*)

It is a prov. of the Prussian states, consisting of territories dismembered from the kingdom of Prussia in 1815, with the Saxon states formerly belonging to it, has on the N.E. and E. Brandenburg, S. the Electorate of Saxony and the Thuringian states, and on the W. Brunswick, and Hanover. It is of a very irregular outline, has several enclaves, and includes in its frontiers the independent principalities of Ansbach, &c. Area, 9,755 sq. m. Pop., 2,422,452, of whom 1,636,328 are Protestants, and 786,124 Catholics. It is divided into three regencies, and into 41 circles. Principal towns, Magdeburg, Merseburg, Naumburg, Burg, &c. The principal cities lie on the W. frontier of the prov.; this exception, there are no hills of any consequence. Principal rivers, the Elbe and the Saale, Mulda, Unstrut, &c. Soil in parts unproductive, but in general loamy and fertile. Of Magdeburg is reckoned about the best land

in Prussia, and is very well cultivated. Principal products, wheat and other sorts of corn, flax and hemp, excellent wool, tobacco, &c. The vine is cultivated in the neighbourhood of Merseburg and some other places. Productive mines of coal, iron, rock-salt, &c. are wrought in different parts of the province. The stock of sheep exceeds 2,000,000 head, and wool, which has been vastly improved by crossing with merino and other fine-wooled breeds, has become a staple product. Manufactures important and valuable, consisting of fine woollens, linens, earthenware and porcelain, hardware, &c.

SCARBOROUGH, a sea-port, pari. and mun. bor., market-town, and par. of England, N. riding, co. York, and E. div. of the wap. of Pickering Lythe, on a rocky slope, rising from an extensive bay, 36 m. N.E. York. Area of pari. bor. (which includes with the old bor. and par., the extra parochial dist. of the castle), 2,160 acres. Pop., in 1831, 8,760; in 1841, 9,983. It has a very striking appearance from the sea, from which it rises amphitheatrically to a considerable height. It is well built; the streets in the upper part of the town are spacious and well paved; and the houses generally have a handsome appearance. It is also extending S.W. towards Falgrave, and southward along the shore. The principal public buildings are the town-hall, trinity-house, news room, assembly-rooms, a neat and well-conducted theatre, a sea-bathing infirmary, 5 bathing establishments, and 2 public libraries. But the handsomest and most classical building belonging to the town is the museum, a rotunda 37½ ft. in diameter, by 50 ft. in height, in the Roman Doric style. It is constructed of the Kelloway limestone, a fine building material, presented from his extensive quarries at Hackness, by Sir J. V. B. Johnstone, Bart. M.P. for the bor.; and though of recent erection, has a valuable collection of specimens illustrative of the geology and natural history of the N. riding. A fine iron bridge of 4 arches, supported on massive stone piers, 70 ft. in height, has been thrown across a ravine to connect the higher town with the spa, 1 m. to the S. This handsome structure, which cost 9,000l., raised by subscription, was completed in 1828. The par. church, which was given by Richard I. to the abbey of Cîteaux, in Burgundy, stands on an eminence not far from the ruins of the castle: it was formerly much larger than at present; but the part now used is commodiously fitted up for divine worship. Christ-church, built, in 1828, of stone furnished by Sir John Johnstone, in the early English style, has accommodation for 1,300 persons. A chapel of ease was erected in 1840, in the lower part of the town, near the quay side, by voluntary subscription, principally for the accommodation of the poor: it contains nearly 500 sittings, of which about three fourths are entirely free. There are places of worship, also, for R. Catholics, Wesleyan, primitive and association Methodists, Independents, Baptists, and the Society of Friends, to most of which, as well as to all the churches, are attached well-attended Sunday-schools. A grammar-school, founded in the 9th century, is but slenderly endowed; but there are several good subscription-schools, including two on the National and one on the Lancasterian plan. The Amicable Society also clothes and shoes between 70 and 80 boys and girls. A seaman's hospital is under the government of the Trinity House, and there are almshouses, and several other benevolent, as well as religious institutions.

The harbour, which is easy of access, is protected by a handsome stone pier, of modern erection; but unfortunately it labours under a deficiency of water, having only from 4 ft. to 5 ft. at low ebb springs, and from 8 ft. to 9 ft. at low ebb neaps; but from first quarter flood to last quarter ebb, vessels drawing 8 ft. water may enter the harbour with safety. A small foreign, and pretty considerable coasting-trade is carried on. In 1849 there belonged to the port 158 vessels, of the aggregate burden of 31,802 tons. During the same year the gross customs duties amounted to 3,007l. 12s. 11d.; the duties, previously to the privilege of bonding having been conferred on the port, did not often exceed 1,200l. a year. A great deal of fish is brought in here; and the fishery has greatly increased since the railway has afforded a ready access to the populous districts and great manufacturing towns in the W. Riding. Of late years several persons have embarked in the herring fishery, which is becoming an important and profitable source of employment to the fishermen. From 40 to 50 boats belong at present to Scarborough and Flay, in addition to the numerous small boats used for fishing in-shore; and it is not unusual for 150 or 200 boats to enter the harbour, during the season, at the same tide, with herrings. As an encouragement to the fisheries, the corporation remit the tithe of fish to which they are entitled; and a society has been formed to raise an honorary fund, to meet the casual losses of nets, lines, and tackle, of such provident fishermen as become subscribing members; and thus insuring to them, at a slight charge, an advantageous protection.

Since the peace, ship-building, which formerly con-

tributed in no slight degree to the prosperity of the town, has greatly declined, and now has almost ceased; nor, from the shallowness of its artificial harbour, is it ever likely to become a very important trading place. It is supported by the resort of strangers to it for the purposes of sea-bathing and amusement; and these are principally of the middle classes, and from the manufacturing districts of Lancashire, Durham, and the W. riding of Yorkshire." (*Parl. Bound. Report*.) Scarborough is, however, frequented not only for the purpose of sea-bathing, but on account of its two mineral springs; which have lately been analysed by Richard Phillips, Esq. F.R.S. We subjoin the result of his analysis of a gallon of water from each spring.

	North Spring.	South Spring.
Aerotic gas	6.5 cubic inches	7.5 cubic inches
Chloride of sodium (common salt)	26.64 grains	29.63 grains
Crystallised sulphate of magnesia	149.68 —	125.35 —
Crystallised sulphate of lime	1104.00 —	110.78 —
Bicarbonate of lime	48.26 —	47.80 —
Bicarbonate of protoxide of iron	1.94 —	1.81 —
Total contents	382.42 —	415.35 —
Specific gravity of the water	1.0035 —	1.0043 —

Temperature 49° with very little variation.

It is probable that the spas may, from the growing reputation of the town, and their being so conveniently connected with it by the bridge above alluded to, again acquire some portion of that celebrity which they formerly enjoyed. The recent erection of a commodious saloon, in the castellated style, with embattled towers, the architectural beauty of the wells, the massive seawall, forming at once a secure protection to the spas and a delightful promenade, especially at high water, combined with the newly laid out ornamental walks and grounds, have materially increased the natural attractions of Scarborough as a watering-place. These improvements have been effected at an expense of upwards of £8,000.

Scarborough, which received its first charter from Henry II., in 1259, is divided under the Municipal Reform Act into 2 wards, the government being vested in a mayor, 5 aldermen, and 18 councillors. Corp. revenue, in 1847-48, 1,555*l*. Quarter sessions are held under a recorder, and petty sessions are held weekly both for the bor. and North Riding. The bor. has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. since 23 Edw. I., the right of election down to the Reform Act being in the common council of the bor., a body comprising 44 individuals. The Boundary Act included with the old bor. the extra-parochial precinct of the castle. Registered electors in 1849-50, 739. It is one of the polling places at elections for the N. riding, and the chief town of a poor-law union comprising 33 par. Markets on Thursday and Saturday: cattle fairs, Holy Thursday, and Nov. 28.

N. of Scarborough, on a bold craggy eminence commanding a very extensive sea-view, stand the ruins of a castle built in the reign of Stephen, to which Piers de Gaveston, the minion of Edward II., fled for refuge from the vengeance of the exasperated barons. The castle, after sustaining two sieges from the parliamentary troops, was dismantled at the close of the civil war; and though a portion of it was repaired in 1745, and barracks have been subsequently built in its immediate vicinity, it is principally in ruins. The remains of the keep consist of a square tower nearly 100 ft. in height: the entire surface included within the outer walls comprises nearly 19 acres. A strong gateway still remains, with portions of the circular towers occurring at intervals in the line of the fortifications. It was, in fact, previously to the invention of artillery, one of the principal strongholds in the kingdom. (*Baines's Gaz. of Yorkshire; Granville's Spas; Parl. and Man. Bound. Reports; and Private Information*.)

SCHAFFHAUSEN, the most N. canton of Switzerland; and, after Zug and Glarus, the smallest in the Confederation. It is between lat. 47° 40' and 47° 50' N., and long. 8° 25' and 8° 55' E., being separated by the Rhine from the cantons of Zurich and Thurgau, while, on all other sides, it is surrounded by the territory of the Gd. Duchy of Baden. Area, 116 sq. m. Pop., in 1850, 35,300. Surface undulating, its loftiest hill, the Raadenberg, in the N., rising only to about 1,200 ft. above the Rhine. The soil is generally calcareous, but fertile; and the climate is among the mildest in Switzerland. It is an agricultural rather than a manufacturing canton; and, according to Picot (*Statist.* 263.), its agriculture has greatly improved within the last half century. Formerly, indeed, the supply of corn was quite insufficient for home consumption; whereas, in good seasons, considerable quantities are now exported. Artificial pastures have also been

materially increased, as well as the number of cattle: fruits are abundant, particularly cherries, from which a good deal of *Kirschwasser* is made; and the produce of timber is amply sufficient for the wants of the inhabs. (*Picot*.) There are nearly 3,000 arpents of vineyards, which furnish the principal article of export, wine being sent to St. Gall and Appenzell, the Black Forest, and other neighbouring districts; but of late years the competition of the wines of Baden, &c., and the duties imposed on the Schaffhausen wines in Germany, have crippled the trade.

One of the principal branches of industry in Schaffhausen is the conveyance of goods through the canton, which is greatly facilitated by the navigation of the Rhine. Salt, from Wirtemberg, timber, &c. are conveyed through Schaffhausen to Switzerland; but the circumstance of the Confederation not being comprised within the Prussian Customs Union is injurious to the transit and export trade of the canton; and in consequence a desire to join the German League has long prevailed in Schaffhausen and some other cantons, though not in the majority. (*Bouring's Rep. on Switzerland*.) The manufacturing establishments comprise a few cotton and hardware factories. Accounts are kept in florins, of 60 kreutzers = 20*d*. Eng. The foot is the same as that in Zurich; the lb. a little larger.

This canton is divided into 34 districts. The male inhabitants, of full age, and not bankrupts, paupers, or suffering a penal sentence, choose the legislative body. The latter, or grand council, consists of 74 members, 24 of whom form also the petty council, which is intrusted with most part of the executive power. The grand council meets in June every year, and is presided over by a burgomaster, who is changed annually. The pop. is wholly Protestant. Education appears to be well attended to.

Schaffhausen was not included in ancient Helvetia, and its inhabs. resemble their Swabian neighbours rather than the Swiss. It was admitted into the Confed. in 1501.

SCHAFFHAUSEN (originally *Schiffhausen*, or *Ship-house*), a town of Switzerland, and the cap. of the above canton, on the Rhine, 25 m. W. by N. Constance, and 49 m. E. N. E. Basle. Pop. about 7,500. It is walled, and defended by the *Münster*, an old citadel supposed to be of Roman origin, but which is now furnished with extensive bomb-proof casemates. Streets ill paved; and the buildings are remarkable for their quaint and antique architecture: many are ornamented in front with stucco, carved or fresco work. The *minster*, founded in 1062, is a massive edifice in the round arched style, with numerous monuments in its cloisters. An ordinary bridge across the Rhine replaces that unique specimen of art consisting of one arch 364 ft. in length, destroyed by the French under Marshal Oudinot in 1799. Schaffhausen has a gymnasium, a college with 9 professors, a high female school, and an extensive library. The latter comprises the books that belonged to the celebrated historian Müller, by far the most illustrious of the natives of Schaffhausen: here he first saw the light, on the 3d of January, 1752. The town is a principal *dépôt* for the goods passing between Switzerland and Germany, and Basle and Zurich; consisting of silk, cotton, and woollen goods, raw cotton, colonial produce, Nuremberg manufactures, Swiss cheeses, &c. Schaffhausen is supposed to have originated about the 8th or 9th century; it was subjected by Austria in 1230, but has been independent since 1415.

The celebrated Falls of Schaffhausen are situated about a league S. S. W. from the town, where the Rhine breaks through a ramification of the Black Forest mountains. The height of these Falls, which, in some respects are the grandest in Europe, varies, according to the season, from 50 to 75 ft., being greatest in June and July, when the river is swollen by the melting of the snow on the mountains. The stream, which, immediately above the fall, is about 300 ft. in width, precipitates itself over a ledge of limestone; four rocks projecting from which divide it in its descent into five portions. The greatest body of water falls between the first of these rocks and the castle of Laufen, on the S. E. bank of the river, from which, accordingly, we may say the best view of the Falls is obtained. "It is not," says Mr. Spencer, "the height of the fall, but the immense body of water broken into spray in the most picturesque manner over the rocks, that constitutes the great beauty of the cataract. In other respects, it cannot bear the slightest comparison with either those of Terni or the Staubbach." (*Germany and the Germans*, li. 61.)

In 1790, Lord Montagu, a young British nobleman of great promise, was drowned in a rash attempt to descend these Falls; and, by a curious coincidence, his death occurred nearly at the same time that his noble seat, Cowdrey House, near Midhurst, was burnt down. (*Edel, Manuel du Voyageur; Picot, Statistique; Bouring, &c. on Switzerland, &c.*)

SCHAUMBURG-LIPPE (PRINCIPALITY OF).

one of the minor states of N.W. Germany, principally between lat. 50° 10' and 50° 30' N., and about long. 9° E., surrounded by the territories of Hesse-Schaumburg, Hanover, and Prussian Westphalia, exclusive of some detached lordships enclosed in the territory of Lippe-Detmold. Area, 217 sq. m. Pop., in 1848, 28,637, mostly Lutheran. It is hilly towards its S. extremity, but flat in the N., where is called the Steinhuder Meer occupies about 11,000 morgen. The productive portion of the surface comprises about 74,000 morgen, besides nearly 24,000 m. of forest-land, chiefly in the W. The soil is in general superior to that of Lippe-Detmold, and agriculture and cattle-breeding are more advanced. The inhabitants of both principalities employ their intervals from rural labour in spinning flax and weaving linens. Coal is raised in the S. to the value of ab. ut. \$0,000 dollars a year; and forms, with corn, wool, timber, and linen goods, a principal article of export. The constitution, which dates from 1618, is a limited monarchy; the powers of the prince being similar to those of the sovereign of Great Britain; the *Landstände*, or parliament, consisting of all the noble landed proprietors, with 4 deputies for towns, and 6 representatives of the peasantry. Appeal lies from the decisions of the courts of this principality to the superior court of Wolfenbützel. Public instruction, as in Lippe-Detmold, is well attended to. Public revenue, about 130,000 thalers. There is no public debt. Schaumburg-Lippe has one vote in the full diet of the Germ. Confed., and with Lippe-Detmold, Hohensohlern, Reuss, Waldeck, and Liechtenstein the 16th place, with one vote in the committee. Its contingent to the army of the Confed. amounts to 940 men. (*Berghaus*, &c.)

SCHELD (Fr. *Ecosse*), a river of France and Belgium, which rises in the dép. Aisne, near St. Quentin, and runs mostly in a N.N.E. direction, through the dép. du Nord, and the provs. of Hainaut, E. Flanders, &c., to Antwerp, after which it turns N.W., and, dividing into the E. and W. Scheldt, which enclose the islands of Beveland and Walcheren, enters the North Sea in about the same lat. as the Thames. Its entire length is estimated at about 300 m., its breadth at Dendermonde is about 650 ft., at Antwerp, 1,700 ft., and the width of its mouth varies from 2½ to 3½ leagues. It is navigable from Valenciennes. Its principal tributaries are the Scarpe, Oise, and Durme, on its W., and the Dender and Rupel on its E. side. St. Quentin, Cambrai, Valenciennes, Tour-ay, Oudenarde, Ghent and Antwerp, are on its banks. Its current is slow; and in the lower part of its course, here it runs through a completely flat country, its banks are fenced by dykes to prevent inundation. It is connected by the canal of St. Quentin and others with the Somme, Seine, and Loire, and with the principal rivers and cities of Belgium, in its neighbourhood. During the commercial ascendancy ofwerp the Scheldt enjoyed a larger share of traffic than any other European river; but its importance in respect, though still considerable, has since greatly declined. "There was nothing," says Barrow, "on a noble river, in our progress upwards, that could any impression of an active or extensive commerce. In sailing up or down the Thames, or on approaching London within 4 or 5 m., the multitude of sailing affords indications not to be mistaken of the mercantile wealth and prosperity of London. But the Idt, when we ascended it, was a vacant river; we never met nor overtook a single sail; and, with the exception of 2 or 3 American ships, and some 10 or 12 vessels, mostly brigs, there was little appearance of along the common quay of Antwerp." (*Tour de France*, p. 11.) This, however, was before the revolution of 1830 had made Antwerp once more the commercial emporium of Belgium; and in the interval, the city has certainly regained some portion of its former reputation. (*See* ANTWERP.)

ELIESTADT, a fortified town of France, dép. in, cap. arrond., on the Ill, a tributary of the 26 m. S.S.W. Strasbourg. Pop., in 1846, 1,008. It was fortified by Louis, and is naturally strong, its being in a great measure surrounded by rocks. It has an hospital, prison, communal college, manufactures of cotton and linen fabrics, iron p., and earthenware, for which last it was famous as early as the 13th century, with breweries, distilleries. It is supposed to have been the ancient *Elstred* destroyed by Attila, where Charlemagne and his son Louis afterwards a palace. The Swedes took it but restored it to the French two years after-wards. (*Art. Bas-Rhin; Dict. Géog.*)

MINA'Z (Hun. *Schemen-Banya*), a famous mining town of Hungary, in the mountainous district of Schemnitz, a tributary of the Gran, 46 m. N. by N.W. Pop. in 1837, with its suburbs, 17,028. The town entered by an old and strong gateway, which led to a long, narrow, steep street, wretchedly and so hemmed in by sloping hills that there is room for a row of houses on either side. At the foot of this street is a mountain amphitheatre, the

proscenium of which is occupied by the churches and other large buildings; while the hill sides are covered with the white cottages of the miners embosomed among trees. (*Page's Hungary*, i. 337.) The town has many good-looking houses, with shops and inns; but its fine old ruined castle appears to be the only edifice of much interest.

The mines of Schemnitz, which extend under the town, and have been wrought for several centuries, furnish considerable quantities of silver, whence gold is again extracted. The ores vary greatly in productiveness; but, speaking generally, the mines have not been very profitable. There are 6 principal veins or courses, each from 10 to 30 fathoms in thickness, running nearly E. and W. almost parallel to, and at the distance of from 60 to 300 or 400 fathoms from, each other, and connected by various small branches. In these extensive courses there are 12 royal mines, besides a number belonging to private individuals, who are obliged to dispose of all the ore they obtain to the royal smelting works at a fixed rate. The whole of these mines communicate with the emperor Francis's adit or level, at the depth of nearly 200 fathoms. (*Bright's Travels*, p. 149.) At a still greater depth is the adit of Joseph II., a magnificent work, 13 fathoms in height by 10 ft. in breadth, extending from Schemnitz to the valley of the Gran, a distance of nearly 10 Eng. m. This adit, which is still unfinished, will carry off the water from mines which cannot now be wrought, and is so constructed that it may be used either as a canal or a railway. It has been already no fewer than 40 years in progress, and it is supposed that, when complete, it will have cost, at least, 400,000. Dr. Clarke, who descended into the mines of Schemnitz, says, "All the imperial mines are connected with each other; offering, in their whole extent, a subterranean passage which reaches to the astonishing length of 3,000 fathoms, nearly 3½ m. The sight of the interior of the Paquersstollen (one of the mines) convinced us that there are no mines in the world like those of Hungary. How wretched, in comparison, appear the mines of Cornwall and Wales, where it is sometimes necessary to creep upon hands and knees, wet through, over all sorts of rubbish, to get from one shaft to another. The inside of a Hungarian mine may be compared to the interior arrangement of one of our best frigates, where space has been so husbanded, and cleanliness so strictly maintained, that nothing is seen out of its place, and there is room enough for every operation." (*Travels*, vol. 289, 8vo. ed.)

Dr. Clarke should, however, have added that the mines of Cornwall and Wales are wrought by private individuals for the sake of profit only, whereas the imperial mines which he visited are wrought at the expense of government, to which profit is a secondary consideration. Hence the greater outlay on the latter; hence, also, in part, at least, their comparative unproductiveness, and the bad and costly manner in which, according to Mr. Paget, all the Austrian mining establishments are conducted.

The ore, besides silver and gold, contains lead, and sometimes iron, copper, zinc, or arsenic. In consequence of the want of wood and water but little ore is smelted on the spot, being principally sent to Neuhoel or Kremnitz. About 30,000 miners are employed in the Schemnitz district.

Mr. Paget states that the officers and workmen are all very indifferently paid; and hence there is not unfrequently a good deal of embezzlement. The workmen, who are paid by the piece, are not permitted to earn more than about 3s. a week: it would seem, indeed, rather to be the object of the government to keep up the mines for the employment they afford, than for the inconsiderable profit made by them.

A school of mining, in imitation of that at Freiberg, was established at Schemnitz in 1760, which has 3 professors and about 300 students, who are all educated free of cost, several of them being farther furnished with an annual donation of from 200 to 300, to assist in their maintenance. It is believed, however, that this school is, in respect of science and practical knowledge, far behind that of Freiberg, and most other mining schools. It has a pretty good library, but its collection of minerals is very inferior. (*Page's Travels in Hungary*, i.)

SCHENECTADY, a town or city of the U. States, New York, cap. co. of its own name, on the Mohawk, a tributary of the Hudson, and on the Erie canal, 16 m. N.W. Albany, with which it is connected by a railway. Pop. in 1840, 6,784. The compact portion of the city consists of about 30 streets, with a court-house, co.-office prison, about 9 or 10 churches, several banks, iron and brass foundries, carpet and tobacco factories, a paper-mill, and various superior public schools, the chief of which is Union College. This establishment, founded in 1795, and incorporated in 1794, is now one of the principal institutions for public instruction in the state. It has 12 professors and other instructors, and a library of

13,000 vols. (*Amer. Almanack*), and had, in 1835, 241 students. Its position on the Erie canal makes Schenectady an important entrepôt, and it has a flourishing and increasing trade. It is said to occupy the site of an ancient Mohawk village, and was incorporated in 1798. (*New York Gaz.*)

SCHIEDAM, a town and port of S. Holland, cap. cant., on the Schie, a tributary of the Maas, 3 m. W. Rotterdam, and 1 m. N. from the Maas. Pop., in 1840, 12,061. It is well built in the usual style of Dutch towns, and has numerous churches, an exchange, a Latin school, a chamber of commerce and manufactures, and a branch of the Society of Public Good. "It is conspicuous both by the smoke which issues from the chimneys of its distilleries and the vast number of windmills by which it is environed. The whole horizon, in fact, in the direction of Schiedam, seems animated with life and bustle. Schiedam is the chief seat of the manufacture of Dutch gin, or Hollands. The quantity of that spirit produced here annually is very great, there being in the town as many as 100 distilleries, while many thousands of pigs are supported by the refuse of the malt employed in the manufacture. The gin of Schiedam is strong, but mild in flavour, and is usually sold in Holland for 9d. a bottle, or 4s. 6d. a gallon; the price of the gallon on its importation into England being increased by freight and duties to about 28s. or 30s." (*Clemens's Tour to Holland*, 1.) The duty on Hollands, which formerly amounted to 22d. 6d. a gall., was one of the most objectionable in our tariff. It is now (1850) reduced to 15s., but it is still too high. The entries of Hollands for home consumption, which, once amounted to about 200,000 galls., were reduced, in 1849, to 26,917 galls. We doubt, however, whether the consumption be really diminished in the same proportion. The exorbitancy of the duty has in part, at least, thrown the trade into the hands of the smuggler, to the injury alike of the legitimate trader and the revenue. Schiedam has rope-walks, building-docks, and a small though convenient port on the Schie. It sends 1 deputy to the states of the prov.

SCHWABACH, a town of Bavaria, circ. Middle-Franconia, 9 m. S. S. W. Nuremberg. Pop., in 1846, 10,000. It is walled, and pretty well built, having several Protestant churches, a synagogue, a mint, hospital, &c. It is the seat of various manufactures, the principal being that of pins; but there are others of hosiery, hats, gold and silver lace, tobacco, paper, printing types, and Jews' harps. It owes its distinction as a manufacturing town to the influx of emigrants from France, after the revocation of the edict of Nantes.

SCHWARTZBURG-RUDOLSTADT, a principality of central Germany, between lat. 50° 30' and 51° N., and about 11 W. long., inclosed by the territories of Saxe-Weimar, Cobourg, Meiningen, and Hildburghausen. Area 405 sq. m. Pop., in 1849, 62,560, mostly Lutherans. It comprises a portion of the N. declivity of the Thuringian Forest mountains, and is watered by the Schwartz, Ilm, and Saale. It does not yield sufficient corn for home consumption; timber and salt are its principal products. Iron, and a few other metals, are found; and woollen clothes, earthenware, glass, and other kinds of goods are manufactured. Since 1816, the government has been a limited monarchy; the representative body consisting of 5 deputies of the nobility, 5 of the citizens, and 5 of the rural pop. (*Bergkass*); but *Horschbmann* says there are 6 of each. The deputies are elected every 6 years. The parliament has the control of the public funds, and no new law can be adopted without its consent. The principal judicial courts are at Rudolstadt and Frankenhäusen; from which appeal lies to the superior tribunal of Zerbst, in Anhalt-Desau. Public revenue about 250,000 florins. The public debt has been in rapid process of diminution since 1821, and in 1848 it amounted to only 100,000 florins. This principality furnishes 539 men to the army of the German Confederation. Chief towns, Rudolstadt, the cap., on the Saale, with 4,500 inhab.; and Frankenhäusen with 5,000 inhab., and a considerable trade in corn and wool.

SCHWARTZBURG-SONDRSHAUSEN, a principality of central Germany, between lat. 51° 12' and 51° 26' N., and about long. 11° E., inclosed by territories belonging to Prussia on every side except the W., where it joins a detached district of Saxe-Gotha. Area, 358 sq. m. Pop., in 1849, 50,000, mostly Lutherans. Surface undulating, and traversed by several affluents of the Unstrut, flowing in a W. direction. The lower part of the country yields more corn than is required for home consumption; the higher portion has extensive forests, and timber and potash are amongst its principal products. Iron is found; and forges and hardware factories are the principal manufacturing establishments, though some woollen and linen goods are woven. The government is an unlimited monarchy. Appeal may be made from the judicial courts to the superior court of Zerbst in Anhalt-Desau. Public revenue, in 1848, 185,000 crowns; expenditure, 182,000 ditto. Public debt, about 215,000 ditto. Contingent to the army of the Confed., 451 men. Chief

towns, Sondershausen, the cap., on the Wipper, with 3,800 inhabitants; and Arnstadt (which see).

This princip., like the preceding, has one vote in the full diet of the Germ. Confed., and shares the 15th place and one vote in the committees with Oldenburg, and the Anhalt principalities. (*Bergkass*, &c.)

SCHWEIDNITZ, a town of Prussian Silesia, cap. circ. finely situated at the Riesengebirge mountains, on the Weistritz, in a fertile and beautiful country, 30 m. S.E. Breslau. Pop. about 12,500. It is well built, and strongly fortified, the fortifications which had been dismantled by order of Napoleon in 1807, having been reconstructed since the peace on an improved plan, and rendered more formidable than ever. Its castle, formerly the residence of the Piast dukes, is now a workhouse. It has a magnificent Rom. Cath. church, a fine town-house, a gymnasium, a house of correction, and the usual government offices of the cap. of a circ.; with manufactures of woollens, cottons, linens, &c. Near it is the castle of Fürstenstein, a fine antique feudal edifice, bought by the late king of Prussia.

SCHWERIN. See MECKLENBURG SCHWERIN.
SCHWYTZ, or **SCHWEITZ** (CANTON OF), one of the 4 Forest Cantons of Switzerland, which gave its name to the Confederation, in the central part of which it lies, between lat. 46° 50' and 47° 20' N., and long. 8° 20' and 9° E., having N. and N.E. the canton of Zurich and St. Gall, S.E. Glarus, S. Uri and Unterwalden, and W. Zug and Lucerne. Area 338.3 sq. m. Pop., in 1850, 44,164. Nearly the whole surface is mountainous: the Rostock rises about 8,300 ft., and the Nighl about 6,150 ft. above the sea. (*Brugnot, Orographic*.) The Rossberg, the fall of a portion of which in 1806 had most destructive effects, is partly in this canton and partly in that of Zug. The Sihl and the Muotta are the principal rivers: the former falls into the Lake of Zurich, which forms most part of the N. boundary of the canton, and the latter into the Lake of Lucerne, which limits the canton on the S.W. The Linth canal, between the lakes of Wallenstadt and Zurich, runs along its N.E. extremity. The soil and climate are more favourable to cattle-breeding than to agriculture, which is so much neglected, that in some valleys, according to Picot, the plough and flail are unknown! On the other hand, however, the inhabs. are distinguished by their superior treatment of live stock; the cattle of Schwytz are accounted among the best in Switzerland; and upwards of 20,000 head are annually sent from the S. side of the Alps to depasture on the mountains during summer. Near Kusnacht, on the Lake of Lucerne, the vine is grown; and apples, which produce cider, are tolerably abundant. The forests are extensive, and the supply of turf is all but inexhaustible: cotton thread, and this in very small quantity, is almost the only article of manufacture. The principal exports are cattle, cheese (sent mostly across Mt. St. Gothard), and timber. The transit trade is of little importance; and on account of the badness of the roads, is mostly confined to the lakes and navigable parts of the rivers.

The government is a pure democracy, the sovereign power residing in the people at large. The male pop. above 16 years of age form the General Assembly of the canton, which meets every 3 years, on the 1st Monday in May, at Schwytz, to appoint, by show of hands, the landamman, and other supreme officers, the deputies to the Diet; and to deliberate on alliances, declarations of war, treaties of peace, &c. A council of high functionaries and 270 ordinary mems., assemblies usually twice a year, to prepare instructions for the deputies, and hear their reports; and another council of 90 mems. is entrusted with the general executive power. The canton is divided into 6 districts, each of which has its own council and tribunal of primary jurisdiction, the decisions of which are final in cases of less than 1000 R. florins. The chief tribunals sit at Schwytz, and is composed of mems., two thirds of whom belong to the districts of the cap., and the rest to the other districts of the canton. The inhabs. are exclusively R. Catholics, subordinate to the bishop of Chur. Public education is more backward in this than in most other cantons; and it has no public library. At 16, every male inhab. is enrolled in the militia, and Schwytz furnishes a contingent of 602 men to the army of the Confederation, in which it holds the fourth place immediately after the three directorial cantons. Schwytz, the cap. of the canton, at the foot of Mount Mythen, 26 m. S.S.E. Zurich, has about 3,500 inhabs. (*Picot, Statistique de la Suisse; Abel, Manuel, &c.; Ingli's Switzerland, passim*.)

SCIACCA, (an. *Therma Scintamine*), a town and seaport of Sicily, intend. Girgenti, on the S. coast, nearly 30 m. S.E. the ruins of Selinuntum, and 30 m. N.W. Girgenti. Pop., in 1831, 12,668. The town, situated on the declivity of an eminence rising from the bay, is surrounded by an irregular wall, in tolerable repair, with bastions towards the sea, and the castle of Luna at its E. angle. At a distance it has a respectable appearance; but notwithstanding its large churches, convents, and magazine, it appears to be poverty-stricken and

wretched. Surely say, that it has not recovered from the intense of the long-continued and deadly feuds between the families of Luna and Perollo, in the 16th century. (*Schubart's Travels*, II. 349, &c.)

Some of the famous hot springs, whence the city had its ancient name, are a little without the walls towards the E. But the steam-baths, the construction of which was ascribed, in antiquity, to Dædalus, and now called the Stufe of St. Calogero, are on the summit of an isolated mountain, about 3 m. N.E. of the town, and correspond exactly with the description of Diodorus Siculus. They continue, as of old, to be frequented by patients, and consist of several underground grottoes, or caverns, the outer one of which has been excavated in the rock. (*Hogart's Classical Tour*, II. 56.; *Smeyth's Sicily*, p. 216.)

Sciccia is one of the principal ports on the S. coast of the island, for the exportation of corn, and the rock upon which the town stands is, in numerous places, hollowed out into *caveiros*, or corn cellars. In summer ships anchor at about 1 m. off town, in from 7 to 12 fathoms, on a bottom of sand and clay; but being exposed to every wind from the S.E. round to the W., it is not resorted to in winter, except by boats and flat-bottomed craft. (*Smeyth's Appendix*.)

Agathocles, tyrant of Syracuse, famous alike for his great talents, pride, and cruelty, was a native of Sciccia, where he was born *cæso* 359 B.C. He was of low origin, his father being a potter banished from Reggio, his native city. (*Biographie Universelle*.) Faselli, the historian of Sicily, was also a native of this town.

SCILLY ISLANDS, a group of islands, belonging to England, lying about 30 m. W. by S. from the Land's End, supposed by some to be the *Cassiterides*, or tin islands of the ancients. There are supposed to be, in all, about 150 islands and rocks, but there are only about half a dozen of any importance. St. Mary's, the largest, is said to contain about 1,640 acres: the entire area of the group, as given in the population returns, is only 5,570 acres. In 1841, they had a pop. of 2,863. From their situation they necessarily have a mild equable temperature; and though fogs be common, the islands are very healthy. They produce good barley, rye, and oats, the latter being principally of the variety called *villar*, or *avena nuda*. Potatoes are extensively cultivated. Horses and cattle small; sheep numerous, and of good quality; sea-fowl are found in great numbers, and partridges are, also, abundant. There are shrubs, but few or no trees. The inhabitants used to make great quantities of kelp; they are also expert fishers, and act as pilots to such ships as require their services. Already stated, the islands are generally supposed to be the *Cassiterides*, or tin islands of the ancients. But it is most probable that the W. extremity of Cornwall is included under this term; and, at all events, there is now no trace of tin, nor, indeed, of mines of any sort, any of the islands. Hengo-town, the capital of the *nds*, and their only town, is situated on the W. side of Mary's. It has a pier and a custom-house, and is a sort of some consequence, being defended by a fort, the Star Castle, with a small garrison. Persons accused of felonies are sent to Cornwall to be tried at the co. assizes; but all minor offences and suits are tried by a court consisting of twelve of the principal inhabitants, delegated by the proprietor of the island under the duchy of Cornwall, of which they are a part. This court sits once a month at Hengo-town, St. Mary's, for the trial of cases. Vacancies in it are usually filled up by election; but it may be dissolved fresh appointment made by the proprietor. The position of the Scilly Islands renders them of considerable importance in navigation. Lying at the point of junction, as it were, of the English and French Channels, ships passing from the one to the other, should the wind be unfavourable, often elter under these islands: it is sometimes, also, sent for vessels to take shelter among them, than best about at sea in bad weather; and the gale from the E. usually brings in numerous ships. There are four principal sounds or roads between the islands, exclusive of smaller inlets. Of these, St. Mary's, between the islands of St. Mary's and St. Agnes, is the best; but it is generally the safest, either for the E. or any of the other roads, to make use of. The latter are always in readiness to offer assistance. The house of the first class was erected on St. Agnes, the most southerly of the group, in 1680, the lighthouse is elevated 138 ft. above high water mark, and is used for the ordnance survey, in lat. 49° 58' 38" N. long. 12° 55' W.

Withstanding the warning given by this light the ships have been the scene of numerous shipwrecks, the most distressing of these catastrophes occurred on the night of the 23d of Oct. 1707, when the fleet, under the command of the gallant Sir John Byng, was wrecked on the rocks of the Scilly Islands, the ship bearing the flag of the admiral and two other line-of-battle

ships struck upon the rocks near the lighthouse, and were totally lost, with every soul on board. Some of the other ships were in extreme danger. It is not exactly known how the accident arose. The night was dark, but there was very little wind, otherwise the whole fleet must have been destroyed. It is probable that the light had been mistaken for another. The body of the admiral was cast ashore, and buried in St. Mary's; but it was soon after removed to Westminster Abbey, where a monument, creditable to the liberality, though not to the art of the nation, was erected to his memory. (See *Berlase's Account of the Scilly Islands*, 4to., Oxford, 1736; *Cornewall's History of the Scilly Islands*; *Burton's Hist. of His Own Times*, iv. 200., ed. 1753.; *Smollett's England*, anno 1707, &c.)

SCIO (an. Chios), a celebrated and beautiful island of the Ægean Sea, belonging to the Turks, about 5 m. W. from Cape Bianco, in Asia Minor; Chio, its chief town, on its E. side, 53 m. W. Smyrna, being in lat. 38° 22' 30" N., long. 26° 5' E. It is about 32 m. in length N. and S., and, where broadest, about 18 m. across. Though for the most part mountainous and rugged, it has a considerable extent of level and gently sloping ground. Its climate is mild and delightful; and it has numerous fine springs and rivulets. Dr. Clarke says it is the "paradise of modern Greece; more productive than any other island, and yielding to none in grandeur." (III. 236, 8vo. ed.) In antiquity and in modern times, down to the late dreadful catastrophe, it was cultivated with the greatest care and assiduity. Owing to the limited extent of the arable land, and the greater suitability of the soil for other crops, the principal part of the corn required for the use of the inhab. has always been brought from the ports on the Black Sea and other marts. The staple articles of produce are silk, mastic, figs, lemons and oranges, wine, oil, cotton, almonds, &c. Its mineral wealth has been but little explored, but it contains abundance of marble, jasper, and a kind of green earth, resembling verdigrise.

The wines of Chios, especially those produced in the district of *Arivista*, were amongst the most esteemed of any in the ancient world. They have been celebrated by Virgil (*Æd. v. M. 73.*); and Horace asks

"Quo Chium pretio cadum
Mercesur?"

According to Pity, Chian wine was served up by Julius Cæsar at his most splendid entertainments; and it is thought worthy of notice, that Hortensius left a very large stock of this famous beverage to his heir. (*Hist. Nat.*, lib. xiv. cap. 14, 15.) The wine of the island still preserves some portion of its ancient celebrity; but the produce is scanty, and it is said to be injured by transportation.

Mastic, the method of gathering which is fully described by Tournefort (I. 375.), is the most esteemed of the modern products of the island, being in great request among the Turkish ladies. All the mastic trees are supposed to be the property of the grand seignior, or rather of the sultana mother, of whom this island is the peculiar demesne. But formerly the trees were left, with the island itself, to the inhabitants, with but little interference on the part of the Turks, on condition of their annually furnishing a certain quantity of mastic to the Cadî for the use of the imperial seraglio, and paying a moderate capitation tax. And it is to the comparative exemption it has thus enjoyed from Turkish despotism and rapacity, that the sprightly vivacity of its inhabitants, and their greater industry, enterprise, and prosperity, are to be ascribed. Besides its chief city, the island had, previously to its late calamity, several considerable towns and numerous villages. The pop., which was very dense, has been variously estimated at from 80,000 to 150,000; of whom from 30,000 to 35,000 belonged to the capital.

The latter, on the E. coast of the island, constructed by the Genoese, along the sea shore at the foot of the mountains (an. *Pellendi Montes*), on the slope of which stood the ancient city, is the cleanest, handsomest, and most desirable town, as a residence, in the Levant. It is well built, and extended, previously to 1822, with its gardens and villas, for about 4 m. along the sea. Its houses are commodious and its shops and warehouses well furnished; it had numerous Greek and R. Catholic churches, with schools, and even a college. The silk manufacture was carried on upon a large scale, and the velvets, damasks, and other silk goods of Scio, were highly esteemed. It had been for many years the principal entrepôt of the Archipelago, and carried on an extensive and flourishing commerce. Sonnini says that the shallowness of its harbour, which was suitable only for the smaller class of vessels, was the only drawback on its prosperity; but this defect was to a great extent compensated by the excellence of its roads, which affords secure anchorage, and every facility for getting to sea. (Tournefort, I. letter 9.; *Sonnini's Travels in Greece and Turkey*, cap. 37.; *Walpole's Journal*, quoted by Clarke; *Cornwall's Letters from the East*, &c.)

Unhappily, however, these statements apply to the

past more than to the present state of this fine island. In 1822, during the progress of the revolutionary struggle in Continental Greece, a Greek force landed in the town, and a part of the inhab., who had hitherto pursued a strict neutrality, having joined them, they attacked and took the citadel, defended by a small Turkish garrison, which they put to the sword. A strong Turkish force having landed immediately after, took the most desperate revenge for the outrage that had been committed. The island was given up to indiscriminate pillage and massacre. The inhab., taken by surprise, and enervated by long peace and prosperity, offered no effectual resistance to their murderous assailants. It is said that above 20,000 individuals were put to the sword; that as many more, principally women and children, were carried off and sold as slaves; and that the capital was converted into a heap of ruins, and every part of the island laid waste! These statements are most probably a good deal exaggerated; but still there cannot be the shadow of a doubt that the visitation was of the most destructive and tremendous description. Whether Scio be ever destined to recover from this wholesale butchery is problematical; but it were absurd to expect that it should revive so long as it remains in the deadly grasp of the detestable barbarians who have perpetrated such atrocities. Such of the principal inhabs. as were fortunate enough to escape being massacred, immediately fled from the island; and that commerce which had been its principal support has been transferred to Byra, Napoli, and other places. (*Carnes's Letters from the East; Tract on the Greek Revolution*, by the Rev. T. S. Hughes, Lond., 1822; &c.)

In antiquity, Chios gave birth to many distinguished individuals; among whom may be specified Ion, the tragic poet, Theopompus, the historian, Theocritus, the sophist, and Metrodorus, the physician and philosopher. But Chios aspires to a still higher honour, that of being the native country of the first and greatest of poets.

"The blind old man of Chios's rocky isle,"

of whom Valerius Paternulus has justly as well as forcibly said,—*quod neque ante illum, quem ille imitaretur; neque post illum, qui eum imitari posset, inventus est.* (Lib. I. cap. 5.) And it is admitted by the ablest critics that, of all the cities that contended for the honour of having been the birth-place of Homer, the claims of Chios and Smyrna were apparently the best founded.

The Chians were, for some time, in possession of the empire of the sea. They are said to have been the first

who traded in slaves; and the oracle, informed of the fact, declared that it had drawn upon them the anger of heaven; one, says Barthelemi, of the noblest, but at the same time, least regarded answers the Gods have communicated to man. The Chians took a prominent part in the great revolt of the Ionian cities against the Persians, by whom they were afterwards reduced, and punished with great severity. At a subsequent period we sometimes find them on the side of the Athenians, and sometimes on that of the Lacedæmonians.

"Moderate in prosperity, blameless towards their neighbours, and using their increasing wealth and power for no purpose of ambition, but directing their politics merely to secure the happiness they enjoyed," the Chians were amongst the most respectable of the Greek states. (*Milford*, iii. 816, 8vo. ed.)

They became the allies of Rome during the wars with Mithridates. After innumerable vicissitudes Scio came, in the middle ages, into the possession of the Genoese, who, as already stated, built its capital. It was taken by the Turks in the 16th century. (Exclusive of the authorities referred to above, see *Ancient Universal History*, viii. 296, &c., 8vo. ed.; *Cellarius Geographicæ Antiquæ*, li. 19.; *Voyage d'Anacharsis*, cap. 72., &c.)

SCOTLAND, one of the secondary European kingdoms, comprising the Northern and smaller portion of the island of Great Britain, and forming one of the three great divisions of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, between lat. 54° 38' and 58° 40' 30" N., and long. 1° 46' 30", and 6° 3' 30" W., or, including the Hebrides, 7° 44' W. It is surrounded by the ocean on all sides, except on the S., where it is separated from England by the Solway Frith, the Cheviot hills, and the Tweed. Its greatest length, N. to S., from Dunnet Head to the Mull of Galloway, may be estimated at about 280 m.: its breadth is very unequal; varying from 32 m., between Alloa on the Frith of Forth and Dumbarton on the Clyde, to 146 m. between Buchannan Point in Aberdeenshire and Rowanmoan Point in Ross-shire. Its subdivisions, area, and pop., are as follow:

Counties.	Total Area in sq. m.	Area of Land in Acres.	Area of Lakes, &c. in Acres.	Pop. in 1851.	Pop. in 1841.	Acres of Land to an Individual.
Aberdeen	1,970	1,254,400	6,400	177,651	199,583	6-523
Argyll, ex. Islands	2,260	1,408,000	38,400	66,382	63,788	22-073
Ayr	1,043	664,960	3,540	145,065	164,522	4-041
Banff	647	418,800	1,980	86,604	90,075	9-048
Berwick	444	289,880	-	54,048	34,487	9-216
Caithness	697	439,680	6,400	34,529	36,197	12-146
Clackmannan	48	30,720	-	14,729	19,116	1-407
Cromarty	266	163,840	16,400	11,829	11,829	14-116
Dumbarton	259	145,920	19,840	35,511	44,395	3-294
Dumfries	1,363	801,920	6,400	75,770	78,483	11-011
Edinburgh	154	936,560	-	219,545	229,575	4-562
Elgin	480	309,720	4,480	34,331	34,994	8-630
Fife	470	298,880	1,920	128,839	140,310	2-130
Forfar (Angus)	822	568,720	2,560	139,606	170,400	3-235
Galloway	978	174,080	-	26,145	35,781	4-562
Inverness, ex. Islands	5,036	1,858,560	84,480	64,059	55,331	23-428
Kincardine	392	245,920	1,280	31,431	35,092	7-358
Kinross	79	46,080	4,480	6,072	8,763	6-528
Kirkcudbright	854	525,760	8,000	40,590	41,029	12-732
Leven	943	604,880	1,920	316,519	422,113	1-416
Linlithgow	120	76,960	-	25,391	26,848	2-860
Nairn	196	124,800	1,900	9,534	9,518	12-338
Perth	319	204,160	-	10,575	10,590	19-406
Perth	2,638	1,696,320	32,000	142,894	138,181	11-269
Renfrew	227	144,000	1,280	133,443	154,735	3-30
Ross, ex. Islands	2,129	1,391,160	36,400	48,980	50,038	26-107
Roxburgh	715	457,600	320	43,665	46,003	9-247
Selkirk	265	168,320	960	6,833	9,999	21-069
Stirling	828	512,960	8,000	59,681	67,729	8-779
Sutherland	1,201	1,122,560	30,080	29,518	34,665	45-510
Wigtown	459	288,060	4,800	36,908	39,179	7-375
Average of acres to an individual in the mainland	26,014	16,332,800	516,160	2,302,354	2,451,668	6-061
Islands.						
Hebrides, viz.—						
Bute, &c.	161	103,040	2,560	14,131	15,895	6-563
Argyll	929	594,560	15,440	24,331	33,352	17-886
Inverness	1,150	37,760	37,760	40,736	40,064	12-50
Ross	560	358,400	18,200	14,541	17,016	21-063
Orkney Isles	425	272,000	9,000	28,847	30,141	8-536
Shetland Isles	855	647,920	16,000	29,322	30,356	18-006
Totals	29,600	18,944,000	406,580	2,365,114	2,590,610	10-456
Average of acres to an individual in the islands						
Average of acres to an individual in the kingdom						7-238

* The various totals of the above counties include 4,715 persons in barracks, and 1,764 persons in vessels, &c. in harbours.

Scotland is extremely irregular in its surface and outline, and, compared with England, may be said to be sterile, rugged, and mountainous. This is so much the case, that, estimating the whole extent of the country, inclusive of islands and lakes, at 19,000,000 acres, perhaps

not more than 6,000,000, or, at most, a third part, are arable; while the surface of England and Wales, amounting to 37,000,000 acres, comprises at least 29,000,000 acres, or more than three fourths, of arable land. With the exception, indeed, of a few rich allu-

vial tracts, there are no extensive vales in Scotland; its surface, even where least mountainous, being generally varied with hill and dale. It is divided by the Frith of Clyde, Loch Lomond, and the Grampians, into the two grand divisions of the Highlands and Lowlands; the former comprising the N. and the latter the S. part of the country. The Highlands again are divided into two unequal parts by the remarkable narrow and deep valley through which the Caledonian Canal has been constructed. The arable lands in the Highlands are mostly confined to the E. parts of Ross and Cromarty, a slip along the S. side of the Moray Frith, and the E. parts of Aberdeenshire. With these exceptions, the far greater part of the Highlands consists of mountains, moors, and morasses; and in various parts, especially along the W. coast, they are extremely bleak and barren. In Caithness there is a considerable extent of low ground, but it is mostly moor. The Lowland division of the country comprises also a large extent of mountainous districts; but the mountains are not so lofty nor so bleak and rugged as in the Highlands, and there is a much greater extent of low fertile land.

The mountains of Scotland run generally in chains from S.W. to N.E., though there are many detached groups not following this distribution. They are frequently rocky, bare, and precipitous; though mostly covered with heath. The principal and most celebrated chain is that of the Grampians, which comprises nearly all the highest of the Scottish mountains, except Ben Nevis. This stony girdle extends across the island from the arms of the sea, called Loch Eivrie and Loch Fyne, in Argyleshire, E. by N. to Stonehaven on the E. coast, and Echt, in Aberdeenshire, forming, as already stated, in the greater part of its course, the line of demarcation between the Highlands and Lowlands, and separating the waters which flow into the Forth, Tay, and South Esk, from those which join the Speen, Spey, and Dee. Its most elevated summits are near the head of the Northern Dee. Ben Macduh, 11 m. N.W. Breemar, lat. $57^{\circ} 6'$ N., long. $5^{\circ} 37'$ W., 4,390 ft. above the level of the sea, is one of the culminating points of the Grampians, and the highest of the British mountains, being 30 ft. higher than Ben Nevis, which was long considered as the highest of the Scotch mountains, and 819 ft. higher than Snowdon in Wales. The other principal summits in the Grampian chain are Cairnmore, 4,345 ft.; Cairngorm, 4,095 ft.; Ben Lawers, 3,945 ft.; Ben Avon, 3,967 ft. in height, &c. Ben Lomond, in Stirlingshire, 3,195 ft. in height, on the E. side of Loch Lomond, the best known of all the Scottish mountains, also belongs to this chain. The Grampians are distinguished by their sterility, and desolate aspect; their sides are barren or exhibiting vast perpendicular ledges of rock. The principal passes through the chain are those of Aberfoyle, Lenl, Glenashie, and Killiecrankie.

Ben Nevis, alluded to above, lies to the N.W. of this chain, in about $56^{\circ} 49'$ $30''$ N. lat., long. 5° W., being separated from the Grampians by the moor of Rannoch, rises to an elevation of 4,370 ft. above the sea. Its summit, which commands a magnificent view extending from the Paps of Jura to Cuchullin in Skye, Cairngorm, Ben Macduh, &c., is, during the greater part of the year, covered with snow. From Ben Nevis N. to Loch Broom several mountains rise to nearly 4,000 ft. in height; and the country is so thinly inhabited that frequently for many miles not a house is visible. But from Loch Broom to the Wrath the surface diminishes considerably in elevation, and, though bleak in the extreme, is, for some space from the W. coast inland, not more than about 60 ft. above the sea.

The Lowlands, the Sidlaw and Ochil hills, which parallel to the Grampians, nowhere rise to 2,500 ft. ed Broadlaw, on the N. border of Dumfriesshire, highest mountain in the S. of Scotland, is only 2,741 feet above the sea. The moors in the Lowlands, including the mountains of Roxburgh, Dumfriesshire, Selkirk, and Lanark shires, are frequently high, and covered with a fine sward, affording good pasture for sheep.

Though the valleys and level tracts in Scotland be of limited extent, as compared with those of England, some of them are extremely fertile, and they are generally well cultivated. The carse of Stirling and Falkirk, on the banks of the Forth; that of Strathearn, on the Tay; and the mere of Berwickshire, alluvial tracts, are not inferior, in point of fertility, to any part of the empire. The Tiviotdale, a low lands along the Tiviot; Tynedale, or the How, along the Tyne, in E. Lothian; the How, or the low ground along the Eden in Fifeshire and Strathmore, or the low grounds between the Grampian Mountains and the Ochil Hills, consist, in most part, of rich loamy soil, and are extremely fertile. It should also be observed that the general aspect of the surface makes the lower parts of them appear to be much less fruitful than they

really are; the hollows between the small eminences being often extremely fertile, and the eminences themselves, even when they are unsuited to tillage, frequently furnish excellent pasture. This is particularly the case in the S.W. counties: large tracts of land in Galloway and Dumfriesshire that lie from 250. to 300. an acre and upwards, would appear to one not well acquainted with the country and its capabilities worth little or nothing. A good deal of level but generally high-lying land, especially in the Highlands, and in some parts also of the lowlands, consists of moors; having for the most part a clay subsoil, covered with peat earth or moss impregnated with water, not unlike the bogs of Ireland. Many of these moors are of very considerable extent; the largest, probably, as well as the most desolate and worthless, is the moor of Rannoch, to the S. of Ben Nevis, comprised in the shires of Argyle, Perth, and Inverness.

Rivers.—Scotland has numerous rivers, several of which are of considerable size. They differ from those of England in being more precipitous, rapid, interrupted by cataracts, and subject to sudden overflows. Except the Clyde, the others mostly disembrace on the E. coast. The Tweed, which rises on the confines of Dumfriesshire and Lanarkshire, falls into the N. Sea at Berwick, after a course of about 100 m., only a small portion of which is navigable. Proceeding northwards, the next river of any considerable magnitude is the Forth, which rises on the E. side of Ben Lomond, and has in general an easterly, but very tortuous course to Kinross, where it unites with the great estuary, or rather arm of the sea, the Frith of Forth, the *Bodaxis* of Tacitus. It receives, on its N. side, the Teith and Allan, and from the S., the Devon, &c.; Aberfoyle, Stirling, and Alloa are on its banks. The Forth is rapid for some considerable distance from its source; but during the greater part of its course it runs through a flat country with many windings: vessels of 300 tons ascend the Forth as far as Alloa, and those of 70 tons ascend to Stirling. It is connected with the Clyde by the great canal from Grangemouth to Dumbarton. The Tay is the largest of Scotch rivers, and is supposed to carry more water to the sea than the Thames, or any other river in Great Britain. (See *TAY*.) The N. and S. Esks, Dee, Don, Spey, and Findhorn, all discharge themselves on the E. coast; and in the N. division of the Highlands are the Nairn, Ness, Beaulie, &c. The Spey is one of the largest rivers in Scotland, and certainly the most rapid. It rises in Loch Spey, and pursues mostly a N.E. course to the Moray Frith, which it enters after a course of about 96 m. It receives no large tributary, but innumerable mountain torrents, in consequence of which it is subject to frequent and destructive inundations. The Clyde, the *Gloeta* of Tacitus, though not the largest, is decidedly the most important Scotch river in a commercial point of view, Lanark, Hamilton, and Glasgow being situated on its banks. It rises in the highest part of the Lowlands, close to the sources of the Tweed and Annan; and runs at first N., but afterwards generally N.W., to the Frith of Clyde, with which it unites 7 or 8 m. below Glasgow, after a course of between 70 and 80 m. It receives from the S. the Douglas, Nethan, Avon, Cart, &c.; and from the N., the Kelvin, Leven, &c. The Clyde has been rendered navigable for vessels of 800 tons, as far as Glasgow. (See *CLYDE*, and *GLASGOW*.) The Southern Dee, Nith, and Annan, flowing into the Solway Frith, are the only other streams it is necessary to notice.

The lakes, or fresh-water lakes of Scotland, are numerous, and highly distinguished for their picturesque scenery. Loch Lomond (which see, *ante*, p. 193.) is the largest lake in Great Britain; being about 34 m. in length, and from 7 m. to 7½ m. across in the broadest part. It is estimated to cover about 25,000 acres. Lochs Awe, Ness, Mares, Tay, Shin, &c., in the shires of Argyle, Ross, Perth, and Dundee, are among the most principal lakes. Most of these are long, narrow, and deep, filling up the bottoms of the valleys between the mountains. They abound with trout, perch, pike, &c.; but Loch Leven, in Kinross-shire, is the only lake that yields any revenue to its proprietors.

The coasts of Scotland are mostly bold and rocky; and on the W. side, in particular, they are very much indented by arms of the sea, termed friths, and lochs, that extend far inland, and, for the most part, carry deep water to their very head. These friths and inlets are of considerable importance in a commercial point of view, especially as some of the rivers are navigable to a great distance inland. On the E. coast are the friths of Forth and Tay, which, especially the first, are of great importance, as affording facilities of communication to the richest districts of the country; N. of the latter, on the same coast, are the friths of Moray, Dornoch, Cromarty, &c.; on the W. coast, the frith of Clyde, and Lochs Broom, Torridon, Linlithgow, Fyne, &c., deeply indent the country. The harbours of Leith, Grangemouth, Queensferry, Burntisland, &c., are in the Frith of Forth, and

those of Dundee and Perth in the Frith of Tay. Between the Tay and Buchan Ness are the harbours of Montrose, Aberdeen, and Peterhead: the Frith of Cromarty, N. of Buchan Ness Point, is unquestionably the best asylum for shipping on the E. side of Great Britain, and one of the finest, indeed, that is anywhere to be met with. Between the latter and Duncansby Head are the small harbours of Wick, St. Clair's Bay, &c. From Cape Wrath to the Clyde, the narrow arms of the sea, though deep and secure, are little frequented. The ports of Greenock and Glasgow are the principal in the Frith of Clyde, and enjoy an extensive trade; but Lamlash Bay, on the E. side of the Isle of Arran, is the best harbour in this neighbourhood. There are some pretty good harbours on the coast of Wigton and Kirkcubright shires. The principal headlands are St. Abb's Head, Rife Ness, Peterhead, Tarbet Ness, and Duncansby Head, on the E.; Dunnet Head and Cape Wrath, on the N.; Ru-Ru, Ardnarnachan, and the Mulls of Oe and Cantire, on the W.; and the Mull of Galloway and Burrowhead, on the S. coast.

There are few or no islands off the E., but many of large size lie contiguous to and off the W., coast. These are mostly included under the Hebrides (which see). The islands of Orkney and Shetland (which see) lie off the N. coast of Scotland, the Orkney being separated from the mainland by the Pentland Frith, 6 m. across.

General Aspect of the Country.—The finest parts of the low country of Scotland usually want the rich luxuriance of an English landscape. Within the last sixty or seventy years a great deal has, no doubt, been done in the way of raising plantations; and the strictures of Dr. Johnson, as to the deficiency of wood, would at present be quite inapplicable, however just they may have been when dictated. In Scotland, however, plantations are not spread generally over the country, but are mostly congregated in the neighbourhood of gentlemen's seats, while in many large tracts they are wholly wanting. In most parts, too, we look in vain for those hedgerow trees that give so much of a woody appearance to the southern part of the island. Generally, also, the inclosures are a good deal larger than in England; and the fences being either stone walls (dykes) or hedges, that occupy only a small space of ground, having little of the breadth and roughness of those of England, the country, however well farmed, seems to an Englishman deficient in vegetation and verdure, and cold and comfortless. On the other hand, however, the succession of new objects presented by the unevenness of the surface, the rude grandeur of the mountains that every where bound the prospect, and the striking contrast frequently afforded between high, well-cultivated, low grounds, and the contiguous rich barren ridges, take from the Scottish landscape the tameness and monotony that prevail in many parts of England, and render it singularly picturesque and impressive.

Climate.—Scotland has a more rigorous climate than England; but, owing to the proximity of most parts of the country to the sea, and the numerous friths and deep bays, by which it is penetrated, it is less severe than might, from the lat., be expected. The mean annual temperature of places near the level of the ocean, throughout the country, averages about 46° Fah. At Edinburgh, which is from 800 to 400 ft. above the sea-level, the mean temperature of the year is 47° 80, which may be taken as that of the inland parts generally in the S. of Scotland, the mean of the coldest month being 38° 80, and of the warmest, 59° 40. A great deal of rain falls in Scotland, but very unequally; for on the E. coast it ranges from 22 to 30 in.; whereas, on the W. coast and in the Hebrides, it ranges from 30 to 44 in. The average fall of rain in Edinburgh is about 32½, and in Glasgow about 29·65 in. Excess of humidity, and the occurrence of heavy rains in August, September, and October, and of cold piercing E. winds, especially along the E. coast, in the months of April, May, and the first half of June, are the great drawbacks on the climate of Scotland. It is rare, indeed, that the crops suffer from heat or drought; but they frequently suffer from wet and from violent winds, especially in the W. part of the country. The climate is, however, highly salubrious, and favourable alike to longevity, and to the development of the physical and mental powers.

Geology.—A line drawn in a N.E. direction from the m. of the Clyde to Stonehaven, on the E. coast, separates the two principal geological regions. The first, to the N. of that line, is mostly composed of primary rocks, granite, gneiss, mica-slate, covered at the foot of the mountain chains with beds of conglomerate and red sandstone; whereas the second, to the S. of the above line, is the region of transition formations, in which rocks of that kind mostly prevail, overlain in various parts by trap, red sandstone, and coal beds: granite is, however, largely developed in the S.W. of the kingdom, in the stewartry of Kirkcubright, at Criffel, and in the Cairnsmuir range. Little if any coal exists in the primary division of the

country; few metals are discovered there, and its most important mineral products are building-stone and roofing-slate. Some lead mines are, however, wrought at Strontian, in Argyllshire; and in Inverness-sh. plumbeous or inferior quality has been found, imbedded between laminae of mica slate. None of the secondary calcareous formations, so extensively prevalent in England, have been found in Scotland, nor any tertiary formations.

Coal and Iron.—The great coal district of Scotland may be considered as bounded on the N. by a line drawn from the mouth of the Tay to the N. extremity of the Isle of Arran, and on the S. by another line drawn from St. Abb's Head to Girvan, in Argyshire. These limits comprise a head of country, in which are several large coal-fields detached from the coast, the most valuable extending along the banks of the Forth, with a breadth of from 10 to 12 m. on either side the river. The Edinburgh coal-field, to the S. and E. of that city, occupies an area of 80 sq. m.; and from Bathgate the coal deposits extend W. to Glasgow and Paisley, and have, in fact, been the principal cause of the wonderful progress made by the former in manufactures, wealth, and population. There are several small detached coal-fields in Argyshire and some of the other S. counties. Iron is of frequent occurrence in the coal districts, especially in Lanarkshire, where the ores are of the very best quality; and the iron trade of that county, and of Scotland generally, has latterly increased with unexampled rapidity, and is now of the greatest importance. So much so is this the case, that, while in June, 1833, there were only 29 furnaces in blast, estimated to produce 75,000 tons of iron, it appears from the following statement, obtained from private sources, on which every reliance may be placed, that on the 1st January, 1851, there were 105 furnaces in blast, producing at the rate of 600,600 tons a year! There were then also 37 furnaces out of blast.

Works.	Where situated.	St. Furnaces.	Out of Blast.	Total.	Weekly Produce, 110 tons per Week each Furnace.	Yearly Produce, 110 tons per Week each Furnace.
Garscherrrie	Lanarkshire	16	1	16	1,630	66,800
Dumfries	—	7	2	9	770	40,040
Clyde	—	2	4	7	530	17,160
Glasgow	—	4	0	4	400	20,800
Calder	—	5	5	8	560	28,720
Govan	—	4	2	6	440	22,280
Langston	—	3	0	3	250	14,520
Carnegie	—	2	4	6	450	22,920
Summerlee	—	5	1	6	550	28,860
Monkland	—	9	0	9	880	51,840
Coltness	—	2	1	3	240	12,240
Shotts	—	3	1	4	320	17,160
Castlemill	—	2	1	3	280	11,400
Glenagegall	Argyshire	8	1	9	880	46,760
Blaik	—	0	1	1	80	—
Muirirk	—	3	1	4	320	11,400
Lugar	—	4	0	4	440	22,480
Delnamlagton	—	3	1	4	350	17,160
Northside	—	2	0	2	200	11,400
Northside	—	2	0	2	200	11,400
Forth	Fife-shire	0	1	1	80	—
Lochgelly	—	0	2	2	160	8,160
Garscube	Dumfries-shire	0	2	2	160	8,160
Carroon	Strathclyde	2	1	3	230	11,400
Devon	Blackburn	2	0	2	230	11,400
Kinnaird	Leith-shire	4	0	4	440	22,480
Total		105	37	142	11,550	600,600*

The whole of the above iron is made by means of heated air, with the exception of one furnace at Carroon.

The bar iron trade of Scotland has not made the progress that might, perhaps, have been anticipated. We subjoin some details.

Malleable Iron Works in Scotland, 1st January, 1851.

Works.	Where situated.	Weekly Production.
Monkland	Lanarkshire	600
Garscube	—	250
Dumfries	—	250
Govan	—	100
Moosed	—	320
Glasgow Iron Works	Argyshire	320
Muirirk	Fife-shire	120
East of Scotland	—	300
West of Scotland	Lanarkshire	300
Total		2,590

* We have estimated the produce at the average rate of 110 tons per week for each furnace, without making any allowance for stoppages. Others estimate the produce at 130 tons per week per furnace, allowing a fortnight for stoppages. On this hypothesis the total produce would be 650,000 tons, but we are assured that the estimate we have given comes the nearest to the truth.

† Standing last year: lately sold, and about commencing.

This makes the total produce 123,340 tons a year. The production last year, however, was only about 80,000 tons, caused by two of the works standing, and the others working short time.

Gold has been occasionally found in the streams near the lead hills in Lanarkshire, and elsewhere; and silver has been met with in various places; but the precious metals are not so abundant as to defray the expense of seeking for them.

Next to iron, lead and copper are the most valuable metals. The mines of Wanlockhead and Leadhills, on the borders of Lanarkshire and Dumfriesshire, furnish annually about 800 or 1,000 tons lead, and the produce of the mines in Ayrshire, Kirkcudbright, &c., may amount to about as much more. Small quantities of cobalt, bismuth, manganese, &c., are met with. Scotland produces marble in great variety, and of very superior quality, slates, excellent building stone, and many varieties of gems. Brick is but little used in building; the houses being everywhere almost of stone.

Scotland is supposed to possess about 2,300 indigenous plants, of which 770 are dicotyledonous, 360 monocotyledonous, and 2,000 cryptogamic. Most of the forest trees of England are met with. In the Highlands are several extensive forests of pine (*Pinus sylvestris*), covering the valleys, and ascending to an elevation of 2,500 ft. up the mountains. Apples, pears, plums, peaches, apricots, &c. ripen in the open air as far N. as Inverness, and in warm sheltered situations to the N. extremity of the kingdom. The sea-weed, which grows in great profusion round the coasts, used to be extensively manufactured into kelp, and the business, though much diminished, in consequence of the preparation of *seaweed factories* (artificial soda), is still carried on to a considerable extent.

The wild animals of Scotland are mostly the same as those of England, including the stag, wild roe, hare, rabbit, fox, badger, otter, wild cat, hedgehog, &c.; though some of these are becoming scarce. The wolf and beaver, formerly natives of the country, have been long extinct; and the only existing remains of the *urus*, or native breed of cattle, are restricted to a few preserved in the Duke of Hamilton's park, near Hamilton. One of the domestic animals peculiar to Scotland is the *collie*, or true shepherd's dog, and many specimens of the unimpaired breed are extant. Several species of eagles, and other birds of prey, and aquatic birds in great numbers, inhabit the rugged coasts, and a pheasant, ptarmigan, black-cock, grouse, and partridge abound inland. The noble species of game called *capercaillie*, or cock of the wood (*Tetrao Uro-zeus*), was formerly abundant in Scotland; but it is now to have been exterminated about 1760. Within a few years, however, it has been re-introduced the Marquis of Breadalban, the Earl of Fife, and other extensive forest proprietors; and there can be no doubt that, if properly protected, it will succeed very well; but it is too obvious and too tempting a mark for poacher to maintain itself. Scotland has also most of the English singing-birds, except the nightingale, which is rarely, indeed, found N. of the Trent. The rivers are similar to those of England: the rivers teem with the finest salmon, trout, &c.; and the salmon fisheries of the Tay, Tweed, Forth, Spey, &c., are highly celebrated.

The salmon fishery is the most important article in the country. The domestic fisheries, and since London has received the greater part by far of her salmon from Scotland, considerable quantities are sent to Liverpool. The fish are brought up in the hottest weather, quite fresh, being packed in

pounded ice. Previously to the introduction of this plan salmon used to be consumed principally in the country where it was taken; and, in some parts of Scotland, domestic servants used to stipulate that they should not be obliged to dine on salmon more than three or four times a week. The salmon fisheries seem to have attained their maximum value towards the end of last year, when the fisheries in the Tweed were let for 15,000*l.* to 18,000*l.* a year! and those of the Tay, Dee, Spey, &c., were proportionally valuable. But the value of the Scotch salmon fisheries has, speaking generally, declined greatly of late years; in consequence principally of a diminished supply of fish in the rivers, but, in some degree, also, from the greater facility of communication between London and Liverpool, and the consequent importation of Irish salmon into London, and more recently of foreign salmon. We were fortunate enough to obtain from a source on which every reliance may be placed, the following

Account of the Quantity of Salmon packed in Ice imported into London, from Scotland, during each of the 8 Years ending with the 14th of Oct., 1841, and of the wholesale Price of the same.

Years ending Oct. 14.	Weight of Fish.	Average Price, about	Total Value.
	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>£</i>
1834	5,139,800	9d per lb.	155,900
1835	4,740,960	10	177,900
1836	2,751,340	10½	170,400
1837	2,617,600	10½	166,750
1838	2,296,300	10½	164,160
1839	1,830,080	11	43,880
1840	1,607,280	11	77,450
1841	2,192,872	11	116,400

This, it will be observed, is independent of the pickled salmon brought from Scotland, the quantity and value of which varies as much as that of the fresh salmon. But we are well assured that, at an average of the last eight years, its value has not exceeded 12,000*l.* a year. At an average, the retail price of salmon in London may be taken at from 50 to 75 per cent. above the wholesale price.

We may remark by the way that as by far the largest portion of the salmon made use of in London comes from Scotland, the above statement shows that its consumption in the metropolis is not nearly so great as is generally supposed. In fact, it is little used, except by the more opulent classes; and nothing that is not generally used by the middle classes, or by them and the lower, is ever of much public importance.

The herring fishery has latterly been prosecuted with considerable success, and is now becoming an important branch of industry. Down to a recent period, it had been attempted to bolster up this department by granting bounties on the fitting out of vessels for the fishery, on the herrings taken and exported, and so forth. But notwithstanding the very large sums expended in this way, their influence was found to be injurious rather than otherwise; partly by the meddling they occasioned on the part of government, and partly by the temptation the bounty afforded to small farmers and others, nowise acquainted with the business, to engage in it to the injury of the regular fishermen. At length, however, the abolition of the duty on salt, and the growing conviction of the inexpediency of the bounty, led first to its gradual, and ultimately to its total abolition in 1830; since which, we are happy to have to state, the business has not only been carried on upon a solid foundation, but has progressively increased. This is obvious from the following

account of the total Quantity of Herrings cured, branded, and exported, in the undermentioned Years.

Total Quantity of Herrings cured.			Total Quantity of Herrings branded.	Total Quantity of Herrings exported.		
Cured.	Uncured.	Total.		Cured.	Uncured.	Total.
<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>
65,430	36,397½	91,827½	65,669	18,880	9,825	28,705
106,374½	54,767	161,141½	83,376	68,938	73,267½	142,205½
247,190½	85,201	332,391½	209,706	214,095	9,490	223,585
303,307	43,688	347,005	270,844	101,582½	154	101,736½
290,933½	48,023	338,956½	318,418	177,776	8,878½	186,654½
217,442½	60,074	277,517	85,079	156,279	3,560	159,839
599,334	98,380	697,714	109,317	270,844	2,547	273,391
290,169	107,600	397,769	114,192	187,254	2,077	189,331
382,400	126,574	508,974	141,552	329,160	5,697	334,857
382,229	175,330	557,559	155,689	325,490	6,040	331,530
305,379½	138,468	443,847½	156,821	320,534	1,968	322,502
431,167	126,105	557,272	154,149	346,851	3,282	350,133
489,620½	177,684	667,304½	190,292½	385,530	1,898	387,428½
448,620	181,129	629,749	191,313	379,948	4,787	384,735
473,568	183,299	656,867	182,988	311,167	2,349	313,516
411,271	121,375	532,646	145,473	340,008	3,186	343,194
414,916½	189,358	604,274½	156,824	320,877	4,854	325,731
373,989	189,734	563,723	146,500	345,242	4,339	349,581
392,827	231,241	624,068	153,244	344,635	6,339	350,974
507,024½	265,673	772,698	213,286	355,091	6,164	361,255

In 6 years ending 30th April, 1815, the bounty on herrings cured gutted was 2*s.* per barrel, while there was a bounty of the 2*s.* 6*d.* per barrel, payable by the excise, on the exportation of herrings, whether cured gutted or uncured, but which ceased in 1815. In the 11 years ending 30th April, 1826, the bounty on herrings cured gutted was 4*s.* per barrel (about 30 per cent. wholesale price). In the 4 succeeding years, the bounty was reduced 1*s.* per barrel each year, till the 30th April, 1830, when it was, and has not since been renewed.

The cod and white-fish fishery is also extensively carried on; 98,903 cwts. and 6,588 bar. cod having been cured in 1849. The large share taken by Scotland in the Northern whale fishery is evinced by the statement, that, in 1834, of 76 vessels engaged in the trade, 41, of the aggregate burden of 13,242 tons, were from Scotland, and brought home 4,912 tons of oil and 287 tons of whalebone. This department of industry has since, however, rapidly declined, not from any diminution of skill or enterprise, but from the increasing risks and unprofitable nature of the business. Fortunately the loss of the whale fishery has been more than compensated by the extension of the herring fishery, and the success that has attended it.

Races of Inhabitants.—It is generally allowed that the first immigrants into Scotland, like those into England, whence, perhaps, they originally came, belonged to the great Celtic family; and Mr. Chalmers and others have endeavoured to prove that the population continued to be purely Celtic till it was invaded, first by Roman, and subsequently by Gothic invaders. (*Caledonia*, vol. i. p. 496, &c.) But this opinion does not seem very tenable. Tacitus expressly affirms that the Caledonians, or inhabitants of Scotland, were of Germanic or Gothic origin. "*Rutilia Caledonia habitantium comas magni artus, Germanicam originem advescentem.*" (*Vit. Agricola*, cap. ii.) Agricola, however, from whom Tacitus derived his information, knew little or next to nothing of the country N. of the Grampians; and, as there is every reason to think that Berwickshire, the Lothians, Fife, and other parts of the low country on the E. coast of Scotland, were, like the same tracts in England, early occupied by Belgic, or other Gothic colonists from the opposite continental coast, it seems most probable that Tacitus, in ascribing to the Caledonians a Germanic origin, had these only in view. Their fair presumption is, that, in the northern, as in the more southern part of the island, the old Celtic inhabitants maintained their ascendancy in all the mountainous, and, comparatively inaccessible districts; and this reasonable presumption is corroborated by various circumstances.

In the third century, the terms Picts and Pictland began to be substituted for Caledonians and Caledonia. It is pretty generally believed that these terms apply to the same people, and the same country. It seems, indeed, to be perfectly clear, that the Picts were descended from the Scythians or Goths; and, if we be right in our statement, as to the origin of the Caledonians, it follows that, if the Picts were not identical with them, they belonged, at all events, to a congeneric race.

About the period of the withdrawal of the Romans from Britain, a tribe called *Scoti* or *Atacotti* (the *Dalriads* of the venerable Bede), began to be distinguished as a leading tribe in Ireland; and seems, indeed, to have given its name to the island, which, for some centuries, was called *Scotia*. (*Pinkerton's Geography*, i. 137. ed. 1811.) It would seem, that, previously to the 11th century, a colony of the *Scoti* from Ireland had established themselves in the West Highlands; and this colony, in no very long time, gave its name first to the Highlands, whence it was subsequently extended, on its being united under one government, to all that part of the island N. of the Tweed and the Solway Frith. The *Scoti* ceased to be heard of in Ireland not long after they had obtained a footing in the Highlands, and the ancient names of that island were revived.

Every thing connected with the history of the *Scoti* is involved in impenetrable obscurity. But it is agreed, that, whatever may have been their remote origin, they had, when they settled in the Western Highlands, the language and habits of the Irish Celts, or Gael, a congeneric race with the Highland Celts, and speaking, in fact, the same language. But the *Scoti*-colonists had a written language, which the old occupiers of the country had not; and they were also decidedly superior to the latter in knowledge and civilisation. (*Pinkerton, On the Early History of Scotland*, ii. 160.) These circumstances sufficiently account for the ascendancy they acquired, and for their being able to give their name to the Highlands, without having recourse to the hypothesis, for which there is not a little of evidence, of their having conquered the country.

After the Romans withdrew from Britain, some Gothic or Saxon tribes, following the example set by those who had previously settled in the more southerly parts of the island, established themselves, during the sixth century of our era, between the Tweed and the Frith of Forth. (*Turner's Anglo-Saxons*, 6th ed., l. 299.) These new immigrants were afterwards followed by others, at the same time that they drew recruits from their brethren established in England; and Mr. Chalmers supposes that, their power being thus progressively augmented, they gradually acquired a complete ascendancy in all the southern parts of the kingdom, and communicated to it

their language and manners. (*Caledonia*, ii. 7.) This, however, would have been an extremely difficult task; but if, which seems abundantly certain, we conclude, with Pinkerton, that the Picts, who were in possession of all the low country in the sixth century, were congeneric with the Saxons, by whom it was then invaded, the two races would readily amalgamate, and the early prevalence of the Scandinavian or Gothic tongue in the Lowlands is rationally and satisfactorily accounted for.

Towards the end of the eighth century, a fresh colony from Ireland established itself in the district now known by the name of Galloway, in the S.W. part of Scotland. But though these colonists succeeded in giving a name to the country, they were not sufficiently numerous to introduce their language into common use.† And for several centuries, long indeed before the inhabitants had any considerable intercourse with other parts of the kingdom, the Saxon tongue has been in as universal use in Galloway as in any part of the Lowlands of Scotland.

Exclusive of the Celts, Goths, or Picts, Romans, Scotch-Irish, and Saxons, colonies of Danes and Norwegians established themselves in Caithness, and other parts of the mainland, as well as in Orkney and Shetland, and parts of the Western Isles. Generally, however, it may be said, notwithstanding the late great influx of Irish settlers into Glasgow, Paisley, and other large towns, that at present the inhab. of the Lowlands of Scotland are principally of Saxon, while those of the Highlands, with the exception of Caithness, are almost entirely of Celtic extraction.

Population.—We have few data to guide us in estimating the amount of the pop. previously to the period of the Union. In 1707, at which time Scotland is supposed to have had about 1,050,000 inhab. In 1755, the pop. was ascertained by Dr. Webster to amount to 1,265,000; and since 1801 its progress has been as follows:—[See Table next page.]

This increase, though rapid, is less than the increase of the pop. of England during the same period; and it is, also, much less than the increase in Ireland from 18-1 to 1831. This, however, is a favourable system, for there are good grounds for thinking that the wealth of Scotland increased more rapidly during the above period than that of either of the other great divisions of the empire; and if so, it is plain, inasmuch as her inhab. did not increase so fast, that their condition must have been proportionally improved; and, in point of fact, they are, speaking generally, in more prosperous circumstances at present than at any former period. Owing to the sterility of the soil, and other causes, the pop. of Scotland is much less dense than that of the sister kingdoms. The increase of pop. has been chiefly in the great towns: during the 10 years ending with 1830, the pop. of the country at large increased 16 per cent., and during the 10 years preceding 1830, 13 per cent.; while the pop. of the large towns increased respectively 36½ and 36½ per cent. during the same periods. The pop. in some of the cos. has lately rather declined, in consequence of the consolidation of farms, and the extension of sheep walks.

Agriculture.—Scotland, from being about the middle of last century one of the worst cultivated countries of Europe, is now one of the best. At this moment, indeed, the agriculture of the best farmed cos. of Scotland is certainly equal, and is by many deemed superior, to that of Northumberland, Lincoln, and Norfolk, the best farmed cos. of England. The proximate cause of this extraordinary progress must be sought for in the rapid growth of manufactures and commerce, and consequently of large towns, and the proportionally great demand for agricultural produce since the peace of Paris in 1763, and especially since the close of the American war. Fortunately, too, the influence of these favourable circumstances was not counteracted by any vicious institutions, or by any thing unfavourable in the mode of letting and occupying land. Next to the opening of new, extensive, and rapidly increasing markets, the wonderful improvement of Scotch husbandry may be ascribed to the prevalence of leases of reasonable length, usually 19 years, and which generally embody clauses to prevent the exhaustion of the soil; the

† Galloway, in the Latin writers of the middle times, *Gallivadia* and *Gallivodia*, so called by the Irish who sometimes dwell there, and termed themselves, in their own language, *Gael*. (*Thomson's Poet's Galloway*, in the Appendix to *Spenser's Glossary*, p. 114.)

‡ This island has been, in all times, the most fertile of the people of Scotland and England, where it has taken place to an equally great extent, without conferring any corresponding advantage on the inhab. (*See Statistics of Great Britain*, 5d edition, l. 396.)

* See Pinkerton's chapter on the Origin of the Picts, in his *Inquiry into the early History of Scotland*.

Counties.	1801.	Inc. per cent.	1811.	Inc. per cent.	1821.	Inc. per cent.	1831.	Inc. per cent.	1841.		
									Males.	Females.	Total.
Aberdeen	122,092	10	130,075	15	155,387	14	177,651	8.2	89,498	109,765	199,263
Argyll	71,859	19	85,563	14	97,316	4	100,973	-	47,654	49,486	97,140
Banff	84,306	23	103,954	22	127,299	14	145,055	13.4	78,970	85,552	164,522
Bell	35,907	2	36,668	19	43,561	12	48,604	2	23,423	26,631	50,076
Brechin	30,821	1	30,779	8	33,585	2	34,018	1.1	16,247	17,800	34,047
Burgh	11,791	2	12,033	15	13,797	8	14,151	10.0	7,106	6,567	13,673
Caithness	22,609	4	23,419	29	20,236	14	24,529	4.8	16,993	19,204	36,197
Canterbury	10,856	11	12,010	10	13,353	11	14,739	29.7	4,351	9,785	19,116
Clackmannan	30,716	17	34,189	12	37,317	22	38,911	33.6	19,503	21,730	44,230
Dumfries	54,297	15	62,960	18	70,378	4	75,770	-	31,097	36,728	72,825
Dunbarton	123,254	21	148,607	29	191,514	15	219,545	2.8	109,709	129,814	239,523
Dumfries	36,706	5	38,106	11	31,388	12	34,851	2.2	16,071	18,925	34,996
Dumfries	39,743	8	40,173	13	44,554	18	48,339	8.0	26,755	24,575	51,330
Dumfries	39,127	8	40,364	6	41,430	23	43,606	21.7	29,334	31,166	60,500
Dumfries	39,988	4	41,164	13	45,127	5	48,145	2	27,353	28,598	55,951
Dumfries	74,299	5	78,536	15	90,157	5	94,797	5	45,506	50,109	95,615
Dumfries	36,349	4	37,439	6	39,118	8	41,511	5.1	16,804	17,448	34,252
Dumfries	4,725	8	5,243	7	5,728	17	6,072	-	4,194	4,569	8,763
Dumfries	22,111	15	25,694	15	28,903	4	30,590	1.2	18,358	20,761	41,099
Dumfries	146,609	31	191,728	27	244,387	30	216,819	14.6	108,369	118,744	247,113
Dumfries	17,894	9	19,451	17	22,685	5	23,291	25.2	12,766	15,082	26,848
Dumfries	4,257	-	4,251	9	9,006	4	9,551	-	4,232	4,986	9,218
Dumfries	46,244	-	46,133	15	53,124	10	56,329	2.8	26,845	28,533	55,378
Dumfries	8,736	14	9,835	1	10,046	5	10,578	-	5,122	5,596	10,718
Dumfries	126,366	7	128,093	8	139,150	5	142,894	-	65,389	72,812	138,201
Dumfries	78,056	19	92,596	8	112,175	19	123,445	16.9	75,745	82,630	158,375
Dumfries	25,543	10	28,533	13	32,828	9	36,961	5.5	14,119	17,980	34,099
Dumfries	33,682	11	37,320	10	40,932	7	43,663	5.5	21,390	24,073	45,463
Dumfries	5,070	16	5,849	13	6,637	2	6,835	16.9	3,972	4,017	7,989
Dumfries	40,625	14	46,174	13	53,761	11	57,651	15.1	27,070	29,408	56,478
Dumfries	23,117	2	23,659	-	23,840	7	25,218	-	11,507	12,559	24,066
Dumfries	22,918	7	26,801	23	33,240	9	36,256	8	18,238	20,921	39,179
Totals	1,599,068	14	1,905,688	16	2,093,156	15	2,365,114	10.8	1,241,276	1,379,354	2,620,630

..The returns for 1841 include 4,715 persons resident in barracks in various counties, and 1,775 persons on board ships in harbour.

of tithes, and, in most instances, of poor and of all oppressive public burdens; the abolition of sub-letting, and the inheritance of ease by the heir-at-law; the introduction of sheep-farming into the Highlands, and the improvement made in the construction of farms and of farming implements. The general use of threshing machines, many of which are driven by steam, and of ploughs with two horses driven by the ploughman, are distinguishing characteristics of Scotch, as compared with English agriculture.

Improved property in Scotland, as compared with its extent and value, is in fewer hands than in England, there being probably not more than 8,000 proprietors in the whole country.

It is most subdivided in the counties of Argyll, Mid-Lothian, Renfrew, and Kirkcudbright; but even in these there are many large estates; and in most other parts of the country the greater portion by far of the land is divided into very large estates, many of which, down to 1848, under a system of strict perpetual entail: but this system having been found to be productive of various inconveniences, it was superseded in the above-mentioned counties by the stat. 11 & 12 Vict. c. 36., which abolished perpetuities, and placed the Scotch system of entail nearly on the same footing as the English. But the former tenure was not, in its practical influence, so prejudicial to agriculture as might, *a priori*, have been anticipated.

This results from the circumstance of the abolition of law having decided that it was to let lands belonging to an entail either for an unusually long period, or for years (Scottish *grassums*); so that, in truth, there has been little or no difference between the conditions under which entailed and unentailed estates have been occupied: and as the holders of the former have been empowered to alienate the estates, proportionally to their means, with sums laid out on necessary improvements and buildings, they are, speaking generally, in as good order, and as productive as the latter.

Estates are of all sizes; varying from 50 to 500 acres and upwards in the improved tillage dis-

tricts, and from 500 to 5,000 acres and upwards in the hilly and mountainous tracts. Except in a few of the sequestered glens of the Highlands, into which the improved systems have not been introduced, the division of the land is nowhere carried to such an extent as to be prejudicial to agriculture; and, in most parts of the country, farms have been gradually consolidating and increasing in size since the American war. At an average of the kingdom, arable farms may vary from 150 to 300 acres; and pasture farms from 500 to 5,000 acres.

Down to the close of the American war, the farm buildings in most parts of Scotland were mean and inadequate in the extreme. In the Lothians they were commonly ranged in a row, having the dwelling-house in the middle, with a barn at the one end, and cattle-houses at the other. In other parts, they were frequently huddled together without any sort of order.

The walls were always low, in most instances of stone and clay, the roof being invariably thatched. The dunghill was universally opposite to the door; and so near it, that in wet weather it was no easy matter to get into the house with dry feet. The change that has taken place in these respects during the last half century has been signal and complete. In none but the least accessible and least improved districts are any of the old houses now to be met with. Perhaps, indeed, the other extreme has not been sufficiently avoided; buildings having, not unfrequently, been erected that seem to be both larger and more expensive than necessary. The offices are mostly constructed in the form of a square. In some instances, the dwelling-house makes one of its sides; but in the better class of farms it is removed to some distance from the offices. It is generally two stories high, and is well, and sometimes handsomely, fitted up. Both houses and offices are almost always slated. The expense of buildings is uniformly defrayed by the landlord; but the tenant, for whose accommodation they are in the first instance erected, sometimes pays a percentage upon the money laid out upon them. Sometimes, also, the tenants undertake to carry the materials used in building.

The fences in many parts of Scotland consist of dry stone walls; which, though destitute of X x

population of the counties marked thus, decreased between 1841.

beauty, make, when properly built, a capital fence. This species of inclosure seems to have originated in the S. W. Kirkcudbright and Wigtown were early subdivided with excellent stone dykes, that are now celebrated all over the kingdom by the name of "Galloway dykes." They are of very various heights, and degrees of goodness; but the best are built double to a certain height, when they are capped with broad flat stones projecting a little on each side, over which others are usually laid single; but sometimes those laid over the cap-stone are made to lock firmly together. The best dykes vary from $5\frac{1}{2}$ to 6 ft. in height; and, when they have been carefully founded, well built, and constructed of good stones, they make a most excellent and a very durable fence. Examples are not rare of their standing for 60 or 70 years without receiving almost any repair. In a few instances they have been found at above 100 years of age, in a state of perfect preservation! But unless they be of superior material and workmanship, they seldom last more than from 25 to 30 years. Most of the dry stone walls now to be met with all over Scotland have been built, sometimes with more, sometimes with less success, after the Galloway model.*

In respect of farming implements, Scotland has very much the advantage over England. The improved Scotch plough is everywhere met with in the agricultural districts, and is uniformly drawn by two horses, driven by the ploughman. Iron harrows are common. Thrashing-machines are introduced far more extensively than in England; and there is hardly, indeed, a considerable farm in any part of the country without one. The Scotch labourers have never been so absurd as to attempt to advance their interests by destroying those valuable engines.

During the last 20 years, and especially since 1846, improvements of all sorts have been prosecuted in Scotland with extraordinary spirit and success. Drainage has been the grand object of attention: and in some extensive districts it has been carried to such an extent as to have effected a material change in the climate as well as in the soil and appearance of the country, accelerating the period of harvest by two or three weeks! Farms that were formerly wet, late, and suitable only for oats, are now, by the aid of furrow-draining and subsoil-ploughing, made thoroughly dry, early, and suitable for turnips, and for every variety of corn crop. Guano, bones, and other manures are now, also, very largely imported; and these, with the increased quantity and efficacy of farm manure, arising from the improved methods of preserving and applying the latter, have added prodigiously to the productiveness of the land, and to the weight and quality of its produce.

Scotland may be divided into three agricultural districts:—Of these the first, or most southerly, extending from the English border to the rivers Forth and Clyde, contains a large extent of mountainous and pasture land. But extensive tracts in Berwickshire and the Lothians, on the E. coast, are naturally fertile, and are farmed with a degree of skill, economy, and success, unequalled almost in any other part of the empire. There are also large tracts of fertile and well-farmed land in Lanark, Renfrew, Ayrshire, Galloway, and Dumfries; but the climate on the W. coast is not so favourable, and agriculture is not so far advanced on that side the island as on the E. The second agricultural division

stretches from the Forth and Clyde to the great chain of lakes connected by the Caledonian Canal, that runs from Inverness to the Island of Mull. The mountains in this division are on a grander scale than in the southern division; and the proportion of waste land much greater. It, however, contains some of the finest land in the empire. The carse of Gowrie, stretching from Perth to Dundee, consists of the richest alluvial soil; but its agriculture, though good, is not equal to that of some other districts. Strathern, lying to the W. of Perth, is also very fertile. Most part of the extensive county of Fife is arable, and is, in general, highly improved. There are also very large tracts of fine land in Forfarshire and Angus, and smaller portions in Aberdeenshire and Moray. The third division of Scotland, or that which embraces the country lying to the N. of the Caledonian Canal and the lakes, is, with the exception of the eastern parts of Ross-shire, and a few patches beside, wild and mountainous. Black cattle, sheep, and wool, are its principal products.

Except in the S.E. counties, oats are grown in far greater quantities than any other kind of grain; and, from more attention being paid to their culture, or the greater suitableness of the climate, or both, the produce is greater than in England, varying from 30 up to 75 bushels an acre, and even more. Oatmeal, which, till a late period, formed, in cakes and porridge, the principal part of the food of the great bulk of the people, is still in very extensive demand; but, latterly, the use of wheaten bread has become very general in the rural districts, as well as in the towns. Turnips and potatoes are cultivated throughout most part of the Lowlands. The raising of the former is, perhaps, nowhere so well conducted as in E. Lothian and Berwickshire; and their culture in all parts, but especially in the W. cos., has increased with extraordinary rapidity during the last 20 years. Potatoes have of late been grown in large quantities in some of the E. cos. for the London market; and they form, we are sorry to say, an important article of food in most parts of the country; but their cultivation, and the grower's dependence on them, have both been lessened by the recent failures of the crop. The practice of taking two white crops in succession has been almost wholly abandoned in the Lowlands.

Dairy husbandry is mostly pursued in the shires of Ayr and Renfrew, in the former of which Dunlop cheese is made; but it is also introduced into Wigtown and other cos. Cows of the genuine Ayrshire breed are admirable milkers, and the average quantity of butter produced by each has been estimated at upwards of 260 lbs. a year. The Galloway, Fifeshire, and Highland breeds are the best for fattening, and yield, especially the first and last, excellent beef. The Galloway cattle are mostly sent up half fed, to be fattened in Norfolk and Suffolk for the London markets. Three principal breeds of sheep are reared in Scotland: the dun-faced, or Scandinavian breed, said to have been imported into Scotland from Denmark, of which a few are found in the cos. N. of the Frith of Tay; the black-faced, or heath breed, very widely diffused, and very hardy; and the Cheviots, the famous breed native to the Cheviot hills. The latter are found to thrive in districts that were formerly supposed to be suitable only for the black-faced breed, and have already, to a considerable extent, superseded the latter; the carcase and fleece being both much more valuable. More recently an improved cross breed, between the Cheviot ewe and the Leicester ram, has been

* There is an excellent account of the Galloway dykes, with judicious remarks on their construction, in *Smith's Survey of Galloway*, pp. 30—33.

nsively and advantageously introduced in the pastures of the S. coe.

Utility and Value of Agricultural Produce.—These objects as to which there is but little information on it would be safe to place much reliance. In the tables in the *General Report of Scotland* (III. nd. p. 8.), the arable land is estimated at 5,043,450 h. acres; of these the portion in grass is estimated at 3,486,736; leaving 1,556,714 in tillage, which is sed to be distributed as follows:—

Acres.	Potatoes	Acres.
140,095	407,400	
380,193	407,125	
1,360,352	16,400	
500	32,000	
118,000	215,000	

a great extent of waste land has been brought cultivation during the last 30 years; and we are tisfied, from the greatly increased consumption of en bread in Scotland, and other circumstances, that antity of land assigned to the growth of wheat has increased both absolutely and relatively. In our f the matter, the extent and distribution of the land ge may be set down as follows:—

Acres.	Flax	Acres.
350,000	30,000	
450,000	35,000	
1,300,000	100,000	
50,000		
300,000		
500		
450,000		
	Total	3,405,000

ming this distribution to be nearly correct, the y and value of the crops may be estimated as :—

Acres.	Produce per Acre.	Total Produce per 1-7th for Seed.	Price per Quar. ter.	Total Value.
350,000	34 qrs.	1,190,000	2	2,380,000 0
450,000	4	1,800,000	25	4,500,000 0
1,300,000	5	5,771,429	30	17,314,285 0
50,000	3	150,000	30	4,500,000 0
300,000				
450,000	7l.			7,700,000 0
450,000				
30,000	8l.			180,000 0
35,000	12s.			65,000 0
3,305,000		18,292,858		18,440,358 0

ing the extent of pasture land and wood land in 3, exclusive of heaths, wastes, &c., at 2,500,000 and estimating its produce to be worth, at an . 3d. per acre, its total value will be 7,500,000. but as to be added the value of about 13,000,000 acres of mountain pastures, heaths, and waste land, which has estimated, apparently with great moderation, at 500,000. Hence the total value of the land pro- Scotland will be—

Use of crops and gardens	£
pasture and wood land	18,440,358
uncultivated land and wastes	1,500,000
Total	27,440,358

ent of land in Scotland, as ascertained by the sioners under the old property tax, amounted, in 5,278,685l. And it appears from the return referred to (*see* art. BRITISH EMPIRE, I. 456.), landed rental of Scotland, instead of declining, had supposed, increased in the interval; and mounted, in 1842-43, to 5,586,928l., since which has not certainly decreased.

difficult to decide upon the portion of the gross ch should be set apart as the rent of the 0 acres of uncultivated land; but there are od grounds for thinking that it does not exceed leaving nearly 5,000,000l. as the nett rent of the rtion, being at the rate of about 16s. 8d. per acre. there are some considerable exceptions, there manner of doubt that, speaking generally, the nd of England is superior to that of Scotland; nsequence of the greater skill and economy of rs in the latter, and of the advantage they enjoy session of leases, and the absence of tithes and s, they are able to pay decidedly higher rents of equal fertility. The rent of corn land in varies from 7s. to 3l. an acre, and occasionally unto 5l. and 6l. The best pasture land rarely ore than 3s. per acre; and that which is of a quality may vary from 10s. to 25s.

in differs from that in the estimate, Vol. I. p. 456. : but red it is the more accurate.

Rise of Rent.—Rent has increased much more rapidly in Scotland than in England. This is ascribable partly to the extremely backward state of Scotch agriculture still after the peace of Paris, in 1763, and partly to the extraordinary advances it has made since the close of the American war. The entire rental of the kingdom is not supposed to have exceeded 1,000,000l. or 1,200,000l. in 1770. In 1796 it is believed to have rather exceeded 3,000,000l.; and since then it has nearly trebled! So rapid an increase of rent is probably unmatched in any old settled country, and indicates an astonishing degree of improvement.

Condition of Occupiers and Labourers.—We are happy also to have to state, that the wealth of the farmers, and the comfort and well-being of the agricultural labourers, have increased in quite as great a proportion as the rents of the landlords. We have already noticed the extraordinary improvement that has taken place in farm-houses and offices since the close of the American war, and especially during the present century; and the same improvement is everywhere visible in farming stock and implements; in the furniture and other accommodations of the farm-houses; and in the dress and mode of life of their occupants. We have, indeed, no hesitation in affirming, that no old settled country, of which we have any authentic accounts, ever made half the progress in civilisation and the accumulation of wealth, that Scotland has done since 1763, and especially since 1787.

Some very great improvements have, as already seen, been introduced into agriculture within these few years, and are now rapidly spreading over the country. The facilities afforded by steam navigation for the conveyance of fat cattle and sheep to the great markets of London and Liverpool, as well as to those of Edinburgh and Glasgow, have also been of vast importance, and have enabled the remotest districts to come into successful competition with those that are most favourably situated. In consequence, agriculture is at this moment in a rapid state of advancement. And, notwithstanding the fall of prices, farms let better now (March, 1851,) than at any former period, and the fair presumption seems to be that, great as has been the improvement of agriculture during the last half century, it will be equal or greater during that on which we are now entering.

One of the things that seems most likely to defeat this presumption, or to retard the future progress of agriculture, is the fact of the Reform Act having conferred the elective franchise on all occupiers of lands worth 50l. a year and upwards. This has been in every respect a pernicious, ill-advised measure. Formerly the landlords rarely inquired as to the politics of their tenants; and provided they paid them their rents, and managed their lands according to the stipulations in their leases, they might be of any political or religious party they pleased. But now it is altogether different. The landlords, desirous, like other people, of extending their political influence, endeavour to control, or rather command, the suffrages of their tenants, and to multiply the dependent voters on their estates. In furtherance of these objects, they have not scrupled, in many instances, to resort to intimidation, and to adopt vindictive measures against such of their tenants as have voted contrary to their wishes. This, however, though the most prominent at the time, is but the least evil resulting from the new state of things. It has already led in many instances to a change in the mode of letting land; and there is but too much reason to fear that it may, in the end, subvert that system of giving leases for 19 or 20 years certain that has been a main cause of the astonishing improvement of agriculture. It has also occasioned, in many instances, a subdivision of farms for the mere purpose of creating voters; and there cannot, indeed, be a question that, however well intended, the conferring the elective franchise on the tenants has been one of the greatest blows ever struck at their independence, and at the prosperity of agriculture. Nor is there anything in this but what might have been, and in fact was, anticipated from the outset. Tenants, as such, whether they hold farms worth 50l. or 500l. a year, are about the very last description of persons to whom the franchise should be

conceded. Very many of them are indebted to, and dependent, to a greater or less extent, on their landlords; and the few who are independent are so because they have accumulated property, and would, in consequence, have been entitled to the franchise, had it been conferred, as it should have been, on those only who possessed a certain amount of realised property. If that be, as it unquestionably is, the best system of voting that brings the greatest number of independent electors to the poll, and keeps back the greatest number of those that are dependent, the giving the franchise to the tenants and occupiers of land must be about the very worst system, for they are, of all classes, that which is most dependent, and most at the mercy of others.

The condition of the agricultural labourer has, also, as already stated, been vastly improved. With the exception of those districts in the Highlands and Isles, luckily few in number, into which improvements have not yet made their way, the cottages of the peasantry have been mostly rebuilt during the last half century; and though still, in most instances, without the rustic beauty and neatness that so frequently distinguish English cottages, they are far from uncomfortable. In most parts of the country such of the farm-labourers as are married, and have families, receive the greater part of their wages in specific quantities of farm produce, which do not vary with the variations of price; so that, if they be not so well off as the manufacturing work-people, when trade is brisk and prices low, neither are they exposed to suffer like the others, when there is little demand for labour, and prices are high: on the whole, they may, speaking generally, be said to be in decidedly comfortable circumstances. The unmarried servants frequently live in the farm-house. They are almost all excellent ploughmen; all of them are able to read and write; and their sons not unfrequently emerge from obscurity, and attain to distinction.*

Manufactures.—For a lengthened period after the union with England, Scotland made little or no progress in manufactures; and it was not till after the peace of Paris, in 1763, that the public enterprise began to be turned into this great channel, and that a rapid extension took place of most sorts of industry. A considerable depression ensued towards the close, and after the termination of the American war. But it was not of any very lengthened duration; and the foundations of the cotton trade having been laid about this period, manufactures have continued, from 1787 down to the present time, progressively to gain ground in Scotland, and have been prosecuted with equal skill, industry, and success.

Account of the Numbers of Cotton, Woollen, Worsted, Flax, and Silk Factories in Scotland in 1850; specifying the Numbers of Spindles, Power-Looms, and Hands in each Business. (*Parl. Paper, No. 745. sess. 1850.*)

	No. of Factories.	No. of Spindles.	No. of Power Looms.	No. of Hands.
Cotton - -	168	1,685,095	23,564	36,325
Woollen - -	182	224,129	247	9,464
Worsted - -	6	9,404	-	746
Flax - -	189	803,125	2,589	28,312
Silk - -	5	36,653	-	841
Total - -	550	2,556,405	26,340	75,688

Of the hands employed, 22,140 were males, and 53,548 females; 1,120 children were employed under 13 years of age.

In 1850, there were in Scotland 26,340 power-loom, of which 23,564 were employed in weaving cotton fabrics. And exclusive of power-loom there were, in the S. division of Scotland, in 1838, about 51,060 hand-loom for various fabrics, employing, as was estimated, about half that number of families. The cotton manufacture, which principally centres in Lanark and Renfrew shires, is of comparatively recent introduction, the first steam-engine for a cotton factory having been constructed so late as 1792.

* The reader who may wish to become more particularly acquainted with the extraordinary changes that have taken place in the agriculture and mode of life of the people of Scotland since 1780, would do well to consult *Robertson's Rural Recollections*. It is at once an authentic, interesting, and instructive work.

But the woollen manufacture has been of long standing, and was formerly much more widely diffused than at present, having been, in fact, with that of linen, a domestic manufacture, and pursued in every cottage. It was the universal practice of the peasantry, and occupiers of land, to spin, at home, the greater part of their own wool, as a subsidiary employment, and to send the yarn to be made into coarse cloth in the nearest village.

There is still a class in Scotland called *customer weavers*, scattered over the country, but now principally confined to the Highlands, employed by private families to weave yarn into coarse fabrics for domestic use. Most part of these are also agricultural labourers, weaving only in the intervals of their ordinary avocations; they earn from 1s. to 2s 6d a day, but few higher than 1s. 9d. But except these, and persons living at watering-places, and on parts of the E. coast, where they engage in fishing or boat-letting for a part of the year, the great bulk of the weavers of Scotland subsist entirely by the loom, and engage in no other pursuit. (*Symons in Hand-loom Weavers' Rep.*, p. 5.)

At present, and for some time past, this class has been in very depressed circumstances. Owing to the facility with which the business of weaving may be learned, and the sort of independence it confers on the weaver, it has always been a favourite employment; and, consequently, except in periods of great prosperity, the wages of weavers have generally been rather low. Of late years, however, the introduction of power-loom has gone far to supersede, to a great extent, the business of the regular hand-loom weaver, especially of those engaged in the manufacture of cottons; and the fair presumption seems to be, that in no very lengthened period the business of the hand-loom weavers will be all but totally annihilated. But though there can be no doubt that, in a public point of view, this change will be productive of great advantage, it involves, in the meantime, the class of hand-loom weavers in the greatest difficulties; and, in point of fact, much of that manufacturing distress of which we frequently hear proceeds from hand-loom weavers thrown out of employment by the competition of power-loom, or forced to labour for the mere pittance. That such persons are proper objects of public sympathy, none can doubt; and everything that is practicable should be done to facilitate their employment in other businesses, or their emigration to the colonies. Till such time as this transference has been effected, there will be the same unvarying, and generally unfounded tale of manufacturing distress.

It appears from the statements given in Burns' account of the cotton manufacture for 1845, that the total quantity of cotton spun in England during that year amounted to 467,089,465 lbs., and that spun in Scotland to 27,757,022 lbs. Now, taking the entire value of the manufacture at 35,000,000*l.*, and supposing it to be proportioned in both countries to the quantity of yarn spun in each, that would give about 2,000,000*l.* for the value of the portion belonging to Scotland. We believe, however, that the quantity of yarn spun in Scotland is underrated nearly a half in this statement, and that the value of the cotton goods annually produced in Scotland may be estimated at about 5,000,000*l.* A large proportion of the Scotch manufactured articles consist of the finer descriptions of muslins and other superior and costly fabrics, which makes their aggregate value exceed what might be inferred

the comparative amount of yarn produced in Scotland.

Compared with the woollen manufacture of England, that of Scotland is inconsiderable. Linens, blankets, shawls, plaids, stockings and cing yarn, tartans, carpets, druggets, &c. are used to a considerable extent at Galashiels, Hely, Hawick, Jedburgh, and Aberdeen. Some of the finer descriptions of cloth are made in Aberdeen and in its vicinity, and some of its linen mills and factories are on a large scale. Harnock is the seat of a very extensive and flourishing carpet manufacture. The power-loom having hitherto been but little adopted in the woollen manufacture, the weavers employed in that department get good wages, are well fed and lodged, and in all respects exhibit a marked contrast with the hand-loom weavers engaged in the cotton manufacture.

The linen manufacture of Scotland is of very inferior value and importance: Dundee is chief seat; and the statements previously given (see art. DUNDEE, Vol. I.) show that its increase since 1811 has been quite extraordinary. Linen burghs, sheeting, cotton bagging, sail-cloth, dowlas, and other coarse goods, are the chief principally made in Dundee and in Inverclyde, Arbroath, Forfar, Montrose, Aberdeen, and other seats of the manufacture in the north of Scotland. The finer descriptions of linens, such as damasks, diapers, shirting, &c., are chiefly produced in Dunfermline and its immediate vicinity. Power-looms have not hitherto been extensively employed in this department, only 2,529 having been introduced into it in 1850. At present it is supposed to employ about 17,000 hand-looms in summer, and from 10 to 23,000 in winter. The linen weavers occupy an intermediate position between the hand-loom weavers on the one hand, and the cotton weavers on the other. The silk manufacture is of little importance. The printing of shawls, &c., is actively carried on at Paisley (which see, ante, Vol. I.)

Iron-works at Carron, near Falkirk, established in 1759, are for a lengthened period the most extensive in the kingdom; but they are now far surpassed by those at Glasgow, Dundee, Monkland, &c. &c. Scotland has many in England. A good deal of Scotch iron-work, comprising anchors, bolts, axles, mill and engine-work, &c., is exported to the colonies and foreign countries. The manufacture of machinery is an important branch of industry. Coach-making is carried on in the large towns, and ship-building in many of the ports. Glass wares, chemical products, soap, candles, &c., are among the other principal manufactures of Scotland.

The favourite beverage of the people of Scotland has, for a lengthened period, been whisky, a spirit generally distilled from malt or raw grain. Owing to the excessive duties with which this spirit has occasionally been loaded, its smuggling has sometimes been carried to a great extent; but since 1826 and 1830, when the duties were reduced from 5s. 10d. to 2s. 10d. and 3s. 4d. per gallon, clandestine distillation and smuggling have become comparatively rare. We subjoin an

account of the Quantities of British Spirits entered for Consumption in Scotland, with the Rates of Duty thereon, and the Amount of Duty in each Year from 1820. [See top of next column.]

Wares.—Having little industry, and being thinly settled, Scotland had formerly a very limited foreign trade. The exports consisted of wool, skins, hides, and raw materials, exchanged for corn, wine, spices, &c. so late as the era of Cromwell her mercantile marine consisted only of 98 vessels, of the aggregate burden of 2,724 and 18 barks. During the reign of Charles II. the commerce of the country, especially that with Holland and the countries round the Baltic, began to increase. It did, however, till after the completion of the Union, 1707, when the trade to the American and W. Indian Seas was, for the first time, opened to the enterprise and activity of the Scotch, that the commercial energies of the nation began to be awakened. But for a while

Years.	Rate per Gallon.	Imp. Gallons.	Nett Revenue.	£	s.	d.
1821	5s. 6d. per wine gall.	3,229,435	737,650	19	7	
1822	Do. do.	3,079,556	691,136	6	6	
1823	Do. after Oct. 23, 2s.	3,533,738	636,654	17	8	
1824	Do.	4,330,301	730,684	18	4	
1825	Do.	5,981,550	639,848	11	1	
1826	2s. 10d. per imp. gall.	5,998,788	565,963	4	0	
1827	Do. do.	4,739,199	675,141	1	0	
1828	Do. do.	5,716,180	809,359	6	7	
1829	Do. do.	5,777,280	818,448	0	7	
1830	2s. 10d., 5s., and 3s. 4d. do.	6,007,631	939,258	6	0	
1831	5s. 4d. do.	5,700,689	950,041	4	3	
1832	Do.	5,407,097	901,182	16	8	
1833	Do.	5,986,556	995,051	3	4	
1834	Do.	6,045,043	1,007,507	3	4	
1835	Do.	6,015,932	1,009,392	0	0	
1836	Do.	6,420,896	1,105,471	0	0	
1837	Do.	6,114,035	1,099,672	10	0	
1838	Do.	6,559,711	1,045,585	3	4	
1839	Do.	6,188,582	1,031,215	0	0	
1840	Do. and 5s. 4d.	6,180,138	1,088,049	8	4	
1841	5s. 4d.	5,980,505	1,098,149	0	0	
1842	Do.	5,695,186	1,025,784	2	0	
1843	5s. 4d.	5,293,798	1,025,549	12	8	
1844	Do.	5,999,948	1,080,858	0	0	
1845	Do.	6,441,011	1,180,892	0	0	
1846	Do.	6,970,091	1,278,766	13	8	
1847	Do.	6,195,349	1,135,428	19	8	
1848	Do.	6,548,190	1,300,501	10	0	
1849	Do.	6,935,003	1,271,417	19	0	
1850	Do.	7,122,987	1,305,880	14	4	

the merchants of Glasgow, who first embarked in the trade to America, carried it on by means of vessels belonging to English ports; and it was not till 1718 that a ship built in Scotland (in the Clyde), the property of Scotch owners, sailed for the American colonies. (See art. GLASGOW, I. 910.) The establishment and rapid extension of manufactures in Scotland, since 1763, has necessarily occasioned a corresponding increase of commerce, and the mercantile marine of Scotland is now very considerable indeed. In 1828 it comprised 3,143 sailing vessels, of the aggregate burden of 300,836 tons. Such, however, has been its increase in the interval, that on the 31st of December, 1849, it comprised 3,511 sailing vessels, of the aggregate burden of 493,567 tons, and 166 steamers of the aggregate burden of 29,306 tons. The commerce of Scotland too is greater, in fact, than appears from the Customs returns; inasmuch as a good many articles of foreign produce imported at second hand through the English ports, and articles of native produce exported in the same way, do not appear in the list of imports and exports. At present the principal articles of export consist of cotton and linen stuffs, cotton and linen yarn; wool, iron, and hardware; silk goods, coals, spirits, and beer; black cattle; herrings, salmon, and other salted and fresh fish; stationery, &c. The great articles of import consist of tea, sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; raw cotton, flax and hemp, tobacco, raw silk, wine, dye stuffs, &c. We subjoin an

Account of the Gross and Nett Amount of the Customs' Revenue of Scotland in 1849, specifying the Gross and Nett Amount collected at each Port.

Ports.	Gross Amount of Customs' Duties.	Nett Amount of C. Duties, deducting Draw-backs, Bounties, and Repayments.
Leith	£ 545,399	£ 544,291
Aberdeen	91,593	91,087
Ayr	1,642	1,643
Arbroath	13,911	13,903
Alloa	3,012	1,850
Banff	2,648	2,648
Borowstoness	518	454
Campbeltown	289	289
Dumfries	11,743	11,748
Dundee	61,020	62,501
Glasgow	639,770	635,339
Greenock	15,085	15,033
Perth	371,418	371,15
Inverness	6,359	6,359
Irvine	1,071	1,096
Kirkcaldy	8,095	8,082
Kirkcubright	823	718
Lerwick	89	89
Montrose	15,747	15,707
Perth	17,044	17,040
Port Glasgow	139,392	139,214
Stornoway	276	271
Stranraer	68	67
Wick	721	714
Wigtown	40	40
Total	1,955,486	1,946,014

In proof of the extraordinary progress made by Scotland, we may state that at the epoch of the union with England in 1707, the revenue amounted to only 110,694. In 1788 it had increased to 1,099,148; in 1813, when the

income-tax was at its height, it amounted to 4,304,097*l.*; and in 1839, notwithstanding the repeal of the income-tax, and of a great number of other taxes, the gross revenue of Scotland amounted to 5,354,694*l.*, and the net revenue to 4,954,460*l.*—a rate of increase wholly unexpected in either of the other divisions of the United Kingdom. We subjoin an

Account of the Gross and Nett Produce of the Revenue of Scotland in 1849.

	Gross Produce.			Nett Produce.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Customs - - -	1,956,592	8	10	1,949,030	2	11
Excise - - -	2,845,093	5	11	2,849,731	1	0
Stamps - - -	537,728	16	54	514,037	19	71
Taxes (inc. Property Tax) -	765,731	0	34	751,820	8	51
Post-office - -	109,590	1	94	168,134	15	94
Totals	6,275,575	8	54	6,016,754	7	54

Currency.—The currency of Scotland has, for a lengthened period, principally consisted of the notes of the different banking companies. These, for the most part,

are joint-stock associations, with numerous bodies of partners, and have been managed with great skill and discretion.

Very few bankruptcies have occurred among the Scotch banks; and they have, no doubt, contributed materially to forward the improvement of the country by the facilities they have afforded to industrious and deserving individuals of obtaining loans; and still more by the practice, which has long been acted upon, of taking very small sums in deposit, and allowing interest upon them at about 1 per cent. below the market rate at the time. This has brought, as it were, a number of substantial and well-organised savings' banks within reach of all classes; and by furnishing every facility for the safe and profitable custody of the smallest and largest sums, has powerfully stimulated the desire to save and amass. The deposits in the Scotch banks are supposed to amount, at this moment, to about 30 millions sterling; and we believe it may be safely affirmed, that, but for the facilities that have been afforded for the accumulation of the smaller class of sums, at least 15,000,000*l.* of this amount never would have existed. The notes of the Scotch banks in circulation amount, at an average, to about 3 millions.

An Account of the Scotch Banks empowered to Issue Notes, specifying the Maximum authorised Issue of each under the 8 & 9 Vict. c. 38., with other Particulars.

Names of Banks.	Head Office.	When Established.	Branches and Sub-branches.	Number of Partners.	Capital advanced.	Circulation authorised by 8 & 9 Vict. c. 38.
Bank of Scotland - - - - -	Edinburgh	1695	31	654	1,000,000	300,445
Royal Bank of Scotland - - - - -	"	1717	6	950	2,000,000	182,000
British Linen Company - - - - -	"	1746	44	835	1,000,000	428,004
Dundee Banking Company - - - - -	Dundee	1763	1	61	60,000	23,431
Perth Banking Company - - - - -	Perth	1766	3	184	100,000	38,456
Commercial Bank of Scotland - - - - -	Edinburgh	1810	47	860	1,000,000	374,600
National Bank of Scotland - - - - -	"	1825	40	1,422	1,000,000	297,094
Aberdeen Town and County Bank - - - - -	Aberdeen	1825	12	502	550,000	70,133
Union Bank of Scotland - - - - -	Glasgow	1830	31	761	1,000,000	267,223
Western Bank of Scotland - - - - -	"	1832	78	1,317	1,000,000	337,828
Central Bank of Scotland - - - - -	Perth	1834	6	400	56,345	45,533
North of Scotland Banking Company - - - - -	Aberdeen	1836	31	1,606	281,145	124,319
Clydesdale Banking Company - - - - -	Glasgow	1838	11	1,269	507,000	104,606
Eastern Bank of Scotland - - - - -	Dundee	1838	3	510	127,190	35,638
Caledonian Banking Company - - - - -	Glasgow	1838	8	980	125,000	52,434
Edinburgh and Glasgow Bank - - - - -	Edinburgh	1839	20	1,389	1,000,000	156,657
City of Glasgow Bank - - - - -	Glasgow	1839	22	1,150	1,000,000	71,821
Total - - - - -	-	-	389	14,290	12,107,140	2,998,722

Roads.—With the exception of the military roads, constructed in the Highlands after the suppression of the rebellion, in 1745, the roads of Scotland were, speaking generally, in the most execrable state down to the American war. But such and so great has been the improvement in the interval, that they are now quite equal to the best roads in England, and are not, indeed, surpassed by any in Europe. They are laid down on the most approved principles; and, notwithstanding the rugged nature of the country, it is but seldom that horses in a carriage may not be driven along at a smart trot. The facility with which excellent materials for their construction may almost everywhere be obtained has materially contributed to forward their formation. The roads within what is called the Highland district have been partly constructed by means of advances from government, and the public money has very rarely been so profitably expended.

Railways.—Scotland is intersected with railways to an extent which, considering the rugged nature of the country, could hardly have been anticipated. There are no fewer than 3 lines of railway from England to Scotland; viz. the E. line, by Newcastle, Berwick, and Dundee; the central or Caledonian line, by Carlisle, Ecclefechan, and Lanark; and the W. line by Carlisle, Dumfries, Sanquhar, and Kilmarnock. Edinburgh and Glasgow are united by a railway; as are Edinburgh, Dundee, and Aberdeen, by Ferry Port-on-Craig, and by Perth; Glasgow, Stirling, Perth, Dundee, &c.; Glasgow, Greenock, Ayr. The facilities of intercourse that have thus been afforded are quite extraordinary. The journey from Edinburgh to Glasgow, which, about a century ago, took a stage coach 36 hours to perform, is now performed in 1½ or 2 hours. And the journey from Edinburgh to London, which, so late as the era of the American war, took about a week for its completion, and which, at a much more recent period, was both tedious and fatiguing, is now performed with the utmost ease in 12 or 13 hours!

The difficulties that have been overcome, and the expenses that have been incurred (sometimes needlessly), in the construction of some of these lines, have been quite astonishing. And it may be doubted whether some of them will ever turn out to be profitable undertakings for the original subscribers. But it is impossible to predicate the degree to which they will benefit

by the continuance of those public improvements which they have done so much to facilitate.

Canals.—Of the Scotch canals, the most important by far is that called the Great Canal, uniting the Firths of Forth and Clyde, and, consequently, forming an easy water communication between the E. and W. coasts of the island. Including its branch to Port Dundas, in the vicinity of Glasgow, it is about 38 m. in length; the medium width at the surface is 56 ft., and at the bottom 47 ft.; average depth, from 9 ft. to 10 ft. The canal level, 156 ft. above the sea, it has 29 locks. This important work was begun in 1768, but was not finally completed till 1790. It has been as profitable to the shareholders as it is advantageous to the public.

The Union Canal joins the Forth and Clyde Canal, near Falkirk, and stretches thence to Edinburgh, being about 31½ m. in length. It was completed in 1822, but has been, in all respects, a most unprofitable undertaking. Hitherto, the proprietors have not received any dividend, and their prospects, we understand, are but little, if any thing, improved.

There are other canals in the vicinity of Glasgow: the Crinan Canal stretches across the Mull of Cantire; and there is also a canal in Aberdeenshire. But the greatest work of this class in Scotland, or, perhaps, in the empire, is the Caledonian Canal. It stretches quite across the island, through the centre of the Highlands, N.E. and S.W., from the Beaulieu Frith on the E. coast to Loch Linnhe on the W. It is chiefly formed by the chain of lakes, including Loch Ness, Loch Oich, and Loch Lochy, which occupy the bottom of the remarkable glen or depression through which it is carried. Its total length, including the lakes, is 56½ m.; but the artificial or excavated part is only 31½ m. At the summit it is only 96 ft. above the level of the W. Ocean.

It is mostly constructed upon a very grand scale, being intended to be 90 ft. deep, 80 ft. wide at bottom, and 123 ft. at top; the locks are 30 ft. deep, 173 ft. in length, and 40 ft. in breadth; and had it been wholly executed as was originally intended, frigates of 23 guns, and merchant-ships of 1,000 tons' burden, might have passed through it. It was opened in 1823, being executed entirely at the expense of government, from the designs and under the superintendence of Thomas Telford, Esq. The entire cost has exceeded a million sterling. There can, however, be no doubt that it was projected without due con-

sideration, and may be regarded as about the least advantageous public work that has been undertaken for a lengthened period. During the year 1836-37, the total revenue of the canal, arising from tonnage dues and all other resources, amounted to only 2,379*l.*, while the ordinary expenditure during the same year amounted to 3,901*l.*; and it has increased little, if any thing, in the interim. But this is not all. Owing to a wish to lessen the expense, and to hasten the opening of the canal, parts of it were not excavated to nearly their proper depth, while others were executed in a hurried and insufficient manner. Hence the canal does not really admit vessels of above 260 or 300 tons' burden; and, but for the employment of steam tugs on the lakes, which were not heard of when the work was undertaken, vessels might have been 6 weeks in making their passage from sea to sea. And even with the assistance of tugs it is but little resorted to. Under these circumstances, and considering the risk of its breaking through its banks and overflowing parts of the adjacent country, we need not be surprised to find that it has been gravely debated whether it would not be better entirely to fill up and abandon the canal!

The constitution of Scotland has been, from the earliest times, what is called a limited monarchy. Originally the parliament, or great council of the nation, consisted of the king, the barons, and the principal ecclesiastics. Burgesses, or representatives for the towns, were admitted into the Scotch parliament by Robert Bruce, in 1326; and in 1427 the lesser barons or freeholders in the different counties, were authorised to send representatives; but so little was this privilege valued, that it was hardly exercised for 160 years, or till the reign of James VI., when the freeholders were compelled to send representatives.

Scotland, however, derived little or no benefit from her parliament. The nobility, or greater barons, and clergy sat and voted in the same chamber with the representatives of the lesser barons and of the towns; so that, even if the latter had been more powerful and independent than they were, they could have made no effectual opposition to any measure patronised by the nobles and clergy. In point of fact, however, the representatives of the counties were mere nominees of the great lords; and the towns having neither wealth, population nor importance, their representatives were necessarily as impotent as themselves. The nobility and clergy were, in truth, for a lengthened period, everything, and the people nothing.

Even had it been, in other respects, better constituted, the institution of the Lords of the Articles would have rendered the parliament of Scotland good for nothing as a check on the sovereign. This was a committee, consisting of a few members, chosen either directly or indirectly by the crown, to which all matters to be brought before parliament had, in the first instance, to be referred; and which had power to reject such as it disapproved of, and to modify and alter the others in any way it thought proper. This committee had, therefore, a negative before debate; and the whole duty of parliament was confined to meeting for a day or two at the end of the session, to confirm the proceedings of the Lords of the Articles! With such an instrument at their command, we need not wonder at the preponderating influence possessed by the sovereigns of the Scotch parliaments; and had their ability to carry laws into effect been, in any respect, equal to the facility with which they could get them passed, the kings of Scotland would have been the most, instead of the least, powerful of European princes.

The Committee of the Lords of the Articles was suppressed at the Revolution; but owing to defects in the mode of choosing representatives, the constitution of parliament was but

little improved by its suppression; and down to the passing of the Reform Act, in 1832, Scotland had the shadow merely, without the substance — the disadvantages without any of the advantages — of a representative government. Happily, however, its representative system is now placed nearly on the same footing as that of England. (For further details, see Vol. I. p. 467. and p. 777.)

According to the Articles of Union in 1707, the peerage of Scotland is represented in the House of Lords of the United Kingdom by 16 peers, chosen by the whole body of Scotch peers at the commencement of each parliament: it was then also arranged that the cos. of Scotland should be represented in the H. of C. by 30, and the bors. by 15 mems. This arrangement was continued till 1832, when the borough representation received an addition of 8 mems., the mems. for the cos. continuing as before.

Courts of Law. — The Court of Session, which was constituted by an act of the Scottish parliament in 1537, is the highest civil court of Scotland, having jurisdiction in all civil questions of whatever nature. It was intended to supply the place of the previously existing courts, and more especially of a judicial committee of parliament called the "lords of session," whence the name of the court and the titles of the judges. Originally it consisted of 7 laymen and 8 churchmen, including the president. In 1640, however, an act was passed, providing for the exclusion of churchmen from the court; and, though repealed in 1661, the principle laid down in it has ever since been acted upon. Other important improvements were introduced at different periods, particularly after the Revolution, when the right of appeal from the court to parliament was, for the first time, recognised. At the Union power was given to all individuals who considered themselves aggrieved by judgments of the Court of Session to appeal to the H. of Lords; and it is a curious fact, that, at this moment, and for a lengthened period, the principal judicial business of the H. of Lords has consisted in hearing and deciding Scotch appeals. Originally, and down to 1808, the whole 15 judges sat together in one court; but in that year an act was passed dividing the court into two chambers, the lord president presiding in the first division of 7 judges, and the lord justice-clerk in the second, of 6; the 2 remaining judges trying cases in the first instance, or, as it is technically termed, sitting as lords-ordinary. Since then the number of judges has been reduced to 13; 4 belonging to each of the divisions, and 5 acting as lords-ordinary, or sitting as single judges. The judges were at first chosen by the Scotch parliament; but since 1554 they have been appointed by the crown. They are indifferently styled lords of session, or senators of the College of Justice, which last embraces the whole body of barristers (advocates), and attorneys or solicitors who practise before the court. They must be 25 years of age; and, by the treaty of union, no person can be named to the office unless he have served as an advocate or principal clerk of session for five years, or as a writer to the signet for ten. The salaries of the ordinary judges have been raised to 3,000*l.* a year each; those of the lord justice-clerk, and lord president, being, respectively, 4,000*l.* and 4,500*l.*

At its outset the court of session was intended to serve as a standing or perpetual jury for the trial of cases; the introduction of petty juries into the trial of civil cases in Scotland being

only of very recent date, as well as of limited application. It was, in fact, unknown till 1815, when a special or jury court was instituted, for the trial of cases involving questions as to the value of property, the amount of damages, or

the determination of some fact. But in 1830 this court was suppressed; and the court of session now avails itself of the assistance of petty juries in the trial of the above description of cases.

Account of the Causes brought before the Outer and Inner Divisions of the Court of Session, and of the Judgments on the same in each Year from 1834 to 1849, both inclusive.

Year.	Outer House.			Inner House.			
	New Causes.	Decrees in Absence.	Final Judgments in Litigated Causes.	Reclaiming Notes.	Incidental and Summary Applications.	Final Judgments.	Jury Cases.
1834	1,351	499	734	366	2,108	544	54
1835	1,818	554	649	434	1,625	355	40
1836	1,770	546	710	456	1,734	234	43
1837	1,555	561	600	356	1,455	339	36
1838	1,486	508	507	337	1,194	337	37
1839	1,558	563	699	365	1,158	238	33
1840	1,498	545	618	367	1,071	338	35
1841	1,461	573	628	368	938	268	35
1842	1,613	598	739	430	963	347	36
1843	1,498	541	732	319	975	233	35
1844	1,457	476	800	289	942	218	40
1845	1,399	445	681	293	967	241	40
1846	1,385	483	615	369	946	221	31
1847	1,400	410	709	381	976	267	36
1848	1,665	557	618	367	969	241	31
1849	1,680	586	681	386	1,123	293	37

The High Court of Justiciary was remodelled, and placed nearly on its present footing, in 1672. It consists of five judges of the court of session, specially commissioned by the sovereign, together with the justice-general and justice-clerk; the former, or in his absence, the latter, being president. In 1836, the office of lord justice-general was conjoined with that of lord president of the court of session. The jurisdiction of this court extends to all criminal cases, except those of high treason, which are tried by a special commission, in the English form, on the finding of a *grand jury*, which is not used in other cases in Scotland. The judgments of the court of justiciary are final, no appeal lying from them to the H. of Lords. Circuit or assize courts are held twice a year, by the judges of this court, in the principal towns of Scotland, two judges usually going on each circuit; and an additional circuit-court is held at Glasgow during the Christmas holidays. The circuit-courts have power to decide in appeals from inferior courts, where the subject in dispute does not exceed 25*l*. Cases brought before the justiciary court are tried by petty juries of 15 persons, who decide by a plurality of votes, not being compelled, as in England, to give unanimous verdicts. It is not going too far to say, that, down to a very recent period, this was, in as far as respects political cases, one of the most corrupt and worthless tribunals in Europe. Owing, as has been previously stated (*see* Vol. I. 469.), to the mode in which juries were selected, it was always in the power of the lord advocate, or public prosecutor, to get a jury appointed favourable to his own views; and the judges, having been appointed by the crown, and looking to it, most probably, for farther advancement for themselves or their families, were, with few exceptions, obsequious tools. Hence, in Scotland, to be prosecuted for a political offence was, for a lengthened period, nearly equivalent to being condemned. Luckily, however, this disgraceful state of things has been thoroughly reformed. Juries in Scotland are now fairly selected; the accused has the same right of peremptory challenge as in England; so that, however disposed, the judges can no longer dictate verdicts. The old court of exchequer, commission of teinds, admiralty and consistory courts, are now merged in the court of session.

The inferior courts of law are those of the boroughs, justices of the peace, and sheriff.

Account of the Number of Persons committed for Trial, tried, &c., in Scotland during each of the 7 years ending with 1849.

Year.	Committed for Trial, or Bailed.		Tried.	Convicted, Outwaded, or Immune.	Convicted, having been previously Convicted.
	Males.	Fem.			
1843	2,737	978	2,837	2,636	563
1844	2,617	968	3,023	2,749	869
1845	2,515	1,022	2,973	2,710	737
1846	2,501	1,168	3,409	2,362	869
1847	2,390	1,316	3,331	2,569	1,094
1848	2,430	1,419	3,375	2,689	1,043
1849	2,528	1,129	3,545	3,320	598

The first are called "baillie" courts, from being presided over by a baillie or alderman, with, in some cases, the assistance of a legal assessor. Their civil jurisdiction within the borough depends on circumstances, being sometimes nearly equivalent to that of sheriffs in co.; but their criminal jurisdiction extends only to petty riots and common police offences. The justices of peace decide without appeal in actions where the demand does not exceed 5*l*. besides costs. They commit criminals and hold petty sessions, at which two are a quorum, and quarter sessions; but have in no instance the power of transportation.

The sheriff courts are very important, and transact most part of the county business. Each co. has a principal sheriff, called a sheriff-depute, from his being deputed or appointed by the crown; who, in addition to duties similar to those devolving upon English sheriffs, has a very extensive civil jurisdiction. He holds office of *vitam aut culpam*, his salary varying from 500*l*. to 800*l*. a year, according to the supposed onerousness of his duties. In the co. of Edinburgh and Lanark, the residence of the sheriff-depute is enforced; but in the other co. he is rarely resident, his presence not being necessary, except on particular occasions. Sheriff-deputes are, in fact, usually practising lawyers in Edinburgh, and the ordinary business of the co. is devolved on the sheriff-substitutes, or deputies of the principal, who are always resident. In extensive co. there are usually several sheriff-substitutes. This very useful class of judges must be chosen from advocates, writers to the signet, solicitors of the supreme courts, or solicitors of three years' standing before a sheriff court; and, though nominated by the sheriff-depute, they cannot be displaced without the concurrence of the lord president and lord justice-clerk. At present their

uries, which were raised in 1840, vary from £. to 550*l.* a year, exclusive of fees. The sheriff, his substitute, holds small-debt courts for decision of questions of debt and costs to amount of 8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*, in which the pleadings all *vis* voce, the expense small, not exceeding 2*s.* 6*d.* or 3*s.*, and the judgment final. In ordinary courts, however, the authority of which extend to all personal actions without limit amount, the pleadings are mostly in writing. Until a comparatively late period the sheriff exercised a criminal jurisdiction, extending in some cases to capital punishment; but his powers, in this respect, are now greatly abridged. He still occasionally tries criminal cases with a jury, but his sentence may be appealed from to the court of Justiciary. No sentence, except for petty offences, involving fine, imprisonment, or, at most, punishment from the county or borough, can be pronounced by any legal authority in Scotland without a jury; nor can any person be now imprisoned for any debt under 8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*

Religious Establishments.—The Roman Catholic religion, and the jurisdiction of the pope, were abolished in Scotland in 1560; a confession of faith, on Calvinistic principles, drawn up by the celebrated John Knox, was then also agreed to, and the Protestant religion was established by an act of the legislature. Knox, having studied under Calvin at Geneva, introduced the Genevese or Presbyterian form of church government; but, though organised, it did not receive the sanction of the legislature until 1592. After the accession of James VI. to the throne of England, he endeavoured, notwithstanding the strenuous opposition of the great bulk of the nation, to re-establish episcopacy; and a struggle was carried on between the abettors of episcopacy and presbytery, who ultimately prevailed, according as the court or popular party happened to have the ascendancy, until the Revolution, when presbytery was definitely established.

Some, however, of the parishes are collegiate, have two clergymen; and latterly some of the more extensive parishes have been divided, and the incumbent, or *quoad sacra* ministers have been appointed to them. These are called *quoad sacra quoad spiritualia* ministers because they are not entitled to participate in the civil endowments belonging to the parish, and are wholly supported by a sum granted annually by the sovereign. These *quoad sacra* clergymen were appointed, by an act of the General Assembly of 1733, members of presbyteries, and other church courts. But this act has since been found to be illegal by a judgment of the House of Lords.

At present, and since the reign of Queen Anne (1712), the privilege of appointing clergymen to parishes has been vested in the crown or in the patrons, with the proviso that they must be selected from among those who have gone through the course of study prescribed by the church, and have been examined and licensed as preachers by a presbytery. The right of patronage has long, however, been exceedingly unpopular. Its encroachment, in despite of public opinion, occasioned the great secession from the church in 1741; and latterly it has become more unpopular than ever. The General Assembly, by a measure, called the *veto* act, passed in 1834, gave the congregations belonging to parishes a right to reject a sentence, if he were not acceptable to them: it (unfortunately, as we think,) was decided against by the court of session and subsequently by the House of Lords (3 May, 1839) that the General Assembly had no power to pass the *veto* act, and

that all proceedings under it were null and void. This decision was not, however, submitted to by the majority of the Assembly, by whom it was regarded as a usurpation upon their rights; and no legislative measure having been proposed calculated to allay the public irritation, or to mitigate the extreme exercise of the right of patronage, the leaders of the dominant party in the Assembly determined to secede from the church. Accordingly on the first day (18 May) of the meeting of the General Assembly of 1843, the ministers and elders, members of that body, opposed to the right of patronage and in favour of the *veto*, gave in a Protest, stating, among other things, that "The courts of the church as now established, and members thereof, are liable to be coerced by the civil courts in the exercise of their spiritual functions; and in particular in their admission to the office of the holy ministry, and the constitution of the pastoral relation, and that they are subject to be compelled to intrude ministers on reclaiming congregations in opposition to the fundamental principles of the church and their views of the Word of God, and to the liberties of Christ's people." And this protest having been read, the protesters withdrew to a separate place of meeting, and constituted themselves, and such as might afterwards adhere to them, into a body to be denominated the FREE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND. The Protest was signed by 125 ministers and 77 elders. But within a few weeks, no fewer than 470 clergymen seceded from the establishment, and joined the Free Church. Of these, 273 were parish clergymen, being nearly a third part of the total number of those belonging to the establishment. The rest were *quoad sacra* ministers. And whatever may be thought of its wisdom, this proceeding sets in a striking light the sincerity and zeal by which the seceders were animated. The voluntary abandonment by so many individuals of their homes and incomes, rather than hold them by compromising what they believed to be a fundamental principle, reflects the highest credit on the Scottish church and character.

As might be expected, the Free Church embraces a large body of lay adherents. In May, 1845, no fewer than 570 churches had been built for the accommodation of its members; 70 more were, at the same time, in the course of being built; and others were projected. It had then, also, 613 ordained clergymen, and 197 congregations without ministers. Very conflicting estimates have been formed of the total numbers of those within the pale of the Free Church; these being exaggerated by its friends, and underrated by its opponents. On the whole, however, they may perhaps be safely estimated at about 600,000.

Nothing, perhaps, has been so extraordinary, in connexion with the history of this secession, as the zeal and liberality displayed by the public in subscribing funds for the building of churches and the support of the clergy. These amounted, in May, 1845, to no less than 776,453*l.*, of which not 10 per cent. was unpaid. Large additional subscriptions have since been received. During the year ended 30th March, 1850, the sum of 306,622*l.* 0*s.* 1*d.* was received by the Free Church for its various objects. A handsome college in connexion with the Free Church has been opened in Edinburgh; and houses (manse) for the accommodation of the clergymen have been built in most parts of the country.

But while there is much to applaud in this display of zeal and liberality, we cannot help regarding the late secession as fraught with

many inconveniences, and regret that measures were not taken to prevent its occurrence. We said in the former edition of this work, "It was much to be wished that this question were satisfactorily disposed of. No doubt there are numerous difficulties in the way, but they are far from being insuperable; and we are clear that either the privilege of selecting their clergymen should be given to parishes, or that they should be authorized peremptorily to reject any presbiter not acceptable to them. The latter, perhaps, would be the least exceptionable mode of disposing of the question; and it might at once be effected by giving the *veto* act of the General Assembly the force of law. This privilege is, in fact, of the very essence of presbytery. It is entirely a popular institution; and it is idle to suppose that those who are conscientiously attached to it should ever approve a system of absolute patronage. That control over the election of clergymen, for which the majority of the clergy and people of Scotland are now contending, is not only right and proper in itself, but is in keeping with the other institutions of the country. All magistrates of boroughs, members of parliament, and other functionaries, are now chosen by popular election; and we have yet to learn why a different practice should be followed in the case of clergymen; and that they, whether acceptable or not, should be thrust upon the public. Such a system is sure, in the end, to destroy itself. To keep it up can serve no purpose, unless it be to lessen the utility of the church, to occasion agitation, and to add to the number of dissenters."

What has since occurred has fully demonstrated the truth of these statements. Had the *veto* act been passed into a law, the disruption of the church would not have occurred; and we believe we may, also, safely affirm that the *veto* would not have been exercised in one case out of twenty. Patrons would have seen the wisdom of deferring (as many of them do at present) to the wishes of congregations, and the *veto* would rarely have been heard of. Now, however, the established church is no longer the church of a decided majority of the people; and has ceased to enjoy much of the respect and influence that formerly belonged to it. Religious animosities and fanaticism have also been widely diffused; so that, on the whole, there is good cause to regret the not giving a legal effect to the *veto* act of the General Assembly.

A presbytery consists of the clergymen of an indefinite number of contiguous parishes, and of an elder from each kirk session. It has cognizance of all ecclesiastical matters within its limits, examines, licences, or rejects preachers or candidates for the ministry, reviews the decisions of kirk sessions, &c. Originally presbyteries met every week, but now, in general, only once a month. Appeal may be made from their decisions to the synods.

A synod consists of the clergymen of an indefinite number of contiguous presbyteries, with an elder from each of the different kirk sessions. This court, which usually meets twice a year, reviews the decisions of presbyteries; but its own decisions may be reviewed by the General Assembly, the highest ecclesiastical authority in the kingdom. We subjoin

A Statement, exhibiting an Account of the Number of Synods, Presbyteries, Parishes, and Clergymen, belonging to the Church of Scotland.

[See top of next column.]

The Scotch church is a perfect democracy, all the members being equal, none of them having

Synods.	Presby- teries.	Par- ishes.	Clergy- men.
Synod of Lothian and Tweeddale	7	130	128
Moray and Tiviotdale	6	92	86
Dundee	5	56	56
Galloway	3	37	37
Glasgow and Ayr	8	155	159
Argyll	5	65	57
Perth and Stirling	5	80	80
Fife	4	67	72
Angus and Mearns	5	84	87
Aberdeen	6	110	109
Moray	7	56	56
Roos	3	27	27
Caithness and Sutherland	2	32	30
Glasgow	5	43	41
Orkney	3	20	21
Shetland	2	14	14
Total number - 16 Synods -	80	1,022	1,020

any power or pre-eminence of any kind over another. There is in each parish a parochial tribunal, called a kirk session, consisting of the minister, who is always resident, and of a greater or smaller number of individuals, of whom, however, there must always be two selected as elders. The principal duty of the latter is to superintend the affairs of the poor, and to assist in visiting the sick. The session interferes in certain cases of scandal, calls parties before it, and inflicts ecclesiastical penalties. But parties who consider themselves aggrieved may appeal from the decisions of the kirk session to the presbytery in which it is situated, the next highest tribunal in the church.

The GENERAL ASSEMBLY, which consists partly of clerical and partly of lay members, chosen by the different parishes, boroughs, and universities, comprises 386 mems., as follows:—

Eighty Presbyteries send, ministers	-	-	216
City of Edinburgh, elders	-	-	34
Sixty-five other royal burghs	-	-	65
University of Edinburgh,	} one minister or one elder	}	5
University of Glasgow,			
University of St. Andrew's,			
Marischal College, Aberdeen,			
King's College, Aberdeen,	} one minister and an elder	}	2
Churches in India, a minister and an elder			
Total number of members	-	-	386

The General Assembly meets annually in May, and sits for 10 days; but it has power to appoint a commission, with powers equal to its own, to take up and consider any matters it may have left undecided. The Assembly is honoured during its sittings with the presence of a nobleman, the representative of the sovereign, with the title of Lord High Commissioner. He is merely, however, a state appendage, and cannot interfere in any way with its proceedings. All matters brought before the Assembly are decided, after debate, by a vote. Party sometimes runs as high in the Assembly as in the H. of C.; and the discussions are frequently as acrimonious and as eloquent.

The stipends of the Scotch clergy are principally derived from the wreck of the tithes and other property that belonged to the Rom. Cath. church, which was principally seized upon at the Reformation by the nobility and gentry. The court of session, as commissioners of teinds (tithes), have power from time to time to augment, as they may think fit, the livings of such clergymen as may not be already in the receipt of the whole disposable tithes of their respective parishes. But in many parishes the tithes have been wholly taken up or exhausted; and in 1819 an act was passed to raise, at the public expense, the incomes of such clergymen as had less than 150*l.* a year, exclusive of glebes and houses, to that sum. At this moment (1850) the average income of the clergy of the Church of Scotland, exclusive of the ministers of *quoad sacra* parishes, amounts to about 300*l.* a year, over and above

their glebes and houses, the average value of which may be estimated at about 35*l.* a year.

The dissenters from the church, exclusive of the adherents of the Free Kirk, consist principally of the members of the United Presbyterian Synod, the Reformed Presbyterian Church, and the Congregationalists. The first great secession took place in 1741, in consequence, as already stated, of the enforcement of the law of patronage. There are some other bodies of dissenters; and of late years, owing to the influx of Irish into the western coa., the Roman Catholics have received a great accession of numbers. The doctrines of the Church of England have also become fashionable among a good many of the higher classes. On the whole, however, the number of dissenters has been very greatly exaggerated; and at this moment (1850) we do not suppose that, altogether, they exceed 700,000, or, at the outside, 750,000.

Public Instruction.—An endowed school has been for a lengthened period established in every parish in Scotland. The landlords are bound to build the school-house, and a house for the residence of the master, and to pay him a salary, which, at present, varies from 2*l.* 1*2s.* 9*d.* to 34*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.* The power of nominating and appointing schoolmasters is vested in the landlords and minister of the parish. It is usually expected that a Scotch parochial teacher, besides being of unexceptionable character, should be able to instruct his pupils in the reading of English, the arts of writing and arithmetic, and the more useful branches of practical mathematics, and be possessed of such classical attainments as qualify him for teaching Latin and the rudiments of Greek.

Exclusive of the statutory allowance, schoolmasters receive fees from their pupils, according to a scale regulated by the landlords and clergymen. They are in general very moderate, varying, for the different branches of education, from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 1*2s.* 6*d.*, and, in a few instances, 1*0s.* a quarter. An efficient system of education has, in consequence, been brought within the reach of all classes, and has been productive of the greatest advantages.

In the largest country parishes there are often subsidiary schools, established by the landlords, the masters of which are allowed a portion of the statutory salary; and in all the more considerable towns by far the greater proportion of the children are educated at non-parochial schools. Speaking generally, classical instruction is not carried to the same extent in any of the Scotch schools, that it is carried in Eton, Harrow, and the higher class of English schools; but, on the whole, they furnish an extremely good and useful education.

Several returns have been published of the number and description of the various Scotch schools, and of the number of young persons of both sexes by whom they are attended. But these returns are all very incomplete, and are, in fact, little better than worthless. At an average, we believe, it may be estimated that from an eighth to a tenth part of the inhab. of Scotland are at schools or academies of one description or another.

The higher branches of education are taught in the universities of Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, and St. Andrew's (which see). Each of these universities has faculties of literature, philosophy, law, and medicine. A religious test may be required from the professors, but not from the students; the latter do not live in college halls, as in the English universities, and are not subject to any college jurisdiction when beyond the walls of the university.

Edinburgh University was long celebrated as a medical school, and still, indeed, preserves some considerable portion of its ancient celebrity. Probably, on the whole, the instruction afforded by the Scotch universities, though in many respects defective, is as good as can reasonably be expected, so long as the vicious practice is followed of allowing the professors to judge of the qualifications of candidates for degrees and literary honours; that is, of the merits of their own pupils, and, by consequence, of the solidity and efficiency of their own plan of instruction. The Scotch universities labour under great disadvantage, from the want of a superannuation fund. The professors, having no resource on which to fall back in the event of their getting into ill health, are frequently obliged to cling to their chairs, as a means of subsistence, long after they have been disabled, by sickness and otherwise, from a proper discharge of their duties.

Language and Literature.—It has long been

a prevalent opinion that the English and Scotch languages are merely different dialects derived from the same common source; and there are very good grounds for thinking that this opinion is correct. There is, however, no reason for concluding, as some have done, that the Scotch is merely a corrupt dialect of the English. It is quite as ancient as the latter; and both, in fact, are dialects derived from the same original tongue. The Gothic occupants of the lower parts of England and Scotland did not all come from the same parts of the Continent, so that there would most probably be at the epoch of their immigration considerable differences in their dialects; and while these, on the one hand, would be diminished by their intercourse with each other in their new settlements, they would, on the other hand, be, in some instances, likely to be increased by their intercourse with the Celts and ancient inhabitants of the country, and with new comers; till, at last, they would be moulded into new dialects of the same common language. One of the most ancient existing specimens of the Scotch language is a poem on the death of Alexander III. in 1288, written soon after the event. Barbour, a contemporary of Chaucer, is also a distinguished writer; and the language was farther improved and perfected by James I., Dunbar, and Douglas, bishop of Dunkeld, translator of Virgil, &c. But since the union of the crowns, and especially since the union of the kingdoms in 1707, the Scotch has been gradually giving way to the English, and it is now used only by the vulgar and illiterate. The poems of Burns, and some of Scott's novels, have tended, in no ordinary degree, to perpetuate and popularise the Scotch language; but notwithstanding their powerful influence, the fair presumption seems to be, that, at no very remote period, it will wholly cease to be a spoken language. In fact, it may be said to be almost extinct already; for, though most persons use Scotch words in their ordinary conversation, there are now very few, indeed, if any, even among the lowest classes, who speak Scotch without a large intermixture of English.

The Erse or Gaelic, the language generally spoken by the lower classes in the Highlands, is, no doubt, the language of the ancient occupants of the country. It differs but little from the Irish; so little, that after a short intercourse, persons speaking Irish and those speaking Erse have no difficulty in understanding each other. But it is a curious fact that the Irish and Erse are wholly unintelligible to the Welsh. The Manx, or native language of the Isle of Man, is a dialect of the Erse or Irish.

It would be useless in a work of this kind to enter upon any statements with respect to the literature of Scotland. It is sufficient to say that there are but few departments in which it cannot boast of writers of the highest excellence. Speaking generally, its literature, as contrasted with that of England, may, perhaps, be said to be less learned, less practical, and less playful; and to be more metaphysical, scholastic, and sustained. It would not, perhaps, be very difficult to specify the causes which have occasioned this difference in the literature of the two divisions of the island; but, owing to the more intimate connexion that now subsists between the people of both, it is probable that it will gradually become less perceptible.

Down to a comparatively recent period the Scotch newspaper press was alike inefficient and degraded. This was not a consequence of any indifference on the part of the public to news-

paper discussions, but was wholly ascribable to the corrupt state of the court of judicature. Full scope was given to the panegyrists of the government of the day, how worthless soever it might be; but any one who happened to question its merits, or who ventured to espouse or recommend any doctrine or theory not approved by the lord advocate for the time being, was, in truth, at the mercy of the latter, and might be banished almost at pleasure. The servility of the judges, and the facility of packing juries, afforded the agents of government a ready means of crushing any obnoxious writer; and, in fact, it may be said that Scotland had no newspaper press, or none worthy of the name, till after the close of last war. During the year ending the 5th January, 1850, 87 newspapers were published in Scotland, to which 6,381,341 stamps were issued at 1*d.*, and 208,900 at 4*d.* These papers paid, during the same year, 18,498*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.* duty on advertisements.

The establishment of the *Edinburgh Review*, in 1802, is an important epoch, not only in Scotch, but in European literature: it effected a total and most advantageous change in the previous style of criticism and periodical writing.

The *Provision for the Poor* that has long existed in Scotland originated, like that of England, in attempts to repress mendicancy. The acts of the Scottish parliament in reference to this subject bear, in many respects, a close similarity to the English acts, and are partly, indeed, copied from the latter. They differ, however, from the English laws in this important respect, that they make provision only for the maimed and impotent poor, and not for those who are able-bodied; and it is now generally laid down by the best authorities that the latter have no title to claim relief as matter of right. The administration of the poor laws in Scotland has, also, differed extremely from their administration in England; and to this, more than to any difference in the laws themselves, the wide discrepancy that now exists between the provision for the poor in the two countries is mainly to be ascribed. In Scotland the administration of the poor's funds has been usually vested in the kirk sessions; but, at the same time, any landlord might call the session of any parish in which he had property to account for their administration of these funds, and might attend and vote at their meetings in reference to such matters. No justice of the peace, sheriff, or other inferior judge has been permitted to interfere with the proceedings of the kirk sessions and landlords in their conduct of the affairs of the poor; and as the members of the session consist, for the most part, at least in country parishes, either of landlords or farmers, holding under leases of considerable length, they have always been anxious to keep the charge for the poor within the narrowest limits.

So economically, indeed, were the poor's funds administered, and so anxious were the administrators to allow none but really necessitous persons to participate in them, and to keep the allowances as low as possible, that assessments for the support of the poor were not introduced, until within these few years, into more than about a third part of the parishes of Scotland, the poor being supported in the others by collections made at church doors, and other voluntary contributions. "The Scotch," to use the words of a Report by the General Assembly in 1820, "have uniformly proceeded on the principle, that every individual is bound to provide for himself by his own labour, so long as he is

able to do so; and that his parish is only to make up that portion of the necessities of life which he cannot earn or obtain by other lawful means. Even in cases of extreme poverty, the relations and neighbours of the paupers have a pride in providing for their necessities either in whole or in part. This circumstance will account for the small number of paupers in some very populous parishes; and serves at the same time to explain a fact which is obvious in so many returns in the country districts, that the sums given to paupers appear to be so disproportioned to what their real necessities require. A small sum given to aid their other resources affords them the relief which is necessary; and it would be both against the true interests and the moral habits of the people were a more ample provision made for them by their parishes."

But an opinion had been gaining ground for some considerable time, that economy had been carried to an excess, and that the really necessitous poor were not adequately provided for; and there can be no doubt that this opinion was perfectly well founded. The statements in Dr. Alison's valuable publications, and those published in the articles *EDINBURGH* and *GLASGOW*, in the former edition of this work, exhibited a state of things that called loudly for alteration and amendment. Economy is not the only thing to be attended to in the administration of the affairs of the poor. No doubt it is a most important consideration; but the claims of humanity are not to be trampled under foot for its sake, as was certainly the case in many parts of Scotland.

In compliance with the public feeling on the subject, government appointed, in 1843, a commission to inquire into the state of the poor in Scotland, and into the administration of the laws for their relief; and the report of the commissioners, though in some respects defective, fully showed the extreme inadequacy of the provision made for the relief of the poor, and the necessity of its augmentation. A bill, founded in part on the recommendations of the commissioners, was forthwith introduced into parliament, and passed into a law, the 8 & 9 Vict. c. 83. This act effected some very important changes. It established a board in Edinburgh for the supervision of the affairs of the poor. This board is authorised to inquire into the condition and management of the poor in all boroughs and parishes, and to order returns, &c. from them. But though it may make suggestions, it has no power to order the functionaries to whom the care of the poor is committed to vary their mode of management. The act continues the old method of conducting parochial affairs by means of the kirk sessions, in all those parishes in which the sums required for the relief of the poor are raised by voluntary contribution. But it entrusts the management of all matters connected with the poor, in parishes into which assessments have been introduced, to parochial boards elected by the landlords and other people of property. It, also, orders an inspector, or inspectors of the poor, to be appointed for each parish or combination of parishes, &c. The law as to able-bodied parties in want was not interfered with by the act. They may be relieved (in fact they must be relieved); but they are not entitled to relief as matter of right.

There can be no doubt that, on the whole, the operation of this law has been beneficial. The increasing amount of the assessment has been appealed to in proof of the contrary allegation. But it proves nothing of the sort. Economy was formerly carried to a vicious excess; and

he destitute poor were exposed to sufferings disgraceful to a civilised country. This state of things has been altered for the better, and hence the unfounded complaints made against the law. Owing, also, to the continued influx

of immigrants from Ireland, the claimants for relief from the poor's funds have been greatly increased, and the country is thus really taxed to maintain the greatest grievance by which it has ever been visited.

Receipt of Money for, and Expenditure of the same upon, the Poor of Scotland in 1849, distinguishing the different Counties.

Counties.	Produce of Assessments.	Total of Assessments, Voluntary Contributions, &c.	Total Amount expended.
Aberdeen	3,355 14 2	54,198 10 2	30,390 6 8
Argyll	11,738 11 6	14,382 6 11	14,370 4 8
Ayr	26,120 11 18	50,708 11 10	28,118 19 10
Banff	8,473 5 3	9,453 12 4	9,371 12 11
Berwick	9,480 11 9	9,312 14 8	9,482 15 10
Bute	1,913 16 0	9,337 19 7	9,324 13 0
Caithness	5,117 4 2	6,158 2 11	6,711 7 4
Clackmannan	5,229 15 4	2,332 16 7	2,172 14 7
Dumbarton	14,948 12 6	17,102 17 10	17,471 17 4
Dumfries	14,782 17 5	16,445 13 6	15,451 4 4
Edinburgh	71,276 2 11	77,915 5 2	67,395 19 9
Elgin or Moray	7,441 11 9	27,299 4 7	7,480 18 11
Fife	35,445 9 0	27,870 13 6	23,149 17 8
Forfar	39,188 18 10	33,254 13 2	33,367 1 4
Gaddington	8,538 6 0	10,347 8 2	10,259 6 1
Inverness	13,460 13 10	10,431 17 6	13,98 14 2
Kincardine	20,068 8 10	7,101 0 3	6,653 9 2
Kinross	923 16 9	1,280 15 4	1,027 15 10
Kirkcaldbright	8,583 8 10	11,452 8 3	11,010 13 8
Leith	11,96 13 7	119,799 5 0	107,076 10 11
Linlithgow	5,482 11 10	6,341 14 2	6,155 8 6
Nairn	7,313 17 4	1,300 13 9	1,192 15 11
Orkney and Shetland			
Orkney	257 10 0	1,280 18 10	1,254 15 2
Shetland	399 19 1	1,276 0 2	1,302 1 4
Perth	1,558 18 4	2,863 13 7	2,250 18 1
Perth	17,363 4 7	26,195 10 3	24,976 5 4
Renfrew	36,212 1 9	39,372 8 8	30,567 9 1
Ross and Cromarty	14,410 16 18	14,738 6 6	13,738 8 0
Roxburgh	18,437 2 0	15,746 5 7	12,547 3 8
Selkirk	1,725 9 6	1,270 16 2	1,669 10 2
Stirling	12,811 4 8	15,023 8 2	13,500 11 2
Sutherland	2,644 7 7	5,753 16 10	5,251 10 7
Wigton	10,248 5 2	10,725 16 1	10,276 10 2
Total	518,512 12 4	583,590 5 4	584,355 7 3

To this sum there must be added 47,199. 17s. 6d., expended on general sanitary measures and workhouse buildings of all kinds, making a total expenditure of 581,553. 4s. 3d.

Classification of the Poor of Scotland in 1849, distinguishing the different Counties.

Counties.	Population.	Poor on the Roll, or Registered.	Casual Poor.	Inmate or Pauper.	Orphans or deserted Children.
Aberdeen	192,893	6,663	1,057	249	456
Argyll	96,824	3,532	716	158	146
Ayr	164,177	4,506	5,987	145	247
Banff	48,463	1,552	270	85	46
Berwick	34,345	1,306	594	50	80
Bute	15,740	458	141	16	29
Caithness	37,410	1,751	46	78	7
Clackmannan	30,041	642	279	17	51
Dumbarton	46,003	1,132	668	40	168
Dumfries	72,855	3,470	1,221	100	168
Edinburgh	225,476	11,496	2,185	439	1,450
Elgin or Moray	35,879	1,495	304	52	37
Fife	130,729	4,169	3,168	169	394
Forfar	170,329	4,792	1,745	253	348
Gaddington	35,859	1,398	478	89	108
Inverness	98,417	5,845	573	109	142
Kincardine	33,550	1,222	225	50	67
Kinross	7,434	145	112	9	8
Kirkcaldbright	44,119	1,707	1,913	66	118
Leith	427,738	24,375	18,301	408	1,868
Linlithgow	27,466	996	828	94	67
Nairn	7,486	301	41	13	7
Orkney and Shetland					
Orkney	30,507	780	91	44	13
Shetland	30,538	773	288	16	6
Perth	10,598	305	107	8	39
Perth	137,854	2,905	1,480	227	252
Renfrew	154,160	5,015	4,084	189	611
Ross and Cromarty	39,941	2,736	406	85	35
Roxburgh	46,871	1,791	1,272	74	77
Selkirk	7,415	212	781	14	15
Stirling	80,535	1,940	1,940	81	22
Sutherland	23,715	1,039	105	47	23
Wigton	39,195	1,790	700	63	180
Total	2,680,184	101,454	53,070	3,481	7,969

Historical Sketch. — The early history of Scotland is at once obscure and uninteresting. The country was long one of the most barbarous in Europe; and though Kenneth II. (anno 838) is said to have united the extensive territories from the Tyne N. to the Pentland Frith into one kingdom, it is abundantly certain that various extensive districts were in great measure independent of the crown for several centuries after this period. In consequence of their early holding Northumberland, Cumberland, and

other lands in England, the kings of Scotland were accustomed to appear in the English court to perform homage for these possessions; in the same way as the English monarchs were themselves accustomed to perform homage to the kings of France for Normandy and the other provinces held by them in that kingdom. (*Stuart's Public Law of Scotland*, note viii.) On the extinction of the direct line of the Scottish kings in 1290, by the death of Margaret of Norway, John Balliol and Robert Bruce, descend-

ants of the Scottish king David I., appeared as competitors for the crown. The pretensions of both were supported by powerful parties; and, to avoid a civil war it was agreed to refer the matter to the amicable decision of Edward I., king of England. This able and politic prince availed himself of the opportunity to advance the principle, for which the homage that had been performed by the Scotch princes for their English possessions afforded a colourable pretext, that the kings of England were the paramount sovereigns or liege lords of Scotland, and that the competitors for the crown should do homage to him as such. This was consented to; and Edward, finding Baliol most suitable to his views, decided in his favour. The latter, however, being less subservient than was expected, was speedily set aside by Edward, who attempted to seize the kingdom on pretence of its having escheated to him through the rebellion of his vassal.

The nation, however, was not to be so transferred. Sir William Wallace raised the standard of independence; and in the sequel, the famous Robert Bruce, grandson of the competitor of Baliol, appeared in the field; and after unparalleled exertions, continued through a series of years, the great victory of Bannockburn (1314) secured the independence of Scotland, and established the conqueror and his family on the throne.

The only daughter of Robert Bruce having married the lord high steward, Robert, the issue of that marriage, and the first of the family of Stuart who arrived at the royal dignity, succeeded to the crown on the death of David II., in 1371. From this period, the history of Scotland is comparatively well known; and the continued and extraordinary ill-fortune that attended the lengthened series of princes of the House of Stuart has vested it with more than ordinary interest.

The principles of the reformers were early introduced into Scotland, and were eagerly adopted by the great bulk of the nobility and people. The Protestant religion obtained the ascendancy in 1560, shortly before the return of the beautiful, but ill-fated Queen Mary from France, where she had been sent to be educated. At this period the royal authority was at a very low ebb; the most violent contentions prevailed amongst the nobility; and it would have required a sovereign of no ordinary ability and energy of character to conduct the government under such difficult circumstances. We need not, therefore, be surprised at the failure of Mary, who, though not without good talents, was wholly inexperienced, at the same time that she had the misfortune to have been strongly imbued with anti-Protestant prejudices, and that the violence of her passions made her sacrifice her own reputation and innocence, and the well-being of the kingdom, to their gratification.

Having been deposed in 1567, Mary was succeeded by her son, James VI., then a minor. The latter succeeded, on the demise of Queen Elizabeth, in 1603, to the crown of England, when the two British kingdoms were happily united under one sovereign. (*See Vol. I. 790., &c.*)

From the accession of the House of Stuart to the union of the crowns, a period of about 230 years, Scotland, speaking generally, was in a most unsettled, turbulent state. The feudal system had been early introduced into the country; and the great estates and influence enjoyed by several of the nobles enabled them to rival the sovereign in power and importance, and sometimes to despise his orders,

and insult his person. In France, England, and other countries, the sovereigns, by enfranchising the inhabitants of the great towns, and attaching them to their interests, succeeded, through their assistance, after a lengthened struggle, in abating the pride and independence of the barons, and reducing them to obedience. But the kings of Scotland had no such support on which to fall back: there was not, in fact, a single great town in the kingdom; and they had nothing to trust to but the supplies of men and money they could draw from the crown estates, and from the contributions of such of their vassals as happened to be at the time in their interest, or whom they could coerce. In consequence of these, and other concurring causes, the power of the Scottish kings was circumscribed within the narrowest limits; the civil broils in which they were almost always engaged were, in most instances, fomented and abetted by the government of England; and, a few short intervals excepted, the country was involved in continuous anarchy and confusion.

The union of the crowns in 1603 introduced a great change for the better into the state of domestic affairs in Scotland. The barons could no longer look to England for open or underhand support in their contests with their sovereigns; while, at the same time, the power of the latter was vastly increased by their being able to employ the resources of a much more civilised, populous, and powerful monarchy in their disputes with their ancient subjects. Hence, though Scotland laboured under numerous grievances, resulting principally from the unreasonable hostility of the sovereigns to the Presbyterian form of church government, to which the people were enthusiastically attached, she gained prodigiously in tranquillity and good order subsequently to 1603.

The union of the kingdoms in 1707 was, as it were, the necessary result and completion of the union of the crowns. Though excessively unpopular at the time, and opposed by many of the best Scotch patriots, it has been of vast advantage to Scotland, as well as to the empire generally.

The consequences of the rebellion of 1745 were also advantageous, notwithstanding the unnecessary and disgusting cruelty exhibited in its suppression. It extinguished for ever the long-cherished hopes of the Jacobites; and it stimulated government to take effectual measures for abating the barbarism that prevailed in the Highlands, and for the introduction of a more efficient administration of justice into all parts of the country. In this view the old feudal hereditary jurisdictions were abolished, and sheriffs nominated and paid by the crown were appointed in their stead; and this most salutary measure being accompanied by the construction of military roads, that were carried into the remotest and least accessible districts, the empire of the law was fully established; disorders of all sorts were promptly repressed; and at length the public energies were happily turned into those departments of industry and enterprise in which they have achieved such astonishing results.

SCUTARI (an. *Chrysopolis*), a town of Asiatic Turkey, being, however, in fact, a suburb of Constantinople, opposite the latter, on the other side of the Channel of Constantinople, on the Bithynian shore, about 1½ m. E. Seraglio Point. Its pop. has been variously estimated at from 30,000 to 60,000. It is built on the declivity of several hills, and has a very picturesque appearance from the opposite shores: its interior is similar to that of the Turkish capital, and it is built in the same style. A palace of the sultan, with extensive gardens, barracks constructed by the late sultan Mahmoud, several handsome mosques, a noted college of bowing dervishes, several large cemeteries, with public baths, bazaars, &c., are the principal edifices and public establishments. It is a rendezvous for the merchants and caravans from Armenia and Persia trading to Constantinople, and is the first station for the assembling of the Turkish troops in Asia.

Scutari is very ancient, and is said to owe its name of *Chrysopolis* to the circumstance of the treasury of the Persians having been established in it when they attempted the conquest of Greece. Its vicinity was memorable for the decisive victory obtained by Constantine the Great over his rival Licinius. (*Cramer's Asia Minor*, i. 191.; *Tournefort, Clarke, Elliott, &c., passim.*)

OUTARN, a fortified town of European Turkey, and cap. of a pachia in Albania, S. of the Lake Scutaro (*Labezia Pehus*), at the confluence of the Bojana and nassi, about 16 m. from the embouchure of the former in the Gulf of Drmo, in the Adriatic, 45 m. S.E. Cat.

Its pop. has been estimated at 20,000. It has a very strong citadel, on an isolated rock; with various quays, and Greek and Rom. Cath. churches. It stands on even ground, and is built in a very straggling manner. A rather active trade in timber is carried on by its wharves, which extend to the lake; the inhab. manufacture cotton fabrics and arms, and build vessels. Scutari is supposed to occupy the site of an. *Scodra*, the cap. of the Illyrian king Gentius; which subsequently appears to have become a Roman city. It is still a place of importance; and when Sir John Lubbock travelled in Albania, the power of its chief the only counterpoise to that of Ali Pasha. (*Hobbes's Albania*, 462; *Cramer's Anc. Greece*, i. 40, 41; *schömann*.)

CYLLA and CHARYBDIS: The former is a rock and town of S. Italy, at the N. entrance to the strait separating Italy from Sicily; and the latter an equally famous whirlpool in the strait near the Sicilian coast. Scylla is a bold rocky headland, about 100 ft. in height, projecting into the sea, and hollowed out by the action of the waves. It is pointed by a castle, in lat. $38^{\circ} 14' 15''$ N., long. $15^{\circ} 44'$ E. There is a sandy bay on each side the rock; and the town of Scylla, built principally on the steep acclivity of the ridge, stretches down to the shore on either side.

It has about 5,000 inhab., said to be expert fishermen, and divers. Scylla and Charybdis were the two little towns suffered tremendously from the earthquake that devastated Calabria in 1783. A large portion of the inhab., with the prince at their head, fled to the sea, believing it to be least exposed to danger. But had not been long there when an adjoining cliff fell into the sea; and the waves, driven back by its fall, rushed again with such tremendous fury as to rise high above the shore, sweeping along with them in their recoil persons, not one of whom escaped alive! (*Swinhoe*, ii. 419.)

Scylla is exactly 6,047 Eng. yards, or nearly 10 miles, from the opposite point of Faro, the N.E. extremity of Sicily. The whirlpool of Charybdis is not, however, opposite to Scylla, but within the strait outside the point of land enclosing the harbour of Messina. From a prominent position at the mouth of the straits, Scylla is exposed to the full action of the current, the sea making a noise in the caverns it has hollowed in the rock, h, of course, is much increased in storms. Charybdis seems to be formed by the main current passing through the straits from the N. being thrown over to the S. by the point of Pezzo, and meeting the S. current running in the opposite direction. It is 70 to 80 fathoms deep, circles in quick eddies; and an Irish Smyth says that small craft are sometimes entered by it, and that he had seen a 74-gun ship tried round on its surface." (*Memoir of Sicily*, 123.) notwithstanding the action of the contrary currents, the formidable appearance of Charybdis, there is no real danger in navigating the straits, provided caution be exercised. Although, however, it be quite as that Homer, in depicting the terrific dangers entered by Ulysses in this famous strait (see *Pope's Iliad*, xxi. ll. 87, &c.), has made a very liberal use of the license allowed to a poet, still it is abundantly clear that it must have been much more dangerous in antiquity than at present. It was a generally received opinion among the ancients that Italy and Sicily were united, and that they had been torn asunder by some convulsion of nature. Pliny says, "*Sicilia, quoniam Bruttio agro coherens, mox interfuso mari avulsa*," (iii. cap. 8.; see also *Silius Italicus*, lib. xiv. lin. 2; &c.) But whether this were so or not, it is plain the action of the current for a period of more than 2,000 years must have materially widened and deepened the strait, and worn down those rocky prominences that render such narrow channels peculiarly dangerous. The duration of the strait has also, no doubt, been materially altered in the interval by the earthquakes so prevalent in this region; so that we are by no means entitled to rely on the statements of the ancients, in regard to its nature, solely to their ignorance of navigation or their ignorance of the marvellous.

scals in passing through the straits, in order to avoid being within the vortex of Charybdis, sometimes run into Scylla, which gave rise to the famous proverbial saying — "*Incidit in Scyllam cupiens vitare Charybdis*," applicable to those who, to avoid a less, run into a greater danger.

BASTIAN (ST.), a fortified frontier city and sea-port of Spain, cap. prov. Guipuzcoa, in Biscay, at the mouth of a low sandy tongue of land, projecting into the Bay of Biscay, 10 m. W. by S. Fuenterrabia, and 10 m. N.E. Bilbao. Pop., according to Milano, 9,720,

exclusive of its garrison; but, including this, and its suburbs, the pop. may be taken at 13,000. Having been in a great measure rebuilt since 1813, it is now one of the neatest and most regularly constructed towns in the peninsula, presenting a favourable contrast to most other Spanish cities. It is defended on the E. and W. by strong walls, washed by the sea; on the N. by the castle of Mota, on Mount Urgullo, a rugged cone near 400 ft. in height; and on the S. it is shut off by advanced military works, and by the little river Uruma, from its suburb of St. Catherine. The castle is well supplied with water, and is a fortress quite independent of the city, with which it communicates by two routes, both defended by various batteries. St. Sebastian has some handsome squares, several churches and convents, a civil and military hospital, &c.; its streets are clean, and it is abundantly supplied with water, though not of the best quality. The Uruma is crossed by a stone bridge of 8 arches. Though secure, and well defended, the harbour is difficult entrance; it is formed by a mole, and is of small size. St. Sebastian has always been a place of considerable trade, and was the seat of the Philippine Company. It is the port whence Pampeluna, Victoria, Logrono, &c. obtain most part of their supplies of colonial and other foreign goods; and at which the greater part of the French and English manufactures destined for Madrid, and other towns in the interior, are imported. Its exports are chiefly iron and wool. It had formerly some large cordage factories and tanneries, but these have mostly fallen into decay. It is the residence of a military governor, 2 justices, and the seat of a sub-delegation of police; a lottery department, a tribunal of commerce, &c. From its being, as it were, one of the keys of Spain, its possession has always been an object of great importance in the contests between the French and Spaniards. The former took it in 1719, 1794, and 1808; and held it from the last-mentioned epoch till 1813, when it was taken by the British forces under Sir Thomas Graham, now Lord Lynedoch. The latter were repulsed in their first attempt to carry it by storm in July; but they succeeded, though not without an enormous loss, in the second assault on the 31st of August. A fire having broken out in the town during the assault, it was all but destroyed. We regret to have to state that, notwithstanding every exertion on the part of the officers, the most horrible excesses were committed by the victorious soldiers. (*Milano, Dic. de España*, &c.; *Napier's Peninsular War*, vi. 65—197.)

SEDAN, a fortified town of France, on its N.E. frontier, dep. Ardennes, cap. arrond., on the Meuse, 124 m. E. S. E. Metziers, lat. $49^{\circ} 42' 29''$ N., long. $4^{\circ} 57' 51''$ E. Pop., in 1846, inc. comm., 13,501. Though an important frontier town, the *Dict. Géog.* says that its works, some of which were constructed by Vauban, have latterly been neglected; and its citadel, at its S.E. extremity, has been converted into an arsenal. It stands on a very uneven ground, and is separated into two unequal parts by the Meuse, here crossed by a stone bridge. It is well built; the streets, which are wide and clean, are ornamented with numerous fountains; the houses are mostly of stone, roofed with slate, and in the environs are various public walks.

Sedan has excellent cavalry and other barracks, a military hospital for 800 patients; other military establishments; a Calvinist, and several Rom. Catholic churches, a public library, communal college, a handsome theatre, &c. It is the seat of a tribunal of primary jurisdiction, a chamber of manufactures, &c. The water is said to have a tendency to produce *goutre*.

Sedan has been long celebrated for its woollen manufactures, consisting principally of fine black cloths, and cassimeres. In 1836-37, from 11,000 to 12,000 work-people were employed in the woollen manufactures of the town and its vicinity, of whom from 3,000 to 4,000 belonged to the town; from 2,000 to 2,500, belonging to the neighbouring villages, went to work daily within the town; and the remainder, consisting principally of weavers, inhabited the country for a distance of from three to four leagues round. The last, who also occupy small patches of land, work at the loom in their own cottages; whereas those who live in and near the town are mostly employed in large manufacturing establishments. In these, they work, nominally 10, and really from 14 to 15 hours a day. But, notwithstanding these long hours, the work-people of Sedan are decidedly better fed, clothed, and lodged, than those of most other manufacturing towns of France: men get from about 2 to 34 fr. a day; women from 1 to 2 fr., and children from 10 sous to 1 fr. (*Villeme*, i. 264.)

The greatest harmony subsists between the work-people and the manufacturers. Drunkenness is comparatively rare, though in other respects their habits might be a good deal improved. Instruction is much more extensively diffused among the work-people than at Rheims, and, speaking generally, they have all the signs of good health; circumstances chiefly consequent on the non-introduction of children into the factories at

too early an age. Villermé farther adds, that their education and morals are both in a state of improvement. (*Tableau des Ouvriers*, i. 253—279.)

Hosiery, leather, arms, and hardware, are also produced at Sedan; and it has numerous dyeing-houses, with an extensive trade in drugs, &c. Previously to the Revolution Sedan was the cap. of a principality, which had often changed hands in the middle ages, but which was finally exchanged with Louis XIV. for some other fiefs by the Turenne family. One of the greatest of the French generals, the famous Marshal Turenne, was a native of this town, in the citadel of which he first saw the light on the 16th of September, 1611. His statue, in bronze, ornaments the principal square. (*Hugo*, art. *Ardenne*; *Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

SEGORBE (an. *Segorrigar*), a city of Spain, cap. dist. of its own name in Valencia, near the Palencia, 18 m. N.W. Murriedro. Pop., between 6,000 and 7,000. Streets wide, and most of its houses well built: it has several squares, numerous public and private fountains, a cathedral in which are some good paintings, several convents, a prison, workhouse, and other public edifices. Its inhabitants are occupied in the manufacture of starch, earthenware, and paper, the distillation of brandy, and the quarrying marble in the vicinity. Two large fairs are annually held here. Various Roman antiquities have been found within the city. (*Mifano*, *Fishes of the Province of Valencia*, &c.)

SEGOVIA (an. *Secuna*), a city of Spain, Old Castile, cap. of the prov. of its own name, 48 m. N.N.W. Madrid. Pop., according to Mifano, 13,890. It is built on two hills and the intervening valley, the unevenness of the site giving it a wild look. Most of the streets are crooked and dirty, the houses also are ill built, and chiefly of wood. The public buildings comprise 18 churches, including the cathedral, five hospitals, a mint, a college for cadets in the old castle or Alcazar, and military barracks. The cathedral, which is described by Swinburne as one of the handsomest churches in Spain, has a tower 330 ft. high, and exhibits a mixture of the Gothic and Arabian styles, nearly resembling that in the great church at Salamanca. The interior is characterised by a simplicity rarely seen in Spanish churches, the effect of which is infinitely superior to that of the gildings and ornaments elsewhere observable. The Alcazar is in great preservation, occupying a commanding situation on a rock rising above the open country. Towards the town is a large court before the great outward tower, formerly used as a prison, but now as a college of cadets. The rest of the buildings form an antique palace, once the favourite residence of Ferdinand and Isabella: it comprises several magnificent halls, with gilt ceilings; and along the cornice of the grand saloon are 52 wooden statues of the kings of Spain seated in state. The military college was remodelled on the formation of the present constitution, and the instruction given by the professors embraces most branches of knowledge connected with military science. The great glory of Segovia, however, is its aqueduct, supposed to have been built in the time of Trajan, and certainly one of the most perfect specimens of Roman architecture in Spain. Swinburne (ii. 248.) says, that "it is not only an admirable monument for its solidity and good masonry, which have withstood the violence of barbarians and the inclemencies of the seasons during so many ages, but is wonderfully beautiful and light in its design. It consists of 161 arches, in two ranges; that nearest the ground comprising 118, of which 43 are surmounted by an equal number of others: the whole is built of square stones, without mortar; and at the top is a channel, once hollow, but now filled up, only 5 ft. wide, and without a parapet. The total length of the aqueduct is 750 yards, and its height in crossing the valley (measured close to the Plaza del Azogujo, where two of the arches cross the street) is estimated by Twiss at 102 ft., though other travellers say only 94 or 95 ft. (Comp. *Twiss*, 82, with *Townsend*, ii. 115., and *Ingils*, i. 286.) Swinburne considers it superior in elegance even to the Pont du Gard, near Nîmes; but, in point of fact, the two differ remarkably; the latter having 3 instead of 2 rows of arches, and the extreme height being 143 ft.

The mint of Segovia is the most ancient in Spain, is situated at the bottom of the city, on the small river Eresma, the water of which turns its machinery: for many years, however, its operations have been confined to the coinage of maravedis, quartos, and other copper pieces. Segovia is said to be a decayed city, and most books on Spain contain accounts of the former flourishing state of its woollen manufactures; but Capmany has shown that, if not wholly unfounded, these accounts are, at all events, very greatly exaggerated; and that, when most flourishing, the number of looms in Segovia did not exceed 300 (*Questions Critiques*, p. 37.), which, perhaps, is about their present number. It also produces paper, earthenware, and glass. A fair held here in June is much frequented. In the neighbourhood are mines of lead and copper, as well as quarries of black marble.

The early history of Segovia is somewhat obscure; but, like most other cities of Castile, it belonged successively to the Romans, Goths, and Moors, from the last of whom it was taken at the beginning of the 11th century. During the Peninsular war the town was occupied by the French from 1808 to 1814. (*Townsend*, ii. 120—124; *Ingils*, i. 284—287; *Mifano*.)

SEINE, the smallest, but most populous, wealthy, and important dép. of France, being that in which the capital is situated. It extends between lat. 48° 43' and 49° 58' N., and long. 2° 10' and 2° 35' E., being entirely surrounded by the dép. Seine-et-Oise. It is of a nearly circular shape, about 18 m. in diameter. Area, 47,548 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 1,364,933. The Seine traverses this dép. in its centre, with a general direction from N.W. to S.E., and receives the Marne within its limits. There are a few hills, but none of much elevation. Mont-Valerien does not rise to 450 ft. above the level of the Seine, and Montmartre is only 244 ft. in height. The soil is chiefly calcareous, this dép. forming the centre of the remarkable tertiary region called the Paris basin. (*See Paris*, *anté*, p. 466., and *FRANCE*, vol. i. 850.) But the chalk is covered with a bed of vegetable mould of considerable thickness; and the manure supplied by the capital renders the dép. very productive. The arable lands are estimated at 29,295 hectares, or 1,143 ditto; vineyards, 4,784 ditto; and orchards, gardens, &c. 3,502 ditto. Corn is not extensively raised, and the little that is produced is but indifferent. It furnishes very superior peaches, and other fruits; and there are numerous market gardens for kitchen vegetables, &c. A good many cattle, and other live stock, are fattened for the Paris markets, and there are some flocks of superior sheep. In 1838, of 66,897 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 17,372 were assessed at less than 5 fr.; while 12,522 were rated at from 100 to 530 fr., and 2,006 at 1,000 fr. and upwards. The manufacturing industry centres in Paris, which see. It is divided into 3 arrondis., and sends 14 mems. to the Ch. of Dep. Registered electors in 1838—39, 16,871. Total public rev., in 1831, 55,592,188 fr.; expenditure, 15,943,351 fr. (*Hugo*, art. *Seine*, &c.)

SEINE (an. *Seguana*), a river of France; and though by no means the largest, yet one of the most important in the kingdom, being that on which the capital is built. It rises in the dép. and mountain-chain of the Côte d'Or (by which it is separated from the basin of the Loire), about lat. 47° 30' N., long. 6° E., 30 m. N.W. Dijon. It flows generally in a N.W. direction, between the basins of the Loire on the S.W., and of the Meuse and Somme on the N.E., through the dép. of Aube, Seine-et-Marne, Seine-et-Oise, Seine, Eure, and Seine-Inférieure, to the British Channel, which it enters by a vast estuary at Havre, about lat. 49° 30' N., and long. 0° 10' E., nearly opposite Newhaven in Sussex. Its entire course, in consequence of its numerous windings, is estimated at 800 m., for nearly 350 of which it is navigable. Its source is about 1,420 ft. above the level of the sea. But more than 3-4ths of its descent takes place within the first 100 m. of its course, for at Troyes it is not more than 460 ft. above the sea; and at Paris its mean elevation above the latter is only 51 ft., and at Rouen 36 ft. (*Bruguière*, *Orographie*.) From its not rising in mountains of any great elevation, it is neither subject to serious inundations, nor has it a rapid current; and the latter circumstance, together with its gentle rate of descent in the lower parts of its course, renders it highly suitable for navigation. The chief obstacles to its utility are the shifting sand-banks in its estuary, and some shallows between Quillebeuf and Rouen. At Paris the Seine is from 800 to 500 ft. in width; at its mouth it is 7 m. in width. It is here subject at the return of every tide to a phenomenon termed the *barré*, similar to the *maesart* in the Dordogne, the *bore* in the Solway Frith, Ganges, &c. This consists of a wave of great magnitude, with an almost perpendicular front, impelled inwards from the sea with much violence as high as Jumieges, and sometimes even as far as Rouen. It gives notice of its approach by a noise which, according to Hugo, is heard for forty minutes beforehand, but it is, notwithstanding, frequently productive of damage to shipping. The tide in the Seine is usually perceptible as high as Rouen, to which city the river is navigable for vessels of 200 tons. Respecting the trade of the Seine, see the articles Havre and PARIS.

The Seine receives several considerable tributaries; as the Aube, Marne, and Oise, from the N.E., and the Yonne, Eure, and Rille, from the S. and W. Besides Paris, several large and flourishing commercial cities and towns are seated on the Seine; as Rouen, Elbeuf, Troyes, Melun, and Montcoran, with Châtillon, Bar, Nogent, Corbeil, St. Germain, and Honfleur; and at its mouth is Havre, which, Marseilles excepted, is the first commercial port of France. The Seine and its tributaries are connected by the canals of Briare, Orleans, and Nivernais, with the Loire; by that of St. Quentin with the Somme and Scheldt; by that of Ardenne with the Meuse, and by that of Bur-

dy with the Loire. The canal of Ourcq (*see* PARIS, 72.) also communicates with it. The banks of the sea below Paris have been much praised for their fertility. "I reached," says Mr. MacLaren, "Rouen by diligence from Paris in 1½ hours. The road passes by the valley of the Seine, which is extremely beautiful but deficient in variety. It is from 2 to 10 m. in width, and is bounded on both sides, not by hills, but *plateaux*, or table-lands, of a very uniform elevation. The lands are carefully cultivated, but enclosures are rare, and the cottages small and mean. I went from Rouen to Havre by the steam-boat in eight hours." (*See in France and Italy*, pp. 196, 196.)

SEINE-INFÉRIEURE, a maritime *dép.* of France, N., formerly comprised for the most part in the *d.* of Normandy, having E. the *d.*s. Somme and Oise, S. and Calvados, and W. and N. the British Channel. Area, 609,912 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 756,882. S. boundary consists mostly of the Seine and its *marais*. There are some high chains, but none of much sequence. Coasts in general abrupt, presenting a succession of calcareous cliffs. Climate moist, and colder on the opposite coast of England. Soil generally areous or sandy; but in the *arrond.*s. of Havre and *et* there are some very fertile tracts, consisting of a light clay. In 1834, the surface is said to have been divided as follows, viz., 379,016 hectares arable, 24 do. meadows, 61,173 do. orchards and gardens, and 44 do. woods. Agriculture is more advanced in this *d.* in most other *d.*s. Ploughs of a superior kind are latterly been introduced; the efficiency of manures well understood; and fallows have been to a considerable extent superseded by the introduction of an improved rotation. Near Havre, on the large farms only, three acres are in fallow: of the arable land, about *two* parts may be in wheat; one third in oats, barley, &c.; one sixth in clover; one twelfth in peas and beans, and one twelfth in flax; and these are about the portions throughout most part of the *d.*. In 1835, 134,071 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 10 were assessed at less than 5 fr., while 2,413 were used at from 300 to 500 fr., 1,223 at from 500 to 1,000 fr. and 764 at 1,000 fr. and upwards; so that the proportion of large properties is greater in this than in any other *d.* of France; and to this its superior agriculture is, in great measure, to be ascribed. The large proprietors own or never farm their own lands. Some farms run from 200 to 300 acres, but in general they are much larger; they are almost always let for a term of 9 years, the rent varying from 30s. to 50s. per hectare, which is paid in money. According to the official tables, 3,000 hectolitres of corn were harvested in 1835, exclusive of 882,000 hect. potatoes, the cultivation of which is increasing on the small farms. A good deal of cider is made, and most of the peasants' cottages are surrounded by small orchards. Cattle, horses, and sheep are all of good breeds, and are, in fact, among the best in France: produce of wool is estimated at about 650,000 kilograms.

Wages are high. Farm servants always live at their masters' houses, and ploughmen receive from 3*l.* to 4*l.* sterling a year; women from 3*l.* to 4*l.* generally in money. Their food consists of bread, vegetables of all kinds, soup, eggs, cheese, &c., with cider for drink; and chens—meat once or twice a week. The occupiers of lands are prosperous, though not rich. The farmer pays land, house, window, and personal taxes, and is frequently called on for the support of paupers. The latter are numerous, and as no legal provision is made for them, they are wholly dependent upon voluntary contributions. (*See Rep. on Agriculture*, 1834.) This *d.*, which is the third in France with respect to pop., is inferior to it in manufacturing industry. Rouen (which *see*) is the head of the cotton manufacturing towns; and *cruf* is one of the chief seats of the French woollen manufacture. Manufactures of most other descriptions are carried on; and the *d.* has, through Havre, &c., an extensive trade with England, America, and most parts of the world; and by the Seine, with Paris and the *arrond.*s. of France. It is divided into 6 *arrond.*s.: chief towns, Rouen, the cap., Dieppe, Havre, Neufchâtel, and *et*. It sends 11 *m.* to the Ch. of Dep. Registered electors, in 1838-39, 7,129. Total public revenue 311,601,798 fr.; expenditure, 15,185,773 fr. (*Hugo, Seine Inf.*; *French Official Tables*, &c.)

SEINE-ET-MARNE, a *d.* of France, reg. N., N.W., N., N.E., and E. the *d.*s. of N. lat., and *g.* 30° 30' and 30° 30' E.; having N. the *d.*s. Oise, and *ne*; E., Aube and Marne; S., Yonne and Loiret; and *ne*, the last-named and Seine-et-Oise. Area, 663,482 ares. Pop., in 1846, 340,212. Surface, undulating; slope being from E. to W. The highest hills are in the S. The Seine, here joined by the Yonne, traverses the *d.*, and the Marne the N. part of the *d.*. The *arrond.*s. of Nogent, and Grand Morin are the other principal *arrond.*s. The geological formations are mostly calcareous, and in many parts by a deep layer of vegetable soil. It is, indeed, one of the finest agricultural *d.*s. in

France, and has a good deal of rich land. In 1834, it was said to comprise 367,824 hectares arable land, 32,293 ditto meadows, 18,973 ditto vineyards, 6,607 ditto orchards and gardens, and 79,963 ditto woods. It has a large surplus of corn, principally wheat and oats, for exportation. Potatoes are, also, pretty extensively grown. The produce of wine may amount to nearly 600,000 hectol.; but it is mostly of low quality, and is principally used for home-consumption only. Cider is also produced.

In 1819, according to Mr. Jacob, this *d.* was better cultivated than those more to the E.; the soil is well adapted for turnips, small patches of which are occasionally met with.

Meaux is finely situated in the midst of rich natural pastures, which fatten great numbers of cattle, and the dairy husbandry is also carried on to some extent. The breed of sheep has been much improved by crossing with the Merino breed, and the total annual produce of wool is estimated at 1,200,000 kilograms. Wax and honey are important articles. In 1835, of 172,606 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 85,862 were assessed at less than 5 fr., 26,280 at from 5 to 10 fr., and 709 at 1,000 fr. and upwards. No mines are wrought, but a good many hands are employed in quarrying paving and other stone. Manufactures principally of cotton and linen fabrics, hardware, and cutlery, earthenware, leather, and paper. This *d.* is divided into 5 *arrond.*s.: chief towns, Melun, the cap., Coulommiers, Fontainebleau, Meaux, and Provins. It sends 5 *m.* to the Ch. of Dep. Registered electors, in 1838-39, 2,781. Total public revenue, in 1831, 12,888,754 fr.; expenditure, 7,577,351 fr. (*Hugo, art. Seine-et-Marne*; *Jacob's Tour*, &c., pp. 442, 443.)

SEINE-ET-OISE (formerly *Isle-de-France*), a *d.* of France, reg. N., principally between lat. 48° and 49° N., and long. 1° 30' and 2° 30' E.; having N. the *d.* of Oise, E. Seine-et-Marne, S. Loiret, W. Eure and Eure-et-Loire; it encloses the metropolitan *d.* of the Seine. Area, 560,537 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 474,955. It has no hill 400 ft. in height. The Seine traverses this *d.* from N.W. to S.E., receiving the Oise and Essonne within its limits. As it belongs to the great tertiary basin of Paris, the soil of the *d.* is principally calcareous; a large portion, however, is sandy; and it is not particularly fertile, except in the neighbourhood of Paris, where it is liberally manured. In 1834, according to the official returns, the arable lands comprised 367,741 hect.; meadows, 20,091 do.; vineyards, 16,711 do.; orchards, 7,699 do.; and woods 77,213 do. Principal crops, corn, oats, and wheat. The annual produce of wine is estimated at about 700,000 hectol., but it is of very inferior quality: cider is also produced, to the extent of about 100,000 hect. a year. The culture of figs, cherries, strawberries, and other fruits and vegetables for the Paris markets, is an important branch of industry. A good many sheep are bred, and cows for their milk, which is sent to Paris; but few other kinds of live stock are reared.

In 1835, of 217,244 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 104,206 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 508 at 1,000 fr. and upwards. The proximity of Paris has given rise to a great variety of manufactures. Yarn and stuffs of all kinds, paper, hair fabrics, leather, earthenware, beet-root sugar, chemical products, &c., are among the principal goods manufactured. The *d.* has a very extensive general trade. It is divided into 6 *arrond.*s.: chief towns, Versailles, the cap., Mantes, Pontoise, Rambouillet, Etampes, and Corbeil. It sends 7 *m.* to the Ch. of Dep. Registered electors, in 1838-39, 3,400. Total public revenue, in 1831, 25,056,434 fr.; expenditure, 12,903,713 fr. (*Hugo*; *French Official Tables*, &c.)

SELBY, a market town, river port, and par. of England, W. Riding, co. York, chiefly in Barkston-Ash wapentake, on the Ouse, 11 m. S. by E. York. Area of par. 3,180 acres. Pop., in 1841, 5,276. The town is pretty well built, paved, and lighted, and has latterly been much improved. A handsome Gothic market-cross, the par. church, and the town hall, a neat brick edifice built in 1835, are the principal public buildings. The church is a portion (almost the only one remaining) of Selby Abbey, founded by William the Conqueror in 1069, in which Henry I. was buried. It is a large and magnificent cross church, of mixed Norman and early English architecture. The choir is a most beautiful specimen of decorated work; the E. end is peculiarly fine, with very beautiful windows, and octagonal turrets, having rich pinnacles. It has some very superior stone screen-work, and ancient stained glass. (*Richman's Gothic Architect.*) The living, worth 97*l.* a year, is a perpetual curacy, in the diocese of York, in private patronage. In Selby has meeting-houses for Friends, Independents, Calvinists, Wesleyans, Unitarians, and Rom. Catholics; a grammar-school founded by Edward VI. a hospital for seven poor widows, &c. The Ouse, which is here crossed by a movable timber bridge, is navigable to Selby for vessels of considerable burden; and it carries on an extensive intercourse with York

with Goole and Hull. It is also connected by railways with Hull and Leeds; and a branch custom-house being established here, it has become a considerable *entrepôt*. It has also manufactures of sailcloth, leather, and iron goods, and slips for building river craft. Petty sessions for the wapentake are held here, and courts leet and baron twice a year by the lord of the manor. Market day, Monday; fairs, Easter Tuesday, Monday after June 22, and Oct 10, for cattle, wool, linen, tin and copper wares, &c.

SELKIRK, an inland co. of Scotland, being one of the smallest, and the least populous in that part of the United Kingdom; having N. Mid-Lothian, E. Roxburgh, S. Dumfries, and W. Peebles. Area, 169,280 acres, of which not more than 1-10th is supposed to be arable. This co. is, in most respects, similar to that of Peebles, and the statements as to the one will apply, with little modification, to the other. The greater part of the surface is mountainous; but the hills are green and smooth to the summits, and afford excellent sheep pasture. The co. is watered by the Tweed, and its two tributaries, the Etrick and Yarrow: there is some excellent arable land in the valleys traversed by these rivers, but the extent is inconsiderable.

Selkirk has fully participated in the wonderful improvements that have been made during the last half century in most parts of Scotland. Its agriculture, breeds of cattle and sheep (now wholly Cheviot), roads, buildings, food and clothes of the inhabitants, &c., have all been signally improved. Average rent of land, in 1843, 4s. 7d. an acre. The woollen manufacture is carried on with spirit and success at Galaahels. The co. sends 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 420. Selkirk is divided into seven parishes, and had, in 1841, 1,446 inhabited houses, and 7,989 inhabitants, of whom 4,972 were males, and 4,017 females. Valued rent 80,308*l*. Scotch. Annual value of real property assessed in 1843, 49,768*l*.

SELKIRK, a market town and royal bor. of Scotland, cap. of the above co., on the W. side of a range of mountains, about 15 m. from the right bank of the Etrick, and 33 m. S.E. by S. Edinburgh, on the road leading from the latter to Carlisle. Pop. in 1841, 1,675. It consists chiefly of one wide, irregular street, which, at the market-place, expands into a triangular open space. The only public buildings are the town-hall, with a spire 110 ft. in height; a gaol, the parish church, and a chapel belonging to the United Associate Synod. Besides schools, it has a mechanics' institute, three subscription libraries, and a reading-room. Mungo Park, the African traveller, was born within a mile of the town, and a monument is at present (1841) about to be erected to his memory. Abbotsford, the seat of Sir Walter Scott, on the right bank of the Tweed, is within 4 m. The town has no manufactures; but on the neighbouring banks of the Etrick are woollen-mills, for the making of hosiery, tweeds, blankets, and similar stuffs. In remote times Selkirk was distinguished for its manufacture of shoes: hence the expression "souters (shoemakers) of Selkirk" was, and still is, used as denoting the whole inhabitants. But shoe-making is not now carried on to any considerable extent. Poor-rates were introduced in 1751: the present annual assessment is about 800*l*.

Selkirk was in ancient times a royal residence: *The Forest*, as the co. was once called, being a favourite hunting scene of the Scotch monarchs. Its history is intimately connected with the border wars. A standard, taken from the English at the battle of Flodden, by the "souters of Selkirk," is still preserved. The battle of Philiphaugh (1645), in which the Marquis of Montrose was signally defeated by General Leslie, was fought within 1½ m. of the town. Since the Reform Act, the bor. electors have been added to those of the co. (*New Stat. Acc. of Scotland*, & *Selkirkshire*, 1-10; and *Jefrey's Guide to the Borders*.)

SEMLIN, a frontier town of the Austrian empire, in Slavonia, on the Danube, 3 m. N.W. Belgrade, and 40 m. S.E. by E. Peterwardein. Pop. about 10,000; a motley collection of Slavonians, Germans, Greeks, Servians, Croats, Gypsies, Jews, &c. It consists of an inner town and a suburb: it is not fortified, but only surrounded with a stockade. It has some good houses and churches, but its streets are mostly unpaved, mean, and dirty. At its N. extremity is the ruined castle of the famous John Huniades: it stands on a commanding height, having on its sides the huts of the Gypsy quarter. Semlin has a large quarantine establishment, at which travellers entering from Turkey are usually detained for from 10 to 40 days. The hospital, a high female school, and a German theatre, are the other principal public establishments in the town, which is the residence of a Greek *protopapas*, and the chief *entrepôt* of the trade between Austria and Turkey. Its principal imports from the latter are raw cotton and cotton twist, honey, saffron, hare and rabbit skins, pipe-bowls, &c.; its exports thence woollen stuff, earthen and glass wares, and other manu-

factured goods. (*Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.*; *Berghaus, Bergess. Quin.*, &c.)

SEMPACH, a small town of Switzerland, canton Lucerne, on the E. bank of the lake of same name, 7 m. N.W. Lucerne, famous in Swiss history for the victory gained in its vicinity on the 9th of July, 1386, by a Swiss force of about 1,400 men, over 4,000 Austrians, commanded by the archduke Leopold II. The Swiss historians ascribe their success in this battle to the patriotism and devotion of a knight of Unterwalden, who, grasping a number of the spears of the Austrian pikemen in his hands, showed his countrymen, at the expense of his own life, how they might make their way into the enemy's phalanx. But, whatever truth there may be in this story, we believe that the easy and complete victory of the Swiss was principally owing to the less poetical fact of the archduke having been killed at the beginning of the action, and to the panic his death produced in his army. Besides the duke, about 2,000 Austrian troops fell in the battle and pursuit; while the loss of the Swiss is said not to have exceeded 300 men. (*L'Art de Vérifier les Dates, Partie Moderne*, xvii. 95. 8vo. ed.)

SENAAR. See NUBIA.

SENEFFE, a village of Belgium, prov. Hainault, 6 m. S.W. Nivelles, famous from its vicinity, having been the scene of one of the most sanguinary conflicts of modern times. Here on the 11th of August, 1674, a French army, under the famous Prince of Condé, attacked the rear guard of the Confederates, commanded by the Prince of Orange, afterwards William III., and gained a considerable advantage. But, not satisfied with this, Condé imprudently attacked the main body of the Confederates, who had taken up a very strong position; on which, notwithstanding the most astonishing efforts, he could make no impression. The loss on both sides was nearly equal; and such was the slaughter, that above 20,000 men were left on the field of battle. In fact, to use the words of Voltaire, "*La grande et célèbre bataille de Senefc ne fut qu'un carnage.*" (*Siccle de Louis XIV.*, cap. 12.) Both armies withdrew next day, neither attempting to molest the other. This was the last great battle fought by the Prince of Condé. A well-known *bon mot*, ascribed to the prince in reference to this conflict, is of very doubtful authenticity.

SENEGAL, a large river of W. Africa, which, till the time of Delisle and D'Anville, was considered identical with the Niger of the ancients, but which is now ascertained to be wholly unconnected either with the Quorra, generally supposed to be the Niger, or with the Nilotis system of the African continent. Its sources have not been explored; but Mungo Park ascertained that they were separated from the basin of the Niger and Quorra by the Mandingo Terrace. The Ba-fing (black-water) regarded as the main stream, rises in this mountain region, in about lat. 10° N. and long. 11° W. Its course is generally N.W. to near lat. 16° and long. 17°, when it turns W., and falls into the Atlantic a little below the French settlement of St. Louis, after a course estimated at 1,000 m. Its chief affluents are, the Kokore on the right, and the Falémé on the left, both of which join it in the upper half of its course. Timbo stands near the head of the Ba-fing; on its banks are the French forts of Fat, Dagna, Abdou, Bati, St. Joseph, and Mustala. The early course of this river and its tributaries is through a broken country, diversified by rugged and precipitous hills, and intersected by numerous streams, the sands of which are copiously impregnated with gold dust. At Fellou, from 400 to 450 m. from the sea, it forms a cataract, up to which it is navigable all the year for flat-bottomed boats. After passing Galam, the Senegal rolls over a level plain, with a very gentle current; and after passing Podhor, a French station about 60 leagues from its mouth, the level is so complete, that Adanson does not conceive the total fall of the river from that station to be more than 24 ft. The tide is perceptible in the river for upwards of 60 leagues inland. The Senegal, in this part of its course, is bordered by vast forests, obstructed by thick underwood, and filled with numberless species of wild beasts and birds. At about 35 m. (direct distance) from the ocean, the Senegal divides into two arms, which enclose a delta. The principal or E. arm is deep enough to be navigable for the largest ships, but is obstructed by a bar at its mouth, which cannot be crossed, except during the inundations, by ships drawing more than from 10 to 12 ft. of water. Vessels under this draught may, however, always navigate the river as far as Podhor; and in the rainy season vessels of from 120 to 150 tons ascend to Galam. Like the Nile, the Senegal annually overflows and fertilizes the adjacent country; and in July, when the inundation begins, some French vessels sail up as far as the river is navigable, trading with the natives for gum and other products. A fair, lasting fifteen days, is held annually at Fort St. Joseph. After this, as soon as the waters begin to subside, the vessels return, spending only about a fortnight in the downward journey, but consuming nearly three months in their upward voyage.

he Senegal forms a part of the line of demarcation between two regions widely differing in every respect. The N., within a few miles of its banks, is the great rt of Sahara, with here and there a few Moors; as to the S. are the fertile regions of Nigritia, inhabited by negroes. (*Ritter's Africa*, Fr. trans., II. 77.; *Hugo*, art. *Senegal*; *Dict. Géog.* &c.)

SENEGAL, a name derived from the above river, n to some small French colonial establishments on W. coast of Africa, comprising several islands, and ll portions of the African continent, between the egal and Gambia rivers. It is divided into two nds., the N. consisting of the isles of St. Louis, Bahé, Safal, and Gheber, near the mouth of the Senegal, a some few establishments on the banks of that river, trading stations along the coast between Capes de rd and Blanco; and the S. arround., comprising the nd of Goree, Albreda, on the bank of the Gambia, l the other stations S. of Cape de Verd. The total, of these dependencies amounted, in 1836, to 18,040; whom about 18,000 were Mohammedans and blacks; as of the pop. inhabited St. Louis and its arrounds. This part of the African coast is nearly destitute of d harbours: those of St. Louis and Goree are the t. The soil of the isles and continental shore is d, but improves in quality further inland, where it is covered, S. of the Senegal, with dense forest, and most luxuriant vegetation. The climate, though, so very pestiferous as that of Sierra Leone, is ex- mely bad. The heat of summer is most relaxing and reasive, especially during E. winds, though the ther- meter does not stand extremely high. The wet sea- son, which lasts, with S.W. winds, from June till Oct., particularly fatal to Europeans, who are attacked with enteries, liver complaints, and various kinds of fevers. he mineral products are few. There are traces of n, but little ore is wrought. Basalt, &c., are found Goree, but scarcely any stone elsewhere; and at Louis, the most solid buildings are only of brick. id is procured from the countries towards the head of : Senegal, but the efforts of the French to form settle- ments there have hitherto proved abortive. Near the uth of the Senegal are some salt-pans, and in some rts of the interior natron efflorescences on the soil. The getable products are the most varied and abund- ey include the gigantic baobab (*Adansonia digitata*), lms, mimosa, and gum trees of numerous kinds, negal ebony, and other valuable timber: with cotton, ilge, coffee, arnatto, olives, hemp, and other fibrous nits; cassia, sweet potatoes, millet, maise, &c. mong the wild animals are the elephant, lion, hippo- tampus, wild boar, buffalo, tiger-cat, great numbers of er, game of all species, and an immense variety of rds and reptiles. Oxen, buffaloes, horses, asses, &c., e used for domestic service, as in Europe; and goats, eep, and hogs are reared. Several kinds of artificial asses are grown, but the culture of products for food, xportation, is pursued only to a very small extent, meal being a trading article rather than an agri- ltural colony. Few of the colonists are employed in anufactures, except in the working of iron, and ship- ilding. The making of bricks, lime, and salt, employs few hands: the negroes weave such clothes as they quire, but other manufactured articles are obtained om Europe. We subjoin an

account of the Quantities and Value of the principal Articles exported from the Senegal Colonies in 1836:—

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
Raw hides kilogr.	227,728	295,468 L.
Wax	46,154	90,268
Elephants' teeth	18,948	85,823
Gum Senegal	1,791,510	9,994,694
Casine-woods	14,178	14,178
Gold grammes	50,725	150,675
Specie	—	74,900

The total value of the exports, including that of goods re-exported, amounted to 4,061,268 fr.: the imports to 361,994 fr.; the principal being taken in as cotton fabrics, ops and apparel, brandy, liqueurs, wines, and other rvisions.

Senegal is governed by a superior naval officer, who aides at St. Louis: Goree is the seat of a lieutenant-overnor. There appears to be neither a representative ssembly, nor a colonial council. A court of primary urisdiction sits at St. Louis; from the decisions of hich, appeal lies to a court composed of the governor, he other chief functionaries, and certain principal in- sabs of the colony. The European force in Senegal onists of half a battalion of marines, a comp. of marine rtillery, and a comp. of sappers, &c. altogether amount- ing to about 370 men. The French established them- selves here in 1687, but no settlement of much importance as made till the formation of the Senegal Company in 1664. The English took Senegal in 1756, but it was re-

taken by the French in 1779: it was again held by the English from a period shortly after the French Revolu- tion till the peace of 1814. (*Hugo*, art. *Senegal*; *Etats des Colonies Françaises*.)

SENIIS (an. *Augustonagus*, post *Sylvenacres*), a town of France, dépt. Oise, cap. arrond., on the Nonette, a tributary of the Marne, 29 m. S.E. by E. Beauvais. Pop. in 1846, 5,302. It stands on the declivity of a hill, and consists of the town proper, and three suburbs. The town is surrounded with thick walls, parts of which are supposed to be remains of those constructed by the Ro- mans. It is tolerably well-built; but the streets are mostly narrow and crooked, and it has few public build- ings worth notice. The cathedral, however, has a hand- some spire, 326 ft. in height. Chicory, starch, and cotton thread, are the principal manufactures. The town was of importance in the middle ages: under the Caroling- ians it had the right of coinage; and in 1190, Philip Augustus espoused Elizabeth of Hainault at Senlis. (*Hugo*, art. *Oise*, &c.)

SENS (an. *Agedincum*, post *Senones*), a town of France, dépt. Yonne, cap. arrond., on the Yonne, 30 m. S.E. Auxerre. Pop., in 1846, inc. com., 10,018. It is sur- rounded with decayed walls, attributed to the Romans, and various Roman antiquities exist in and round the town. It is said by some authorities, but not by others, to be well laid out and well built; and is kept clean by streamlets, which traverse its principal thoroughfares. It has a fine Gothic cathedral, of the same proportions as Notre Dame, in Paris, though of less size. In it is the splendid marble mausoleum of the dauphin, son of Louis XV., and father of Louis XVI., Louis XVIII., and Charles X., a *chef-d'œuvre* of Coustou. In the chap- erhouse is a painting of the death of Thomas à Becket, who took refuge at Sens about 1166. The communal college is a large building, with a museum of antiques, and a public library of above 6,000 vols. Sens has a number of public baths, a handsome theatre, a court of primar jurisdiction, &c.; manufactures of serge, druggets, wax candles, and glue, with breweries and distilleries; and an active trade in agricultural produce, timber, oak bark, leather, bricks, &c. Under Valens it was made the cap. of the 4th Lyonnaise; and it became an archbishopric on the establishment of Christianity in the empire. Several councils were held here in the middle ages, including that in 1140, at which Abelard was condemned for heresy. (*Hugo*, art. *Yonne*; *Guide du Voyageur*, &c.)

SERAMPPORE, one of the Danish settlements in Hin- dostan, prov. Bengal, consisting of a town on the Hooghly, about 12 m. above Calcutta, and immediately opposite Barrackpore. Pop. about 15,000. (*Malcom*.) It extends for 1 m. along the river, and is without fortifica- tions, having only a small battery for saluting. "Seram- pore is a handsome place, kept beautifully clean, and looking more like a European town than Calcutta, or any of the neighbouring cantonments. Since the Copen- hagen rupture (and more especially since it ceased to be an asylum for debtors from Calcutta), it has grievously declined, and its revenues scarcely meet the current ex- penses. Many persons of different nations, who like a cheaper residence than Calcutta, take houses here." (*Mod. Trav.*, ix. 110.) It has long been the head quar- ters of the Protestant missions in India; and has a large and handsome college for the instruction of native youths, an extensive missionary printing establishment, &c. It was here that the Scriptures were translated into various Indian dialects, under the superintendence of Dr. Carey and others. (*Malcom's S. E. Asia*, II. 46.; *Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*)

SERES, a large town of Turkey in Europe, in Mace- donia, cap. of a beylik; on a declivity a little N. of the lake Takinos, and 44 m. N.E. Salonika. Its pop. is prob- ably between 25,000 and 30,000; but this part of Europe is so seldom visited by travellers, that we have little ac- curate information respecting it. Seres is surrounded by a wall flanked with towers, and commanded by a citadel. It is said to be well built, the houses being in- terpersed with gardens: it has some spacious *hamas*, numerous mosques, churches, and fountains, and several public baths; with linen and cotton manufactures, and an active trade in cotton, grown in large quantities in its vicinity. Stein states that 70,000 bales of cotton are annually exported from Seres, 30,000 of which go to Vienna. (*Horschekmann's Steia*, &c.)

SERINGAPATAM (*Sri-Ranga-Patana*, "Vishnu's city"), a decayed town and fortress of India, S. of the Krishna, which, under Hyder Ali and Tippoo, was the capital of Mysore. It stands at the W. angle of an island in the Caverry, about 4 m. in length by 1½ m. in breadth, and is about 250 m. W.S.W. Madras. Lat. 13° 25' N., long. 76° 45' E. The fortress, constructed by Tippoo, is an immense mass of building, but in several respects injudiciously planned. It was, however, when invested by our troops, strengthened with six redoubts, and other strong outworks. As a capital, the town was but mean. It has one good bazaar, and a broad road under

the ramparts, but the other streets have a very indifferent appearance; the houses, also, are shabby, and the public buildings few. Hamilton speaks of an arsenal, a gun-carriage manufactory, &c.; but it is probable that these, as well as the other military establishments, have been since removed to Mysore. On an eminence in the centre of the island is a large and handsome suburb, in which is the mausoleum of Hyder Ali and Tipoo, and across the Cavery, near the city, is a native bridge of granite, remarkable for its size and solidity.

Seringapatam was besieged by the English on three different occasions: the first two sieges took place in 1791 and 1792; at the latter, Tipoo purchased a peace by ceding half his dominions, and paying 3 crores and 30 lacs of rupees to the British and their allies. Another war, however, broke out in 1799; and on the 4th of May, in the same year, Seringapatam was stormed by the British and the Nizam's forces, under Gen. Harris. On that occasion Tipoo was killed, with the greater part of his garrison, amounting to 8,000 men, and the dominions of the last formed a part of the British in the Indian peninsula were added to our Indian empire. (*Mod. Trav.*, viii.; *Hamilton*, E. J. *Gazetteer*, &c.)

SERVAN (ST.), a town and sea-port of France, dép. Ille-et-Vilaine, on the Rance, immediately behind St. Malo, of which town it may be considered the continental suburb, though comprised in a distinct commune. Pop. in 1836, with comm., 9,948. St. Servan is well built, and has a good harbour for merchant vessels, divided into two parts by the *Solider*, an isolated tower about 60 ft. in height. The dock-yard, which derives its name from this tower, has 5 slips, three of which are appropriated to the construction of frigates; and during the war many frigates were built here. The naval establishments at St. Servan are considerable; and a floating dock, to connect the port with that of St. Malo, is now (1841) in rapid progress towards completion. (*Ports, &c., of France*, 280, 281.) St. Servan has manufactures of sail-cloth, cordage, ship-biscuit, &c., and is the general entrepôt for the trade of St. Malo. Among its inhabs. are many English families, attracted thither by the cheapness of living, and the beauty of the neighbourhood. (*Guide du Voyageur*; *Hugo*; *Friv. Inf.*)

SERVIA (an. *Mesia-Superior*, with part of *Thyricum*), one of the principalities on the Danube, nominally included in the dom. of Turkey-in-Europe, but in a great measure independent of the Porte. It extends between the 42d and 45th degs. of N. lat., and the 19th and 23d of E. long.; having N. the Hungarian provs. of Slavonia and the Banat, from which it is separated by the Save and Danube; E. Wallachia and Bulgaria, from the first of which it is also separated by the Danube; S. Macedonia, the Balkan being the boundary line in this direction; and W. Bosnia, from which it is divided by the Iber and the Drin. Greatest length, N. to S., about 180 m.; breadth, varying from 100 to 160 m. Area roughly estimated at 20,000 sq. m., and the pop. at about 1,000,000, mostly Christians of the Greek church. The greater part of the country is covered with mountains, those in the W. being ramifications of the Dinaric Alps, and in the S. and E. branches from the Balkan. There are, however, some tolerably extensive plains, particularly in the N. and along the course of the Morava. This river, which, after those above named, is the principal in Servia, nearly traverses the country from S. to N. The climate is remarkably variable, and much colder in winter than would be inferred from the lat., the Danube and the Save being often thickly frozen over. The heats of summer are proportionally intense: the autumn is the most agreeable season; but autumn is very prevalent then and in spring. The soil is almost everywhere fertile, though to a great extent uncultivated. Every species of grain common in Europe is raised, except rice. Maize is the principal, but much more wheat is produced than formerly, and maize bread is not now generally made use of by the inhabs. of Belgrade and other large towns. Owing to the inland situation of the country, and the want of markets, the price of corn is usually very low.

The vine is pretty generally grown; but from defects of culture, the grapes of the same vineyard usually differ greatly in quality, and being all used promiscuously in the making of wine, it is, for the most part, very indifferent. In the district of Belgrade, however, superior red wine approaching to claret has been made, though to a great extent. In fact, but little wine is drunk in Servia; a spirituous liquor, distilled from plums, called *slivovitz* or *rakia*, sold at about 4d. a quart, being used in its stead. Kemp, flax, tobacco, and cotton are cultivated, but only in small quantities. The pasture-grounds are extensive and good, though little can be said in favour of the breeds of cattle and sheep. Both are meagre and impoverished; and the former, though universally employed, with buffaloes, for draught, are not very numerous. The horses, also, are poor and diminutive, though lately Prince Milosch has made considerable efforts to improve the breed. Hogs are by far the most valuable and favourite stock. No peasant's family is without these ani-

mals. They overspread the country in vast herds, being branded with the proprietor's name, and turned loose in the forests, where they feed on acorns, except in winter, when they are scantily fed at home on maize, and other dry provender. Hogs constitute the principal export from Servia: about 250,000 are said to be annually sent to the Austrian dominions, where they pay a considerable import duty, having also paid an export duty on leaving the Servian frontier. The wool of the Servian sheep is very inferior; but about 60,000 lamb and goat skins are annually disposed of to Austrian merchants.

The forests, which overspread a large proportion of the country, might, if they could be turned to good account, be made, under judicious management, an almost inexhaustible source of wealth. Oak, extremely well adapted for ship-building, ash, pine, &c. are the principal trees, and valloona is produced in great plenty. But, as if the natural difficulties in the way of its exportation were not enough, government has prohibited the felling of oak timber; and the forest in many places are so thick as to be all but impassable, and are, at the same time, encumbered with putrescent vegetation. The collection of leeches, which abound in the marshy districts, has been carried to some extent of late years. They are disposed of to French merchants settled in Belgrade and Semlin, who forward them by way of the Danube, &c. to Paris, which they reach in 12 or 14 days; but this, which promised to become a business of considerable importance, has been monopolised by government. Iron, copper, lead, quicksilver, and coal are found in Servia; but few or no mines are wrought; partly from a want of capital and enterprise, but partly also, it is alleged, from a wish on the part of government to conceal such tempting sources of national wealth, to avoid exciting any desire in its neighbours to possess themselves of the principalities.

Until a more extensive commerce take place on the Danube, or a free communication of some kind be established between the Upper Save and the Austrian ports on the Adriatic, the great natural resources of Servia must continue all but unavailable. Her produce being similar to that of the S. provinces of Austria and Russia, these states throw obstacles in the way of her commerce; at the same time that the adjacent Turkish provinces have no need of her staples. The want of roads is, also, a great drawback on the prosperity of all the provinces in this remote part of Europe: the only high road in Servia is that which leads from Belgrade to Adrianople.

Servia, however, is less inconvenient than most of the contiguous provinces by the want of roads, their deficiency being, in part at least, compensated by the easy access to the great navigable rivers by which she is almost surrounded. A more liberal and bolder commercial policy on the part of Austria would do much to develop the resources and advance the civilisation of the Servians; and by attaching them to her interests, it would seem, also, to be the safest in a political point of view.

The Servians belong to the widely-spread Slavonian stock, with which most part of E. Europe is peopled. Their language is the most refined of the Southern Slavonian dialects, and their poetry ranks high among that of the E. European nations. (See *Bosnia's Specimens of the Servian Poets of the 18th Century*.) Their manners and customs the Servians differ little from the other Slavonic tribes in their vicinity (see *TRAVEL*, &c.): they are in general almost equally uncivilised, backward in the arts, &c., ignorant and superstitious; though in some of the larger towns some degree of advance has of late been perceptible.

Servia is divided into 6 provs., and 13 districts; chief towns Belgrade, the cap., Semendria, Nissa, Jogodina, Kragajewatz, and Poeshega. In the middle ages, it formed an indep. kingdom, the dominion of which extended over parts of Bulgaria, Bosnia, Albania, &c.: it was conquered by the Turks in 1565. The Turkish garrison Belgrade, which is the residence of a pacha; but nothing is left them beyond this military occupation, an acknowledgment of the supremacy of the Porte, and a small yearly tribute to the sultan. The internal government is wholly in the hands of the Servians. Early in the present century, a successful revolt took place, headed by Czerney-George, a native chief, who, in 1806, took Belgrade from the Turks, and continued to govern the country till the peace of 1814; when it again submitted to the Turks, and Czerney-George took refuge in Russia. A new revolt, under Milosch Obrenowitch, in 1815, was equally successful, and Milosch has till lately held the reins of government. He established a representative assembly, a council of ministry, &c. In 1835, a general poll-tax, to meet the state expenses, and various other financial plans, were adopted. But whether it were owing, as has been alleged, to Russian influence, or to other circumstances, Milosch was obliged to resign the government, and retire to his estates in Wallachia in 1839, since which period he has been succeeded by his second son, Prince Michael. Servia has small standing military force of about 17,500 men, 1,500

infantry, 200 cavalry, and 50 artillerymen; but all males capable of bearing arms are enrolled in the militia, and a force of 40,000 men may be collected on an emergency. (*Priv. Report on Serbia; Quin's Voyage on the Danube*, p. 224-24; *Paget, Burgess, &c.*, passim.)

SETUBAL, or ST. UBS, a city and sea-port of Portugal, prov. Estremadura, cap. Comarca, on the N. side of the bay of its own name, which receives the Sado at its S.E. extremity, about 18 m. S.E. Lisbon; lat. $38^{\circ} 28' 14''$ N., long. $8^{\circ} 53' 33''$ W. Pop., according to Mifano, 14,000. It extends for about 4 mile along the beach, consisting mostly of 3 or 3 parallel narrow streets, crossed by others, and some squares, in one of which is a handsome public fountain. It is enclosed by walls partly in ruins, and defended by the castle of St. Philip and a few other detached forts. It has several convents and hospitals, Latin schools, and courts of justice, broad quay, and a convenient harbour for merchantmen. Its environs, which are very picturesque and fertile, produce large quantities of muscadell and white wines; which, with oranges, lemons, and salt, are its principal articles of export. The exports of salt from St. Ubes have long been of very considerable importance; and furnish, indeed, the greater part of the demand of Sweden, and various other countries. Being preferable for certain purposes to the salt of this country, we import from 250,000 to 300,000 bushels a year. The pilchard fishery employs a good many hands, and a large fair is held annually from the 25th to the 29th of July. Near it is the famous convent of Arnabida, to which pilgrimages are performed. The an. *Cetabrigo* is supposed to have stood on the opposite shore of the bay, where various remains of antiquity have been found; one of which, a Corinthian pillar, surmounted by a crucifix, stands in the square of the city. After the expulsion of the Moors, Setubal was all but deserted, till it was reoccupied under Alonso Henriques and his son Sancho. It was fortified during the war of independence in the 17th century. (*Mifano*). It suffered severely from the earthquake so disastrous to Lisbon in 1755. (*Dict. Geog.; Southey, &c. in Mod. Trav.*, xix.)

SEVASTOPOL, or AKTIAR, a town and sea-port of European Russia, on the W. coast of the Crimea, lat. $44^{\circ} 36'$ N., long. $33^{\circ} 30'$ E. Pop. fluctuating, consisting principally of the garrison, and of the various individuals connected with the fleet. Sevastopol stands on a creek, on the S. side of one of the finest bays in the world, the *Euxus* of Strabo. It stretches E. into the country about 3 m., with a breadth, where greatest, of about a mile; it has, till within a short distance of the bottom, near Inkerman, from six to eight fathoms water. There are in the cove on which the town is built five fathoms water close in shore. The bottom is clay and mud, and it is quite free from rocks and shoals. The bay is defended by strong forts on both sides the entrance. Merchantmen are excluded from Sevastopol, and it has become the principal station of the Russian fleet in the Black Sea, for which it is incomparably better fitted than either Kherson or Nicolaef. Streets wide and regular, intersecting each other at right angles; houses extremely good, and built in the modern Italian style; principal edifices, admiralty, arsenal, hospital, barracks of the garrison, marine barracks, &c. The calcareous rocks at Inkerman (town of caverns), in the vicinity of Sevastopol, have been cut into the most extraordinary caverns, or rather into chapels, monasteries, cells, &c., "which, by their multiplicity and intricacy, astonish and confound the beholder." (*Clarke*, ii. 303; see also p. 372, where there is a good plan of the bay of Sevastopol; *Lyell*, i. 250, &c.)

SEVENOAKS, a market-town, and par. of Kent, lathe Sutton-at-Hone, hund. Codrhead, on a ridge of hills near the Darent, and on the road from London to Rye, 21 m. S.E. London. Area of par., with the liberties of Riverhead and Weald, 6,790 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,827. The town consists principally of two wide streets, in one of which is the market-house. Many of the houses are large, and inhabited by opulent families. The par. church is spacious and handsome, and is a conspicuous object for several miles round. The livings are a rectory and a vicarage in the gift of the Curteis family; the former worth 200*l.*, and the latter 320*l.* a year, net; two curacies are established in the par., one at Riverhead, and the other at Weald Chapel; respectively worth 45*l.* and 100*l.* a year. There are meeting-houses for Baptists and Wesleyans; an hospital for aged persons, and a free grammar-school, both founded and endowed by Sir W. Sevenoke, in 1418. The latter was further endowed by Queen Elizabeth, whose name it bears; and it has now an annual income of about 1,000*l.*, with seven exhibitions, five of scholarships in the college of either university, and two in Jesus College, Cambridge. In another school, founded in 1675, about 300 poor children are instructed on the national system. Near the town is Knowle or Knoll, the magnificent seat of the Dukes of Dorset; it is at present occupied by the Countess Amherst, but has belonged, with little inter-

mission, to the Sackville family, since the time of Elizabeth. It is a large, fine, castellated edifice. The interior, which is nobly furnished, has various pictures by celebrated masters, and other splendid works of art. Sevenocks has no manufactures: there were formerly some silk mills in the vicinity, but they no longer exist. The town is governed by a warden, a bailiff, and four assistants, chosen at an annual court leet. Petty sessions are held at the Crown Hotel on the last Saturday in every month; and a court of requests is held on the first Friday in each month. Sevenocks is the head of a par. union. Markets on Saturday; fairs, July 10. and Oct. 12., for hogs and poultry; and the 3d Tuesday in every month for cattle.

SEVERN, a river of England, being inferior only to the Thames in magnitude, and perhaps, also, in importance. It has its source in a small lake on the eastern side of Pinninnon Mountain, in Montgomeryshire. At its outset it is called the Hafren, the name by which, through its whole course, it was known to the Britons. It flows first towards the S.E., and afterwards turns to the N.E., as it approaches Newton, where it takes the name of Severn. Hence, through the vale of Montgomery, its course is almost due N., till, entering the great plain of Salop, beyond Welshpool, it turns abruptly to the S.E.; and pursuing the same direction, it almost encircles Shrewsbury. Flowing through Colebrook Dale, and passing Bridgenorth, it folds the southern base of it leaves Salop, and enters Worcestershire at Bewdley. Being now become a broad and deep river, crowded with barges, it rolls through a pleasant country in a tranquil stream, passing the city of Worcester, and traversing the Vales of Evesham and Gloucester. In the latter it divides into two channels, one of which washes the walls of Gloucester; but, being again united, it forms a great tidal river. Its course from Gloucester to Nass Point is tortuous; from the latter it flows S.W., till it assumes the name of the Bristol Channel, expanding and insensibly losing itself in the Atlantic Ocean.

The Severn, particularly below Gloucester, has frequently overflowed its banks, and occasioned much damage to the surrounding country. It is remarkable for its tide, which rushes in with a head 4 or 5 ft. high, and a loud noise. This, no doubt, arises from the wide expanse of the waters of the Atlantic in the Bristol Channel being gradually narrowed, till at length they are forced violently up the river. Outside the Bristol Channel, spring tides rise from 23 to 24 and 25 ft.; but in King's Road, at the mouth of the Lower Avon, they rise to the height of 48 ft., and sometimes more; and at Chertsey the rise is 60 ft. (*Norie's Sailing Directions for the Bristol Channel*, 30.) The opposition which the current from the sea meets with from the adverse current of the river occasions that dashing and grinding of the waves known by the name of *hyge* or *cage*.

The Severn is navigable from Fathelaim Lighthouse, where it loses itself in the Bristol Channel, to Welshpool, a distance of about 178 m.; and its navigation is continued by the Montgomery Canal to Newton. It is, consequently, of the highest importance as a channel of internal communication; its capacity in this respect being materially increased by its numerous large tributary streams, and by the canals and railroads that join it. By means of the latter, it commands a large share of the commerce of Birmingham, and of the various trading towns of Staffordshire, Warwickshire, &c., and is united with the Thames, the Trent, and the Mersey. From Welshpool to the sea it has a gradual fall of 235 ft. (*Priestley on Inland Navigation*, &c., 596.)

The navigation of the Severn from Nass Point to Gloucester is both tedious and difficult. To obviate this inconvenience, a canal on a large scale has been dug from Berkeley Pill to Gloucester. It is 184 m. in length, from 70 to 90 ft. in width, and from 15 to 18 ft. in depth; and may consequently be navigated by vessels of 350 tons. There is a basin at each end for the accommodation of shipping. This canal, which was opened in 1837, has become the channel of an extensive commerce; and Gloucester is now rising fast in importance as a trading and shipping town. (*See Gloucester*.)

The barges which navigate the Severn are about 120 ft. in length, from 10 to 30 in breadth, and 5 in depth. They carry above 100 tons. The trows are from 60 to 70 ft. long, 30 broad, and 5 deep, carrying 75 tons. They carry a square-sail, and have a mainmast and topmast.

Of the tributaries of the Severn, the most important are the Teme, the Upper and Lower Avon, the Wye, and the Uak.

SEVERNDROOG, or SAVENDROOG, a strong hill fortress of Hindostan, in the Mysore territory, 20 m. W. by S. Bangalore. Though it be impossible to invest this place closely, it was, nevertheless, stormed and taken without the loss of a single man, by the British, under Lord Cornwallis, in 1791.

SEVILLE, a celebrated city of Spain, famous "for oranges and women" (*Byron*), the cap. of Andalusia, and of the prov. of its own name, in a wide and fruitful

plain on the Guadalquivir crossed here by a bridge of boats, 62 m. N.E. Cadix, and 512 m. S.S.W. Madrid. Lat. $37^{\circ} 52' 50''$ N., long. $6^{\circ} 47' 47''$ W. Pop. acc. to Milfano, 91,860. It has numerous suburbs, but the city proper is about 4 m. in circuit; enclosed by a line of circumvallation 18 m. in circ. The ancient suburb of Triana is on the right bank; but with this exception, Seville lies wholly on the E. side of the river. "The streets, with a few exceptions, are narrow and crooked, some of them being so contracted that one may touch both walls at the same time. Few are wide enough for carriages; and many through which coaches pass, show, by the deep furrows in the walls, that one may touch, and often both at the same time." (*Townsend's Spain*, II. 315.) The street or place, called the Alameda, in the centre of the town, planted with elm trees, is, however, very magnificent; being 600 yards in length, by 180 in width, decorated with 8 fountains, and with statues of Hercules and Julius Caesar. And since Mr. Townsend's time various improvements have been introduced; old streets have been repaved, obstructions and irregularities removed, and numerous modern wide streets built in straight lines with regular and handsome houses. On the whole, however, Seville has all the peculiarities of a Moorish town, and furnishes a good specimen of the architecture of the Moors in their streets and houses, the former of which, narrow, close, and dirty, appear in strange contrast with the extensive and airy mansions that open on them, neatly white-washed, and studded with numerous windows, each having its cool, looking, green Venetian shutter. The *Paseo* and the *Delicias* are the principal public walks, and perhaps in point of rural beauty are superior to any in Spain. The former is here what the *Prado* is in Madrid; and in it the pop. may be studied to the best advantage. Among the public buildings are 31 churches, including the cathedral, numerous large edifices formerly conventual, but many of which have lately been turned into manufactories; an exchange, guildhall, 10 hospitals, one of which is military, an asylum for decayed priests, 8 sets of barracks, 7 prisons, and 8 theatres.

The cathedral, built in the 14th and 15th centuries, occupies the site of a Moorish mosque; but it seems highly probable that it was a Christian church prior to the Mohammedan conquest. It has 5 naves, but no dome or central tower. It is, according to Townsend, 420 ft. in length by 263 ft. in breadth; the height from the floor to the roof being estimated at 126 ft. "The cathedral," says Mr. Swinburne, "is more cried up than I think it deserves; it is by no means equal to York minister for lightness, elegance, and Gothic delicacy. The clustered pillars are too thick, the aisles too narrow and the choir, by being placed in the centre, spoils the whole coup d'œil, and renders the rest of the church little better than a heap of long passages. The ornamental parts are but clumsy imitations of the models left by the Moors. Not one of the great entrances or porches is finished; and to disfigure the whole pile, a long range of buildings in the modern style has been added to the old part." (II. 23.) The only remaining parts of the mosque are the *Giralda*, or belfry, and the great gate of the cloisters, the latter of which is a fine specimen of the best style of Moorish architecture.

The most admired feature in the whole cathedral, however, is the *Giralda* (weathercock), a brick tower 266 ft. in height, and exactly square, each side being 50 ft. in breadth. This is surmounted by 4 smaller towers, which are crowned by a small cupola, the whole terminating in the *giralda*, which gives its name to the tower, a colossal bronze statue of Faith, bearing a flag and palm-branch, 14 ft. in height, and of great weight, but so delicately poised as to turn with the slightest variation of the wind. The height from the ground to the top of the statue is said by Milfano to be 365 Span. feet. The ascent to the top of the great tower is by an inclined plain, so gradual that one may ride up without inconvenience; the view from the summit is superb, extending over the entire plain. In point of riches, this cathedral ranked second only to that of Toledo. It had, also, with the church of the Capuchins, and the chapel of the hospital de la *Caridad*, some noble pictures by Murillo; but, though some of these have been preserved, others have become, either by purchase, or the right of conquest, the property partly of private individuals, and partly of Marshal Soult, and other French generals.

Some of the Castilian monarchs are buried within the cathedral; but, as Bourgoing has observed, these tombs excite no emotions compared to those excited by the sight of the slab, in front of the choir, which once covered the remains of Columbus. It is inscribed, *A Castilla y Aragon otro Mundo dio Colon*. — To Castile and Aragon Colon (Columbus) gave another world. A sublime and not too ambitious an epitaph. We may add, that the remains of Columbus, after replying here for about 30 years, were carried across the Atlantic, and deposited in the cathedral of St. Domingo; but, in 1795, on the capture of St. Domingo by the blacks, the ashes of the illus-

trious dead were again raised by the whites, and carried to the Havannah, where they are now deposited. It is worthy of notice, that the library belonging to the cathedral was begun in 1660, by the bequest of 20,000 vols. left for the purpose by Hernandez, one of Columbus' sons.

The large organ, which is considerably larger than that of Harlem, has altogether 5,800 pipes, with 110 stops. "Nothing," says Inglis, "can exceed the majesty of the music awakened by this organ, and, at times, the effect is almost too overpowering for human senses." (*Inglis*, II. 57, 58.; *Cook's Sketches*, I. 152. and II. 98—96.)

Immediately under the *Giralda*, occupying one side of a small square, is the archbishop's palace, with a handsome front, and opposite to it is the *Lonja*, or exchange, a quadrangular edifice, with a central *paseo*, comprising apartments, some of which are still used by the merchants, though the greater part has been converted into an *Archivo de los papeles de Indias*, or repository for American archives; the voluminous records here preserved being as carefully placed and ticketed, as if Spain still continued to give law to her *ci-devant* transatlantic possessions! The floors are laid in chequered marble; and the grand staircase is of highly polished red marble, and remarkably handsome. (*Scott's Route and Granada*, II. 106.) A little removed from the *Lonja* is the Alcazar, a royal palace and gardens, said to have been constructed in imitation of the Alhambra, principally by Peter the Cruel and Charles I. Swinburne correctly terms it, "a pastiche of Saracenic, conventual, and Grecian architecture." The exterior has a miserable appearance; but the first court, after entering the gate, has a grand effect. It is 98 ft. in length, by 69 ft. in breadth, flagged with marble, and surrounded with a colonnade of white marble Corinthian pillars, of handsome proportions, and well executed, the walls behind being covered with grotesque designs in the Moorish taste. Next to the Court of Lions, in the Alhambra, this court is perhaps the best piece of Arabic building in Spain for execution and delivery of design, though the ornaments of the palace in Seville be much inferior to those of that in Granada. The Alcazar comprises a suite of 78 successive apartments, having carved ceilings, with walls, like those of the Alhambra, with well-preserved arabesques. By far the most splendid, however, is the Hall of Ambassadors, a splendid apartment, adorned with designs in stucco, and with a floor of variegated marble. Within the Alcazar are many fine paintings, by Murillo, Velasquez, Luis de Vargas, and other Spanish masters, with a few specimens of the Italian school; but several of the best pictures have, within the last few years, been removed to the public gallery at Madrid. A considerable portion of the palace is now let out in lodging-houses, and to private individuals; the portion reserved for the sovereign comprising only a small section of the entire pile. The gardens, which are of small extent, are laid out according to the Moorish taste, in formal alleys, with clipped myrtle hedges and trees, cut to resemble warriors armed with clubs. The walks in some parts are laid with tiles, through which *jets-d'eau* are made to flow, which, by turning a screw, suddenly water not only the garden, but its walls. The *Casa Piedad*, another of the sights of Seville, is a private house, said to have been built on the exact model of that of the Roman governor of Jerusalem! Within the city, also, are many structures of Roman origin, which still show traces of their former magnificence. The octagon tower, or *Torre d'Oro*, was probably built by one of the Caesars. The *Calle de Carmona*, a Roman aqueduct of 410 arches, still conveys water to the city from Alcala; and the gates, especially that of Triana, are very magnificent, though of equally ancient origin. Most of the other objects worth notice are on the outer walls. The first in order is the *Piazza de los Toros*, or circus for bull-fights, half wood and half stone, and capable of accommodating 14,000 spectators.

The next remarkable object is the royal tobacco manufactory, a huge edifice 460 ft. in length by 269 ft. in breadth, so strongly built and guarded by walls and ditches, as to appear like a fort or citadel, raised to overawe the citizens. It employs about 400 hands, of which more than a half are engaged in making cigars. But, despite all the precautions of government, some nine tenths of the cigars made use of are said to be clandestinely imported. (*Scott*, II. 110.) The cannon-foundry is, on the whole, a creditable national institution, though not at present in any great activity. Among the other public establishments, may be specified the cavalry barracks, royal saltpetre manufactory, military hospital, &c. The market-place is large, and admirably suited to its purpose, the buildings being arranged in streets, an open space surrounding the whole, with gates and ornamental fountains. In the suburb of Triana is a separate market for the supply of the *glâmes*, or *gysses*, its chief inhabitants.

The arrangement of the streets is very different from

that observable in most other Spanish towns, and is mainly the effect of the hot climate. To a similar cause may be traced the internal arrangement of the houses. They are built almost universally in the form of a square, with a spacious court-yard, or *patio*, frequently paved with marble, and surrounded by piazzas opening on the apartments of the ground-floor; the exterior as well as every other part of the house being kept carefully whitewashed, the massive green wooden blinds of the windows being kept closely shut during the day. In addition to this, the rooms, which are usually paved with tiles, are furnished with ponderous window-shutters half a foot thick, kept shut till the sun is off the windows, when they are partially opened to admit the breeze. Hence the houses are very dark, that visitors at first with difficulty distinguish the inmates. The climate may also be said to divide the houses into two distinct parts. During the winter months (commencing in Oct. and ending with April) the family inhabits the upper parts of the house, which are then thickly matted, and the rooms artificially heated by braziers of charcoal; but when the hot weather sets in, these apartments are shut up, and a general move is made to the ground-floor, which, being considerably cooler, and opening on the *patio*, renders the best mode of habitation. "It is a pretty sight, indeed," says Sir A. C. Brooks (*Travels in Spain and Morocco*, i. 43.), "to saunter during the delicious moonlight evenings of summer along the fashionable streets of the city; and nothing can be more strikingly brilliant than the appearance of the houses and hotels of the nobility and wealthier classes. On looking through the trellissed iron door opening to the street, you perceive the entire *patio* brilliantly illuminated, well furnished, and with pictures suspended from the marble columns of the arches. An awning forms a sufficient roofing by night as well as by day, and converts the space below into a spacious and lofty saloon, in the centre of which different *jets-d'eau* spout forth from a marble fountain, both cooling the air, and watering a variety of sweet, odoriferous plants, scattered around in flower-pots. Here the young ladies of the family may be seen enjoying the coolness of the evening, engaged in work, amusing themselves with music and singing, and receiving the visits of their friends." These summer habits are truly Moorish; and even in trifles glimpses of them become easily visible, as, for instance, in the contempt of chairs, for which mats and low stools are pretty generally substituted by all classes.

The aspect of the pop. of Seville differs greatly from that of Madrid. Even in the upper ranks, there is something in the ladies of an eastern appearance: they are more frequently veiled, their cheeks seem tinged with a hue of Moorish blood, and, along with the fire of a Castilian eye, there is mingled a shade of Oriental softness. Among the lower orders of the women, also, as among the Moors, may be remarked an extravagant and tasteless profusion of gaudy ornaments, immense ear-rings and bracelets, numerous rings, &c.; and the dress of the Andalusian peasant is even more grotesque and ornamented than that of the women, his jacket and waistcoat being almost always trimmed with gold or silver, and every article of his dress covered with silk cords and buttons. Another striking difference between Madrid and Seville is in the great mass of ragged, wretched-looking people in the latter, in consequence mainly of the heat of the climate, which renders labour a disagreeable exertion, especially in a country where subsistence is so easily procured. Let a small loaf of bread be given to one of these sons of idleness, he makes a hole in it, bags a little oil, not worth refusing, which he pours in, and soaking his bread as he eats it, he is set up for the day; and if he succeed in getting a two-quarto piece, he may procure as many grapes as his heart can desire. What excitement has such a one to be busy? The upper and middle ranks of Seville live more luxuriantly, but not better than those of Madrid; for the luxuries of the former, their food waters, lemonade, and pomegranates, their cool patios, fountains, and baths, are necessary to health and comfort. But even in his ordinary diet, the Andalusian has the advantage over the Castilian; for though it is true that, like the inhabitants of the northern provinces, he dines on the eternal *puchero*, its ingredients are better in Andalusia than in Castile, the pigs being fed on the fescu-nuts and the vegetables of S. Spain, being perhaps the finest in the world. The difference between Andalusia and Castile is still further observable from the state of society in the two provinces. The tertulia of Seville is quite different from that of Madrid, the former being at any rate more animated, if not more intellectual, and the dullness helped out with cards, dancing, forfeits, and other amusements, independent of mere chat-chat and periphrase. Balls and suppers are reserved for great occasions; but certainly substantial entertainments are more general than in the capital, perhaps because wealth is more generally diffused. Morals are at a very low ebb.

The feast, the song, the revel here abounds;
Borneo notes of merriment the hours consume,
Nor blessed these patriots with their country's wounds.
Nor here War's clarion, but Love's rebel sounds;
Here Folly still his votaries intralls:
And young-eyed Levite walks her midnight rounds:
Girt with the silent crimes of capital,
Still to the last kind Vice clings to the tottering walls.
Childe Harold, l., st. 46.

In Seville it is almost a derision to a married woman to have no *cortejo*, and a jest against a *señorita* not to have her *amante*. Indeed, the gallantries of the latter are not unfrequently carried quite as far as the intrigues of the former. (*Inglish*, ii. 39-41.)

But with all this corruption, the course of society runs smooth; jealousy appears not to disturb the ménage, the parties living together with all the outward show of mutual esteem, and inflicting the history of their private bickerings only on their most intimate friends. The amusements of the middle and higher classes consist of the daily promenading on the *Paseo* or *Alameda* (the Hyde Park or Regent Street of London); theatrical entertainments, of which they are passionately fond, and no mean judges; and the tertulia, which are so arranged as to succeed each other in the arrangements of the day. The lower classes are fond of dancing; but of music they have little knowledge, for nothing can well be more disagreeable than their crazy guitars. (*Scott's Ronda*, li. 132-138; and *Inglish*, *ubi supra*.)

Seville, as a place of residence for a stranger who cares only for sensual gratifications, is perhaps preferable to any other Spanish city. It is said that there is not a day throughout the year in which the sun does not shine on Seville. Winter is scarcely felt; and if the heats of summer be oppressive, as they truly are during the prevalence of the *solano*, the streets, houses, and economy of life are admirably adapted to lessen their influence. The surrounding country, with its orange and lemon groves, acacias, and other flowering trees and shrubs, is all that one can desire: fruits of many varieties and choice flavour may be had almost for nothing, and every necessary of life may be procured in abundance, and at very moderate rates. Game, fruit, and vegetables are excellent; and the bread (brought to market from the neighbouring village of *Alcala dos Pasañadores*) is said to be the best in Spain. Meat is reasonable, but of rather indifferent quality.

Seville has several establishments for the promotion of learning, science, and general education; but of these few, if any, can be considered as very efficient; its university, founded in 1502, is in the most backward state possible. The other scholastic establishments comprise a school of medicine, two mathematical schools, a college of agriculture, and an academy of the fine arts, besides the ancient, though decaying, school of St. Elmo for navigation and gunnery. Seville has also several societies for the promotion of different branches of literature and science; but they exercise little influence, owing to the general want of sound elementary education.

If we might believe the stories which book-maker after book-maker has repeated, *saque ad nauseam*, of the former flourishing state of manufactures in Seville, we should certainly conclude that in the 15th and 16th centuries it was decidedly superior, as a manufacturing town, to what Manchester now is! It is said, for example, to have had, in 1519, 16,000 silk looms, and 130,000 persons employed in the various branches of the silk manufacture! Such a statement carries absurdity on its face; and Capmany has shown conclusively, from the letter of the Venetian ambassador, Navagero, who visited Seville in 1525, and otherwise, that it is doubtful whether it had then a dozen silk looms; and that, instead of being a city with some 500,000 or 600,000 inhab., as must have been the case had it had 130,000 engaged in the silk trade only, there is no reason to think that it was then larger or more populous than at present. (*Questions Critiques*, p. 27., &c.) It is true that at a subsequent period the silk manufacture attained to considerable importance in Seville, there being, in 1650, about 3,000 looms engaged in the business. The manufacture has since undergone many vicissitudes; but in the earlier part of the present century it employed about 2,400 looms. Owing, however, to the loss of the colonial markets, and still more to the harassed state of the country for many years back, the number of looms is at present reduced to from 500 to 600. Coarse woollen cloths are made in considerable quantities, but they are both inferior to, and much dearer than similar English fabrics. There are several large tanneries, manufactories of hats, combs, earthenware, &c.; but, as in the rest of Spain, the processes are so clumsy, that speaking generally, all manufactured articles are of inferior quality. The to-

* Among others, these statements are given as if they were unquestionable by Laborde (*Hispanie*, iii. 328, ed. 1835); and by Moreau de Jonnés, in his *Statistique d'Espagne*, 142. The latter, indeed, is a wretched performance, totally unworthy of confidence.

bacco manufactory, iron foundry, and saltpetre establishment, have been already mentioned as government monopolies. The trade of Seville rose to considerable importance after the discovery of America, in consequence of its being vested with the monopoly of the commerce between Spain and the New World. This advantage, however, was soon lost, from the difficulty of navigating the Guadalquivir with large vessels; and the trade was transferred to Cadiz. The river, at certain times of the year, is accessible as far as Seville for ships of 100 tons; but, generally speaking, all vessels drawing more than 10 ft. water are obliged to load and unload 8 m. below the city. Some efforts, however, have lately been made for the improvement of the navigation. The exports comprise wool, goat-leather, silk, and fruit, particularly oranges. The trade in oranges is carried on principally with England, to which about 40 cargoes are sent every year, comprising about 16,000 chests, 1-10th of which are bitter, and the rest sweet oranges: the chief part of the export takes place in Nov. and Dec. The imports comprise various manufactures from England (many of which, however, are contraband); hides, hemp, and flax, from the Baltic; iron from Bilbao, and colonial produce from Cuba and Porto Rico. A considerable coasting trade is carried on with Cadiz, Malaga, Barcelona, and other ports of Spain; and there is daily steam communication with St. Lucar and Cadiz.

Seville stands on the site of the *Hispalis* of the Romans. It opened its gates to the Moors in 711, soon after their invasion of Spain, and continued in their possession above five centuries, being the seat first of a regal, afterwards of an aristocratical government. It was taken by the Christians in 1347, after one of the most obstinate sieges mentioned in Spanish history; but since then it has seldom been the scene of military exploits. It is known in diplomatic history by a treaty concluded in it in 1799, by Spain, England, France, and Holland. In the autumn of 1800, it was visited by the pestilential fever which caused such mortality at Cadiz, and it is said that between the 12th Aug. and 1st Nov. of that year, it lost nearly a fourth part of its inhab., half the sufferers being, however, Gitanos or gypsies, inhabiting the suburb of Triana. On the invasion of Spain by Napoleon, in 1808, Seville asserted the national independence, and received the junta when driven from Madrid. It however surrendered to the French, on the 1st February 1810, and remained in their hands till the 37th August 1812, when they left it, in consequence of their defeat at Salamanca.

Seville has given birth to several distinguished individuals, among whom have been included in antiquity the emperors Adrian, Trajan, and Theodosius. There can, however, be little or no doubt that these illustrious individuals were all natives of Italica, a Roman city, a few miles N.E. from Hispalis. Among the more remarkable individuals of whom Seville has to boast in modern times may be specified Las Casas, bishop of Chiapa, the defender of the Indians; Antonio de Ulloa, the traveller and economist; Lopez de Rueda, the father of Spanish comedy, &c. The famous navigator, Magellan, or Magellan, sailed from Seville on the 20th of Sept., 1519, on the expedition in which he discovered the straits that bear his name.

SEVRES, a small town of France, dep. Seine-et-Oise, on the Seine, about midway between Paris and Versailles, being 5 m. N.W. the latter city. Pop. about 4,000. It has been long famous for its royal manufactory of porcelain, or *Sevres china*; which, for elegance of design and excellence of quality, is equal, if not superior, to any made in Europe. A large museum is established here, in which are collected specimens of most kinds of earthenware manufactured in France and other countries. There is a warehouse in the Rue Rivoli, in Paris, for the sale of *Sevres china*. The quarries whence the clay used in the manufacture of the porcelain has been obtained form extensive vine vaults. The Seine is crossed here by a handsome stone bridge.

SEVRES (DEUX.), a dep. of France, reg. W., principally between the 46th and 47th dees. N. lat. and 0° and 10° W. long.; having N. Maine-et-Loire, E. Vienne, S. Charente and Charente Inferieure, and W. Vendée. Area, 607,350 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 320,585. A hill chain, running from S.E. to N.W., divides the dep. into two portions, very unlike each other in their general aspect, the southern being nearly flat, and the northern very much diversified. Principal rivers, the two Sevres (or *Nivortaise* and *Nantaise*), whence the name of the dep.; one discharges itself into the Atlantic in Vendée, the latter falling into the Loire. A large proportion of the soil is stony, but there are some rich tracts. In 1834, the arable lands were estimated at 404,355 hectares; meadows, 74,963 do.; vineyards, 20,963 do.; orchards, &c. 9,676 do.; and woods, 36,090 do. Shallow lakes, pools, &c. occupy at least 10,000 hectares. Agriculture is generally very backward, being, in most parts, distinguished by an obstinate attachment to old methods; but more corn is raised than is required for home consumption. Flax,

hemp, various fruits, &c., and about 350,000 hectol. of wine, are annually produced. The quality of the latter is, with few exceptions, very inferior, and about half the produce is made into brandy. The annual produce of wool is estimated at 400,000 kilog. Fat cattle, hogs, poultry, timber, brandy, and vinegar, are the principal exports of the dep. In 1835, of 127,942 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 69,394 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 17,611 at from 5 to 10 fr. Minerals unimportant. The manufacturing industry of the dep. is of little consequence. It is divided into four arronds., chief towns, Niort (the cap.), Pressaire, Melle, and Parthenay. It sends 4 mems. to the Ch. of Dep. Registered electors, in 1838-39, 1,076. Total public rev. in 1837, 747,475 fr. (*Hugo, art. Deux-Sevres, French Official Tables*.)

SHAFESBURY, a parl. and mun. bor. and market-town of England, co. Dorset, partly in Sixpenny Handley hund., and partly in Alcester liberty, on the border of Wilts, 22½ m. N.E. Dorchester, and 95 m. S.W. London. Previously to the Reform Act, the town and parl. boundaries of the bor., which were co-extensive, comprised only portions of the parishes of the Holy Trinity, St. Peter, and St. James; with a pop., in 1801, of 2,743. But since the municipal limits have been enlarged, so as to include the whole of those parishes, with that part of Motcomb in which Enmore Green and Long Cross are situated; and the parl. boundary comprises the entire parishes of Cann, St. Rumbald, Melbury and Compton Abbas, Stower Provost, East Stower, Todbere, St. Margaret's Marsh, Motcomb, Donhead (in Wilts), and the chapelry of Hartgrove, making a total area of 20,910 acres. Pop., in 1841, 9,462.

The town is situated on the top, and extends nearly to the verge of a high narrow hill. It is healthy, though, from its situation, the air is often bleak and piercing. Though irregular, it is well built, a large proportion of the houses being constructed of freestone quarried in the neighbourhood. Shaftesbury had anciently 12 churches, besides several chantries, a celebrated monastery, an hospital, &c. It has now but 3 churches, the principal of which, St. Peter's, is of great antiquity, and has some elegance, though much disfigured by modern alterations. Holy Trinity is joined with St. Peter's, St. Martin's, and St. Lawrence, in a rectory worth 168*l.* a year. St. James's is also a rectory, worth 296*l.* a year. Both livings are in the diocese of Bristol, and the gift of the Earl of Shaftesbury (*Eccles. Rev. Rep.*). In the spacious and well-planted churchyard of Holy Trinity is inclosed a considerable portion of the wall of Shaftesbury Abbey, being all that remains of that once famous edifice. It is said to have been erected by the wife of Edmund, great grandson of king Alfred, for Benedictine nuns. (*Camden, Gibson's ed. i. 60.*) It was afterwards called St. Edward's Abbey, from Edward the Martyr, who was murdered at Corfe Castle, having been buried in it. After the churches, the principal public buildings comprise a handsome town-hall, recently built by the late Westminister, at an expense of 3,000*l.*; and meeting-houses for Friends, Independents, Wesleyans, &c. A free school, for 20 poor boys, was founded in 1719; and there are almshouses for both men and women. From its elevated position, Shaftesbury labours under a deficiency of water, which is conveyed up the hill in carts or on horseback, its supply affording employment to a number of persons. The town had formerly a manufacture of shirt buttons, which employed many women and children; but it has now ceased, and it has few outward signs of prosperity, though it is said that its condition has latterly improved. (*Boundary Rep., &c.*)

Shaftesbury is mentioned as a bor. in Domesday Book; but its only existing municipal charter is that of James I., confirmed by Charles II. It sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the reign of Edw. I. down to the passing of the Reform Act, which deprived it of one of its members, and at the same time increased its boundaries as already stated. The election for mems. was formerly vested in the inhabs. paying scot and lot. Reg. electors, in 1845-50, 514. Since the Municipal Reform Act it has been governed by a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 13 councillors. Corp. revenue, in 1847-8, 168*l.* No courts are held within the bor. Market-day, Saturday; fairs, Palm Saturday, June 24, Nov. 23, for all kinds of cattle.

Shaftesbury is supposed to be on or near the site of an ancient British town called *Caerseption*; but it was of little importance till the foundation of its monastery, and has latterly depended principally on its political privileges. It gives the title of earl to the noble family of Ashley Cooper. (*Parl. Munic. and Boundary Reports, Appendices, &c.*)

SHAHABAD, a district of British India, presid. Bengal, prov. Bahar, between the districts of Patna, Bahar, and Ramghur, on the E. and S., and Benares, Ghazipur, and Sarun, on the W. and N. Area, 4,600 sq. m. Pop. (1822), 908,850, nearly all Hindoos. The Ganges bounds it N., the Soné W., and the Caramassia E. It is very fertile, its staples being opium, tobacco, cotton, sugar, indigo, and hemp; it is celebrated for the excellence of its

roads, a distinction mainly owing to a salutary reservation in the original land settlement with the Zemindars of a certain annual sum to keep them in repair. Total land revenue (1829-30), 14,80,483 rupees.

SHAHJEHANPOOR, a district of British India, prov. Delhi, having N.E. Nepal, E. Oude, S. the latter and the district of Furruckabad, and W. Salwan, Bareilly, and Pilibhoet. Area, 1,420 sq. m. Pop. uncertain. Total public revenue in 1829-30, 11,34,126 rup. Its cap. town of the same name, 178 m. S.E. Delhi, is reported to be more wealthy and nearly as populous as the latter city; so that it may probably have 50,000 inhabs. (Hemson.)

SHANGHAI. See SUPPLEMENT.

SHANNON, a river of Ireland, being by far the largest and most important in that island, and hardly indeed inferior, if it be not superior, to any in the United Kingdom. It has, in many respects, particularly in its nearly insulating an extensive prov., in the direction of its course, the length of its navigation, and the magnitude of its estuary, a striking resemblance to the Severn. Its source is generally traced to the base of Cullcagh Mountain, in the N.W. part of Galway. After running a few miles, it falls into Lough Allen about 16 m. in length, and from 4 m. to 5 m. broad; its course thence to Limerick being S., with a small inclination to the W.: issuing from Lough Allen, it passes Leitrim, Carrick, Tarnabury, &c., entering Lough Ree, at Lismabrough. This, which is a very irregularly-shaped extensive sheet of water, is about 17 m. in length. Leaving it, the river, now greatly augmented, passes Athlone, and then winds by Shannon Bridge and Banagher to Portumna, near which it expands into Lough Derg, a narrow lake, 23 m. in length, with deep bays and inlets. Escaping from the S. extremity of this lake, it flows on to Limerick. Here having met the tide, it takes a W.S.W. direction; and, gradually expanding into a noble estuary, unites with the Atlantic, between Kerry Head and Loop Head, about 70 m. lower down.

From the head of Lough Allen to its mouth, the Shannon has a course of about 214 m.; viz., Lough Allen, 10 m.; Lough Allen to Lough Ree, 43 m.; Lough Ree, 17 m.; Lough Ree to Lough Derg, 36 m.; Lough Derg, 23 m.; Lough Derg, to Limerick, 18 m.; and thence to the river's mouth, 70 m. Loop Head and Kerry Head are about 8 m. apart.

But the distance to which it has been rendered navigable is the most extraordinary circumstance connected with the Shannon. In this respect, indeed, it is superior to the Thames, Severn, Trent, or any English river. If Lough Allen be (as it is considered by some) reckoned its source, it is navigable to its very head; but, tracing its origin to the base of Cullcagh Mountain, there are only 6 or 7, out of its entire course of about 220 m., that may not be navigated! It is unnecessary to insist on the value of a river of this sort flowing through the very centre of Ireland, insulating the great province of Connaught, and "winding the shores" of 10 out of the 32 counties which the island occupies.

Unluckily, however, the navigation of the Shannon, like that of most other rivers not of very great depth, is, in certain places and at certain seasons, a good deal obstructed. It may be navigated, with no very serious difficulty, from the sea to Limerick by ships of 400 tons burden. But immediately above the city, and in some other places, its course is impeded by rocks and rapids, and large sums have been expended in improving those parts of the navigation, partly by making lateral cuts, and partly by deepening the bed of the river. The level of Lough Allen is about 144 ft. above high water-mark at Limerick, the ascent being in a great measure overcome by one double lock and twenty single locks, placed in those situations where lateral cuts have been made to avoid the rapids. These cuts are from 13 to 14 ft. wide at bottom, having the usual slopes, and are calculated for a depth of water varying from 4 to 7 ft. in ordinary seasons. Still, however, it must be admitted that, considering its paramount importance, the navigation of the Shannon is "in no way a satisfactory state. In dry seasons it is impeded by shallows, on which there are sometimes only from 2 to 3 ft. water; and during floods the channel of the river, owing to its frequently expanding into extensive lakes, and the lowness of its banks, is not easily discovered. Had it been an English river, these difficulties would have been overcome long ago; and the money expended upon it might, had it been properly and effectually applied, have sufficed to obviate them."

But the works have not unfortunately been very carefully and insufficiently executed. It is now, however, under much better management; but it will require a considerable additional expenditure to put the works into proper order, and to ensure at all times, what is so very essential, a safe and easy navigation. The introduction of steam tugs and steam vessels on the Loughs of the Shannon has been of infinite service; without them, indeed, it never could have been turned to much account.

The Suck, the principal tributary of the Shannon, rises in Roscommon. Its course is S., inclining to the E., dividing the co. of Roscommon and Galway, by Castleteragh, Athleague, and Ballinastor, till it unites with the Shannon at Shannon Bridge. On its E. side the Shannon receives the Inny, the Upper and Lower Broma, Mulkena, Maig, Fergus, &c. The last two are navigable to a considerable distance.

The importance of the Shannon, as a commercial river, has been materially increased by its junction with the Grand and Royal Canals from Dublin. Though defective both in their plan and execution, and made at an immense expense, still it is not to be denied that they are particularly the Grand Canal, till it unites with the Shannon, they have opened a communication by water across the island, so that persons living in its centre may send their produce, at a moderate expense, to Dublin or Limerick, as they find most advantageous. This laying open of new and almost boundless markets has given a stimulus to the improvement of the central parts of Ireland, of which it is not easy to overrate the influence, and which will, no doubt, be as permanent as it is powerful.

From its situation at the head of the estuary of the Shannon, in a country naturally of the most fertile and fertility, 70 m. from the sea, Limerick is the principal emporium of the W. of Ireland; and its commerce is both extensive and rapidly increasing. The value of the produce, such as corn, flour, bacon and pork, butter, beef, &c., shipped from the port in 1830, amounted to 525,625*l.*; and in 1836, when prices were low, to 725,000*l.* In ordinary years it may now (1850) be taken at 1,000,000*l.*

The badness of the accommodation for shipping is, however, a heavy drawback upon the trade of Limerick. At low water ships are obliged to lie aground; and as the bottom consists of hard, rugged limestone rock, vessels of considerable burden, and those that are sharp built, are liable to be seriously injured by grounding.

But, as already stated (see art. LIMERICK), measures are now in progress to obviate these inconveniences, by constructing a floating harbour in the bed of the river opposite the city. (*Statistical Acc. of the British Empire*, i. 320.)

SHEERNESS, a sea-port and market-town of England, in the par. of Minster, lathes S. Cray, co. Kent, on a low tongue of land at the N.W. extremity of the Isle of Sheppey, at the confluence of the Thames and Medway, on the E. bank of the latter, 184 m. W.N.W. Canterbury, and 364 m. E. by S. London. Pop., inc. par. in 1841, 6,684. The town, which owes its rise to the formation of the naval dockyard, is divided into three parts, called respectively, Sheerness-proper, Blue-town, and Miletown, the first two being enclosed by fortifications. During the last few years, also, and especially since the fire of 1817, which destroyed about 50 houses, the town has been much enlarged, as well as greatly improved, by the erection of good brick houses, and the formation of several new streets, well paved, and lighted with gas. The town was formerly very ill supplied with water; but at the beginning of the present century, a well was sunk by the Board of Ordnance to the depth of 360 ft., which supplies water, not only to the town and garrison, but to the shipping in the Medway. A pier with a causeway runs down from the town to low-water mark; and facing both the river and sea is a wharf of considerable extent. Several old ships of war, also, have been stationed on the shore as breakwaters; formerly they used to serve as dwellings for many of the poorer townspeople, but few of them are now inhabited. The par. church is at Minster, but a handsome district church has been erected in the Gothic style; and attached to the garrison is a chapel, the appointment to which is with the Board of Admiralty. The Baptists, Independents, Wesleyan Methodists, Unitarians, and R. Catholics have their respective places of worship, and there is a Jews' synagogue. Sunday-schools are attached to the town church, and to several of the chapels: an infant school is attended by about 300 children; a proprietary school has upwards of 40 boys, and there is a small endowed charity-school. The trade of Sheerness arises chiefly from the dockyard, and other government establishments, though considerable shipments are made to London of corn and seeds produced on the island, and of oysters from the adjoining oyster-beds. Pyrites are collected from the crumbling cliffs for the copperas works in the neighbourhood; and many of the inhabs. make a living by picking up or dredging for scrap-iron (an oxide of iron), used in making Parker's Roman cement. Sheerness has also come, to a certain extent, a resort of sea-bathers, for whose accommodation there are reading-rooms, baths, bathing-machines, &c. Steamers run daily to and from London during summer, besides passage-boats to and from Chatham, which is about 11 m. up the Medway. Markets on Saturday.

The dockyard, which covers an area of about 50 acres,

enclosed by a substantial brick wall, has been greatly extended and improved during the last 25 years, at an expense of above 1,000,000*l.* sterling. It has every convenience for the building, repair, and fitting out of ships. It comprises a wet dock or basin of about 2*½* acres, capable of accommodating 10 tall of the line, and in which they may take on board their stores, ammunition, and provisions, and be, in all respects, equipped ready for sea. Three dry docks, each suitable for the accommodation of a line-of-battle ship, have been constructed on the E. side of the basin, and open into it. It has also very extensive storehouses, with mast-houses, mast ponds, and slip, smithery, and artificers' workshops of every description; with handsome residences for the commissioners, port-admiral, and other officers of the establishment. The principal offices of the ordnance department were, a few years since, removed to Chatham, and the area formerly occupied by them has been added to the dockyard. The wharf wall, on the S. side of the basin in front of the mast-house, is 100, and that on the river front 60 ft. in width, lined on both sides with granite. Numerous convicts are employed in the dockyard and on the hulks, chiefly in the improvement and repairs of the former.

Sheerness, which so late as the time of the Commonwealth was a mere swamp, was fixed upon after the Restoration as an important position for ordnance. The works, however, were still incomplete, when the Dutch, under De Ruyter, in 1667, took and destroyed the fortress and the shipping. (*See CHATHAM.*) The fortifications were afterwards constructed on a larger scale; numerous batteries of heavy artillery were planted on both banks of the river. The dockyard was begun early in the last century. The mutiny of the fleet at the Nore, in 1798, threatened the town and dockyard with destruction, which, however, was happily averted. (*See Eng. Brit., new ed., art. Dockyards; Hasted's Kent, &c.*)

SHEFFIELD, a par. bor., market-town, and riding of England, cap. of the district of Hallamshire, W. Riding, co. York, upper div. of wap. Strafforth and Tickhill, at the confluence of the Don and Sheaf, the former of which is crossed by three and the latter by two bridges, 39 m. S. Leeds, and 140 m. N. by W. London. Area of par. bor. and par., which are co-extensive, 22,830 acres: pop. of par., in 1801, 45,755, in 1831, 91,692, and in 1841, 111,001. Pop. of Sheffield township in 1831, 99,011; in 1841, 68,186. The town, originally confined to the slope of a hill rising S.E. from the Don, is now nearly 2 m. in length by 1 m. in breadth, and occupies the bottom and sides of several low hills, rising in various directions both from the Don and Sheaf, the whole being well-paved and flagged, lighted with gas, and abundantly supplied with water. The older streets are steep, narrow, and singularly irregular; but the more modern streets are wide and straight, lined with good brick houses, and many of the shops are but little inferior to those of the metropolises. The smoke, however, proceeding from the numerous steam-engines, forges, and factories, gives the town a dingy, mean appearance, contrasting strangely with the extreme beauty of the surrounding country, embellished as it is, in every direction, by the numerous villas of the opulent bankers, merchants, and manufacturers of Sheffield. The market-place occupies a wide open space in the High Street, and near it are the par. church and principal inns: it is of modern construction, and comprises large shambles, and other accommodations. The corn-exchange, also, is a handsome modern building, comprising excellent accommodation for those frequenting the markets. The cutlers' hall in Church Street, belonging to the ancient corporation of cutlers, is a handsome stone building, with rooms for the transacting of corporate business, public meetings, dinners, &c. The par. comprises 12 churches, 7 of which are in the town, and the rest in the rural townships, the patronage of all, except two, belonging to the vicar, though the appointment of the four assistant clergymen at the par. church belongs to the 12 burgesses, or chief inhabs. of Sheffield. The mother church of the Holy Trinity is a noble Gothic structure, about 240 ft. in length by 130 ft. in breadth, and from its centre rises a tower surmounted by a lofty spire, of handsome proportions: the part now used for divine service, which excludes the ancient chancel, was rebuilt in 1800, and is fitted up in a solid and handsome manner, with accommodation for upwards of 2,000 persons: in the chancel are some curious old monuments, and a fine bust of the late vicar by Chantrey. St. Paul's, in Norfolk Street (erected by subscription in 1730), is a rather heavy Greek structure, with a tower surmounted by a dome, and a cupola of cast-iron. St. James's, near the par. church, also of Grecian architecture though small, is well arranged, and at the E. end is a fine stained glass window representing the crucifixion. St. George's, on an eminence at the W. extremity of the town, erected, in 1824, at an expense of 15,130*l.*, chiefly defrayed by the par. commissioners, is in the later English style, and has a lofty square embattled tower, crowned with pinnacles. St. Philip's,

near the infirmary, and St. Mary's on the S.E. side of the town, are in a similar style, and equally handsome, both having been erected, like St. George's, at the expense of the par. commissioners. St. John's is a still more modern building. Besides the churches, which have accommodation for upwards of 15,000 persons, there are twenty places of worship for different denominations of dissenters. Six of these belong to the Wesleyan Methodists, and are among the largest buildings of the town: the Independents have six large places of worship, and there is a handsome Roman Catholic chapel. Most of the places of worship have attached burial grounds; but the custom of interring the dead in the town will probably grow into disuse, from the opening of extensive cemeteries. Connected with the various places of worship are numerous Sunday-schools, furnishing religious instruction to about 11,000 children, fully 4,000 of whom are taught by the Wesleyan Methodists, here a numerous and intelligent body. Three national schools are attended by 500 boys and 650 girls; 4 Lancasterian schools (one of which is supported by the Wesleyans) by 750 boys and 400 girls, and 7 infant-schools by upwards of 1,000 children of both sexes. The out-townships have also numerous Sunday-schools, with 8 national and 3 infant schools. A grammar-school, founded in the reign of James I., has an endowment of about 400*l.* a year, 3-5ths of which is paid to the vicar, and 2-5ths to the usher, both of whom receive entrance-fees, and other extra-payments, from the pupils. The management of the school, and the appointment of the masters, is vested in the vicar and 12 burgesses of Sheffield. A school of design, under the patronage of government, has also been established. A charity-school, established in 1796, provides clothing, board, and instruction, with an apprentice fee for 90 boys, and a smaller establishment for 70 girls was formed in 1786. A collegiate school founded a few years ago on a joint-stock principle, is well attended; and more recently, the Wesleyan body have established a proprietary school, in which 300 boys are boarded and liberally educated, partly with the view of providing for the better elementary instruction of the future ministers of that denomination. Among the many charities belonging to the par. of Sheffield, the principal is Lord Shrewsbury's Hospital, for 20 men and the same number of women: the buildings, which have been erected on a new site, consist of a centre and wings, in the later English style. Hoell's Hospital, a similar establishment founded in 1708, is endowed with funds for the support of 16 widows of cutlers, and a small charity-school. There are numerous minor charities, apprentice-funds, &c. in the town, and each out-township has its separate charities. (*See Ober. Com. 17th and 23d Reports.*)

The general infirmary, which stands about $\frac{1}{2}$ m. N. from the town, is a handsome stone building, with semi-circular wings and a central portico, its interior comprising many large and airy wards, with accommodation for about 200 in-patients. Adjoining, but distinct from the infirmary, is a large building, containing fever wards. The medical and domestic arrangements are complete; and, on the whole, it is one of the best regulated provincial hospitals in the kingdom. It was opened in 1797, having cost above 20,000*l.* raised by subscription. Sheffield has, also, a general dispensary, with lying-in charities, Dorcas societies, provident institutions, a large auxiliary Bible society, and various religious associations connected both with the established church and the several bodies of dissenters. A theatre was built in 1762, with attached assembly-rooms; and there is a handsome music-hall, in which concerts are frequently given.

A public subscription library in the music-hall is supported by 200 subscribers; the library attached to the mechanics' institute contains about 3,000 vols.; the literary and philosophical society (established in 1822) has a good collection of minerals, fossils, plants, &c. with apparatus for experiments; and the botanical society has a garden comprising 18 acres, tastefully laid out, and a glass conservatory, 369 ft. in length, filled with rare exotic plants. There are likewise two well-appointed news-rooms, one of which, in High Street, has a handsome frontage and a lofty elegant saloon. The chief commercial buildings are the post-office, excise-office, and assay-office, erected in 1773, soon after the rise of the silver-plating trade. Sheffield has also a savings' bank, 4 joint-stock banking companies; and 4 weekly newspapers.

Little is known of the early history of Sheffield, or of the origin of that business for which it is now so famous. But it had attained to eminence in the making of knives so early as the 13th century; for Chaucer, contemporary with Edward III., mentions, in his *Reeve's Tale*, the Sheffield "thwytel" or whittle, in such a way as shows it was then in common use. It does not appear ever to have lost the reputation for cutlery it had thus early acquired. In 1875 the Earl of Shrewsbury, lord of the manor of Sheffield, sent to his friend Lord Bur-

legh "a case of Hallamshire whittles, belings such trucks as his pore cuntrey afordeth with *some through-out the realm.*" (*Metal Manufactures, Cabinet Cyclop.*, li. 5.) In 1634, a corporation was formed for the "good order and government of the makers of knives, scissors, shears, sickles, and other cutlery-wares in Hallamshire," the government being vested in a master, 3 wardens, 6 searchers, and 24 assistants, consisting of freemen only. The principal object in the formation of this corporation seems to have been the regulation of the marks or other devices which every individual was to strike or impress on the goods he made for sale. But these regulations can hardly be said to be any longer in operation.

The corporation continued on the footing fixed in 1634, till 1814, when an act was passed, permitting all persons indiscriminately, without their being freemen, or having served an apprenticeship, or obtained a mark from the corporation for their goods, to carry on business anywhere within the district of Hallamshire. This liberal and judicious measure has been of great service to the town, by inducing men of talent and enterprise, from all parts of the country, to settle in it, where their competition and industry have had the best effects.

For several centuries the manufactures of Sheffield were confined almost entirely to the making of sheath-knives, scissors, sickles, and scythes. About the beginning of the 17th century, a common tobacco-box and the Jew's harp were added to the list of manufactured articles; but it was not till about forty years after that the manufacture of clasp-knives, razors, and files, for which it is now famous, was introduced. It has been remarked, that for about a century after this period the manufacturers discovered more of industry and perseverance than of enterprise or ingenuity in the conduct of their business. About 1750 they began, for the first time, to carry on a direct trade with the Continent. The manufacture of plated goods was soon after commenced; and from that period down to the present time, Sheffield has made an astonishing progress in the career of industry; and in many branches of the hardware manufacture has no superior, and in some no rival. (*See Cyclop.*) Like Birmingham, Sheffield was most probably indebted to her situation for her early application to the hardware business. Coal and iron are found in her immediate vicinity. And some idea of the advantage thence derived by the town may be deduced from the fact that, in 1835, the consumption of coal in Sheffield was estimated at 515,000 tons; and that it is now (1850) supposed to exceed 600,000 tons. The Don, on which she is built, and 4 smaller rivers which flow into the Don near the town, supply her with power to work mills for forging, cutting, and preparing the iron and steel used in her manufactures; and in this respect she has an advantage over Birmingham. The river was made navigable to within about 3 m. of the town so early as 1751; and a lateral canal has since prolonged the navigation to the town.

Cutlery, as it was the earliest, so it is still the largest and most important branch of industry. The principal articles are table-knives and forks, pen and pocket-knives of every variety and description, scissors, razors, surgical, mathematical, and optical instruments, scythes, sickles, saws, with all sorts of carpenter's tools, and so forth. The most beautiful and highly finished articles of cutlery exhibited in the shops of the metropolis, though stamped with the vendor's name, are mostly made in Sheffield, and the cutlery of this town is deservedly held in the highest estimation in all parts of the world.

With the exception of plated saddlery ware, almost all the other descriptions of plated goods made at Sheffield are reckoned superior to those made at Birmingham or anywhere else. Some of the best plated articles have silver edges, and, when used with ordinary care, last for a very long time, and can with difficulty be distinguished from silver. An extensive manufacture of articles of German silver is carried on.

Mr. Jacob says that, in as far as he was able to ascertain by inquiries of platers, the owners of flattening-mills, and of the manufacturers of plated goods, he was disposed to estimate the silver used for plating in Birmingham and Sheffield, including with it that used at Walsall and other places, by saddlers' ironmongers, at about 750,000 oz. a year; and deducting from this 150,000 oz. used at Birmingham, and 100,000 oz. for that used at Walsall and other minor towns, there will remain 500,000 oz. for the consumption of Sheffield.

Sheffield produces few articles in copper and brass, and no toys; but, in lieu of these, she has some peculiar and important businesses. The conversion of iron into steel is carried on to a far greater extent here than in any other part of the empire; and most of the steel used at Birmingham and other places is prepared at Sheffield. The works of the Messrs. Sanderson, Jessop and Sons, &c., for the converting and preparing of steel by the rolling, &c. are the most extensive and celebrated in the world. The manufacture of springs for railway carriages has latterly become an important business.

The manufacture of files is one of the staple trades of

Sheffield. Files are used in immense quantities at home, and are largely exported. Any one who has ever seen the process of file-cutting would be likely to conclude that it was an operation which might be successfully performed by machinery, and a great variety of contrivances have been set on foot in that view. Hitherto, however, none of them has completely succeeded; so that the best files continue now, as heretofore, to be cut by the hand.

Few comparatively of the Sheffield manufacturers have large capitals, and the business is not so generally carried on in workshops and factories as at Birmingham. A person worth a few shillings may commence business on his own account as a cutler; and in this class, individuals are not unfrequently journeymen one year and masters another, and conversely.

In 1833 some of the staple trades carried on in the town and the individuals engaged in them were specified as follows:—Table-knives and forks, 3,589 hands; pen and pocket knives, 2,680; razors, 754; scissors, 500; files, 1,768; saws, 563; edge-tools, 708; stove-grates, fenders, &c., 1,530; white metal, 543; silver-plated goods, 500; making in all 13,430. (*Report on Manufactures*, &c. 1833, *Min. of Evidence*, p. 175.) But the hands engaged in the conversion of iron into steel, and in several other important trades, are not included in this specification. Wages in Sheffield vary at present (1850) from about 12s. to 40s. a week. The labour in some departments is very severe, and in others great skill is required. Grinders, particularly those who do not use water in the operation, inhale the finer particles of stone and steel, and are usually short-lived. Many efforts have been made to obviate this, as well as to lessen the risk of accidents in the grinding mills; but the employment continues to be more than usually unhealthy and dangerous; and as much skill is required in grinding the finer descriptions of knives and razors, wages, being influenced by both circumstances, are generally high.

It was stated before the British Association that there are in Sheffield 56 workmen's clubs (most of which are unions), and their aggregate revenues may probably amount to 80,000*l.* a year, divisible among about 9,000 members. Many hands are employed in grinding spectacle glasses, most of which, indeed, come from Sheffield. The show-rooms and manufactories of the leading houses are freely opened to all respectable strangers, and afford abundant proofs of the ingenuity that has raised the town to its present importance. The workmen of Sheffield have been accused of a tendency to riot and insubordination; and no doubt several destructive riots have taken place during the present century, which has required the interference of the military for their suppression; but these have mostly originated in extreme distress, or in some temporary and accidental cause, and, speaking generally, the inhabitants are distinguished by their orderly, good conduct. None of them live in cellars, like the poorer ranks in Liverpool and Manchester, but each family occupies its own house. The workpeople are, in this respect, much better off than those in most other large manufacturing towns, and their houses are also furnished with better and more costly articles than are usually met with in the dwellings of the same class. This favourable peculiarity is the more remarkable from there being in the town itself many old, crowded, and filthy localities. Sheffield enjoys the advantage of a direct canal communication, eastward to Hull, and by a very circuitous route westward to Manchester, Liverpool, &c. The Don was made navigable to Tinsley in 1751. A canal was subsequently cut for the transmission of heavy goods, and the canal-basin of Sheffield is accessible to vessels of 60 tons. More recently Sheffield has been united by railways with all parts of the kingdom. The lines by which she is connected with Great Grimsby on the one hand, and with Manchester and Liverpool on the other, afford peculiar facilities to her import and export trade.

This important manufacturing town had no voice in the legislature till the Reform Act, by which the parish was created a *pari. bor.* with the privilege of sending 2 mems. to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 4,918. The lighting and watching is conducted by the police commissioners under the authority of a local act. There was no proper municipal corporation till 1843, when the bor. was incorporated by charter, dated the 24th August of that year. It is now governed by a mayor, 14 aldermen, and 42 councillors. Corp. rev. in 1848-49, 6,371*l.* Sheffield is also one of the polling-places at elections for the W. Riding; and the seat of a county court, before which no fewer than 9,190 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. The police, regulated similarly to that of Manchester, Liverpool, &c., is very effective. The par. of Sheffield constitutes, with its out-townships, a Poor-law union, the expenditure of which, for pauper maintenance, amounted, in 1848-49, to 37,221*l.* Markets on Tuesdays and Saturdays: fairs, Trinity-Tuesday for horses and cattle, and on Nov. 28, for cheese.

Sheffield is of great antiquity, and there can be but little doubt that close to or near it there was once a considerable Roman station. A town existed here under the Saxons; and in the reigns of the Plantagenets it was considered of sufficient importance to be defended by a strong castle. Mary Queen of Scots was confined for nearly 14 years in the Manor, a country seat near the town, belonging to the Earl of Shrewsbury, the owner, also, of the castle. The latter was seized in the civil wars by Sir John Gell, one of the parliamentary generals, and was demolished, by order of parliament, in 1646, there being now no remains except of the foundations. Its site, however, is still called Castle Hill. (*Hunter's History of Hallamshire, Statistical Account of the British Empire, Private Information.*)

SHEPTON-MALLET, a market-town and par. of England, co. Somerset, hund. Whitstone, on a branch of the Brue, surrounded by several small hills, about 5 m. E.S.E. Wells. Area of par., 3,770 acres. Pop., in 1841, 5,265. The town, which comprises a number of narrow streets and lanes, has been much improved of late years, by the construction of a new bridge, and the opening of new roads, &c.; near its centre is a curious market-cross, erected in 1500. The church, in the English style, is a handsome cruciform structure, with a tower and spire at the W. end. The living is a rectory, in the gift alternately of the crown and Mr. Wickham; its gross value is £320 a year; but the curate's salary of 150*l.*, and other demands, reduce the nett income to 533*l.* (*Ecccl. Rev. Rep.*) Here is the county bridewell, a large and conspicuous edifice; and here, also, petty sessions are held. There are places of worship for Baptists, Independents, Wesleyans, and R. Catholics; a convent of visitation nuns, the only one of that order in the kingdom; an almshouse founded in 1699; and a free school, established in 1812. The town had formerly a flourishing manufacture of woollen goods, but this branch of industry is now much fallen off. Markets, Tuesdays and Fridays; fairs, Easter Monday, June 18, and Aug. 8, for cattle and cheese.

SHERBORNE, or **SHERBOURN**, a market-town and par. of England, co. Dorset, hund. Sherborne; on the Ivel, which divides the town into two parts, Sherborne and Castleton, 16½ m. N. by W. Dorchester, and 110 m. W.S.W. London. Area of par., 4,900 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,798. Sherborne is a town, situated partly on the acclivity of a hill, and partly in the fertile vale of Blackmore. It is compactly built; its principal streets, running E. and W., are crossed by smaller streets in a contrary direction. It was made a bishop's see in the 8th century, and continued such till 1075, when the see was removed to Salisbury, and Sherborne cathedral became an abbey church. Portions of the abbey, including the refectory, &c., still remain; but it was in great part destroyed by fire in the time of Henry VI. The church, however, chiefly rebuilt after the event, still exists, and is the modern par. church. It is a building of very different dates, but mostly in the perpendicular style. The S. porch is Norman. The groining is generally rich and good, and in the interior are several ancient monuments. (*Rickman's Gothic Architecture.*) The tower is upwards of 150 ft. in height; in it are 6 bells, the largest of which, weighing upwards of 3 tons, was presented by Cardinal Wolsey. The living is a vicarage in the gift of the crown, worth 900*l.* a year. Castleton (so called from the remains of an ancient castle, held by the royalists in the wars of Charles I.) is a separate living, a perpetual curacy, in the gift of Earl Digby, worth 812*l.* a year.

The Wesleyans, Independents, Friends, &c., have meeting-houses. The buildings of the free grammar-school, founded by Edward VI., adjoin the church, and are built round 3 courts, 2 of which are used as playgrounds. They comprise a good house for the master, formed of the ancient lady chapels, with upper and lower school-rooms, dining-hall, library, numerous dormitories, &c. This school should have, according to its charter, 20 governors, and has an annual income, from rents, &c., of near 900*l.* The headmaster has a salary of 195*l.* a year, with a house, and a fee of 1*l.* 1*s.* from each boy on entrance, and the like sum annually; the under-master has 100*l.* a year and a house: both masters must be university graduates, and members of the church of England, attendance on the service of which is compulsory on the pupils. Subordinate masters are also engaged; some for teaching writing and arithmetic, which are paid for separately. The course of instruction is principally modelled on the Eton system, though some deviations from it have lately been introduced. In 1836, there were 43 boys on the foundation, and 95 private pupils of the masters. This school has 4 exhibitions at the universities of 60*l.* a year each, which may be granted for 4 years to pupils who have already been 4 years on the foundation; but these exhibitions have not always been filled up. Sherborne has an almshouse founded by Henry VI., which had, in 1835, 14 aged inmates, and an income of 666*l.* a year. There are numerous other charities, including Lord Digby's school

for girls, national and Lancasterian schools, &c.; and a par. authorities have the privilege of keeping three boys at Christ's Hospital, London, on the produce of lands left for the purpose in 1670. (*Charity Commissioners' Twelfth Report*, pp. 104-132.)

In the immediate neighbourhood is Sherborne Castle, the seat of Earl Digby, built by Sir W. Raleigh. The mansion is in the form of the letter H; the body, 4 stories in height, having hexangular towers at the 4 angles, which are united with as many wings. It has some antique tapestry, and fine paintings. The park comprises 240 acres, and some of the finest oaks in the co. A bridge of 3 arches over the Ivel leads to the house. Pope was a frequent visitor at Sherborne Castle; and on a monument in the church is inscribed his beautiful epitaph in memory of his young friends, the Hon. Robert Digby and his sister Mary.

Sherborne has some silk and woollen fabrics; but these, as well as other branches of industry formerly carried on in the town, have greatly decayed. It is within the jurisdiction of the county magistrates. Assizes were regularly held here till the reign of Edw. IV., but have since been only occasional. General quarter sessions are held here on the Tuesday after Easter. Though not a model par. bor. Sherborne sent members H. of C. in the reign of Edw. III. Markets, days, Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday; fairs, May 22, July 18, and 26. (usually), and Oct. 14, chiefly for cattle and pedlery.

SHETLAND ISLANDS. See **ORKNEY** AND **SHETLAND**.

SHIELDS (NORTH). See **TYNEMOUTH**.

SHIELDS (SOUTH), a par. bor., market-town, sea-port, and township of England, co. Durham, E. div. of Chester ward, par. Jarrow, on the S. bank of the Tyne, near its mouth, and directly opposite North Shields, about 8 m. below Newcastle, and 16 m. N.N.E. Durham. Area of par. bor., 1,760 acres. Pop., in 1841, 22,072. This, and its sister town on the opposite bank of the river, may be regarded, in some measure, as the out-ports of Newcastle, their pop. and importance having grown up with the increasing magnitude of the coal trade and commerce of the latter. Its lower part consists principally of a narrow, crooked, and inconvenient street, extending for nearly 2 m. along the river; but the streets in the upper part of the town are wide and better built, and lighted with gas. The principal edifices and institutions are the town-hall, also used as an exchange, a neat building in the centre of a spacious market-place; a theatre, a scientific and mechanics' institution, charity-school, dispensary, and the various places of worship. The church, dedicated to St. Hilda, is of considerable antiquity, but has been frequently repaired and modernised. The living is a curacy, in the gift of the dean and chapter of Durham, worth 530*l.* a year nett. There are chapels for various dissenting sects, to most of which are attached Sunday-schools, and various charities, and benevolent societies. In the town-hall petty sessions are held twice a month, besides courts leet and baron by the dean and chapter of Durham, as lords of the manor. Although the appearance of South Shields has little to recommend it, and its buildings are far from imposing, yet it is a place of much importance. The river Tyne is here about two-thirds the width of the Thames below London Bridge; and the vessels which belong to or rendezvous at N. and S. Shields are disposed in tiers on each side, as in the port of London. The town is rapidly increasing; a considerable quantity of ground is marked out for building in the E. and S. directions, and no doubt can be entertained that if land, upon a freehold tenure, could be procured, the rate of increase would be much more rapid, and the scale of buildings greater. The whole of the chapelry is the land of the dean and chapter of Durham. South Shields had formerly many salt-pans, and an extensive manufacture of salt; but this has been abandoned, and ship-building is now the staple business of the town, and is very extensively carried on. 12 ships, of the burden of 2,696 tons, having been built in 1840. It has, also, very extensive glass-works, a pottery, a coal mine (which may be said to be in the town), and manufactories of soda, alum, &c. (*Boundary Report.*) Still, however, the main dependence of the town is on the coal trade of the river. Indeed, most of the large colliers belonging to Newcastle load at South Shields, the coal being brought down the river in lighters, or *keels*; and it is said that as many as 500 vessels are frequently seen lying together in the haven. There belonged to the port on the 1st Jan. 1850, 417 vessels of the aggregate burden of 108,247 tons. The town communicates by the Brandling Junction Railway with the railway from Newcastle to Carlisle. The Reform Act conferred on South Shields the privilege of sending one mem. to the H. of C. The par. bor. comprises the townships of South Shields and Westoe. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 903.

Mr. Greathead, of this town, invented the life-boat, the first being built here by subscription in 1790. Markets

on Wednesdays;airs, last Wed. In April and first in May, last in Oct. and first in Nov.

SHIRAZ, the second city of Persia, prov. Fars, or Persia Proper, formerly the cap. of the empire, in a valley 116 m. N.E. Bushire, and 230 m. S.S.E. Isfahan; lat. 29° 38' N., long. 52° 44' E. Pop., variously estimated at between 30,000 and 40,000. Shiraz has always been celebrated for the beauty and fertility of its neighbourhood, which has been warmly eulogized by the poet Hafiz, a native of the city. It is surrounded by gardens, and had, till lately, an imposing aspect from a distance; but this is said to be no longer the case, its domes and minarets having been levelled with the ground by the earthquake of 1834. Morier makes Shiraz nearly 4 m. in circ., but says that 1-3d part of its buildings on the S.E. are in ruins. It is surrounded with pretty high walls, flanked with round bastions, and has 6 gates, each flanked with 3 towers. "On entering the city, the houses, which are in general small, together with the narrow filthy streets, give the stranger but a mean idea of the second city of the empire. The great bazaar, or market-place, built by Kerim Khan, forms, however, a distinguished exception to this general remark. It is about ½ m. in length, made of yellow burnt brick, and arched at the top, having numerous skylights, which, with its doors and windows, always admit sufficient light and air, whilst the sun and rain are completely excluded. The *ark*, or citadel, in which the beglar-beg of Fars resides, is a fortified square of 60 yards. The royal palace within is far from being an elegant structure; and some pillars, its greatest ornaments, were removed by Aga Mahomed Khan, to adorn his palace at Teheran." (*Kinney's Persian Empire*, 62, 63.)

Shiraz seems to be rapidly hastening to decay; and most of its public structures, once very numerous, are already in a ruined or neglected state. The principal mosque is a very large edifice, having been the palace of Atabeg Shah, its founder. When visited by Morier, it had 18 considerable mosques, besides many others of inferior note, 11 *medresas*, or colleges, 14 *banas*, 3 *caravanserais*, and 30 *hamams*, or baths, &c. The principal college has upwards of 100 rooms; but it, as well as most of the others, is now nearly abandoned to students. Within the walls of the city are numerous uselman tombs. The climate was formerly distinguished for salubrity, but it has been materially changed the worse in this respect since last earthquake. The at summer is excessive, rising sometimes to 110° Fahr. the shade. (*Morier*, li. 97—113.) The water of Shiraz, ing to the neglect of the city authorities, is also very l.

about ½ m. from the town is the tomb of Hafiz, the screen of Persia. It stands within a quadrangular ousure, and consists of a block of marble, on which of the poet's odes are sculptured, with the date of leath. His works are not, as has been stated, chained to tomb, but a copy of them is kept in an adjacent ber. Adjoining are the stream of Rocknabad, and ower of Mossella, so celebrated in the verses of the; the former consisting merely of a small brook of water, not more than 2 ft. wide; while of the bower shrub remains and its site is only marked by an an ancient tower. The celebrated garden of Nama, near the tomb of Hafiz, is a walled enclosure 200 yards square, laid out in walks bordered ypress trees, and watered by a variety of marble and artificial cascades. This, and many other is in the neighbourhood, are ordinary places of where the citizens chat, smoke, and drink coffee. mb of the poet Saadi is also in the vicinity of Shiraz, rious conventual buildings for dervishes, &c. is celebrated for its wine. The principal vinee situated at the foot of the mountains to the f the town, where the soil is rocky, and the ex extremely favourable. It would appear, however, culture of the vine has degenerated; and whaty have been the case formerly, little care is now the preparation of the wine. It is of very valities; but the best of the white varieties is inferior to good Madeira, and the best varieties f (ruby wine of Hafiz) are not unlike tent, and ave but slender claims to the praises that have shed upon them. (*Henderson on Wines*, 365.) lue of wine may amount, in all to from 30,000 galls, of which from 10,000 to 15,000 galls may ed to India, Bagdad, Bussorah, &c. The combe city is still rather extensive; it is principally ire, Yeazd, Isfahan, and the cities in the N.W.

From Bushire, the chief imports are spices, nd Indian goods of all kinds, iron, lead, quicks are, woollen cloths, muslin, linens, arms, n, cutlery, and other European manufactures. ds, with salt from the neighbouring lakes, are shahan, Teheran, Yeazd, &c., in exchange for the res of those cities and other products. The Bushire consist principally of wine, rose water, of roses; *assafoetida*, dried fruits, silk, goats'

hair, Caramanian wool, saffron, drugs, horses, orpiment, madder, and tobacco. The trade between Shiraz and Bushire employs above 2,000 mules. (*Rich's Journey to Persopolis*, p. 265.)

Shiraz has no vestiges of remote antiquity, and was probably not founded till after the propagation of Mohammedanism. It had become a populous town in the 10th century, and soon afterwards it was surrounded with walls. Its greatest benefactor, however, appears to have been Kerim Khan, who reigned in the latter half of the 18th century; since his death it has gradually declined. (*Kinney's Persian Empire*; *Waring, Alexander, Morier, Porter, Ouseley, &c.*, in *Mod. Trav.*, xli.; *Rich's Journey to Persopolis*, &c.)

SHOREHAM (NEW), a pari. bor., market-town, seaport, and par. of England, co. Sussex, rape Bramber, hund. Fishergate, at the mouth of the Adur, here crossed by a long wooden bridge, about 1 m. from the English Channel, and 6 m. W. Brighton, with which town it has been since 1840 connected by a railroad. Area of par., 170 acres. Pop., in 1841, 1,998. New Shoreham appears to have risen on the decay of Old Shoreham, now an insignificant village about 1 m. distant, but formerly a place of some importance. The town is built in a singular manner; and near its centre is the market-house, supported on Doric pillars. The parish church is the remaining portion of a large cross church, of which nearly all the nave has been destroyed; it has various portions of fine late Norman grani running into early English forms and details. (*Richson's Glossary of Architecture*, p. 243.) The interior is remarkable for elegance and richness. The living is a vicarage, worth 127l. a year, in the gift of Magdalen College, Oxford. Here are meeting-houses for Independents and Wesleyans; a national school, &c.

The town stands on the line of the Brighton and Chichester railway. The turnpike road is crossed by a suspension-bridge, built by the Duke of Norfolk, over the Adur. Shoreham has only a tide-harbour, but it is the best on this part of the coast; and having 18 ft. water at spring-tides, it is sometimes frequented by ships of considerable burden. Ship-building is the principal business, and vessels of 700 tons have been built here. It has, also, a considerable general trade, the gross customs' revenue collected here in 1849 having amounted to 19,447l. It is governed by two constables, chosen annually at the court-leet of the lord of the manor. It was a bor. by prescription, and sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. from 1298 down to 1771, when the electors, having been convicted of gross corruption, the rape of Bramber was incorporated with the bor. Pop. of pari. district in 1841, 27,998. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 866. Market on Saturdays.

SHREWSBURY, a pari. and mun. bor. and market-town of England, co. Salop, of which it is the cap.; nearly in the centre of the co., in a peninsula formed by the Severn, on two gentle declivities, 50 m. S. by E. Liverpool, 138 m. N.W. London. Pop., in 1841, 17,693. It is chiefly separated from the river by garden and meadow ground, skirted by a range of genteel houses, and its exterior appearance is from many points striking and majestic. The streets, as in most ancient towns, are irregular, but many of the houses have an antique appearance, presenting gables and overhanging stories to the road; but various improvements have been made of late years in the thoroughfares, especially in lighting, flagging, &c. The river is here crossed by two handsome stone bridges, built by subscription, called respectively the English and Welsh bridges: the former, completed in 1774, at a cost of 16,000l., is 410 ft. in length, and consists of seven semicircular arches; the other, or Welsh bridge, finished in 1795, at a cost of 5,000l., is 255 ft. in length, and has five arches. Adjoining the latter is a quay and wharves.

Among the chief public buildings are the royal free grammar school (see below); the town and co. hall, from a design by Sir R. Smirke, cost 12,000l.; it is a handsome building, and affords excellent accommodation for the assize business; the market-house, built in the reign of Elizabeth, and unequalled in point of ornamental decoration by any similar structure in the kingdom; a spacious and elegant music hall, with news room, &c.; the co. gaol and bridewell for the town, near the castle, built on Howard's plan in 1793, at an expense of 30,000l.; the Doric column, at the entrance to the town from London, in honour of Lord Hill, 116 ft. in height, surmounted by a colossal statue of his lordship, cost 5,973l., raised by a subscription; a neat infirmary, 170 ft. in length (established in 1745), and rebuilt in 1830 at a cost of 18,736l.; the house of industry, on the S. bank of the Severn, for the poor of the six parishes of Shrewsbury, finished for a foundling hospital in 1765, cost 12,000l.; the theatre, rebuilt in 1834, on the site of the royal residence of the princes of Powysland; a butter and cheese hall in Castleforegate, and a new savings' bank.

Shrewsbury has nine churches, most of which are embellished with rare and beautiful specimens of stained

glass. The new church of St. Chad is a handsome modern structure, formed by the intersection of two circles, with a tower and portico attached; the smaller of the circles being occupied by a grand staircase, and the larger one, 100 ft. in diameter, being the body, chancel, &c. of the building. St. Mary's, a cross church of Norman and early English architecture, has a spacious chancel and chantry chapels, and a fine tower surmounted by a spire, one of the loftiest in the kingdom. The abbey church, the W. portion of a Benedictine monastery, founded by Roger de Montgomery, first earl of Shrewsbury, in 1083, displays many curious features of Norman architecture, combined with the earlier pointed style: the great W. window of the tower is only equalled by that of York cathedral: the aisles contain several fine old monuments, and opposite the S. entrance is an elegant octagonal stone pulpit: the interior forms a beautiful oriel, the roof being vaulted on eight delicate ribs: it formerly stood in the refectory. St. Giles's is a small but handsome edifice, built in the early part of the 12th century. St. Alkmund's was rebuilt in 1795, in the modern Gothic style, with the exception of the tower and spire, 184 ft. in height, which are singularly elegant. St. Julian's is a plain oblong building of brick, rebuilt in 1749: the tower belonged to the old church. St. George's, St. Michael's, and Trinity churches, have been erected during the last 10 years. The first is of freestone, and cruciform, in the lancet, or early pointed style. The two latter are of brick, in the Doric style, affording ample accommodation in free-sittings. Some of the parishes extend into detached parts of the adjacent country, where there are four chapels of ease belonging to St. Mary's, and one to St. Chad's.

Besides the churches, there are places of worship for Roman Catholics, Wesleyan Methodists, Independents, Baptists, and Unitarians, with attached Sunday-schools; and a meeting-house for the Society of Friends. A large national school, founded in 1778, is attended by about 300 children of both sexes, and nearly an equal number of boys are instructed in a Lancastrian school. Allot's charity-school provides clothing, instruction, and an apprentice-fee, for 30 children of each sex. Bowdler's school, in the par. of St. Julian's, was established in 1794 for a similar purpose; and in the suburb of Frankwell, across the Welsh Bridge, is an hospital, founded in 1724, which, besides supporting 12 aged people of each sex, furnishes instruction to 35 boys and 35 girls of Frankwell. There are several almshouses belonging to different foundations, and attached to particular parishes.

The most distinguished public charity of Shrewsbury, however, is the free grammar-school, founded and endowed by Edward VI., but greatly enlarged by Queen Elizabeth. This school, prior to the close of the last century, had, owing to certain defects in the original rules and ordinances, fallen to decay; but in 1798 an act was passed "for the better government and regulation of the free grammar-school of Edward VI.," by which the management of the school was vested in the bishop of Lichfield and Coventry and 13 trustees or governors, one of whom is the mayor for the time being; and at the same time, the number of masters on the foundation was reduced from four to two, and their appointment was vested solely in St. John's College, Cambridge. The income arising from the endowment is about 3,600*l.* a year, besides which it confers several advantages on its *scholars* at both Universities, viz. four exhibitions of 70*l.*, and four of 15*l.* each, at St. John's College, Cambridge; four of 60*l.* each at Christ Church, Oxford; one of 100*l.*, and three of 25*l.* each, either at Oxford or Cambridge; three contingent exhibitions; and six scholarships, with one bye-fellowship at Magdalen College, Cambridge. Prizes are annually awarded to merit; and to the best scholar proceeding to college is given the Sidney gold medal, having on its obverse the bust of Sir Philip Sidney, who, with his friend Fulke Greville, afterwards Lord Brook, the poet, was educated in Shrewsbury School. During the present century the school has attained high celebrity, from the learning and talents of its master and (afterwards) visitor, Dr. Butler, late Bishop of Lichfield and Coventry. In consequence of the success of his pupils in competitions for prizes, exhibitions, and other honours, at the universities, the one of the greatest number sent here from all parts of the kingdom, and the establishment has, for many years past, comprised, independently of the free scholars (who must be sons of burgesses), many pupils paying handsome sums to the masters for board, lodging, and instruction: in fact, few public schools in England are superior to that of Shrewsbury. The school-house, erected in 1630, on the site of a more ancient wooden building, is a lofty structure of freestone, forming two sides of a court, the third side of which is formed by the library and chapel: a court is entered by a gateway, having columns on each side, with a Greek inscription over the arch. Two large houses belonging to the masters, contiguous to the schools, comprise every accommodation for boarders; and there are large play-grounds in front and at the back of the schools.

The town has 4 weekly newspapers; a literary and philosophical society; a mechanics' institute, and a public library with nearly 6,000 vols.; the assembly-rooms and theatre are all attended during winter; and races are annually held in the neighbourhood. On the S. side of the town is one of the most celebrated promenades in the kingdom, called the Quarry. It is formed in meadow ground gradually sloping to the river, along which extends a graceful avenue of lofty lime trees, 540 yards in length.

Shrewsbury was formerly of considerable importance as a mart for flannels from Welshpool, Newtown, &c.; but this branch of trade is nearly extinct. It has, however, a large factory for spinning flax, with some smaller factories, and a large iron foundry, the whole furnishing employment to several hundred persons. The prosperity of the town, however, does not depend solely on its trade, as it is a favourite place of resort for persons of small income, or who have retired from business. The Severn, which even here is celebrated for its salmon, is navigable as far as Shrewsbury by vessels of from 30 to 60 tons, and a canal to Womblesley opens a communication with the coal districts of Staffordshire. (*Mem. and Part. Bound. Rep.*) The banking establishments of Shrewsbury comprise various private banks and joint-stock banking companies, besides a savings bank. The vicinity being a good barley country, the malting business is carried on to a considerable extent.

Shrewsbury, which has received many royal charters, especially from Richard I. and Charles I., is divided into 5 wards, and is governed by a mayor and 5 other aldermen, with 30 councillors. Corp. revenue, in 1847-8, 2,634*l.* Quarter and petty sessions for the bor. are held here under a recorder, and there is a county court, before which 1,134 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. The Lent and summer assizes are held here, as well as the quarter-sessions for the co. Shrewsbury has sent 3 members to the H. of C. since the reign of Edward I., the rigour of election down to the Reform Act being in business paying scot and lot, and not receiving alms or charity. The electoral limits were enlarged by the Boundary Act, so as to include 1 entire par., and parts of 3 others, with the whole bor. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 1,413. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday: fairs on the second Tuesday and Wednesday in each month, for cattle, horses, cheese, and butter.

Shrewsbury is supposed to have been built after the Roman style. *Uricone* was had been destroyed in the 6th century. William the Conqueror gave the town and surrounding country to Roger de Montgomery, one of his followers, who built here a strong baronial castle, the keep of which still remains, being converted into a modern dwelling-house. In 1103 the castle and property were forfeited to the crown. Shrewsbury, from its situation close to Wales, was the scene of many border frays between the Welsh and English; and, in 1277, Edward I. had his quarters here. On the 31st of July, 1403, a desperate battle was fought near the town, between the royal army, commanded by Henry IV., and that of the rebel Earl of Northumberland, who was slain. The king's command, and Percy, named Hotspur: the death of the latter, by an enemy's hand, decided the victory in the king's favour: the loss on both sides was immense. During the wars of the Roses, Edw. IV., after the defeat and death of his father, Richard Duke of York, raised an army among the townspeople, with which he defeated the opposite faction at Mortimer's Cross. In the war between Charles I. and the parliament, the inhabs. warmly espoused the cause of the former; but in 1664 the town yielded to the parliamentary troops under Col. Milton, and the fortifications were destroyed. Dr. Taylor, the learned editor of "Demosthenes," and the author of "Elements of the Civil Law," was the son of a barber of this town, where he first saw the light in 1708. It was, also, the birth-place of Dr. Burney, the author of the "General History of Music." The surrounding country is picturesque and highly cultivated, the plain extending every way for about 13 m., beyond which are lofty ranges of hills. About 22 m. from the town is Boecobell House, where the Penderell family concealed Charles II. after his defeat at the battle of Worcester. (For further particulars the reader is referred to *Owen's Shrewsbury's History of Shrewsbury, Fitzgibbon's Memoirs of Shrewsbury, Corp. Reports, and Private Information.*)

SHROPSHIRE. See SALOP.

SHUMLA (the an. *Marciopolis*?), a city and strong military position of Turkey in Europe, being, in fact, one of the keys of Constantinople, on the N. declivity of the Balkhan (an. *Mons Haemus*), on the great road from Constantinople to Rutschuk, 63 m. S.E. the latter, and 280 N.N.W. the former. Pop., according to Boad, 30,000. In a military point of view, Shumla is to be regarded as a vast entrenched camp. It occupies the declivity of a gorge in the mountains, which incloses it on three sides like a horse-shoe; and on the fourth, which descends into the plain, it is protected by a small hill, on which is a strong redoubt. The space occupied

by the town is about 3 m. in length, by 3 m. in breadth. In the last century it had pretty strong walls; but these have been all but destroyed, and it is now merely surrounded by a ditch. It is, however, defended by some outworks and by a citadel, which has been greatly enlarged and strengthened since 1836. Its real defence consists, however, in the strength of its position: the plain to the N. of the town, on which the attacking army must camp, is exceedingly unhealthy; and the surrounding mountains being steep, separated by deep rocky ravines, and covered with thick brushwood, which affords excellent cover for troops, Major Keppel, and other military authorities, appear to think that, if well defended, it would be all but impregnable. The Russians attempted to take Shumla in 1774, 1810, and, lastly, in 1828; but they failed on every occasion. Its principal defect, in a military point of view, is the great number of troops required for its effectual defence; and the fact, as shown by the Russians in 1829, that it may be turned.

Shumla is intersected by a rivulet, and is divided into the upper and lower towns. The former is principally inhabited by Turks; it has fine new barracks, numerous mosques, covered with tin and copper, and which is unique in Turkey, a town clock which strikes the hours, with a bell, &c., introduced by a pacha, who had been in Russia. The lower town, in which the Jews and Christians reside, is unhealthy, from, as is said, the influence of the adjacent marshes, but more probably from the filth of all sorts thrown into the rivulet which flows through the town. The timber and brasses of Shumla are the best in Turkey, and supply Constantinople with their wares. It has also some manufactures of silk and leather; and ready-made clothes are manufactured in large quantities for sale to the merchants of the capital. It is the residence of a pacha and a Greek archbishop. (See Keppel's *Journey across the Balkans*, &c., i. 331. &c.; *Boul. Turque d'Europe*, ii. 336., &c.)

SHUSTER, a city of Persia, prov. Khuzistan, on the Karoon (anc. *Eulans* ?), 168 m. S.W. by W. Isfahan, and 50 m. E.S.E. Shus, with which city it has disputed, though, as generally supposed, unsuccessfully, the distinction of representing the *Susa*. Lat. 32° N., long. 48° 59' E. It was formerly the cap. of the prov., but having been depopulated by the plague in 1832, Deshpoul is now the cap. It may still, however, have 15,000 inhabs. (*Rawlinson*.) According to Col. Chesney "Shuster is about the size of Shiraz, and contains from 10,000 to 12,000 houses, all on the left bank of the Karoon. The town spreads E. from the river in a semicircular form, covering undulating ground, surrounded in its whole circuit by a wall of unburned bricks, and washed by an artificial canal on one side, and the Karoon on the opposite." The houses are principally of stone. The canals, dykes, &c. about the town are extensive, but ill kept. Water is conveyed to all parts of the city by petty aqueducts. The ruins of a castle exist on a height near the remains of an ancient bridge, carried away by a flood in 1832. There are no remains at Shuster that show it existed prior to the Sassanian dynasty (*Rawlinson*); but on the opposite bank of the Karoon there are numerous chambers excavated in the rock, and N. of the city walls are the traces of a much more ancient town, which appears to have extended on both banks of the river, being in this respect different from the anc. *Susa*. (*Chesney, Rawlinson*, &c. in *Geog. Journ.*, iii. and iv.) The inhabs. formerly manufactured large quantities of woollen stuff, which they exported to Bussorah, in return for Indian commodities brought from thence. (*Kieser's Pers. Empire*, p. 97.)

SIAM (called by the Birmese *Yoodra* or *Yuthia*), an extensive country of India-beyond-the-Brahmaputra, comprising, with its dependent states, most of the central and E. parts of that peninsula; extending between the 6th and 20th degs. of lat., and the 98th and 106th of E. long.; having N. the Laos country, E. the emp. of Anam, W. the Birmese emp., the British provs. of Tenasserim, and the Indian Ocean, and S. the Gulph of Siam, which it encloses on three sides. Its area has been very variously stated, but, according to Crawford, it amounts to 190,000 sq. m. Its pop. has been estimated, though on very vague and unsatisfactory data, by Crawford, at 2,790,000, and by Malcolm at 2,000,000; of whom, probably, 1,500,000 are native Siamese, 800,000 Shans, 200,000 Malays, Peguans, &c., and 450,000 Chinese settlers; but other authorities estimate the population at from 6,000,000 to 8,000,000.

Physical Geography.—The central part of this kingdom consists of the fertile valley of the Me-nam, one of the principal rivers of S.E. Asia; and the prov. of Chantibon, on the E. side of the Gulph of Siam, is also very fruitful; but, with these exceptions, most part of the country, in so far at least as it is known to Eu-

ropeans, is mountainous and rugged. The mountain chain which traverses the Malay peninsula separates Siam proper on the W. from the valley of the Than-lweng or Saluen river, sometimes rises to the elevation of 5,000 feet; and a similar chain (the height of which, however, has not been ascertained), shuts it off on the E. from its Cambodian province of Batabang. The only navigable rivers of any consequence are the Me-nam, the Me-kon or river of Cambodia, and the Than-lweng. The last two belong only partly to Siam, and are noticed in Vol. I. of this work (p. 102, and 278.). The Me-nam or Mei-nam (mother of waters) runs, on the contrary, through the heart of Siam, the principal towns of which are situated on its banks. According to native accounts, the Me-nam has its origin in the table-land of Yun-nan, whence it flows generally in a S. direction to the head of the Gulph of Siam, entering the latter near lat. 13°, and long. 101° E., after a course roughly estimated at 800 m. It is navigable for small boats as far as Changan, or Zimmyer, and large vessels ascend to Yuthia, the old cap. of Siam. In its progress it encircles several islands; and at Bangkok, about 15 m. direct from the sea, it divides into three separate channels. Only the most easterly of these, or Pak-nam river, is navigable for large ships, the others being obstructed by shallow bars at their mouths; and even the Pak-nam branch has a bar 10 or 12 m. broad, with but 14 fathom water at low tide; so that, even when lightened, vessels entering or leaving the river not unfrequently get aground, though the bottom being soft mud, they sustain no injury. (*Malcolm*, ii. 180.) The Me-nam, its numerous tributaries, and the other rivers of Siam, annually overflow the country in July and the succeeding months.

The Climate, except in the marshes left after the inundations, is usually salubrious, though the smallpox and cholera sometimes make great ravages. At Bangkok the mean tem. of the year is about 83° Fah.; the heat is, however, not of an oppressive character, and the annual range of the thermometer is stated to be only about 18 degs. What is called the cool season lasts from Nov. to Feb.; March, April, and May constitute the hot season; and the wet season continues during the rest of the year.

Natural Products, &c.—Iron is found in the mountain ridges on either side the valley of the Me-nam; there are also mines of tin, copper, and lead; and the precious metals are procured in small quantities. But the mineral products of the country are but little known or explored.

Siam is, perhaps, the cheapest country in the world for rice, which is commonly under 2s. and often costs only 1s. per cwt. This is ascribable principally, no doubt, to the natural richness of the soil, and the fact of its being annually overflooded by the Me-nam, or Nile of Siam. *l'insolation annuelle fait à Siam la surabondance de la récolte de riz, et rend ce royaume le nourricier de plusieurs autres.* (*La Louberc, Voyage à Siam*, i. 53.) No doubt, however, the extraordinary cheapness of rice is in part, also, owing to the lowness of the land tax, which, as estimated by Mr. Crawford, is for rice land only about 1s. 3d. per English acre, or from one sixth to one tenth part the produce, instead of from one fourth to a half, as in British India.

Here, as in most Eastern countries, government is supposed to be the principal proprietor of the soil, but the tenants who pay the land tax run but little chance of being ejected; it is said, however, that gardens, orchards, and houses, are viewed as the private property of the occupants. The Chinese are at once the principal cultivators and leaders in every branch of industry.

Besides rice, Siam yields nearly all the most valuable products of the East, and, under an intelligent government, might furnish vast quantities for exportation. Sugar, pepper, tobacco, the finest fruits, and the principal articles of culture; and the forests, which cover a large proportion of the surface, produce teak, sandal, spikenard, rose, eagle, and a variety of other variegated and perfumed woods, with numerous gums, &c. The teak is said by Hamilton to be of the same quality as that of Birmah; it is floated down 300 m. from the interior to the capital, and is there almost wholly employed in the construction of native junks, very little being exported. Iron, copper, tin, lead, and gold, are the principal mineral products; the gold is obtained by washings, the tin mostly from the tributary Malay territories. The wild animals are similar to those of Hindostan, and the adjacent Ultra-Gangetic countries: the elephant is most abundant, and is extensively employed. A very rare, or white variety of the elephant, is sometimes found here, and is held in the highest estimation. Indeed, one of the titles of the Siamese monarch is, "lord of white elephants," several of which are maintained as state appendages at the royal court. "He who discovers one of these animals, is regarded as the most fortunate of mortals. The event is of that importance that it may be said to constitute an era in the annals of the nation. The fortunate discoverer is rewarded with a crown of

* Major Rawlinson contends, that neither of these cities is the representative of *Sushan*, the anc. cap. of Persia, which, he says, is to be sought for in the ruined city of *Susa*, also on the Eulans, but the E.N.E. of Siam and Shuster. (See his remarks in the *Geog. Journ.*, ii. 52—53.)

silver, and with a grant of land equal in extent to the space of country over which the cry of the elephant may be heard. He and his family, to the third generation, are exempted from all sorts of servitude, and their land from taxation" (*Phrayayon*, 184). The rhinoceros is more plentiful in this than in most other countries; tigers, though inferior in strength to those of Bengal, are also common.

Races of Inhabitants.—The Siamese appear to be of the same stock with the Laos Shans, to whose country their traditions point as their original seat. They are characterised by a broad forehead, a hairy scalp descending so low as to cover, in some instances, the whole of the temples; the lower jaw is long, and remarkably full under the zygoma, so as to give a square appearance to the countenance. Eyes small and oblique; lips thick; mouth large; beard scanty; hair coarse, black, and uniformly black; but that of the chin is softer and of a lighter colour than is usual among the Ultra-Gangetic nations, heightened among the upper ranks by a bright yellow wash. Limbs thick, short, and stout; trunk square; they have a strong tendency to obesity; average height of men about 5 feet 8 inches; they possess, says Mr. Finlayson, from whose valuable work we have taken these particulars, the frame without the energy of London porters. (*Mission to Siam and Hue*, 280.) Travellers agree in representing the Siamese as crafty, mean, ignorant, conceited, servile, and rapacious. Indolence, as might be expected, is also one of their prominent traits. They have, however, some redeeming qualities: being exceedingly attached to their children, reverential to parents, temperate, and, except on great provocation, gentle in their manners. The upper classes, however, are offensively coarse, manifesting a total disregard for the feelings of others, and an unbounded arrogance. The Laos, or Shans, tributary to Siam, inhabit principally the N. part of the country, where they are divided into several tribes (see Laos). The Chinese settlers are mostly immigrants from the provs. of Canton and Fokien, and the island of Hainan. They resort to Siam unaccompanied by their families, intermarry with the Siamese, and adopt their form of religion, with most of their habits. (*Geog. Journ.*, iii. 292.) Each male above the age of 20 pays a capitation tax. The greater number of them are employed in trade, or, if within the tributary Malay states, in working gold and tin. At Bangkok there are a good many Cochinchinese and some settlers from Hindostan, most of whom are Mohomedans. The Portuguese Christians, or their descendants, at whom the Siamese are about 2,000, are engaged in commercial pursuits, as interpreters, &c., and are mostly in indigent circumstances.

Arts, &c.—The Siamese have made very small progress in the useful arts; nor, under existing circumstances, can it well be otherwise. All mechanics who evince any skill are immediately seized upon, and made retainers of the king or of some person in authority, who employs them for life in some useless service of vanity or ostentation. Hence the iron, as it were, a premium on barbarism, and labour is dear and difficult to procure. The ordinary mechanics are, in fact, usually natives of China or Cochinchina. In no one useful art have the Siamese ever attained distinction. They make no fabric that can bear to be compared with the cottons of Hindostan, the silks of Birmah, or the porcelain of China. Even in the fabrication of jewellery, a proficiency in which has been often remarked among ruder people, they exhibit little skill; and, in fact, their gold and silver trinkets, plates, and articles of zinc, tin, and brass, are all imported from China, or obtained from the Chinese settlers. It is through the ingenuity of the latter that the iron ore with which the country abounds has been of late years rendered available. At present a good deal of malleable iron is produced, and at Bangkok there are several extensive manufactures of cast-iron vessels; but these are wholly conducted by Chinese. The latter have also introduced the culture of sugar, now become a staple product, and have created a taste for commerce and the means of carrying it on. The cutlery and tools in use among the Siamese are of the rudest and simplest description; and, though the people fabricate arms, they have acquired no skill in the art, and fire-arms have always been supplied by Europeans. Even the coarse brown pottery in use is mostly made by Peguans. The art of dyeing is on the lowest scale, though the country abounds in the necessary materials; and printing silks and cottons is not practised by the Siamese in any shape or form. (*Crawford*, li. 20–24.) Some Europeans have proposed to introduce steam-engines, saw-mills, cannon-foundries, the culture of indigo and coffee, &c.; but they have been always treated with distrust and violence, and their offers have been uniformly rejected, with the exception of those of a Frenchman, who, in the end, however, had to leave the country in disgrace, after having commenced the construction of an engine for boring guns! (*Gutzlaff*, in *Geog. Journ.*)

Architecture is in the same low state as the other arts. The habitations in the alluvial grounds are all

raised on piles, as in the rest of India beyond the Brahmaputra, though on the higher lands piles are dispensed with. But the houses are nearly all of the same fragile materials, among which the bamboo and Nipa palm-leaf are the principal; and it is only in the capital or in the other towns that any are to be seen constructed of brick and mortar, and roofed with tiles. The temples, though surrounded with brick enclosures, consist chiefly of timber-work; and, though laboriously carved, gilt, and otherwise adorned, exhibit no taste. Edifices for public convenience and utility seem to have no existence; and neither piety, superstition, charity, nor interest, seems to have led the rulers of this country to construct bridges, wells, tanks, or caravanserais. The bridges, even at the capital, consist only of planks, and no where do we observe any attempt to construct an arch. The absence of public roads is not less remarkable. There are but two of any consequence in the kingdom; one from Bangkok to Yuthia, and another from Chantabon to Tung-gai. In the N. and on the Malay isthmus, elephants are used to convey merchandise across the narrow mountain pathways; but these animals are prohibited, except to a few favoured individuals, in most of the towns, and even in Bangkok wheel-carriages are unknown. But internal navigation is so extensive, cheap, and commodious, that in all the central part of the country it supersedes the necessity of constructing an arch.

The foreign trade of Siam is conducted chiefly with China, Anam, Java, Singapore, and the other British ports within the Straits of Malacca, with an occasional intercourse with Bombay and Surat, England and America. The most important branch by far of the foreign trade is with China. This is estimated to employ at least 200 junks annually, many of which are of 500 or 600, and some not less than 1,000 tons. They are all of Chinese built, though mostly constructed in Siam; some are owned by Siamese merchants, but many more by Chinese residing in Bangkok, and the crews are never Siamese. These vessels make but one voyage a year; going in one monsoon, and returning in the other. Most of them arrive at Bangkok in Dec. and Jan., but they continue to come from the more distant provs. till April, and sail from the Me-nam in June and July. Numerous small vessels keep up a constant intercourse with the coasts of the Gulph of Siam, and the neighbouring islands; and two or three Siamese ships, built on the European model, trade to Singapore. An artificial canal, kept in good order, connects the Me-nam with the Cambaja river, but the trade by it, as well as by Cochinchinese sea-going vessels, has been depressed of late years, owing to hostilities between Siam and Anam. Bangkok is the great emporium of trade; and, according to Malcolm, it has the largest commerce, next to Canton, of any city not peopled by Europeans, or their descendants. The imports into Siam from China consist of earthenware and porcelain, spelter, quick-silver, tea, laksoy, dried fruits, raw silk, crapes, satins, and other silk fabrics, with nankeens, shoes, fans, umbrellas, writing paper, incense, and the Siamese are granted the Malay Archipelago, and the countries to the westward, the chief imports are British and Indian piece goods, arms and ammunition from Europe, woollen cloths, a little glass-ware, and commodities suited for the Chinese market, as pepper, tin, dragon's blood, rattans, *biche-de-mer*, esculent swallow's nests, and Malay camphor. Besides these articles, the principal exports to China and elsewhere are sugar, cardamoms, eagle, aspen and rose woods, mangrove bark, cotton, ivory, stick lac, rice, areca nuts, salt fish, the hides and skins of oxen, buffaloes, elephants, rhinoceroses, deer, tigers, leopards, otters, &c., buffalo, ox, deer, and rhinoceros horns; bones, shewas, feathers, &c. Malcolm, who visited the country in 1837, speaks of the practice of opium-smoking as very common, and on the increase in Siam. But, in 1839, the importation of opium was prohibited by the government, conformably, as is said, to the wish of the Chinese government. Since that period but little trade in that article has been carried on with Siam. The trade in several of the most valuable products is a royal monopoly; but the trade in sugar and pepper, the two great staples of the country, is free; the exports of sugar being estimated at 10,000 tons, and those of pepper at 3,500 tons. In 1838, 16,169 cwt. of the former, and 23,759 lbs. of the latter, were imported from Siam into the United Kingdom.

Gold and copper are not used as money in Siam: the only coin is of silver, being merely a small bar turned in at the ends, and stamped on one side. Cowries are the ordinary medium of traffic, and 12,800 go to the tical, which is estimated to be worth 2s. 6d. The ordinary weights are the picul and catt; the former is the same as the Chinese, and divided into 60 catties of 2½ lbs. each. The Siamese fathom is about 6 ft. 6 in.: of the sen, a land measure of 30 fathoms square.

The Government is an absolute monarchy, the sovereign being every thing, and the people nothing. The manners of the court, and the etiquette observed, seem to be nearly the same in the present day as they are de-

scribed by the earliest European travellers; and are of a more servile description than those, perhaps, of any other court in the East. The king, one of whose titles is "the God Boodh," is supposed by his subjects to be a deity, and is revered as such; an immeasurable distance being supposed to exist between him and the highest of the nobility. "The people," says Mr. Finlayson, "are governed by opinion, absurd and unjust, not by reason, by sense, or by kindness. The most degrading and brutal tyranny is mistaken for well-meaning patriarchal kindness; and the oppression of the multitude, and the grinding of the many, is regarded as the will of the Deity. No man either wishes for, or aspires to, freedom of thought or action; and tyranny has cast its roots so deep, that change would seem hopeless." (*Finlayson*, 188.) Next to the sovereign, the nobility absorb most of the legislative and executive power; there being, except in some cases of appeal, no establishments exclusively for judicial purposes. The Siamese have, indeed, written laws; but it frequently happens that the king, on his accession, publishes a new edition, with his own interpolations, though neither the original code nor the changes introduced appear to be much regarded by the administrators of the laws. The same chiefs who are charged with the military, civil, and revenue administration, are the only judges and magistrates. According to the laws of inheritance, a man must leave his property to his family in preference to strangers; but no claim of primogeniture is recognised, the children usually sharing equally. The nature of the marriage contract is much the same as in other eastern countries, polygamy being permitted, and divorces obtained without difficulty. A breach of the marriage vow is not visited with so severe a penalty as in Anam, but is usually expiable by a pecuniary fine. The penal code of Siam bears a strong analogy to that of China, especially in the liberal and indiscriminate use of the bamboo for the punishment of all minor offences. For crimes of magnitude, the punishments, as in Birmah, are of the most savage description; torture may also be applied to extort evidence. They have, also, the same sort of ordeals for determining the guilt or innocence of accused parties that were common in Europe during the middle ages. And La Loubère and Crawford mention that, in the event of goods being stolen, should suspicion fall on different parties, it is customary to administer emetics to them all; in which case, the person with the weakest stomach, or who vomits first, is held to be the culprit 1 (*La Loubère*, l. 334; *Crawford*, &c., *passim*).

Armed Force.—Every male inhabitant, from the age of 21 upwards, is obliged to serve the state for four months a year. The following individuals are, however, excepted: members of the priesthood, the Chinese settlers, who pay a commutation tax, slaves, public functionaries, the fathers of three sons liable to service, and those who purchase exemption by a fine of from six to eight ticals a month, or by furnishing a slave or some other person not subject to the conscription, as a substitute. There is no standing army. The king has for a good many years made large annual purchases of muskets; and Mr. Malcolm estimates that he now possesses upwards of 80,000 stand of arms, besides a considerable stock of cannon. The principal force of the Siamese consists in their elephants; but when contrasted with Europeans, their army may be said to be contemptible. At Bangkok, there is a numerous navy of war-junks, galleys, &c., built on the Chinese model, and mounting heavy guns, manned by Chinese and other foreigners.

The Public Revenue is estimated by Crawford at about 3,145,000*l.* sterling a year; of which sum, the poll-tax and fines for non-service in the army may, perhaps, produce 2,500,000*l.*; the land-tax, 387,000*l.*; tax on fruit trees, &c., 65,000*l.*; on pepper, 80,000*l.*; on spirits and gambling, about 87,000*l.*; each of the customs, 35,000*l.* &c. But exclusive of the tax paid in money or produce, the people are subjected to *corvées*, and other oppressive burdens. The collectors receive no salary, being remunerated by a tithe of the revenue realised; an arrangement which generates a variety of abuses. The receipts and expenditure are said nearly to balance each other; and there is seldom any large sum in the public treasury.

Religion.—The worship of Boodh is nearly universal in the countries lying E. of Hindostan; but the Buddhism of S. is very different from that of N. Asia. Gaudama is worshipped in Siam under the name of Sommona Codom. Every male Siamese must enter the priesthood once in his life, though he may quit it again at pleasure. The *talapoins*, or priests, live together in monasteries, sometimes containing several hundred individuals, endowed by the government or by wealthy persons. The Papal church has maintained missions in Siam for nearly 200 years; but, according to Malcolm, there are only about 2,300 R. Catholics in the country, including 800 Anamese, and several descendants of Portuguese. Neither do the American Baptist and other mis-

sions appear to have made many proselytes. (*Malcolm's S. E. Asia*, ii. 155—164.)

Manncra, Language, &c.—In the articles ANAM and BIRMAN in this Dict., various details have been given respecting the manners and customs of Ultra-Gangetic nations, most of which apply to the inhabs. of Siam; though the latter are decidedly lower in civilisation than either the Anamese or Birmans. They are less gross, however, in their eating than the former; and women are not so much degraded among them as among the latter. They are also more generally acquainted with reading and writing than the Birmese. Both sexes dress nearly alike, and wear fewer clothes than almost any other semi-civilised people of the East; a cotton garment reaching downwards from the loins, with sometimes a scarf across the upper part of the body, usually completes the Siamese costume. Jewellery and trinkets are little used, but the teeth are always stained black. They are nearly as much addicted to gambling and cock-fighting as their Malay neighbours; they are also very fond of theatrical entertainments and music, in which last they display considerable skill. Their language is radically monosyllabic, and cognate with those of the Laos, Shans and Anamese; but many words have been introduced into it from the Cambolan, a polysyllabic language, and the *Pali* or sacred tongue; which last the common dialect imitates in the form of its written characters. As in other Asiatic countries, slavery is common, and some chiefs have hundreds or even thousands of slaves. Some of the conquered districts have been almost depopulated, to bring their inhabs. to Siam; and at all times an active slave-trade is carried on along the Birman frontier. Persons are sold into slavery for debt; and men may sell their wives and children at pleasure. A common custom is for the master not to support his slave, but to allow the latter to work for himself for 2 or 3 months, to supply necessaries for the rest of the year. Children inherit their parents' bondage.

History.—The Siamese are said to possess records which go back for 1,000 years; but little in their accounts possesses any interest till 1511, when the first intercourse of Europeans with Siam took place. The Portuguese and Dutch had traded with the Siamese for the best part of a century, when the first British ship went up the Me-nam in 1612. In 1683, Constantine Phalcon, a Cephalonian Greek, had found means to get himself raised to the dignity of foreign minister of Siam, and soon afterwards opened a communication with France. Louis XIV. sent an envoy (the celebrated M. de la Loubère, to whom we are indebted for an excellent description of the country) to Siam in 1685. The French were, however, expelled the country in 1690; since which time numerous wars, either aggressive or defensive, with the surrounding states, have been the most conspicuous events of Siamese history. (*La Loubère, Voyage de Siam*, 2 tomes, Paris, 1691; *Crawford's Embassy to Siam and Cochin China*, one of the best modern works on the Ultra-Gangetic nations; *Malcolm's S. E. Asia*, ii. 130—164; *Finlayson's Miss. to Siam*, &c.; *Chin. Rep.*, &c.)

SIBERIA, a vast territory of N. Asia, belonging to Russia, which see; and see, also, the article ASIA, l. 167.

SIBIRIA, or SIBIR, a state of N. Siberia, tributary to the British—between the 58th and 59th deg. N. lat., and about the 88th E. long., having N. Thibet, E. Bootan, W. Nepal, and S. the Bengal territory. Area, about 4,400 sq. m. Pop. estimated at about 166,000. From its situation on the S. slope of the Himalaya, its geography, products, &c., are nearly similar to those of Bootan and Nepal, to which articles we beg to refer for its general description. It was placed under British protection in 1816. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*, &c.)

SICILY (an. *Sicilia*), the largest, finest, most important, most fruitful, and most celebrated island of the Mediterranean, constituting that portion of the kingdom of Naples entitled the *Dominii di di di Faro*, lies between lat. 36° 29', and 38° 18' N., and long. 13° 30', and 15° 40' E. It is separated from the S. extremity of Italy by the narrow Strait of Messina, only two miles across, and from Cape Bon in Africa by a channel 85 m. in width. It is of a triangular shape, and was hence, in antiquity, sometimes called *Triqueira*, but more commonly *Trinaeria*, from its terminating in the three promontories of Boeo (an. *Lilybaeum*), Passaro (an. *Pachynum*), and Faro (an. *Pelorum*). It seems to have derived its usual name of *Sicilia* from the Sicani or Siculi, its earliest inhabs. Length, E. and W., about 215 m.; greatest breadth 150 m. Area, pop., subdivisions, &c., as follow:—

Insubdensities (Valid).	Area in sq. m.	Pop. in 1845.	Pop. to sq. m.
Palerino -	1,787	465,169	869.5
Messina -	1,473	249,183	847.1
Catania -	1,785	382,528	214.0
Noto -	1,580	320,862	190.0
Catanzaro -	1,728	470,893	187.7
Girgenti -	1,621	323,764	144.2
Trapani -	1,047	182,809	174.6
Totals -	10,508	2,040,610	191.2

* An able sketch of Buddhism may be found in *Crawford's Embassy, &c. to Siam*, ii. ch. 2; and there is a comprehensive account of its principal tenets, by a Buddhist priest, in the *Ceylon Almanac* for 1844.

The Neptunian or Madonian chain of mountains, stretches from the Straits of Messina, at the N.E. extremity of the island, along its N. coast to Cape Boeo at its W. extremity. Some of its summits are of considerable altitude. It gives off several spurs to the S., which, with their ramifications, cover a considerable portion of the surface. But, exclusive of these, there are some mountains which are quite detached from and unconnected with any system. The principal of these is Etna, the most celebrated of European mountains, near the E. coast of the island, and by far the loftiest in Sicily, being not less than 10,873 ft. above the sea. (See Etna.) There are some extensive plains: the principal is that of Catania, at the foot of Etna; the next in point of size being those of Milazzo, Terranova, Syracuse, and that extending along the S.W. shore for about 100 m. E. of Trapani. The rivers, though generally insignificant in point of size, are mostly celebrated in classic history or poetry. The principal is the Salso (an. *Himera*), which, as well as the Platani, Belici, &c., discharges itself on the S.W. coast. The Giarretta (an. *Simicus*) waters the plain of Catania. A great number of small brooks and torrents disembody on the N. coast; but none of the rivers is navigable, or otherwise available for the purposes of trade. The only lake worth notice is that of Iiveri, or Lentini, in the plain of Catania.

Except in some low and marby tracts, the air of Sicily is generally salubrious, and the climate, though rather hot, is, for the most part, delightful. Cold weather is sometimes experienced, but the severity of the winter is never such as to affect the verdure of the country. Ice and snow are never seen except on Etna, and the highest summits of the Madonian chain; but the summer heats, especially during the prevalence of the scirocco, or S.E. wind, are often very oppressive. The range of the thermometer throughout the year at the level of the sea is from about 38° to 110° Fah.; its mean height being estimated by Smyth at 67.5°, and that of the barometer at 29.80. "Whilst the sun is in the northern signs, the sky, although it seldom assumes the deep blue tint of the tropics, is, nevertheless, beautifully clear and serene; but after the autumnal equinox the winds become boisterous, and the atmosphere heavy and dense; the dews and fogs increase, particularly on the coasts, and the rain falls in frequent and heavy showers." (Smyth, p. 4.) Sicily has, on various occasions, been subject to destructive earthquakes, which usually take place towards the end of winter.

The primary rocks in the mountains are principally granite, quartz, and mica. These are overlaid in many parts by limestone rocks, and most of the lower hill ranges are calcareous, abounding with metallic ores. The soil, though very various, is almost every where endowed with the greatest fertility, and has been famous alike in ancient and modern times for its extraordinary productiveness. Sicily was, in fact, the principal granary (*horreum*) of Rome. It is said by Livy to have been (*Populorum Romanæ pace ac bello, fiduciam omnium subsidium*). (Lib. xxvii. cap. 5.) And the third oration of Cicero against Verres, or that entitled *De Fruentis*, affords in every part the most conclusive proofs of the fertility of this fine island, and of the great importance of the supplies of corn which it furnished to Rome. In some of the valleys the soil consists of a rich loam, from 20 to 30 feet in depth! The decomposed volcanic products scattered over the surface of large portions of the country are also extremely fruitful, being suitable alike for the production of corn, wine and oil. Even at present, despite the wretched system of agriculture, Smyth says that the usual produce is from 10 to 16 times, and in favourable seasons, and on the best lands, 26 times the seed! Immense beds of sulphur are found in the central and S. parts of the island.

The vegetable products of Sicily embrace numerous tropical as well as European plants. The surface has been divided, according to its elevation, into the following five regions, each distinguished by its vegetation.

Regions.	Height.		Products.
	ft.	ft.	
1. Sub-tropical	-	to 600	Papyrus, sugar-cane, date and olive, palm, olives, agrum, &c.
2. Evergreen	-	600 - 2,000	Similar to those of Apennines, at same elevation.
3. Oak and chestnut	2,000 -	4,000	(Mountains not so thickly wooded as in Italy.)
4. Beech wood	4,000 -	6,000	Mistle, wheat, &c., to 4,000 ft.
5. Upper rug.	6,000 & above		Birch, juniper, &c. (See Etna.)

Sicily was believed, in antiquity, to have been the native country of corn. (*Diocl. Siculus*, lib. v.) Homer says of its early inhabitants:—

"Outtaught to plant, to turn the globe, and sow,
They all their products to free nature owe.
The soil until'd a ready harvest yields,
With wheat and barley wave the golden fields;
Spontaneous vines from weighty clusters pour;
And Jove descends in each prolific shower."

Pope's Odyssey, lib. xi. lla. 171.

Agriculture, also, is said to have originated in the island under the auspices of Ceres. But (*quantum mutatus!*) there are now few, if any, countries in Europe in which that art is so degraded a state. There seems every reason to think, from the number and magnitude of its cities, and other circumstances, that its population in antiquity must have been much larger than in modern times. Indeed, the fair presumption seems to be that it must then have amounted to at least from 24 to 4 millions. And yet, notwithstanding this greater density of pop., it was, as already seen, able to export vast quantities of corn to Italy. It does not, however, appear very difficult to account for this melancholy change. After the overthrow of the Roman power, Sicily was occupied successively by the Greeks, Saracens, Normans, and French, till at length it became a dependency first of the crown of Spain, and more recently of that of Naples. It is to this dependence, and to the introduction of the feudal system by the Normans, that its backward state is principally to be ascribed. The multiplied abuses which grew up in Spain under the reign of Ferdinand and his successors of the Austrian line, flourished with equal luxuriance in Sicily, and have proved no less destructive of the industry and civilisation of its inhab. than of those of Spain. The Neapolitan regime has been equally pernicious; and misgovernment, the abuses of the feudal system, insecurity, and unequal and arbitrary taxes, have here, as every where else, paralyzed industry and impoverished the people.

But the grand curse of Sicilian, as of Sardinian industry, will probably be found in the oppressive restrictions that have been laid on the exportation of corn. Down to a late period no corn could be exported without leave being obtained from the *Real Patrimonio*, a body that pretended to take an account of the crops, and which determined whether there were to be any exportation; and in the event of its being allowed, it issued, or rather sold, licences to a few favoured individuals, authorising them to export certain specified quantities! Even had Sicily been ten times more productive than she really is, it is quite impossible that agriculture could have flourished under such discouragements. Luckily, however, these oppressive restraints have recently been abolished, and there are no longer any obstacles to the free exportation of corn. Oppressive taxes, the want of leases of a reasonable length, and of practicable roads, are at present, perhaps, the greatest obstacles to agriculture.

The property of the island was valued in 1811, when the English garrison and fleet occasioned a great demand, and high prices for produce of all kinds, and this valuation has been continued to this day, as the basis on which the land and house tax (*fondaria*) is levied. A rate of 71 per cent. on this valuation was first charged, which was subsequently raised to 124 per cent., at which it is now fixed. Owing, however, as is stated, to the fall in the price of agricultural produce since 1811, this tax is alleged by Mr. Macgregor to be more than equivalent to a duty of 25 per cent. on the produce of the soil taken at its present (1840) value, and to be a very great obstacle to improvement. We believe, however, that its influence in this respect, though considerable, has been much overrated; and that the backward state of Sicily is principally owing to other and different causes.

Though there be in Sicily a very considerable number of small proprietors, by far the greater part of the land belongs to the crown, the church, and the nobility, some of whom have very extensive and valuable estates. Down to a recent period these were held under a system of strict entail, and their occupants, as well as those on the estates of the crown and church, usually held under triennial leases, and were in a state of feudal bondage, and subject to numerous exactions on the part of their lords. Under such circumstances, even though there had been neither restrictions on exportation nor a land-tax, the depressed condition of the peasantry and the low state of agriculture, need not be wondered at.

But we are glad to have to state that the dawn of a better day seems to have arisen, and that several important changes have lately been introduced. We have already noticed the removal of the restrictions on exportation; and in 1812 and 1838 laws were passed for the abolition of the feudal system, and the complete emancipation of the peasantry. And, notwithstanding the poverty and ignorance of the latter will hinder them from immediately profiting, to the extent that might be anticipated, from the passing of this law, it cannot fail, in the end, to be productive of the best effects. It was also enacted in 1819, that in future, on the death of any individual possessed of an estate in land, and having more than one son, the half only of the

estate shall descend to the eldest son, and that the other half shall be divided in equal shares among the other children. This law, which appears to have been framed on the model of that which regulates the succession to property in France, will probably have nearly similar effects. In both countries the abuses of entails might have been obviated without running into the opposite extreme, and establishing a system that can hardly fail, in the end, to occasion the too great division of landed property.

The arable lands in Sicily have been roughly estimated to comprise about 3,700,000 do.; vineyards, 115,000 do.; vegetable and fruit gardens, 260,000 do.; woods and olive plantations, 1,126,000 do.; the remainder of the surface being mostly waste. Ploughs and most other agricultural implements appear to have undergone no improvement for centuries; and "a bunch of brambles, drawn by an ox, supplies the place of a harrow." (*Swyth*.) The magnificent crops which are occasionally met with are wholly ascribable to the extraordinary fertility of the soil, and not to the labour or skill of the cultivators. In fact, such is the carelessness of the husbandmen, or such the difficulties resulting from the oppressions under which they have laboured, that, according to Mr. Macgregor, nearly a third part of the pop. have to depend for support on the fruit of the cactus (Indian fig, or *Agave*), found in the greatest profusion in most parts of the country. (*Report*, 46.)

We suspect, however, that there is a great deal of exaggeration in this statement; and, at all events, it is sufficiently certain that, independently of the changes already alluded to, there has of late years been a decided increase of the means of subsistence. The growth of pop., which increased from 1,620,867, in 1796, to 1,944,266, in 1831, being an augmentation of 263,699, is an evidence of this, and has, no doubt, been at once a cause and a consequence of the improvements which, though slowly, and almost imperceptibly, have begun to make their way in the island. At present (1843) the pop. is probably not under 3,100,000.

Exclusive of wheat and barley, hemp, flax, and cotton are raised with but little labour. The culture of the last is said to be extending of late years, especially in the neighbourhood of Mazara. It is mostly short-stapled, and but little is exported, and that only to Naples and Trieste. It is probable, however, that by attention to its culture, and the introduction of improved varieties, its quality might be improved, and it might become an article of some importance. The sugar-cane was formerly a staple product of the S. shore of Sicily. But, owing to the introduction of cheaper sugar from the W. Indies and Brazil, the culture of the cane is now restricted to some small plantations near Avola, and will probably, at no distant period, be wholly abandoned.

The district round Marsala is the principal seat of the wine culture; and, thanks to the exertions of some English capitalists established in that city, the production of wine is become an important article of industry, and it forms a principal article of export. (*See* MARSALA.) Vines are generally treated as in France; being cut low, and not festooned along other trees, as in S. Italy. But, except in the English establishments, little care is in general bestowed on the vintage; the wine-press is a very rude machine, and in some districts it is altogether wanting; the process of crushing the grapes being performed in large vats, by the treading of bare-footed peasants. Along the N. coast, the mountain slopes and valleys are almost wholly covered with olive groves; though elsewhere they are rare, and do not furnish sufficient oil for the inhabs. But for the imperfections in the mode of its preparation, the oil of Sicily would be excellent. The olives, however, are permitted to hang on the tree till they come off with shaking, or beating with light canes; and they are then kept in vats till they get quite black, so that the oil becomes pungent and rancid, and, though fit for the lamp, is totally unfit for the table. It is only near the capital, and in a few other places, that a more improved process is followed. Lemons and oranges, which grow luxuriantly, are of excellent quality, well adapted for long voyages, and, when intended for exportation, are collected with more care than any other agricultural produce. They are largely exported, and are, altogether, highly important. Almonds, pistachios, dates, madder, the barilla plant, hazel-nuts, the *Ricinus palma*, or castor-oil plant, saffron, tobacco, &c., might all be raised in any quantity; but their culture is, for the most part, neglected, or ill-conducted. The mulberry is grown in the vicinity of Messina, and in the N.E. part of the island; but the produce of silk does not exceed 400,000 lbs. a year. The manna ash is grown near the capital, and manna not being monopolised by the government in Sicily, as in Naples, it might be a profitable article of trade if there were any public enterprise. *Liquorice* is found growing wild in several parts of the island, and considerable quantities of juice are exported. The culture of shumac is more attended to, and it forms a principal article of export.

Potatoes, which have been introduced during the present century, are become a principal article in the diet of the peasantry. The farm-labourers, who are very badly lodged, receive, according to M. Simond, from 3 to 4 *carlini*, or from 1s. to 1s. 4d. a day. Besides potatoes, their food consists mostly of maize, polenta, onions, garlic, salt fish, cheese from sheep's milk, oil, and beans; which last are a staple in the food of both men and cattle. The peasantry sometimes eat salted pork, but rarely any other kind of flesh. (*Simond, Gall, Blaquiere, &c., passim*.)

The want of improved means of communication is one of the greatest drawbacks on agriculture, except in the vicinity of Palermo and other great towns, they are all but unknown; and the only mode of travelling is by means of the *lettiga*, a kind of fly without wheels, holding two persons, and carried like a sedan chair by two mules, one before and the other behind. Happily, however, government appears to have at length become alive to the evils arising from the want of roads, and 1½ per cent. of the land tax is henceforth to be applied to their construction; and permission has also been given to raise a loan of 1,000,000 dollars at 5½ per cent., for the same purpose. (*Rammer's Italy*, ii.)

Formerly there were only certain ports from which corn could be exported; a limitation which gave rise to the establishment at these ports of public magazines, or *caricatori*, where the corn may be deposited till an opportunity occurs of shipping it off. Provided it be of good quality, and be brought in immediately after harvest, or, at farthest, in August, it is warehoused free of expense; what it gains in bulk after that period (about 5 per cent.) being sufficient to defray all expenses. The receipt of the *caricator*, or keeper of the magazine, is negotiable like a bill of exchange, and is the object of speculative purchases on the exchange at Palermo, Messina, &c., according to the expected rise or fall in the price of corn. The depositor of a quantity sells it in such portions as he pleases, the whole being faithfully accounted for. The public magazines, in some parts of the island, are either excavations into calcareous rocks, or holes in the ground shaped like a bottle, walled up, and made water-proof, containing each about 300 salme of corn, or about 2,250 Engl. bushels. The neck of the bottle is hermetically closed with a stone fastened with gypsum. Corn may be thus preserved for an indefinite length of time; at least it has been found in perfectly good order after the lapse of a century. (*Simond, p. 540.; Burnburne, ii. 406.*)

The rearing of live stock occupies even less attention than tillage. In general, the horses, mules, and asses of Sicily are small and ill made; the mules of Modica and the asses of the Pantellarian breed being exceptions. The Tunis, or reddish-brown, and long-horned breed of cattle, are large, strong, and well formed, and there is a good breed of goats. But the sheep, excepting a few Marino flocks, are very inferior, and their wool is used only in the coarse manufacture of the country. Hogs are of the worst possible breed. Forests, owing to waste and mismanagement, have almost disappeared, except on the flanks of Etna and on some of the N. mountains. Staves for wine casks, and ship timber, are mostly imported from other countries, and even fire-wood is scarce.

The fisheries are chiefly conducted by corporations of fishermen, or monied individuals. That at Palermo employs, during the season, from 900 to 1,000 boats, and 3,500 fishermen; and the produce is valued at from 20,000 to 25,000 *l.* a year. The fishermen of Palermo belong to 3 corporations, each of which has a physician, surgeon, chaplain, and other officers, who are paid from a fund raised by a subscription from each member, of about 3 per cent. on his share of the produce. This fund is also applied to the relief of members, and other general purposes. Tunnies, the fish principally caught on the Sicilian coasts, are taken as in other parts of the kingdom of Naples (which see). This valuable fish, which was in great request in antiquity, as well as in modern times, is of large dimensions, being generally from 4 to 8 ft. in length, with a nearly equal girth. Its flesh is highly nutritious. The shoals of tunny enter the Mediterranean early in the year. The tannery, or fishing establishments, on the Sicilian coasts, are more extensive and valuable than those in any other part of the Mediterranean. The nets belonging to the one in the Bay of Palermo are so very strong as to be able to arrest the progress of a ship when under sail. The fishery of the sword-fish is confined chiefly to the Straits of Messina, and the anchovy and pilchard fisheries to Siculanja. Lentini has some trade in *botarga*, made of the roe of the mullet. The coral fishery, near Bona, in Africa, is principally frequented by fishermen from Trapani, at which city the coral is polished, and brought for exportation to Catania, Naples, Leghorn, &c.

The minerals of Sicily are important and valuable. Sulphur ranks first; it is found in great quantities imbedded in blue marl, or in gypsum and limestone, over

most of the central and S. parts of the island. The sulphur mines have been wrought for upwards of 300 years; but it is only since 1820 that any extraordinary quantity has been prepared for exportation. Subsequently to 1833, the trade with this country increased so much that the export of sulphur to the United Kingdom rose from 19,132 tons in the above year, to 38,654 tons in 1835. In this year, however, the Neapolitan government granted to a French company the monopoly of the trade in sulphur, the production of which was to be limited to 600,000 quintals, to be supplied to the company by the proprietors of the mines at certain fixed prices, on condition of the latter paying to the government a bonus of 400,000 Neapolitan ducats a year! It is needless to dwell on the impolicy and absurdity of such a project. Instead of attempting to limit the export of sulphur, government should have given it every possible facility; and taking the export, under a free system, at only 1,500,000 quintals, it would have yielded, at the low duty of 2s. a cwt. on export, a larger sum than was to be paid by the company for their monopoly. Luckily, however, a firm remonstrance by England occasioned the suppression of the monopoly; and the duty on its export having been wholly repealed in 1846, the shipments are now very extensive. In proof of this statement we may mention that of the total imports of sulphur into the U. Kingdom in 1849, amounting to 42,269 tons, no fewer than 40,703 tons were supplied by Sicily. Some sulphur mines are wrought by English speculators with machinery brought from England, and workmen from Wales, Cornwall, and Scotland; but in most of the other mines, the processes are rude, and, in melting, a great part of the sulphur is allowed to escape in gas, to the destruction of the surrounding vegetation. Sicily furnishes saltpetre of excellent quality, in sufficient quantity for her own consumption, but from want of enterprise, none is produced for exportation. Rock salt, bitumen, gypsum, and marble of different kinds, are found in various places; and good salt is made at Trapani and other coast-towns. There are also ores of copper, lead, mercury, and iron; but very few of these are wrought. There are no iron foundries in the island; and iron and tin goods are principally imported from England, lead from Spain, and steel from Germany.

In some of the principal cities there are a few manufactures of silk, woollen, cotton, and linen stuffs; the cotton and woollen yarn being imported from Naples, Salerno, &c. A successful attempt has of late been made at Trapani to spin low Nos. of cotton twist by steam power; and some progress is making, both at Palermo and Messina, in the manufacture of ordinary printed and muslin, and such like articles. At Palermo there are also oil-cloth and glass factories. But both glass and oil-cloth, with cotton and coarse woollen goods, India handkerchiefs, crapes, and earthenware, are principally supplied by England; fine woollens, printed cottons, and silk goods, porcelain, &c., come from France and Belgium; Germany and Holland send the principal part of the linen goods; paper and Swiss goods are imported from Genoa; and dye woods and colonial products come direct from America. The duties on most articles of import are so very high, that a large proportion of the goods consumed in the island, especially sugar and other colonial products, are smuggled. The following is an

Account of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles, the Growth and Produce of Sicily, exported from that island in 1847:—

Articles.	Weight, or Measure.	Totals.	
		Quantities.	Value.
Argols and crown of tartar	Cwts.	15,017	£18,846
Borilla	—	44,638	17,234
Breimstone	—	1,618,538	222,738
Cantharides	—	1,910	13,910
Chese	—	6,189	8,315
Essences	Lbs.	163,700	32,660
Fish, salted	Cwts.	5,846	10,353
Fruit, dried, &c.	—	36,314	71,393
Oranges and lemons	Boxes	409,393	94,343
Grain and pulse	Quarters	7,690	13,480
Lemon Juice	Gallons	3,090	6,945
Limed	Quarters	17,905	35,010
Liquorice paste	Cwts.	23,925	13,169
Manna	—	2,530	10,497
Oil, pressed	Gallons	2,650	948
Olive	—	280,537	40,654
Rags	Cwts.	30,179	23,330
Salt	Tons	18,413	6,672
Seeds	Cwts.	31,063	4,921
Shunac	—	337,192	127,167
Silks	Lbs.	77,500	36,660
Skins	No.	11	6,672
Wines and spirits	Gallons	1,252,073	117,659
Other articles	Value	—	71,675
Total	—	—	1,098,418

During the same year the value of the imports into Sicily amounted, according to the official returns, to £71,007; the principal articles being sugar and other

colonial products; cotton stuffs, yarn, and wool; woollens, silks, and linens; hides, hardware, fish, &c. But, as already stated, the official returns afford no real test of the amount of the imports, the value of which may be safely estimated at above 1,000,000. There belong to the different Sicilian ports about 2,250 vessels, of the aggregate of about 43,000 tons, employing about 25,000 men. Accounts are kept in ducats—2s. 5½d. of 10 taroli; the tari = 4½d., equivalent to 10 bajocchi, of 2 grani and 8 piccoli each. The oncia of 30 taroli = 10s. 3d. The lb. = 7 lb. Eng. = the salma of wheat, &c. = 7½ Eng. bushels. The palmo = 10 inches 3 lines Eng. the braccio = 3 palmi; the canna = 8 palmi.

Government.—The feudal system was introduced into Sicily by Count Roger, soon after the expulsion of the Saracens, in 1073. He also established a representative assembly, or parliament, which subsisted, notwithstanding the many changes the island has undergone, down to our own times. This assembly consisted of 3 estates, or *braccios*. The first, or *braccio ecclesiastico*, comprised 66 prelates, abbots, and other clergymen; the second, or *braccio militare*, comprised 237 nobles, among whom were 28 princes, 27 dukes, and 37 marquises, but the larger portion of the nobility had no seat in the assembly; the third, or *braccio demaniale*, comprised 43 representatives of as many free towns. The Prince of Butero was hereditary president of the assembly. (*Swissbarn*, ii. 170.) It is obvious, from this statement, that the nobles and clergy have an overwhelming majority in this assembly; and while the possession of far the greater portion of the landed property of the island made the substantial and real equal to the numerical ascendancy of those two classes, the establishment of majorats and entails, and the servitude of the peasantry, who were in the most absolute state of dependency on their lords, interested the latter in the support of abuses that opposed insurmountable obstacles to the public property. No wonder, therefore, that the Sicilian parliament should have failed in producing the advantages we are accustomed to ascribe to such institutions; and that it should, in fact, have become a bulwark for the defence and protection of the most oppressive and odious privileges.

The crown was quite as anxious as the burghers to limit the privileges of the *braccio militare*, provided that could be done without extending the privileges of the people in a constitutional point of view. But not daring openly to attack so powerful a body, it fell upon the device, worthy of the bigotted and imbecile government of old Spain, of ruining the industry of the country, by laying restrictions on the exportation of its produce, that it might, in this way, impoverish the barons. (*Hayes*, p. 350. *cosm.* p. 350. 1805.) The wretched system, if so we may call it, was acted upon during the whole of last century, and Sicily was a prey to every sort of abuse. At length, in 1812, a new constitution was established, under the auspices of Lord William Bentinck, commander of the British forces in the island. Under this constitution, which was formed on the model of that of England, the legislative power was vested in the king, and in an upper house consisting of barons and bishops, and a lower house elected by the people. Unluckily, however, Sicily was not in a condition suitable for the working of such a form of government. The upper house had every thing to lose, the lower every thing to gain; and though some members of the former saw the expediency or rather necessity of yielding up injurious privileges and making timely reforms, the far greater number were firmly opposed to all innovation. Under such circumstances no improvements could be effected; and the constitution becoming unpopular with all parties, the crown had little difficulty in effecting its abolition in 1816, and in establishing a nearly arbitrary system of government. Since then the administration of Sicily has been assimilated to that of Naples; and, as already seen, several important and, on the whole, highly beneficial changes have been introduced. (*Rassier's Italy*, ii. 298, &c.)

Trials are public, but not by jury. Until very lately, the police service was conducted, as in Sardinia, by a number of companies, having each at their head a captain, who chose his men at pleasure, and who was bound to make compensation for all robberies and thefts committed in the day-time on the high roads within his district. The companies were paid out of the public treasury; but since 1837 they have been abolished, and their place supplied by *gendarmes*. Sicily is not subject to any forced levy of soldiers for the Neapolitan army.

The Rom. Catholic is the established religion, but others are tolerated. There are about 56,000 Greeks in the island, chiefly living in the *Piana dei Greci*, near Palermo, and a few thousand Jews. There are 8 archbishops, those of Palermo, Messina, and Monreale; 10 bishoprics, and priests in all the communes. The church is chiefly maintained by revenues derived from landed estates. There were, in 1832, no fewer than 656 monasteries; and the monks, whose subsistence forms a heavy tax on the industry of the labouring class, amounted, at

At the same time, to 7,591. (*Giornale di Statistica, Palermo*, 1886, No. 1. 111.) Education is almost wholly in the hands of the clergy, but it is better conducted than in the rest of the Neapolitan dom.; and if the quality of the instruction were at all commensurate with the number of schools, the people of Sicily would, in this respect, be fully on a level with most other countries. Palermo and Catania have flourishing universities, both of which have had many distinguished individuals among their professors: there are colleges and academies in 31 towns, and primary and secondary schools in each commune. In these popular schools, besides reading, writing, and arithmetic, the pupils are taught linear drawing and the geography of Sicily. In the prov. of Catania the method of mutual instruction has been adopted. There are several Jesuits' schools, 3 episcopal academies for divinity students, and boarding-schools for the nobility, &c., at Palermo. Females are usually educated in convents till they be 18 or 20 years of age. Some scientific journals are published, especially at Catania, a city distinguished for the superior education and morals of its inhabs. But it would be nugatory to expect that there can be any thing like an efficient system of superior education, or any literature or philosophy deserving the name, in a country where the press is subject to the most severe censorship; and where all foreign works that might tend to expand the minds of the people, and to make them acquainted with their rights and duties, and with the elements of national prosperity, are as rigorously excluded as if they were fraught with pestilence. Sicily has numerous hospitals and other public institutions, but they are said to be generally ill-conducted. In most large towns there is a *monte-di-pieta*, or government pawn-bank.

Besides the *fondataria*, or land-tax of 12½ per cent., the public revenue is derived principally from a tax of 13 laris and 13 grains per salma on the grinding of corn, a duty of 4 gr. per rotolo on the meat consumed in the provincial capitals, with customs duties, and duties on shipping, stamp and registration duties, tobacco duty, the lottery, the post-office, and a duty on the salaries of all persons in official situations. The whole may amount to about 1,900,000 oncie, that is, to about 960,000*l.* a year gross revenue. We subjoin a copy of that part of the Budget for Sicily for 1836, which gives a view of the revenue of the island, and of the sources whence it is derived. [See top of next column.]

Each Intendency is under the control of an Intendant or prefect, with a council of secretaries, and each district under a sub-intendant, council, and secretary. The head board of police for the island, which sat at Palermo, has been dissolved, and the intendants and subintendants now communicate directly with the ministry. Each community is under a syndic elected by the inhabitants from among their number. In each commune and every quarter of the principal cities, there is a *conciliatore* nominated by the king on the recommendation of the inhabs., who gives summary decisions in disputed matters not exceeding the value of 6 ducats; a judge for each *circoscrizione* resides in every principal town, and each Intendency has a civil tribunal with a president, 3 judges, an attorney-general, and a chancellor; and a superior criminal tribunal. The superior courts in the intendancies of Palermo, Catania, and Messina are at once civil and criminal tribunals, and have 6 judges each. That at Palermo has the supreme jurisdiction throughout the island. There are, in fact, no fewer than 260 judges among a pop. of 3 millions! The 180 judges of *circoscrizione* receive from 38*l.* to 84*l.* each, the civil judges about 180*l.*, criminal do. from 210 to 250*l.*, and the judges of the supreme court from about 400*l.* to 600*l.* a year; but this excessive multiplication of courts and judges is a nuisance rather than any thing else. With few exceptions, too, the judges and other legal functionaries are said to be notoriously corrupt. But the principal obstacle in the way of the proper administration of justice consists in the obscurity and contradiction of the laws. This affords great facilities for, and temptations to litigation, and the country is, in consequence, overrun with swarms of low, pettifoggling attorneys. There can, indeed, be no doubt that one of the greatest improvements of which the island is susceptible would be the simplification of the law, and the dismissal of more than half the present judges, giving their salaries to those that were still retained. "The prisons," says Mr. Macgregor, "especially those for political offenders, seem to claim a large share of the attention of government; not, however, for the comfort of the prisoners, but for their security. The state and criminal prison, on the island of Marittimo, contains, perhaps, the most horrid and strongest dungeons in the world. The prisoners are lowered down several hundred feet from the rocky height above, and are seldom, if ever, heard of afterwards." (*Report*, p. 45.)

Inhabitants.—The Sicilians are of middle stature, well-made, with dark eyes, and coarse black hair; their features are better than their complexions; and they at-

Sources of Revenue.	Amount.	
	Partial in oncie. 1 oncie = 10 <i>l.</i>	Total in oncie. 1 oncie = 10 <i>l.</i>
Ordinary Revenue of Landed Property.		
Land-tax 12½ per cent. -	-	428,419 0
General Administration of Indirect Duties.		
On grinding corn, 13 laris and 13 grains per salma. -	640,000 0	
Customs and navigation duties -	336,660 20	
Duty on bolletto for the consular board of trade -	775 0	
Coin-stamps -	1,708 0	
Stamp on playing cards -	604 0	
Duty on tobacco -	10,000 0	
Duty on books imported from foreign countries -	400 0	
Stamp duty on national manufatures -	228 0	
Duty on weights and measures, for the Porto-Grande of Messina -	1,938 0	
Sandries -	40 0	
	892,554 20	892,554 20
Branches depending on the general Administration of Rami Dritti (direct).		
Taxes on merchants and bankers, exclusive of foreign merchants at Messina -	11,800 0	
Duties on registrations, net of judicial expenses which cannot be recovered -	75,788 15	
5 and 25 per cent. on pensions -	7,001 27	
Duty of 1 grain per rotolo on meat consumed in the provincial capitals -	35,800 27	
Fine on shops and markets (wine shops in the military stations and barracks excepted) -	1,773 8	
Physician inspector -	1,475 1	
Crucians for bulls -	18,524 11	
Stamp duty on gold and silver manufactures -	587 8	
Fine on the royal exchequer -	714 28	
Quit rent on the salt ponds leased to the college of Trapani -	676 6	
Certain rents -	7,472 12	
Uncertain ditto -	1,514 26	
	160,739 17	160,739 17
Uncertain Revenue.—Particular Administrations.		
Royal lottery -	127,434 0	
Post-office -	17,284 7	
Five arms and shooting licenses -	6,535 9	
¼ per cent. on salaries of government officers, for pensions to widows and retired persons -	6,393 17	
10 per cent. on the salaries of all persons holding situations under government -	40,561 27	
Seppages of six months' pay on promotions and appointments -	5,000 0	
Savings on account of vacant employments -	16,000 0	
Extinctuary revenue, not included in the collector's statements -	4,760 12	
Fine on the superintendence of roads and forests -	2,948 0	
	72,963 26	72,963 26
Total ordinary revenue -	-	1,746,310 19
Extraordinary Revenue.		
From all sources -	117,194 4	117,194 4
Total -	-	1,863,504 23

tain maturity and begin to decline earlier than the inhabs. of more northern regions. They are cheerful, inquisitive, and fanciful, with a redundancy of unmeaning compliments; showing they are not so deficient in natural talents, as in their due cultivation. Their delivery is vehement, rapid, full of action, and their gesticulation violent; the latter is so significant as almost to possess the powers of speech; it animates them with a peculiar vivacity, bordering, however, rather on conceit than wit, on farce than humour. The upper classes are incorrigibly indolent, and fond to excess of titles, and such like marks of distinction. Here, in fact, every house is a palace, every handicraft a profession, every respectable person at least an excellency, and every errand-boy is charged with an embassy! This love of ostentation is so inveterate, that the poorer nobility and gentry are penurious to an extreme in their domestic arrangements, and almost starve themselves to be able to appear abroad in the evening with a mean and poverty-stricken equipage. Notwithstanding the energies of the peasantry be impaired by the mildness of the climate, and the multiplied oppressions of which they are the victims, they may be said, as compared with the upper classes, to be industrious: they are also sober; but passionate, ignorant, credulous, and superstitious. They are, however, bigots, rather than fanatics; and are civil and kind to

such heretical strangers as may be thrown in their way. There is a great want of keeping, and of comfort, even in the best houses; and in them, and, indeed, everywhere, there is a disgusting want of cleanliness. (*Sage's*, pp. 26—66; *Stolberg*, iv. 369. &c.)

Sicily early became the seat of many flourishing Greek colonies, of which Syracuse and Agrigentum were the most celebrated. At a subsequent period it was the scene of an obstinate and lengthened contest between the Carthaginians and Romans, and became the first and most valuable acquisition made by the latter beyond the limits of Italy. After the fall of the Western Empire, it was successively held by the Vandals, the Goths, and the Greek emperors, till 827, when it was overrun by the Saracens. In 1072 it was taken by the Normans, who, as already seen, established the feudal system, and kept possession of the island till the establishment of the Swabian dynasty, in 1194. In 1265 Charles of Anjou became master of Sicily; but the massacre planned by John of Procida, known by the name of the "Sicilian Vespers," 29th March, 1268, put an end to the sway of the Angevines. It soon after became a dependency of Spain, and was governed by Spanish viceroys till 1706, when a popular revolution annexed it to Austria. By the peace of Utrecht, in 1711, it was ceded to Victor Amadeus of Savoy, who, in 1720, was compelled by the emperor Charles VI. to exchange it for Sardinia. In 1734 the Austrians are driven out by the Spaniards, and the infant Don Carlos was then crowned king of the Two Sicilies. While the continental dom. of Naples were held by Napoleon, Palermo was the residence of the court, the island being defended by an English fleet and garrison. An insurrection that broke out in 1821 was speedily suppressed by the Austrians.

Still, however, there was a great deal of dissatisfaction in the island, and a strong desire for a more liberal system of government. And the party favourable to the independence of Sicily, taking advantage of the excitement occasioned by the French revolution of February, 1848, summoned a parliament, which, by a resolution, agreed to on the 13th April, 1848, formally deposed the House of Bourbon from the throne; declaring at the same time that Sicily would form herself into a constitutional monarchy under a sovereign of her own choice. And conformably to this declaration, the throne was subsequently offered to the duke of Genoa, second son of the King of Sardinia. But the Sicilians lacked the courage and ability to defend the new order of things. A Neapolitan army having landed in the island, reduced Messina; and after some delay occasioned by the interference of the admirals of the English and French fleets then in the bay of Naples, who appeared at first to be disposed to support the cause of the insurgents, the latter were defeated at all points, and the former system of government re-established.

SIDMOUTH, a sea-port, market-town, and par. of England, co. Devon, hund. E. Bodleigh, on the Sid, at its mouth in the English Channel, 13½ m. E.S.E. Exeter. Area of par., 1,400 acres. Pop., in 1861, 3,808. It is situated between two steep ranges of hills, which enclose it on every side except the S., where it is open to the sea. From its sheltered situation, freedom from fogs, and the beauty of its surrounding scenery, Sidmouth has long been a favourite watering-place, and was frequently visited by George III., his queen, and court. The port was formerly of some consequence; but being choked up by sand, it is now accessible only by small vessels. The sands, however, have contributed to its popularity as a bathing place; and it has a handsome promenade on the beach, warm baths, good assembly, reading, and billiard rooms, and the other establishments usual at such places for the accommodation of visitors. The parish church, an ancient building, belonged, in the 13th century, to St. Michael's monastery in Normandy; it contains a monument to Dr. Currie of Liverpool, the first and perhaps, also, the best biographer of Burns. The living, a vicarage, in the patronage of the present incumbent, is worth 481*l.* a year. There are Baptist, Independent, and Unitarian chapels, a national school, several charities for the relief of the poor, a theatre, &c. Petty sessions for this and the neighbouring par. are held monthly at Sidmouth; and courts-leet and baron, at which the peace-officers, &c., are chosen, are held annually. Sidmouth gives the title of viscount to the Addington family. Markets on Saturdays, Fairs, Easter Monday and Tuesday, and third Monday in Sept., for cattle. (*Parl. Reports*, &c.)

SIENNA, or **SIENNA**, (an. *Sena Julia*), a city of central Italy, Grand Duchy of Tuscany, cap. prov. of its own name, on three small hills, between two tributaries of the Ombrone, 20 m. S. by E. Florence. Pop., in 1843, 20,637. The neighbouring country is rugged and naked; but the city itself is embosomed in trees, and entered by a fine avenue, which gives it an agreeable and imposing appearance from without. Its streets, however, are narrow, steep, and uneven; and its houses, though often dignified with the title of palaces, are built of

brick, and are nowise remarkable for their architecture. The inhabitants are active, intelligent, and industrious.

"Though fallen from its former rank, as a republican city with 180,000 inhab. (P.), to that of a provincial town, with the melancholy title of the capital of the Maremma, Sienna "exhibits no signs of decay, but has, on the contrary, every appearance of active industry, with scarcely any beggars; the streets are well paved and very clean; the shops numerous and well supplied; the people well-dressed, and the women remarkably graceful and good-looking." (*Seward, Tour*, &c., 571.) The principal public building is the cathedral, a vast, and, on the whole, magnificent Gothic edifice, founded in the 12th century, though not wholly of one date, and built in alternate courses of black and white marble. It has been severely, and, we believe, justly, censured by Forsyth for its incongruousness, want of taste, and barbarous emblematic devices. Over the arches supporting the nave is a series of the heads of popes; and the pavement is a kind of mosaic-work, much of which is very beautiful. The sacristy is adorned with a history of Pope Pius II., partly painted by Raphael at a very early age, and partly from his designs; and in the same room is a most beautiful antique group of the three graces. (*Wood's Letters*, i. 215.) Under this building is a subterranean church, which, if the cathedral, as is affirmed, stand on the site of a temple of Minerva, is, most probably, of roman antiquity. The church of San Domenico, and St. Catherine, the hospital, city hall, and theatre, are worth notice. The city hall is in the great piazza, a sloping semicircular space, laid out in walks, ornamented with statues, and forming the principal lounge of the inhab. The citadel, facing the main street, has an esplanade and ramparts, planted with trees, which also form favourite public walks. The antiquities include a Roman gate, the remains of ancient walls, &c., and it has a fountain celebrated in Dante's *Inferno*, and several good public and private galleries of paintings.

Sienna has long reputation as a seat of learning. Its university, founded in 1330, has a library of 25,000 vols., and had formerly 60 professors. Its importance has greatly declined; but it is still celebrated as a school of medicine, and may have about 300 pupils. It has, also, an ecclesiastical and several other seminaries (including some for *psephistic science* (for which Sienna was renowned in the 13th century), and various academies, and learned societies, among which last are the *Rosae*, and *Leopoldina*; considered the oldest establishments of their kind in Europe. The Siennese pledge themselves on speaking the Tuscan language in its greatest purity.

Sienna, which is an archbishop's see, has about 40 woollen factories, besides manufactures of hats, paper, leather, &c. Its chief trade is, however, in corn and other agricultural produce, and the marble of its vicinity. Augustus sent thither a Roman colony, previously to which this city appears to have been insignificant, though boasting of very high antiquity. In the middle ages it was, like Pisa, Florence, &c., the cap. of a republic, constant at war with its neighbours; and it was generally flourishing and independent, till Philip II. of Spain took and conferred it, with its territory, on Cosmo I. of Florence. The French took it in 1806; and, previously to 1814, it was the cap. of the d^{ép.} of Ombrone. No fewer than 7 popes, including Pius II., Gregory VII., and Alexander III., with Socinus, and other eminent individuals, have been natives of Sienna.

SIERRA-LEONE, a colonial establishment of Great Britain, on the W. coast of Africa, consisting of a peninsula, about 25 m. in length, N. and S., washed by the Atlantic on the N.W. and S., and partially bounded on the E. by a bay formed by the Sierra Leone river. Free Town, the cap., on the N. shore of the peninsula, is in lat. 8° 29' 40" N.; long. 13° 18' W. It had, in 1839, a pop. of nearly 42,000, all black or coloured, except about 100 Europeans. The peninsula consists principally of a range of conical mountains, from 2,000 to 3,000 ft. in height, surrounded by a belt of level ground, from 1 to 5 m. in breadth. This is probably the most unhealthy situation in which Europeans have ever attempted to establish a settlement. The principal characteristic of the climate is its extreme humidity. The enormous quantity of 314 inches of rain appears to have fallen at Sierra-Leone during three months of 1839, and more fell in two successive days, the 23d and 24d of August, than in Britain throughout the entire year! There are two seasons, the wet and the dry. At Sierra-Leone and the Isles de Los, the former extends from May to Nov., and at the Gambia from June to Sept. or Oct., and is always ushered in and carried off by tornadoes. Nothing can exceed the gloominess of the weather during this period; the hills are wrapped in impenetrable fogs, and the rain falls in such torrents as to preclude all exercise and amusement out of doors. At this period fevers of nearly every type, dysenteries, liver complaints, and other diseases, usually make their appearance; though they are so prevalent at all times that they can scarcely be said to belong exclusively to any season. During the 18 years,

from 1819 to 1836, every white soldier in the colony was, at an average, three times a year under hospital treatment, and nearly half the force perished annually; and in 1836 and 1837, when the mortality was at its height, three fourths of the troops were cut off! To accept a situation in Sierra-Leone has, in fact, been little else than a species of suicide. Nor is the destructive influence of the climate confined to the whites only; the blacks, though in a less degree, are affected by it, and often die in great numbers. (See *Tulloch, Report on the Health of the Colony, &c.*)

Objects of the Colony.—This colony was founded in 1787, partly as a commercial establishment, but more from mistaken and ill-considered notions of humanity. Being intended to consist principally of free blacks, who were to be instructed in the Christian religion, and in the arts of Europe, it was supposed it would become, as it were, a focus whence civilisation might be diffused among the surrounding tribes. About 1,200 free negroes who, having joined the royal standard in the American war, were obliged, at the termination of that contest, to take refuge in Nova Scotia, were conveyed thither in 1792. To these were afterwards added the Maroons from Jamaica; and, since the legal abolition of the slave trade, the negroes taken in the captured vessels, and liberated by the mixed commission courts, have been carried to the colony. But the efforts made to introduce order and industrious habits, and to lay the foundations of civilisation amongst the blacks, though prosecuted at an enormous expense of blood and treasure, have, we regret to add, been signally unsuccessful. And this, after all, is the only result that could have been rationally anticipated. The laziness of the blacks has been loudly complained of, but without reason. Men are not industrious without a motive; and most of those motives that stimulate all classes in colder climates to engage in laborious employments, are unknown to the indolent habits of this burning region, where clothing is of little importance, and all but dispensed with, where sufficient supplies of food may be obtained with comparatively little exertion, and where more than half the necessities and conveniences of Europeans would be positive incumbrances. And had it been otherwise, what progress could a colony be expected to make, into which there are annually imported thousands of liberated negroes, who, if not wholly incapable of civilisation, are, at all events, in the lowest stage of barbarism? The hopelessness of making any beneficial change in the character and condition of the blacks, by keeping up this most pestilential establishment, is now so very apparent, that it may be hoped it will be speedily abandoned. Latterly, indeed, some of the liberated Africans have been carried to the W. Indies, where they may be of some use, which is not the case here.

Commercially considered, Sierra-Leone appears to quite as little advantage as in other points of view. The country round the settlement consists of a vast and all but impenetrable forest, only small patches of which have been cleared and cultivated. The principal articles of export consist of teak and cam wood, with ivory, palm oil, hides, gums, and a few other articles; but their value is inconsiderable, amounting to not more than from 80,000, to 110,000*l.* a year. The great article of export from the coast of Africa is palm oil, and of this more than 50 times as much is exported from the coast to the S. of the Rio Volta, several hundred miles from Sierra Leone, as from the latter. We doubt, indeed, whether the commerce with the western coast of Africa will ever be of much importance. The condition of the natives would require to be very much changed, of which there is not the slightest prospect, before they can become considerable consumers of European manufactures. It is singular, that speculative persons in this country should be bent on prosecuting, without regard to expense, a trade with barbarous uncivilised hordes, while they contribute to the neglect or suppression of the incomparably more extensive and beneficial intercourse we might carry on with the opulent and civilised nations in our immediate vicinity. We are bold to say that the equalisation of the duties on Canadian and Baltic timber, and the abolition of the existing restraints on the trade with France, would do ten times more to extend our commerce than the discovery of 50 navigable rivers, and the possession of as many forts or factories on the African coast.

The government of Sierra-Leone is vested in a lieutenant-governor, assisted by a legislative council of 5 official mems. The chief justice presides in the supreme court of law, held alternately in the course of the year at the different stations under his command; and there are mixed commission courts for the adjudication of vessels taken in the slave-trade. The colony is subdivided into 6 districts and about 16 parishes, in each of which are one or more schools on the Lancasterian or the national system. Total military force (1841) 306 men, besides militia, &c. Total public revenue of Sierra-Leone and Gambia in 1839, 30,000*l.*; expenditure, 108,066*l.* In fact this wretched dependency has cost the British public several

millions, independently of the enormous sacrifice of life. St. George, or Free Town, the cap., is on the S. side of the estuary of the Sierra-Leone river, being surrounded on all other sides by an amphitheatre of mountains about 1 m. distant. The town and par. had a pop., in 1839, of 13,523. Its houses are mostly of wood, disposed in broad and regular streets; around it are the country-houses of the white residents. The drainage of the town has of late been materially improved, but without much perceptible effect on its salubrity.

The villages dispersed in different parts of the colony consist of huts, built of wood and thatched with straw, so light that they are easily moved from place to place. The woods and mountains are infested with a great variety of wild animals, and the rivers swarm with alligators. Insects are so numerous and offensive as to be really a plague.

The settlements on the Gambia consist of St. Mary's Island, at the mouth of the river; area, 5 sq. m.; and M'Carthy's Island, about 330 m. up the river. Aggregate pop., in 1839, 4,495, of whom only 49 were whites. The trade of this settlement, though inconsiderable, is of more importance than that of Sierra-Leone, the value of the exports, in 1839-40, having amounted to 124,669*l.*

The Cape Coast command, S.E. of Sierra-Leone, consists of Cape Coast Castle (which see), Dixcove, Annamaboe, Accra, &c. comp. a district. The climate is nearly as insalubrious as that of Sierra-Leone; but since 1838, British troops have not been sent to die in these settlements, the defence of which has been entrusted to a native force of about 300 men. The trade of this part of the coast is of considerably more importance than that of Sierra-Leone, the value of the exports, chiefly palm-oil, dye-woods, Guinea grains, gold-dust, and ivory, having amounted, in 1840, to 325,008*l.* An active trade in palm oil appears to have been growing up of late at the river Bonny. (*Tulloch's Reports; Report on the Colonies of W. Africa, 1841, &c.*)

SIGMARINGEN (HOHENZOLLERN).—one of the minor principalities of Germany, which, with Hohenzollern-Hechingen, lies mostly between lat. 48° and 48° 30' N., and long. 8° 25' and 9° 25' E., inclosed by Wirtemberg on all sides except the S., where it touches the territory of Baden. H.-Sigmaringen is separated into two portions by H.-Hechingen: its S. portion is watered by the Danube, and the N. by the Neckar, &c. It has an area of 40 sq. m., with a pop., in 1850, of 42,000, nearly all Rom. Catholics. Except in the S. the soil is generally poor; still, however, rather more corn is grown than is required for home consumption. Potatoes, flax, and fruits, are also grown; but the chief wealth of the state consists of its timber, cattle, and hogs. The rural population is partly occupied in manufacturing cotton and linen cloths, and hardware. Since 1833 it has had a constitutional government; but Berghaus does not say how the representative assembly is constituted. Appeal from the high court at Sigmaringen lies to the superior court at Stuttgart. The revenue of the prince amount to about 300,000 *serins* year, partly derived from his estates in Holland. The contingent to the army of the Germ. Confed. consisted of 356 men. The cap., Sigmaringen, on the Danube, has a pop. of 1,400. There is no larger town.

Hohenzollern-Hochingen has an area of 120 sq. m., with, in 1850, a pop. of 30,500. It is mostly mountainous, and cattle breeding forms the chief occupation of the inhabitants. It has a constitutional assembly formed of 3 representatives for the town of Hechingen, and 10 for the rural districts. Appeal from its superior law court, presided over by the prince, may be made to the high court at Stuttgart. Total public revenue, 150,000 *fl.* Contingent to the army of the Germ. Confed. 145 *men*. Hechingen, the cap., on the Starzel, has 2,000 inhabs., several fine buildings, and some woollen manufactures. Each of these principalities had a vote in the full diet of the Germ. Confed.; and, with Reuss, Lippe, Waldeck, and Liechtenstein, they had the 16th place and 1 vote in the Committee: but in 1850 the sovereignty was ceded to Prussia.

SILESIA, an important and valuable prov. of the Prussian dominions, having N. the prov. of Posen, E. Poland and Cracow, S. Austrian Silesia, Moravia, and Bohemia, and W. Saxony and Brandenburg. It lies between 49° 40' and 52° N. lat., and 14° 25' and 18° 12' E. long., and has an oblong shape, extending N.W. and S.E. about 24 m. Area, 15,711 sq. m. Pop., in 1846, 2,055,809, of whom 1,568,215 are Protestants, 1,476,508 Catholics, and 30,680 Jews. The proportion of Protestants to Catholics has increased considerably since the Prussian conquest. Principal towns, Breslau, Liegnitz, Glogau, Gorlitz, Nelsae, Glatz, Oppeln, &c. It is divided into three regencies, and these again into 57 circles. Surface rugged and mountainous along its S. and S.W. frontier, but in other parts it is either flat, or but slightly undulating; this is particularly the case on the E. side of the Oder. The river now mentioned traverses the whole length of Silesia; and, being navigable for barges almost

to the extreme S. limits of the province, it forms a valuable channel of communication. The other great rivers, the affluents of the Oder, are the two Neisses and the Bober on the S., and the Malapane and Bartsch on the N. Soil very various, being in many parts loamy and highly productive, and in parts marshy and sandy. Great part of the region of Oppeln is covered by vast forests. Principal products, corn, flax, and hemp, produced in very large quantities: the stock of sheep amounts to about 2,800,000 head; wool, of a very superior quality, now forms, next to linen, the principal article of export from the province: among the other products are beet-root sugar, timber, madder, tobacco, silk in small quantities, &c. Sillesia is rich in mineral products. Coal is found in many parts, particularly in the vicinity of Schwednitz, and Nelsae, Glatz, &c. There are also valuable mines of iron, lead, zinc, copper, &c.

Manufactures are important and valuable. Linen is the principal product; but for some years past it has been declining, the cotton manufacture having grown up in the interval to a considerable state of advancement. The woollens manufactured are generally coarse, but they employ a considerable number of hands. No accounts have been published, on which any reliance can be placed, of the products and values of the different manufactures established in Sillesia. The condition of the inhabs. of this prov. has been very unhappy, both as respects their condition over the necessities and conveniences of life, and their intelligence, since they became subjects of Prussia.

An intelligent observer, speaking of Sillesia, observes, "In a country where linen is a staple commodity, the majority of the men are weavers, which trade they often exercise in conjunction with their employment as agriculturists; and the women, without exception, are spinners of flax, for we frequently see the better classes pursuing their thread-making occupation, not only in the saloon, but in the promenade, and the lower orders in their huts on the high road, even while their heads are heavily laden with provisions for the market; but instead of the wheel they use the distaff, which, I was informed, was the prime cause of the superior excellence of the Sillesian linen, as the thread is by this process rendered more soft, round, and less inclined to break. There is, however, a wide difference between the inhabs. of Sillesia descended from German colonists and the native Slavonians, particularly those who people the districts on the frontiers of Poland. The former are industrious, cleanly, and manufacturing; while the latter are debased by ignorance, mendacity, and superstition; they also resemble their neighbours the Poles, not only in their language, which is a species of Polish patois, but in their sheep-skin jackets and greasy kappetas, neither of which are ever allowed to contaminate soap and water: another point of similarity is their inordinate attachment to bodka, and a deep veneration for Madonnas, saints, and crucifixes. But, perhaps, no distinctive trait of manners more characterises both than their humiliating mode of acknowledging a debt, the expression of gratitude being the servile 'Upadam do nos' (I fall at your feet); which is no figure of speech, for they will literally throw themselves down and kiss your feet for the trifling donation of a few halfpence. How abject is the state to which feudal vassalage and superstition have reduced this people!" (*Germany and the Germans*, vol. i.)

SILISTRIA (Turk. *Dridra*), a city of European Turkey, prov. Bulgaria, cap. sanjak, on the Danube, 63 m. E.N.E. Ruschuk. Pop. estimated at 20,000. (*Sicra*, &c.) Silistria is a strong military post, and resisted the attempts of the Russians in 1828, though they took it after a nine months' siege in 1829. When visited by Mr. Elliott, in 1837, it was in their hands, having been one of the pledges given by the Turks for the payment of the sums due to Russia. New ramparts lined the whole bank of the river, and an extensive island opposite the town was covered with provender for cavalry horses; while 8,000 regular troops garrisoned the fort. Under a strong lunette were posted a sufficient number of pontoons to form a *port volant*, requiring only three hours to be united so as to form a complete military communication between the two banks. (*Travels in Turkey*, &c. i. 185, 186.) Since then Silistria has been restored to the Turks. The town is ill laid out, and many of the houses are in ruins. The citadel, several mosques and public baths, and a large bonding warehouse and custom-house, are the chief buildings. The inhabs. exchange timber and cattle with the Wallachians for salt and hemp; but their trade is not of much consequence. Near the city are the remains of some fortifications thrown up during the Byzantine Empire.

SIMBIRSK, a government of European Russia, on both sides the Wolga, having N. the government of Kasan, E. Orenburg, S. Saratoff, and W. Penza and Nijegorod. Area, 28,000 sq. m. Pop. in 1846, 1,318,900, it consists of a gently undulating plain, having a black, and generally very fertile soil. Besides the Wolga,

It is watered by the Surra and other affluents of the former. Climate in extremes, the summer being hot, and the winter cold. The Wolga is annually frozen over for about five months. Rye, wheat, and other grain, are raised in quantities more than sufficient for the consumption. Hemp is largely cultivated, with flax, tobacco, poppies, &c. Except among the Kulmucks, the rearing of cattle is not much attended to. In the N. forests are abundant. Distilleries numerous; and besides the coarse goods manufactured by the peasants, there are establishments for the manufacture of cloth, coarse linen and canvase, and coverlets, with glass-works, soap-works, candle-works, &c. (*Schneitzler, La Russie*, &c., p. 676, &c.)

SIMBIRSK, the capital of the above government, on the Wolga, on an isthmus between it and the Sviaga, lat. 54° 19' 48" N., long. 48° 22' 15" E. Pop. above 18,000. It stands partly on an eminence, which commands a fine view, and partly on a plain. Streets broad and straight; houses mostly of wood, but neat and commodious inside. There are numerous churches, which, with one exception, are all of stone, and two convents. The town is in a fertile country; and, besides large quantities of corn, exports the produce of the fisheries on the Wolga. It is a good deal resorted to by the surrounding nobility.

SIMPHEROPOL, or AKMETCHET, a town of European Russia, in the Crimea, of which it is the capital, 40 m. N.E. Sevastopol. Pop. 4,300, stands in a fine but not very healthy situation on the river Selair, and consists of two parts, one new built by the Russians in the European style, the other, old and occupied by the Tartars. The streets in the former are wide and regular; and it contains the government offices, and a cathedral, said by Dr. Lyall to be by far the handsomest ecclesiastical edifice he had seen in Russia. (i. 12.) Within the last few years some improvements have been made in the Tartar part of the town, but the streets continue to be narrow, crooked, and filthy, and it has a mean, miserable appearance.

The celebrated traveller and naturalist Pallas lived for 15 years in this town. It was his own wish to emigrate thither, and to enable him to gratify it, the Empress Catherine II. made him a present of an estate in the best part of the peninsula. But being cut off from the society he had enjoyed in Petersburg, and exposed to family annoyances, Pallas became dissatisfied with the country and with the climate he had so highly panegyricised. Having sold his estate, he left Simpheropol in August 1811, and returned, after an absence of 43 years, to his native city Berlin, where he died in the course of the same year. (*Biographie Universelle*, art. *Pallas*.)

SIMPLON, a celebrated pass over the Alps, where a magnificent road was constructed by order of Napoleon, establishing an easy carriage communication between Geneva and Berne, in Switzerland, and Milan. (*See* art. *ALPS*, Vol. i. 67.)

SINAI (MOUNT), a mountain of Arabia, near the Gulph of Suez, or upper part of the Red Sea, famous for its connection with some of the most memorable events of sacred history. It is generally supposed to be identical with the mountain called in the Arabic *Djebel Moses*, or Mountain of Moses, or *Sin*, *Si Tor*, the Mountain, in the peninsula between the Gulphs of Suez and Akaba, in about lat. 28° 25' N., long. 34° 10' E. The group of mountains to which Sinai belongs, and which also includes Mount Horeb, Mount St. Catherine, and other remarkable summits, is surrounded on all sides by deserts occupied only by tribes of Bedouins, or wandering Arabs. The mountains are penetrated by deep chasms, edged by bare perpendicular ledges of rock; and the whole has a singularly wild and sterile appearance.

The convent of St. Catherine, founded by the Emperor Justinian, in a valley on the slope of the mountain, is the halting place whence pilgrims set out to ascend to the summit. Being exposed to the attacks of the Arabs, it looks more like a fortress than a convent. It is an irregular quadrangular edifice, surrounded by high and solid walls, and covers a considerable extent of ground. To prevent being surprised by their troublesome neighbours, the entrance gate, which is rarely opened, is built up; and on ordinary occasions all access to the convent is by an entrance about 30 ft. from the ground, to which travellers, provisions, &c., are raised by a basket made fast to a rope, pulled up by a windlass. The interior of the convent presents little remarkable, all the apartments and chapels being built of rough stone, without symmetry or order, communicating by crooked and dark passages. The Church of the Transfiguration alone possesses any pretensions to magnificence. It is 80 ft. in length, and 53 in breadth, paved with marble, adorned with a variety of figures. The event to which it relates is represented in mosaic. But the grand treasure of this church, and that which is supposed, by zealous Catholics, to confer on it peculiar sanctity and importance, is

Dr. Clarke, who seems to have regarded every opportunity of tracing the ascription of Rasade to a God-given ascription, does not seem to have been satisfied with the evidence. But Lyall has pointed out their true origin. (*Lyall in loc. cit.*)

the possession of the relics of St. Catherine, borne by angels to the neighbouring mountain, which still bears her name; and subsequently collected and deposited in a marble sarcophagus in this building! The skeleton of the hand, covered with rings and jewels, is the only portion of the remains of the saint that is exhibited to her faithful votaries.

Mount Sinal, as every one knows, is almost as famous in the sacred history of the Mohammedans as of the Jews; and it is a curious fact, that there is a Mohammedan mosque within the precincts of this convent. It has also an excellent garden at a little distance, which is reached by a subterraneous passage, secured by iron gates. It produces fruits, plants, and vegetables, in the utmost profusion. The climate is temperate, in consequence of the elevation; and snow even falls in winter.

The ascent to the mountain, which lies through a ravine to the S.W., commences close to the convent. It is steep, but the labour of ascending has been greatly facilitated by rude steps cut in the rock. At the height of about 500 ft. from the convent is a spring of fresh and cold water, covered by a rock, which protects it from the sun and rain. After ascending a little higher, the traveller gains the summit of Mount Horeb, which forms, to use the expression of Laborde, a kind of breast, from which Sinal rises. "Continuing our route from this halting-place by a path, still more rugged and steep than before, we arrived in about 45 minutes at the summit of Sinal, the apex of a peak not more than 80 yards across at its widest part." (*Wellsted*, ii. 98.)

The height of Mount Sinal has been variously estimated, but according to observations taken by Mr. Wellsted, it may be estimated at about 7,500 ft. above the level of the sea, and about 2,500 ft. above the convent of St. Catherine.

On the summit of the mountain is a dilapidated church, which tradition represents as founded on the spot where, amid thunder and lightning, and the smoke of the agitated mountain, Moses received the Decalogue from the hands of the Almighty. (*Exodus*, cap. xx.) Truth, however, is seldom accompanied with error; and but a few yards distant from the church are the ruins of a mosque; this mountain, by a singular coincidence, being hallowed alike in the estimation of Jews, Christians, and Mohammedans.

"It seems," says Sir Frederick Henniker, "to a person on the summit of Sinal, as if the whole of Arabia Petraea had once been an ocean of lava, and that, while its waves were literally running mountains high, it had suddenly been commanded to stand still." Mount Sinal itself, Mount St. Catherine, which is still higher, and the adjacent mountains rise in sharp, conical, granite peaks; and from their steep and shattered sides huge masses have been thrown down. The prospect from the summit of Sinal is most extensive: the Gulph of Akaba, on the one hand, and that of Sues on the other, with Mount Agrab, on the Egyptian coast, are distinctly visible. Barrenness and desolation are, however, its grand characteristics. "No villages and castles, as in Europe, here animate the picture; no forests, lakes, or falls of water, break the silence and monotony of the scene. All has the appearance of a vast and desolate wilderness; either grey, darkly brown, or wholly black." (*Wellsted*, ii. 98.) But it is the associations connected with the mountain, and the astonishing events of which it is believed to have been the theatre, that inspire those feelings of awe and veneration felt by all who have either beheld or ascended Mount Sinal.

Considerable doubts have, however, been entertained whether the mountain now described be really the Mount Sinal of the Pentateuch. It might be expected that the summit of the mountain should exhibit some traces of the stupendous phenomena that are said to have accompanied the manifestation of the Divine presence. But, according to Burckhardt, neither Sinal, nor any of the adjoining summits, exhibits any traces of volcanic action. It is supposed by some that the *Djebel Katerin*, or Mount St. Catherine, has the best title to be regarded as the true Sinal.

There are really, however, no means by which to arrive at any satisfactory conclusions on the subject. All that can with confidence be stated (for monkish legends and traditions go for nothing), is that Mount Sinal must be somewhere in this vicinity; and that though the hypothesis, that the *Djebel Moussa* and the Sinal of the Bible be identical, be not free from difficulties, it is as much so, perhaps, as any other that has been advanced in its stead. (*Calmet, Dictionnaire de la Bible*, art. *Sinal*; *Shaw's Travels*, p. 316., 4to ed.; *Laborde's Arabia Petraea*, p. 242.; *Wellsted's Arabia*, ii. 90., &c.; *Burckhardt's Arabia*, &c.)

SINDE, an extensive country of N.W. India, between Hindostan and Beloochistan, comprising the lower course and delta of the Indus; extending between lat. 23° and 29° N., and long. 66° and 73° E.; having N. the Punjab and Bahawalpoor territories, E. Rajpootana, S. the Runn of Cutch and the Indian Ocean, and W. Beloochistan

and Cutch-Gundarra. Its length, N. to S., is about 260 m.; its breadth is very variable; but its entire area may be about 60,000 sq. m.; and Barnes estimates the pop. at about 1,000,000. Mr. Elphinstone dwells on the striking resemblance between this country and Egypt. "One description might serve for both. A smooth and fertile plain is bounded on one side by mountains, and on the other by a desert. It is divided by a large river, which forms a delta as it approaches the sea, and annually inundates and enriches the country near its banks. The climate of both is hot and dry, and rain is of rare occurrence in either country." But here the similarity ends. Egypt has populous towns, numerous canals, and abundant harvests; while in Sind, such has been the barbarism of the country and government, that miserable villages are even few, and agriculture languishes equally with commerce; the policy of the ameer being to keep the land in a state of nature, that their territories might not attract the cupidity of the surrounding tribes. (*Barnes*, i. 344.) The various products of Sind differ little from those of the rest of India. Rice, indigo, tobacco, and sugar-cane are among the principal; vines, figs, pomegranates, and even apples, are successfully raised at Tatta; and wheat, barley, and the common Indian grains, are grown to great perfection in Lower Sind. There are vast herds of horned cattle and sheep, which are generally larger than those of Hindostan. Camels and buffaloes are numerous. Game is very plentiful, though wood is scarce. Salt and saltpetre are almost everywhere on the soil.

The main exports are salt, rice, ghee, hides, saltpetre, cotton, oil, shark's fin, bark for tanning, &c.; with assafetida, and other gums; Cashmere shawls, saffron, horses, leather, musk, alum, and various drugs and gems from the countries on the N. and W. The principal imports from India are metals, ivory, tea, tutenague, and other China wares, chintzes, broad cloths, arms, and other Indian and European manufactures; but particularly opium, in transit from Malwah to Bombay. From Persia and Arabia the Sindians also obtain silks, words, carpets, dates, rose-water, coffee, &c. (*Pottinger*). Nearly all the trade centres in Kurachee on the Beloochistan border; there is little commerce any where else, even on the Indus. The only encouragement the chiefs gave to any trade was to that in opium, and on it they levied the enormous duty of 250 rupees the camel load. The revenue from this article was estimated to amount to 7 lacs rupees a year.

The chief towns are Tatta, Hyderabad, Kurachee, Kyrpoor, Shikarpore, Larkhann, &c. The Sindians are of a middle size, slim, and darker than most of the inhabs. of Hindostan. Most of them are Mohammedans of the Shiah sect. There is little to praise in their character; they have nearly all the worst vices of an enslaved people. They are, however, brave in the field, and, unlike other Asiatics, pride themselves on being foot soldiers, preferring, also, the sword to the matchlock.

Previously to its annexation to the British territory, Sind was governed by ameer, or military chiefs. A British residency was established amongst them, which, after the disaster in Afghanistan, they had the temerity to attack. This led to hostilities in which the ameer were signally defeated by Sir C. Napier in the well-contested actions of Measnee and Hyderabad. The country was finally annexed to the Bombay presidency in 1843. (*Barnes's Bokhara*, &c., i. 206-209.; *Pottinger's Beloochistan*; *Geog. Journ.*, vii., &c.)

SINGAPORE, a settlement belonging to Great Britain, in S.E. Asia, consisting of a small island at the S. extremity of the Malay peninsula, incl. the town of the same name; the latter being in lat. 1° 17' N., long. 103° 50' E. The island is of an elliptical form: greatest length, E. and W., about 27 m.; average breadth, 11 m. Area, estimated at 275 sq. m. Pop., in 1836, 29,984; of whom 13,749 were Chinese settlers, and 9,632 Malays. And in 1850, about 50,000, of whom nearly a half are Chinese. The island is separated from the main land by a strait, which, though scarcely $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in breadth, in its narrowest part, was the route usually followed by ships between India and China in the early stages of European navigation. But the grand commercial highway between the E. and W. portions of maritime Asia now passes along the S. side of Singapore, between it and a chain of desert islands about 9 m. distant; the safest and most convenient track being so near to Singapore that ships, in passing and re-passing, approach close to the roads. The town is wholly indebted for its rapid rise and growth.

ing importance to its position on this strait. This has rendered it not merely a convenient entrepôt for the trade between the western world and India, on the one hand, and China on the other; but also for that between the former and the Eastern Archipelago, the Philippines, &c.

The surface of the island is low and undulating in some parts, rising into rounded hills, covered with jungle; though none of these is 400 ft. in height. It consists principally of laterite resting on sandstone; its N. and E. portions are, however, of granite. It abounds with iron ore; but this is the only metallic product hitherto discovered; though, from the great abundance of tin in the neighbouring countries, it probably exists here also. The climate is hot, with but little variation of temperature: the thermometer usually ranges from 71° to 89° Fahr.; in 1835 the range lay wholly between 77° and 87° (Malcom.) The total annual fall of rain is about 100 inches; the monsoons are little felt; but the island is kept in a perpetual state of verdure by frequent showers. According to Mr. Crawford, the summits of the hills are generally sterile; but on their slopes and in the intervening valleys there is occasionally a good deal of fertile soil. Gambier or catechu, and fine tropical fruits and vegetables, are grown in tolerable quantities. Nutmegs, coffee, and pepper have succeeded; and the produce of the Chinese pepper gardens for 1836 was estimated at 10,000 piculs. Cloves have wholly failed; and the settlement depends for rice on Java, Bengal, and Sumatra, and for pigs, poultry, and cattle, on Malacca. Down to 1837, land was great obstructions to the clearing, cultivation, and prosperity of the island.

The absence of the elephant and tiger, and other formidable wild animals, and of the swarms of insects common in warm climates, are circumstances favourable alike to agriculture and the comfort of the inhabs. The only quadrupeds are some small species of deer, the otter, porcupine, and a few others; but it has a great variety of birds and reptiles. Tripang, and agar-agar, a delicate fern-like sea-weed, are furnished in great abundance by the neighbouring coral reefs and shoals.

A few manufactures, including that of pearl sugar, agricultural implements, arms, &c., are carried on principally by the Chinese. But, as already stated, the entire importance of Singapore consists in its being an emporium for the commerce of the adjacent countries, and of that between Eastern and Western Asia, &c.

The chief imports are cotton and woollen goods, iron, and spelter from Great Britain; opium, Indian piece-goods, and canvas bags, from Calcutta, &c.; ebony and cloves from the Mauritius; Banca, coffee, and spices, from the Dutch settlements; raw silk, cassia, tea, camphor, and nankeens, from China; mother-of-pearl, sugar, rice, oil, bullion, and some Chinese goods, from the Philippines; nearly the same articles from Siam and Cochinchina; and rice, oil, sapan wood, tortoiseshell, birds, and feathers, camphor, spices, antimony ore, benjamin, catechu, eagle wood, &c., from the various islands of the E. Archipelago. But a small portion only of these goods is imported for the consumption of the island. The latter, in fact, is essentially an entrepôt, the goods brought to it being mostly shipped again for other places. Thus, opium, birds' nests, biche de mer, &c., go to China; cotton, pepper, raw silk, and tin to Europe, or rather to England; British piece-goods and woollens to Manila, China, Rhio, Siam, Borneo, and Celebes; cotton twist to the same countries; arms to Borneo and Rhio; glass and iron wares to Manila, China, Sumatra, Java, &c.

The port regulations are upon as liberal and convenient a footing as possible. The attempts hitherto made to impose duties on imports and exports have been successfully resisted, and there are no anchorage, harbour, lighthouse dues, or fees of any description. A register is, however, kept of all exports and imports; and to enable this to be done, reports must be made to the master-attendant by the masters of vessels, and invoices delivered to the superintendent of imports and exports. The principal merchants and agents are Englishmen; but some, also, are Chinese, who comprise the bulk of the shopkeepers, with by far the most valuable part of the labouring pop. The European merchants transact business on their own account, but the principal part of their employment consists in acting as agents for houses in London, Liverpool, Amsterdam, Batavia, Canton, and the capitals of British India. The language of commercial intercourse is generally Malay. Merchants' accounts are kept in Spanish dollars, divided into 100 parts. The principal weights in use are the picul = 133½ lbs.; the coyan of 40 piculs; the bunkal (for gold-dust) = 833 gr. troy; the bag of rice = 3 Beng. maunds, &c.

Singapore, which is said to have been the earliest place settled by the Malays emigrating from Sumatra,

Account of the Value, in Spanish Dollars, of the Produce exported from Singapore to the under-mentioned Countries in 1848-49 and 1849-50.

Countries.	Value of Exports.	
	1848-49.	1849-50.
	<i>Dolls.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>
United Kingdom - - -	1,267,223	1,300,961
America, North - - -	157,376	220,375
South - - -	5,281	6,591
France - - - - -	97,944	120,143
Spain - - - - -	- - -	66,177
Denmark - - - - -	15,091	- - -
Holland - - - - -	19,111	881
Hamburg - - - - -	81,451	128,442
Sweden - - - - -	29,747	25,937
Austria - - - - -	31,481	28,578
Sweden - - - - -	25,556	17,781
Mauritius - - - - -	25,344	26,065
Case of Good Hope - - -	41,298	15,656
New South Wales - - -	111,500	100,737
Arabia and Persian Gulf -	53,048	94,857
Ceylon - - - - -	59,463	56,637
Sumatra - - - - -	86,293	128,351
China - - - - -	2,434,698	1,911,489
Cochin-China - - - - -	564,217	154,746
Siam and Panghai - - -	1,902,107	685,767
Java, Rhio, &c. - - -	615,097	351,573
Borneo - - - - -	250,097	406,206
Celebes - - - - -	278,728	295,794
Sumatra - - - - -	321,430	360,354
Pegu, including Rangoon -	2,000	637,963
Malay Peninsula - - -	635,495	2,339,937
India, Senang, and Malacca -	5,000	2,339,937
Other Islands and Places -	188,712	223,523
Total Spanish dollars - -	11,049,069	10,455,521

and an ancient seat of considerable trade, was purchased by the Sultan of Johore by the E. I. Comp. in 1819. It was then an inconsiderable village; but Sir Stamford Raffles, who recommended the purchase, clearly apprehended the advantages of its situation for a commercial entrepôt, and the importance of its occupation. It was placed at first under a resident, but had no organised government for several years afterwards. Mr. Crawford, author of the able work on the Eastern Archipelago, was governor of Singapore from 1823 to 1836. The governor is now assisted by a council, called the Council of Government, and a recorder's court has been established. The military force consists of a wing of the Madras native regiment, and a small detachment of artillery. The public revenue, derived from an excise on the consumption of pork, opium, and home-made spirits, government rents, dues, fines, &c. amounted at an average of the three years from 1833 to 1836, to 264,578 Sp. doll. a year; and the expenditure for the same period to 243,224 ditto. (Newbold.)

The town of Singapore is, as already seen, situated on the S. side of the island, on both banks of the rivulet or salt creek of its own name, stretching thence E. for about 1½ m. to another small creek of the same kind. Its central part is occupied with the dwellings of the merchants and the military cantonments; the Malay quarter is at the E., and the principal Chinese and commercial quarter at the W. extremity, on the right bank of the rivulet, crossed by a wooden bridge. The streets are in general regularly laid out, and the houses superior to those of Penang, though the best are only of brick. On a hill N. of the town is the government house; the other principal buildings are the court-house, gaol, new custom house, missionary chapel, Armenian church, and the Singapore Institution, founded by Sir S. Raffles, for the cultivation of the languages of China, Siam, and the islands of the Malay archipelago. At present it has an English, a Malay, and a Tamil school, and about 70 pupils; it receives a small pension from government, but is principally dependent on subscription. Ships lie in the roads, or outer harbour, at from 1 to 2 m. from the town. The assistance of a number of convenient lighters, which are always in readiness, enables ships to load or unload with scarcely any interruption throughout the year; and the creek being accessible to the lighters for three-fourths of a mile inland, the goods are taken in and discharged at convenient quays before the principal warehouses.

On a small island, about 60 m. S. E. Singapore, is the Dutch settlement of Rhio, the seat of a Dutch resident, with about 24,000 inhabs. It was originally settled in 1788, and colonised a second time by the Dutch in 1818; but its trade has been almost wholly superseded by that of Singapore. (Newbold's British Settlers in Malacca, &c., i. 265-398.; Crawford's Embassy to Siam, ii. 243-406.; Malcom's S. E. Asia; Singapore Free Press, &c.)

SINIGAGLIA, or SENEAGLIA (an. *Senas Gallica*), a town of central Italy, Papal States, leg. Urbino, on the Misa, about 4 m. from its mouth, in the Adriatic, 17 m. W. N. W. Ancona. Pop. 7,000. It is regularly, though not strongly, fortified with a mound and bastions, and the gates are handsome. Its cathedral, of the Co-

ethian order, in the form of a Greek cross, has some good paintings, but nothing else very remarkable. The streets are broad, and the town has a neat appearance; but it is indifferently supplied with water, and is said not to be very healthy.

Sinliggila is the seat of the greatest of the Italian fairs. The fair commences on the 14th of July, and should terminate on the last day of that month; but it usually continues 5 or 6 days longer. The duties on goods brought to the fair are extremely moderate, and every thing is done to promote the convenience of those frequenting it. All sorts of cotton and woollen goods, lace, iron and steel, hardware, jewellery, brandy and liqueurs, raw and refined sugar, dried fish, cacao, coffee, spices, &c. are brought thither by the English, French, Austrians, Americans, Swiss, &c. These are exchanged for the various raw and manufactured products of Italy, and the Levant; consisting, among others, of raw, thrown, and wrought silk; oil, fruits, cheese, alum, soda, sumach, sulphur, &c. The value of the imports at some recent fairs has been estimated at about 2,000,000*l*. Accounts are kept in scudi of 30 soldi; the scudo = 4s. 4d. very nearly; 100 lbs. Sinliggila = 73*½* lbs. avoirdupois. The ell, or braccio, measures 25-25 English inches.

The port belonging to the town, at the river's mouth, is fit only for small vessels. Sinliggila is a bishop's see. According to Polybius, it was colonised by the Romans, A. v. c. 471. Having espoused the cause of Marius, it was taken and sacked by Pompey. (*Commercial Dict.; Cresmer, desc. Italy, i. 288.*)

SISTOW, or SISTOVA, a town of European Turkey, prov. Bulgaria, on the Danube, which is here more than 1 m. broad, 36 m. W.S.W. Rustchuk. Pop., estimated in Horschemans Stein, at only 10,000; but by other authorities at 30,000 and upwards, including many Armenian and Greek merchants. It occupies a large extent of ground, surrounded by a palisade and a dry ditch. Mr. Quin says, "Sistow is beautifully situated. A range of well-wooded hills commences a league or two to the W., and extends a considerable way along the right bank of the Danube. The town, rising at the water's edge, winds its way up the undulations of the eminences. After ascending for a while, the houses are lost; then they appear higher up, and the whole is protected by a citadel, which crowns the summit." (*Steam Voyage on the Danube, i. 268.*) Sistow has some trade in leather and cotton. It was here, in 1791, that a treaty of peace was signed between Austria and Turkey, after the latter had lost Rinnik, Ismail, &c. to the Russians. (*Sistow's German and Russian, &c.*)

SITTINGBOURNE, a town and par. of England, co. Kent, lathe Scray, hund. Milton, on the road from London to Canterbury, 15 m. W. by N. the latter. Area of par., 1,260 acres. Pop., in 1841, 2,202. It consists chiefly of one wide street, running along the high road, and has several good inns. The parish church, a spacious building, has been mostly renewed since 1762, when it was destroyed by fire. The living, worth 212*½* a year, is in the gift of the archbishop of Canterbury. In 1508, Queen Elizabeth incorporated Sittingbourne under a mayor and jurat, with the privilege of sending 3 members to the H. of C., and of holding a weekly market and fairs; but these privileges seem never to have been exercised, except as respects the fairs, which are held on Whit Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, and Oct. 10. The markets are held once a month.

SIVACHE, or PUTRID SEA, the *Palmus Putridi* of the ancients, a lagoon on the east side of the Crimea. On the N. it communicates with the sea of Azoff, by the narrow strait of Yenitchi, being every where else separated from it by a narrow, low, sandy tongue of land, stretching N.N.W. from Arabat in the Crimea to opposite Yenitchi, a length of nearly 70 m. The lagoon is shallow, and its W. side, forming the E. shore of the Crimea, is extremely irregular. When the wind blows from the E., the water of the sea of Azoff is forced through the strait of Yenitchi, and covers the whole surface of the lagoon; but at other times it exhibits a large extent of mud, the exhalations from which are, in summer, exceedingly unhealthy. The Salghir, the principal river of the Crimea, falls into this lagoon.

SKIBBEREEN, a town of Ireland, prov. Munster, in the most southerly portion of the co. Cork, on the lln, which is navigable from Baltimore to within 1 m. of the town, 40 m. S.W. Cork. Pop., in 1841, 4,715. It is a brisk, thriving town, and has a considerable retail trade. It has a par. church, a Rom. Cath. chapel, a Methodist meeting-house, several schools, a dispensary, market-house, barrack, court-house, and bridewell. Petty sessions are held on Wednesdays; and it is a consular and coast-guard station. It has several large flour-mills and a brewery. The exports, which principally consist of corn, meal, flour, and provisions, are mostly shipped from Oldcourt, 2 m. lower down the river, where vessels of 200 tons load and unload. Markets on Wednesdays and Saturdays: fair May 14, July 10,

Aug. 2, Oct. 12, and Dec. 11 and 28. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 507*½* *l*.; in 1836, 832*½* *l*. A branch of the Agricultural Bank was opened in 1838.

SKIPTON, a market-town and par. of England, W. riding co. York, wapentake Staincliffe and Ewcross, E. div., in the mountainous distr. of Craven, and on the Aire, 36 m. W. York. Area of par., 26,760 acres. Pop., in 1841, 6,870. The town, consisting principally of one spacious street, is built wholly of stone from the neighbouring hills. The par. church has some monuments of the Clifford family. The living, a vicarage in the gift of the Dean and Chapter of Christchurch, is worth 185*½* a year. The Friends, Independents, and Wesleyans, have meeting-houses; and there is a flourishing grammar-school, founded in 1528, the pupils of which are eligible to the exhibitions of Lady E. Hastings at Queen's College, Oxford, and to two exhibitions in Christ's College, Cambridge. The town has also another endowed, or Clerk's school, a national school, &c.

Near the church is Skipton Castle, the seat of the Earl of Thanet, supposed to have been originally built soon after the conquest. Though not well placed for a fortress, it was of some consequence in that capacity during the wars of Charles I. It was dismantled in 1646, but is now a splendidly fitted up noble residence. Skipton is governed by a constable elected annually at the manorial court-leet; and the general quarter sessions for the W. riding are held in its town hall. It has some paper and cotton mills, and a considerable trade in corn, sheep, and cattle, much facilitated by the Leeds and Liverpool Canal, which passes close by the town. Market day, Saturday. Fairs, March 25.; Palm Sunday eve, Easter eve, and three Tuesdays next after Easter, for horses, cattle, and sheep; Whitson eve, Aug. 5., Nov. 20. and 23., for horses, woolen, and linen cloths, mercery and pedlery.

SKYE, one of the Hebrides, which see.

SLAVONIA, or SCLAVONIA (Hungar. *Tol-Dorasz*), a prov. of the Austrian empire, usually regarded as forming a part of Hungary, and chiefly included within its military frontier, between the Drave and the Danube on the N. and E., and the Save on the S., dividing it from Servia, Bosnia, and Turkish Croatia, and having Austrian Croatia on the W. Area, estimated at about 3,600 sq. m.; pop. 335,000, principally Slavonians of the Greek church; but partly, also, German colonists, Gypsies, and Jews. A branch of the Carnic Alps, almost wholly of calcareous formation, runs E. and W. through Slavonia; but these mountains are of no great elevation, and a large part of the surface is flat. The plains are very fertile, though frequently unhealthy from the presence of extensive marshes along the large rivers. Wheat, rye, oats, barley, and most other grains, are produced in abundance, besides flax, hemp, tobacco, madder, &c. A good deal of strong wine is made, especially in Sirmia. Fruit is extremely plentiful, and there are vast orchards of plums, whence the favourite liquor *slivovitz* is distilled. The hill ranges are covered with forests, consisting of excellent oak, &c. The breeding of live stock, particularly of hogs, which feed at large in the forests, is extensively pursued. The silkworm succeeds, but it is not much reared. The prov. is said to possess iron, salt, sulphur, and perhaps coal; but marble only is raised in any quantity. Manufactures, mostly domestic, excepting some of glass and earthenware, potash, &c. The trade partly consists in the exportation of the raw produce of the prov., and partly in the transit of products. The principal articles of export are cattle and hogs, which go to the most distant provs. of the Austrian empire; hides, skins, rye, wheat, honey and wax, galls, timber, &c. Slavonia is divided into 3 counties, and 4 military districts: chief towns, Essek, the cap., Peterwarden, and Pösega.

Slavonia and the Banat comprise the most important portion of Hungarian military frontier, the system of defence organised in which deserves some notice. "The object has been to maintain, at the least possible cost, along the whole Turkish frontier of Hungary, a force which, in peace, might be employed for the purposes of quarantine and customs, and in war serve as a portion of the standing army. This has been effected so perfectly, that in peace nearly 40,000 men do duty along 800 m. of frontier; and they not only feed and clothe themselves, but pay heavy taxes in money besides, and perform, also, a considerable quantity of labour without pay. The land acquired by government along the whole of this district is held as fiefs on the tenure of military and civil service, from 36 to 50 acres constituting a fief. Each of these is bound to furnish, and to maintain and clothe, according to its size, one or more men-at-arms. The fiefs are given to families composed of several members, of which the eldest is the *house-father*, and who, with the *house-mother*, has the direction of the farm, the care of the house, and the right to control the whole family. The fiefs cannot be sold: the land is cultivated for the common good of all the members of a family; and the profit, if any remain after the taxes and other expenses are

defrayed, is divided among them. In most cases, many married couples, with their children, sometimes to the number of 50 individuals, live under the same roof, cultivate the same land, eat at the same table, and obey the same father. The border-family has to do civil service for the state, as in the repair of post-roads and bridges, draining of swamps, &c., one day per annum for every English acre, and 8 days a year for the village. The borderer's chief tax, besides the furnishing the uniform (government supplying the arms, boots, &c.), is the land-tax, amounting, for an entire *faat*, to from 15s. to 30s. a year. In time of peace, the man-at-arms repairs to his military station for 7 days at a time, where the family provides him with food. Besides this, he has the duty of transporting letters, as well as the money and baggage of his regiment, and of performing exercise. For the ordinary service, the number of men on duty amounts to 4,180. In times of disturbance on the Turkish side, or when the plague is drawing near, it is increased to 6,900, and in times of still greater danger, to 10,000. In time of war, the borderers must furnish the regular army, and march out of the country if required. The regular disposable force amounts to 34,800 men; but if the reserve and the *landwehr* be called out, to 100,000. If driven to the last extremity, they can muster to the amount of 200,000 men. (*Cæplovica*.) By means of alarm-fires and bells, this immense force may be summoned together through the whole extent of the frontier in the space of 4 hours! The borderers are divided into 7 regiments. Every regiment receives its orders ultimately from the council of war at Vienna. The Hungarian Diet has no control over the levy and supply of these troops; and the schools, the language of the service, and many of the laws in the military border, are exclusively German." (*Page's Hungary*, &c., ii. 93-102.; *Cæplovica*, *Gemälde von Ungarn*; *Oesterr.*, *Nat. Encyc.*)

SLEAFORD (NEW), a market-town and par. of England, co. Lincoln, wapent. Flaxwell in Kesteven, on the Sles, 16 m. S.E.E. Lincoln. Area of par., 3,160 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,592. The town consists principally of three streets, and has a prosperous appearance. The church, founded in 1271, is interesting for its architecture. The tower, at the W. end, is much the oldest part, and is early English; but surmounted by a spire, 144 ft. in height, of a later date. The aisles, transept, &c. are in the decorated, and the chancel and other parts in the perpendicular, style. The whole of the details of this church, in all its styles, are very good. (*Rickman's Gothic Archit.*) In the chancel are several monuments to the Carr family, one of whom founded and endowed a free-school in the town, and an hospital for 12 poor men. The school was closed from 1819 to 1833, during which period the school-house was rebuilt; in the latter year it was re-opened, when it had an income of 189*l.* a year. There are several other charities, particularly Alvey's school, for 40 children, which has received many endowments since that of its founder. (*38d Rep. on Charities*, part iv.) Formerly the bishop of Lincoln had a palace at New Sleaford, but it no longer exists. A new Gothic sessions house has lately been built, in which petty sessions are held; and various other improvements have been effected in the town. The living, a vicarage worth 170*l.* a year, is in the gift of the prebendary of Lincoln Cathedral. Market days, Mondays: fairs, Flow, Easter, and Whit Monday, for horses, cattle, and sheep; Aug. 13. for provisions; and Oct. 26. for cattle and sheep. (*Parl. Reports*, &c.)

SLESWICK (Germ. *Schleswig*), a duchy belonging to Denmark, comprising the S. part of the peninsula of Jutland, between lat. 54° 18' and 56° 30' N. and long. 8° 40' and 10° 10' E., having Jutland Proper to the N., S. Holstein, from which it is separated by the Eyder; E. the Baltic, and W. the North Sea. Area, including the adjacent islands, 3,450 sq. m. Pop., in 1845, 362,900. Surface low, and generally flat, being in parts varied only by a few undulating hills. Almost the whole of its western coast is either below or elevated very little above the sea, being defended from its irruptions (from which, however, it has frequently suffered much) by immense dykes and sluices. The country so protected consists principally of very rich marsh land, affording pasture for large herds of very superior cattle, as well as great numbers of fine horses. In the interior the soil is sandy, interspersed with heaths, and not very productive, but on the eastern side it is fertile. There are no minerals of importance. The produce of corn, consisting principally of rye and barley, is sufficient for home consumption; and flax, hemp, and potatoes, are also grown. But the raising of cattle and horses forms the staple employment; and these, with butter and cheese, form the principal articles of export. The fishery is carried on to some extent. The deficiency of timber for fuel is compensated by the abundance of turf. The country is mostly open; but it is in parts inclosed with quickest hedges, and the farm-houses are neat, and have a comfortable appearance. The manufactures, which are unimportant, consist mostly of linen, hempen, and wool-

len fabrics, made in the peasants' cottages. Lace is produced at Tondern, and there are a few paper, tile, and other factories. Flensborg is the principal place of trade: Slawick, Kiel, and Tonnungen, are the other chief towns. This duchy preserves several of its ancient laws and institutions; feudal vassalage, however, was abolished in 1805.

Slawick, a sea-port town of Denmark, cap. of the above duchy, at the bottom of the long, narrow gulph, or arm of the sea, called the Sley, 21 m. E. from its mouth, and 70 m. N.N.W. Hamburg. Lat. 54° 31' 19" N., long. 9° 34' 45" E. Pop., according to Horschelmann's *Stein*, 11,000. Though irregularly built, its brick houses, neatness, and manner of building, make it look like a Dutch town. It has 3 churches, including the cathedral, with several monuments, and a remarkable altar-screen; several hospitals, a deaf and dumb asylum, schools for the poor, a patriotic union, and other societies, a nursery, a savings' bank, with manufactures of lace, wooden stuffs, earthenware, &c. Its commerce has been a good deal increased since the improvements in the navigation of the Sley; still, however, it is accessible only by the smaller class of vessels. It was formerly a member of the Hanseatic league, and a town of some note as early as the 9th century. In its immediate vicinity is the castle of Gottorp, formerly the residence of the dukes of Holstein-Gottorp, and now occupied by the governor of the duchies of Slawick and Holstein. (*Stein's Handbuch der Geogr.*, &c.)

SLIGO, a marit. co. of Ireland, prov. Connaught, having N. the Atlantic Ocean, E. the Sligo, S. the E. Roscommon, and S.W. and W. Mayo. Area, 434,887 acres, of which 168,711 are mountain and bog, and 8,360 water. Surface much diversified; but though it has a considerable extent of level rich land, it is, speaking generally, mountainous, rough, and boggy. There are a few pretty large estates; but a considerable portion of the co. is divided among small proprietors. The statements as to the mode of occupying land, its management, and the condition of the inhabs., given under the notice of the co. LARRAN (which see), may be applied with little or no modification to this co. The great increase within the few years in the amount of the exports from the town of Sligo, show that there must have been a corresponding extension of cultivation in this co. and the contiguous portions of Leitrim. But unhappily the extension, and even improvement of tillage in Ireland, is not always accompanied by any corresponding improvement in the condition of the occupiers, which is here extremely bad. The *con-acre* system (see *note*, p. 40.) has made much progress in this co.; the competition for land is extreme; and the occupier of any overworked patch that may choose to part with it, never fails to get a considerable sum as "tenants' right." Average rent of land, 10*s.* 8*d.* an acre. It has neither minerals nor manufactures of any importance. Principal rivers, Garvoe, Arrow, Awlmore, &c. It is divided into 6 baronies and 39 parishes, and returns 3 mems. to the H. of C., two being for the co. and one for the bor. of Sligo, the only town of any importance in the co. Registered electors for the co., in 1849, 50, 380. In 1841, Sligo had 31,448 inhab. houses, 32,837 families, and 190,886 inhabs., of whom 99,563 were males, and 91,323 females.

SLIGO, a parl. bor. and sea-port town, on the W. coast of Ireland, prov. Connaught, cap. of the above co., at the bottom of Sligo Bay, and at the mouth of the river Garvoe, 107 m. N.W. Dublin; lat. 54° 22' N., long. 8° 22' W. Pop., in 1831, 14,151; in 1841, 14,318. The town, which is of considerable importance, and increasing both in wealth and population, is intersected by the Garvoe, which has its source in Lough Gill, distant about 2 m. The larger portion of which is on the S. side of the river, is connected with the town on the N. by 2 bridges. The streets are irregularly laid out, and those in the older parts of the town are narrow, dirty, badly paved, and badly lighted. Of late years, however, several new markets, warehouses, and lines of streets, have been erected; and it has a good deal of the bustle and appearance of a place of trade. Water is supplied by public pumps. The town has a library, 2 news-rooms, a small theatre, and a cavalry barrack. The ecclesiastical buildings comprise the par. churches of St. John and Calry; a large Roman Cath. chapel, a Dominican convent, and places of worship for Presbyterians, Independents, and Wesleyan Methodists. The ruins of Sligo monastery deserve notice for their architecture and for a monument of O'Connor Sligo, who died in 1622. There are 2 par. schools, a school in connexion with the Board of National Education, one on the foundation of Erasmus Smith, and one under the incorporated Society. The County Infirmary, Fever Hospital, and Dispensary, and a mendicity association, are within the town. A Lunatic Asylum is now (1850) being erected.

The bor., which was chartered by James I. in 1614, is divided, under the Irish Municipal Reform Act, 3 & 4 Victoria, cap. 108., into 3 wards, and is governed by a

mayor, 5 other aldermen, and 18 councillors. Sligo returned 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C., and since the Union it has sent 1 m. to the Imperial H. of C. Area of par. bor. 3,001 acres; of municipal do., 417 acres. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 603.

A board of commissioners, appointed under local acts, superintends the police of the town, and the improvement and regulation of the quays and harbour, with power to impose rates for those purposes. Under their management, the port has been a good deal improved. An extensive new quay and warehouses have been erected outside the bar; and though rather difficult of access, the port is now very tolerable. There are about 12 ft. water close to the quay, so that vessels of 250 and 300 tons come up to the town. The assizes and general sessions of the peace for the co. are held here; the latter four times in the year; and petty sessions every Thursday. The court-house, though a modern structure, is too small for the convenient despatch of business. The co. gaol, a large and well constructed building on the polygonal plan, is furnished with a treadmill. The Sligo union workhouse, built for the accommodation of 1,710 inmates, was opened in 1841.

The linen trade, which was formerly carried on with some spirit, is now nearly extinct. The town has several flour mills, a distillery, and four breweries. The markets for corn and butter, on Tuesday and Saturday, are held in buildings erected for the purpose. There is a valuable salmon fishery close to the town.

Sligo is the *entrepôt* of an extensive country, and has, in consequence, a considerable and increasing trade. The exports consist almost wholly of agricultural produce; thus, in 1835, the total estimated value of the exports amounted to 369,490*l.*; of which the value of corn, meal, and flour made 185,414*l.*, and that of provisions (beef, pork, &c.) 181,836*l.* The imports consist of colonial products, English goods, tobacco, wine, coal, salt, &c., for the use of the town and the country dependant upon it. Gross customs' revenue in 1849, 25,130*l.* Post-office revenue in 1849, 1,266*l.* Branches of the Bank of Ireland and the Provincial Bank are established in the town, which has also 3 newspapers.

The intercourse between the port and Lough Gill, and the surrounding country, by the Garraigue, is prevented by a dam thrown across the latter for the use of the large flour mills. This obstruction is much complained of, and will, probably, at no distant period, be removed. The country in the vicinity is highly picturesque, and has many fine seats. The pop. is comparatively respectable, and well off. (*Boundary and Railway Reports; Thom's Almanack, &c.*)

SMOLENSKO, a government of European Russia, between the 53d and 57th degs. of N. lat. and the 30th and 36th E. long., having N. the governments of Pskof and Tver, E. Moscow and Riga, W. Witbesk and Moghilef, and S. Orlof and Tchernigof. Area estimated at 30,320 sq. m.; pop. in 1846, 1,170,600. Surface mostly an undulating plain, in some parts marshy; in the N. is a more elevated plateau, in which the Dnieper and several other rivers have their source. The soil is generally fertile, and more corn, principally rye, is grown than is required for home consumption. Hemp, flax, tobacco, and hops, are cultivated. Cattle breeding is less attended to; but a good many hogs are reared. The forests are very extensive, and are, in fact, the chief sources of wealth. Game is very plentiful; and bees are reared almost every where. Iron, copper, and salt, are found. Manufactures few, being nearly confined to leather, glass, wares, pitch, &c.; with sawing works, distilleries, and a few carpet factories in the cap. The raw produce of the government is exported, in large quantities, to Riga, Wilna, and Moscow. It is divided into 12 circles.

SMOLENSKO, a town of European Russia, cap. of the above gov., on the Dnieper, 220 m. W. by S. Moscow, lat. 54° 47' 11" N., long. 32° 3' E. Pop. nearly 10,000. It is situated on both sides the river, and is surrounded by a massive wall flanked with towers. It appears to advantage at a distance, but is in reality a poor town; the houses being mostly of only one story, and built of wood; but since it was burned by the Russians, previously to their evacuating it on the advance of the French in 1812, it has been partially rebuilt of stone and brick.

Smolensko has 3 cathedrals, in one of which is a bell weighing 250 cwts; 16 Greek churches; 3 convents; a Lutheran and a R. Catholic church; a seminary; gymnasium; a military school for nobles; several hospitals; and some carpet, hat, soap, and leather factories. In 1858, the erection of an iron pyramid was commenced here, intended to commemorate the resistance made by the town to the French in 1812.

Smolensko is of considerable antiquity. It has suffered numerous vicissitudes, but has always been a town of some consequence.

SMYRNA, an ancient and celebrated city and sea-port of Asia Minor, the greatest empo-

rium of W. Asia, on the W. side of the Meles, a stream which, though of small dimensions, has acquired an immortality of renown, at the bottom of the gulph of its own name (an. *Hermus Sinus*), lat. 38° 25' 36" N., long. 27° 6' 45" E. Its pop. may be estimated at from 130,000 to 150,000, more than half being Turks, and the rest Greeks, Jews, Armenians, Franks, &c. It is surrounded, at some distance, by an amphitheatre of lofty mountains, which leave it open only towards the sea; and immediately adjoining the city, on the W., is the ancient *Mons Pagus*, which commands a noble view. This eminence is now called the Castle Hill, from a citadel erected on its summit, in the 13th century, by the Emperor John Comnenus. "A triangular plain, spread at the foot of this hill along the shore, and the slopes of the hill itself, compose the site of Smyrna. One side extends along the shore from W. to E. for about 24 m. The Turks occupy the upper part of the city, their streets hanging down the slopes of the hill; the Armenians are in the centre, the Jews have two or three different places around both; and the Franks spread themselves in the flat ground and close to the shore. Extending S.E. is a plain filled with gardens; and every part of the city is interspersed with shady trees." (*Burgess's Greece and the Levant*, ii. 67, 68.)

The view of Smyrna from the bay, rising amphitheatrically from the water's edge, backed by the hill crowned with its old castle, is grand and impressive. Unfortunately, however, its interior has all the odious features common to most Turkish towns. "If a first view be calculated to make a favourable impression, this is not confirmed by an inspection of the interior of the city. The Frank quarter is dirty, ill paved, and narrow; in addition to which, it is rendered almost impassable by long strings of camels and porters carrying huge bales of cotton. The houses (excepting those of the consuls and principal merchants, which are large and commodious) are miserably built; the sides consist often of planks; and when of bricks, the walls are too thin to keep out cold and damp. Neither windows nor doors are made to shut close; and if locks appear on the latter, it is too much to expect that they should be serviceable. There is a great lack of accommodation for travellers. The only inn in the town contains but a single decent room; and the noise of revelry is incessant. Besides this, there are three boarding-houses; but furnished lodgings are not to be procured, nor can furniture be hired for a few weeks or months. The apparatus commonly used for supplying warmth to the body in cold weather is a brazier placed under the table, which is covered by a large cloth held by each member of the family circle up to the chin, to prevent the heat from escaping. Grates and stoves have of late years been introduced; but they are still rare, and to be seen only in Frank dwellings. The shops are Frank dark rooms, but tolerably supplied with European articles. The bazaars, with their long covered rows of stalls, built with sundry precautions against fire, whose ravages are awfully common, are secured by iron gates closed at night. As to the rest, Turkish towns in general offer little variety, and the description already given of Constantinople applies to Smyrna, except as regards the finer buildings, greater extent, and gaudy exterior of the capital." (*Elliot's Travels*, ii. 34-36.) Smyrna suffered severely from a fire in 1845.

The principal buildings of Smyrna are, the bazaar and *basaitzin*, or market-place; the vizier-khan, constructed of the marble ruins of the ancient theatre; the palace of the *sauetidin*, or governor, and the various mosques, churches, hospitals, &c. There is a large public hospital in the N.E. part of the Frank quarter, supported by the Greeks, Franks, and other Christians, which ranks high in Turkey for its school of medicine. Its buildings comprise a laboratory, and three sets of wards around a courtyard shaded by rows of trees. The castle on Mount Pagus is very extensive, and occupies the site of the ancient acropolis. This fortress has been frequently repaired by the Turks, and accordingly presents an incongruous intermixture of architecture; but it is now mostly deserted, and in ruins, though a few old cannons are still mounted on its walls. Within are some vaults and cisterns, supposed to be coeval with its foundation; and a large but abandoned mosque, formerly a church dedicated to St. Polycarp, bishop of Smyrna, who is supposed, though on no very good authority, to have suffered martyrdom near the same spot.

Smyrna was the seat of one of the seven Apocalyptic churches. (Rev. ii. 9.) And, according to Mr. Elliott, "there is not one of these churches within whose precincts the trumpet of the gospel now gives so distinct and certain a sound." While Mohammed is acknowledged in 20 mosques, and Jews assemble in several synagogues, the faith of the Messiah is taught in an Armenian, 6 Greek, and 2 R. Catholic churches, and in 3 Protestant chapels, one connected with the English, the other with the Dutch consulate." (*Trav.* ii. 45, 46.) The Armenians have a large academy at Smyrna.

Being surrounded, as already stated, by an amphitheatre of mountains, which concentrate the rays of the sun and interrupt the breeze, the heats at Smyrna, from June to the middle of Sept., are usually intense; and if the *habes*, or sea-breeze, fall, the inhab. are almost suffocated. This great heat and want of ventilation, joined to the filthy and crowded state of the streets and houses, and the want of any efficient precautions on the part of the authorities, seldom fails to generate the most destructive diseases; among which, the plague not unfrequently makes its appearance, and commits dreadful ravages. At such periods all commercial and social intercourse immediately ceases; and the Frank inhab. retire to and shut themselves up in their country houses in the surrounding villages. The Turks, who are firm predestinarians, have hitherto taken few or no precautions to counteract the progress of the infection, or to guard against it; but it is stated by late travellers that some change is now beginning to take place in this respect, and that the principal Turkish inhab. are slowly adopting some of the devices by which Europeans attempt to ward off the malady. (*Chandler's Asia Minor*, chap. 19; *Burgess*, il. 76.)

Port and Commerce.—Though frequently overthrown by earthquakes, and laid waste by hostile incursions, the excellence of her port, and her advantageous situation for commerce, has always made Smyrna be rebuilt; and she still continues to be a great city, while Ephesus, Miletus, and other celebrated emporiums on the same coast, have, from the filling up of their harbours, been long since reduced to total ruin. The Gulph of Smyrna, the entrance to which is between the island of Mytilene on the N., and Cape Carabouron on the S., is deep and angular, the distance following a ship's course from the entrance to the city, being about 11 nautical leagues. There is excellent anchorage in most parts of the Gulph, merely avoiding the shoals on its N. side. Ships of large burden usually anchor abreast of the city from five to seven fathoms; but the water is so deep that they may lie close alongside the quays. The *habes*, or sea-breeze, blows from morning till evening during the hot months, and is always waited for by ships going up to the city; and there being no obstructions in the way, the services of pilots are not required. In the night a land breeze generally blows from the city out to sea.

The principal articles of import consist of grain, furs, iron, butter, &c., from Odessa and Taganrog; and of cotton stuffs and twist, silk and woollen goods, coffee, sugar, cochineal and dye woods, iron, tin, and tin plates, rum, brandy, paper, cheese, glass, wine, &c., from Great Britain, France, Italy, the U. States, &c. Coffee is, perhaps, the most considerable article: it comes principally from America and England, and the annual consumption is estimated at 3,000,000 oke.

The exports consist principally of raw silk and cotton, the former produced about Brusa, and sent chiefly to England; fruits, particularly raisins, and figs; opium, which goes chiefly to America and Holland; rhubarb, and a variety of drugs and gums; olive oil, madder roots, Turkey carpets, valances, sponge, galia, wax, copper, hare-skins from 350,000 to 400,000 annually; goats' wool, safflower, &c. Burgess, who visited Smyrna, in July, 1834, says, "British commerce, if I may judge from the present state of the harbour, is by far the most considerable. There are now 30 vessels under cargo, of which more than a half are bound for Great Britain and Ireland. The English appear to engross the commerce of fruit; the French of cotton; the Dutch trade is entirely fallen off." (il. 80–85.) The principal foundation of the commerce of Smyrna consists in the caravans, composed principally of Armenians, that arrive from Persia and the East, at fixed periods, which are nearly identical with those of the arrival and departure of most of the foreign ships frequenting the port. They carry to and convey away the greater portion of the exports and imports. Bargains are principally effected by Jew brokers, many of whom have amassed considerable fortunes. Upon an average, the selling charges, generally, may be calculated at about 12 per cent., and the charges on purchasing at about 8 per cent. The money, weights, and measures, are mostly the same as at Constantinople. Accounts are kept in piastres of 40 paras. The value of the piastre fluctuates according to the exchange; but, in 1854, Burgess received 9/4 for it sterling, and the Spanish dollar, at the same time, was worth 2 1/2 piastres. The oke, which is the principal weight = 15 lbs. 13 1/2 oz. avoird.; the quintal = 127 1/2 lbs. avoird. (*Com. Dict.*)

Smyrna is well supplied with provisions of all kinds. Fish, including red mullet, oysters, &c., are very plentiful in the bay; and game of all kinds, mutton, the flesh of wild boars, &c., are good and abundant. Whey and clotted cream are used in great quantities. Sweet lemons, oranges, citrons, water-melons, figs, and grapes, are grown in great perfection in the environs, particularly at Menemen, and the other villages on the opposite side of the Gulph; whence boats carrying fruits and

other provisions, are continually passing to Smyrna. Mr. Burgess gives the ordinary prices of certain articles as follows:—Eggs 3 to 6 paras each; milk 30 ds. per oke; a small loaf 6 or 8 ds.; melons 20 paras the oke, grapes 30 ds.; mutton 2 piast. 10 par. the oke; beef little more than half that price, &c.

Most travellers speak of the agreeable society met with in Smyrna; and the Greeks of the city have begun to adopt the manners and costumes of western Europe.

Historical Notice.—The accounts of the foundations and early history of Smyrna are obscure and somewhat contradictory. The most probable seems to be that it was founded by a colony from Ephesus. (*Strabo*, lib. xiv.) Under undergoing various vicissitudes, it was destroyed by Alyattes, king of Lydia, the inhab. being dispersed among the surrounding villages. At the distance of about 400 years, a project for reconstructing the city would appear to have been entertained by Alexander the Great; but, if so, it was not carried into effect by that conqueror, but by Antigonus and Lyimachus. The city built by them was not, however, on the site of the old city, which stood on the flat shore on the other side of the Meles, about 2 1/2 m. N.E. from the modern city. The admirable port and other advantages enjoyed by the newly built city rendered it in a short time one of the most populous, wealthy, and handsomest of the Asiatic cities. "It is," says Strabo, "the finest city of Asia. Part of it is built on a hill; but the finest edifices are on the plain not far from the sea, over against the temple of Cybele. The streets are the most beautiful that can be, straight, wide, and paved with freestone. It has many stately buildings, magnificent porticoes, majestic temples (including a *Homerium*, or temple in honour of Homer), a public library, and a convenient harbour, which may be shut at pleasure." (*Lib. xiv. sub fin.*) Under the Romans Smyrna enjoyed the greatest consideration, and Marcus Aurelius rebuilt the city, after it had been almost destroyed by an earthquake. It was much frequented by the Sophists, and along with Ephesus, became renowned as a school of oratory and science.

In more modern times it has undergone innumerable calamities, from which, as already stated, nothing but its admirable situation for commerce could have enabled it to recover. It was taken and given up to military execution by the famous Tamerlane, or Timur Bec, in 1403; and finally came into the possession of the Turks, in 1434.

Smyrna is one of the numerous cities that contended for the honour of being the birth-place of Homer; and Chios, perhaps, excepted, the would seem to have the best claim to this proud distinction. *Homeri Smyrni summi esse confirmant; itaque etiam deducuntur Juv in oppido dedicaverunt.* (*Cicero pro Archia*, cap. 1.) From being born on the banks of the Meles, which washed the walls of the ancient as well as of the modern city, Homer is sometimes called *Meligenes*.

"Blind Meligenes thence Homer call'd,
Whose poem Phœbus challeng'd for his own."

Thence, also, Tibullus (*lib. iv. eleg. l. v. 218.*) calls his poem *Melœtes Chivus*; and Pausanias says (*Archæol.* cap. 5), that a cave was pointed out at the source of the Meles, where they were said to have been composed.

Owing to the influence of earthquakes, and the still more destructive attacks of barbarians, Smyrna has but few considerable remains of antiquity. They consist principally of portions of the old walls, especially along the castle-hill, with some vestiges of the theatre and stadium. Many pedestals, statues, inscriptions, and medals, have been and are still discovered in digging; and perhaps no place has contributed more than this to enrich the collections and cabinets of Europe.

It has been supposed by Chiodi and others, that the mud and other detritus brought down by the Kous (an *Hermeus*), which has its embouchure on the N. side of the Gulph, will, in the end, fill up the channel; and by depriving the city of its port, effectually consummate its ruin. But though this effect may ultimately be brought about, it is abundantly certain, comparing the banks at the river's mouth with the space that has to be filled up, that a lengthened series of ages must previously elapse.

Besides the authorities already referred to, see *Ancient Universal History*, vol. i., 410, 8vo. ed. &c.

SNOWDON, a mountain of W. Wales, in Caernarvonshire, being at once the highest in the range of which it forms a part, and in S. Britain. The mountain, which is about 10 m. S.E. from Caernarvon, terminates in various peaks; the particular peak, the Wyddra (conspicuous), to which the name Snowdon is more particularly applicable, and which scarcely out-tops several of the surrounding summits, is 3,571 ft. above the level of the sea. The W. side of the mountain is very precipitous, and is composed partly of pentagonal basaltic columns. The view from the summit is very extensive. "I saw from it," says Pennant, "the co. of Chester, the high hills of Yorkshire, part of the N. of England, Scotland and Ireland; a plain view of the Isle of Man; and that

of Anglesey lay extended like a map before me, with every hill visible." (*Travels in Wales*, ii. 387, ed. 1810.)

SOCIETY ISLANDS. See POLYNESIA.

SOCOTRA (an. *Diocordis Insula*), an island in the Indian Ocean, about 230 m. from the S. coast of Arabia, and 120 m. E. Cape Gardafui, in Africa; its chief town being in lat. $12^{\circ} 29' 2''$ N., long. $54^{\circ} 6' 30''$ E. It is of an elongated shape. Area estimated by Mr. Wellsted at 1,000 sq. m. Pop. probably 4,000 or 5,000, principally Bedouins, with some settled Arabs, African slaves, and descendants of Portuguese. The S. coast of Socotra preserves a convex and nearly unbroken line, but on the N. it is indented with many bays and harbours. The interior may be described as consisting of mountains, nearly surrounded by a low plain of from 2 to 4 m. in width, extending from their base to the sea. The mountains are highest towards the N.E. part of the island, where their granite peaks rise to about 5,000 ft.: elsewhere they average nearly 3,000 ft. in height, and consist mostly of a compact cream-coloured primitive limestone. The island is not well-watered; but the E. is, in this respect, better than the W. portion. The climate does not appear to be particularly salubrious, though it be more temperate than in the adjacent continent. Among the few natural products, the most important is aloes (*Alch. opuntia*, or *Socotrina*), for which the island has been famous from the earliest period. This plant is found growing spontaneously and in great abundance on the sides and summits of the limestone mountains, at an elevation of from 500 to 3,000 ft. above the level of the plains. Its leaves are plucked at any period, and after being placed in a skin, the juice is suffered to exude from them. In this state they are mostly shipped for Muscat. Formerly the parts of the island producing the aloes were turned out to different individuals, the produce being taken at a low fixed price by the Sultan. At present any one collects the aloes, leaves who chooses to take the trouble, and nothing is levied on the Sultan's account. The quantity exported of late has varied very much: in 1833, it amounted to 83 skins, or 2 tons; and the best sold for 1 rupee the Bengal seer (nearly 1 lb. English); while of the more indifferent, 4 seers might be procured for a dollar. (*Wellsted*.) Dragon's blood is the article next in importance: it is the produce of a leguminous tree, the *Pterocarpus draco*, which grows on the mountains.

Tamarinds, tobacco, and dates (important as food), are also grown. Agriculture is in an exceedingly low state; a species of millet being the only grain cultivated, and it is little used unless a failure of milk and dates be experienced. The animals are camels, sheep, goats, oxen, asses, and civet cats. Sheep and goats are kept in large flocks in every part of the island: they are generally of inferior kinds, while the cattle, on the contrary, though small, are very superior, and appear to be of the European variety. The trade is principally with Muscat, whence dates and other provisions are chiefly imported. According to Arrian, the inhabs. of this island were, in antiquity, subject "to the kings of the incense-country," or Southern Arabia. At present Socotra belongs to the Sultan of Kissen, but his supremacy is little more than nominal, the government being chiefly delegated to one of the principal inhabs., who again exercises little authority, except over the Bedouin, or native pop. The tribute to the Sultan barely amounts to 200 dollars a year. The population is wholly Mohammedan. The women go unveiled, and are partly occupied in tending flocks, and partly in making glue, and carding, spinning, and weaving wool.

The only town of any consequence is Tamarinda, on the N.E. shore, in the centre of a bay which affords tolerable anchorage. Having been ruined by the Wahabees, in 1801, it consists of only about 150 straggling and dilapidated houses, not more than one third of which were inhabited in 1834. The town had then but two shops, where the only articles exposed for sale were dates, grain, tobacco, and cloths. (*Wellsted in Geog. Journal*, v. 129-229.)

SOHAM, a market-town and par. of England, co. Cambridge, hund. Staploe, near the borders of Suffolk, 6 m. S.S.E. Ely. Area of par., 13,240 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,166. The town, which is irregularly built, covers a good deal of ground. The par. church is of various dates, one portion being Norman. The living is a rectory, worth £304 a year, is in the patronage of the present incumbent, who also holds the rectory of Sohame-earl, worth 515*l.* a year. (*Eccles. Rev. Rep.*, 1831.) Soham has numerous charities, especially Bishop Laney's, for apprenticing children of the par., with an annual revenue of near 400*l.*; a large charity-school, and several almshouses. The fen or mere, which once covered the adjacent country, has been drained and cultivated, and supplies most part of the dairy produce, for which Soham is celebrated. Market-days, Saturday, *Fair*, May 7, for horses and cattle. (*Forb.*, sup.)

SOISSONS (an. *Noviodunum*, post. *Augusta Suesionum*), a fortified town of France, dep. Aisne, cap. arrond.; on the Aisne, here crossed by a handsome

stone bridge, 17 m. S.W. Laon. Pop. in 1846, 7,900. Its fortifications consist merely of bastioned ramparts. It is well built, and clean, the houses being mostly of stone, roofed with slate. There are many curious and venerable public buildings; inc. the cathedral, founded in the 12th century, with an altar-piece by Rubens, representing the "Adoration of the Shepherds;" the remains of an abbey founded in the 11th century; the castle, on the site of that which was the residence of various Merovingian kings, &c. The college, hospital, house of correction, public library with 18,000 vols., and theatre, deserve notice; and in the vicinity are the ruins of St. Medard's Abbey, founded in 657, in which Pepin, Charlemagne, were crowned, and Louis-le-Debonnaire was confined by his sons. Soissons is a bishop's see, and has a court of primary jurisdiction, a communal college, two seminaries, a society of arts and sciences, manufactures of coarse woollens, hosiery, and earthenware, and a considerable trade in agricultural produce.

Soissons has been the theatre of various historical events. It was here, in 496, that Clovis finally extinguished the last remains of the Western Empire, by his victory over the Roman general Syagrius. The town then became the cap. of the Franks, and afterwards of a kingdom of its own name in the 6th and 7th centuries. It was frequently besieged and taken in the middle ages, and was the scene of some severe fighting between the French and the allies in 1814. (*Hugo*, art. *Aisne*; *Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

SOLOTHURN (French *Soleure*), a canton of Switzerland, in the N.W. part of the Confederation, between lat. 47° and $47^{\circ} 30'$, and the 7th and 8th degr. of E. long.; having N. Basle, E. and S.E. Aargau and Lucerne, and on its other sides the canton of Berne. Area 256 sq. m. Pop., in 1850, 69,574, mostly all E. Catholics. Though of a very irregular shape, it may be divided into two nearly equal portions; the N.W. covered with ranges of the Jura Mountains, and the S.E. comprised in the valleys of the Aar and Emmen. Some of the summits in the former rise to about 4,000 ft. above the level of the sea; but though rugged, this part of the canton has a large extent of fine upland pastures. In the other, or lower portion of the canton, the ground is fertile and well-cultivated; so that, on the whole, Solothurn is regarded as one of the most productive portions of Switzerland. More corn is grown than is required for the consumption of the inhabs.; the vine does not succeed, but a good deal of fruit is notwithstanding grown for exportation. The rearing of live stock is here, however, as in most other Swiss cantons, the chief branch of rural industry. In 1838, it was estimated to have about 26,000 horned cattle, 14,000 sheep, and 16,400 hogs: the latter are fed in the woods, which are tolerably extensive. The cattle are esteemed among the best in Switzerland; they are of a peculiar large-tailed breed, and with horses, cheese, cherry brandy, fire-wood, and marble, constitute the principal articles of export. Only a few hands are employed in mining; and the manufacturing establishments are mostly confined to a few iron works, stock, cotton looms, paper mills, tanneries, and printing houses. The currency, weights, and many usages of this canton, are similar to those of Berne.

Under the Constitution, as modified in 1831, the greater council consists of 109 mems., 96 of whom are chosen by the towns and the 10 rural districts into which Solothurn is divided, and the remaining 13 by the mems. already elected. The lesser or executive council, composed of 17 mems., is chosen with its president, or *avoyer*, from among the greater council. The assembly meets twice a year for 18 days, during which period each mem. receives 3 fr. a day. The town of Solothurn, and each of the districts has a court of primary jurisdiction for civil causes; but all criminal cases, as well as the final jurisdiction in civil suits, belong to a central tribunal of 14 mems., presided over by the *avoyer* of the state assembly. Every male inhab. above the age of 16 is liable to military service: the contingent to the army of the confederacy is 600 men. Total public revenue in 1835, 408,184 fr.; expenditure, 400,569 fr., of which 18,000 fr. was contributed to the general Swiss treasury. There is no town worthy of notice, except the cap., Olten, Dorneck, &c. being mere villages.

SOLOTHURN, or SOLEURE (an. *Soldaurum*), a town of Switzerland, and the cap. of the above canton, on the Aar, near the foot of the Jura mountains, and 13 m. N. by E. Berne. Pop., in 1845, 4,547. The river divides it into two unequal parts, which communicate by two wooden bridges. It was surrounded, in the 17th century, by cumbrous fortifications, the removal of a part of which was ordered by the cantonal council in 1835. It is tolerably well built, and has several conspicuous public edifices; including, among others, the cathedral of St. Urs, one of the best churches in Switzerland, with several other churches and convents, a town hall, a square clock-tower in the market place, the arsenal, with an extensive and curious collection of armour, a museum, government house, with some good sculptures

hospital, house of correction, barracks, theatre, &c. It has, also, a gymnasium, a botanic garden, and a public library, said by Ebel to comprise 10,000 vols. On the whole, however, the town is dull, having few manufactures, and but little trade. The Polish patriot and general, Kosciuszko, resided here during the last two years of his life, which terminated on the 16th of Oct., 1817. His remains were carried to the cathedral of Cracow, where they repose beside those of the famous John Sobieski. (*Strauchner, Der Kanton Solothurn; Picot, Statist. de la Suisse; Ebel.*)

SOMERSET, a maritime co. of England; having N. and N.W. the Bristol Channel, the Severn, and Gloucestershire, E. Wiltshire, S. Dorset and Devon, and W. the latter. Area, 1,052,900 acres, of which about 900,000 are supposed to be arable, meadow, and pasture. With, perhaps, the single exception of Yorkshire, there is no county in England that has a greater variety of surface and soil than Somerset. In some places, particularly in its W. and N.E. divisions, it is hilly, and even mountainous; in its middle part, between the rivers Ax and Parry, there are very extensive tracts of marsh land, which, in some places, are of extraordinary fertility; in other places again, there are extensive moors, of which Exmoor, at the W. extremity of the co., is the principal. But, exclusive of these, the co. contains a large extent of land equally adapted for tillage and pasturage. The Vale of Taunton is one of the richest and most beautiful tracts in the kingdom. Tillage husbandry is neither extensively carried on, nor in the most approved manner. The land is not injured by overcropping, but it is not properly wrought, and is frequently foul, and out of order. Principal crops, wheat, oats, barley, and beans. In the southern and interior parts, the rotation is, 1. fallow, 2. wheat, 3. beans or seeds, 4. oats; in the E. part of the co. it is generally, 1. fallow, 2. wheat, 3. oats or barley, 4. seeds. Potatoes are pretty extensively grown; but turnips are not cultivated to any extent in any part of the co. Lime is frequently used on the arable land; and, with the exception of dung, is the only manure that is employed. Drilling but little practised; beans mostly planted by the dibble. Labourers said to be indolent, and that they seem, when employed, as if they would rather stand still than exert themselves. (*Kennedy and Grainger, l. 308.*) A large proportion of the co. is in grass, the dairy and fattening systems being both extensively carried on. Cattle, principally of the Devonshire breed; but a great variety of other breeds are met with. The celebrated Cheddar cheese is so called from a village of that name on the W. side of the Mendip Hills; but it is now principally made in the marshes round Glastonbury. Bridgewater cheese is made from the marshes about that town and Groom. The stock of sheep in the co. is supposed to amount to about 500,000 head, partly long, and partly short-woolled; producing, in all, about 10,500 packs a year. Large quantities of excellent cider are made in various parts, but particularly in the vale of Taunton. The woods and woodlands are supposed in all to cover from 30,000 to 25,000 acres; and it is distinguished by the stately growth of its hedgerow timber. Property very variously divided; some large estates, but a good deal of land occupied by yeomen who farm of own estates. Farms of various sizes, but the majority small. Leases, when granted, are usually for 8 or 12 years: in many instances, however, farmers hold at will. Average rent of land, 35s. 9d. an acre, being, with the exception of Leicester and Middlesex, the highest in the kingdom. Mineral products numerous and valuable, consisting principally of coal, lead, calamine, fuller's earth, limestone, freestone, &c. Owing, however, to the lead mines having been nearly exhausted, or becoming more difficult to work, the produce of lead is now quite inconsiderable. The woollen manufacture used to be extensively carried on at Taunton; but it has given place to the silk trade, introduced in 1778, and at present prosecuted on a pretty large scale. The woollen manufacture is still, however, carried on at Frome, Shepton Mallet, Wellington, and some other places in the co.; but it has long been in a declining state. Gloves largely manufactured at Yeovil. Principal rivers, Lower Avon, Ax, Brue, Parret, and Exe. The Parret is navigable from Longport to its mouth. Taunton and Bridgewater are united by a canal; and there are canals in other parts of the co. Somersetshire is divided into 40 hundreds and 7 liberties, and contains 478 parishes. It returns 13 members to the H. of C.: viz. 4 for the co., 2 each for the cities of Bath and Wells, 2 each for the bor. of Bridgewater and Taunton, and 1 for Frome. Reg. electors for the co., in 1849-50, 18,106, of which 9,875 belonged to the E., and 8,231 to the W. division. In 1841, Somerset had 82,617 inhab. houses, 435,982 inhab., of whom 209,383 were males, and 226,599 females. Sum expended for the relief of the poor, in 1848-49, 183,779. Annual value of real property, in 1815, 2,308,723*l.*; do., in 1843, 2,991,745*l.*

SOMERTON, a market-town and par. of England,

co. Somerset, on rising ground beside the Carey, 11 m. S.S.W. Wells. Area of par., 6,080 acres. Pop., in 1841, 1,981. The town consists of some small streets, with houses mostly of blue lias stone; and has a town-hall, in which petty sessions are held, and one of the co. gaols. The church, an ancient structure, has an eight-sided embattled tower, 68 ft. in height. The living, a vicarage, worth 265*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Earl of Ilchester. Somerton has a good free-school, and an almshouse for 8 poor women. Though supposed to have been a Roman station, there is no information respecting it till the Hephtharchy, when it was a considerable fortified town, and the residence of Ina and other kings of Wessex. Hence it abounds in Saxon antiquities, including parts of the ancient walls, a round tower, and the castle, in which John king of France was imprisoned subsequently to his capture at the battle of Poitiers.

SOMME, a dep. of France, reg. N., comprised mostly in the old prov. of Picardy, between lat. 49° 37' and 50° 30' N., and long. 10° 35' and 3° 10' E.; having N. Pas-de-Calais, E. Aisne, S. Oise, and W. Seine-Inférieure and the English Channel. Area, 614,387 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 570,539. Its general slope is towards the N.W., which direction is taken by its principal rivers, consisting of the Somme, which divides it into two nearly equal parts, the Authle, forming a part of the N. boundary, and the Bresle, bounding it on the S.W. The Somme rises at Fonsomme in Aisne, and runs generally N.W. to the English Channel, which it enters a little below St. Valéry, nearly opposite Hastings, by an estuary from 3 to 4 m. wide, after a course of about 120 m. Its principal affluents are the Avre and Celle; St. Quentin, Ham, Peronne, Amiens, and Abbeville are on its banks. The Somme is navigable for about half its course, but its navigation is interrupted by shoals. The lateral canal of the Somme (*Canal de Picardie*), 96 m. in length, commences at Abbeville, and connects this river with the Oise. This dep. has generally a naked aspect. In 1834, according to the *Official Tables*, it comprised 478,363 hec. arable land, 15,433 do. meadows, 20,550 do. orchards, &c. and 51,307 do. woods. Its agriculture is more advanced than in most French dep.s. *le cultivateur est laborieux et dégoûté de prérégés.* (Hugo.) More corn is grown than is required for home consumption; in 1835, its produce was estimated at nearly 5,756,000 hectol., principally wheat, maslin, and oats. About 300,000 hectol. of cider, and 100,000 do. of beer, are produced annually. Cattle and sheep are numerous, and the produce in wool is stated to be about 780,000 kilog. a year. In 1835, of 248,937 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 123,745 were assessed at less than 5 fr. Mineral products are of little importance; but the dep. is distinguished for its manufactures. Woollen, cotton, and silken goods of various kinds, are made at Amiens and Abbeville; cotton and linen thread, oil, and leather at Peronne, Ham, Doullens, &c. Escarbotin is the seat of some of the largest hardware factories in the kingdom; and machinery, paper, and beet-root sugar, are produced in considerable quantities. Somme is divided into five arronds: chief towns, Amiens the cap., Abbeville, Doullens, Montdidier and Peronne. It sends 7 members to the Ch. of Depts. Registered electors, 1838-39, 3,971. Total public revenue, 1841, 16,184,948 fr. (*Huge, art. Somme; French Official Tables.*)

SOOLOO ISLANDS, a group of the E. Archipelago, 4th division (*Cransford*), extending from the N.E. part of Borneo to Mindanao, the most S. of the Philippine islands, between the 4th and 7th degs. of N. lat., and the 120th and 123d of E. long.; having S. the Sea of Celebes, and N. the Sooloo Sea. They consist of about 60 islands, taking their name from Sooloo, one of the largest, about the middle of the group. They produce rice, sweet potatoes, yams, and many of the finest fruits of the East; but sago is the principal food of the inhab. Pearls, mother-of-pearl, and coral, are among their most valuable products. Formerly the inhabs. carried on a large trade with Japan; at present their commerce is chiefly with the adjacent islands of Celebes, Mindanao, Borneo, &c., and a few junks that come yearly from China. The Sooloos are mostly Mohammedans, and live under a sultan, whose power is, however, much limited by a kind of feudal aristocracy. They are distinguished for their piracies, and their continual hostility to the Spaniards of the Philippines; in 1778 they destroyed an establishment formed by the E. I. Comp. on the neighbouring island of Balambagan. (*Hamilton, E. I. Gem.*)

SOPHIA, or TRIADITZA, a city of European Turkey, prov. Bulgaria, near its W. extremity, in a fine plain, on the Bogaia, a tributary of the Iker, 93 m. S.S.E. Widin, and 156 m. S.W. Rustchuk. Horschelmann (*Stein*), the *Dict. Geog.*, &c., agree in rating its pop. as high as from 45,000 to 50,000; and it is said to have 30 mosques, and 10 churches. Mr. Burgess says, "Sophia, although one of the meanest cities I ever saw, must still be considered as the cap. of Bulgaria, and as holding a high rank among the cities of European Turkey." The situation appeared to me the most unfavourable that

could have been chosen for a city; sunk in a hollow, it is constantly liable to be inundated; and without canals to carry off the superabundant waters of the Iser, the plain is almost lost to the labour of the agriculturist. The habitations are all made of baked mud; and I scarcely saw one which ought to be qualified with any other appellation than that of hovel." (*Greece, &c.*, ii. 269.)

Sophia is, however, the residence of the begler-beg of Roumelia, and of Greek and Rom. Cath. archbishops. It has manufactures of woollen and silk stuffs, leather, and tobacco, and an extensive general trade. There are some warm baths. This city, founded by Justinian, was built, it is said, on the ruins of the anc. Sardica. (*Burgess's Greece, and the Levant, ii.; Dict. Géog., &c.*)

SORA, a city of the Neapolitan dom., Terra di Lavoro, cap. distr., on the Liris, 50 m. N. N.W. Capua. Pop. 10,000. (*Rampoldi.*) "The episcopal town of Sora, retaining its ancient name and situation, is about 3 m. distant from Isola, along an excellent road, which terminates with the valley itself at its gates. Here the Liris, flowing from a glen of narrower dimensions, but considerable length, forms a bend round the city, and is crossed by two bridges. The place is consequently in a flat but not unpleasant position; one whole flank being watered by the river, and the slender extremity resting against an insulated rocky hill, on which are seen the ruins of its Gothic castle, and those of its still more ancient walls. The dwellings are large, the streets wide and well paved, and the pop. apparently easy and industrious." (*Craven's Excursion in the Abruzzi, &c.* i. 112.)

After its cathedral, in the front of which are a number of inscriptions and fragments of sculptures, the principal buildings are four other churches, several convents, hospitals, and seminaries, a showy modern gateway, &c. The adjacent country is both fertile and well cultivated.

Sora was of Volscian origin, but became, at an early period, attached to the party of the Samnites; though subdued and colonised by the Romans, it repeatedly threw off their yoke, and vindicated its ancient freedom. Juvenal enumerates Sora among the country towns in which an individual, tired of the bustle and dissipation of Rome, might find a comfortable residence:—

Si potes avelli Clivomundus, optima Sora
Aut Faberaster domus, aut Frutuosus pariter.
Sat. 18. 223.

Sora was the birth-place of the Cardinal Baronius.

SORIA (an. *Nemantia*), a city of Spain, in Old Castile, cap. prov. of its own name, on, and at no great distance from, the source of the Douro, here crossed by a fine stone bridge, 118 m. N.E. Madrid. Pop. about 3,500. It is enclosed by old walls, and has numerous churches and convents, an hospital, Jesuit's college, prison, &c. On the E. it is commanded by an old fortress, now partly in ruins; and on the S. is a considerable suburb. It is dirty and ill-built, with a few silk fabrics, and some trade in wool.

Adjacent to the town, on the N., are the ruins of the famous city of NUMANTIA, destroyed by the Romans, anno 133 a. c. No people ever discovered greater bravery, or made a more gallant stand in defence of their liberties, than the inhabs. of this small state. *Nemantia, quantum Carthagini, Capua, Corinthi, opibus inferior; its virtutis nomine et honore par omnibus, summasque, ut viros astrimes, Hispania decus.* (*Florus*, lib. ii. cap. 18.) The conduct of the Romans in this contest was distinguished alike by perfidy and vindictive malignity. The Numantines having defeated Pompey, grandfather of Pompey the Great, who had besieged their city, he concluded a treaty with them. But the Romans having, on various pretexts, broken this treaty, sent a powerful army against the Numantines under the consul Mancinus. The latter, however, being even more unsuccessful than Pompey, was obliged, to save himself and his army from total destruction, to conclude a new treaty with his successful adversaries; who stipulated for nothing but that they should retain their independence, and be reckoned among the friends and allies of Rome.

Tiberius Gracchus, then questor in the consular army, was a principal party to this treaty, the observance of which was sworn to by all the chief officers of the Roman army. But though the Numantines spared by this treaty the lives of 10,000 Roman soldiers that were in their power, and stipulated for nothing that a generous or high-minded people could, under any circumstances, have refused to concede, the senate and people of Rome were base enough to annul the treaty; and sent Scipio Africanus, who had destroyed Carthage, to wage war of extermination against the Numantines! Scipio, who knew the bravery of those he had to contend with, did not attempt to carry the city by storm; but having surrounded it by strong lines of circumvallation, left famine to effect its reduction. Notwithstanding their inferior numbers, the Numantines made the most astonishing efforts to break through and destroy the works of

the Romans; but having been repulsed, they were reduced to the most dreadful extremities. It is uncertain how the final catastrophe of this noble city was consummated; whether, as Florus affirms (*lib. ii. cap. 18.*), the Numantines set it on fire, and perished in the flames; or whether, as Appian states (*In Iber. p. 311.*), having surrendered, the small remnant of its inhabs. that were found alive were sold as slaves. One thing only is certain, that the struggle reflects the highest credit upon the Numantines, and the most indelible disgrace on the Romans. It is due to the character of Tiberius Gracchus to state, that he reprobat in the strongest manner the perfidy and the faith of his countrymen in refusing to ratify the treaty with the Numantines. (Beside the authorities already referred to, see *Ancient Universal History*, xii. 400., 8vo. ed.)

SORRENTO (an. *Surrentum*), a city and sea-port of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Naples, on the S. side of the Bay of Naples, 18 m. S.E. that capital. Pop. about 8,000. (*Rampoldi.*) It is well built and clean; and has been celebrated in antiquity, as well as in modern times, for the beauty of its situation, and the mildness of its climate, being hence called by Horace *Surrentum Amaram*. (*Epist. ii. lin. 52.*) It is the seat of an archbishopric; and besides the cathedral, has several churches, numerous convents, an hospital, seminary, college, school of navigation, and some silk manufactures. It was supposed in antiquity to have been the seat of the Sirens. (*Plin. lib. iv. cap. 5.*) But it derives its principal illustration from its having been the birth-place of Torquato Tasso, the greatest of Italian, and, perhaps, of modern poets, born here on the 11th of March, 1544. "Among the many respectable houses termed palaces, which adorn Sorrento, that in which the author of the *Gerusalemme Liberata* was born, naturally excites the greatest interest; it is placed on the cliff rising immediately from the sea, and offers some pretensions to elegance of architecture, but probably retains in its outward form no remains of its ancient appearance. Sorrento is a place of high antiquity; and the various inscriptions, bas-reliefs, &c., found in it at different periods, are collected under an archway in the town, which thus forms a kind of open museum, accessible to every visiter. The ancient walls and towers can scarcely be referred to the Lombards, who erected this territory into a small indep. principality. Oil, milk, meat, and game, are all excellent in their different kinds at Sorrento; while its real sea, by some, reputed the best in Europe. The capital is supplied from it with many of these articles, by boats plying at regular times of the day." (*Craven*, 304—306.) The beautiful Bay of Sorrento, 3 m. wide, is surrounded by a semi-circular range of wooded hills, between which and the sea is a rich plain, the *Piano di Sorrento*, in which are many villages and detached houses.

It was on the hills bounding the plain *Colles Surrentini sitiferti*, that the famous wine was produced, which, in antiquity, vied with the Falernian and Cæcuban.

Surrentina bibes? nec Morrhuina picta, nec aurum
Sume: dabunt calices hæc tibi vina suos.

Mart. Epig., lib. xiii. 110.

It was a powerful wine, and did not arrive at perfection till it had been kept above 30 years. Owing to the want of care, the wine now produced from Surrentine grapes is among the poorest in Italy. Near Sorrento are the remains of the villa of Pollus, described by Statius. (See *Scribner's Travels*, i. 88.)

SOUND. See ELAINBUR.

SOURABAYA, a considerable town of Java, being one of the three principal sea-ports of that island, on the N. coast of which it is situated, about 160 m. E. Samarang. It stands about 1½ m. from the Strait of Madura, on both sides a river, said to be navigable by boats for 100 m. from the sea, and deep enough at its mouth to receive vessels of 250 tons. The town itself is of small extent, but it has several suburbs, and round it are a number of handsome villas; its vicinity, though low, being less unhealthy than that of Batavia. Mr. Earl says that it is also much more gay and lively than the latter, and well supplied with provisions of all kinds. Sourabaya seems to have the only secure harbour on the N. coast of Java, and the only one in which the shipping is well defended by the batteries on shore. Its chief entrance is commanded by a strong fort on a low island about 9 m. from the town. Several English residents, agents to houses at Batavia, are settled here; though Europeans are upon the whole few. There are numerous Arabs and their descendants. According to Earl, more ships are built at Sourabaya than at any other port of the E. Archipelago; when he visited the place, in 1836, the great ship-builder was an Englishman, employing from 300 to 400 workmen, all of whom lived in a large village adjoining his dockyard. (*Earl's Eastern Seas*, 47. 73.; *Hamilton, &c.*)

SOUTHAMPTON, a parl. and mun. bor., sea-port, and market-town of England, being a co. of itself in Hampshire, at the embouchure of the river the Itchen, in an

inlet of the sea, called Southampton-water, 12 m. S. by E. Winchester, and 70 m. W.S.W. London. Lat. $50^{\circ} 53' 50''$ N., long. $10^{\circ} 34'$ W. Pop. of the par. bor., which is co-extensive with the co. of the town, in 1831, 19,324; in 1841, 27,490. The approach to the town from the London road, through a fine avenue of trees and a well-built suburb, is exceedingly striking. The principal entrance is through Bargate, one of the ancient gates, which also divides the town into 2 parts, called respectively Above-bar and Below-bar. The High-street below bar, which is more than $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in length, leads directly to the quay, for the improvement of which the water-gate was removed about 40 years ago. The ancient part of the town was formerly enclosed with walls about $\frac{1}{4}$ m. in circ., of which there are considerable remains on the W. side of the town, and two old gates in addition to Bargate. Many smaller streets branch both E. and W. from the principal avenue, and buildings are rapidly increasing, the space occupied by streets and houses now exceeding $\frac{1}{4}$ m. in circuit. "The old town occupies nearly the whole of the pars. of St. John, St. Lawrence, Holyrood, St. Michael, and All-Saints-intra. The pars. of St. Mary and All-Saints-extra are extensive, and were till of late years principally agricultural. The town, however, now extends into both of them; and in the latter the new buildings consist principally either of handsome town-houses or detached villa residences. A new road has been formed, extending E. from the High-street to the steam-ferry over the lichen; several new streets are already in progress, and docks have been [formed] on the river, near the ferry-pier. The pars. of S. Lawrence and Holyrood, through which the High-street passes, contain the dwellings of the most respectable and opulent tradespeople: in the latter are the Market-place, Audit-house, Custom-house, several of the principal hotels, and the town quay; indeed in a commercial point of view, these two pars. comprise the most important part of the town." (*Mss. Bound. Report*.) The whole town is well paved, lighted with gas, and is exceedingly clean: the inhabs. were till supplied with water from several springs in the neighbourhood, but from the increase of pop. and the deficiency of water of late years, the commissioners of water-works entered into a contract for the construction of an Artesian well on Southampton Common, to supply 40,000 cubic feet per day. The old reservoirs on the common are supplied from this well in dry seasons. Besides the buildings devoted to commerce and other purposes, the town has a theatre and assembly-rooms. The military orphan asylum for girls, established by the late Duke of York, and occupying the disused barracks, has been removed, and the buildings are now appropriated to the establishment for the trigonometrical survey, removed thither from the Tower of London. The handsome suite of baths on the beach have been converted into a dock house and offices for the Southampton Dock Company; but there are very convenient baths in other parts of the town. The old Saxon castle, repaired by Richard II. in the view of protecting the harbour, was pulled down some years ago, and a private chapel, in which the Church of England service is performed, built upon its site.

The town has five par. churches, three of which are in the gift of the lord chancellor, one in that of the bishop of Winchester, and another in the patronage of Queen's College, Oxford. Holyrood church is an ancient edifice, with a tower and spire, the portico being the site, before the Reform Act, for the hustings at elections for the bor. St. Michael's is a large structure in the Norman style, with a handsome tower and spire between the nave and chancel. All-Saints is a Grecian building, with a turret, surrounded by six Corinthian pillars on a square pedestal. St. Mary's, also, is a modern structure, and its extensive burial-ground long served as a general cemetery for the town; but within the last few years, a cemetery of 20 acres has been formed on Southampton Common. The Rom. Cath., Independents, Baptists, Wesleyan-Methodists, and others, each places of worship; and there is a Friends' meeting-house. There are 2 chapels, 1 proprietary, and 1 under trustees in connexion with the establishment, and well-attended Sunday-schools, with several day-schools, supported wholly or in part by endowment. The grammar-school, founded by Edw. VI., has a small endowment: the premises have been rebuilt, and furnish accommodation for about 40 boys, boarding with the head master. An hospital, called the *Domus Dei*, founded in the reign of Henry III., provides lodging, clothing, and a weekly stipend to four aged people of each sex. Among other valuable charities it was left in 1769, by the will of Alderman Taunton, which, besides providing for the instruction of 10 boys, furnishes a stipend of 10*l.* a year for 16 aged persons, and gives rewards to deserving female servants. It has also a female penitentiary, public dispensary, and lying-in charity, a royal humane society, several benefit societies, and a school of industry for 60 girls, founded, in 1829, through the influence of Queen Adelaide. There are several religious societies, a literary

society, a polytechnic institution, with 400 members, an infirmary, and several news-rooms and subscription-libraries. A regatta takes place every summer on Southampton-water, under the direction and patronage of the Southampton Yacht Club, and races are held in autumn on the common N.W. the town. Two newspapers, also, are published every Saturday.

Southampton-water affords good anchorage; and ships of 250 tons may load and unload alongside the town quay, close to which is the custom-house. A new pier of wood and stone, which projects about 400 yards from the shore, forms a convenient landing-place for passengers from steamers, &c., as well as a promenade for the inhabs. and visitors. It has a carriage-drive to its extremity. Docks, on an extensive scale, have, as already stated, been constructed, which contribute materially to the commercial facilities now enjoyed by the port.

Southampton is now become a leading packet station. The Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company run the whole of their vessels from this port to Alexandria and Lisbon; and the Royal West India Mail-packet Company start their steam ships from this port also, and have a graving dock on the banks of the lichen for constructing and repairing ships, &c.

From its position on an inlet of the sea, stretching N.W. from between Portsmouth and the Isle of Wight, at least 17 m. into the country, and which has been prolonged by means of the lichen to Winchester, 12 m. inland, Southampton is the emporium of an extensive district, and consequently enjoys a pretty extensive trade. In 1850, there belonged to the port 210 sailing vessels, of the aggregate burden of 13,496 tons, exc. 25 steamers, some of which are large and handsomely fitted up: the gross customs' duties amounted, in 1849, to 61,016*l.* It may be farther mentioned, as illustrative of the increasing importance of the port, that, in 1830, 269 ships, of the aggregate burden of 37,056 tons, entered inwards; whereas, in 1845, no fewer than 727 ships, of the aggregate burden of 150,836 tons, entered inwards. "The real or declared value of the exports from Southampton rose, during the same period, from 135,372*l.* to 1,475,108*l.* I being an almost unparalleled increase."

Owing to her position with respect to the opposite coast of France, Southampton has been for a lengthened period an important station for travellers to and from the Continent. In this respect her importance has vastly increased since the opening of the South-Western Railway, by which the town has been brought within a three hours' journey of the metropolis. This great undertaking, in which a very large sum has been expended, has gone far to make Southampton an outpost, as it were, of London. In fact, she is now become the principal station of the steamers for Havre, Dieppe, and other French ports, as well as of those for Lisbon, the Mediterranean, &c. By setting off from Southampton, the difficult navigation from the N. Foreland round by Dover and Beachy Head is avoided; and ships are enabled to proceed on their voyages with comparatively little chance of being delayed by adverse winds. Vast numbers of tourists are also brought down by the railway, attracted by the mildness of the climate, and the beauty of the scenery of the New Forest, the Isle of Wight (to which there are steamers every hour), &c. The formation of the railway from Havre by Rouen to Paris has conferred still greater importance on Southampton.

Southampton has various private banking establishments, two joint-stock banks, and a savings' bank. Markets, Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday, for provisions, and on Friday for corn, well attended. Fairs, May 6. and 7., and on Trinity Monday and Tuesday.

Southampton was first incorporated in the reign of Henry I. Under the Mun. Reform Act it is divided into 5 wards, with 10 aldermen and 30 councillors, from which 40 members are chosen the mayor, sheriff, and 2 bailiffs. The mayor and bailiffs are the returning officers of the borough. Corp. revenues, in 1848-49, 8,968*l.* Quarter and petty sessions are held under a recorder; there is a court for the recovery of debts to any amount; and a county court is established here, before which 1,636 plaintiffs were tried in 1848. The bor. has returned 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the 23 Edw. I., the right of election down to the Reform Act being vested in the inhabs. paying scot and lot. The electoral limits were left unchanged by the Boundary Act. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 2,297. It is also the election town for the S. div. of the co. Hants.

Southampton is said to have arisen out of the neighbouring Roman station *Cesariensium*, E. the lichen, which was succeeded by the Saxon *Eboracum*, on the site of the present town. The castle, as already stated, was much enlarged by Richard II., who also strengthened the fortifications about the town and harbour. Henry V. set sail from this port, in August, 1415, at the head of the troops which, on the 25th of October following, gained the great victory of Agincourt. The inhabs. were actively engaged in the wars of York and Lancaster, in which

the latter party was defeated with great loss. Its celebrity as a watering-place dates from the middle of last century, when baths were erected, a chalybeate spring was discovered, and great additions were made by the formation of new streets and terraces, the laying-out of public gardens, &c. The shores of Southampton-water, being richly clothed with wood and studded with villas, afford a succession of finely diversified scenery, set off by the ruins of Netley Abbey, about 3 m. S. E. from the town. This structure was founded in 1229, by Henry III., for Cistercian monks. The rectory and kitchen are a tolerable preservation; and there are some fine remains of the Abbey church, which was cruciform, and had at its E. end a noble window. The whole is embosomed in wood; and near it is a modern tower, used as a tea-house, on the foundations of a fort erected by Henry VIII., commanding a fine view of Southampton-water. (*Mus. and Parl. Bound. Reports, and Private Information.*)

SOUTH MOLTON (or MOULTON), a munic. bor., market town, and par. of England, N.E. part co. Devon, hund. 3. Molton, on an eminence near the confines of Exmoor, 12 m. E. by S. Barnstaple. Area of par., 6,161 acres. Pop. in 1831, upwards of 4,000. The limits of the munic. bor. and par. are co-extensive. The town consists chiefly of three streets, diverging from a spacious market-place. Many of the houses are good; streets well paved; the footpaths have been flagged, at a considerable expense, by the corporation. It is well lighted, and the public walks are kept remarkably clean. (*Mus. Corp. Rep. Appendix.*) The par. church has some good monuments, and a large organ. The living, a perpetual curacy, worth 1571. a year, is in the gift of the dean and canons of Windsor. Here are free and charity schools; a guildhall, in which petty sessions are held every three weeks; and a gaol, rebuilt a few years since. The pop. is partly manufacturing, and partly agricultural: the manufactures are chiefly of coarse woollen cloth, but that of lace has been recently introduced, and the trade of the town is said to be increasing. This bor. sent mems. to the H. of C. in the 30th of Edw. I.: but it does not appear to have subsequently exercised the privilege. It was chartered by Elizabeth and Charles II.; and is governed by a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 12 councillors, the latter being elected for life among the resident inhabitants. The corporation, which is trustee for several charities, has an income of 3,832. a year, out of which the mayor receives an annual income of 50l. About 3 m. N.E. from the town is Castle Hill, the seat of Earl Fortescue. (*Mus. Corp. Rep. and Appendix.*)

SOUTHWARK. See LONDON.

SOUTHWELL, a market-town and par. of England, co. Nottingham, Southwell and Scrooby liberty, on an eminence near the Greet, 13 m. N.E. Nottingham. Area of par., 4,560 acres. Pop., in 1831, 3,385. The town is neat, well built, and well paved. It has a convenient suite of assembly-rooms, a theatre, &c.; but its principal building is the minster, or parish church, this, which is a large and magnificent edifice, said to be, in part at least, as old as the time of Harold. Its extreme length is 306 ft., its breadth 59 ft., and the length of the transept 121 ft. The W. front has 2 lofty square towers, divided into 7 stories. There is a low massive centre tower, and a chapter-house on the N. side. The nave and transepts are Norman, the parts E. of the centre early English, and the chapter-house early decorated. There are some perpendicular insertions, particularly a very large W. window. Within the church are the monuments of 8 archbishops of York. The chapter-house, which is light and graceful, has 16 rebekend stalls. The early English portions, which consist of the choir, its aisles, and small E. transepts, form one of the best examples of this style in the kingdom. The whole of this church deserves the study due to a cathedral; and though it be not so varied in its styles as some edifices, it claims attention for its purity and good preservation." (*Rickman's Gothic Architecture*, p. 221.) The ruins of an ancient palace of the archbishops of York, the favourite summer retreat of Cardinal Wolsey, stand in the park, and a part is now appropriated as a sessions house for the liberty. The general brickwell for the county is at Southwell, which has also meeting-houses for Wesleyan and Baptists, and a free-school, with 3 scholarships at St. John's Coll., Cambridge. What little trade the town possesses is chiefly in malt, hops, and tan. The living of Southwell is a vicarage, worth 1441. a year, in the gift of the prebendary of Southwell. (*Ecc. Rev. Rep.*) Market-days, Saturday; fairs, Whit-Monday and Oct. 21.

SOUTHWOLD, a sea-port, munic. bor., market-town, and par. of England, hund. Blything, on an eminence on the E. coast of the co. Suffolk, about 1 m. N. from the mouth of the Blythe, 30 m. N.E. Ipswich, and 94 m. N.W. London. Pop. in 1831, 2,078. "It consists principally of a long row of houses, extending near the bridge over the Base Creek, and extending S.W. to the edge of the cliff,

besides numerous other houses with gardens, lying N. and S. of the principal street. Near the sea there are several good houses, but the others are chiefly of an inferior description. The town is not lighted nor watched; but the footpaths have been partly flagged by subscription, and the inhabs. are well supplied with water from several excellent springs." The guildhall is a handsome stone building, and a new gaol was built in 1819. On the cliffs are two batteries, one of which has a parapet and 8 eighteen-pounders, but the other has only 2 guns. The church, built in the middle of the 16th century, is a fine edifice in the later English style, with a lofty tower and steeple of freestone intermingled with flint of various colours. The S. porch is extremely elegant; and above the clerestory roof is a light, open lantern. The interior is highly ornamented with gilding and carved work; and on the whole this is one of the finest churches in the co. The Independents, Baptists, and Wesleyan Methodists have each places of worship; the town, also, has 3 Sunday-schools and a national school. "The retail trade of Southwold is trifling; but a somewhat more important traffic is carried on in the importation of coal and the exportation of salt (which is made here), red herrings, and malt. The principal business, however, is connected with the influx of visitors, who resort to the town as a watering-place during the summer season," and for whose accommodation there are baths, reading-rooms, a grand promenade, &c. (*Mus. Bound. Rep.*) The entrance to the haven is by the river, and vessels trading to this port land their goods at Black-shore quay, about ½ m. S.S.W. the town. The superintendence of the haven is vested in commissioners; and it has been much improved by the erection of 2 piers at the mouth of the river, which has been made navigable to Halesworth, 8 m. W. by N. the town. The bor. of Southwold, which was incorporated in the reign of Henry VII., is governed under the Mun. Reform Act by a mayor and 3 aldermen, with 12 councillors. A court of record is established for the recovery of small debts, and there is a court of admiralty for the regulation of the port, which is subordinate to that of Yarmouth. Markets on Thursday; fairs, Trinity-Monday, and Aug. 24.

Southwold, or Sole Bay, E. of the town, is celebrated as the scene of the great naval engagement which took place on the 28th of May, 1672, between the combined English and French fleets under the Duke of York (afterwards James II.) and Marshal d'Estres; and a Dutch fleet under the famous De Ruyter. The action was most obstinately contested; the loss on both sides being very great and nearly equal. The Earl of Sandwich, who behaved with the greatest gallantry, was blown up along with his ship. The French suffered but little, in consequence, as is supposed, of their having received secret instructions to spare their ships. (*Hume*, cap. 66.)

SPA, a town and watering-place of Belgium, prov. Liege, on the borders of Rhenish Prussia, 14 m. S.E. Liege. It consists of "a cluster of neat white houses, thrown into the form of two or three irregular streets and open promenades, the whole embowered amidst trees and gardens, and overlooking the N. and E. by a woody mountain range." (*Chambers's Tour in the Continent*.) It was at one period a place of great resort, and so highly distinguished for its mineral waters, that "Spa" became a common name for mineral springs and bathing places wherever found. One of its greatest patrons was Peter the Great of Russia, who frequently visited it, and built the pump-room over the main spring, the only edifice in the place having any architectural pretensions. It is now, however, greatly fallen off. The tide of fashion has set in favour of Carlsbad and Wiesbaden; and it is not supposed to have more than about 3,000 resident inhabs. The *Poussot* or main spring, is a strong and active chalybeate, impregnated with carbonic acid gas, which gives it vivacity, and fits it for being preserved and sent in bottles to all parts of the world. There are several similar springs at from 2 to 3 m. from the town, at all of which there are pump-rooms, and to some baths are attached. Spa has two libraries with well supplied reading-rooms, a theatre, card-rooms, &c., a large par. church, and a Capuchin convent; and during the season an English church is opened. The hotels and lodging-houses are very respectable, and are abundantly supplied with provisions. A manufacture of painted wooden boxes, &c., carried on in the town, employs a good many hands. (*Chambers's Tour in Ed. Journal*, *Murray's Handb.*, *Tenison's Belgium*, &c.)

SPAIN (an. *Hispania*, Span. *España*, Fr. *Espagne*), an extensive and once powerful kingdom of S. Europe, occupying the E. and largest portion of its S.W. peninsula; between lat. 36° 0' and 43° 30' N., and long. 3° 20' E., and 9° 10' W., having N.E. France, from which it is separated by the Pyrenees; N. the Bay of Biscay; W. Portugal and the Atlantic; and S. and E. the Straits of Gibraltar and the Mediterranean. Greatest length, E. to W., about 650 m.; greatest breadth, 650 m. The names, area, and pop. of its mun. and mod. subdivisions have been stated as follows:—

Provinces.	Area in sq. m.	Population.	Totals.	
			Sq. m.	Population.
1. New Castilla.				
Madrid	1,515	369,126		
Guadalajara	1,916	159,044		
Toledo	8,774	276,952		
Cuenca	11,301	234,282		
Ciudad Real	7,643	277,788		
	30,888	1,517,492		
2. Old Castilla.				
Burgos		224,407		
Logrono		147,718		
Santander	7,674	166,730		
Oviedo	5,686	454,003		
Noria	4,078	116,619		
Segovia	5,466	134,854		
Avila	2,569	137,903		
Leon	6,894	297,438		
Palencia	1,733	149,491		
Valladolid	3,979	184,647		
Balmaceda	5,626	210,314		
Zamora	5,562	159,425		
	72,447	5,649,673	41,565	2,532,181
3. Galicia.				
Coruna		435,670		
Lugo		357,372		
Orense	15,897	319,038		
Pontevedra		366,078		
	88,244	5,121,655	15,897	1,471,982
4. Extremadura.				
Badajoz		316,622		
Caceres	14,329	231,296		
	102,673	5,669,673	14,329	848,080
5. Andalusia.				
Huelva		367,303		
Huelva	8,969	135,470		
Cadix		284,703		
Jen	4,451	266,919		
Cordova	4,159	215,459		
	180,272	7,077,292	17,299	1,407,854
6. Granada.				
Granada		276,974		
Almeria	9,622	254,739		
Malaga		336,442		
	129,694	5,047,734	9,622	950,205
7. Valencia.				
Valencia		451,683		
Alicant	7,685	218,444		
Castellon-de-la-Piana		199,022		
Murcia	7,877	260,694		
Albacete		180,765		
	145,454	9,458,343	15,600	1,430,606
8. Catalonia.				
Barcelona		442,473		
Tarragona		255,477		
Lerida	12,180	151,222		
Gerona		214,150		
	157,654	10,499,764	12,180	1,041,422
9. Aragon.				
Zaragoza		204,425		
Huesca	14,726	244,274		
Teruel		214,998		
	178,360	11,234,449	14,726	734,685
10. Navarre.				
	2,450	221,728	2,450	221,728
11. Guipuzcoa.				
Alava	174,910	11,456,177		
Biscay	1,082	67,523		
Guipuzcoa	1,267	111,436		
	622	104,491	9,971	283,450
12. Balearic Islands.				
Palma	177,781	11,739,627		
Canary Islands	1,757	229,197		
	5,120	199,950		
	192,758	12,168,774	4,977	429,147
			182,756	12,168,774

The shape of Spain resembles that of a very irregular pentagon, the longest side of which faces the N. The coast line is, on the whole, pretty regular, without those great and sudden indentations that characterise the shores of many other countries, though an exception may be made as regards the coast of Galicia, which is fringed with bays and headlands, the principal among the former being the Bays of Betanzos, Pontevedra, and Vigo; and among the latter the Capes Estaca, Ortegal, and Finisterre. The other capes of Spain are principally on the coast of the Mediterranean. C. Tarifa abuts on the Strait of Gibraltar; and further N. are Capes Gata, Palos, La Nao, and Creux, the last being the extreme E. point of the peninsula. The surface is very much diversified, and intersected with mountains; but the whole may be described as a table land of considerable elevation. Madrid, the cap., being 2,173 ft. above the sea, which is the average height of the towns in the interior. Five chains of mountains, are pretty clearly defined, running from E. to W. through the peninsula. 1. The range of the PYRENEES (which see) not only divides France from Spain, but runs in a continuous chain parallel to, and at a short distance

from, the N. shore upwards of 600 m. as far W. as C. Finisterre. The E. division is known as the Pyrenees properly so called, the W. portion consisting of the Asturian mountains: the highest point in the former is the Pic de Netore on Mount Maladetta (11,424 ft.), and in the latter the Peña de Peñalara, S.W. of Oviedo (11,081). 2. A range extends W.S.W. from the Ebro, near Tudela, dividing Old and New Castile, Leon, and Extremadura, and thence running S.S.W. through Portugal, to Cape Roca, near Lisbon, the culminating point is the Sierra de Grados (10,553 ft.), at the S.W. angle of Old Castile; but the average height does not exceed 4,500 ft. 3. A chain branching S.W. from that mentioned divides the basin of the Tagus from that of the Guadiana: the central portion, S. of Toledo, called the Sierra de Guadalupe, attains a height of 5,110. 4. A range, called the Sierra Morena, runs along the S. border of La Mancha, in New Castile, which, though not continuous and of no great extent, forms the watershed between the Guadiana and Guadalquivir. 5. The Sierra Nevada runs from C. Palos, near Cádiz, almost as far as Cadix: it is at no great distance from the Mediterranean, the most elevated part being S.E. of Granada, where the Cerro de Mulhacen rises 11,660 ft. above the sea: the peak of Veleta is 11,285 ft. in height; and further W. the Serrania de Ronda attains an elevation of 6,011 ft., while the neighbouring town of Ronda is about 3,300 ft. above the sea. (See Essay on the Phys. Geog. of Spain, in *Laborde, Itinéraire d'Espagne*, vol. v. last ed.; *Bruguier, Orographie de l'Europe*; *Berghaus, Erdbeschreibung*, p. 216-218; *Andron, p. 22-270*. The altitudes are given exclusively from Bruguier.)

The mountain-chains now described regulate the course of the principal rivers, some of which are of great extent, and have numerous tributaries. Immediately S. of the Pyrenees is the Ebro, which, rising on the Asturian range, near Reynosa, runs S.E. through a succession of narrow valleys, receiving its chief tributaries from the S. face of the Pyrenees, and flows into the Mediterranean about 26 m. below Tortosa: its entire length somewhat exceeds 400 m., and the area of its basin is estimated by Berghaus (*Erdbeschreibung*, p. 237.) at 25,860 sq. m. Among the other rivers flowing into the Mediterranean are the Guadalquivir and Júcar, falling into the Bay of Valencia, and the Segura in Murcia: the rest are unimportant. Five large rivers run westward into the Atlantic Ocean. The most N. of these is the Minho, which rises in the Asturian mountains, and running first S. and then S.W., enters the sea a little below Caminha, after a course, including its windings, of about 150 m. The Douro rises in the mountains of Old Castile, a few miles N. of Soria, and takes a generally W. course, by Aranda, Tordesillas, and Zamora, as far as Miranda, where, turning southward, it forms a portion of the boundary of Portugal, through which it flows westward into the sea close to Oporto: its length is estimated at 500 m., and the country drained by itself and tributaries somewhat exceeds 34,000 sq. m. The Tagus has its source in the Sierra de Albarracin, in Aragon, whence it flows W.S.W. by Aranjuez, Toledo, Talavera, and Alcantara, to the confines of Portugal: it then turns S.S.W., and, after expanding into a fine estuary, enters the Atlantic, a little below Lisbon, built on its N. bank. The Tagus has numerous important tributaries, the chief of which are the Henares, Alberche, Alagon, and Zatas, the last being in Portugal: the extent of its basin is estimated at 29,000 sq. m. The Guadiana, rising in La Mancha, runs first N.W., then W. as far as Badajoz, where it curves southward, and enters the sea at Ayamonte, after a course of 430 m.: it has several pretty large tributaries, and drains an area of about 26,600 sq. m. The Guadalquivir, which, with its tributaries, drains a large portion of Andalusia, rises in the Sierra de Alcaraz, and taking a S.W. direction by Andujar, Villafraña, Cordova, and Seville, turns southward, and after crossing a low, unhealthy swamp, enters the Atlantic at San Lucar, after a course of 320 m.: its largest affluent is the Genil, and the area of the entire basin is nearly 18,000 sq. m. But, with the exception of those portions of the Douro and Tagus within the limits of Portugal, these rivers, notwithstanding their length, offer few advantages for navigation, owing to the rocks, shallows, and falls with which they are encumbered.

The Ebro has, however, been made navigable to a considerable extent by means of the Canal of Aragon; and the channel of the Tagus is also in course of being improved, so as to make it accessible for boats as far as Aranjuez. Vessels of 100 tons ascend the Guadalquivir, within about 8 m. of Seville. The rivers on the N. side of Spain are comparatively insignificant, owing to the closeness of the Asturian mountains to the sea: one of these, the Bidasoa, forms the dividing line between France and Spain. There are no lakes of any considerable size, though in the Pyrenees and other chains there are several small mountain-lakes. Swamps and morasses,

however, are both numerous and extensive; the principal being the Gallicante, in Aragon; the Nave, near Palencia, and the Lagunes of Palomares and Caldera.

A central band of granite and mica-schist stretches along the Pyrenees from the Mediterranean to the Bay of Biscay, flanked successively by beds of secondary and cretaceous formations: the primary rocks, however, are by no means so extensive as in the Alps, and do not extend westward beyond the Bidassoa, all the mountains of Asturias and Galicia being of the sandstone and carboniferous limestone that form the lower parts of the main chain. The lofty range that divides the two Castiles, and forms the watershed between the Douro and Tagus, consists chiefly of granite and other primary rocks, which pass eastward under the sandstone, forming the lofty uplands of Soria, in Old Castile: it is flanked on both sides by sandstone and limestone; but in New Castile are extensive beds composed of the *débris* of primitive rocks associated with marls and gypsum, the marly subsoil being remarkable for the fertility of the surface, whereas the gypseous districts are remarkable for their barrenness and dismal appearance, such as is exhibited in the neighbourhood of Madrid. The Sierra Morena also exhibits a large proportion of primary rocks, partly covered by secondary and other rocks, with the nature of which we are but little acquainted. The Sierra Nevada is a mass of mica-slate and serpentine, flanked northward by secondary and more recent rocks, containing some of the richest marbles of Spain, many of which adorn the churches of Granada and Seville: the S. side, forming the deep valleys of the Alpujarras, is principally of secondary limestone resting on slate (highly metalliferous), greenstone, and blue limestone. The limestone strata of the Sierra de Gador are remarkable for lead mines, which are extremely rich, and sufficient to supply the whole of Europe with this mineral for many centuries to come. With respect, indeed, to the mineral wealth of Spain, there can be little doubt that it is very great, and by no means exhausted by the workings of the ancients. There are valuable copper-mines in the Sierra Morena and the Alpujarras, and near Teruel in Aragon. Quicksilver is found at Almaden, on the N. side of the Sierra Morena, and graphite occurs near Marbella, in the neighbourhood of Malaga. Graphite is found, also, in the high Pyrenees, scarcely inferior to that of Cumberland, but wholly unwrought. Sulphur occurs in several parts of Valencia, and saltpetre, alum, and salt are found in many parts of the country. Iron and coal abound in the mountains of Biscay and Asturias, and are wrought to a considerable extent; besides which there are extensive iron mines, with smelting-houses, &c., at Marbella, near Malaga, and in the Sierra Morena, near Pedrosco. Coal occurs, also, in large seams throughout Aragon and Catalonia, as well as on the Guadalquivir near Seville; and traces of the same mineral have been discovered near Malaga.

"The soil of the Peninsula exhibits great diversities. The central region consists for the most part of arid, unsheltered plains either of sand or gypsum, intersected with lofty mountains, which reflect with intolerable fierceness the scorching heat of summer, and sharpen into more intense keenness the intense cold of winter. The lower region of the coast, sloping gradually towards the sea, is broken into an alternation of mountains and valleys, producing the most agreeable variety, and presenting a pleasant contrast to the bleak and barren sameness which characterises the central region. It is every where fertile, or may be rendered so by irrigation." (*Foreign Quarterly Review*, No. IX. p. 152, written by the author of this article.) The alluvial soil of Old Castile is tolerably productive, even without irrigation: New Castile has every variety, from the gypseous marl composing the poor soil about Madrid, to the red marl of Guadalaxara and the limestone of Aragon. The valleys of the Sierra Morena, and the whole of Estremadura, have a soil formed of detritus from primary rocks, as cannot be excelled in beauty and natural fertility. The soil of Andalusia is chiefly of marl and clay interspersed with red sandstone marls, and it is by irrigation only that it can be made productive. The Vega of Malaga, however, is naturally of surprising fertility, owing partly to the long establishment of irrigation, but partly, also, to the fact of its being in a great measure alluvial. Valencia has a poor ungrateful soil, yielding crops only by forced cultivation, and the use of water. In Catalonia and Aragon the detritus of limestone is found alternating with fine red marls and waste tracts of gypseous marls, similar to those near Madrid. "On the whole, the valleys of the Sierra Morena and the Alpujarras, the provinces of Toledo and Guadalaxara, the Vega of Malaga, and the country between Gibraltar and Cadix, would probably repay the labours of agriculture better than other parts of Spain." (*Cook's Sketches in Spain*, II. 330. 335., in which are many valuable remarks on its geology and internal economy.)

The climate of Spain is greatly diversified, being modified by the physical conformation of the country. The temperature of the air always varying less near the coast than in the interior, is much more equable in the maritime than the other parts. On the N. and W. coast westerly winds prevail; and, being loaded with moisture from the Atlantic, discharge abundant rains in winter and spring. The coast of the Mediterranean has a calmer atmosphere, with a prevalence of E. winds, and a temperature generally rising above 57° Fahr., and seldom descending so low as 32°. Winter, indeed, is almost unknown on a coast sheltered by the elevated land of the interior, and warmed by the rays of a cloudless sun; while the heat of summer is very great, and would be all but intolerable, were it not lessened by the sea breeze, which lasts during the greater part of the day. On the plateau of Castile, the mean height of which, according to Bruguère, is about 1,950 ft. above the sea, heat accumulates much more slowly, and it is only during the month of July that the temperature ascends as high as 77° Fahr. In August, the mornings and evenings begin to be cold; and in winter the severity of its climate forms a very striking contrast with the heats of summer. Except in the N. provs., the climate of Spain is every where remarkable for dryness; a freedom from rain, and a cloudless sky being advantages that may generally be counted on; but this dryness occasionally becomes so excessive that the rivers are dried up, vegetation destroyed, and men and animals die miserably of thirst. (*For. Quart. R.*, ix. 153.) Two kinds of winds are very troublesome in Spain. The *gallego*, a N. and N.W. wind, which comes down from Galicia, is very cold and piercing; causing, besides other diseases, painful affections of the eyes, often ending in blindness, which is very common in all the more elevated districts. This ophthalmia, however, is attributed by some writers to the vast quantities of minute nitrous particles blown up from the waste lands, and held in suspension by the wind. (*Faure, Souvenirs du Midi*, p. 5-8.) The S. provs. are visited by the *solano*, which, like the *sirocco* of Italy, relaxes the system, and produces giddiness, inflammation, and even death. With respect to external sudden variations, the climate of the central plateau is far from healthy. The Madrid cholera is always dangerous, and often fatal to strangers; besides which there is a general tendency to pulmonary consumption, and other diseases of the lungs. Scrofulous diseases are even more common than in Russia, and epilepsy is by no means rare. The yellow fever, which often ravages the S. provs., has created much discussion among physicians, some of whom treat it as epidemic, while others are of opinion that it is brought to Spain by infection. Insanity prevails more or less in all parts, but especially in the provs. bordering on the Mediterranean. (*Faure*, pp. 69-84.; and *For. Q. R.*, ix. 156-158.)

The mineral products of Spain are rich and various, and might certainly be made the source of vast wealth. By a curious coincidence Spain itself was to the ancient what its American possessions have been to the modern world, the principal source of the supply of the precious metals. It is exceedingly doubtful, however, notwithstanding the numerous statements to the contrary, whether the Carthaginians or Romans ever discovered any mines of gold and silver in Spain. The more probable opinion seems to be, that the gold was wholly obtained from washings; and that the silver, which was by far the more abundant and important product, was extracted from the lead, which was then raised, partly for the sake of the silver, in vast quantities. (*Antillon, Geografia*, 149.) The mine of Guadalcanal, which, according to Cook (II. 73.), is the only one of silver that is now wrought, was, with that of Casalla and others, discovered long after Spain had been evacuated by the Romans. (*Antillon*, loc. cit.)

The most valuable of the existing Spanish mines are those of lead in Granada; and the supplies obtained from them during the last 30 years have been so large that they have occasioned the abandonment of several less productive mines in other countries, and a considerable fall in the price of lead. The quicksilver mines of Almaden, in La Mancha, are also extremely productive, and supply, indeed, most part of the quicksilver imported into this country, and large quantities for the New World. Exclusive of innumerable salt springs, there are mines of rock salt at Migranilla, in La Mancha, and the mountain of Cardona: in Catalonia, 17 m. N.W. Monserrat is a vast and solid mass of pure rock salt! The iron trade will be afterwards referred to; copper, tin, antimony, and other minerals are found in various parts of the country, with every variety of marble, and the finest building stone. There can, indeed, be no doubt, that under a government capable of developing the national resources, the mineral wealth of Spain would be found to be equal, if not superior, to that of most other countries. *Vegetable and Animal Products.*—The wheat of Spain, though of very various qualities, is generally excellent, and its bread is said to be the best in Europe. In some dis-

tricts the quantity grown is insufficient for the consumption, the deficiency being made up from the surplus produce of other provs., or by importation, though, owing to the badness of the roads, and the consequent difficulty and cost of carriage, there is often a great difference in the prices of corn in markets at no great distance from each other. Wine is raised abundantly throughout the country; and the coast districts of Xeres, Rota, Malaga, Benicarlo, and Alicante, furnish large quantities for exportation. The wine of the interior, though seldom exported, in consequence of the bad roads and expense of transport, is sometimes of good quality; and that of Val de Peñas, in La Mancha, in particular, a dry red wine, has obtained a high reputation for its superior flavour and delicacy. Grapes are also exported, both in a fresh and dried state. Among the other productions of the soil are oats, barley, maize, rice, oil, sugar, hemp, flax, *esparto* or sedge, cotton, saffron, barilla, honey, and silk, with all the European vegetables, and some even of those of the warmer regions.

The fruits of the S. are lemons, bitter and sweet oranges, pomegranates, dates, olives, almonds, and pistachio nuts; apples, pears, cherries, peaches, and chestnuts are grown in the N. provs. Immense quantities of hazel nuts are exported from Catalonia; and the fruit of the carob-tree is used for feeding cattle. On the Pyrenees, Asturian mountains, the Sierra Morena, &c. are luxuriant forests; but, on the whole, Spain has less timber than any other extensive country of Europe; a circumstance owing, not to any inaptitude of the soil for the growth of forest trees, but to an inveterate and inexplicable prejudice of the people against trees, which are mercilessly cut down or destroyed before they attain any considerable size. Indeed, so universal is this propensity in the central provs., that the most rigorous measures are necessary to preserve the avenues of Aranjuez from wanton destruction; and all statutes for the encouragement of planting have signally failed of their object. (*Foreign Q. Review*, ix. 184, 185.) Spain has eight varieties of oaks; among which are the evergreen oak, or *Quercus balota*, which has edible acorns, in taste resembling chestnuts; the cork-oak (*Q. suber*), and the cochineal-oak (*Q. coccifera*), on which is found the false cochineal, yielding a fine crimson dye. The true *Quercus robur*, however, which furnishes the best materials for ship-building, scarcely exists, except in the N. provs. (*Cook's Sketches*, ii. 242-255.) Among the other forest trees may be enumerated tamarisks, pines, beeches, chestnut trees, nut trees, fir, poplars, and the sumach (*Rhus coriaria*), the bark of which is used for tanning.

Among the animal products of Spain, the horse is entitled to particular notice. The Arabs, when in possession of the country, stocked it with their finest breeds; and though the race has degenerated, it still shows many of the points by which it was originally distinguished. In beauty, grace, and docility, the horses of Andalusia are said to be superior to those of England; but it may be doubted whether they are equal to the same amount of labour. In fact, the number of good horses is rapidly decreasing in Spain, chiefly owing to the preference given to mules for domestic and agricultural purposes: the importation of horses to improve the breed, and the exportation of colts, are alike forbidden, and "the number of horses bred at present is quite inconsiderable, notwithstanding the decrees, premiums and encouragements of every kind that have been offered by government. The celebrated breed of the sovereigns of Spain at Cordova is nearly extinct; in the Serrania de Ronda (once the Cleveland of Spain) only miserable animals, called *serranos*, are now reared; the wealthiest Andalusian nobles have only 2 or 3 indifferent saddle-horses, and there is scarcely a horse in the whole country fit for the draught or artillery." (*Cook*, ii. 59-61.) Great numbers of mules are bred in Old Castile, being sent to come to their full size in the rich pastures of Extremadura, whence they are supplied to the rest of Spain. The asses are very different animals from those seen in England, being of a large size, carefully bred, and in strength, docility, and sure-footedness, nearly equal to the mules. Cattle are small, and not of fine appearance. The bull of Andalusia is found wild in the Sierra Morena. Hogs are bred in vast numbers, and those which feed on acorns are celebrated for the delicacy of their meat, which is, perhaps, unequalled. Sheep, however, are the favorite stock of Spain, and are every where raised in considerable numbers (see *post*): nor are there wanting wild animals, such as wolves, lynxes, wild cats, wild boars, and foxes. The bear, which used to be common two centuries ago, is now found only in the Pyrenees. Monkeys are met with in the Sierra de Ronda, besides which there are various reptiles, as chameleons, lizards (some 2 ft. in length), vipers, and snakes. Among the birds may be noticed several species of vultures, falcons, owls, ravens, magpies, Cornish choughs, partridges, quails, bustards,

and plovers. (*Cook's Sketches*, i. 58-62, 254-257; and *For. Q. Review*, ix. 156.)

Agriculture.—"No country in Europe," says Laborde, "is so generally fertile as Spain, or has equal advantages at all seasons of the year. Spain, after its conquest by the Romans, became the granary of the Roman empire. Under the Goths vast canals and sluices were formed for irrigating the land, and the amount of corn then raised was sufficient not only for the home supply, but also, to a considerable extent, for exportation. Agriculture under the Moors was in a still more flourishing state; for when they invaded the country, they carried with them their methods of husbandry, broke up the uncultivated lands, augmented the number of plantations, carried the art of irrigation to a degree now scarcely attainable, introduced the culture of rice, and greatly improved the breed of horses: in fact, every kind of production was increased under their improving hands; and the era of their expulsion designates the epoch of the decline of agriculture. The Spaniards, thus deprived of the assistance of the Moors, were compelled to till the land themselves; but for such pursuits they possessed neither talents, activity, nor patient industry. Hence the whole system fell into a state of languor, from which it has, owing to several causes, never recovered." (*Laborde*, vol. iv.)

We have quoted this passage, because it states, in a few words, what has long been the popular opinion in regard to the ancient as compared with the modern state of Spain. We believe, however, that it is wholly erroneous. The fertility of the country has been greatly exaggerated; and we much doubt whether her agriculture was ever in so advanced a state as at this moment. A great portion of Spain is, owing to the heat of the climate and the want of water, wholly unfit for husbandry; and she has, in consequence of the frequency of droughts, been at all times subject to the most destructive famines. Owing to the numerous ridges of mountains by which she is intersected, her internal commerce has always laboured under the greatest difficulties; and there is no evidence that her artificial communications, that is, her roads, canals, bridges, &c., were at any former period in a more improved state than that in which we now find them. Owing to vicious institutions, bad government, and other causes, Spain has, for a lengthened period, continued stationary, or made but little progress, while other nations have advanced with giant steps in the career of improvement; but there is no real foundation for the prevalent notion of her having been comparatively well cultivated, rich, and industrious previously to the expulsion of the Moors, or in the reigns of Ferdinand and Isabella and Charles V. Capmany, in his *Questiones Criticas* (cap. i.), has proved, beyond all controversy, that there were in the 15th and 16th centuries the same complaints of the wretched state of agriculture, of the idleness of the Spaniards, of their contempt for industry and the useful arts, and their dependence on foreigners, that are still made against them. It is needless to say, that without tranquillity and good order there can be nothing like a flourishing agriculture. But at the very time that it is said to have been most flourishing, that is, previously to and during the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, the Spanish historians represent the country as a prey to rapine, outrage, murder, and every sort of violence and disorder. Indeed, so early as the 13th century, the principal cities of Aragon and Castile had formed an association, called the *Santa*

Hermanidad (Holy Brotherhood), for their mutual protection against the robbers and plunderers with which the country was infested; and during the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella this institution was still further extended. (*Robertson's Charles V.*, vol. I. note 36.) And if these facts were not enough to demonstrate the entire worthlessness of the statements as to the flourishing state of agriculture in Spain previously to the expulsion of the Moors, the organisation of the laws respecting the *mesita* (migratory flocks) would sufficiently evince the truth of what has now been advanced; for had the country not been at the time in a half-occupied semi-barbarous state, every one must see that the oppressive privileges conferred on the owners of the sheep never could have been carried into effect, or had any practical existence.

Having thus briefly disposed of the apocryphal statements as to the former flourishing state of agriculture in Spain, we have now to inquire into its present state, and the circumstances to which its long-continued depression are principally to be ascribed.

With the exception of a few districts which have peculiar facilities for irrigation, agriculture is in the most backward state imaginable. "Great part of the land is not tilled, and that which is tilled is executed in so careless and slovenly a manner, as to produce a starved crop of corn in spots where they might command the most abundant harvests. The corn is usually choked up with stones, filth, and weeds of every kind." (*Clarke's Letters*, p. 285.) Generally speaking, tillage farms are small, and rents low; but owing to the exorbitant taxes, and other expenses wholly exclusive of rent, the farmers are wretchedly poor, and when they require money, are obliged to obtain it at exorbitant interest, by mortgaging their crop. The system of letting land is very various, money rent being taken in some parts, while in others the rent consists of a stipulated quantity of produce, and in others the *metayer* system prevails. Generally, however, large estates are not let out in farms, but are managed by agents, who, for the most part, are totally ignorant of the business of agriculture, and whose great object is to squeeze out of the land all that it can be made to produce by the most compendious processes. Farm houses are rarely seen, except along the E. coast. The farmers live in huts of the meanest construction, crowded together in villages, so that farm buildings, often so expensive in other countries, cost almost nothing. Spring corn is generally sown on the ground before it has been turned up, and is still covered with the winter weeds; and is then ploughed down, or rather scratched in with a miserable instrument, and left to nature. Owing to the dryness of the climate, this is a less ruinous system than might have been supposed, for when the heat sets in the corn ripens, while the weeds perish. When ripe the corn is gathered in the field, and after being thrashed or trampled out by mules and asses, is left in heaps on the ground till it be sold. The corn speculators of Castile preserve grain in *silos*, or subterranean caves, sometimes for 5 or 6 years, or till a market opens for it. Public granaries, or *positos*, are, also, established in most districts, where corn may be warehoused till it can be disposed of. The implements of husbandry are of the rudest description: it is not uncommon in the S. to see men returning from plough seated on a mule, to the sides of which their whole apparatus is tied: the use of fanners is unknown, except in the neighbourhood of seaport towns, to which they have been imported

from England; corn is winnowed by throwing it up in the air, and it is more frequently ground by hand, than by either wind or water mills. (*Cooke's Sketches*, ii. 40—42.) Land is not supposed to yield to the proprietors more than $1\frac{1}{2}$, or at most 2 per cent.; for, when the tenant has paid the direct taxes that fall upon the land, little more remains than half the produce, to pay both rent and labour. It is exceedingly difficult to estimate the rent of land by the English acre, from the great uncertainty and irregularity of the measures. The term *fanega* is used to indicate the extent of land on which a *fanega* of wheat may be sown, an extent which varies in every village: this quantity of land, whatever it may be, lets, according to circumstances, at from 12s. to 24s., the average value of a *fanega* of wheat being about 3s. 6d. Vine and olive-lands are measured by the *aranzada*, an equally vague standard. The wages of farm labourers average about 13d. *per diem*; or, if boarded with their masters, from 6d. to 10d. But, though tillage has been greatly extended during the present century, it is still true that in most parts of Spain no improvement has been made during the last 150 years. The principal exceptions are in Biscay, Navarre, and Aragon. In the first two and spade husbandry pretty generally prevails, and every inch of arable ground near the roads seems to be carefully cultivated. The wheat raised in Biscay perhaps exceeds the consumption of the district, and considerable crops are also raised of rye, maize, barley, and oats. In Leon, Castile, and Andalusia, agriculture, which is in the most degraded state, is confined to the growth of wheat.

The most careful cultivation is found in the *huertas*, or irrigated lands of Granada, Murcia, and Valencia. These tracts, indeed, are considered as the gardens of Spain, and abound not only with every variety of fruits, but all kinds of vegetables and plants, useful either as food or materials for manufactures. The mild red pepper raised in the *huerta* of Murcia is celebrated all over Spain, and forms a considerable article of trade with the interior. Rice is the chief product of Valencia. The sugar-cane of Granada and Valencia is as good as that of the West Indies; but it is cultivated at much greater expense, and its growth has, in consequence, been almost wholly abandoned. Considerable quantities of corn are raised in different parts along the S.E. coast. Mulberry-trees are carefully cultivated in the S. provinces; those of Murcia and Valencia are white, those of Granada black. In the cultivation of vines poles are not used; but the cuttings are planted, and not being permitted to attain any great height, gradually form thick and very stout stocks. Espalliers, also, are numerous, especially in Andalusia, and the grapes on these vines attain an extraordinary size, the bunches often weighing from 12 to 14 lbs. The rich level lands produce the largest quantities of wine, but here, as elsewhere, that raised on gravelly soils on the hilly slopes is the best. The quality of the wine varies greatly in different districts; but it may be said with truth that, except the wines of Xeres, Rota, Malaga, Alicante, and Benicarlo, which are intended for exportation, few of the Spanish wines are equal even to those of third-rate quality in France. Being very generally kept in skins, smeared with pitch, they acquire an *olor de bota*, or peculiar taste, and a flavour not disliked by the natives, but very disagreeable to foreigners.

It appears, from the official returns published in 1803, which, though not to be altogether depended upon, are sufficiently accurate to give a

just notion of the general state of the country, that, taking the extent of Spain at between 18,900 and 19,000 sq. leagues, the surface was distributed nearly as follows:—

	Leagues.
Cultivated lands and fallows	4,310
Pasture and commons	11,558
Forests and copes	1,580
Mountains and rivers	1,542
	18,990

It is certain, from the increase of pop., and the nearly total cessation of importation since 1803, that the proportion of cultivated lands must have increased considerably in the interval, though at this moment they are still little more, perhaps, than about a fourth part of the entire surface. The Pyrenees, the hilly parts of Biscay and the Asturias, the vast plains of Andalusia, the two Castiles, Estremadura, and Leon, are almost wholly in pasture; and in some parts the traveller may journey for many miles without seeing either a house or an individual. In point of fact, however, half the pastures really consist of heaths, or of neglected tracts covered with thyme and other wild herbs, that at present are next to worthless. There are few or no irrigated meadows, and hay is seldom or never prepared for fodder. Indeed, notwithstanding the preference given to pasturage, and the privileges that have been long enjoyed by the migratory flocks, it is not supposed that the stock of sheep in Spain at this moment (1851) exceeds 13,000,000, or, at most, 14,000,000; whereas, in England, which has not 1-4th part of the pasture and waste land that belongs to Spain, the stock of sheep is certainly not under 25,000,000, while that of horses and cattle is proportionally great.

The Spaniards distinguish their sheep into the sedentary, or those who remain in the same place during the year; and the migratory, or those who move from place to place. The latter, or *transhumantes*, consisting chiefly of the merinos, or fine-woolled breeds, are depastured during winter in the vast plains of Andalusia, Castile, Leon, and Estremadura; and are driven in summer to the nearest mountains. These migratory flocks are collected for their journeys in large bodies of 10,000 and upwards, called *mestas*, their peregrinations being regulated by a peculiar code of laws, and by immemorial custom. It is obvious that this migratory system has originated in natural causes; and that, in fact, it is an important branch of the rural economy of Spain. In winter, when the mountains are covered with snow, the plains are in the greatest verdure and beauty; and in summer, again, when the herbage of the plains is withered and burnt up by the heat and drought, the pastures of the Sierras, and other mountain tracts, are in a state of comparative luxuriance. Nothing, therefore, can be more natural than this shifting of the flocks; it is for the mutual interest of the occupiers of the hills, and those of the plains, and no doubt has prevailed in Spain from the remotest antiquity, and will necessarily continue to prevail.

The laws and customs, however, under which the migrations of the flocks are conducted have been, for a lengthened period, singularly inexpedient and oppressive. It appears that, about the middle of the 14th century, the depopulation of large tracts of country by a pestilence gave a considerable extension to pasturage; and enabled the proprietors of the migratory flocks to usurp certain privileges, which they have since succeeded in maintaining. (Townsend, ii. 61.) Thus, they are not only allowed to drive them over village pastures and commons, but the pro-

prietors of such cultivated lands as lie in their path are obliged to leave for them a wide path, and, which is still worse, no new inclosures can be made in the line of their migrations, nor can any land that has once been in pasture be again cultivated till it has been offered to the *mesta* at a certain rate! In consequence of these perverse arrangements, disputes, which frequently terminate in bloodshed and murder, are perpetually taking place between the herdsmen and those through whose lands the flocks have to pass. On the whole, however, we incline to think that the mischiefs said to be entailed on Spain by the laws and customs in question have been a good deal exaggerated. As already seen the migration of the flocks is essential in Spanish rural economy; and it does not appear, were government to set resolutely about the matter, that any insuperable difficulty would have to be encountered in defining and fixing the roads to be taken by the flocks, and in otherwise regulating their migrations, so as to prevent them from being injurious to third parties.

It may be worth mentioning, that Capmany ascribes the first great improvement in the wool of Spain to the introduction of a flock of sheep from England, in 1394, being a portion of the dowry brought by Catherine, daughter of the Duke of Lancaster, to her husband, the eldest son of the King of Castile. (See *Questiones Críticas*, 9; and *Memorias Historicas sobre la Marina Comercio, &c., de Barcelona*, iii. 335.)

The low state of agriculture in Spain may be ascribed partly to physical and partly to moral causes. At the head of the former must be placed the heat of the climate, and the aridity of the soil. Most part of the rivers with which the country is intersected run in deep beds, and are but little available, except in a few favoured localities, for purposes of irrigation. Probably, however, moral have had still more influence than physical causes in retarding the progress of agriculture in the Peninsula. At the head of the former must be placed the vast extent of the lands belonging to the nobility, clergy, and corporations. Mr. Townsend mentions, that the estates of three great lords—the dukes of Osuna, Alba, and Medina Cœli, cover nearly the whole of the immense province of Andalusia, and several in the other provinces are hardly less extensive. (ii. 238.) These vast possessions have been uniformly held under strict entail; and, speaking generally, are all managed by stewards, anxious only to remit money to their masters, who are frequently in embarrassed circumstances. The younger branches of the great families, though they inherit all their pride, inherit little or none of their wealth. They are, for the most part, exceedingly ill-educated; and when not employed in government service, pass their days in a state of slothful dependence. It is singular, notwithstanding their immense possessions, that the Spanish grandees have little or no taste for a country life, or for the improvement of their estates; and the fact is, that from the one end of the Peninsula to the other, there is no such thing as a fine country seat. The great estates belonging to the corporations, or towns, are held in common; and, in consequence, are wholly, or almost wholly, in pasture. Luckily, however, the large estates that belonged to the church have been confiscated during the late revolutions; and their sale and division has materially increased the number of smaller proprietors, and given a stimulus to improvement; and a stop has also been put to the practice of entailing. The interruption given to labour, by the immense number of religious festivals and

saints' days, has, also, been exceedingly injurious to agriculture and all sorts of industry.

The Spanish character is also unsuitable to success in agriculture and manufactures. During the prolonged struggle with the Moors, a taste for daring adventures, and for an irregular predatory mode of life, was widely diffused throughout the nation; and the discovery and conquest of America, which occurred nearly at the same time that the power of the Moors was annihilated by the conquest of Granada, afforded a new and boundless field for the exercise of the peculiar taste and talents formed in the Moorish wars. In addition to the means thus afforded of arriving at wealth and distinction by a more commendous and less laborious, though more hazardous, route than that of sober industry, these honorary distinctions, of which the Spaniards are extremely fond, were conferred only on those who followed the profession of arms, and who could show that their ancestors had not degraded themselves by engaging in the debasing pursuits of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce! And while the higher and more aspiring classes were thus led to regard the useful arts with contempt and disdain, the multiplication of convents and such like establishments afforded the means of keeping a vast number of individuals in pampered idleness. We need not, therefore, wonder at the repeated complaints that have been made by native and foreign writers of the pride and laziness of the Spaniards. (See *Capmany, Questions Criticas*, pp. 46-49., &c.) What else could be expected in a country where agriculture and the useful arts have, for a lengthened period, been looked upon as mean and sordid, and below the attention of a gentleman? The heat of the climate was enough, of itself, to enervate the inhab., and to render them indolent; and when we add to this the powerful influence of the causes now shortly glanced at, with the want of leases and roads, and the oppressiveness of taxation, need we wonder at the backward state of agriculture and of the other useful arts?

There are several societies in Spain, assuming the title of "Friends of the Country," for the encouragement of agriculture and the arts; most of them were founded in the reign of Charles III., and were warmly patronised by Campomanes, the most enlightened minister of whom Spain has to boast, and by Count Florida-Blanca. Hitherto, however, they seem to have rendered but little service, if we except that of Madrid, to whose exertions the famous Memoir of Jovellamos (*Informe de la ley Agraria*) is principally to be ascribed. The reader will find this memoir in an English dress in the 4th volume of the translation of the *Itinéraire* of Laborde.

Manufactures. — It might have been expected, from the abundance of wool and silk in Spain, and her extensive colonies in America, that her manufactures would be in a comparatively flourishing state. This, however, is not, nor has it ever been, the case. Capmany, and other able writers, have shown that the statements as to the flourishing state of manufactures in Spain, in the 14th and 15th centuries, have no better foundation than those respecting the flourishing state of agriculture, and the magnitude of the pop. at the same period. Some of the circumstances that have contributed to depress agriculture have also contributed to depress manufactures; but they have, also, been affected by others of a peculiar description, among which may be specified the oppressive influence of the *alcabala*, and other taxes (see *post*), corporation

privileges, monopolies on the part of government, and the want of competition and emulation through the exclusion (in as far as practicable) of foreign manufactured goods. Catalonia, Biscay, and Valencia are the most industrious provinces, and in them manufactures are most advanced. Those of silk and cotton, especially the first, are carried on to a considerable extent in Barcelona, Valencia, and other towns; but though the fabrics be excellent, the colours are wretched. The blonde mantillas of Almagro, in La Mancha, are, perhaps, the best of the Spanish manufactured articles. Broad cloth is made at Alcoy, in Valencia; and coarse cloths (*pano pardo*) are extensively manufactured in Catalonia, and in various districts throughout the country. But, with the exception of silks, all the woven fabrics produced in Spain, whether woollens, cottons, or linens, are at once badly finished and enormously dear: even the coarse, hard-spun *mantas*, that serve the muleteers for cloaks and blankets, fetch prices that would astonish the peasantry of England and France. In the N. provs. tanning is the most important branch of manufacture, furnishing the principal supply of leather for the interior: the business was introduced by and is chiefly in the hands of refugee Basques from the French side of the Pyrenees. The few tan-works of Andalusia are mostly in the hands of Englishmen. The manufacture of paper and hats has been established with some success; and there are numerous potteries, though the products be principally of coarse quality. In Valencia and Catalonia, however, finer articles are made; but even there the art is only in its infancy. There is a royal porcelain manufactory at Madrid, on the plan of that of Sévres, occasioning, like its prototype, a constant loss. Soap is made on a somewhat extensive scale in various parts of Spain, that of the best quality being exported. In Biscay, the production and manufacture of iron has been for many years conducted with considerable activity; and it is probable that the depression occasioned by the late civil war, of which Biscay was the principal seat, has already been removed. It is impossible, however, that the iron trade of Biscay, how abundant soever the ore, can rise to any great importance; since wood fuel is scarce, and coal, being at a considerable distance, and the roads extremely bad, is little used; while English coal, which might be procured at about 1-3rd the price, is strictly prohibited. Still, however, to some extent, at least, in almost every village of the prov., the ironware manufacture is carried on. Horse-shoes and nails, coarse locks, guns, and bedsteads, are the leading articles with which the Biscay manufacturers supply the interior: large copper utensils are also made on a considerable scale in this part of Spain. Muskets, pistols, and sabres are manufactured by the government in Valencia; and several minor establishments exist at Saragossa, Barcelona, Malaga, Cadiz, and Seville. Sword-blades of the finest temper and quality continue to be produced in the *Fabrica das Armas*, near Toledo; but the quantities are comparatively inconsiderable. The manufactures of saltpetre and gunpowder, brass cannon, tobacco, porcelain, tapestry, and mirrors, are conducted exclusively by government; the supply is very limited, the prices of the articles produced extravagantly high, and, excepting tobacco, they are all productive of loss. In some parts, mats, shoes, and other articles, are extensively made of the *esparto* rush.

Commerce. — It is the peculiar misfortune of Spain that every part of her political system has

been alike vicious and objectionable. Had her commercial policy been liberal, it would, in some degree, have compensated for the defects in the distribution of property and political power, and would, no doubt, have given a powerful stimulus to industry. But, unluckily, it has been in perfect harmony with her other institutions, and was, in all respects, worthy of the favourite seat and stronghold of the Inquisition. From the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella down almost to the present time, the policy, if so we may call it, of the Spanish government has been wholly anti-commercial. Their grand object has been to exclude foreign manufactures from the Peninsula, and to preserve a monopoly of its markets, as well as of those in the colonies, to the home manufacturers. The reader, however, can hardly require to be told, that their efforts to bring about this result have been signally unsuccessful. The oppressive taxes imposed on the manufacturers, the multiplication of fasts and holidays, the government monopolies, the badness of the roads and other means of communication, made it impossible for the Spanish manufacturers, even if they had evinced greater enterprise and industry than they have done, to produce manufactured articles as cheap as the English, the French, and others less unfavourably situated. Under such circumstances, the prohibition of certain descriptions of commodities, and the oppressive duties laid on others, had no effect except to suppress the legitimate commerce of the country, and to throw it wholly, or almost wholly, into the hands of smugglers. Any one who takes up a map of Spain must be satisfied at a glance that it would be impossible, even for an army of customs' officers, to prevent her being deluged with smuggled products, provided they were materially cheaper than her native products; for, besides her extensive sea frontier, they may be introduced by way of France and Portugal, and also through the Basque Provinces, which have distinct laws, and enjoy an exemption from the commercial code inflicted on the rest of the kingdom. We need not, therefore, be surprised that every effort to prevent the clandestine introduction of foreign productions should have completely failed. The severities occasionally inflicted on the smugglers, instead of abating, seem really to have increased, the evil. The contraband trade has long been a favourite occupation, and has been eagerly followed by the adventurous, the necessitous, and the desperate. It is believed that for nearly three centuries from 100,000 to 150,000 individuals have been pretty constantly engaged in this occupation; that is, they have been engaged in trampling on the laws, obstructing their officers, and committing acts of violence and bloodshed. When Mr. Townsend travelled in Spain, the country was a prey to the disorders occasioned by this wretched system. But it was to no purpose that the experience of two centuries, and the writings of many able men, had conclusively demonstrated its destructive influence. The government and the people, thanks to the influence of the Inquisition and the clergy, were so ignorant and infatuated as to shut their eyes to its effects, and to resist every attempt to modify it, or to render it less hostile to the public interests.

And, strange to say, notwithstanding all the vicissitudes Spain has undergone in the interval, her old anti-commercial policy continued to maintain its ascendancy down to 1849. But the leading Spanish statesmen having been, at length, satisfied of the disastrous influence of the old

system, a vigorous effort was made, in the year now mentioned, to introduce a more rational tariff; and notwithstanding the selfish and shortsighted opposition of the Catalans and others, the new tariff was happily passed into a law. It is true that it leaves much to be desired; but it is, at the same time, a vast improvement on the system by which it was preceded; and it is especially valuable as being the first step in the introduction of a new and more liberal and rational policy. In a few cases the duties on importation have been increased, but in the great majority of instances they have been reduced, and the greater number of the articles that were formerly prohibited are now admitted on the payment of duties. The following are the bases of the new tariff, viz. :—

"Machines and instruments necessary for agricultural, manufacturing, and mining operations, to pay a duty of from 1 to 14 per cent. *ad valorem*."

"Raw material not abundantly produced by Spain, and used in the operations of the national industry, whatever be the form or the increase of value that it may acquire, to pay from 1 to 14 per cent."

"Raw material similar to that abundantly produced by Spain, productive agents in the same case, such as coal and coke, and articles of merchandise of foreign manufacture which may compete with those of the same kind and quality manufactured in Spain, to pay from 35 to 50 per cent."

"N. B.—Cottons and silks come under this class. The duties on the former are generally about 35 per cent. *ad valorem*."

"Foreign produce and manufactures required for consumption, and not supplied by the national industry, to pay a *maximum* of 15 per cent., and at the utmost 30 per cent. in every exceptional case."

"The duties hitherto levied on the colonial produce of foreign countries to be suitably increased."

"A discriminating duty of 20 per cent. to be charged on articles imported in foreign bottoms; and on those articles which contribute most to the support of the national navigation the discriminating duty may be raised to 50 per cent."

The prohibited imports are arms, projectiles, and munitions of war, including all kinds of gunpowder, quicksilver, charts published by the Admiralty, and reprinted abroad; maps and plans by Spaniards, during copyright; cinnamon; vessels constructed of wood of less burden than 300 tons, of 30 quintals each; grain, flour, biscuit, bread, and macaroni, &c., for soup, not admitted by the corn law; books and prints in Spanish, by Spanish authors, if not imported by those individuals during copyright; missals, breviaries, and other books of liturgy (dictionaries, vocabularies, insignias, devices, and military ornaments are not included in this prohibition); pictures, &c., offensive to morality, or ridiculing the Catholic religion; common salt, tobacco, shoes, and ready-made clothing, except for the private use of travellers; chemical preparations forbidden by the sanitary laws.

Moderate export duties to be levied on antimony or galena, not argentiferous; black copper, roughly melted; litharge containing less than an ounce of silver per quintal; pig lead, raw silk.

Prohibited exports.—Cork in the bark of the province of Girona; litharge containing an ounce and upwards of silver per quintal; argentiferous galena; lead containing 24 drachms and upwards of silver per quintal; cotton, hempen, and woollen rags, and worn-out articles of those materials.

The high discriminating duty on goods imported in foreign bottoms is the most objectionable feature in this tariff; though we can hardly be surprised at the Spaniards continuing to act on a principle that was acted upon down almost till yesterday by the English and the Americans. We believe, however, that it will be far more injurious to themselves than to any one else; and that its effect will be to lessen and embarrass their trade without really providing employment for Spanish merchantmen.

To the other facilities for smuggling in Spain must be added the venality and corruption of the customs' officers. Notwithstanding his *espionnisme*, Mr. Ford bears testimony to its universality. He says, "Every lock in Spain is to be picked with a silver key, and every difficulty smoothed

by a properly administered bribe. The customs *empleados* have been defined to be gentlemen, who, under the pretence of searching portmanteaus, take money on the highway without incurring the disgrace of begging or the danger of robbing; and practically they worry honest travellers who won't pay them, as much as they facilitate those who will." But in truth this venality is not confined to the revenue officers, but pervades and debases all classes, from the highest to the lowest.

We incline to think that, allowing for smuggling, the import and export trade of Spain might each be estimated, previously to the late change in the tariff, at about 4,000,000*l.* sterling, or, perhaps, a little more. And, considering the vast, and, as it were, unexplored resources of the country, and the infinite variety of desirable products she could supply to others, we have no doubt, that, under a really free commercial system, her commerce would speedily be doubled, and that, at no very distant period, it would be increased in a much greater proportion.

The great articles of export from Spain consist (exclusive of silk manufactures) of raw products. Of these, wine, olive oil, wool, fruits of various kinds, lead, quicksilver, brandy, corkwood, salt, raw silk, wheat, &c. are the most important, and are almost all susceptible of an indefinite increase.

The great articles of import are colonial products, obtained principally from Cuba, Porto Rico, &c., cottons and cotton wool; linens, and hemp and flax; woollens; salted fish; hardware, glass and earthenware; timber, rice, hides, butter and cheese, &c. Subjoined is

An Account of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles of Native Produce exported from Spain in 1849, showing, also, the proportional Value of each Article.

Articles in the Order of their Importance.	Quantities.	Value in Reals Va.	Amount per cent of total Value.
Wine, cherry -	1,149,326 arrobas	79,830,680	
Do, common -	421,542	97,607,768	
Do, Malaga -	274,899	4,162,791	
		100,239,349	27.76
Olive oil -	1,487,401	46,729,947	9.95
Flour -	1,087,889	36,859,492	7.85
Quicksilver -	44,468 quintals	26,236,840	7.71
Lead -	569,256 quintals	29,720,814	6.94
Raisins -	1,629,586 arrobas	39,743,443	6.35
Wool -	141,094	14,539,381	3.06
Coin -		15,320,302	2.94
Corkwood -	84,976 quintals	13,181,182	2.91
Brandy -	376,943 arrobas	12,929,000	2.76
Chestnuts -	640,706 lbs.	11,287,905	2.46
Silver in bars -	29,019	10,084,503	2.12
Salt -	3,745,442 fanegas	9,941,327	2.11
Nuts -	85,935	5,774,528	1.22
Soap -	76,940 quintals	5,530,153	1.17
Silk -	46,320 lbs.	4,188,485	0.88
Liquorice -	25,582 quintals	3,477,235	0.74
Almonds -	95,570 arrobas	3,441,264	0.74
Oranges -	69,480 loads	3,296,390	0.73
Silk goods -	419,953 yards	3,296,390	0.58
Saltiron -	30,006 lbs.	2,717,353	0.57
Iron -	356,061	2,427,146	0.54
Woolen goods -	49,016 quintals	2,370,075	0.47
Wheat -	69,615 yards	9,989,519	0.46
Sheep -	53,235 fanegas	1,005,444	0.42
Peas -	158,716 pairs	1,222,079	0.41
Pastas, articles manufactured from flour -			
Maize -	86,029 arrobas	1,326,989	0.40
Cattle -	46,247 fanegas	1,656,215	0.35
Goats -	6,063 numbs	1,601,798	0.34
Goats, or chick-pea (garden stuff) -	24,041 fanegas	1,600,348	0.34
White paper -	355,287 loads	1,203,122	0.28
Beets -	51,240 rumsa	1,479,278	0.32
Rice -	7,378 arrobas	1,087,036	0.28
Rice -	72,609	1,358,949	0.29
Sedge matting, &c., (Esparto labrado) -			
Lemons -	61,319 quintals	1,349,253	0.28
Peas -	30,489 loads	1,320,763	0.28
Peas -	152,126 lbs.	1,177,724	0.25
Hempen yarn -	3,775 quintals	1,166,446	0.24
Oil of almonds -	22,056	1,096,548	0.24
Kidney beans -	115,816 arrobas	1,087,036	0.23
Sugar -	36,056	1,044,879	0.22
Salted codfish -	94,064	916,768	0.20
Grapes -	109,489	912,768	0.19
All other articles -		30,725,980	6.56
Total -		469,010,917	100.00

The importance of the trade that Spain formerly carried on with her vast possessions in the New World,

was, at all times, much exaggerated; and she, in truth, was little better than an agent in the business, the greater part of the goods sent in Spanish bottoms to the colonies being, in reality, the property of foreign merchants. Spain, notwithstanding the emancipation of Mexico and South America, has still some very valuable colonies; and, if nothing else can, the astonishing progress made by Cuba and Porto Rico, since the abolition of the prohibitive system, should satisfy her of its ruinous tendency.

Wool used to be a leading article of import into this country from Spain; but now, though our imports of wool have vastly increased, they are principally supplied by the colonies in Australia, and by Germany, Russia, India, &c. The quantities brought from Spain here, indeed, become quite inconsiderable; so much so, that while in 1849 she supplied us with only 127,559 lbs., our total imports amounted to the immense quantity of 75,768,647 lbs. 1 Wine, quicksilver, and raisins are at present the principal articles of importation from Spain. At an average of the 6 years ending with 1847, the declared value of the exports from the U. K. to Spain amounted to 570,826*l.* a year. But a considerable portion of the exports to Portugal, Gibraltar, and Malta find their way into Spain by the intervention of the smuggler, and some portion, also, of the exports to France. The direct exports to Spain in 1849, amounted to 676,636*l.*, not a third part of what they would be if Spain adopted a really free commercial system.

Owing to the badness of the roads, and their unfitness for carriages, the principal carriers of merchandise are the *arrieros*, or muleteers, who traverse the country in all directions along beaten tracks, many of which are accessible only to them. They form a large portion of the provincial population, and, on the whole, have a good character for honesty to their employers, though they are nearly all, more or less, engaged in smuggling transactions. The extent of this traffic may be estimated from the fact, that about three fourths of the entire inland traffic in corn is carried on by their means. Recently, however, waggons have begun to be introduced on all the practicable roads, and should the latter be improved, the business of the *arrieros* will proportionally fall off.

Currency. — The trade of a banker, as it is understood in Great Britain, is unknown in Spain; but several banks have been established in Madrid, and there is an extensive circulation of inland bills of exchange. All merchants in good credit call themselves bankers, do banking business, and have agents and correspondents in the different towns, to facilitate their operations; but their is, notwithstanding, considerable difficulty in remitting money from place to place, and a different rate of exchange frequently exists between towns only a few leagues distant. In ordinary transactions there are no substitutes for cash, and a good deal of trouble and inconvenience is experienced in counting, examining, and weighing the coins.

Accounts are kept in *reales de vellon*, of which about 90 are equivalent to 1*l.* The pistole is worth 16*s.* 9*d.* British currency. The money in circulation consists of gold and silver coins of very various value, and of copper. Dollars are rarely seen, except in the N. and near the sea-coast, in consequence of the premium they bear in France, to which they are smuggled in large quantities, notwithstanding the penalties consequent on their exportation. Travellers are allowed to carry out of the country a sum for their expenses, amounting to 2*0*l.** in gold only; and should they be found, on examination, to have more, the whole may be seized. Oil is sold by the *arroba mima*, 100 of which are equal to 335 English wine-gallons: 4 arrobas are equal to a quintal, or 102 English pounds. The *cabaz*, or measure for corn, is divided into 12 fanegas, 5 of the latter being equal to a quarter. One hundred Spanish *varas*, or paces, are equal to 92.5 Eng. yards, and a Spanish *legua* contains 5,000 *varas*. The traveller tries in vain to find a rule whereby he may compare the Spanish land measures with the English acre; and, with respect both to weights and measures generally, they vary greatly in different provinces.

Roads and Banditti. — Spain is singularly destitute of roads and other means for the speedy and easy transport of travellers and products from place to place. The king's highways (*camino reales*), the only roads worthy of the name, extend only between the more important places: some of them, for instance, those between the capital and Pampluna, Saragossa, Badajoz, Seville, and Granada, are, generally speaking, kept in good repair; and the great road from Pampluna, by Vittoria, Burgos, and Valladolid, to Madrid, is stated by recent travellers to be scarcely inferior to the second-rate roads of England. The great road to Valencia, though probably somewhat improved since the revolution, was previously in a wretched state; and so likewise is that running by Tarancon and Albacete into Murcia. In Catalonia the roads are comparatively numerous and good; stage-coaches, also, run between the more important towns. The road from Saragossa to Barcelona is in good repair, and a diligence has been established

on it since 1831. The roads of Biscay and Navarre, also (owing to their being placed under a provincial government), are more numerous, better constructed, and more carefully managed, than in the rest of the country. The great complaint with respect to these roads, whether originally made with road-metal, or formed partly by tracks of carts, and afterwards improved, is, that they are seldom provided with bridges over the numerous torrents pervading the country, and scarcely ever kept in proper repair. The mountain-roads are mere paths worn by the feet of the mules during a long series of years. The revenue applicable to the construction and repair of roads is derived partly from local taxes, levied by postage-dues, and duties on articles of consumption; and partly, also, on tolls levied at intervals of 10 or 12 English miles. The tolls appear to be light; but the government is said to derive from them a greater revenue than it expends on the roads. The *camino reales* are under the superintendence of a board under the presidency of the Board of Finance, and the government funds are available only for these roads, the rest being left either to the chance sums levied on travellers, or to the wheels of carts and the feet of mules! With respect to the sums of money employed in repairing roads in Spain, it may suffice to state, that although that country be more than three times the size of England, and naturally more difficult, the outlay on roads in it is hardly one twentieth part the sum expended on those in England. The diligences on the principal roads are decidedly better than might have been expected, and travel at the rate of 6 or 7 m. an hour.

Travelling in Spain is generally regarded by most foreigners as extremely dangerous, as well as slow and laborious. And though the risk of attack from banditti and robbers has been much exaggerated, it has been, and in some districts still is, far from inconsiderable. We borrow from Mr. Ford the following statements:—"The *Ladrones en grande* are an organized gang of well-mounted, well-armed men, from ten to fourteen in number, and commanded by a chief; and as they seldom attack travellers except at a great advantage, it is better to lose one's dollars than one's life, and to submit with a good grace to the polite request of putting your face, mouth downwards, into the mud,—the *Boja abajo*, which will take no denial; not, however, that we ever heard of its being strictly enforced as regards any of our countrymen. The next class are the *Rateros*, the rats. These are not organised permanent bodies, but skulking, ill-conditioned footpads, who lurk about suspicious *ventas*, on the look-out for an accidental affair. They seldom attack armed and prepared persons. A lower ruffian still is the *Raterillo*, or small rat, who is a solitary performer, confining his attacks to the utterly defenceless. "The regular and only really formidable robbers have almost disappeared, in consequence of the institution of a body of picked and well-armed men, who are stationed in the principal routes as escorts and patrols. They are called *guardias civiles*, to distinguish them from military guards. The system is borrowed from the gendarmerie of France, whence the troopers are called by the people *hijos de Luis-Felipe*, sons of Louis-Philippe, and *Pollizones*, a new word coined out of the French *potizons*, or rascals. Diligences, in periods of local danger, are usually provided with armed guards of their own; and there is also a body of armed men on foot, called *Miguelites*, whose business it is to keep the peace, and by whom convoys of value and travellers of rank are escorted. There are few places in which an extempore protection may not be hired of *Escopeteros*, or men armed with a gun, which in truth is the definition of half the Iberian family, when outside a town's wall. Except when ladies are in the case, and the localities are notoriously infested for the moment, all these precautions are needless. A riding party of armed Englishmen may dismiss the bugles and together, from the Pyrenees to the Straits of Gibraltar."

Canals.—No country in Europe is worse provided with canals than Spain, though, looking at the map merely, one would suppose that in none were there greater facilities for their construction. But the imbecility of the government, the ignorance of the people, the porosity of the soil, and the heat of the climate, oppose very serious obstacles to their formation. Still, however, some advances have been made, and the government of Isabella II. may, in this respect, be advantageously contrasted with that of Charles II. During the reign of the latter, a company of Dutch contractors offered to render the Manzanarez navigable from Madrid to where it falls into the Tagus, and the latter from that point to Lisbon, provided they were allowed to levy a duty for a certain number of years on the goods conveyed by this channel. The council of Castile took the proposal into their serious consideration, and, after maturely weighing it, decided, "That if it had pleased God that these two rivers should have been navigable, he would not have wanted human assistance to have made them such; but, as he had not done it, it is plain he did not think it proper

that it should be done. To attempt it, therefore, would be to violate the decrees of his providence, and to mend the imperfections which he designedly left in his works!" (*Clarke's Letters on Spain*, p. 284.)

But such undertakings are no longer looked upon as sinful, and several have been projected, and a few completed, since the accession of the Bourbon dynasty to the throne of Spain.

The canal of the Ebro, from Tudela to Santiago, 41 m. below Saragossa, was chiefly executed in the reigns of Charles III. and IV., under the administration of Count Florida-Blanca; and though of insufficient depth for navigation on any large scale, it is made available during nearly its whole extent for barges of small draught, besides being extremely useful for the irrigation of the surrounding country.

The most important project of this kind at present on foot is the canal of Castile, intended to open a communication between the vast and fertile plains of Old Castile and Leon, and the N. Sea, and to afford an outlet for their surplus produce. It has been constructed from Segovia on the S., past Valladolid and Palencia to Aguilar del Campo; a branch runs westward to the Rio Sena, and another is in course of construction to Burgos. The inefficiency of the engineering processes, the difficulty of procuring good labourers, and the nature of the soil, have presented serious obstacles to the undertaking, which has now been in progress, with certain intermissions, since 1733, and has not yet been completed. A large portion is now, however, available for navigation, and the advantages that would result from its completion are so great, that it may be expected that a vigorous effort will speedily be made to have it terminated. The navigation of the Tagus has, also, engaged the attention of different Spanish sovereigns; and at the close of the 16th century the river is said to have been made navigable for barges from Toledo to its mouth; but, if so, it was subsequently rendered useless through neglect, and it is only within the last few years that a company has undertaken to make it navigable from Aranjuez (33 m. above Toledo) down to Lisbon. The long-pending question respecting the right of the Spaniards to navigate the lower part of the river has been settled, and there is now no reason why small steamers should not ascend as high as Toledo into the richest part of New Castile, thus establishing a valuable trading connexion between the inhabs. of the interior and of the greatest emporium on the coast of the Peninsula.

The Guadalquivir was once navigable for flat-bottomed boats up to Cordova, but Seville is the highest point reached at present. Many projects have been set on foot for improving the river by deepening the channel; but the great and sudden floods to which it is subject must operate as a bar to its successful navigation; nor, even if the part above Seville were considerably improved, is it at all probable that the bars and sand-banks of the marshy district known as the *Marisma* could be so far removed as to make the river accessible by sea-borne vessels even as far as Seville.

Population.—We have already noticed the exaggerated and unfounded statements, with respect to the former flourishing state of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce of Spain. Inasmuch, however, as the population of a country is mostly dependent on its agriculture and manufactures, it follows that the same facts and reasons which show that their extent and prosperity in the 14th and 15th centuries had been greatly exaggerated, go far, also, to show that this must have been the case with regard to the accounts of the comparatively dense population of Spain at the era alluded to. Down to the 15th century, or to the junction of the crowns of Castile and Aragon by the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella, Spain was divided into a number of states, between which the most violent animosities subsisted, and most parts of the Peninsula were a prey to violence and every species of disorder. It would be contradictory and absurd to suppose that a country placed under such circumstances could be densely peopled. And Capmany has conclusively shown that there are really no grounds whatever for thinking that Spain had been at any time more populous than at the period (1807) when his acute and learned work, the *Questiones Criticas*, was published.

No doubt, however, the population of Spain declined considerably during the disastrous reigns of Philip III., Philip IV., and Charles II. This decline has been ascribed, in great part at least, to the expulsion of the Moors in the reign of Philip III. But, though it be impossible too strongly to condemn this measure, and that of the expulsion of the Jews during the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, and the detestable fanaticism in which these acts originated, we are, notwithstanding, inclined to think that their influence has been a good deal overrated. The numbers expelled were magnified far beyond the truth; and it is farther obvious that the vacuum, such as it was, created by their expulsion, would, in ordinary circumstances, have afforded a new field for the employment of those who continued in the country,

and have acted, in fact, as a stimulus to population. Neither are we inclined to lay any stress on the statements of those who contend that Spain was depopulated by the emigrations to America. These were far too inconsiderable to have any such result. No one pretends that the emigrations to America depopulated England; and yet they are far more extensive than those from Spain. Indeed, Ulloa, Ustariz, and Campomanes have conclusively shown that the emigrations from the Peninsula had, in no degree, the effect ascribed to them.

The truth is, that the decline of pop. between the demise of Philip II. and the termination of the war of the succession, was a consequence of continued and systematic misgovernment, rather than of any particular acts of oppression. The rapacity, intolerance, and influence of the Spanish clergy, the *feudal* character of her financial system, the destructive contests in which she was engaged, the weakness of her sovereigns, and, in a word, her wretched internal policy, prostrated her energies, paralysed her industry, and not only prevented her recovering from, but aggravated, the wounds inflicted by the bigotry of her rulers. But, under the milder, more intelligent, and equitable administration of the Bourbons, some improvements took place; and the pop. having increased gradually, though slowly, during the whole course of last century, is now certainly as great as at any former period of her history, and perhaps greater. "*No por eso puede decirse, que la España haya estado mas poblada que al presente, ni en tiempo de los Romanos, ni en el siglo 16; en cuya época suponen algunos escritores arbitrariamente que llegó a 20 ó 21 millones el número de sus habitantes. Por el contrario, todos los datos mas exactos, y las combinaciones mas racionales, persuaden, que no hubo entónces sobre la superficie de España mas de los 10½ millones de almas, a que el último censo reduce su población actual.*" (Antillon, *Geografía*, 147.) In 1787 the pop. amounted to 10,268,150, or perhaps 10½ millions, as it is believed, on apparent good grounds, that the official returns were below the mark; and since then it has increased nearly two millions.

Under the existing constitution, there is to be a deputy for every 50,000 inhab.; and according to the decree issued on the 3d of Aug. 1837, appointing the deputies for the different provinces, the total pop. of the kingdom amounted to 12,168,000 (see Table at the beginning of this article). We believe, however, that no very great dependence can be placed on this return, though, probably, in the result it is not far from accurate.

Religion.—Spain has long been, and still is, the favourite seat of the Rom. Cath. religion, the country in which it has been maintained in the greatest purity, and to the exclusion of every other. The Inquisition was introduced, or, at all events, was vested with a vast increase of power, in the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella; and that formidable tribunal ultimately succeeded, by dint of the stake and the rack, and such like atrocious means, in exterminating heresy, or, in other words, all difference of opinion as to religious matters in Spain; and it was, also, mainly instrumental in prevailing on its weak and bigoted sovereigns to banish the Moors. According to Llorente, no fewer than 13,000 individuals, accused of heresy, were publicly burned by the different tribunals of Castile and Aragon; and 191,412, accused of the same offence, suffered other punishments in the brief space between the establishment of the modern Inquisition in 1481 and 1518, only two years after the death of Ferdinand; and since then the number of its victims has been incomparably greater! (*Prescott's Ferdinand and Isabella*, iii. 465.) Probably this statement may be exaggerated; but it is, notwithstanding, abundantly certain, that all other persecutions of which we have any authentic accounts have been mild compared with those inflicted by this blood-thirsty tribunal. In point of fact, however, the mischievous influence of the Inquisition did not consist so much in its judicial murders, and other atrocities, as in the terror and awe of name of religion, as in its deadly influence over the mind and feelings of the nation. It was, as every one knows, quite as hostile to all sorts of political and philosophical knowledge as to heresy in religion; it was, in fact, the deadly foe of every thing like free inquiry; and while the importation of most useful works from foreign countries was a capital offence, nothing could be printed at home unless it were approved by the inquisitors. Under such circumstances, need we wonder at the ignorance of the Spanish people, their bigotry, intolerance, and the profound veneration they so long displayed for whatever is most worthy of contempt?

The numbers and wealth of the clergy and monastic orders were such as might be expected in a country where the Inquisition was triumphant, and where to commit a murder was a less offence than to insinuate a doubt as to the "real presence!" According to an official statement drawn up in 1812, it appears that the clergy were then in possession of about one fourth part of the landed property of the kingdom, exclusive of tithes and other casual sources of income, producing in all a

total gross revenue of about eleven millions sterling a year! The revenues of some of the dignified ecclesiastics were quite immense: the archbishopric of Toledo is said to have been worth from 65,000*l.* to 80,000*l.* a year.

According to the official returns of the census of 1787, the ecclesiastics of all descriptions, including 61,617 monks, 32,500 nuns, and 2,705 inquisitors, amounted to 188,625 individuals. (*Townsend*, ii. 313.) And it appears, from the official returns published in the *Correo Literario* of Madrid in 1833, that, notwithstanding the attacks made upon the ecclesiastical state during the French war and subsequently, it then comprised 173,574 individuals, of whom 61,727 were monks, and 24,007 nuns.

Happily, however, a very great change for the better has been effected in the interim. A decree, passed on the 23d of July, 1835, suppressed all conventual establishments with not more than 12 inmates; and the example thus wisely set was followed up by the decree of the 9th of March, 1836, which entirely suppressed all conventual establishments, and religio-military orders. The monks who were thus turned out of their old haunts were to receive small stipends; and it is to be regretted that, owing to the difficulties in which the country has since been involved, these stipends have been very irregularly paid. But the inconveniences thence arising affect only a few individuals, whose claims on the public sympathy were of the slenderest description; whereas the measure in which they originate cannot fail to be productive of great national advantage, and is, in fact, one of the most beneficial results of the late changes.

The whole of the vast property formerly belonging to the church has been confiscated for the use of the state, and a considerable portion of it has been already sold. According to the constitution, the nation undertakes to support the public worship and clergy of the established church; but, owing to the intestine commotions that have prevailed in the country, and its financial difficulties, this condition has not been effectively carried out; and not a few of the clergy are, at present, but little removed from a state of indigence.

It should further be borne in mind that, during the last half century, and especially since the commencement of the late struggle with France, the bigotry of the Spaniards, especially of the inhabs. of towns, and the influence of the priests, have materially declined. And, by a necessary, though unfortunate, consequence, the abuses and vices of the clergy have reacted against religion itself; and, at this moment, most intelligent persons in Spain, though making an outward profession of religion, entertain a profound contempt for the mummeries enjoined by the clergy, and are mostly, indeed, decided sceptics. According, however, as the church is purified, and ceases to be identified with every thing most deserving of reprobation, religion will, no doubt, recover its proper influence, and will cease to be degraded in the public estimation by the intolerance, extortion, and immorality of its professors.

Government.—At the period of the union of the crowns of Castile and Aragon, by the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella, each of the kingdoms had representative assemblies, or cortes, that shared in the legislative authority, and enjoyed very extensive privileges. Unluckily, however, though the crowns were united, by the marriage now referred to, the kingdoms were not; each continued to preserve its own laws and institutions; and their mutual jealousies enabled the sovereigns to employ the one against the other, and ultimately to crush the liberties of both. This result was greatly facilitated by the extensive conquests of the Spanish sovereigns. In the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, Granada, Navarre, and Naples, were subjected to the Spanish crown; so that the princes became, in a great measure, independent of the constitutional control of the cortes of their hereditary states. Under Charles V., who possessed, in right of his father, all the dominions of the house of Austria, and under whom all but boundless territories were acquired in the New World, the preponderance of the external dominions of the crown was vastly increased; and the defeat of the forces of the rebellious Castilians, under Padilla, in his reign, and the execution of the Justiza of Aragon in that of Philip II., completed the extinction of all constitutional control on the acts of the sovereign; at the same time that the Inquisition having first controlled, and next eradicated, all energy and independence of mind, the nation gradually sunk into a state of torpor and stupid indifference.

This state of things continued, with slight interruptions, till the invasion of Spain by Napoleon: when the mortified pride of the nation made them take arms in defence of their independence, and of the rights of the worthless imbeciles who had abdicated the crown. It is useless to enter into any details as to the events that followed. The novel circumstances under which the nation was now placed made it necessary to convolve her ancient cortes, and in 1812 a constitution was formed on a representative basis. This constitution was, however, abolished by Ferdinand the moment he was set at liberty

by the French, in 1814; and from this period down to 1820, the ungrateful and vindictive bigot exerted himself to effect the ruin of those to whom he was mainly indebted for the crown, and even went so far as to restore the Inquisition that had been suppressed by the French. But the army, and a large portion of the nation, disgusted at these measures, broke out in rebellion, and Ferdinand was compelled to accept the constitution of 1812. Owing, however, to the influence of the priests, and the ignorance of a large proportion of the population, the constitution was by no means acceptable to very many classes; and the French having entered Spain with a powerful army, under pretence of restoring order, the constitutionalists were everywhere defeated, and Ferdinand was once more restored to absolute power.

Ferdinand having expired in 1833, his infant daughter, Isabella II., was proclaimed queen, in virtue of a law entitling her to the crown in preference to her uncle, Don Carlos, the heir of the crown under the Salic law, which had previously obtained in Spain. This led, as every one knows, to an obstinate civil war, which fortunately terminated in the total defeat of Don Carlos and his claims.

In 1834, after the demise of Ferdinand, Christina, the queen-regent and mother of Isabella, proclaimed a charter for the Spanish nation, called the *Estado Real*; but it gave little or no satisfaction to the liberal or constitutional party, by whom the pretensions of her daughter were supported, and the queen was obliged to issue a decree, pledging herself to adopt the constitution of 1812, with such modifications as the Cortes might agree to. And this constitution having in consequence been subjected to a careful and judicious revision, a new constitution, which is now (1850) in force, was promulgated at Madrid on the 16th of June, 1837. As this is a document of much importance, and has been, and no doubt will be, much referred to, the reader may not, perhaps, be disinclined to have it fully laid before him:—

CONSTITUTION OF THE SPANISH MONARCHY PROCLAIMED IN MADRID ON THE 16TH OF JUNE, 1837.

DONNA ISABELLA, BY THE GRACE OF GOD and the Spanish monarchy, Queen of Spain; and in her royal name, and during her minority, the Queen Dowager, her mother, Donna Maria Christina de Borbon, Regent of the empire; to all those to whom these presents may come, Be it known, That the Cortes-general have decreed and approved, and that We in due form have accepted the same, as follows:—It being the will of the nation to revise, in virtue of its sovereignty, the political constitution promulgated in Cadix on the 19th day of March, 1812, the Cortes-general, assembled for this purpose, decree and approve the following Constitution of the Monarchy of Spain:—

"Art. 1. Spaniards are, 1st. All persons born in the Spanish dominions. 2d. The children of Spaniards, though born out of Spain. 3d. Strangers who have obtained letters of naturalisation. 4th. Those persons who, without letters of naturalisation, obtain a right of settlement in any part of the monarchy of Spain. The rights of Spaniards are forfeited by naturalisation in a foreign country, and by accepting employment under any other government without the permission of the sovereign of Spain.

"Art. 2. All Spaniards may print and publish their thoughts freely, without a previous censorship, but subject to the laws. The determination of offences by the press belongs exclusively to juries empanelled for this purpose.

"Art. 3. Every Spaniard has the right of petitioning in writing to the Cortes and King, as the laws prescribe.

"Art. 4. The same code of laws shall govern in all parts of the monarchy, and there shall be no special laws for any province or right in common tracts of a civil or criminal nature.

"Art. 5. All Spaniards are eligible to public offices, according to merit and capacity.

"Art. 6. Every Spaniard is obliged to defend the country with arms in his hands whenever he may be called upon to do so by the law, and to contribute according to his abilities to the expenses of the state.

"Art. 7. No Spaniard can be detained, imprisoned, or taken from his family, nor his house entered, excepting in those cases and according to the forms determined by the laws.

"Art. 8. If the security of the state require, in extraordinary circumstances, the temporary suspension, in whole or in part, of the Spanish monarchy, the provisions of the preceding article are to be determined by the law.

"Art. 9. No Spaniard can be prosecuted or sentenced, except by a judge or competent tribunal, in conformity with laws enacted anterior to the commission of the offence, and in the manner laid by them.

"Art. 10. The confiscation of property is abolished, and no Spaniard is to be deprived of his property, except in cases justified by public utility, and with a previous indemnification of losses sustained.

"Art. 11. The nation is obliged to maintain the public worship and ministers of the Catholic religion professed by the Spaniards.

"Of the Cortes.

"Art. 12. The power of enacting laws resides in the Cortes, in conjunction with the king.

"Art. 13. The Cortes is composed of two co-legislative bodies equal in powers—the Senate and the Congress of Deputies.

"Of the Senate.

"Art. 14. The number of senators shall be equal to three fifths of the whole number of the deputies.

"Art. 15. The senators are appointed by the king, from a triple list proposed by the electors of each province who elect the deputies.

"Art. 16. To each province belongs the right of proposing a number of senators proportional to its population; but each is to return one senator at least.

"Art. 17. To be a senator it is necessary to be a Spaniard, to be forty years of age, and to be possessed of the income and other qualifications defined in the electoral law.

"Art. 18. All Spaniards possessed of these qualifications may be proposed for the office of senator in any of the provinces of the monarchy.

"Art. 19. Each time that there is a general election of deputies, whether in consequence of their term of office having expired, or of dissolution of the congress, the third part of the senators, in order of seniority, is to be renewed, those going out being re-eligible.

"Art. 20. The sons of the king and of the immediate heir to the throne are senators of right at the age of twenty-five years.

"Of the Congress of Deputies.

"Art. 21. Each province shall appoint one deputy at least every 50,000 souls of the population.

"Art. 22. The deputies are elected by the direct method, and may be re-elected indefinitely.

"Art. 23. To be a deputy it is necessary to be a Spaniard, to be twenty-five years of age, and to possess all the other qualifications prescribed by the electoral law.

"Art. 24. Every Spaniard possessing these qualifications may be named deputy for any of the provinces.

"Art. 25. The deputies shall be appointed for three years.

"Of the Meeting and Facilities of the Cortes.

"Art. 26. The Cortes are to assemble each year. It is the right of the king to convoke them, to suspend and close their meetings, and dissolve the Cortes; but under the obligation, in the latter case, of convoking and re-assembling another Cortes within the period of three months.

"Art. 27. If the king should omit to convoke the Cortes on the 1st of December in any one year, the Cortes are notwithstanding to assemble precisely at that date, and the conclusion of the session, in terms of the congress holding office happening to occur in the month of January, the general election for the nomination of deputies is to commence on the 1st of January of the month of October.

"Art. 28. On the demise of the crown, or on the king being incapacitated to govern through any cause, the extraordinary Cortes are immediately to assemble.

"Art. 29. Each co-legislative body is to form rules for its own internal regulation, and to scrutinise the legality of the elections and the qualifications of the individuals who compose them.

"Art. 30. The congress of the deputies is to name its president, vice-president, and secretaries.

"Art. 31. In each legislature the king shall appoint from among the members of the senate the president and vice-president of the body, the latter appointing its own secretaries.

"Art. 32. The king shall open and conclude the sittings of the Cortes in person, or by his ministers.

"Art. 33. One of the legislative bodies cannot be convoked by the king without the other being assembled at the same time, except in the case in which the senate sits in judgment on the king's ministers.

"Art. 34. The legislative bodies are not to deliberate in conjunction, nor in the presence of the king.

"Art. 35. The sessions of the senate and of the congress shall be public, and only in cases requiring reserve can private sittings be held.

"Art. 36. The king and each of the co-legislative bodies possess the right of originating laws.

"Art. 37. Laws relating to taxes and public credit shall be presented first to the congress of deputies; and if altered in the senate, they are to be presented again to the congress, and approved by the congress, they are to receive the royal sanction in the form definitely decided on by the deputies.

"Art. 38. The resolutions of each of the legislative bodies are to be determined by an absolute plurality of votes; but in the case of laws the presence of more than half the number of each of the bodies is necessary.

"Art. 39. If one of the co-legislative bodies should reject any project of law submitted to them, or if the king should refuse to give sanction, such project of law is not to be submitted anew in that session.

"Art. 40. Besides the legislative powers which the Cortes exercise in conjunction with the king, the following faculties belong to them. First, to receive from the king, the immediate successor to the throne, from the regency or regents of the empire, the oath to observe the constitution and the laws. Second, to give assent to the laws, in the case of fact or of right with respect to the order of succession to the crown. Third, to elect the regent, or appoint the regency of the empire, and to choose the tutor of the crown when a minor, when the constitution deems it necessary. Fourth, to render effective the responsibility from the ministers of the crown, who are to be impeached by the deputies, and judged by the senators.

"Art. 41. The senators and deputies are irrevocable and inviolable for opinions expressed and votes given in the discharge of their duties.

"Art. 42. Senators and deputies are not to be proceeded against or arrested during the sessions without the permission of the legislative body to which they may belong, if not taken in the act of committing a crime; but in this case, and in those in which they are prosecuted or arrested whilst the Cortes are closed, they are to give immediate information to their respective co-legislative bodies for their cognizance.

"Art. 43. Deputies and senators who receive from the government or from the royal family pension, employments, which may not be an instance of promotion from a lower to a higher office, or of the kind, commission with salary, honours or titles, are subject to re-election.

"Of the King.

"Art. 44. The person of the king is sacred and inviolable, and is not subject to responsibility. His ministers are responsible.

"Art. 45. The power of executing the laws resides in the king, and his authority extends to all matters which conduce to the prestate abroad, in conformity with the provisions of the constitution and the laws.

"Art. 46. The king sanctions and promulgates the laws.

"Art. 47. Besides the prerogatives granted to the crown by the constitution, he possesses the following:—1. To issue decrees, regulations, and instructions, which may be conducive to the execution of the laws.—2. To provide that justice be promptly and efficiently dispensed throughout the empire.—3. To pardon criminals, according to the provisions of the law.—4. To exercise the prerogative of making peace, afterwards giving an account and documents to the Cortes.—5. To dispose of the military forces of the country, distributing them as may be most convenient.—6. To conduct diplomatic and commercial relations with other states.—7. To provide for the exchange of money, on which is to be impressed his bust and name.—8. To direct the application of the funds destined for each branch of the public administration.—9. To appoint public officers, and to confer honours and distinctions on all classes, in conformity with the law.—10. To name and dismiss his ministers without restriction.

"Art. 48. The king is obliged to be authorised by a special law:—1. To alienate, to grant, or exchange any part of the Spanish territory.—2. To admit foreign troops into the kingdom.—3. For the

ratification of treaties of offensive alliance, of special treaties of commerce, and those which stipulate to give assistance to any foreign power. — 4. To absent himself from the kingdom. — 5. To contract matrimony, and to permit those who may be called to the throne to enter into that state. — 6. To abdicate the throne in favour of his immediate successor.

Art. 49. The income of the king and royal family is to be settled by the Cortes at the commencement of each reign.

"Of the Succession to the Crown."

Art. 50. Donna Isabel II. de Borbon is the legitimate Queen of Spain.

Art. 51. The succession to the throne of Spain shall be in the regular order of primogeniture and representation, always preferring the anterior to the posterior line of succession; in the same line also preferring the nearer degree of kindred to the more remote; in the same degree, the male to the female line of descent; and in the same sex, the eldest to the younger branches of the family.

Art. 52. The line of the descendants of Donna Isabel II. de Borbon becoming extinct, her sister and her uncles by the father's side, male as well as female, and their legitimate descendants, shall succeed, if not excluded specially by law.

Art. 53. If the line of succession pointed out become extinct, the Cortes shall name the sovereign as may be best for the interests of the nation.

Art. 54. The Cortes shall exclude from the succession such persons as are incompetent to govern, or who have done any thing which should cause them to deserve forfeiting their rights to the throne.

Art. 55. During the reign of a female her husband is to take no part whatever in the government of the kingdom.

"Of the Minority of the Sovereign, and of the Regency."

Art. 56. The sovereign is to be considered a minor until he is fourteen years of age.

Art. 57. When the king is incapacitated from exercising his functions, or the crown is vacant in consequence of the minority of the immediate successor, the Cortes shall appoint a regency for the government of the kingdom, consisting of one, three, or five persons.

Art. 58. Until the Cortes shall appoint the regency, the kingdom shall be governed provisionally by the father or mother of the king, and in their absence by a council of the ministers.

Art. 59. The regency shall exercise all the functions of royalty, in whose name shall be published all the acts of the government.

Art. 60. The guardian of the king, while a minor, shall be the person appointed in the will of the deceased sovereign, always providing that such guardian shall be a Spaniard by birth; if the deceased king should not have appointed such guardian of the successor, a minor, to the throne, then the father or mother, being in the state of widowhood, shall be the guardian. In the absence thereof, the Cortes shall appoint; but the offices of guardian and regent cannot be discharged by the same individual, except in the case of a father or mother.

"Of the Ministers."

Art. 61. All commands or dispositions issued by the sovereign shall be signed by the respective ministers; and no public functionary is to execute such orders if not thus signed.

Art. 62. The ministers of the king, as senators or deputies, and take part in the discussions of the two legislative bodies; but they are permitted to vote in that body only to which they belong.

"Of the Judicial Power."

Art. 63. To the tribunals and judges alone belong the power to apply the laws in civil and criminal cases, and without exercising any other functions than those of judges and of ministers of justice.

Art. 64. The laws are to determine the nature of the tribunals and judgments which are to exist, the organization of each, its faculties, the mode of proceeding, and the qualifications of the officers belonging to them.

Art. 65. Judgments in criminal cases to be public, and in the form prescribed by the laws.

Art. 66. No magistrate or judge can be deposed, for a shorter or longer period, except by a vote of the Cortes, and on the discharge of the duties of his office, except by a judicial act, or in consequence of the order of the king, after he, on sufficient grounds, commands him to be tried by a proper tribunal.

Art. 67. Judges are personally responsible for all infractions of the law committed by them.

Art. 68. Justice is to be administered in the name of the king.

"Of the Provincial Deputations and Corporations."

Art. 69. In each province there shall be a provincial deputation, composed of a number of persons specified by law, and appointed by the same electors who return the deputies to Cortes.

Art. 70. For the internal government of towns a corporation shall exist in each, to be elected by the inhabitants to whom this right pertains by law.

Art. 71. The law shall determine the organization and duties of the provincial deputations and the corporations.

"Of Taxes."

Art. 72. Each year the government shall submit an estimate of the expenses of the state for the following year, and a schedule of the contributions and of the means of raising them; and in like manner the accounts of the collection and disbursement of the public revenues, for the examination and approval of the Cortes.

Art. 73. No tax or contribution is to be imposed or collected which has not been authorized by the law of the estimates or other special authority.

Art. 74. A similar authorization is necessary to dispose of the property of the state, and for raising money by loans on the public credit.

Art. 75. The public debt shall be under the special protection of the nation.

"Of the National Military Forces."

Art. 76. The Cortes, at the proposition of the king, shall each year determine the number of the permanent military forces by sea and land.

Art. 77. In each province there shall be corps of national militia, whose organization and duties are to be defined by a particular law; and the king may, in case of necessity, dispose of these forces within their respective provinces, but not out of them without the express authorization of the Cortes.

"ADDITIONAL ARTICLES."

Art. 1. The laws shall define the time and manner in which judgments by jury for every class of offences are to be established.

Art. 2. The provinces beyond the seas shall be governed by special laws.

The business of the Spanish government is carried on by ministers of the interior, justice, foreign affairs, war, marine, and finance. The kingdom is now, as already seen, divided into 47 provinces, exclusive of the Balearic and Canary Islands. The constitution declares that a provincial deputation, or *cortes*, shall be elected in every province, for the superintendence of its internal affairs; and that corporations are to be established in the different towns. Such corporations have, indeed, long existed in Spain; and every *pueblo* in the kingdom, great and small, has, for a long series of years, had its *ayuntamiento*, or corporation, which manages the common property (often very large) of the pueblo; applies and levies the taxes required for public and private purposes, &c.; and otherwise enjoys considerable power and influence.

The laws of Spain, previously to the late revolution, and the greater number of those now in force, are embodied in the codes known by the titles of *Fuero Juzgo*, *Leyes de las Siete Partidas*, *Ordenamiento Real*, *Fuero Real*, and *Novisimo Recopilacion*. The first of these, in the main, an abridgment of the Theodosian code, originally published by Alarc, son of Euric, one of the Gothic conquerors of the Peninsula, and successively augmented by the addition of new laws. The *Ordenamiento Real* contains the code of laws established by Ferdinand and Isabella. The *Leyes de las Siete Partidas* is a compound of Gothic, Roman, and canon law. The *Fuero Real* (a mixture of Roman and Gothic law) was compiled at Huesca in 1248, for the use of the kingdom of Aragon; and the *Novisimo Recopilacion* is a digested collection of edicts issued by the kings of Spain, and enjoys the highest authority. It cannot be surprising that, with so many different and often conflicting codes, the general system of jurisprudence should be extremely defective. But the administration of the laws is increasingly worse than the laws themselves, being slow, complicated and protracted to a ruinous degree. There are endless appeals from one jurisdiction to another, and the whole machinery of the courts is adapted to screen the venality of the judges, and to afford a rich harvest to the *escribanos*, or attorneys, the only medium of communication between the client and the judge.

The wretched defects in the administration of justice were, in some degree, obviated, in so far, at least, as petty cases were concerned, by the adoption of a sort of arbitration system. Individuals called *decidores*, annually chosen, according to the different privileges of the different towns, boroughs, and villages in which they reside, decide the cases brought before them, like Sancho Panza in the island of Barataria, according to their own sense of what is right and equitable. But, with the exception of this rude and defective tribunal, every other part of the Spanish judicial system is a tissue of the most scandalous abuses. There is, in fact, but little security for property, and still less for life.

A person robbed or assaulted may prosecute, but, if unsuccessful, is bound to pay all the expenses; and a taxed force to enforce a sum of money with the *alcalde pedáneo* (sheriff's officer), before any steps be taken in the business. In cases of murder and assassination, witnesses are afraid to come forward, as it very frequently happens that they are imprisoned until they establish their innocence. And even when, braving all dangers, individuals boldly denounce a crime, there are at least three chances to one that the culprit escapes from prison, or compounds his felony with the judges; and in that case, the accusers have every thing to dread from the vengeance of the criminal. Thus, from bad laws, still worse administered, it is commonly said in Spain, that not one crime in ten is ever brought before the courts; and, though this be probably overstated, if we take the proportion at one in four or five, we shall perhaps be within the mark. Under such circumstances, need we wonder at the frequency of atrocious crimes?

We subjoin

An Account of the Criminal Processes brought before the Audiencia Courts throughout the Kingdom in 1844, from a Report from the Minister of Grace and Justice to the Queen.

Audiencia Courts.	Population.	Persons Tried.	Proportion.
Pamplona	220,995	1,301	1 to 198
Madrid	1,032,674	5,159	" 199
Caceres	547,480	2,219	" 247
Albacete	586,256	5,339	" 270
Granada	1,214,124	4,484	" 272
Burgos	966,543	5,249	" 279
Seville	1,140,935	4,094	" 283
Valladolid	965,685	3,379	" 289
Saragossa	731,685	2,169	" 339
Valencia	956,936	2,928	" 353
Coruna	1,471,982	5,305	" 377
Canaries	159,930	879	" 561
Majorca	225,107	501	" 761
Barcelona	1,041,202	1,662	" 825
Oviedo	434,635	484	" 898
Total	12,119,759	28,620	1 to 311

Of the 38,630 persons tried, 31,684 had been condemned to various punishments, and 6,946 acquitted; 237 had been condemned to death. The analysis of the trials gives 600 accusations for political crimes; 803 for crimes against religion; 5,630 against public tranquillity; 2,548 smuggling and other offences against the public finance; 35 against public health; 17,689 against personal safety and honour; 10,426 against property; 67 perjury and other offences against justice; 562 coinage and forgery; 862 adultery, rape, and other crimes against good manners; and, lastly, 11 of abuses of the press.

Language, Literature, and Education.—It seems probable that the Cantabrian was the most ancient language of Spain, of which remnants are supposed by some still to exist in the modern Basque, spoken by the Biscayans and other inhabs. of the districts bordering on the Pyrenees. The old language of the Peninsula must, no doubt, have been considerably alloyed by the admixture of Phœnician words and phrases during the Carthaginian dominion; and when the Romans conquered Spain, they introduced their language, which, for several centuries, was the principal medium of communication of all except those living in the most remote districts. The Visigoths, who followed the Romans in the possession of the Peninsula, introduced the *lingua Romana*, a mixture of the Latin and German languages; but the Latin, though corrupt, still continued to be spoken in many parts. Again, when the Moors overran the country, expelled the Visigoths, and established their own power, they brought with them the Arabic language, already highly cultivated, and well adapted for poetry; and this, in turn, became the general language of the country. Thus, out of numerous elements was gradually formed a new language—the Spanish; and though numerous dialects necessarily arose in the different petty kingdoms into which the country was split, that of Castile became at length the classic language of Spain. Its basis is Latin; and many of the ancient inflections, as well as words, are still preserved. There are also a large number of Teutonic words; but the admixture of Arabic, though very considerable, is less than in the Portuguese. Force of expression, depth of sound, and mellifluous cadence, are the peculiar characteristics of the Spanish; which, however, has a guttural accent, derived probably from its Teutonic origin. The abundance of vowels and liquids makes the language harmonious when spoken by native Castilians: it is essentially poetical, and poetry may be considered as the germ of the national literature. It is a curious fact, that there is very little *patois* among the Castilians, and that the language is spoken by the lower classes with remarkable purity and precision.

The rise of Spanish literature cannot be traced further back than the middle of the 12th century, for the songs of the Troubadours belong to a period antecedent to the settlement of the language. The ballads composed in honour of Rodrigo Díaz de Vivar, called *el Campeador*, or more popularly the *Cid*, are among the earliest specimens of Spanish writing, and display at once great independence of thought, and felicity of expression. No doubt, however, the Moorish ballads, or those written to celebrate the chivalrous contests between Christian and Moslem knights, that preceded and accompanied the fall of Granada, form the most striking and distinctive part of the national literature of Spain. "The Moorish wars had always afforded abundant themes of interest for the Castilian muse; but it was not till the fall of the capital that the very fountains of song were broken up, and those beautiful ballads were produced which seem like the rays of departed glory lingering round the ruins of Granada. They present a most remarkable combination of, not merely the exterior form, but the noble spirit, of European chivalry, with the gorgeousness and effeminate luxury of the East. They are brief, seizing single situations of the highest poetic interest, and striking the eye of the reader with a brilliancy of execution, so artless in appearance, withal as to seem rather the effect of accident than study. We are transported to the gay seat of Moorish power, and witness the animating bustle, its pomp, and its revelry, prolonged to the last hour of its existence." (*Prescott's Ferdinand and Isabella*, li. 200.) But it was, perhaps, hardly necessary to say so much about the Spanish ballads, as the admirable translations of Mr. Lockhart have made their spirit, at least, familiar to most readers.

The honour of being the first to introduce regular dramatic writing into Spain has been ascribed to Torres de Naharro, in the early part of the 16th century. He was followed by Lope de Vega, born at Madrid in 1562, at once the most original, most unequal, and most voluminous of the Peninsular dramatists. Calderon, born in 1600, carried the Spanish drama to its highest perfection. Like his great precursor, Lope de Vega, his plays are most unequal, the finest scenes being mixed up with the most revolting barbarism and extravagance. The astonishing fecundity of these writers may in some degree account for, though it cannot excuse, the defects and incon-

sistencies in their dramas. The published works (which do not, however, embrace nearly all his pieces) of Lope de Vega consist of 25 vols. 4to., each containing 10 or 12 plays; and 137 dramas are ascribed to Calderon, besides a still greater number of vaudevilles, interludes, &c. The Spanish drama, however, has long fallen into decay. The humiliation of the country during the disastrous reigns of Philip IV. and Charles II., and the deadening influence of the Inquisition, were little favourable to its culture; and after the accession of the Bourbon dynasty to the throne, French criticism and taste obtained an ascendancy, while the troubles in which Spain has been more recently involved have stifled all poetical talent. Some endeavours, indeed, have been made to revive the national drama, but they have signally failed, and no modern name connected with this branch of literature deserves notice, except perhaps that of Martinez de la Rosa, the author of the *Viuda de Padilla*.

The *Aracana* of Ercilla, born in 1525, is the only poem that Spain has produced that has any pretensions to be classed among epics.

Chivalrous romance was early and assiduously cultivated in Spain. Happily, however, the inimitable satire of Cervantes destroyed at once and for ever the whole race of knights errant. His *Don Quixote*, however, still continues to interest all classes of readers by its exhaustless wit, the truth of its delineations, and its practical good sense. It has been rendered into almost all languages; and, how defective soever the translation, it never fails to amuse and instruct.

But, with the exception of this unique and admirable work, Spanish works are but little known in foreign countries; and in most departments, indeed, the literature of Spain is poor in the extreme. And how could it be otherwise? In 1502 the censorship of the press was established; and the power of carrying it into effect was very soon entrusted to the Inquisition. "*Il est établi dans Madrid*," says Beaumarchais, "with quite as much truth as with us, *un système de liberté sur la vente des productions, qui s'étend même à celles de la presse; et que, pourvu que je ne parle en vers écrits ni de l'autorité, ni de culte, ni de la politique, ni de la morale, ni des gens en place, ni des corps en crédit, ni de l'Opéra, ni des autres spectacles, ni de personne qui tienne à quelque chose, je puis tout imprimer librement, sous l'inspection de deux ou trois censeurs.*" (*Marriage de Figaro*, acte v.) Under such circumstances, it would be contradictory and absurd to expect that the Spanish writers should have distinguished themselves in philosophical research, original discussion, or in any pursuit requiring freedom of inquiry. Spain has a few respectable, but no great or eminent authors.

Since 1830, however, a great change for the better has taken place; the censorship of the press has been suppressed; newspapers have been established; and the influence and authority of the clergy greatly diminished. Hopes may, therefore, be reasonably entertained that literature will again revive; but no sudden development of the mental resources of the nation need be expected, and many years must elapse before literature acquire any material influence.

It would be to no purpose to take up the reader's time by entering into any lengthened details with respect to the state of education in Spain. Down to a very late period it was wholly in the hands of the clergy and the Inquisition; and, instead of contributing to expand and enlighten the mind, it was so contrived as to pervert every sound principle, and imbue it with the grossest and most unworthy prejudices. The education of the Spaniards has been, in fact, the complement of their religion; and, like it, has been fitted and intended to enslave and debase the people, and to make them believe that it was alike their duty and their interest to submit, without murmur and without inquiry, to whatever temporal and spiritual rulers might direct. Nothing, of course, like moral or political philosophy was taught in any seminary of Spain; there was even but little progress made in the study of the learned languages, and science was in the most abject state. A thorough reform of the educational establishments of the country is indispensable; and it were better, indeed, that they should be wholly shut up than that they should continue on any thing like their ancient footing. Efforts have been already made to introduce an improved system of elementary instruction; but, unfortunately, it has been necessary, from the want of other qualified parties, to intrust the superintendence and management of the schools to the parochial clergy; and they, speaking generally, are decidedly hostile to the new order of things, which they not unnaturally regard as in the last degree inimical to their power and interests.

Taxes.—The taxation of Spain has been quite in harmony with her institutions, and, like them, seems to have been intended to obstruct as much good, and inflict as much evil on the country, as possible. Probably, indeed, the *alcabala* is the most objectionable tax that has ever been imposed. It originated in 1341, and consisted

Next to the alcabala, tithe was the most oppressive tax in Spain, and the most complained of. Formerly it was exacted with the greatest rigour, and from articles (amongst others, from *las malas mercancías, de lo que ganaban con su cuerpo*)—*Ley de Partida*, 3d tit. 20, part 2.), which might have been considered beyond the reach of even clerical rapacity. Argüelles estimated the value of the tithe at 600 millions of reals; and, according to official documents, it amounted, in 1808, to 620 millions. In 1820.

Formerly the revenue and expenditure of Spain were shrouded in impenetrable mystery; but now, thanks to the establishment of a constitutional government, they are comparatively well known. We subjoin the estimates of the expenditure and revenue for 1849, laid before the Cortes by Señor Mon. We are assured they may be relied on.

The list of taxes has been materially reduced since 1945; but it is still very great, comprising no less than from 60 to 70 items. Of these, about 30 produce, respectively, less than 10,000l. a year, and some not more

than 10%. It is plain that the greater number of these taxes should be repealed. They serve only to embarrass industry, and to occasion irritation and annoyance.

According to some recent official statements, the total debt of Spain amounted, in 1856, to about 16,800 millions reals, or 185,000,000 sterling, of which the foreign debt exceeded 6,000 millions reals, or 65,000,000 sterling. A large portion of the latter is due to Englishmen, and no interest has been paid on it for about 10 years past. The internal debt is, to a considerable extent, made up of claims arising out of the abolition of tithes, the secularisation of the property of charitable institutions, and so forth; and these, it is probable, will be considerably reduced, before they are finally adjusted. The interest on the debt is estimated at about 850 million reals.

A very considerable portion of the national property, consisting of the estates formerly belonging to the church, convents, &c., is still unsold. But it is difficult to form any estimate of what it might bring, were it put up to sale; as that would depend on the supposed stability of the present order of things, the quantity thrown on the market, and various other considerations. On the whole, however, it is sufficiently plain that, at present, Spain is not in a condition to pay the interest of her debt. But those best entitled, from their knowledge of the country, to form an opinion upon such a point, entertain no doubt that, by the judicious carrying out of these reforms in her economical system, of which a commencement has happily been made, and by the adoption of retrenchment in the public expenditure, she may be enabled honourably to discharge her engagements.

The bulk of the taxes were formerly divided into two great classes, and the division is not yet wholly abandoned.—the *rentas generales* and the *rentas provinciales*. The former were collected throughout all Spain, with the exception of Biscay. They included the revenue derived from the post-office, the stamp duties, customs, &c., together with the royal monopolies of salt, tobacco, and gunpowder. The *rentas provinciales* were collected only in the provinces belonging to the crown of Castile, and did not, therefore, affect Biscay, Navarre, Catalonia, Aragon, or Valencia, which had peculiar and less burdensome taxes.

Army.—The regular army may amount to about 60,000 men; and there is, besides, an extensively organised militia. But though abstemious, brave, and patient under fatigue and privation, the Spaniard wants that steady perseverance and intrepidity essential to the military character. The troops are, also, for the most part, badly disciplined, badly appointed, and will not bear to be compared, in any respect, with those of England, France, Germany, or Russia. The cavalry are particularly ill equipped; and the engineering department is such as might be expected from the state of science in the country. But, how deficient soever, the troops are, at all events, superior to the officers; and it is a curious and not easily explained fact, that, during the whole of the late war with France, not a single individual attained to distinction as a commander, or evinced any superior ability in the art of war or in the conduct of considerable masses. Some of them were good guerrilla leaders, but nothing more.

The Spanish navy, once so formidable, now comprises only 2 sail of the line, 5 frigates, some smaller vessels, and a few steamers.

Races, Character, &c.—There are four distinct races in Spain: 1st, the Spaniards, who form the bulk of the population; 2dly, the *Basques* (about 500,000), descended from the ancient Cantabrians, and living in Navarre and the Basque Provinces; 3dly, the *Moriscos*, descendants of the Moors, about 60,000 of whom still reside in Granada and the Alpujarras; and lastly, the *gypsies*, a race (comprising about 50,000) spread all over the Peninsula, but especially on the S.E. coasts; not strolling from place to place, as in England, but generally pursuing fixed occupations in the towns.* The Spaniards are middle-sized, thin, with well-proportioned limbs, dark hair, black piercing eyes, overshadowed by thick eyebrows, sharp features, and sallow complexions. The women are generally of middle or low stature, but gracefully formed, with almost aquiline noses, full, dark, expressive eyes, dark hair, and complexions varying from the flesh tint of N. Europe to the light olive of the Moors.

The character of the Spaniards has been very variously drawn; but, though it differs materially in different provinces, its discriminating features are not to be mistaken. Though commonly slow, cautious, and deliberate, they become, when their passions are roused, rash, violent, and precipitate in the extreme. Though formal, they are courteous in their bearing, and, though grave, polite. The pride of the Spaniards is proverbial, and they entertain the most overweening opinion of themselves and their country. Though friendly, they are

* The reader is referred, for a curious account of these singular people, to *Bonnet's Journal of the Gypsies of Spain*, 3 vols.

easily offended, vindictive, and more inclined to revenge real or fancied insults than to remember favours. They are fond to excess of show and ostentation; and will endure the greatest privations at home to make a display in public. Their vicious institutions and their climate have made them in the last degree indolent and procrastinating. They are infinitely less jealous now than formerly; and their bigotry has become passive rather than active. They have ceased, in fact, to care much about religion; and are satisfied if they observe the fasts and unmeaning mummeries which it enjoins. Their ignorance often makes them attached to what is most ruinous to themselves; and those who think to gain their favour by denouncing some flagrant abuse, frequently find, to their surprise, that it is the object of popular attachment. They are temperate in eating and drinking, though it may be doubted whether this be not more the consequence of necessity than of choice. Morals are, speaking generally, even more corrupt in Spain than in Italy; and Mr. Townsend mentions, that at the period of his visit, in 1790, the priests divided with the officers the duty of *cortijos* to the ladies!

We subjoin, from the works of two of the most intelligent Englishmen who have visited Spain, Mr. Swinburne and General Napier, author of the classical work on the *Peninsular War*, the following notices of the Spanish character:

"The listless indolence, equally dear to the uncivilised savage and to the degenerated slave of despotism, is nowhere more indulged than in Spain; thousands of men in all parts of the realm are seen to pass their whole day wrapped up in a cloak, standing in rows against a wall, or dozing under a tree. In total want of every excitement to action, the springs of their intellectual faculties forget to play, their views grow confined within the wretched sphere of mere existence, and they scarce seem to hope or foresee any thing better than their present state of vegetation; they feel little or no concern for the welfare or glory of a country, where the surface of the earth is engrossed by a few of crooked families, who seldom bestow a thought on the condition of their vassals. The poor Spaniard does not work, unless urged by irresistible want, because he perceives no advantage accrue from industry. As his food and raiment are purchased at a small expense, he spends no more time in labour than is absolutely necessary for securing the scanty provision his abstemiousness requires. I have heard a peasant refuse to run an errand, because he had that morning earned as much already as would last him the day without putting himself to any further trouble. Yet I am convinced that this listlessness is not essentially inherent in the Spanish composition, for it is impossible without seeing them to conceive with what eagerness they pursue any favourite scheme, with what violence their passions work upon them, and what vigour and exertion of powers they display when awakened by a bull-fest, or the more constant agitation of gaming—a vice to which they are superlatively addicted. Were it again possible, by an intelligent spirited administration, to set before their eyes, in a clear and forcible manner, the incitements to activity and industry, the Spaniards might yet be roused from their lethargy and led to riches and reputation; but I confess the task is so difficult that I look upon it rather as an Utopian idea than as a revolution ever likely to take place.

"Their soldiers are brave and patient of hardships; wherever their officers lead them, they will follow without flinching, though it be up to the mouth of a battery of cannon; but unless the example be given them by their commander, not a step will they advance. Most of the Spaniards are hardy, and, when once engaged, go through difficulties with murmuring, bear the inclemencies of the season with firmness, and support the most amazing perseverance. They sleep every night in their cloaks on the ground, are sparing in diet, perhaps more from a sense of habitual indigence than from any aversion to gluttony; whenever they can riot in the plenty of another man's table, they will gorge themselves to excess, and, not content with eating their fill, will carry off whatever they can stuff into their pockets. I have more than once been a witness to the pillage of a supper by the numerous beaux and admirers who the ladies lead after them in triumph whenever they are invited. They are fond of spices, and scarce eat any thing without saffron, pimiento, or garlic; they delight in wine that tastes strong of the pitched skin, and of oil that has a rank smell and taste; indeed, the same oil floods their lamp, swims in their potage, and dresses their salad; in Inns the lighted lamp is often handed down to the table, that each man may take the quantity he chooses. Much tobacco is used by them in smoking and chewing. All these hot dry kinds of food, co-operating with the parching qualities of the atmosphere, are assigned as causes of the spare make of the common people in Spain, where the priests and the innkeepers are almost the only well-fed portly figures to be met with.

"The Spanish is by no means a naturally serious melancholy nation; misery and discontent have cast a gloom over them, increased, no doubt, by the long habit of distrust and terror inspired by the Inquisition; yet every village still resounds with the music of voices and guitars; and their fairs and Sunday wakes are remarkably noisy and riotous. They talk louder and argue with more vehemence than even the French or Italians, and gesticulate with equal, if not superior, eagerness. Like most people of southern climates, they are dirty in their persons, and overrun with vermin." (*Travels*, ii. 196.)

"The Spanish character," says General Napier, "is distinguished by inordinate pride and arrogance. Dilatory and imprudent, the individual as well as the mass, all possess an absurd confidence that every thing is practicable which their heated imaginations suggest; once excited, they can see no difficulty in the execution of a project, and the obstacles they encounter are attributed to treachery. Kind and warm in his attachments, but bitter in his anger, the Spaniard is patient under privations, firm in bodily suffering, prone to sudden passion, vindictive, bloody, remembers insult longer than injury, and cruel in his revenge. There is not upon the face of the earth a people so sensitive to the friendly interference of society. Their majestic language, fine persons, and becoming dress, their lively imagination, the inexpressible beauty of their women, and the air of romance which they throw over every action, and infuse into every feeling, all combine to delude the senses and impose upon the judgment. As companions, they are, incomparably, the most agreeable of mankind; but danger and disappointment attend the man who, confiding in their promises and energy, ventures upon a difficult enterprise. "Never do to-day what you can put off till to-morrow," is the favourite proverb in Spain, and rigidly followed." (i. 38, &c.)

In Spain there is a good deal of aristocratic pride, and the distinction of ranks is much attended to. The *Aldalques*, or gentry, claim to be descended from those Spaniards who, on the subjugation of the rest of the country by the Moors, found an asylum in the fastnesses of the northern provinces, whence they again gradually spread their conquering arms over the whole country. Besides the *hidalgos de sangre*, or by descent, there are also *Aldalques de privilegio*, or by office, conferred on them by the sovereign; but of these there are comparatively few. According to the official returns, there were in the kingdom, in 1787, 490,989 *hidalgos*, of whom no fewer than 401,040 belonged to the Asturias, Biscay, Burgos, Galicia, and Leon. Many of the *hidalgos* are extremely poor, and they are all intolerably proud.

The grandees of Spain, who are the real nobility of the country, are the descendants of those who, in consideration of their eminent services, acquired the privilege of speaking in the Cortes covered in presence of the king: A man may be a *hidalgo*, that is, he may enjoy the title of duke, marquis, or count, without being noble; and in Spain, in fact, such titles are of little more consequence than that of baronet in this country.

The *hidalgos* formerly enjoyed various privileges; but these have now been very much curtailed. Among others, they could entail lands or establish majorats; these, however, are now abolished.

The *Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants* vary greatly in different parts of Spain, and are much influenced by climate. (See articles MADRID and SEVILLE.) The diet of the middle and higher classes consists of chocolate for breakfast, with mutton, beef, and pork, especially the latter, dressed in various ways, and accompanied by cabbage, garbanzos (Spanish beans), onions, and large peas called *chichorros*. The *olla*, or *cocido*, is a favourite dish; and the sausages (*chorizos*) of Castile are said to be about the best in Europe. Wine is used only in small quantities, and the kinds in common use are seldom much stronger than the low-priced wines of France. The *siesta*, or repose during the heat of the day, is customary to all classes throughout Spain. From 1 to 4 o'clock, in Madrid and most other cities, the shops are either shut, or a curtain drawn before the door; the shutters of every window are closed, and scarce a respectable person is to be seen in the street. But the moment the *siesta* is over, all is again instinct with life and bustle. Exercise is usually taken in the evening, when nearly the entire pop. is abroad. *Tertulias*, or evening parties, are very frequent in the great towns. The theatre is little frequented. *Bull-fights*, though discountenanced by government, are in Spain what the circus was in ancient Italy, the national pastime, favourite resort, and chief amusement of all classes. Though by no means entitled to high rank as musicians, the Spaniards have considerable musical taste; and all orders are passionately fond of dancing, the national dances being the *bolero* and *fandango*; the former a graceful easy movement, the latter a dance of freer and more licentious character, seldom seen in good society.

The lower classes live on wretched fare, rarely eating meat, and fish only occasionally, except on the

coast. The farming labourers fare somewhat better, the chief articles of food being bread, soup, garlic, bacon, and garbanzos, with the accompaniments of wine and oil. Notwithstanding the suppression of the convents, mendicancy is still exceedingly prevalent; and perhaps the only remedy for this inveterate disease is the abolition of all endowments for paupers, and the establishment of some provision for the poor, as in England. Cloaks and broad-brimmed hats are very generally worn by the men; and the mantilla and fan are in universal use among females.

Mr. Townsend, Mr. Twiss, and all other travellers in Spain, have given descriptions of bull-fights. We extract the following account from Ingle's work, not because it is the best, but because it is one of the most recent:—

"The bull-fight is the national game of Spain, and the love of the Spaniards for this spectacle is almost beyond belief. Monday, in Madrid, is always, during the season of the bull-fights, a kind of holiday; every body looks forward to the enjoyment of the afternoon, and all the conversation is about *los toros*. Frequency of repetition makes no difference to the true amateur of the bull-fight; he is never weary of it; at all times he finds leisure and money to devote to his favourite pastime. The spectacle is generally announced, in the name of his majesty, to begin at four o'clock; and, before then, all the avenues leading towards the gate of Alcalá are in commotion; the Calle de Alcalá, in particular, throughout its whole immense extent, is filled with a dense crowd, of all ranks and conditions, pouring towards the gate. A considerable number of carriages are also seen, even the royal carriages; but these arrive later; and there are also many hack cabriolets, their usual burden being a peasant and two girls dressed in their holiday clothes, for there is no way of showing gallantry so much approved, among the lower orders, as *treating* to a bull-fight.

"I had been able to secure a place in one of the best boxes. The spectacle was most imposing: the whole amphitheatre, said to contain 13,000 persons, was filled in every part, round and round, and from the ground to the ceiling, carrying the imagination back to antiquity, and to the butcheries of a Roman holiday. The arena is about 230 ft. in diameter; this is surrounded by a strong wooden fence, about 6 ft. in height, the upper half resting about a foot, so as to leave, in the middle of the fence, a stepping place, by which the men may be able, in time of danger, to throw themselves out of the arena. Behind this fence there is an open space about 9 ft. wide, extending all the way round, meant as a retreat; and where, also, the men in reserve are in waiting, in case their companions should be killed or disabled. Behind this space is another higher and stronger fence, bounding the amphitheatre, for the spectators: from this fence the seats decline backwards, rising to the outer wall; and above these there are boxes, which are all roofed, and are, of course, open in front. The best places in the boxes cost about 4s.; the best in the amphitheatre, about 2s. 6d.; the commonest place, next to the arena, costs 4 reals. * * * The picadors are mounted on horseback, each holding a long lance or pike, and are the first antagonists the bull has to encounter; they stationed themselves on different sides of the arena, about 90 yards from the door at which the bull enters; and at a flourish of trumpets the gate flew open, and the bull rushed into the arena; this produced a deafening shout, and then total silence. The bulls differ very widely in courage and character: some are rash,—some cool and intrepid,—some wary and cautious,—some cowardly,—some, immediately upon perceiving the horse and his rider, rush upon them; others run bellowing round the arena,—some make towards one or other of the *chulos*, who, at the same moment that the bull appears, leap into the arena with coloured cloaks upon their arms; others stop, after having advanced a little way into the arena, look on every side, and seem uncertain what to do. The blood of the bull is generally first split: he almost invariably makes the first attack, advancing at a quick trot upon the picador, who generally receives him upon his pike, wounding him somewhere about the shoulder. Sometimes the bull, feeling himself wounded, retires to meditate a different plan of attack; but a good bull is not turned back by a wound,—he presses on upon his enemy, even if, in doing so, the lance be buried deeper in his flesh. Attached to the mane of the bull is a crimson riband, which it is the great object of the picador to seize, that he may present to his mistress this important trophy of his prowess. I have frequently seen the riband torn off at the moment that the bull closed upon the picador.

"The first bull that entered the arena was deficient both in courage and cunning: the second was a fierce bull of Navarre, from which province the best are understood to come: he paused only for a moment after entering the arena, and then instantly rushed upon the nearest picador, who wounded him in the neck; but the bull, disregarding this, thrust his head under

the horse's belly, and threw both him and his rider upon the ground: the horse ran a little way, but, encumbered with trappings, he fell; and the bull, disregarding for a moment the fallen picador, pursued the horse, and, pushing at him, broke the girths, and disengaged the animal, which, finding itself at liberty, galloped round the arena, a dreadful spectacle, covered with gore, and its entrails trailing upon the ground. The bull now engaged the chulos; these young men show great dexterity, and sometimes considerable courage, in the running fight, or rather play, in which they engage the bull, flapping their cloaks in his face, running zigzag when pressed, and throwing down the garments to arrest his progress a moment, and then vaulting over the fence, an example which is sometimes followed by the disappointed animal. But this kind of warfare the bull of Navarre seemed to consider child's play; and leaving these cloaked antagonists, he made furiously at the other picador, dexterously evading the lance, and burying his horns in the horse's breast: the horse and his rider extricated themselves, and galloped away; but suddenly the horse dropped down, the wound having proved mortal.

"The *banderilleros* then entered: their business is to throw darts into the neck of the bull; and, in order to do this, they are obliged to approach with great caution, and to be ready for a precipitate retreat; because it sometimes happens that the bull, irritated by the dart, disregards the cloak which the *banderillero* throws down to cover his retreat, and closely pursues the aggressor. I saw one *banderillero* so closely pursued, that he saved himself only by leaping over the bull's neck. The danger, however, is scarcely so great as it appears to the spectator to be; because the bull makes the charge with his eyes shut. The danger of the picador who is thrown upon the ground is much greater; because, having made the charge, the bull then opens his eyes, and the life of the picador is only saved by the address of the chulos, who divert the attention of the victor. Generally the *banderilleros* do not make their appearance until the bull appears, by his movements, to decline the combat with the picador, which he shorth by scraping the ground with his feet, and retiring. If the bull show little spirit, and the spectators wish that he should be goaded into courage, the cry is '*¡fuego!*' and then the *banderilleros* are armed with darts, containing a kind of squib, which explodes while it sticks in the animal's neck.

"When the people are tired of the *banderilleros*, and wish to have a fresh bull, they signify their impatience in the usual way, and the signal is then given for the *matador*, whose duty it is to kill the bull. The *matador* is in full court dress, and carries a scarlet cloak over his arm and a sword in his hand: the former he presents to the bull; and when the bull rushes forward, he steps aside and plunges the sword in the animal's neck; at least so he ought to do, but the service is a dangerous one, and the *matador* is frequently killed. Sometimes it is impossible for the *matador* to engage upon equal terms a very wary bull, which is not much exhausted. This was the case with the sixth bull which I saw turned out: it was an Andalusian bull, and was both wary and powerful. Many times the *matador* attempted to engage him, but without success; he was constantly going to the wall, always disregarding the cloak, and turning quick round upon the *matador*, who was frequently in imminent danger. At length the people were tired of this lengthened combat, and, seeing no prospect of its ending, called for the *semi-juna*, an instrument with which a person skulks behind, and cuts the ham-strings of the animal: this the bull avoided a long while, always turning quickly round; and even after this cruel operation was performed, he was still a dangerous antagonist, fighting upon his knees, and even pursuing the *matador*. The moment the bull falls he is struck with a small silette, which pierces the arteries; folding doors, opposite to those by which the bull enters, are thrown open, and three mules, richly caparisoned and adorned with flags, gallop in; the dead bull is attached by a hook to a chain, and the mules gallop out, trailing the bull behind them: this is the work of a moment,—the doors close,—there is a new flourish of trumpets, and another bull rushes upon the arena.

"And how do the Spaniards conduct themselves during all these scenes? The intense interest which they feel in this game is visible throughout, and often loudly expressed; an astounding shout always accompanies a critical moment: whether it be the bull or the man who is in danger, their joy is excessive; but their greatest sympathy is given to the feats of the bull. If the picador receives the bull gallantly, and forces him to retreat; or, if the *matador* courageously faces and wounds the bull, they applaud those acts of science and valour; but if the bull overthrow the horse and his rider, or if the *matador* miss his aim, and the bull seems ready to gore him, their delight knows no bounds. And it is certainly a fine spectacle to see the thousands of spectators rise simultaneously, as they always do when the interest is intense: the greatest and most crowded theatre in Eu-

rope presents nothing half so imposing as this. But how barbarous, how brutal, is the whole exhibition! Could an English audience witness the scenes that are repeated every week in Madrid? A universal burst of 'shame!' would follow the spectacle of a horse, gored and bleeding and actually treading upon his own entrails, while he galloped round the arena: even the appearance of the goaded bull could not be borne,—panting, covered with wounds and blood, lacerated by darts, and yet brave and resolute to the end.

"The spectacle continued two hours and a half; and during that time, there were seven bulls killed, and six horses. When the last bull was despatched, the people immediately rushed into the arena, and the carcass was dragged out amid the most deafening shouts."

Historical Notice.—After being in part occupied by the Carthaginians, Spain became the prey of the Romans, by whom she was finally subdued in the reign of Augustus. After enjoying a lengthened period of tranquillity and prosperity under the sway of the Romans, Spain was invaded, in the beginning of the 5th century, by the Vandals, and other Gothic tribes; and in the next century the Visigoths acquired the ascendancy, and established their supremacy in every part of Spain. The latter, however, were not long permitted peaceably to enjoy this fine and fertile country. In 711 a powerful Arabian force crossed the strait of Gibraltar, and having defeated the Visigoths, and killed Roderick, their king, in a great battle near Xeres de la Frontera, in Andalusia, they speedily overran the whole country, driving the remnant of the Visigoths into the fastnesses of the North, where they did not think it worth their while to follow them. But the Saracens having been signally defeated by Charles Martel, in France, and their fury seal having cooled, the Christians began to descend from the mountains of the Asturias, and gradually recovered portions of the lower countries. The kingdom of Leon was founded under Alphonso I., about the middle of the 8th century; and from that period, notwithstanding the superior civilisation, learning, and splendour of the Saracenic sovereigns, the Christian power was progressively increased at the expense of that of the Mohammedans.

The provinces that were wrested from the Moors were not formed into one, but into several independent states, which, however, were, for the most part, gradually merged in Castile and Aragon. In the 15th century these two leading states were united by the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon with Isabella of Castile; and, having conquered Granada, the last possession of the Moors, in 1492, and subsequently seized all that part of Navarre to the S. of the Pyrenees, the whole of Spain was united under the same government; and Naples being at the same time conquered, and America discovered, Ferdinand, besides being one of the ablest princes of his day, became the most powerful.

Ferdinand was succeeded by his grandson, Charles I., known in history as Charles V., Emperor of Germany; who added, by his father's side, the archduchy of Austria and the Low Countries to the vast inheritance of Spain and the Indies, now augmented by the conquest of Mexico and Peru. Charles, the most illustrious by far of the Spanish sovereigns, was succeeded in his Spanish dominions and in the Low Countries by his eldest son, Philip II., the husband of Queen Mary, of England, who, having conquered Portugal, in 1580, reduced the entire peninsula into one kingdom.

The conquest of Portugal may be said to mark the culminating point of the Spanish monarchy. The tyranny and intolerance of Philip had already, indeed, raised a rebellion in the Low Countries; which, after a struggle unexampled for duration, for the sacrifices it entailed on the weaker party, and for its beneficial consequences, terminated in the independence of the Seven United Provinces. The power of Spain began rapidly to decline. The seeds of this decay had, however, been sown long before the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella. The establishment of the Inquisition and of the censorship of the press, and the attacks made on the ancient rights and liberties of the nation, paralysed its energies; and the unsuccessful rebellion of the commons of Castile, under Charles V., and the brutal and ferocious bigotry of Philip II., extinguished every spark of civil and religious liberty, and subjected the country to the vilest of all despotisms, that which principally depends for support on intolerance, superstitious zeal, and religious quackery.

Under such a government Spain either continued stationary or retrograded, while the surrounding nations made rapid advances in the career of civilisation. Her sovereigns were as imbecile as the country; and on the death of Charles II., the last prince of the Austrian line, the monarchy was dismembered; and it was the arms of Louis XIV., and the talents of the Duke of Berwick, and not the will of the deceased monarch or the wishes of the Spaniards, that placed a Bourbon dynasty on the throne.

The new dynasty was less intolerant than that to which it succeeded; and some reforms were introduced during the course of last century. These, however, were of comparatively slight importance; and it was clear that the abuses under which the country laboured were so deeply seated, and so entwined with every existing institution, and with the habits and prejudices of the people, that they could not be eradicated, nor even materially abated, otherwise than by a revolution.

This was brought about by the weakness of the Spanish sovereigns and the immeasurable ambition of Napoleon. Not satisfied with a considerable subsidy from Spain, Napoleon wished to reduce it to the state of a prov. of France; and in this view he procured the abdication of the reigning monarch, Charles IV., and proceeded to seat his brother Joseph on the vacant throne. The opposition made by the Spaniards to this transfer, and the important results to which it led, are well known to every body, and need not be here alluded to. We are not, however, of the number of those who are inclined to ascribe any great merit to the Spaniards for their opposition to Napoleon, who, but for the interference of England, would have had no great difficulty in suppressing the insurrection. It is idle to talk of the patriotism of the Spaniards. The government, for which they took up arms, was nothing but a tissue of abuses; and their "beloved" sovereigns the merest drivellers. But the pride of the nation was hurt; and the priests, who knew that the ascendancy of the French would be a death-blow to them, did not fail to set them in the most odious light, and used every possible means to make them the objects of fanatical hatred. But, as already stated, it was the arms of England, and the extraordinary talents of her great general, and not the stupid fanaticism of the Spaniards, that repulsed the French beyond the Pyrenees. It is unnecessary to recapitulate the events that followed the restoration of Ferdinand. After years of civil war and bloodshed, a liberal government has happily been established. Whether it be destined to last, time only can show; but if it be, there can be no doubt that the abuses which still infect the country will be gradually exterminated, her gigantic resources developed, and the well-being of her people, and her power and importance in the scale of nations, vastly increased.

The best works on Spain in the English language are the *Travels* of the Rev. Joseph Townsend, and the *Handbook* of Spain, by Richard Ford, Esq. Townsend's is a masterly performance; and besides giving an accurate account of the state of Spain in 1786 and 1787, he has investigated the causes of her decline, or stationary state, with a sagacity and a success that will not easily be surpassed. Mr. Ford's *Handbook* is the work of a gentleman and a scholar, and is the *fœdus principis* of its class. "It contains," to borrow the expressions of a great authority, "an amount of curious learning, acute criticism, and a familiarity with the character and condition of the people, such as is not to be found elsewhere, as far as I know, in the Castilian or any other tongue." (*Prescott's Conquest of Peru*, li. 179., ed. 1848.)

SPALATRO, a city and sea-port of Dalmatia, on the Adriatic, opposite the island of Brasso, lat. 43° 30' 12" N., long. 16° 36' 28" E. Pop. 7,500. It is surrounded by ruined walls, and has a cathedral, a seminary, a theatre and several other churches, a lazaretto, several convents, a gymnasium, normal school, &c., with barracks, and a military hospital. It has both an outer and inner harbour, the former affording secure anchorage to vessels of any burden. It has rather a considerable trade, consisting principally in the exportation of the produce of the surrounding country, as well as of products brought from Bosnia, including cattle, horses, figs, roseoglio, wax, &c. There are thermal springs in the immediate vicinity of the town.

Spalatro, however, is hardly been worth mentioning in a work of this kind, but for its containing the ruins of the magnificent palace built by Diocletian. The emperor belonged to Salona, a now ruined city about 3 m. N.N.E. from Spalatro; and being warmly attached to his native country, he retired thither to spend the remainder of his days, after his abdication of the imperial purple, A. D. 305. From the vastness of the palace, it is all but certain that he had begun its erection long previously to his abdication, though, most probably, in the contemplation of that extraordinary event. The situation seems to have been most judiciously chosen. The soil is dry and fertile, the air pure and wholesome; and, though extremely hot during the summer months, this country seldom feels those sultry and noxious winds that sweep the coasts of Istria, and some parts of Italy, are exposed. The views from the palace are no less beautiful than the soil and climate are inviting. Towards the W. lies the fertile shore that stretches along the Adriatic; in which a number of small islands are scattered in such a manner as to give this part of the sea the appearance of a great lake. On the N. side lies the bay which led to the ancient city of Salona; and the country beyond it, appearing in sight, forms a proper contrast to that more

extensive prospect of water which the Adriatic presents both to the S. and the E. Towards the N., the view is terminated by high and irregular mountains, situated at a proper distance, and, in many places, covered with villages, woods, and vineyards." (*Adam's Ruins of Spalatro*, p. 6.) The want of good water, its only defect, was obviated by the construction of an aqueduct, which conveyed an abundant supply from Salona.

The palace was in the form of a quadrangle, flanked by 16 towers. Its longer side, including the towers, were each 698 ft. in length, and its shorter 591 ft., so that it covered in all nearly 54 English acres! It was constructed of a beautiful freestone, but little inferior to marble. "Four streets, intersecting each other at right angles, divided the several parts of this great edifice, and the approach to the principal apartment was from a very stately entrance, still denominated the golden gate. The approach was terminated by a *peristyle* of granite columns; on one side of which we discover the square temple of Esculapius (now the church of St. John the Baptist), and on the other the octagon temple of Jupiter (now the cathedral). The buildings were all lighted from the top, and appear to have consisted only of one story." (*Gibbon*, cap. 15.)

Diocletian expired in this splendid retreat, A. D. 313. The emperor Constantine Porphyrogenitus, who could only see the palace in a neglected and decaying state, affirms that no description could convey a proper idea of its grandeur. Even now, though the town of Spalatro has been principally built out of its ruins, its prodigious remains give a vivid idea of the wealth and magnificence of the Roman emperors. (*Gibbon*, ubi supra.)

SPALDING, a market town and par. of England, co. Lincoln, wapent. Elloe, div. Holland, on the Welland, 33 m. S.S.E. Lincoln. Area of par., 12,070 acres. Pop., in 1841, 7,731. Though within the fens, the town is well drained, the streets clean and well paved, and the houses have a neat appearance. It consists of four principal streets, and has a spacious market-place, at one end of which is the town-hall. In the same open space is the house of correction for the division of Holland, a brick building, constructed at an expense of 16,000*l.* but said to be in several respects defective. (*See Inspect. of Prisons*, 3d Rep.) The par. church, originally erected in the 13th century, but rebuilt, with some additions, during the 16th, is a light structure in the Perpendicular style, with a fine tower and crocketed spire, and a handsome porch. There are places of worship for Independents, Baptists, Wesleyans, Friends, &c., and many charities; including Queen Elizabeth's Grammar School, with common, blue-coat, and other schools. There are assembly and card-rooms in the town-hall, a subscription library, a literary club, &c.; and formerly an antiquarian society was established at Spalding, of which Sir Isaac Newton, Sir Hans Sloane, Dr. Stukeley, and other eminent persons, were members. The Welland is navigable thus far for sloops of 50 tons burden, which come up to the centre of the town, and land or take in cargoes at the doors of the warehouses. Spalding has a considerable trade in corn, coal, and Yorkshire and Norfolk wool; and its weekly market is the largest in the county for the fat cattle reared in the adjacent marsh lands. Most part of the neighbourhood is appropriated to grazing. It has long been the principal seat of the law-courts for the div. of Holland. At present, quarter and petty weekly sessions are held in the town, and it has a county court, before which 591 plaintiffs were entered in 1848.

SPANDAU, a strongly fortified town of Prussia, prov. Brandenburg, gov. Potsdam, at the junction of the Havel with the Spree, 7 m. W. Berlin. Pop., in 1837, ex. garrison, &c., 6,753. "Spandau, in the time of the great Frederick, was, and still continues to be, the station of a regiment of foot, being filled with troops, it has more the air of an enormous barrack than of a town; and is in point of fact, so regarded. Both its citadel and penitentiary are deserving of notice; the former, on account of its position on an island of the Spree, the latter, because it is said to be managed with exceeding skill." (*Gleig's Germany*, &c., i. 56.) The citadel is a regular square with 4 ramparts, 40 ft. in height, and good casemates; the penitentiary was formerly the residence of the electors of Brandenburg, and now has, says Berghaus, 750 inmates, many of whom are criminals sent from the capital. The principal streets are clean, airy, and spacious, in spite of the disproportionate height of the houses. The church of St. Nicholas, constructed in the 16th century, has a great number of monuments. Spandau is the seat of a civil tribunal, and a forest-board; and has some manufactures of woollen and linen cloths, tobacco-pipes, and earthenware; with breweries, distilleries, &c. It was the scene of Baron Trenck's captivity. It was taken by the Swedes in 1631, and the French in 1806. (*Berghaus's Stein*, &c.)

SPANISH-TOWN (or *Santiago de la Vega*), the cap. and seat of the legislature of the Isl. of Jamaica, co. Middlesex, on the river Coire, about 5 m. from the sea,

and 11 m. W.N.W. Kingston. It is the official residence of the governor, and the commander-in-chief, and the seat of the court of chancery, the supreme court of judicature, &c.; but has otherwise very little importance, and a pop. of at most only 5,000. It is very dirty, badly drained, and the inhabs. are at all times very subject to febrile diseases. (*Tulloch's Report on the W. Indies*, p. 56.)

SPEY, a river of Scotland, in the Highlands. It has its source in Loch Spey, within about 6 m. of the head of Loch Lochy, and thence pursues a N.E. course through Badenoch and Strathpey to Fochabers, below which it falls into the Moray Frith. It receives innumerable mountain streams, but no very important tributary. Following its windings, the course of the Spey is about 96 m.; but it is only about 75 m. in a direct line from its source to its mouth. It drains about 1,300 sq. m. of country, and, besides being one of the largest, is admitted to be the most rapid of Scotch rivers. Being fed wholly by mountain torrents, it is very liable to sudden and destructive inundations. It flows through what is the best wooded portion of the Highlands. The Duke of Richmond (proprietor of the Gordon estates) has several valuable salmon fisheries on this river.

SPEZZIA (Ital. *Spezia*), a town and sea-port of N. Italy. Sardinian dom., div. Genoa, prov. Levante, in which it is the cap. at the extremity of the gulf of its own name, 60 m. E.S.E. Genoa. Pop., in 1838, inc. comm., 9,796. It is finely situated, is tolerably well built, and has an excellent harbour. Napoleon, aware of the advantages of its position, is said to have intended making it a naval station and arsenal; and since he drew attention to its importance its commerce has improved. The gulf of Spezzia (anc. *Portus Lamea*) is about 3½ m. in length, by an average breadth of half as much. It exhibits in one part the phenomenon of a powerful spring of fresh water, which bubbles up from the bottom, and preserves its purity, unmixed by the surrounding salt water, nearly to the surface. (*Corder's Italy*, l. 267.)

SPILSBY, a market-town and par. of England, co. Lincoln, soke Bolingbroke East, in Lindsey, on an eminence near the Lím, 10 m. from the sea, and 27 m. E.S.E. Lincoln. Area of par., 2,340 acres. Pop., in 1831, 1,384. The town consists of 4 streets, diverging from a central square, which forms the market-place. The latter is ornamented on its E. side by the market-cross, a plain octagonal shaft, with a quadrangular base, elevated on 5 steps; and on the W. by the town-hall, built in 1764. The par. church is an irregular structure, consisting of 2 aisles, with a handsome embattled tower at the W. end, said to have been built in the reign of Henry VII. In the interior are several antique monuments. The living, a perpetual curacy, in the gift of Lord Willoughby d'Eresby, is worth 1094. a year. Near the town is a new sessions-house and prison for the div. of Lindsey, occupying about 3 acres of ground, with a Doric portico in front, constructed at a cost of 25,000. Spilsby being the principal town in the S. part of Lindsey, is the seat of the general quarter sessions, and of petty sessions. It has several charities; particularly a free school, founded by Lord Willoughby in 1611, and which has now an income of 664. and instructs 44 poor children of the par., besides whom there are about 80 pay-scholars. (*Charity Rep.*, 32. pt. iv.) Market-days, Mondays; fairs, Monday before and after Whit-Monday, usually, and 2d Monday in July.

SPİRES (Germ. *Speyer*; an. *Noviomagus*), a city of W. Germany, in Rhenish Bavaria, of which it is the cap., on the Rhine, where it is joined by the Speyer, 164 m. N.E. Landau; lat. 49° 19' N. long. 8° 26' 16" E. Pop., in 1838, 8,700, of whom about 3,000 were Rom. Catholics. This is supposed to be one of the most ancient as it long was one of the chief cities of Germany. In the 14th century it is stated to have had 37,000 inhabs.; and in the 16th and 17th centuries it was the seat of the imperial chamber (*Reichskammergericht*), or superior court of appeal for the Germanic empire; and previously to 1689, it had 5 suburbs, enclosed within ramparts, 13 gates, and 64 towers provided with artillery. But in that year it was taken and all but destroyed by the troops of Louis XIV.; and though rebuilt about ten years afterwards, it has never attained its previous prosperity. It still occupies a large extent of ground, but its walls, which are entered by 5 gates, enclose numerous open spaces. The cathedral, which withstood the attempts of the French wholly to destroy it, is the most remarkable building. It was founded and completed in the 11th century, on the site, as is alleged, of a Roman temple of Venus; and it is perhaps the most stupendous edifice existing in the round arch style. Nine German emperors, and many other celebrated personages, have been buried in it, but their tombs were ransacked and mutilated by the French in 1689 and 1794.

Since 1810, however, the Bavarian government has done much to repair the interior of the cathedral, and the duke of Nassau has erected a splendid modern monument to his ancestor the Emp. Adolph. Spires has nu-

merous R. Cath. and two Lutheran churches, a gymnasium, an orphan asylum, house of correction, forest school, botanic garden, and a hall of antiquities, in which many curiosities found in the province are deposited. The outg walls are still standing of an old palace, in which no fewer than 49 diets have been held. Of these the most celebrated by far was that held in 1649, on the subject of the religious disputes that then agitated the empire. On this occasion the majority, consisting of the party attached to the church of Rome, agreed to a resolution by which all changes in the doctrine and discipline of the established church, not previously approved by a general council, were declared to be unlawful and of no effect. The minority, including the princes and others who attached to the doctrines of the Reformation, presented, on the 19th of April, 1659, a protest against the above resolution; and from this circumstance they acquired the name of *Protestants*, which has since become the distinguishing term for those who have renounced the communion of the church of Rome, how much soever they may differ among themselves. (*Mosheim*, iv. 72, ed. 1792.)

Noviomagus was included by the Romans in *Germania Prima*. It was the winter quarters of Caesar, by whom it was founded, as a check on the invasions of the neighbouring Allemanni. Several Roman, Frank, Saxon, and Swabian emperors embellished and made it their residence; and Hen. V. of Germany gave the citizens of Spire a monopoly of the transit trade of the Rhine, and other valuable privileges. During the French ascendancy Spires was the cap. of the dep. of Mont-Tonnerre. (*Schreiber, Guide du Rhin; Berghaus, Allg. Land., &c.*)

SPITZBERGEN (formerly called *E. Greenland*), a group of islands in the Arctic Ocean, being the most N. land hitherto discovered, between the 76th and 81st degs. of N. lat., and the 9th and 22d of E. lon., 490 m. N.N.W. to the North Cape, and nearly midway between Greenland and Nova Zembla. There are four principal islands, Spitzbergen-Propre, N.E. and S.E. islands, and Prince Charles's island to the W. of the others; besides many islets and rocks. Their united area does not appear to be equal to that of Iceland. They rise in many places into mountains of from 1,000 to 2,000 ft. in height, the peaks of which are covered with snow, coal, perhaps, with their creation. The coasts are iron-bound, presenting only a few tolerable harbours; the best of these is Smeeberg, on the W. coast, where the Dutch had once a considerable establishment. The surface is, for the most part, destitute of any vegetable or animal products; but there are a few bears and foxes, which live upon fish, &c. Spitzbergen was formerly a principal station of the whale-fishers; but the whales have for a considerable period been nearly extirpated in the surrounding seas, and it is now but little visited. It was originally discovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby in 1533, and was first visited by the Dutch in 1595. Its shores were principally surveyed by Cap. Philips, in 1773.

SPOLETO (an. *Spoketum*), a city of central Italy, Papal States, cap. deleg., and formerly of the duchy of its name, on the slope of an isolated rocky hill, 38 m. S.E. Perugia, and 60 m. N. Rome. Pop. 8,000. Forsyth says that it is mainly built, with steep and dirty streets, and that it is interesting only from its remains of antiquity; but Eustace, and others, represent it in a less unfavourable light. It is connected, across a deep ravine, with a neighbouring hill, by means of a stupendous aqueduct, serving both as a conduit and a bridge, raised upon a lofty range of 10 pointed arches; which, though repaired in modern times, is, no doubt, of Roman origin. The cathedral, said to have been built in the time of the Lombards, is of a very mixed style, having a front of five Gothic arches supported by Grecian pillars, while, internally, it is in the form of a Latin cross, with a double range of Corinthian columns. It has some showy decorations: near it is a handsome fountain. The citadel, a massive stone fortress, built by Theodorice, and repaired by Narses, stands on a height overlooking the town. The Temple of Concord has been converted into a church; but, in addition to it, Spoleto has two arches, a bridge, the ruins of a theatre, and several other Roman remains: on one of the gates of the city is an inscription importing that Hannibal's troops were repulsed in an attack on the town, after the battle of Thrasymene. It has a few insignificant manufactures of woollen stuffs and hats. Under the French it was the cap. of the dep. Thrasymene. It was of incomparably greater importance in antiquity than in modern times, and is reckoned by Florus among the *musicipia Italiae splendidissima*. (Urb. III. cap. 21.) *Woods; Eustace; Forsyth.*

ST. HELENA, an island of the S. Atlantic Ocean which will be famous in all time to come as being the scene of Napoleon's imprisonment and death. It belongs to Great Britain, and is situated 800 m. S.E. from Ascension Island, and 1,300 m. W. from the coast of Benguela, in S. Africa, lat. 15° 15' S., long. 5° 46' W. Length, 10½ m.; breadth, 6½ m.; area, 30,300 acres. Pop., about

8,000, of whom nearly a half are whites. It appears from a distance like the summit of a lofty submarine mountain, rising abruptly from the shore in rugged and almost perpendicular cliffs, varying from 300 to 1,500 ft. in height, diversified in a few places with deep narrow ravines, descending to the sea, and forming difficult landing-places for the fishermen. In the largest of these, towards the N.W., is James' Town, the cap. and port of the island. The interior is a plateau, about 1,500 ft. above the sea, divided into two unequal parts by a ridge of mountains rising about 500 ft. above the plain, and 2,000 ft. above the sea; the highest summit of this ridge, called Diana's Peak, is 2,708 ft. in height. The geological formation of the island consists almost entirely of basalt, over which in some parts are strata of limestone mingled with tuff and other igneous substances, proving it to have once been the seat of volcanic action. A deep crater-like dell, however, called the Devil's Punch-bowl, is the only feature at all resembling an extinct volcano. The climate is mild, and little variable, the thermometer ranging between 57° and 70° Fahr. in winter (June, July, and Aug.), and between 68° and 75° in summer (Jan., Feb., and March). Rain is common, especially in Feb. and July; and the frequency of cloudy days tends greatly to moderate the heat. The influence of the climate over the constitution of residents in the island is, however, said to be most disastrous. According to O'Meara, it is "extremely unhealthy, hepatitis and dysentery prevailing to an extent and with a severity seldom paralleled, so that very few persons pass their 45th year." (*Voice from St. H.* ii. 438.) About a fifth part of the entire surface is covered with soil, which, though not deep, is rich and productive. Luxuriant pastures are found on the high lands; agriculture, however, is but little attended to; and the inhabitants mostly depend on foreign supplies for their support. The valleys are chiefly laid out in garden ground; and here may be seen near each other, and all flourishing alike, the mango, banana, tamarind, and sugar-cane of the tropics, the orange, citron, grape, fig, and olive of S. Europe, and the apple, gooseberry, and currant of a still colder region. The yam and all the European vegetables are abundant, three crops of potatoes being often raised from the same ground within the year. The tops and sides of the hills are covered with the cabbage tree, dog-wood tree, and gumwood; and the last two have been introduced. The *Palme Christi* and common blackberry are so luxuriant as to be eradicated with difficulty. Cattle and sheep are not numerous, the latter being barely sufficient to supply the wants of the shipping. Goats graze in immense numbers on the high grounds. Neither birds nor beasts of prey, if we except rats, are found; but the latter are numerous and destructive, and there are many varieties of troublesome and poisonous insects. Game is abundant, and the coast furnishes excellent fish. Whales and turtles are often seen near the shore, especially in Jan. and April.

St. Helena, of which the East India Company were "the lords proprietors" till 1824, is now under a military governor, assisted by a civil secretary; and the laws are administered by the chief judge. It is still used as a place of refreshment for vessels sailing northward on the Atlantic, those proceeding southward not being able to make the island. Its commerce is trifling; the value of the imports, principally consisting of stores for shipping, not exceeding from 40,000*l.* to 50,000*l.* a year.

James' Town, the port and the residence of the authorities, is the only town. The anchorage is good in 13 fathoms water, and the port is well protected from the winds. The town is entered by an arched gateway, within which is a spacious parade lined with official residences. The church, a handsome building, fronts the gateway; and close by it a street branches off into the inner parts of the town. The shops are plentifully supplied with English and Asiatic products, but the prices are invariably very high. The principal inhab. reside on the higher and cooler parts of the island, and visit James' Town only on Sundays, or when the want of supplies obliges them to come to its shops and market. One of the handsomest of these villas is Plantation House, a mansion of considerable elegance, belonging to the governor, situated in the midst of extensive grounds, adorned with a variety of fine trees and shrubs.

Longwood, the residence of Napoleon, stands on the plateau, in the middle of an extensive park. When first occupied by the ex-emperor, it was of very limited dimensions; but some additions were subsequently made to it. After Napoleon's death, the house was for some time uninhabited. Lastly, it has been converted into a kind of farming establishment; and, very recently, the room in which the conqueror of Austerlitz breathed his last was occupied as a cart-house and stable!

St. Helena was discovered on the 21st of May (St. Helena's day), 1603, by Juan de Noya, a Portuguese; but no establishment was formed, nor was the island inhabited, till the Dutch became its masters in the middle of the 16th century. Captain Munden, in 1673, took

it from the Dutch; and it was soon afterwards granted by Charles II. to the English East India Company, who, with the exception of the period of Napoleon's imprisonment, held the proprietorship down to 1824, when it was restored to the English government. (*St. Helena Gazette*; *Major Beaton's Letters on the Agr. of St. Helena*; *O'Meara's Voice from St. Helena*.)

Such is a brief notice of this very unimportant island; to which, indeed, we should not have thought it worth while to allude, but for the fact of its having been selected by Great Britain and the other allied powers as the place to which they banished Napoleon. It is unnecessary to particularise the circumstances connected with this memorable event. Suffice it to say, that after the battle of Waterloo, and his second abdication, Napoleon, having retreated to Rochefort, addressed, on the 13th of July 1815, the following letter to the Prince Regent, afterwards George IV.

"*Alliesse Royale,*

"*En butte aux factions qui divisent mon pays, et à l'animosité des plus grandes puissances de l'Europe, j'ai déterminé ma carrière politique, et je viens, comme Themistocle, m'asseoir au foyer du peuple Britannique. Je me mets sous la protection de ses lois, que je réclame de V. A. R., comme du plus puissant, du plus constant, et du plus généreux de mes ennemis.*" "NAPOLEON."

But though Napoleon was more than entitled to compare himself to Themistocles, he erred widely in supposing that the Prince Regent was another Artaxerxes. It was, no doubt, indispensable for the tranquillity of Europe and the world, and for the advancement of the projects of the allied sovereigns, that Napoleon should be placed under restraint. But a sense of what was due to themselves, and still more of what was due to the extraordinary individual the chance of war had placed in their power, should have secured him the best asylum and the most generous treatment consistent with perfect security. It is needless to contrast what they should have done, with what they actually did. The sending of Napoleon to St. Helena, and his treatment while there, constitute the most discreditable chapter in the history of modern royalty. It is painful to have to reflect that the government of such a country as England should have taken a conspicuous part in this unworthy treatment of a fallen foe. Every reader of ancient history heartily execrates the vindictive malignity with which the Romans pursued Hannibal. And yet, in comparing his treatment with that of Napoleon, it should be borne in mind that the Carthaginian hero never relaxed in his hostility to his ancient and hereditary enemies; he did not place himself in their hands, nor did he appeal to their generosity; and the probability is, that if they had got him into their power, they would have despatched him at once, and not have sent their illustrious captive to some miserable island to embitter and insult the few remaining years of his miserable life.

Napoleon arrived at St. Helena on the 12th of October, 1815, and there he expired on the 5th of May, 1821. His remains, after having been deposited for 19 years in a humble grave, near his prison-house, were, in 1840, conveyed with great pomp and ceremony to France, where, agreeably to the wish expressed in his last will, they now repose in the *Hôtel des Invalides*, in Paris.

ST. MAWE'S, a market-town and sea-port of England, co. Cornwall, hund. Powder, par. St. Just-in-Rosedale, on the E. shore of Falmouth harbour, 2 m. E.N.E. Falmouth. Area of par. St. Just, 2,550 acres. Pop., in 1831, 1,558. The town consists of one irregularly-built street, at the foot of a hill facing the sea, the inhabs. being principally fishermen and pilots. The harbour of St. Mawe's is a creek belonging to that of Falmouth, the entrance to which is defended by St. Mawe's Castle, built in the time of Henry VIII. It is governed by a portreeve chosen at an annual court-leet. This inconsiderable place sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. from 1562 till the passing of the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised. Markets on Fridays.

ST. THOMAS, one of the Virgin Islands in the West Indies, belonging to the Danes, in about lat. 18° 20' N. long. 65° W., 36 m. E. Porto Rico. Its area is estimated at 37 sq. m., and its pop. at about 7,000, of whom 500 are whites, 1,500 free blacks, and the remainder slaves. Surface mountainous, and the island generally less fertile than St. Croix. Droughts and violent hurricanes are frequently experienced. Sugar and cotton are the principal products. St. Thomas has long been, and still continues to be, one of the principal emporiums in the West Indies. It owes this distinction partly to its convenient situation, partly to its spacious and safe harbour at St. Thomas on the S. side of the island, and partly and principally to the moderation of the import duties, which vary from 1 to 14 per cent. St. Thomas has, in consequence, become as it were a *dépôt* for the supply of the neighbouring islands; goods being sent to it to be warehoused till opportunity offers for conveying them to their

final destination. The great articles of importation are manufactured goods, principally from England, but partly, also, from other countries of Europe, with provisions, lumber, &c. from the United States. We subjoin an

ACCOUNT of the Import Trade of St. Thomas in 1840.

	Vessels entered.	Tonnage.	First cost Value of Imports.
			<i>Dollars.</i>
From Great Britain	42	9,208	2,100,000
France	38	6,844	640,000
Spain	7	550	25,000
Italy	9	1,288	55,000
Hamburg and Altona	32	5,400	960,000
Bremen	12	2,365	41,000
Brussels	9	1,432	109,000
Holland	2	305	15,000
U. States of America and Brit. America	217	30,879	968,000
Totals	558	58,172	4,297,000

In the same year the colonial arrivals were as follows:—

	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Vessels of Venezuela and New Granada	55	4,642
British Islands	690	9,920
French ditto	65	2,511
Spanish ditto	877	11,981
Danish ditto	321	15,657
Swedish ditto	99	3,448
Hayti	45	1,813
Totals	1,568	48,084

N. B. Besides a great number of vessels neither landing nor loading goods, being in that case free from port-charges.

ST. VINCENT. See VINCENT (St.).

STADE, a town of Hanover, cap. district of its own name, on the Schwinge, near its mouth, in the Elbe, 20 m. W.N.W. Hamburg. Pop., with its suburbs and garrison, about 5,700. On the bank of the Elbe, adjacent to the town, is the castle of Bruns hausen, near which a vessel is stationed to receive the toll exacted by the Hanoverian government on all vessels passing up the Elbe. Stade has three Lutheran churches, a gymnasium, a cavalry school, a central workhouse, &c. Its inhabs. are engaged in manufactures of flannel, hosiery, &c., and have some share in the transit trade on the Elbe.

Since 1736 English vessels have been allowed to sail up to Hamburg without stopping to pay the duties at Bruns hausen; they have, however, to be paid at Hamburg before the vessel can be cleared out. The duties are very heavy on certain descriptions of goods, and are, in fact, a great obstruction to trade. It certainly is not a little surprising that the different nations of Europe, and especially the English, should have submitted, for so long a period, to the imposition of a toll on what is really one of the most important commercial channels in Europe. If it be impossible otherwise to get rid of the nuisance, it would be good policy at once to buy an exemption from the duty.

STAFFA, a small island of Scotland, belonging to the Hebrides, famous for its basaltic columns and caverns, off the W. coast of the island of Mull, 9 m. N.N.E. Iona. It is of an oval shape, about 14 m. in circ., consisting of an uneven table-land, resting on cliffs of variable height, the highest being about 144 ft. above the sea. The cliffs, and the caves by which they are perforated, consist mostly of basaltic columns, resting on conglomerated trap or tuff. The columns are partly perpendicular, partly oblique or horizontal, and partly bent. The average diameter of the columns is about 2 ft.; but they sometimes extend to 3 and 4 ft. They are generally pentagonal and hexagonal; they sometimes, however, have 7 or 8 sides, but are rarely triangular or rhomboidal. They are not so exquisitely united, nor are their angles as sharp as those of the Giant's Causeway.

Except on the N.E. shore of the island, at the landing-place, it is almost every where surrounded by cliffs hollowed with caverns. But the W. side being exposed to the full swell of the Atlantic, and beat by a heavy surge, has been comparatively little explored, and the principal caverns of which we have any certain information are on its E. side. Of these the most celebrated by far is Fingal's Cave, visited and described by Sir Joseph Banks, Dr. M'Culloch, and Sir Walter Scott. The height of the cave, as given by M'Culloch, from the surface of the water, at mean tide, to the centre of the ceiling or arch, is about 66 ft., the height of its sides 36 ft., and its depth 237 ft.* Its sides are formed by ranges of nearly perpendicular columns; a deep chan-

nelled fissure, parallel to the sides, extends along the whole length of the ceiling, which is formed of the bottoms of columns whitened by the infiltration of carbonate of lime into their interstices. The sea never entirely ebbs from the cave, the lowest recesses of which may be discovered from without. In moderate weather boats sail up to its farthest extremity.

"It would be no less presumptuous than useless," says Dr. M'Culloch, "to attempt a description of the picturesque effect of that to which the pencil itself is inadequate. But if this cave were even destitute of that order and symmetry, that richness arising from multiplicity of parts combined with greatness of dimension and simplicity of style, which it possesses; still, the prolonged length, the twilight gloom half concealing the playful and varying effects of reflected light, the echo of the measured surge as it rises and falls, the transparent green of the water, and the profound and fairy solitude of the whole scene, could not fail strongly to impress a mind gifted with any sense of beauty in art or in nature." (*Geology of the W. Islands.*)

But the noblest description of this magnificent cave is that given by the great minstrel:—

When, as to shun the that wondrous dome
By skill of earthly architect,
Nature herself, it seem'd, would raise
A minster to her Maker's praise!
Not for a mason's use second
Her columns, or her arches bend;
Nor of a theme less solemn tell
That mighty surge that ebbs and swells,
And still, between each awful pause,
From the high vault an answer draws,
In varied tone prolong'd and high,
That mocks the organ's music.

Lord of the Isles, cant. iv. st. 10.

In a note on this splendid passage, the author says, "It would be unpardonable to detain the reader upon a wonder so often described, and yet so incapable of being understood by description. This palace of Neptune is even grander upon a second than the first view. The stupendous columns which form the sides of the cave, the depth and strength of the tide which rolls its deep and heavy swell up to the extremity of the vault, the variety of the tints formed by white, crimson, and yellow stalactites, or petrifications, which occupy the vacancies between the bases of the broken pillars which form the roof and intersect them with a rich, curious, and variegated chasing, occupying each interstice; the corresponding variety below water, where the ocean rolls over a dark red or violet-coloured rock, from which, as from a base, the basaltic columns arise; the tremendous noise of the swelling tide, mingling with the deep-toned echoes of the vault, are circumstances elsewhere unparalleled."

MacKinnon's Cave and the Boat Cave, though inferior to that now described, are also magnificent caverns.

Staffa was first made known to the public by the interesting account of it given by Sir Joseph Banks, by whom it was visited in 1772. (*Pennant's Tour in Scotland, li. 300., ed. 1790.*) It is now, during summer, frequently visited by steamers; it is uninhabited, and has not even a house or hut in which any one can take shelter during a storm.

STAFFORD, a central co. of England, having N. Cheshire, E. Derby and Warwick, S. Worcester, and W. Salop. Area, 787,760 acres. Aspect very various. The N. part, or that portion of the co. lying to the N. of a line drawn from Uttoxeter, on the confines of Derbyshire, to Newcastle-under-Lyne, consists principally of moorlands. The hills, in some parts of this district, rise to an elevation of about 1,000 ft. above the level of the sea; sometimes consisting of vast heaps of gravel, and sometimes of huge cliffs, having immense masses of rock scattered round their bases. With the exception of some beautiful valleys, the whole of this district is sterile, cold, and dreary. The soil in many places is peaty; but in some parts, particularly between the rivers Dove and Churnet, it is of a superior quality and produces good herbage. The middle and S. parts of the co. are agreeably diversified with hills, level lands in pasture and corn, plantations, and gentlemen's seats; but, in its extreme S. angle, the iron-works are its most prominent feature. The valley of the Trent is particularly fertile and beautiful. Cannock Heath, immediately to the W. of Rudgely, contained, in 1813, above 26,000 acres; and is by far the largest of the remaining tracts of waste land in the co. Mr. Pitt estimated the cultivated land, including parks, at 600,000 acres, of which he supposed, 100,000 may be meadow and pasture, and 500,000 arable. The latter he distributes as follows: viz. 200,000 acres of clay loam, or more friable mixed loam; 200,000 acres of gravelly or sandy loam, or other mixed, including calcareous soils; and the remainder, or 100,000 acres, of light sandy, gravelly, or other soils. (*Survey, p. 13.*) The air is sharp and cold; and, in the W. parts particularly, there is a great deal of rain. Stafford is more a mining

* These measures differ in some respects, but not materially, from those given by Sir Joseph Banks.

and manufacturing than an agricultural co.; but husbandry, though not so far advanced as it might be, is, of late, very considerably improved. Wheat, oats, beans, and barley are the principal crops. The usual rotation on the clay land is, 1. fallow; 2. wheat; 3. beans; 4. seeds; 5. oats. Various important improvements have been effected within the last 30 years, particularly on the estates of the Duke of Sutherland, who has expended large sums on drainage, on the building of new, commodious, and excellent farm-houses, and on other substantial improvements. The cattle of Staffordshire are principally of the long-horned breed; but, within no very distant period, they have been extensively crossed with short-horns; and the stocks of some of the principal breeders consist, at present, entirely of the latter. Dairy husbandry is extensively practiced; cheese is the principal product, and it is but little inferior to that of Cheshire and Derby. The sheep stock is estimated at about 187,000, and the produce of wool at about 3,500 packs. Property in estates varying from 10,000l. a year down to 40l.: farms of all sizes, from 25 to 500 acres, but the smaller class is decreasing; leases frequently granted, but the greater number of farms held at will. Average rent of land, in 1848, 28s. 1½d. an acre. Coal, iron, and lime are found in the greatest abundance in most parts of the county. It is particularly rich in potteries and iron boundaries. The chief seat of the former is in a district denominated *The Potteries*, between Newcastle-under-Lyne and Norton-on-the-Moors, in which there are several very considerable towns and villages, mostly supported by the business. The neighbourhood affords abundance of fine clay and coal; but the finest clays are principally brought from Purbeck, in Dorsetshire, soapstone from Cornwall, and flints from the chalk pits near Gravesend, and from Wales and Ireland. The iron-works are principally situated in the S. angle of the co., in the vicinity of Walsall, Wednesbury, Bilston, &c. Their increase has been quite extraordinary. In 1830 there were, in all, 123 furnaces, estimated to produce about 212,000 tons a year, being about double the produce of 1820. And since then the increase has been but little inferior; for, though the number of furnaces had only increased, in 1848, to 186, of which 93 were in blast, they had been rendered so much more powerful and efficient, that their produce in that year was estimated at 385,840 tons, a quantity very decidedly exceeding all that was produced by England and Wales in that respect. Indeed, Staffordshire is exceeded only by South Wales; which has, within these few years, taken the lead in this highly important branch of national industry. (*See Memoir on the Iron Trade*, 292.) The manufacture of locks, nails, edge tools, bridles, spurs, and an infinity of other hardware articles, is prosecuted upon a very large scale at Wolverhampton, Bilston, and Walsall, and their vicinity. Soho, the famous establishment of Messrs. Boulton and Watt, where there is the greatest manufactory of steam-engines in the world, is situated within this co., on its extreme southern border. Hats, shoes and boots, are prepared at Stafford for exportation, as well as home consumption; and cotton-mills have been erected at Rochester and other places. Principal rivers, Trent, Dove, and Stour. The Trent and Mersey Canal passes through the county, dividing it into two pretty equal parts; and it is intersected by an immense number of other canals, and more recently by various railways. It is divided into 5 hundreds, excl. of the city of Lichfield and the bors. of Stafford and Newcastle-under-Lyne, and 148 parishes. It returns 12 mems. to the H. of C.; viz. 4 for the co.; 2 each for the city of Lichfield and the bors. of Newcastle-under-Lyne, Stafford, Tamworth, Wolverhampton, and Stoke-upon-Trent; and 1 for Walsall. Registered electors for the co. in 1849-50, 17,706; of whom 9,424 were for the N., and 8,282 for the S. div. In 1841, Stafford had 97,777 inhab. houses, and 510,504 inhabs., of whom 258,864 were males, and 251,640 females. Sum contributed for the relief of the poor, in 1848-49, 110,717l. Annual value of real property in 1819, 1,300,328l.; do. in 1842, 2,441,553l.

STAMFORD, a pari. and mun. bor. and market-town of England, hund. Pirehill, in the above co., of which it is the cap., on the Sow, crossed here by a neat stone bridge, 33 m. N.N.W. Birmingham. Pop. of pari. bor., which includes, with the old bor., a portion of the par. of Castle-church, in 1841, 9,149. It is generally well-built, the houses, several of which are handsome, being of brick and slate; and is paved and lighted with gas, under the provisions of a local act: a good supply of water is procured from several public pumps. The principal street runs N. N. W. from the bridge; and near its centre is the market-square, in which is the county-hall, a large modern building of stone, comprising several handsome apartments, besides an assembly-room, a grand jury room, courts for the assizes and sessions, mayor's office, and other apartments. The county gaol is also a modern structure of extensive dimensions, and well arranged, both for the health and classification of

prisoners, 200 of whom may be accommodated in separate cells. Stafford has two pars., St. Mary's and St. Chad's, now consolidated and in the patronage of the Lord Chancellor. St. Mary's is a large cruciform structure, in the early English style, from the centre of which rises a lofty octagonal tower; about 9,000l. were raised, a few years since, by voluntary contributions for the repair and restoration of this venerable structure. Christchurch and St. Paul's have been recently erected; the latter is a good specimen of Gothic architecture. St. Chad's is a Norman structure, with more recent English additions. There is a small but very handsome Rom. Cath. chapel; and the Wesleyan Methodists, Independents, and the Society of Friends, have each places of worship, mostly with attached Sunday-schools. The grammar school, an ancient foundation, was much enlarged by Edward VI.: the income from the endowment exceeds 3700l. a year, two thirds of which are paid to the head master, and the remainder to the usher. It is open to all boys of the town; but the number of those on the foundation seldom exceeds 30. The appointment of the masters is vested in the corporation, subject to the approval of the Bishop of Lichfield and Coventry. A diocesan national school is established here, and a Lancasterian school is supported by subscription. The institution for the relief of the clergy and the clergy's widows, which is the charity of Stafford is not only liberally supported by subscription, but has an income of 2,400l. a year, arising from funded property. Superannuated or infirm clergymen, also, are eligible for the benefits of this charity. The county infirmary, in the Foregate, has accommodation for 120 in-patients, and relieves a much larger number of patients at their own dwellings. It has a respectable medical staff. The county lunatic asylum, established in 1818, receives patients not only from the co. itself, but from the kingdom generally, though the former are received on lower terms than the others. This establishment is supported both by subscriptions and funded property; it is admirably conducted, and may justly rank among the principal asylums in the kingdom. The buildings comprise accommodation for 170 patients, and the gardens cover an area of several acres. There is an almshouse; but it is only poorly endowed, and fast falling to decay. The manufacture of shoes is the principal employment of the inhabitants, and several manufacturers employ 180 hands: a good workman can earn from 20s. to 25s. a week, and there is a steady market for the ware. The tanning of leather is no longer carried on to any extent. Stafford is noted, in common with the neighbourhood, for the excellent quality of its ale.

The North Western Railway passes close to the town, where it has a principal station. It has been, and no doubt will continue to be, of great advantage to the town.

It has two weekly newspapers, and two banks. Stafford was incorporated in the reign of John. It is divided, under the Municipal Reform Act, into two wards, its officers being 2 aldermen, 6 aldermen, and 18 councillors. Corp. rev. 1848-9, 1,345l.

The assizes and quarter sessions for the co. are held here. The bor. has returned two mems. to the H. of C. since the 22d Edward I., the right of election down to the Reform Act being in the resident freemen. The Boundary Act included a part of the parish of Castle-church with the old borough. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 1,236. The custom of borough-English, by which lands descend to the younger son, to the exclusion of his elder brothers, prevails within the town and liberties.

Stafford is, also, the election-town for the N. division of the co., as well as the principal seat of a poor-law union comprising 31 pars. Markets on Saturday: fairs, April 6., May 14., June 25., Oct. 3., and Dec. 5., chiefly for horses and cattle. There is also a fortnightly cattle market.

About a mile and a half S.W. the town, on the site of a very old castle, demolished at the close of the parliamentary wars, Sir George Jerningham, now Baron Stafford, has built a massive structure after the design of the old fabric. (*Private Information*.)

STAMFORD, a pari. and mun. bor. and market-town of England, S.W. extremity co. Lincoln, on the Welland (crossed here by a stone bridge of five arches), 38 m. S. Lincoln, and 80 m. N. by W. London. Pop. of pari. bor., which includes Stamford-baron with the old bor. a small portion of the par. of St. Martin, on the opposite side of the river, and in co. Northampton, in 1841, 7,394. It is well built, principally of stone, partly paved, well lighted with gas, and supplied with water from Worcester, about 1 m. distant; but the streets are so irregularly laid out as scarcely to admit of description. An act of parliament was, however, passed in 1841 for correcting some of these defects, and for the better cleaning and paving the town; and the commissioners for executing the act resolved that its powers should be put into full operation. Mr. Newcomb, proprietor of the *Stamford Mercury*, has improved the N. entrance of

the town, called Scotgate, by the erection of numerous houses in an admirable style of architecture; but the fact of the land N. from the river being common, and that in the parish of Stamford-baron, consisting of the park and demesne of Burghley, preclude the probability, at present, of any great increase. (*Mun. Board. Report.*) The town-hall, rebuilt in 1776, a large and fine edifice, comprises a sessions-room, gaol, and muniment-office; the town has, also, a small well-arranged theatre, and assembly rooms. The other public buildings are the churches, of which only 6 remain out of 14. St. Mary's, considered the mother church, was built about the end of the 13th century, and is chiefly in the later English style, having a very fine tower and spire. All Saints is an extremely handsome building, with a tower and octagonal crocketed spire. The livings are all in the gift of the Marquis of Exeter, except St. John's, of which Richard Newcomb, Esq. is joint patron. The Wesleyan Methodists, Independents, and Roman Catholics, have each places of worship, and there are numerous Sunday-schools. The grammar-school, founded in 1648, is well endowed, the nett income of the master being nearly 700*l.* a year; but the school has for many years past been of little service to the inhabs. A blue-coat school affords clothing and instruction to about 150 boys: the petty-school was founded in 1604, and a girl's national school was established in 1815. The endowed charities are numerous and valuable: several hospitals, or almshouses, have been founded at different times; besides which, there are several considerable bequests for the relief of the aged poor. A handsome infirmary has recently been built near the town, and furnishes accommodation for about 30 in-patient and 150 out-patients. There are no manufactures; but a considerable business is carried on in malting, and in a retail trade with the neighbourhood. The Welland is navigable for barges from hence to the sea. In the town are excellent hot and cold baths; and races are held in March and July, on Wittering Heath, in the vicinity. It has 2 weekly newspapers, and 3 banks. Markets on Monday and Friday, the latter being for corn. Fairs, Mid-lent Monday, Monday before May 12, and Nov. 8.

Stamford (an. *Stean-forde*, meaning the paved ford) was incorporated in the reign of Edw. IV. It is divided, under the Municipal Act, into 3 wards, its officers being a mayor and 5 aldermen, with 18 councillors. Corn. rev. in 1848-9, 1,367*l.* Quarter and petty sessions are held under a recorder, and there is a county court, before which 769 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. The custom of borough-English, by which landed property descends to the youngest son, to the exclusion of his elder brothers, prevails here; but there is only one copyhold house in the town. Stamford has, with some intermissions, sent 3 mems. to the H. of C. since the reign of Edw. I., the right of election down to the Reform Act being in the resident freemen and inhabs. paying scot and lot. The electoral limits were enlarged by the Boundary Act, so as to include a portion of Stamford-baron S. of the river. Reg. electors in 1849-50, 890. Stamford is likewise the principal town of a poor-law union comprising 37 par. The remains of conventual buildings, which are found abundantly in different parts of the town, show that it was formerly of some importance as an ecclesiastical settlement; and in the reign of Edw. III. it became, for a brief period, the seat of a university, which, however, soon fell to decay.

Within a short distance of the town, on its E. side, is Burghley House, the magnificent seat of the Marquis of Exeter, one of the finest Elizabethan residences in the kingdom. (*Board. and Mun. Reports, &c.*)

STARGARD, a town of the Prussian states, prov. Pomerania, on the Ihna, in a very fertile country. 21 m. E. by S. Stettin. Pop. 13,000. The cupola of St. Mary's church is supposed to be one of the most elevated in Germany. It has a college or gymnasium, founded by a private citizen in 1681, a school of arts, &c., with distilleries and distriant branches of manufactures.

STETTIN, an important town and river port of the Prussian states, cap. Pomerania, and of a reg. of the same name, on the left bank of the Oder, about 36 m. above where it unites with the Baltic, lat. 53° 23' 20" N., long. 14° 33' E. Pop., in 1846, 61,573. It communicates by a bridge with a suburb on the right side of the river, and is very strongly fortified. It is well built, and is the most ancient as well as the principal town of Pomerania. Principal edifices, the royal castle, governor's house, mint, exchange, arsenal, and theatre. It has several churches, of which the principal, St. Mary's, was founded in 1263. The warehouses belonging to the salt company are the most extensive of any in Prussia. The royal square is ornamented by a statue of Frederick the Great. It is the residence of the provincial authorities: it has a court of appeal for the circle, a gymnasium (*Altschule*) founded in 1543, an observatory, a seminary for the training of schoolmasters, a public library, and various other literary institutions. Ship and boat building, and the forging of anchors, are extensively car-

ried on; there are also distilleries, with a considerable variety of manufactures. Stettin is the seat of an extensive and growing commerce, and is now, indeed, the principal port of importation in Prussia. She owes this distinction mainly to her situation. The Oder, which flows through the centre of the Prussian dominions, is navigable for barges as far as Ratibor, near the extreme southern boundary of Prussian Silesia, and is united by means of canals with the Vistula, Elbe, Spree, &c. Stettin is, consequently, the principal emporium of some very extensive and flourishing countries; and is not only the port of Frankfurt-on-the-Oder, Breslau, &c., but also of Berlin; being next to Danzig the principal port in the Prussian dom. Hence, at the proper seasons, its wharfs are crowded with lighters that bring down the produce of the different countries traversed by the river, and carry back colonial products and other articles of foreign growth and manufacture. Vessels of considerable burden, or those drawing above 7 or 8 ft. water, load and unload by means of lighters at the mouth of the river at Swinemunde, the outport of Stettin, on the E. coast of the Isle of Usedom. (*See SWINEMUNDE.*) There is a great wool fair in the month of June each year. A bank, similar to that of Berlin, is also established here, with an insurance company, &c. The principal articles of export consist of linens, corn, wool, timber, and staves, zinc, manganese, bones, oil-cake, bottles, &c. The imports consist of sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; wine, indigo, and other dye-stuffs; cotton stuffs, yarn, and raw cotton; herrings, hardware, oil, tallow, coal, salt, &c. Stettin has considerable manufactures of woollen stuffs, hosiery, leather, sail-cloth, tobacco, &c., and the most extensive sugar refinery in Prussia. In 1849 there belonged to the port 830 vessels of the burden of 40,063 Prussian tons, being about one third part of all the ships belonging to Prussia, exc. boats and 9 steamers.

STEBENVILLE, a town of the U. States, in Ohio, cap. Jefferson co. on the Ohio, 45 m. W. by S. Pittsburg. Pop., in 1840, 5,303. It is a flourishing well-built town, having woollen, cotton, steam-engine, and other machine factories; saw, flour, and paper-mills; printing establishments, &c.; the machinery in many of which is impelled by steam. It presents every probability of a rapid increase, the country around being rich and populous. (*Amer. Almanac, and Cyc.*)

STEYNING, a market-town and par. of England, co. Sussex, rape Bramber, hund. Steyning; area of par. 3,290 acres. Pop. in 1841, 1,495. The town, on the Adur, 5 m. from the English Channel, and 11½ m. S. Horsham; consists of four indifferently built streets. It has a very curious Norman church, with a great variety of excellent and very elaborate detail. (*Nickman's Gothic Archæol.*) The living, a vicarage, worth 508*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Duke of Norfolk. Bokerly Hall, an old edifice of the time probably of Henry VIII., is appropriated to a free school, founded in 1614, for the classical education of 10 boys. This town has never been of any considerable import nce, and, in fact, would not have been worth mentioning in a work of this kind, but for the circumstance of its having sent 2 members to the H. of C. from the reign of Edward II. to the passing of the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised. The franchise was nominally vested in the inhab. householders paying scot and lot; but was really in the hands of the Duke of Norfolk, the proprietor of the borough. It is a polling place for the W. division of the county, and has petty sessions.

STIRLING, a central and marit. co. of Scotland, having N. the co. Perth, E. the Frith of Forth and Linlithgow, S. the latter, Lanark, and Dumbaraton, and W. the latter and Loch Lomond. Area, 231,380 acres, incl. 3,320 acres water. Surface extremely diversified, consisting partly of high mountains; partly of extensive moors, bog, &c.; and partly of very rich alluvial carse lands. Ben Lomond, the most celebrated and best known of the Highland mountains, in the N. W. part of the co., immediately above Loch Lomond, has an altitude of 3,191 ft. The Fintry, Campsie, and Lennox hills lie in the middle and S. parts of the co.: the surface, from Denny N. W. to Loch Lomond, is in most places very bleak and sterile. The low alluvial or carse lands, which are extremely productive, lie on both sides the Forth, but principally on its S. bank, extending from Falkirk to above Stirling. They are supposed to comprise, in all, from 35,000 to 45,000 acres. They consist principally of a bluish clay, intermixed with sand. In the W. parishes clay soil predominates; and, as it rests on a bottom of hard ferruginous clay (*clif*), it is cold and wet. In some places along the rivers the soil is light and gravelly. In the high moors it is mossy; and in the lower grounds there are considerable peat bogs. Several large estates; but property a good deal divided. Farms in the lower districts vary from 20 to 300 acres; but, in the hilly and mountainous districts, they are much larger. Agriculture very various; but generally well suited to the situation and climate. Drainage

has recently been practised on a very extensive scale. In the carse, wheat, beans, barley, and clover, but particularly the first two, are the principal crops. On the lighter lands, turnips are largely cultivated; oats being the prevailing crop on all the poorer high lands. Potatoes generally cultivated. Sheep mostly of the black-faced Linton breed; but Cheviots have been largely introduced. Besides the cattle bred in the co., which are not remarkable for their goodness, great numbers of Highland cattle are annually purchased for feeding at the Falkirk *trysts*. These are the greatest fairs, or markets for cattle, of any in Scotland. They are held on the 2d Tuesday of Aug., Sept., and Oct.; the last being the largest. Cattle in all sorts of condition are brought to them from all parts of Scotland, but principally from the north; as are also sheep and horses. At an average, it is supposed that about 80,000 cattle, 50,000 sheep, and 5,000 horses, are annually disposed of at these *trysts*. Estimating the cattle to be worth 7s. each, the sheep 11s., and the horses 10s., their entire value will be nearly 650,000. (*Yonesside Cattle*, &c. p. 131.)

Stirlingshire is said to have about 12,000 acres of natural wood, and above 10,000 acres of plantations. The E. parts of the co. have a finely diversified appearance; and the view from Stirling Castle is, perhaps, unequalled by any other in Britain. (See next art.) Coal abundant; and there are large supplies of iron-stone, freestone, &c. Average rent of land in 1843, 11s. 6d. an acre. Extensive works have long been established at Carron, for the smelting of iron, and the manufacture of all sorts of cast-iron goods, whether for civil or warlike purposes. (See CARBON.) Exclusive of distilleries, some branches of manufacture, on a pretty considerable scale, are carried on at St. Ninian's, Stirling, Falkirk, and other towns. Principal river, Forth; to which are tributary the Carron, Bannockburn, and other small streams. Stirling has 35 par., and returns 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors for the co. in 1849-50, 2,476. The bor. of Stirling unites with the bors. of Inverkeithing, Dunfermline, Queensferry, and Culross; and the bor. of Falkirk with those of Linlithgow, Lanark, Airdrie, and Hamilton, in returning representatives. In 1841, Stirling had 18,813 inhabited houses, and 62,057 inhabitants, of whom 41,004 were males, and 41,053 females. Valued rent, 108,502*l.* Scotch. Annual value of real property, in 1815, 318,761*l.*; do. in 1843, 379,705*l.*

STIRLING, a royal and parl. bor., river port, market town, and fortress of Scotland, cap. of the above co., on the Forth, 20 m. W.N.W. Edinburgh, and 22 m. N.E. Glasgow. Pop. of parl. bor., which includes the suburb of St. Ninians, in 1841, 10,701. The situation of Stirling is magnificent in the extreme. It is built on the S.E. declivity of a hill, which, rising from one of the most fertile plains in Scotland, terminates on the N. and W., immediately over the river, in an abrupt basaltic rock, about 300 ft. in height, surmounted by a fine old castle. It consequently bears a striking resemblance to Edinburgh; but its situation is fierer, more central, and in all respects more suitable for the capital of Scotland. The view from the castle, if not unrivalled, is, at all events, unsurpassed by any other in the empire. It combines all that can give variety, interest, and grandeur to a prospect. To the E. it extends over the richest valley in Scotland, as far as Edinburgh, commanding all the windings of the Forth; to the W. is the fertile strath of Menzies, the view in this direction being bounded by Ben Lomond; on the N. it is bounded by the range of the Ochill hills; and immediately to the S. is the field of Bannockburn, the Marathon of Bruce and of Scotland.

"The principal street, which extends from the castle down the ridge of the hill, with narrow cross streets branching from it down the declivity on each side, is open and spacious; and the houses, though many of them bear marks of antiquity, are generally lofty and comfortable. A new bridge over the river (finished in 1835) has been begun, and streets are proposed to be built from it on the low ground to the E. of the town. Several neat houses have lately been erected in the neighbourhood. Many respectable families have been induced to settle in Stirling, in consequence of the cheapness of living, the beauty of the surrounding country, and the society which the town affords." (*Parl. Bound. Rep.*)

The principal building is the castle. A fortress is said to have been erected on its site by King Roderic, and there can be no doubt of its great antiquity. Its inaccessible situation in the centre of the kingdom, at the point where the Forth first becomes fordable, renders it, as it were, the key of the Lowlands on the one hand, and of the Highlands on the other. No wonder, therefore, that Stirling early became a place of great importance, and that it was for a lengthened period a favourite royal residence, and the seat of the legislature. Previously to the invention of artillery, the castle was a place of great strength; but, notwithstanding the additions made to the works in more modern times, it could not oppose any effectual resistance to an army properly supplied

with artillery. It is a quadrangular building, with an open area in the centre, and, besides other structures, includes the old royal palace, principally built by James V., and the parliament house; but these venerable structures have, by a scandalous outrage on taste and national associations, been degraded into barracks for common soldiers! It is stipulated in the articles of union with England, that Stirling castle shall be always garrisoned, and kept in repair.

Among the public buildings in the town are the town-house, gaol, Cowan's hospital, founded in 1639, and richly endowed; the atheneum, with a spire 130 ft. in height, a hall for the circuit and sheriff courts, &c. The old church, a venerable Gothic edifice, a portion of which formed part of the Franciscan monastery, founded in 1494, has long been divided into two places of worship: James VI., when a child, was crowned in it, on the 29th of July, 1567, the coronation sermon being preached by the famous reformer, John Knox. Three churches belong to the establishment; 3 to the Free Church, 2 to the United Presbyterians, and 1 each to the Reformed Presbyterians, Independents, Episcopalians, Wesleyan Methodists, and Rom. Caths. Some of the houses formerly occupied by the principal Scotch nobles are still met with in different parts of the town. Religious dissent prevails in Stirling, perhaps to a greater extent than in any other town of Scotland. Ebenezer Erskine, one of the ministers of Stirling, was (along with his brother Ralph, one of the ministers of Dunfermline) a founder of the Secession, or Assented Synod, about 1740. This town has been long eminent for its scholars, particularly those for classical literature. It has also a mechanics' institute, and several public libraries.

Exclusive of Cowan's hospital, noticed above, founded by a citizen of that name, Stirling has two other well-endowed hospitals, exclusive of the interest of 4,000*l.* left in mortmain for behalf of the poor. But, "where the carcass is, there will the eagles be gathered together;" and, notwithstanding the ample provision in question, pauperism is quite as prevalent in this as in most other Scotch towns. Assessment for the poor in 1849, 2,455*l.*

The chief manufacture is that of tartans, tartan shawls, carpets, and yarns, which is carried on to a large extent; and the dyeing of yarns, home-made cloths, and silks is also carried on. Cotton goods are manufactured, though to no great extent, with ropes, malt, leather, soap, and candles. The town has extensive markets, the Corn Exchange being one of the finest in Scotland: it has also a considerable coasting and retail trade. About 100 vessels are said to be engaged in the trade on the Forth up to Stirling, and steam-packets, which in summer are crowded with passengers, ply daily between the town and Granton Pier, near Edinburgh. The town has a branch bank of the Bank of Scotland, with five other branch banks, and two weekly newspapers.

Stirling received its first charter from Alexander I. in 1130; it is now governed by a provost, 3 bailies, and 16 councillors. Corporation revenue, about 3,000*l.* a year. The bor. unites with Dunfermline, Culross, Inverkeithing, and S. Queensferry, in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 537.

Stirling and its immediate vicinity has been the scene of some of the most memorable events in Scotch history. In 1297 Wallace defeated a formidable English army close to the town; and the victory of Bruce at Bannockburn, in 1314, secured the independence of Scotland. James II. was born in the castle; and there, in 1457, he basely murdered, with his own hand, the Earl Douglas, whom he had inveigled thither by the grant of a safe conduct, and the assurances of friendship! Stirling was also the birth-place of James V., and it continued to be his favourite residence. Here, also, James VI. resided with his tutor, the celebrated George Buchanan (*Scotsworn and said false teachers*), till he was 13 years of age; and here, as already stated, he was crowned in 1567.

The abbey of Cambuskenneth, one of the richest and most magnificent in Scotland, stood on the banks of the Forth, a short way from Stirling. Its ruins are still very considerable. (*Private Information.*)

STOCKBRIDGE, a market-town and par. of England, co. Hants, hund. Thorngate, on the Test, a tributary of the Anton, and on the Andover Canal, 8 m. W.N.W. Winchester. Area of par., 1,220 acres. Pop., in 1841, 337. The town comprises only a single street, in which are numerous inns, its principal support being derived from its situation on the high road between London and Exeter. It has a town-hall, a neat edifice, erected in 1810 by the late Marquis of Westminster. From the first of Elizabeth down to the passing of the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised, this petty place, or rather its proprietors, enjoyed the privilege of sending 2 mems. to the H. of C.

STOCKHOLM, a celebrated city of the N. of Europe, the cap. of Sweden, at the junction of the Lake Malar with the Baltic, 440 m. W. by S. Petersburg, lat. 59° 20' 31" N., long. 17° 54' E. Pop., in 1840, 64,160.

It is very strikingly situated, partly on a number of islands, at the entrance of the lake, and partly on the mainland, upon both sides of the Strait, covering altogether an area of about 4½ sq. miles. The view of the city, when approached from the Baltic, commands the palace, the principal bridge, and other prominent objects, and is extremely grand and imposing. "On the islands, and more particularly on those called *Stockholm* (isl. of the Castle), *Riddarholm* (Knights' isl.), and *Helge And's holm* (isl. of the Holy Spirit), all so near each other that they are united by 13 short bridges of stone, and others of wood, stand the king's palace, the great cathedral, the bank, the hall of the diet, and most of the more conspicuous ornaments of the city: but the larger portion of the private houses are built on the mainland, which on the N. side, called the *Nörmalm*, or N. suburb, slopes gradually backwards from the shore; but on the S. side, or the *Södermalm*, rises in bold abrupt cliffs, where the white houses nestle beautifully among shading trees. The streets on the mainland are in general pretty regular, though not very wide; but many of those on the islands are as narrow and crooked as a lover of irregularity could desire. On the three principal islands most of the houses are of stone, but in the N. and S. suburbs the greater part are of stuccoed brick, painted white, yellow, or faint blue. In the remote suburbs, wood is still the only material employed. In most of the houses the stairs and lobby are of a dark blue stone, with such a slippery surface that the stranger is exposed to many a tumble before he gets accustomed to them. Most of the great thoroughfares are tolerably well paved, but they are almost wholly destitute of foot-paths. In all parts of the city it has been necessary, from the nature of the ground, to build upon piles. There are no fortifications of any kind round Stockholm." (*Brenner*, i. 342.)

Except some churches, few buildings of importance are situated in the N. suburb. It contains, however, the two principal squares of the city: one of which, the "King's Garden," bordered with large shady trees, has a good statue of Charles XIII.; while the other, called the square of Gustavus Adolphus (one side of which is formed by the opera house, in which Gustavus III. was assassinated in 1792), has a well-executed statue of the hero whose name it bears. From this square a very handsome bridge opens a communication with the principal island and the royal palace; and, as all heavy goods are here carried by water, it forms the most fashionable and agreeable lounge in Stockholm. The line of this bridge crosses the *Helge-And's* island, cutting off a small portion of the latter, which, being fitted up as a garden, is the resort of the best society of the capital.

The *Södermalm*, or S. suburb, is connected with the city by a bridge, underneath which are sluices for drawing off the waters of the lake. It has 2 fine churches, and a statue of Charles XII. on the military parade.

Though Stockholm has numerous statues, it has but few public edifices of an ornamental character. The palace, however, an immense quadrangular edifice, begun during the reign of Charles XII., has a majestic appearance from whatever point it may be viewed. Its N. and S. faces being prolonged eastward, towards the sea, inclose between them a flower-garden. The lower part is of polished granite; the upper, of brick covered with cement. It contains a museum of antiquities and sculpture, with several good works by Swedish artists; a picture-gallery, in which are a few fine paintings by Raphael, Teniers, Paul Potter, Ostade, &c.; some other superior paintings in the queen's apartment; the royal library, with 40,000 vols. (*Brenner*), in which a copy of every book printed in Sweden must be deposited; the mint, the repository of national archives, and a chapel, very splendidly fitted up. Broad and massive quays, which surround the palace on its E. and N. sides towards the principal harbour, effectually prevent the noise and confusion of the shipping, which at one point is very dense, from reaching the royal apartments. On one of the quays, within view of the palace windows, is a statue of Gustavus III.; and at the other end of the avenue leading from this point, a small, but handsome obelisk, has been raised to his memory. The king's stables, on an adjacent island, form a very extensive quadrangular building, having accommodation for 120 horses. The churches, externally, are in general devoid of architectural merit; but the cathedral or St. Nicholas's church, adjoining the palace, in which the kings of Sweden are crowned, is imposing, from its mass, and has some paintings and sculptures of merit, and a remarkable piece of carving, representing St. George and the dragon. But the most interesting church is the Riddarholm, in which the kings of Sweden are buried, and in which are preserved many national military trophies. The spire of this church, destroyed by lightning in 1835, has since been replaced. There are also German, Finnish, and Scotch Presbyterian churches; a synagogue, &c. The Riddarhuset, or Hall of the Diet, erected in the time of Christina, is in a peculiar style of architecture, and has

its roof ornamented with statues. The room in which the Diet assembles is of moderate size. Its walls are hung with the armorial bearings of the principal Swedish families, and its seats are subdivided into 4 distinct compartments, without, however, any difference as to the mode of their fittings. The president's chair, a fine specimen of Dutch workmanship, is at the upper end of the hall; the nobles' seats being on the right, those of the clergy on the left, and those of the town and country deputies in front. In the intervals of the diets the hall is sometimes used as a concert-room. The town-house is an old-fashioned building, with 4 wings. The military hospital, on one of the more remote islands, is among the best establishments of its kind in Europe. The hospital, founded by Gustavus III., though spacious, is not so well conducted.

There are several well-ordered prisons, and public charities of various descriptions; including a foundling hospital, to which many children are carried, and which, for which the city is distinguished. In the country parts of Sweden, the proportion of legitimate to illegitimate children is about 20 to 1; in the towns, as 53 to 1; whereas in Stockholm, it is under 2½ to 1. The pop. of Stockholm has long been nearly stationary, or has but slowly increased. The mortality is very heavy, the deaths exceeding the births by above 1,200 a year; a result ascribable partly to the mortality occasioned by the foundling hospital, and partly to the prevalence of dram-drinking, and the poverty and damp lodgings of a considerable portion of the lower classes.

There are several public parks in the neighbourhood of Stockholm. The most celebrated is the *Djurgården* (deer-garden), to the E. of the city. From its great extent, and romantic character, *Brenner* says it is, without exception, the finest public park in Europe. The rugged peninsula, of which it occupies the greater part, is so finely varied with rocks and trees, that art, which must do every thing in the parks of other great capitals, has here only not to injure nature. The margin of the peninsula is covered with old-fashioned eating-houses, &c. Within this confused circle runs the beautiful carriage drive, lined with modern villas of classical design, Swiss cottages, Italian verandahs, &c. Among these are placed coffee-houses, equestrian theatres, and dancing-rooms, while the space between them and the road is occupied with flower-plots and shrubberies, through which rustic seats are scattered. In this park is the bust of Bellman, a lyric poet of great excellence, in the time of Gustavus III. The anniversary of this poet's birth is kept with great rejoicings by all classes, but especially the Bacchanalian Club, whose members, headed by the king himself, come out in festive array, to parade round this bust, which is very appropriately decorated with grapes and vine-leaves." (*Brenner's Excurs.*, i. 360, 361.) Not far from this popular monument is *Rosendal*, a favourite summer residence of the king. This, like all the other houses in the park, is a portable wooden edifice, which species of structure is very common all round Stockholm. *Drottningholm*, *Haga*, &c., at different distances from the capital, are other royal summer residences. Near *Rosendal* Palace is an immense porphyry vase, 9 ft in height, and 12 ft in diameter, which cost about 10,000*l*. Opposite *Haga* is the new burial-ground, a spacious cemetery, in which are some fine monuments. *Carlberg* and *Ulriksdal* were formerly royal palaces; but the former has been converted into a military academy, and the latter into a military hospital.

Stockholm is the principal emporium of Sweden. The entrance to the harbour from the Baltic is intricate, and should not be attempted without a pilot; but the water is deep, and the harbour itself capacious and excellent, the largest vessels lying close to the quays. The principal exports are iron, timber, and deals. The shipping engaged in foreign trade has materially declined of late years; it amounted, in 1830, to only 136 ships, of the aggregate burden of 22,470 tons. (See SWEDEN.)

Stockholm is also the principal manufacturing town of the kingdom, having woollen cloth, cotton, linen, silk, glass, and earthenware factories, iron-works, including a factory for the construction of steam-engines, &c. conducted by a Mr. Owen from Glasgow, sugar refineries, breweries, &c. "The stranger who has lately come from Copenhagen is greatly struck with the contrast between its streets and those of Stockholm. The silence and order of the Danish capital are here replaced by a degree of turmoil and activity, indicative at once of greater wealth and greater industry. The number of showy or well-filled shops is not very great, nor are they much frequented; but in all the more central streets, especially near the palace, gay equipages are in constant motion; and the principal quay, except at the resting hour of noon, exhibits all the bustle of a thriving sea-port." (*Brenner*, i. 357.) The more important branches of commerce are generally carried on by natives of the city; settlers from the provinces being comparatively few, except such as are engaged in the more laborious

kinds of occupations. Foreigners, consisting principally of Germans and Englishmen, with about 600 Jews, are but few in number. Considering, indeed, that the king is a native of France, and the proximity of the city to Russia, the small number of Frenchmen and Russians may well excite surprise.

A few years since it was a common complaint that there were no good hotels, and that lodgings were both scarce and dear in the city. But several inns have been recently built, and, according to Brenner, the Stockholm hotels may now be considered fully equal to those of second-rate towns in other parts of the continent. They do not supply dinners, which may, however, be had at the eating-houses, where a pretty good dinner may cost about 2s. "Even at the most fashionable places in the park," says Brenner, "the charge, as compared with England, is extremely moderate. We happened to see the bill for a dinner that would not have disgraced the Star and Garter. Fish, fruit, and every delicacy of the season, were served in profusion. The wines, also, were first-rate, and included port (here a dear wine), sherry, claret, Rudesheimer, champagne, and punch, supplied to 24 guests; yet the whole charge, including attendance, was only 360 six-dollars, or about 12s. a head."

During the summer season nearly all persons in tolerable circumstances spend the greater part of their time in the environs. At all the public places visitors are waited on by women; and a stranger is surprised to see many employments entrusted to men in other countries here undertaken by females. The ferry-boats, for instance, are almost all rowed by Dalecarlian females, in their peculiar native costume; though, if we may rely on Mr. Murray's account, their beauty is not very likely to be much injured by this masculine employment.

Stockholm is not the seat of a university, but it has several distinguished academies, including the Academy of Sciences, established about 1740, with an admirable museum of zoology; the Swedish Academy, founded by Gustavus III.; the academy of painting and sculpture, which has produced Bergel, Fogelberg, Byström, &c.; and that of literature, a college of medicine, schools of navigation, drawing, &c., with societies of agriculture, commerce, and philosophy. There are also several clubs and reading-rooms, on much the same plan as those of London, and various newspapers.

Stockholm appears to have been founded by Birger, regent of Sweden, in the 13th century. It became the residence of the Swedish sovereign soon after Birger's death, but was not recognised as the capital till the 17th century, previously to which, Upsala had been the seat of the court. (*Stockholm and its Environs*, Stockholm, 1899; *Brenner, Excursions in Denmark, Sweden, &c.*, ii. 340-406; *Murray's Handbook for the N. of Europe*; *Coxe*, &c.)

STOCKPORT, a parl. bor., and manufacturing town of England, co. Chester, on the borders of Lancashire, 8 m. S.E. Manchester, and 10 m. N. Macclesfield. The parl. and mun. bor. comprises the township of Stockport, with part of those of Brinnington and Heaton Norris, and the hamlets of Brinksway and Edgeley in the ancient ear. of Cheshire; and had, in 1831, a pop. of about 43,000, and in 1841, of 80,184. The town-proper, which is supposed to occupy the site of a Roman military station, is built on an abrupt hill beside the Mersey, which, sweeping round its E. and N. boundary, is here joined by the Tame. From the bank of the river the houses rise in successive tiers round the sides of the hill, from the base to the summit, some having apartments excavated in the sandstone rock; and the numerous extensive factories elevated above each other, and spreading over the town, give it, especially when lighted at night, a striking appearance. The most ancient part of the town surrounds the church and market-place on the top of the hill, whence various streets diverge in different directions. The principal street, called the Underbank, follows the direction of the old Roman road S. to Buxton. Three bridges across the Mersey connect the town-proper with its suburbs of Portwood and Heaton-Norris.

Portwood, in the township of Brinnington, is large, populous, and of considerable manufacturing and commercial importance. To the W. of Stockport numerous streets, houses and factories, cover the greater part of the hamlets of Brinksway and Edgeley. Heaton-Norris, which is situated in Lancashire, communicates with the better part of Stockport, by a new line of road, made within the last 15 years, and a noble bridge of 11 arches across the valley and the river. The arch over the river, built of hard white stone, has a span of above 90 ft., and an elevation of 40 ft., above the water. The arches on the Cheshire side are carried across several streets, leaving thoroughfares underneath. Stockport is well paved, and lighted with gas; and there is an ample supply of water, at a reasonable rate. The par. church, the chief public edifice, appears to have been erected in the 14th century,

but has been much patched up in later times. The chancel had a fine decorated E. window; but this has been removed. At the W. end of the church is a lofty square tower, crowned with a pierced parapet and pinnacles; and in the interior are several ancient monuments. The living, a rectory of the clear annual value of 1,882*l.*, is in the gift of Lady Vernon. There are 3 chapels of ease, St. Peter's and St. Thomas's, both perpetual curacies, the former worth 250*l.*, in private patronage; and the latter, worth 110*l.* a year, and in the gift of the rector of Stockport. St. Thomas's, an elegant building in the Grecian style, was erected, in 1825, by a par. grant, at an expense of 14,555*l.* There are places of worship for Independents, Methodists, Friends, Unitarians, Roman Catholics, &c.; and a good and handsome subscription news-room. A covered market is not much frequented; but the large open market in the centre of the town is well supplied and well attended. (*Mun. Corp. Rep.*) A free grammar-school, founded in 1487, is under the government of the Goldsmiths' Company of London. It gives gratis instruction to 150 boys, from 6 to 14 years of age, sons of inhabs. of Stockport, &c., in the ordinary branches of education. Their nomination rests with three visitors appointed by the Goldsmiths' Court of Assistants. The master has a salary of 210*l.*, and the usher of 165*l.* a year. Some handsome buildings for this foundation have been lately erected, at a cost of about 4,000*l.* A large national school was established at Stockport in 1805; and handsome school-houses, &c., were built, at an expense of 10,000*l.* A great number of children of both sexes are educated here; and without the town this establishment has several branch schools. Most of the religious denominations have their own Sunday-schools. There are almshouses, for 6 poor men, founded in 1683; and various other charities for the relief of the poor. (*31st Rep. on Charities*.) Two weekly newspapers are published in the town; and it has a joint-stock bank and two branches of other proprietary banks, exclusive of a savings' bank.

Formerly, the winding and throwing of silk were the principal branches of industry in Stockport; but these have declined in favour of the cotton manufacture, which now occupies the greater part of the pop. Several large factories have been constructed of late years. There are also several silk-mills in full activity, the rivers affording an ample supply of water. (*Mun. Rep.*) The importance of Stockport as a manufacturing town is, however, chiefly owing to its abundant supply of coal, obtained from Poynton and the districts on the line of the Manchester and Ashton Canal, with which it communicates by a branch canal. In 1839, there were in the par. 35 cotton-mills, wrought by 1,369 steam-engines, and employing upwards of 6,800 work-people. (*Mills and Factories Rep.*) The weaving of calico has spread itself over all the neighbouring villages; and calico-printing is carried on to a great extent, there being many large dye-houses in the vicinity. Fine woollen cloths, hats, &c., are also manufactured; and the construction of machinery is an important department. The mun. bor. is divided, under the Municipal Reform Act, into 6 wards, and is governed by 14 aldermen and 43 councillors. The ancient charter of incorporation is of uncertain date. The office of mayor was, till a late period, mostly honorary; the town now has a commission of the peace. Corp. revenue in 1848-49, 3,453*l.* The Reform Act conferred on this bor., for the first time, the important privilege of returning 2 mems. to the H. of C. Reg. elect., 1849-50, 1,224. By far the most interesting object in the vicinity of Stockport is the stupendous viaduct of the Manchester and Birmingham Railway over the Mersey, erected at a cost of 100,000*l.* This town was a military post of some consequence previously to the Conquest; but as it is not mentioned in Domesday Book, it had probably been destroyed at that epoch. No remains now exist of its old castle. In the civil war, Stockport was first garrisoned by the Parliament; then taken by Prince Rupert; but finally retaken by the parliamentary troops, who retained it till the termination of the contest. (*Bozard and Mun. Rep.* &c.)

STOCKTON-ON-TEES, a town, sea port, bor., and par. of England, being, next to Newcastle, Sunderland, and Hartlepool, the principal port in the kingdom for the shipment of coal, co. Durham, ward Stockton, on the Tees, near its mouth, 17½ m. S.E. Durham. Area of parish, which comprises the townships of Stockton, Preston-on-Tees, and Hartburn, 4,390 acres. Pop., in 1841, 10,071. But nearly all this population is agglomerated within the limits of the municipal bor., which lies wholly within the township of Stockton. The town, one of the cleanest and handsomest in the N. of England, consists of a straight and wide main street, about ½ m. in length, running from N. to S.; in which are many good houses, built chiefly of brick, though a few are of stone, taken from the old castle. From this street, smaller ones branch off on the E. towards the river; while on the W. a great many new houses and streets have been recently built. In the N.E. part of the town is a spacious square, lately enclosed and planted, in which are some good

* The Municipal Corporation Report says, approximately, 43,000.

buildings. About the middle of the high street is the town hall, a commodious square edifice, with court, assembly, and other public rooms; but partly occupied as an hotel; and near it is a handsome Doric column, on the place formerly occupied by an open cross. Near the S. end of the town is a handsome stone bridge, with 5 elliptical arches, erected by subscription, between 1764 and 1769, at an expense of 8,000*l*. The tolls of the ferry over the Tees were previously the property of the Bishop of Durham, to whom a considerable annuity was made payable by the shareholders; but the whole debt having been paid off, the bridge became toll free in 1830. A little further S. the Tees is crossed by a suspension-bridge, forming part of the Middleborough branch of the Darlington and Stockton Railway. The Port Clarence Railway terminates on the Tees, a little N.E. of Stockton. The town is watched by an efficient police, and well lighted with gas.

The par. church is a neat brick edifice, with a tower 80 ft. in height at its W. end. The living, a vicarage, worth 347*l*. a year nett, is in the gift of the Bishop of Durham. There are places of worship for Baptists, Friends, Independents, Methodists, Unitarians, and Rom. Catholics, several having Sunday-schools attached; a mechanics' institute and library, a subscription-library, and a neat theatre. A charity-school was founded here by subscription in 1731, and a school for girls in 1803; and Stockton, with the adjacent parish of Norton, has a scholarship at Brasenose College, Oxon. Some almshouses, established in 1693, were rebuilt in 1816, and afford accommodation to 36 poor persons. It has a dispensary, a savings' bank, and many benefit societies.

The only manufacture is that of sail-cloth; for which there were, in 1837, three considerable establishments, one employing nearly 400 hands. The town is situated on a branch of the railway which passes to the town employ a good many hands; and Stockton is said to be in a prosperous state. (*Mun. Corporation Rep.*) New coal mines of large extent have recently been discovered in the neighbourhood, and the trade of the port has increased considerably of late years. In 1849, there were shipped coastwise from Stockton, 402,325 tons coal, exclusive of 112,897 tons shipped for foreign ports. Linen and worsted yarn, and lead, &c., are also shipped in considerable quantities. There belonged to the port, on the 1st of Jan. 1850, 163 sailing vessels of the agg. burden of 35,236 tons, exclusive of small steamers. Gross amount of customs' duties in 1849, 84,364*l*. The port dues belong to the Bishop of Durham, as lord of the manor, but are leased to the corporation at a nominal rent. Stockton is supposed to have been incorporated about the 13th century. The mun. bor. is divided into 2 wards, and is governed by a mayor, 5 other aldermen, and 18 councillors. Corporation revenue, in 1847-8, 1,305*l*. The bor. has, under the Mun. Reform Act, a commission of the peace; and a county court is established in it, before which 615 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. There is, however, no great, but only a look-up house in the bor. Stockton is of considerable antiquity, and was long the occasional residence of the bishops of Durham. Its castle was demolished by order of parliament in 1647. (*Mun. Corp. Rep. and Appendix*, iii. &c.)

STOKE-UPON-TRENT, a parl. bor., township, and par. of England, co. Stafford, hund. Pirehill, on the Trent, 2½ m. E. Newcastle-under-Lyne, and 15 m. N. by W. Stafford. Area of par., 10,490 acres. Pop., in 1841, 46,842. The parl. bor. comprises the most populous portion of the par., including the townships, or rather towns, of Hanley, Shelton, Lane End, Fenton, &c., with those of Burslem, Tunstall, and Ruston Grange, and the hamlet of Sneyd, in adjacent pars., being, in fact, co-extensive with the district termed the Potteries. It has an entire area of about 16,000 acres, and a pop., in 1831, of nearly 51,000, and in 1841 of 67,798. Stoke-upon-Trent is lighted with gas, and well supplied with water. The old parish church being much decayed, a new and handsome church was erected in 1836, partly by subscription among the inhab. In it has been placed a bust of the great founder of the earthenware manufactory, the celebrated Josiah Wedgwood, who died in 1795, and who was admirably suited for the improvements he introduced into the fabric of the ware, and for the classical elegance and purity of his designs. The living, a very valuable rectory, being worth 2,717*l*. a year nett, is in the gift of J. Tomlinson, Esq. It has, also, chapels for various dissenting sects, and a large national school. The Trent and Mersey canal passes through Stoke par., and on its banks are numerous wharfs for shipping the earthenware, which is the great, and, indeed, almost the only product of this district. The contributory townships of Burslem and Hanley have been already noticed. (i. 457, 960.) The towns now included within the district called the Potteries have almost all risen to importance since about 1760, when Wedgwood commenced his career. The Reform Act erected it and the districts specified above into a parl.

STONEHAVEN.

bor., and gave it the privilege of sending 3 mems. to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 1,572. The smallness of this number, as compared with the pop., is a consequence of the low value of houses in the district. "The cheapness of building materials, and the abundance of building ground, render a house rented at somewhat below 10*l*. sufficient for the wants not only of the higher order of mechanics, but even of many other classes. This low rate of house-rent does not arise from a depression of trade and wages; no place that we have visited appears in more full employment, more prosperous, or more steadily advancing in improvement, than this important district. (*Recess Report*.) The towns and villages comprised in the Potteries, or in the parl. bor. of Stoke-upon-Trent, are so near each other, that their limits are not easily defined, and to a stranger the entire district has the appearance of a large straggling town. A very large proportion of the pop. is engaged in, and a still greater is dependent for support on, the manufacture. With the exception of the gold used in gilding, most of the materials employed are worth very little; so that the value of the finished articles, as well as their exquisite beauty, and adaptation to every purpose of utility and ornament, is mainly ascribable to the skill and labour expended upon them. The wives and children of the workmen are usually employed; and though they work together in factories, yet, as they reside in separate cottages, the manufacture partakes largely of the domestic character. The wages of a whole family amount to a very considerable sum. "The noxious process of glazing, so injurious to the health of those employed, has been rendered nearly free from its deleterious effects by the substitution of boracic acid for lead, which was formerly wholly used, but now only in the proportion of 8 per cent. The people employed in the branch were formerly not admissible into clubs, and were considered as degraded objects from the insalubrity of their employment; but they are now gladly received into benefit societies." (*First Factory Report*, b. ii. p. 78.) At present (1850) the Potteries are in a flourishing condition; and, speaking generally, the work-people have a healthy comfortable appearance. The Sunday-schools in the district are extremely well attended. (*Statistics of the Brit. Emp.*, i. 712, 3rd ed.)

STONE, a market-town and par. of England, co. Stafford, hund. Pirehill, on the Trent, and on the high road from London to Liverpool, 29 m. N.W. Lichfield. Area, 30,030 acres. Pop., in 1841, 8,249. The town consists principally of two streets crossing each other, and is pretty well built. The par. church is a modern structure, with a low square tower: the living, a perpetual curacy, worth 214*l*. a year, is in the gift of the crown. Here are chapels for Independents, Wesleyans, and R. Caths.; with a free school founded in 1558, and other charitable endowments. The Trent and Mersey Canal passes through the town, the inhab. of which are principally engaged in the manufacture of shoes. Petty sessions are held here every fortnight. Stone is supposed to owe its origin to a monastery founded in 670, afterwards made subservient to that of Kendilworth. Market days, Tuesdays: 4 cattle fairs are held yearly. Meaford, in Stone par., was the birth-place of Sir John Jervis, afterwards Earl St. Vincent, from his great victory over the Spanish fleet, off Cape St. Vincent, on the 14th Feb. 1797.

STONEHAVEN, a bor. of barony, sea-port, and market-town of Scotland, co. Kincardine, of which it is the cap., on the German Ocean, at the point where two small rivers, the Carron and Cowie, fall into a small bay, flanked on both sides by lofty rocks, 14 m. S. by W. Aberdeen. Pop., in 1841, 3,012. It consists of two parts: the old town, on the S. side of the Carron, is irregularly and badly built; but the new town, on the N. bank of the river, on the estate of Mr. Barclay of Ury, which has rapidly grown up, is comparatively well built and handsome: it consists of two parallel streets and cross streets, with a large square in the centre, and is far superior, in wealth and pop., to the other. The two towns are connected by a handsome stone bridge. The parish church of Dunottar and Fettersco is in the immediate vicinity of the town, which has also two chapels, belonging respectively to the Episcopalians and Seceders. Exclusive of other seminaries, the town has a free school for the education of 60 poor children. The harbour, which is a natural basin, has been a good deal improved by the erection of piers, and affords a safe refuge for the smaller class of vessels.

The inhab. engage to some extent in the herring and haddock fisheries, 14,638 bar. herrings having been cured here in 1849. It has a fax and a woollen mill, but neither is of considerable size, and two branch canals. The trade of the town is considerable.

Dunottar castle, about 3 m. S. from the town, stands on a lofty peninsular rock, projecting into the sea, being separated from the mainland by a vast chasm or natural fosse. The summit of the rock, which is mostly

occupied by the ruins of the castle, comprises about $1\frac{1}{2}$ acres. This castle was, for a lengthened period, the property and residence of the noble family of Keith, Earls Marischal. It was forfeited and dismantled after the rebellion of 1715, on the attainer of its noble proprietor. Owing to its position, it was formerly a place of considerable strength, and has been repeatedly besieged. (*Municipal Boundary Report; Pennant's Scotland*, iii. 150.)

STONEHENGE, the name given to a gigantic ruin, consisting of vast stones, partly upright, and partly fallen, on Salisbury Plain, co. Wilt., England, 3 m. W. Amesbury, and 7 m. N. Salisbury. Though its present appearance be that of a confused mass, justifying, in some degree, Camden's epithet of *massa substructa*, it is seen, on a little examination, that its original form, which may be easily traced, was circular. When perfect, it had consisted of two outer concentric circles of stones, with two inner groups of stones. The outer circle, the diameter of which is 100 ft., appears to have originally consisted of 30 upright stones, of which 17 are still standing. Their average height is about 14 ft.; and their sides 7 ft. by 3 ft. Each of these upright stones has tenons on its upper end, on which were placed horizontal stones or imposta, with mortices to correspond with the tenons; and these imposta being connected together, formed a continuous circular abutment all round the fabric. The inner circle, 8 ft. 3 in. within the outer circle, consists of smaller stones, more irregularly shaped than those in the outer circle, and without imposta. Only 8 stones of this circle are now standing; but there are remains of 12 others on the ground. Within the inner circle are 2 groups of stones, having between them a large flat stone, called the *altar*. Some of these interior stones are of vast size, and have imposta similar to those of the outer circle. According to what appears to be the most accurate calculation, Stonehenge, when entire, must have comprised, in all, 130 or 150 stones. They consist mostly of a fine, white, compact sandstone, closely resembling, or rather identical with, the grey-wethers and other detached masses of stone scattered over the surface of the downs in the vicinity of Avebury and Marlborough.

This gigantic structure is surrounded by what must originally have been a deep trench, about 30 ft. in breadth; and connected with it are an avenue and *carvans*. The former, a narrow road of raised earth, extends in a direct line from what is supposed to have been the grand entrance to the structure, a distance of 304 yards, when it divides into two branches, one leading to a row of barrows, and the other to the *carvans*, an artificially formed flat tract of ground. The latter, $\frac{1}{2}$ m. N.E. from Stonehenge, is bounded by parallel banks and ditches, measuring 3,036 yards in length, by 110 yards in breadth.

Such is a brief notice of this stupendous monument, and of its principal appendages. Similar remains are found at Avebury, in the vicinity, and in various places in Britanny, the Orkney Islands, &c. Conjecture has exhausted itself in vain, though frequently ingenious, attempts to explain the origin and use of this wonderful fabric, and others of its class. The most common opinion is that it was raised by the ancient Britons for a druidical temple. We have elsewhere (see *AVEBURY*, I. 255.) stated our reasons for believing the statement of its having been connected with the worship of the druids as altogether unfounded; and there is no evidence to show that the ancient Britons raised or could raise so extraordinary a structure. In truth, we know nothing of this and the other monuments of the same kind, beyond the fact of their existence. They belong to a period of which all records have irretrievably perished; and it is extremely improbable that the veil by which their origin, and the purpose of their founders, is now hid, should ever be drawn aside. Inigo Jones, the learned Dr. Stukely, Dr. Smith, Sir R. C. Hoare, Gough, in his ed. of Camden, &c., have given descriptions of Stonehenge. A good account of the ruins, with a view of the different theories as to the origin and purpose of the structure, may, also, be found in *Rees's Cyclopædia*.

STONEHOUSE. See *PLYMOUTH*.

STORNOWAY, a bor. or busy sea-port, and market town of Scotland, on the E. side of the island of Lewis, one of the Hebrides (which see), on a fine bay, 36 m. W. by N. from the nearest point of Cromarty, on the main land, lat. $58^{\circ} 13' N.$, long. $6^{\circ} 16' W.$ Pop. of the town and immediately contiguous villages, about 4,000. This, which is the most considerable town in the Western Islands, has grown up, within no very long period, from a paltry hamlet of about a dozen houses, in consequence of its favourable situation for carrying on the herring and cod and ling fisheries, especially the latter. Though not regularly built, the houses are substantial, and listed, and there are some good shops. The harbour is formed by a pier; and the bay, which is spacious, and has deep water, is formed by two headlands and an island. Stornoway Lodge, the occa-

sional residence of Sir James Matheson, Bart., proprietor of the island of Lewis, is in the immediate vicinity of the town. There is a parish church, town-house, and custom-house, the gross revenue collected at the latter in 1849 being 419*l*. There is no prison in the island. Though many of the people are Roman Catholics, there is not a single Protestant Dissenter. The means of education, which formerly were very deficient, have been increased materially of late years. Gaelic is the language generally spoken throughout the island: in Stornoway, however, it is giving way to English, and divine service is now performed one part of the day in Gaelic, and the other in English.

Small packets, supported by government, ply weekly between Stornoway and Poolew, on the coast of Ross; and in summer Stornoway is sometimes visited by steamers from Glasgow.

In 1849 there were cured here and at Barra 16,488 bar. herrings, and 14,090 cwts. cod and ling. The latter may be worth from 1*l*. to 1*l*. 6*s*. a ton. The town has a branch bank, and a rope manufactory.

With the exception of a small district immediately around Stornoway, the island of Lewis was, till recently, in a very backward state, and the inhab. poor and wretched in the extreme; but a great change for the better has taken place since the island came into the possession of its present proprietor, who has expended large sums on improvement. (*New Statistical Account of Scotland, Ross, and Cromarty*, i. 16. 140.; *Anderson's Guide to the Highlands*, 463., &c.)

STOURBRIDGE, a market-town of England, co. Worcester, hund. Halfshire, par. Old Swinford, on the Stour, here crossed by a stone bridge, 18 m. N.N.E. Worcester. Pop. of township in 1841, 7,481. Though irregularly built, the houses are pretty good: it has a handsome market-house, a theatre, a subscription library, &c. The episcopal chapel, erected by subscription in 1742, is beyond the jurisdiction of the bishop: the living, a curacy, in the gift of the inhab. householders, is worth 124*l*. There are places of worship for various sects of Dissenters, and a well-endowed free school, founded by Edw. VI., in which Dr. Johnson received the rudiments of his education. Stourbridge has a national school, and a great number of benevolent and benefit associations. It is governed by a bailiff, town-clerk, &c.; and has petty sessions, and a 40*s*. court of requests. It has manufactures of glass and earthenware, and hardware: the iron trade of the town and neighbourhood is considerable, and most part of the iron-work used in the construction of the custom-house and new post-office London, came from Stourbridge. The town communicates, by a branch canal, with the Staffordshire and Worcestershire Canal; by which great numbers of bricks are sent hence to the metropolis, and elsewhere. Markets on Fridays. Fairs, Jan. 8. and Mar. 29. for horses and cattle; Sept. 8. for cattle and sheep.

STOURPORT, a market-town of England, co. Worcester, hund. Halfshire, par. Kidderminster, at the confluence of the Severn and Stour, $\frac{3}{4}$ m. S.S.W. Kidderminster, with the pop. of which town and par. its own is returned, is a wholly modern date, owing its origin to the Staffordshire and Worcestershire canal, which joins the Severn on its S. side. It is well built, principally of brick, and is partially paved, and lighted with gas. The Severn is here crossed by an iron bridge, the central arch of which has a span of 150 ft., rising to 50 ft. above the surface of the river. Stourport has an extensive transit trade, being, in fact, one of the principal *entrepôts* between the E. and W. parts of the kingdom. Markets on Wednesdays; fairs, Easter Monday, Sept. 16., Dec. 18., chiefly for hops and cattle; also a meeting every Thursday for hops.

STOW-MARKET, a market town and par. of England, co. Suffolk, hund. Stow, on the Gipping, a tributary of the Orwell, and on the road and half way between Ipswich and Bury. Area of par., 1,340 acres. Pop. in 1841, 3,136. The town consists principally of a main street, with many good houses, and has a bustling and thriving appearance. The par. church is large and handsome, part of it being in the decorated, and part in the perpendicular style (*Richman*): it has a tower and splendid spire of considerable height, a peal of 8 bells, &c. The living, with that of Stow (Ipwich), adjacent, a vicarage worth 281*l*. a year, is in the gift of Wilcox Esq. (*Eccl. Rev. Rep.*) The Baptists, Methodists, &c., have meeting-houses, and there are various schools and benevolent societies. Stow-market is connected by a navigable canal with Ipswich, and has a brisk trade in malt and barley, with manufactures of cordage and sackling. Near it is the house of industry for the hund., a handsome edifice on an eminence, erected at an expense of 12,000*l*. It has petty sessions, a manorial court, &c., and is a polling-place for the W. div. of the co. Markets on Thursdays; fairs, three times a year.

STRABANE, an inland town of Ireland, W. side co. Tyrone, prov. Ulster, on the Mourne, near its confluence with the Finn or Foyle, 1 m. E. Lifford, and 14 m.

S.S.W. Londonerry. Pop., in 1841, 4,704. It is built on the estate of the Marquis of Abercorn, in a fine valley enclosed by lofty mountains; and has a good linen market, an extensive retail trade, and a considerable trade in the export of grain and provisions, by way of Londonerry. The older parts of the town, along the river, are low, with narrow dirty streets and mean houses; but in the newer parts there are some comparatively good streets, shops, and houses. It has a par. church, a R. Catholic chapel, two Presbyterian and two Methodist meeting-houses, a fever hospital and dispensary, a market-house and sessions-house, and a bride-house. It is connected by a bridge with its suburb on the left bank of the river. Under the Municipal Reform Act (3 & 4 Victoria, cap. 106.), it has a corporation entitled the sovereign, free burgesses, and commonalty. Previously to the Union it returned 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C., but was then disfranchised. It has a par. school, a Lancasterian do., and some other schools. The trade of the town is much facilitated by a canal about 4 m. in length, from it to where the Foyle becomes navigable for barges of 40 tons. (*Railway Report*, &c.)

Quarter sessions are held in April and October, petty sessions on alternate Tuesdays, and a manor court, with jurisdiction to the amount of 2*l.*, is held once a month. Adjoining the town is a valuable salmon fishery, the produce of which is mostly sent, either fresh, packed in ice, or pickled, to the British markets. Post-office revenue in 1830, 1,158*l.*; in 1834, 1,268*l.* Branches of the Provincial and Belfast banks were opened in 1838. "I saw little or nothing of rags in Strabane: there was a respectable look about the people and every thing else." (*Anglo's Ireland*, ii. 167.) Persons coming to attend the assizes for the co. Donelg, held at Lifford, usually take up their residence in Strabane.

STRALSUND, a strongly fortified town of the Prussian states, prov. Pomerania, cap. reg. and circ. of the same name, on the narrow strait separating the Isle of Rugen from the continent, lat. 54° 19' 29" N., long. 13° 7' 20" E. Pop. (1845), 16,500. It was founded in 1309. Streets narrow and dirty, houses ill-built; but it has a fine arsenal, and some good public buildings. It is encompassed on the land side by lakes and marshes, so that it can only be approached by bridges. Its fortifications, which had been dismantled, have been renovated and greatly improved since 1816, so that it is now one of the strongest places in the monarchy. It has a gymnasium, two public libraries, and an orphan asylum, with breweries, distilleries, and various manufactures; and carries on a considerable commerce, exporting corn, timber, beer, linens, &c. Its port, though small, is convenient and safe, but it labours under a deficiency of water. Close to the town the depth does not exceed 7 feet, at a little distance it increases to 10 feet, and in the offing there is 13 feet. In 1834, there belonged to Stralsund 72 ships, of the burden of 6,861 tons.

STRANRAER, a par. and royal bor. and sea-port of Scotland, co. Wigtown, on flat ground, on the inner or S. shore of the inlet of the sea called Loch Ryan, on the high road from Dumfries to Portpatrick, 21 m. W. by N. Wigtown. Pop. of royal bor., in 1841, 3,450; but the par. bor., which includes some contiguous suburbs, had then a pop. of 4,878. It consists of three streets parallel to the shore, united by several cross streets. The principal streets are neat, and pretty well built; but there are a great many wretched hovels in the lanes and outskirts of the town, mostly occupied by Irish immigrants. It has a town-hall, gaol, a church belonging to the establishment, with various dissenting chapels, 1 parochial and 7 unendowed schools, 2 very good subscription libraries, and a good public reading-room. It is the centre of a considerable retail trade; but has no manufactures, except some hand-loom weaving, on account of the Glasgow manufacturers. It has three branch banks, a savings' bank, and a weekly newspaper. Loch Ryan is a fine basin. Opposite to a place called Cairn, on its E. shore, there is good anchorage, and water sufficient to float the largest ships. Stranraer harbour dries at low water; but it would not be difficult, by carrying out the pier to a greater distance into the loch, to make it accessible at all times of the tide. In 1849, 34 vessels belonged to the port, of the aggregate burden of 1,611 tons. Its customs' revenue is inconsiderable, and inadequate to defray the cost of the establishment. Steamers regularly ply between the port and Glasgow and Belfast. A large proportion of the pop. are Irish, mostly in an abject state of poverty. Stranraer was made a royal bor. in 1817. It has 16 councillors. Corporation revenue, in 1848-9, 318*l.* It unites with Wigtown, Whitthorn, and New Galloway, in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1845-50, 192. (*New Statistical Account of Scotland*, vol. XX1. 94.; *Official Returns*; and *Private Information*.)

STRASBOURG (an. *Argentoratum*), a fortified city of France, on its E. frontier, dép. Bas-Rhin, of which it is the cap., on the Ill, within a short distance of the

Rhine, to which its plain extends, and across which it communicates with Kehl by a bridge principally of boats, about 100 m. S. S. W. Mentz, and 250 m. E. by S. Paris: lat. 48° 24' 56" S., long. 7° 44' 61" E. Pop., in 1846, 52,186 (many of whom are Protestants and Jews), exc. the garrison, generally amounting to 6,000 men. The city is of a triangular form, is enclosed by a bastioned line of ramparts strengthened by numerous outworks, entered by 7 gates, and has on its E. side a strong pentagonal citadel, built by Vauban. By means of sluices constructed under Louis XV. the adjacent country may be laid under water, and several additional defences having been constructed since the peace, it is now one of the most important fortresses and arsenals in France, and has the largest *dépôt* of artillery. Strasbourg is agreeably situated, and generally well laid out: its streets are mostly narrow, with lofty houses; but it has several rather large and regular squares. Though for a lengthened period united to France, it still has all the outward appearance of a German town, with which the costume and language of its inhab. correspond. The Ill and its branches intersect the city in all directions, and are crossed by numerous wooden bridges. Without the walls are several suburbs.

By far the most remarkable public edifice is the minster, or cathedral, one of the noblest structures of its kind. It is said to have been originally founded by Clovis, in 504; but Charlemagne constructed the choir, the only part that survived the destruction of the old cathedral by lightning in 1007. The modern building was begun in 1015, but not finished till the 15th century. The entire length of the interior is 378 ft.; breadth, 140 ft.; height from the pavement to the roof of the nave, 75*l* ft. 8 in. The W. or grand entrance has on its N. side, a spire of the extraordinary height of 437*l* ft. 6 in. 4 in. (Schreifer); being, if the dimensions be accurate, about 7 ft. higher than St. Peter's in Rome, and about 5 ft. higher than the great pyramid of Cheops. It is of open work, and combines with the most perfect solidity extraordinary lightness and elegance. The view from the top of this spire is one of the most extensive and finest that can be imagined: it is, however, enjoyed by few only. The ascent to the top of the tower may, indeed, be accomplished, without much difficulty, and the view from it is superb; but the ascent thence to the lantern requires very powerful nerves, and, in fact, ordinary visitors are not permitted to attempt it. The erection of this famous spire was commenced in 1276, by Erwin de Steinbach, and continued by his son, his daughter Sabina having also contributed some fine sculptures to the principal portal. It was finished in 1439, under the direction of Schuller, an architect of Cologne. Beside the grand portal are equestrian statues of Clovis, Dagobert, Rodolph of Hapsburg, and Louis XIV.; and over its centre is a magnificent window of stained glass, 61 ft. in diameter. The interior has a fine stone carved pulpit with numerous monuments, statues, &c. The famous astronomical clock, constructed by Isaac Habrecht, which indicated the days of the month, the places of the sun and moon, and other celestial phenomena, has been standing still for a considerable number of years. Napoleon is said to have contemplated the repair of this curious piece of mechanism. In the church of St. Thomas is the magnificent monument in honour of Marshal Saxe, the *chef-d'œuvre* of Pigalle. Here, also, is a monument to Koch, the historian. The *Traité des Nœuds*, given, in 1681, to the Protestants in exchange for the cathedral, the church of St. William, the *Château Royal*, the large public library, said to contain (though we do not place implicit confidence in the statement) 130,000 vols., the new synagogue, the theatre (with a handsome front of six Ionic columns), the prefecture and other public residences, the arsenal, barracks, cannon foundry, and other military establishments, and various public schools, are deserving of notice. There are several hospitals and asylums, civil and military prisons, an exchange, corn, fish, and other markets, various insurance companies, a royal *dépôt d'histoire*, a botanic garden, &c. The environs are well cultivated, and Strasbourg has many good public walks; the principal of which is the *Coteaux*, without the city, laid out by the marshal of that name in 1764.

Strasbourg is a bishop's see, the seat of a court of primary jurisdiction, council of *professeurs*, and a chamber of commerce; of a university academy, royal college, mint, boards of forest economy, roads, and bridges, and of customs; the Lutheran consistory for the S. of France, faculties of law, medicine, sciences, &c., R. Cath. and Protestant seminaries, and societies of agriculture, literature, and arts. The museum of the academy is very rich in the natural products of Alsace. The city is divided into four cantons, in each of which is a justice of the peace and a police commissary. It has an extensive royal manufactory of snuff, for which Strasbourg is famous; with considerable manufactures of woollen, linen, and cotton stuffs, sail-cloth, cutlery, steel

articles, metal buttons, cotton twist, leather, hats, paper, playing cards, earthenware, shell articles, printing types, chemical products, &c., exclusive of dye-houses, breweries, printing establishments, and sugar refineries; the *poète des foires* of Strasbourg have attained to high gastronomic celebrity. The trade of Strasbourg is very extensive, its situation on the Rhine having rendered it a great frontier entrepôt.

Strasbourg is very ancient, and most probably, indeed, existed previously to the Romans. It assumed the name of *Stratoburgum* in the 6th century. On the first partition of the Frankish territory it was included in the kingdom of Austrasia, and on the second in Lorraine. In the 10th century it belonged to the German emperors, and subsequently became a free city of the empire, which it continued to be till 1681, when it was taken possession of by Louis XIV., and finally annexed to France. Pierre Schæffer, who contests with Gutenberg the honour of being the inventor of printing, and Generals Kellermann and Kleber, are among the distinguished natives of Strasbourg. The latter is buried in the cathedral, and a monument has been erected to his memory on the artillery parade. (*Hugo, art. Bas-Rhin; Schreiber, Guide du Rhin; Guide du Voy. en France; Murray's Handbook, &c.*)

STRATFORD-UPON-AVON, a town, mun. bor. and parish of England, co. Warwick, hund. Barlichway, celebrated as the birth-place of Shakespeare, 7 m. S.W. Warwick. Area of par. 6,980 acres. Pop., in 1841, 6,022. The town is finely situated on a gentle acclivity rising from the W. bank of the Avon, which here expands to a breadth of about 130 yards, and is crossed by a bridge of 14 arches, built in the reign of Henry VII., but repaired and widened in 1814. In the older parts the houses, though intermixed with others of more modern date, have an antique appearance; several new streets have, however, been constructed of late years, and the corporation has distinguished itself by the aid it has given to improvements of all sorts. (*Municipal Board Report.*) It has a large, handsome, cruciform church, with square embattled tower, surmounted by a lofty spire; the transcripts, tower, and some parts of the nave, are early English; the rest of the building is mostly a mixture of decorated and perpendicular. (*Rickman.*) It has several fine old monuments. Of these the most interesting by far is that of Shakespeare, on the N. wall of the chancel. It is constructed partly of marble, and partly of stone; consisting of a half-length bust of the poet, with a cushion before him, placed under an ornamental canopy, between two columns, supporting an entablature. Under the bust are the following lines:—

Judicio Pyllum, genio Socratem, arte Maronem,
Terra tegit, Nilivum mæret, Olympus habet.

These are followed by six lines in English verse; and on a flat stone, which covers the grave, is an entreaty not to disturb the dust "enclosed heare," and an imprecation against such as might profane the ashes of the mighty dead.

The living of this church, a vicarage, worth 230*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Earl of Plymouth. Here is also a chapel, that once belonged to the guild of the "Holy Cross," suppressed at the Reformation; it is of the age of Henry VII., in the perpendicular style, and has several curious fresco paintings on its walls. Attached to this building is a hall for the brethren of the guild, since used for the meetings of the corporation; almshouses for 24 poor persons of both sexes, and a free grammar-school for children, natives of the bor. The modern town-hall, a building of the Tuscan order, erected in 1768, has a hall 60 ft. in length by 20 ft. in breadth. Having been dedicated, at the jubilee in 1769, to the memory of Shakespeare it is thence called the *Shakespeare Hall*. It is decorated with pictures, by Wilson and Gainborough, of the great poet and Garrick; and outside the building is a statue of the poet, which, with the pictures, was presented by Garrick. Here are national, Lancastrian, and other schools, 2 public libraries, a neat theatre, &c. The *Mun. Corp. Report* says that some of the charities in the town are highly spoken of. The town is governed by a mayor, 3 aldermen, and 12 councillors, but has no commission of the peace, and even its court of record has fallen into disuse. Corp. revenue, in 1847-8, 2,142*l.* The only manufacture carried on belongs to one of the departments of button-making, and it is by no means extensive. Markets on Fridays; fairs 6 times a year, for cattle, corn, provisions, &c. The Avon is navigable by barges from the Severn to Stratford, where it unites with the Stratford Canal, which is itself connected with the Worcester and Birmingham Canal.

Little, unfortunately, is known of the life of the illustrious poet to whom Stratford owes all her celebrity. He first saw the light on (as is supposed) the 23d of April, 1564. Having married in 1582, he soon after went to London, where he produced the greater part of his immortal works; and having returned to Stratford to spend the evening of his days, died there in 1616, on the Vol. 11.

23d of April, the anniversary of his birth. This brief notice comprises nearly all the authentic information we possess regarding the greatest of dramatic poets, notwithstanding his death occurred little more than two centuries ago! "No letter of his writing; no record of his conversation; no character of him, drawn with any fulness by a contemporary, can be produced." (*Hallam.*)

The house in which the great poet was born, in Henley Street, is still standing; and is the resort of all visitors to the town. It has, however, been converted into two houses, and otherwise much altered. The house in which Shakespeare passed the latter years of his life was, to the disgrace of those concerned, demolished in 1759; when the famous mulberry-tree he is said to have planted in its garden was also cut down! (*White's Stratford-on-Avon; Municipal Boundary Report, &c.*)

STRATFORD (STONY), a market town and par. of England, co. Bucks, hund. Newport, on the Ouse, which is here the boundary of the co., and is crossed by a stone bridge, 64 m. N.E. Buckingham. Area of par., 70 acres. Pop. in 1841, 1,757. It is built on the line of the ancient Watling Street, and is supposed to occupy the site of the *Lactodorum* of the Romans. The houses are mostly of freestone, extending for about 1 m. on either side the road. The parish church was rebuilt in the Gothic style, in 1777; the living, a perpet. curacy, worth 130*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Bishop of Lincoln. There are meeting-houses for various dissenters, national and Sunday schools, a society for apprenticing children, &c. At an inn in this town, the person of the young king Edward V. was seized, and Grey and Vaughan arrested by Richard duke of Gloucester. The only manufacture is that of lace; but the inhab. have some trade in corn. Markets, which are well supplied with provisions, are held on Fridays; fairs, 21st Aug., and Friday before 10th Oct., for hiring servants; and 12th Nov. for cattle.

STROUD, a par. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Gloucester, hund. Bisleigh, on the Slade or Stroud-water, near its junction with the Frome, 9 m. S. Gloucester. Area of par., 3,990 acres. Pop., in 1831, 8,607; in 1841, 8,660. The par. bor., however, is not confined to the town, but includes the whole clothing district, of which it may be regarded as the centre, comprising about 14 parishes. Pop., in 1841, 37,668. The general characteristics of the district are, "the situation of the mills on streams in deep ravines; the scattered and irregular manner in which the houses are built on the hill sides; and the contrast between the high land (in many cases either wood or common, with few inhab.) and the valleys studded with houses and thickly peopled." (*Parl. Board Report.*)

Stroud stands on the side of a hill, and consists chiefly of a long street, crossed by another at its base: the houses are good, and the streets well paved and lighted. The parish church, a large edifice, has a tower with an octangular steeple at its W. end. The living, a perpetual curacy, worth 322*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Bishop of Gloucester. There are places of worship for Baptists, Independents, Wesleyans, &c.; and several charities for educating poor children, and relieving the poor. Stroud, and the district of which it is the centre, owes much of its prosperity to the Stroud-water, which is not only made available for the working of machinery, but is said to be peculiarly adapted to the dyeing of scarlet and other colours. The clothing trade has, in consequence, extended itself principally along the banks of the river, on which there are numerous fulling-mills, &c. In 1838, there were 14 mills in Stroud par., about half impelled by water and half by steam, which employed together 1,250 workpeople. (*Mills and Factories Rep.*)

The prosperity of the town and district depends, of course, upon the state of the clothing trade, and partakes of the fluctuations incident to the latter. Power-looms have begun to be introduced into the manufacture, but hitherto they have not made much progress. The Thames and Severn Canal, which passes close to the town, is of great advantage to its trade.

The Reform Act conferred on Stroud, and its adjacent district, as specified above, the important privilege of sending 2 members to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 1,948. Petty sessions for the hundred, are held in Stroud. Markets, on Fridays; fairs, May 10. and Aug. 21., for cattle, sheep, and hogs.

STUHLWEISSENBURG, a town of Hungary, cap. co. of its own name, 16 m. N.E. Lake Balaton, and 25 m. S.W. Buda. Pop., with its two suburbs, 30,000. (*Berghaus.*) "Though formerly a Roman town, and a name of frequent occurrence in Hungarian history, it contains nothing remarkable. The palace of the bishop, and some of the buildings connected with it, are handsome; but the streets are badly paved, and the whole town disagreeably placed in the centre of a huge bog." (*Paget's Hungary*, i. 357.) It was, for a lengthened period, the residence of the sovereigns of Hungary, and has a royal mausoleum, in which 14 of them are buried. It has a gymnasium and other R. Cath. schools, a military academy,

demy, a Magyar theatre, &c.; with manufactures of woollen cloth, flannel, soap, and leather. (*Austr. Nat. Encyclop.*, &c.)

STUTT GARD, a city of S. Germany, cap. of the kingdom of Württemberg; on the Nesen, a small tributary of the Neckar, about 14 m. from its embouchure in that river, 38 m. S.E. by E. Carlsruhe, and 130 m. N.W. Munich. Lat. (of the gymnasium) $49^{\circ} 46' 32''$ N.; long. $9^{\circ} 10' 49''$ E. Pop., including some suburban villages, about 38,500. (*Berghaus*.) It is situated in an amphitheatre of fertile hills; and having been, for the most part, laid out during the present century, is one of the cleanest and handsomest towns of Germany.

"The approach of Stuttgart is exceedingly pretty. The road passes through an avenue of lofty poplars, and you enter the broad and handsome *Königs Strasse*, without encountering any of those disagreeable or vulgar appearances that frequently distinguish the suburbs of a capital. The city may be said to stand in the centre of a garden: on every side it is surrounded by vineyards and orchards. In the ancient part of the town, the streets are narrow and crooked; but in the modern, they are broad and handsome. The court and the military, with the other necessary concomitants of a capital, give it rather a lively air; and there is usually a great bustle in the streets." (*Strang's Germany* in 1831, li. 394.) Other travellers say that it is very dull, presenting little to interest a stranger; and that, like most other capitals of petty states, it has a parade of importance, to which it is really not entitled. It has also been evidently a mistake to plant the city on the dirty and stagnant Nesen, instead of the Neckar, a fine navigable stream, which might have opened for it a considerable traffic to and from the Rhine. And from being placed in a deep hollow, it is in winter, according to Spencer, enveloped in mists and fogs, while in summer it is unhealthy from malaria. (*Germany and the Germans*, ii. 327.)

The new royal palace has the advantage, if such it be, of being situated both in town and country; opening on one side into a fine park, and on the other into a spacious square, planted with trees and fronting the *Königs Strasse*, or King's Street, the finest in the city. The palace is an imposing freestone edifice, begun in 1746, and completed by the late king. It has a centre and two projecting wings; the whole forming, like Buckingham Palace, three sides of a square. The parapets are decorated with handsome statues; but the roof immediately above the grand entrance is surmounted, we cannot say adorned, with a large gilt crown, cushion, &c. The same bad taste does not prevail in the interior, though even there ostentation and costliness are every where visible. (*Autumn near the Rhine*, p. 216.) There are a vast number of apartments, and several are fitted up with splendid tapestries, from the Gobelins at Paris, presents from Napoleon to his ally the late king. Besides which, the palace contains many good Flemish paintings and sculptures by Danekker and Canova. In the same public square in which the new palace is situated are the old palace and the theatre. The former, now occupied by the officers of the court or government, has the aspect of a feudal fortress; and behind it is a Gothic church, in which are monuments of the Dukes of Württemberg. The theatre is merely a wooden building; but it has usually a good company.

Some other buildings are worthy of notice; as the palaces of other members of the royal family, the *Sitzstube*, or chamber of the parliament of Württemberg, to the debates and divisions of which the public are always admitted; the city county-house, chancery court, new barracks, post-office, royal and city schools, large hospital, workhouse, royal stud-house, adjoining the palace, with an extensive stud of fine horses, royal stables, and riding-school, &c. Stuttgart has 6 Lutheran churches, a Calvinist and a Rom. Cath. church, and a synagogue. The public library, open daily from 9 to 12, and from 3 to 5, a very large and valuable collection, comprises from 170,000 to 180,000 vols., including a magnificent collection of Bibles. The museum of natural history comprises a remarkable collection of fossils found at Kannstadt. There are royal cabinets of medals, antiquities, models, maps, charts, &c., and many private libraries and collections. Without having the pretensions of either Munich or Dresden, to be considered a seat of the fine arts, Stuttgart has been distinguished as the birth-place or residence of several of the most eminent German literati and artists; as Schiller, Danekker, Menzel, long the editor of the *Litteratur-Blatt*, Baron Cotta, the famous publisher, &c. Many of Danekker's finest works are in this city, and here Schiller wrote his *Robbers*. Stuttgart is an industrious town, though unfavourably situated for trade. Cotta's publishing establishment is one of the most extensive on the Continent. Next to printing and bookbinding, the weaving of woollen and cotton goods, and the making optical, mathematical, and musical instruments, are the chief branches of manufacturing industry. Some agreeable effervescing wine is

made on the surrounding hills; and about 3 m. N.E. the city is Kannstadt, resorted to by the citizens and others, as a favourite watering-place. Stuttgart suffered severely in the wars of the 16th and 17th centuries; but it escaped with little loss during the last war, though repeatedly occupied by the armies on both sides. (*Berghaus*; *Manninger, Besch. von Württemberg*; *Strang*; *Spencer*; *Murray's Hand-book for S. Germany*, &c.)

SUDBURY, a mun. and formerly a parl. bor. of England, principally in the co. Suffolkt, but partly also in Essex, on the Stour, here crossed by a stone bridge, 18 m. W. Ipswich, and 50 m. N.E. London. The parl. bor. included the three pars. of St. Peter, St. Gregory, and All Saints, each extra-parochial districts on the Suffolk side of the river, with the hamlet of Bellingden-cum-Brunden, in Essex; its area may amount, in all, to about 2,100 acres, and it had, in 1841, a pop. of 5,378, of which 5,086 belonged to the mun. bor. "The town of Sudbury lies towards the S. extremity of the bor. It is a neat, clean, and well-built town. Under the provisions of a local act, it is lighted, the footpaths flagged, and the roads kept in repair: it is also watched occasionally. The town has been much improved of late years internally, but the buildings have not extended beyond its former limits, and, indeed, this cannot occur; for the lands immediately surrounding the town, and the lands adapted for this purpose, are subject to a right of common pasture during part of the year. It is said, that if this right could be abolished, the buildings would probably increase." (*Mun. Corp. Rep.*) Sudbury has 3 churches, All Saints, St. Gregory, and St. Peter; mostly in the perpendicular style, but some of the tracery, and other parts, have been much mutilated. (*Rickman's Gothic Arc.*) The living of All Saints, a vicarage, worth 115*l.* a year, is in the gift of — Sperring, Esq.; those of St. Gregory and St. Peter, curacies, worth 55*l.* a year, are in the gift of Sir L. Manners. Except a large independent chapel and Baptist chapel, there are few or no other buildings worth notice; and no remains exist of the Benedictine priory, founded in the reign of Henry II. The grammar-school, founded in 1491, has an income of about 100*l.* a year; and there are various other charities, including a national school, at which about 150 children attend; but the education of the poorer classes here is said to be very defective.

Sudbury was one of the towns in which the immigrant Flemish woollen manufacturers were established by Edward III. Its woollen trade has, however, been for many years nearly discontinued, though, luckily, it has been replaced by that of silk. In 1838 there were estimated to be about 600 looms in the town; of which 370 were wrought by men, 250 by women and girls, and 80 by boys. They were then, however, little more than half employed. Mantles, lutes, and gros-de-Naples are the articles principally manufactured. Jacquard looms are not very generally introduced. The Sudbury weavers are said to be less expert in making fine goods than the weavers in Spitalfields; but wages are nearly the same in both. The average per week, after deducting expenses, was, in 1838, for velvet and satins, 1*l.* 3*s.* for figured goods, 10*s.*; and for gros-de-Naples, about 7*s.* 6*d.* In addition to silk weaving, there is at Sudbury a manufacture of bunting, which employs about 300 looms in the town. These are wrought by women and children, or old men unfit for silk-weaving. The wages obtained at this employment average from 2*s.* 2*d.* to 4*s.* 6*d.* a week. (*Hand-loom Weavers' Rep.* li.)

Sudbury is governed by a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 12 councillors; and has a commission of the peace, a weekly court of record, &c. Corp. rev., in 1847-8, 464*l.*

Sudbury sent 2 members to the H. of C. from the early part of the reign of Elizabeth. The Boundary Act increased its limits, as already noticed; but having been distinguished for a lengthened period by the venality of a large portion of the constituent body, it was disfranchised a few years since for gross bribery. Markets on Saturdays. Fairs, March 12, July 10., and Sept. 4., for earthenware, glass, and toys. (*Parl. Rep.*)

Gainsborough, the eminent artist, worthy, as Sir Joshua Reynolds has stated (*Fourteenth Discourse*), to rank among the first painters of the English school, was a native of Sudbury, where he first saw the light in 1777. Sudbury was also the birth-place of Dr. Enfield, whose *Compendium of Brucker's History of Philosophy* is drawn up with great skill and judgment, and is, in fact, the best work on the subject in the English language.

SUEZ, a town and sea-port of Egypt, near the N. extremity of the gulph of its own name, which is also the N.W. angle of the Red Sea, 76 m. E. Cairo; lat. $29^{\circ} 59' 10''$ N., long. $30^{\circ} 15' 5''$ E. Pop. recently estimated at only 1,500; but this must be independent of the numerous pilgrims and merchants, who are continually passing through the town, Suez being on the main route between Cairo and Mecca, and on that by which the commerce of

Egypt with the countries to the eastward is carried on. The head of the gulph on which it stands has always been the seat of a considerable transit trade, and the ancient cities of Aristonoe and Kolum stood in the neighbourhood; but Suez is a comparatively modern as well as a very mean town. Turner says, "Take it for all in all, Suez is indisputably the most miserable place I have seen in the Levant. Its only gate is to the N.W.; three cannon are mounted near it, and there are eight more on the banks of the sea. In its present state, 60 men could take it with ease. Suez produces nothing, being on all sides surrounded by the desert. The clothes, and even the provisions, of the inhabs are all brought from Cairo, to the east loaf. Frequent caravans come from Jaffa and Jerusalem, bringing oil, tobacco, and soap." (*Turner's Levant*, ii. 414, 415.) It suffered much from the French, by whom it was in great part destroyed; and it now consists merely of sun-dried brick houses and unpaved streets, with about a dozen mosques, a Greek church, custom-house, &c.; the whole surrounded by a ruined wall and some entrenchments thrown up by the French. It is wholly destitute of water, which is brought to it by the Arabs from wells several miles distant, and besides being high-priced, is of a nauseous description. The port is accessible only by boats of from 30 to 60 tons. Steamers and other vessels belonging to the E. I. Company moor outside a sand bar at a distance of 2 m. from the town. But since the establishment of what has been called the over-land route to India, Suez has become a place of considerable importance, and is now the residence of an agent for the E. I. Company, and of several commercial agents.

The Gulph of Suez, which at low water is in many parts so shallow as to be forborne, is memorable in Sacred History as the scene of the submersion of Pharaoh and his host. The isthmus of Suez, connecting Asia and Africa, is a sandy waste, between 70 and 80 m. across. Near Suez may still be seen the vestiges of the canal cut by Pharaoh Necho and Ptolemy Philadelphus, to unite the Red Sea with the Nile. (*Turner's Levant*; *Dict. Géog.*; *Private Information*, &c.)

SUFFOLK, a marit. co. of England, having N. the co. Norfolk, E. the German Ocean, S. Essex, and W. Cambridge. Area, 969,600 acres, of which about 830,000 are supposed to be arable, meadow, and pasture. Surface generally flat. Soil various; that of the middle and most extensive district consists principally of a strong loam, on a clay-marl bottom. The district, bounded by the rivers Stour, Orwell, and Brett, S. from Bursall, is a very rich loam, of extraordinary fertility. The maritime district, lying along the E. coast, consists of sandy loam and sand, which in some places is covered with heath. The soil in the N.W. parts is comparatively poor, consisting partly of sand and partly of peat. On the whole, Suffolk is not inferior, in respect of natural fertility, to any co. in the kingdom. The climate is dry; but frosts are severe, and in spring the N.E. winds are sharp and prevalent. Tillage husbandry is prosecuted with great skill, spirit, and success. Ploughing, in every part of the co., is performed, as in Scotland, by a pair of horses driven by the ploughman, and is extremely well executed. Fallowing is uniformly practised on the heavy lands. These, also, are particularly adapted for the growth of beans, which, as well as peas, are extensively cultivated. Turnips not so extensively grown as in Norfolk, being principally raised on the borders of Cambridgeshire. On clover leys what is very generally planted by the dibble; but, when the land will admit, all sorts of grain, as well as turnips, are drilled. Most of the land in beans, peas, tares, &c., is now drilled without any ploughing, being merely scarified and scuffed, so as to be rendered fine enough for the drill to work. The usual rotation in the turnip lands is, 1st, turnips; 2d, barley; 3d, seeds; 4th, wheat: on the heavy lands, 1st, fallow; 2d, wheat; 3d, seeds or beans; 4th, wheat: when the 3d is seeds, beans or oats come in 5th. Hemp has been cultivated for a lengthened period, and is reckoned of the finest quality. Carrots are a good deal grown; and hops are raised in the vicinity of Stowmarket. Suffolk is famous for its breeds of horses, cattle, and hogs. The horses are called *panchers*; and are, as the term implies, short and compact, being well fitted for regular farm work. The cattle have sprung from the Galloways, many of which are fattened in the co. Like their progenitors, they are polled, and rather small-sized. They are better suited than the Galloways for the dairy, being excellent milkers. The produce of butter is not, however, supposed to be in proportion to the milk, though it is also very considerable. Arthur Young once asserted that about 40,000 firkins of butter were annually sent from Suffolk to London. (*Survey*, 3d ed. p. 204.); and, as the management of cows is now better understood, and more attended to, the quantity may, at present, be increased to 50,000 or 55,000 firkins. Stock of sheep about 500,000. Warrens were formerly numerous in the sandy district, but they are now much diminished. Property much divided; a good deal in the hands of respect-

able yeomen, who cultivate their own estates. Farms generally large, but many small. They are usually let for lease for 7 or 14 years. Tenants mostly restrained from exceeding 3 corn crops to a fallow; but, in other respects, they are left pretty much at liberty. Farm buildings of different. Cottages generally bad. Average rent of land, in 1843, 22s. 8d. an acre. Minerals of no importance. This co. was formerly celebrated for its manufactures, particularly those of wool; but they are now much decayed. Mixed silks and worsted stuffs are still, however, manufactured at Sudbury, Gainsford, and other places. Gun-flints are made in large quantities at Brandon. There is a considerable manufacture of stags at Ipswich.

Suffolk is well watered, being intersected by the rivers Orwell, Deben, Ald, Blythe, and Luch. It is separated from Essex by the Stour. Suffolk is divided into 21 hundreds, and 510 pars. It returns 11 mems. to the H. of C.; viz., 4 for the co., 2 each for the bor. of Bury St. Edmunds, Ipswich, and Sudbury; and 1 for the bor. of Eye and contiguous pars. Registered electors for the co., in 1849 50, 10,930, viz. 6,381 for the E., and 4,549 for the W. div. In 1841, Suffolk had 64,041 inhab. houses, and 215,078 inhab., of whom 134,095 were males, and 180,978 females. Sum expended for the relief of the poor in 1848-49, 145,387l. Annual value of real property in 1815, 1,157,305l.; do. in 1843, 1,717,326l.

SUMATRA, the most W. island of the E. archipelago, and, next to Borneo, the largest in the E. seas, between lat. 6° N. and 4° S., and the 96th and 106th degs. of E. long., separated on the N.E. from the Malay peninsula by the Straits of Malacca, and on the S.E. from Java by the Straits of Sunda, having E. the Sea of Java, and surrounded on nearly all other sides by the Indian Ocean. Its direction is from N.W. to S.E., nearly parallel to the Malay peninsula. It being divided by the equator into two nearly equal portions. It is of an elongated shape, about 1,050 m. in length, and has an area variously estimated at from 122,000 to 128,000 sq. m. Its population is nearly unknown; but it has been estimated, by the best authorities, at about 2,000,000. Various mountain chains run through the island longitudinally, sometimes in treble or four-fold ranges, rising under the equator to 14,000 or 18,000 ft. in height, and always much nearer to the W. than to the E. coast. The highest of the island is, in fact, almost wholly low, flat, and intersected by numerous rivers. Some of these, as the Palembang, Jambli, Indragiri, and Siak rivers, are of considerable size, but they have been hitherto little explored by Europeans. The W. side of the island is also well supplied with water; and in the interior are numerous small lakes. The climate, even in the plains, is not so hot as might be expected in a country situated in the midst of the torrid zone. The thermometer at mid-day generally fluctuates between 85° and 85° Fahr., though it sometimes rises to 87° or 88°, at sunrise it is usually as low as 70°. Dense fogs, thunder storms, and water-fall, are the common weather phenomena. The soil on the W. side of the island, which is that best known to Europeans, is a stiff reddish clay, and a great proportion of the surface, especially towards the S., is an impervious forest. Gold dust, which is very abundant, copper, iron, sulphur in the numerous volcanic districts, saltpetre, coal of indifferent quality, and naphtha, appear to be the chief mineral products. The copper ore is very rich, but, owing to the indolence of the inhabs., the mines are little wrought, except over a very limited district. Gold dust is, however, an article of considerable traffic, and is brought by merchants from the interior to the sea-coast, where it is bartered for iron, iron tools, and the piece goods of the E. Indies and Europe. Among the vegetable products, the most important is pepper, the average produce of which may amount, at present, (1850) to about 30,000,000 lbs. a year, of which about 21,000,000 are furnished by the W., and 9,000,000 by the E. coast. This supply amounts, in fact, to more than all the pepper supplied by all the other countries in the world. Nearly the whole of this extensive trade is in the hands of the Chinese, especially Dutch, English, and Americans. But little Sumatra pepper goes to China. After the capture of the Moluccas by the British, in 1796, the nutmeg and clove were introduced at Bencoolien; and, in 1825, their culture had so far succeeded, that the produce, in that year, was estimated at 89,000 lbs. of nutmegs, 34,000 lbs. cloves, and 22,000 lbs. of mace; but their quality being very inferior, as compared with the products of Amboyna and the Banda Isles, the culture has made little further progress. Camphor is one of the most valuable kinds of produce, and the Sumatran camphor sells in China for 12 times the price of that of Japan. It is the concrete juice of the *Dryobalanus Camphora*, and a tree of the order *Guttifera* (whereas the Japan camphor is derived from a species of laurel). It grows only in the N. part of Sumatra, not being found S. of the line, or beyond the 3d deg. of N. lat. It is a stout tree, its trunk sometimes measuring 6 or 7 ft. in diameter. The same tree pro-

duces, under different circumstances, camphor, oil, or pitch, which are found in cavities of the trunk, not extending the whole length of the tree, but in small portions of 1 and 1½ ft. long at certain distances. "The method of discovering the camphor is, by making a deep incision with a Malay axe, till the camphor is seen: hundreds of trees may be thus mutilated before the sought-for tree is discovered: when attained, it is felled and cut inunks, a fathom long, which are again split, and the camphor is found in the heart, occupying a space of the thickness of a man's arm. The produce of a middling-sized tree is about 8 Chinese catties, or nearly 11 lb.; and of a large one, double the quantity." (*Roxburgh in Asiatic Researches*, xii.) Rice is the principal species of grain. It is of very different varieties, comprised in the two great classes of upland and lowland, the former being considered the best. The land destined for its culture is chosen at the approach of the dry season; and as fresh ground is frequently needed for the purpose, the wanton destruction of fine timber is immense. The rice is sown at the beginning of the rains, and ripens in about five months from that time. The same spot of low ground is, for the most part, used without intermission for several years, the degree of culture bestowed by turning up the soil, and the overflowing water, preserving its fertility. Fallows occur occasionally; but as occupancy in most parts of Sumatra gives the right of property in the land, they are not very frequent.

The *sauaks*, or fields adapted for rice in low and wet situations, are prepared by turning into them a number of buffaloes; or in parts where it is less permanently moist, the soil is turned up either with a wooden instrument between a hoe and a pickaxe, or with a plough. While the *sauaks* are in preparation, a small, adjacent, and convenient spot of good soil is chosen, in which the seed grain is sown as thick as it can well lie on the ground; and after having grown to the height of several inches, it is taken up, in showery weather, and transplanted to the *sauak*, where holes are made, four or five inches asunder, to receive the plants. To the minute care thus bestowed upon the latter, Marsden attributes the large proportion of produce obtained, which, he says, averages 100, and is sometimes as high even as 140 fold! (*Marsden's Sumatra*, p. 77.) A singular method is adopted for separating the grain from the ear. The bunches of paddy are spread on mats, and the Sumatrans rub out the grain under their feet, supporting themselves for the more easy performance of this labour by holding with their hands a bamboo, placed horizontally over their heads. As an article of trade, Sumatran rice seems to be of a more perishable nature than that of most countries, the upland rice not being expected to keep longer than 12 months, and the lowland showing signs of decay after 6. Sage is common in Sumatra, and is used occasionally as food, though not an article of general use. Millet is cultivated, but in no great quantity. The cocoa-nut, betel, bamboo, sugar-cane, various palms, and an abundance of tropical fruits, are indigenous. The sugar-cane is cultivated not for the manufacture of sugar, but for the sake of chewing the juicy reed; and hemp, instead of being used for the supply of materials for cordage, furnishes an important preparation of turmeric, ginger, cassia, indigo, coffee, caoutchouc, rattan, many scented woods, and in the N. benzoin, are among the other principal kinds of produce.

Buffaloes are the most important live stock; the ox does not appear to be naturalised. The breed of horses is small, but well-made and hardy; sheep also are small. The hog and goat are both domestic and wild. Elephants, and many species of deer, abound; and tigers of a large and powerful species, the rhinoceros, hippopotamus, orang-outang, bears, &c. are met with, besides other animals in great variety. Around the shores extensive corn islands are continually forming, and coral is one of the principal articles of export, the other exports being pepper, rice, camphor, and other native products. The imports are chiefly Indian piece goods, salt, silks, and opium, from Hindostan; coarse porcelain, iron pans, gold thread, and many small articles, from China; striped cottons, spices, krises, and other weapons, from Java, Celebes, and the rest of the archipelago; metals, hardware, cutlery, and broad cloths from Europe.

According to native traditions, Sumatra and the adjacent islands have been the original seat of the Malay race; the type of which is certainly there met with in its greatest perfection. Except the Abohinese, inhabiting the N. extremity of the island, and whose commixture with the Moors of Western India has distinguished them from the other tribes, the Sumatrans, according to Marsden, may generally be described as follows:—"They are rather below the middle stature; their bulk is in proportion; their limbs are for the most part alight, but well shaped, and particularly small at the wrist and ankles. Upon the whole they are gracefully formed, and I scarcely recollect ever to have seen one deformed person. The women, however, have the preposterous custom of

flattening the noses and compressing the heads of children newly born whilst the skull is yet cartilaginous. They likewise pull out the ears of infants to make them stand at an angle from the head. Their eyes are uniformly dark and clear, and among some, especially the southern women, bear a strong resemblance to those of the Chinese. Their hair is strong, and of a shining black; the improvement of both which qualities it probably owes, in a great measure, to the early and constant use of cocoa-nut oil. The men are beardless, and have chins so remarkably smooth, that, were it not for the priests displaying a little tuft, we should be apt to conclude that nature had refused them this token of manhood. But the boys, as they approach to the age of puberty, rub their chins, upper lips, &c. with quick lime, and the few hairs which afterwards appear are plucked out from time to time with tweezers, which they always carry about them for that purpose. Their complexion is properly yellow, wanting the red tinge that constitutes a swarthy or copper colour. They are, in general, lighter than the half-breed of the rest of India; those of the superior class, and particularly their women of rank, approaching to a great degree of fairness." (p. 44-46.) No negro or other distinct race appears to occupy the mountainous regions, as in other parts of the archipelago; and the personal difference between the Malays of the coast and the country inhabits is so little marked, that it requires some experience to distinguish the two. (*Marsden*, p. 49.)

The original clothing of the Sumatrans is the same with that found by navigators among the inhabits of the South Sea Islands; consisting of the inner bark of a tree, beaten out to the degree of fineness required, some fabrics being nearly equal in softness to the most delicate kid-skin. The dress of the men comprises short drawers, a close waistcoat, with filigree buttons, a robe extending sometimes to the knees, a party-coloured scarf, a sash in which the kris or dagger is stuck, and a small turban, or umbrella-hat, while that of the women consists of a bodice, a petticoat, reaching from the bosom to the feet, a robe with sleeves, and sometimes a gaine veil, &c., with various filigree ornaments. Both sexes file, blacken, and otherwise disfigure their faces; and the great men sometimes set their teeth in gold, by casing the under row with a plate of that metal.

The villages are always on the banks of some river or lake, and consist of houses built chiefly of bamboo, and on posts, as in other countries of S.E. Asia. They are, however, much superior to those constructed among many other Ultra-Gangetic nations. Their furniture is very simple, consisting, in the best kind of houses, chiefly of mats of a fine texture, serving for beds, some low tables, coarse earthenware, brass walters, and iron pans. In eating, neither knives, spoons, or substitutes for them, are used. The diet of the Sumatrans is mostly vegetable, but they eat the flesh of buffaloes, goats, fowls, &c., curried or otherwise dressed. In a few species of manufacture the Sumatrans exhibit great skill; such as in working gold and silver filigree. This art, described by Marsden (pp. 179, 180.), is conducted with the rudest tools. The wire-drawing instrument is made of a piece of iron hoop; "an old hammer head, stuck in a block, serves for an anvil; and I have seen a pair of compasses composed of two old nails tied together at one end. In general, they use no bellows, but blow the fire with their mouths, through a joint of bamboo; and, if the quantity of metal to be melted is considerable, three or four persons sit round their furnace, which is an old broken *kuai*, or iron pot, and blow together." (P. 179.) Yet the manufactured material is celebrated for its delicacy and beauty, not only throughout the E., but in Europe. They weave silk and cotton cloths for home consumption; and some of their work is very fine, and the patterns prettily fancied. Different kinds of earthenware, *kris*, and fire-arms are made; and it is said that formerly the Sumatrans were famous in the art of smithing, commonly shown in forging iron, or in carpenters' work. The Sumatrans are wholly strangers to painting and drawing; their carvings are always grotesque; and their proficiency in the exact sciences is very limited. Medicine is in the lowest state, being entrusted to old people, who, in a great measure, depend on charms and talismans for the cure of diseases! The Sumatrans are fond of music, and have many musical instruments, though most part of these have been borrowed from the Chinese. Their poetry is by no means contemptible, and is much favoured in point of harmony by the Malay language, the smoothness and sweetness of which have gained for it the appellation of the *Italian of the East*. They write in the Arabic character.

Sumatra is divided among a number of native states, the principal being Menangkabow, in the centre of the island, Achin, Siak, Palembang, and Lampong. The European settlements, Benecoolen, Padang, &c. are on the S.W. coast, trenching on the country of the Rengas. Among this people, the inhabits of the villages are under the jurisdiction of magisterial head-men, or *depatis*, who meet at stated periods and places, in an assembly as

which the *pangras*, or feudal superior, presides. These *pangras* claim despotic sway; but, like the *dupatis*, have, in fact, little more than a patriarchal and judicial power; they levy no tax, nor seem to have any revenue, other than accrues from their determination of cases referred to them in appeal from the decisions of the *dupatis*. And in the immediate neighbourhood of the more powerful states, the *pangras* seem to acknowledge a kind of vassalage to the sovereigns of the latter. The Rejangs are said to be totally without religious worship of any kind, though not destitute of a belief in supernatural beings. A large proportion of the inhabs. of Sumatra are, however, Mohammedans.

Sumatra was first visited by the Portuguese in 1509, by the Dutch in 1600, and by the English two years afterwards. The latter continued to establish factories and form settlements in the island, during the 17th century; but principally in 1685-96. These settlements were retained by the British till 1825, when they were ceded to the Dutch in exchange for Malacca, &c. (*Marsden's Sumatra*, 3rd ed. 1811, the most copious and by far the best work on the subject.)

SUNDERLAND, a pari., and mun. bor., sea-port, and par. of England, being, Newcastle only excepted, the greatest port in the kingdom for the shipment of coal co. Durham, ward Easington, on both sides the Wear, close to its mouth in the North Sea, 13 m. N.E. Durham, with which city it is connected by a railway, and 245 m. N.N.W. London: lat. (of light-house) 54° 55' 12" N., long. 1° 21' 16" W. Area of Sunderland par., 120 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 17,022. But the pari. bor. comprises, along with Sunderland, the townships of Bishop-Wearmouth and B.-W. Pans on the S. side of the Wear, and those of Monk-Wearmouth, M.-W. Shore, and Southwick, on its S. side; the whole including an area of 5,096 acres, and a pop., in 1841, of 52,819.

"Sunderland and Bishop-Wearmouth, on the S. side of the river, at no distant time, were two distinct towns, at a considerable distance from each other. All the houses in Sunderland appear to be of considerable age; but in Bishop-Wearmouth the intervening space has been gradually curtailed, and at last filled up by buildings, so that at present the two form only one town. With the exception of one street, in which there are some respectable houses and shops, Sunderland presents the appearance of one mass of small houses crowded together, with interstices of narrow lanes rather than streets. The population in them is so dense as to give the appearance of unhealthiness as well as absence of cleanliness. This is not the case in Bishop-Wearmouth; in the new part of the town that adjoins Sunderland, there are some good streets, and excellent houses, and it is in this part that the higher classes of inhabitants reside. This town is increasing rapidly; several new streets have been recently built, and others are in course of building. Bishop-Wearmouth Pans is a small district running along the bank of the river from the parish of Sunderland to nearly as far as the bridge. Its pop. is very dense; it contains some glass manufactories and iron works for the manufacture of such articles as are required for the shipping. Monk-Wearmouth Shore is a large township immediately opposite Sunderland, and part of Bishop-Wearmouth, and has a dense pop., with but few houses or inhabs. of the higher classes. Adjoining Monk-Wearmouth Shore on the W., and extending for some distance along the river, is Southwick. In it are some coal pits and a railway; the greater part of the township, however, is agricultural, and contains very little trading population. Monk-Wearmouth lies to the N. of Monk-Wearmouth Shore, and does not come down upon the river. Its population is almost entirely connected with the trade of the port. The only carriage communication between the portions of the town on the opposite sides of the river is by the bridge, on passing which, from the right to the left bank, a toll is taken." (*Mem. Corp. Rep.*)

The cast-iron bridge, now alluded to, over the Wear, is the most remarkable object in this part of the co. It was constructed between 1783 and 1789, at an expense of about 38,400*l.*, and consists of one magnificent arch, 226 ft. in span, elevated in the centre above 100 ft. above high-water mark, so that large ships sail under it by merely lowering their top-masts. It was disposed of, in 1816, by a lottery of 6,000 tickets, at a price of 30,000*l.*

The parish church of Sunderland is large and handsome; its E. end is particularly elegant, the altar being placed in a circular recess under a dome. St. John's chapel-of-ease, built in 1769, is a perpetual curacy. Bishop-Wearmouth church has an ancient chancel, and an early decorated E. window, but the rest is modern. The living, valuable rectory, worth 3,000*l.* a year, has recently been divided. Monk-Wearmouth church has had nearly all its ancient features obliterated by modern alterations, though it still possesses a rude Norman tower, &c. There are numerous places of worship for Dissenters

in the town and vicinity, including a synagogue. The exchange, a neat edifice in the High Street, erected in 1814, at a cost of 8,000*l.*, comprises commercial, news and court rooms, an auction mart, &c. The theatre, assembly rooms, barracks, custom-house, and excise office, are among the chief public buildings. The town has a subscription library, a mechanics' institute, at which lectures are delivered, and several other literary institutions. A school, founded and endowed in 1778, educates and clothes 36 poor girls, and it has, also, national, friends', and various inferior schools. A large infirmary occupies a building raised in 1822; and an almshouse for 10 widows or daughters of master mariners, was founded, and endowed in 1820. There are numerous other almshouses and charities of different kinds. The town is lighted with gas, and well supplied with water.

The port, immediately within the river's mouth, is formed by two grand piers, each about 450 yards in length, which project one from the S. and one from the N. side of the river into the German Ocean. At the extremity of the N. pier is a lighthouse, having the lantern elevated 73 ft. above the sea at high water; there is, also, a harbour light on the S. pier, which shows during ebb and flood. At springs there is from 15 to 17 ft. water over the bar, and at neaps from 10 to 12 ft.; the channel is close by the N. pier head. A dock of 6 acres in extent, with a basin, was constructed, in 1838, on the N. side of the river; but, owing to the collieries being mostly on its S. side, this dock has not been so useful as had been anticipated; and the river continued to be crowded with ships, which at ebb tides were exposed to the risk of danger from grounding. To obviate these inconveniences, a new dock, 57½ acres in extent, has been recently constructed. It has a tidal basin at each end, one opening into the river at the town, and the other into the sea at Hendon Bay, about 1 m. S.E. from the town. This dock will be of the greatest advantage to the trade of the port. It is extremely convenient for the shipment of coal; and while it admits loaded vessels of much greater burden than could come into the port, it affords them, by means of its southern entrance, additional facilities of ingress and egress. The site of this new dock was principally gained from the sea; and it has been executed at a comparatively moderate cost. (*Appendix to Second Report of Tidal Harbours' Commission*, p. 356, &c.)

The staple businesses of the town are the building of ships and the shipment of coal. The former is carried on to a greater extent here than any where else in the kingdom. In 1849, for example, there were built in Sunderland no fewer than 155 ships of the aggregate burden of 44,333 tons, being a greater number of ships and a greater amount of tonnage than had been built in any single year since 1840. In the following year (1850), there belonged to the port 964 ships, of the aggregate burden of 199,931 tons, forming a larger mercantile navy than belongs to any other port of the United Kingdom, London, Liverpool, and Newcastle only excepted. In 1849, 1,171,215 tons of coal were shipped coastwise from this port, and 477,280 tons were exported to foreign countries. In that year, Sunderland supplied the metropolis with 3,371 cargoes, amounting to 927,314 tons of coal. Sail-cloth, chain cables, glass and earthenware, are also extensively manufactured in the town; and these, with lime, grindstones, wrought marble, &c., constitute, next to coal, the principal articles of export. The gross customs duties amounted, in 1846, to 68,806*l.* The adjacent village of Deptford, on the Wear, has a large rope-factory wrought by steam. The Sunderland Joint Stock Banking Company was established here in 1836; and it has also a branch of the Newcastle, Shields, and Sunderland Bank, with several private establishments. Two weekly newspapers are published in the town.

Under the Municipal Reform Act, the bor. is divided into 7 wards, and is governed by a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 42 councillors. Sunderland has no voice in the legislature till the Reform Act conferred on it the important privilege of sending 2 mems. to the H. of C. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 1,728. Corp. rev. in 1847-48, 4,326*l.* It has a commission of the peace; a county court, before which 1,501 plaints were entered in 1848; and weekly sessions are held, besides courts leet and baronial by the Bishop of Durham. Market-day, Saturday, and for cattle every other Tuesday. Fairs, May 11, and 12, Oct. 12, and 13, for cattle, &c. This was the first town in England attacked by cholera in 1832. (*Parl. Reports, and original returns obtained for this work.*)

SUPERIOR (LAKE), the most westerly and most extensive of the great lakes of the St. Lawrence basin, in N. America, being probably the largest existing body of fresh water. It is of a triangular form, extending between lat. 46° 30' and 49° N., and long. 85° and 92° 20' W. Its length, E. to W., is about 360 m., with a mean breadth of about 80 m., so that its area may be taken at about 28,800 sq.

m.⁶ Its mean depth is estimated at 900 ft., and the height of its surface at about 640 ft. above the Atlantic. It receives upwards of 60 rivers, but none is of much importance except the St. Louis, which enters at its S.W. extremity, and the Rivière au Grand Portage. During the melting of the snow, these and the other rivers sweep into the lake vast quantities of sand, boulder stones, and drift timber. It discharges itself at its E. extremity into Lakes Huron and Michigan, by the river and falls of St. Mary. "This lake embosoms many large and well-wooded islands; the chief of which is Isle Royal. The country on the N. and E. is represented as a mountainous embankment of rock, from 200 to 1,500 ft. in height; the climate unfavourable, and the vegetation slow and scanty. Upon the S. the land is also high, generally sandy, sterile, and the coast dangerous; subject to storms and sudden transitions of temperature, and to fogs and mists. The mean heat in June and July is about 85° Fah.; but a frightful winter prevails for nine months of the year. The Chippeway Indians inhabiting the shores are poor and miserable, depending for subsistence chiefly upon the fish of the lake, and the wild rice of the adjacent savannahs." (*New York Gaz.*) But, notwithstanding these unfavourable circumstances, the harbours of Grand Isle and Chegoimagon Bay, on the S. coast, are excellent; and the lake is now navigated by steam-boats and sailing vessels equal to the craft navigating the lower lakes. (*Stevenson.*) The Hudson Bay Company have several stations round the coasts of this lake. (See also *Encyc. of Geog.*, Amer. edit.; *Darby's Geographical Views*, &c.)

SURAT, a large town of Hindostan, cap. prov. of Gujrat, and of the British distr. of its own name, under the presid. Bombay, on the Taptée, about 20 m. above its mouth, in the Gulf of Cambay, and 126 m. N. by E. Bombay; lat. 21° 11' N., long. 78° 7' E. The pop. was loosely estimated, in 1818, at 187,000. It is about 6 m. in circ., shaped like a bow, the chord, formed by the Taptée, having, near its centre, a small castle garrisoned by a few Europeans and Europeans. On other sides the town is surrounded by a wall flanked with semi-circular towers. Without the wall are some good European houses, formerly occupied by the French, but now the residences of the English officers; the houses within the town are very inferior, consisting only of timber frames filled up with bricks, their upper stories projecting over each other. The streets, also, are narrow and irregular. Surat has an English church and an English school, with numerous Hindoo schools, a large European cemetery, containing the tomb of Sir G. Oxendon, one of the earliest governors of British India, &c.; but the most remarkable building or institution is an hospital for sick animals similar to that at Barroch. During the last century this hospital contained "horses, mules, oxen, sheep, goats, monkeys, poultry, pigeons, and a variety of birds; also an aged tortoise, which was known to have been there 75 years. The most extraordinary ward was that appropriated for rats, mice, bugs, and other noxious vermin, for whom suitable food was provided. (*Hamilton*, E. I. *Gen.*)

Surat had formerly a large trade in all kinds of eastern produce; but this has greatly declined, and its exports consist at present (1842) principally of cotton wool, which is sent in large quantities to Bombay. Most part of the old manufactures of Surat, except kincobes and shawls, for which there is little demand, have been superseded by those of Great Britain, and the greater number of the native merchants have become poor. Among the traders, however, are numerous Parsees, the descendants of those expelled from Persia by the Mohammedans, who have the reputation of being wealthy. Vessels of 30 or 40 tons may come up to Surat; but those of greater size must lie about 15 m. lower down the river; and few boats larger than the ketches in the E. I. Company's service ever ascend so high as the town.

Surat is the residence of a British collector, judge, military commandant, &c., and is the seat of a board of customs, a circuit court, and of the *Sudder Adawlet* or chief tribunal for the entire presid. of Bombay. It is supposed to be one of the most ancient cities of Hindostan, being mentioned in some of the earliest records. The English factory, founded here in 1618, was the first mercantile establishment of the E. I. Company in the Mogul dominions, and continued to be the chief British station in India till Bombay became the seat of supreme authority, in 1687. (*Hamilton*; *Mod. Trav.*, x. 144—149, &c.)

SURINAM. See *GUIANA* (DUTCH).

SURREY, a co. of England, which, though inland, enjoys, from its being skirted on the N. by the Thames, most of the advantages of a maritime co. It has to the N. Middlesex, and a small part of Bucks, from both of which it is separated by the Thames; on the E. it is bounded by Kent, on the S. by Sussex, and on the W. by

Hampshire and Berks. It comprises all that portion of the metropolis to the S. of the Thames, and is thus, in fact, a metropolitan co. Area, 488,120 acres, of which about 400,000 are arable, meadow, and pasture. With the exception of the Weald, the surface consists of alternate hill and dale. Some of the hills rise to a pretty considerable height, affording highly diversified and beautiful prospects. The soil comprises every variety, from the richest loam to the poorest moor. There are three portions, the soils of which are particularly well defined; viz. 1st, the Weald, occupying all the S. part of the co. from Crowhurst to Haslemere; 2dly, the sandy loam district, lying between the Weald and the downs; and, 3dly, the downs, or chalk land, occupying the whole E. side of the co. from Croydon to Tilley, but gradually decreasing as we advance W., till at Farnham, on the border of Hants, it is reduced to a narrow strip. To the N.E. of the downs, between them and the Thames, there is a great variety of soil, partly consisting of strong dark clay, partly of sandy loam, &c. In the N.W. and S.W. parts of the co., but especially the former, there are very extensive tracts of heath and moorish ground; and smaller tracts of the same kind are met with in various other places. On the whole, however, the co. may be said to be of an average degree of fertility. Climate good; and, owing to the variety of surface, the abundance of wood, and its contiguity to the metropolis, it is one of the most desirable co. in England for a residence. A large portion of Surrey is in tillage; but agriculture, speaking generally, is in a decidedly backward state, and two, or even more, white crops still not unfrequently follow in succession. On the rich friable calcareous loams between Croydon and Epsom, 6 quarters of wheat an acre are not unfrequently reaped; and on the rich sandy loams near Godalming, 5 quarters is no uncommon crop; but on the poorer soils, and in the Weald, the produce seldom exceeds from 2½ to 3 quarters. The turnip culture was introduced into Surrey sooner than into any other English co.; but even at present turnips are but seldom drilled; their management is but imperfectly understood, and tares are generally preferred by the Surrey farmers to any other species of green crop. Turnwrist ploughs are used in many quarters, but the swing plough is most common. It is drawn by 3, 4, or even 5 heavy horses yoked in line! Lime is extensively used as manure; and the application of salt for that purpose is daily becoming more general. Hops are raised in considerable quantities; and those grown in the neighbourhood of Farnham are preferred to most others. Peppermint, lavender, wormwood, chamomile, &c. are raised in the physic gardens about Mitcham; and a considerable extent of land at Battersea, and other places along the banks of the Thames is appropriated to the production of asparagus and other vegetables for the London market. There is no peculiar breed of cattle in Surrey, but the short horns and the Sussex breed are the most prevalent. A considerable number of sheep are kept, principally on the down-land. Large numbers of hogs are fed; they consist principally of the Berkshire and Chinese varieties. The Dorking breed of fowls is in high estimation; they are large, handsome, and powerful, and are distinguished by having six claws to each foot. There are very large estates in Surrey. Farms of all sizes; the largest are on the down-lands, and the smallest in the Weald; but, at an average of the co., the size of farms is not supposed to exceed 170 acres. They are commonly held under leases for 7, 14, or 31 years; but the vicious customs that prevail as to entry defeat the advantages that might otherwise have resulted from this tenure. (See *Kennedy and Grainger, Letting of Land*, i. 321.) In the Weald the farm-houses are mean and ruinous, but they are better in other places. Cottages good, and frequently ornamented with vines and flowers. A great extent of land, in 1843, 17½, 10½, an acre. There is a great deal of valuable timber and coppice wood in Surrey, particularly in the Weald. Large quantities of fuller's earth are dug up in various places; and there are also excellent quarries of freestone and limestone. Except in so far as it is connected with the metropolis, Surrey has very few manufactures; and those of little or no importance. Besides the Thames, it is watered by the Wey, the Mole, and the Wandie; and it is traversed by the London and Croydon Canal, by the Brighton and S.W. Railways. Turnpike roads good; but cross roads, particularly in the Weald, very indifferent. It contains 13 hundreds, exc. of the bors. of Southwark and Lambeth, and the town of Guildford; and is divided into 143 pars. It returns 11 mems. to the H. of C.; viz., 4 for the co., 2 for the bor. of Guildford, 1 for the bor. of Redgate, 2 for Lambeth, and 2 for the bor. of Southwark. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 10,004, of whom 5,394 were for the E., and 3,610 for the W. div. In 1841, Surrey had 98,872 inhab. houses, and 862,578 inhab.; of whom 275,968 were males and 304,478 females. An expenditure for the relief of the poor, in 1847-48, 288,677. Annual value of real property, in 1815, 1,888,702; in 1843, 2,939,068.

* These measurements correspond with those of Stevenson (*Civil Engineering in North America*, p. 5.) and the best maps. Darby makes the area 24,000 sq. m.

SUSSEX, a marit. co. of England, on its S. coast, having N. and N.E. Surrey and Kent; S. and S.E., the English Channel; and W., Hants. Area, 338,240 acres. Surface and soil, very various. A ridge of chalk hills, to which (though in strictness applicable only to a part) the term South Downs is usually applied, runs through the co. from South Harting and Miland Chapel, on the confines of Hants, to Beachy Head, where it terminates in high precipitous cliffs. Their N. declivity is rather steep, but that on the S. is gently sloping. The soil on the South Downs is generally a light hazely mould, on a substratum of loose chalk. On the S. side of this range, along the coast from Emsworth, gradually decreasing to near Brighton, there is a considerable extent of fine, rich, loamy land. To the N. of the S. Downs is the extensive tract called the Weald of Sussex, uniting on the E. with the Weald of Kent, and stretching as far W. as Petworth. The soil of the Weald is similar to that of the Weald of Kent; being, for the most part, a stiff tenacious clay, with occasional sandy and gravelly patches intermixed. It is thickly covered with oak wood; and, when viewed from the South Downs, appears like an immense forest. In the E. parts of the co., in what is called Pevensey Level, and near Winchelsea, are considerable tracts of very fine, deep, marsh land. Climate, mild, dry, and early. A large extent of Sussex is under the plough; but husbandry is in a backward condition; and Messrs. Kennedy and Grainger truly state, that no very material improvement need be expected till those pernicious habits, with respect to the letting and entry to farms that prevail here, as well as in Kent and Surrey, be totally changed. (*Tenancy of Land*, i. 337.) Crops principally cultivated, wheat, oats, and barley; and on all the light lands, turnips are extensively grown. Great quantities of hops are raised, particularly in the eastern parts of the country; there being, in 1838, 11,417 acres under this crop. Sussex is deservedly celebrated for its breeds of cattle and sheep; each being about the very best of its kind. The oxen are of a deep red colour, and have tapering turned-up horns; they fatten easily, produce excellent beef, and are not inferior to any other breed in field labour. The greater part of the tillage in the Weald is performed by ox-teams. The native cattle do not, however, answer for the dairy. The peculiar breed of sheep belonging to the co. is called the South Down, from its being found in the greatest perfection on the South Downs, Chalk Hills. The breed is now widely diffused; but owing to the extension of tillage on the Downs, and the increase in the size of the animal, and the weight of the fleece, neither the mutton nor the wool is supposed to be so good as formerly. Total stock of sheep estimated at nearly 900,000.

Sussex has been celebrated from the remotest period for the abundance and excellence of its timber; and in these respects it continues to be decidedly superior to every other English co. Oak is the principal timber of the Weald; but in other parts beech is most prevalent. To the abundance of wood is principally to be ascribed the circumstance of Sussex being formerly distinguished for the number of its iron-works; but since pit-coal began to be generally employed in the smelting and refining of iron, these have been wholly abandoned, as well as those that were formerly established in Kent. Property much divided. Average size of farms in the Weald 100 acres; in the Downs, from 1,300 to 2,000 acres. A great proportion of the farms held by tenants at will; and owing to injurious customs as to entry, a large part of the capital of the tenant is swallowed up in the useless payments he is compelled to make; so that much of the land is very insufficiently stocked. Offices invariably thatched and weather-boarded. Average rent of land, in 1843, 18s. 2½d. an acre. Manufactures of little importance. Ironstone, fuller's earth, limestone, and sandstone are all met with. The rivers are of no great magnitude. The principal is the Arun. It communicates by a canal with Langport harbour on the W., and with the Wey and the Thames on the N. In the Weald there are several ponds in which freshwater fish are fed for the London markets. Sussex is divided into 6 rapes, and these again into 65 hundreds, and contains 310 parishes. It returns 18 mems. to the H. of C.; viz. 4 for the co.; 9 for the city of Chichester; 2 each for the bors. of Brighton, Lewes, Hastings, and Shoreham; and 1 each for Arundel, Horsham, Midhurst, and Rye and Winchelsea. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 8,549, of whom 5,260 were for the E., and 3,289 for the W. division of the co. In 1841 Sussex had 54,069 inhabited houses, and 299,770 inhabitants, of whom 147,604 were males, and 152,165 females. Sum expended on the relief of the poor, in 1848-49, 155,109*l*. Annual value of real property, in 1815, 919,350*l*; do, in 1843, 1,676,593*l*.

SUTHERLAND, a marit. co. of Scotland, occupying the N.W. angle of the country, has on the N. and W. the Atlantic, E. the co. Caithness, and the Moray Frith, and S. the Frith of Dornoch, Ross, and Cromarty. It contains 1,152,640 acres, of which 30,080 are under water. The

aspect of the country is wild, bleak, and, in many parts, savage. The E. shore has a small fringe of good arable land; but the rest of the surface is rugged and mountainous, being, however, interspersed with various narrow straths, or glens, and some considerable lakes and morasses.

Sutherland, like the other Highland co., was, till recently, occupied by native tenants, similar in all respects to those of Ross. These, however, have, for the most part, been recently removed either to villages on the coast, or have emigrated; and the lands have been divided into extensive sheep farms, furnished with excellent houses and offices. The native breed of cattle is small, but when crossed by those of Argyle and Skye, it is said to be equal to any that the Highlands can produce. Galloways, and other varieties, have also been introduced. Owing to the extraordinary extension of sheep farming in this co., the stock of cattle has been diminished in a still greater degree than in Ross; but sheep being much better suited to the country, the change has been, both locally and in a public point of view, highly advantageous; vast tracts having been, through its means, coupled with a very extensive drainage, rendered considerably productive, that were formerly almost useless. Cheviots are found to thrive remarkably well in almost all parts of the county. About 40,000 sheep and 180,000 fleeces are said to be annually sent to the S. from this co. (*Anderson's Highlands*, p. 13.) Four fifths of the co. belong to the Duke of Sutherland, who has expended vast sums in the formation of roads and inns, the building of bridges, piers, farm-houses, and villages, and other expensive and substantial improvements. Since 1811 above 100 m. of road have been made in the co. by the parliamentary commissioners, and above 350 by individual exertion and statute labour! The fringe of arable land along the E. coast has been divided into moderate-sized farms, well enclosed and drained, and presenting a good specimen of the improved turnip husbandry as is to be found in any part of the island. No where, indeed, in Scotland have improvements been attempted on a greater scale, or prosecuted with more zeal, skill, and success, than in this remote co. Whether the change should not have been more gradually introduced, we shall not undertake to say; but there cannot be a doubt, that the character and habits of the people, as well as the rural economy of the district, have been signally improved.

Sutherland has three great deer forests; and ptarmigan, grouse, and blackcock, alpine hares, &c., are abundant. Limestone and freestone are met with. Average rent of land in 1843, 7*d*. an acre. The herring fishery is carried on with spirit and success, both on the N. and W. coasts, but principally from Helmsdale. Principal rivers, Oickle, Fleet, Bosa, and Helmsdale. It contains 13 par.; but no considerable town. Dornoch, the largest, not having a pop. of 600! Pop. 1841, 24,782. It returns 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 197. Dornoch unites with Kirkwall, Wick, Tain, Dingwall, and Cromarty, returning a mem. Value of real prop., 26,033*l*. Scotch. Annual value of real property, in 1843, 36,114*l*.

SUTTON-COLDFIELD, market town and par. of England, co. Warwick, bund. Hemlingford, on the road from Birmingham to Lichfield, 6 m. N.N.E. Birmingham. Area of par., 13,030 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,300. The town, on an acclivity, in a bleak situation, consists principally of one long street. Houses good, and the inhabs. well supplied with water. The par. church, an edifice probably of the 13th century, has a statue of Vesey, Bishop of Exeter in the time of Henry VIII., a native and a great benefactor of the town. A flourishing free school, founded by Vesey, and national schools, almshouses, and several other charitable endowments, exist at Sutton. The inhabs. are principally employed in the manufacture of Birmingham goods. The town, which is of great antiquity, was chartered by Henry VIII., under a warden, 10 aldermen, and 2 justices. The corporation had various privileges, which have since become void: petty sessions are, however, still held quarterly. Markets on Mondays: fairs, Trinity Monday and Nov. 8., for sheep and cattle.

SWAFFHAM, a market-town and par. of England, co. Norfolk, bund. South Greenhoe, 35 m. W. Norwich. Area of par., 8,130 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,358. The town is finely situated on rising ground, and is well built. The par. church is a spacious and handsome structure, chiefly in the perpendicular style, with a lofty nave, the vaulted roof of which is richly adorned with figures carved in Irish oak; it has a well-proportioned tower, with enriched embrasures and pinnacles, some handsome pillars and monuments, and curious inscriptions. The living of Swaffham with Thretton vicarage and rectory, worth 783*l*. a year, is in the gift of the Bishop of Norwich. The Friends, Baptists, Wesleyans, &c. have meeting-houses. The co. brewer, and a beautiful market-cross, surmounted by a figure of Ceres, erected by Lord Orford, in 1783; a public assembly-room, and a neat theatre are the other principal

public edifices. Swaffham has a free grammar and a national school, and various almshouses, &c. Quarter-sessions for the co. are held here at Midsummer, besides annual courts leet and baron, and weekly petty sessions. Markets, principally for butter, on Saturdays; fairs, May 12th, July 21st, and Nov. 3d, for cattle, sheep, and toys.

SWANSEA, a parl. bor., sea-port, and par. of South Wales, co. Glamorgan, hund. Swansea, on the W. bank of the Tawe, at its mouth in the Bristol Channel, 34 m. W. N. W. Cardiff, lat. $51^{\circ} 37' 12''$ N. long. $3^{\circ} 55' 30''$ W. Area of par. 2,661 acres. The parl. bor., however, includes also the par. of St. John Llanmalet and the hamlets of Morriston, Glas-Lower, &c., on both sides the river; having a total area of about 5,000 acres, with a pop., in 1801, of 6,831, in 1831, of about 16,880, and, in 1841, of 22,982. The compact portion of the town is about 1 m. in length, N. to S., by somewhat more than $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in average breadth, and consists of three or four parallel lines of thoroughfares crossed by numerous others. It is generally clean, and pretty well built, and has been of some reputation as a watering-place. It has an excellent market, attended by all the neighbouring district, with a handsome court-house, in which the assizes, quarter and petty sessions are held, an infirmary, assembly-rooms, theatre, royal institution for literary and scientific purposes, with a good library and museum; mechanics' institution, 2 reading or newsrooms, savings' bank, poor-house, house of correction, a docks and benevolent societies, a society for prosecuting felons, and a branch of the Bank of England. The town is paved, lighted with gas, and well supplied with water, and has a small police. *(Met. Corp. Rep.)* The par. church is comparatively a modern edifice, with a square tower; the living, a vicarage, worth 291*l.* a year, is in the gift of a society. St. John's, a perpetual curacy in the gift of Sir John Morris, Bt., is worth 87*l.* a year. There are, also, a synagogue, Rom. Cath. and numerous other dissenting chapels; and on an elevated site near the centre of the town is Swansea Castle, founded in 1099, now partially converted into a barracks and stores. A free-school was founded in the town in 1692; but, like many other charities formerly established at Swansea, it has become nearly extinct. (*See Charities' Rep.* 12, iii.) There are, however, several national and Lancastrian, and numerous private schools. Swansea is highly prosperous and increasing. It owes its importance principally to its collieries, and the extensive works for the smelting of copper and other metals established in its neighbourhood. The latter are upon a very great scale; and, in fact, by far the largest part of the copper ore produced in Ireland, Cornwall, and other parts of the U. K., as well as in Cuba, Chili, &c., is brought here for smelting. Swansea has also a very extensive trade in the shipping of coal, having exported 304,907 tons coastwise in 1849, exclusive of 36,638 tons sent to foreign parts. It has also two large potteries. The Tawe at its mouth expands so as to form a harbour, which is protected seaward by two handsome piers: vessels of considerable burden enter at high water, but at ebb tide the harbour nearly dries. But it is intended to obviate this inconvenience by constructing a floating harbour, and it is also intended to unite the town with the hamlet of St. Thomas by a bridge, &c. A light-house is erected on the ebb pier, and the Mumbles Light is about 4 m. S. W. from the port. A canal goes from Swansea to Hennyoyad, in Brecknockshire; and two canals on the opposite bank of the river communicate, one with the adjacent collieries and the other with the harbour of Neath. There is a tram-road to the Mumbles and Oystermouth westward, by which coals are taken out, and lime and limestone brought in; and tram-roads also connect the different works and the canals and wharfs. Exclusive of coal and copper ore, iron ore, limestone, clay, rotten stone, tin plates, and timber, are brought to Swansea for its own consumption, or for exportation inwards or outwards. There belong to the port, on the 1st Jan. 1850, 183 vessels of the agg. burden of 18,824 tons. Gross customs' revenue, in 1846, 46,132*l.* The municipal and parl. bors. are co-extensive. The former is divided into 3 wards, and is governed by a mayor, 6 aldermen, and 18 councillors. There was no criminal court within the bor. till 1836, but it now has a commission of the peace; and a county court is established here, before which 1,030 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. Corp. revenue, in 1847-8, 4,616*l.* Swansea was formerly a contributory bor. to Cardiff, the right of voting having been in the burgesses by birth, marriage, or gov. resident or non-resident. It is now joined with Aberavon, Kenfig, Loughor, and Neath in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, for the entire district, 1,529. It is also a polling-place for the co. Markets, Wednesday and Saturday. Fairs, second Saturday in May, July 2, Aug. 16, Oct. 8, and two following Saturdays. (*Boundary and Munic. Corp. Reports, and Appendix; a Charity Reports, &c.*)

SWEDEN (*Severge*), a kingdom of Northern Europe, comprising with Norway and Lapland the whole of the Scandinavian peninsula, of which it forms the Eastern,

Southern, and most important portion; between lat. $56^{\circ} 20'$ and 69° N., and long. $11^{\circ} 18' 30''$ and $24^{\circ} 13' E.$, having N.E. Russian Finland, from which it is separated by the Tornea and one of its affluents; E. and S. the Gulph of Bothnia and the Baltic. S.W. the Sound, Kattegat, and Skagerrack; and W. and N. Norway, from which it is for the most part divided by the great mountain chain of Scandinavia. Length N. to S. 950 m.; average breadth about 190 m. Area about 170,700 sq. m. Sweden is divided into three principal regions, Gothland (Gothia) in the S., extending to about lat. $59^{\circ} 45'$ N.; Sweden proper, occupying the centre as far as lat. $60^{\circ} 40'$ N.; and Norland (by far the largest portion), comprising the remainder. It was formerly divided into 18, but is now divided into 24 lars, or governments, as follows:

Regions and Lars.	Area in Eng. sq. m.	Pop. in 1846.	Regions and Lars.	Area in Eng. sq. m.	Pop. in 1846.
<i>Norland:—</i>			<i>Gothland:—</i>		
Pitea	33,090	50,590	Jönköping	4,414	156,988
Umeå	20,450	60,654	Örebro	6,654	108,348
Härnösand	9,516	95,775	Hälsjö	1,900	100,415
Ostersund	19,518	49,077	Wäner	1,269	45,294
Sofie	7,942	119,175	Bohuslän	5,782	122,568
<i>Sweden prop.:</i>			<i>Christian.</i>		
Falun	12,282	145,533	Skarsholm	2,479	177,287
Carlsbad	6,537	709,396	Östergötland	1,337	108,348
Örebro	2,270	131,732	Malmö	1,456	224,207
Westera	2,645	94,850	The lakes		
Upsal	8,092	87,709	Wener		
Stockholm	2,216	301,352	Mölar	5,642	
Nyköping	4,512	118,564	Helsingör		
<i>Gothland:—</i>			<i>See.</i>		
Linköping	4,270	214,628			
Norrköping	5,525	199,108			
Göteborg	2,908	176,696			
Wernersborg	5,045	233,125			
			Total	170,715	3,216,386

Topography, Mountains, &c.—The Scandinavian peninsula rises gradually from the W. coast of the Baltic until it reaches its greatest elevation in the great mountain chain, usually called the Scandinavian Alps, or Doffrine hills, dividing Sweden and Norway. This chain extends from the Sytt-fjell in about 63° N. lat. and 15° E. long. to the N. Cape, in the general direction of N. N. E. and S. S. W. The highest ranges of the Alps and Pyrenees, not being a continuous chain of summits, form a succession of large plateaux from 90 m. to 30 m. across, from which the culminating points project. The Sytt-fjell, the loftiest point on the Swedish frontier, is 6,552 ft. above the level of the sea. The other principal peaks belonging to the same chain are the Sulleitma 5,342 ft., and the Saulo 5,695 ft. in height. The Helags, within the frontier, has an elevation of 6,100 ft.

Speaking generally, Sweden may be said to be a flat country. There are, indeed, some ranges of high grounds and detached hills, but, on the whole, it is wonderfully level. This is so strikingly the case, that all the way from Gottenburg to Stockholm, by the Örebro road, there is not a single hill or declivity till within a few miles of the capital. (*Thomson's Travels*, p. 393.)

According to Forsell, 1-12th part of the surface of Sweden is 1,900 ft., more than 2-5ths 760 ft., and 7-10ths 285 ft. above the level of the Baltic. The remainder, consisting chiefly of the coasts, is of less elevation. These are, for the most part, fenced by numerous rocks and islets. The islands of Gothland and Öland, in the Baltic, belong to Sweden: they are situated opposite the S.E. shores of the kingdom and Öland is separated from the main land by a narrow strait, which in one part (opposite Kalmar) is only about 4 m. across.

The S. provinces consist chiefly of vast sandy plains interspersed with small lakes and hills, which are sometimes bleak and barren; but elsewhere clothed with woods. The central region contains extensive plateaux of table land covered with forests. The N. part of the kingdom is diversified with mountains, deep valleys, and glens, alternating with sandy wastes and vast heaths. *(See Rivers.)* Sweden is extremely well watered. Through its N. and central parts, 12 large rivers flow into the Gulph of Bothnia. The Tornea, which has the longest course, runs almost due S. for about 290 m.; but the largest is the Angerman, 230 m. in length, so deep that ships of 600 tons load at Nyland, about 70 m. from the sea. Next to these are the Umea, with a course of 350 m., and the Windel, 235 m. in length. The general direction of the rivers falling into the Baltic is N.W. to S.E. Few of them are of any considerable size, and notwithstanding the generally flat country through which they flow, their navigation is much impeded by rocks and numerous cataracts, and is rendered perilous during the inundations occasioned by the melting of the snows. Some of them increase 18 or 20 ft. in height so rapidly as to carry away large trees, and even to detach immense blocks of granite from the mountains; still, however, the inundations occasion little damage, owing to the number of lakes, which serve as so many basins for the reception of the surplus water. There are, in fact, upwards of 80 considerable lakes, occupying in the aggregate a very large surface. The principal of these is

the Wener, the largest lake in Europe, after that of Ladoga, between lat. $58^{\circ} 22'$ and $59^{\circ} 25'$ N., and long. $12^{\circ} 30'$ and $14^{\circ} 12'$ E., above 90 m. in length, by 56 m. in its greatest breadth, 147 ft. above the level of the sea. It receives many streams, the only outlet for its waters being a channel about 200 yards in width, immediately below which is the celebrated cataract of Trohette. Though in parts very deep, a great portion of this lake is so shallow as to render its navigation difficult and dangerous. The lake next in size is the Wetter, 86 m. in length, by 16 m. in its greatest breadth. It is about 26 m. S.E. the Wener, and 293 ft. above the level of the sea. In some places it is 70 fathoms deep: it is often agitated by sudden and violent storms. The Mælär lake is an inlet of the sea, extending westward from Stockholm, near its entrance from the Baltic, about 70 m., with a breadth varying from 2 to 20 m. It is deep and clear, contains some hundred islands, and is regularly navigated from April to November. The Hjelmar, a lake lying to the S.W. of the Mælär, to which it is united by a canal, is 23 m. in length, varying to 13 m. in width.

Climate.—For five or six months of the year the surface of the N. parts of the country, from the summits of the mountains to the bottoms of the valleys, is covered with ice and snow. The rivers and lakes are also frozen from October to April. In the central parts, the winter seldom lasts more than three or four months; and in the S. and W. parts, the climate is very similar to that of the N. of Germany. In the N. division a great degree of heat is experienced during a short period of the year. The transition from winter to summer is there, also, very rapid, often occurring within the space of a few days.

On the whole, however, the climate of Sweden is much milder than might be expected from its high N. lat. The winter is not so cold as in countries in the same lat. further to the E., at the same time that the mean temperature of the summer is but little inferior. According to Dr. Thomson, the mean annual temperature at Petersburg is $37^{\circ} 10'$ Fah.; whereas at Stockholm it is $41^{\circ} 30'$. The advantage on the side of Stockholm is chiefly in the six winter months, the mean temperature of these being in it $29^{\circ} 4'$, and in Petersburg only $21^{\circ} 2'$. During the six summer months, the advantage on the side of Stockholm amounts to only 2° ; and in July and Aug. the temperature is $1^{\circ} 8'$ higher in Petersburg than in Stockholm. The winter is considered by the inhabs. as peculiarly pleasant. The roads are always dry; and as the winds are seldom violent, travelling is both rapid and agreeable, the traveller defending himself from the cold by warm clothing. The great defect of the climate is the occurrence of frosts in Aug. and Sept., by which the crops are often injured. (*Thomson's Sweden*, p. 405.)

Near Tornea, at midsummer, the sun is visible during the whole night. The longest day at that town is 21 $\frac{1}{2}$ h., and the shortest 21 hours. At Stockholm the longest day is 18 $\frac{1}{2}$ h., and the shortest nearly 6 hours in length.

Geology and Minerals.—In point of structure, the whole of Sweden may, with few exceptions, be considered primitive. Granite and gneiss are the predominant rocks; but the former is more extensively diffused than the second, which is found chiefly on the shores of the Baltic, and in the S. part of the kingdom. A remarkable geological feature, which Sweden has in common with some parts of N. Germany and Denmark, is the presence of a vast number of enormous erratic blocks of granite scattered over its surface, especially in the central and S. provinces. In the S. they are collected in long spits, or tongues, resting upon the plains, which are quite unconnected with them; more to the N. they are scattered indiscriminately, and so profusely, that scarcely an acre of land is without one or more heaps of them. They seldom exceed 30 or 40 ft. in height above the surface, and form many islands in the lakes, as well as heaps on the plains. (*Ling, Sweden*, p. 41, 42.) There are mountains of secondary formation in Jemtland, Nerica, E. and W. Gothia, and in the islands of Gotland and Öland. Shelly limestone, chalk, &c., are met with in Scania. Deposits of oceanic shells are found in the country near Uddevalla; but at Stockholm, Upsala, Hernösand, and at other places on the E. side of the peninsula, the shells discovered are of the kinds belonging to the Baltic, without any mixture of the oceanic. Sweden is rich in mineral products. Among these, are iron, the best in Europe, copper, cobalt, zinc, lead, antimony, gold and silver, alum, nitre, sulphur, with porphyry, marble, alabaster, limestone, millstone, whetstone, asbestos, potter's earth, &c. But the only metals that occur in any considerable quantity in Sweden, and the ores of which are worth working, are iron, copper, and lead; iron being the most abundant and lead the scarcest of the three. There is a remarkable deficiency of the more valuable products found in secondary formations, as coal and salt. The former, indeed, has been discovered, and wrought, near Helsingborg, in the S. of the kingdom; but it is of very inferior quality: there are no salt beds nor brine springs, and the waters of the Baltic not being largely impregnated with salt, it is wholly imported.

Vegetable Products.—The forests of Sweden are estimated to occupy about 98,000 sq. miles, or four sevenths of the whole surface of the country. Those of the M. region consist of birch, pine, fir, &c., which, in the central parts, are intermixed with ash, willow, linden, and maple; and in the S. with oak, beech, yoke-elm, &c. Few beeches are found N. of lat. 57° ; oaks are found as far N. as Sundswall. The linden is found as far N. as lat. 61° , the hazel as 62° , the cherry and ash as 63° ; and the general limit of the birch and pine woods is lat. $69^{\circ} 30'$. The small dwarf birch, aspen, mountain-ash, and dwarf grey alder, are found as far N. as 70° , but only in the valleys and sheltered situations. The walnut and mulberry are almost entirely confined to Gotaland; the chestnut is very rare. The forests were formerly much neglected; and there is now in many extensive districts a great deficiency of timber. Indeed, a considerable proportion of the firewood required for the consumption of Stockholm is brought from Finland. Latterly, however, a great deal more attention has been paid to the forests. Those belonging to the state have been placed under the care of a special institution, and very extensive plantations of oaks, fir, &c., have been made. The power of private proprietors to cut down timber was formerly limited; but this restriction no longer exists. In the interior of the country, however, and in such parts as have no facilities by means of water-carriage, or otherwise, for the conveyance of timber to the sea-ports, and are distant from mines, there is but little hope that the forests will ever become an object of considerable attention. Pears, apples, and plums of all kinds, grow in the open air in the S.; but the grape, fig, apricot and peach, do not ripen except in hot-houses. All kinds of melons are grown, currants up to lat. $68^{\circ} 30'$, and gooseberries every where, even as far N. as lat. 70° . The soil is suitable for all kinds of pulse crops. Asparagus requires hot-beds in lat. $60^{\circ} 30'$, cabbages cease to come to maturity in lat. 64° , carrots and parsnips grow to lat. $66^{\circ} 30'$ N., turnips and potatoes nearly to lat. 70° . The yellow beet-root is produced spontaneously; the red is cultivated. A close sward of common grass is rarely seen; but docks, thistles, rag-weed, and such roots as infest the land in more S. countries are seldom observed, even by the road side, or in the most neglected spots.

Animals.—The most common wild animals are the wolf, bear, fox, elk, reindeer, roebuck, glutton, ermine, and a species of lynx. The wild bear is now found only in the Isle of Öland. Whales and sea-eals are occasionally found in the Baltic and Gulph of Bothnia; and the porpoise (*Delphinus Phocæna*, Linn.) commits great ravages among the fish of those seas. There are few hares, but abundance of other kinds of game. The cock of the wood, or capercaillie (*Tetrao Urogallus*), formerly met with in Scotland, and recently reintroduced into that part of the U. Kingdom, is common in the Stockholm markets, whence it is sometimes brought to London; though inferior in flavour to grouse, it is much larger, sometimes weighing from 14 to 16 lbs., and is altogether a very fine species. Partridges are very plentiful, as are woodcocks and web-footed wildfowl. Eagles and falcons inhabit the cliffs; the wild swan and elder are hunted for their down; and the eggs of the latter are highly esteemed. The seas surrounding Sweden abound with fish, including sturgeon, cod, lamprey, rays, soles, turbot, pilchards, herrings, and the streamling, a small species of herring, which has been latterly very abundant on the E. Swedish coasts. Excellent mackerel, and oysters, are found in the Kattegat. The rivers and lakes are well supplied with salmon, pike, perch, trout, eels, and numerous fish of the genus *Cypripis*. The pike, perch, barbel, and crayfish, are found in the Baltic, as well as in the lakes and rivers. Many of the fish of this sea appear to be of a mixed character, between oceanic fish, and those of fresh water.

Agriculture.—The soil of Sweden, though mostly thin and poor, has been greatly improved by the industry of the inhabs. The coast land is usually bare of soil, the naked rock appearing every where. The flat alluvial lands around Lake Wener, and in the basins and valleys connected with it, consist of a harsh crystalline sand, impregnated with iron, and not very productive; but on the N. side of the lake, in the neighbourhood of Carlstad, the soil is of a superior description. In the country lying between the lake Wetter and the Baltic, there are some very fertile tracts; and round this lake, and in the district round Carlstad, especially the latter, agriculture has made great advances; the lands are well cultivated in large farms, and the country resembles some parts of the interior of England, except that the lands under cultivation are not fenced by hedges, but by wooden pallings. Of the 170,715 sq. m. forming the surface of the country,

	Square Miles.
Arable lands occupy	5,400
Meadows and common pasturage	285
Uncultivated forest and mountain land	137,780
Lakes and marshes	22,050

The agricultural products consist chiefly of rye, barley, oats, maslin (a mixture of barley and oats), wheat, potatoes, peas, hemp, flax, and almost all the fruits and legumes common in W. Europe. In the S., rye is the most cultivated; in the N., barley, the culture of the latter increasing in proportion as we proceed farther towards the pole; but the grains of all kinds are generally less nutritious than those of the S. of Europe, and are more difficult to preserve. Wheat succeeds as far N. as 63°, but does not ripen in W. Bothnia. Oats seldom ripen N. of lat. 63° 30', but barley is grown almost to the limits of the pine woods, in lat. 69° 30'. Hops are cultivated up to 69°, tobacco to 63° 30', and flax to nearly 64°. Buckwheat, madder, and wood are grown in Scania. In some parts of the S., the produce is equal to that of the best cultivated lands in England and France. In parts of Scania a return of 7 for 1 is obtained; but generally in Sweden the proportion does not exceed 4 for 1. The uncertainty of the climate and the chances of early frosts, are the greatest obstacles with which the agriculturist has to contend; and some singular devices are resorted to, to counteract their effects. In Jemtland, for example, the people pile up large quantities of wood along the N. side of the small patches of land sown with corn, that in case the wind should blow from the N. or N.E. in the evenings of August, they may set them on fire to protect the crop from the frosts! It is usual, also, in the S. parts of the country, to prevent the crop from being injured by frost when in the ear, to draw ropes across the heads of the grain, and shake off the dew before sun-rise, which, but for this, would then be frozen.

According to the official returns for 1837, the annual produce of grain and potatoes, after deducting the seed, amounted to—

	Swed. Bernds.
Wheat	244,611
Rye	2,378,395
Barley	1,800,502
Oats	1,540,046
Maslin	774,678
Peas	399,109
Potatoes	4,115,442

11,048,161, equivalent to

about 44,000,000 Eng. bushels.

In the N. potatoes supply the deficiency of corn, and are preferred to all other kinds of food. Tobacco is cultivated near Stockholm, but not to any extent. After that of Holland, the flax produced in Sweden is probably the best in Europe. Hemp is at present not much grown; but the government is endeavouring to extend its culture.

The whole arable surface of Sweden is divided into 66,441 *hemmans* of land. The word *hemman* signifies merely an estate, or homestead, and gives no idea of the value or extent of the land, some being incomparably larger and more valuable than others. It is, in fact, a fiscal division, for the purpose of levying the land-tax according to ancient assessments. Originally, however, the *hemmans* belonged, for the most part, to single proprietors; but they are now generally divided into 3, 4, 8, 16 or more parts, and it is rare for a family to possess a *hemman* entire. Of the 66,441 *hemmans*, 771½ belong to towns, 50,000 to private individuals, 399 to the crown, 373 to academies and universities, 301 to colleges and schools, 290 to the church, 304 to hospitals and asylums, 183 to military schools, 31 to sailors, and 4,045 to the army. According to circumstances, the lands are subject to a different amount of taxation: of the estates belonging to the nobles, 3,462 are wholly exempted from all public burdens; and 17,929 estates, partly belonging to them and partly to other privileged parties, enjoy a partial exemption from taxation.

The estates that originally belonged to the nobles, but which, since 1810, may be indifferently held by nobles or commoners, are exempted from the land-tax, and are also from the obligation to furnish a soldier for the army, the nobles themselves having been originally bound to personal service in the army. This inequality in the rate of taxation is practically, however, notwithstanding the statements of Mr. Laing to the contrary, of no real importance. The land-tax was fixed at a certain amount of produce centuries ago. It can no longer, therefore, be fairly regarded as a burden on the land, the value of which really depends on its net revenue after this fixed charge has been deducted. There is no injustice in the circumstance of certain lands in England being subject to tithe, while others are not; and it is quite as idle to talk about the injustice of the unequal distribution of the Swedish land-tax.

There is, however, in Sweden, an assessment of 5 per cent. laid on the net annual value of all estates. But this, though apparently an equal, is, in fact, a very unequal and impolitic tax; inasmuch as it makes no distinction between the income derived from the rent of land properly so called, and that which is really derived from the capital laid out on the land, and as it operates

as an obstacle to improvements. The occupiers of crown-lands in Sweden have long had, and still have, leave to constitute themselves the absolute proprietors of such lands on their paying a sum equal to 6 years' value of the land-tax laid on the land. It is not, therefore, the amount of the burdens falling on the land in Sweden, which, despite the statements to the contrary, are really very moderate, but the influence of the 5 per cent. assessment in discouraging improvements, and, still more, the minute subdivision of the *hemmans*, occasioned by the continued division and subdivision of heritages, in consequence of the law of equal partition among the children of a family, that are the principal obstacles to improvement. Property is, in many instances, divided into such minute portions as to be wholly unsuited to a proper system of cultivation; and the occupiers are often in the poorest circumstances. There are parcels of land of not more than 40 yds. sq., and a Dalecarlian peasant sometimes sells his landed property for 3 or 3 six-dollars (2s. 6d. to 6s.), the registration of the sale costing as much as the estate!

In some extensive districts there are not, at an average, above 14 acres of arable land to a farm; and in the district of Carlstad, where farms are largest, and agriculture most advanced, the average extent of arable land in each farm may be taken at about 73 acres. At an average of the entire kingdom, the arable land may be estimated at about 38 acres per farm. (Thomson's *Travels in Sweden*, p. 426.)

But, notwithstanding these disadvantages, and those that originate in its backward climate and not very fertile soil, agriculture has made a very material progress in Sweden since 1815. This is partly ascribable to the encouragement afforded by government, and to the establishment of model farms, some of which are managed by agriculturists from Great Britain. One of these, in the vicinity of Linköping, on the S. border of the lake Wener, consists of about 1500 acres, of which about 600 are under the plough. The manager of this farm had, in 1839, twenty young gentlemen boarded with him in the house, and 30 scholars of the working class. Government allows him 10,000 dollars a year towards defraying his expenses, and the establishment is said to be alike successful and advantageous. Mr. Stevens, an experienced Scotch agriculturist, who visits Sweden every summer, and assists landed proprietors in laying out their estates, and putting them under an improved system of management, says that "Of late years an enthusiasm has sprung up for the improvement of agriculture among all classes of people not to be equalled in any other continental country. This has been owing in a great measure to the exertions of the Agricultural Societies established within the provinces, and the great interest the landed proprietors now take in the improvement and management of their estates. English and German works on agriculture are studied; improved agricultural implements from Great Britain and other countries are introduced; and in many parts Scotchmen and Germans are seen directing the plough or conducting the operations of the field." (*Bremser*, ii. 318.)

The best evidence, however, of the improvement and extension of agriculture is to be found in the fact that, previously to 1820, there was generally a large importation of corn into Sweden from Danzig and other parts, whereas that importation has now, in ordinary years, wholly ceased, and there is, on the contrary, a considerable exportation. No doubt a good deal of this improvement is to be ascribed to the more extensive culture of the potato. But, independent of this, the improvement in cultivation generally has been most striking. Mr. Stevens says, "that the necessity under which the population formerly laboured, in the N. parts of the country, of having every now and then to use the bark of trees as a substitute for meal in the making of bread, has been in a great measure obviated; and that both the public and private magazines are completely filled with corn."

Houses in the country in Sweden are mostly constructed of wood; and are roofed with timber, turf, and straw. Gentlemen's houses, however, and houses in towns, are usually covered with tiles. Recently, thick coarse paper prepared with tar has been used for roofing, and is said to answer very well. Slates are very scarce; and Dr. Thomson states that he only saw *two* houses in the kingdom roofed with slate. (p. 369.)

It is estimated by Forsell, that *seven sixths* of the whole pop. are employed in agriculture: peasants, proprietors of the soil they cultivate, have been reckoned at 147,974; those who live on land not their own at 1,684,717; husbandry labourers, holding houses and land under proprietors, at 470,081; and servants, living in the house with their employers, at 277,466. Masters and mistresses are authorised, by an old law, to inflict summary corporal chastisement on their servants, with no other limit than that they do not kill or maim; and Mr. Laing, founding on this fact, states that servants in Sweden are little better than slaves! But it might have

occurred to him that laws here, as elsewhere, become obsolete; and we have been assured, by those who are thoroughly acquainted with the country, that the corporal chastisement of servants is quite as rare in Sweden as in England, and that they are treated with great kindness. The poverty of the soil, and short duration of summer, require a great number of hands during the season for agricultural employments; but during the remainder of the year, they are comparatively idle. Since 1680, the price of agricultural labour has been about 8d. or 1s. a day in the S. and centre of Sweden; but in the N. it costs 1s. 4d. a day. Labour is generally cheaper in Sweden than in Norway, from there being a greater number of the agricultural classes who are destitute of property. According to Laing, the condition of the middle and lower classes, in Sweden, is much less prosperous than that of the same classes in Norway. In this respect, however, as in many others, he is a suspicious authority; as there can be no doubt that he has represented the condition of the Norwegians under much too favourable, and that of the Swedes under much too unfavourable colours. Indeed, the Swedish peasant appears, even from Laing's account, to be far from being in a distressed situation. He says that, "compared with the cottier, or labourer, in Scotland, the Swedish peasant is better provided with physical comforts: he is far better lodged, better fed, and has access to fuel and food generally better." (377.) Rent is, most commonly, some proportion of the produce, and is usually paid in kind, there being but few districts in which it is paid in money. Labourers are frequently paid by getting a piece of land, which they cultivate for themselves, working on the proprietor's domain certain days in the week.

Mr. Cox, one of the best and most trustworthy of travellers, gives the following details with respect to the condition of the Swedish peasantry. "I had frequent opportunities of observing the customs, manners, and food of the peasants. On entering a cottage, I usually found all the family employed in carding flax, spinning thread, and in weaving coarse linen, or cloth. The peasants are excellent contrivers, and apply the coarsest materials to some useful purpose; they twist ropes from hogs' bristles, horses' manes, and hair of trees, and use seal-skins for bridles. Their food principally consists of salted beef and fish, eggs, milk, and hard bread. At Michaelmas they usually kill their cattle, and salt them for the ensuing winter and spring. Twice a year they bake bread, in large round cakes, which are strung on files of sticks, suspended from the ceilings of the cottages: this bread is so hard as to be occasionally broken with a hatchet, but is not unpleasant. The peasants use beer for common drink, and are much addicted to malt spirits. In the districts towards the W. coasts, and at no great distance inland, tea and coffee are not unusually found in the cottages, which are procured in great plenty, and at a cheap rate from Gottenburg.

"The peasants are well clad in strong cloth of their own weaving. Their cottages, though built with wood, and only of one story, are comfortable and commodious. The room in which the family sleep, is provided with ranges of beds in tiers (if I may so express myself) one above the other: on the wooden testers of the beds in which the women lie, are placed others for the reception of the men, to which they ascend by ladders. To a person who has just quitted Germany, and been accustomed to tolerable inns, the Swedish cottages may, perhaps, appear miserable hovels; but to me, who had been long used to places of far inferior accommodation in Russia, they seemed comfortable places of reception. The traveller is able to procure many conveniences, and particularly a separate room from that inhabited by the family, which could seldom be obtained in the Polish and Russian villages. During my course through those two countries, a bed was a phenomenon which seldom occurred, excepting in the large towns, and even then, not always completely equipped; but the poorest huts of Sweden were never deficient in this article of comfort: an evident proof that the Swedish peasants are more civilised than those of Poland and Russia." (*Cox's Letters*, iv. 377-379.)

According to the official returns, Sweden had, in 1837, 385,000 horses; 1,657,976 head of horned cattle; 1,412,689 do. sheep; and 513,692 do. hogs. In general, all kinds of domestic animals are inferior. The horses are every where small. There is a fine breed in the Isle of Öland, not more than 3 or 4 ft. high: these, however, are rapidly decreasing. In the S. provs., the number of horses, as compared with the pop., is much greater than in France, or even in England; there being, it is said, in Scania, 943 horses to every 1000 inhabitants! As we proceed N., the number of horses diminishes; and in Swedish Lapland they disappear altogether, their place being supplied by rein-deer, of which some proprietors possess 1,000 head. In Lapland, the rein-deer and dog are the only domestic animals. Swedish black cattle are also small; the best are those of E. Gothia and Dalecarlia; in summer they are driven to

the mountains, where *cheats*, similar to those of Switzerland, are constructed. The sheep-folds are well kept, and government has endeavoured to improve the breeds by crosses with those of Spain, France, England, and Saxony. Sheep are not reared N. of lat. 65°; goats thrive as far as lat. 65°. (*Journal de Trévoux Statistiques*, &c. p. 131-143; *Laing*, p. 368-372.)

Fisheries. form a very considerable branch of industry. The herring fishery on the W. and S. coast commenced in 1740, about which time herrings began to appear in large shoals on the coasts. The quantities annually taken increased until 1798, since which they have decreased; the place of the herring being now supplied by the *stremming*, a fish about the size of the sprat, but of much finer flavour. From 1790 to 1796, the towns of Gottenburg, Kongelf, and Marstrand disposed of 1,973,314 barrels salt herrings, and 361,971 hdds. fish-oil, which fetched together 480,000*l.*, about 3-4ths being sold to foreigners. But since 1805, the average produce of the fishery has not exceeded 2,000 barrels, the herring being, in a great measure, abandoned the coasts. The *stremming* is cured like the herring, and is often eaten raw out of the pickle; it is extensively used in Finland and the N. of Russia, and forms a favourite dish even with people of condition. The principal *stremming* fisheries are on the coasts of the Gulphs of Finland and Bothnia. The principal salmon fishery is at Dylefors, on the Klarev, a river which falls into the Lake Wener. The salmon fisheries of Norkopping, Geße, and Hernösand, are also very productive. A company in London employs two packet-boats, with wells in the bottom, in trading to Gottenburg for lobster, which are bought there for 3*sd.* or 4*sd.* each.

Mines.—The mines of Sweden, though inconsiderable as compared with those of this country, are a considerable source of national wealth. They are principally situated in the central provinces, which have no fewer than 261 out of the 586 mines said to exist in the kingdom. Swedish iron is of very superior quality, and that of the Danemora mines is especially well fitted for conversion into steel; but, owing to injudicious restrictions and the want of coal, the production in Sweden is not supposed (including what is licensed and what is made for home consumption without license) to exceed 85,000 or 90,000 tons bar iron, of which about 70,000 are exported. In 1839 we imported 17,049 tons of Swedish iron. The copper mines produce, in all, only about 760 tons a year; the metal is not so good as that of England, and is impregnated with iron. Fahlun, the chief mine, has long been in a declining state, the number of workmen at present employed not exceeding 500. The works of this mine are conducted entirely by water-power, and are remarkable for their completeness; connected with them is a manufactory of sulphuric acid. The ironing furnaces and iron works are licensed to produce certain quantities, some being as low as 50 tons, and others as high as 400 or 500 tons; and some fine bar iron works have licenses for 1000 tons each. These licenses are granted by the College of Mines, which has a control over all iron works and mining operations. The iron masters make annual returns of their manufacture, which must not exceed the privileged or licensed quantity, on pain of the overplus being confiscated. The college has established courts of mines in every district, with supervising officers of various ranks. All iron sent to a port of shipment must be landed at the public weigh-house, the superintendent of which is a delegate of the college; so that it is impossible for an iron master to send more iron to market than his license authorizes. It is true that sales are made to inland consumers at the forges, of which no returns are made out, and in so far the licenses are exceeded; but it is not supposed that the quantity so disposed of exceeds a few thousand tons a year. Every furnace and forge pays a certain annual duty to the crown. Its amount is fixed by the college when the license is granted; and care is taken not to grant the license to any one unless he have the command of forests equal to the required supply of charcoal, without encroaching on the supply of this material, required for the existing forges in the neighbourhood. As the supply of pig-iron is limited to the quantity licensed to be made, the college, in granting new licenses to bar-iron works, always takes into consideration how far this may be done without creating a scarcity of pig-iron. Hence, the erection of new forges depends—1st, on having a supply of charcoal, without encroaching on the forests which supply your neighbours; and 2d, on the quantity of pig-iron which the college knows to be disposable. The courts of the mines decide all disputes that arise among the iron masters regarding the exceeding of their licenses, encroachments, &c.; an appeal to the college lying from their decision, and ultimately to the king in council, or to the supreme court of the kingdom.

It is needless to dwell on the impolicy of such regulations. No doubt it is quite right for government to interfere to prevent the waste and destruction of the forests; but having done this, it should abstain from all other inter-

ference, and leave every one at liberty to produce as much iron as he may think proper. Mines of any importance are usually held by a society of shareholders. Some of them are only worked occasionally; and, as the labour is performed by peasants, who live ostensibly by husbandry, it is impossible to form any correct estimate of the numbers engaged in mining industry.

Manufactures.—For many ages, Sweden had none of any importance; the Hanseatic towns took away its raw materials, and re-exported them manufactured to the

country: the other manufactures were then, as they still are in great part, domestic. But about the middle of the 17th century, various manufactures, including those of glass, starch, brass, pins, silk fabrics, leather, soap, steel, and iron articles, besides printing-presses and a sugar refinery, were established: the workers in these establishments were mostly from Germany and the Low Countries. In 1771, there were in Sweden 588 manufactures; in 1824, 1,177; and in 1831, 1,184, employing 13,143 hands exclusive of miners. We subjoin an official

Account of the Number of Factories, Looms and Workmen, in each Department of Manufacturing Industry in Sweden, in 1838 and 1839, and of the Value of the Produce in each.

	1838.				1839.			
	Factories.	Looms.	Workmen.	Value.	Factories.	Looms.	Workmen.	Value.
Cotton and linen weaving	42	636	805	<i>Rind. Rones.</i> 426,581	44	751	949	465,280
Ribband ditto	10	69	107	45,152	11	71	103	45,176
Cloth ditto	106	536	3,455	3,353,439	114	685	3,412	4,045,389
Stuffs ditto	7	22	29	30,405	6	19	22	19,508
Silk	16	355	527	467,495	16	372	571	494,431
Silk spinning	11	-	26	27,000	12	-	21	28,000
Canvases and sailcloth	10	235	486	248,659	10	220	368	269,319
Dyeing	304	-	922	400,769	317	-	989	437,534
Glassworks	15	-	547	866,227	15	-	615	355,400
China or earthenware	2	-	364	155,142	14	-	37	176,578
Perfumery	1	-	706	22,708	1	-	12	484
Paper mills	89	-	1,333	756,878	87	-	1,341	825,494
Soapworks	15	-	24	127,845	17	-	37	114,054
Sugar refiners	28	-	597	2,480,256	25	-	504	2,020,319
Morocco leather	87	-	14	25,464	8	-	13	15,590
Tobacco manufactures	87	-	790	1,018,328	81	-	765	1,008,088
Watch ditto	149	-	330	56,072	145	-	286	37,780
Leather curriers	68	-	687	678,928	628	-	673	682,718
Oil manufactures	47	-	98	148,587	48	-	98	139,505
Wax candle ditto	6	-	21	60,005	7	-	19	54,425
Woolen and cotton spinning	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Woolen mills	9	-	765	745,047	9	-	810	879,888
Rope manufactures	17	-	82	64,612	21	-	88	104,338
Porter brewery	16	-	116	181,479	15	-	88	175,437
Machine makers	16	-	228	22,109	19	-	200	22,109
Vinegar distillers	19	-	38	22,109	19	-	36	22,494
Calico printers	11	114	104	42,179	789	110	180	75,094
Sundry minor manufactures	812	114	2,049	847,928	1,983	1,983	846,534	846,534
Total	2,104	1,987	14,211	13,000,089	2,097	2,177	14,461	13,597,808

Sweden has but few facilities for the formation of great manufacturing establishments; but, owing to the long winter nights, during which most out-of-door occupations are necessarily suspended, she has great facilities for the carrying on of domestic manufactures; and, in point of fact, the Swedish peasant not only supplies themselves with most descriptions of agricultural implements and household furniture, but with nearly all the coarse woollen, linen, and cotton goods, required for their ordinary use. No foreign or factory-made goods, however cheap, can supersede or materially interfere with this domestic manufacture; for, as the people would otherwise be idle, its products may literally be said to cost them nothing. Several factories have, however, been established in Sweden for the production of the finer descriptions of woven fabrics, some of which have had considerable success. The government of Elfsborg is the grand seat of the domestic manufactures of cotton in Sweden. A factory recently erected in this government, driven by water, has 150 power-looms employed in the production of cambrics and shirting; and it is at present (1842) in the course of being greatly enlarged. We subjoin an

Account, showing the Quantities of Cotton Goods made in Sweden during the Ten Years ending with 1840, distinguishing those manufactured in regular factories from those made by the Peasantry, in the Government of Elfsborg:—

Years.	Cotton Goods manufactured in regular Factories.	Cotton Goods made by the Peasantry of the Government of Elfsborg.	Total of Cotton Goods produced.	Observations.
1831	<i>Alnars.</i> 377,099	<i>Alnars.</i> 1,277,748	<i>Alnars.</i> 1,654,878	1. The Swedish <i>ala</i> is understood in this respect, but little change has taken place during the last ten years; but, taking the consumption at only 35,000,000 galls., it gives, taking the population at 3 millions, an average annual supply of 84 galls. to every individual, young and old, being about three times the average consumption of the people of Scotland. This is not a new habit in Sweden. "Le Suédois est sobre, sur tous les points, à l'exception de l'eau de vie. Cette fureur habitude commence dès l'enfance, et doit être regardée comme une des causes de la dépopulation de la Suède. (L'opinion de Des Français dans le Nord de l'Europe, p. 122.)
1832	389,408	1,277,748	1,667,156	
1833	949,794	2,656,207	3,606,007	2. Beside the goods made by the peasantry, a considerable quantity of cotton goods, valued at 1,215,379 shewels, handkerchiefs, &c., were imported.
1834	945,192	2,494,419	3,439,611	
1835	999,424	2,515,805	3,515,229	
1836	955,273	2,100,666	3,055,939	
1837	820,083	4,015,503	4,835,586	
1838	1,105,883	3,831,228	4,937,111	
1839	1,215,349	4,084,586	5,299,935	
1840	1,295,822	4,685,381	5,981,203	

Of the woollen manufactures, that of cloth is the principal. It is well made, chiefly of the wool pro-

duced in the country; but being principally intended for domestic use, and the cultivators making most of what they require, the sale is but small. Norrköping and Stockholm are the towns in which the largest quantities are made. Foreign cloths are prohibited; but the contraband trade is extensive. The manufacture of other woollen stuffs is confined to fannels, serges and bombazines, which were formerly prohibited, are now imported in considerable quantities. Handkerchiefs, which form the usual head-dress of the women, form the principal produce of the silk manufacture, though taffetas, gros de Naples, levantes, and ribbands, are also produced. The manufacture has been a good deal improved by the introduction of Jacquard looms from France. The manufacture of sail-cloth is increasing. The principal glass factory is at Bromse, in Westergötland. Ekstuna is the principal seat of the hardware and cutlery business, being a sort of miniature Sheffield: fire-arms are made in it at a factory established by government. The quality of Swedish paper has lately been much improved, and the quantity so much increased that considerable supplies are now sent to Denmark and Germany. The distillation of corn brandy has been constantly increasing since the reign of Gustavus III. In 1773, government, in order, as is supposed, effectually to suppress drunkenness, prohibited distillation; but, as might have been foreseen, the increase of smuggling and clandestine distillation rendered the prohibition useless, and made it be withdrawn. The Swedes are great consumers of ardent spirits. Every proprietor and occupier of land has a right to distill spirits; the size of the still and the amount of the duty depending on the value of the property. Mr. Stevens states that, in 1829, there were 167,744 stills going, which were calculated to make, within the year, about 30,000,000 galls. worth as many rix-dollars, and paying a duty of 434,396 dolls., a little more than a farthing a gallon! As the distiller is not bound to use any particular kind of grain or malt, a considerable quantity of potatoes is used in distillation. We understand that in this respect, but little change has taken place during the last ten years; but, taking the consumption at only 35,000,000 galls., it gives, taking the population at 3 millions, an average annual supply of 84 galls. to every individual, young and old, being about three times the average consumption of the people of Scotland. This is not a new habit in Sweden. "Le Suédois est sobre, sur tous les points, à l'exception de l'eau de vie. Cette fureur habitude commence dès l'enfance, et doit être regardée comme une des causes de la dépopulation de la Suède. (L'opinion de Des Français dans le Nord de l'Europe, p. 122.)

3,000 hds. a year. Excepting oak timber and hemp, Sweden possesses every material necessary for the construction of ships. Saltpetre, potash, and tar, are among the secondary articles of manufacture. There are two establishments for the instruction of persons intended for trade or manufacture, one at Stockholm, and the other at Gottenburg. A school for mining is established at Fablun. Schools, where gratuitous instruction is given in navigation, have been established in five of the principal sea-ports; and no individual can be appointed master or mate of a merchantman without passing an examination in some of these schools, and receiving a certificate of his ability properly to discharge the duties of such situations.

Trade.—The trade of Sweden, which, from the situation of the country, must necessarily be of limited extent,

has been reduced below even its natural bounds by the policy of the government in endeavouring to bolster up manufactures. Latterly, however, this system has been relaxed; and the trade and industry of the country have both experienced the beneficial influence of the more liberal policy that has been adopted. The exports consist almost wholly of raw produce, of which iron and timber, especially the former, are by far the most important articles: next to them are copper, alum, corn, tar, cobalt, &c. The imports principally comprise sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; salt, wines, silk, and wool; cotton, cotton twist, and cotton stuffs; hemp, hides and skins, oil, &c. The foreign trade is principally carried on with Great Britain, the United States, Holland, Hamburg, Denmark, &c. Its principal centres in Stockholm and Gottenburg. We subjoin an

Account, exhibiting the Official Value of the Exports from and Imports into Sweden, and the Amount of Customs' Revenue for the Ten Years, ending with 1840.

Years.	Value of Exports.	Value of Imports.	Total Value of Exports and Imports.	Customs' Revenue.		Total Customs' Revenue, includ. Ton, Duties, &c.	Observations.
				On Exports.	On Imports.		
	<i>Rix-doll. banco.</i>	<i>Rix-doll. banco.</i>	<i>Rix-doll. banco.</i>	<i>Rix-doll. banco.</i>	<i>Rix-doll. banco.</i>	<i>Rix-doll. banco.</i>	
1831	15,365,000	14,363,000	29,728,000	428,845	1,717,845	2,146,690	If sterling is equal to 12 rix-doll. 1838-87
1832	14,647,000	13,757,000	28,404,000	423,159	2,179,609	2,602,768	bancos. The rev. on
1833	16,908,000	13,896,000	30,804,000	451,004	2,265,408	2,716,412	exports is almost entirely
1834	15,822,000	14,527,000	30,349,000	453,414	2,299,599	2,753,013	derived from the
1835	18,285,000	13,492,000	31,777,000	512,971	2,161,959	2,674,930	duty on beer, which
1836	18,834,000	13,537,000	32,371,000	427,761	2,280,134	2,707,895	duty was, in 1840, re-
1837	17,425,000	16,156,000	33,581,000	338,690	2,985,274	3,323,964	duced to half its former
1838	22,160,000	19,499,000	41,659,000	480,573	3,277,255	3,757,828	amount. The export
1839	21,015,000	19,365,000	40,380,000	505,545	3,096,010	3,601,555	duty on wood is to cease
1840	20,434,000	18,308,000	38,742,000	522,226	3,056,903	3,579,129	in 1848.

Roads, Posting, &c.—The main roads to and from Stockholm are generally excellent and well kept; but the cross roads are comparatively neglected. A landholder is bound to keep in good repair that part of the public road which passes through his possessions; but it is needless to say that it is very difficult to enforce this regulation. The system of posting, though affording every facility for the traveller, is onerous on and injurious to the agriculturists. On all the principal routes, post-stations are established every 7 or 10 m. apart, to which the farmers and peasants of the district are compelled to furnish horses and a driver to the next post-station, at a very low rate, for any traveller who may require them. The station-master has the privilege of being the only keeper out of the town; but he also is obliged to keep horses to perform the same duties as those of the farmers on certain days in the week. Severe penalties, and even corporal punishment, are inflicted on the peasantry for any default in the fulfilment of this duty. The rate of hire paid for each horse is equivalent to about 1d. per Eng. mile. (*Laing, p. 203-206, &c.*)

Canals.—The formation of a system of internal navigation that should connect the Cattegat and the Baltic, has long engaged the attention, and occupied the efforts, of the people and government of Sweden. Various motives prompted to make them embark in this arduous undertaking. The Sound, and other channels leading to the Baltic, being commanded by the Danes, they were able, when at war with the Swedes, greatly to annoy the latter, by cutting off all communication by sea between the E. and W. provs. of the kingdom. And hence, in the view partly of obviating this annoyance, and partly of facilitating the conveyance of iron, timber, and other bulky products, from the interior to the coast, it was determined to attempt forming an internal navigation, by means of the river Gotha, and the lakes Wener, Wetter, &c., from Gottenburg to Soderköping on the Baltic. The first and most difficult part of this enterprise was the perfecting of the communication from Gottenburg to the lake Wener. The Gotha, which flows from the latter to the former, is navigable, through by far the greater part of its course, for vessels of considerable burden; but, besides other obstacles less difficult to overcome, the navigation at the point called Trollhætta is interrupted by a series of cataracts about 112 ft. in height. Owing to the rapidity of the river, and the stubborn granite rocks over which it flows, and by the perpendicular banks of which it is bounded, the attempt to cut a lateral canal, and still more to render it directly navigable, presented the most formidable obstacles. But, undismayed by these, on which it is, indeed, most probable he had not sufficiently reflected, Polhem, a native engineer, undertook, about the middle of last century, the Herculean task of constructing locks in the channel of the river, and rendering it navigable! Whether, however, it was owing to the all but insuperable obstacles opposed to such a plan, to the defective execution, or deficient strength of the works, they were wholly swept away, after being considerably advanced, and after vast sums had been expended upon them. From this period, down to 1793, the undertaking was abandoned; but in that year the plan was proposed, which should

have been adopted at first, of cutting a lateral canal through the solid rock, about $\frac{1}{4}$ m. from the river. This new enterprise was begun under the auspices of a company incorporated in 1794, and was successfully completed in 1800. The canal is about 3 m. in length, and has about 64 ft. water. It has 8 sluices, and admits vessels of above 100 tons. In one part, it is cut through the solid rock to the depth of 73 ft. The expense was a good deal less than might have been expected, being only about 80,000*l.* The lake Wener, the navigation of which was thus opened with Gottenburg, is, as already seen, very large, and is encircled by some of the richest of the Swedish provinces, which now possess the advantage of a convenient and ready outlet for their products.

As soon as the Trollhætta canal had been completed, there could be no room for doubt as to the practicability of extending the navigation to Soderköping. In furtherance of this object the lake Wener has been joined to the lake Wetter by the Gotha canal, which admits vessels of the same size as that of Trollhætta; and the prolongation of the navigation to the Baltic from the Wetter, partly by two canals of equal magnitude with the above, and partly by lakes, is now completed. The entire undertaking is called the Gotha Navigation, and deservedly ranks among the very first of the kind in Europe. Besides the above, the canal of Arboga unites the lake Hjelmar to the lake Mølar; and, since 1819, a canal has been constructed from the latter to the Baltic at Södertelge. The canal of Stroemholm, so called from its passing near the castle of that name, has effected a navigable communication between the prov. of Dalecarlia and the lake Mølar, &c. (For further details, see *Coxe, iv. 253-266*, and *v. 58-66*; *Thomson's Travels, p. 28, &c.*)

Currency, &c.—The currency consists almost wholly of paper, and though, since 1836, bank notes may be freely exchanged for paper, there is little or no demand for the latter. The *rix-dollar banco*, in which all mercantile transactions are carried on, is worth about 20*d.* sterling; the *ricksgeld dollar*, used as the medium of exchange in ordinary transactions, being worth two thirds the former, or 13*d.* *Rix-dollars banco* are exchanged for *rix-dollars specie*, at the rate of $\frac{2}{3}$ the former for one of the latter; and all *rix-dollars* are divided into 48 skilling. The notes in circulation vary from 8 skilling to 500 dollars banco. Such is the prejudice in favour of paper money, that, in the small towns and remote districts, coins, excepting those of copper, to a small value, are often refused as payment.

Measures of Length.—The Swedish foot = 11.684 Eng. in.; the aln = 2 feet; the fathom = 3 ell; the rod = 8 ell.

Public Finances.—In 1840, the budget of revenue and expenditure was fixed for that and the following years, till the next meeting of the diet, at 10,742,568 *rix-dollars banco*, or 856,940*l.* sterling. The amount is derived as follows:—

	<i>Rix-dollars banco.</i>
Land-tax and other perpetual revenues	4,566,380
Customs, stamps, and other taxes, voted at every diet	6,176,500
Total	10,742,880

But the land-tax and other perpetual taxes being fixed long ago, constitute, in fact, a portion of the property of the country belonging to the state, and cannot justly be regarded as taxes. Hence it follows, that the total sum levied in the shape of taxes for public purposes, exclusive of the maintenance of the indelta soldiers (see post), and other local burdens, amounts to only 6,176,500 rik-dollars banco, or 514,768 sterling; so that, despite the statements of Laing and others to the contrary, there cannot be a doubt that Sweden is at this moment (1842) the most lightly taxed country of Europe.

The Government is a monarchy, hereditary in the male line, with a representative diet, one of the most ancient in Europe. The king must be a Lutheran, and his person is inviolable. He is assisted by a state council, composed of 10 members, including the ministers of justice, foreign affairs, war, marine, interior, finance, and public worship, and three councillors. The army and all foreign relations are under the immediate control of the king; but he cannot decide on any matter touching any other branch of government, without the concurrence of the council. He nominates to all appointments, both military and civil; concludes foreign treaties, declares war, and makes peace; and has right to preside in the supreme court, and to grant pardons. The princes of the blood-royal are excluded from all civil employments. The different departments of justice, war, marine, mines, commerce, &c., are called *colleges*.

The diet, or representative assembly, consists of four separate chambers, consisting respectively of deputies from the nobility, clergy, burghers, and peasants or cultivators; the latter class having acquired the privilege of sending representatives towards the end of the 15th century. Since 1820, the proprietors of iron works have obtained the privilege of sending three deputies to the chamber of burghers to watch over their interests. The king nominates the presidents or speakers of the chambers of nobles, burghers, and peasants; the archbishop of Upsal being president, *ex officio*, of the chamber of clergy. The diet is convened every *five* years, and usually sits for three or four months, but occasionally, as in 1840-41, for a much longer period. The head of every noble family is, by law, a member of the chamber of nobles; but, notwithstanding that the nobility include in all about 13,500 individuals, it is but seldom that the chamber of nobles is attended by above 500 individuals. The clergy have 60 deputies, the burghers 85, and the peasants generally from 140 to 150, chosen by the arrondissement; the deputies for the clergy, burghers, and peasants, receive salaries during the sitting of the diet from their constituents. No new tax or impost can be established without the concurrence of the diet; nor can any modification of the constitution be legally effected without the concurrence of all the chambers composing the diet.

The four chambers deliberate and vote separately; but all questions must, previously to their decision in the chambers, be referred to standing committees chosen at the commencement of the diet, consisting of an equal number of members from each order. In constitutional questions, which cannot be decided in the same diet in which they are raised, the unanimous consent of the four orders is required, but in other matters the decision of three orders is valid. When two orders are opposed to two, the subject, according to its nature, is either dropped, or referred to the decision of a special committee, composed of 30 members of each order. Differences on minor points are adjusted by the committees, to which the matter was originally referred.

In most cases the decrees of the diet must be submitted to the king, who has an absolute veto; and it is a curious circumstance, peculiar to what M. de Pradt called the *semi-constitutional* government of Sweden, that frequently the king has refused his sanction to the resolutions of the diet, and the diet has, in consequence, the proposals of the king, without occasioning a change of ministry, or exciting any deep feeling of animosity on either side. The king used his privilege of the veto to a great extent in negating measures agreed to by the diet of 1840-41. This anomaly is increased by the absolute legislative power, which the constitution confers on the king in all matters of internal administration and police, in regard to which the diet merely presents addresses and petitions expressive of their views and wishes.

Previously to the diet held immediately subsequent to the revolution of 1809, the nobility enjoyed several valuable privileges and fiscal immunities. These, however, they then wisely surrendered, stipulating only for the general freedom of trade, externally and internally—a stipulation which has not hitherto been fully carried out. The division of the diet into separate chambers, representing particular orders of the state, is, therefore, less objectionable now than formerly, though it is still necessarily productive of considerable inconvenience.

The chamber of clergy, though said by Laing to be the most enlightened and independent order of the

diet, have interests to support that are in many respects peculiar, and which may sometimes, perhaps, be opposed to those of the public, at the same time that they are mostly all more or less dependent on the crown.

The chamber of burghers consists of representatives of the guilds, trades, and corporations of the different towns. These, as every body knows, are possessed of certain franchises and immunities which go to obstruct competition, and, consequently, to enhance the cost of the articles furnished by the privileged class.

The deputies of the peasants represent by far the greater number of the people, though not the greater portion of the property of the country; and are, themselves, seldom in such circumstances as to enable them to act a really independent part. And hence, in consequence partly of the constitution of the diet, which opposes the greatest obstacles to all organic changes, how expedient soever, and partly to apparent rather than real inequalities in the privileges of the different orders, a good deal of discontent prevails in Sweden. It is, indeed, hardly possible that the present complicated and vicious system should be able to maintain its ground much longer; and the best way to avoid the recurrence of another of those revolutions so frequent in Swedish history, will be to adopt measures for obviating the defects inherent in the existing political organisation of the country, and for making the diet a representation, not of class interests, but of the intelligence and property of the kingdom. Still, however, there can be no doubt, notwithstanding the defects in its constitution, that the country has made a rapid progress during the last twenty years, and that there is every prospect of this progress being continued.

Justice.—The 34 *länas* are subdivided into 117 *fogedier*, or districts, each comprising one or more *herads*, or cantons. At the head of each *län* is placed a governor, charged with the civil and military jurisdiction, and the receipt of the revenue. Every canton is under the superintendence of a *länsmän*, who is the executive officer of the administration, and subordinate to a *fogede*, or kind of sub-prefect, with authority over *herads* or cantons. There are 364 courts of original jurisdiction, or herad courts, with a judge presiding over each. These courts sit three times a year, and 12 peasants are elected by the peasantry of each herade, who serve as jurymen for two years. There are 3 royal judicial courts; viz. at Stockholm, for the upper or N. provs; at Jonkoping, for the middle; and at Christianstad, in Scania, for the S. provs. The first has, subordinate to it, 7 inferior tribunals, the second 6, and the third 3. These are the highest courts of appeal from the inferior tribunals, and have alone jurisdiction in all criminal cases affecting life or property, as well as in all affairs above the value of 4*l.* The decisions of these courts are subject to the review of the supreme court of justice, composed of 12 councillors, and presided over by the minister of justice. There are *lagmanns* courts, to which appeal is first made from the inferior tribunals, but they are generally considered superfluous establishments. Questions of divorce are brought before the ecclesiastical courts. Although the forms of justice be little complicated, the decisions of the courts are often long delayed. A new civil and criminal code is at present in course of preparation.

State of Crime, &c.—Sweden being almost wholly an agricultural country, with but few manufactures, and only one large town, and having, also, a constitutional government, and a widely diffused system of public instruction, it might be expected, *a priori*, that it would exhibit a high state of moral feeling, and a remarkable paucity of crime. Such, however, we regret to say, is far from being the case; and though there can be no doubt that the representations as to the depravity and immorality of the Swedes, given in Mr. Laing's work, are, in the highly coloured manner in which they are presented, to a highly coloured and, in many respects, untrue picture, yet it is not to be denied that crime and immorality prevail to an extent not easily accounted for. "According to the official returns published in the *State Gazette*, the number of persons prosecuted for criminal offences before all the Swedish courts, in the year 1836, was 36,375; of whom 21,263 were convicted, 4,915 acquitted, and 98 remained under examination. In 1835, the total pop. of Sweden was 2,983,144 individuals. In this year, therefore, 1 person of every 114 of the whole nation had been accused, and 1 in every 140 persons convicted, of some criminal offence. By the same official returns it appears, that in the 5 years from 1830 to 1834 inclusive, 1 person in every 49 of the labours of the towns, and 1 in every 176 of the rural pop., had, on an average, been punished each year for criminal offences. In 1836, the number of persons tried for criminal offences, in all the courts of the kingdom, was 36,321; of whom 22,292 were condemned, 3,668 acquitted, and 945 under trial or committal. The criminal lists of this year are stated to be unusually light; yet they give a result of 1 person in every 112 of the whole pop. accused, and 1 in about every 184 convicted, of criminal offences; and, taking the pop. of the towns and the rural pop. sepa-

rately, 1 person in every 46 individuals of the former, and 1 in every 174 individuals of the latter; have been criminally convicted within the year 1836." (*Laing's Sweden*, p. 109, 110.)

This certainly is an immense amount of crime; but, when examined, it is found to be far less than it appears to be. In Sweden the police interferes with every thing; and offences of the most venial kind, and which, in fact, cannot, with any propriety, be called crimes, are, notwithstanding, punished as such, and appear in the list of criminal cases. Thus, if the peasantry neglect to repair the roads of the parishes to which they belong, or if they neglect or delay to bring horses, when required, to the posting stations, they are subjected to fine and imprisonment, and included in the list of criminals. In towns, in like manner, the neglect of sweeping chimneys, repairing and cleaning streets, &c., are reckoned criminal offences; as are drunkenness, indecency, abuse of a parent, or of a wife or husband, and so forth! Hence, it is obviously necessary, in order to the institution of any thing like a fair comparison between crime in Sweden and other countries, to strike off from the list of criminals all that numerous class guilty only of petty offences, not noticed, except in Sweden, and to include those only that are included in the criminal returns of the countries with which it is compared.

But, notwithstanding this deduction, the extent of crime in Sweden, though nothing like what it appears to be at first sight, is still unusually great. This is shown by the following specification of the criminal offences committed in Sweden in 1837, 1838, and 1839, omitting all of minor importance, or that can in any way be regarded as cases of police:—

	1837.	1838.	1839.
Bribe-taking	1	3	1
Murder (by violence)	35	24	35
— (by poison, &c.)	0	4	7
— (with arms, &c.)	0	1	0
— (child)	13	12	12
— (abortion)	8	18	15
Arson	5	8	6
Burglary and highway robbery	6	8	9
Sacrilege	8	12	15
Absconding	11	10	8
Incend, &c.	11	9	17
Perjury	11	17	4
Forgery	150	187	159
Rape	0	0	1
Total	225	309	285

In addition to the above there were, in 1837, 2,456 cases of theft; in 1838, 3,390; and in 1839, 3,814 do. But there are no means of distinguishing, in these cases, between petty or police cases, and those of a graver description. (*Art. on Sweden, Foreign Quarterly Review*, No. 58, p. 169.)

The frequency of forgery in so poor a country is a consequence of the general use of paper money, which supplies at once the greatest temptations to and facilities for the commission of the crime. On the whole, however, it is very difficult to give any satisfactory explanation of the causes of so many crimes, some of them of a very atrocious kind, that take place in Sweden, and of considerable influence has been ascribed, and with justice, to the obligation imposed on peasants, without any regular occupation or trade, of finding sureties, or bondsmen, to guarantee their payment of the taxes due to government, or else of their being subjected to imprisonment. Great stress has, also, been laid on the defective and crowded state of the prisons and houses of correction, in which, as already seen, great numbers of persons who have committed the most trifling offences, are shut up with the greatest criminals. The prevalence of dram-drinking is, no doubt, also a more prolific source of crime; as is the interruption given to the labours of the peasantry, and the idle habits generated by the posting system; and, more probably than any other, the increase of poverty arising out of the continued subdivision of the land, and the want of an efficient system for the support of the unemployed and necessitous poor.

The proportion of illegitimate to legitimate births is higher in Sweden than in most other countries. Mr. Laing has given some statements illustrative of what he considers to be the cause of this state of things. We doubt, however, whether they be entitled to much weight; and, in point of fact, a good many of the unions which give rise to illegitimate births, are really equivalent to a species of marriage, though without the sanction of the law. A good deal, also, is to be ascribed to the establishment of founding hospitals in the capital and other great towns. But, whatever may be its causes, this demoralisation is not, as Mr. Laing seems to have supposed, of recent origin. "*Il y a beaucoup de libertinage dans les grandes villes; à commencer quelquefois avant l'âge de 12 ans, et il est poussé à l'excès jusqu'à 18 ou 20. Alors les jeunes personnes deviennent sages, c'est-à-dire qu'elles n'ont plus d'un amant; et après quelques années, elles se marient, ont avantagusement pour l'ordinaire; les hommes ne*

font seule attention à la vie antérieure. (Voyage de Deux Français, II. 423.)

It is only, however, by attending to the statistical returns of criminals and convictions, that a traveller in Sweden is made to suspect the existence of any considerable amount of immorality. "Whatever," says Mr. Laing, "may be the want of morals in this country, there is no want of manners. You see no blackguardism, no brutality, no revolting behaviour. You may travel through the country, and come to the conclusion that the people are among the most virtuous in Europe." Mr. Laing further tells us that though he travelled slowly across the country, stopping every eight or ten miles at the houses at which the people are supplied with spirits, he only saw one party of peasants a little tipsy, but by no means drunk. We suspect, however, that Mr. Laing's optics had been somewhat defective, or that he had been too squeamish to look into the places or join the parties where intoxication was most likely to prevail. At all events, other and later travellers tell a very different story. There cannot, in fact, be a doubt of the frequency of drunkenness, notwithstanding it is liable to be punished by a fine of about 5s., or six days' hard labour in the house of correction.

Army.—The Swedish army comprises three different kinds of troops; viz. enlisted soldiers, always on pay and duty, *infanteria* soldiers, and the conscription, or local militia. The numbers of the two first are seen by the following table:—

Enlisted Troops.		Indelta Forces.	
Horse Guards	- 1,000	Cavalry	- 7,000
Artillery	- 5,416	Infantry	- 94,500
Infantry	- 3,800		
Total	- 8,246	Total	- 101,500

The militia is roughly estimated at about 95,000 men. The *indelta* system, which is peculiar to Sweden, originated with Gustavus Adolphus, was permanently established by Charles XI. and has continued, with some trifling modifications, in full operation to the present day. To understand it fully, it must be borne in mind that the whole of Sweden is divided into military districts or provinces, each of which is bound to contribute a certain number of men to this branch of the national force. Each holder of as much crown land as forms a *hemman* is bound to provide a man, to whom he assigns a croft of land, with a cottage, cowhouse, and barn, and an annual money allowance of about 1*l.* 8s., one suit of rough clothes, and two pair of shoes. The croft is cultivated by the soldier himself while at home; but during his absence on service with the army at the annual review, or on any government employment, it is cultivated by the landholder for behoof of the family. When the soldier dies, his widow and children transfer the house, &c., to his successor, whom the landholder, under a considerable penalty, is bound to provide within three months. To furnish a cavalry soldier with his horse, &c., two or three *hemmans* are united; but both in regard to cavalry and infantry, the provinces are divided in such a manner that the command of each regiment shall have his farm (also provided in the way just explained) as nearly as possible in the centre of the regiment; a captain in the centre of his company; and so down, through the lowest non-commissioned officers. The farms occupied by officers are large and valuable. The landholders are bound to transport the men, with their baggage, to the annual reviews, and to allow them so much a day for their expenses. Government furnishes the uniforms, and in time of war gives the men higher pay, which is afterwards raised from the landholders. In time of peace, these soldiers are turned to excellent account, by employing them on roads and other public works; and when not required for these purposes, they are bound to labour for the respective landowners, at the current rate of daily wages. The number of officers in this corps, as, indeed, in the whole Swedish army, is unusually small, there being only one officer to about every 40 men, while, in France and Austria, there is an officer to every 12." (*Brenner*, 408.) Sundays are the usual days of inspection. Mr. Brenner and other travellers speak in the highest terms of the fine appearance of the Swedish troops.

The militia consist entirely of foot soldiers, provided with clothing, arms, &c., by the government. The artillery train is composed of about 220 pieces of various calibre. The chief arsenals are at Stockholm, Gothenburg, and Christianstad. The principal fortresses are, Wana, on the lake Wetter; Waxholm, near Stockholm; Carlscrona, and Christianstad. In the island of Gothland, where there are no lands fit for the maintenance of the troops, all the male inhabs. between the ages of 20 and 50 may be called on to take arms in defence of the island, if attacked.

The annual expense to the country of an *indelta* regiment of 1,900 men, amounts to about 8,900*l.* sterling. The whole cost of the army and fortresses, exclusive of

the maintenance of the *Indelta* troops, is fixed in the budget of 1840 at 4,106,110 rik.-doll. banco, equivalent to about 343,000*l.* a year.

Navy.—The naval force of Sweden consisted in 1840 of 10 ships of the line, 8 frigates, 8 brigs, &c., and 247 gun-boats, 3 royal yachts, and sundry steam-vessels. The permanent seamen at command of the government may amount to about 8,000 men. They are maintained in the same way as the *Indelta* troops, by assignments of lands. Together with conscripts, the whole naval force may be augmented to about 34,000 men. The Swedes are excellent sailors, and especially skilful in the management of small craft. The chief naval stations are Carlscrona, Stockholm, and Gottenburg. The annual expense of the navy amounts to 1,331,430 r. doll. banco, or about 110,000*l.*

The Religion of the state, and of nearly all the inhabs., is the Lutheran; there being only about 2,000 Catholics, and under 1,000 Jews. There is one archbishopric, that of Upsala; and 11 bishoprics. The functions of public worship are exercised by about 3,000 ecclesiastics.

The higher order of the clergy are nominated by the king from lists presented by each diocese: the election of curates and others of the inferior orders, is left to the people at large. The revenues of the clergy generally are derived from church lands, &c.: the bishops receive, in addition, a tithe on corn, and one from the inhabs. of the four or five parishes surrounding the episcopal residences. The revenue of the archbishop of Upsala does not exceed 800*l.* a year. The richest bishopric, that of Linköping, is worth about 600*l.* a year. The bishop of Hernoand has scarcely 340*l.* a year. The clergy are an important body.

All sects are tolerated in Sweden, but with this important restriction, that Lutherans only can be advanced to any employment under the state. According to Laing, the people, generally speaking, are extremely superstitious.

The churches are generally well kept, and great attention is paid to the outward forms and ceremonials of religion. Much more liberality is shown towards Jews in Sweden than in Norway; and there are synagogues at Stockholm, Gottenburg, Norrköping, and Carlscrona. A dissenting sect called *Läsaer*, or readers, has lately become very numerous in Lapland and the N. parts of the country. "In Sweden, generally, all kinds of amusements begin the moment that public worship is over—in the country, dancings and drinking; in the capital and large towns, theatres, equestrian exhibitions, rope-dancing, balls, &c. In fact, the Swedes appear to regard the sabbath as terminated with the service of the day; but to atone for shortening it so much, they commence its observance, at least in the rural parishes, at six o'clock on the Saturday evening. As soon as the sabbath strikes at week-day labour ceases, the whole family clean themselves, and the devotions of the evening are begun." (*Brenner's Excursions in the North of Europe*, II. 329.)

Public Instruction.—Elementary instruction is in a very advanced state in Sweden. Every adult person must give proof of ability to read the scriptures before he can exercise any act of majority; and notwithstanding the dispersion of the pop., it is said that there is not one individual in 1,000 of the adult pop. unable to read. Parents in the humblest circumstances are all able to give instruction in reading and writing to their children. No qualification is required in a teacher by the local authorities other than good character, it being left to the public to decide as to the capacity of the teacher, and the merits of his modes of instruction.

There are two universities, viz. those of Upsal and Lund, at either of which the instruction is of a very superior description. Subordinate to these are the gymnasia or provincial high-schools, in which are taught the branches of education necessary for the students before they enter the universities. In 1830 there were 3,060 establishments for elementary instruction, attended by 11,195 pupils, of whom 573 belonged to the class of nobles, 1,410 to the clergy, 3,499 to public functionaries, 2,899 to burghers, and 2,815 to the peasantry. The budget for 1842 and subsequent years includes the sum of 82,407*l.*, appropriated for the use of the ecclesiastical department, universities, schools, &c.

An academy for perfecting the Swedish language was founded by Gustavus III. In 1786, and a royal academy of sciences originally established by Linnaeus. There are special schools for the military and naval arts, vice, and others of history, antiquities, *belles-lettres*, &c.

Public Press.—The press is free by law, every man being responsible for what he publishes. In 1812, however, a temporary power for the seizure of periodical publications was granted by the diet, and has been since continued, notwithstanding the efforts to obtain its abolition. Upwards of 80 newspapers are published in the kingdom, 19 of which are issued in Stockholm. Several, however, consist almost entirely of advertisements, which, as they pay no tax, are very numerous, and are employed as the means of transacting business among

even the lower orders. In all offices of the press the same jury officiates both as grand and petty jury, there being no revision or appeal from the first decision of the court.

Arts, &c.—The arts and sciences have been successfully cultivated in Sweden. Antiquities formed the first objects of national research; but their study was superseded in the time of Linnaeus and Scheele by that of natural history and chemistry. The reign of Gustavus III. was the most flourishing period of the arts and literature. The Swedes annually import from 6,000*l.* to 7,000*l.* worth of foreign books, mostly French, English, and German. Among distinguished authors and men of science, Sweden has produced Linnaeus, Tycho-Brabe, Scheele, Bergman, Puffendorf, Berzelius, &c. The taste of the ancient Scandinavians for music appears in the present day to have descended to only the higher and middle classes. At Stockholm there is an opera, which, as well as the theatre at Gottenburg, is regularly open during a part of the year.

Race.—With the exception of a few Finns and Lapplanders, in the more northerly parts of the kingdom, the inhabs. of Sweden are wholly of Gothic descent. The Finns, however, are supposed to have at one time occupied the whole country, and to have been driven to the forests and fastnesses of the north by an irruption of Goths some centuries before our era. And, whatever truth there may be in this theory, it is, at all events, certain that, as no irruption of any other tribe has taken place into Sweden since the supposed Gothic invasion, the blood of the Goths must be found there in a state of comparative purity. The description of the Germans given by Tacitus might, indeed, be applied to the Swedes of the central and southern parts of the kingdom, who are a tall, robust, fine race of men, with fair complexions, light hair, and blue eyes. But to the N. of 62° or 63° lat., these characteristics begin to disappear; light hair becoming uncommon, and the complexion being frequently brown, and even tawny.

During the disastrous period from 1800 to 1810 there was a progressive diminution of the pop.; but since the accession of his present majesty, a great change for the better has taken place. The pop. which amounted to 2,584,690 in 1800, had increased to 3,109,773 in 1830, being an increase of 525,000. And the produce both of corn and potatoes having increased still more rapidly, it follows that the pop. is not only increased in amount, but, which is of more importance, has acquired a proportionally greater command over necessaries and conveniences.

Historical Notice.—The early history of Sweden is obscure, and has little interest, at least to foreigners. The Swedes being discontented with their king, Albert of Mecklenburg, who had been raised to the throne, in 1363, Margaret, Queen of Denmark, styled the Semiramis of the North, a princess of extraordinary talent, availed herself of the opportunity to establish her authority in Sweden. In this object she was completely successful; and by the famous treaty of Calmar, concluded in 1397, the three kingdoms of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway were united under the sway of Margaret. But the Swedes speedily became dissatisfied with this union; and the cruel and tyrannical proceedings of Christian II. excited a rebellion that terminated in the emancipation of Sweden. The famous Gustavus Vasa led the Swedes in their struggle for independence. He hoisted the standard of revolt in 1520; and having entered Stockholm in triumph, in 1523, was raised by the unanimous suffrages of his fellow citizens to the throne. Gustavus, who subsequently introduced the Protestant religion, died in 1560, in the 70th year of his age, and the 40th of his reign. "Equally great as a legislator, a warrior, and a politician, he distinguished himself in every station; whether we consider his cool intrepidity in interposing spirit, his high integrity, and political foresight, his talents for legislation, his attachment to letters, and encouragement of learning, his affability, and his solid and enlightened piety. These great qualities, set off by a graceful and majestic person, and heightened by the most commanding eloquence, drew general esteem and admiration; and it may be justly said of him, that the most arbitrary monarch never exercised a more unbounded sway over his vassals, than Gustavus possessed from the voluntary affection of his free-born subjects." (*Coxe*, IV. 138.)

Eric, the son and immediate successor of Gustavus, manifested symptoms of that insanity, which, unhappily, has since been exhibited on more than one occasion by the princes of the house of Vasa. Gustavus Adolphus, grandson of Gustavus Vasa, ascended the throne in 1611. Under this great prince, who was at once an enlightened ruler and the greatest general of his time, the glory and power of Sweden attained to a maximum. At the outset of his reign he was involved in hostilities with the Russians, the Poles, and the Danes, which he terminated with the most triumphant success, having acquired Ingria and Carolia from the Russians, Livonia from the Poles,

with sundry valuable territories from the Danes. These successes, and his reputation for ability and disinterestedness, naturally made him the leader of the Protestant party, in the struggle they had to wage against the power and ambition of the house of Austria. And though his glorious and successful career was prematurely terminated by his death at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632, his exertions were mainly instrumental in bringing about that freedom of religious worship, and that equal distribution of power, established by the treaty of Westphalia.

The success that had attended the arms of Sweden under Gustavus, continued to attend them under his daughter Christina, who abdicated the throne in 1654, and his other successors down to Charles XII., who became king in 1697.

This extraordinary individual, celebrated alike for his successful exploits and his reverses, well nigh consummated the ruin of Sweden. Inflexible in his resolutions, which were inspired by an ambition that was closely allied to madness, the success that attended his early campaigns made him regard every thing as possible, and precipitated him into the most extravagant projects. But the battle of Poltava (which see) put an end to his career of conquest; reduced him to the condition of a fugitive; and gave Russia a lasting ascendancy over Sweden.*

Charles XI. and Charles XII. enjoyed a nearly absolute authority; but the calamities entailed on the country by the folly, or rather insanity of the latter, led, on the accession of his sister Ulrika Eleonora to the crown, to the enacting of limitations, by which the royal authority was very materially circumscribed. It was, however, again enlarged in 1772.

Gustavus the III. having been assassinated in 1792, was succeeded by Gustavus IV. then a minor. As soon as this prince had been declared major he embroiled himself in hostilities with France, from which Sweden certainly had nothing to fear. He next engaged in a quixotic contest with Russia; and when the latter had overrun Finland and was threatening an attack on Stockholm, he had the unparalleled folly to reject the assistance of 10,000 English troops who had landed at Gothenburg! Under these circumstances the detronement of the king became indispensable to the safety of the state; and this was effected by a bloodless revolution in 1809, when his uncle, who took the title of Charles XIII., was raised to the throne, prince Christian of Holstein-

Augustenberg, being, at the same time, declared crown prince and successor. On the premature death of the latter Marshal Bernadotte, prince of Ponte Corvo, was elected successor to the crown by a Diet held at Orebro in 1810; and having accepted the honour, he soon after arrived in Sweden, of which he became king on the death of Charles XIII. in 1818.

There can be no question that the revolution which brought Marshal Bernadotte to Sweden has been of vast advantage to that kingdom. The taint of insanity in the princes of the house of Vasa, even had it been less obvious than in the cases of Charles XII. and Gustavus IV., was quite sufficient to justify a change of dynasty. And if great services, a mild, equitable, and enlightened system of government, and an unblemished private character, be any title to the esteem and affection of a people, few princes had a better claim than Charles-John to the esteem and regard of their subjects. (Exclusive of the works referred to in the course of this article, we have derived much valuable information from private parties in Sweden.)

SWINKMUNDE, a town of Prussia, in Pomerania, on the E. coast of the island of Usedom, on the middle mouth of the Oder, or rather of the lagoon, or sea, which receives it previously to its falling into the sea, lat. 53° 56' N., long. 11° 15' 15" E. Pop. 8,000. It is the outpost of Stettin; all vessels destined for the latter, that draw more than 7 or 8 ft. water, being obliged to load and unload by means of lighters at Swinkmunde. Formerly there were not more than 7 ft. water over the bar at the river's mouth; but it has recently been so much improved by dredging, the construction of piers, &c., that vessels drawing from 19 to 21 ft. water, come to the quays of Swinkmunde, and its port is now the very best on the whole S. coast of the Baltic. In 1840 there arrived at the port 1,744 vessels of the aggregate burden of 170,348 tons, the value of the imports for the same year being estimated at 1,328,900. (See STETTIN.)

SWITZERLAND (an. *Helvetia*, including part of *Rætia*), an inland and mountainous country of Central Europe, lying between Germany on the N. and E., Italy on the S., and France on the W. It lies principally between the 46th and 48th degs. of N. lat., and the 6th and 11th of E. long. Its greatest length N. and W. is 210 m.; greatest breadth N. and S. 140 m. It is a republic formed by the union of 22 confederated states, or cantons, the area pop., &c., of which are as follows:—

Cantons.	Area in sq. m.	Pop. at end of March, 1850.					
		Citizens of canton.	Citizens of other cantons.	Foreigners.	Total pop.	Pop. to sq. m.	Roman Catholics. Protestants.
Zurich	685.3	235,019	11,184	2,373	250,596	365.8	6,590 245,928
Berne	2,561.5	453,108	18,163	6,763	478,034	178.8	54,044 403,993
Lucerne	587.4	128,051	4,196	349	132,816	226.1	121,274 1,572
Schwytz	338.3	42,779	1,432	186	44,168	130.2	44,015 165
Uri	420.8	13,826	666	40	14,503	34.4	14,403 12
Unterwalden (Upper)	262.8	19,882	676	80	20,799	95.6	12,783 15
(Lower)	147.9	10,567	570	38	11,339	107.7	11,327 12
Glarus	279.8	38,969	978	148	40,138	107.9	38,938 26,811
Zug	85.4	14,723	2,301	106	17,463	204.4	17,394 139
Friburg	563.9	91,121	7,573	1,335	99,890	177.1	87,792 12,133
Solothurn (Soleure)	254.6	61,044	11,632	353	69,617	275.6	61,556 8,497
Basle (city)	11.4	11,414	11,412	619	23,698	2,098.8	23,698 24,835
(canton)	184.6	39,014	7,071	1,782	47,945	259.7	47,909 24,818
Schaffhausen	119.7	31,445	2,272	362	34,300	294.9	34,111 33,880
Appenzell (Out. Rhodes)	158.8	30,723	289	74	31,272	196.8	31,230 41
(Int. Rhodes)	157.8	30,729	3,216	474	43,821	278.2	43,746 42
St. Gall	747.7	150,974	15,110	2,358	169,625	228.1	105,570 64,192
Grisons	2,968.0	81,177	3,278	1,190	89,895	30.2	38,038 51,855
Aargau (Aargovis)	502.4	180,558	7,889	968	190,852	397.7	91,006 107,101
Thurgau (Thurgovia)	268.3	87,280	5,748	1,302	88,908	328.6	87,921 66,984
Ticino (Tessin)	1,034.7	109,122	11,137	2,307	117,759	113.8	117,707 80
Vaud	1,181.9	177,038	17,215	2,353	199,545	168.6	76,968 192,535
Valais	1,651.6	79,423	3,166	890	84,059	69.3	83,994 24,835
Neuchâtel	280.1	41,353	21,131	4,390	70,753	252.3	5,570 64,952
Geneva	91.3	39,766	9,141	13,142	61,446	702.5	29,764 24,812
Totals	15,253.0	2,163,000	157,898	71,462	2,395,178	157.2	974,187 1,417,681

Physical Geography.—Simond has not inaptly remarked, that "Some idea may be formed of the Helvetic geography by comparing the country to a large town, of which the valleys are the streets, and the mountains groups of contiguous houses." (*Travels in Switzerland*, 141.) Indeed, by far the larger portion of Switzerland consists of mountains, comprising many of the highest summits of the Alps. There is, however, a considerable extent of flat ground in the N.W., in the cantons of Friburg, Berne, and Solothurn. The general distribution of the great Alpine chains in the S. and E. parts of Switzerland has been already noticed in the article ALPS, in this Dict., i. 67—69., and need only briefly indicated here. Two great parallel chains, enclosing the Valais, extend between Mount Blanc, in Savoy, near the S.W. boundary of Switzerland, and Mount St. Gothard. To the most southerly of these chains, called the Pennine

Alps, belong Mount Rosa, 15,150 ft., and Mount Cervin, or the Mitterhorn, 14,826 ft. in height. (*Sauserwe.*) To the N. chain, or the Bernese Alps, belong the Finsteraarhorn, 14,065 ft., the Monch, 13,487 ft., the Jungfrau, 13,717 ft. in height, &c. (*Tralles*). E. of Mount St. Gothard, which may be considered the central point of the Swiss Alps, the Rætian Alps stretch through the Grisons; while on the N., other chains cover with their ramifications most part of the four Forest cantons (Lucerne, Schwytz, Unterwalden, and Uri). Among the loftiest summits of the Rætian Alps are the Dödlberg, 11,765 ft.; Muschelhorn, 10,807 ft. in height. (*Tralles*). The Alps of the Forest cantons have several summits, as the Gallenstock, Stoschenhorn, &c., the height of which is but little inferior. Most of the preceding chains have a general direction from S.W. to N.E. But the direction of the main ranges throughout the rest of Switzerland is generally towards the S.W. country. In the W., however, beyond the lakes of Neuchâtel and Bièvre, the slope of the surface is towards the N.E. The moun-

* The life of Charles XII., by Voltaire, is one of the most interesting pieces of biography ever published. See also the admirable character of Charles XII. by Dr. Johnson, *Famity of Human Weakness*, v. 147.

tain-system of this part of Switzerland is that of the Jura (see *encl.*, 95.); a system composed of several parallel ranges of mountains, inclosing very long and narrow valleys, but nowhere rising to 6,000 ft. in height. (*Bruguière, Orographie de l'Europe; Pictet, Ebel, &c.*)

The great rivers Rhine, Rhone, Inn, Ticino, and Doubs (see the names), have their sources in Switzerland; after which, the chief river is the Aar. The Aar (see the article) rises at the foot of the Finsteraarhorn, and runs at first E., but afterwards N.W. through the lakes of Brienz and Thun, to about 9 m. W. Berne, when it turns N.E., and finally falls into the Rhine, near Kilbengenau, after a course of about 175 m. This river, which drains by far the greater part of Switzerland, receives on the right the Emmen, Wigger, Sur, Reuss, Linmat, &c.; and on the left, the Simmen, Saane, and Thiele. Untereisen, Thun, Berne, Solothurn, and Aarau are on its banks. The Thur and Birs, tributaries of the Rhine, are the only other streams that deserve notice.

Switzerland has a greater number of lakes than any other tract of country of equal extent in Europe, excepting, perhaps, the grand duchy of Finland. All these lakes are navigable, and remarkable for the depth and purity of their waters, and their great variety of fish. The following is a

STATEMENT showing the probable Area, Height of Surface above the Sea Level, and greatest ascertained Depth of the principal Swiss Lakes.

Lakes.	Area in sq. m.	Height above Sea.	Greatest Depth.
		ft.	ft.
Geneva, or Lemnan	240	1,300	1,012
Constance	800	1,355	964
Neuchâtel	90	1,730	400
Lucerne	45	1,330	900
Zürich	-	1,262	640
Thun	-	1,806	180
Brienz	-	1,902	500
Zug	-	1,385	1,274?
Monne	-	1,600	1,119
Wallenstadt	-	1,233	500
Sempach	-	1,748	-

The lakes Maggiore and Lugano are partly, also, in Switzerland. A notice of most of these lakes will be found in this work under their several heads, or those of the different cantons in which they are situated.

Switzerland is almost wholly composed of primary and sedimentary rocks: volcanic formations are rare. The geological constitution of the mountain chains has been already noticed. (Alps, Jura, &c.) The central portion of the Alps consists of granite, gneiss, porphyry, and other primary rocks, inclosed successively by transition and secondary formations: the Jura is wholly of a remarkable limestone formation. But the region between the Alps and the Jura is occupied with a peculiar formation of green sandstone, called *molasse*, or *sageflasse*, alternating occasionally with limestone and grauwacké, which extends throughout all the lower parts of Switzerland into S. Germany. This deposit has been classed with those of a tertiary kind, and Brongniart and other geologists suspected it to be of a date posterior to the formation of the Paris basin. For particulars respecting the complicated geology of Switzerland, the reader may consult the works of Saussure, Humboldt, Brongniart, Lyell, &c.

The mineral riches of the mountains are but little known or explored; a few iron mines in the Jura being the only ones that deserve notice. There are numerous mineral springs, many of which are resorted to medicinally; and those at Bex, and others in the canton of Basle, furnish considerable quantities of salt. A few insignificant coal beds have been met with; but the remaining mineral products of any value are mostly confined to slate, marble, gypsum, granite, and other kinds of building stone.

The climate is not only dependent on elevation, but on the influence exercised by the glaciers in cooling the atmosphere, the openings and exposure of the valleys, &c. But, on the whole, Switzerland is a much colder country than its lat. and situation in Europe would appear to warrant. At Berne, the mean annual temp. is about 46° Fah.; at Basle, 46°; and at Geneva (1,200 ft. above the sea), 46½° Fah. The climate in the Alpine regions is believed by some to have become colder in recent times; since the line of perpetual snow (which here varies from about 9,200 to 9,600 ft. above the sea) has certainly descended lower, as compared with a former period; the glaciers have increased in number; and many tracts are now bare, which were formerly covered with forests and pasture-grounds.

The vegetable products of nearly all the different zones of continental Europe are found in Switzerland. The Valais, which has the widest range of vegetation among the Swiss cantons, produces, without culture, nearly 2,000 species of plants, exclusive of 1,000 *cryptogamia*. In

respect of its vegetable products, the country may be classed into 7 distinct regions or zones, according to its elevation, as follows:—

Regions.	Productions.
Lower Region - ft. to ft., 1,100	Limit of the vine. In lower parts of Tessin and Valais, the fig, pomegranate, &c.
Forest do. - 1,100 - 3,500	Limit of the elm. Buckwheat and maize to 3,500 ft. Chestnut common to 5,000 ft.
Beech do. - 3,500 - 5,500	Flax, hemp, and barley flourish at 4,000 ft., about which Italian apricot, ash, and wild cherry come in.
Pine and fir do. 5,500 - 6,800	Neither potatoes, apples, or pears grown.
Lower Alpine do. 6,800 - 8,500	Limit of trees of every kind. Includes some good pasture land.
Upper do. - 8,500 - snow line.	Only shrubs and Alpine plants.
Snow region, above line of perpetual snow.	Swiss rags, <i>opuntia</i> , <i>helle</i> , <i>gastrea</i> , <i>chrysanthemum</i> , &c.

There are, no doubt, various exceptions to this table, consequent on difference of lat., position, &c.; but it may be considered as applying to the country generally. (*Wallenberg, De Veget. in Helv.; Kestner, Pöpyer, &c.; Note in Foreign Quarterly Review*, 1. 310-313.)

Among the wild animals of Switzerland are the bear, wolf, lynx, wild boar, chamois, ibex, deer, and game of all kinds, the marmot, ermine, &c. The chamois is becoming scarce. The remarkable variety of the sparrow, so useful, and the breed of which is preserved with such care at the hospice of St. Bernard, is of Spanish descent, and frequently attains the height of 3 ft. and the length of 6 ft. The birds of prey comprise numerous species of eagles and vultures, one of which latter, the *Jammerger* (lamb-destroyer), is said to be the largest native bird of Europe. Salmon, trout, carp, &c. inhabit the lakes. There is also one venomous serpent, the *Coluber asper*; but the insect tribes are more numerous than we might be led to suppose from the rugged and elevated nature of the country.

Property, Agriculture, &c.—Switzerland is a country of small proprietors. An estate of 150 or 300 acres, belonging to an individual, worth perhaps from 900. to 1000. a year, would be considered large every where, except in the canton of Tessin, or the Emmenthal, in Berne, and a few other districts, where local customs exist to prevent the too great division of property. Except in certain of these districts, the property of individuals is at their death divided in equal shares among their children, without respect to sex or seniority. In certain cantons, however, as Glarus, landed property cannot be left to any one not a direct descendant, and, failing such heirs, it becomes the property of the government. Indeed, several of the cantons and governments, as that of Berne, and the greater number of the towns, possess a very great extent of landed property. But this is generally apportioned in small lots to the different parties having right to it, or is depastured in common. Switzerland, in fact, is almost wholly a pastoral country: little corn is produced, and the crops are scanty and precarious. Cattle, sheep, and goats constitute the chief riches and dependence of the inhabs. There are, generally speaking, no farmers; each proprietor farming his own small portion of land, and the mountainous tracts belonging to the different communities being, as already stated, depastured in common. No foreigners can become possessors of land, nor can native Jews in several of the cantons.

Switzerland has been estimated to comprise 2,250,000 *morgen* arable land, 900,000 do. land in artificial pastures, 120,000 do. vineyards, and 2,400,000 do. forests. (*Neigebauer's Schweiz. Hlg. Bruckmann*, xxi. 51.) It is only in the canton of Thurgau that corn is produced in any considerable quantity, and even there the growth does not exceed two thirds the required supply. In Uri no corn is raised; and in certain parts of the Bernese Oberland wheat is treated as an exotic, and trained carefully over twigs! Rye, oats, and barley are principally cultivated; maize, however, is grown in some parts in considerable quantities. Beans, lentils, potatoes, turnips, pumpkins, flax, hemp, woad, madder, poppies, and tobacco are also grown, but to an insignificant extent. Vines flourish in several of the cantons; as on the shores of the lake of Geneva, Vaud, the Valais, Neuchâtel, Aargau, &c. The canton of Neuchâtel has been estimated to produce, at an average, about 700,000 galls, 400,000 of which, at least, are sold in the neighbouring cantons. The manufacture of sparkling wine, in imitation of champagne, has of late years been on the increase in Neuchâtel, and from 130,000 to 140,000 bottles are now annually exported. Along the banks of the Lake of Constance, and in the cantons on the Rhine, apple, pear, and cherry orchards are numerous; and elder, perry, kirschwasser, &c. are made in large quantities.

"Vineyard husbandry," says Mr. Läng, "is altogether

a garden cultivation, in which manual labour, unassisted by animal power, scarcely even by the simplest mechanical contrivance, does every operation; and this gives the character to all their husbandry: hand labour is applied to all crops, such as potatoes, Indian corn, and even common grain crops, more extensively, both in digging and clearing the land, than with us. It is not uncommon to find agricultural villages without a horse; and all cultivation done by the hand, especially where the main article of husbandry is either dairy produce or that of the vineyard." (*Notes of a Traveller*, p. 355.)

Cows, goats, and sheep, as already stated, constitute the principal wealth of the Swiss, the inhabitants of the manufacturing towns excepted; or, to discriminate more accurately, the goats, in a great measure, support the poorer class, while the cows supply the cheese, from which the richer derive their limited wealth. The Swiss peasant is extremely fond of his cow; and to pass the winter without a cow to care for would be to him extremely irksome. The cantons of Glarus, the Grisons, Appenzel, Berne, Tessin, and the Valais, are those most distinguished for the extent and excellence of their pastures.

With little exception, all the land not covered with forests, in the cantons of Schwytz and Uri, is used for the pasturage of cattle. The Alpine pastures are estimated, not by their extent, but by the number of cows they will maintain: in the lower Alps about 3 acres, and in the upper from 10 to 15 acres, being the usual average allowed to each. In several of the W. cantons, these pastures are mostly private property; in the E. they commonly belong to the canton, being apportioned among the different parishes, each having its *alp*, or common pasture for its cows. Each inhabitant is entitled to a share of this pasture from June to October. Few individuals, however, have such a number of cows as would repay the labour of attending them in summer on the mountains, properties being in general so small as rarely to be able to maintain above five or six cows in winter, and usually, indeed, not more than half that number. The practice, therefore, is for parishes to hire herdsmen and assistants to take care of the cows in summer when on the mountains, and to make the cheese. The owners of the cows get credit daily for the quantity of milk furnished by their cows; and the produce of the sale of cheese at the end of the season, the expenses being deducted, is divided amongst them in proportion to the total quantity of milk furnished by each. (*Laing's Notes of a Traveller*, 351.) When let, the mountain pastures are rented from the middle of May to the middle of Sept., the cattle being kept in the lowlands during the remaining eight months of the year. The term of the lease on which they are let rarely exceeds a summer. Six or eight goats, or about four calves, sheep, or hogs, are deemed, as to feeding, equivalent to a cow; but a horse is reckoned equal to five or six cows, because he roots up the grass. The Swiss cows are very handsome animals, and so valuable that, even in Switzerland, they fetch about 20*l.* each. They yield more milk than those of Lombardy, where they are in great demand. In some parts of Switzerland, with 40 cows, a cheese of 48 lbs. may be made daily; and in the vicinity of Altdorf, they make, in the course of 100 days, from the 20th of June two cheeses daily of 25 lbs. each, from the milk of 18 cows. Cheese appears to have been an important article of export from Switzerland from a remote period. Many varieties are made; the most celebrated of which are those of Schabzieger (see GLARUS), and of Neuchâtel and Gruyère (which see). About 30,000 cwt. Gruyère cheese is said to be annually exported; and from the middle of July to Oct., about 300 horses are employed in transporting Swiss cheeses over Mount Grims.

The total number of cattle in Switzerland has been vaguely estimated at 800,000, of which 500,000 are cows. (*Schweiz*.) They are principally of two distinct breeds: one of large size, with branching horns, mostly inhabiting the lower parts of the country; and another called the *Oberlander*, a small and inferior species, confined chiefly to the Alps. The best cattle are those of the Simmenthal, the district of Saanen, and the cantons of Friburg and Solothurn; the last being especially remarkable for the excellence of its oxen. Cows, as well as oxen, are employed for the plough. The horses, though not handsome, are strong and spirited, and well adapted for cavalry and artillery service, for which they are exported to France and elsewhere. Asses and mules are bred in the S. cantons, where they are mostly used for the conveyance of passengers and merchandise. The stock of sheep is estimated at half a million, and of goats at about the same number. There are two varieties of sheep, one native covered with a coarse white wool; and the other a Flemish breed, with fine wool of a dun and yellowish colour. But sheep are not a favourite stock, and it is only in a few places that the improvement of their fleeces, by crossing with merino, has been at all attended to. Hogs are of a large but coarse breed, and are principally kept in the Fore cantons.

The urgent necessity of collecting fodder for the sup-

port of the cattle during winter makes the collection of grass for hay a work of paramount importance. Hence, wherever it is found it is carefully collected; and the peasants, having *crampans* on their shoes, to prevent them slipping, gather hay in places inaccessible to cattle. Grass, not three inches high, is sometimes cut three times a year; and in the valleys, the fields are shaven as close as a bowling-green, and all the inequalities clipped as with a pair of scissors. In Switzerland, as in Norway, the art of mowing seems to be carried to its highest perfection, and no where is so much skill and attention displayed in harvesting corn and hay. But arable and meadow cultivation are both in a backward state, owing principally to the pertinacity with which the people reject innovations, and cling to old and defective methods of husbandry. On arable lands fallow takes place every 4th or 5th year, and the culture of turnips for cattle feeding is unknown. Great attention is, however, paid to the collection of both solid and liquid manure, but they are said not to be very judiciously employed; and the neglect of irrigation, which might almost every where be easily effected, and the rudeness of agricultural implements, especially ploughs, are obvious. (*Kasthofer, Voyage dans les Petits Cantons et dans les Alpes Rhéniennes*.)

The wages of agricultural labour are low; but, on the whole, the rural pop. may be considered well off. Mr. Symonds says, that "it would require 50*s.* a week in England, in the neighbourhood of any country town, to put a man, his wife, and 3 children (2 of whom shall be above 15 years of age), in the same condition, and in all physical respects, on a footing with the average of Swiss artisan peasants having the same family." (*Rep. on Swiss Handloom Weavers*.) We incline, however, to think that this is a very exaggerated statement; and from all that we can learn, the agricultural labourers in most parts of England and Scotland have no reason to envy the condition of those of Switzerland. The diet of the Swiss consists more of porridge than is general in England, and much more milk and cheese is consumed. In other respects, wine and cider being substituted for beer, the catalogue of articles of food is much the same among the peasantry in both countries. The houses inhabited by the rural pop. are mostly of wood, but capacious, and furnished generally with all the articles required for daily use. The herdsmen who tend the cattle in the Alpine pastures are lodged in *châlets*, or rude log huts formed of the trunks of pines, and having rarely any furniture, except the necessary dairy utensils.

Chamois hunting, fishing in the lakes, and boat building, employ some of the inhabs. in the intervals of agricultural industry, but to no great extent. A great number of Swiss emigrate to foreign countries, where they act as valets, and embark in various trades, especially those of confectioners and bakers; always returning, however, to spend or invest their gains in their native land. The Swiss have also been for centuries the *condottieri* of Europe; and have always been ready to barter their blood and bravery, or to enter into the military service of any sovereign or republic that chose to purchase their services, and to support any cause, however unprincipled or unjust. There were formerly numerous Swiss regiments in the service of France and Spain; and they are still extensively employed by the king of Naples, the Pope, and the king of Sardinia. A Swiss, in fact, will do any thing for money, and nothing without it. Hence the proverb, *point d'argent, point de Suisse*. The foreign mercenaries are extremely economical; and such of them as survive return home with all that they have been able to amass.

Manufactures.—Notwithstanding the geographical disadvantages of Switzerland, the inhabs. have carried some branches of manufacturing industry to a considerable state of advancement. Various parts of the country have indeed, been noted since the 18th century for their manufactures; and despite the competition of this and other countries, they are now more extensively carried on than ever. It is impossible, however, from their being almost wholly domestic, to estimate the number of persons employed, or the annual value of the produce of any of the Swiss manufactures. Most part of the agricultural inhabs. are almost wholly occupied during winter at the loom, or in other branches of manufacturing industry; and they also engage in them during the evenings throughout the year, and when their little patch of land does not require their attention. In the districts devoted to hand-loom labour from 1 to 4 looms are usually to be found in a cottage; the weavers being furnished with the warp, wool, &c., by the manufacturers, to whom they return the woven goods. A line drawn through Switzerland in a N.N.E. direction, across the canton of Friburg, and through the Saanen, pretty accurately divides the German from the French pop., each portion of which presents in its manufactures some distinguishing characteristic of its origin. In the French cantons the manufacture of watches, musical boxes, jewellery, &c., are most extensively carried on; while

cotton and silk fabrics are the principal employment of the inhabs. of the E. and N.E. cantons. In the Grisons, and the Italian cantons S. of the Swiss Alps, there are few, if any, manufactures. The principal manufacturing cantons of German Switzerland are Appenzell (outer Rhodes), St. Gall, Thurgau, Zurich, Aargau, and Basle; and in the French part of the country those of Geneva and Neuchâtel. Appenzell and St. Gall are the principal seats of the cotton trade, which Mr. Symons has roughly estimated to employ between 600,000 and 700,000 spindles. Raw cotton is imported from England, France, Holland, and Trieste; cotton twist of the higher numbers being almost wholly brought from England. Cotton printing is conducted to some extent in Neuchâtel, where the quality of the water, and perhaps other physical circumstances, conspire to produce brilliant and beautiful colours, in which, indeed, consists the whole excellence of the Swiss goods. The silk manufacture is mostly conducted in Zurich and Basle. The raw silk is drawn from various foreign states, but chiefly from Lombardy, from which country also four fifths of the organsins are brought. The watch-making trade in Geneva and Neuchâtel is of very great importance. (See the articles.) France furnishes to Switzerland about 50,000 movements (*ébauches*) annually, and receives all her fine works and watches from the Swiss manufacturers. The watch-making business in France is in reality of no great importance, most of the artisans being employed in what is called the *répasse* of the works originally produced in Switzerland. (*Bouring's Rep.*, p. 12.) Nearly 120,000 watches are made annually in the elevated regions of Neuchâtel, and many more, besides jewellery, in the canton of Geneva, a large portion being smuggled into France. Linen fabrics, damasks, &c., rivaling those of Belgium, are made in Berne, in which canton, however, there are few manufactures of consequence except those of linen. In addition to the above, woollen cloths, paper, leather, straw plait, iron goods, &c., are made in various places, but many of these have declined in favour of those above specified.

It is easy to see that the foundation of Swiss manufactures is laid in the peculiar distribution of property in the country, and the necessities of the inhabs. Most families have a small patch of land; but as its cultivation does not occupy half their time, and is besides unable to afford them more than a scanty supply of the most indispensable necessities, they naturally endeavour to eke out their limited means by engaging in weaving and such like employments. And inasmuch as all they make in these employments is so much clear gain, so much added to the fund on which they must otherwise subsist, it is plain they can afford to work at the lowest possible rate of wages; and, in point of fact, their eulogists, Symons and Bouring, admit that their wages are reduced to the smallest pittance.

The Swiss, from their situation in the centre of Europe, are obliged to pay an enhanced price for their cotton and yarn; so that their whole advantage consists in their being able to reduce wages to next to nothing without being driven from the business. We believe, however, that even this resource will not be found to afford them adequate protection; and that they will be compelled, by the competition of the power-looms of this and other more favourably situated countries, to relinquish all but the finer and more difficult sorts of weaving.

The influence of the circumstances now alluded to has been increased by the wise and liberal policy followed by the government. Switzerland is a country in which the great principles of free labour at home, and free intercourse with foreigners, have been fully carried into practice. No restrictions exist upon the pursuit of any branch of trade. "Industry has been left to its own wealth has not been diverted by legislative interference, from its own natural tendencies. There has been no foolish struggle encouraged by the government between the protected monopoly of the few, and the unprotected interests of the many. Two millions of men have made, under every disadvantage, the experiment of free trade as a system. The consumer has been allowed to go to the cheapest market, the producer to the dearest; and activity is every where visible alike in the trading and agricultural districts. One element only is wanting to make Switzerland a most prosperous and manufacturing nation. Capital is rapidly increasing, by the action of unrestricted, unfettered, unprotected industry." (*Bouring's Rep.*, 3-4.) The general prosperity is also favoured by other extraneous circumstances: land is, for the most part, released from tithes and taxes, and the people subjected to very trifling fiscal burthens. In many of the cantons there is no national debt; and some of them, indeed, nearly discharge the expenses of their government out of the interest of the capital accumulated from the surplus revenues of previous years. The establishment of the Prussian Customs' Union occasioned at first serious apprehensions among the Swiss; and some of the N. cantons, as Schaffhausen and Thurgau, were anxious to join

it. But a commission, appointed by the Confederation in 1833, decided that such a step was altogether unadvisable; and there seems to be no great probability that Switzerland will join the League.

Several of the cantons derive a considerable portion of their revenues from a *droit de péage*, or duty, generally less than 1d. a cwt., on goods at the turnpikes on the various cantonal frontiers. A federal duty of from 1 to 2 batzen per cwt. is paid at the frontier of the republic on goods imported from foreign countries; but goods exported from Switzerland pay no duties, and from the absence of *ad valorem* duties no estimate can be made of the value either of the imports or exports of the Confederation. (*See GENEVA.*) Silk, cotton goods, lace, watches and jewellery, straw plait, cattle and cheese, wine from Vaud and Neuchâtel, liquors, herbs, &c., constitute the chief articles of export. In 1834, according to the French accounts, the value of the wine, oil, madder, brandy, salt, fruits, colonial produce, silk, woollen, and cotton manufactures, &c., exported from France to Switzerland, amounted to nearly 30,000,000 fr.; for which Switzerland sent back horned cattle, cheese, rinds, linens, thread, and other produce, to the amount of 12,700,000 fr., the balance being, no doubt, liquidated by the clandestine exportation of watches, jewellery, &c. Wheat is brought principally from South Germany; oats (about 500,000 cwt. a year), leather, hemp, flax, chicory, tobacco, and oils, come principally from Germany, but partly from France; raw cotton, cotton twist, cotton cloths for printing, hardware, iron and other metals, fancy wares, colonial produce, drugs, dyes, &c. from England, and partly also from the Netherlands; woollen stuffs from Belgium, Swabia, and Saxony; silk from Piedmont and Lombardy, &c. Switzerland enjoys a large share of the transit trade between Germany and Italy, Austria, and France. The principal lines are from the Lake of Constance across the country to Geneva; from Schaffhausen and Basle to Geneva; but especially from Basle, through Lucerne, St. Gothard, to Milan, Genoa, &c. Another line passes from Basle to Zurich, through the Grisons and across the Splügen, to Lombardy and Trieste. The roads, which are maintained by the cantonal governments, are every where, almost, in good order; but from the rugged nature of the country, carriage is costly as compared with that in the neighbouring states. The carriage of a ton weight of goods over a distance of 30 m. frequently costs 25s.

Hardly a country in Europe has so complicated a currency, or set of weights and measures, as Switzerland, nearly each canton having its own, which differs more or less from the rest. The Swiss franc of 10 batzen = 11 French fr., and nearly 1s. 3d. Engl. German money is, however, common in the E. and N., and the coinage of Milan in the S., while French money is almost universally met with.

Government.—The 23 cantons are united on equal terms in a confederation for mutual defence; but in most other respects each has its own independent internal administration. The government is wholly republican in every canton, except Neuchâtel, in which the king of France exercises the rights of sovereignty. Before 1831, when important reforms took place in the Swiss constitutions, the cantons were divided into aristocratic and democratic; but at present the government is more or less democratic in all. In Uri, Schwytz, Unterwalden, Glarus, Zug, and Appenzell, the functions of legislation and sovereignty are vested in the *lands geméinde*, or general assembly of the inhabs., in which every citizen of full age, without any property qualification, has a vote. In the other cantons the legislative power is delegated to the *landrat*, or council of representatives, elected in the primitive or general assembly of the inhabs., the elective suffrage in which is universal, or nearly so. And in some of these cantons, as St. Gall and Basle (country), the primitive assemblies have a veto on the decisions of their grand council in all matters of an organic character; while in others the people at large have the right to revise their constitution in primitive assembly after a certain number of years. The grand council, where it exists, elects the petty council, or executive power, at the head of which is the burgo-master or *avoyer* of the canton; in other cantons the *landammann*, or *landshauptmann*, is chosen by the general assembly.

The form of the general government, or the federal constitution, has, also, of late years, undergone great modifications. A contest was continued for a lengthened period between those who wished to preserve for individual cantons the greatest amount of free action, and those who wished to strengthen the general government, and to render its authority paramount. It would be irksome to enter into any details with respect to this contest. Suffice it to say, that after a great deal of acrimonious discussion, which led ultimately to a civil war, the party favourable to a more intimate union of the different cantons gained a decided preponderance. In consequence a new constitution was proclaimed, on the 12th September, 1848. Under this new arrangement

the federal assembly consists of two divisions, a national assembly, and a council of state, or senate. The first consists of deputies (111 in all) from each canton, in the proportion of a deputy to every 30,000 inhab.; and the second, or senate, consists of 44 mems., or 2 for each canton. The federal assembly chooses from among its members a National Council of 7 individuals, which is, in fact, the executive government. But the powers committed to this council are comparatively limited; the federal assembly reserving to itself the right to declare war, to make peace, to conclude all sorts of treaties and alliances, to nominate diplomatic agents, to fix the amount of the military force, and to regulate the customs and transit duties, and other taxes imposed for public purposes, the business of the post office, of internal communication, the mint, &c.

Under the old system there was no proper judicial tribunal for the decision of disputed questions between different cantons, so that when they occurred they had always to be submitted to arbitration; the diet being authorised, in the event of the arbiters not agreeing, to appoint an umpire. Under the new constitution this objectionable system has been in so far amended that a tribunal has been constituted which determines all questions between the cantons and the Confederation, between one canton and another, and between cantons and individuals, &c. But unfortunately the judges in this tribunal, who are named by the assembly, are not appointed for life, or during good behaviour, but for 3 years only. They are really, therefore, the mere nominees of the party which happens to have at the time a majority in the assembly, so that in political matters but little weight can be attached to their decisions.

Formerly the Diet met alternately in Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne two years in each, but now it meets in Berne only. Religious differences had a great deal to do in bringing about the late changes; and it is a fundamental principle in the new order of things that the expulsion of the Jesuits shall be maintained, and monasteries be everywhere suppressed. This last condition has been carried into effect, with so much misplaced rigour that even the famous Hospice of St. Bernard no longer exists!

The revenue of the Confederation consists chiefly of a money contingent contributed by the different cantons proportionally to their military contingent, and of the tolls on imports collected by the frontier cantons, and accounted for by them to the assembly. It amounted, in 1845, to 5,581,398 Swiss fr. The number of men each canton furnishes to the federal army varies according to its amount of pop. and resources. The total armed force of the Confederation, according to the scale adopted in 1840, amounts to 64,000 men, viz. 51,800 infantry, 5,800 artillery, 5,700 cavalry, and 700 engineers. Switzerland has, however, no standing army in the strict sense of the word. It is only a militia force, in which every male Swiss must serve for a certain number of years, holding himself at all times ready if called on for cantonal or federal service. Every two years a federal camp is formed for exercise; and at Thun, in the canton of Berne, a school for the instruction of officers is held for two months each year.

Each canton has its own code of laws, which are, in general, similar to those prevalent in Germany. In some cantons, as Friburg, Schwytz, &c., the Carolina, or penal code of Charles V., was in force down to a late period, trials were not public, and juries did not exist; but in these respects some considerable improvements have latterly been effected. The prisons in most parts of the country are in a bad state. In Berne, however, and especially in the French cantons, improved and benevolent systems of discipline have been adopted, and at Geneva the panoptical penitentiary system of Bentham has been introduced.

Religion.— Beside the Catholic and Protestant pop., the respective numbers of which are given in the table at the beginning of this article, there are about 600 Anabaptists and 1,800 Jews. The latter enjoy no political rights. Many very bigoted provisions are or recently were in force with respect to religion in the Protestant as well as in the R. Cath. cantons. The Catholic are much more numerous than the Protestant clergy, comprising altogether about 6,000 individuals (regular and secular), the incomes of many of whom are very considerable. There are four Rom. Cath. dioceses: Chur and St. Gall, Basle*, Lausanne, and Sion; the bishops of which are suffragans of the archbishop of Milan. Tessin is in the diocese of the bishop of Como. The government of the Protestant church is considered a branch of the department of public instruction, and as such belongs to the magistrates in the various cantons.

The Swiss Protestant church, as every body knows, was originally Calvinistic in principle, and is Presbyterian in its form. But the zeal by which the Swiss Protestants were formerly distinguished appears, if we may depend on the statements of Mr. Laing and others, to have

wholly evaporated; and it is a singular and not easily explained fact, that, in the Protestant cantons, religion is, at present, less cared for, and has less influence, than any where else in Europe. The people are not indiffcult; but are wholly indiffcult to, and, in fact, careless about religion! Mr. Laing has endeavoured, though not, as we think, with any great success, to account for this apathy to religious truths on the part of the Swiss. (*Notes of a Traveller.*) No doubt it is the result of a variety of causes; and is principally, perhaps, to be ascribed to something defective in the system under which the clergy are appointed, and in their training. It is right, however, to state that, notwithstanding the neglect of religion, the Swiss Protestants are eminently moral in their habits; and, though mercenary, are honest and upright in their dealings.

Public education is very widely diffused in the cantons of Zurich and Aargau; for, if we may rely on a Parl. Rep. of 1837, the pupils in their public schools in 1832 were to their whole pop. as 1 to 6. In Vaud and Neuchâtel the proportion was about as 1 to 6; and in Switzerland at large, in 1834, as 1 to 3; being consequently, in respect of the attendance at school, before Great Britain, the Austrian empire, Belgium, and France. Parents must give their children some sort of education, from the age of 5 to that of 8 years; or their neglect may be punished by fine, and in some cases, even by imprisonment. (See *Symonds's Rep.*, &c.) The obstinate refusal of parents to send their children to school is, however, a rare case; because no child becomes able to exercise the rights of citizenship, or is taken into service of any kind, without having first received the sacrament, which is administered to those only who have attained a certain degree of instruction. In every district there are primary schools, in which the elements of education, geography, history, singing, &c., are taught; and secondary schools for youths of from 12 to 15, in which instruction is given in ancient and modern languages, geometry, natural history, the fine arts, music, calligraphy, &c. In both these schools the rich and the poor are educated together, the latter being admitted gratuitously. There are normal schools in several of the cantons for the instruction of schoolmasters; who are subsequently paid, by the cantons, salaries varying usually from 100. to 500. a year. Sunday-schools exist in several cantons, and Lancasterian schools in Geneva and Vaud. (*Journal of Education*, vol. iii.) There are superior gymnasia in all the chief towns. Basle has a university, which was formerly much frequented; and since 1832 universities have been established in Berne and Zurich. The ordinary expenses of a student at Berne, including living, &c., may, perhaps, be covered by from 600 to 800 Swiss fr. a year: the expense at Zurich is rather less. In the principal towns there are good libraries, and literary associations; and between 20 and 30 newspapers, besides magazines, &c., are published in Switzerland, some of which are of considerable merit, though the former are said to be sadly deficient and incorrect in their foreign news and general politics.

Every parish or community is obliged to support its own poor, who become chargeable on their own commune. But only those having the rights of citizenship have a right to eleemosynary support; the privilege not being extended to others, though born in the commune. In most instances, the communes have poor-funds administered independently of the cantonal government; but if these are not found sufficient, a poor-rate is levied. This rate is always limited; being in Zurich, no more than about 24d. a year from each individual. The number of poor appears to be on the decrease; and it is only in Uri, Tessin, Valais, and one or two other cantons, that pauperism is at all common.

"The peculiar feature in the condition of the Swiss pop., the great charm of Switzerland, next to its natural scenery, is the air of well-being, the neatness, the sense of property imprinted on the people, their dwellings, their plots of land. They have a kind of Robinson Crusoe industry about their houses and little properties; they are perpetually building, repairing, altering, or improving something about their tenements. The spirit of the proprietor is not to be mistaken in all that one sees in Switzerland. Some cottages, for instance, are adorned with long texts from Scripture painted on or burnt into the wood in front over the door; others, especially in the Simmenthal and Haslethal, with the pedigree of the builder and owner. These show, sometimes, that the property has been held for 200 years by the same family. The modern taste of the proprietor shows itself in new windows, or additions to the old original picturesque dwelling, which, with its immense projecting roof, sheltering or shading all these successive little additions, looks like a hen sitting with a brood of chickens under her wings.

"None of the women are exempt from field-work, not even in the families of very substantial peasant proprietors, whose houses are furnished as well as any country houses with us. All work as regularly as the poorest

* The titular bishop of Basle resides at Solothurn, and of Lausanne at Friburg.

male individual. The land, however, being their own, they have a choice of work, and the hard work is generally done by the men. The felling and bringing home wood for fuel; the mowing grass generally, but not always; the carrying out manure on their back; the handling horses and cows, digging, and such heavy labour, is man's work: the binding the vine to the pole with a straw, which is done three times in the course of its growth; the making the hay, the pruning the vine, switching off the superfluous leaves and tendrils,—these lighter, yet necessary jobs to be done about vineyards or orchards, form the women's work. But females, both in France and Switzerland, appear to have a far more important role in the family, among the lower and middle classes, than with us. The female, although not exempt from out-door work, and even hard work, undertakes the thinking and managing department in the family affairs, and the husband is but the executive officer. The female is, in fact, very remarkably superior in manners, habits, tact, and intelligence to the husband, in almost every family of the middle or lower classes in Switzerland. One is surprised to see the wife of such good, even genteel, manners and sound sense, and altogether such a superior person to her station, and the husband very often a mere lout. The hen is the better bird all over Switzerland." (*Laing's Notes*, p. 336.)

If we divide the people of Switzerland according to their language, nearly 1,500,000 speak a German dialect, 450,000 French, and about 125,000 a corrupt Italian: in a large part of the Grisons, the Romansh tongue, bearing a very close analogy to the ancient Latin, is spoken in several dialects. The distinctions of language are the principal among the Swiss: there are few physical differences in the inhab. of the different parts of the country, except that the natives of the mountainous parts are the more muscular and active. The Swiss are unquestionably a brave people, devoted to their home and their freedom, for the maintenance of which they have often made great sacrifices and exertions. The situation in which they are placed, their scanty means of subsistence, the necessity of husbanding their resources, and the difficulty of increasing them, have made them sober, industrious, and economical; but also, we must say, mean and mercenary. There is nothing they will not undertake, how degrading soever, provided they think they can make money by it. To attain the rank of valet in the family of some foreign nobleman seems the summit of their ambition. Though attached to liberty themselves, 2s. 6d. or 3s. a day will make them flock to the banners of its most inveterate enemies. In this respect, indeed, they have no predilections, and the Emperor of Russia and the President of the United States may equally command their services.

"Man and steel, the soldier and his sword,"

continue to be the most marketable of Swiss products. Though attached to their country, they have no relish for its magnificent natural beauties; and though an honest, laborious, prudent, and, on the whole, respectable people, they have little that is amiable or attractive in their character.

After the conquest of Helvetia by Julius Cæsar, the Romans founded in it several flourishing cities, as Aventicum, &c., which were afterwards destroyed by the barbarians. On the decline of the Roman empire, it successively formed a part of the kingdom of Burgundy and the dominions of the Merovingian and Carolingian kings; while the E. part of Switzerland became first subject to the Allemanni, and subsequently it was wholly included in the German Empire under Conrad II. in 1037.

The house of Hapsburg had, from an early period, the supremacy over all the E. part of Switzerland; and it preserved its ascendancy till about 1307, when Uri, Schwytz, and Unterwalden, entered into a confederacy for mutual aid against Austria, which compact was confirmed after the defeat of Leopold Duke of Austria, at the battle of Morgarten, in 1315. From 1332 to 1353, Lucerne, Zurich, Glarus, Zug, and Berne, joined the Confederation. Aargau was conquered from Austria in 1415; the abbey and town of St. Gall joined the other cantons in 1481-54; Thurgau was taken in 1460; Friburg and Solothurn admitted in 1481; the Grisons in 1497; Basle and Schaffhausen in 1501; and Appenzell in 1513. About this time Tessin was conquered from the Milanese; and Vaud was taken from Savoy, by the Bernese, in 1560. The remaining cantons were not finally united to the Confederation till the time of Napoleon; and the compact, by which all were placed on a perfect equality, only dates from the peace of 1814.

The principal authorities consulted for this article have been *Pictet, Statistique de la Suisse*; *Ebel, Manuel du Voyageur*, &c.; *Simon, Voyage en Suisse*; *Hoffman; Inglet's Switzerland*; *Dica. Géog.*; *Bourning and Symonds's Reports*, &c., &c., &c.

SYDNEY, a town of E. Australia, the cap.

of the British colony of New South Wales, on a cove on the S. side of the magnificent bay, or inlet of the sea, called Port Jackson, about 7 m. from its mouth; lat. 33° 55' S., long. 150° 10' E. The pop., in December, 1846, amounted to about 45,000, and is now (1850) estimated at 55,000. The British settlements in New South Wales were originally intended to serve as penal establishments, to which convicts might be transported, and employed in public and private works, and are still, to some extent, used for that purpose. The first vessel with convicts arrived in January, 1788, at Botany Bay; but it having been found quite unsuitable for a colony, the settlement was removed to Sydney. Convicts of all sorts continued to be sent to the latter till 1839; but from that period down to 1843 none were sent, except those who had been confined in Pentonville and other penitentiaries. In the last-mentioned year the system entirely ceased; and from that period no convicts have been sent to Sydney. During the period that transportation continued in force, 54,583 convicts, of whom 47,092 were males and 7,491 females, were carried to Sydney. In 1846 the convicts of all classes in N. S. Wales amounted to 10,555, of whom 6,500 were to be liberated in 1848; and the residue must all have been liberated by the end of 1850. Convictism (to borrow a colonial phrase) has, therefore, terminated in N. S. Wales; but the taint it has imparted to the population will not be easily effaced.

The town stands principally on two hilly necks of land, bounding Sydney Cove on the E. and W., and on the intervening flat ground for nearly 2 m. inland, and would appear, from the extent it covers, to contain a much larger pop. than really belongs to it; but the houses in many parts are not more than one story in height, and are generally surrounded by gardens. In the older part of Sydney, termed "the Rocks," the streets are comparatively irregular, for, owing to a want of attention at first, they were laid out, and the houses built, according to the views of individuals, without any fixed or regular plan. But latterly this defect has been to a considerable degree remedied in the old streets; and the new ones are systematically laid out. On the S. side of the cove many handsome houses rise in successive terraces. The E. peninsula is almost wholly occupied by the government domain, a circumstance which is rather to be regretted, since the water, being deeper there than on the W. side of the cove, it is better adapted for the erection of warehouses, &c. It has been proposed, however, to construct a public wharf along the E. side of the cove. The new government house, an extensive structure in the Elizabethan style, is supposed to have cost in all about 50,000; but it is quite disproportioned to the means and the wants of the governor. The barracks were till lately in the centre of the town; but owing to the frequent squabbles that took place between the troops and the citizens, the barracks have been removed to the Surrey hills about 2½ m. from town. The extensive barracks, hospitals, &c., that were formerly required for the service of the convicts, have been appropriated, partly for the temporary accommodation of immigrants and partly for other purposes. Among the other public buildings are the court-house, police and commissariat offices, custom-house, new gaol, &c. Sydney has a cathedral and several English churches, a Rom. Cath. chapel, a handsome Gothic building, with chapels for Presbyterians, Wesleyans, &c. Among its educational institutions, are the Australian College and Sydney College, which furnish superior instruction in classics, mathematics, and English literature; a normal institution, with Episcopalian, Presbyterian, and Rom. Cath. schools. There are, also, numerous boarding-schools, and other private seminaries, some of which are said to be very well conducted. Several newspapers are published in the town; and many works have been published, the printing and plates in some of which would do no discredit to the London press. It has also a museum and botanical garden. "The shops in the town are frequently laid out with great taste; they are not, as in America, 'stores,' where every article may be bought under the same roof; but each trade or business has its own distinct warehouse. House rent is high at Sydney, as may be inferred from the fact that building land has been recently sold, in George Street, at the rate of 30,000. an acre! Several commercial establishments are of considerable size; auction-rooms have been lately built by one individual at a cost of 5,000., and 30,000. has been expended on one distillery. Large sums have been spent also in

erection steam-engines, mills, &c.; a good theatre has been built on speculation, and the hotels and inns are numerous and excellent." (*Martin's British Colonies*, 494.) The town is partially supplied with water by means of a newly-constructed tunnel, nearly 2½ m. in length.

Sydney is admirably adapted for the capital of a great trading colony. Port Jackson is one of the finest natural basins in the world. It stretches about 15 m. into the country, and has numerous creeks and bays; the anchorage is every where excellent, and ships are protected from every wind. The entrance to this fine bay is between two gigantic cliffs, not quite 2 m. apart. On the most southerly, in lat. 33° 51' 30" S., long. 151° 16' 30" E., a lighthouse has been erected, the lantern of which is elevated 67 ft. above the ground, and about 345 ft. above the sea. It is navigable for ships of any burden to the distance of 15 m. from its entrance, or 7 m. above Sydney, up what is called the Paramatta river. Ships come close up to the wharfs and stores of the town, their cargoes being hoisted from the ship's hold into the warehouses. Sydney is consequently the emporium of all the settlements in this part of Australia, and has a very extensive trade.

In consequence of the extraordinary increase of sheep and cattle, but especially of the former (see Vol. I. p. 237.), wool is become by far the greatest article of export, the shipments of it from Sydney, in 1849, having amounted to 13,396,526 lbs., worth, when shipped, 663,966*l*. Next to wool, but at a great distance, are tallow; whale-oil, and whalebone, the produce of the Southern fishery; hides; horses, cattle, and sheep, beef, timber, &c. We subjoin [see next col.]

The colony is naturally better suited for pasturage than for tillage, and, in consequence, considerable quantities of corn and rice are imported from Van Diemen's Land, and other places. But we may remark, by the way, that the preference given to pasturage has been in no inconsiderable degree occasioned by the policy (if so we may designate a worthless compound of pedantry and quackery) that has been pursued in regard to the sale of the waste lands in the colony. We have elsewhere shown (Vol. I. p. 231.) that since the *minimum* price charged for the waste lands in the colony, 4 or 6 acres of which are required to depasture a single sheep, has been fixed at no less than 20*l*. an acre (1) the purchase of land for agricultural purposes has comparatively ceased; and it is now either taken in large tracts for grazing by lessees, or occupied by squatters. In consequence the progress of cultivation, and the settlement of the colony, are seriously interrupted by this system; while, instead of concen-

An Account of the Quantities and Values of the Principal Articles of Native Produce exported from the Port of Sydney in 1848.

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
Wheat - - -	27,038 bushels	3,063 <i>l</i>
Leather, unmanufactured - - -	108 tons 19 cwt. 1 qr. 6 lbs.	8,792 <i>l</i>
Horses - - -	1,181 no.	14,517 <i>l</i>
Barred cattle - - -	10,308 no.	16,437 <i>l</i>
Sheep - - -	29,321 no.	17,468 <i>l</i>
Oil, sperm - - -	1,185 tons	64,722 <i>l</i>
"black - - -	196 tons	3,177 <i>l</i>
Beef - - -	2,232 tierces	7,659 <i>l</i>
Staves, nest leather - - -	1,258 tons 1 cwt.	17,688 <i>l</i>
Rap - - -	131 tons	3,716 <i>l</i>
Sugar, refined - - -	75 tons 10 cwt.	3,302 <i>l</i>
Tallow - - -	3,565 tons 2 cwt.	106,611 <i>l</i>
Timber, cedar - - -	565,307 feet	6,138 <i>l</i>
Whalebone - - -	11 tons 2 cwt.	1,385 <i>l</i>
Wool - - -	13,445,048 lbs.	683,923 <i>l</i>
Other articles - - -	- - -	34,890 <i>l</i>
Total value of native articles, inc. the fisheries - - -	- - -	965,590 <i>l</i>
Total value of articles of the produce or manufacture of the U. Kingdom and other places - - -	- - -	191,419 <i>l</i>
Total exports - - -	- - -	1,155,009 <i>l</i>

trating the pop., as we were told it would do, it has led to its all but indefinite dispersion. But a *felo-de-se* policy of this sort cannot be indefinitely maintained. And when it has been abandoned, a fresh stimulus will be given to emigration, and the prosperity of this and the other Australian colonies will be materially increased.

Considering the character of a large proportion of the population, one need not be surprised at the circumstance of drunkenness being a prevalent vice, and, consequently, that spirit and wines are very largely imported. The other great articles of importation are manufactured goods and apparel of all sorts, hardware, earthenware, saddlery, books and stationery, and carriages, &c. from England; tea (2,108,916 lbs. in 1848) from China; and sugar (22,474,356 lbs. in 1848) from the Mauritius and Calcutta. In 1849 the total value of the exports from the U. K. to N. S. Wales and Port Phillip, amounted to 1,333,339*l*. whereof cottons made 222,196*l*., woollens 144,323*l*., linens 50,351*l*., apparel, slops, and haberdashery, 363,364*l*., beer and ale 56,786*l*., books 14,620*l*., earthenware 13,262*l*., hardware and cutlery 52,835*l*., leather and leather manufactures 37,869*l*., and silk manufactures 28,813*l*.

Return of the Value of the Imports into, and of the Exports from, N. S. Wales (inc. Port Phillip), from 1844 to 1849, both inc.

Years.	Imports, Value of.				Exports, Value of.			
	Articles the Prod. or Manuf. of U. Kingdom.	Articles the Prod. or Manuf. of other British Dom.	Articles the Prod. or Manuf. of For. States.	Total Value.	Articles the Prod. or Manuf. of N. S. Wales.	Articles the Prod. or Manuf. of U. Kingdom.	Articles the Prod. or Manuf. of other British Dom.	Articles the Prod. or Manuf. of For. States.
1844	629,510	1,573	147,118	931,860	864,709	119,197	64,368	79,945
1845	786,514	136,491	290,949	1,213,954	1,069,092	109,910	75,665	1,153,986
1846	1,111,228	88,638	430,646	1,630,512	1,201,435	120,424	80,499	1,481,539
1847	1,569,183	95,118	1,917,723	3,582,024	1,649,081	136,335	15,863	1,870,048
1848	1,029,926	114,900	411,784	1,556,610	1,631,509	187,368	22,320	1,839,258
1849	1,307,357	149,106	456,477	1,912,940	1,701,085	106,561	18,547	1,891,570

The value of the imports into Sydney exceeded for a lengthened period the value of the exports; the excess of the former being, in fact, the amount of the remittances from this country on account of the convict establishment. But since the latter was suppressed, the value of the exports has been equal to that of the imports. Occasionally there has been a great deal of over-trading at Sydney; and the revulsions consequent thereon have been quite as ruinous there as in England and elsewhere. Formerly there were 4 banks in the town, but now there are 2 only, and a savings' bank.

Sydney was incorporated in 1842. The mayor has a salary of 800*l*. a year. The shops are gay and well furnished with goods. The local revenue of the city amounted, in 1849, to 13,804*l*.

From the circumstance of the great majority of the immigrants being males, a great disproportion has always existed between the sexes in the colony. Government, and benevolent associations, have of late years endeavoured to lessen this disproportion by sending out considerable numbers of young unmarried females free of expense. And though there appears to be good grounds for thinking that the conduct of these females has in numerous instances been rather questionable, still there can be no doubt that the measure has, on the whole, been advantageous, and has tended not only

to increase the population, but to improve the morals of the colony.

SYLHET, a distr. of British India, presid. Bengal, beyond the Brahmputra, and chiefly between the 24th and 26th degs. of lat. and the 91st and 93d of E. long., having N. the territory of the Cooshaes and Jynteah, E. Cachar, S. Tipperah, and W. the distr. of Myennung and Dacca. Area, 3,483 sq. m. Pop., in 1823, 1,063,720, it being one of the most densely peopled portions of the British dominions in the East. Its borders are mountainous, and on the E. and S. the mountains rise to the height of about 6,000 ft.; but its central part, which is flat and intersected by the Barah, and a great many other rivers tributary to the Brahmputra, is covered with rice-fields, &c. Cotton and sugar are raised in considerable quantities; and Sylhet produces the finest oranges and limes throughout British India: they are grown in extensive plantations, or rather forests, and exported to a great extent. Gunnam, wax, aloe wood, wild silk, and elephants, are among the other chief products; and coal of a very fair quality has been somewhat recently discovered. Boat-building is pursued pretty extensively, and Sylhet shields are articles much prized by the natives of Hindostan. The land is, in general, very much divided: land revenue in 1829-30, 302,516 rupees. Mohammedans are very numerous in

this district. Sythet, its chief town, and the residence of the principal authorities, is on the Soomah, in lat. 24° 55' N., long. 91° 40' E. (*Hamilton; Pemberton, on the E. Frontier.*)

SYRA (an. *Seyros*), an island belonging to Greece, in the group called the N. Cyclades, the port of Syra, on the E. side of the island, 15 m. W. from the greater Delos, being in lat. 37° 26' 30" N., long. 24° 55' E. It is about 10 m. in length, N. and S., and 5 m. in breadth. Though rugged and not very fruitful, it is well cultivated; and the pop., which in 1825 was not supposed to exceed 4,500, is now (1850) estimated at about 30,000! It is indebted for this extraordinary increase of pop. to the convenience and excellence of its port and its central situation, which have made it a considerable commercial entrepôt. Most part of the trade that formerly centred at Scio is now carried on here; and the island has not only received numerous immigrants from that island, but also from many other parts of Greece. Great Britain and most European powers have consuls in Syra; and it also is the principal seat of the Protestant missionaries to the Levant. The town, which is in great part old, has several new streets and houses, and has an appearance of great bustle and animation. Phrycides, one of the most celebrated of the ancient Greek philosophers, the disciple of Pittacus, and the master of Pythagoras, was a native of this island. We subjoin an

Account exhibiting the Number of Ships, their Tonnage, and the Value of their Cargoes, that arrived at Syra in 1846, specifying also the different Countries to which they respectively belonged.

Flags.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value of Cargoes.
			£
British - - -	45	6,513	158,766
Greek - - -	1,903	100,064	284,301
French - - -	39	6,828	8,501
Austrian - - -	182	36,951	42,993
Russian - - -	41	6,614	7,018
Ionian - - -	34	5,483	4,960
Ottoman - - -	379	12,118	57,670
French - - -	6	100	10,585
Hannoverian - -	5	100	1,265
Bremen - - -	4	643	855
Swedish - - -	1	90	286
Syrian - - -	50	87	379
Neapolitan - - -	2	84	65
Total - - -	2,556	179,530	557,612

SYRACUSE (an. *Syracusa*), a famous city of Sicily, cap. of an Intendency, district, and cant., on the E. coast of the island, 81 m. S. E. Catania; lat. 37° 29' 58" N., long. 15° 16' 10" E. Pop., in 1831, 16,805; but said to have been considerably reduced during the interval from the influence of cholera, and other causes. The modern city is wholly confined to that small portion of the site of the ancient city included in the island of Ortigia, separated from the mainland by a fosse, and projecting S. in the shape of a narrow peninsula, inclosing between it and the mainland the noble basin called the Great Harbour, which its security, and the facility of its access, render one of the best ports in the Mediterranean. (*Smyth's Sicily*, 163.) Outside the peninsula is the Little Harbour (an. *Trogilus*). Syracuse is pretty strongly fortified, being defended by a bastioned wall, and other works. The port is protected by the castle of Maniace, near the S. extremity of the peninsula. The modern city has little except its ancient renown, its noble harbour, and the extreme beauty of its situation, to recommend it. The temple of Minerva has been converted into the cathedral; but the portico and front, having been destroyed by an earthquake, are modern, and in bad taste. It has several other churches, with numerous convents, a seminary for the clergy, a college for general studies, an hospital, a lazaretto, extensive barracks, a museum, and a public library. There are some remains of the temple of Diana, but they are unimportant. The famous fountain of Arethusa (see ARETHUSA), the great glory of ancient Syracuse, is now defiled by the admixture of the sea, and is degraded into a sort of washing-tub for the poorer class of town's-women. The commerce of the city, the principal source of its wealth in antiquity, is also quite inconsiderable; its exports consisting only of trifling quantities of oil, corn, fruits, hemp, saltpetre, &c. "Its streets are narrow and dirty; its nobles poor; its lower orders ignorant, superstitious, idle, and addicted to festivals. Much of its fertile land is become a pestilential marsh; and that commerce which once filled the finest port in Europe with the vessels of Italy, Rhodes, Alexandria, Carthage, and every other maritime power, is now confined to a petty coasting trade. Such is modern Syracuse! Yet the sky which canopies it is still brilliant and serene; the golden grain is still ready to spring almost spontaneously from its fields; the azure waves still beat against its walls to send its navies over the main; nature is still prompt to pour

forth her bounties with a prodigal hand; but man, alas! is changed; his liberty is lost; and with that the genius of a nation rises, sinks, and is extinguished." (*Hughes's Greece*, &c., i. 55., 8vo. edit.)

The ancient Syracuse was founded by a colony from Corinth, about anno 736, B.C. Its advantageous situation, and the commercial enterprising spirit of its inhabitants, speedily raised it to the highest distinction. Cicero calls it the greatest and most beautiful of Greek cities: *Urbeni Syracusan maximam esse Græcorum urbem pulcherrimam omnium, sæpe auditis.* (In Verrem, lib. iv. cap. 52.) As soon as it had outgrown the limits of the original city, which, like the modern, was confined within the island of Ortigia, it began to extend towards the N., covering, when in its zenith, a large triangular space; which, rising precipitously from the sea on the one hand, and the plains to the W. on the other, admitted of being easily fortified. This new city terminated on the N. in the hill of Epipolis, which, however, was not included within it till the time of the elder Dionysius, who constructed at that point the fortress of Hexapylon, the vast ruins of which still attest its former strength and importance. The city was defended partly by lines of rocks, and partly by strong walls. Its circuit is estimated by Strabo at 180 stadia, or about 20 Eng. m.; and supposing that the sinuosities of the walls were followed, this statement is probably not very wide of the mark. Among the advantages of the situation chosen for the site of the new city, was its inexhaustible supplies of fine freestone; which, though soft, and easily wrought in the quarry, became, by exposure to the air, sufficiently hard.

The space included within the walls of the new or N. city comprised, 1. the quarter of Acradina, the largest and most populous of the whole, adjoining the island of Ortigia, having E. the sea; it contained the temple of Olympian Jupiter, the forum, the prytæneum, &c.; 2. the quarter called Tyche, from its temple to Fortune (*Týxē*), lying N.W. from Acradina; and 3. the quarter called Neapolis, or the New City, from its being the last built: this, which was the most westerly portion of the city, and was bounded in part by the Great Port, contained a spacious theatre, cut in the rock, upon the slope of a hill; and two temples, one dedicated to Ceres, and one to Libera or Proserpine. (*Cicero, ubi supra.*)

Among the existing remains of Syracuse, the most extraordinary, perhaps, are the *latomies*, or prisons. These are immense excavations cut in the solid rock to a great depth, with steep overhanging sides, whence all egress is impossible. They appear originally to have been quarries (whence their name), and to have been subsequently formed into prisons. They have been forcibly and admirably described by Cicero: — *Latomies Syracusanæ omnes auditis, plerique vident; operæ aut tæcne magnificè reguntur; Syracorum; totum ad ea saxo in mirandam altitudinem depresso, et multorum operis penitus exco. Nihil tam clausum ad exitus, nihil tam septum undique, nihil tam tutum ad custodias, nec fortissimè cogitari potest.* (In Verrem, ult. cap. 27.) In the N.W. angle of the *latomie* of the Neapolis is the famous cavern called the Ear of Dionysius. It runs into the heart of the hill, in the form of the letter S, the sides being chiseled quite smooth, and the roof gradually narrowing to a point, along which runs a groove, which collected, as is supposed, the sounds of the voices of the prisoners. It derives its name from the popular belief that Dionysius was accustomed to incarcerate in it those he supposed inimical to his authority; and that, by applying his ear to one end of the groove, and listening to their conversation, he ascertained whether his suspicions were well-founded. There appears, however, to be little or no foundation for this story; though, from the care bestowed on its construction, it must evidently have been intended for some special purpose.

The *latomie* on the hill of Epipolis were selected as the place of confinement for the miserable remains of the vast armament fitted out by Athens for the reduction of Syracuse. About 7,000 men are said to have been shut up in this prison, exposed alternately to the heats of a vertical sun, rendered more intolerable by its reflection from the surrounding rocks, and to the chills of the evenings, with insufficient supplies of food, and without any means of preserving cleanliness, or even of escaping from the contact of the sick and dead. Every hardship was accumulated on the heads of the unhappy sufferers; till at length, after an interval of above two months, most part of those that survived were brought forth to be sold as slaves. (*Thucyd. lib. vii. ad finem.*) The *latomie* were also used by Verres for the imprisonment, not merely of Syracusan, but of Roman citizens.

The catacombs, in the Acradina, are of vast extent, and may be truly called a city of the dead. They consist of a principal and several smaller streets, all excavated in the rock, with deep contiguous recesses on each side, containing cells for the reception of the dead. Various

theories have been formed as to the era of the formation of these vast subterranean excavations, which, no doubt, belong to a very remote antiquity.

On the whole, however, considering the great extent of the city, and the number and magnificence of its public buildings, the continental portion of Syracuse, with the exception of the *latomie* and catacombs, and some remains of the walls, and of aqueducts, has very few monuments of antiquity of which to boast. Swinburne (ii. 334.) and Hughes (i. 52.) express their astonishment at the almost total disappearance of all vestiges of the great public and other buildings, with which the city was once filled. This, however, is not inexplicable; the sea has undermined a portion of the walls of Acradina; and the perishable nature of the stone of which the city was built, added to the influence of earthquakes, the ravages of war and of barbarians, and the accumulation of rubbish, have made Syracuse, like Carthage, *non agnoscenda propriis ruinis*. Among the ruins of some baths, excavated in 1810, was found the torso of a Venus, worthy of the best age of the art, and now the pride of the museum.

Various estimates have been formed of the pop. of Syracuse when in the summit of its prosperity. These, however, are mostly all exaggerated, and entitled to but little attention. Thucydides says that it was nowise inferior to Athens (lib. vi. p. 406.); and that it was a very large and splendid city is a fact of which there can be no manner of doubt; but owing to the great extent of the open spaces and public buildings within its walls, its pop. could not be in any degree proportioned to what would be contained in a modern city of the same size. Probably it may have amounted to 200,000; or, at most, 250,000; though, if anything, we suspect that this estimate is beyond the mark.

Syracuse appears at first to have been under a republican government; but it subsequently became subject to kings, or tyrants, of whom Gelon and Hieron were among the earliest and most celebrated, the triumph of the latter in the chariot-race at the Olympic games having been the subject of one of Pindar's noble odes. But Thrasybulus, the younger brother of the latter, having been expelled the city, the republican form of government was restored.

The Syracusans having been involved, during the course of the Peloponnesian war, in contests with other cities of Sicily, the Athenians sent a fleet to the assistance of the latter; and from less to more, Athens became so much mixed up with Sicilian affairs, that she determined to bring them to a satisfactory conclusion, by undertaking the conquest of Syracuse itself. The greatest exertions were made to effect this grand object: the zeal of the public was supported by the seal of private individuals; and the armament fitted out by Athens for the reduction of Syracuse is universally admitted to have been the greatest and most splendid ever sent forth by any Greek state. The events of this contest, which fixed the attention of all Greece, have been described by Thucydides, and form the most interesting portion (lib. vi. and vii.) of his history. It is sufficient here to state, that the failure of the expedition was as complete as the hopes of success had been. Alcibiades, who had assisted in planning the expedition, and whose genius might have conducted it to a successful issue, having been unwisely removed from the command, was succeeded by Nicias, an able general, but one who had been hostile, from the outset, to the project, and who, though brave and experienced, wanted the ability and decision required for the conduct of such an enterprise. After various vicissitudes, the besiegers and besieged changed places. The defeat of the Athenian fleet, which had been cooped up in the great harbour, in an attempt to force a passage through their enemies, may be said to have terminated the expedition, and with it the glory and empire of Athens. "In hoc portu," says Cicero, speaking of the great harbour, "*Atheniensium nobilitas, imperii, gloria naufragum factum existimatur*." (In Verrem, v. cap. 37.)

A few years after the defeat of the Athenians, which occurred *anno* 413 B.C., the supreme direction of affairs at Syracuse was usurped by Dionysius the Elder, whose character presents a singular compound of greatness and meanness, generosity and cruelty. Dionysius the Younger, who succeeded his father, was finally expelled from Sicily by Timoleon, who, having demolished the citadel constructed by the elder Dionysius, and his magnificent tomb, restored the Syracusans to their freedom, and, having vanquished their enemies, retired into private life.

They did not, however, long preserve the liberty given them by Timoleon. In the course of a few years, Agathocles attained to the supreme authority. After his death, the city underwent various revolutions, being sometimes the ally of the Carthaginians and sometimes of the Romans. In the end it was subjugated, though not without a vigorous resistance, by the latter.

The siege of Syracuse by the Romans under Marcellus is one of the most celebrated in history. It withstood, for a lengthened period, all the efforts of the Roman

general, who had to contend, not only against the natural strength and fortifications of the place, but also against the extraordinary talents and wonderful machines of Archimedes, the greatest geometer, and one of the greatest geniuses of antiquity. At length, however, the Romans gained possession of the city, *anno* 508 B.C., partly by stratagem, and partly by the treachery of one of the Syracusan leaders. Archimedes unfortunately lost his life in the confusion that followed the taking of the city. (*Livius*, lib. xxv. cap. 23-31.)

Under the Romans, Syracuse continued to be a great and important city. It was taken by the Saracens in 878, and given up to military execution. But, notwithstanding this and many subsequent calamities, it continued to be of considerable importance till 1693, when it was laid in ruins, and most part of its ancient monuments destroyed, by the dreadful earthquake of that year.

In addition to Archimedes, Syracuse has to boast of having given birth to Theocritus, the first and greatest of pastoral poets, and to Moschus. (In addition to the works referred to above, see *Sir R. C. Hoare's Classical Tour*, ii. 141-175; *History of Syracuse, in Ancient Universal History*, vols. vii. and viii., 8vo. ed.; *Plutarch's Life of Marcellus*, &c.)

SYRIA and PALESTINE or JUDEA, two of the most celebrated regions of the E. hemisphere; the former includes the ancient Phœnicia; the latter is sometimes called the Holy Land from its being the theatre of most of the great events recorded in sacred history. These famous countries have, for many centuries, ceased to be independent, and have for a lengthened period formed a portion of Asiatic Turkey: they extend principally between the 31st and 37th degs. N. lat., and the 34th and 41st E. long., having N. the pachaies of Irbil and Marash, in Asia Minor; N.E. and E. the Euphrates; S.E. and S. the Arabian Desert; and W. the Mediterranean. Previously to the subjugation of the country by Mehmet Ali, it was divided into the four pachaies of Aleppo, Tripoli, Acre, and Damascus. Palestine, or the Holy Land, comprised in the two latter pachaies, forms the S. portion of the region, being about 200 m. in length by 80 m. in its extreme breadth. The entire length of Syria and Palestine may be about 450 m. N. and S.; its breadth varying from 100 to 280 m. Its area has been loosely estimated at 48,000 sq. m.; and its pop. at from 1½ to 2, and even 3 millions; but probably 1,500,000 may not be far from the mark. (*Bouring's Report on Syria*.) Colonel Campbell, a few years since, estimated it at 1,864,000; of whom 927,000 were supposed to be Mussulmans (Turks, Arabs, &c.), 32,000 Anasarins, or Bedouins, 17,000 Metualis and Yesidis, 48,000 Druses, 260,000 Maronites and Christians of the Romish church, 245,000 Christians of the Greek church, and 175,000 Jews. The practice of polygamy among several of these tribes, aided by the extensive conscriptions of Mehmet Ali, is said to have produced a great excess of females over males. (*Bouring's Physical Geog.*, pp. 4, 5.)

The W. or coast portion of Syria is mountainous, while the more inland portion, or that to the E. of the Orontes and Damascus, is mostly flat. The mountains form mostly N. and S. parallel ridges, the Median range. The principal chain, in different parts of its course, is termed Alma-Dagh, (an. *mons Amanus*.) Jeb-el-Anseiry, and Lebanon; it runs at an average distance of about 24 m. from the sea, from the range of Taurus, in Asia Minor, as far S. as the vicinity of Tyre, where it terminates. The chain of *Anti-Libanus* detaches itself from the foregoing in about lat. 34°, and running S. parallel to, and at no great distance from the latter, encloses the famous valley anciently called *Ciske-Syria*. About where Libanus terminates, Anti-Libanus divides into two chains, enclosing the valley of the Jordan, the Dead Sea, &c. continuing subsequently to bound the valley of *El Ghor* to the head of the Gulph of Akaba. Both Libanus and Anti-Libanus give out numerous lateral spurs, some of the former extending so as to project, like Mount Carmel, in bold headlands on the coast. These subordinate ranges, with the W. declivity of Libanus, and the E. declivity of Anti-Libanus, are by far the most fertile portions of the mountain system *Ciske-Syria*, though fertile itself, is enclosed between precipitous and barren heights. The mountains which surround the Dead Sea, and those to the W. of the Jordan, are arid, stony, and full of precipices and caverns, and have a melancholy, desolate appearance, harmonising well with that of the desert by which they are bounded on the E. For further details respecting the mountain region of Syria, see *LEBANON*, *encl.* p. 146. Palestine consists principally of rugged hills and narrow valleys. It has, however, some fertile plains of considerable size W. of the mountains; as that of Esdrælon (an. *Megiddo*), 30 m. in length, by 18 in breadth; that of Sharon, famous in antiquity for its roses (supposed to be the flower of a species of *cistus*, with which it is covered); but by far the most extensive and valuable plain, that of Haouran, E. of the Jordan and of Mount Gilead, and trenching on the 'Desert.' "By the great Syrian de-

sert, however, we are not," says Mr. Addison, "to understand, a bare wide waste of sand, like the great African desert. The term must be considered to mean destitute of settled inhabitants, towns, villages, and houses, and peopled only by roving pastoral tribes. Instead of sand, the uninhabited district beyond Damascus consists of a fine black soil, covered with long, burnt-up, rank grass and herbs, and inhabited by antelopes, wild asses, and wild boars, which search out the thinly scattered spots where water is to be found. The same description of country, we are told, continues the whole way to Palmyra. In summer the soil is parched and cracked into lamentable fissures by the burning rays of the sun, and the herbage and vegetation are all killed; but having previously come to maturity, and scattered their seed upon the ground, no sooner do the winter rains commence than the dry grass is beaten down and rotted, and the seeds, moistened by the abundant rains, sprout up with astonishing luxuriance. In summer, the Bedouins are obliged to congregate in the vicinity of pools and wells; but in winter they spread themselves over the wide surface of the desert, and make long journeys with their flocks and herds." (*Damascus and Palmyra*, ii. 216, 217.)

The principal rivers of Syria are the Euphrates, Jordan, and Orontes, severally noticed in this work. The coast line is watered by numerous small streams, falling into the Mediterranean, which contribute greatly to fertilize the land: but of these none are navigable. The largest and most remarkable lake is that of Asphalites, or Dead Sea (which see, i. 679). The next in size is that of Tiberias, or Gennesareth, the theatre of some most remarkable miracles. (Luke and Matt. viii.; Matt. xiv. 25.) It is about 16 m. in length, from 5 to 6 m. in breadth, and is traversed throughout its centre by the Jordan, of which fact it may be regarded as an expansion. On its E. side it is confined by bold, barren, and precipitous mountains; but elsewhere its shores are generally level. According to Dr. Clarke, "It is longer and finer than any of our Cumberland or Westmoreland lakes, though it be perhaps inferior to lake Lomond, in Scotland. It does not possess the vastness of the Lake of Geneva, although it much resembles it in certain points of view. In picturesque beauty it comes nearest to the lake of Locarno in Italy, although it be destitute of any thing similar to the islands by which that majestic piece of water is adorned. It is inferior in magnitude, and perhaps in the height of its surrounding mountains, to the lake Asphalites, but its broad and extended surface, added to the impression under which every Christian pilgrim approaches it, gives to it a character of unparalleled dignity." (*Travels*, ii. 216.) Its unbroken margin, and the total absence of wood on its shores, without a boat or vessel to be seen throughout its whole extent, give it a melancholy, monotonous appearance.

Several combats took place on this lake between the Jews and Romans, and its banks were formerly the seat of several flourishing cities. Of these, however, Tiberias, the miserable representative of the ancient *Tiberias*, is almost the only existing relic. The lake of Gennesareth, like all other inland seas, is subject to squalls and sudden gusts of wind, that render its navigation rather dangerous. The *Bahr-el-Margit*, near Damascus, and the lakes of Horus, and of *Agil Dengis*, near Antioch, are the only others worth notice. The coast of Syria and Palestine presents a nearly straight line, extending through six degrees of lat., being but little indented by arms or inlets of the sea, the principal being the bays of Scanderon and Antioch; and though it was in antiquity the seat of a great maritime people, it has very few good harbours: the best are those of Scanderon and Acre. The former, however, is inconveniently placed, quite at the N. extremity of the country, and is besides very unhealthy. The harbours of Tyre, Sidon, &c., so famous in antiquity, are now, for the most part, filled with sand, or otherwise choked up.

Geology and Minerals.—Of these we have no authentic information. The prevalent rock is limestone, abounding in fossil remains, and hollowed into numerous caverns. The higher parts of the Libanus ranges seem, however, to consist of greywacke, slate, and other transition rocks, and the rocky mountains skirting the Dead Sea, of granite, gneiss, dolomite, &c. Antioch is situated in a great tertiary basin, every where broken, however, by serpentine and diallage rocks. (*Geog. Journ.* vii. 480.) "The whole of the Haouran," says Elliott, "is covered with a species of blue stone, very hard, yet porous, and of which all the mill-stones of Syria are made." Volcanic matters cover a considerable extent of country, and the traces of extinct volcanoes are met with in many places. There are occasional indications of coal; but, except building stone, salt, with which a great part of the soil is highly impregnated, and asphaltum, from the vicinity of the Dead Sea, are almost the only mineral products of much value.

Climate.—Owing to the great differences of elevation and exposure, the greatest dissimilarity prevails with re-

spect to temperature. On the whole, however, the country may be said to have two climates; one very hot, which is that of the coast and the interior plains, such as those of Balbec, Antioch, Tripoli, Acre, Gaza, Haouran, &c.; and the other, or that of the mountains, at least at a certain height, temperate, and similar to that of France. (*Voincy*, i. 314, Eng. trans.) In most parts, the occurrence of the rainy seasons, as well as the quantity of rain which falls, are very variable. The winter in the plains is so moderate, that the orange, date, banana, and other delicate trees, flourish in the open air; and it appears equally extraordinary and picturesque to the European at Tripoli to behold under his windows, in the month of January, orange-trees loaded with flowers and fruit, while the lofty summits of Lebanon are seen covered with ice and snow. But in the more northerly parts of the country, and to the E. of the mountains, the winter is more rigorous, without the summers being less hot. This is occasioned by the E. plains being high above the level of the sea, exposed to the parching blasts of the E. and N.E. winds, and screened by the mountains from the humid winds from the W. and S.W. that sweep over the Mediterranean. At Aleppo winter commences about the middle of December, and usually lasts for six weeks or two months. The frosts, however, are seldom of any considerable intensity; snow rarely lies above a day; narcissus' are in flower during the whole of this season; and hyacinths and violets make their appearance before it is over. Spring commences in February, and is extremely pleasant, having no defect but its short duration. Early in May corn is nearly ripe; and by the end of that month the heats commence, and the country begins to assume a parched and barren aspect. From this period to the middle or end of September no rain ever falls; and the inhabs. sleep exposed to the mercurials, without shelter from damps or other noxious influences. At Aleppo an interval of between 30 and 30 days usually occurs between the first and second rains; during which period the weather is serene and extremely delightful; and if the rains have been at all heavy, though but of a few hours' duration, the country assumes a new face. After the second autumnal rains the weather becomes variable, and winter approaches by degrees. The vernal are heavier than the autumnal rains; and, like the latter, are often accompanied with thunder. The trees frequently retain their leaves till the beginning of December. The heats of summer are usually tempered by westerly breezes; but when during this season the *sansal* occurs, that is, when the winds blow from the Arabian and Persian deserts, or from the E. inclining to the S., the heat becomes suffocating and excessive; and the inhabs. have no resource but to shut themselves closely up in their houses. Luckily, however, these winds are not of very frequent occurrence; and sometimes they do not occur once in a summer. Shocks of earthquakes are common; and, in 1823, Aleppo and several other towns were nearly destroyed by one of these visitations. (*Voincy*, i. 318; *Russel's Aleppo*, 10–14, &c.)

It is clear, therefore, as Voincy has stated, that "Syria unites a great variety of climates, and collects within a narrow compass pleasures and productions which Nature has elsewhere dispersed at great distances of time and place. With us, for instance, seasons are separated by months; there, we may say, they are only separated by hours. If in Salde or Tripoli we are incommoded by the heats of July, in six hours we are in the neighbouring mountains, in the temperature of March; or, on the other hand, if chilled by the frosts of December, at Becharral, a day's journey brings us back to the coast, and the flowers of May. The Arabian poets have therefore said, that 'the Sannin (Lebanon) bears winter upon his head, spring upon his shoulders, and autumn in his bosom, while summer lies sleeping at his feet.' I have myself experienced the truth of this figurative observation, during the eight months I resided at the monastery of Mar-Hanna, seven leagues from Beyrouit. At the end of February I left at Tripoli a variety of vegetables which were in perfection, and many flowers in full bloom. On my arrival at Antoura I found the plants only beginning to shoot; and at Mar-Hanna every thing was covered with snow. It had not entirely melted till the end of April, and it was not till the end of the valley it overlooks, roses had begun to bud. The early figs were past at Beyrouit, where they were first gathered with us, and the silk-worms were in cocoon before our mulberry-trees were half stripped.

"To this advantage, which perpetuates enjoyments by their succession, Syria adds another, that of multiplying them by the variety of her productions. Were nature assisted by art, those of the most distant countries might be produced within the space of twenty leagues. Even at present, despite the barbarism of a government inimical to all industry and improvement, we are astonished at the variety this province affords." (i. 317.)

It is true that Syria and Palestine are sometimes visited by the plague; but this is a consequence of slut-

tishness, and the want of proper care and precautions. Dysenteries, leprosies, &c. are also frequent; but, on the whole, the country is highly salubrious; and has no peculiar disease, except the pimple or ulcer of Aleppo. (See Aleppo.)

(Products and Resources, &c.)—The beauty, fertility, and various products of Syria made her be regarded as one of the finest and most fruitful of countries; and her superiority in these respects has been extolled by the best modern travellers. It seems unnecessary, therefore, to dwell on what is so generally admitted. But the question as to the fertility of Palestine has given rise to some conflicting statements, and as the subject possesses peculiar interest, we shall notice it at some little length.

In the sacred writings, the fertility of the Holy Land is described in the most striking manner. Moses calls it a land that floweth with milk and honey; a land of brooks and waters, of fountains and depths, that spring out of the valleys and hills; a land of wheat and barley; of vines, figs, and pomegranates; of oil, olives, and honey; a land where there is no lack or scarcity of any thing; whose stones (or rocks) are iron; and out of whose mountains brass may be dug up. (Deuteronomy, viii. 7. &c.)

It may, perhaps, be permitted to suppose, that as Moses wished to reconcile the Jew to the territory on which they were about to enter, and to extinguish any lurking desire on their part to return to the "flesh pots" of Egypt, he would represent the "promised" land under the most favourable colours. On the whole, however, it would seem, despite the statements that have been made to the contrary, that his description is substantially correct. It is strikingly confirmed by Tacitus, who says, speaking of Palestine, *Rari umbra, UBER SOLUM. Erubescant fruges, nostrum ad morem; præterque eas balsamum et palmae.* (Hist. lib. v. cap. 6.) It is true that Strabo, in his 16th book, speaks in very contemptuous terms of the country round Jerusalem; but he was by no means so well acquainted as Tacitus either with the history of the Jews or with Judea; and besides, even though the accuracy of his statement as to the country to which he has referred were admitted, that would not authorise any inference to be drawn unfavourable to the general fertility of Palestine. In antiquity Judea was very carefully cultivated; and notwithstanding the great density of its pop., it is said, when in the zenith of its prosperity, under Solomon, to have exported considerable quantities of corn. (1 Kings, v. 11.) The declivities of the hills were formed into terraces, of which the vestiges still remain. (Maunderell, p. 66, ed. 1740) and were covered with plantations of figs, vines, and olives. It was, as Tacitus has stated, particularly celebrated for its palm-trees, which, in fact, were the emblem of the country; and the aromatic plants that grew in the uncultivated parts furnished the wild bees with the honey which they stored in the hollows of the rocks and trees. Indeed Maundrell, whose accuracy is unquestionable, states that he perceived in many such places "a smell of honey and wax as strong as if one had been in an aviary." (It. loc. cit.) We cannot, however, form any false estimate of the state of the country in antiquity from the condition in which we find it at the present time, seeing it has groined for centuries under the yoke of barbarous tyrants, and been subjected to every species of tyranny and oppression. "The Holy Land," says Dr. Shaw, "were it as well peopled and cultivated as in former times, would still be more fruitful than the very best part of the coast of Syria and Phœnicie, for the soil is generally much richer, and, all things considered, yields a more preferable crop. Thus the cotton that is gathered in the plains of Ramah, Esdræon, and Zabulon, is in greater esteem than what is cultivated near Sidon and Tripoli. Neither is it possible for pulse, wheat, or any sort of grain, to be more excellent than what is sold at Jerusalem. The barrenness, or scarcity rather, which some authors may either ignorantly or maliciously complain of, doth not proceed from the incapacity or natural unfruitfulness of the country, but from the want of inhabitants, and the great aversion there is to industry and labour in those few who possess it. There are, besides, such perpetual discords and depredations among the petty princes who share this fine country, that allowing it were better peopled, yet there would be small encouragement to sow, when it was uncertain who should gather in the harvest. Otherwise the land is a good land, and still capable of affording its neighbours the like supplies of corn and oil which it was known to have done in the time of Solomon." (Travels, p. 336. 4to. ed.)

At a more recent period Dr. Clarke said of the Holy Land, "The delightful plain of Zabulon appeared every where covered with spontaneous vegetation, flourishing in the wildest exuberance. The scenery is to the full as delightful as in the rich vales upon the S. of the Crimea: reminded us of the finest parts of Kent and Surrey. The soil, although stony, is exceedingly rich. We found the valleys W. of Jerusalem covered with plentiful crops

of tobacco, wheat, barley, Indian millet, melons, vines, pumpkins, and cucumbers." (Trav. iv. 428.)

These statements are more than sufficient to attest the natural riches and fertility of this famous region. As an agricultural or corn-growing country it is, indeed, far inferior to Egypt and many other states; but the variety of its surface and products, the salubrity of the climate, and the productiveness of its cultivated lands, would make it, were it possessed by an industrious, well-governed people, a most desirable country.

Recently, however, the condition of Syria and Palestine has been changed materially for the worse, as compared even with what it was at the epoch of Clarke's visit. The destructive contests of which it has been the theatre, the consequent destruction of property, the interruption of all sorts of industry, and the emigrations occasioned by the conscriptions of Mehemet Ali, have reduced Syria and Palestine to a state of depression to which they had never previously sunk, and from which there is but little hope of their recovering under their present rulers.

During the ascendancy of the Egyptians Mehemet Ali attempted to introduce the same compulsory or forcing system into Syria and Palestine that he has introduced into Egypt (which see). In this view the principal officers of the government and the army, and the more opulent inhabitants, were compelled to undertake the task of restoring ruined villages, and the culture of their lands. Government intended, by means of the increased cultivation of wheat and barley, to render Syria independent of supplies from without; and, if possible, to obtain a surplus for exportation. In good harvests, indeed, Syria, particularly its S. part, previously produced sufficient corn for its own consumption; and had the measures undertaken by the Egyptian government been persevered in, there can be little doubt that there would have been a great increase of produce. But in 1837 the influence of the new system was paralysed by a drought; and the events that speedily followed overturned at once the power and the projects of the Egyptians.

The landed property of Syria, as of the rest of the Turkish empire, is supposed to belong to the sultan, as the vicegerent of God and the prophet; and the principle, that it did so, in fact, was acted upon, at the conquest of the country, by the caliph Omar, in the 7th, and by the Turks under Selim I., in the 16th century. At present, however, this assumed property of the sultan is a mere legal fiction. Soon after Selim's conquest, the ruinous effects of the general confiscation became so apparent that measures were taken for giving the occupiers a right of property in the land on paying a small quit-rent. Land may now be classed under three heads: that belonging to the sultan and government; vacant or entailed lands; and real property, belonging to the proprietors, and descending by inheritance. The lands and property belonging to the sultan and government are those escheating in different ways; such as lands abandoned in consequence of non-cultivation during three years, lands left by the extinction of families, lands confiscated, &c. Entailed property, called *mir* or *haramm*, consists of that settled by private individuals for the maintenance of public caravanserais, fountains, and charitable institutions; and of that vested in the hands of the clergy for behoof of certain parties, and their heirs or nearest of kin. Some lands are settled on the eldest heir in perpetuity, and cannot be sold, though they may be exchanged. According to the rule of the Ottoman law, Franks and other foreigners cannot hold land in the Turkish dominions; but, in fact, they do hold it, by means of long leases or otherwise, which make it little less secure than freehold. In the succession to property, the sons inherit twice as much as the daughters.

In Lebanon, almost every male inhab. is a small proprietor; and in the neighbourhood of Beyrout there are a great number of landholders who, for the most part, cultivate the white mulberry-tree. Large proprietors are few, except among the emirs of Mount Lebanon, some of whom have extensive estates, which they either cultivate on their own account, or let out to farming tenants. (Bowring's Rep. on Syria, pp. 101, 102; *Le Syrie jusqu'en 1840*, pp. 75—83, 145, 149.)

The *mir*, or land-tax, is not assessed in Syria by any invariable rule, or according to any admeasurement of the land. A government is assessed in a certain amount, which is apportioned among the different villages according to their greater or less amount of pop., or more or less extent of land; and the peasants themselves apportion the payments each has to make. In the cultivation of all kinds of produce, except silk, the landed proprietor supplies the peasantry with seed, and a certain sum of money to buy oxen, cattle, and implements of husbandry; and receives 10, 15, or 20 per cent. of the produce, according as the ground is more or less taxed. The remainder is divided into two equal parts, one of which the proprietor takes, and the other is for the

peasants. These last are obliged to repay the money advanced to them, but not the seed. (*Col. Campbell's Report.*)

The old Roman plough, drawn by bullocks, is that almost universally employed. Wheat, barley, maize, millet, lentils, sesamum, &c. are grown principally in the plain of the Haouran, which has always been considered the granary of Syria. It is inhabited by Turks, Druses, and stationary Arabs, and is visited in spring and summer by several Bedouin tribes. Burckhardt computes the resident pop. at from 50,000 to 60,000. The fertility of the soil depends entirely upon the water with which it is sunnled, and the harvest is, therefore, in proportion to the abundance of the winter rains, and the extent of artificial irrigation. Lands which cannot be irrigated usually lie fallow every other year; though a part is sometimes sown in spring with sesamum, cucumbers, melons, and pulse. Where an abundance of water may be obtained from neighbouring springs, the soil is sown with lentils, pease, sesamum, &c. after the grain harvest. In middling years, wheat is said to yield 25 times the seed; and the produce of barley is said sometimes to average 50 and even 60 times the seed: though these statements are usually much exaggerated, and but little to be depended on. The first harvest is that of horsebeans, at the end of April: vast tracts are sown with these, to serve as food for cows, sheep, and camels. Next comes the barley, and towards the end of May, the wheat harvest. The wealth of a cultivator is estimated by the number of *fedjans*, or yokes of oxen, he employs. The owner of two or three is estimated rich, and he will probably possess, besides, two camels, a mare or gelding, or a couple of asses, and forty or fifty sheep. Taxes are very heavy in the Haouran. There is, first, the *masri*, paid to the pacha, and which is levied on the *fedjans*, the amount depending on the sum at which the whole village is rated in the pacha's books, and which must be paid so long as the village is inhabited, be the number of *fedjans* employed few or many. Next is the obligation to supply the troops, &c., with provender; and the third and heaviest contribution paid by the villagers is the *khone*, or tribute (identical with the *black-meal* of the Scotch) claimed by the Bedouins, in return for their protection, or rather forbearance. Each village pays *khone* to the sheikh of a tribe, who is then bound to protect the inhabs, and to pay a tribute of from 30 and 40 to 400 piastres to the pacha for this privilege. Lastly come the unlimited contributions exacted by the pachas. The receipt of the *miri* of the whole pachalic, which may amount to 250,000*l.*, is in the hands of Jew bankers, who not only get about 5 per cent., but contrive to extort something further on their own account. Families in the Haouran are constantly moving from one place to another. In the first year of their new settlement the sheikh acts with moderation towards them; but his exactions becoming insupportable, they migrate to some other place, where they have heard that their brethren are better treated; they soon find, however, that the same system prevails over the whole country. (*Mod. Trav.* lii. 90-93.) In addition to all these exactions, the crops in the Haouran are sometimes destroyed by mice, though not so often as in the neighbourhood of Horus and Hamah. But the worst enemies of the agriculturist are the clouds of locusts which sometimes devastate the country, devouring every "green thing." They are not, however, an unmitigated nuisance, having been used for food time immemorial, and are said to be both wholesome and palatable.

The most careful cultivation in Syria is exhibited on the slopes of Mount Lebanon and other inaccessible districts, where the inhabs. enjoy a comparative exemption from the exactions of their Turkish masters. "Stimulated by their sense of security, they have, by dint of art and labour, compelled a rocky soil to become fertile. Sometimes, to profit by the water, they conduct it, by a thousand windings, along the declivities, or stop it, by forming dams in the valleys; while, in other places, they prop up ground, ready to crumble away, by walls and terraces. Almost all these mountains, thus laboured, present the appearance of a flight of stairs, or an amphitheatre, each step of which is a row of vines or mulberry-trees. I have reckoned 120 of these gradations on the same declivity, from the bottom to the top of the mountain. So powerful is the influence of even the feeblest ray of liberty and security." (*Volney*, l. 300.)

The mulberry-tree flourishes on the coast and through the more fertile parts of the Lebanon range, and a little more attention to the culture of silk would render it in a few years the principal article of export. The mulberry plants are set in rows 6 or 8 ft. apart; they are cut off at corresponding height, and suffered to retain only the fresh twigs. The arrangement generally made with the peasantry is to allow them one fourth part of the silk for taking care of the worms, and reeling it off the cocoons. The landowner provides the leaves, which are gathered by the peasants. He also erects the sheds in which the cocoons are kept, which are simple reed enclosures, without

any roof. The quantity of silk annually produced on Mount Lebanon is estimated at about 1,300 cantars, or 240,000 oke, fetching from 120 to 125 piastres the oke, of which about two-thirds are exported. About 400 cantars is considered an abundant crop in the Tripoli district. Aleppo receives about 250 cantars from Antioch, and other quarters. Its chief consumption there is in the manufacture of the cotton and silk goods used for upper garments by the wealthy inhabs.; but it is also sent into all parts of the Turkish empire; and, in 1786, 100 cantars were sent to Genoa, France, and England. The average annual produce of cotton in the vicinity of Aleppo, Jaffa, Nablous, and other places in the S., is estimated at from 30,000 to 35,000 cantars, worth about 350,000*l.* In the N. the crops are exposed to great vicissitudes. The quality of the cotton is sometimes good, but more commonly inferior. The export is chiefly to Smyrna, and other parts of Turkey. Not more than from 1,000 to 2,000 cantars reach W. Europe, the quantity that comes to England being very trifling. The oil harvest is very precarious. From 8,000 to 10,000 cantars may be about the average consumption in Aleppo, half of which is produced in the neighbourhood. The average produce around Damascus is estimated at from 4,800 to 5,000 cantars. The oil has of late years been considerably improved, and its quantity augmented by the introduction of oil-presses from France. Wine might become an important article both of consumption and export; and at some of the convents of Lebanon (where the vine is suffered to trail on the ground) a very good wine, called *vin d'oro*, is met with. Madder and indigo grow wild; and the former, as well as the sugar-cane, has been partially cultivated. *Brachin* Pacha introduced the cochineal insect into Syria with a view to the prospect of success; for the cactus, on which it feeds, grows there to an immense size, and forms, in fact, most of the hedges in the country. The dates of Syria are not equal in quality to those of Egypt or Nubia; but the date palm is so abundant that, as already stated, it was anciently the symbol of Judea; and it is probable that Phenicia was so called from the abundance of this plant (*q.v.*). Tobacco is grown in almost every part of Syria. Its consumption being universal both by males and females. The best is found in the districts of Aleppo, Latakia, Tripoli, and Mount Lebanon, large exports taking place from Latakia and Tripoli to Egypt and elsewhere. The total produce is estimated by Col. Campbell at 10,700 cantars a year. Scammony, the juice of a species of convolvulus, which grows in N. Syria, is a valuable article of export; and that from Aleppo is esteemed the best in the markets of Europe. But it is rarely obtained pure, the collectors first adulterating it with flour or starch, to give it colour and consistency; and with myrrh, to give it a bitter, aromatic taste. It is then sold to a few dealers, who further adulterate it in the same manner, mixing it with a rottoil of state, with scammony, in which state it is sent to England at a price of from 250 to 300 piastres per rottoil. From 1,200 to 1,500 loads of hemp are produced in the Damascus district; but it is not an article of export. From 200 to 250 cantars of beeswax are annually collected in the Aleppo district, nearly half of which is sent to Europe.

The forests of N. Syria have lately supplied large quantities of timber; the arsenals and dockyards of Egypt having been principally furnished from this source. From 70,000 to 80,000 trees, large and small, or about 14,000 tons of timber, principally pine, oak, and beech, were shipped in 1837 for Alexandria.

The Holy Land in antiquity was eminently distinguished for its abundance of cattle, including sheep, goats, camels, and asses; and though much diminished in numbers, these animals still constitute a principal part of the wealth of the occupiers. No very large or formidable wild animals exist at present in Palestine; the fallow deer, gazelle, wild goat, jackall, fox, and porcupine, being the principal. There are, however, numerous birds, including 2 species of vultures, great quantities of game, and wild fowl; and a great variety of reptiles is met with. (*Mod. Trav.* i. 15, 16.)

Conflicting statements have been put forth with respect to the actual condition of the peasantry. According to Mr. Consul Moore "the fellah, or peasant, in Syria, seems little more than a bare subsistence." But Dr. Bowring, on the other hand, states that "the condition of the labouring classes is, comparatively with that of those in England, easy and good. They feed on mutton at 3 piastres per oke, several times a week; bread daily; sometimes rice piliaus, and always bulgur piliaus (a preparation of wheat, husked and bruised, or half ground); their piliaus are made either with butter, olive or sesame oil; cheese, eggs, olives, various dried fruits, and an abundance of vegetables, beet roots, turnips, radishes, preserved in brine or vinegar, and cucumbers and capsciums in vinegar, for winter use. Their clothing is not especially coarse; the fine climate permits them to wear light cotton and other similar apparel; and in the short winter they are generally well covered. Their

lodging is good; generally each family has a separate house, or a set of rooms. Lodging generally in Syria is cheap, comparatively with most other countries. The Mussulmans have few holidays; the Christians have a great many, and their amusements are much of the same sort as the Mussulmans, if any thing, less sober; but, on the whole, none of the classes of the pop. can be taxed with habitual inebriety. But it is rare that any of the working classes can lay by sums adequate to enable them to pass the decline of life without labouring. In Syria a great portion of the labour is done by females: they are constantly seen carrying heavy burdens, fetching water, &c.; they bring home timber and brushwood from the forests, and assist much in the cultivation of the fields." (*Rep. on Syria*, 49, 50.) Field labour near Beyrout is paid at from 5 to 6½ piastres (1s. to 1s. 3d.); and artisans, as masons, carpenters, &c., get 14 or 15 piastres (2s. 10d. to 2s. 10d.) a day. The yearly expenditure of one of the labouring classes may average from 12s. to 16s. (*Ibid.*, p. 51.)

The fisheries are unimportant, except that of sponge; which is obtained along all the N. half of the coast; and in a good season, about 3,500 oke are gathered, which are principally sent to Smyrna, Rhodes, Marseilles, &c.

Few of the manufactures for which Syria was anciently renowned, survive at present. In Damascus, there are about 4,000 looms for silk and cotton stuffs, each producing 4 or 5 pieces a week, worth from 80 to 95 piastres each. In Aleppo, nearly 6,000 looms of the same description were at work in 1829; but the number in 1838 had diminished to 1,300, the consumption of rich stuffs having fallen off in favour of cotton goods, for which British twist is employed, and which occupy about 500 looms in that city. About 300 looms are also said to be occupied in the manufacture of gold and silver thread stuffs, and the total produce of the looms of Aleppo is estimated at 350,000 sterling a year. (*Bussing's Rep.*, p. 84.) In good oil years, from 7,000 to 8,000 cantars of soap are made in Aleppo; and perhaps 12,000 cantars at Damascus, Jerusalem, Nablous, and other parts of the country; it is not, however, exported to any great distance. Coarse woollens, glass, earthenware, and leather are among the other chief goods manufactured. Horus, Hamah, and Beyrout, are the other principal manufacturing towns. The ancient art of dyeing in purple is lost at Tyre, and Damascus blades have no longer their former reputation. In Palestine, a considerable trade is carried on in the manufacture of crosses, beads, rosaries, and such like trumpery.

Commerce.—In remote antiquity, Sidon and Tyre were the principal emporiums of the world: they were succeeded by Damascus, Antioch, Joppa, &c.; and in later times by Palmyra, whose grandeur was mainly owing to her situation on the great route of traffic between E. Asia and Europe and W. Asia. But for a lengthened period the commerce of Syria has been comparatively inconsiderable. The internal trade of the country is greatly impeded by the want of good roads; those that exist being mostly mere mule or camel tracks. But, notwithstanding, gum arabic, tragacanth, assafœtida, opium, &c. are brought from the surrounding countries; galls and barilla from beyond the Euphrates; saffron from Persia and Natolia; hare, fox, and jackal skins; yellow berries and goats' hair from Asia Minor; and these, with cotton, goats' and sheep's wool, silk, tobacco, and other kinds of raw produce, previously specified, form the principal exports. The imports consist chiefly of colonial produce and European manufactures: coffee (W. India), from France, Italy, and England; sugar, from France and Great Britain; pepper, spices, rice, dyeing drugs, copperas, cotton manufactures, cambric, shirtings, nankeens, imitation shawls, and cotton twist, for the most part from England; iron, tin, sal-ammoniac, woollen cloths, from France and Belgium; silks from France, glass wares from Bohemia, by way of Trieste, &c., are the most important. The caravans from Bagdad, Mosul, and Erzeroum, to Mecca, pass through Syria, bringing galls, indigo, Mocha coffee, buffalo-skins, tumbaqu, gum, Cashmere shawls, and a few Indian manufactures, in return for European manufactures and cochineal; and constant caravans travel between Aleppo and Aintab, &c., bringing oil, grain, and leather for the use of the former, which is by far the most important *dépôt* in the interior of Syria. The progressive increase of the foreign trade after the Egyptian conquest was obvious; and chiefly in favour of the British, at the expense of the French and Sardinian. In 1839, Syria and Palestine received from Great Britain 10,976,500 yards of cotton fabrics, worth 198,770*l.*, and 777,135 lbs. cotton twist, with earthenware, steel, wrought and unwrought, cochineal, indigo, sugar, pepper, pimento, &c. the value of the whole amounting to 361,568*l.* (*Board of Trade Reports*, 1841.)

The following is an account of the values of the imports into, and the exports from, Syria, in 1838, specifying those from and to each country:—

Imports.		Exports.	
From	Piastres.	To	Piastres.
Austria	1,561,200	Austria	597,700
Egypt	1,584,500	Egypt	11,000,000
France	6,689,000	France	6,525,000
Great Britain	7,381,000	Great Britain	350,000
Greece	134,000	Greece	946,680
Sardinia	2,700	Sardinia	—
Tuscany	9,075,000	Tuscany	5,135,500
Turkey	8,841,400	Turkey	4,677,500
Total	48,210,800	Total	29,270,800

The balance was principally paid in specie, or in European bills of exchange. The slave trade is not carried on to any great extent in Syria.

Government, &c.—The immediate influence of the conquest of Mehemet Ali was exhibited not only in the increase of commerce, but in a better system of police, and a better administration of justice, an increase in the value of land and labour, an increase of cultivation, and greater religious toleration. But the rayahs, and working classes generally, though better protected, were more burdened and impoverished. They were forced to labour for sums far below the ordinary rate of wages; their camels, cattle &c. were continually seized for the service of the government, and their property and resources, of whatever kind, were subjected to fresh exactions. According to Mr. Werry, nothing was done to improve the means of communication in Syria during the Egyptian ascendancy; few public works having been undertaken, except extensive barracks in the large towns. Neither did the government make public education so much an object of its care as in Egypt. The forced cultivation introduced by Ibrahim Pacha enriched only the government, not the subject. But the short period during which Syria was held by Mehemet Ali, and the uncertainty of his tenure, were sufficient to hinder him, however much disposed, from undertaking or effecting any considerable reforms or changes; though, if we may judge from what he has done in Egypt, his changes, had he been allowed to introduce them, would hardly have been improvements. On the whole, however, we incline to think that, whatever might have been the influence of his government, it would, at all events, have been preferable to the worn-out, extravasated despotism of the Porte.

Under the Egyptians, Syria was divided into 6 districts: those of Aleppo, Damascus, Jeddah, Tripoli, Saida (Sidon), and Adana. Every town had a *muselmân*, or head police magistrate; and in all having a pop. of above 2,000 persons, *Sciordivans*, or town councils, were established by Ibrahim Pacha. These bodies consisted of from a dozen to 20 of the chief inhabitants, without distinction of religion, and acted as a civil and commercial court, the decisions of which were subject to appeal to the *divans* of Aleppo or Damascus, and finally to the supreme government at Calro. These courts greatly circumscribed the duties of the *cadis* sent annually from Constantinople to make the judicial tour of Syria. Justice was remarkable for its promptitude and severity. Murder, burglary, highway robbery, and other capital crimes, are, however, comparatively rare in Syria. Europeans are subject to the jurisdiction of their own consulates.

No law exists making provision for the poor, though there are many private Mussulmen endowments; and the other religious sects mostly support and relieve their own sick, paupers, &c. In every parish, or mosque district, there are Mohammedan primary schools; and Jewish, Christian, and other primary schools, are established wherever those sects prevail. But the instruction in these is mostly limited to what is derived from religious books; and there is no native school in Syria where a more advanced education is given than in reading and writing, with the exception of the Greek college at Beyrout, where geography is studied from books printed at the Protestant presses. The American missionaries have a superior college in that town, and various other schools in the country.

The army maintained by Ibrahim Pacha in Syria was greatly over-rated in amount. Mr. Moore estimates the total number of men at 45,000 to 50,000; 35,000 infantry, 4,000 artillery, and from 6,000 to 8,000 cavalry, independent of the irregular Bedouin troops. The forces in Syria were, for the most part, Egyptian, the Syrian conscripts being usually sent to Egypt, and replaced by others from thence. The discipline introduced into the Syrian army was copied from that of the French. Ibrahim Pacha had the address to disarm all the civil pop., and attempted to settle some of the Bedouin tribes on the skirts of the Desert. But subsequent events appear to have restored their arms to the former; and the latter, most probably, prowl lawlessly over the country, as heretofore.

The public revenue in 1838, derived from the land, house, cattle, capitulation, toleration, &c. taxes, government rents, fines, customs, and octroi duties, &c., was

supposed to be equivalent to about 696,000*l.*; but the expenditure in the same year was estimated at nearly 1,200,000*l.*, the deficiency having been made up by contributions from Egypt.

The inhabitants of Syria comprise a mixture of different races, consisting partly of the posterity of those who occupied the country when it was overrun by the Arabs, that is, of the Greeks of the lower empire; partly of the posterity of the Arab conquerors of the country; and partly Turks, or Ottomans. And these, again, have been intermixed with each other, with the crusaders, who invaded and held a portion of the country for a considerable period, and with the wandering Bedouins, Kurds, &c. But, how different soever their origin, these races have, in the course of time, become equally naturalised to the country. The inhab. are generally of a middling stature; those belonging to the southern are more swarthy than those belonging to the northern plains; and these, again, than those belonging to the mountains. On Lebanon, indeed, and in the mountainous districts generally, the complexion does not differ materially from that of the inhab. of the S. of France. Arabic is the general language of the country; and Volney affirms, in opposition to the statements of Niebuhr, that neither Syriac nor modern Greek is any where in common use.

But notwithstanding the family or national resemblance by which the Syrians are now distinguished, they are distributed into different classes or tribes, all differing from each other in more or fewer particulars. Of these tribes, one of the most famous is that of the Druses, occupying the S. parts of Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon, parts of the Haouran, &c. They are supposed to be of Arabic origin, and to be disciples of a Mohammedan heretic of the 10th century. Their religion, notwithstanding the late researches of Mr. Jowett, Mr. Robinson, and others, still continues involved in a good deal of mystery. According to Volney, they appear to have a contempt for all that the Mohammedans hold most sacred; for, he says, they neither practise circumcision, nor prayer, nor fasting, nor observe festivals nor prohibitions, and that they drink wine, eat pork, and allow of marriage between brothers and sisters, though not between fathers and children. They have an emir of their own, and enjoy a rude independence, to which, no doubt, their "openness, sincerity, and engaging manners" (*Clarke*, iv. 206.) are mainly to be ascribed. They are divided into two great classes, the learned, or initiated (*akows*) and unlearned, uninitiated (*djakehs*). The former, who enjoy various privileges, are distinguished by their white turbans. Robinson says that the uninitiated perform no religious rite whatever, unless when circumstances oblige them to assume the appearance of muslimen. (*II. c.*) They are eminently tolerant; and live on good terms with both Christians and Mohammedans. Mr. Elliot is not very favourable to the Druses. "Outwardly," says he, "they are moral in their deportment; but it is doubted whether similar decorum prevails behind the scenes. Though polygamy be permitted, yet few have more than one wife, who, however, may be divorced at pleasure. They are extremely hospitable; yet, where no breach of hospitality is involved, the rights of blood and friendship are unhesitatingly sacrificed to interest. They have little personal, but much public pride. The women are distinguished by an appendage as strange, unmeaning, and hideous, as female fancy ever devised. Other nations may laugh at the long trains of the ladies of England, the infantine shoes of China, or the monstrous nose-rings of India; but the *tantour* of Lebanon surpasses them all. It is a plated, silver, or gilt tube, resembling a straight horn, 18 inches long, and standing out like a unicorn's, at an angle of 45° from the centre of the forehead, or from one side of the head; it is fastened by means of a spring, balanced by 3 heavy tassels hanging down the back, and covered with a white transparent veil." (*Elliot*, Treat. ii.)

The *Maronites* are a Christian sect, principally inhabiting the country about Lebanon, adjacent to the Druses. They originated in the 6th century, and profess themselves to be followers of the monk Maron, whence their name. They effected a union with the church of Rome, from which they had never differed very widely, about 1215. They are divided into the two classes of sheiks or chiefs, and common people, and have a spiritual head, with the title of Patriarch of Antioch. They are all husbandmen; property is sacred amongst them; and, on the whole, they bear a good character. Like the Druses, they have succeeded in maintaining their independence, paying merely a moderate tribute to the pachas. The *Metualis*, another tribe, are Syrian Mohammedans, of the Shiite, or Persian sect. The *Anasarians*, *Yesidi*, *Samaritans*, &c., have complicated religious systems, partly Mohammedan and partly idolatrous; but for accounts of these and the other Syrian tribes, we beg to refer the reader to *Volney*, which still continues to be the best work on this interesting region.

The ancient history of Palestine is familiar to every reader of the sacred writings. Under Solomon, it became a rich and powerful kingdom; and after undergoing various vicissitudes, it finally became tributary to the Romans. At the period of the advent of the Messiah, it was divided into 5 provs., Judea, Samaria, Galilee, Perea, and Idumea. We have already (art. *ISRAELITES*) noticed the conquest and destruction of that city by Titus, and the final dispersion of the Jews. In more modern times the Holy Land became the seat of a violent struggle. A singular combination of credulity and superstition gave birth to the crusades; and for some centuries the recovery of the Holy Land, and especially of the Holy Sepulchre, was sufficient to precipitate hundreds upon hundreds of thousands of blood-thirsty fanatics upon the East. At length, after oceans of blood had been spent, the victories of Saladin put an end to this deplorable phrensy. In 1516, the country was taken by the Turks.

Very recently, or in 1832, Ibrahim, son of Mehemet Ali, pacha of Egypt, undertook and speedily effected the conquest of Syria and Palestine. It is doubtful, as already seen, whether they would have gained any thing by the change; but it would be very difficult, indeed, to show that they could have lost any thing. The great European powers, however, with the exception of France, determined not to permit Syria to be disunited from the Porte; and in 1840, a British fleet, after a short but tremendous cannonade, took Acre, and Ibrahim was compelled to agree to evacuate the province. It does not, however, seem that the states by whom this revolution was effected took any step whatever to ensure the better government of the country in future; to obviate any one of the grievances by which it has been oppressed, or to make any stipulation of any kind in favour of the inhabitants.

In the art. *TYRE*, the reader will find some notice of the history of Phœnicia. (See *Reland's Palestina*; *Böerling*, &c., *Rep. on Syria*; *Castille*, *La Syrie sous Mehemet Ali*; *Marmont's Voyage*, &c., ii. iii.; *Russell's Aleppo*; *Volney*, *passim*; *Elliot*, *Wilde*, *Robinson*, *Addison*, &c.; *Mod. Trav.*, i. ii. iii., &c.)

SZAGADIN, a royal free town of Hungary, co. Csongrad, of which it is the cap., on the Theiss, where it is joined by the Maros, 60 m. W.N.W. Arad, and 100 m. S.E. Pesth. Pop. 22,300. (*Berghaus*.) It consists of the town-proper, tolerably well built, and chiefly inhabited by Germans; the fortress, the residence of a commandant and garrison, connected with the town by two bridges; the upper and lower suburb, and the corn market. It has a house of correction (which, according to the *Aust. Nat. Encyc.*, is the only one in Hungary), a lyceum, gymnasium, Parist college, military school, &c.; and is the see of a Greek metropolitan. *Page's* says it is one of the most desirable towns in Hungary; it has, however, a good deal of trade, chiefly in corn, soda, soap, and tobacco, with several soap and other factories. It also supplies some of the best river craft in the kingdom. (*Berghaus*; *Page's Hungary*, &c., i. 1481.)

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TABRIZ, or TAURIS, a city of Persia, prov. Adserbajan, of which it is the cap., in a large and fine plain, on a small river which falls into Lake Urumia, 330 m. W.N.W. Teheran, lat. 38° 10' N., long. 46° 37' E. Its pop. was estimated by Chardin at upwards of half a million; but it has declined so much in the interval, that it is now probably under 30,000; and it is said by Mr. Klnneir to be one of the most wretched cities he had seen in Persia. (*Persian Empire*, p. 151.) Being surrounded by a forest of orchards, it appears from the ground around it to be of immense extent; and a modern traveller considers the circuit of the gardens of Tabriz to measure not less than 30 m. (*Ravinsion in Geog. Journal*, x. 2.) But the town itself, which is nearly in the centre of the area, is only about 3½ m. in circuit; it is surrounded with a brick wall and towers, and is entered by seven gates. It has few public buildings of note: the principal is the citadel of Ali Shah, a part of which is now converted into an arsenal, where many European artisans are or have been employed. A considerable portion of the pop. live in the suburbs, which straggle over the area of the ancient city, and are built of its ruins. Tabriz is said by D'Anville to represent the ancient *Ganzaca*, where Cyrus deposited the treasures of Croesus, and which was afterwards taken by Heraclius; and it has been also supposed to be identical with the *Tactac* of Ptolemy. But, according to other authorities, it was built under Haroun al Raschid, of whom it was certainly a favourite residence. Its trade, which was formerly extensive, has greatly declined. Few cities have suffered so much from the ravages of war and earthquakes. Its climate is praised by the natives for its salubrity; but the changes of temperature are extremely great and sudden, and in

whenever the cold is so intense, that "many instances have occurred of individuals, accidentally excluded from the city by arriving after the gates were shut, being found frozen to death in the morning." (*Mod. Trav.*, xiii. 255—256; *Kincaid's Persian Empire*, &c.)

TADCASTER, a market town and par. of England, W. Riding, co. York, partly in the liberty of St. Peter of York, and partly in Barkstone-Ash wapent., on the Wharf, here crossed by a stone bridge; 10 m. W. S. W. York. Area of par., 6,100 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 3,172. The town is well built. The church, which is handsome, in the perpendicular style, has a fine tower. (*Rickman's Gothic Architecture*.) The living, a vicarage in the gift of Lord Egremont, is worth 240*l.* a year. It has chapels for Methodists and other dissenters, Jesus' hospital for four poor men, a free grammar school, founded in the time of Queen Elizabeth, Sunday schools, for some of which spacious buildings have been erected, &c. There are no manufactories, but a good deal of retail trade. Markets on Tadcaster. Fair last Wednesday in April, May, and Oct. for sheep and cattle.

TAGANROG, a fortified sea-port town of Russia in Europe, on the N. shore of the N.E. angle of the sea of Azoff, denominated the gulph of the Don, about 10 m. from the mouth of that river; lat. 47° 12' 46" N., long. 36° 29' E. Pop. about 16,000. The foundations of Taganrog were laid by Peter the Great in 1698; but it afterwards fell into the possession of the Turks; and it was not till the reign of Catharine II. that it became of any considerable importance. It has ten churches, of which three are built of stone; a gymnasium, a poor's hospital, &c. It was intended by its illustrious founder to replace Azoff, the ancient emporium of the Don, the port of which had become all but inaccessible; and its whole consequence is derived from this circumstance, or from its being the entrepôt of the commerce of the vast countries traversed by that great river. Of the exports wheat is by far the most important. In 1847 the shipments of this grain reached the very large amount of 546,856 quarters, worth when shipped above 1,000,000*l.* stg. The exports of the other varieties of corn are but inconsiderable. In the above-mentioned year there were among the exports 3,810 tons tallow, 35,243 qrs. Hulled, and 9,108 do. unpeeled, 10,256 cwt. wool, 5,315 do. caviar, 2,877 do. butter, with small quantities of iron, hides, cordage, furs, wax, ashes, indiangas, &c. The imports consist principally of wine, oil, fruit, drysalteries, cotton and woollen goods, spices, dye stuffs, tobacco, sugar, coffee, &c. The largest portion by far of the trade is carried on with Constantinople, Smyrna, and other Turkish ports; but a good deal is also carried on with the Italian and other foreign ports; and there is an extensive coasting trade with Odessa and other Russian ports.

Seeing that Taganrog was built to obviate the difficulties that had to be encountered by vessels entering the Don, through the shallowness of the water, it might have been supposed that care would be taken to place it in a position in which it should be, in as far as possible, free from this defect. This important consideration seems, however, to have been in a great measure overlooked. The gulph of the Don is seldom navigable by vessels drawing more than from 8 to 9 ft. water, and even these cannot approach within less than about 700 yards of the town. They are principally loaded by barges, drawn each by a single horse, the expenses being so very considerable that it costs from 120 to 150 roubles to ship a chetwert of wheat.

To obviate these inconveniences it has been proposed to make Kertsch, on the E. coast of the strait of Yenikali, a depôt for the produce of the sea of Azoff; and while the latter would be much easier of access to foreign ships, the coasters that at present bring down the products of the basin of the Don from Nakhitchewan and Rostoff to Taganrog, would be able to bring them direct to Kertsch, where they might be landed and shipped with much greater facility, and less expense. In 1836, 761 vessels arrived at, and 730 sailed from, Taganrog; but owing to the shallowness of the water they were chiefly of small burden. With the exception of a few foreign houses, the merchants are mostly all either Greeks, or of Greek origin, and are not wealthy.

The emperor Alexander, whose reign will always form a memorable and brilliant era in the history of Russia, expired at Taganrog on the 19th of November, 1826. (For further particulars see *Schützler, La Russie*, p. 717.; *Hagenmeister on the Trade of the Black Sea*, p. 21., &c.; and *Russian Official Accounts*.)

TAGUS (Span. *Tago*, Portug. *Tago*), the principal and most celebrated river of the Span. peninsula, through the centre of which it flows from E. to W. between the basins of the Ebro and Douro on the N. and the Guadiana on the S. It has its source in the Sierra Albaracin, on the borders of Aragon and New Castile, about lat. 40° 29' N., long. 1° 25' W., 30 m. W. Teruel, and only 90 m. from the Mediterranean. At first it runs N.W., but after having been joined by the Molina, its course is generally W. by S.W., through New Castile

and Estremadura, in Spain; and in Portugal between Beira and Alemtejo, and through Estremadura to the Atlantic, which it enters after expanding into a wide estuary, about 7 m. below Lisbon. Its entire length may be estimated at nearly 600 m., about 2-4ths of which are in Spain. Its principal tributaries are the Jarama, Alberche, Alagon, and Zesere from the N., and the Rio del Monte, Salor, Sora, &c. from the S. Aranjuez, Toledo, Talavera, Almaraz, Alcantara, Abente, Punheto, Santarem, and Lisbon, are on its banks. At its entrance into Portugal, the Tagus is 130 yards in width, and at Punheto upwards of 300 yards. Above Lisbon, it expands into a wide basin, from 2 m. to 7 m. across; but opposite that city its breadth contracts to less than 3 m. The Tagus has been celebrated, both in antiquity and in modern times, for its picturesque beauty: nothing, however, can be more incorrect than these poetical descriptions. It flows, in fact, for the most part, through an arid country, bare of wood, and uncultivated; its banks are generally steep, its current impetuous, and its waters turbulent and muddy. It was famous in antiquity for its golden sands: *Tagus auriferis arenis celebratur* (*Plin. Hist. Nat.*, lib. iv. cap. 22.; see, also, *Silius Italicus*, lib. vii. v. 755.; *Ovidii Metamorph.*, lib. ii. v. 251., &c.) At present, however, very few particles of gold are ever found in the sands of the river; and though they may have been more abundant in antiquity, the fair presumption seems to be, that it is indebted for its celebrity, in this respect, rather to the yellow colour of its sands than to its gold.

Hitherto the Tagus above Lisbon has not been of much commercial importance, though it be navigable as high as Abrantes. Attempts have, however, been made to render it navigable from Toledo, and even Aranjuez; and no doubt, should the present liberal government maintain its footing in Spain, this will be effected. Inglis says, that in the winter of 1829, the passage downwards to the sea was successfully undertaken by a boat from Toledo. But, he adds, "this could not have been done at any other season; because, in dry weather, the water is in many places almost wholly diverted from its natural channel for the use of the mills that have been erected upon its banks." (*Inglis's Spain*, i. 297.; *Milnes*, &c.; *Cellard's Geographie antiqué*, i. 68. col.)

TAIN, a royal and parl. bor. of Scotland, co. Ross, on rising ground, near the S. shore of the Frith of Dornoch, and near the mouth of the river Tain, 24 m. N.N. E. Inverness. Pop. of parl. bor., in 1841, 1,872. "Tain has improved of late years, and may be considered in a thriving condition. Many new houses have been built, and a good deal of ground has been fenced. It possesses a good academy (founded in 1809), which has attracted a number of families to the town for the education of their children; but it has little or no manufacture, and the sand-bars on the coast deprive it of any advantage it might have derived from its maritime situation." (*Parl. Board. Report*.) New county buildings were lately erected on the site of the old prison, a new gaol having been built at the S. W. angle of the town. It has a handsome par. church, a Free church, a grammar school, and three branch banks. It is associated with Cromarty, Dingwall, Dornoch, and Kirkwall in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Reg. elect. in 1849-50, 88. It is governed by a provost, 2 bailies, and 12 councillors. Corporation revenue, in 1847-48, 385*l.*

TALAVERA DE LA REYNA, a city of Spain, New Castile, prov. Toledo, on the Tagus, 42 m. W. by N. Toledo, and 65 m. S. W. Madrid. Pop. about 8,000. It stands on a large and fertile plain, and is divided into two parts by the river, which is here crossed by a stone bridge of 35 arches, and 530 yds. in length. The remnants of old fortifications exist, but the town cannot, at present, be said to be fortified. "The modern town is very irregularly built, with low houses, and narrow and ill-paved streets: it has 8 par. churches, 8 monasteries, and 5 nunneries, which appear to have nothing about them remarkable, (except, perhaps, the collegiate church, in which Miliano says there is a good picture of the Assumption.) There are two handsome promenades, or public promenades, which are but little frequented, the inhabitants being as generally sunk in apathy and sloth as in the days of their ancient townsman Mariano." (*Mod. Trav.* xix. 221.) Talavera has an economical society, schools of Latin, philosophy, theology, &c., and had formerly some manufactures of silk, stuffs, and porcelain. Its markets are tolerably well supplied with provisions. It is supposed to represent the *Talabrica* of the Romans: it was taken by the Moors in 714, and various Moorish remains are still to be seen in the city and its neighbourhood. After many vicissitudes it was destroyed by the Moors in 1109, but was speedily rebuilt. It afterwards became an appanage of the queens of Spain, whence its name.

In modern times it has been rendered famous by the obstinate battle fought in its neighbourhood, on the 27th and 28th of July, 1809, between the British and Spanish forces under Sir Arthur Wellesley (now Duke of Wellington), and the French under Joseph Buonaparte,

assisted by Marshals Jourdan and Victor. The French, who commenced the attack, were repulsed at all points. The slaughter was great, and nearly equal on both sides. (*Martins*; *Napier's Peninsular War*, ii. 392, &c.)

TAMBOFF, a central government of European Russia, principally between the 53d and 55th degs. of N. lat., and the 40th and 43d of E. long. having N. Vladimir and Nijni-Novgorod, E. Pensa and Sarato, S. Voronege, and W. chiefly the latter and Riazan. Its length N. to S. is about 350 m., breadth varying from 100 to 250 m. Area, 24,430 sq. m. Pop. in 1846, 1,750,900. Surface flat, except in a few parts, where it is slightly undulating. Principal rivers, the Tsna and Mocksha, tributaries of the Oka, flowing N.; and the Vorona, a tributary of the Don, flowing S. In the N. the soil is sandy and maraby; a large proportion of the country, principally the marshes being covered with forests: in the E., or *steppe*, so called from its being bare of wood, the soil consists principally of a black mould, and is comparatively fertile. The government comprises in all 5,912,322 deciatines (a deciatine = 3.7 Eng. acre), which, according to the notice published in 1833, by M. Korsakoff, formerly vice governor of Tamboff, were distributed as follow:—

	Deciatines.
Cultivated and cultivable lands	2,235,177
Meadows and pasture grounds	1,515,358
Forests of the crown	153,768
— individuals	881,673
Towns and villages, with their dependencies	93,197
Communal properties	206,746
Roads, marshes, and waste lands	319,470
Total	5,912,322

Corn is the principal product; but, according to the official accounts, the crops are extremely variable, and scarcities frequently occur. The crop of 1802, for example, was estimated at 3,452,727 chetwerts, and that of 1891 at only 5,223,796 chet. (a chetwert = 6 bushels nearly). In 1833, an abundant year, 800,000 chetwerts were exported to Moscow and Petersburg. We should not have thought it worth while to be so particular in these notices, but for the fact of its having been stated, in a consular return from Petersburg, that in 1835 no fewer than 38,000,000 quarters of corn were produced in this government! That any public officer should have made such a statement, and that the Foreign Office should have printed it without note or comment of any kind, is, if not a singular, at all events rather a remarkable circumstance. It may be affirmed, with the utmost confidence, that the entire produce of the government never amounted to 12 million quarters, either in 1835 or any other year. We have already seen that the cultivated and cultivable lands in the government amount to about 2,235,000 deciatines, or to very near 6,000,000 acres. Now, supposing this land to be *all* in cultivation (which it is not), the invariable practice here is to take two crops and then fallow, so that a third part of the land is constantly waste, leaving 4 millions of acres under crop. If each acre produced, at an average, 3 quarters, the total produce would be 12 million quarters; but when we bear in mind the backward state of agriculture, and the poverty of the soil in the N. half of the government, where the return is said not to exceed 3 or 4 times the seed, it will be immediately seen that if we estimate the entire produce in ordinary years at 9,000,000 quarters, we shall most probably be a good deal beyond rather than within the mark. It is to be observed, too, that by far the larger portion of the produce is rye, wheat not constituting above one fifth part of the total produce; and we may farther observe, that it would cost from 15s. to 20s. to convey a quarter of this wheat either to Petersburg or to a ship in the roads off Taganrog, in the sea of Azoff. The peasantry are well treated, and in good circumstances. Hence it is extensively grown; the value of the quantity exported amounting, according to Schnitzler, to 1,000,000 roubles a year.

The forests along the Mocksha supply a good deal of timber for ship and boat building; and the inhabs. are there principally wood-cutters, carpenters, coopers, or pitch and tar makers. Cattle, principally brought from the steppes of the Don, the Volga, and the Caucasus, are numerous, and are extensively fattened for the neighbouring governments, and for Moscow and Petersburg. In 1833 the stock of sheep was estimated at 1,000,000 head, and 670,000 hogs. The horses belonging to the gentry are good, and have been much improved by the stud kept by the Orloff family; but the horses of the peasantry are wretched. The manufacture of woollen cloth is carried on to a considerable extent. Peter the Great established an extensive cloth manufactory, for the service of government, at the village of Boudari. This, however, was burnt down in 1836; but having been since rebuilt on a great scale, it gave employment, in 1842, to about 2,000 males, and 1,150 females: the consumption of wool is stated at 80,000 poods a year; and besides furnishing 440,000 arshines of cloth annually for the army, it pro-

duces other goods, worth 1,500,000 roubles. It has also numerous forges, distilleries, tallow factories, mills (of which a very fine one belongs to Count Koutalowsky), &c. Principal towns, Tamboff, Mochansk, Chatsk, Jiziatna, Lipetsk, &c. See *Schnitzler, La Russie*, 261; *Passant des Kaiserlich Russland*, p. 563.; *Venables' Russia*, p. 333, &c.)

TAMBOFF, a town of Russia in Europe, cap. of the above gov., about the centre of which it is situated, on the Tsna, 385 m. S.E. Moscow; lat. 53° 43' 12" N., long. 41° 45' 18" E. Pop., in 1830, according to an official statement, 20,147. The town, which is about 2 m. in length, by 1 m. in breadth, was originally founded and fortified in 1636 as a defence against the incursions of the Nogai Tartars. The houses are principally of wood; but there are various stone churches, a large monastery, a gymnasium, civil hospital, a military orphan asylum. In the school of cadets at Tamboff, about 180 pupils, sons of nobles, are instructed in French, German, military exercises, &c.; and the most intelligent are afterwards sent to the *corps de cadets* at Petersburg. A high school for young ladies was founded in 1834, and there are various other schools. Manufactures of woollen cloths, alum, vitriol, &c. are established; and the town has active general trade.

TAME, a river of England. See THAMES.

TAMWORTH, a par. and munici. bor., market town, and par. of England, principally in the co. Stafford, but partly also in Warwickshire, being divided into two parts by the Tame, where it is joined by the Anker, 64 m. S.E. Lichfield. Area of par. bor., which the Boundary Act made co-extensive with the par., 12,920 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 7,662. The town is well built, and a handsome bridge is thrown across each of the rivers. According to the *Munic. Bound. Rep.*, the pop. of both the bor. and par. appeared, at the time (1837), to be stationary, or decreasing rather than otherwise. This may be attributed in some measure to the decay of the staple manufacture of the place, and to the breaking up of the large establishment of the late Sir R. Peel. The town was not then lighted; but the inhabitants were about to assess themselves under the general act for that purpose. The gas works were nearly completed, and it is now well lighted. It is paved at the expense of the corporation. The par. church, dedicated to St. Editha, is supposed to occupy the site of a very ancient nunnery. "It is a large, handsome edifice, with a fine tower, and a crypt under part of the church. Some portions are of decorated date, and some perpendicular, and both good; some of the windows have had very fine tracery. In the tower is a curious double staircase." (*Rickman's Gt. Br.*) Numerous monuments adorn the interior of this church. The living, a perpetual curacy, worth 170*l.* a year, is in the gift of — Rassington, Esq. There are various dissenting chapels, an hospital for 14 poor men and women, founded and endowed by Thomas Guy, the founder of the famous hospital in Southwark which bears his name; a grammar school, which received endowments both from Edward VI. and Elizabeth. Very recently a free-school has been established by the late Sir Robert Peel, and there are other schools. Boys from the grammar school are eligible to a scholarship in Catherine Hall, Cambridge, and a native of the town to a fellowship in St. John's college, Cambridge. On an artificial height, near the town is Tamworth Castle, a seat of the Townshend family. This castle, though now much modernised, is of great antiquity, having, according to some authorities, been founded by Ethelfleda, daughter of Alfred. It was conquered, with the town of Tamworth, by William the Conqueror, on Robert de Marmon, Lord of Fontenay in Normandy, the exploits of one of whose supposed descendants have been immortalised in the best of Scott's poems.

Calico-printing, and the manufacture of superfine narrow woollen cloths, were the chief branches of industry at Tamworth; but of late years they have materially declined.

Tamworth, which is on the line of the Roman Watling Street, was a place of much consequence, and the favourite residence of the Mercian kings during the Heptarchy. It appears to have been a borough by prescription; but was re-incorporated by Elizabeth. The municipal borough, which is much less extensive than the parliamentary borough, is governed by 4 aldermen and 12 councillors; it has no commission of the peace, though quarter sessions for civil causes are held. Corp. revenue, in 1848-9, 310*l.* 16*s.* 10*d.* The Commissioners of Inquiry into the municipal affairs of the different bors., speak highly of the past government of Tamworth. "The governing body is wholly self-elected: it does not appear, however, that the power thus vested in the body has been in any respect abused. Neither does it appear that the corporation, either as regards the appointment of members to the body corporate, or the exercise of the elective franchise, have been subject to the operation of any undue local influence. The ab-

sence of all complaint leads to the conclusion that the objects of municipal government have been satisfactorily attained in this borough; that the governing body has been judiciously selected, justice well administered, and the revenues carefully applied to public purposes."

Tamworth has sent 2 memos. to the H. of C. since the 8th of Elizabeth. Previously to the Reform Act, the right of voting was in the inhabitants paying scot and lot. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 396. The late Sir Robert Peel, Bart., certainly the most disinterested and truly patriotic minister that this country has had since the revolution, and, also, one of the ablest, was long representative for Tamworth, and one of its greatest benefactors. His seat of Drayton Manor is about 1 m. S. of the town; and he is interred, along with his father and mother, in the church of the adjoining par. of Basset Drayton.

TANJORE, a distr. of Hindostan, presid. Madras, and one of the most valuable in British India, ranking in point of cultivation and productiveness next to Burdwan in Bengal. It lies principally between lat. 10° and 11° 30', and the 79th and 80th degs. of E. long., having N. the distr. of Trichinopoly, W. Madras, and the ocean on the S. and E. Area, 8,625 sq. m. Pop., in 1831, 1,128,720. About half the prov. is a flat alluvial delta formed and completely irrigated by numerous branches of the Coleroon, which constitutes the N. boundary. This delta is justly considered the granary of the Madras territories; almost the whole of it is cultivated with rice, which is here produced in larger quantities and with more certainty than in any other distr. on the E. coast. The average gross produce in rice (not paddy) yearly, is estimated at 58,046 *garrec*. (*Madras New Almanac*, 1835.) The rest of the distr. S. of the delta is on a considerably higher level; its surface is undulating, and it comprises many varieties of soil. Tanjore was formerly assessed under the ryot-war system, but this was afterwards abandoned for the village settlement, under which last both the revenue and cultivation have increased very considerably.

The pop. is for the most part Hindoo, and chiefly agricultural; but there are some manufactures of cotton and silk stuffs, of copper utensils at Comboconorum, Manargooda, &c. These, however, have declined greatly of late years, owing to the importation of cheaper English goods, though some manufactured articles are still exported with the agricultural produce to Bengal, Achin, Tranquebar, and the adjacent districts. The imports are iron, saltpetre, dry grain, oil, glue, wax, tamarinds, &c. from Coimbatore, Salem, Trichinopoly, &c. The trade of Tanjore is very considerable: in 1837-38 the value of the exports was estimated at 2,619,359 rup. Total public revenue in the same year, 4,738,507 rup.; expenditure, 5,055,677 rup., so that in a pecuniary point of view it is a very valuable possession.

Tanjore was never permanently conquered by the Mohammedans, and Hindoo institutions and edifices have been preserved in it in much purity and perfection. In almost every village there is a pagoda, with a lofty gateway of massive though not elegant architecture, in which sundry Brahmins are maintained; and on all the great roads leading to these places are choultrys for the accommodation of pilgrims. The district has been noted for the prevalence of *scutes*. In antiquity it constituted the principality of Chola, whence the whole coast afterwards acquired the name of Coromandel. It was conquered by the Mahabattas in 1675; but we came quietly into its possession in 1799, on condition of allowing the rajah a lac of star pagodas and a fifth part of its nett revenue annually.

TANJORE, a large city of Hindostan, cap. of the above distr., in a plain S. of the Coleroon, and 170 m. S. E. Madras. Lat. 10° 45' N., long. 79° 12' E. Its pop. is not stated, but is probably from 35,000 to 40,000. It is said to be nearly 6 m. in circ., and consists of two separate portions, both fortified; one comprising the palace and other public buildings; and the other a celebrated pagoda, perhaps the finest specimen in India of a pyramidal temple. Its grand tower is 199 ft. in height, and is remarkable for its simplicity. In a covered area in this temple is a bull carved in black granite, 16 ft. in length, by 12 ft. in height, deemed one of the best works of Hindoo art. Close to the temple stands an English church. According to Hamilton, Tanjore appears to have been pretty strongly fortified; and the city is more regularly built, and has a larger proportion of solid and ornamental edifices than any other native town S. of the Krishna. In the palace is a group of the late rajah and his tutor, the Danish missionary Schwartz, executed at the desire of the rajah by Flaxman. The British residency is outside the walls to the S. Tanjore was unsuccessfully besieged by the British in 1749, and the French in 1758; but was taken by the former in 1773. (*Hamilton*; *Heber*, in *Mod. Trav.* &c.)

TAORMINA (an. *Taurominium*, or *Tauromentum*), a town of Sicily, prov. Messina, cap. cant., on a high, craggy mountain, on the E. coast of the island, about

half-way between Messina and Catania, being 30 m. S.W. the former, and 31 m. N.E. the latter. Pop., in 1831, 3,929. Travellers speak in the highest terms of the surrounding scenery. "Were I," says Swinburne, "to name a place that possesses every grand and beautiful qualification for forming a picture—a place on which I should wish to employ the powers of a *Salvator* or a *Poussin*, Taormina should be the object of my choice; Every thing belonging to it is in a large, sublime style; It is fortified by an irregular wall and lines, constructed by the Saracens, surmounted by an old Saracenic castle and more modern works; and above all, on the summit of a tabled cliff, is the inconsiderable town and military post of Mola. Though Taormina has an immoderate proportion of convents and large buildings, it is ill built and dirty, and, notwithstanding its elevated situation, it is said to be but indifferently healthy. (*Smyth*.) On a fountain, in the main street, part of the statue of a centaur, with the addition of a copper nimbus, is held to represent St. Pancras, a native of the town, and its protector!"

Taormina has some splendid remains of antiquity. Its theatre, which is most probably of Greek origin, is the object of universal admiration. It is of very ample dimensions, being capable of accommodating no fewer than 40,000 spectators (*Smyth*), and is wonderfully well preserved. It is principally excavated in the slope of the mountain, its seats being hewn out of the rock: the *proscenium* and parts connected with the stage are built of brick, and are nearly entire; the space allotted to the orchestra is also preserved, as well as the dressing-rooms of the actors. Its greatest breadth (measured on the plan in *Russell's Sicily*) is about 360 ft.; its extreme length, 300 ft.; and it is so admirably contrived that, even now, the slightest noise, as the tearing of a piece of paper on the stage, is distinctly heard in the most distant part of the theatre. The seats command the most superb views of Mount Etna, Aci Reale, Catania, and it is said, of the country even as far as Syracuse. "The spot," says Sir R. C. Hoare, "seems to have been created for a public edifice: behind and before are steep precipices which leave just room sufficient to plant the most noble and magnificent structure. I visited it frequently and never left it without regret." (ii. 193.) In addition to the theatre, Taormina has an entire side of a naumachia, upwards of 350 ft. in length, with the remains of the aqueduct and the reservoirs that supplied it with water; and in every direction round the town are sepulchres, cenotaphs, tessellated pavements, remains of remarkable edifices, &c., attesting its ancient wealth and magnificence. The churches have little remarkable, though that of St. Pancras appeared to Sir R. C. Hoare to be of Grecian origin, and probably, he says, the oldest building in the town. The Dominican convent has a large court, surrounded with columns of fine brown and white marble. The inhabs. have some trade in wines and hemp, the former being, it is said, of superior quality, though very inferior to what they must have been in antiquity, when they occupied a high place at the Roman banquets.

Taurominium is of uncertain origin: it was taken by Dionysius the Elder, in the 9th Olympiad, or about anno 408 a.c. A Roman colony was settled in it by Julius Cæsar. The ancient city was ruined by the Saracens in 968; since which it has never recovered any considerable portion of its ancient importance. (*Smyth's Sicily*, p. 128, 129; *Russell*, p. 241—248; *Sir R. C. Hoare, Class. Tour*, p. 184—200; *Swinburne*; *Brydone*.)

TARANTO (an. *Tarentum*), a famous city and seaport of S. Italy, kindg. of Naples, cap. of the prov. Otranto, anciently one of the wealthiest and most celebrated cities of Magna Græcia, near the N. extremity of the Gulph of Taranto, 42 m. W. S.W. Brindisi, and 160 m. E.S.E. Naples. Lat. 40° 28' N.; long. 17° 35' E. Pop., estimated by Burgess and others at 15,000. It stands on a rocky point, which was formerly an island, separating the gulph, or outer sea, from an inner bay, called the Little Sea (*Mare Piccolo*), 15 or 16 m. in circ. At its N. extremity is the old channel, leading to the Mare Piccolo, crossed by a bridge about 160 yards in length, over which an aqueduct is brought, conveying water to the city from the mountains of Mufina, about 12 m. distant. The channel on the S. side of the town is artificial, having been originally opened by Ferdinand I., and deepened by Philip II.: it also is crossed by a bridge about 50 yards in length. In antiquity the citadel occupied the site of the modern city.

The harbour of Taranto is excellent, and might, with little difficulty, be made all but perfect. In antiquity the Mare Piccolo, or inner bay, was the principal rendezvous of the Tarantine ships, where they lay perfectly secure from hostile attacks, and as safe in other respects as if they had been in dock. The entrance to the inner bay is now, however, so choked up with rubbish, that it is accessible only to small boats; but it might be easily cleared out, and the basin rendered as useful as ever. Adjoining the town, the Mare Piccolo has from 4 to 6

fathoms water. The present, or outer harbour, is at once extensive and safe. There are 4 fathoms water close to the town; and the bay, which is capacious, is protected by the islands of St. Peter and St. Paul.

Its situation is striking and singular, and despite the change in its fortunes, Swinburne says its appearance is replete with wonderful beauties. The ancient city extended along the shores both of the gulph and the Mare Piccolo, and the walls which ran from the one to the other formed the base of the triangular space which it covered. Of its magnificent buildings, which included a temple of Neptune, the guardian deity of the city, scarcely any vestiges exist, except the outlines of an amphitheatre, some substructions of apparently a Roman work, and an immense mass composed of fragments of pottery. "The shape of the modern city has been, with some justice, assimilated to a ship, being wide in the centre, and tapering at each end. The principal street runs from one of its extremities to the other in a waving line; and narrow and tortuous communications lead to two other parallel streets; one of which extends along the waters of the outward gulph, but considerably above their level, and is defended from their fury by a parapet wall and projecting battery. Here the best houses are situated. The Marina on the contrary, which borders the inner bay, or Mare Piccolo, is scarcely raised above its surface; and nothing can present a stronger contrast than the crowded, filthy, but lively appearance of the last, opposed to the quiet, clean, but deserted aspect of the former. The Marina is inhabited entirely by fishermen and their families, who constitute more than half the pop. of the place." (*Craven, Tour, p. 176.*) The cathedral, dedicated to San Cataldo, a native of Ireland, is richly adorned within, and has a silver statue of its patron saint, some ancient columns, inlaid work in *pietre dure*, &c. Taranto has a formidable looking castle commanding its harbour, numerous convents, a diocesan seminary, two hospitals, an orphan asylum, and manufactures of linen and cotton fabrics, velvets, &c. The great articles of commerce are oil and shell-fish. The taste for the latter is said to prevail at Taranto in a greater degree than in any other part of the kingdom; and when Craven visited the city, the governor drew a revenue from this branch of trade of about 24,000 ducats a year. Swinburne speaks of having partaken at a single meal of 15 different sorts of shell-fish. (*Trav., i. 237.*) The neighbourhood was anciently famous for the *sesues* and *purpura*, but these have been superseded by mussels, oysters, &c., which are reared in immense numbers in the Mare Piccolo.

Tarentum was either originally founded, or, as is most probable, occupied by a colony from Sparta, about anno 700 a.c. The colonists, influenced, no doubt, by the advantageous situation of their new country for a seat of commerce and commercial navigation, became in no very lengthened period distinguished for their proficiency in these departments of industry, and their city is admitted to have been the greatest emporium of S. Italy, or Magna Græcia. *Tarentum Lacædæmoniorum opus, Calabria quondam, et Apollie, iotiusque Lucanie caput, cum magnitudine et muris portique nobilib, tum mirabilibus suis: quippe in ipsius Adriaticæ maris faucibus posita. in omnia, Æliæ, Ilyriæ, Epiræ, Sicilia, Achaia, Africæ, Siciliæ vela dimittit.* (Florus, lib. i. cap. 16.) Polybius also has ably stated the commercial advantages enjoyed by Tarentum. (Lib. x. Frag. 1.)

The history of this great city is very imperfectly known. Her government, like that of most other Greek states, was different at different periods, being sometimes administered by kings or tyrants, and sometimes by the people. She was distinguished not only by her wealth and commerce, but by the splendour of her public buildings and works of art. She also became a favourite seat of literature and science; and the followers of Pythagoras, though prescribed in other parts of Italy, found here a safe asylum. The famous philosopher Archytas, a disciple of Pythagoras, was repeatedly placed by the suffrages of his fellow-citizens at the head of the government; and shewed, by his judicious conduct in civil affairs, and as leader of the armies of the republic, that he was no less eminent as an administrator and a general, than as a moralist, a mechanist, and a geometer. (*Bruckeri, Hist. Philosoph., i. 1118.*; see, also, *Horace's Ode to Archytas*, lib. i. ode 28.)

The refinement produced by the accumulation of wealth and the culture of literature and the fine arts, has been supposed by most ancient writers, and by their copyists in modern times, to have had a most injurious influence on the martial virtues of the Tarentines, and to have occasioned an all but universal degeneracy and corruption of manners. There does not, however, appear to be any real ground for such imputations. When the progress of Rome towards universal dominion brought her armies and fleets into the territories and seas adjoining Tarentum, the latter did not seek to purchase a treacherous truce, by submitting to the dictates of the Roman generals. On the contrary, she made every

effort to maintain her independence; and as she knew that her own forces were inadequate for such a struggle, she wisely sought assistance from others; and it was at her instigation that Pyrrhus invaded Italy. After the departure of Pyrrhus, Tarentum attached herself to the party of Hannibal; and it was not owing to any deficiency of bravery, but to treachery, that Fabius ultimately obtained possession of the city.

The conduct of the Romans on this was consistent with their behaviour on every similar occasion. The city was delivered up to military execution; and such of the inhab., amounting to about 30,000, as had escaped the massacre, were sold for slaves. (*Livius, lib. xxvii. caps. 13-16.*; *Plutarch's Life of Fabius, &c.*)

Tarentum never fully recovered from this dreadful blow; though, notwithstanding the preference shown by the Romans for Brundisium, she had again become, in Strabo's time, a considerable city. A line to the N.E. of Tarentum, near the Galesus, were situated the fertile valley and ridge of Aulon, the beauties of which have been described in such glowing terms by Horace. (*Lib. ii. od. 6.*) In addition to the authorities referred to above, see also *Ancient Universal History*, xii. 146. and 308, 800. id.)

TARARE, a manufacturing town of the S. of France, dep. Rhone, cap. cant., in a narrow valley on the road from Paris to Lyons, 20 m. N.W. the latter. Pop., in 1846, inc. comm., 8,520. It is the centre of a manufacture of plain and figured muslins, which, within a circle of from 10 to 30 leagues of mountainous country, employs wholly or in part at least 50,000 hands, about 20,000 being adult handloom weavers, from 15,000 to 16,000 women and children employed subsidiary to these, from 4,000 to 5,000 employed as agents or otherwise by the manufacturers, the rest, chiefly females, being occupied in embroidering or figuring the plain goods. Most of the weavers, &c. work at their own homes, and the manufacturers do not generally carry on business on a large scale, or employ many hands. There is one factory, however, that of the Messrs. Macculloch, from Glasgow, in which from 180 to 200 hands are employed, and goods are produced which are said to be fully equal to those of Glasgow, though we are not disposed to place implicit confidence in this statement. "A portion of the weavers in the country get from 75 cents. to 1½ fr. a day; those of the town from 2 fr. to 2 fr. 60 c. and sometimes 3 fr., according to their skill. The manufacturer furnishes only the reed and the upper mounting, all the rest being at the expense of the workmen. Those who are in the town weave all the year round, whereas those in the country do not weave for more than seven months a year, the remaining five months being occupied in agricultural employment." (*Handloom Weavers Rep. i. 124.*)

The Tarare weavers are pretty well lodged, fed, and clothed; and Villermé relates, *Je ne connais aucune fabrique en France où les tisserands n'aient paru avoir des mœurs et des habitudes meilleures, aucune ville manufacturière qui n'ait offert moins d'irrogues et moins de libertins que Tarare.* (Tableau des Ouvriers, &c. i. 188.)

TARBES, a town of France, dep. Bouches-du-Rhône, in the cant., on the Rhodan, opposite Boreas, with which it communicates by a new suspension-bridge, 13 m. E. by S. Nîmes. Pop., in 1846, 9,150. It is surrounded with walls flanked by towers, and is commanded by a castle on a rock overhanging the river, built in the 13th century, and formerly the residence of the Counts of Provence. The streets are wide and regular, and one of the principal is lined with arcades. The par. church, a fine Gothic edifice of the 11th century, has a richly sculptured entrance, and a subterranean chapel, in which is a marble statue of St. Martha. Tarascon has a pub. theatre, a theatre, town-hall, court of justice, two hospitals, barracks, &c.; and in the neighbourhood a very extensive nursery called the *Pépinière de Tonelle*. It has, also, manufactures of silk and woollen stuffs, some trade in boat-building, and in wine, brandy, and oil. (*Hugo, art. Bouches-du-Rhône; Guide du Voyageur, &c.*)

TARBES (an. *Bigorra*, post *Tarvis*), a town of France, dep. Hautes Pyrénées, of which it is the cap., in a fine plain, on the Adour, here crossed by a stone bridge of 6 arches, 24 m. E. by S. Pau. Pop., in 1846, 11,328. It is one of the best built and cleanest towns in the S. of France. Its houses, constructed chiefly of marble, stone, or brick, and roofed with slate, have usually gardens attached, of considerable size. A wide main street, containing numerous inns and caffès, runs through the centre of the town, which is also divided into three nearly equal portions, by two large open spaces; one, the *Place de Mambourget*, being planted with trees, and forming a favourite promenade. The streets crossing the main thoroughfare are almost equally wide and regular, and nearly all lead into suburbs, of which there are 5, surrounding the town on every side. Every quarter of Tarbes is well supplied with water from

the river. There are few public edifices worth notice. The most so is the prefecture, formerly the bishop's palace, a building of different dates, but with an imposing general effect. The cathedral is on the site, and it is said, consists of a portion of the ancient fortress of *Bigorra*; it is internally adorned with some columns of *italian breccia*. The old castle of the counts of Tarbes now serves for the prison. The college and theatre are handsome. Tarbes is a bishop's see, the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a forest board, &c., and has schools of design and architecture, a royal *dépot d'étalons*, and some manufactures, principally of copper, iron, and other metals. It is the great commercial *entrepôt* for the country immediately N. of the Pyrenees, and has a large market, once a fortnight, frequented by individuals from a distance of even 20 leagues round. "Here," says Inglis, "for the first time, one perceives a slight approximation to the usages of the country that lies beyond the majestic barrier of the Pyrenees. This is visible in the dress of the women, who no longer cover their heads with bonnets, hats, caps, or handkerchiefs, but with scarlet squares of woollen stuff, trimmed with black, which they throw over the head and shoulders, something in the form of the Spanish mantilla, &c." (*Inglis's Pyrenees*, &c., 228.) Tarbes is on the direct road to Bagueres de Bigorre (which see), and to Baresges, distant only about 22 m. S. (*Hugo, art. Hautes Pyrénées; Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

TARN, a dep. of France, reg. S., formerly inc. in Languedoc; principally between lat. 43° 30' and 44° 10' and long. 1° 20' and 2° E., having N. and N.E., Aveyron; S.E. and S., Hérault and Aude; S.W., Haute Garonne; and N.W., Tarn-et-Garonne. Area, 573,977 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 360,679. This dep. is enclosed by mountain-ranges on the N.E. and S.; it slopes to the W., in which direction its rivers, the chief of which are the Tarn, Agout, and Viour, have their courses. The Tarn rises in Mount Losere, and flows in a general S.W. direction, through the depts. Losere, Aveyron, and Tarn, to about 18 m. from Toulouse, where it turns N.W., and ultimately falls into the Garonne, 23 m. above Agen. Its principal affluents are the Aveyron on its right, or N. side, and the Agout on the left. Florac, Millhaud, Alby, Montauban, and Moissac are on its banks. It is navigable for about 90 m. from its embouchure. In 1824, the arable lands in this dep. were estimated to comprise 326,410 hectares; meadows 41,848 do.; vineyards, 31,243 do.; woods, 80,291 do.; and heaths and wastes, 61,439 do. (*Offic. Tables*.) With the exception of the mountain tracts, the soil, speaking generally, is extremely good; and the valleys are not inferior in fertility to any in France. Agriculture, however, is in a very backward state; and the rotation of crops has hardly been introduced. But the staple corn, notwithstanding, exceeds what is required for home consumption. It produces from 400,000 to 450,000 hectolitres of wine, of which that of Galliac, partly red and partly white, is the best. The former has *une couleur très foncée, beaucoup de corps, du spiritueux, et un bon goût*. (*Jullien*.) It is improved by a sea voyage: the white wines have similar qualities. Before the introduction of indigo into commerce, a good deal of wool was raised in the dep., and it is still cultivated round Alby. Cattle, of a good breed, are rather numerous; and the produce of wool is estimated at 130,000 kilogram. a year. In 1835, of 94,479 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 42,613 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and only 107 at from 1,000 fr. upwards. There are mines of iron, copper, coal, and marble. Near Alby is a very extensive work for the conversion of iron into steel. The manufacture of cotton and woollen fabrics and yarn, of which Castres is the centre, employs about 15,000 hands. Silk furniture stuffs are made at Lavaur. Morocco leather, paper, cords, glass, copper wares, files, &c. in various parts. Tarn is divided into 4 arrondis: chief towns, Alby, the cap., Galliac, Castres, and Lavaur. It sends 5 mems. to the Ch. of Dep. Registered electors, in 1838-9, 2,461. Public revenue, in 1831, 6,423,455; public expenditure, in do., 4,813,064. The land-tax, or *contribution foncière*, is said to be very oppressive in this dep. This dep. is one of the chief seats of Protestantism in France, and was a principal scene of the crusades against the Albigenses. (*Hugo, art. Tarn; Dict. Géog.; French Official Tables*.)

TARN-ET-GARONNE, a dep. of France, reg. S., in about lat. 44° and principally between the lat and 3d degrees of E. long.; having N. the dep. of Lot, E. Aveyron, S.E. and S. Tarn and Haute Garonne, and W. Gers and Lot-et-Garonne. Area, 366,976 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 342,498. Surface generally undulating; in the S. and E. there are, however, some hill ranges of considerable height, the sources of a number of small streams. Principal rivers, Garonne, Tarn, and Aveyron, all flowing through the S. half of the dep. In 1834 arable lands were estimated to comprise 229,324 hectares, the meadows 17,346 do., vineyards 36,703 do. and woods 45,387 do. A greater proportion of wheat is

raised in this than in any other of the 8. depts. of France; the estimated produce in 1835 having been 1,190,000 hectol. Rye, maize, and oats are also grown; and the total produce of grain considerably exceeds the home demand. The produce of wine amounts to about 450 hectol. a year, of which about 280,000 are exported, and converted into *cognac de vin*. The finest are the red wines of the arrond. of Castel Sarrazin, the best of which have a fine colour, *du spiritueux, et un bon goût*. (*Jullien*, 244.) but the greater portion are inferior. Prunes, flax, hemp, and oil-seeds are among the other principal articles of culture. Irrigation is not well understood; and the produce of hay is small. Live stock are, in consequence, less numerous than in the adjacent depts.; the quality of the wool is inferior. Hogs and poultry are extensively fattened; the former for export to Spain. In 1835, of 83,711 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 35,712 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and only 96 at 1,000 fr. or upwards. The want of capital is a formidable obstacle to the progress of manufacturing industry. Some coarse woollen stuffs, with stockings and other fabrics of silk are made at Montauban; serges, linen cloths, and woollen yarn in the arrond. of Castel Sarrazin; and there are some considerable tanneries, paper and flour mills, &c. Tarn-et-Garonne was made a dep. by Napoleon, on account of the importance of its capital, Montauban. It is divided into 3 arrondis, and sends 4 mems. to the Ch. of Dep. Registered electors, in 1838-9, 3,128. Total public revenue, in 1831, 6,108,515 fr. (*Hugo, art. Tarn-et-Garonne; Official Tables*, &c.)

TARRAGONA (an. *Tarraco*) an. *Tarraco* and sea-port of Spain, in Catalonia, cap. prov. of its own name, at the mouth of the Francolí, in the Mediterranean, 45 m. W.S.W. Barcelona. Pop., according to Nifano, 11,000. This once famous city is now contracted to a space which covers only a small portion of its ancient limits, and is ill built and dirty. A large and broad street, with some handsome edifices, has, however, been laid out within the present century. Its fortifications consist, besides the town walls, of two castles, and several batteries to protect the harbour; but the height on which the city stands is commanded by Mount Olivo. The river Francolí, adjacent to the city, is crossed by a narrow bridge of six arches, and the town is entered by six gates. Townsend says, "Tarragona, of all the cities in Spain, would give the most agreeable employment to the antiquary. Here he would admire the remains of an amphitheatre, of a circus, of the palace of Augustus, of temples, and of an extensive aqueduct, with fortifications, which, although of a more recent date, are ancient." (*Journey*, &c., lib. 311.) But, according to Inglis, in 1835, the remains of the amphitheatre were the little that was visible. Near Tarragona is the building called the tomb of the Scipios, in which the father and uncle of S. Africanus, who were killed in battle with the Carthaginians, are said, though on no good authority, to have been buried. It is about 19 ft. sq. and 38 ft. in height, resembling the tomb of Theron at Girgenti. In the front, facing the sea, are statues of two warriors in a mourning posture, roughly cut out of the stones of the sepulchre, and much worn by the sea air. The inscription is so much defaced that it can hardly be deciphered. The cathedral of Tarragona is worth a visit, particularly the court and cloisters, which are surrounded with numerous pillars.

The archbishopric is one of the most ancient in Spain, having existed in the 7th century. It has several convents, an hospital, a seminary, academies of design and naval architecture, other superior schools, a theatre, &c. "Tarragona is the chief exporting port of Catalonia. Its exports consist of nuts, almonds, wines, and brandy. The nuts sent to the English market are known by the name of Barcelona nuts; but they are neither grown near, nor exported from Barcelona. They are grown more in the interior of the prov., and are all exported from Tarragona. The average export of nuts to England is from 20,000 to 30,000 bags (4 to a ton) a year. The export of almonds is about 15,000 bags. From 5,000 to 5,500 pipes of wine are exported from Tarragona to Rio Janeiro, Guernsey, Jersey, &c.; and about 400 pipes of brandy are exported chiefly for Cetta and Cadiz, from which places it finds its way into the wine butts of Bordeaux and Xeres. Cork-wood and cork-bark are also exported from Tarragona." (*Inglis's Spain* in 1830, ii. 277.)

Pliny says that Tarraco was founded by the Scipios, who planted a colony in it (lib. iii. cap. 3.); but most probably it had been founded previously, and was only increased by the Scipios. It was the seat of a principal tribunal, and was, in fact, not merely the capital of *Hispantia Citerior*, or *Tarracensis*, but of Spain, under the Romans. Augustus resided in it for a short period, and Hadrian enlarged its port and erected a mole. It was taken by the Goths in 467, and by the Moors in 714, from whom it was retaken by Alfonso of Aragon in 1220. It was several times the place of meeting of the States of Catalonia. In 1705 it was captured by the English, who at first intended to retain it as a military post, but after-

wards abandoned it for Gibraltar. In 1811 it was taken and sacked by the French under Suchet. Orosius the historian is said to have been a native of Tarraco, though the fact has been disputed. (*Milano; Townsend; Jellig; Mod. Trav. &c.; Cellarii Geog. Antiqua*, i. 140.)

TARSUS, a celebrated city of antiquity, and still a town of some importance, in Asia Minor, pachalic of Tschil, cap. sanjak, on the Cydnus, about 12 m. from the Mediterranean, and 82 m. W.N.W. Scanderoon. Lat. $36^{\circ} 46' 30''$ N.; long. $34^{\circ} 46' 45''$ E. Its permanent pop. is estimated at about 7,000. (*Bourling's Rep.*); but during winter a great many Turkish, Greek, and Armenian families flock into the town. The modern town does not cover one fourth part of the area occupied by the city under the Romans, and few vestiges remain of its former magnificence. The remains of a theatre, and of a spacious circular building, an ancient gateway, and beyond the walls a singular and solid structure, 120 paces in length, by about 60 in breadth, are among the principal. Some traces are perceptible of the more ancient walls, but those now inclosing the town are not supposed by Kinnier to be of an earlier date than the time of Haroun Al Raschid, in the 8th or 9th century; and the castle is said to have been built by Bajazet. The houses seldom exceed one story in height; they are terrace-roofed, and the greater part are constructed with hewn stone, furnished by the more ancient edifices. There are two public baths, a number of mosques, several caravanserais, a small church, &c. The plain around Tarsus is very fertile, and cultivated by Greeks, chiefly for corn and cotton, which last is a principal article of export, the others being wool, bees' wax, gall-nuts, copper, goats' hair and skins, ox and buffalo hides, and hair socks. The river Cydnus is now navigable only by very small boats, and the greatest part of the produce exported is shipped at Mersia, a port or roadstead about four hours' journey W., at which there is said to be good anchorage all the year round. The value of the imports and exports may amount to about 100,000*l.* a year each. (*Bourling, Rep. on Syria; Geog. Journa.*, x. 508, &c.; *Kinnier, &c.*)

Nothing is known of the origin of Tarsus; but it is abundantly certain that it was very ancient, and that it had either been originally founded by Greeks, or had subsequently received a Grecian colony. It was the metropolis of Cilicia, and was captured by both Cyrus and Alexander. It continued to flourish under the successors of the latter, and under the Romans. Strabo says it was very populous and powerful; and he farther adds, that its schools of philosophy, literature, and science were superior even to those of Athens and Alexandria (lib. xiv.); and though this be obviously an extravagant eulogy, there can be no question that it was a most distinguished seat of learning. St. Paul, the apostle of the Gentiles, was a native of Tarsus, where he was born in the second year of the Christian era, and where he acquired a competent knowledge of Greek literature before he went to study the law of Moses at Jerusalem. To ingratiate themselves with Julius Cæsar, the inhabs. changed the name of the city to Juliolopolis; and it is plain, from the statement of Ptolemy (Aret. xiii. 28.), that some of them, if not all, ranked as Roman citizens. Tarsus produced several other distinguished individuals; among whom may be specified Antipater, the stoic; Athenodorus, the philosopher, and friend of Augustus, &c. (*Cellarii Geographia Antiqua*, ii. 254; *Ancient Universal History*, vi. 131, 8vo. ed. &c.)

TARTARY, TAHTARY, or TURKESTAN, a very extensive region of Central Asia, partly comprised in the Chinese empire, and partly distributed among states of BOKHARA, BUDUKHAN, KHIVA, KOKAN, the KIROHIS SERRES, which see.

TATTA, a town of N.W. Hindostan, and one of the principal in Sindh, near the Indus, about 130 m. above its mouth, and 55 m. S.W. Hyderabad. Lat. $24^{\circ} 44'$ N., long. $68^{\circ} 17'$ E. Pop. estimated at less than 15,000, by Burnes, who describes it as "an open town, built on rising ground in a low valley. The houses are formed of wood and wickerwork, plastered over with earth; they are lofty, with flat roofs, but very confined, and resemble square towers. Some of the better sort have a base of brickwork, but stone has been used only in the foundations of one or two mosques. A spacious brick mosque, built by Shah Jehan, still remains, but it is crumbling to decay; and there is little else in modern Tatta to remind one of its former greatness. Its commercial prosperity passed away with the empire of Delhi. Of the weavers of *loongees* (silk and cotton fabrics), for which it was once so famous, 125 families only remain; and there are not 40 merchants in the city. Such has been the decay of Tatta, so populous in the days of Nadir Shah. The country in its vicinity lies neglected, and but a small portion of it is brought under tillage." (*Bokhara, &c.*, i. 27.) Tatta has been supposed to represent the *Patalla* of the ancients, and with some reason, since, at this point the Indus, as stated by Arrian (lib. vi.), divides itself into 2 branches; but no conclusive evidence has been elicited on this point.

TAVISTOCK, a pari. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Devon, hund. Tavistock, on the Tavy, 13 m. N. Plymouth. Area of par., which is identical with the pari. bor., 11,660 acres. Pop., in 1841, 6,075. The town is on the N.W. bank of the river, here crossed by three bridges, and from which the ground rises, by a steep acclivity on both sides, to the height of several hundred feet. A very contracted valley from the N. is also occupied by houses closely packed together. The parts of the town built on higher ground to the N., or overlooking the more expanded valley to the W., are of more modern date. The streets, in many parts, are irregular and indifferently paved; but the houses are good, and the town generally is pleasant. Tavistock appears to have owed its origin to an abbey of black friars, founded here by an earl of Devon, in 961. At the dissolution of the monasteries, this abbey, along with the lordship of the town, was given by the king to John Lord Russell, the ancestor of the present Duke of Bedford. Some remains of the monastic edifice still exist: the former refectory is now used as an assembly-room, and near one of the bridges is a large handsome arched and pinnacled gateway, apparently of the time of Henry VI. The principal remains of Tavistock abbey are in the perpendicular style. The par. church has 4 aisles, a chancel, a tower at the W. end and in its interior are several good monuments. The living, a vicarage, worth 25*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Duke of Bedford. There are meeting-houses for Wesleyans, Independents, Unitarians, Friends, &c., a large and convenient workhouse, a national school, chiefly supported by the Duke of Bedford, some small educational endowments, almshouses, and other public charities. Tavistock was one of the four stannary towns in the co., and is governed by a portreeve, chosen yearly at the lord's court, who is also the returning officer of the borough. It has sent 2 members to the H. of C. since the 2d of Edward I.; the right of voting, down to the Reform Act, having been in the freeholders of inheritance in possession inhabiting within the bor. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 336. The pop. is chiefly agricultural, though some serges and coarse linens are made, and mining and the working of iron occupy a few hands. Markets on Fridays. Fairs, Jan. 17, May 6, Sept. 9, Oct. 10, and Dec. 11, for cattle. Sir Francis Drake, the famous navigator and naval commander, belonged to the immediate vicinity of Tavistock, where he was born in or near 1545. (*Boundary Report, &c.*)

TAUNTON, a pari. bor. and market-town of England, co. Somerset, W. division, hund. Taunton Dean; on the Tone, here crossed by a stone bridge of two arches, 37 m. S. W. Bristol. Area of pari. bor., about 1,450 acres. Pop., in 1841, 12,306. Taunton is one of the principal towns in the co.; the main streets are spacious, well paved, and lighted with gas. They run mostly from E. to W. and from N. to S., the town being about 1 m. in length, and nearly as much in width. The houses are generally good, and have frequently extensive outlets and gardens; the appearance of the town indicates a prosperous, respectable community. There are, however, several lanes and courts (popularly called *colleges*) branching from the main street, which were formerly filled with inhabs. but little above the condition of paupers, who had been drawn into these close and unwholesome recesses to be within the limits of the bor., and to exercise the franchise extended to every inhabitant housekeeper. (*Bound. Report*.) The most striking public edifice is St. Mary Magdalen's church, in an open space is the heart of the town. It is 98 ft. in length by 66 ft. in greatest breadth. Its nave is divided into 5 aisles by 4 rows of clustered columns, supporting bluntly-pointed arches; and at its W. extremity is an elegant quadrilateral tower, with a pinnace at either corner, their entire height being 150 ft. This church is richly decorated both without and within, and has numerous monuments, a fine organ, &c. Much of its decoration is said to be due to Henry VII., in return for the strenuous support of the Lancastrian cause by Taunton; but the tower and other parts of the edifice seem to have been erected somewhere about the end of the 14th century. Rickman (*Gothic Architecture*) says, that this church is a very fine example of the enriched perpendicular style. St. James's, the old conventual church of Taunton priory, is a plain but strong and well-furnished building. The living, a perpetual curacy, worth 25*l.* a year, is in the gift of Sir T. C. Lettbridge. There are chapels for Independents, Wesleyans, Baptists, Unitarians, Friends, Rom. Catholics, &c.; the last-named is a handsome building of the Ionic order. There is also a Franciscan convent, occupying what was originally intended for a general hospital. At the W. end of the town is the castle, built in the time of Henry I. on the site of another fortress, built about 700 by Ina, king of the West Saxons. This edifice comprises the hall, in which assizes for the co. are held in Lent, general quarter sessions at Michaelmas, a court of requests weekly. The market-house is a large brick edifice, comprising the corn-market, town hall, as-

assembly-rooms, &c.; and beside it is a handsome building in the Ionic order, the lower part of which is a fish and poultry market, and the upper a library and reading-room, museum, &c. The Taunton and Somerset Institution, established in 1823, has a spacious reading and news-room, and a valuable, though not extensive, library. There is a neat theatre in the town. The numerous charities of Taunton include the grammar-school, founded in 1522, and having a small endowment; a school for 80 boys and 50 girls, supported by voluntary contribution; several almshouses; the Taunton and Somerset Hospital, with accommodation for 26 patients; an eye infirmary, a lying-in charity, &c. The town has a weekly newspaper.

Taunton was one of the first towns in England in which the woollen manufacture was established; but the woollen trade of the town has greatly declined, and the industry of the inhabs. is now chiefly exercised in manufactures of silk stuffs, as crapes, sarsonets, &c., and of lace. The town derived considerable advantage from the construction of the Taunton and Bridgewater canal, by which a good deal of Welch coal is now brought to it in return for the agricultural produce of the vicinity. The trade of Taunton has also experienced renewed activity since the opening of the Great Western railway, as far as Bridgewater. Taunton was formerly a municipal borough, but in consequence of neglect in filling up the vacancies in the corp., it lost its charter in 1793. It is a pari. bor. by prescription, and appears to have sent 9 mems. to the H. of C. as early as the 2d Edward I. Previously to the Reform Act, which confirmed its privilege of sending 2 mems., the right of voting was in potwallopers not receiving alms. Reg. electors, 1849-50, 820. The returning officers are the bailiffs, chosen at an annual court leet. Taunton, though not alluded to in the "Itinerary of Antoninus," was, in all probability, known to the Romans, as a great number of Imperial coins have been found in and near it. In the time of the Heptarchy it was a place of considerable note. In the civil war, it sided with the Parliament, and in 1648 its castle sustained, with success, a long siege against the royal forces under Lord Goring. Markets, Wed. and Sat. Fairs, June 17, and July 7 to 10, chiefly for cattle and horses. (*Parl. Reps.; Priv. Inf.*)

TAURIDA, a government in the S. of European Russia, consisting partly of the peninsula of the Crimea, and partly of a tract on the mainland, lying between the Dniepr, the Black Sea, the Sea of Azoff, and the Berda. Area, 24,722 sq. m. Pop., in 1846, 575,200. The mainland part of the government, which, though the least interesting, is the most extensive, consists almost entirely of vast, and in many parts sterile plains, denominated the Steppe of the Nogais, from the Tartar tribes, by which it is principally occupied. "These," says Dr. Clarke, "are a very different people from the Tartars of the Crimea; they are distinguished by a more diminutive form, and by the dark copper colour of their complexion, which is sometimes almost black. They bear a remarkable resemblance to the Laplanders, although their dress and manner have a more savage character." (*il. p. 318, 8vo. ed.*) Above 17,000 Germans are colonised to the E. of the river Molochka. (For further particulars see art. *CARMA in this work.*)

TAY, a river of Scotland, being the largest of the Scotch, and, in respect of the quantity of water it conveys to the sea, it is the greatest even of the British rivers. It rises in the high mountainous country a little to the N. of Loch Lomond, and, flowing N.E. by Killin, expands into the beautiful long narrow lake called Loch Tay. Issuing thence, its course is N. and E. to Logierath, S. to Dunkeld, E. to Kinclaven, S., inclining a little to the W., to Perth; N.E. to the point of Rhind; then north-easterly, till it meets the river Molechka, between Tentsmoor Point and Buttouness. From Rhind Point to Dundee the channel of the river expands into an estuary called the Frith of Tay. From its source to Dunkeld the Tay flows with a rapid current; partly through a very wild, and partly through a highly picturesque, romantic country. Its subsequent course as far as Perth is through a comparatively fruitful country; and from the latter to the sea, it flows through the richest and finest valley in Scotland.

From Buttouness to Dundee the river is navigable for ships of 500 tons' burden; and at high water, vessels of above 100 tons' burden reach Perth, 20 m. above Dundee. Two lighthouses have been erected on Buttouness, to mark the entrance to the river. The bar at its mouth has 24 fathoms water over it. Dundee, the port of the Tay, has wet docks and a pier harbour: the latter dries at low ebb; but at high water springs it has a depth of 14 or 15 ft., and at neaps of 9 or 10 ft. Large ships anchor in the channel of the river. The mouth and channel of the Tay are a good deal encumbered with sand-banks; and its navigation is rather difficult, partly on that account, and partly from the strength of the tides.

Among the more remarkable of the tributaries of the Tay, may be mentioned the Lyon, which joins it near

Fortingal. The Tummel has its sources in the moor of Rannoch, and flowing through the loch of that name, is joined, near the pass of Killiecrankie, by the Garry, from the confines of Loch Erioch. The united river falls into the Tay at Logierath. Near Kinclaven the Tay receives the united waters of the Alrdie, the Isla, and other rivers flowing S. from the mountains on the confines of Aberdeenshire. At Rhind Point it receives its important tributary, the Earn, flowing E. from Loch Earn. The basin of the Tay comprises a space of about 2,400 sq. m.; and Mr. Smeaton ascertained that it carries to the sea more water than even the Thames. Its course from its source to Buttouness is estimated at about 110 m. It is the finest salmon river in Great Britain; its fisheries left for a large sum; the fish being mostly conveyed, packed in ice, to London.

TCHERNIGOFF, a government of European Russia, to the E. of the Dnieper, and between the government of Smolensk on the N. and that of Poltava on the S. The estimates of the area differ very widely; perhaps it be taken at about 19,000 sq. m. Pop., in 1846, 1,430,000. Surface flat; soil fertile; climate dry, healthy, and mild. Principal river Dniestr, which bounds it on the W., and Desna, by which it is intersected. All sorts of corn are raised, but principally rye, barley, and oats. Produce of the harvest estimated at about 4,000,000 chetwerts. Flax and hemp, tobacco, hops, &c. are also cultivated. Oxen, of a very fine breed, are raised and fattened to a great size. Horses small, hardy, and active. There are some pretty extensive forests. Free cultivated pastures are common in this and the other governments of Little Russia. Manufacturing industry, though still very backward, has made much progress during the present century. Spirits largely consumed, and there are numerous distilleries. Commerce considerable: the exports consist principally of cattle, tallow, hides, &c., spirits, honey and wax, potash, hempseed, &c. (*Schmitzer, La Russie, &c. p. 459.*)

TEFLIS, or TIFLIS, a city of W. Asia, the cap. of Georgia, and of all the Caucasian and Trans-Caucasian provs. of Russia; on the Kur (an. *Cyrus*) 880 m. E. by N. Trebizond, Lat. 41° 40' 30" N. lon. 45° 1' 30" E. Pop. probably about 30,000, most of whom are Armenians, with some Mussulman families. "Teflis occupies the right bank of the Kur, in a contracted valley formed by irregular mountains, parallel with the stream on the side of the city, and hills coming down in a point quite to the water's edge on the other. A circular fort covers this point, and together with a small suburb is united to the city by a bridge of a single wooden arch, thrown over the river; while the ruined walls of an old citadel crown the top, and stretch down the side of a part of the opposite mountain. The old and native part of the city is built upon the truly Oriental plan of irregular narrow lanes, and still more irregular and diminutive houses, thrown together in all the endless combinations of accident. Here and there European taste, aided by Russian power, has worked out a passable road for carriages, or built a decent house, overlooking and putting to shame all its mud-walled and dirty neighbours. A line of bazaars too, extending along the river, and branching out into several streets, together with much bustle and business, display the modern taste, and is connected with two or three tolerable caravanserais. Several old and new churches, displaying their belfries and cupolas in different parts, complete the prominent features of this part of the city. In the N. or Russian quarter, officers, palaces, government offices, and private houses, lining broad streets and open squares, have a decidedly European aspect, and exhibit in their pillared fronts something of that taste for showy architecture which the edifices of their capital have taught the Russians to admire. Teflis has the appearance of an excessively busy and populous city, and the present does not only a crowded, but, unlike many Oriental cities, a lively scene. Every person seems hurried by business. Nor is the variety of costumes, representing different nations and tongues, the least noticeable feature of the scene." (*Smith and Dwight's Missionary Researches, 131-134.*)

The Armenian cathedral is a large and somewhat striking edifice; there are two mosques, and among the other places of worship is a German Protestant chapel. It has also a French and a German hotel; but they are represented as being, in most respects, the reverse of what they should be. House-rent is very high; but otherwise living is not expensive. Teflis has many remarkable sulphureous hot springs, their temp. varying from 100° to 115° Fah.; and to these, it is supposed by some, the city owes its name. Over some of these the Russian government has erected the crown-baths, a plain edifice, but which, by being kept in good order, differs widely from all the other bath establishments in the city, and realises a handsome revenue. Teflis is very favourably situated for trade, and its commerce is pretty extensive, having greatly increased during the period of Russian occupation. Almost all the trade is, however, in the hands of Armenians; in 1830, scarcely half a dozen mercantile houses existed belonging to

any other foreigners, and only one European consul (a Frenchman) resided here. In 1830, the Russians founded a school in Teflis, which has since been erected into a gymnasium; and there are some other schools. Georgia in general, and its capital in particular, has been long celebrated for the beauty of its women; and, according to the missionaries referred to above, "this has not been over-rated, for we have never seen a city so large a proportion of whose females were beautiful in form, features, or complexion, as Teflis."

Teflis does not boast a very high antiquity. It is said to have been built in 469, by Vachtang, the founder of a dynasty which ruled from the Euxine to the Caspian. It was taken by Jenghis Khan; by the Turks in 1756; sacked by Aga Mehemet Khan in 1796; and fell to the Russians in 1801. It suffered greatly from the ravages of the cholera in 1830. (*Smith and Dwight's Miss. Researches*; *Lyall's Trav. in Russia*; *Mod. Trav.*, xvii.; *Dict. Geog.*, &c.)

TEHERAN, or TEHRAN, the modern cap. of Persia, prov. Irak-Ajemi, near the foot of Mount Elborz, which divides that prov. from Mazanderan, 311 m. N. Isfahan; lat. 35° 40' N., long. 51° 33' 50" E. Pop., during the residence of the court, estimated at from 80,000 to 70,000, or upwards. It is about 8 m. in circuit, and is enclosed by a strong earthen wall flanked with numerous towers, surrounded by a glacis, outside which is a large dry ditch. The appearance of the city from a distance is picturesque; but it has few public edifices worth notice; and notwithstanding it has many good shops and bazaars, it is by no means to have a "mud-rika" look within, its houses, like those of other Persian towns, being constructed of sun-dried bricks, while many of its streets are wretchedly paved. The *Ark*, or citadel, comprises, besides the royal residence and harem, quarters for the guards, the record chamber, treasury, hall for receiving ambassadors, and other public offices, 10 baths, two or three gardens, reservoirs, &c. The grand saloon in the palace is said to be very magnificent: the throne is a platform of pure white marble, raised a few steps from the ground, and carpeted with shawls and cloth of gold; and the whole interior of the apartment is profusely decorated with carving, gilding, arabesque painting, and looking-glass, the last material being interwoven with all the other ornaments, from the vaulted roof to the floor. The mosques, colleges, and caravanserais, though not very numerous, are in good repair. Much less than a century ago, the present metropolis of Persia would hardly have been considered of sufficient importance for the cap. of a prov. It first became the metropolis towards the end of the last century, under Aga Mahomed Khan, who seems to have selected it for that dignity partly on account of its good position in a military point of view, and partly from its vicinity to the hereditary possessions of his family. Its greatest drawback is its unhealthiness from damp, which, with the excessive heats in summer, oblige the sovereign and his court to remove at that season, and encamp in pavilions and tents on the plains of Sultanea, or Oujan; at which period the resident pop. of Teheran is reduced to perhaps 10,000. The environs of Teheran are not unpleasant, the plain both to the E. and W. being covered with villages, and abounding in grain. To the N. of the town is a handsome palace, which its situation and the fine gardens that surround it make a delightful residence.

A short distance S. from Teheran are the ruins of the city of Rhé, generally supposed to be identical with the ancient *Rhages*, the capital of the Parthian kings, where Alexander halted for five days in his pursuit of Darius. The ruins cover a great extent of ground, having in their centre a modern village, with a noble mosque and mausoleum—an oasis in the midst of the surrounding desert. (*Kincaid's Persia*, 118.; *Fraser's Persia*, 61.; *Morier*, &c. in *Mod. Trav.*) It should, however, be mentioned that Major Rawlinson and others contend that the ruins now noticed are not those of Rhages, but of an Arabian city, called Rhe; and that the ruins of Rhages are to be found at Kalah-Erig, 30 m. E. Teheran. (*Geog. Journal*, x. 135., &c.)

TEIGNMOUTH, a market-town and sea-port of England, co. Devon, hund. Exminster, at the mouth of the Teign, in the English Channel, 12 m. S. Exeter. It is intersected by the Teign; the communication between its two divisions, each of which constitutes a parish, being kept up by a long wooden bridge across the river, having a drawbridge at either extremity for the accommodation of vessels. Area of both parishes, 1,280 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,489. W. Teignmouth, or the portion on the W. side the river, is irregularly built, and ill paved; but E. Teignmouth is beautifully situated, and having been of late much improved, is now one of the most favourite watering-places in the S.W. part of England. The church of W. Teignmouth is a modern octangular structure, the living being a curacy worth 80*l.* a year, under the vicarage of Bishop of Teign. In this part of the town there are Independent and Calvinist meeting-houses, a national school, a quay on the river, and a

dockyard, in which sloops of war and vessels of 300 tons burden have been built. E. Teignmouth church is mostly a modern edifice: the living, a perpetual curacy, worth 127*l.* a year, is in the gift of the vicar of Dawlish; and here, also, are a Baptist chapel, an endowed school for 13 poor children, some good inns, a theatre, reading-rooms, and other establishments usual in a watering-place. Teignmouth is governed by a portreeve, chosen annually at the court-leet of the lord of the manor. Many of its inhabs. are employed in the coast-fisher, and others in the supply of goods to visitors: a good deal of the Haytor granite is also shipped from this port: but the bar at the mouth of the river renders the harbour accessible only to coasting vessels. Teignmouth is of high antiquity, and is said to be the place at which the Danes first landed in 787. It gives the title of baron to the Shore family.

TELLICHERRY, a town of British India, presid. Madras, and one of the principal sea-ports in the district of Malabar; on the W. coast of Hindostan, 43 m. N.N.W. Calcutt; lat. 11° 45' N., long. 75° 33' E. Pop. uncertain. This was the chief trading settlement of the British on the Malabar coast previously to 1800, when the E. I. Company's warehouses were transferred to Mabbé, about 6 m. to the S.E. The most wealthy natives, however, still reside at this town; which a few years since continued to be the mart for the best sandal wood from about the Ghauts, and cardamoms from Wynnad. (*Hemkins's E. I. Gaz.*)

TEMESWAR, a royal, free, and fortified town of Hungary, beyond the great bend of the Danube, in a marshy plain, on the *Alt Bega* river, 72 m. N.N.E. Belgrade; lat. 45° 42' 37" N., long. 21° 14' 17" E. Pop., with its four suburbs, about 18,000, including numerous Germans, Greeks, Wallachs, and Jews. Mr. Paget says, "Temeswar, the capital of the Banat, and the winter residence of the rich Banatians, is one of the prettiest towns I know anywhere. It has two handsome squares, and a number of very fine buildings. The country-hall, the palace of the Bishop of Canad, the residence of the commander, and the town-house, are all remarkable for their architectural beauties." The town was taken from the Turks in 1716 by Prince Eugene, who laid out and strongly fortified the modern town, which is now one of the principal fortresses of the Austrian monarchy. It has a Rom. Cath. and a Greek cathedral, a synagogue, seminary, Plarist gymnasium, arsenal, military school, some barracks, and various other military establishments, and is the seat of the principal civil establishments and authorities of the Banat. Good water is raised by machinery for the supply of the town. It has manufactures of silk and woollen stuffs, paper, tobacco, oil, &c.; and an extensive trade in these articles arises in the transit of agricultural produce. Its inhabs. are said to be generally opulent. Its commerce has been considerably facilitated by the excavation of the Bega Canal, about 73 m. in length, which, passing by the town, unites it with the navigable portion of the Bega, and, consequently, with the Theiss and the Danube. This canal has also been advantageous from its assisting in drying the marshes by which the town is surrounded; though in summer it is rather unhealthy. Temeswar is supposed by D'Anville to represent the ant. *Tibiscum*, to which *Tivis* was banished. It was taken by the Turks, under Pötyö, in 1551, who held it till 1716. (*Paget's Hungary*; *Berghaus*; *Austr. Nat. Encyc.*)

TEMPE, a famous valley and defile in the N.E. part of Thessaly, stretching from near Baba to the gulph of Salonica, from 6 to 8 m. in length, between Olympus on the N., and Ossa on the S. It is traversed by the Selambria (an. *Peneus*), and is, in parts, so very narrow that there is merely room for a military road along the side of the river. In some respects the defile bears a striking resemblance to the pass of Killisnoe in Scotland; but the scenery is incomparably more magnificent. The appearance of the chasm, and the traditions current in antiquity, leave little doubt that the rocks had been rent asunder by some tremendous convulsion of nature, which opened a passage for the waters that must previously have deluged the greater part of Thessaly. In some parts it is grand in the extreme. The precipices consist of naked perpendicular rocks, rising to a prodigious height; so that the spectator can scarce behold them from below without giddiness. Livy's description, therefore, in addition to its intrinsic grandeur, has all the majesty of truth: *Rupes utrinque ita abscissa sunt, ut despecti via sine ulla curvatura simul occursum animique possit: Terret et sonitus et altitudo per medium vallonem fluvius Penei amnis.* (Lib. xlv. cap. 6.; *Clarke*, vii. 370.)

The character of this gorge or defile is evidently that of wildness and savage grandeur, and does not, therefore, harmonize with the descriptions the poets have given of the *Zepeyris agialis Tempe* (Hes. *Op.* li. v. 94.), and the *viridissima Tempe* (Catullus, *Carm.* lxiii. v. 285.). No doubt, however, their descriptions apply not the pass itself, but to a vale at the mouth of the pass

next the sea, " which, in situation, extent, and beauty, amply satisfies whatever the poets have said of Tempe." (*Cramer's Ancient Greece*, i. 378.)

TEMPLEMORE, an inland town of Ireland, prov. Munster, co. Tipperary, about 14 m. W. from the Sulr, and near the E. foot of the Devil's Bit Mountains, 74 m. S.W. Dublin. Pop., in 1831, 2,936. This is a neat town, in a comparatively rich and improved part of the country. It has a handsome par. church, a Rom. Cath. chapel, a Methodist meeting-house, a school on the foundation of Erasmus Smith, a fever hospital and dispensary, a market house, a bridewell, and large infantry barracks. Petty sessions are held on Wednesdays; fairs on Jan. 30, March 30, May 17, June 29, July 30, Sept. 3, Oct. 21, and Dec. 7. It is a constabulary station. Post-office revenue in 1830, 6271. In 1836, 778.

TENASSERIM PROVINCES, the name given to a long and comparatively narrow strip of territory in India-beyond-the-Ganges, belonging to Great Britain, comprised within the Bengal presidency, with which, however, it has no natural connection. It consists principally of the provs. taken from the Birmeese in 1825-26, or of the W. or coast districts of Slam, comprising Martaban, or Amherst, Ye, Tavoy, and Mergui, with its archipelago, extending between 11° and 19° N. lat., and about 98° and 99° E. long., having N. the independent Shan country, E. and S. the Birmeese empire and the Indian Ocean. Area loosely estimated at 82,500 sq. m. The pop. being said to amount to only 85,000, though, notwithstanding its thinness, we believe that this is greatly below the mark, and that 160,000 would now be a nearer approximation. These provs. are shut off from Slam by one of the great mountain ranges, which, branching from the table-land of Yunnan, traverse the Ultra-Gangetic peninsula in a S. direction. This chain rises, in this part of its course, to the height sometimes of 5000 ft., and every where clothed with dense forests. Immediately along the coast the country is an alluvial flat covered with mangroves; and more inland, wherever it has been cleared, is found to be very fertile. It is extremely well watered; the great river, Than-lweng, or Thanlue, divides the prov. of Martaban from Birma, and there are a variety of minor rivers, some of which are navigable to a considerable distance.

In the N. provs. the year may be divided into the rainy and dry seasons, each of about six months' duration; but the latter resolves itself into the cold and hot seasons. These last are not very distinctly marked, but the coldest months are December and January, when the thermometer is sometimes, in the morning, down to 55°, but in the hottest part of the day ranges between 70° and 80°. The hot season immediately succeeds the cold, and continues until the rain begins to fall in April or May. The rains then commence, and continue until September or October; and although during a part of this time the sun be in its zenith, yet the almost incessant fall of rain renders this season the most refreshing part of the year. The annual fall of rain, during these six months, is about 200 inches. (*Mason, in the Asiatic Gazette*.) In the S. where both the climate and products in many respects differ, it rains at least every fortnight throughout the year. The Tenasserim provs. are, upon the whole, much more healthy than many parts of India. As in other tropical climates, the most frequent diseases, common to both natives and foreigners, are, dysentery, with intermittent, remittent, and bilious fevers. They seldom prove fatal to the natives, and usually do so to Europeans only when the constitution has been impaired from other causes. The staple product is rice, of which a dozen different varieties are cultivated. Upland rice is grown on the hill sides by the Karean tribes, and much rice by the Birmeese and other settlers. In the lowlands, in the beginning of April the farmer weeds his ground, and about the first week in June, when the rains commence, he hires a drove of buffaloes, if he have none of his own, and drives them about in a compact body over the wet field until the whole soil has been sufficiently worked to receive the seed. The principal harvest is in December, when the grain is reaped by a sickle, somewhat like the English. The ears are trodden out by buffaloes, and the rice is husked and bruised by means of a wooden mortar, or by a handmill, formed of two grooved logs of wood, set upright and fitted into each other; a kind of machinery superior to that in use for the like purpose among other nations in a similar stage of civilisation. Indian corn is not much raised, but sweet potatoes, yams, beans, onions and cucumbers are common. Tobacco is cultivated all over Tenasserim, as every one smokes, "from the child of three years of age to the decrepid grandire; from the governor's wife to the rice beater." (*Low's Hist. of Tenasserim*.) The sugar cane is also pretty general, though no marketable sugar be made. Cotton, hemp, indigo, pepper, &c., are only partially cultivated. Cardamoms, long pepper, catechu, and cocoa nuts, are gathered wild. Fruits are numerous, and the forests produce teak, sapan, aloe, and many other valuable woods, with bamboos, rattans, and many balsamic and medicinal plants. Iron ore is found in Ye and Tavoy,

tin is very abundant in the S. provs., but has not been seen in the N. Like gold, which is also widely diffused, it is obtained chiefly by washings. Trenches are dug, leading into the creeks, down which rapid streams run in the rainy season, and wash down the metallic particles. The workman goes into the water, with a wooden dish in the form of an inverted cone, and having filled it with sand and pebbles, while it is round on the surface of the water, by which motion the lighter materials fly out, and leave the heavier down, in the vortex of the inverted cone, consisting of a tea-spoonful, or upwards, of tin and sand. Without further cleaning it goes to the smelter, and produces, I am told, from 50 to 75 per cent. of pure metal. Although all persons, Birmane or Kareans, are at liberty to procure the metal without any interference from government, yet few engage in the work; from which we may fairly infer that the returns are not remarkably profitable. (*Mason*.) Coal has been discovered in Mergui. Salt is made in numerous parts along the coast, and large quantities of saltpetre have been obtained from the bats' dung, collected in immense limestone caves in different parts of the country. The number of elephants inhabiting these provs. is supposed by Dr. Helfer to be proportionally greater than in any other part of India. The Birmeese settlers hunt the elephants, and carve many kinds of articles from their ivory. Rhinoceros' horns are an article of trade, but the valuable skin of the animal is not met with in commerce, and indeed, the trade in all kinds of hides, which might be made very profitable, has hitherto been wholly neglected. (*See Helfer's Rep.* 72-3.) Wax, honey, tortoiseshell, and edible birds' nests, are the principal commercial products derived from the animal kingdom. The insect races are in great variety, and constitute one of the greatest pests of the country.

The manufactures are few; those of cloth and silks are the principal, but they have been, in a great degree, superseded of late years by the cotton goods imported from England and Hindostan. The weavers are almost exclusively women, and there will hardly, perhaps, be found a house throughout the provs. which has not a loom. The inhabs. of Tenasserim and Mergui carry on a brisk petty trade with the ports between those towns and Rangoon. They also occasionally visit Pinang, the Nicobar Islands, Achin, Chittagong, and Dacca, exchanging their own produce for betel nut, raw and wrought silks, white muslins, earthenware, woollens, petroleum, cutlery, Chinese umbrellas, a little opium, ambergris, &c. The merchants of Tavoy are richer than those to the S.; their exports are of much the same kind; their imports are cotton, tobacco, petroleum, piece goods, cutlery, iron in bars, European and Bengal articles, &c. But Martaban is the prov. best situated for commerce. Besides its trade seaward, (*see MAULMAIN, ante*, p. 292.), a great deal of internal petty traffic is carried on by boats of from 3 to 30 tons burden; and caravans arrive occasionally from the confines of China, bringing tea, drugs, swords, manufactured cottons and silks, raw silk, candied sugar, earth nuts, blank books, ivory, and horns; and taking back salt, spices, cotton, quinine, silver, assafoetida, borax, chinches, piece goods, broad cloth, and various European articles. Capt. Low says, that the average of a late general estimate, from authentic documents, for one year, makes the value of the imports amount to 650,000 rupees, and that of the exports to only 175,000 rupees, though we doubt whether any such discrepancy can, in fact, exist between them. The weights and measures, as well as the usages and habits of these provs., are mostly Birmeese; the present inhabs. being of Birman extraction, though, according to tradition, the earliest inhabs. of the country were Siamese. Maulmain is the cap. and residence of the governor and chief British authorities; subordinate officers are resident in the towns of Ye, Tavoy, and Mergui. The public revenue, derived from an assessment on grain of 20 per cent., one of 25 per cent. on other landed produce, taxes on gambling, opium, arrack, betel, &c.; birds' nests, sines, capitation tax, &c. has been estimated at 237,000 rupees a year. (*Low's Hist. of Tenasserim in Asiatic Journal*; *Helfer's Report*, &c.)

Malcolm, the American missionary, has pointed out some of the advantages derived by these provinces from their connection with England. "English influence," says he, "in a variety of ways has improved their condition. It has abolished the border wars, which kept the people and their neighbours continually wretched. Various other improvements are perceptible. Coin is getting introduced instead of masses of lead and silver; manufactures are improving; implements of better construction are used; justice is better administered; life is secure; property is sacred; religion is free; taxes, though heavy, are more equitably imposed, and courts of justice are pure generally. Formerly men were deterred from gathering round them comforts superior to their neighbours, or building better houses, for fear of exactions. Now, being secure in their earnings, the newly-built houses are much improved in size, materials, and workmanship. The presiding officer in each prov.

sits as magistrate on certain days every week; and before him every citizen, male or female, without the intervention of lawyers, may plead his cause, and have immediate redress. Every where, in British Birmah, the people praise English justice." (*Malcolm's S. E. Asia*, 173-4.) Indeed, notwithstanding the present thinness of the population, emigration from Birmah into the Tenasserim provs. has been going on ever since we have held possession of the latter. Such, in truth, is the destructive influence of the Birman government, that, during the time it possessed Tenasserim, it had all but converted it into a desert.

TENBY (Welsh, *Dynbych-y-Pyngod*), a parli. and munic. bor., market town and sea-port of Wales, co. Pembroke, hund. Narberth, on the summit of a promontory on the W. side of Carmarthen Bay, 9 m. E. Pembroke. Area of the in-liberty of the par. St. Mary, which is co-extensive with the bor., 323 acres. Pop., in 1831, 1,942. The town consists principally of one long and broad street, lined with good houses, and pretty well paved. It is partly surrounded with walls, and is further defended by some batteries on the shore; its castle, supposed to have been built by the Flemings, by whom this part of the country was formerly occupied, is in a state of decay. The church of St. Mary is a spacious structure, 11 ft. in length and 83 in breadth, with an elegant spire 152 ft. in height, supposed to be the loftiest in Wales, and painted white to render it a conspicuous mark for seamen. The roof of the nave is supported by arcades, having fluted pillars, and the ceiling is formed of carved wood ornamented with several figures, armorial bearings, &c. In the interior are several monuments. The living, a rectory and vicarage, worth 817l. a year, is in the gift of the crown. (*Ecc. Rev. Rep.*) "An ancient edifice within a few ft. of the W. entrance is now used as a school. A flight of steps on the outside leads to the apartment near which is a small arch in the style of Henry VII., and two others occur in an old wall opposite. These are supposed to have formed the principal entrances to St. Mary's College, once a convent of Carmelite friars, founded in 1399. The remains of St. John's chapel are situated in a marshy spot 200 or 300 yards from the town. Those of St. Julian's stand upon the pier, near its extremity. Opposite the town are some wild masses of rock, forming the islands of St. Catherine, and more distant are those of St. Margaret and Cady. Eastward stretch the Norton sands bounded by grand and high cliffs; here are several bathing machines. Round the S. and W. sides of the town are the white or whit-sands, presenting a romantic and agreeable walk, two m. in length, to Giltar." (*Nicholson's Cambrian Guide*, p. 606.) The town hall, court house, new market and slaughter houses, public baths, assembly rooms, theatre, reading-rooms, bowling green, several good hotels, &c., are the other most conspicuous objects at Tenby. The town was formerly a place of much commercial importance; and after the settlement of the Flemings here, it exported considerable quantities of woollen cloths. At present its trade is inconsiderable.

Tenby is a creek of the port of Milford. Nine or ten vessels from Plymouth, Brixholme, &c. make it their station during the fishing season, and supply the Bristol market. Its oysters, which are of superior quality, are sent pickled to London, Liverpool, and other places. Tenby is now principally distinguished as a watering-place, for which it is singularly well adapted, by the great beauty of its situation, and the protection from rough weather which it receives from the contiguous head-lands. It has grown rapidly, especially in good houses; most of which have been built within the last 20 years. A great many are occupied as lodging-houses during the season, and left empty for the rest of the year. Property of this sort appears likely to increase fast and steadily: houses are continually springing up in the many agreeable situations which are found unoccupied. (*Boundary Report*.) The public baths are both extensive and elegant; they comprise numerous bath and dressing rooms, warm and vapour baths, bedrooms for invalids, a handsome promenade room, &c.; and are approached by an excellent carriage road. The water of their large reservoirs is changed every tide. The bathing-machines are the property of the innkeepers: the terms is. each time, and 6d. the guide. (*Camb. Guide*, p. 604.)

Tenby is governed by a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 12 councillors. Its earliest charters appear to have been granted about the time of Edward I., by the earls of Pembroke, but the earliest extant is of Richard III. Previously to the Municipal Reform Act, there were nearly 400 burgesses in the corporation, but their functions were merely nominal: and the whole management of the bor. rested with the common council, which consisted of about 40 members. The town has only a few small endowments for charitable purposes. Courts of petty sessions weekly, a manor court, &c. are held; but the only gaol consists of 2 large cells, formerly the old garriou dungeon. Prisoners are rarely confined here: when

TENERIFFE.

the term of imprisonment exceeds a month, they are sent to the gaol at Haverfordwest. Corporation revenue, in 1840, 1,104l. The Reform Act did not alter the previous limits of the parli. bor., which now send 1 mem. to the H. of C., in conjunction with Pembroke, Wiston, and Milford. It had previously sent one with Pembroke and Weston only, the right of voting having been in the burgesses, who, acting under the influence of the common council, returned the nominees of the patron of the bor. Registered electors, in the different bor., 1839-40, 1,179. (*See Mus. Append.*, p. 407.) Markets, Wednesdays and Saturdays; fairs, May 4., Whit Tuesday, July 31., Oct. 3., and Dec. 4.

TENEDOS, a small but celebrated island of Turkey in Asia, 15 m. S.S.W. from the mouth of the Dardanelles (an. *Hellepontus*), and about 5 m. W. from the shore of the Troad, which it still serves to point out, its highest summit, Mount St. Elias, being in lat. 36° 50' 18" N., long. 36° 8' E. Pop. 7,000. P. Though rugged, it is tolerably fertile, and well cultivated. The red muscadine wine of Tenedos, though not mentioned by the ancients, is, perhaps, the best of the Levant. It begins to lose its colour when about 14 or 15 years of age, but retains its flavour and strength for a much longer period. The town, on the N.E. side of the island, is defended by a small fort. On the N. the port is protected by a pier, and it has pretty good anchorage. In antiquity it was a sort of *emporion* for the produce destined for Constantinople; and Justinian erected in it a large warehouse, the ruins of which are still extant, where vessels loaded with corn from Alexandria discharged their cargoes when they happened to be prevented, as was frequently the case, by contrary winds, from making a passage through the Hellespont to the capital. (*Townsgate*, i. 397.)

Tenedos, according to Strabo (lib. xiii.), had a temple dedicated to Apollo: but it is principally known from its having been mentioned in connection with Troy by Homer—

"Thou source of light! whom Tenedos adores!"

Pope's Iliad, l. 18. 33.

and by Virgil. According to the latter, it was the place to which the Grecian fleet made their feigned retreat before the sack of Troy:—

"Est in conspectu (Trois) Tenedos notissima Sema
Insula, dives opum, Priami dum regna morantur."

Virgil, l. 11. 31.

TENERIFFE, or TEYDE (PEAK OF), a famous conical and volcanic mountain in the centre of the island of Teneriffe, of which its base occupies the greater portion (See CANARY ISLANDS), rising, according to Borda, to the height of 11,424 French, or 12,173 Eng. ft. above the level of the sea. According to Von Buch the Peak consists of an enormous dome of trachyte, covered with layers of basalt. The summit of the cone (*El Pico*, the sugar-loaf,) is terminated by a crater, surrounded, as it were, by a circular wall, or parapet. Humboldt, who descended to the bottom of the crater, found the heat was perceptible only in a few crevices, a high gase vent to aqueous vapours, with a peculiar buzzing noise. (*Personal Narrative*, i. 173; *Engl. Trans.*)

The ascent of the Peak is distinguished by a difference of vegetation somewhat similar to that which is observed on the ascent of Etna (which see). Above the lower and more fertile tracts near the sea, where date trees, plantains, sugar-canes, Indian figs, vines, and olives flourish in profusion, rises what is called the region of laurels. These are fed by a vast number of springs, that rise up amid a turf covered with perpetual verdure. Extensive plantations of chestnuts occur in the lower part, above which rise four species of laurel, and an oak resembling that of Thibet. The underwood in the lower part consists of arboreous heath, and in the upper part of ferns. Above this commences a vast forest of fir and pine trees which characterise the colder regions of the earth. Succeeding to this is a vast plain, like a sea of sand, covered with dust of pumice stone, which continually fills the air. It is embellished with tufts of the beautiful shrub called the *retama* (*Spartium subgenum*, Alton), growing to the height of nine ft., and loaded with odoriferous flowers, which are said to communicate a peculiar excellence to the flesh of the goats that feed upon them. At the entrance of this plain the rich verdure of the island terminates, as well as all appearance of habitation; and the traveller ascends afterwards through a complete solitude. Above this Sparsely plain are the *Malpais*, a name which the Spaniards apply to grounds destitute of vegetable mould, and covered with loose and broken fragments of lava. The ascent here is steep, and extremely fatiguing, as the blocks of lava roll from beneath the feet, and often leave deep hollows. At the extremity of the Malpais is a small plain called the *Rambleta*, from the centre of which the Piton, or conical summit, rises to the height of about 2,350 feet. Here are found those spracles which are called by the natives the *Nostrils of the Peak*, consisting of crevices whence issue

watery and hot vapours. The ascent of the Piton is steep, and rendered difficult by the loose ashes with which it is covered. At the top there is scarcely room to stand, and the crater, as already stated, is enclosed by a steep wall.

The view from the top of the Peak, though characterised by peculiar beauty, falls far short of the magnificent prospect from the summit of Etna. The cultivated and wooded parts of the island are, however, seen in close proximity, and the steep and naked declivities of the upper parts of the mountain strikingly contrast with the smiling aspect of the country beneath. The transparent atmosphere enables the spectator to distinguish minute objects, such as houses, sails of vessels, and trunks of trees. Beyond the eye wanders on all sides over the vast expanse of the Atlantic, and commands the whole archipelago of the Canaries. It has been alleged that the view extends as far as Cape Bojador, on the coast of Africa.

The summit of the Peak is a *solfadara*, or extinguished volcano, whence no eruption has taken place since its discovery by Europeans; but some eruptions have taken place from the sides of the mountain during the course of last century. In 1704, one occurred in the district of Guimar, which buried several valleys, and approached within a short distance of the port of Orotava. Two years after, in 1706, the lava, issuing forth in a different quarter, buried the town and port of Garachico, then the finest and most frequented in the island. Another eruption happened in June, 1798, not far from the summit of the Peak, but it was not productive of much damage.

Notwithstanding its proximity to the equator, and to the coast of Africa, the Piton, or cone, is covered with snow during several months of the winter, and snow is always found in the hollows not exposed to the sun's rays. A powerful heat is always felt on the ground at the summit of the cone, and Humboldt mentions that his hands and face, and those of his party, were frozen, while their boots were burnt by the heat of the soil on which they walked. (*Dictionnaire Géographique; Humboldt's Personal Narrative*, l. 147—194. *Eng. Trans.*; *Lyell's Geology*, li. 138.)

TENNESSEE, one of the U. States of N. America, in the basin of the Mississippi, between lat. 35° and 36° 40' N., and lon. 82° and 90° W., having N. Kentucky and Virginia, E. N. Carolina, S. Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, and W. the river Mississippi, which divides it from Arkansas and Missouri. Area, 43,000 sq. m. Pop. in 1830, 681,900; in 1850, 1,080,000, of whom 260,000 were slaves. The E. part of this state is intersected by the Alleghany chain, which here sometimes rises to the height of 2,000 ft.; the middle part is hilly, while the W. portion is an extensive undulating plain. Principal rivers, after the Mississippi, are the Tennessee and Cumberland, both tributaries of the Ohio. The Tennessee rises near Franklin in N. Carolina, and runs at first N.W. to about 35 m. W. S. W. Knoxville; it then turns to the S. W., and continues in that direction to near Decatur in Alabama. After a bend to the W. N. W., it again enters the state of Tennessee about lon. 88° W., and its course thenceforward is generally northward to its mouth in the Ohio, about 20 m. S. W. Salem. At its outlet it is about 600 yards in width. It is navigable for steam vessels of large size for 240 m., and as much further for boats of 40 or 50 tons. It has several tributaries, some of which are navigable to a considerable distance; at present no towns of consequence are situated on its banks. Tennessee is generally well watered, and, except in the mountainous parts, comprises a good deal of excellent land. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabs.

The products are pretty much the same as those of Kentucky, with the addition of cotton. Indian corn, wheat, and oats are the principal corn crops: the produce of the first, in 1848, amounted, according to the official returns, to 75,600 bushels; being a much larger quantity than was raised in any other state. The produce of wheat during the same year is stated to have been 9,000,000 bushels. Cotton is grown in most parts of the state, and its culture is rapidly increasing: the crop of 1848 was estimated at 36,000,000 lbs. Tobacco is also cultivated to a considerable extent, its produce being estimated at about 36,500,000 lbs. In the E. grazing is a good deal attended to; and considerable numbers of cattle and sheep are reared for the markets of the eastern states. Coal, iron, salt, marble, and nitre are found; and some of these, with cotton, Indian corn, wheat, flour, tobacco, fruit, tar, turpentine, rosin, whiskey, live stock, salted meats, lard, coarse linen goods, and gunpowder, constitute the principal exports, being mostly sent down the Mississippi to New Orleans. Several canals and railways have been projected, though, hitherto, but few have been completed.

The legislature consists of a senate of 25 mems., and a house of representatives of 75 mems., who, with the governor, are elected for two years. The judges of the supreme court are elected by a joint vote of both houses for twelve years, and those of the inferior courts in the same manner for twelve years. In the election for representa-

tives, every free white male citizen has the right to vote in the co. of which he has been an inhabitant for six months previously. The pay of senators and representatives is four dollars a day. Murfreesborough was the former capital, but Nashville is now the seat of government. In 1840, there were 983 common schools in this state, attended by 25,000 pupils, and 5,380 persons were in the same year attending the superior academies and colleges. The school-fund, in 1849, amounted to 1,221,655 dollars.

The colonisation of Tennessee commenced about 1757, and the settlers entered warmly into the revolutionary war. The territory belonged to N. Carolina previously to 1790, when it was ceded to the United States; and in 1796 it was received as a state into the Union. It sends 18 mems. to the House of Representatives. (*Amer. Almanack*, 1850-51; *Encyc. Amer.*; *Encyc. of Geog.*, *Amer. edit.*; *Darby*, &c.)

TENTERDEN, a mun. bor., mar. town, and par. of England, co. Kent, lathe Stry, the mun. bor., comprising all the hund. of Tenterden, and the par. of same name, together with a part of the par. of Ebony; 43 m. S. E. London. Area of par. 8,620 acres. Pop. in 1831, 3,177. The town, which is finely situated on an eminence, environed by hop-grounds, is well built. It consists principally of a single street, continuous with which is the straggling village of Bird's Isle to the N., and a little to the E. is the hamlet of Lye Green. The par. church, a spacious structure, consists of a nave, N. aisle and chancel, with a well-built lofty tower at the one end, on which are sculptured the arms of the monastery of St. Augustine to which foundation this church was appropriated in 1259. The living of Tenterden, a vicarage, worth 177l. a year, is in the gift of the dean and chapter of Canterbury. It has, also, chapels for Baptists, Wesleyans, and Unitarians, a free school founded in 1621, for six scholars, and which has been greatly enlarged by voluntary subscriptions, and several minor charities. Tenterden has no manufactures, and depends entirely on its stall trade with the rich agricultural country in which it is situated, and upon its proximity to Romney marshes: which has made it be selected as a place of residence by persons engaged in the grazing of sheep and cattle on the marsh. There are a few gentlemen of independent fortune living in and about the town. There seems but little probability of its becoming a place of much greater importance than it is at present. It is neither paved, lighted, nor watched. (*Mun. Bound. Rep.*) In the reign of Henry VI., Tenterden was incorporated and annexed to the town and port of Lye; but the earliest existing charter is that of Elizabeth. It is governed, under the Mun. Reform Act, by a mayor, 3 aldermen, and 12 councillors, who hold their seats for a year, and a court is held every fortnight. Corp. rev., in 1840, 505*l.* Market day, Friday; fair, first Monday in May, for horses, cattle, and pedlery. (*Mun. Bound. and Corp. Rep. Append.*)

TEQUENDAMA (FALL OF), a celebrated cataract in the repub. of New Granada, Colombia, in the course of the Bogota river, a tributary of the Magdalena, a few miles W. from Bogota. A short distance above the fall the river is 140 ft. in breadth; but being forced into a narrow, though deep bed of only 40 ft. in width, it is precipitated at two bounds down a perpendicular rock, to the depth of 680 ft.; and even in very dry seasons, Humboldt says the volume of water still presents a side view of 90 sq. metres. "The cataract forms an assemblage of every thing that is sublimely picturesque in beautiful scenery. This fall is not, as has been commonly said, the loftiest in the world; but there scarcely exists a cataract which, from so lofty a height, precipitates so voluminous a mass of waters." (*Humboldt's Researches*, l. 17.) The body of water, when it first parts from its bed, forms a broad arch of glassy appearance; a little lower down it assumes a heavy foam; and ultimately, in its progress downward, it shoots forth into millions of small tubular masses, which chase each other like sky-rockets. The noise, which attends the fall is quite astounding; and dense clouds of vapour are sent up, which rise to a considerable height, and mingle with the atmosphere, forming in their ascent the most beautiful rainbows. The comparative smallness of the stream which runs off from the foot of the fall, proves that a large proportion of the water is lost by evaporation. (*Mod. Trav.*, xvii. 380.) What gives the Fall of Tequendama a remarkable appearance is the great difference in the vegetation surrounding its different parts. At the summit the traveller "finds himself surrounded, not only with the *aralia*, begonia, and the yellow bark tree, but with oaks, elms, and other plants, the growth of which recalls to his mind the vegetation of Europe; when suddenly he discovers, as from a terrace, and at his feet, a country producing the palm, the banana, and the sugar-cane. The true cause of this phenomenon has not been satisfactorily explained. The difference of altitude, about 175 metres, is, as Humboldt has stated, too inconsiderable to have much influence over the temperature of the air. (*Researches*, p. 79, &c.)

TERAMO (an. *Interamnia Praetulia*), a city of the Neapolitan dom. prov. Abruzzo Ultra, of which it is the cap., 947 ft. above the sea, in the angle formed by the Vezzo, where it joins the Tordino, 16 m. W. from the embouchure of the latter in the Adriatic, and 19 m. N.N.E. Monte Corno, the highest summit of the Appennine. Pop., in 1880, 10,321. It was formerly surrounded by strong walls, but is now quite open. With one exception, its streets are narrow and dirty, and its houses, for the most part, mean-looking. In the outskirts, however, some of the houses are in better taste. The cathedral has been modernised. There are several convents, hospitals, asylums, &c. It has but few manufactures or industrial establishments; but it is the seat of the civil and criminal tribunals of the prov., and has a royal college, a seminary, or establishment for the instruction of the clergy; and is the residence of several opulent families. Its vicinity is in general fertile, producing corn, wine, and oil in abundance: in the time of the Romans its wine was in high estimation:—

Tum qua vitiferus domat Praetulia pubes
Leta laboris agros. *Silius Italicus*, lib. xv. v. 568.

Some buried arches, the vestiges of a theatre, baths, and some other edifices, are the principal remains of the ancient city. (*Del Ris Descrizione delle Due Sicilie*, ii. 47., &c.; *Craven, Excurs. in the Abruzzi*, i. 310.)

TERCERA. See AZORES.

TERLIZZI, an inland town of S. Italy, kingd. of Naples, prov. Bari, cap. cant., on an elevated site, 18 m. W. Bari. Pop. said to amount to about 10,000. Notwithstanding its site, it seems to possess little worth notice beyond the usual superabundance of religious edifices, if we except a gallery of pictures, comprising works by several of the great Italian masters, in the mansion of a noble family.

TERMINI (an. *Thermae Himerenses*, and simply *Thermae*), a marit. town of Sicily, on the N. coast of the island, intend. of Palermo, cap. district and canton, near the mouth of the river of its own name, 24 m. E.S.E. Palermo, lat. 37° 57' 28"; N. long. 14° 45' E. Pop., in 1851, 18,942. It is finely situated on the declivity of a hill rising from the sea; and besides being surrounded by an old wall is farther defended, towards the sea, by a castle on a high rock, commanding the town and port. The streets are for the most part narrow and dirty; but it has some pretty good public buildings, among which are several churches and convents, a royal college, 2 hospitals, a *monté-di-pietà*, an asylum for females, and convenient baths over the hot springs, for which the city has been celebrated from the remotest epoch, and from which she has derived her modern as well as her ancient name. The town is a *caricatore*, or shipping port, and exports (mostly coastwise to Palermo), corn, oil, shumac, dried fruits, manna, &c. The sardine and anchovy fisheries are also actively carried on. The harbour, which is but indifferent, is open to the N. (*Smyth's Sicily*, p. 95; *Rampoldi*, &c.).

About 6 m. E. by S. from Termini are the ruins of the ancient *Himera*, near which Gelon, tyrant of Syracuse, totally defeated and destroyed an army of Carthaginians, said to have comprised no fewer than 300,000 men, commanded by Hamilcar, grandfather of Hannibal, who lost his life in the action. The Carthaginians were the allies of Xerxes, and their defeat is said by Herodotus (lib. viii. cap. 166.), to have happened on the same day that the Greeks gained the victory of Salamis, anno 480 B.C. But though it be abundantly certain that Gelon gained a great victory over Hamilcar, it is extremely improbable that the forces of the latter amounted to half the number mentioned above. Hannibal never had 100,000 men at any one time under his command; and the probability is that 30,000 would be much nearer the number of Hamilcar's army than 300,000. The ships which had conveyed the troops to Himera, are said to have been drawn up on the beach; and Captain Smyth says that so great a fleet and army could not possibly have been accommodated in the situation where the battle is said to have been fought. In fact, very little dependence is to be placed on the statements as to numbers, in most ancient authors; they are almost invariably much exaggerated.

At a subsequent period Hannibal avenged his grandfather's disaster by taking and utterly destroying Himera. Such of its citizens as escaped the massacre which took place on this occasion, sought an asylum in *Thermae*. (*Cicero de Verrem*, ii. cap. 35.) Augustus raised the latter to the rank of a colony. Stesichorus, one of the most ancient and celebrated of the Greek poets, was a native of Himera.

TERNATE. See MOLUCCA ISLANDS.

TERNI (an. *Interamma*), a town of the Papal States, deleg. Spoleto, in a rich and fine valley, near the right bank of the Nera (an. *Ner*),

Salvatus Nax olim agros.
Aeneid. lib. vii. lin. 514.

about 4 m. W. from the famous falls of the Vellino, and 49 m. N.N.E. Rome. Pop., circ. 9,000. It is surrounded by a wall and towers; but though it has wide streets, some tolerable buildings, and a charming situation, it is, on the whole, poor and mean, retaining but few traces of its ancient splendour. It has a cathedral with a superb altar, an hospital, a *monté-di-pietà*, and some other charitable foundations, a handsome theatre, and a building, erected in 1827, for the reception of the waters of the Vellino for the public accommodation. Among the remains of antiquity are some vaults of an amphitheatre constructed under *Libertus*, portions of temples of the Sun and Cybele transformed into churches, and the remains of public baths. The surrounding country is extremely productive, *feracissimas Italiae campos* (*Tacit. Annal.* lib. i. cap. 79.); and on the river are flour and oil mills, tanneries, &c. (*Rampoldi*, &c.).

The historian *Tacitus* is said to have been a native of *Interamma*; but there is no evidence that such was really the case. The emperors *Tacitus* and *Florianus* are also said, but on no better grounds, to have belonged to it.

The falls of the Vellino, called the *Cascata del Marmore*, about 4 m. E. from Terni, are amongst the most striking objects of the kind that are anywhere to be met with. The total height of the fall, which is divided into three leaps, is probably (for there is the greatest discrepancy in the statements on the subject) from 680 to 750 ft. The water is conveyed to the fall in an artificial channel, more than 1 m. in length, originally dug by the consul *Curius Dentatus*, anno 214 A.C. (*Cicero, Epist. ad Atticum*, Epist. 15.); but, the channel having been filled up by a deposition of calcareous matter, it was widened and deepened, and is part altered, in 1906, and again in 1784. *Wood* has appropriated some magnificent stanzas to a notice of these falls (*Childe Harold*, cant. iv. st. 62–72.); and he adds in a note, "I saw the Cascata del Marmore of Terni twice at different periods; once from the summit of the precipice, and once from the valley below. The lower view is far to be preferred, if the traveller have time for one only; but in any point of view, either from above or below, it is worth all the cascades and torrents of Switzerland put together." (*See Cellarii Geographia Antiqua*, i. 751–775; *Bussiace*, i. 227. oct. ed.; *Wood's Letters*, ii. 97. &c.).

TERRACINA (an. *Ansur and Terracinae*), a sea-port town of the Papal States, deleg. Frosinone, at the S. extremity of the Pontine Marshes, close to the Neapolitan frontier, 59 m. S.S.E. Rome; lat. 41° 18' 14" N., long. 15° 33' 37" E. Pop. about 6,000. This town, which is on the Apian Way, and adjoining the embouchure of the canal for the draining of the marshes, stands partly on low ground, and partly on the declivity of a hill. With the exception of the portion along the shore, it is ill built; and, owing to the deleterious air of the contiguous marshes, it is unhealthy, and the inhab. have a sickly appearance. On the hill is the cathedral, erected, as is supposed, on the site of the temple of *Jupiter Anxurus*; higher up are the ruins of the ancient *Anxur*—

"Impositum saxis late condidissimas Anxur."
Hor. Sat., lib. i. sat. 5.

And crowning the brow of the rock which overhangs the modern town are the ruins of the palace of *Galba*, repaired and reoccupied by *Theodoric*, commanding a magnificent view of the Pontine Marshes, Monte Circeo, and of Gaeta and the Neapolitan shore, as far as *Bale*. Pope Pius VI. endeavoured, by improving the drainage of the marshes, and by clearing out and deepening the harbour, which had been completely filled up, to recover for Terracina some portion of its former importance. But his efforts have not had the anticipated success; and though the fishery be carried on to some extent from the port, it has little or no trade. In 1810, Napoleon suppressed the bishopric of Terracina.

Anxur, which was originally a town of the Volsci, subsequently became a Roman colony, and an important naval station. It was sacked by *Alaric*, and was occupied by the Arabs for about a century. It was also taken and sacked by a French force in 1798. (*Rampoldi*; *Cellarii Geographia Antiqua*, i. 812; *Wood's Letters*, ii. 176. &c.).

TERRANOVA (an. *Gela*), a sea-port town of Sicily, prov. Caltanissetta, cap. district, on the S. shore of the island, near the mouth of the river of the same name, 18 m. E. Alicata; lat. 37° 4' 30" N., long. 16° 15' E. Pop., in 1831, 9,780. It is well situated on a bank near the sea, and has a fine palace, belonging to its proprietor, the Duke de Monteleone; but the streets are irregular and dirty, and its castle, churches, and convents appear to be neglected. It has a tolerably good hospital, and is said by *Swinburne* to be scarce and dear. Coarse cloth is manufactured in the town; and having a *caricatore*, or shipping station, it has some trade in the exportation of corn, wine, sulphur, soda, &c. The cloth made in the town finds a good market at the commercial fair

held in August. The anchorage at Terranova is opposite to, and about 1 m. from the shore, in from 7 to 11 fathoms. It is, like other places on the same coast, open to the southerly gales, which sometimes throw in a heavy sea. In 1830, 67 ships (25 of which were British), of the burden of 4,881 tons, cleared out from the port. Smyth says that a party of strolling players has existed in this town for more than half a century, called the *Campagna degli Uniti*, from their all sharing alike in the gains of the society.

Though the question be not free from difficulty, there seems every reason to think that Terranova, and not Alcala, occupies the site of the ancient Gela. It has some remains of antiquity, consisting of the foundations and mutilated fragments of a great temple, and of a Doric column. Gela was a Rhodian colony, and early attained to considerable distinction. But it is principally memorable for having given birth to Gelon, prince or tyrant of Syracuse, famous alike for his virtues, and for his great victory over the Carthaginians, commanded by Hamilcar, grandfather of Hannibal. Gela was subsequently destroyed by Phintias, tyrant of Agrigento, and is included by Strabo among the uninhabited towns of the island. The modern town was founded by Frederick of Arragon, towards the close of the 13th century. (Smyth, 196.; *Straboniana*, li. 301. &c.)

TERUEL (an. *Turdeto*), a town of Spain, cap. prov. of its own name in Aragon, on a hill, at the foot of which flows the Guadalquivir, 75 m. N.W. Valencia. Pop. about 8,000. It is walled, and tolerably well built. Being a bishop's see, it has numerous churches and convents; one of the latter, belonging to the Jesuits, being the largest edifice in the town. The cathedral, an extensive building, though its architecture be not wholly in good taste, is sumptuously adorned within, and has, or, at all events, had, many fine paintings. It has several fountains supplied with water by an ancient aqueduct. Its manufactures comprise woollen and linen fabrics, shoes, and earthenware, with fulling-mills, dyeing-houses, tanneries, &c. The vicinity is very fertile, and near it are some celebrated warm sulphur springs. Teruel is the residence of a military governor, and was a fortress of some consequence under the Moors, from whom it was taken by Alphonso II. in 1171. (*Manso*, &c.)

TESCHEN, a town of Austria, Silesia, cap. circ. and duchy of same name, on the Olza, a tributary of the Oder, 26 m. E.S.E. Troppan. Pop. about 7,000. It is well built and has three suburbs, a ducal castle, several Rom. Cath. churches, a Lutheran church, and gymnasia for both persuasions, that of the former possessing, it is said, a library of 12,000 vols. (*Berghaus*.) There are several other superior schools, and a military asylum. Teschen is the seat of the circle tribunal and other courts, and has manufactures of woollen cloths, cassimere, leather, fire-arms, &c. Here was signed a treaty between Austria and Prussia, in 1779.

TESSIN, or TICINO, the most S. canton of Switzerland, between lat. 45° 50' and 46° 27' N., and long. 6° 25' and 9° 12' E., being separated by the main chain of the Alps from Uri and the Grisons on the N., while on other sides it is surrounded chiefly by the Austrian and Sardinian territories, the lakes Maggiore and Lugano forming parts of its S. frontier. Area estimated at 1,034 sq. m. Pop., in 1840, 117,789, all Rom. Catholics. Most part of this canton is either mountainous, or divided into numerous valleys by alpine ramifications: in the S., however, it sinks to the level of the plain of Lombardy. The Ticino, whence this canton derives its name, has its sources in Mount St. Gothard, in the Valli Bedretto, Piura, Blegno, &c. Its course is generally southward, and after intersecting the canton near its centre, and traversing the Lago Maggiore in its entire length, it forms the boundary between Lombardy and Piedmont, falling into the Po at Pavia, after an entire course of about 100 m., about 60 of which are navigable.

The climate of Tessin is mild; and though its pastures be not so good, nor so well watered as those of the cantons N. of the Alps, its soil is generally very fertile. Agriculture is, however, extremely backward, partly from the ignorance and want of industry of the inhabitants, and partly from the too great subdivision of the surface into small properties, portions of which at great distances from each other sometimes belong to the same proprietors. Wheat, rye, and maize are the principal grains raised; a good deal of tobacco is cultivated. Wine is grown in many districts; but, like the Italian wines, that of this canton will not keep for any considerable period. The silk of Tessin is of superior quality; and a supply worth from 200,000 to 300,000 Swiss francs is sent annually into other parts of Switzerland. (*Picot*.) Most of the fruits common to Lombardy flourish here: the chestnut woods are extensive, and chestnut flour is largely consumed by the inhabs. The canton abounds with timber, but much of it is useless from the want of roads and expense of carriage. About 3,000 quintals a year of cheese are sent into Italy, and calves, sheep, and hogs are also exported.

The chamois is a native of this canton. It sometimes breeds with the domestic goat, and the resulting progeny is greatly prized for its skin. There are scarcely any manufactures, and the trade of Tessin is chiefly in the conveyance of goods between Switzerland and Italy. A great many of the male natives of the canton emigrate to Milan, Venice, Trieste, Turin, Marseilles, and the adjacent countries, where they serve as confectioners, chocolate manufacturers, waiters in coffee-houses, &c.; leaving the labours of the field and the care of the cattle to the women.

Tessin was merely a territory subordinate to Switzerland till 1815, when it was admitted into the Confederation, in which it holds the eighteenth rank. Its government was materially altered in 1830; when the grand council, which holds the sovereign and legislative power, was made to consist of 114 mems., chosen in the different communes by all the citizens born in the canton twenty-five years of age, and who possess immovable property to the value of 200 Swiss francs, or the usufruct of such property to the value of 800 francs. It chooses its own president, and meets each year by rotation in Bellinzona, Locarno, and Lugano. The executive body, or lesser council, consists of 9 mems., chosen by the greater council among its mems. Equality before the laws, the freedom of the press, and the right of petition, are guaranteed. Tessin is subdivided into 8 districts and 36 circles, and the latter again into communes. In every commune there is a municipal council of from 3 to 11 mems., with whom rests the direction of the local police. A justice of the peace sits in each circle; in each district there is a court of primary jurisdiction; and for the whole canton there is a supreme tribunal of 18 mems. Criminal processes appear to be more common in this than in most other cantons of Switzerland. The public revenue, principally derived from salt and custom duties, in 1833-34, amounted to 897,390 Swiss livres: expenditure to 787,640 ditto. Public debt, in 1830, 5,041,459 ditto. Contingent to the army of the Swiss Confederation, 1,804 men.

The inhabs. of Tessin are of middle stature, and generally square and strongly built; though, on account, it is said, of their irregular mode of life, among other causes, they seldom attain a great age. In many respects they resemble their Italian neighbours, and their language is a dialect of the Italian. Among them have been several eminent painters, sculptors, and architects; the latter including Domenico Fontana, who completed the dome of St. Peter's, and executed many other great works in Rome. But the bulk of the inhabs. are very backward in point of education, and some of the communal magistrates can neither read nor write. It has no council of public instruction, no literary association (except, perhaps, in Lugano), and scarcely a library. The habits of the people are dirty and depraved. According to Picot, "*L'éloge de la sobriété italienne ne convient au canton du Tessin, ni sous le rapport de la bousine, ni sous celui du danger. Quoique doués naturellement des dispositions les plus heureuses, ils manquent d'amour du travail, d'industrie, et de ressources, en sorte qu'ils sont inférieurs aux autres peuples de la Suisse en moralité et en aisance, malgré tout ce que la nature a fait pour eux.*" (*Picot*, Statistique de la Suisse, p. 474-490.; Ebel, &c.)

TETBURY, a market-town and par. of England, co. Gloucester, hund. Longtree, near the source of the Avon, 164 m. S.E. Gloucester. Area of par., 4,990 acres. Pop., in 1841, 2,982. The town consists of several streets, meeting in its centre, in which is a large market-house. It is well built, the houses being mostly of stone. The par. church is a handsome edifice: having, with the exception of the tower and spire, been rebuilt in 1781. It has chapels for Independents and Baptists, a grammar-school, a well-endowed Sunday school for all the poor children of the par., an almshouse for 8 poor persons, &c. The businesses of woolcombing and wool-stapling are carried on, but to no great extent. The supply of water used formerly to be very deficient; but the deficiency has been obviated by the sinking of several deep wells. Markets on Wednesdays; fairs, four times a year, for corn, cheese, cattle, lambs, and horses. A fortified camp, probably of the ancient Britons, formerly existed here; and Roman coins have been frequently dug up in and near the town.

TETUAN, a town and sea-port of Morocco, kingd. Fes, prov. Hasbat, on the shore of the Mediterranean, 33 m. S.E. Tangier. Pop. said to amount to 16,000; of whom 9,000 may be Moors, 4,200 Jews, 2,000 blacks, and 800 Christians. (*Gräff*, *Reise in Marokko*.) The town stands on the declivity of a hill crowned with a square castle, the residence of the governor. It is of considerable extent, and its walls are flanked in different parts with square forts, on which a few pieces of ordnance are mounted. Cannon are also placed on the castle, and on a square tower at the mouth of the river forming the port; but it could not oppose any effectual resistance to a European force. The streets are narrow and dirty, and as in Fes and other cities of Morocco, many are

nearly covered-in by the upper stories of the houses. The latter are frequently of two stories, and tolerably well built and finished; and there are several good mosques. In commercial importance Tetuan ranks next to Fez, from which place it receives the goods brought by the caravans from Tunis, Algiers, Alexandria, Timbuctoo, &c. Wool, corn, and other provisions, wax, hides, cattle, leather, some manufactured stuffs, and other African produce, are exported to Spain, France, and Italy, in return chiefly for European manufactures. The port of Marteen is about 2 m. from the sea, on a small river, the mouth of which is now so choked up with sand as to admit only of the entrance of small craft. The roadstead, formed by a high point of land which runs out into the sea W. of the river, is sheltered from W. winds, but during the prevalence of those from the E. vessels must retire to some other place. Tetuan was formerly the residence of several European consuls; at present, however, no Europeans being allowed to reside in the town, their functions are performed by vice-consuls, who are mostly Jews. (*G. of Ahmed, Imp. dal Morocco; Mod. Trav. xx.*)

TEWKESBURY, a parl. and mun. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Gloucester, hund. Tewkesbury, on the Avon, near its confluence with the Severn, on the border of Worcestershire, 9 m. N.E. Gloucester, and 90 m. N.W. London. Area of the mod. parl. bor., which is identical with the par., 1,890 acres. Pop., in 1831, 5,790; in 1851, 5,731. It consists of two principal thoroughfares, meeting in the form of the letter Y, and from which many smaller streets branch out. The three principal streets are wide and respectable, but the other streets are inferior, and are principally occupied by the poor and labouring pop. (*Mun. Bound. Rep.*) The town is nearly insulated by the "Mill Avon" (an ancient cut, by which the Avon has been nearly diverted from its original channel), and its tributaries, the Carran and Swilgate brooks; and it is in consequence compactly built. Many of its houses are handsome, and it is well paved and lighted with gas. The rivers encircling the town are crossed by several bridges; and, in 1836, an elegant cast-iron bridge, having an arch 173 ft. in span, was thrown over the Severn, about 1/4 m. from the town. The par. church, which formerly belonged to a flourishing Benedictine abbey, that grew out of a monastery founded here in 715, is a large and noble structure. Its length is 317 ft. within the walls, and that of the transept 123 ft.; the choir and side aisles are 70 ft. in breadth, and the W. front 100 ft.; the height from the area to the roof is 120 ft.; and the height of the tower is 152 ft. Mr. Ruckman says of this church, that it "is one of the most curious and magnificent edifices in the county. The nave is Norman, the piers are round, and very lofty; at the intersection of the cross is a very fine Norman tower, adorned with arches both within and without, in several stages. The choir has a multangular east end, with additional chapels and a chapter-house, all of excellent decorated character; the windows of the aisle and transepts are some decorated and some perpendicular. The W. window is perpendicular, inserted into a very lofty Norman arch of great depth, with shafts and mouldings. In the windows of the choir are considerable remains of ancient stained glass. There are some traces of the cloister remaining on the S. side of the nave; they were perpendicular and very rich. There are several portions of very good screen-work and stalls. The abbey gate is standing, though much dilapidated." (*Gothic Architect.*) It has many fine old monuments. The living of Tewkesbury, a vicarage in the gift of the crown, is said in the Ecclesiastical Report to be worth only 313*l.* nett, but it is affirmed to be worth above 500*l.* The market-house, a handsome structure, has Doric columns and pilasters, supporting a pediment in front. The town-hall, the lower part of which is used for the courts, and the upper part as a council-hall and assembly-room, was erected in 1788 by Sir William Codrington. The other public buildings include various dissenting chapels, a theatre, the borough gaol, and house of industry. Tewkesbury has a free grammar-school, founded in 1576; blue-coat, national, and Lancastrian schools, with almshouses, a dispensary, lying-in-charity, and several other benevolent establishments. The town formerly produced considerable quantities of woollen cloth and a superior kind of mustard. Its principal manufactures consist of cotton hosiery. Wages of the weavers vary from 3*s.* to 8*s.* a week, the average being about 6*s.* A few parties are also employed in the bobbinet-lace trade, and in the making of nails. The carrying trade up the Severn and the corn-market have declined since the improvements in the navigation at Gloucester and the construction of the railroad between Stratford and Moreton; but, on the whole, the town is still in a thriving state. Tewkesbury has returned 2 mems to the H. of C. since the 7th of James I. The right of voting, down to the Reform Act, was in freemen and holders of burgage tenements, of whom there were then 400. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 378. The mun. is co-extensive with the parl. bor. The town is governed by a mayor, 4 al-

dermen and 12 councillors. It has a commission of the peace, a separate court of quarter sessions, a court of record for debts not above 50*l.*, &c. Corporation revenue, in 1847-8, 826*l.* Markets, Wednesday and Saturday, for corn, cattle, poultry, &c.

In a field in the immediate vicinity of the town, still called, from the circumstance, the "Bloody Meadow," was fought, on the 4th of May, 1471, a decisive engagement between the Yorkists, under Edward IV., and the Lancastrians, under Queen Margaret and her son. The Lancastrians were totally defeated, with the loss of a great many persons of distinction, and about 3,000 soldiers left on the field. Margaret and her son having been taken prisoners, the latter was immediately assassinated. (*Bound. and Munic. Reports and Append.; Hume's England, cap. 22.*)

TEXAS, formerly an independent republic of N. America, but since 1845 incorporated with and forming one of the U. States of America. Its limits formerly extended from the 26th to nearly the 36th deg. N. lat., and between the 93rd and 107th deg. W. long., being separated from Mexico on the W. and S. by the Rio Grande, or Bravo del Norte, and by the Red River and Arkansas river from the territories of the U. States. But it has been proposed by Congress, and the proposition will no doubt be agreed to, that Texas should, under certain conditions, relinquish a considerable portion of her N.W. territories, which are to be incorporated into the new state or territory of New Mexico; that her boundary on the N. should be the line of 36° 30' lat. as far W. as the 103rd deg. of long.; and that her W. and S.W. boundaries should be formed by a line drawn S. from the point where the above-mentioned degs. of lat. and long. intersect each other to the 22nd deg. lat.; thence W. on that parallel to the Rio Grande; and then along that river to its embouchure. Texas will still have the Gulf of Mexico on its S. E. frontier, while on the E. the river Sabine will divide it from Louisiana. Within these limits it will probably have an area of above 300,000 sq. m. Pop., in 1850, 150,000, of whom 30,000 were slaves.

The general aspect of the country is that of a vast inclined plane, gradually sloping from the mountains on the W. eastward to the sea, and intersected by numerous rivers, all having a S. E. direction. The territory may be divided into three separate regions, differing in many respects from each other. The first or level region extends along the coast, with a breadth inland varying from 100 m. to 70 and 30 m. The soil of this region is principally a rich alluvium, with scarcely a stone, yet singularly free from stagnant swamps. Broad woodlands fringe the banks of the rivers, between which are extensive and rich pasture lands. The second division, the largest of the three, is the undulating or rolling-prairie region, which extends for 150 or 200 m. farther inland, its wide grassy tracts alternating with others that are thickly timbered. These last are especially prevalent in the E., though the bottoms and river valleys throughout the whole region are well wooded. Limestone and sandstone form the common substrata of this region: the upper soil consists of a rich friable loam, mixed indeed with sand, but seldom so surly as the loam of the coast. The third or mountainous region, situated principally in the S. W., includes the Sierra Guadalupe, a portion of the Mexican Alps, and a desert tract at the foot of the mountains. It has been little explored and is without settlements. The mountain sides are clothed with forests of pine, oak, cedar, and a great variety of trees and shrubs, and they inclose extensive alluvial valleys, most of which are susceptible of irrigation and culture.

After the rivers already named, the principal, proceeding from N. to S., are the Neches, the Trinidad, Brazos, Colorado, and Nueces. They all fall into the Gulf of Mexico, or rather (except the Brazos) into its bays and lagoons. The latter bear a considerable resemblance to the haffs along the S. shore of the Baltic, except that they are upon a much larger scale: and the coast, as Humboldt has stated, presents everywhere formidable obstacles to navigation, in the long, low, narrow belts of land by which it is fenced, and which bound the lagoons; in the want of harbours for vessels drawing more than 12 feet water; and in the bars at the mouths of the rivers. Still, however, steam vessels have been able to enter and ascend these rivers to a considerable distance. The Colorado is obstructed by a raft about 10 m. above its mouth, but measures are in progress for removing this, when it is anticipated that it will be navigable for small steamers as high as Austin, the cap. of Texas, about 220 m. from its mouth. The Rio Grande del Norte, a noble stream, having an estimated course of 1,800 m. will most probably, though in parts broken by rapids, become hereafter an important commercial channel. Galveston Bay, into which the Trinidad flows by far the finest of the coast, is about 35 m. in length, N. and S., and from 12 to 18 E. and W. Its average depth is from 9 to 10 feet, but in the channel there are from 18 to 30 ft. water.

The Texan year is divided into a wet and a dry season.

The former lasts from December to March, during which N. and N.E. winds are most prevalent; the latter, from March to the end of November, during which the winds vary from the S.E. round to S.W., may be subdivided into the spring, summer, and autumn. From April to September the thermometer in different parts of the country has been found at a general average to range from 63° to 100°; average heat, 9 A.M., 73° F.; at noon, 83°; 3 P.M., 77° (Kennedy.) These great heats are, however, tempered by continual and strong breezes, which commence soon after sunrise, and continue till about 3 or 4 o'clock P.M. and the nights throughout the year are cool. From March to October little rain falls, though thunder storms frequently occur. During the rest of the year wet weather is prevalent; the rivers swell and inundate the country, and the roads are generally rendered impassable. Snow is seldom seen in the winter, except on the mountains. The climate is said by its panegyrist to be decidedly more salubrious than that either of Louisiana or of the adjacent parts of Mexico; but it is very difficult to imagine any satisfactory reasons why such should be the case, and we confess we are at some considerable doubt as to the accuracy of the statement. On the low alluvial sea coast, intermittent fevers are admitted to be prevalent in summer, though not, it is said, to an epidemic extent; and the yellow fever, it is further stated, rarely, if ever, occurs: indeed, Mr. Kennedy goes so far as to affirm, that "nine-tenths of the republic are considered healthier than the most healthy parts of the U. States." (1. 74.)

But, after making every fair allowance for exaggeration, there can be no doubt that Texas is both a fine and a fertile country. The surface is in most parts covered with luxuriant native grass, comprising with the common prairie grass, the gama, musquite, wild clover, wild rye, &c., and affording excellent pasturage. It has, also, an ample supply of timber, as well for use as for ornament. Live oak (*Quercus temperivirens*), so valuable for ship-building, is here more abundant and of better quality, perhaps, than in any other part of America. White, black, and post oak, ash, elm, hickory, musquite (*acacia*), walnut, sycamore, *bois d'arc*, so called from the Indians using it to make their bows, cypress, caoutchouc, &c. are among the common trees; and the mountainous parts in the S.E. abound with pine and cedar of fine quality. Among the natural curiosities of the country is the "Cross timber" of N. Texas, a continuous series of forests, varying in width from 5 to 50 m., and extending in a direct line about the long. of 97° W. from the woody region at the sources of the Trinidad, northward to the Arkansas river. It appears at a distance like an immense wall of wood; and from the W. such is its linear regularity, that it looks as if it were planted by art. It forms the great boundary of the W. prairies.

Texas is amply supplied with fruits and garden products. The climate of the lowlands is too warm for the apple, but almost every other fruit of temperate climates comes to perfection. Peaches, melons, figs, oranges, lemons, pine-apples, dates, olives, &c., may be grown in different localities with little cost.

Grapes are abundant; and being free from the "foxy" flavour common to the grapes of most parts of America, very tolerable wine has been made from them. Vanilla, indigo, sarsaparilla, and a large variety of dyeing and medicinal shrubs and plants, are indigenous; and on all the river-bottoms is an undergrowth of cane, so thick as to be almost impervious. Along the water-courses also and near the sea, the larger trees are sometimes wreathed with Spanish moss, which serves both for fodder and for the manufacture of cheap bedding, &c. The flora of Texas is particularly rich and copious.

Cotton is the great agricultural staple of the republic, and it is affirmed, and perhaps truly, that it is very decidedly superior, as a cotton-growing country, to the best districts in the other states of the Union; producing a greater quantity of cotton per acre, and of a longer and finer staple. The best of the long-stapled cotton is produced in the low alluvial soils, and the short-stapled on the rolling or undulating lands. According to Mr. Iken, whose statement, however, we do not presume to guarantee, the advantages of the cotton planter in Texas over the planter in Louisiana, &c., consist in the following particulars:—"He has cheaper land, a larger crop, a better staple, an earlier season to plant, and therefore to pick; likewise a longer season for the latter precarious operation prior to the rains and frosts doing injury; by the superior facilities for raising stock, he can feed his labourers about 50 per cent. cheaper than in the U. States; their clothing, owing to the lower tariff, will be far less expensive, and the more salubrious climate will make their lives a better purchase." (P. 45.) But these statements, which could at no time be depended on, are now wholly overturned by the incorporation of Texas with the U. States. The cultivation of cotton has hitherto been principally on the Brazos and Colorado, Red and Trinidad rivers, and Caney creek; and it is steadily on the advance. Cotton planting begins in February, and

picking in June. The latter employment is an easy and profitable occupation for women and children. The crop of cotton was estimated, in 1848, at 12,000,000 lbs.

The grains chiefly cultivated are maize and wheat. The average crop of the former, on good ground, is said to be from 50 to 60 bushels per acre; and it is alleged that 75 bushels are frequently obtained, and that two crops may be gathered in the year, the first being usually planted in February, and the second late in June. (Kennedy.) But though these statements may, perhaps, be true, if applied only to some favoured localities, we have no doubt that they would be gross exaggerations, if they were to be understood as applying to the whole country. According to the rational and moderate estimate of the patent office, the crops, in 1848, were, wheat, 1,300,000 bush., Indian corn, 1,800,000 do., and potatoes, 300,000 do. Rye, barley, oats, &c., are sited for the upper country, and rice near the river estuaries; but small quantities only of these grains have hitherto been raised. The sugar-cane is also said to attain to considerable perfection; and Mr. Kennedy states that the produce on a small plantation, despite the waste arising from very imperfect machinery, has averaged about 3,500 lbs. to the acre. (1. 93.) Tobacco will probably hereafter become an important staple. The mulberry grows vigorously, and the experiment of rearing silkworms has already, we are assured, been successful; and common and sweet potatoes are said, like every thing else in this fortunate land, to attain to perfection!

The rearing of live stock has, however, been long the principal and favourite occupation of the Texan settlers, and many of the prairies are covered with a valuable breed of oxen, which scarcely require, and certainly do not require, much more care or attention than the prairie deer. It is usually estimated that 100 cows and calves, purchased for 1,000 dollars, will, in ten years, have increased about thirty-six fold, thus numbering 3,600, worth, at the same price, 36,000 dollars; though we may remark by the way, that, with such an enormous increase, it is not easy to see why the price should be the same. A profitable trade in cattle is opened with New Orleans, &c., and the West India islands offer coffee, of which the Texans use large quantities, in exchange for cattle. Salt, for curing beef, is obtained everywhere near the coast and the high prairies, and tallow, shipped to Europe, Mr. Iken says, will alone pay more than the cost of the animal. The rearing of horses and mules is also pretty extensively pursued: sheep thrive on the upper lands, but require folding. Hogs are very profitable; and bees, which are produced in great numbers, might also be made productive, there being an extensive demand for wax in Mexico. Vast herds of buffaloes and wild horses wander over the prairies, and deer are everywhere abundant. Bears, cougars, peccaries, wolves, foxes, racoons, &c., are common; and most of the planters are obliged to keep packs of large and powerful dogs to prevent the destruction of their stock. Most of the birds known in the U. States are common to Texas, and the bays, &c., abound with fish of excellent quality, beds of good oysters, and other testacea. Alligators of 16 ft. in length are sometimes met with in the rivers, particularly Red River and its tributaries: turtles, tortoises, &c., in the estuaries. There are several venomous serpents, and, as in all other warm countries, mosquitoes and other insect plagues are common. But Mr. Iken, notwithstanding his wish to represent everything belonging to Texas in the most favourable light, admits that "the inclination for luxurious indolence, to which the climate predisposes," is a worse evil than either serpents or mosquitoes; and "the settler," he adds, "will have much greater reason to be on his guard against this agreeable poison, than against that of the *anguis in herba*!"

After the statements previously made, the reader will not be surprised to learn that Texas is represented as a peculiarly eligible country for emigrants, particularly agriculturists. Mr. Iken, among other practical hints to emigrants, lays it down that the first objects of a settler should be to fix himself in a decidedly healthy situation, with a fertile soil, plenty of timber, and good water; and, truly, if the emigrant whose estate comprises these advantages be not satisfied with his lot, it would be hard to say where he should go to improve it. In purchasing lands, the price varies greatly; but good land, with an unquestionable title, may be obtained for from 2 to 5 dollars an acre, or even cheaper. Inferior capitalists will find the rearing of stock the easiest and most profitable pursuit; and those of a still lower class may, it is said, employ themselves profitably in cultivating a garden in the neighbourhood of some town, which generally affords a ready market for garden produce. The formation of such gardens is looked upon by Mr. Iken as "an object secondary only to the planting of fields." Agricultural labourers, without capital, are said to find little difficulty in connecting themselves with farmers already established, on advantageous terms. "The modes of husbandry in Texas are of the most simple description.

The first object of the farmer, after building a small and temporary log-house, is to enclose a sufficient space of the open land adjoining, by the erection of a rail fence. He then proceeds to break up the land with a light plough, which is usually drawn by oxen. A pair of large oxen, broken, is worth from 30 to 60 dollars; a horse, for general agricultural purposes, about 20 dollars. The Texan farmers generally content themselves with one ploughing previously to planting. Manuring is altogether dispensed with. The seed-time for maize, cotton, and most other crops, is in February and March. A few hoeings to destroy weeds, to thin and to earth up the young plants, is all that is required on the part of the farmer to bring them to perfection." (*Iken's Texas*, 51, 52.)

In many parts of the rolling prairie region, coal of a superior quality, and iron ore have been found; and it has been supposed that beds of these valuable minerals extend over a great part of the country. Silver mines were wrought towards Santa Fé, in the N.W., till the works were destroyed by the Comanche Indians. Nitre abounds in the E.; salt is obtained from numerous lakes and springs; and bitumen in several places. Granite, limestone, gypsum, shale, &c. are abundant, except in the low alluvial region.

Probable Progress of Texas.—The reader will have already seen that we are disposed to entertain some considerable doubts with respect to the statements as to the extraordinary fertility of Texas. But admitting them to be true to the letter, still we should not be all sanguine as to its future progress, and should think that European emigrants would do well to pause before they decide on establishing themselves in Texas. The soil is too fruitful, and the climate, especially in the lower and more fertile parts of the country, is decidedly too hot and relaxing to permit of any laborious employment being vigorously prosecuted by free labourers. Had the free importation of slaves into Texas been permitted, its progress might, and most probably, would have been as rapid as that of the other Southern States of the Union. But the importation of slaves into Texas, except from these states, is prohibited; and if the supply from this quarter should fall, and the prohibition of their importation from other quarters be really enforced, its progress will, we apprehend, be comparatively slow. It is a contradiction and an absurdity to suppose, that free settlers, in such a country, should exhibit any considerable portion of the energy and industry they would exhibit if they had to cultivate a less fertile soil, or were placed under a severer climate. Mexico may be referred to in illustration of this principle. Industry is in it at the lowest possible ebb (see Mexico); though it is needless to add that the incentives to labour are there quite as great as in Texas. And does any one suppose that the cultivation of cotton and sugar would have been carried to near its present extent in Louisiana, Alabama, and other states of the Union, but for their all but unlimited command of slave labour? We, therefore, are well convinced that the future progress of Texas will depend principally on the fact, whether it can or cannot derive ample supplies of slave labour. If it can (whether by natural increase or by importation from the other states is in this respect of no importance), the fair presumption is, that it will make a rapid progress; whereas, if it cannot, its progress will, most probably, be comparatively slow; and we should anticipate that, under such circumstances, its inhab. will gradually fall into the same state of semi-barbarous indolence into which the Mexicans have already sunk.

The geographical position of Texas is eminently favourable to the growth and extension of commerce. Its rivers and the facilities which the country affords for the completion of railways, will enable the traders and agriculturists to forward their produce easily to the coast; whence it may be forwarded to the European markets, and to those of Cuba and the West Indies generally. In exchange for the cotton and other products sent to Great Britain, the Texans import British manufactured goods, not only for their own consumption, but partly, also, for the supply of the N. states of Mexico. Indeed, Santa Fé has been, since 1835, the great emporium of N. Mexico; and in it the traders of that country meet those of the U. States; the former purchasing the manufactures brought by the latter with peltry and bullion, so that a good deal of specie reaches the U. States by this route. The annual amount of the trade at Santa Fé was estimated in 1834, at 2,000,000 dollars; and, in 1841, Iken estimated it at 3,000,000 dollars. Most of the articles for this trade are purchased in Philadelphia, whence they are transported overland to Pittsburgh, where they are shipped for St. Louis, being thence conveyed in waggons to Santa Fé, which they reach after a journey of at least 4,000 m. From St. Louis to Santa Fé, about 1,300 m., the road is extremely bad, running through a country so infested by hostile Indians, that the U. States government is obliged usually to send an escort of cavalry with the larger caravans. But Santa Fé is only 600 m. from the Texan coast, so that it may

not unreasonably, perhaps, be anticipated, that eventually Galveston, and other Texan ports, will be the principal routes by which European goods will reach N. Mexico. As already stated, a good deal of Texan cotton wool is exported to Europe from New Orleans, to which it is brought by way of the Red River, without its appearing to be the growth of Texas. In addition to cotton, hides, deer, otter, beaver, and other skins, cattle and other stock, and bullion from Mexico, are the principal articles of export. But the foreign trade of the state is so very limited, that the value of the exports from Texas, in the year ended 30th June, 1849, was only estimated at 82,791 doll., and that of the imports at 16,500 do. Money is very scarce in Texas: not one sale in ten is made for cash; and Mr. Iken is entitled to credit for recommending "shippers to be cautious as to the extent of their consignments, and to recollect that however great the commercial prospects of the country may be, it is at present only a new market, whose own consumption must necessarily be limited, and the channels of whose interior or transit trade are as yet but very partially opened." (Pp. 66, 67.)

The tariff in force in Texas is, of course, that of the U. States, and the rules and regulations observed in regard to the importation of goods into the other parts of the Union are observed here. The currency weights, &c., are similarly calculated, except that land measures and a few others are identical with those of Mexico. The principal Texan ports of entry are Galveston, Matagorda Bay, and Aransas, to all which pilots are attached. Vessels of about 250 tons, or not drawing more than 10 or 11 ft. water, are those best suited to the trade. (*Iken's Texas*, &c.) The tonnage duties on merchant ships in the Texan ports are 60, and those on steamers 30 cents per ton.

The governor is elected for 2 years, and is not again eligible for a similar term. The legislative power is vested in the congress, composed of a senate, and a house of representatives. The latter body consists of 66 members, who are biennially chosen by universal suffrage, and each of whom must be at least 25 years of age, and have resided in the co. or district which he represents for the 6 months next preceding his election. The senators, of whom there are 21, are chosen every 4 years, by districts as nearly equal in free pop. as practicable. Ministers of religion are ineligible to a seat in either house of congress. All mems. of the government are paid for their services: the governor's salary is 2,000 dollars a year, that of the deputy governor, 3 dollars a day, and that of mems. of congress 3 dollars a day, during session, and 3 dollars for every 35 m. travel. The governor and deputy gov. must each be full 35 years of age, and have been inhab. of the state for 3 years preceding their election. The different branches of public business are conducted by committees appointed by the legislature.

Texas is subdivided into about 40 counties. It is further divided into 10 judicial districts, in each of which is a judge. There is, also, a supreme court, with a chief and two puisne judges, chosen for 6 years; their salaries are 3,000 dollars a year each, no distinction being made in favour of the chief. Sessions are held once a year at Austin, the cap. of the state, commencing on the second Monday of December. The court has appellate jurisdiction within the limits of the state; but in criminal cases, and appeals from interlocutory judgments, it is under legislative regulations. Judges are nominated by the governor, and confirmed by two-thirds of the senate; they may be removed by an address of two-thirds of both houses. The judges of the district courts are chosen for 6 years, and hold a court twice a year in each county. The district courts have original jurisdiction in all criminal cases, and in all suits in which more than 100 dolls. are at stake.

The principal towns are Austin, Galveston, Houston, Washington, Goliad, and Sabine. Houston and Galveston have each about 5,000 inhabs. Slavery is permitted; and the number of slaves, in 1850, amounted, as previously stated, to about 30,000. Most of these slaves have been brought from the contiguous states by planters who have emigrated to Texas; for, as already stated, the importation of slaves from elsewhere is declared to be piracy punishable with death. Unreasonable or cruel treatment of a slave is punishable by a heavy fine. There are several schools and colleges in Texas; and bible, temperance, &c. societies are already numerous.

The total debt of Texas, inc. the debt of the late republic and the interest due on the same, amounted, in 1849, to 11,050,301 doll. The resources of the state are said to be real and personal property of the value of 45,939,597 doll., tax thereon 91,980 doll., and poll taxes, 1 doll. each, to the amount of 18,504. It is also stated that the state has 184,386,920 acres of vacant and unappropriated land. The average annual expenses of the state amounted, in 1849, to 90,000 doll. The school fund then also amounted to 17,073 doll. In 1850, the state had 10,775 militiamen, whose services are sometimes required

against the Comanches, and other hostile Indian tribes of the N. and W.

Previously to 1690, Texas formed a remote and merely nominal part of the conquests of Cortez, inhabited almost wholly by predatory Indian tribes; but in that year the Spaniards, having driven out a colony of French who had established themselves at Matagorda, made their first permanent settlement in the country. On the consummation of Mexican independence, Texas was constituted one of the federal states of Mexico in conjunction with the adjacent state of Coahuila; a union very unpopular with the Texans, and which was productive of the first disagreement with the central government. The war of separation commenced towards the end of 1835, and on the 31st of April, 1836, the independence of Texas was finally secured by the defeat of the Mexican president, Santa Anna, at San Jacinto. After a lengthened negotiation Texas was finally admitted into the American union, 29th December, 1845. For further particulars we beg to refer the reader to *Kennedy's Texas*, 2 vols. 8vo., and the shorter compendium of Iken; from which works we have derived most of the statements in this article.)

TEXEL (THE), an island belonging to Holland, at the entrance of the Zuyder-Zee, off the point of the Helder, at the N. extremity of the prov. of North Holland, from which it is separated by the channel, about 2½ m. across, called Mars-Diep, its most southerly point being in about lat. 53° 1' N., long. 4° 46' E. It forms a canton of the arrond. Alkmaar; length N.E. to S.W. 13 m., and where broadest nearly 5 m. in width. Pop. from 5,000 to 6,000. It is low and in part marshy, but is defended from the irruptions of the sea, partly and principally, by a line of *dunes*, or sand-banks, which extend along its W. coast, and partly by strong dykes. The district of Eyerland (country of eggs), so called from the vast numbers of eggs deposited by the sea-fowl on its shores during the breeding season, was formerly a distinct island, having been united to the Texel by a dyke in 1630. The soil, which is extremely fertile, is mostly employed in the feeding of cattle and sheep, the latter being of a peculiarly fine long-wooled breed. The inhab. occupy a town, Burg, in the centre of the island, and some villages. In addition to agriculture, engage in fishing, boat-building, &c., and act as pilots. There is an excellent roadstead on the E. coast of the island, which is the usual place of rendezvous for merchantmen from Amsterdam, waiting for a favourable wind to leave the Zuyder-Zee. The number of sand-banks make the approach to the island difficult; and on the W. side it is all but inaccessible.

During a tremendous storm in February, 1835, the sea broke through the dykes by which the island is defended, and laid a large portion of its surface under water, destroying great numbers of cattle and sheep, and otherwise occasioning a heavy loss of property. The breach, however, was soon after repaired, and it is now supposed to be better protected than ever.

Several naval engagements have taken place off this island. Of these, the most celebrated was that between the Dutch fleet under the famous admiral the senior Tromp, and the English fleet under Monk, afterwards Duke of Albemarle, on the 31st of July, 1666. The action was maintained with the utmost vigour on both sides, till the death of Tromp, who was shot through the heart by a musket-ball, decided it in favour of the English. (*Buysing, Géographie Universelle*, xiv. 137., Fr. ed. of 1779; *Dict. Géographique*; and *Campbell's Lives of the Admirals*, ii. 35., ed. 1785.)

THAME, or TAME, a market-town and par. of England, co. Oxford, hund. Thame, on the Thame, a tributary of the Thames, 12 m. E. Oxford. Area of par. 5,310 acres. Pop. in 1841, 3,060. The town consists of three principal streets, uniting in a spacious market-place. It has also a market-house, over which is the town-hall. The par. church, a large well-built cruciform structure, comprises a nave, two aisles, a N. and E. transept, a chancel, and has a fine embattled tower, supported by four meagre pillars. The interior is of noble proportions, and contains numerous monuments, but is ill laid out, and spoiled by irregular galleries, &c. The united living of Thame, Towersey, Tetworth, and Sydenham (two vicarages and two curacies), worth 300l. a year, is in the gift of — Long, Esq. Near the church are some remains of the prebendal house of Thame, now occupied by offices belonging to the parsonage farm; and in Thame Park, about 1 m. S.E. the town, contains the mansion of an ancient Cistercian monastery adjoin the mansion. In 1566 Lord Williams established a free school, "of noble dimensions," at Thame: it is open to all boys of the par. and in trust of the warden and fellows of New College, Oxford, who nominate the master, subject to the approbation of the Earl of Abingdon. It had a high character during the 17th century, but is now much fallen off. Another free school, an almshouse for five poor people, and various annual do-

nations to the poor, exist here. The pop. is mostly agricultural; lace-making by women and children is the only manufacture. The Thame, being navigable for barges, promotes the traffic of the town, and the market is well supplied with corn and cattle. Thame is supposed to have been a Roman station, and was of some consequence in the time of the Saxons, and during the civil wars of Charles I. The famous constitutional lawyer, Sir John Holt, Chief Justice of the King's Bench, was a native of this town, where he first saw the light in 1642. Market, on Tuesday; fairs, Easter Tues. and Old Michaelmas day, for cattle, &c. (*Beauties of England, Wales, Oxfordshire*, &c.)

THAMES, a river of England, being the largest in that part of the U. Kingdom, and, in a commercial point of view, one of the most important in the world. It rises in Gloucestershire, being formed by the junction of the Isis, Lech, Colne, and Churnet, rivulets which have their sources in the Cotswold Hills. The first, which is the most important, rises on the borders of Wiltshire, a little to the S.W. of Cirencester: it flows E. by Cricklade; and, being augmented by the other streams, the combined river takes the name of Thames, and becomes navigable for barges at Lechlade, on the confines of Gloucestershire and Berkshire. Its course is thence N.E., till, being farther augmented by the Windrush and the Evenlode, from the borders of Gloucestershire, it turns, a little to the N. of Wytham-house, to the S. After passing Oxford, it bends suddenly to the W. by Nuneham Park to Abingdon. Having again resumed its southerly direction, it is joined, a little below Dorchester, in Oxfordshire, by the Thame.

This latter river has several sources, of which the most remote are in the central parts of Buckingham, near Kreslow and Wendon Lodge. They unite at Thame in Oxfordshire, from which point, to where it joins the Thames, it is navigable.

It may here be proper to state, that, according to the common opinion, the Thames obtained its name (said to be Thame-Isis, shortened to Thames) from the junction of the Thame with the Isis, or with the river coming from Gloucestershire. Probably, however, this opinion, notwithstanding its apparent accuracy, has no good foundation. At all events, it appears to be abundantly certain that the river which passes Lechlade, formed by the junction of the rivulets already referred to, has from a very remote period been called the Thames; and that the name Isis, given to it by the literati of Oxford, is not mentioned in ancient charters or by ancient historians, and is wholly unknown to the common people in the country through which it flows. (*Camden's Britannia*, Gibson's edition, i. 100.; *Campbell's Political Survey*, i. 139.)

From Wallingford, a little below the influx of the Thame, the river flows almost due S. till, passing Basildon Park, it turns E. to Reading, where it is joined by the Kennet: it then flows N.E. to Great Marlow; thence S. to Maidenhead, and S.E. by Windsor and Staines, till it receives the Wey. Its course is then E., with many bold sweeps, to London; and flowing through the metropolis, and being augmented by the Lea from Hertfordshire, and the Darent, it continues its course E. till it unites with the sea at the Nore light, 45½ m. below London Bridge.

The distance from London Bridge to Lechlade, where the Thames becomes navigable, following the windings of the river, is 146½ m.; the total rise from low-water mark at the former to the latter being about 258 ft. This ascent is overcome by means of several locks, constructed at different periods, of which the first is at Teddington, 18½ m. above London Bridge; this, consequently, is the limit to which the tide flows. The low-water surface of the river, from Teddington Lock to London Bridge,

falls about 16 ft. 9 in., or about 103 in. a mile at an average. The high-water mark at Teddington is about 1 ft. 6 in. above the high-water mark at the bridge; and the time of high water is about two hours later. The average fall in the bed of the river, from Teddington to London Bridge, is about 1 ft. a mile; the breadth of the river at London Bridge is 693 ft.

Though not a rapid, the Thames is by no means a sluggish river; it rolls forward with an equable and steady current; and is remarkable for the purity of its waters. It has been admirably described by Denham, in his *Cooper's Hill*:—

"Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull;
Strong without rage; so soft without effort, full."

But it is as a navigable and commercial river, having London on its banks, and bearing on its bosom numberless ships fraught with the produce of every country and every climate, that the Thames is principally distinguished. Its depth of water is so great, that, as a shipping port, London enjoys peculiar advantages; even at ebb tide there is from 12 to 13 ft. water in the fair way of the river above Greenwich; and the mean range at the extreme springs is about 23 ft. The river is, in fact, navigable as far as Deptford for ships of any burden; to Blackwall for those of 1,400 tons; and to the St. Katherine's Docks, adjoining the Tower, for vessels of 800 tons. As already stated, it is navigable by barges to the confines of Gloucestershire; and the navigation is thence continued by canals through Cirencester and Stroud to the Severn; but the usual water communication between London, Bath, and Bristol is by the Kennet, which unites with the Thames at Reading. The conveyance of goods by this channel usually occupies about seven days; and the navigation is besides exposed, particularly between Reading and London, to much interruption from droughts, floods, &c. The whole course of the river, from its source to the Nore, is reckoned at from 205 to 210 m.

The removal of the old London Bridge has caused a considerable change in the river above, and also, though in a less degree, below the bridge. Owing to the contracted arches through which the water had to make its way at the old bridge, there was a fall of from 4 ft. 9 in. to 5 ft. at low water; this fall is now reduced to about 2 in.; so that the low-water line above the bridge is nearly 5 ft. lower at spring tides than formerly. In consequence, a greatly increased body of tidal water flows up and down the river; and as it meets with no obstruction, it flows with a decidedly greater velocity. The effect of this is to scour and deepen the channel of the river; its influence in this respect being already sensibly felt as far up as Putney Bridge, 7½ m. above London Bridge. The shores above the latter, that were formerly foul and muddy, are now becoming clean shingle and gravel, and, near low water, the beach is quite hard and firm. The shoals are also decreasing below the bridge; and there can be little doubt that the change will, at no distant period, be felt from the Nore up to Teddington.

Before the removal of the old bridge, a barge, starting from the pool with the first of the flood, could not get farther than Putney Bridge without the assistance of oars. But, under similar circumstances, a barge now reaches Mortlake, 4 m. farther up, before using oars, and, with a little help, she may reach Richmond, and, taking horses there, may get to Teddington in a tide. The descent down the river has been equally facilitated; the mean velocities of the flood and ebb, between London Bridge and Westminster Bridge, are, flood, 3 m. an hour, extreme, 3½; ebb, 3½ m., extreme, 3½.

Of the tributaries of the Thames, the Kennet, Wey, Lea, and Darent only are navigable, and are, therefore, the only ones that we need notice.

"The Kennet swift, for silver oels renowned,"

rides on Marlborough Downs, in Wiltshire, and, pursuing an easterly course, falls into the Thames at Reading. It has been made navigable as far as Newbury; whence the canal previously mentioned is carried, by Deris and Bradford, to Bath and Bristol. The Wey falls into the Thames near Otlande; it has its source in the eastern part of Hampshire, and has been rendered navigable from Godalming to the Thames, a distance of about 20 m. The first navigation locks used in England are said to have been constructed on this river. The Lea rises in the chalk hills near Luton, in Bedfordshire; and, preserving a southerly course, falls into the Thames near the East India Docks. It has been made navigable, by collateral cuts and otherwise, as far as Hertford. This navigation, which is of considerable importance, began to command the attention of the legislature so early as 1498, in the reign of Henry VI. It has not yet, however, received all the improvement and extension of which it is capable. (*Priestly on Inland Navigation*, &c., p. 411.) The Darent has its source near Westerham, in Kent; it falls into the Thames about 4 m.

* We were indebted for these details to the late John Smeaton, Esq., engineer.

below Dartford, to which it is navigable. (*Statistics of British Empire*, i. 30.)

THANET (ISLE OF). See KENT.

THAXTED, a market-town and par. of England, co. Essex, hund. Dunmow, on the Chelmer, near its source, 34 m. N. E. London. Area of parish, 5,890 acres. Pop. in 1841, 2,527. The town is irregularly built, and, excepting its church, has no public edifice worth notice: this is a large and fine structure, in the perpendicular style, its earliest existing part probably dating from the middle of the 14th century. It is built cathedral-wise, with a transept between the nave and chancel: its internal length is 183 ft.; breadth, 67 ft.; and at its W. end is a tower, with a very fine crocketed spire, 191 ft. in height. The whole fabric is embattled and supported by strong buttresses, terminated by canopied niches and pinnacles, curiously purified. The N. porch is richly ornamented with sculpture, and the cornice and upper part charged with various figures. Above the entrance are two escutcheons, one containing the arms of France and England, and the other those of the House of York; a part of the edifice having been constructed at the expense of Edw. IV., the rest chiefly at that of the noble families of Clare and Mortimer. "The nave is curious, being not so wide as either of the aisles. Most of the buttresses of the aisles are enriched with panneling, and have fine pinnacles. Some of the windows are square-headed; their tracery has been much mutilated. This church had, at one time, a considerable portion of fine stained glass, which has, however, long been gradually diminishing." (*Richmond, Gothic Architecture*.) The living, a vicarage, in the gift of Lord Maynard, is worth 450*l.* a year. Thaxted has meeting-houses for several sects, a par. school for 80 children, an endowment of nearly 4,000*l.* by Lord Maynard, in 1639, for general charitable purposes, and many minor charities. It was a mun. corp. till the reign of James II., when, on the corporate officers being served with a *quo warranto*, its privileges were dropped; and its former guildhall is now the workhouse. The town is of high antiquity, its church being mentioned in the time of Edw. the Confessor. Markets on Fridays; fairs, Monday before Whits. and Aug. 10., for horses, &c. (*Parl. Reports*, &c.)

THEBES, THEBÆ*, or DIOSPOLIS (the city of Jupiter), once famous, but long ruined city of Upper Egypt, the capital of the kingdom of the Pharaohs when in the zenith of their power, and whose remains exceed in extent and magnificence all that the most lively imagination could figure to itself. The ruins are situated in about lat. 26° 43' N., long. 33° 39' E., in the narrow valley of the Nile, stretching about 7 m. along both banks of the river, and extending to the mountains on either side. One might suppose, seeing the vast magnitude of its public edifices, that its private buildings would be in a corresponding style of magnificence, but Diodorus tells us that the Egyptians were little solicitous in respect of the latter; and, at all events, all traces of private fabrics have disappeared; and temples, palaces, and the statues, obelisks, and tombs, alone remain to attest the wealth and power of its inhab. Thebes was undoubtedly one of the most ancient, as well as one of the greatest and most splendid of cities. Its most flourishing period was probably from about *anno* 1700 to *anno* 700 *a.c.* Homer has alluded to her in terms which, but for the ruins, might have been deemed extravagant:—

"Not all proud Thebes' unrivall'd walls contain,
The world's great empress on the Egyptian plain—
That speaks her conquest o'er a thousand states;
And prout her barons through a hundred gates;
Two hundred horsemen and two hundred cars
From each wide portal issuing to the wars."

Pope's Theb., ix. lin. 500.

Modern travellers have not been able to find any distinct traces of walls round the ruins; and the opinion has prevailed from a very remote epoch, that Homer, in the passage now referred to, did not allude to gates in the city walls, but to the gates of the different temples, or, as Pomponius Mela supposes, to the palaces of great men (lib. i. cap. 9.). Probably, however, the poet, by this expression, merely meant to convey a lively idea of the prodigious pop. and power of the city.

The seat of government had been removed from Thebes to Memphis (near Cairo), previously to the invasion and conquest of Egypt by the Persians under Cambyses. This event took place *anno* 525 *a.c.*, when, according to Diodorus, the Persians plundered and set fire to Thebes. It appears, however, to have, in some degree, recovered from this disaster. But after the conquest of Egypt by the Greeks, their whole attention was directed to the improvement and embellishment of Alexandria, so that the cities in Upper Egypt, and especially Thebes, progressively declined in importance and pop. Its fall was accelerated by its having revolted against Ptolemy Philopater, by whom it was subsequently reduced, and

* It has been supposed that the word Thebe is derived from the Egyptian word Thebē (the city).

given up to military execution. In Strabo's time it was only partially inhabited. In the earlier ages of the Christian era it was still of some little consequence; but for these many centuries it has been only inhabited by a few wretched Copts and Arabs, who, with bats and owls, occupy miserable hovels, mostly in the courts, and sometimes on the roofs of the ancient structures.

The principal ruins on the E. or Arabic side of the river are those of Carnac and Luxor, about 1½ m. apart. The first of these, which there can be no doubt is the temple of Ammon, the Jupiter of the Egyptians, is described by Diodorus as a vast structure, or rather collection of structures, the principal being erected on an artificial elevation. It has various entrances, the avenues to which have been flanked on each side with rows of sphinxes. The principal front to the Nile is of enormous magnitude, being 368 ft. in length by 148 ft. in height, with a doorway in the middle 64 ft. in height. Entering this superb gateway, and passing through a large court, we pass between two colossal statues through another propylon, entering by a flight of steps to a vast hall, the roof of which, consisting of enormous slabs of stone, has been supported by 134 huge columns. This gigantic hypostyle hall is about 338 ft. in width, by 170½ ft. in depth, so that its area comprises 57,629 sq. ft., being considerably more than 1½ acre, or more than 5 times the area of St. Martin's church, Trafalgar Square, London; and yet this magnificent hall does not occupy one seventh part of the space included within the walls of the temple! (*Egyptian Antiquities; Library of Entertaining Knowledge*, i. 89.) The entrance to what is supposed to be the adytum of this famous temple is marked by 4 noble obelisks, each 70 ft. in height, but of which 3 only are now standing. "The adytum consists of 3 apartments, entirely of granite. The principal room, which is in the centre, is 30 ft. long, 16 wide, and 13 high. Three blocks of granite form the roof, which is painted with clusters of gilt stars on a blue ground. The walls are likewise covered with painted sculptures of a character admirably adapted to the mysterious purposes mentioned by Herodotus, on the subject of the virgins who were introduced to the Theban Jupiter. (*Herodotus*, i. 182.) Beyond this are other porticoes and galleries, which have been continued to another propylon at the distance of 2,000 ft. from that at the W. extremity of the temple." (*Hamilton's Egyptiaca*.)

The great temple is supposed to have had 4 grand entrances, one fronting each of the cardinal points. Deducting its porticoes or propylæa, the length of this stupendous structure, measured on the plan of the French savans, is 1,315 ft., and its least breadth 321 ft.; so that its area must be rather above 3 acres. Amongst these the great edifice with its propylæa, obelisks, and avenues of colossal sphinxes, it has magnificent temples to the N. and S., altogether forming an assemblage of remains such as, perhaps, no other spot on earth can offer." (*Egyptian Antiquities*, i. 94.)

Champoillon says, with reference to the ruins of Carnac, "*Là me apparut toute la magnificence Pharaonique, tout ce que les hommes ont imaginé et exécuté de plus grand. Tout ce que j'avais vu à Thèbes, tout ce que j'avais admiré avec enthousiasme sur la rive gauche, me parut misérable en comparaison des conceptions gigantesques dont j'étais entouré. Il suffira d'ajouter qu'aucun peuple, ancien ni moderne, n'a conçu l'art d'architecture sur une échelle aussi sublime, aussi large, aussi grandiose, que le firent les vieux Egyptiens: ils consacraient en hommes de 100 pieds de haut; et l'imagination qui, en Europe, s'élançait bien au dessus de nos portiques, s'arrête, et tombe impuissante au pied des 140 colonnes de la salle hypostyle de Carnac.*" (*Lettres Ecrites de l'Egypte*, 8c., 98.)

The palace of Luxor (*El kuer*, the ruins) about 1½ m. S. from Carnac, on the same side of the river, though inferior in size to the latter, is also a structure of vast dimensions. Its principal entrance facing the N. is most magnificent. On either side the doorway stood two obelisks, or monoliths, each formed out of a single block of red granite, 80 ft. in height, about 8 ft. square, and most beautifully sculptured. Recently, however, one of these obelisks has been taken down and conveyed at an immense expense to Paris, where it has been erected in the Place de la Concorde; but it is as little in unison with the objects among which it is now placed as a Pharaoh would be at the court of the Thuilleries, and it is to be regretted that it should have been separated from the venerable structure of which it formed so splendid an ornament. Between the obelisks and the propylon are two colossal statues, each measuring about 44 ft. from the ground. The entire palace is about 800 ft. in length, by about 300 ft. in breadth. It is in a very ruinous state; but though most part of the outer walls have been thrown down, the greater number of the columns in the interior are still standing. It is sadly encumbered with the hovels of the modern Copts and Arabs, and with the accumulated filth and rubbish of centuries. The victories of Sesostris are sculptured on the

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E. wing of the propylon and on other parts of the palace with infinite spirit, and the greatest amplitude of detail. "It was impossible," says Mr. Hamilton, "to view and reflect upon a picture so copious and detailed, without fancying that I here saw the original of many of Homer's battles, the portrait of some of the historical narratives of Herodotus, and one of the principal groundworks of the stories of Diodorus; and to complete the gratification, we felt that, had the artist been better acquainted with the rules and use of perspective, the performance might have done credit to the genius of a Michael Angelo or a Giulio Romano. Without personally inspecting this extraordinary edifice, it is impossible to have any adequate notion of its immense size, or of the prodigious masses of which it consists. In both these respects, and combined with them, in respect to the beauty and magnificence of its several parts, it is, I should imagine, unrivalled in the whole world." (*Egyptiaca*, 121.) This palace is supposed to have been founded by Amenophis Memnon, about anno 1650 B. C.

The ruins on the W. or Libyan side of the Nile are not less interesting than those on its E. side. About 2,500 ft. from the river are two sitting colossal, each about 50 ft. in height, and seated on a pedestal of corresponding dimensions. The probability seems to be, that the most northerly of these colossal is the statue of Memnon, which has obtained an immortality of renown, from its being believed to have emitted a sound when it was first struck by the rays of the morning sun! (See Vol. I. 751.) Champollion has, however, shown, from the hieroglyphics on its back, that this famous statue really represents the Pharaoh Amenophis II., who reigned about anno 1680 B. C. These statues are supposed, by the same distinguished authority, to have decorated the façade of the principal front of the celebrated structure, the *Amenophion* of the Egyptians, and Memnonium of the Greeks. But if such be really the case, the destruction of this building has been incomparably more complete than that of any one else of the famous structures belonging to the city; and it is now, indeed, next to impossible to form any thing even like a ground plan of the ruins. (*Lettres d'Egypte*, 307.)

Between Medinet-Abou and Kournak are the remains of a noble building, about 530 ft. in length and 200 ft. in breadth, supposed by some to be the tomb of Osymandes, described by Diodorus, but which has been more generally supposed to be the Memnonium. Champollion, however, has shown that neither of these suppositions is correct; and that it was built by, and had in fact been the residence of Rhameses the Great, or Sesostris, the most illustrious of the Egyptian monarchs. The *Rhamesseion*, for such is its proper name, is very much dilapidated; but its immense and noble proportions, and the beauty of its sculptures, make it one of the most interesting, as well as magnificent of Theban structures. Between the propylon and the front of the palace, a distance of about 56 paces, are the fragments of a stupendous colossal statue of Rhameses the Great. It has been broken off at the waist, and the upper part is now prostrate on the ground. This enormous statue measures 63 ft. round the shoulders, and 13 ft. from the crown of the head to the top of the shoulders. The barbarian energy exerted in its destruction has been such, that nothing of the general expression of the face can now be discerned; and, as Mr. Hamilton has truly stated, "Next to the wonder excited by the boldness of the sculptor who made it, and the extraordinary powers of those by whom it was erected, the labour and exertions that must have been used for its destruction are the most astonishing." (P. 167.)

It would be to no purpose, even did our space permit, to attempt giving any account of the innumerable hieroglyphics, pictorial tablets, and bas-reliefs on the ruins of the Rhamesseion. They principally relate to the triumphs of the illustrious founder, and his adoration of the gods of his country. The author of *Scenes and Impressions in Egypt* alludes as follows to the representation of the victories of Sesostris:—"The hero, as compared with the rest of the figures, is of great size; he stands erect in his chariot; his horses on their speed—a high, cloud-pawing gallop; his arrow drawn to the head; the reins fastened round his loins: you have the sight of the vanquished; the headlong fallings of the horse and the chariot; you have the hurrying crowd of the soldiers on foot; a river; drowning; the succouring of warriors on the opposite bank; and, in a compartment beyond, you have a walled town; a storm; the assailants climbing ladders; the defenders on the parapet; the upheld shield; the down-thrust pike; a sad but yet a stirring picture, bringing to your mind many a historic scene, alike memorable and melancholy." (P. 95.)

The following, according to Champollion, is the dedication of the great hall of the palace, sculptured in the name of the founder, in beautiful hieroglyphics, upon the architraves of the left side:—

Harerois, all-powerful, the friend of truth, the lord of the upper and lower regions, the defender of Egypt,

the castigator of countries; Horus, the resplendent possessor of the palms, the greatest of conquerors, the king-lord of the world, sun, guardian of justice, approved by Phré, the son of the Sun, the well-beloved of Ammon; RHAMSES, has caused these structures to be erected in honour of his father Ammon-Ra, king of the gods. He has caused to be constructed in good white sandstone the great hall of assembly, supported by large columns with capitals imitating full-blown flowers, and flanked by smaller pillars with capitals imitating a truncated bud of the lotus; and he has dedicated the hall to the Lord of Gods, for the celebration of his assemblies: this is what the king ever living has done." (*Lettres d'Egypte*, p. 273; we have used the translation given in the art. on *Egypt* in the new ed. of the *Encyc. Britannica*.)

The tombs of the kings of Egypt in the valley or rather rocky ravine of Biban-el-Moluk, to the S.W. of the ruins on the W. side of the river, are not less extraordinary than the structures previously noticed. They have been described as follows in the elaborate and learned article on *Egypt* now referred to:—

"The site chosen for the royal necropolis appears to be eminently suited to its melancholy destination; for a valley or ravine, encaused as it were by high precipitous rocks, or by mountains in a state of decomposition, presenting large fissures, occasioned either by the extreme heat or by internal sinking down, and the backs of which are covered by black bands or patches, as if they had been in part burned, is a spot which, from its loneliness, desolation, and apparent dreariness, harmonizes well with our ideas as to the most fitting locality for a place of tombs. No living animal, it is said, frequents this valley of the dead; even the fox, the wolf, and the hyena, shun its mournful precincts; and its doleful echoes are only awakened at intervals by the foot of the solitary antiquary, led by inquisitive curiosity to pry into the very secrets of the grave. The catacombs, or *hypogææ*, are all constructed on nearly the same plan; yet no two of them are exactly alike; some are complete, others appear never to have been finished, and they vary much in the depth to which they have been excavated. In general, the entrance is by a short opening of passage 20 ft. wide, which descends gradually about 80 paces, then expands, whilst the descent becomes more rapid, and is continued for some distance farther. On either side of this passage is a horizontal gallery, on a level with the lowest part of the first descent: at the interior extremity there is a spacious and lofty apartment, in the centre of which is placed the royal tomb; and beyond this there are commonly other small chambers at the sides, whilst in some cases the principal passage is continued a long way into the rock. The royal tomb is for the most part a sarcophagus of red or grey granite, circular at the one end, and square at the other, but where there is no sarcophagus a hole or grave is discovered, cut in the rock to the depth of from 6 to 30 ft., and which appears to have been covered by a granite lid. Almost all the lids, however, belonging to the graves excavated in the rock have either been removed or broken. In those sepulchres which have been finished, the walls from one end to the other are all covered with sculptures and paintings, executed in the best style of ancient art; and owing to the unparalleled dryness of the atmosphere in Egypt, the colours, where they have not been purposely damaged, are as fresh as when first laid on. The labours of Belzoni in exploring these tombs, and the success with which they were rewarded, are well known. Strength and resolution as herculean and inflexible as his were required to overcome the suspicions of the Arabs, the want of mechanical aid, and the heat and closeness of the caverns; but his perseverance was amply recompensed by the discovery of six tombs in this hypogean city of the dead. The most remarkable of these, with all its galleries, is upwards of 300 ft. in length, and is called by Belzoni the tomb of Apis, from his having found the mummy of a bullock in one of its chambers. In another apartment was a magnificent sarcophagus of white alabaster almost as transparent as crystal; and the whole excavated, sculptured and painted in the most finished style of art, was in the most perfect preservation.

These catacombs, as already stated, were the sepulchres of the kings of the three Diospolitan dynasties; and accordingly, by means of the hieroglyphical inscriptions, Champollion discovered the tombs of six kings of the 19th dynasty; that of Amenophis-Memnon, the most ancient of all, in an isolated part of the valley towards the W.; and, lastly, those of Rhameses-Melamoun, and six other Pharaohs, his successors, belonging either to the 19th or 20th dynasty. No sort of order, either in regard to dynasty or succession, appears to have been observed in the choice of situations for the different royal tombs; on the contrary, each sovereign seems to have caused his own to be dug wherever he found a vein of stone adapted for the purposes of sepulture and the immensity of the projected excavation. The royal cata-

combs, however, which have been thoroughly completed and finished, are but few in number: these are, the tomb of Amenophis III., or Memnon, the decoration of which has been almost entirely destroyed; that of Rhameses-Melamoun; and of Rhameses V.; probably also that of Rhameses the Great; and, lastly, that of Queen Thasos. All the others are incomplete. The tomb of the great Rhameses, or Sesostris, still exists, according to M. Champollion, and is the third on the right of the principal valley; but it has sustained greater injury than almost any other, and is filled nearly to the ceiling with rubbish."

Such is a very brief and imperfect notice of some of the more important ruins scattered over the site of this ancient capital of the Pharaohs—"veterum Thebarum magna vestigia." (*Taciti Annal.*, lib. ii. cap. 70.) Their vastness is such almost to stagger belief; and the traveller who finds himself among these gigantic monuments of remote antiquity feels an almost overpowering sensation of astonishment and awe. It is extremely difficult to form any apparently satisfactory conclusions as to the means which the Theban monarchs must have put in motion to raise such stupendous edifices. Their extraordinary magnitude, the size and hardness of the blocks of stone (usually granite) of which they are built, and the countless numbers, depth, and nicety of the hieroglyphics and pictorial tablets with which they are profusely covered, must have occasioned the employment of an enormous quantity of labour, and an all but boundless expense. Most probably the work was principally executed by slaves, or by regulations of compulsory labour furnished by subjugated countries; but, in whatever way it may have been effected, it must, especially when we consider the limited advance then made in mechanical science, have involved an outlay which only a very great revenue could have sufficed to meet.

It is impossible to form any just idea of what Thebes must have been in the days of her glory, previously to the Pharaohs leaving her palaces for those of Memphis, while her porticoes were crowded with merchants and merchandise, and before

"Relentless war had poured around her wall."

Thebes had little in common with most ancient and still less with most modern cities. She in fact was, as it were, the capital of a by-gone world, of which we know little or nothing save what may be learned and conjectured from her own monuments.

THEBES, a famous city of ancient Greece, the capital of Boeotia. The modern town is, however, of comparatively limited dimensions, being confined to the eminence occupied by the Acropolis of the ancient city, and the pop. is supposed not to exceed 5,000. It is the cap. of a prov. of the same name, and is situated in a fine plain 29 m. N.N.W. Athens, lat. 38° 22' 30" N., long. 25° 45' 15" E. When seen from a distance, the modern town still assumes the appearance of a considerable city. Prodigious ramparts and artificial mounds appear on its outside; it is surrounded by a deep fosse, and the traces of its old walls may yet be discovered. But the contrast between its external and internal appearance is most striking. Previously to the late revolution, the streets were narrow and dirty, the houses being either constructed of the ruins of ancient edifices, or mere wooden hovels. It had, however, some handsome mosques and minarets, with a bazaar shaded by gigantic plane trees, and extensive gardens; but these have been almost wholly destroyed during the late struggle. The town, however, is again beginning to be rebuilt, and Mr. Mure says that "the principal street is of considerable width, with some good new houses on each side, interspersed with the usual number of hovels, wooden sheds, ruins, and rubbish." (*Tour in Greece*, i. 260.) It retains very few traces of its ancient magnificence, and the temples and public edifices mentioned by Pausanias have been wholly disappeared. It is now, however, as of old, extremely well supplied with excellent water.

The ancient city of Thebes, or rather its citadel, is said to have been founded by Cadmus (and hence called *Cadmæa*), a Phœnician, or perhaps Egyptian, adventurer, who introduced the knowledge of letters into Greece, anno 1849 B.C. (*Larcher, Chronologie d'Herodote*, p. 569.) Its walls were constructed at a later period by Amphiion and Zethus, the former of whom is believed to have been the earliest of Greek musicians, and hence

"Dictus et Amphiion, Thebanæ conditor arces,
Sæva movere ante bastarda, et æquæ blandi
Ducere quo vellet."

Her. Art. Poet. lib. 394.

The city had seven gates; its circ. is variously stated at from 45 to 70 stadia, and its pop. might perhaps amount to about 50,000. It had many magnificent temples, theatres, gymnasia, and other public edifices, adorned with noble statues, paintings, and other works of art. Its government, like that of all other Greek cities, was fluctuating and various. Originally it was subject to kings or tyrants; and after the republican government had been established, the aristocratical and democratical

* This article was written by the late Dr. Brown of Edinburgh, and is a favourable specimen of his great learning and research.

parties alternately prevailed. Owing to her proximity to Athens, from which, of course, she had everything to fear, Thebes was for a lengthened period what may be called the natural enemy of Athens, and during the Peloponnesian war was the most efficient ally of Lacedæmon. But after the failure of the expedition against Syracuse had broken the power of Athens, and Thebes had no longer any fear of her hostility, discussions began to spring up between her and Lacedæmon, and the Thebans, under their great leaders Pelopidas and Epaminondas, acquired a decided superiority over the latter, and became for a short while the leading Greek state.

After the battle of Chæronea, in which the Thebans bore a principal part, Philip placed a garrison in the citadel of Thebes; but, on his death, the Thebans rose in arms against his son, Alexander the Great. The latter, however, having taken the city by storm, *anno* 335 B.C., raised it to the foundations, the house that had been occupied by Pindar being alone excepted from the general destruction; such of the inhabitants, amounting, it is said, to 30,000, as had not been killed, being at the same time sold as slaves. (See *Miford's Greece*, vii. 339, 8vo. ed., and the authorities there quoted.)

But about twenty years after this catastrophe, the city was rebuilt by Cassander, when the Athenians, forgetting the ancient animosities that had subsisted between them and the Thebans, generously contributed towards the reconstruction of the walls. Subsequently the city underwent many vicissitudes. It appears to have suffered from the exactations of Sulla. Strabo calls it a poor village (lib. ix.); and Pausanias, who describes its temples and other remains, says, that, with the exception of the temples, the lower town was wholly destroyed. (lib. ix. cap. 7.) The fertility of the surrounding plain, which produces corn, wine, and oil in the greatest abundance, and the excellence of the air and water, appear to have been the principal cause why Thebes has been able to survive so many disasters, and is still a considerable and increasing town.

Thebes is particularly famous in the early and heroic ages of Greek history. *Nec cadentes Athenæ clarior, esse cognovimus Bæce.* Thebes is also the birthplace of *Liberi alque Herculis, ut voluit, patria.* (Plin. Hist. Nat. lib. iv. cap. 7.) The stories, also, of Laius, Jocasta and Œdipus, and their unfortunate progeny, and of the wars of the seven chiefs and their descendants, the Epigoni, against Thebes, have supplied topics of the deepest interest that have engaged the attention of the greatest poets of antiquity and of modern times.

The air of the Boeotian plain is less pure than that of Attica, and this circumstance was pretty generally believed in antiquity to be the cause of the dulness of the Thebans, who, speaking generally, wanted the keenness, penetration, and the energy, that distinguished the Athenians. But this difference of character was probably owing rather to a difference in the education and institutions of the two people than to any difference of soil or climate. In respect of illustrious men, Thebes need not fear a comparison with any city of ancient or modern times. The names of Hesiod and Pindar, of Pelopidas and Epaminondas, are alone sufficient to illustrate and ennoble a nation. It was, indeed, as already stated, the extraordinary talents and virtues of the latter that raised his country to a preponderating influence in the affairs of Greece. It deserves, also, to be mentioned, to the honour of the Thebans, that the odious practice, tolerated in other Greek states, of exposing children at their birth, was forbidden in Thebes. (In addition to the authorities already referred to, see *Clarke's Travels*, vii. 61, &c., 8vo. ed.; *Dodwell's Greece*, i. cap. 9.; *Voyage d'Anacharsis*, cap. 24.; *Ancient Universal History*, vi. p. 180—200, &c.)

THEISS (an. Tibiscus), a great river of Hungary, being the most important of the tributaries of the Danube, parallel to which it flows in the lower part of its course through the great Hungarian plain. It has its sources in the Carpathian Mountains, on the confines of the Bukowina within a short distance of the sources of the Pruth, in about lat. 48° N., long. 94° E., being formed by the junction of two streams, the Black and the White Theiss. Its course, which throughout is extremely tortuous, is first generally W.N.W. to Tokay, from which point it flows with innumerable windings, S.S.W. and S., till it enters the Danube, nearly opposite to Salankement, in lat. 46° 10' N., long. 20° 33' E., after a course of at least 800 m., taking only its more important windings into account, for the greater part of which it is navigable. It constitutes the line of separation between the 2 of the 3 divisions of Hungary, thence called Hungary-on-this-side, (or N. and W.), and Hungary-beyond, (or S. and E.) the Theiss. Its chief tributaries are the Bodrog, Schajo, with the Hernad, and Zagrya on the right, and the Szamos, Körös, Maros, &c., with the other principal rivers of Transylvania, on the left. The area of its basin is estimated by Berghaus at upwards of 6,000 sq. m. (*All. Länder*, &c., iv. 766.) The traffic on the Theiss is at present

mostly confined to the conveyance downwards of salt (from the co. Marmaros, in which it rises), and of timber in rafts. "Hitherto no steam-boat has been established on the Theiss; but from the extreme richness of the surrounding country, the size and importance of many of the places on its banks, and above all from the exceedingly bad roads in its neighbourhood, there can be little doubt that the establishment of steam navigation will be undertaken before long. The depth, width, and force of the stream of the Theiss are as favourable as could be desired; but it is objected that the windings of the river require to be cut off by canals; and in some cases 30 or 40 miles would be saved by a cut of 3 or 4. Should the canal be formed between the Danube at Pesth and the Theiss at Szoluck, as is contemplated, this river will assume an importance far greater than is at present imagined. The slow muddy waters of the Theiss seem to suit the fish better than those of any other river in Hungary. It is said that, after an overflow, they have been left in such quantities as to be used for feeding the pigs, and manuring the ground. The sturgeon of the Theiss, though smaller than that of the Danube, is remarkable for its fatness and delicate flavour." (*Page's Hungary and Transylvania*, i. 478, 479.)

THERMOPYLÆ (from *θερμα*, hot; and *πύλη*, a gate, or pass); a famous defile on the shore of the Mallan Gulph, on the N.E. coast of Greece, near the mouth of the Helioda (an. *Sperchius*), between the steep precipices at the E. termination of Mount Œta and the sea, in about lat. 38° 50' N., long. 22° 30' E. The defile is about 5 m. in length, and, where narrowest, was not, anciently, more than 60 paces across. *In cuspis valle ad Malicucum sinum vergente iter est non latius quam sexaginta passus. Hæc una militaris via est, qua traduci exercitus, si non prohibenter, possint.* (Liv. lib. xxx. cap. 15.) At present the only practicable road through the strait is by a narrow causeway, on either side of which is an impassable morass, bounded on the one side by the mountains, and on the other by the sea. This pass is now, as in antiquity, the principal, and, indeed, almost the only road by which Greece can be entered from the N.E., and as it may be defended by a comparatively small force, its occupation is of the utmost importance for the defence of the country. At the narrowest part of the pass are hot springs, a circumstance which, as seen above, has given the defile its peculiar name. (*Clarke's Travels*, vii. 317, &c., 8vo. ed.)

It was in this pass, as every body knows, that, *anno* 480 B.C., the Spartan king Leonidas, with about 4,000 Greeks, resisted for a while the whole force of the Persian army invading Greece under Xerxes. After the Persians had succeeded in opening a passage by another route across the mountains, Leonidas, having missed almost all the other Greeks, devoted himself with 300 Spartans, in obedience to the laws, which forbade Spartans, under whatever disadvantage, to fly from an enemy, and, agreeably to the answer of the oracle, a sacrifice to insure the independence of his country. (*Herodotus*, lib. vii. cap. 210—228.) This event has given Thermopylæ all its interest, and will make it be held in "everlasting remembrance." After the final defeat of the Persians a magnificent monument, the ruins of which still remain, was erected in honour of Leonidas and his heroic companions. It had an inscription, said by Cicero, by whom it has been translated, to have been written by Simonides (7 *Twægt.*, i. cap. 42.), and which has been rendered into English, as follows:—

"To Lacedæmon's sons, O stranger, tell
That here, obedient to their laws, we fall!"

The ground near the Sperchius, on which the army of Xerxes was encamped during the attack on Thermopylæ, could not possibly have accommodated his troops had their numbers approached to anything like those specified by Herodotus. But there cannot be the least shadow of a doubt that these are grossly, and, indeed, ludicrously, exaggerated. To suppose, as is stated by the venerable father of history, that the army which Xerxes led to Thermopylæ and his fleet comprised 5,283,220 troops, sailors, and male followers of all descriptions (*Herod. lib. vii. cap. 187.*), exclusive of women, eunuchs, &c., is a palpable absurdity. It may be confidently affirmed that no such force ever was brought together, and that if it were it could neither be fed nor kept together for the shortest period. If we estimate the troops, seamen, and other followers of all kinds employed by Xerxes in this expedition at 500,000 individuals, we shall certainly be not within, but far beyond, the mark. The statements of Herodotus are founded merely on rumour, which is always sure to exaggerate that which is really great; and the Greeks were particularly prone to magnify their exploits beyond all reasonable bounds.

THETFORD, a parl. and mun. bor. of England, chiefly in the co. Norfolk but partly in Suffolk; being separated by the little Ouse into 2 unequal parts, connected by an iron bridge, constructed in 1839, at the intersection of the roads from Newmarket to Norwich, and

from Rottesdale to Lynn; 26 m. S.W. by W. Norwich, and 70 m. N.E. London. Area of pari. bor., which comprises the 3 pars. of St. Cuthbert, St. Mary, and St. Peter, 8,270 acres. Pop. in 1841, 8,844. The town is straggling, and irregularly built, with little trade or manufactures; but it does not appear to be decaying, and has a clean and respectable appearance. It is not paved, lighted, nor watched. It has increased of late years very little beyond its former limits. (*Bound. and Mun. Corp. Rep.*) St. Peter's, called the "black church," from being constructed mostly of flint, was principally rebuilt in 1789; it is provided with buttresses, battlements, &c. The living is a rectory, worth 555. a year. St. Cuthbert's and St. Mary's (which last par. is in Suffolk), are both parishes, the former worth 502, and the latter 631. a year. All the livings are in the gift of the Duke of Norfolk. The guildhall is a fine old building, erected in the time of Charles II. The market-house, roofed with iron; the jail, a large but ill-contrived building; the bridewell, workhouse, several dissenting chapels, and a theatre, occasionally opened, are the other principal buildings. An hospital for two poor men and two women, and a free grammar school, were established in the reign of James I.; and it has besides, almshouses founded in 1680, a national school, funds for apprenticing poor children, and many minor charities. Thetford is governed by a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 12 councillors: its earliest extant charter is of William III. It has no commission of the peace, but petty sessions and a court of record are held weekly. The corp. revenue is principally derived from the tolls on navigation from Thetford to White House ferry, under local acts; gross amount in 1847-8, 8532. Thetford has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the reign of Edward VI.: previously to the Reform Act the right of voting was vested in the mayor, burgesses, and commons. The limits of the pari. bor. were not affected by the Boundary Act. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 210. The town is a polling place for the W. div. of Norfolk. Thetford is generally supposed to occupy the site of the *Sitomagus* of the Romans. During the Heptarchy it was the cap. of the East Anglian kingdom, and on the E. side of the town are remains of intrenchments, &c., supposed to date from that period. In the time of Canute a convent was founded in the town, some remains of which are still extant. The gateway, &c., of a priory, founded in 1104, and some traces of a monastery, established at a later period, may also be seen. In the reign of Edward III., it is said to have had 24 principal streets, 5 market-places, 20 churches, 8 monasteries, and 6 hospitals, besides other public foundations; but these statements are of doubtful authenticity, and are most probably much exaggerated. It has been occasionally visited in more modern times by some of the British sovereigns, particularly James I., who had a hunting-seat in the neighbourhood. Among the natives of Thetford who have attracted notice, the most celebrated by far was Thomas Paine, author of the once famous but now forgotten pamphlets entitled "Common Sense," "Rights of Man," "Age of Reason," &c. Paine was born on the 29th of January, 1737; his father, who was a stay-maker in Thetford, belonged to the Quakers. Markets, Sat.; fairs, May 14, Aug. 2 and 16, for sheep; Sep. 25, for cattle, cheese, and toys.

THIBET, or TIBET (native *Tou-p'ho*, *Rhote*, and *Pu-k'ochim*, "snowy region of the north"), a very extensive region of Central Asia, mostly comprised within the Chinese empire, between lat. 29° and 31° N. and long. 79° and 104° E., having N. Chinese Turkestan and the Desert of Gobi; E., the Chinese prov. of Se-tchuen; S., Yun-nan; N., Birmah, and the Great Himalaya, separating it from Assam, Bootan, Sikkim, Nepal, and the upper British provs.; and W. the Punjab territories N. of the Himalaya, Bukh-shah, the Belooch Tan Mountains, &c. The W. parts of this vast tract, called Little Thibet (including Ladakh, L. Baltes, &c.), appear, however, to be independent of China. Its boundaries on every side but the S., being so uncertain, and our knowledge of the country so limited, it is impossible to form any thing like an accurate estimate either of its area or pop. Thibet, though it does not include the highest summits of the Himalaya, comprises a large portion of the elevated table land in the centre of the continent, with the sources of almost all the great rivers of S. Asia, including the Indus, Sutlej, Ganges, Brahmaputra, Irrawadi, Than-lweng, and Menam, or river of Cambodia, as well as those of the great Chinese rivers, the Yang-tse-kiang, and Hoang-ho. Its mountain-chains generally run parallel to the Great Himalaya, of which Thibet is the N. slope; but some are said to stretch in a N.E. direction to the frontiers of Koko-nor, and others extend from N. to S. between the valleys of the great rivers in the S.E. Thibet has numerous lakes; the chief are the Teng-kiri-nor, the largest, about 110 m. N.W. Lassa, and the lake Palte or Yamo-rong, S. of the San-po river, which surrounds in the form of a ring a large island of a shape similar to its own. (*Chinese Rep-*

According to Mr. Turner, there is a very striking contrast in the face of the country in passing from Bootan into Thibet. "Bootan presents to the view mountains covered with perpetual verdure, and rich in forests of large and lofty trees, while not a slope or narrow slip of land between the ridges lies unimproved. Thibet, on the other hand, strikes a traveller at first sight as one of the least favoured countries under heaven, and appears to be in a great measure incapable of culture. It exhibits only low rocky hills, without any visible vegetation, or extensive arid plains, both of the most stern and stubborn aspect, promising full as little as they produce. Its climate is cold and bleak in the extreme from the severe effects of which the inhabs. are obliged to seek refuge in sheltered valleys and hollows, or amidst the warmest aspects of the rocks. Yet the advantages that the one country possesses in fertility and in the richness of its forests and fruits, are amply counterbalanced in the other by its numerous flocks and invaluable mines. As one seems to possess the pabulum of vegetable, in the other we find the superabundance of animal life. The variety and quantity of wild-fowl, game, and beasts of prey, flocks, droves, and herds in Thibet, are astonishing. In Bootan, except domestic creatures, nothing of the sort is to be seen." (*Turner's Thibet*, &c. p. 216.)

The same division of the seasons prevails here as in Bengal. The spring, from March to May, is marked by a variable atmosphere, heat, thunder-storms, and occasionally refreshing showers. From June to Sept. is the damp season, when heavy and continued rains throughout most parts of the country swell the rivers, which bear off the surplus waters to augment the inundation of Bengal. From Oct. to March a clear and uniform sky succeeds, seldom obscured either by fogs or clouds, and for the first three months of this season a degree of cold is felt, among the lofty mountain ranges of the S. far greater, perhaps, than is known to prevail in Europe. This region is remarkable, at all seasons, for the dryness of the winds, and meat and fish are prepared for carriage to any distance, and will keep to any season of the year, by being dried up by exposure to the frosty air. Vegetation is frequently dried to brittleness, and every plant may be rubbed between the fingers into dust. (*Turner*, p. 308.)

Goutre, syphilis, and smallpox appear to be the most severe diseases in Thibet, and, unfortunately, are very prevalent. Syphilis is said, by an English surgeon, to make a more rapid progress, and rage with more violence here than in any other country. (*Saxena*, p. 410.) Catarrhs and rheumatism are more frequent than in Bengal.

Of the geology of Thibet we have only scattered notices. Moorcroft found that the hills in parts of Little Thibet consisted apparently of clay-slate, fragments of granite, quartz, &c. being strewn upon their sides. (*Moorcroft's Travels*, l. 439.) The latter rocks, with primary limestone, talc, and similar formations, seem to enter most largely into the mountain ranges, where they are often interspersed with beds of clay and sand, and occasionally of chert. Thibet is obtained in inexhaustible quantities; rock salt is met with in many parts, and nitre effloresces abundantly on the surface of the soil. Gold is found in lumps and irregular veins, or in the form of dust in the rivers, and is frequently of great purity. There are mines of lead, silver, copper, and cinabar, but few if any of iron, though chalybeate springs are very frequent. The difficulty of procuring fuel for smelting the less valuable ores proves an insuperable obstacle to success in mining: timber of all kinds is rare, and the dung of animals is the only substitute for fire-wood. The discovery of a coal mine would be an invaluable acquisition to Thibet.

The usual crops are, barley, coarse pease, and wheat. The first forms by far the largest proportion of the whole; wheat never enters into the food of the poorer classes, and rice is not cultivated. A brief notice of the agriculture and vegetable products of Little Thibet will be found under the article *LADAKH* (*ante*, p. 181.). Turnips and radishes are almost the only garden vegetables, and fruits are of little variety. For most vegetable products, and, indeed, medicinal plants, Thibet is dependent on Bootan, Nepal, and the other countries S. of the Himalaya. Among the useful animals of Thibet, sheep merit a distinguished rank. The flocks of these are numerous; and upon them the chief reliance of the inhabs. is placed. A peculiar variety, which seems indigenous to the country, is of small size, with black heads and legs, and soft wool; their mutton, which is almost the only animal food used in Thibet, being said by Mr. Turner to be the finest in the world. The sheep are occasionally employed as beasts of burden, being laden with salt, grain, &c. They are the bearers of their own coats to the best markets, where the wool is usually made into a narrow cloth resembling frieze or thick coarse blanketing. The skins of both sheep and lambs are commonly cured with the

wool on; and, in order to secure a silky softness of the fleece, the ewes are sometimes killed before their time of yearning, when their skins bear a high price in China and all over Tartary. (Turner, p. 302.) The Thibet goat (*Capra hircus*), which affords the valuable material for the shawl manufacture, feeds, like the sheep, in large numbers together. These are perhaps the most beautiful among the whole tribe of goats. Their colours are various; black, white, of a faint bluish tinge, and of a shade something lighter than a fawn. They have straight horns, and are of a lower stature than the smallest sheep in England. The material used for the manufacture of shawls is of a light fine texture, and clothes the animal next the skin. A coarse covering of long hair grows above this, and preserves the softness of the interior coat. The creature is, no doubt, indebted for the warmth and fine quality of the latter to the nature of the climate and country it inhabits. On removing some of the goats to the hot atmosphere of Bengal, Turner says they quickly lost their beautiful clothing, and a cutaneous eruptive humour soon destroyed almost all their coat. He was also unsuccessful, after repeated trials, in attempting to acclimatise the animal in England. (Turner's Thibet, p. 356.) Recently, indeed, the Thibet goat has been naturalised in France; but it is quite certain, from the great difference of the climate, that the wool will, in no long time, lose all its distinguishing and most valuable qualities. The most valuable species of cattle is the yak, or grunting ox (*Bos grunniens*), which is also indigenous to the country. Their cows supply an abundance of rich milk: they are very useful as beasts of burden, and throughout Hindostan their bushy tails are in great request as chowries to drive away flies, &c. For agricultural labour, small cattle, like those of Bengal, are chiefly employed. Most of the native animals of Thibet, as the bare, bharal (*Ovis ammon*), dog, &c., have long furry coats. Among the wild animals, perhaps the most curious is the musk deer, which delights in excessive cold. It is about the height of a moderately-sized hog; which it closely resembles in the figure of the body. It has a small head, a thick and round hind quarter, no tail, and extremely delicate limbs. The hair with which it is covered is prodigiously copious, and grows erect all over the body. In some parts to between two and three inches in length, thin, flexible, and undulated. Its colour at the base is white, in the middle black, and brown at the points. The musk is a secretion formed in a little bag at the navel, and found only in the male. The musk deer, valuable for this product, is deemed the property of the state, and is hunted only by permission of government. (Turner, p. 305.)

At the end of the last century, the valley of Jhansu in Thibet was particularly famous for the manufacture of woollen cloth, for which there was an extensive demand. The cloths, which were confined to two colours, garnet and white, seldom exceeded half a yard in breadth, and were woven very thick and close. A good deal of cloth is also said to be made at Lassa, great quantities of a red colour being annually exported into China. Moorcroft describes the process of weaving at Piti, in Little Thibet, as follows:—“The two ends of the warp are fastened together, and it is then stretched upon two rods, one fixed to the body of the weaver, who is invariably a woman, by a cord, which admits of the work being loosened or tightened at pleasure, and the other well fastened to some stones at a distance, equal to half the length of the cloth. The whole is close to the ground, on which the workwoman sits, but the portion close to her is slightly elevated by a third rod; loops, each including a thread, and received upon a small stick like a rattan, supply the place of a heddle: of these there are three sets, which draw up parts of the warp alternately as required. A large heavy mesh, into which a thin bar of iron is inserted, is a substitute for the reed, and three or more heavy strokes are made with its armed edge upon every thread of the woof. The last instrument must be taken out after the insertion of each piece of yarn, and when placed perpendicularly, with its two edges separating the warp, abundance of room is given for the passage of the balls of worsted made use of without the covering of a shuttle. This part of the process is tedious, but the warp is prepared in a quick and simple way: several pegs are driven into the ground, so near each other that the whole may be reached without any material movement of the body; the yarn is fastened to one of them, and carried on round the others till a sufficient quantity has been wound; all are then taken out except three, which have their places supplied by rods, and the warp only requires spreading. Every woman knows how to weave, but only half their number may be considered as employed in the manufacture, for if a house contain two, one is usually busy in domestic affairs. 25,000 yards, 17 inches wide, may be fabricated annually in the Piti district, of which about half is exported.” Further N. a coarse loom is in use, not very unlike that common in Europe. Several varieties of cloth are manufactured: some thick and heavy, with a long nap, others fine. All the wool used is of a

coarse kind, and in consequence the finer cloths have a hardness, something similar to that of camel or plaid, to which they are little inferior. Very good sacking is also made of the hair and wool from the yak. (Moorcroft, Trav., p. 71–74.)

Thibet has, from time immemorial, been a country of considerable traffic; but here, as in Bootan, foreign trade is monopolised by the government, and a few of the first officers of state. The commerce is principally with China, the Chinese trade being carried on partly at Sin-ning, a garrison town on the W. frontier of China, and partly at Lassa, by caravans, which come there in October. These consist of 500 or 600 persons, who bring goods on cattle, mules, and sometimes horses, exchanging tea, silver bullion, brocades, fruits, &c., for fine and coarse woolen cloths, gold dust, and Bengal goods. The imports from China are large. Turner was informed that in the territory of Teshoo Loomboo tea to the value of 60,000, or 70,000, sterling was annually consumed, and Bootan is supplied with tea from Thibet. The other imports from China are tobacco, quicksilver, cinnaiber, furs, porcelain, musical instruments, European cutlery, pearls, coral, &c. From Bootan and Bengal Thibet receives English broad-cloths, piece goods, Allahabad cloth, kimcoats, coarse sugar, tobacco, indigo, paper, rice, sandalwood, spices, gums, and other skins. Many of these articles come through Nepal, which receives all its Chinese imports through Thibet. The trade with Assam is very limited, but small quantities of rice, coarse silk, iron, stick lac, &c. are imported; from Turkestan come horses and camels. From Ladakh E. Thibet receives dried fruits, shawls, gamboge, saffron, &c. The general returns of Thibet are in gold dust, silver, tincal, musk, woollen cloths, goat and lamb skins, and rock salt; the goats' hair is almost all sent through Ladakh to Cashmere for the manufacture of the Cashmere shawls. (See vol. i. p. 552. of this *Dick*.)

Moorcroft says that in Little Thibet traffic is carried on chiefly by mules, and mules are almost unknown. Salt, wool, turquoise, sheep, and goats, are imported from Chan-chen, or Chinese Thibet, and are paid for with grain, woollen cloth, and horses. From Blisnar and Kulu (to Piti) come iron, cooking utensils, brass, copper, tobacco, rice, dried fruits, tea-cups, timber, amber, &c., paid for in a similar way. The iron and metal vessels of the S. are sent to L., in exchange for tea, coarse cloth, coral, and dyeing drugs. (Trav. ii. 71.) Further details respecting the trade of Little Thibet will be found in the art. *LADAKH* (*ante*, p. 131.)

The modes of conveyance in Thibet differ altogether from those of Bootan. In the latter all species of goods are carried on the shoulders of the people, chiefly the females: in Thibet, they are conveyed by the chowry cattle, horses, mules, and asses. The horses, which are very docile, are not natives of Thibet, but mostly brought from Turkestan, after having been carefully emaciated, to prevent their propagating their species.

China has been justly celebrated for her magnificent bridges and public works, but Thibet is far from sharing in this celebrity. Over one river, crossed by Mr. Turner, was constructed a long bridge, upon 9 piers, of very rude construction. “The piers were composed of rough stones, without cement; but to hold them together large trees, with their roots and branches, had been inserted; and some of them were vegetating. Slight beams of timber were laid from pier to pier; and upon them large flat stones were loosely placed, that tilted and rattled when trod upon: and this, I fear, is a specimen of their best bridges. Many were extremely dangerous to pass over.” (P. 229.) The boats, also, used to cross the rivers are of a very rude kind; some are made chiefly of leather, consisting of a rude skeleton of wood, with thwarts and ribs, over which a bull's hide is stretched.

Thibet is politically divided into Wei and Tsang, or Hither and Farther Thibet. Wei is that division bordering on China, having for its cap. Lassa, or H'assa, the residence of the Dalai Lama. It is divided into 8 cantons, that of Lassa being the principal; and 29 feudal townships, called *toozes*, which lie northward, contiguous to some similar townships in the country of Ko-ko-nor. Tsang, or Ulterior Thibet, is W. of the former, and extends W. from about long. 90° E. It is divided into 7 cantons, its cap. being Teshoo-Loomboo. These 3 provs. are under the direction of two ministers, sent from the imperial cabinet at Peking; and of two high priests of Thibet, called Dalai Lama and Bantchin-erdent. The ministerial residents govern both provs. conjointly, consulting only with the Dalai Lama for the affairs of Hither, and with the Bantchin-erdent for those of Farther Thibet. All appointments to offices of government and titles of nobility must be approved by the Chinese officers. But in minor matters the residents do not interfere, leaving such affairs to the secular deputies of the high priests, called D'heba. The government of the 29 feudal townships in Hither Thibet, and of the Tamub or Dam Mongols inhabiting the N. frontier, is entirely in the hands of residents. (*Chinese Repository*, i. 174.) Two officers,

natives of the country, are sent to each canton from Lassa, and relieved every three years. The subordinate management of the communities is intrusted to two officers in each, the d'heba and vazier, the former appointed from Lassa, the latter a native of the place, who, with the chief lama of the village, form a sort of local council, dependent on the provincial authorities; who again are obliged to refer to the capital for instructions in all extraordinary cases. (*Moorecraft*, l. 365.)

Thibet is remarkable as being the central seat and headquarters of Buddhism, where the Buddhist religion is preserved in its greatest purity. The whole nation is divided into two distinct and separate classes, those who carry on the business of the world, and those who hold intercourse with heaven. No interference of the laity ever interrupts the regulated duties of the clergy, nor do the latter ever employ themselves in secular affairs. In this, and in the absence of castes, consist some of the most striking differences between the religion of Thibet and that of Hindoostan, all distinction of caste being utterly repudiated by the Buddhist faith. The priests of Thibet are all called *lamas*; and the Grand, or Dalai Lama, who resides at Lassa, is believed by his adherents to be an incarnation of the Divinity in a human form. On the dissolution of this body, he is supposed to reappear in the body of some infant, who subsequently passes through the term of his mortal existence with all the honours of the Grand Lama. The mode of ascertaining the identity of the new lama is described at length in Hamilton's *E. I. Gazetteer*, art. THIBET. The Teshoo Lama, and others, are also supposed to be divine incarnations, occupying successively different bodies; and Turner (p. 253-256) gives an amusing account of an interview with the former, who, although only 18 months old, appears to have conducted himself with astonishing dignity and decorum! The Buddhists of Thibet have convents for men and women, and their religious institutions present several striking coincidences with those of the R. Catholic church.

The written laws of Thibet, which are said to be of high antiquity, have in recent times been modified in accordance with those of China. Robbery or dacoity is usually punished by perpetual banishment; murder by death. Adultery is not classed among serious criminal offences; and strict chastity before marriage is not expected in the fair sex. In Thibet, as in Boodan and other countries of the Himalaya, the practice of *polyandria* is common; a female associating herself with all the brothers of a family, without restriction of age or numbers. The choice of the wife is the privilege of the elder brother.

The people of Thibet belong to the great Tartar family. Their physical appearance has been already noticed in this work (see *Asia*, l. 192.). They are said to be mild and humane, but their intellect is sluggish, and they have never exhibited the enterprise of their neighbours either to the N. or E. At Dras, in W. Thibet, Moorecraft found the people much addicted to pilfering; but he says that this is not the character of the people in general, especially of those who follow the faith of Buddha: the people of Dras are Mohammedians, and, like those of Ladakh generally, have suffered much moral detriment from contact with the Cashmerians. (*Travels*, li. 43.) In this part of Thibet the houses are built of pebbles, cemented with earth, having terraced roofs, without chimneys. Further E. the peasants' dwellings are mean structures, resembling brick-kilns in shape and size, and built of rough stones heaped upon each other without cement. The great scarcity of timber in Thibet prevents the higher class of inhab. from boarding the floors of their rooms, which are accordingly of stone or marble. Bedsteads appear to be wholly unknown; the general custom is to spread on the floor, by way of a bed, a thick mattress, which serves for a seat by day. Both sexes dress chiefly in woollens, in which yellow and red are predominant colours, with upper garments of sheep, goat, or jackal skins, and high and thick boots, but the upper classes partly in silks, and in cloaks lined with sable or other furs. Their food principally consists of barley, variously prepared, with tea, milk, butter, and mutton, which last they prefer raw. Their meals are taken at no stated times, but under the impulse of hunger. The business of the day usually begins by prayer; they then follow their peculiar avocations till evening, which is always spent in recreation, music and dancing being among their principal amusements. Mr. Turner found the priests acquainted with the signs of the zodiac, the satellites of Jupiter, Saturn's ring, &c.

The art of printing has also, from a very remote age, been practised in Thibet. But no improvements appear to have been made in this country in any branch of science known to the inhabs. Their mode of printing has probably been derived from China; but they esteem the city of Benares as the traditional source of both their learning and religion. (Turner, p. 281.) There appears to have been from the remotest time a connexion

between Thibet and India; and the *sketch* character, in which the sacred writings of this people are preserved, bears a strong resemblance to that of the Sanscrit. The *swam*, or ordinary character of business and correspondence, is distinct from the former.

Several remarkable customs prevail in Thibet. In every visit of ceremony, a silk scarf, usually white, and with the mystic sentence *Dom mane pae me oom* interwoven at both ends, is invariably exchanged at every visit of ceremony, and accompanies every letter sent, between people of every rank and station in life. "This usage," says Turner, "is observed in all the territory of the Deb Rajah (Bootan); it obtains throughout Thibet; it extends from Turkestan to the confines of the Great Desert; it is practised in China, and, I doubt not, reaches to the limits of Mantchoo Tartary." Another custom, which the people share with the Paraceti, is that of exposing the bodies of the dead among the laity to be devoured by carnivorous birds. The bodies of sovereign lamas after death are dried by exposure to the air, and preserved enshrined; those of inferior lamas are usually burnt, and their ashes inclosed in little metallic idols. Other corpses are committed to the rivers; but the inhumation of the dead is totally unknown.

Thibet appears to have had relations with the Chinese empire at a very early period; but it was governed by its own princes till about 1720, when the emperor Kang-he acquired its sovereignty. Still the greater share of power was left in the hands of the Grand Lama till the invasion of the Nepal Gorkhas in 1790; when, on their expulsion by the Chinese, the present form of government was established, and strangers, formerly permitted to enter the country, were altogether excluded. (*Note in Chinese Repository*, l. 175. *Turner's Embassy to Thibet*; *Moorecraft's Trav. in the Himalayas* *Proc.*, &c.)

THIELT, a town of Belgium, prov. W. Flanders, arrond. Bruges, cap. cant., a little S. of the railway between Bruges and Ghent, 13 m. S.E. of the former. Pop., in 1836, including commune, 11,660. It has no government establishments or public buildings of any consequence; but it is a busy and flourishing town, with manufactures of leather, hats, soap, and lace, being indebted for its prosperity to its situation near a tributary of the Lys, which gives it the advantage of a considerable inland navigation, in union with Poperingen in sending 3 mms. to the provincial states. Among the natives of Thielt was Oliver Lodain, the barber, and afterwards the favourite, of Louis XI. This unworthy minion, who figures as an important personage in Scott's novel of *Quentin Durward*, did not escape the fate due to his deserts, having been hanged, in 1484, after the death of Louis.

THIERS, a town of France, dep. Puy de Dôme, cap. arrond., on the Durolle, 23 m. E.N.E. Clermont. Pop., in 1836, 5,907. The appearance of the town is picturesque, being situated on the declivity of a hill, and tolerably well built; but its streets are narrow and steep, and its vicinity is so arid and bare that its inhabs. have been always obliged to depend mainly on their manufacturing industry. It has considerable fabrics of hardware and cutlery, and of woollens, paper, leather, &c. It is the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a chamber of manufactures, a council *des prud'hommes*, and a communal college. It owes its origin to a castle existing here in the earliest period of the French monarchy, and is supposed to derive its present name from Thierri, King of Metz, early in the 6th century. (*Hugo*; *Dict. Gog.*, &c.)

THONVILLE, a fortified town of France, dep. Moselle, cap. arrond., on the Moselle, 16 m. N. Metz. Pop., in 1836, 4,301. It is, in general, well built; and, unlike most fortified towns, has broad streets. It is entered by 3 gates, and communicates with its citadel across the river by a wooden bridge. It has a handsome *place d'armes*, three sides of which are occupied by barracks, and the fourth by the cavalry stables, considered among the best in France. The new par. church, corn market, theatre, college, civil hospital, and the former mansion of the governor, the sub-prefecture; the tribunal of primary jurisdiction, mayor's residence, a *gendarmerie*, with the botanic garden, are all deserving of notice. Hosiery, woollen cloths, candles, leather, liquors, and spirits, are manufactured in the town and its vicinity. The kings of France, of the first and second races, frequently resided here. After the Carolingians, Thionville successively belonged to the counts of Luxemburg, and to Burgundy, Austria, and Spain. It was repeatedly besieged and taken in the 16th and 17th centuries, but has belonged to France ever since it surrendered to the Prince of Condé, in 1643. (*Hugo*, *Guide du Voyageur*; *Dict. Gog.*)

THIRSK, a pari. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. York, N. Riding, wapent. Birdforth, on the Codbeck, an affluent of the Swale (here crossed by two stone bridges), by which the town is divided into Old and New Thirsk, 2½ m. N.W. York. The pari. bor. com-

prises the townships of Thirsk, Sowerby, Carlton-Minot, and Sand-Hutton, in the par. of Thirsk, with the adjacent townships of S. Kilmington and Bagby, including an area of 9,810 acres. Pop. in 1841, 8,123. Thirsk is a country town, situated in an agricultural neighbourhood: the old town is chiefly composed of one long street of rather an unpromising appearance, at the commencement of which is a small open space. In the new town, also, the houses are, for the most part, of an inferior class, and inhabited by small tradesmen. About $\frac{1}{2}$ m. to the S. of Thirsk is Sowerby, an extremely neat country village. Many of the houses are of a superior class, and have an air of neatness and respectability. Sowerby consists of one long and very wide street; the houses are used as a residence by many persons, who, having retired from business, live upon the produce of the capital they have accumulated. (*Bound. Rep.*) The par. church is a large and handsome edifice, in the Perpendicular style: it has a lofty W. tower, and is wholly of one design, with pierced battlements; the details are good, and the general appearance elegant. (*Richman's Gothic Architecture.*) A part of this church is said to have been built out of the ruins of the castle, belonging to the Mowbray family, erected in the 10th and destroyed in the 12th century, on the site of which New Thirsk is partly built. The living of Thirsk, a perpetual curacy worth 1432 a year, is in the gift of the Archb. of York. There are several places of worship for Dissenters, charity schools, a dispensary, &c. The principal employment is the manufacture of coarse linens and sackings. Thirsk appears to be in a stationary condition. It is governed by a bailiff, chosen annually, and sworn in at the court leet of the lord of the manor. The former bor. comprised only a part of the old town of Thirsk. It sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. in the 23d Edward I., and again from the reign of Edward VI. down to the passing of the Reform Act; the right of election being in the hands of the Freeholders. The Reform Act deprived Thirsk of 1 of its mems. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 343. Markets on Mondays. Fairs, 8 times a year for cattle, horses, sheep, and leather. (*Parl. Reps.* &c.)

THOMASTOWN, an inland town of Ireland, prov. Leinster, co. Kilkenny, on the Nore, 18 m. N. Waterford. Pop., in 1841, 2,348. The town, which consists mostly of mean houses, is principally occupied by agricultural labourers and small traders, generally in very depressed circumstances. The public buildings include the par. church, a Rom. Cath. chapel, a court-house, and a bridewell. Lighters of from 20 to 30 tons come up to the town, which has 2 large flour-mills, and exports considerable quantities of flour, corn, and provisions: it has also a tannery and 2 breweries. Thomastown sent 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C., but was disfranchised at the Union. Quarter sessions are held in January, April, July, and October; and petty sessions every alternate week. It is a constabulary station. Markets on Mondays and Saturdays. Fairs, March 17, May 26, June 20, and Sept. 15. Post-office revenue, in 1836, 2944; in 1836, 6064. A branch of the Agricultural Bank was opened in 1836. There are several resident landlords in the neighbourhood of Thomastown, and the agriculture and trade of the town has improved. But Ingle affirms that the condition of the people has, notwithstanding, visibly deteriorated of late years (l. p. 80.); and this, we regret to say, how anomalous soever it may appear, is true of most country districts in Ireland.

THORN, a fortified town of the kingd. and prov. of Prussia, reg. Marienwerder, cap. circ., on the Vistula, here crossed by a long wooden bridge, about 90 m. from its mouth, and 52 m. S.S.W. Marienwerder. Pop., in 1846, 9,460. It consists of an old and a new town, separated by a wall and ditch. There are 3 Rom. Cath., and 2 Protestant churches; several convents and asylums, a Lutheran gymnasium, &c. It is the seat of the courts for the circ., and has various manufactures, and a considerable trade. It is very strong, its fortifications having been greatly improved and augmented since 1815. It was founded by the first grand master of the Teutonic order, in 1231; and most part of its principal edifices are of old date. But its chief claim to notice is derived from its having been the birth-place of Copernicus, the discoverer, or rather restorer, of the true theory of the world, born on the 19th February, 1473. His great work, *De Revolutionibus Orbium Cœlestium*, in six books, was published at Nuremberg, in 1543, a few days before the death of its illustrious author, which took place on the 24th of May of the same year.

THORNBURY, a market-town and par. of England, co. Gloucester, hund. Thornbury, in the vale of Berkley, 11 m. N. by E. Bristol. Area of par., 11,680 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,706. The town consists principally of three streets, arranged in the form of the letter Y. The church is a handsome cruciform structure, with a lofty tower, ornamented with rich open-worked battlements and pinnacles. The living, a vicarage worth 5000 a year, is in the gift of the dean and chapter of Christchurch, Oxford. There are two subordinate curacies in the par., at Oldbury and Falsfield. It has also Baptist, Independent,

Quaker, and Wesleyan meeting-houses; a grammar-school for boys, another free school for 30 children, almshouses, &c. But it is principally remarkable for the remains of a magnificent castle, begun by Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, in 1511, but left in an unfinished state, when he suffered on the scaffold, in 1522. Its site is very commanding; Rickman says its style is the late perpendicular, with good details; and it is especially interesting from its affording some interesting specimens of the last gradation of castellated architecture. (*Gothic Architect.*) Thornbury was formerly a municipal bor., governed by a mayor and 12 aldermen; but no charter is extant, and the body being found useless, the corporation was abolished by the Municipal Reform Act. The clothing trade was formerly carried on pretty extensively, but it is now nearly extinct. Market-day, Saturday; fairs, Easter Monday, Aug. 15, Monday before St. Thomas, and Dec. 21, for cattle and pigs. (*West. Report; Append., &c.*)

THORNE, a market-town and par. of England, co. York, W. Riding, wapent. Strafforth, &c., near the Don, and on the borders of Lincolnshire, in a low, flat, and mostly fertile, but marshy country, 224 m. S. by E. York. Area of par., 10,840 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,507. The town appears to be prosperous; it is tolerably well built, and the streets are paved. The par. church is a neat building, with a square tower and pinnacles. The living is a perpetual curacy, worth 1177 a year, is in the gift of the heir of Sir H. Hetherington. (*Eccles. Rev. Rep.*) There are several dissenting chapels, two free schools, &c. At a suburb called Hångman-hill, on the Don, about 1 m. from the town, vessels of considerable burden are built, and a brisk trade in corn and other goods is carried on at Thorne, which is greatly promoted by the Staithforth and Keadby Canal. Market-day, Wednesday; fairs, Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, after both June 11. and Oct. 11, for cattle, horses, and pedlary.

THRASYMENE (LAKE OF), or Lake of Perugia (an. *Lacus Trasymenus*), a famous lake of Central Italy, Papal States, deleg. Perugia, 10 m. W. the city of that name. It is of a circular shape, about 30 m. in circ., has several small islands, and is rather shallow, its greatest depth not exceeding 24 ft.; it is well stocked with fish, and its banks are covered with olive plantations. Being surrounded by ramifications of the Apennines, it has no natural outlet for its waters; and in consequence, when it was swollen by rains, it was apt to overflow its banks, and damage the surrounding country. To obviate this danger, a tunnel (or *cuniculus*), similar to that of Lake Albano (see ALBANO), above $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in length, has been cut through a hill on the S.E. side of the lake, by which its surplus waters are conveyed to an affluent of the Tiber. This useful work, if not wholly constructed, was, at all events, repaired and renovated, by a lord of Perugia in the early part of the 15th century. (*Rampoldi, Trasimeno, Lago di*)

This lake is famous in history for the great victory gained on its banks by Hannibal over the Romans, anno 217 B.C. The battle appears, according to the statements of the best critics, to have been fought in a valley near Passignano, on the N.E. shore of the lake, which is entered from the N. by a narrow defile, and is shut up on all sides by steep hills, and the lake. Hannibal having entered this defile, posted his troops at its foot and on the slopes of the hills that bounded the valley on either side, and in this position waited the advance of the Romans, by whom he was imprudently followed. The latter entered the valley at night-fall, and at break of day, on beginning their march, they were assailed on all sides with tremendous fury. The disorder caused by this unexpected attack was increased by the circumstance of a thick fog arising from the lake and concealing their enemies. But, notwithstanding they were thus, as it were, caught in a trap, the Romans displayed their accustomed bravery, and struggled, if not for victory, at least to sell their lives as dearly as possible. It is mentioned, as evincing the fury of the contest, and its all-absorbing interest, that a violent earthquake, which in great part overturned several towns of Italy, and otherwise committed great ravages, occurred during the heat of the fight without being noticed by any one! (*Livy*, lib. xxii. cap. 5.) In the end, however, the triumph of Hannibal was complete. The Romans left 15,000 men, including their consul, Flaminius; whose rashness had led them into the snare, dead on the field of battle; and according to Polybius, they lost about the same number, taken prisoners. The loss of the Carthaginians did not exceed 1,500 men. (See *Livy*, ubi suprà, and the excellent account of Polybius, *General History*, lib. iii. cap. 8.)

In noticing the lake of Thrasyrene, Byron has alluded to the incident of the earthquake as follows:—

"And such the storm of battle on this day,
And such the frenzy, whose convulsion binds
To all save carnage, that, beneath the fray,
An earthquake rears'd unheeded away!
None felt stern Nature rocking at his base,
And yawning forth a grave for those who lay
Upon their bucklers for a winding-sheet;
Such is the absorbing hate when warring nations meet!"

Childe Harold, iv. 63.

THREE RIVERS, or **TROIS RIVIERES**, the third town of Lower Canada, cap. distr. of its own name, on the St. Lawrence, where it is joined by the St. Maurice, 66 m. S. W. Quebec, and 75 m. N. E. Montreal; lat. 46° 22' N., long. 72° 29' W. Pop., estimated by McGregor at between 4,000 and 5,000. It derives its name from 2 small islands at the mouth of the St. Maurice, which divide it into 3 channels, but the town is on the W. bank of that river. The situation is agreeable, though not the town itself, which is one of the oldest in Canada. It contains about 420 dwelling-houses, mostly built of wood, a handsome court-house, a strong gaol, a decent-looking Catholic, and a Protestant church, an Ursuline convent, founded in 1677, &c. The river keeps near the town, and the steamers stop to take on board passengers and fuel. Here the courts of justice for the district are held; and here, at one period, a great share of the fur trade centred. Some furs are still brought down by the Indians, and purchased by the agents of the Hudson's Bay Company; and there are a few breweries, potash factories, inns, shops, a printing-office, &c. But its general trade has been mostly absorbed by Montreal and Quebec. (*McGregor's British America, &c.*)

Trois Rivières was of much more importance formerly than at present, having been originally the cap. of Canada. (*Encyc. Americ.*) Its pop. is still principally French, and the names of its streets are all traceable to Paris. It sends 3 mems. to the H. of Assembly.

THURGAU, or **THURGOVIA**, a canton of Switzerland, in the N. E. part of the confed., between lat. 47° 20' and 47° 40' N., and long. 8° 40' and 9° 30' E.; having S. St. Gall, W. Zurich and Schaffhausen, and N. and E. the Rhine and the lake of Constance. Area estimated at 268 sq. m. Pop., in 1850, 88,908; this being, with the exception of Geneva, the most densely peopled of the Swiss cantons. Thurgau, though it cannot be called mountainous, has a very uneven surface, consisting of low hills interspersed with narrow valleys. The canton derives its name from the Thur, which traverses it about its centre; next to which, the principal rivers are the Murg and Sitter. Agriculture is the principal occupation of the inhabs., and though the soil in certain parts requires a great deal of manure, Thurgau may, on the whole, be considered one of the most fertile cantons of the confed. There are extensive vineyards over nearly half the canton, and the value of the produce of wine, in average years, is estimated at 80,000*l.* sterling. The internal consumption may be about a fourth part of the whole quantity, the remaining three fourths being exported to St. Gall and Appenzel. Considerable quantities of fruit and cider are exported in the same directions, but the quantity sent to Germany has of late years greatly diminished. About 100,000 hectols. of wheat are raised annually, being about two thirds the consumption. Oats, hemp, flax, potatoes, and hops are the other articles chiefly raised; oats and brandy are among the exports to Appenzel. The breeding of cattle is unimportant; but a large proportion of the S. part of the canton consists of fine pasture-land, and lean cattle being imported and fattened, are subsequently exported to the neighbouring states. The possessors of landed property would seem to be in a very distressed state; for the president of the canton is said to have stated, in 1836, that its estates were mortgaged to neighbouring cantons to the amount of 900,000*l.* sterling, on which an annual interest of 40,000*l.* was paid. (*Bowring's Report.*) The wages of agricultural labour are from 4*d.* to 7*d.* per day, the master providing food, which consists of oat cakes, barley, and sometimes wheaten bread, potatoes, &c. Among the classes engaged in manufactures, the use of coffee is being introduced. The peasantry eat meat once or twice a week: their ordinary beverage is wine or cider, though beer is also brewed in the canton. The male peasantry generally dress in woollens, the females in light cotton stuffs.

The commercial interests of the canton are said to have been injured by the Prussian league; at all events the linen and cotton goods sent into Germany are much less now than formerly. Nearly one third part of the inhabs. are more or less engaged in manufacturing labour, principally in weaving cotton and linen fabrics, and spinning flax. The manufacture of linen is, however, declining, and its annual value is not now supposed to exceed 8,000*l.* a year. From 3,000 to 5,000 looms are employed in weaving cotton goods, the chief *deposits* for whiting being at St. Gall and Zurich. Weaver's wages range from about 7*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* a day. There are some rather extensive establishments for cotton printing, the prints being sent chiefly to the Levant. Silks are manufactured for the French markets; and a good deal of the packing canvass sold in Basle, Zurich, &c. is made in Thurgau.

The government, revised in 1831, is democratic. The great council of 100 mems., which has the sole legislative power, consists of the representatives of the 32 circles, into which the canton is divided, elected by all the citizens above 25 years of age who pay taxes on property to the value of 300 florins, and are not paupers, or otherwise disqualified. The great council assembles

twice a year, for 15 days at a time, unless its sessions be prolonged on special account; it is wholly renewed every two years, half the mems. going out yearly. The executive duties are intrusted to a council of 6 mems., who must be 30 years of age, and who hold office for 6 years. Two *landammans* are chosen annually, and preside for 6 months alternately in the great and little council. Each commune has its own council, composed of the syndic, or mayor, and 4 other mems., and its police, and petty civil tribunal. There are courts of original jurisdiction in each of the 8 districts of the canton, and a supreme court of appeal, in Frauenfeld, the cap. In 1837, about 72,000 of the inhabs. were Protestants, and 18,500 R. Catholics. Public education is very widely diffused. Public revenue, in 1834, 157,930 florins; expenditure, 107,920 do.

As early as the 5th century Thurgau was governed by its own counts. It afterwards passed to the dukes of Zaeheringen, and the counts of Kyburg; and, in 1264, to the house of Hapsburg. In 1460, it was conquered from the latter by the confederated Swiss cantons, and governed by their bailiffs or prefects till 1798. It was then constituted a separate member of the confed., in which it now holds the 17th place, furnishing a contingent of 152 men to the confederate army. (*Papilager, Der Kant. Thurgau; Bowring's Rep. on Switzerland; Picot Statist. des Suisse; Schel, &c.*)

THURLES, an inland town of Ireland, prov. Munster, co. Tipperary, on the Suir, 77 m. S. W. Dublin. Pop., in 1841, 1,523. The river intersects the town, the communication between its different parts being maintained by a bridge. The public buildings comprise a fine Rom. Cath. chapel, which serves for the cathedral of the see of Cashel, a Rom. Cath. college, 2 nunneries, with chapels annexed, a market-house, a court-house and bridewell, and a barrack. Mr. Inglis speaks favourably of Thurles. "It cuts," says he, "some figure at a distance, owing to the new and very handsome Rom. Cath. chapel, and the unfinished Rom. Cath. college. The town stands on a wide, scantily wooded, uninteresting plain. It contains about 7,000 inhabs., and is tolerably prosperous; for, having no larger town nearer to it than 40 or 50 m., it supplies an extensive interior district, and is besides an important market for country produce. There are no fewer than 15 annual fairs and 2 weekly markets held at Thurles. I saw scarcely any beggars in the place, and the cabins in the outskirts were not of the worst kind. There are two nunneries; in one of which are 20 nuns and 60 boarders: there is also an excellent Rom. Cath. school belonging to the Rom. Cath. institution. I observed no shops to be let, and saw several houses in the course of being built. Land lets very high in the neighbourhood." (*i. p.* 107.)

General sessions are held twice a year; petty sessions on Saturdays: it is a constabulary station. Markets on Tuesdays and Saturdays. Fairs on Easter Monday, Aug. 21., Dec. 21., and first Monday of every month. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 452*l.*; in 1836, 560*l.* Branches of the National and Agricultural Banks were opened in 1835 and 1836.

THURSO, a sea-port town of Scotland, N. shore, co. Caithness, on the Pentland Firth, at the bottom of Thurso Bay, between Dwarick Head on the E. and Holburn Head on the W., at the point where Thurso river (here crossed by a handsome bridge) falls into the bay, 8½ m. S. W. Dunnet Head. Pop., in 1841, 2,510. It is irregularly built, and rather ill paved; but to the suburbs are some neat freestone houses, and the church, built, in 1822, at an expense of 6,000*l.*, is a handsome structure: it has also a meeting-house for original seceders, an independent chapel, and several schools. A short way to the E. is Thurso Castle, the seat of Sir George Sinclair, Bart., proprietor of the town. Though the most northerly port town of Great Britain, it has a daily communication by a mail coach with Inverness and the south, and it communicates by regular traders and steamers with Leith, Wick, &c. There is a harbour at the mouth of the river for the accommodation of vessels drawing 12 ft. water; and ships of any burden may anchor on the W. side of the bay, in Scarbater Roads, under cover of Holburn Head. At present (1842) about 15 vessels belong to the port. A little straw plait is manufactured in the town; and it has also a rope-walk and some tanneries. The town has 3 magistrates, appointed by the Sinclair family, superiors of the bor. On the whole, the town may be regarded as in a nearly stationary state; and its progress has been by no means commensurate with the sanguine expectations of its late proprietor, the well known Sir John Sinclair. It is obvious, indeed, that the poor and thinly peopled country in its vicinity, and the nature of the remote and dangerous frith on which it is placed, are all but insuperable obstacles to its ever becoming of any considerable importance. (*New Statistical Account of Scotland, art. Thurso.*)

TIBER (an. *Tibris*, Ital. *Tevere*), the most celebrated though not the largest river of Italy, rises in the Tuscan

Apennines, about 5 m. N. Pieve San Stefano, and has a general S.E. course to within 20 m. from Rome, when it turns S.W., and enters the Mediterranean by two mouths, 17 m. below that city, after a course of about 150 m. It is said to have been anciently navigable for vessels of considerable burden as far as Rome, and for small boats to within a short distance of its source (*Dion. Hal.*, iii. 44.; *Strab.*, v. 218.); and it still continues to be navigable, in certain seasons, as far as the confluence of the Nera; 38 m. N.N.E. Rome; but its navigation is at all times difficult, especially at its *embouchure*, and in the vicinity of Rome, and requires continual attention. The entrance of the river from the sea, and its subsequent navigation, are, in fact, so troublesome, that the harbour of Ostia, at its mouth, was relinquished in antiquity for that of Centum-cellæ, now Civita Vecchia, which still continues to be the port of Rome, though it be considerably more than twice the distance of Ostia from the city, with which it is connected merely by a road. (See the articles CIVITA VECCHIA and OSTIA in this work.) Its principal tributaries are the Toppino, Nera, and Teverone from the E., and the Nestore, Chiana, and Nepi, from the N. and W. By the Chiana, it communicates with the Arno. Besides Rome, Borgo San Sepolcro, Citta del Castello, Fratte, Orto, Orticelli, Magliano, and Ostia, are on its banks, and Perugia and Orvieto in its immediate vicinity. In antiquity the Tiber divided Etruria from Umbria, and the territories of the Latins and Sabines; at present it separates the delegs. of Spoleto and Rieti from the deleg. of Viterbo and the Comarca di Roma.

Notwithstanding its immortality of renown, its banks are not generally picturesque, and at first sight it generally disappoints strangers. It is muddy, and during the floods, to which it is very subject, verifies the description of Horace:—

"Vidimus fluvium Tiberim, retoris
Littore Etrusco violentis undis;
Ire dejectum monumenta regis." *Od. i. 2.*

But at other times it flows with a comparatively gentle current:—

"Ad terram Hesperiam venies, ubi Lydius arva,
Littora optima vitrum, lævi fluit agmine Tiberis."
Æneid. ii. v. 781.

It was anciently called *Albulæ*, and this name, as well as the epithet *Albulæ*, which Horace and other writers, was no doubt derived from the yellowish hue of its waters, discoloured by the mud with which they are loaded. "Some travellers, measuring its mass of waters by its bulk of fame, and finding its appearance inferior to their preconceptions, have represented it as a petty and insignificant streamlet. However, though far inferior in breadth to all the great rivers, yet as it is generally, from a few miles above Rome to the sea, about 300 ft. wide upon an average*, it cannot, with justice, be considered a contemptible rill." (*Eustace*, ii. 210., 8vo. ed.) And a much higher authority than Eustace, Mr. MacLaren, says, that though the Tiber at Rome be not so wide as the Clyde at Glasgow, "it is deeper, and contains a larger volume of water." (*Notes of a Tour*, 158.) "Above and below the city it runs through groves and gardens, and waters the villas and retreats of the richer Romans; but beyond *Ponte Molle* it rolls through a long tract of plains and hills, fertile and green, but uncultivated and deserted. Yet these very banks, now all silence and solitude, were once, like those of the Thames, covered with life, activity, and rural beauty, lined with villages, and not unfrequently decorated with palaces. *Pluribus prope solus quam ceteris in omnibus terris annos accollitur aspiciturque villis.* (*Plin. Hist. Nat.* lib. iii. 5.) Below the city, when it has passed the *Villa Maliana*, it falls again into a wilderness." (*Eustace*, *ubi supra*.) It terminates in a marshy pestiferous tract, its two arms (see *ante*, Rome, p. 553.; *Cramer's Anc. Italy*, i. 240.; *Matthews; Dict. Geog.*, &c.)

TIERRA (vulg. TERRA) DEL FUEGO, "*The Land of Fire*," so called from its apparent volcanoes by its discoverer Magellan, or Magalhæna, a large island, or rather group of islands, rising off the S. extremity of S. America, from which it is separated by the Strait of Magellan. The group, which extends between the 53d and 56th degs. of S. lat., and the 64th and 75th of W. long., consists of King Charles' South Land, Navarin, Hoste, Clarence, and some other islands, Cape Horn forming the most S. point. The E. part of King Charles' S. Land, is low, with plains like those of Patagonia; but near its W. side it is traversed by mountain chains nearly 4,000 ft. in height, covered with perpetual snow. Slate is abundant, but hornblende is said to be the prevailing rock here and in all the ad-

jacent islands. (*King in Geog. Journ.*, vol. i.) Lava and other volcanic products have been found. The country, in many parts seems well wooded, and Winter's bark (*Dryas Walteri*), introduced into medicine in 1579, was discovered here. A kind of birch (*Betula antarctica*), with a stem from 30 to 40 inches in diameter, is one of the principal forest trees, and probably other trees may be found; but the interior has hitherto been very little explored. Guanacoes and foxes appear to be the most numerous wild animals. The Fuegians are a peculiar race of savages, in nearly the lowest stage of barbarism. Their most striking physical peculiarities are a very small low forehead, prominent brows, small eyes, wide nostrils, large mouth, thick lips, long black hair, and large body, as compared with the extremities. They go nearly naked, but smear over their bodies with various substances: live in wigwams made of the trunks of trees, and subsist almost wholly on fish, seals, and testacea. They are occasionally cannibals, and have, in fact, no objection to any kind of food. They are not wholly ignorant of the arts, being acquainted with the use of fire, and availing themselves of bows and arrows, and in the N. of the *boles* of the Patagonians. On the whole, however, they would appear to be decidedly below many of the lower animals in respect of comfort, and to be but little above them in sagacity and invention. Their language is said to present many affinities with the Araucanian. (For further and numerous particulars we refer the reader to the *Voyages de l'aventure and Beagle; Cook; Weddell, &c.*)

TIGRIS. See EUPHRATES.

TILBURG, a town of Holland, prov. N. Brabant, cap. cant., in the arrond. of Bois-le-Duc, near the Ley, 13½ m. S.W. Bois-le-Duc. Pop. about 11,000. This is decidedly the best built town in the prov., though, from lying out of any great road, it is little visited by travellers. It has 3 churches, a chapel, and a handsome castle; and has very extensive fabrics of fine and coarse woven cloths, cassimeres, &c. It sends 3 deputies to the provincial states.

TILSIT, a town of the Prussian states, prov. Prussia, reg. Gumbinnen, cap. circ. on the Niemen, or Memel, where it is joined by the Tilse, 60 m. N.E. Königsberg. Pop., in 1838, 11,179. It consists principally of a long and wide street, with a few good-looking houses. The Niemen, which is navigable up to the town, is here crossed by a bridge of boats, 1,150 ft. in length. The exports consist of timber, corn, hemp, flax, provisions, wax, leather, &c., sent down the river in flat-bottomed boats for shipment at Memel. The cutting of the canal of Oginsky has, by uniting the Niemen with the Dnieper, effected a communication between the Baltic and the Black Sea. It has an old castle, several churches, a royal gymnasium, hospital, and board of taxation, with manufactures of woollen cloth, hosiery, gloves, leather, hardware, &c.

This town is famous in diplomatic history for the treaty signed here on the 7th of July, 1807, by France, Russia, and Prussia. The conferences that led to this treaty were held between Napoleon and Alexander, who met, for the first time, with great pomp and ceremony, in a roomed in the middle of the Niemen, on the 25th of June.

TIMOR (THE EAST), an island of the E. Archipelago, 2d division (*Crauwford*), principally belonging to the Dutch, between the 123d and 129th degrees of S. lat., and the 13th and 16th degrees of E. long., 100 m. S.E. Floris, and 260 m. from the N.W. coast of Australia. It extends obliquely from N.E. to S.W., its length being estimated at 250 m., and its average breadth at 35 m. Horschelmann, in his edition of *Stein's Handbuch*, estimates its area at about 8,900 sq. m., and its pop. at 900,000. The natives of the interior are the *Malays*, Chinese, the coasts are inhabited mostly by Malays, Chinese, Dutch, and Portuguese, the latter possessing the town of Dilli, on the N.E. side of the island. Surface mountainous, but without volcanoes. Its rivers are small; and the soil is, upon the whole, not particularly fertile. Sandal-wood and wax are the most valuable products; about 10,000 cwt. a year of the first were formerly exported to Java. The natives cultivate rice, maize, millet, yams, sweet potatoes, and cotton; rice and maize, with the sugar of the lontar palm, and sago, are their principal articles of food. Gold is found both in grains and large pieces; but the aborigines are said to have a strong aversion to search for it, and once massacred a party of Dutch, sent inland to collect the metal. The imports are rice, arrack, sugar, tea, coffee, betel nut, and Chinese, Indian, and European manufactures; the duties on the trade have been said to suffice for the keeping up of the Dutch establishments on the island. The Dutch fixed themselves at Coepang, on the S.W. coast, in 1630; but we learn, from recent accounts, that they have now all but abandoned Timor for Sandalwood Island, about 300 m. more to the W., which abounds with fertile and grassy plains; and where the

* Mr. Matthews (*Diary*, &c., p. 78.) says, at the Ponte S. Angelo, in Rome, the breadth is about 212 English feet. This is the narrowest point. At the Ponte Molle, the breadth increases; and 2 m. above Rome, the Tiber is nearly twice as broad as within the walls.

colonists are much less likely to be disturbed by the hostility of the natives.

About 300 m. N.E. Timor is Timor Lant, an island 70 m. in length, by about 35 m. average breadth. Little, however, is known as to the state of this island. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gazetteer*, &c.)

TIMBUCTOO, or TOMBUCTOO, a town of Central Africa, on the S. border of the great desert of Sahara, about 8 m. N. from the lolliba, or Niger, but near one of its arms or tributaries, in about lat. $17^{\circ} 50'$ N., long. $3^{\circ} 40'$ W. Stationary pop., probably 10,000 or 12,000. The existence of this city has been long ascertained; but as till recently it was only known to Europeans by vague reports and suspicious narratives, the most conflicting and contradictory reports have been made respecting it. Certainly, however, the *ignotum pro magnifico* has seldom been more strikingly exemplified than in this instance; the most exaggerated and unfounded statements having been put forth respecting its magnitude, commerce, and pop. These, however, have now been completely dispelled, and Timbuctoo is ascertained to be a very poor town in a wretched country.

It is, in fact, situated amid burning and moving sands on the verge of a morass. It is of a triangular form, about 3 m. in circuit, and is surrounded by walls. The better sort of houses, built of bricks dried in the sun, are large, but not high, consisting entirely of a ground floor. Each house forms a square, containing two inner courts, round which are ranged the chambers, without windows or chimnies, and serving at once for magazines and bed-rooms. But within and without the town are many straw huts of a circular form, serving as lodgings for the poor and for slaves, who sell merchandise for their masters. The streets are said to be clean, and sufficiently wide to allow three horsemen to pass abreast. It has seven mosques, two of the largest of which have walls about 15 ft. in height, and are each surmounted by a tower. It is chiefly inhabited by negroes of the Kishoor nation; but it is also the residence of a considerable number of Moors, who carry on the trade of the town, and who leave it as soon as they have accumulated a little property. The inhabitants are zealous Mohammedans.

The trade of Timbuctoo, though much exaggerated, is considerable, it being a station for the caravans between N. Africa and the Soudan, or Nigritia, and also a *dépôt* for their produce. Salt is, however, the staple merchandise of the place. This important article, which is wholly wanting in Soudan, is brought from the mines of Towdayn, in the desert, about 335 m. N. from the town, being conveyed thither in the form of cakes on the backs of camels. In addition to salt, the caravans from the Barbary States bring dates, stuffs of European manufacture, with fire-arms, gunpowder, hardware, glass ware, coral, tobacco, paper, and other articles, which they exchange for slaves, gold-dust, ivory, ostrich-feathers, palm-oil, gums, &c. Owing to the sterility of the surrounding country, all the provisions required for the use of the town have to be brought from Jenné, on the Niger, about 300 m. S.E.W. Timbuctoo. These are conveyed by an arm of the river to Cabra, whence they are carried by camel, about 3 m., to the town. Jenné, according to Caillie, is more important, richer, and more commercial town than Timbuctoo. The Tovarika, a warlike and savage tribe, on the banks of the Niger, exact heavy duties on all the commodities imported into Cabra, and occasionally commit extensive outrages. Timbuctoo is governed by a negro governor or prince; who receives presents, but imposes no duties either on the inhabs. or the products brought to the town. The government is, in fact, patriarchal, and the prince is said, by Caillie, to be mild and just. The slaves, of whom there are great numbers, are well treated.

Timbuctoo is said to have been founded A.D. 1312, and to have soon after become the cap. of a great Moorish monarchy (*Walcknaer, Recherches Géographiques*, p. 14.); and since it ceased to enjoy this distinction, its trade, as well as its importance, is believed to have greatly declined. But it is not at all likely that a town in such a situation should ever have been the cap. of any considerable state; and we are inclined to think that the accounts of its ancient have but little better foundation than those of its modern prosperity. We have elsewhere endeavoured to show, that the commerce of which Timbuctoo is one of the centres depends on natural causes; and that it will almost probably continue to be carried on in time to come in the same way in which it has been carried on from the remotest period down to the present day. (*See* vol. i. 31.) Ritter, who has collected and discussed the different accounts of Timbuctoo published previously to that of Caillie, has exaggerated alike its importance and its trade, and has further indulged in some rather fanciful speculations as to the increase of the latter. (*Geography of Africa*, Fr. trans., ii. 81—112.) It would, indeed, be easy to show that the barbarism of Africa depends on natural and permanent, and not on artificial or accidental circumstances;

and though its commerce and civilisation may, no doubt, be materially increased in the course of time, the fair presumption seems to be that, owing to the nature of the country and climate, the wants of the natives and their industry will always be much too limited to admit of their ever becoming extensive demanders of European products. (*See Caillie's Travels to Timbuctoo*, li. 48—78., Eng. trans. This is not only the most recent but by far the most authentic and best account of the town that has ever been published. See also, *Walcknaer, Recherches sur l'Afrique Septentrionale*, passim., for an account of the progress of discovery in this part of Africa in modern times.)

TINIAN, one of the Ladronse Islands, which see.
TINNEVELLY, a district of British India, presid. Madras, at the E. extremity of Hindostan, between lat. 8° and 10° N. and principally between long. 77° and 79° E., having N. the district of Madura; E. and S.E. the Gulph of Manaar, separating it from Ceylon; and S.W. and W. Travancore, from which it is divided by a chain of mountains. Area, 5,590 sq. m. Pop., in 1836-37, 807,964. "The face of the country is a little undulated, but the general appearance is that of an extensive plain interspersed with small hills. The lower parts are well supplied with tanks, and afford great quantities of rice. On the banks of the rivers are also numerous paddy fields. There are several facts that run to a great distance, on which abundance of cotton is produced; the higher grounds are well cultivated, and covered in the season with luxuriant crops of dry grain. S. of Palnacottah, towards the extremity of the peninsula, the country becomes sandy and bare, covered in general with Palmyra trees. Towards the E. coast, and all round to the S., there are several hills of red sand, with which the atmosphere is often darkened during the windy season. Close to the sea beach, all along from Tutacort to Cape Comorin, the small villages are inhabited by fishermen, who are all Christians, and several Roman Catholic churches are situated close to the sea." (*Madras Almanac*, &c.)

Tinnevely is intersected by many winding rivers, which are supplied with water by both monsoons. The climate of some parts is remarkable. In the N. it is similar to that of Madura, but in the mountains on its W. side are several openings or passes, which, while the rest of the country on the E. side of India is parched up with heat, admit the cool winds prevailing at that period on the Malabar coast. The chief of these is the Arungole pass, near which is Kotalum, a place of great resort for Europeans, on account of its bracing climate.

Rice and cotton are the chief products of this district; the last, which is of the Bourbon variety, is grown of a superior quality. Many fruits, roots, and greens are cultivated, but some of the most common Carnatic products are neglected, and in unfavourable seasons rice is imported from Travancore. While Ceylon belonged to the Dutch, an attempt was made to establish spice plantations in Tinnevely, and cinnamon, nutmegs, &c., were planted, but on our acquiring possession of Ceylon these attempts were abandoned. Tinnevely is assessed under the village system, but for a lengthened period great irregularities attended both the assessment and collection of the revenue. (*See Rep. on the Admin. of the Madras Revenue*, p. 479.; *Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*) Great improvements have, however, been effected in these branches of late years, and in 1837-8, the total revenue of the district amounted to 94,15,106 rupees.

Tinnevely is subdivided into 11 *talooks* or circles. Its chief towns are, Tinnevely, the cap. and residence of the collector and judge, in about lat. $8^{\circ} 48'$ N., lon. $78^{\circ} 1'$ E.; and Palnacottah, the head military station, about 5 m. to the E., where a good many long cloths, silks, muslins, &c., are made for exportation to Madras and elsewhere. Iron is forged and saltpetre obtained in many parts of the district. The inhabs. of Tinnevely appear to live in greater comfort than those of the neighbouring districts, and their dwellings are mostly well constructed. Mohammedans are few, and the primitive Hindoo manners and customs are scarcely anywhere seen in greater purity. (*Madras New Almanac; Parl. Rep.*, &c.)

TIPERAH, a district of British India, presid. Bengal, between lat. 23° and $24^{\circ} 30'$ N., and the 91^{st} and 92^{d} degs. of E. long., having N. Sylhet, E. the Munseepoor territories, S. Chittagong and the sea, and W. the Brahmaputra, separating it from the distr. of Dacca. Area, 6,340 sq. m. Pop., in 1832, 1,272,350. This district yields cotton, rice, and wheat of a very superior quality. Elephants of large size are found in the forests; and in the S. salt is manufactured. The coarse cotton goods, buffaes, coasees, &c. made here are durable and substantial, and were formerly exported in large quantities by the E. I. Company and by private merchants. The inhabs. are similar in most respects to those of the adjacent districts beyond the Brahmaputra, though the upper classes have adopted many Hindoo usages. In respect of public education Tiperah appears to be extremely backward. It was acquired by the British in

1765. Total land revenue (1829-30) 810,417 rupees. (*Parl. Reports*, &c.)

TIPPERARY, an inland co. of Ireland, prov. Munster, having N. the Shannon, by which it is separated from Galway; E. King's County, Queen's County, and Kilkenny; S. Waterford; and W. Cork and Limerick. Area, 1,013,173 acres, of which 182,147 are unimproved mountain and bog, and 1,138 water. The mountainous districts are in the S.W. Adjoining Waterford and Cork, in the S.E. angle, is Sliabhnam Mountain; and a chain of mountains runs across the co. from Limerick to King's County. The bog is mostly a portion of the great bog of Allen. With these exceptions, Tipperary consists principally of extensive and fertile plains, with a calcareous subsoil, forming as rich land as is to be met with in any part of the empire. Some very large estates, but many of a moderate size. Tillage farms generally small, and mostly held under middle-men. The *con-acre* system is very prevalent in some parts of this co., as it is indeed in most cos. of Ireland, though it is carried to the greatest extent in Connaught. By *con-acre* is meant a pernicious custom prevalent among the landlords and occupiers of the larger class of farms, of letting to the peasantry, or cottiers, small slips of land varying from a perch to half an acre, for a single season, to be planted with potatoes or cropped. Old grass-land is frequently let out on this system; and then it is usual to allow the surface to be pared and burned! The rent of this land is enormous, running from 7s. to 12s. or 13s. an acre! Potatoes are invariably planted on *con-acre* land when it is broken up from grass; and afterwards it is usual to take from it successive crops of corn. Wherever this practice exists, there cannot, of course, be the least improvement; and nothing but the extraordinary fertility of the soil could enable it to produce any thing under so destructive a system. But, despite the prevalence of *con-acre*, some considerable improvements have been effected of late years, in the introduction of improved implements and improved stock, the extension of green crops, &c. Grazing, however, was formerly, and still is, the principal employment in Tipperary. The native Irish breed of long-horned cattle attain to a very large size, and are found in the greatest perfection in this co. Many thousands are annually exported. There are also many fine flocks of long-wooled sheep. Average rent of land, 17s. 8d. an acre. Unfortunately, the condition of the peasantry, instead of being improved with the improvements that are admitted to have taken place in agriculture, is, on the contrary, more depressed now than at any former period; and, in consequence, they are extremely turbulent, and agrarian outrages are probably more frequent in this than in any other Irish co. The manufacture of broad cloth was formerly carried on to some extent at Carrick, but is now wholly relinquished. Tipperary has copper and lead mines, coal, slate, &c. Exclusive of the Shannon, the principal river is the Suir. It contains 11 baronies and 186 par., and returns 4 mems. to the H. of C.; 2 being for the co., and 1 each for the bors. of Clonmel and Cashel. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 8,705. In 1841 Tipperary had 66,384 inhab. houses; 74,570 families; and 435,583 inhab., of whom 216,650 were males, and 218,933 females.

TIPPERARY, an inland town of Ireland, prov. Munster, cap. of the above co., near the Arra, an affluent of the Suir, 23 m. S.E. Limerick. Pop., in 1841, 7,370. It is well paved and cleaned under the superintendence of commissioners, and is, for an Irish town, pretty well built. "Tipperary," says Inglis, "is most agreeably situated, in a fine undulating smiling country, and within a few miles of a beautiful range of hills, which divides the cos. of Tipperary and Limerick. Tipperary, though inconsiderable in size to bear the name of the co., is rather a flourishing town, and is what a mercantile traveller would call a 'good little town.' There is no town westward nearer than Limerick, and there is, consequently, a busy retail trade, the result of country wants. There is also a good weekly market, which makes Tipperary the *dépôt* of agricultural produce for a range of 12 or 15 m. round. But, notwithstanding the better circumstances of the tradesmen, I found the condition of the labouring classes little better than elsewhere. Wages were only 8d. a day, without diet, and there is nothing approaching to constant employment for the population. Enormous rents, varying from 2s. 10s. to 4s., are paid for wretched cabins in the suburbs." (i. p. 120.) Tipperary has a par. church, a Rom. Cath. chapel, a Methodist meeting-house, schools on the foundation of E. Smith, a market-house, a barrack, and a bridewell. Petty sessions are held on Thursdays. A chief police magistrate resides here. Markets on Thursdays and Saturdays. Fairs, April 8, June 24, Oct. 10, and Dec. 10. Post-office revenue, in 1830, 728s.; in 1836, 1,066s. Branches of the National and Agricultural Banks were opened in 1835. TIRHOOT (native *Tirabhucl*), a district of British India, presid. Bengal, prov. Bahar, between lat. 25° and 27° N., and long. 85° and 87° E.; having N. Nepal, E. Purneah, W. Sarun, and S. Bhaugulpore and the Ganges,

which separates it from the districts of Behar and Patna. Area, 7,793 sq. m. Pop., in 1822, 1,697,700. The surface is undulating and well watered; the climate is more healthy than that of the districts more to the S. In the N. there are extensive tracts of waste land, but Tirthoot generally is well cultivated, principally in consequence of the number of British settlers. Mr. Robertson says, — "It is impossible to look on this district without being struck with its high state of culture, and the quantity of forest land which has been brought under the plough, which would probably not have been but for the funds of the indigo planters, who raised indigo on the ground which had been previously given up to corn." (*Evidence before the Lords*, 1830.) Tirthoot is one of the principal districts in India for the growth of indigo; besides which, sugar, opium, tobacco, turmeric, ginger, rice, &c., are its chief vegetable products, and great quantities of salt-petre are procured from the soil. It also supplies great numbers of cavalry and other horses. Timber abounds in the N., but is of little utility from the absence of roads and the shallowness of the rivers. Total land-revenue, in 1829-30, 1,650,563 rupees. Tirthoot appears to have formed an independent Hindoo principality till 1597. It was annexed to the crown of Delhi in 1328, and acquired by the British in 1765. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gaz.*, &c.)

TIRELMONT (Flemish *Tiermont*), a town of Belgium, prov. S. Brabant, arrond. Louvain, 11 m. S.E. from the city of that name. Pop., in 1842, 8,975. Its extensive, but now dismantled walls enclose a large extent of ground not built on, with a large square, in which is the ancient town hall, church, &c. It has manufactures of woollen cloths, fannel, and hosiery, oil, soap, earthenware, paper, and sedlery, with potteries, breweries, distilleries, &c. It was formerly much more populous and thriving, having been one of the most important places in Brabant; but, being repeatedly taken and retaken by the Spaniards, French, and Dutch, in the 17th and 18th centuries, it suffered greatly in consequence. It sends 3 deputies to the prov. states, and 2 others are sent by its districts.

TITCHFIELD, a market-town and par. of England, co. Hants, div. Fareham, hund. Titchfield; on the Titchfield river, near the mouth of Southampton Water, 7½ m. E.S.E. Southampton. Area of par., 15,960 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,080. The town is small, but well built, and is the residence of many families of respectability. A part of the church is said to have been built by William of Wykeham, in the 14th century, and other parts are still more ancient. The living, a vicarage worth 266s. a year, is in the gift of H. P. Delme, Esq. There is an independent meeting-house, and a charity school for 34 children. Near the town are the remains of Titchfield House, in which Charles I. took refuge after his escape from Hampton Court, in 1647, built by the first Earl of Southampton, on the site of a former Premonstratensian abbey; but the mansion is now nearly dilapidated, the entrance gateway and the stables being the only extant remains. Titchfield gives the title of marquis to the Bentinck family, Marquis, on Fridays. Fairs, Mar. 9, May 14, Sep. 25, and Dec. 7.

TITICACA (LAKE OF). This lake, the largest and most elevated of the S. American continent, is partly comprised in the Bolivian republic, and partly in that of Peru: being enclosed by the Cordilleras S. of the tableland of Cusco, and extending chiefly between lat. 15° and 17° S., and long. 69° and 71° W., about 134 m. S.E. Cusco. Its outline is very irregular, being divided by a number of headlands into a main body, of an oblong form, and three subsidiary portions. Its area has been estimated by Mr. Pentland at 4,000 sq. m. and its height above the ocean at 12,847 ft. It is said to be in many places nearly 500 ft. in depth. It contains many small mountainous islands, and from the largest, at its S.E. extremity, the lake has received its name, which signifies "the Leaden Mountain." This island is 3 leagues in length by 1 in width, and about 1 m. from the shore. It is mostly uncultivated, but very fertile; and on it tradition places the first appearance of Manco Capac. (*Pentland, in Geog. Journ.*, v. 92.) The island was consequently held in great veneration, a temple was erected on it by the succeeding incas, in which a great deal of wealth is said to have been accumulated; and this, it is alleged, was thrown into the lake by the Indians on the Spaniards becoming masters of the country. Mr. Pentland states that numerous Peruvian ruins are still found on the island.

The Lake of Titicaca receives several rivers, its only visible outlet being the Desaguadero, which flows S., and is soon afterwards lost in the Lake of Aullagas. Its waters, though not very potable, abound with fish; and sudden squalls and storms render its navigation rather dangerous. The low banks of the lake are lined with rushes, which are here of great utility, being employed for almost as many purposes as the bamboo in the E. The huts of the poor are made of rushes; as also mats for the floor, and bed covers. The boats used on the lake are also made of rushes twisted together; the rudder

and the mast only being of wood. These boats are frequently made with great taste and ingenuity; the larger venture to some distance from the banks of the lake, which, even in calm weather, is subject to a heavy swell." (*Myen, Reise am die Erde; Mod. Trav. &c.*)

TIVERTON, a parl. and mun. bor., town, and par. of England, co. Devon, hund. Tiverton, on the Exe, where it is joined by the Loman, 13 m. N. by E. Exeter, and 154 m. W. S. W. London. Area of par., which is identical with the parl. bor., about 20,000 acres. Pop., in 1841, 9,828. The town is situated partly on the tongue of land between, and partly on the opposite banks of, the two rivers, each of which is crossed by a stone bridge. It is nearly 1 m. in length, N. E. to S. W., by about 5 fur. in its greatest breadth; it consists chiefly of several tolerably broad and well-paved streets, running N. and S. on both sides the Exe, and mostly joining Fore Street, the main thoroughfare, at right angles. The more narrow lanes and streets are S. of Fore Street.

Tiverton is lighted with gas, and watered by small streams from a branch of the Loman, called the Town leet. (*Bound. Rep.*) On an eminence between the rivers are the remains of the castle, a conspicuous object, occupying about an acre of ground. This fortress was erected in the reign of Stephen, and afterwards came into the possession of the Courtenays, Earls of Devon; in the civil wars it was garrisoned by the royalists, but after a short siege was taken by Fairfax. The church, on an eminence near the castle, is reckoned the finest ecclesiastical edifice in the co., after Exeter cathedral. It has a tower 116 ft. in height, and is chiefly in the perpendicular style, though there are some remains of an earlier date, and an enriched Norman doorway. A chapel, built by a merchant named Greenway, in 1517, is a good example of the gorgeous style of ornament which then prevailed. The ceiling is coved, and has tracery and rich pendants; like many works of that time, the design is better than the execution. The church has some rich screen-work. (*Richman's Gothic Archæol.*) In the nave are some curious monumental inscriptions; and the pulpit, which was probably made about the time of Charles II., is ornamented with the arms of many Devonshire families painted in separate compartments. The altar-piece is a rich painting of Peter delivered from prison.

Tiverton consists of several ecclesiastical divisions. Clare, Plitt, and Tidcombe quarters, or portions, are all rectories, in the joint patronage of the Earl of Harrowby, Sir W. Carew, Sir R. Vivian, and the Rev. W. Spurway; the net value of Clare rectory being 450*l.*, of Plitt with Cove 67*l.*, and of Tidcombe 785*l.* a year. A handsome modern chapel-of-ease has been erected, at which each of the parsonages officiates in turn. There are various meeting-houses, a spacious market-house built in 1830, a corn market, town-hall, bridewell, assembly and subscription reading-rooms, a neat theatre, &c.

Tiverton has numerous charities. A free grammar-school, in an ancient and venerable stone edifice, founded and endowed by a rich clothier of the town, named Blundell, in 1604, has now an income of nearly 700*l.* a year. It furnishes instruction for 150 boys, and sends 6 students to either of the universities, and 1 to Balliol college, Oxford; and it has 2 exhibitions of 30*l.* a year each, besides other scholarships. Another free school was founded by R. Chilcott in 1611, and there are several minor schools of a similar kind. The almshouses for 9 poor men, founded by Greenway in 1529, have an income of nearly 200*l.*, and the market trust money distributed to the poor by the corporation amounts to 326*l.* a year. The aggregate income of the various charities of Tiverton is estimated by the charity commissioners at 2,600*l.* a year. (*Digest of Charity Reps.*) The manufacture of lace employs from 1,300 to 1,500 people. The town was at one period famous for its baizes, serges, plain cloths, kerseys, and other woollen goods, and even as late as 1612 was regarded as the head manufacturing town in the W. of England; but its manufactures received a severe blow from a most destructive fire, which occurred on the 5th of August, 1612, from which it never fully recovered, and the introduction of Norwich stuffs, in the middle of the last century, completed its decline. At present the woollen manufacture employs only a few hands. The town supplies an extensive rural district, but its trade is not said to be increasing. In 1844, a few small houses of 5*l.* or 6*l.* rent were the only class of buildings in progress in the town; and, on the whole, it may be said to be stationary. (*Bound. Rep. and Mun. Corp. Appendix*, l.)

Tiverton is now divided into 3 wards, and is governed by a mayor, 5 other aldermen, and 18 councillors. It has a commission of the peace, and a court of record for civil actions to the amount of 100*l.* is held once a fortnight. A jail with 6 cells was built about 35 years since. The Boundary Act made no change in the limits of the parl. and mun. bor., which, as already stated, are co-extensive with the par. Tiverton was incorporated by James I. who also conferred on it the privilege of sending 2 mems. to the H. of C., the right of election, down to the Re-

form Act, being vested in the corporation, consisting of 36 individuals. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 443. Corp. revenues, in 1847-8, 1,524*l.* Markets, Tues. and Sat. and a large cattle market on the 2d Tues. in each mo. Fairs, Tues. after Whit Sunday, and Sep. 20.

TIVOLI (an. *Tibur*), a town of the Papal States, comarca of Rome, on a steep ridge, on the Tevere (an. *Anio*), 18 m. E. by N. Rome. Pop. 6,000. In antiquity, Tibur was to Rome what Richmond is to London; but though in a magnificent and highly salubrious situation, the modern town is dirty and disagreeable, with narrow, steep, and ill-paved streets, and inferior houses. It has a cathedral and some other churches. Tibur or Tivoli, which is one of the most ancient cities of Italy, derives its entire interest from the classical associations connected with its ancient name, its scenery, and its remains of antiquity. The Tevere, coming here to the edge of the cliffs that separate its valley from the Campagna, is precipitated downwards in a series of cascades, the beauty of which has been admired from the age of Horace down to the present time.

"Me nec tam petens Lacedæmonem,
Nec tam Larium percursum optine,
Quam domum Albano resonantis,
Et præcepit Anio, et sed lucus, et oda,
Mobilibus pomata riva."

Hor., lib. l. Od. vii. v. 10

In modern times, the upper or principal fall was, in a great degree, artificial, from the water having been precipitated over an embankment that had been formed to dam up the river. In 1826, however, one of those destructive floods that occasionally occurred in antiquity (*Plin. Epist.*, lib. viii. 17.), as well as in our own times, swept away the whole of this embankment, along with a church and some contiguous houses, so that the upper fall was nearly destroyed; at the same time that a branch of the river which had run through the town was dried up. But new channels have been since cut, by which, we believe, the river has been again precipitated down a lofty fall.

In the court-yard of an inn in the town, overhanging one of the cascades, is the classical ruin of a temple, supposed to be either that of the *Sibylla Tiburtina* or of *Vesta*, constructed in the reign of Augustus. This beautiful structure is a rotunda, 23 ft. 11 in. in diameter, surrounded by an open portico of composite columns. Though exposed to the weather, without any roof or covering, it is better preserved than might have been expected. "It derives," says Eustachius, "much intrinsic merit from its size and proportions, but it is not architectural merit alone which gives it its principal interest. Placed on the verge of a rocky bank, it is suspended over the præcepit Anio, and the domus resonantis of the Nalads; Augustus and Mæcenas, Virgil and Horace, have reposed under its columns; it has survived the empire, and even the language of its founders; and after 1,800 years of storms and tempests, of revolutions and barbarism, it still exhibits its fair-proportioned form to the eye of the traveller, and claims at once his applause and admiration." (*Classical Tour*, ii. 292. 8vo. ed.)

It may be worth while mentioning that an English nobleman, the late Earl of Bristol, obtained permission from the authorities at Tivoli to take down and carry away this classical ruin, in the view of setting it up again in his park in England! Luckily the desecration was prevented by the interference of the Papal government.

Near this temple are the remains of another, now forming a portion of the church of St George, and an inn in the town is supposed to occupy the site of the temple of Hercules, whence Augustus borrowed the treasure collected by the piety of ages. But besides these, little remains of the ancient Tibur. But though its temples and its theatres have crumbled into dust, its orchards, its gardens, and its cool recesses, bloom and flourish in unfading beauty. The declivities in its vicinity were anciently interspersed with splendid villas, the favourite residences of the refined and luxurious citizens of Rome. Among these may be enumerated the villas of Sallust, Mæcenas, Tibullus, Varus, Atticus, Cassius Brutus, &c. The existing remains of what is supposed to have been the villa of Mæcenas sufficiently attest its ancient magnificence; but probably the modern villa of Euseb, erected in the immediate vicinity of the ruins, in the 18th century, by a Cardinal d'Esse, exceeds in extent and grandeur that of the minister and favourite of the master of the Roman world! Horace, who has over and over again expressed his admiration of Tibur, is supposed to have had a villa in its vicinity, and some ruins in a delightful situation are pointed out as those of his residence. But, notwithstanding the statement of Suetonius to the contrary, we are disposed, in this instance, to agree in opinion with Eustace, that the probabilities are, that the poet was not really master of a Tiburtine villa, and that all his allusions to the gratifications he experienced in the groves and streams of Tibur—

"chron nomen, uvidique
Tiborie ripe opima nervis
Carnalis signa."

Hor., lib. iv. Od. II. v. 30.

may be explained by his frequent visits to the villas of Maccenas and his other friends.

Such is the mutability of human affairs, that two convents, which raise their white towers above the dark green shade of the olive trees, are now the most striking structures in the neighbourhood of Tivoli; and that monks loiter away their worthless existence under the shades where Virgil and Horace elaborated their immortal works (Besides the works already referred to, see *Gell's Topography of the Country round Rome, art. Tibur*; *Wood's Letters*, li. 61.; *Matthew's Diary of an Invalid*, p. 228., &c.)

TOBAGO, one of the W. I. islands belonging to Great Britain; in lat. about $11^{\circ} 15' N.$, and long. $60^{\circ} 40' W.$, 16 m. N.E. Trinidad, and 89 m. S.E. Grenada. Area, 57,408 acres. Pop. 14,000. "It is 33 m. in length and 12 in breadth, on the N. extremely rugged and mountainous, and from the sea appears like a mass of dark abrupt precipices. Towards the S. and W. the ground descends into a succession of conical hills and ridges of no great elevation, which, as they approach the sea, terminate in broken plains and low lands. The E. district is also mountainous. The soil in the valleys is generally a rich dark mould, and is well watered by numerous streams and rivulets. Cultivation being for the most part confined to a portion of the low lands near the sea on the S. side of the isl., the greater part of the interior is still in a state of nature, the high grounds covered with forests, the deep ravines choked up with vegetation, and the bottoms of the valleys, being very narrow and not possessing free drainage, generally of a wet marshy character. The climate and seasons here are much the same as at Trinidad, only rather more humid; but we possess no measurement of the quantity of rain which falls annually. In some of the low grounds, excluded from the influence of the breeze, the heat is described as being exceedingly oppressive, particularly at Scarborough, the cap., which lies at the foot of a hill on the S. side of the island. The troops enjoy the advantage of a more moderate temperature, being quartered in Fort King George, on the summit of the hill above Scarborough, where the heat is modified by a constant breeze, and the mean temp. of the year does not exceed 79° Fahr. On the average of the 20 years ending 1836, the mortality amounted to about 183 per thousand of the white, and 34 per thousand of the black troops annually, the former being nearly double the rate which prevails throughout the whole Windward and Leeward command. But as the climate has by no means affected the blacks in any corresponding degree, the deaths, on the whole, are considerably less than at most of the other stations." (*Ward's Report on the Health of the Troops in the W. Indies*.) This island is beyond the range of the hurricanes; though Grenada, at so short a distance, is as subject to them as the rest of the Antilles.

Tobago produces almost every kind of plant that grows in the Antilles, besides many common to the adjacent parts of S. America. It was formerly supposed to have given its name to the narcotic plant tobacco, now so widely diffused; but Humboldt has shown that there is no foundation whatever for this opinion, and that tobacco is a word of Mexican origin. (*Novelle Espagne*, iii. 50., 2d ed.) Indian and Guinea corn, peas, beans, figs, pine-apples, and all kinds of tropical fruits, are grown, as well as potatoes, yams, carrots, turnips, onions, manioc, &c. Horses, cows, asses, sheep, deer, &c., probably introduced by the Dutch, have multiplied greatly, and wild hogs are very abundant.

The principal imports into the U. Kingdom from Tobago, during the three years ending with 1839, were

Articles and Quantities.	1847.	1848.	1849.
Sugar (unrefined) - - - cwt.	69,940	53,490	47,311
Rum - - - - - galls.	277,374	174,992	139,736
Clonies - - - - - do.	5,138	1,520	4,750

The total value of the articles imported into Tobago amounted, in 1847, to 51,068*l*. The exports from the U. K. to the island, in 1849, were only 14,887*l*. Revenue and expenditure about 8,000*l*. a year each.

Tobago has its governor, council of 9 mems., and ho. of assembly of 16 mems., whose powers are similar to those of Jamaica. It is divided into 7 pars. No. of pupils in the different public schools, in 1848, 1,636, of whom about 1,000 attended daily. The sum awarded by government, in 1835, for the manumission of slaves in Tobago amounted to 324,064*l*. This island, which was discovered by Columbus in 1498, was colonised first by the Dutch, and next by the Courlanders. It was ceded to Great Britain by France in 1763; but was retaken by the French in 1781, who retained possession of the island till 1793, since which it has belonged to England.

TOBOLSK, a very large government of Asiatic Russia, comprising a large portion of the basin of the great river Obi, or the country between the 50th and 73d degrees of N. lat. and the 50th and 80th of E. long., having E. the gov. Yeniseisk, S. that of Tomsk and the Kirghis territ., W. the gov. of Orenburg, Perm, and Archangel, and N. the sea of Kara, gulph of Obi, &c. The area may amount to from 900,000 to 1,000,000 sq. m.; and, in 1848, the pop. was estimated at 700,000. Except on its S. and W. frontiers, it is almost every where level, or but a slightly waving plain, though varying greatly in point of fertility. From lat. 54° or 60° to lat. 65° or 66° , the country is generally occupied by vast forests of fir and birch; from the woody region N. to the Arctic Ocean, the country, a low plain called the *Tundra*, is the most sterile imaginable, consisting of all but boundless moors and morasses, interspersed here and there with some stunted shrubs, and occupied by only a few Ostiak tribes, who subsist chiefly by fishing, and the chase of fur-bearing animals. Such is the severity of the climate, that this portion is usually covered with ice and snow for about 9 months of the year; and during the other months, ice is always found at a little distance below the surface.

Immediately to the S. of the woody region, or between about lat. 56° or 60° on the N., and 54° or 58° on the S., is the agricultural portion of the government, including extensive tracts watered by the Irtysh, a part of the Ishim, and the Tobol. Though not generally fertile, this district comprises some very productive tracts, and it has a considerable number of towns, though few of them be of any great size. Even in this part of the government, the climate is very severe; for, though the summer heats be sometimes oppressive, they are but of short duration, and the winters are long and excessively cold. Rye, oats, barley, and buckwheat are the principal crops. Between the agricultural district and the mountains separating the government from the country of the Kirghis is the very extensive tract called the *Steppe* of Ishim, from its being in part traversed by that river and its affluents. Except along the river banks, it is mostly sterile; and in extensive tracts the soil is covered with a salt efflorescence.

Iron and copper are extensively raised in various parts of the Oural chain; and gold and silver are produced both there and in the Altai. At Catherineburg, Kolyvan, and Barnaul, are extensive forges; and soap and tallow-works, tanneries, mat-manufactories, &c., are found in different parts: but the commerce of the government is of more importance than its manufacturing industry. Except the clergy, and persons in the government employment, all the inhabs. are more or less engaged in trade, exchanging their sable and other furs, cattle, cassia, fresh and dried fish, and game, with the Russian traders for corn, fow, hardware, &c. The merchants of Tobolsk, Tomen, and the principal towns in the S. and W., send every summer boats laden with flour and other provisions, by way of the Irtysh and Obi, to Beresov, and the other small towns in the N., which return with cargoes of fish, and with valuable furs, procured from the Ostiaks and other tribes. These furs are afterwards partly sent, with soap, tallow, and hides, to the fair at Nijni Novgorod; partly to the Kirghis, to be bartered for horses, cattle, and cotton goods, obtained through Bochara; and partly to Kiachta, on the Chinese frontier, where they are exchanged for tea, silk fabrics, and other Chinese products. The government, in common with the rest of Siberia, lies under the greatest disadvantages with respect to water communication; the frozen shores of its N. coast are inaccessible for the purposes of trade; and its rivers, though equal in magnitude to any belonging to the Asiatic continent, are covered with ice for the greater portion of the year. The chief mode of travelling, and conveying goods throughout a great portion of the government, is, as in the N. part of Europe, in sledges drawn by dogs or rein-deer.

Mr. Bell and Captain Cochrane agree in representing the Tartar villages in the agricultural part of the government, as neat, clean, and comfortable. Their white plastered chimneys and ovens reminded the latter of his own country. The houses consist in general of one or two rooms. Near the hearth is an iron kettle, and at one end of the apartment a bench covered with mats or skins: on this all the family sit by day, and sleep by night. The walls are of wood and moss; a layer of moss between every 2 beams. A square hole is cut out for a window, and to supply the want of glass a piece of ice is often put in: 2 or 3 pieces will last the whole winter. They use no stoves, and have neither chairs nor stools. The furniture consists of a few earthenware utensils, and a set of tea-table appendages. The women never eat or drink till the men have done, and then seldom in their presence. (*Mod. Trav.*, xvii. 322.) Owing to the thinness of the pop., and the immense distances between the different towns, education is very little diffused, and besides the schools in the cap. (see

post), there are, perhaps, hardly a dozen in the rest of the government. Except Tobolsk, the cap., and Toumen, there are no towns worth notice.

TOBOLSK, a city of Asiatic Russia, the cap. of W. Siberia, and of the gov. of its own name, and, indeed, of the whole of N. Asia; on the Irtysh, close to its junction with the Tobol, lat. $56^{\circ} 11' 49''$ N., long. $68^{\circ} 6' 18''$ E. Pop., in 1835, 15,379. The town proper is built principally on the flat summit of a hill commanding an extensive view, and is surrounded by a strong brick wall with square towers and bastions. When approached from the W. it has a remarkably fine appearance, and it really contains some good and solid buildings, most of the government offices, and the residences of the Russian and German settlers, being within the walls. Along the banks of the river are suburbs, inclosed by a ditch and palisade, and inhabited mostly by Tartars. Tobolsk had, in 1835, 18 churches, and 1,763 houses, of which only 26 were of stone. (*Journ. de St. Petersburg*.) The streets, which cross each other at right angles, are mostly paved with wood. Among its public edifices, the most remarkable are, the cathedral, in the Byzantine style of architecture, with 5 cupolas, the archbishop's and governor's palaces, a monastery, and a large hospital. The climate in winter is very severe, so much so as sometimes to freeze mercury; and next to Yakutsk, Tobolsk is one of the coldest towns in Siberia; but the dress and houses of the inhabs. being fitted to resist its influence, it is not so disagreeable as might be supposed, and, in other respects, it is not an unpleasant residence. The rivers furnish an inexhaustible supply of fish, and provisions, fur, and game of all kinds are cheap and abundant; and shops, theatres, and places of public amusement are numerous. Being on the great road from Russia to China, it is well supplied with stout European and Chinese goods; and French wines, English porter, and books of all kinds, are to be met with. Dobell says, "the society of Tobolsk may fairly stand a comparison with that of some of the best provincial towns in Russia." Among the inhabs. are many descendants of the Swedish officers, sent thither after the battle of Pultawa, to whom Tobolsk is mainly indebted for its superior civilisation. This city, which was founded in 1587, is the residence of the governor-general of W. Siberia, comprising the govts. of Tobolsk and Tomsk; it has 3 ecclesiastical, and several Lancasterian schools, and various charitable institutions. No convicts or malefactors are sent thither from European Russia, although persons banished to Siberia for political offences are sometimes permitted to reside in Tobolsk. (*Mod. Trav.*, vol. xvii.; *Ermann, Reise um die Erde*; *Dobell's Trav. in Siberia*; *Journ. de St. Petersburg*.)

TOCAT (an. *Berisa*), a town of Turkey in Asia Minor, pach. Sivas, on the Tosamlu, near its confluence with the Jeil Irnak (an. *Irak*), on the military road from Semsum to Kharpost, 35 m. S.S.E. Amasia, and 55 m. N.N.W. Sivas, lat. $40^{\circ} 7' 7''$ N., long. $36^{\circ} 30' 0''$ E. Tocat would appear to have lately declined rapidly in pop. and importance. The climate, by whom it was visited in the early part of last century, says it was then much larger than Erzeroum; and he estimated its pop. at 30,000 Turkish families, with 4,000 Armenian, and 300 or 400 Greek do., which, on the most moderate hypothesis, would make an aggregate of above 120,000 inhabs. We incline, however, to think, despite the high authority on which it is made, that this estimate must have been beyond the mark. At all events, the pop. was estimated by Klineer, in 1810, at only 60,000; and according to Mr. Brant, by whom it was visited in 1830, it was then reduced to a pop. of 6,790 families (between 35,000 and 40,000 individuals), of which 5,000 were Turkish, 1,500 Armenian, 300 Rosh. Cath., 50 Jewish, and 150 Greek. The position of the town is striking and singular, being built partly at the bottom, but principally on the declivities of two steep hills, on the side of the narrow valley in which it is situated. Tournefort says that the greater number of the houses, which are mostly of wood, have two stories; that the streets are pretty well paved, and that the springs rising in the hills on which the town is built are so numerous, that each house has its peculiar fountain. (*Lettres*, ii. 432.) According to the same distinguished authority, he was, at the foot of his visit, famous for its copper foundries, its Turkey leather, and its dye works; and was then also the centre of the commerce of Asia Minor. (*Lettres*, *ubi supra*.) But Mr. Brant states that the manufactures and, still more, the trade of Tocat, have greatly diminished; that its numerous khans are empty, and that it has no symptoms of activity. Owing to its situation, the climate at certain seasons is oppressively hot; and it is then, also, apt to be unhealthy. With the exception of the mosques, Armenian churches, and khans, it does not appear to have any buildings of consequence. The valley, for about 8 m. above the town is occupied by gardens and vineyards. According to D'Anville, Tocat occupies the site of the ancient *Berisa*. (*Tournefort*, ii. 431—433;

Klineer's Asia Minor, 356.; *Geographical Journal*, vi. 219. &c.)

TODMORDEN, a market-town and chapelry of England, partly in the par. of Rochdale, co. Lancaster, and partly in that of Halifax, co. York, 17 m. N.N.E. Manchester. Pop. 1841, 3,387. The inhabs. are principally employed in the manufacture of fustian, dimity, velveteen, and other cotton goods, with woollen fabrics similar to those manufactured at Halifax and Rochdale. The Rochdale Canal, which passes by Todmorden, has greatly promoted its prosperity, which appears to have increased rapidly within the last 20 years. (*Parl. Reports*, 1841, 1842.)

TOKAY, a town of Hungary, co. Zemplin, at the confluence of the Bodrog with the Theiss, 113 m. N.E. by E. Pesth; lat. $48^{\circ} 7' 12''$ N., long. $21^{\circ} 24' 4''$ E. Pop., 3,500. It has a cathedral, a Lutheran, a Reformed, and a United Greek church, a convent of Piarists, and one of Capuchins, and was formerly defended by a castle demolished in 1705.

Tokay derives its whole celebrity from its being the *cavepôt* for the sale of the famous sweet wine of the same name, made in the hilly tract called the Hegaly, or submountain district, extending 35 or 40 m. N.W. from the town. The Tokay is produced by allowing the grapes to become dead-ripe; the finest quality, or *aszu*, being that which flows from the grapes before they are trodden by the mere pressure of their own weight; the next quality (*aszu-brûlé*) is that which is obtained by treading the grapes, with the addition of a certain quantity of *must*, or juice derived from common grapes; the third and lowest quality (*maslas*) is that which is obtained by the application of a greater degree of pressure to the grapes, and the addition of a still larger quantity of *must*. When new, Tokay wines are of a brownish yellow muddy colour; which, when very old, changes to a greenish tint. The wine made in favourable seasons will keep for almost any length of time, and continues to improve with age. The best qualities are extremely rich and luscious, but cloying; and, unless very old, too sweet for palates accustomed to austere wines. The finest and oldest varieties of Tokay fetch immense prices, as much as 7 ducats a bottle having been paid for it! The best qualities are usually bought up for the imperial cellars; small quantities being sent as most acceptable presents to foreign princes and distinguished individuals. (*Aust. Nat. Assoc.*; *Henderson's Wine*, p. 228.)

TOLEDO (an. *Toletum*), a celebrated city of Spain, formerly its metropolis, in New Castile, cap. prov. of its own name, on the Tagus, 38 m. S.S.W. Madrid, lat. $39^{\circ} 53' 54''$ N., long. $4^{\circ} 49' 7''$ W. Pop., which in the 15th century is said to have amounted, though this, no doubt, is a gross exaggeration, to 200,000, is now reduced to about 15,000. It stands on a rocky hill, nearly environed by the river, and is encompassed by a wall flanked with about 150 small towers, built by the Moors. Internally, Toledo is acknowledged to be ill built, poor, and mean; with narrow, steep, and badly-paved streets. But Inglis says that, with the exception of Granada, its situation is the most striking of any in Spain. Its fine irregular line of buildings covers the summit and upper part of the hill, behind which, as approached from Madrid, the dark range of the Toledo mountains forms a majestic background. "Besides the numerous towers of its convents, churches, and stupendous cathedral—the metropolitan church of Spain—the outline is broken by other buildings of a more grotesque or more massive form; while, here and there, the still greater irregularity of the outline points to ages too remote to have left to modern times any other legacy than their ruins." (*Spain in 1830*, i. 252.)

Down to the recent changes by which, as already seen (*ante*, 711), the Spanish ecclesiastics have been stripped of the greater portion of their enormous wealth, the revenues of the archbishop and clergy of Toledo were immense; and the pop. of the city consisted principally, in fact, of priests and friars, and their dependants. The cathedral, founded in 587, is in the same style as those of Seville, Burgos, Milan, Siena, and Bologna. Swinburne says that it is not to be compared with many we have in England; but it has attracted the admiration of most other travellers; and Inglis says that, excepting the cathedral of Seville, it is the greatest and most magnificent of Gothic churches. (*Spain*, i. 304.) According to Twiss, it is internally 384 ft. (Engl.) in length, 191 in breadth, and 107 in height. It has a tower and spire, but the latter is said by Swinburne to be in the style of the Flemish and German spires, a heap of blue turrets piled one upon another. The roof is sustained by 86 columns, which divide the church into five aisles. The columns that run along the aisles are 45 ft. in circ. There are 68 painted windows; and surrounding the choir and the high altar are 156 marble and porphyry pillars. (*Twiss's Trav.*, 183; *Inglis*.) Its interior is elegantly, as well as most magnificently adorned. The choir is covered with carvings representing the conquest of Granada, executed by Borrugette, a pupil of Michael Angelo, and Philip de

Borgona; and among the paintings are (or at all events were) works by Rubens, Titian, Dominic Greco, Vanduyke, Guido, E. Caxes, Vincente Carducho, Bassano, and other masters of the first celebrity. The ceiling of the sacristy is painted in fresco, by L. Giordano, and has a picture of the Assumption, by Carlo Maratti. The pope and the king of Spain are always canons of this cathedral; and the revenues of its archbishop once amounted, it is believed, to little less than 100,000 a year! The gold, silver, and jewels, the plunder of Mexico and Peru, preserved in the church, mostly escaped falling into the hands of the French. The archbishop carried away the more valuable articles to Cadix; those that remained in their places being redeemed for the comparatively trifling amount of 90 arrobas, or 9,350 lbs., of silver. Townsend says, that the treasures of the cathedral struck him with astonishment; and in 1830, Ingils was told that their total value amounted to upwards of 40 millions of ducats, or 10,000,000 sterling! We have little doubt, however, that had the generally intelligent, but sometimes credulous traveller, inquired into the fact, he would have found that the *relics*, so precious in the estimation of the clergy, made up the far greater part of this enormous sum. We apprehend that any capitalist who should offer 1,000,000. for all the gold and silver that is at present, or that ever was in the cathedral, would make a very bad speculation.

The Alcazar, once the residence of the Moorish, and afterwards of the Castilian sovereigns, is the other principal edifice in the city. It is a noble pile of 3 stories, surmounted by a balustrade, and forming a square of 266 ft., as measured by Twiss. (*Trav.*, 184.) It is built chiefly in the Corinthian style. Composite orders, of the dark stone with which the Escorial is built. The N. and S. fronts were erected in the time of Charles V., the former by Covarrables and Vergara, and the latter by Juan de Herrera. When Toledo ceased to be the metropolis of Spain, the Alcazar was converted into a work-house, and it was subsequently employed for a silk manufactory, established by the archbishop; but it is now untenanted, and so utterly neglected, that in one of its extensive vaults underground Ingils encountered a party of wandering gypsies assembled round a huge fire.

Besides the cathedral, there are, or rather were, innumerable churches, monasteries, nunneries, and other religious buildings. Few, however, of these are worth notice. The Franciscan convent is, indeed, a fine edifice, and has a church built in the time of Ferdinand and Isabella. The late archbp. Lorenzana established a lunatic hospital at Toledo; built the modern edifice for the university, which in 1830 had more than 700 students, principally in jurisprudence; and founded a college for girls, each of whom is dowried, provided they do not go into a convent afterwards. There are several other colleges, numerous hospitals and asylums, a handsome town hall, two bridges over the Tagus, one originally a Roman work, bearing a Roman inscription, and terminated on one side by an arch with Corinthian columns; a mint, supposed to date from the time of the Romans, &c. There are a few pleasant promenades around the city, but the only public lounge in Toledo is the *Piazza Real*; and there, says Ingils, "at certain hours, particularly about 2 o'clock, it seems almost like a convent-hall of recreation, and a sacristy of a cathedral united; for canons, prebendaries, and curates, and 20 different orders of friars, are seen standing in groups, strolling under the piazzas, or seated upon benches, refreshing themselves with melons or grapes." But this square is half monopolised with blacksmiths' shops; and all the others are small, mean, and principally useful as market-places. The houses are mostly floored with brick, and are consequently dusty; and the Roman aqueducts being destroyed, water is sold about the streets, carried in small barrels on asses' backs. There is no public place of diversion of any kind: formerly there was a theatre, but it was suppressed by a royal order obtained through the head of the university. "Bull fights even are forbidden in this priest-ridden city: so that unless processions of saints, &c., are to be considered an amusement, the inhabs. have positively no resource but in the *tertulia*. Nowhere are Spanish customs seen more than in Toledo, and nowhere is the monotony of the *tertulia* more striking. The sole amusements are talking, or playing *baso* for a very low stake; and after a glass of *agua fresca*, the party separates. In Toledo, a certain circle agrees to form a *tertulia*: one house is selected where it is to be held, and the same individuals assemble at the same house, and at the same hour, every day throughout the year! This is Toledo society. No admixture of foreign, or even of modern innovation, is to be seen in Toledo. Men of all ranks wear the cloak; and the small round high-crowned Spanish hat is worn, not only by the peasantry, but almost universally by

persons of all classes. Among the women no colours are to be seen; black is the universal dress, and scarcely any one enters a church unveiled." (*Ingils*, l. 204, 295—305.) We must add, however, that morals are said to be more correct there than in almost any other Spanish city.

Toledo has, from a remote period, been famous for its manufacture of sword blades. The royal sword manufactory, which is of great extent, and about 3 m. from the city, is close to the river, which turns its machinery. It once employed many hundred hands; but, when visited by Ingils, in 1830, only 50 were employed, who finished about 6,000 swords a year. They work by the piece, and make usually about 100 reals (30s.) per week; some of the most industrious 24 reals more. The art of tempering the steel had, for some time, declined, but it has since revived. "The flexibility and temper of the blades are surprising: there are two trials which each blade must undergo before it be pronounced sound; the trial of flexibility, and the trial of temper. In the former, it is thrust against a plate on the wall and bent into an arc at least three parts of a circle. In the second, it is struck edgewise upon a leaden table, with the whole force which can be given by a powerful man, holding it with both hands. The blades are polished upon a wheel of walnut wood." (*Ingils*, l. 313.) In addition to its sword manufactory, Toledo fabricates church ornaments, a few woollens, for hospital use, with paper, guitar strings, coarse glass, &c., and has some dyeing and fulling works. Its general trade is very insignificant; and a few years since there was no conveyance, nor even a continuous road, between it and Madrid.

The origin of Toledo is lost in obscurity. After having belonged to the Carthaginians it became a Roman colony. Few traces of Roman edifices, however, exist, except part of an amphitheatre, and some scattered remains of the Roman walls. In 467, it was taken by the Goths, and became the cap. of their kingdom in Spain, till taken by the Moors in 714. Alfonso VI. and Rodrigo Diaz expelled the latter from Toledo in 1085; and, notwithstanding three vigorous sieges in the succeeding century, it has remained in the hands of the Spaniards ever since. Its decay dates from the removal of the court to Madrid, under Philip II. The celebrated Cardinal de Ximenes, regent of Spain during the minority of Charles V., was, for a lengthened period, archbishop of Toledo. (See *Dict. Géog.*; *Mifano, Géog. de España*; *Antillon*; *Suñerbarne*; *Twiss*; *Townsend*; *Ingils*; *Mod. Trav.*, xix. 80—86; &c.)

TOLOSA (an. *Iurisa*), a town of Spain, in Biscay, prov. Guipuscoa, of which it is the cap., on the Oria and Arajes, 13 m. S. by W. St. Sebastian. Pop., according to Mifano, about 5,000. It is placed in a narrow defile, surrounded by a pentagonal wall, flanked with towers, and entered by several gates. It is said to be handsome, and well built; the streets, which are furnished with footways, are clean, and lighted at night; and it is tolerably well supplied with water. Here are 2 parish churches, both fine buildings, 2 convents, an hospital, prison, post-house, a stone bridge across either river, with manufactures of arms, copper and earthen wares, woollen cloths, paper, hats, leather, &c.; three fourths of its inhabitants being artisans. (*Mifano*.) A large market is held on Saturdays. Tolosa is one of the 18 indep. towns in which the provincial assembly of Guipuscoa is held, one of the 4 alternately the seat of the high judicial court of the prov., and the place in which the provincial archives and military stores are kept. (*Mifano*; *Antillon*; *Ingils*, &c.)

TOMSK, a town of Asiatic Russia, cap. of the gov. of same name, on the Tom, a tributary of the Obi, 850 m. E. by S. Tobolsk. Lat. 56° 39' 6" N., long. 85° 9' 51" E. "It has nearly 2,000 houses, and from 8,000 to 10,000 inhabs. Here are workshops for exiles; coarse cloth, leather, and soap manufactories; barracks, public magazines, military and other hospitals; an orphan house, a dispensary, &c. There are a number of handsome houses in Tomsk, but the town is irregularly built, except the part that occupies a hill overlooking the river Tom and the country round. Next to Krasnojarsk, Tomsk is the cheapest and most plentiful spot in Siberia." (*Dobkoff's Trav.*, ii. 110.) Its principal buildings are the cathedral and another church, the tribunals, treasury (in which are the magazines of furs collected as tribute), and two convents. The inhabs. carry on a brisk trade with the Calmucks and Ostiaks, in cattle, furs, &c.; and the town is an emporium for distilled spirits and Chinese goods. It was founded in 1604.

The government of which Tomsk is the cap. is, with that of Tobolsk, under the authority of the Governor-General of W. Siberia. Since 1838, it has comprised a portion of the former government of Omsk; and is supposed to have from 1,000,000 to 1,100,000 inhabs. In 1846, no fewer than 1,263-83 pounds of gold were obtained from the different gold washings in this government. In its general features it is very similar to the more

* Townsend states, "the quadrangle is 160 ft. by 150 ft.; and with the great staircase, the gallery, and the colonnade, has an air of elegant simplicity."

southerly parts of the governments of Tobolsk, Yeniseisk, &c. (which see).

TONNEINS, a town of France, dep. Lot-et-Garonne, cap. cant., on the Garonne, 30 m. N.W. Agen. Pop., in 1836, ex. comm., 4,176; or inc. comm., 7,068. It is one of the best situated and most active towns in the dep., having a considerable trade in cordage, hemp, and dried fruits, and a royal tobacco factory. It is clean and well built, and communicates with the opposite bank of the river by a new suspension bridge. The esplanade, a good square, on the site of an old castle destroyed in the religious wars; the town-hall, a neat theatre, and some public baths, are worthy notices.

TOPLITZ (or *Toplitz*), a town and watering-place of Bohemia, circ. Leitmeritz, and next to Carlsbad, the most popular place of resort of its kind in Germany. It is pleasantly situated on the Saubach, a small stream in a valley between the Erzgebirge and Mittelgebirge mountains, 47 m. N.W. Prague. Its resident pop. amounts to little more than 2,700; but in the height of the season, in July and August, it is sometimes visited by 15,000 strangers. (*Murray's Handbook for S. Germ.*) More than 1-4th part of its houses are inns, and nearly all the rest are lodging-houses. The town is neat, and has been improved of late years by the addition of foot-pavements in the streets, and it is well lighted at night; but it has no buildings worthy of notice, except such as are connected with the baths. The principal baths are distributed in 4 distinct buildings; the Steinbad, Fürstenbader, Fürstliche Frauenzimmerbad, and the Herrnhäuser, or mansion of Prince Clary, the proprietor of the town. All these are in the *Bade platz*, or bath square. The Steinbad includes 3 baths, for the gratuitous use of the public; one for the men, a second for the wives and daughters of citizens, and the third for the female peasantry, &c.: the first and last are under ground, and vaulted over, and may be compared to large inundated cellars. In the same house are some very comfortable private baths, supplied directly from the source. The Fürstenbad and Frauenzimmerbad comprise a number of superior private baths; the first for gentlemen, and the second for ladies. In the Herrnhäuser, which was the usual residence of the late King of Prussia, when at Toplitz, there are many bathing apartments fitted up with great elegance; and attached to this mansion are some extensive and beautiful gardens, always open to the public, a theatre, &c. The baths in the Girdlerhaus also in the *Bade-platz*, the Jews' baths and others are supplied from the main springs. Without the town, and in the neighbouring hamlet of Schönau, are many baths of a lower temperature than in the town. In all there are about 90 private baths, which are in such constant requisition when Toplitz is full, that, by a strict regulation, no person is allowed to use a bath and dressing-room for more than an hour at a time, for which from 10 to 30 kreutzers are usually paid. The springs are saline, with a dash of iron; the hottest, or *Kauptquelle*, has a temperature of about 122 Fahr. It emerges from a porphyry rock, and so abundantly that its supply, per hour, has been estimated at 1,189,670 cubic feet of water. The waters of Toplitz are particularly esteemed in gout, and rheumatic affections, diseases of the joints, &c., requiring tonic treatment. The invalids of the Prussian, Russian, and Austrian armies are often sent here, and lodged in appropriate buildings. Of late years a pump-room has been established in the gardens of Prince Clary.

The hotels and lodging-houses are good and cheap. Dr. Granville says, "The living at Toplitz is, beyond comparison, cheaper than in any other watering place I have visited. A dinner at a *table d'hôte* without wine will cost about 1s. 3d. Apartments may be hired at one of the best hotels, consisting of a bed-room and sitting-room, for not quite a guinea a week." (*Spas of Germany*, 336.) Bathing is the chief occupation of the morning. The dinner hour is 1 or 2 o'clock; the afternoon is commonly spent in excursions; the evening in the theatre or the casino; but "except on ball nights, and on the occasion of some great concert, the town is buried in dead silence by 10 o'clock." Public gaming is not allowed; but it is alleged that gambling is, notwithstanding, extensively carried on. Toplitz was the seat of a diplomatic congress in 1813, and again in 1835. (*Granville*; *Spencer*; *Gleig*; *Austrian Nat. Encyc.*; &c.)

TOPSHAM, a market town and par. of England, co. Devon, hund. Wonford, on the Exe, where it is joined by the Clyst, 4 m. S.E. Exeter, of which it may be considered the port. Area of par., 1,740 acres. Pop. in 1841, 2,733. The town consists of several good streets; the Strand, in particular, at its S. extremity, has many respectable residences, and is inhabited by some families of good fortune. The church is built on an eminence overlooking the river. The living, a perpet. curacy, worth 277l. a year, is in the gift of the dean and chapter of Exeter. The chief business of the town is ship-building, and most of the inhabs. are connected with shipping.

The quay, which was originally constructed in the 14th century, is spacious and convenient; but from the corporation of Exeter (to which it belongs), neglecting to clean the channel of the river, vessels drawing more than 9 or 9½ ft. are unable to come up to it. (*Mss. Append. Rep. on Exeter*.) An active coasting trade is, however, carried on from Topsham. Markets on Saturdays; fair, first Wednesday in August.

TORBAY, a spacious bay of the English channel on the S.E. coast of Devonshire. It is of a semicircular shape, opening to the E., and nearly 4 m. across from Torquay or Rob's Nose its N. to Berry Point its S. boundary. Its shores at its mouth are on both sides formed by ramparts of rock, but between these, in the centre, at the bottom of the bay, the ground forms a vale, gently declining to the water's edge. Ships anchor all over the bay in 6, 7, 8, and 9 fathoms water. The ground is strong clay, and holds remarkably well. This spacious basin has frequently afforded shelter to the fleets of England, and is celebrated in history as the place where our great deliverer, William III., landed on the ever-memorable 5th of November, 1688.

TORGAU, a town of Prussia, Saxony, reg. Merseburg, cap. circ. Torgau; on the Elbe, here crossed by a covered bridge, 66 m. S.S.W. Berlin. Pop. about 6,500. It is pretty strongly fortified, is the seat of the principal courts, &c., for its circle; and has manufactures of woollen cloths and hosiery, leather, &c., with some trade in corn and timber. The vicinity of Torgau has been the scene of several conflicts. Of these, the most important took place on the 23d of November, 1760, when the Prussians, under Frederick the Great, forced, after a desperate resistance, the intrenched camp of the Austrian army, under Marshal Daun, and gained a decisive victory.

TORNEA, a town of the Russian dom., N.W. frontier of the Grand Duchy of Finland, on a peninsula in the river Tornea, where it falls into the Gulph of Bothnia, lat. 65° 50' 50" N., long. 24° 12' 15" E. Pop. from 500 to 700. This little town, which was built by the Swedes, in 1602, consists of the principal streets of wooden houses. It has a considerable trade in the exportation of stock-fish, rein-deer skins, furs, iron, planks, tar, butter, pickled salmon, &c. The climate is very severe, though less so, perhaps, than might be expected from its high latitude. In June the sun is visible at midnight above the horizon.

Tornea is celebrated in the history of science for the visit made to it in 1736, by the French academicians Maupertuis, Clairaut, Monnier, and Camus, accompanied by the Swedish astronomer Celsius, with a view to the determination of the exact figure of the earth. The operations do not, however, appear to have been conducted with sufficient accuracy; and there is a discrepancy of about 300 toises between the length of the degree as determined by the academicians and that measured by the Swedish astronomer Swanberg, in 1801. This town, along with the Grand Duchy of Finland, was ceded to Russia by Sweden, by the treaty of Frederickshausen, in 1809. (*Clarke's Travels*, ix. 342, &c., 8vo. ed.; *Schmidler, La Russie*, &c., p. 624; *Biographie Universelle*, art. *Maupertuis*.)

TORO, a town of Spain, in Leon, prov. Zamora, cap. intend.; on a hill, at the foot of which runs the Douro, crossed by a narrow stone bridge of 23 arches, 33 m. N.N.E. Salamanca. Pop. about 10,000. (*Milano*.) It is enclosed by old and dilapidated walls, and entered by 6 gates. The streets, though broad, and on a declivity, are dirty, and the houses indifferent. It has a collegiate, and 18 par. churches. It formerly had 13 convents, with 3 hospitals, a ruined alcazar, or Moorish castle, a palace belonging to the dukes of Berwick, barracks, a prison, &c. The inhabs. are principally occupied in the growing and trading in wine, but they have also manufactures of coarse woollen and linen cloths, brandy, and leather. Toro is of great but uncertain antiquity. It is famous in history for the victory obtained in its vicinity in 1476, by Don Ferdinand of Aragon, over Alphonso V. of Portugal; and for the collection of laws framed in 1505, and inserted in the Spanish statutes under the name of *Leyes de Toro*. (*Milano*; *Dict. Geog.* &c.)

TORONTO, formerly York, a town of Upper Canada, of which it is the cap., on the N. shore of Lake Ontario, towards its W. extremity, in lat. 43° 32' N., long. 79° 30' W. Pop., in 1845, 19,706. It was founded by Governor Simcoe in 1794, and was burnt by the Americans in 1813. In 1831 it had only about 4,000 inhabs. Its subsequent progress having been more rapid than that of any other town in Canada. It is now a handsome town, with spacious streets crossing each other at right angles; many of its buildings being of brick, to which timber is gradually giving place. The public edifices are well adapted to their purposes. Among the most imposing of the latter are the new courts of law, the offices for the legislature, the R. Catholic cathedral, St. George's church, the lunatic asylum, the college, &c. The garrison is

stationed about 1 m. W. of the town, where the entrance to the harbour is guarded by a battery and two block-houses. Toronto harbour, or bay, is formed by a long and narrow peninsula, stretching out to the S.W. for about 6 m., and terminating in Gibraltar point, on which a lighthouse has been erected. The bay is nearly circular, and about 1½ m. across; it has a considerable depth of water, and affords extensive and safe anchoring ground. (*Stevenson's Civil Engineering, &c.*)

Toronto is the seat of the superior judicial courts for the upper prov. The parliament of the latter was, also, in the habit of assembling here; and it is now, alternately with Quebec, the place of meeting of the united Canadian legislature.

Kingston, at the other extremity of Lake Ontario, on its N. shore, about 140 m. E.N.E. Toronto was the former cap. of Upper Canada, and though less central has been considered by many as more eligible than Toronto for this distinction. Pop. about 6,000. It has an excellent harbour, where ships of the line may lie close to the shore; and is also the site of the principal naval dockyard in the colony. It covers a considerable extent of ground, and many of its houses are of stone. It has the finest public building in Canada. It is of stone, and cost 90,000 doll.; it inc. a town hall, offices for the corporation, the Post office, news room, &c. Kingston is the principal entrepôt of the trade between the Upper and Lower prov.

TOROPETZ, a town of European Russia, gov. Pskof on the Toropa, 245 m. S. Petersburg. Pop. about 7,500. It is entirely surrounded by lakes and rivulets, and communicates by the Toropa with Riga, which renders it a place of some trade. It has 18 churches, including a cathedral, and 3 convents. A few of its houses are of brick or stone, but the major part are of wood, the streets also being paved with planks. On an island in the Toropa is a dilapidated fort. This town, under the name of Krivitch, is mentioned as early as the introduction of Christianity by Vladimir, about 990. It was the cap. of a republic, which lasted through the whole of the 13th century, by which in the 13th became subject to hereditary princes. Towards the end of the 15th century it belonged to the Poles, but it was retaken by the Russians in 1500. (*Schmidtler, &c.*)

TORRINGTON, a mun. bor., town, and par. of England, co. Devon, hund. Fremington, partly on the summit, and partly on the declivity of an eminence on the E. bank of the Torridge, here crossed by 2 bridges, 8½ m. S.E.E. Bideford, and 30 m. N.W. Exeter. Area of par., 2,640 acres. Pop. in 1841, 3,419. It consists principally of two parallel lines of thoroughfares, nearly 1 m. in length, connected by several short streets. The par. church, which had been mostly blown up by an explosion of gunpowder in the civil wars, was rebuilt in 1651; and in 1830, a new tower and octagonal spire were erected. The living, a perpet. curacy, worth 162½ a year, is in the gift of Christchurch Coll., Oxford. It has a market place surrounded by good houses, a neat town hall, places of worship for Baptists, Independents, Wesleyans, &c.; almshouses, a charity or blue-coat school for 32 boys, and various minor charities. Near the town is Stevenston, the seat of Lord Rie, which, but a canal in 1823, which skirts the hamlet of Taddipott, on the opposite side of the Torridge. At this hamlet is an hospital for the poor of the pars. of both Great and Little Torrington. A bowling-green now occupies the site of a castle erected on an eminence S. of the town in the 14th century. Torrington is watched during the winter months, but is not lighted; and its police is said to be very inefficient. It has a very indifferent jail. The chief occupation of the industrious classes is the manufacture of gloves, which is not confined to the town, but gives employment to many families of the surrounding district. (*Mess. Corp. Rep.*) Torrington and its neighbourhood were first settled by Philip and Mary: it is now governed by a mayor and 3 other aldermen and 12 councillors, who hold petty sessions every 3 weeks. Other courts formerly held have gone into disuse. Corp. rev., in 1847-8, 226½. Torrington sent mems. to the H. of C. down to the reign of Hen. VII., when it appears to have lost or relinquished the privilege. At the restoration, the earldom of Torrington was conferred on Gen. Monk; and it now gives the title of viscount to the Byng family. Markets on Saturdays; fairs, May 4., July 8., and Oct. 10., for cattle.

TORSHEK, or Torjok, a town of European Russia, gov. Tver, cap. distr., on the Tverza, 138 m. N.W. Moscow, lat. 57° 56' N.; long. 57° 55' E. Pop. about 12,000. (*Possart.*) It was nearly burnt down in 1767, since which it has been rebuilt with considerable regularity and with rather wide streets, and though its houses are still generally of wood, its public buildings are mostly of stone: the latter includes a cathedral and 30 other churches, 2 convents, a government house, normal school, orphan asylum, &c. It is famous for a holy spring, which attracts pilgrims from all directions. Being on the high road from Petersburg to Moscow, and having also the best inn on this road, it is a place of considerable name,

and has three large annual fairs. Its principal manufacture is that of saffron, or coloured and prepared Russia leather. A large traffic is carried on in shoes, gloves, and various articles of this material, embroidered with gold and silver; but the traveller had better be on his guard against imposition, as the dealers not only ask three times as much for any article as it is worth and they will take, but also endeavour to substitute articles made of sheepskin for the genuine leather, which is a preparation of ox hides. (*Schmidtler; Possart; Murray's Handbook, &c.*)

TORTOLA, one of the Virgin Islands, in the W. Indies, belonging to Great Britain, lat. 18° 27' N., long. 64° 34' 45" W., between St. John's and Virgin Gorda. It is about 12 m. in length by 3 or 4 in its greatest breadth. Pop., in 1844, 6,700; of whom, above 4,000 were blacks. This island consists of a range of hills rising in some places to the height of 1,600 ft., and encircling a spacious harbour, or basin; they are, for the most part, barren, rocky, and precipitous, and there is but one valley of any extent throughout the island. The town of Tortola is on the W. side of the harbour at the foot of these hills, which rise so close behind it that many of the houses are built within sea-mark, and consequently suffer from damp. The barrack and hospital for the troops are at the S.E. extremity of the town, and as they lie open to the trade winds, which blow across the harbour, they are not much incommoded by heat. But considerable sickness, particularly from fever, has been found to prevail among the troops at this period. (*Schmidtler's Report, &c.*) In 1831, the imports of sugar into the U. K. from Tortola amounted to 15,553 cwts., whereas, in 1849, they only amounted to 928 cwts. The value of the exports from the island sunk proportionally, or from 24,729£. in 1837 to 2,323£. in 1849!

TORTONA (an. *Dertona*), a town of N. Italy, in the Sardinian States, div. Alessandria, cap. prov. of its own name, at the foot of a hill crowned by a ruined castle, 13 m. E. by S. Alessandria. Pop., in 1838, 10,921. It was a place of considerable strength till dismantled by the French in 1796. It is the seat of a bishop, the seat of a court of primary jurisdiction, and has manufactures of silks, stuffs, &c.; and some trade in corn and wine. It appears from inscriptions to have been a Roman colony, under the name of *Julia*.

TORTOSA (an. *Dertosa*), a town of Spain, in Catalonia, on the N. bank of the Ebro, about 25 m. from its mouth, and 93 m. S.W. Barcelona. Pop., according to Mifano, between 10,000 and 11,000. It is defended by several outworks, and is divided into the old and new towns, both of which are walled. It is old and ill built, and has but one public fountain. The cathedral is near the river, and under the protection of the castle. The front is Ionic, with massive pillars, some of single stones; the choir is of Corinthian architecture; but the whole edifice is void of taste, and its interior is much overloaded with ornament. Townsend observed in the cloisters a chapel bearing indications of the most remote antiquity. The see of Tortosa is a bishopric, and was very rich. There are several par. churches, nine convents, a Latin school, hospital, public granary, &c.; but, next to the cathedral, the principal edifices are the bishop's palace, and the mansion of the Vall Cabra family. Tortosa is the residence of a military governor, the seat of an ecclesiastical court, &c., and has manufactures of earthenware, paper, and leather; a considerable trade in corn and silk, and an active fishery and coasting trade. Within a league of the city are some quarries of valuable marble, known as Tortosa Jasper. The *Aurera*, or plain of Tortosa, says Townsend, "is most delightful. Far as the eye can reach, you look down upon a plain covered with vines, olives, figs, pomegranates, apricots, mulberries, and all kinds of grain; and through this fertile vale you trace the meanderings of the Ebro, which is here wide and navigable." This tract is 10 m. long, and the village of a Roman *municipium* conferred on it by Scipio. On one occasion, during the wars between the Spaniards and the Moors, the women of Tortosa distinguished themselves so much, that in 1170 the military order of La Hacha, or the "Flambeau," was instituted for them. They also enjoyed several privileges, most of which are now lost; but it is said that in all matrimonial ceremonies they still maintain the right of precedence. (*Peyron in Mod. Trav. xviii.*) Townsend; Mifano.)

TOTNESS, a par. and mun. bor., town, and par. of England, co. Devon, hund. Coleridge, on the Dart, 9 m. from its mouth, and 30 m. S. by E. Exeter. Area of par. bor., which comprises the whole par. of Totness with the manor of Bridgetown, 1,411 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,240. The town, which is neat and clean, consists principally of one long street, that communicates at its E. extremity, by a bridge of three arches, with the suburb of Bridgetown, on the opposite side of the river. The town is finely situated, the main street gradually rising from the water till it reaches the site of the ancient castle, now a ruin, on an immense artificial mound, commanding an extensive view of the neighbouring country. It was anciently surrounded by a wall, and some of the

gateways still remain. The houses are old fashioned, some of them having piazzas, and their upper stories frequently projecting beyond the lower. But, with the exception of a few on the Plymouth road, all the modern buildings are in the Bridgetown division; and it is here that a further extension of the town may be looked for. (*Mus. Board. Rep.*) The church is a spacious, handsome structure, in the Perpendicular style, with a well-proportioned tower at the W. end, which has octagonal pinnacles and rich buttresses. In the chancel is a rich stone screen: it has also a stone pulpit, enriched with tracery and shields; but the altar-piece is Grecian, and does not correspond with the rest of the building. This church appears to have been rebuilt about 1432. The living, a vicarage worth 2004 a year, is in the gift of the crown. There are meeting-houses for Independents, Wesleyans, and Unitarians, an old guildhall and council-chamber, a small theatre, assembly-room, &c.

Judhael de Totnate, to whom the manor was given by William the Conqueror, erected the castle and also a Benedictine priory, which, at the dissolution, had a revenue of 1341. 10s. a year. It has numerous foundations, among which a grammar school, established in 1554, having an income of 704 a year. Totness had formerly a thriving woollen trade; but at present it has no manufactures. Many of the inmates are employed in agriculture, some in fishing, and some in navigation, the Dart being navigable to the town for small vessels. Warehouses have been built at Bridgetown, on the E. bank of the river, and many houses are building in the neighbourhood. The town has some trade in the importation of coal and other articles, and may, on the whole, be said to be improving. (*Mus. Corp. Rep. Append.*) It was first incorporated by King John; and is now governed by a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 12 councillors. It has no commission of the peace; but a court leet is held once a year, and petty sessions occasionally. Corporation revenue in 1849, 438l. The bor. has sent 3 mems. to the H. of C. since the 23d of Edward I., the right of voting, down to the Reform Act, having been in the corporation and freemen. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 362.

Among other distinguished individuals, Totness has given birth to Edward Lye, the learned author of the *Dictionarium Saxonico et Gothico Latineum*, 3 vols. folio, 1772, which, however, he did not live to see printed. It is, also, the birthplace of Dr. Kennicott, the Hebraist, to whom the learned world is indebted for a most elaborate and excellent edition of the Hebrew bible. In his younger days Kennicott was master of the grammar-school in the town.

TOUL, a town of France, dep. Meurthe, cap. arrond.; on the Moselle, here crossed by a handsome stone bridge of 7 arches, 13 m. W. Nancy. Pop., in 1846, inc. comm., 7,158. It is generally well built, and its streets have recently been macadamised. Its principal buildings are the cathedral, a fine Gothic structure of the 15th century; the town-hall, formerly the bishop's palace; the cavalry barracks and magazines, civil hospital, corn-hall, college, *education*, &c. Its manufactures comprise calicoes, muslins, woollens, hosiery, and earthenware. This town was anciently the cap. of the *Leuci* conquered by Cæsar. It was ceded by Charles the Simple to the Emp. Henry the Fowler, and was not definitively annexed to France till 1552. Baron Louis, Admiral de Rigny, and several distinguished generals, have been among the natives of Toul. (*Hugo, &c.*)

TOULON, a famous sea-port town of France, being the 2d, or, perhaps, since the conquest of Algiers, the 1st naval port in the kingdom; dep. Var. of which, though not the cap., it is by far the largest and most important town, at the bottom of one of the finest harbours of the Mediterranean, 32 m. E. S. E. of Marseilles, and 190 m. S. S. E. Lyons; lat. 43° 7' 10" N., long. 5° 55' 40" E. Pop., in 1846, inc. comm., 29,243, and inc. comm. 45,484; but in 1850, the pop. was estimated at 55,000; though this, probably, includes the garrison, and the *forçats* in the *bagne*. The town, which is of an oval shape, the longer side facing the sea, "rises gracefully and majestically towards the N., extending her ramparts to the foot of a chain of high mountains, stretching from the E. to the W. The position of the place would be picturesque and beautiful, were there the least verdure; but the rocks and mountains are arid, bare, and totally destitute of covering, or umbrage of any kind. The town is strongly fortified, being surrounded by a double rampart, and a large and deep ditch, defended to the E., W., and N., by hills covered with redoubts. Among the forts that of La Malgue (on a peninsula to the S. E.) is the most remarkable, not only for its extent, but the solidity of its construction. Latterly works have been in progress for uniting the town to this fortress, and a solid rampart with fosses has been already raised." (*Port. &c. of France*, 302-305.) Toulon divided into the old and new towns, both are tolerably well built, but the streets of the former are narrow and crowded, and all the squares, except one, are small and irregular. The new quarter, in which are

most of the naval establishments, is much superior in point of appearance. The principal street, the *rue de Lafayette*, which intersects the town in its whole extent, and is partially planted with trees, is the seat of the principal market, and is a scene of great bustle and activity. It terminates near the port in the *Place d'Armes*, a handsome square, planted with trees, one side of which is formed by the admiralty-house. The town-hall, facing the commercial port, with two colossal statues in front, by Puget, regarded as *chef d'œuvre*; the house occupied by that distinguished sculptor, the old cathedral, 3 other churches, the court-house, military arsenal, occupying an ancient convent, naval, military, civil, and founding hospitals, and a handsome communal college, are the other chief public buildings. Though on an arid soil, Toulon is well supplied with water, by springs from the mountains, and several of its numerous public fountains are ornamented with statues, &c. (*Guide du Voyageur*; *Hugo, &c.*) The suburbs are not only increasing, but, from the rapid augmentation of the pop., and importance of the place, of late years, it has been found necessary to add additional stories to the older houses. Since 1830, two new quarters have sprung up without the walls; one on the road north-eastward to Valette, and the other on the road westward to Ollioules. The latter is filthy, sordid, and abominable. It goes by the name of Navarin, and is chiefly occupied by the Genoese labourers, who occupy the same place in this that is occupied by the Irish labourers in most English towns. Owing to its situation at the foot of high bare hills that intercept the winds from the N., and reflect the sun's rays, the climate in summer is extremely hot. (*Port. &c. of France*.)

Toulon is the Brest of the Mediterranean, and may be looked upon as the Plymouth of France; though, since the construction of the breakwater in Plymouth Sound, the latter is superior, perhaps, as a roadstead to the inner road of Toulon. Both the old and new harbours are artificial. The latter, formed by hollow and bomb-proof jetties, running off from the E. and W. sides of the town, is sufficiently extensive to accommodate 30 sail of the line, as many frigates, and an equal proportion of small craft. The entrance is shut by a boom, and it is never ruffled by any wind to occasion damage. The outer sides of the jetties present two large batteries, even with the water's edge. The entrance to the inner road, on which the harbour opens, is between the *Grosse tour* on the one side, and Fort Eguillette on the other, about 630 fathoms apart: the road is a good deal encumbered with banks, and the anchoring-ground is, in part, foul and rocky; but in other places this is not the case, and altogether it is a very fine basin. The outer, or great roadstead, to the E. of the latter, bounded on the S. by the narrow peninsula, terminating in Cape Cépét, has deeper water and better anchorage than the inner, but it is open to E. winds, which sometimes throw in a heavy sea. The lazaretto stands on a secure cove, La Vèche, on the S. side of the outer road, with from 4 to 8 fathoms water.

The arsenal of Toulon is one of the finest in Europe. It occupies a surface of 354,140 sq. metres (87 acres), and has dry docks, and every accommodation for the construction, repair, and outfit of ships. In general, from 3,000 to 4,000 free workmen are employed within its walls; but in 1841, when unusual activity prevailed in all the French ports, there were between 5,000 and 6,000 labourers employed, exclusive of above 3,500 criminals.

The rope house, constructed by Vauban, is 1120 feet in length and 64 in breadth. The docks, slips, sheds, mast-house, sail factory, magazines, &c., are on a grand scale, though, as a ship-building port, Toulon has hitherto been inferior to L'Orient and Rochefort. A new arsenal meant as an appendage to the old, has been recently laid out. The dépôt of salt, which is the largest in France. The *bagne*, instituted in 1682, is a fine ward of room on shore, established on board some hulks: it is occupied by criminals condemned to hard labour for 10 years and under. The cost of each criminal amounts to very near 1 fr. a day.

The mercantile port, which is bordered by a fine quay, is shut off from the harbour, for men-of-war, by a line of dismasted vessels. (*Hugo*.) The imports consist chiefly of corn, flour, salt provisions, timber, &c., for the use of the naval establishments; and the exports, of oil, capers, figs, raisins, almonds, oranges, and other fruits, with cloth, hosiery, soap, &c., manufactured in the town. The trade of the port has hitherto been inconsiderable, but it has materially increased since the conquest of Algiers, and will probably continue to increase. In 1841 eight steamers were continually plying between Toulon and Africa, Corsica, Italy, and the East, and two small vessels to La Seyne. Toulon is the cap. of an arrond. and 3 cantons, and is the residence of a naval prefect, a commissary-general, and of numerous other government officers and foreign consuls; it has tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a board of customs, a college, schools

of hydrography and marine artillery, courses of geometry and mathematics, a society of arts, and an excellent naval museum, public library, government, pawn, and savings' banks, a theatre, with a stationary company, public baths, &c.

Toulon appears to have existed in the time of the Romans. In more modern times it was occasionally attacked by African corsairs, and to defend it from these incursions, Louis XII. commenced the erection of the Grosse-tour at the entrance to the inner road, which was finished by Francis I. Henry IV. commenced the construction of the old port, now appropriated to merchant vessels in 1594. But it is wholly indebted for its modern importance as a great naval port and a strong military position, to Louis XIV., who expended vast sums on its fortifications, and on the arsenal and harbour. It was unsuccessfully besieged by Prince Eugene in 1707. Having, in 1793, been delivered up by the royalists to the English and Spaniards, it was retaken by the republicans, after a siege in which Napoleon gave the first decided proofs of his extraordinary military talents. On evacuating the town the allies set fire to the magazines, and to the ships they were unable to carry off; the fortifications have since been thoroughly repaired, and several new works constructed, so that it is stronger now than ever, and if properly garrisoned would be all but impregnable. (*Porte and Arsenal of France; Hugo, Art. Var.; Guide des Voyageurs en France; Dict. Geog.*)

TOULOUSE, or RHOULOUSE (an. Tolosa), one of the principal and most ancient cities in the S. of France, dep. Haute Garonne, of which it is the cap., on the Garonne, at the junction of the canals of Languedoc and Briare with that river, 132 m. S.E. Bordeaux; lat. 43° 35' 46" N., long. 1° 26' 30" E. Pop., in 1846, ex. com. 71,496; or with com. 83,489. Ingis calls it a fine large flourishing place, situated in the midst of abundance, and containing many fine edifices, and remarkable objects (*Switzerland and the Pyrennees*, 219.); but, according to Hugo, Toulouse, before the revolution of 1789 was, *fort laide*, and is still far from being a fine town, notwithstanding all that has been done for its embellishment. It is very irregularly laid out; its streets, which are mostly narrow, crooked, ill-paved with rounded pebbles from the river, and dirty, form a complete labyrinth. Nearly all the buildings are of red brick cemented with had mortar, which, being blackened by age, gives the town a gloomy appearance: the older houses, and those in the lower quarters, consist of sun dried bricks, in frames of wood work, and are greatly dilapidated. But within the last 20 years the civic authorities have undertaken many improvements: *on enlargit, on redresse les principales rues; on pûtre ce qu'on ne peut redresser; on assainit ce qu'on ne peut embellir; on débâtit les anciennes places, on en fait de nouvelles; on jette à bas des constructions vicieuses, inutiles depuis la suppression des convents; on utilise des églises abandonnées.* (Hugo, *art. Haute Garonne.*) The shape of Toulouse is an irregular oval; the city comprises an island in the Garonne, and on that side is bordered by good quays; on other sides it has been till lately inclosed by walls, flanked with large round towers. But these are gradually disappearing; and their place is being occupied by good houses, and regular streets. Ingis says that he had not seen any provincial town in France with such extensive suburbs as Toulouse. The city communicates with the suburb of St. Cyprien, across the Garonne, by a massive free-stone bridge of 7 arches, built in the latter half of the 16th century, at the further end of which a modern triumphal arch has been erected.

The principal open space is the *Place du Capitole*, serving for the grand daily market, which, according to Ingis, is admirably supplied. This large quadrangle is ornamented at each of its four corners with a handsome fountain. The capitol, or town-hall, from which it derives its name, on its E. side, in the Ionic order, is nearly 100 yards in length. It is a several spacious halls; one is ornamented with the busts of the most distinguished natives of the city; and another, called the *Salle de Clemence Isaura*, has a marble statue of that distinguished lady, the great patroness of the "Floral Games." The theatre occupies one wing of the capitol; but it is badly planned and decorated. The other sides of the square are chiefly occupied by hotels and cafs. Several of the other squares are ornamented with fountains, and planted like the public promenades on the banks of the canals, and the Garonne.

Several of the churches are worth a visit. The cathedral is planned on a magnificent scale, but unfinished: the nave, which is the oldest part of the building, probably dates from about the 13th century. The most ancient church, that of St. Serrin, has been erected, according to Hugo, on the site of a very celebrated temple of Apollo: it is a heavy Gothic building, part being said to date from the 9th century, though the greater portion is much more modern, particularly the choir. Among its ornaments, if so we may call them, Ingis noticed a bas-relief caricature of Calvin, as a hog in

a pulpit preaching! and that there might be no mistake in the matter, the words, *Calvin le porc prêchant*, were inscribed below! This church is rich in relics presented by several popes, and other persons: it has a cupola supporting a lofty spire. The churches of La Daumade and Dalblade deserve mention: in the former Clemence Isaura is supposed to have been buried, and on the grand altar are preserved the golden flowers presented to the successful poets at the floral games. Toulouse is said to have had, at one period, 80 churches, but many have been converted to other purposes. One serves for the museum, in the picture gallery of which are some productions of the best masters of Italy, with a much larger number of copies; while in the cloisters attached is a fine collection of antiquities excavated near Martres, in 1827. The best modern building after the capitol, is the prefecture, formerly the archbishop's palace.

Toulouse was till recently ill supplied with water; but it is now amply provided with that great necessity, furnished to numerous public and private fountains from a handsome *château d'eau*, or reservoir. Among the other public buildings may be specified 3 large hospitals, the *Ponts-Jumeaux*, or double bridge over the 2 canals at their junction, the veterinary school, public slaughter-house, mint, new edifice for the royal court and tribunal of primary jurisdiction; the public libraries, containing together about 60,000 vols., school of artillery, barracks, arsenal, polygon, gunpowder and other large mills, &c. Toulouse is the cap. of the 10th military div. of France, and an archbishop's see. Previously to the Revolution it was the seat of one of the leading French universities; and it has now a university academy, with faculties of law, sciences, literature, and theology: it has also a royal academy of sciences, &c., societies of medicine, painting, arts, and agriculture, some of which grant prizes to successful candidates, after the example set at the floral games of old. The *Jardin des plantes* at Toulouse is the largest and finest in France after that of Paris. (*Guide des Voyageurs, &c.*)

The floral games, previously alluded to, appear to have been instituted in the early part of the 15th century. They were originally held on the 1st of May; and consisted of a trial of skill among the poets and troubadours of the vicinity, those who recited the best verses receiving the prize, which consisted of golden flowers. Clemence Isaura, the lady mentioned as the great patroness of these games, bequeathed, in 1540, the bulk of her fortune to the civic authorities, to be expended by them in fêtes and prizes at floral games, to be held annually in her house, on the 1st and 3d of May. These games were finally superseded by the creation of the academy of *belles lettres* in 1694, the directors of which gave prizes for the best papers.

Toulouse has manufactures of coarse woollen cloths, silks, gauges, printed cottons (*indianes*), cotton yarn, flax and steel wares, paper, wax lights, musical strings, and vermicelli, with dyeing-houses, distilleries, a cannon foundry, and a royal tobacco manufactory. It has also a large trade in the produce of the surrounding country, Spanish wool, and colonial produce. Ingis says, "The neighbourhood of Toulouse will be found one of the cheapest places of residence in Europe. Within the city, every thing is about one fourth part dearer than in its immediate vicinity, owing to the *octroir*. But in the markets held in the neighbouring villages, meat is sold at 3d. and 3d. per lb.; fowls are not more than 10d. a pair; a fine turkey costs but 2s. 6d. or 3s.; eggs, fruit, and vegetables are remarkably abundant and cheap; and wine does not exceed 1½d. per bottle. The country is thickly covered with country-houses; and one of these, furnished, and suitable for a small family, and with an excellent garden, may be had for 400 fr., or 15l. per annum."

Nothing is known of the origin of this city but that it is very ancient. It was the cap. of the *Tectosages*; and being taken by the Romans, in anno 108 p. c. it afterwards embellished it with numerous splendid edifices; but owing to the combined influence of time and the attacks of the barbarians, these structures have been almost wholly destroyed, so that some vestiges of the amphitheatre, and of a few other buildings, are all that now remain to mark the wealth and power of its Roman masters. It was successively the cap. of the Visigothic kingdom of Gaul and Aquitaine, and was thenceforward governed by its own feudal counts till 1271, when it was annexed to the crown of France.

Toulouse is principally celebrated in recent times for the sanguinary conflict that took place in its vicinity on the 10th of April, 1814, between the allied army, under the Duke of Wellington, and the French, under Marshal Soult. The allies were superior in point of numbers, but the advantage of position was on the side of the French. Notwithstanding a desperate resistance, the latter were driven from the Mont Rave, and obliged soon after to evacuate the city. The loss on both sides was very great, especially on that of the victors, who had 4,659 men killed and wounded: the French loss amounted to about

3,000 men. Unfortunately this was a useless sacrifice, as Napoleon had already abdicated; but, though the contrary has been stated, it is certain that Marshal Soult was wholly ignorant of the circumstance. (*Napier's Peninsular War*, iv. 639, &c.)

The inhabs. of Toulouse appear, even in the estimation of their countrymen, to be endowed with a very large share of that versatility which has been said, though, perhaps, without much foundation, to be a distinguishing trait in the French character. "Comme l'exécution n'est pas précédée chez le Toulousain d'un jugement réfléchi, si se livre malheureusement, avec trop de facilité, aux excès dont ensuite il a lieu de se repentir; ainsi, on le voit massacrer, en quelque sort avec joie, les Protestans lors de la St. Barthélemy, et durant les guerres du Calvinisme; le vertueux président Durants, à l'époque de la Ligue; les royalistes pendant la Révolution, et les patriotes à la Restauration: il accueille avec transport Napoléon durant son règne, et plus tard, avec le même enthousiasme, Wellington et son armée; il assassine ensuite le général Ramel, qui veut le sauver de l'anarchie: ainsi, il est toujours le jouet de la versatilité de son caractère, et de l'instrument le plus docile de toutes les scènes de barbarie auxquelles le poussent les hommes ardens qui veulent l'égarer." (*Dict. Géog.*)

Toulouse has given birth to many distinguished individuals, among whom may be specified Cujas, the greatest civilian of modern times, born here in 1590; Raymond, count of Toulouse, so celebrated in the first crusade; M. de Villele, late minister of France, &c. (*Martinière, Grand Dictionnaire, art. Toulouse*; *Hugo, art. Haute Garonne*; *Dict. Géog.*; *Guide du Voyageur*; *Ingis's Switzerland*.)

TOURNAY (Flem. *Doornik*), a town of Belgium, prov. Hainault, cap. arrond. and of two cantons, on the Scheldt, close to the French frontier, 45 m. W. S. W. Brussels; lat. 50° 38' 30" N. long. 3° 32' 17" E. Pop. in 1886, 38,919. Tournay covers nearly as much ground as Lisie, though so much less populous. Its former fortifications were demolished by the emperor Joseph II., but since 1814 it has been surrounded anew with military works, and has a good citadel. The Scheldt, crossed here by several flying bridges, divides Tournay into two parts, called the Old and New Towns: the latter is well built, and has a fine quay along the river, which forms a favourite promenade; but, excepting its historical recollections, the former has little to render it interesting.

The cathedral, a fine Gothic building, with five towers and spires, supposed to have been a bishop's see as early as the 5th century, was formerly richly adorned, but suffered greatly from the French revolutionary phrensy. The old abbey of St. Martin has been of late years levelled with the ground, to give place to the town-hall and public gardens. Few other buildings are worthy of notice; though there are several hospitals and asylums; including one for aged ecclesiastics, a court of primary jurisdiction, chamber of commerce, exchange, theatre, atheneum, academy of fine arts, episcopal seminary, many good private schools, a *mont-de-piété*, &c. Without the walls are several suburbs. Tournay is one of the most active manufacturing towns of the Netherlands, and must have been celebrated for its industry at a very early period, since it is mentioned in the *Notitia Imperii* of the 5th century as one of the fifteen towns in the empire having manufactures of woollen and linen yarn. At present, Vandermaelen states, that three-fourths of its pop. are employed in its various manufactures, and that from 12,000 to 16,000 looms are supposed to be employed in its commune. (*Dict. de Hainaut*.) Hoelery, calicoes, and linen fabrics, camlets, yarn of various kinds, waistcoats, and all kinds of articles of dress, with carpets, for which Tournay is deservedly famous, are the principal articles of trade; but large quantities of earthenware, bronze goods and hardware, cutlery, and other liguatures, are made; and there are numerous breweries, salt-refineries, tanneries, dyeing-houses, &c. Full-aged cotton-spinners get about 1 fr. 25 c. a day, working about 12 or 14 hours; but one-fourth part of the hands employed are children. Weavers get from 1 fr. 25 c. to 1½ fr. In the royal carpet factory, the workmen obtain from 2 to 2½ fr. a day, though there also many children are employed, who enter at 5 years of age. (*Hand-loom Weavers' Report*.) Tournay has various charitable institutions for the benefit of sick workpeople, for pensioning the widows of weavers, &c., and children are not suffered to be too laboriously employed. (See *Vandermaelen's Dict.*) The Scheldt, which is navigable to the town for vessels of 180 tons, is the principal channel for the conveyance to the town of coals, spices, dyeing materials, tobacco, deals, brandy, wines, and for the export of the manufactured goods, chalk, building stone, oil, &c., produced in the town and its vicinity. Tournay has probably experienced as many vicissitudes as any town in Europe. It is the *Civitas Nerviorum*, taken by Julius Cæsar, and has since belonged to an infinite number of masters, and been taken and retaken over and over again. (*Vandermaelen Dict. de Hainaut*; *Dict. Géog.*; *De Cloet*; *Parl. Rép.*)

TOURS (an. *Cæsaromagus*), a city of France, dep. Indre-et-Loire, of which it is the cap. It is surrounded by extensive and fertile plains, and is itself placed on the narrow tongue of land between the rivers Loire and Cher, close to the point of their confluence, 127 m. S. W. Paris. Lat. 47° 22' 46" N., long. 0° 41' 38" E. Pop., in 1846, 27,120. "Tours is well known as a favourite retreat of English absentees. Great part of the town is new; and the streets, several of which are spacious, and the houses clean, substantial, and many elegant, give it an air of ease, pleasure, and abundance, possessed by few other cities in France. The beauty of Tours has arisen since the Revolution, and has, indeed, sprung out of it, for great part of it has been rebuilt upon an improved plan." (*Ingis*, p. 352.) And, in fact, the older parts of the city still consist of narrow, crooked, and dirty streets, with mean and ill-built houses. It is surrounded by planted boulevards on the site of its ancient fortifications; it has 12 different entrances, and 5 suburbs. It communicates with the opposite bank of the Loire by one of the finest bridges in Europe, constructed chiefly between 1763 and 1777: it is of stone, level on the summit, 478 yards in length by 16 in breadth, and has 15 arches, each 264 yards in span. Over the Cher are two bridges, one of 17 and the other of 8 arches. From the bridge over the Loire a noble street, the *Rue Royale*, straight, spacious, bordered with footways, and lined with uniform buildings of freestone, intersects the town in its entire breadth, terminating on the S. in the *avenue de Grammont*, leading to the smaller bridge over the Cher. At the commencement of this street, close to the Loire, is a handsome square; in which are the town-hall and the departmental museum, new and symmetrical buildings, the latter containing upwards of 200 paintings. The cathedral is said to have been founded in the 4th century, burnt down in the 6th, rebuilt by Gregory of Tours, but again burnt down in the 13th century; after which its reconstruction proceeded so slowly that it was not completed till 1550. It has a noble front, flanked by two towers, built by Henry V. of England. Its interior, though not beautiful, is richly ornamented, and contains much stained glass, together with the mausoleum of the children of Charles VIII. A curious collection of MSS. is kept in this cathedral. The other churches are mostly small and gloomy, and possess little worth notice. The so-called Tower of Charlemagne is the only remaining portion of the abbey of St. Martin, destroyed in 1797, of which the kings of France used to be the abbots. The archbishop's palace is one of the handsomest in the kingdom; the prefecture, court-house, college, general hospital, exchange, theatre, barracks, prison, and a highly ornamented fountain in the market-place, are the other most conspicuous objects. This city is the seat of courts of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a chamber of commerce, council of prud'hommes, societies of agriculture, sciences, arts, &c.; and has courses of practical geometry, a library said to comprise 40,000 volumes, a cabinet of natural history, and botanic garden. It was here that Louis XI. established the silk manufacturers he invited out of Italy; and it was for a considerable period the centre of its silks; but it has long been far surpassed in this department by Lyons, which has secured the pre-eminence for the prosecution of the silk manufacture. Next to that of silk, which is carried on to a considerable extent, the manufactures of Tours consist principally of woollen cloths, carpets, and woollen yarn; but they are not extensive; and the trade of the city is chiefly in the retail supply of its inhabs. and visitors.

The promenades round Tours are charming; among these the elm-avenue is the most conspicuous; the quay is also pleasant. The environs of the city furnish the most agreeable walks; innumerable little paths lead in every direction through the fields, and among the knolls and copses of Tours, 30 years ago, was as cheap a residence as any place on the Loire; but as years advance, the prices of every thing, and particularly house-rent, has naturally followed the appreciation of Tours by the English. Immediately after the war, a large house, with every convenience, and a garden of two or three acres, might have been had for 300. a year; but this sum may now be more than doubled. Provisions are still moderate in price, and wood is less expensive here than in most other parts of France." Besides the English, Tours is much resorted to by French gentry, who, though in independent circumstances, are not rich enough to afford the expense of living in the metropolis. The castle of *Place les Tours*, built by Louis XI., where he principally resided, is about 1 m. from the city. It is constructed of brick; is imbedded in wood; and has a venerable appearance. In its chapel is a portrait of Louis, dressed in armour, taking off his helmet to the Virgin and Infant. (*Ingis*, p. 354.)

Among the eminent men to whom Tours has given birth, may be specified Cardinal Amboise, prime minister of Louis XII., and Rapin, the author of the much admired Latin poem, *De cultu Hororum*, and of several critical publications. Rapin has not forgotten to cele-

brate the praises of his native city, and the surrounding country.

—Ad cœnens letum rivis, et fluctibus oritur,
Prætorum immensus tractus, et æmœna secundum
Flumina, vitæque atroque ex illo collis:
Quid memorem viris opulentum mercibus urbem,
Et ædilia, et mores populi, quæm serica ferunt
Tractantem, scit cœli clementia blandum?
Adde umbra nemorosæ ætatis: et molle semper
Græniæ præta novo, et succum sive floribus horum.

Lb. l. line 459, ad de Broder, Paris, 1780.

Gregory, the poet, was also a native of Tours, and St. Gregory, hence called Gregory of Tours, was for a lengthened period bishop of the see.

Tours was anciently the cap. of the *Turonæ*, conquered by Caesar, anno 55 a.c. In the 8th century, it became the cap. of the 3d Lyonnaise. After many vicissitudes it fell into the hands of the Plantagenets; and formed a part of the English dominions, till 1204, when it was annexed to the French crown. (*Dict. Geog.; Hugo art. Indre-et-Loire; Guide du Voyageur.*)

TOUMEN, a considerable town of Asiatic Russia, gov. Tobolsk, of the Toura, 120 m. S.W. Tobolsk. Pop. in 1835, 9,913. It is situated in a fertile tract, and its inhabs. are said by Cochrane to be both wealthy and hospitable; though, according to Dobell, little can be said in favour of their morals. (*Travels*, li. 115.) In almost every house the manufacture of a coarse kind of carpeting sold all over Siberia is carried on; and its tanneries, which are more extensive than any others in the government, employ nearly 300 workmen, and produce goods to the value of more than 1,000,000 roubles a year. (*Journ. de St. Pétersbourg.*) In the neighbourhood are extensive forests, and vast quantities of mat, with carriages and various wooden articles, are made for exportation; besides which the town has a large trade in timber, tallow, hides, embroidery, vegetables grown in the vicinity, cattle, &c. It was the first town founded by the Russians in Siberia, having been built in 1586, on the site of a previous Tartar city called *Tchingis-Tors*, or "the town of Genghis." (*Cochrane; Dobell; Erman, Reise um die Erde; Journ. de St. Pétersbourg.*)

TOURNUS, a town of France, dep. Saône-et-Loire, cap. cant., on the Saône, here crossed by a bridge of 5 arches, between Macon and Chalon, 16 m. N.N.E. the former, and about the same distance S. the latter. Pop. in 1835, ex. comm., 4,480. It stands on a declivity crowned by the remains of a Benedictine abbey, which formerly possessed extensive privileges. It is clean, well-built, and has some good public edifices. Its trade is principally in corn, wine, and building stones, sent down the Saône to Lyons. (*Hugo, &c.*)

TOWCESTER, a market-town and par. of England, co. Northampton, hund. Towcester, on the Tow, here crossed by three bridges, 8 m. S.W. Northampton. Area of par. 2,790 acres. Pop., in 1841, 2,749. The town consists principally of three streets, at the union of the roads from Stony Stratford, Northampton, and Daventry. It stands on the ancient Watling Street, and was probably a Roman station. The church is a neat edifice, supposed to date from the 11th century. The living, a vicarage, worth 217*l.* a year, is in the gift of the bishop of Lichfield and Coventry. Here are chapels for various dissenting sects; a grammar-school, founded at the dissolution of the monasteries, and endowed with part of the revenues of a college dating from the reign of Henry VI.; several almshouses, &c. Markets on Tuesdays: fairs four times yearly.

TRAFALGAR (Cape), a promontory of the S.W. coast of Spain, prov. Andalusia, 25 m. N.W. Tarifa, in the strait of Gibraltar, of which, indeed, it forms the N.W. extremity, lat. 36° 10' 15" N., long. 6° 1' W. This cape, which in antiquity was called the promontory of Juno (*Junonis promontorium*), is low, and terminates in two points, the most easterly of which is surmounted by a round tower.

Cape Trafalgar is famous in naval history for the great battle fought in its vicinity on the 21st of October, 1805, between the combined French and Spanish fleet, under Admirals Villeneuve and Gravina, and the English fleet under Lord Nelson. The former had 33 sail of the line and 7 large frigates, while the fleet of the latter only amounted to 27 sail of the line and 3 frigates; but the superior skill and gallantry of the British admiral, and of his officers and men, far more than compensated for the nominal inferiority of the English fleet, and secured for the country the greatest naval victory recorded in her annals. No fewer than 19 French and Spanish line of battle ships were captured, and 4 that had escaped from the action were subsequently taken by Sir Richard Strachan; the other vessels that escaped into Cadiz being, at the same time, mostly rendered unserviceable. Unfortunately this great and decisive victory was not acquired without a very heavy loss. Nelson, who was mortally wounded early in the action, lived only to be made aware of the destruction of the enemy's fleet.

TRAJANOPOLI (called by the Turks *Orikovo*), a town of European Turkey, prov. Roumelia, sanj.

Gallipoli, on the Maritza, 45 m. S.S.W. Adrianople, lat. 41° 7' 30" N., long. 26° 10' 15" E. It is said to have a population of 15,000 inhabitants; is the see of a Greek archbishop, and has a considerable commerce; but it lies so much out of the routes usually resorted to by travellers, that we have but little information respecting it.

TRALEE, a parl. bor. and marit. town of Ireland, prov. Munster, co. Kerry, of which it is the cap., within about 2 m. of the head of Tralee Bay, near the Ballymullen river, 35 m. N.W. Cork. Pop. of parl. bor., which includes an area of 546 acres, in 1841, 11,363. Tralee is said to be an increasing, thriving town. At the close of the late war it was little else than a congregation of cabins; but now, to use the words of Mr. Inglis, "it has streets that would not disgrace the best quarters of any city; and these not streets of business, which it also has, but streets containing gentlemen's houses, or at all events, houses which no gentleman might be ashamed to live in. I have no hesitation in pronouncing Tralee altogether the most thriving town I have seen since leaving Clonmel; and in some respects it leaves Clonmel behind it. Its retail trade is extensive and improving, and many of the dealers are wealthy. As good shops are to be found in Tralee as in Cork; and the stock in many of them is very extensive. I was at Tralee on a market day, and I do not recollect to have seen a busier place. Independently of an extensive supply of country produce, there was a very abundant exhibition of all kinds of manufactured goods and apparel, and every shop in the town was crowded to the door. House rent is high here; higher, in fact, than in any English co. town. There is a spa in the vicinity a good deal resorted to for its medicinal situation is pleasant, and a number of pretty country houses have been erected in the neighbourhood." (l. 252, 253.)

The public buildings and establishments comprise a handsome par. church, two large Rom. Cath. chapels, a nunnery, to which an excellent school for girls is attached, several meeting-houses for dissenters, a new county court-house, "which is in every way a handsome and commodious structure," (*Inglis*), a fever hospital, a lunatic asylum, a county infirmary, infantry barracks for 600 men, two breweries, a distillery, &c. The town stands on the estate of Sir Edward Denny, who has thrown open the pleasure-grounds, attached to the castle in its immediate vicinity, to the inhab. Sir E. Denny is also patron of the living of Tralee, worth above 400*l.* a year. Exclusive of the girls' school, Tralee has a Catholic free-school, and other schools, two of which are subordinate to the board of Education in Dublin. It sent 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C., and since the union it has sent 1 mem. to the imperial H. of C. Previously to the Reform Act the right of election was nominally vested in the old corporation, dissolved by the act 3 & 4 Victoria, cap. 108; but it was, to all intents and purposes, a nomination bor.; and it is stated by the Boundary Commissioners, "that it has generally happened that the people of the town and their parliamentary representative were total strangers to each other; and it is a fact worth mentioning, that several intelligent and respectable persons, amongst whom was the provost himself, could not tell us the name of the present member!" Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 302.

The co. assizes are held here; and general sessions four times a year; and petty sessions on Tuesdays. It is, also, a constabulary and coastguard station. The Tralee workhouse was opened in 1844. Markets on Tuesdays and Saturdays: fairs May 3, Aug. 4, Oct. 9, Nov. 7, and Dec. 13. Post-office revenue, in 1849, 1,444*l.* The Provincial Bank, Bank of Ireland, and National Bank, have branches here. The town has 3 newspapers.

The port is included in that of Limerick. Owing to the shallowness of the water in the river, barges of more than forty tons were, till lately, loaded and unloaded at Blennerville, about 2 m. S.W. from the town, while vessels of greater burden were compelled to land and unload by means of lighters, at the Sampierie islands, in the bay, about 6 m. W. from the town. In the view of obviating this inconvenience, a ship canal, 15 ft. deep, has been cut from the bay to a basin adjacent to the town, where vessels of 300 tons may now load and unload. This canal has been of great service to Tralee. The value of the exports, which principally consist of corn and provisions, amounted, in 1836, to 42,318*l.* The shipping belonging to the port is quite inconsiderable, being under 1,100 tons. Customs' revenue, in 1849, 2,352*l.* Here is a Chamber of Commerce, a news-room, and several insurance offices.

It is a singular and not easily explained fact, that, notwithstanding all the proofs of prosperity found in Tralee and its vicinity, wages are extremely low, employment scarce, and the condition of the lower classes very much depressed.

TRANI, a sea-port town of S. Italy, kingd. Naples, prov. Terra di Bari, cap. cant. on the Adriatic, 26 m. N.W. Bari, lat. 41° 17' 5" N., long. 16° 25' 36" E. Pop. 12,000. It is surrounded by a bastioned wall,

with a fosse on the land side, and has a citadel, but is not a place of any strength. The streets, which are narrow and dirty, are flanked with ill-built houses, except round the port, where there are some private dwellings that would not disgrace the best parts of Rome. Its large cathedral, erected more than six centuries ago, is said by Swinburne to be in a very mean taste, with preposterous ornaments and clumsy pillars. Exclusive of the cathedral it has about 30 other churches, with 6 convents for monks (one of which, the monastery of St. Clare, is a magnificent structure), 2 nunneries, an orphan asylum, a large seminary, and a theatre, said to be inferior only to those of Naples. Tranl is the seat of one of the great civil courts of the kingdom, of a superior criminal court, of a civil tribunal for the prov., and is the residence of many old families. It labours under a great deficiency of spring water, so that the inhabitants are obliged principally to depend on rain water collected in cisterns. It exports corn, oil, sweet wine of good quality, figs, almonds, and other products of the vicinity. Some cotton stuffs are produced in the town, of cotton raised in the cant. The ramparts command a fine view both towards the interior and the sea.

The harbour, which is nearly encircled by the town, has naturally deep water, but owing to the accumulation of sand thrown in by the sea, and of the filth from the surrounding houses, it is so much filled up as to be accessible only to the smallest boats, while in summer the stench is intolerable. Of course, were it in the hands of a vigorous enterprising people, it would be very soon cleaned out. The few vessels that carry on the languishing trade of the town are obliged to anchor about 2 m. off shore, being laden by lighters.

In 1502 a contest took place under the walls of this town, between 11 French, and as many Spanish knights. The combatants fought till there remained only 6 Spanish and 4 French knights: the latter then alighted and defended themselves behind their horses, as behind a rampart, till night put an end to the contest. (*Swinburne's Two Sicilies*, i. 180; *Craven's Tour*, p. 92; *Rampoldi*, &c.)

TRANQUEBAR, a town and sea-port of Hindostan, belonging to Denmark, on the Comandool coast, surrounded by the British district of Tanjore, between two arms of the Cavery, 140 m. S.S.W. Madras, lat. $11^{\circ} 0' 15''$ N., long. $81^{\circ} 54' 30''$ E. Pop. of the town and its small territory about 20,000. Tranquebar is surrounded by bastioned ramparts faced with masonry, and at its S.E. angle is the citadel of Dansburgh, in which is an old castellated building, serving for the government offices, and having a light-house on its highest point. The town is small but very neat and clean, there not being a native hut or other mean structure within its walls. The principal streets may be called handsome, the whitewashed houses being of two or three stories, with little Grecian porticoes of three or four pillars projecting into the street, and windowed generally with rattan lattices. The government house, two Protestant churches and a Portuguese Roman Catholic chapel are in the town, the religious missions at Tranquebar are said by Malcolm to have greatly declined of late. (*S.E. Asia*, ii. 68.) There is no harbour in the Cavery for vessels of a larger class than boats, which have accordingly to anchor outside the surf in the bay. It has, however, some traffic by sea with Bengal, the Malabar coast, the Straits' settlements, Ceylon, &c.; it has also manufactures of salt, and cotton goods. The revenues are derived from the government share of the rice cultivation, the sale of arrack, tobacco, fish, oil, &c., and the customs, but they are scanty. (*E. I. Gazetteer*, &c.)

TRANSYLVANIA (Germ. *Siebenbürgen*, Magy. and Slav. *Erdély*, an. *Dacia Mediterranea*), the most E. prov. of the Austrian empire, comprised between the 45th and 48th degs. N. lat., and chiefly between the 22nd and 26th E. long., having Hungary on the N. and W., and on the E. and S. Moldavia and Wallachia, from which it is separated by the main chain of the Carpathians. It is of a square shape; greatest length and breadth about 140 m. each. Area estimated at 20,400 sq. m. Pop., in 1838, 3,066,900. (*Bergkau, Allg. Länder*, &c.) Most part of the surface is covered with ramifications of the Carpathian mountains, which rise in Mount Bukhest, near Kronstadt, to nearly 8,700 ft. in height: these, however, give place in the N. to the valley of the Szamos, in the centre to that of the Maros, and in the S. to that of the Aluta. All these rivers, of which the Maros is the principal, rise in Transylvania, and have, more or less, a W. course, the general slope of the country being towards the W. The first two are tributaries of the Theiss, the last joins the Danube in Wallachia: the banks of all, and particularly the Maros, are densely wooded (whence the modern name of the prov.), and possess considerable picturesque beauty. It is in general well watered, and in the S. are some extensive marshes. As the country at large is rather an elevated table land, the climate is cold, though in most parts healthy. The soil is of very various qualities; the

mountains are generally granitic or calcareous, but the plains and valleys are often very fertile, and, notwithstanding the backwardness of agriculture, a surplus of corn over the quantity required for home demand is generally produced. Wheat, barley, oats, rye, buck wheat, and maize, most kinds of pulse, potatoes, and garden vegetables, are cultivated; wine is one of the leading products of the country; in the orchards apples, pears, plums, apricots, almonds, mulberries, chestnuts, &c., are grown; and tobacco, hemp, flax, saffron, and clover, are ordinary crops. The lands are, in general, held under a feudal tenure, as in Hungary, except in the Saxons-land, which division of the province is by far the best and most industriously cultivated.

Transylvania is divided principally among three distinct nations: the Magyars, the Szekler, and the Saxon, each of which has a share in the government of the country. They inhabit different districts: the Magyars (with the Wallachs) occupy the whole W. and centre; the Szeklers the E. and S.E.; and the Saxons the greater part of the S., with a portion of the N.E. (*Paget*, ii. 390. and Map.). The first occupy at least 3-6ths of the entire principality, of which Clousenberg is the cap., and the Szeklers and Saxons about 1-6th each; Maros-Vasarhely being the chief town of the former, and Hermanstadt of the latter. With these races are intermixed a number of Poles, Gypsies, Jews, Armenians, &c. We subjoin a statement, which is probably not far from accurate, of the number of the different races of people inhabiting Transylvania, and of the numbers attached to the different religions:—

Races of People.		Religions.	
Magyars	500,000	Roman Catholics	450,000
Wallachs, &c.	1,000,000	United Greek	200,000
Szeklers	200,000	Orthodox	200,000
Saxons	300,000	Calvinists	300,000
Poles	-	Lutherans	300,000
Gypsies	40,000	Unitarians	80,000
Jews, Greeks, Armenians, &c.	80,000	Others and all other sects	60,000
Total	2,060,000	Total	2,060,000

The Magyars and Wallachs have been already described (*ibid.*, p. 4, 5, &c.). The Szeklers, termed by the Latin writers of the Lower Empire, *Siculi*, are probably the descendants of a barbarian horde that had settled in the province during the decline of the Roman power. The Magyars, on entering the country in the 10th century, finding the Szeklers cognate with themselves in features, language, character, &c., left them in the undisturbed possession of the lands they had inherited, on condition of their guarding the Magyar frontier on that side. They were not even rendered tributary, and to this day the Szeklers hold themselves to be noble born, free, and equal. But in the lapse of centuries many changes have crept into their condition. "The richer and more powerful have gradually introduced on their own estates the system in operation in other parts of Transylvania, and the peasant and the seigneur are now found in the Szekler-land as elsewhere. Titles, too, and patents of nobility have been freely scattered through the country; taxation, also, and the forcible introduction of the border system instead of the deulatory service of former times, have made great changes. As almost all these changes, however, have been introduced without the consent of the people, and often by the employment of open force, they are still regarded as illegal by the Szeklers, who are consequently among the most discontented of any portion of the Transylvanians." (*Paget*, ii. 390, 391.)

The Saxons appear to owe their origin to a colony transplanted thither from the Rhine by one of the sovereigns of Hungary in the 12th century. They live under a count, or chief, who, like their clergy, is elected by themselves; and they enjoy freedom from tolls within their district, and other important privileges. "One of the fundamental laws of the Saxons is the equality of every individual of the Saxon nation. They have no nobles; no peasants. Not but that many of the Saxons have received letters of nobility, and deck themselves out in all its plumage; yet, as every true Saxon will tell you, that is only as Hungarian nobles, not as Saxons. Their municipal government was entirely in their own hands; every village chose its own officers, and managed its own affairs, without the interference of any higher power. But a few years ago, a great and completely arbitrary change was made in this institution; the effects of which have been to deprive the Saxon communities of the free exercise of their privileges, and to deliver them into the power of a corrupt bureaucracy, over which they have little or no control. The Saxons, however, are a slow people, and though they have long complained, they have scarcely ever ventured to demand a restitution of

* The religions of the sects thus marked are tolerated only, whereas the others are established, by government.

their rights. Hitherto they have been among the most certain adherents of the crown: they have rarely joined the liberal party. They preserve, for the most part, the dress, language, habits, &c. their ancestors brought with them from Germany. For the rest, the Saxons are undoubtedly the most industrious, steady, and frugal of all the inhabs. of Transylvania; and they are consequently the best lodged, best clothed, and best instructed." (*Ibid.* li. 428-433, &c.)

The peasants of Transylvania are in a more depressed condition, and much more ignorant, than those of Hungary. Among the greatest evils of which the Transylvanian peasant has to complain, is the want of any well-defined code of laws which he may refer to. The peasant land, too, has never been classed, as in Hungary, according to its powers of production; nor has the size of the peasant's portion, or *sef*, been accurately determined. The amount of labour, therefore, cannot be fairly and legally proportioned to the quantity and value of the land. Nor is the amount of labour itself better regulated. In some parts of the country it is common to require two days a week; in others, and more generally, three are demanded; and in some the landlord takes as much as he can possibly extract out of the half-starved serfs settled on his estates. It is rare that the peasant's cottage has more than two rooms, sometimes only one; his furniture is scanty and rude, his crockery coarse, and those little luxuries which in the Hungarian denote something beyond the indispensable are rarely seen in Transylvania. The ignorance of the Transylvanian peasant is often intense; and he is generally superstitious and deceitful: these qualities are most conspicuous in the Wallachs, but the Magyars are by no means free from them. Schools are extremely rare. The peasants belonging to the Greek church are undoubtedly the most ignorant; those of the Unitarian and Lutheran churches the best educated.

"We had remarked," says Mr. Paget, "throughout the Szekler-land generally, a better state of cultivation and greater signs of industry than in most other parts of Transylvania. But the Saxon-land, on the Aluta, appeared like a garden in comparison even with the former. The whole plain seemed alive with ploughs and harrows, and on every side teams were moving about, manure was spreading, and the seed was being scattered abroad with a busy hand. The most startling feature in the picture was the very active part taken by the women. Some were sowing corn, others using the fork and spade, others holding the plough, and others driving the team." (*Paget*, li. 311-316, 426-428.)

Transylvania may hereafter rank high as a wine growing country: it abounds with declivities of a rugged or volcanic soil. No less than 1.9th part of its present pop. is dependent on the culture of the vine; all the gentlemen, and even superior tradesmen, grow their own wines. The mode of making them is very ill understood; but there are several superior kinds of wine produced, mostly in the valleys of the Maros and its tributaries. They are in general white, well flavoured, and full bodied. The highest price in an ordinary year of the better sorts is about 1s. the cister (16 bushels).

The rearing of horses and other live stock is one of the most important branches of national industry. In the Szekler mountains a small wiry horse, similar to the Welsh pony, appears to be indigenous; but, for improved breeds, no less than 60 celebrated studs are said to exist in this small territory, 20 of which have probably a greater or less infusion of English blood, the English breed and modes of treatment of horses having been introduced of late years. Buffaloes, scarce in Hungary, are common here. The sheep, which are long-woolled and curly-horned, are sent into Wallachia to graze in the winter. The oak, beech, &c. forests, which are estimated to cover nearly 3,940,000 acres, feed large quantities of hogs.

Her mineral produce is a principal source of the wealth of Transylvania. There are numerous gold mines in the country, and almost every stream and river is auriferous; the annual produce of gold is estimated at from 2,000 to 2,500 marcs, and of silver 5,000 marcs. (*Aust. Nat. Encyc.*) The gold mines of Zalathna, in the basin of the Maros, are supposed to have been wrought ever since the time of the Romans; and those round Nagy Bany are certainly of that age. From the latter, and some other mines, the ore is sent off monthly to Kremnitz, to be smelted. Gold-washing in Transylvania is almost monopolised by the gypses. Government grants a gypsy band the privilege of washing the sands of a certain brook, on condition of their paying a yearly rent, which is never less than 2 ducats of pure gold per head for every washer. A gypsy captain settles this matter with the government, and is answerable for the rest of the tribe, from whom he collects the whole of their earnings, which he re-divides among them, after paying the tribute. (*Paget*, li. 384, 385.) Iron, lead, copper, antimony, arsenic, mercury, in the form of cinnabar, &c. are also found in Transylvania; and the mines of Isckarem are

the richest in tellurium of any in Europe, and those in which metal was first discovered. Marshal Marmont states that coal, of very good quality, is found in some parts; but it is not made use of. Salt is much more important: rock-salt abounds at Maros and Szamos-Ujvar, &c., about 600,000 centners being annually produced, which, excepting about 20,000 centners consumed in the neighbourhood, is wholly exported to Hungary. The miners work from 3 to 11 A. M., and get about 10d. a day. The centner of salt is delivered at the pit's mouth for about the same sum, and sold in Transylvania at 24 flor. or 7s. the centner. The greater part, however, is sent by the Maros to Siegedin at an expense of 10d. more each centner, and sold there at 7½ guilders or 15s. the centner. The E. of Transylvania is supplied from mines in the Szekler-land, where Paget (li. 395.) says he saw an entire hill of salt. This bill, in consequence of the strict monopoly exercised by the government over the article, was surrounded by guards to prevent the peasants from stealing the salt! Alum, sulphur, saltpetre, sulphate of soda, and many crystals and inferior kind of gems, are found in the prov.

Except those of woollen, cotton, and some other fabrics in Cronstadt, Hermanstadt, and other parts of the Saxon-land, few manufactures are carried on to any great extent. Woollen and linen stuffs, cotton fabrics, &c., hats, leather, shagreen, potash, earthenware, paper, and gunpowder are made in different places; the clothing of the peasants being generally of domestic manufacture. Some forges, breweries, and vinegar factories are scattered over the country; but woollen, silk, and linen fabrics, jewellery, hats, glass wares, &c., are principally imported from abroad, in return for salt, corn, cattle, horses, hogs, hides, wax and honey, timber, metals, and other raw produce. The trade is mostly in the hands of the Greek and Armenians; and, as yet, little facility is afforded for commerce with Hungary and Wallachia. Retail tradesmen, who sometimes have large dealings with Pesth and Vienna, will give money on bills, or transmit considerable sums for a per centage; but there is not one regular banker in the whole country! (*Paget*, li. 477.) The Maros and Szamos are navigable, and are the chief routes for the conveyance of goods. The roads and bridges are every where in the most wretched state; and, except in a few towns, inns are unknown.

Transylvania sends deputies to the Hungarian diet; but has also a diet of her own, composed as follows:—"Every co. and free town sends its members: the Magyars about 46, and the Szeklers and Saxons 18 each. The Catholic church sends 3 mems., representatives of abbeyes; the Catholic and United Greek bishops claim each a seat also. Besides these are the *Regalists*. Some of these are nominated by the crown for life; others, as the lords-*lieutenants*, privy councillors, and secretaries, have seats in virtue of their office. The number of *regalists* is said to have been limited to 89 by Maria Theresa; but this regulation has been grossly infringed, the present number exceeding 200! A governor, aided by a privy council, secretaries, and others corresponding with the Transylvanian chancery at Vienna—in other words, acting under the direction of an Austrian minister—constitute the executive body, whilst the legislative is formed by a diet to be held every year. The appointment of the executive is vested jointly in the diet and the crown, the former nominating for every office three individuals from each of the received religions, from among which twelve the crown appoints one. Besides the *candidation* of the executive, the duties of the diet may be said to consist in the making and altering of laws for the internal government of the country; the voting supplies of troops; the levying, but not voting, the contribution; and the conferring the *indignité*, or right of citizenship, upon strangers." (*Paget*, li. 273-275.)

Magyar Transylvania is divided into 11 counties (3 of which, in the N., have been lately annexed to Hungary); the Szekler-land into 5, and the Saxon-land into 9, *stuhls*, besides some subordinate districts. The government of the Magyar counties and Szekler *stuhls*, and of the towns, is nearly the same as in Hungary: that of Saxon Transylvania has been already noticed. In the cap. of each co. and *stuhl* is a court of primary jurisdiction, subordinate to the Transylvanian chancery at Vienna.

A band or zone of country along the S. and E. frontier, with a pop. of about 140,000, forms the Transylvanian military frontier. Here are maintained two Wallach and two Szekler infantry border regiments, and one regiment of Szekler hussars. The inhabs. of this tract are subject to the Austrian military frontier laws. (*See* SLAVONIA, *ante*, p. 695, 696.)

The majority of the clergy, and particularly the Wallach priests of the Schismatic Greek church, are little superior to the peasantry in point of education. Those of the United Greek church are better educated, having a gymnasium, and normal school at Balassava, and enjoy the same general privileges as the clergy of the Rom. Cath. faith, which is that most favoured by the

government, and entitled to the tithes in case of dispute. The great body of the Protestant clergy is also derived from the poorer classes of society; and its members, during the period of their education, are commonly maintained by the lord of the village to which they belong, till sent to college. Besides 6 gymnasia, the Calvinist church has 4 superior colleges; one of which, that of Enged, stands higher for general education than any other college in Transylvania, and has an annual revenue of 1,000*l.* from funds deposited in the Bank of England. (*Paget*, ii. 386.) The Lutherans have a college at Cronstadt, and 7 gymnasia. The government of the Reformed churches in Transylvania is somewhat like that of the Presbyterian church of Scotland, and is described at length by Mr. Paget, ii. 487, 488.

The Unitarian is an established religion only in Transylvania; where it was introduced by the Polish queen of Zapolya I. in the 16th century, and for some time continued to be the religion of the court. The Unitarians include all the Poles with some of the Magyars and Seklers, and reside chiefly in the Sekler-land, where they have about 100 churches; they have a college at Klausenburg, and 2 gymnasia elsewhere.

"The habits of society in Transylvania, in many respects, differ little from those of England about the end of the last century. In some of the old-fashioned houses almost a patriarchal simplicity is kept up. The houses of the richer nobles are large and roomy, and their establishments are conducted on a scale of some splendour. It is true that they are deficient in many things which we should consider absolute necessities; but, on the other hand, they exhibit many luxuries which we should consider extravagant with twice their incomes. It is no uncommon thing, for instance, in a one-storied house, with a thatched roof and an uncarpeted floor, to be shown into a bedroom where all the washing apparatus and toilet is of solid silver. Bare whitewashed walls and rich Vienna furniture; a lady decked in jewels which might dazzle a court, and a handmaid without shoes and stockings; a carriage and four splendid horses, with a coachman whose skin peeps out between his waistcoat and inexpressibles,—are some of the anomalies still to be found in Transylvania." (*Ibid.* 318, &c.)

This principality had been connected with Hungary for many centuries previously to the conquest of that country by the Turks, after which it threw off its allegiance, and became a quasi-indep. kingdom, alternately tributary to Turkey, or under the influence of Austria, to which latter empire it was annexed by Joseph II. in 1699. Since this period it has enjoyed comparative tranquillity. Of late years a vigorous opposition has grown up in the diet, and in 1838 government was obliged to recall the archduke Esde to the diet. The diet, in 1839, Transylvanians the election of the president of the diet, the free publication of debates, &c. (*Paget's Hungary and Transylvania*, 2 vols., the best work by far that has appeared on those countries; *Austrian Nat. Encyclop.*; *Berghaus*; *Marmont, Voy. en Hongrie*, &c., i. 105—132.)

TRAPANI (an. *Drepanum*, from *Σεισάρα*, a scythe, the tongue of land on which it is built being curved in the form of that instrument), a sea-port town of Sicily, cap. prov., dist. and cant. of same name, on a projecting point of land on the W. coast of the island, 46 m. W. Palermo, the light-house on Colombaria rock, at the mouth of the harbour, being in lat. 38° 2' N. long. 12° 30' 18" E. Pop., in 1831, 24,735. It is a military post of the second class, being surrounded by a wall and bastions, with ravines in good repair, and covered by a glacis. The harbour, on the S. side of the town, is protected by Sigla fort, at the extremity of the tongue of land on which the city is built, the fire of which is crossed by that of a battery on Colombaria rock. The castle, in the N. angle, though unworthy of the name, is the residence of the governor, and other military authorities. The streets are regular, and the town commodious and pretty well built. The cathedral and senatorial palace are fine edifices. It has many convents and nunneries, and nearly 40 churches, with 2 hospitals, a college, 2 seminaries, a well-conducted *monte-di-pieta*, and an oratorio. The church of San Lorenzo is said to be "a simple and majestic specimen of correct architecture." Despite the number of its priests and friars, its inhabs. are said by Captain Smyth to be industrious and enterprising, and to afford the best artisans and sailors of the island. It has produced excellent scholars, painters, and architects, and the art of engraving on gems, which had been lost during the dark ages, was here recovered, and brought to perfection by Masartelli: indeed, the inhabs. are now principally distinguished as sculptors and carvers of coral, amber, wood, shells, rings, and alabaster. "To the W. of the town is a well-designed but still unfinished promenade. The marina forms a good walk under the line wall. The harbour is said to have been much damaged by the great earthquake of 1642; but though small it is secure, and might be easily enlarged. It has a tolerably good mole, on which is the

pratique office, accessible to vessels of 300 tons, vessels of larger burden anchoring near the Colombaria, in 5 or 9 fathoms water, muddy bottom. Water is conveyed to the town by an aqueduct from the foot of Mount San Giuliano (an. *Eryz*), a little to the N.E. of the town. See GIULIANO (SAN).

The trade of the town is very considerable. The *salines*, a little to the S.E., are the most extensive of any in the island. The salt, which is of good quality, costs about 8*s.* a ton, and is largely exported. The Transians carry on the coral fishery on the coast of Africa to a considerable extent; and the cutting and polishing of coral is one of the principal branches of industry carried on in the town. Besides salt and coral, the exports comprise soda, alabaster, rough or cut into vases, statues, &c., and a variety of other articles. In 1839, the port was entered by 114 foreign vessels, of which 73 were Austrian, and only 2 English.

Excepting vestiges of the mole formed by Fabius to join Colombaria to the continent, 2 mutilated lions' heads, that grace a fountain, and some fragments of marble, there are no remains of antiquity here, though coins of Drepanum have been occasionally found. (*Smyth's Sicily*, p. 237, &c.; *Macgregor's Report on Sicily*, &c.)

Drepanum is very ancient. It is represented by Virgil as having been visited by *Æneas*, and as the place where Anchises breathed his last. (*Æneid* iii. lin. 707.) It was early occupied by the Carthaginians; and from its advantageous position and excellent port, was considered by them as of the first importance. During their struggle with the Romans it was the scene of frequent contests. Of these the most celebrated was the great sea-fight, anno 237 B.C., between the Roman fleet under the consul Claudius Pulcher, and the Carthaginian fleet under Asdrubal. The latter gained a complete and decisive victory, with comparatively little loss on their part. (*Polybius*, lib. i. cap. 4.)

TRAVANCORE, a state of Hindostan, subsidiary to the British, and forming the S. extremity of the Indian peninsula, between the 8th and 10th degs. of N. lat., and the 75th and 78th degs. of E. long., having the Malabar fish districts, Tinnevely and Dindigul, N. Cochlin, and on other sides the Indian Ocean. Length, N. to S., about 140 m.; breadth, 60 m. in the N., and gradually diminishing to 20 m. in the S. Area estimated at nearly 4,600 sq. m., and pop. at somewhat less than 1,000,000. The surface, which is varied with hill and dale, rises in the E. into a mountain chain, covered with forest trees and jungle. It is well watered, and highly adapted, by its climate, &c., to the wet cultivation, and rice is grown in large quantities; besides which, pepper, cardamoms, cassia, and ginger, turmeric, betel nut and cocoa nuts, are among the chief vegetable products. Tobacco is principally imported from Ceylon, and is a government monopoly, from which the rajah is stated to derive a revenue of 18 lacs of rupees a year. (*Colbrooke in Revenue Rep.*) Elephants, buffaloes, and large tigers inhabit the more remote parts, and ivory, bees' wax, and some other valuable animal products are among the exports. Indications of coal are said to be met with.

According to Col. Munro (*Evidence*, 1832), the whole of the land belongs to the government, or to individuals; village institutions being rare, or rather wholly wanting in Travancore. The land is assessed on the ryot-war system, a fresh survey having been made under the native government, every 10 or 12 years. Though the country is poor, the inhabs. are said to be less impoverished than in many parts of the E. I. Company's territories, the land-tax being less heavy. Lands, the property of the government, are assessed according to the quantity of seed sown on them, and the rent, in general, amounts to less than half the produce: lands, the property of individuals, pay, in many cases, under 3 per cent. on the produce. The lowest of the land-tax was formerly compensated for to the native government by the monopolies of pepper, betel, cardamoms, and other valuable products, which the inhabs. were obliged to supply to the state at very low prices. Most of these monopolies were destroyed, and replaced by a more equitable system of taxation, while the country was under the administration of the British. Except, however, as respects the lightness of the land-tax, the native government of Travancore was most oppressive. There was a chain of officers from the *dewan* to the lowest inhabs., exercising all the powers of government, military, judicial, civil, revenue, without any check or control whatever; and besides this, several of the subordinate classes, subject to a capitation-tax, were formed into companies of about 100 men each, under a separate officer, and obliged to perform all kinds of work for the benefit of the government at the pleasure of the revenue servants. Under the British, this chain of revenue servants was abolished with the capitation-tax, and the various monopolies, except those of pepper and tobacco. At the same time, however, the land-tax was increased, a circumstance which in so far counterbalanced the other

improvements. In 1814, the country reverted to its former authorities, and since then, the old order of things is said to have been in a great measure revived.

Travancore, being an integral portion of the anc. Malabar, the prevailing usages and customs are generally similar to those which prevail along the adjacent parts of the W. coast of Hindostan. The sovereignty of the country, honorary dignities, and even property, descend in the female line, as in Canara, &c. The ruling family is Hindoo, and the principal part of the pop. consists of Brahmins and Nairs; but there are also many Mopla (Mohammedans), and it is estimated that, in Travancore and Cochín, there are 100,000 Syrian Christians. In some communities, Christian churches are considerably more numerous than pagodas or mosques. The Travancore rajah, about the middle of last century, subdued most of the smaller states in his neighbourhood, and extended his dom. to their present limits, but, in 1790, these would have fallen a prey to Tippeco Saib but for our intervention. The first subsidiary treaty with the British was entered into in 1809. Travancore furnishes to the Anglo-Indian army a contingent of 3 battalions of infantry, and 8 lacs of rupees a year to the Indian treasury. Total revenue, in 1836-37, 40,42,645 rupees: expenditure, including subsidy, 37,68,292 rupees. Principal towns, Trivandrum, the cap., Anjengo and Quilon; Travancore, the former cap., is now in a state of decay. (*Port. Reps.*, &c.)

TREBIZOND (an. *Trapezus*), a city and sea-port of Asia Minor, on the S.E. coast of the Black Sea, 120 m. N.W. Erzeroum: lat. 40° 1' N., long. 39° 44' 52" E. Pop. variously estimated at from 15,000 to 30,000. The town is built on the slope of a hill declining to the sea, and backed by steep eminences rising behind. Its central portion is surrounded by a castellated and lofty wall; on either side of the walled portion is a deep ravine, filled with trees and gardens, both ravines being crossed by bridges. Overlooking the town is a citadel; but it is dilapidated and neglected, and commanded by neighbouring heights. The walls of the city are, however, sufficiently strong to serve as a defence against troops without artillery. The space included within the walls is of great extent, but it is principally filled with gardens and plantations. The houses, which are mostly built of stone and lime, and roofed with red tiles, have in general only a ground-floor, and as each is environed by a garden, the town from the sea has the appearance of a forest, scarcely a house being visible. The walled city is solely inhabited by Mohammedans; the Christians live outside the walls (principally in the eastern suburb), where are also most of the bazars and khans. Besides nearly 20 churches and chapels, still retained for the service of the Greeks and Armenians, almost all the mosques have formerly been Christian churches. The handsome mosque is that of St. Sophia, 1 m. W. of the city. "It is of small dimensions, built of hewn stone, in the form of a cross, and divided into a nave and 2 aisles, lighted from a cupola supported by 4 marble pillars. The principal entrance is adorned with 4 white marble Corinthian columns: the Roman eagle is conspicuous over the gate; below it are numbers of small reliefs, and a beautiful cornice runs round the exterior of the edifice." (*Kinnaird's Asia Minor*, p. 337.) Several of the other mosques and churches are in the same style; but the most curious edifice in the city is the *bezesim*, a huge square structure with two small windows in each front, probably erected by the Genoese as a powder-magazine. (*Id.* p. 341.) A high square tower and the massy remains of many other buildings crown the eminences near the mosque of St. Sophia; but none of these, nor any other remains at Trebizond, are of an age anterior to the Christian era, and Mr. Hamilton regards all the existing ruins, called Genoese by the Turks and Greeks, as clearly Byzantine. (*Geog. Journ.*, vii. 42.)

Trebizond has two ports; one on either side of a small peninsula projecting from the town into the sea. That on the E. is the best sheltered, and is the place of anchorage for the largest ships. It is exposed to all but S. gales; but it does not appear that with ordinary precaution any danger need be apprehended. The ground from 4 to 4 m. E. from the point is clean, and holds extremely well. Ships moor with open hawser to the N. and a good hawser and stream-anchor on shore as a stern-fast. At night the wind always comes off the land. After the autumnal equinox, the Turkish and European vessels resort to Platana, an open roadstead, about 7 m. to the W. of Trebizond. (*Com. Dict.*; *Brant*, in *Geog. Journ.*) In antiquity, and in more modern times previously to the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks and the exclusion of all foreign vessels from the Black Sea, Trebizond was the seat of an extensive trade. It is the natural emporium of all the countries to the S.E. of the Black Sea, from Kars on the E., round by Diarbekir to Amasia on the W. Previously to 1830, however, its trade had dwindled to the export of a few products of the country to Constantinople, the import of iron from Tagaurog, and a traffic with Abessah, carried on in small craft, which

carried away salt, sulphur, lead, and Turkish manufactures; bringing in return the raw productions of the Caucasus, slaves, &c. But the treaty of Adrianople, by opening the Black Sea to European ships, restored the old channel of communication between Europe and India, Persia, &c. through Trebizond; and the Russian policy of 1831, by putting an end to the immunities enjoyed by the Russian ports S. of the Caucasus, has given Trebizond an importance it did not previously possess. Its principal articles of import are manufactured cottons, mostly from Great Britain, sugar, coffee, rum, salt, tin, wine, &c. More than half the articles imported are destined for Persia; and while, in 1830, only 5,000 bales of European merchandise passed through Trebizond on their way to that country, in 1835, nearly 20,000 proceeded by the same track to the same destination. (*Brant*.) The exports to Europe consist of silk, sheep's wool, tobacco, carpets, shawls, galls, and drugs of various sorts, box-wood, nuts, &c., with some wax, honey, and beans to Constantinople; but all in comparatively trifling quantities. Rich veins of copper and lead exist in the neighbouring mountains, but they are badly, if at all, worked; but as the export of timber and corn is no longer prohibited by the Turks, it is not so difficult as formerly to obtain return cargoes.

This city was originally founded by a colony from Sinope, but subsequently outstripped its parent city, and all its sister ports along the coast, in wealth and importance. It was a flourishing emporium when it was reached by Xenophon, and the ten thousand at the close of their memorable retreat. It continued to be an important city of the Greek empire till the subjugation of the latter by the Crusaders; when its duke of the Comneni family assumed the dignity of emperor. His dominion extended from Sinope to the Phasia, and his family reigned for more than 350 years, till Trebizond came into the possession of the Turks in 1460. (*Smith and Dwight, Researches*, &c. 454-458; *Geog. Journ.*, vi. vii.; *Kinnaird's Asia Minor*; *Com. Dict.*, &c.)

TREGONY, a market town of England, co. Cornwall, hund. Powder, par. Cuby, on the Fal. 16 m. S.W. Bodmin. Area of the par. of Cuby, 2,410 acres. Pop. in 1831, 1,392. This insignificant place would not have been worth notice in a work of this kind, but for the circumstance of its having sent 3 members to the H. of C. from 1599 down to the passing of the Reform Act, when it was most properly disfranchised. The right of election was in potwallopers residing within the bor. The pop. is almost exclusively agricultural.

TRENT (an. *Tridentum*), a town of the Tyrol, but within the natural limits of Italy, on the Adige, which is here crossed by a fine bridge, 14 m. N.N.E. Roveredo, lat. 46° 6' 26" N., long. 11° 2' 49" E. Pop. 13,000. It is seated in a small but beautiful valley; being, however, from its elevation, exceedingly cold in winter, and, from the reflection of the surrounding mountains, equally hot in summer. It is surrounded by a pretty lake, which is well built with houses in the Italian style, has well-paved though irregular, narrow, and dirty streets, and a square ornamented with a handsome fountain. The palace belonging to the old prince-bishops of Trent, in a corrupt Gothic style, is of large dimensions, has some good apartments, fine fresco paintings, rare marbles, and extensive gardens. It has also a cathedral and several other churches; in one of which, Santa Maria Maggiore, the famous council held its meetings. In 1805, the roof of this church fell in, and we have not learned whether the original picture representing one of the sittings of the council, with portraits of its more distinguished members, that belonged to this church, escaped being destroyed. (*Rampoldi*, iii. 1945.) It has also three convents for monks, and a nunnery, a large hospital, an orphan asylum, a lyceum with several professors, a gymnasium, &c.; with manufactures of silk and other fabrics. It is one of the seats of the transit trade between Germany and Italy; and exports wine, corn, tobacco, and iron, produced in the surrounding country.

This town, which is very ancient, became, in the middle ages, the cap. of a lordship under its bishops, by whom, in 1363, it was united to the Tyrol, in which it has since been comprised. The bishopric was secularised in 1803; but the bishop is still in the enjoyment of a handsome revenue. Under the French it was the cap. of the dep. of the Upper Adige, and is now the seat of the government of the circle of the same name. (*Marcel de Serres, Voyage de Tyrol*, ii. 362; *Eustace*, i. 102, 8vo. ed., &c.)

But the celebrity of Trent is entirely owing to its having been selected as the place of meeting for the famous general council of the church, convoked by Pope Paul III., and which, after much procrastination, met for business on Dec. 13, 1545, and continued, though with several interruptions, through 25 sessions, till 1563, under three successive pontiffs. It consisted of dignitaries of the church, representatives of the different universities, and of ambassadors from the princes and states attached to the communion of Rome. It was intended to revise, fix, and declare the doctrines of the

church, to remove the abuses that had crept into its government, and the conduct of its functionaries, —

— *secoursere legatis*

Legatus, et vices revocare in prius moros.

and, if possible, to restore peace and unity to the church. It may be said to have fully accomplished the first object, and, in some degree, also, the second; but, as might easily have been foreseen, it wholly failed in the third object, or in the attempt to smooth the differences and allay the violent struggles and animosities that then divided and agitated the Christian world. The constitution of the council, indeed, and the commanding influence which the papal legates early acquired over its deliberations, deprived it of all pretence to the character of an impartial tribunal, and fully justified the Protestants in repudiating its authority and rejecting its decrees. The latter were subscribed by 255 legates, cardinals, archbishops, bishops, and other dignitaries, and have been generally admitted to contain, along with the creed of Pope Pius IV., a complete, authoritative, and well-digested synopsis of the principles and doctrines of the R. Catholic religion.

The intrigues of which this council was the theatre have been developed with singular talent by Sarpi, in his famous *History of the Council of Trent*. But as Sarpi was the implacable enemy of the court of Rome, and has dexterously endeavoured to show that its pretensions were almost always unfounded, and its advocates in the council almost always in the wrong, his conclusions, or, rather, the conclusions drawn by the reader from his statements, are not always to be depended on. The history of Sarpi, though an able and ingenious, cannot be said to be an honest or trustworthy work. Tiraboschi cautiously says of it, "*To son ben lungi di sostenere, che gli si debba credere ciò ch' ei racconta, solo perché egli il racconta!*" (*Lettatura Italiana*, viii. 131., edis. Modena, 1793.)

Tamw, a river of England, being next to the Thames and Severn, by far the most important stream in that part of the U. Kingdom, not only on account of the length of its course, but of the fertile districts through which it passes, the immense number of canals with which it communicates, and the considerable rivers it receives in its progress.

It has its source near the Cheshire border, in the moorlands of Staffordshire, about 4 m. N. from Burslem. At first its course is nearly E.E., when it makes a sudden turn by the E. to the N. near Burton-on-Trent. It afterwards divides Leicestershire from Derbyshire; and pursuing a N.E. course, by Nottingham to Newark, it turns more and more to the N. After dividing Nottinghamshire and Lincolnshire, and passing Gainsborough, it enters Lincolnshire at Oat Stockwith; and flowing N., with a little inclination to the E., unites with the great estuary of the Humber, at a place called Trent-falls. It may be navigated by vessels of 300 tons as far as Gainsborough, and by barges as far as Burton-on-Trent, a distance of about 117 m., having in this lengthened course a fall to low-water mark of only 118 ft., or very near a foot per mile. From Burton-on-Trent to its source, the rise of the river is about 376 ft.; at least, the summit level of the Caldon canal, which passes near the head of the Trent, is 494 ft. above the sea. (*Priestley's Map of Canals*, &c.)

Of the subsidiary streams that fall into the Trent, the most considerable are the Blythe, Tame, Dove, Derwent, and Soar; but of these it is only necessary to notice the last two. The Derwent rises in that part of Derbyshire called the High Peak; after passing Matlock, Cromford, and Derby, it has a circuitous course from the latter to Wilden Ferry, where it unites with the Trent. It is navigable as far as Derby about 13 m.; but it has been superseded as a channel of communication, by the Derby canal. The Soar rises E. from Winkley, in Leicestershire, it flows through a rich grazing country, and more than half encompasses the ancient town of Leicester. After receiving the Wreake, its course is N., with a little inclination to the W., till, passing Loughborough, it falls into the Trent near Cavendish Bridge. It is navigable to near Loughborough, a distance of about 7 m.

The canals that communicate with the Trent are of the greatest importance: assisted by them, it affords an easy means of export for the manufactures of a large district of Lancashire; the salt of Cheshire; the produce of the Potteries of Staffordshire; the coal of Derbyshire; and the agricultural products of Nottinghamshire, Leicestershire, and Lincolnshire. It also opens a communication with the sea by way of Lincoln and Boston; through which channels, as well as the Humber, the articles above enumerated are conveyed; and, in return, the interior of the country is supplied, either by Hull and Gainsborough, or Boston and Lincoln, with such commodities as are required by an immense population. (*Priestley's Treatise on Rivers, Canals*, &c. p. 681.)

TRENTON, a town or city of the U. States, state New Jersey, of which it is the cap., though not the

largest town, co. Hunterdon; on the Delaware, at the head of the sloop-navigation, 30 m. N.E. Philadelphia, lat. 40° 18' N., long. 75° 48' W. Pop., in 1840, 4,026. It is regularly laid out, and well built; the state house, prison, various churches, the bank, and several cotton factories, are among the most conspicuous buildings. The river is here crossed, immediately below the falls, by a covered wooden bridge, 1,000 ft. in length. The Delaware and Raritan canal passes through the town; and Trenton communicates with New Brunswick by a railway 27 m. in length. (*American Almanac*, 1841.) It is famous in the history of the American revolution for the victory gained over the British and Hessians, Dec. 26, 1776, by the troops under Washington, whose decision and intrepidity on the occasion materially promoted the progress of the Revolution. (*Essey Geog.*, Amer. edit.; *Saunders's America*, i. 382.)

TREVES (Ger. *Trier*), a city of the Prussian dom., prov. Rhine, cap. of a reg. of the same name, on the Moselle; near its confluence with the Saar, and near the frontier of Luxembourg. 60 m. S. W. Coblenz, lat. 49° 46' 37" N., long. 6° 58' 20" E. Pop., in 1838, 14,941. Streets broad and straight; and some of the public buildings are imposing. Among the latter may be specified the cathedral, remarkable for its altars and marble gallery; the church of St. Simeon, of great antiquity; the elector's palace, now turned into barracks; the bridge over the Moselle, 630 ft. in length, the piers of which are supposed to have been built in the 28th year of the Christian era; the gate of Mars (*Porta Martis*), of colossal dimensions and great antiquity, &c. Its ancient university was suppressed in 1734, but it has a college or seminary for the education of Catholic clergymen, a gymnasium, a collection of medals, and a public library, both of which belonged to the university; the latter comprises above 80,000 vols., many of which are scarce and valuable; it has also several hospitals, and a theatre. It is the seat of the government, has a prov. council, a tribunal of appeal for the prov., a tribunal of commerce, &c., with manufactures of linen, woollen, and cotton stuffs. Boats for the navigation of the Rhine are built here; and it has a considerable trade in Moselle wine, &c.

Treves is, perhaps, the most ancient, and was long the most celebrated, of the German cities. A Roman colony was planted in it during the reign of Augustus; and thence it was called *Augusta Treverorum*. From that period it became a place of great importance, and was reckoned one of the bulwarks of the empire on the side of Germany. Constantine the Great and several other emperors occasionally resided in Treves. Ammianus Marcellinus calls it *Dominicium principum clavam* (lib. 15. c. 27). Ausonius, in his poem *De Cleris Urbibus*, celebrates its praises, and notices the extensive commerce it carried on by the Moselle. Besides the bridge, the *Porta Martis*, &c., other remains of buildings that still exist, and many coins and relics found in the town and its vicinity, attest the power and splendour of its Roman masters. Beyond its walls are the ruins of an amphitheatre, cut in the side of a hill, where Constantine is said to have exposed some thousand Gauls to be torn by wild beasts. Treves was successively laid waste by the Huns, Goths, Vandals, and Franks, and as often rebuilt. It was for a lengthened period the cap. of the archbishopric or electorate of Cleves. Latterly the pop. has increased considerably; though there is little probability that it will ever recover its ancient fame and importance. (*Cellarii, Notit. Orbis Antiqui*, i. 317.; *Schreber*, &c.)

TREVISO (an. *Trivisium*), a town of Austrian Italy, prov. Venice, cap. deleg. of its own name; on the Biè, 16 m. N. by W. Venico. Pop. in 1837, 11,596. It is irregularly built, and is surrounded by old walls. Most of the streets are wide and well paved, with colonnades in front of the houses; and there are numerous palaces and religious structures. The old cathedral of St. Peter, a fine though unfinished structure, has in it a painting by Titian, and others by P. Bionconi (a native of Treviso), Domenichino, &c. The Gothic church of S. Nicolo, the town house, and theatre, are good buildings; and in the *monete di pietà* is a fine picture by Giorgione. Treviso is a bishop's see, and has an episcopal seminary, gymnasium, public library, botanic garden, several hospitals, a castle, theatre, &c. The university, afterwards removed to Padua, was first established here. A large hardware factory, an extensive pottery, and manufactory of silk twist and stuff, woollen cloths, paper, and cutlery, with some trade in corn, wine, cattle, fruit, &c., occupy most part of the inhabs. A large fair is held each year, and is said to be the 8th of October. This town appears to have been a Roman *metropopolis*. Under the Lombards, it was the cap. of one of the two marches or margraviates which they established on the confines of their kingdom in Italy (Ancona having been the cap. of the other). Under the French it was the cap. of the dep. Tagliamento. Napoleon conferred the title of Duke of Treviso on Marshal Mortier. (*Bianpoldi*; *Aust. Nat. Encyc.*)

TREVOUX (an. *Trivier*, or *Trivisium*), a town of

France, dep. Ain, cap. arrond. on the declivity of a hill, on the Saône, 18 m. N. Lyons. Pop., in 1836, 2,329. It was formerly surrounded by walls and towers; and, on the summit of the hill on which it is built, are the ruins of its old castle, commanding a most extensive view over the surrounding plain. It has an antiquated appearance, with narrow streets, and mean-looking houses. Having been formerly the cap. of the principality of Dombes, and the seat of a parliament, courts of justice, a mint, &c., it has still to boast of some considerable ancient edifices, including the hall in which the parliament meet, the hall of the courts of justice, a hospital founded by Anne Marie Louise D'Orleans, a quay on the Saône, &c. It has, also, a tribunal of original jurisdiction; a cloth manufactory; a royal establishment for the refining and assay of gold and silver; and some trade in the products of the surrounding country. It is very ancient. The emperor Severus defeated, *canno* 197, his competitor Albinus under its walls.

Trevoux has attained to considerable distinction in literary history. Louis Auguste de Bourbon, prince of Dombes, endeavoured to make it a sort of literary capital, and in this view, he established, in 1686, a considerable printing-office in the town, in which he also intended to found a college. And not long after, or, in 1701, the well known and very learned monthly publication, entitled the *Journal de Trevoux*, conducted by the Jesuits, began to issue from this press; where it continued to be printed till 1734, when it was transferred to Paris. Here, also, appeared, in 1704, the first edition of the *Dictionnaire de Trevoux*, in 2 vols. folio. There were several subsequent editions of this valuable work, most of which, however, were printed and published in Paris. Of these the last and best edition, in 1771, was so much enlarged as to comprise 8 vols. folio. (*Hugo, art. Ain; Moreri, art. Trevoux.*)

TRICALA or TRIKHALI (an. *Tricca*), a town of European Turkey, cap. of the prov. of same name, identical with the an. Thessaly, on the E. side of a mountain ridge, 2 m. N. from the Selymbria (an. *Pencus*), and 37 m. W. by S. Larissa. Pop. estimated at from 10,000 to 12,000, chiefly Turks. It is of considerable extent; and the houses being intermixed with gardens and trees, it appears to be built in a wood, and the lofty minarets of its mosques rising above the trees give it a picturesque appearance. It has several Greek churches and synagogues. At the height of 10 or 12 ft. above the pavement a wooden trellis-work interwoven with vines is carried over the streets, completely shading the passengers below. The shops are clean, and tolerably well furnished, and their possessors, who are chiefly Greeks or Jews, have a respectable appearance. (*Holland's Trav.* p. 249.) According to Strabo, this city had a magnificent temple of Æsculapius; but no traces of this edifice are now known to be extant. On a hill above the town are the ruins of a castle apparently dating from the time of the Greek emperors, and commanding a fine view over the plains of Thessaly. These are depastured by numerous flocks of sheeple, and also produce a good deal of cotton, the manufacture of blankets, coarse woollens, and cotton stuffs, occupying many of the inhabs. of Tricala. Its trade is also pretty extensive, from its being on the principal road from Yanina to Constantinople, and commanding the only pass by which supplies of corn and other provisions are brought from Thessaly into Albania. The latter circumstance renders it important as a military post. (*Hughes, Trav. in Albania*, &c. i. 130; *Cramer's Anc. Greece.*)

TRICHINOPOLY, a distr. of British India, presid. Madras, chiefly between lat. 10° 30' and 11° 30' N., and long. 78° 10' and 79° 30' E., having N. Salem and S. Arcot, E. Tanjore, S. the latter and Madras, and W. Salem and Coimbatore. Area, 3,169 sq. m. Pop., in 1836-7, 554,730. The Cavery runs from W. to E. through the country, irrigating a considerable extent of rice land. In addition to rice, sugar-cane, with tobacco and betel-leaf, are grown in the tracts watered by tanks and wells: in the dry lands the other usual products of the Carnatic are extensively cultivated, and there is good pasturage for sheep and cattle, which are numerous. The principal imports are gum, oil, tobacco, pepper, and areca nut; while the exports comprise cloth, indigo, saltpetre, and cotton. The principal manufactures are cloth, for domestic use, and indigo, with some subsidiary articles made in the town of Trichinopoly (which see). Total land revenue, in 1836-7, 1,428,855 rupees.

TRICHINOPOLY, a large fortified town of British India, presid. Madras, cap. of the above distr., on the Cavery, 186 m. S.W. Madras. Pop., exclusive of troops, estimated at 74,000. (*Madras Almanac.*) It is of an oblong form, nearly 1 m. in length, N. to S., by about $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in breadth. Exclusive of some outworks, it is surrounded by a double wall and ditch, with a covert way and glacis. But its defences are not mostly in a ruinous state, except the citadel near its N. extremity, which, being situated on an elevated rock, commands any military operations carried on in any part of the vicinity. On

this rock also stands a large and massive pagoda, and a pillared square building, with a statue of Hanuman, occupies the highest peak, while in the S. face of the rock is a small sculptured excavation in the style of some of the cave temples at Ellora. The jewellery made at Trichinopoly had formerly much celebrity; and Trichinopoly chains are still in request. Cotton cloths, table linen, harness, &c., are made here; and the town is an emporium for a great variety of manufactures. It is well adapted for a military station, as, besides being well supplied with almost every kind of merchandise and artisans, the roads about it are so good as to admit, at every season, of an easy communication with Madras, Vellore, and Mysore. Hence, also, diverge all the great roads leading to Tanjore, Madras, and Dindigul, the three chief stations in the S. part of India. (*Madras Almanac*, &c.)

TRIESTE (an. *Tergeste*), a town and principal seaport of the Austrian empire, cap. gov. and circ. of its own name, prov. Illyria, on the Adriatic, near its N.E. extremity, 78 m. E. by N. Venice. Lat. 45° 39' 37" N., long. 13° 49' 17" E. Pop. in 1856, of the city only, 51,346. The pop. of the town and its district, comprising an extent of 40 sq. m., amounted, in 1835, to 75,561, having increased to that amount from 45,223 in 1831! (*Bourving's Rep.; Berghaus.*) Trieste is divided into the old town, the new town, or Theresienstadt, the Josephstadt, and the Frauenvorstadt (Francis' suburb); the old town stands at the foot and on the declivity of a steep hill crowned by the citadel: it has dark, narrow, winding, and frequently steep streets, with gloomy-looking houses, and is surrounded by the remains of ancient fortifications. The new town, immediately N.W. of the former, and built on level ground, partly taken from the sea, consists, on the contrary, of handsome streets, crossing each other at right angles, and lined with neat buildings. It is partially intersected by the canal cut by Maria Theresa, by means of which vessels drawing 9 or 10 ft. water may load and unload at the doors of the warehouses. Between the new and old towns runs the *Corso*, the principal thoroughfare, broad but winding, furnished with good shops and coffee-houses, and opening successively into spacious and handsome squares. The principal of these is the *Piazza-Grande*, with a fine public fountain, and the column and statue of the Emperor Charles VI., to whom Trieste is principally indebted for its importance in modern times. In this square the great vegetable and fruit market is held, and on one side of it is the *Jacorda-grande*, or principal hotel, commanding a fine view of the harbour. The exchange, the finest building in the city, stands in another square, in which is a statue of Leopold I. Continual improvements appear to be taking place in and around Trieste; many new streets and promenades have been laid out, and public walks planted with trees; new moles, and a gigantic hospital, the cost of erecting which has been estimated at 800,000 florins, have very recently been constructed.

The cathedral, in the old town, is supposed to occupy the site of a temple of Jupiter, and is in the Byzantine style; its interior, like St. Mark's at Venice, is ornamented with mosaics; and many Roman inscriptions, carvings, &c., are built up in the walls. It contains the monument of Winkelmann the antiquary, author of the famous work, *Histoire de l'Art chez l'Antiquité*, assassinated here in 1768. There are 5 other Rom. Catholic, 2 Protestant, and 2 Greek churches, a synagogue, and an English chapel. The finest of these edifices are the Greek churches, particularly that at the head of the great canal, with a magnificent marble altar, and an organ esteemed among the best in Italy. The church of the Jesuits merits attention by its architecture and fine paintings, and the palace of the governor is also an imposing structure: the handsomest residence is the house formerly belonging to a Greek merchant of the name of Carolotti, who, having begun business in Trieste almost as a pedlar, is said to have died worth 1,000,000 sterling! (*Spencer.*) The castle formerly constituted the main protection of the town and harbour, and is still maintained in a tolerable state of defence. The great theatre is spacious, and there are several minor theatres. Among other objects worthy of notice are the barracks, post-house, lock-yard, isleotto, one of which is among the most perfect establishments of its kind, and the terrace of the casino ornamented with several statues.

Trieste is in the S. what Hamburg is in the N., the great commercial entrepôt of Germany. A harbour, which, though rather limited in size, is easy of access and convenient, has been formed by the Theresian Mole, founded on a ledge of sunken rock, and projecting N.W. into the sea from the S. extremity of the old town. At its termination has been formed an irregular platform about 1,100 ft. in circ., on which have been erected a fortress and light-house, with an intermittent light 106 ft. above the sea. Another light-house, having the lantern 103 ft. above the sea, has been erected on the point of Salvo, about 18 m. W. by S. Trieste. The

port, with the Mole, forms a crescent $1\frac{1}{2}$ m. in length, being a continued quay, faced with hewn stones, and with stairs and jetties for the convenience of embarkation. On the N. side of the port is the dock or harbour, appropriated exclusively for vessels performing quarantine. It is walled round, and furnished with hotels, warehouses, and every sort of accommodation for passengers and goods. Ships under 300 tons burden lie close to the quays; those of greater size mooring in the roads in front of the city. The principal defects of the port are its limited size, and its being exposed to N.W. winds, which sometimes throw in a heavy sea. The gales, however, are seldom of long continuance; and the holding ground being good, when proper precautions are taken, no accident occurs.

Trieste being a free port, goods destined for its consumption, and that of the adjoining territory, pay no duties; but such as are taken into the interior for consumption pay, of course, the duties in the Austrian tariff. The transit duties and shipping charges are extremely reasonable.

The exports are very various, consisting partly of the raw and partly of the manufactured products of Austria Proper, Illyria, Dalmatia, Hungary, and Italy; with foreign articles imported and warehoused. Among the principal articles of raw produce may be specified, corn, chiefly wheat and maize, with rice, wine, oil, shumac, tobacco, wax, &c.; silks, silk rags and waste, hemp, wool, flax, linen rags, hides, furs, skins, &c.; the produce of the mines makes an important item, consisting of quick-silver, cinnabar, iron, lead, copper, brass, litharge, alum, vitriol, &c.; the forests of Carniola furnish timber, for ship-building and other purposes, of excellent quality, and in great abundance, with staves, cork wood, box, hoops, &c.; marble also ranks under this head. Of manufactured articles, the most important are, thrown silk, silk stuffs, printed cottons from Austria and Switzerland, coarse and fine linens, and all sorts of leather; under this head are also ranked soap, Venetian treacle, liqueurs, &c., with jewellery, tools and utensils of all sorts, glass ware and mirrors, Venetian beads, refined sugar, and a host of other articles. Trieste is also a considerable *dépôt* for all sorts of produce from the Black Sea, Turkey, and Egypt.

The principal articles of importation consist of sugar, coffee, dye-stuffs, cotton-wool from the Levant and the U. States, cotton goods and cotton yarn, silks, oil, tin plates, salted fish, and a host of other articles. The value of the imports always exceeds that of the exports, occasioned in part by their being subsequently transhipped to other ports, and partly by there being an excess of exports as compared with imports from other parts of the empire. We subjoin

An Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles of Foreign Raw Produce imported into Trieste during each of the 4 Years ending with 1847.

Articles.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
Coffee:				
St. Domingo - - - centners	15,458	15,577	37,747	18,251
Brazil - - - - - "	141,497	108,001	126,328	155,461
Cuba - - - - - "	41,536	56,744	45,045	64,777
Other descriptions - - - "	16,115	30,100	26,947	55,651
Total centners	212,605	210,402	235,537	369,150
Cotton:				
America - - - - - bales	56,851	39,109	50,990	40,500
Brazil - - - - - "	508	165	46	517
Egyptian - - - - - "	85,850	55,789	37,167	34,780
Levant - - - - - "	17,787	9,105	4,752	20,800
Other descriptions - - - "	1,579	222	18,248	8,573
Total bales	142,175	102,409	111,454	104,570
Sugar:				
Brazil - - - - - chests	29,415	35,464	50,867	25,918
Cuba - - - - - boxes	40,694	50,040	15,411	39,334
Java, and East India packages	5,875	64	5,865	545
Crushed - - - - - hhds.	5,142	7,070	9,833	10,070
Leaves - - - - - "	1,526	891	904	1,470
Total centners	805,416	542,977	576,070	676,497
Cassia lignea - - - centners	3,295	5,190	1,803	1,485
Cocoa - - - - - "	5,555	7,169	4,814	2,725
Pepper, Sumatra - - - "	11,597	25,941	40,555	1,773
Indigo, East India and Spanish packages	238	353	437	696
Ram - - - - - purchases	472	1,513	1,491	1,296
Logwood - - - - - centners	19,000	66,000	50,525	56,500
Hides, Buenos Ayres and Brazil	150,000	65,000	115,500	226,000
Levant and Black Sea - - - "	90,000	40,000	107,500	122,000
Calcutta Rips - - - - - "	115,000	95,000	100,000	47,000

At an average, the value of the imports into Trieste may amount to from 4 to 4½ millions sterling.

The *Lloyd Austriaco* gives the following return of the navigation of Trieste in 1839. (See next col.)

Trieste is the seat of the administration for its gov. and the Illyrian coast, of courts for the town and circle, a tribunal of commerce, the central board of health for

Arrivals.	Vessels.	Tons.
Sailing vessels engaged in foreign trade -	1,358	228,535
Steam vessels - (ditto) -	24	7,748
Sailing boats engaged in the coasting trade -	2,838	105,712
Steam boats - (ditto) -	203	46,890
Smaller craft - (ditto) -	7,714	179,528
Total - - - - -	12,657	567,841

the empire, and a board of police, &c., and is a bishop's see. It has an imperial academy, a school of navigation, normal, female, Jewish, Greek, and elementary schools, many charitable institutions and learned societies, and several periodical publications. There are no public banks, but several private establishments of undoubted solidity, and various insurance offices. Trieste has manufactures of rosoglio, wax-lights, leather, soap, playing cards, musical instruments, &c., with dyeing-houses, sugar refineries, potteries, and distilleries. It communicates by *diligence* three times a week with Vienna; and by steam packets once a month with Smyrna and Constantinople, and continually with Venice and other towns on the Adriatic. It is better supplied with provisions than might have been expected from the sterility of its environs; they are supplied chiefly from Dalmatia and the country round Venice. But notwithstanding the cheapness of most articles, owing to the absence of duties, Trieste is not a desirable residence for persons not engaged in business. Water is scarce, and bad; the climate is in extremes; and the E. N. E. wind, known by the name of *Bora*, is very piercing. A mixture of all nations is met with here, and all the principal merchants and traders are foreigners. German is spoken by the authorities and in the public offices, but Italian is the prevailing language of the middle classes, while the lower speak a Slavonic dialect.

Traces of an amphitheatre and other Roman remains exist at Trieste. During the middle ages it was the cap. of a small republic; but its history presents little remarkable till 1719, when Charles VI. made it a free port. TRIM, an island town of Ireland, prov. Leinster, co. Meath, of which it is the cap., on the Boyne, here crossed by a bridge, 36 m. N. W. by W. Dublin. Pop. in 1841, 2,369. This is a very old town, having been given by Henry II., as part of the palatinate of Meath, to Hugh De Lacy. The latter constructed the castle, which, from its extent, strength, and elevated situation on the banks of the river, was at once the largest and most important of the numerous fortifications erected by the English within the limits of the Pale. The ruins sufficiently attest its ancient grandeur. On the other side of the river are the ruins of St. Mary's Abbey, an ancient and extensive edifice; and there are some other ecclesiastical remains. The town had, also, been surrounded by walls, considerable portions of which are still entire. Indeed it was anciently the occasional seat of the lord-lieutenant; and several parliaments have been held within its walls. It was taken, without opposition, by Cromwell, in 1649.

At present, however, notwithstanding it is the co. town, Trim is of little importance. Its principal public building is the new co. gaol, an extensive structure on the rising plain. It has, also, an ancient par. church, a Rom. Cath. chapel, a dispensary, an infirmary barrack, with a co. infirmary, schools, &c. It returned 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C. till the Union, when it was disfranchised, and since then has continued to decline. The assizes for the co. are held here, and general sessions twice a year, and petty sessions on alternate Saturdays. It is a constabulary station, and has a flour-mill, a brewery, and a tannery. Markets on Saturdays; fairs March 27, May 8, Wednesday after Trinity Sunday, Oct. 1, and Nov. 16. Post-office revenue in 1830, 8944.; in 1836, 8771.

About 3 m. S. from the town, on the road leading to Summerhill, is Dangans, from the property of the Earl of Mornington, and memorable as the birth-place of the Duke of Wellington. The house in which the great general first saw the light has, however, been wholly pulled down; but a handsome pillar, surmounted by a statue of his Grace, has been erected in the town, in commemoration of his achievements and of his connexion with the vicinity.

TRINCOMALEE, a marit. town of Ceylon, on its N.E. coast, near the entrance to one of the finest bays in the world, about 180 m. N.E. Colombo, lat. 6° 32' N., long. 81° 57' E. The town, which is but inconsiderable, is built at the foot of a rock, on which is the fort, on the outside of a narrow peninsula or tongue of land bounding the harbour on the E. It has but few European inhabs., and what is remarkable, few Singalese; the lower classes being principally Malabar E. Catholics. The fortifications form a sweep of above 1 m. in length along the shore. Fort Frederick is a station for four companies of a European regiment, a company of royal engineers and artillery, and detachments of the Ceylon rifle corps. Fort Osterberg, on the termination of a ridge of hills, about 3 m. S.W. Trincomalee, commands

the entrance of the harbour, and the dockyard close beneath. It forms the head quarters of a detachment of artillery and a European company. The fortifications here were mostly constructed by the Portuguese: the Dutch did little or nothing for the improvement of the place while in their possession.

The harbour of Trincomalee was styled by Nelson "the finest harbour in the world." It is almost landlocked, and the water is so deep that it is all but practicable in many places to step from the shore on board large vessels moored alongside. During the N.E. monsoon, when all the ships on the Coromandel coast and in the Bay of Bengal are obliged to put to sea, Trincomalee is their principal place of refuge, and a vessel from Madras can reach it in two days. The town, which may be considered as the military cap. of Ceylon, surrendered to the English in 1796. (*Hamilton; Modern Trav.*, &c.)

TRING, a market town and par. of England, co. Hertford, hund. Dacorum, on the London and Birmingham railway, and on the road from London to Aylesbury, 30 m. N.W. London. Area of par. 7,290 acres. Pop. in 1841, 4,360. The town consists principally of two streets; it is tolerably well built, the houses being mostly modern. The church is an embattled structure, with a massive tower and low spire at the W. end. The living a perpet. curacy, worth 1574 a year, is in the gift of the dean and chapter of Oxford. There are meeting-houses for Baptists and Independents, a Lancastrian school, &c. The inhabs. are principally employed in the manufacture of straw plait, canvas, and a few silk fabrics. Markets on Fridays; Fairs, Easter Monday, and Oct. 11. The railway here attains a height of 420 feet above the level of the sea, being its highest or summit level. Tring park, in the vicinity, was built in the reign of Charles II.

TRINIDAD, an island of the W. Indies, or Antilles, being the most southerly of the group called the Windward Islands, and next to Jamaica, the largest and most valuable of the islands belonging to Great Britain in this part of the world. It lies immediately off the N.E. coast of Colombia and the N. mouths of the Orinoco, between the 10th and 11th degs. of N. lat. and the 61st and 62d of W. long., its N.W. extremity being only about 13 m. from Punta de la Pena, the extremity of the peninsula of Paria; and its S.W. cape being but 7 m. from the Delta of the Orinoco. On the W. Trinidad bounds the Gulph of Paria, and on all other sides it is surrounded by the Atlantic. It is of a square or oblong form, with considerable projections at all its angles except the S.E. Length, N. to S. 50 m. average breadth, exclusive of its projections, about 33 m. Area estimated, by the best authorities, at 1,200,000 acres, or about 2,000 sq. m., though it has also been estimated at above 1,500,000 acres. Resident pop., in 1844, 59,814, of whom about 4,000 are whites; but there are doubts as to the correctness of this return. The mountain chains run from W. to E., and may be regarded as continuations of the chains on the opposite coast of Venezuela, from which this island has most probably been detached by some convulsion of nature. Along the N. shore a bold range of mountains rises to the height of 8,000 ft., broken into the most rugged and abrupt forms, and clothed to the summit with forest trees. Towards the S. extends a chain of hills of less elevation, and of a more pastoral character, while the centre of the island is occupied by a group of flat or round-topped hills, dividing it, as it were, into two extensive valleys, which are occasionally intersected by a succession of hill and dale. The whole island is well watered by numerous streams in every direction. The principal are on the W. coast: the Caroni, navigable for 6 leag. from its mouth; and on the E. the Oropuche and Nariva, which last is said to be navigable for vessels of 350 tons to a league from its source. The N. and E. coasts are not well furnished with harbours; which is unfortunate, as the winds blow from those quarters for three fourths of the year. But the W. coast has numerous bays and inlets; and the Gulph of Paria is an extensive inland sea, in which ships of all sizes may ride securely, and anchor any where without the smallest risk, and in any convenient depth of water. (*Blount's American Coast Pilot*, p. 426.)

The greater part of the interior of this island is uncultivated, and, indeed, in a considerable degree unexplored. The low grounds are in parts marshy, while the more elevated portions are, for the most part, covered with a dense vegetation of forest and underwood. The accounts best entitled to credit represent the island as being naturally extremely fertile. The soil is, in general, deep, stiff, and tenacious; and it is said that, if properly cultivated, it could alone supply sugar adequate for the consumption of England. It might be supposed that, in an island so extensive, mountainous, and covered with forests, the atmosphere would be generally overladen with moisture. It does not, however, appear that the fall of rain is as great as in Guiana, the average being about 65 in. a year; and this is said to diminish with the progress of cultivation. The dry season com-

mences in Dec., and ends in May; but it is a peculiar advantage of this island that it is exempted from those destructive droughts common to all the other W. India islands from Barbadoes to Cuba. During June and July showers are frequent; and in Aug., Sept., and Oct., the rain falls in torrents, often accompanied by violent storms. The weather generally moderates, and the rains become more slight, towards the end of Oct., and there is seldom any fall after the beginning of Dec. The nights are generally cool and pleasant. The mortality during the twenty years ending with 1836, averaged about 10 per cent. of the white, and 4 per cent. of the black troops a year. Fevers and dysenteries cut off most of the whites. (*Papers relating to the W. Indies*, 1841-3, *Trinidad*; *Tullock's Rep. on the Health of the Troops in the W. Indies*, p. 17—19.)

It has been estimated that only about 1-30th part of the surface of this island is incapable of cultivation. The settled portions of Trinidad are mostly confined to the N.W. and a few places along the S.W. coast. It is stated in a Report by a sub-committee of the planters of Trinidad, that, in 1838, 308,379 acres of land had been appropriated, of which 43,265 were in cultivation, and that 1,079,901 were then unappropriated, and belonged to the crown. (*Papers relating to W. Indies*, *Trinidad*, p. 109.) Of the cultivated land, 53,000 acres are said to be under the sugar cane, being divided into 100 estates, the capital invested in which is estimated at 2,300,000l. sterling. The rest of the cultivated lands are occupied by cocoa plantations (7,000 acres), coffee do. (1,100), and provision and pasture grounds.

This island, like the other W. Indian colonies, has suffered greatly since the emancipation of the slaves from a want of labour; for, from the abundance of the land and its fertility, it might, were labour to be had on reasonable terms, make a rapid progress. To obviate its deficiency, above 4,000 coolies have been imported from India, with nearly as many Africans, besides a large number of immigrants from other islands. But the anticipation of advantage from this influx of foreign labour have been only in a small degree realised. The coolies have suffered much from sickness; and when imported they and the Africans are quite ignorant of their duties as labourers. In this respect, indeed, they are no better than children; and children, too, with but little aptitude to learn and a great aversion from labour. "The African," says Lord Harris, governor of the island, "for the most part lives and remains a savage. He frequently leaves the cultivated lands and joins his countrymen at one of the several villages which they have been permitted to establish. Here, when he has once escaped, the proprietor and the law are baffled. If search be made, where, in the forests, is he to be looked for? If tracked to a village he is not to be found; he can always elude the soldiers, who seldom take the trouble to return for him a second time." (*Despatch*, 21st February, 1848.)

The mischiefs complained of are not, however, so much the result of any real scarcity in the supply of labour as of a disinclination on the part of the labourers to engage with either vigour or alacrity in the cultivation of sugar estates. And, this, after all, is only what all persons of sense might have anticipated. The blacks can provide for the comparatively few wants incident to such a climate with but little exertion, and having done this, is it to be expected that they should do more? It is idle to suppose that blacks in the W. Indies, now that they are free, will make the same exertions they were compelled to make when they were slaves. The free inhabitants of all fertile tropical countries are, we believe without a single exception, uniformly indolent. The *doles* (*far niente*) is their common *bonum*. And to suppose that such persons should be industrious is equivalent to supposing that there may be an exertion without a motive, an effect without cause. If an hour's labour a day will fully supply a man's wants, it is absurd to suppose he should continue to labour three or four hours.

Cocoa is more extensively grown in Trinidad than in any of the other British Antilles, and is of superior quality. The cocoa-tree somewhat resembles the cherry-tree, and grows to about 15 ft. in height. It flourishes most in the sun, soil on the banks of rivers, delighting in shade, to procure which plantations of coral-bean trees (*madre del cacao*) are planted between every other row. The cocoa seeds are placed in small mounds, two seeds being sown together; and the weakest plant of the two afterwards destroyed; the survivor is transplanted after attaining 15 or 18 inches in height. Until the age of 5 years, all the flowers are destroyed as they appear. The fruit grows in a pod, which, as it ripens, changes to a bluish red or lemon colour. The crop is gathered throughout the year, but principally in June and Dec. The ripe pods are broken or cut open, and the seeds extracted with a wooden spatula. They are afterwards spread out to dry in the sun on rush mats. When quite dry and hard, the nuts are lightly packed in boxes or bags, and kept dry for exportation. Coffee, indigo, tobacco, and cotton, come to perfection, though

mostly grown only in small quantities. Here, also, are all the fruits and vegetables of the adjacent tropical climates, and the vines transplanted from France or Spain are said to equal their parent stocks. The mountains, like those of the adjacent continent, consist chiefly of argillaceous and micaceous schist; milky quartz, ferruginous sand, pyrites, arsenic, alum, sulphur, copper, plumbago, sulphur, &c. are found; but the most abundant mineral is asphaltum, which may be supplied in any quantity. It is found in the greatest profusion in the lake Brea, or pitch lake; an area of about 150 acres in the N.W. side of the island, about 30 m. S. from Port Spain, and about 80 ft. above the level of the sea. Though called a lake or lagoon, this depot of pitch is for the most part quite solid, rent, however, by chasms, varying from 3 to 30 feet in width, but of no great depth, so that they are traversed without much difficulty. Here and there, wherever there is any soil, are clumps of stunted trees. The liquid part of the lake, on the side nearest the sea, is supposed to be about 3 acres in extent, and consists of fluid pitch of unknown depth, in a state of slow ebullition, and exhaling a strong bituminous

and sulphurous odour. This vast pitchy cushion must be approached with extreme caution. It has been attempted to apply the asphaltum brought from this lagoon to the same purposes as pitch and tar, but it is found to require so large an admixture of oil that it becomes too expensive. If it could be economically applied, Tripoli might furnish abundant supplies for the whole world. (*Trinidad Almanac* for 1840, App. c. 4.)

Exclusive of the pitch lake, Trinidad has several extinct volcanic craters, active mud volcanoes, and other evidences of volcanic agency. Slight shocks of earthquakes have also been occasionally felt, but happily the island appears to be exempted from the scourge of hurricanes.

Trinidad was greatly neglected by the Spaniards, and previously to 1783, when emigration to it was first actively promoted by them, no more cocoa, indigo, and other products were exported than sufficed to freight a small schooner two or three times a year to St. Eustatius. Since then the progress of cultivation has been comparatively rapid. We subjoin an

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles imported into the U. Kingdom from Trinidad in the undermentioned Years.

Articles.	1831.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1848.	1849.
Sugar - - - - - cwt.	327,167	269,393	245,778	264,192	391,673	424,466
Molasses - - - - - gals.	64,509	64,663	69,465	64,663	104,452	124,334
Rum - - - - - gals.	64,933	5,586	20,539	5,687	150,002	95,772
Coffees - - - - - lbs.	3,008	35,080	253,185	9,630	5,892	4,923
Cocoa - - - - - -	1,057,990	160,617	2,007,494	2,960,215	2,077,474	2,715,004

The total value of the exports amounts, in ordinary years, to about 450,000*l.* or 500,000*l.*, though occasionally, as in 1848, it is much less. The total value of the imports is about the same as that of the exports. In 1849 the declared value of the exports from the U. Kingdom to Trinidad amounted to 247,779*l.* principally cottons, linens, leather manufactures, iron and steel, soap and candles, &c. The revenue and expenditure of the island are each about 80,000*l.* a year.

Trinidad, like St. Lucia and British Guiana, is governed by a governor and council, acting under the orders of the home government. The legislative council of the island consists of 12 members, 6 of whom are styled official, holding high offices, and 6 non-official, being selected from among the inhabitants: all are removable at the pleasure of the crown. The laws of the island are a mixture of those of Spain and England, and it is said that much mischief has been occasioned from the circumstance of the judges and other functionaries sent from England being ignorant of the former. The office of coroner does not exist here, nor trial by jury in the supreme criminal court. Every person about to leave the island must first give public notice of his intention, and obtain a pass from the governor.

The settled part of Trinidad is divided into 11 districts. The cap. and seat of government, Port Spain, which in 1839 had 11,633 inhab., is situated on the W. coast of the island, near the mouth of the river Caroni. It is one of the handsomest towns in the West Indies, being built wholly of stone or brick, with wide and well kept streets; some of which are shaded with rows of noble trees. It has Protestant and Roman Catholic churches, a Presbyterian secession church, and a Methodist chapel. The stores and magazines are crowded with valuable merchandise, which, however, is partly destined for the supply of Colombia. In the vicinity of the town are Fort George, now nearly dismantled, and St. James' barracks. The latter are said, in the *Trinidad Almanac*, "to be placed, on account of an infamous job, in one of the most pestilential spots in the island." (p. 99.) The harbour is good, and, in fact, as already stated, the entire gulph of Paria may be regarded as a magnificent harbour. Between 40 and 50 public and private schools are established in Trinidad, and are well attended. The regular military force amounts to about 500 men, including officers.

Trinidad was discovered by Columbus in 1496, and was taken possession of by the Spaniards in 1588, an event followed by the almost total extermination of the Indians. Raleigh visited it in 1595. The French took it in 1806, but soon afterwards restored it to the Spaniards, who held it till taken by the English under Abercrombie in 1797. (*Trinidad Almanac* for 1840: Part. General.)

TRIPOLI, the most easterly of the Barbary states, the dominions of which, exclusive of Tripoli proper, comprise Barca and Fezzan, noticed in other parts of this work. Tripoli Proper lies between lat. 20° and 33° N., and long. 10° and 20° E.; having E. Barca, W. Tunis, S. Fezzan and the desert, and N. the Mediterranean. It stretches along the North African coast about 800 m. E. and W. Its breadth inland varies greatly, owing to the frequent interruption of the desert; but its area has been estimated at nearly 100,000 sq. m., and its pop. at from 14 to 2 millions, principally Moors and Berbers, with some Turks, Negroes, Jews, and Christians.

In antiquity, Tripoli proper was called the *Regio Syrtica*, from its lying between the *Syrtis Major*, now the gulph of Sidra, on the E., and the *Syrtis Minor*, now the gulph of Gabes, on the W. The former, or *Syrtis Major*, is a very extensive bay, extending from Bengazy on the E. to Cape Mesurata on the W. about 300 m., having between greatest a breadth of 150 m. This gulph was reckoned in antiquity, next to the strait of Scylla and Charybdis, by far the most dangerous part of the Mediterranean, principally on account of the shallowness of its waters, which were said to be encumbered with quicksands, and partly also because of the irregular action of its tides. "*Vexum importunus aique atrox, et ob eorum frequenter brevis, magisque etiam ob alternos motus pelagi adjuncis et refluxis infestus.*" (*Pomp. Mela*, lib. i. cap. 7.) The dangers of the Syrtis have also been frequently alluded to by the poets, who have given it the epithet of inhospitable:—

"—per inhospita Syrtis
Litores, per calidas Libyæ sitissimæ arenas."

Lucan, lib. i. v. 367.

See also *Virgil, Æneid*, i. v. 110.: *Horace*, Od. i. 32, &c. But though the navigation of the greater and lesser Syrtis, especially the former, be not free from danger, this has been greatly exaggerated by the ancients. During strong N. gales a very heavy sea is certainly thrown into the gulph, and the S. shore being low and sandy, a considerable portion of it is submerged, and the waters of the entire gulph have an extremely agitated and turbid appearance; but in ordinary weather it may be navigated by middling-sized vessels with little or no difficulty. "The gulph of Sidra," says Captain Smyth, "has few or no dangers, excepting little heads of rocks scattered about different points, and the tides are insignificant. With the hand-lead going, a vessel may approach all parts; but of what utility can it be to enter here, there being but one place in the whole gulph worthy to be called a port? We could find anchorage for small vessels only at Bushalla and Braiga, at the bottom of the gulph; and Gharra Island, Karhora, and Bengazy (which see) on the E. coast."

But it is obvious from this statement, and from the want of harbours and roadsteads, that when the vessels of the ancients, who had comparatively little skill in navigation, got embayed in this gulph during the prevalence of northerly gales, they must have been in an exceedingly perilous situation, and we need not therefore be surprised at the exaggerated terms in which they have described its terrors.

The coast-lands, except at the bottom of the gulph of Sidra, where the desert and sea are conterminous, are here, in the rest of N. Africa, extremely fertile. These, however, seem to be the only valuable portions of the surface. The Atlas ranges approach nearer the sea here than in most other parts of Barbary, and immediately beyond them the country is a sandy arid desert. Tripoli has no river of any consequence, though a number of small rivulets descend from the mountains to the sea. Neither are there any lakes in the country, which, accordingly, depends for its irrigation and consequent fertility almost solely upon the rains. These, when they occur, fall incessantly for several days and nights; they then cease suddenly, and not a drop more descends for several months together. The most severe famines are

sometimes experienced from a continuance of drought; but when this is not the case, the country appears to have lost none of its ancient productiveness. According to Mr. Blaquiere, "A more luxuriant tract than that in the immediate neighbourhood of the capital cannot be imagined. Country-houses, extensive pleasure-gardens, groves of orange-trees, and innumerable fountains, together with the incessant progress of vegetation, form an assemblage of rural beauty here which is rarely to be met with. The fairy scene does not, however, reach more than 8 m. inland; when nothing but an immeasurable waste of sand is presented to the eye, and forms a striking contrast with the cultivated fields, to the edges of which it approaches. It should be observed, that a want of industry, and of proper encouragement from the government, are the only reasons why cultivation is not extended beyond its present limits. There is probably no country so highly favoured by nature as this is with respect to a rapid succession of the crops. The rains generally begin after gathering the dates, towards October, in the beginning of which month the Arabs plough and sow their grounds. In December and January the weather becomes dry and extremely pleasant, like our spring in England. In the beginning of April, the market before Tripoli is abundantly stocked with cattle, poultry, and vegetables of every kind. Towards June, almonds, figs, apples, pears, plums, peaches, nectarines, grapes, and melons are in season, and incredibly abundant. Cotton has been cultivated very successfully by various individuals; but, owing to a want of encouragement, does not form an article of export. Formerly, a quantity of raw silk formed one of the exports; but its cultivation has latterly been neglected. Mulberry-trees are, however, to be found near the capital in great numbers, so that silk may at any time become again a staple commodity of the country. The castor-tree (*Ricinus Palma Christi*) is found in the vicinity of Tanjouba, where a great deal of that oil is made annually, though it has not hitherto been exported in any great quantity." (*Blaquiere, in Mod. Trav. xx.*) The exportation of corn, which otherwise would be very considerable, is prohibited except when carried on by the pacha for his exclusive benefit. Tobacco, saffron, madder, &c. are grown in small quantities; and senna and galls are produced in the mountains, and the casab and lotus are indigenous. But dates constitute the principal food of the inhabs. The dates of Tripoli are finer than those of any other part of Barbary, and, besides its fruit, the date-tree yields a juice called *lagshi*, which, when drunk fresh, is a very agreeable beverage, and, when sweetened, forms an intoxicating fluid, "in great request among the Mohammedans, notwithstanding the prohibitions of the Koran." (*Della Cella, 16.*)

Each village is usually surrounded by plantations of date and olive trees, the surplus produce of which, with the straw mats, earthen jars, &c., made by the villagers, are partly exported, but are mostly disposed of to Bedouin traders. The vines along the coast yield grapes and raisins of the finest quality, and might be made to produce excellent wine. According to *Della Cella*, the neglect of such an advantage is less owing to the denunciations of the prophet than the exceeding sloth and ignorance of the people. Cattle, sheep, and poultry are reared in large numbers in some places; and, as animal food is little consumed, they are principal objects of exportation. During the war, Malta drew large supplies of cattle and other live stock from Tripoli, and still imports most part of the cattle sent out of the country. Beef, though small, is very good, as is lamb; mutton is of inferior quality. A kind of wild cattle, the wild hog, antelope, bustards, and several other wild animals useful to man, are met with in abundance. Large beds of rock salt exist in different parts of the country. On the coast, fish of every kind are most abundant; but, with the exception of a few boats employed from the capital, fishing does not form a part of public industry.

The natives of this regency manufacture carpets, bournouses, baiks, and other woollen fabrics, camlets, mats of palm leaves, goats' hair sacks, Morocco leather of different kinds, earthenware, prepared skins, and a few other articles. The manufacture of potash, like the exportation of salt, is a monopoly of the pacha. The principal trade consists in the barter of European produce for those of the interior of Africa. From Tripoli, caravans go to Mourzouk, where a large fair is held in Dec. and Jan., and to which the products of Bornou, Sokatoo, Houssa, Timbuctoo, &c. are brought. (See art. *FEZZAN* in this *Dict.*, I. 835.) The Fezzan merchants proceed in Feb. and March to Tripoli, where they receive their goods for the S. upon credit, paying by exchange one year for the goods purchased in the preceding. They bring from the interior annually about 1,500 negro slaves, 10,000 *metacali* (small parcels, each worth a Venetian sequin), of gold dust, 700 cwt. of natron, 1,500 quintals of tanna leaves, &c. The articles they take back are swords, pistols, mock pearls, brass, tin, coral, writing paper, cotton stuffs, &c.; and

these articles, with provisions, colonial produce, timber, pitch, spirits, cochineal, indigo, damask, and other silk fabrics, spirits, looking-glasses, toys, &c., constitute the principal imports from Europe. The exports from Tripoli by sea are wool of excellent quality, mantles, and other articles of dress, oil, senna, and other drugs, madder, barilla, hides, goat and sheep skins dressed, dates and other fruits, cattle, ostrich feathers, iron, gold dust, saffron, &c. (For further details see succeeding article.)

The government is in the hands of a bey, or pacha, who rules with despotic sway, and is chosen from among the Turkish officers resident in Tripoli, being confirmed by his authority to a term of years by the Turkish sultan. He presides by the divan, and is assisted in his various duties by a bey-commander-in-chief; an aga commanding the Turkish soldiers; the *Agas*, or grand judge, who dispenses justice daily at the castle gate of the capital; the chief officers of the treasury and household; the *shah-el-bled*, or head police magistrate; the *wafti*, or head of the priesthood; the *cad*, or judge in matters respecting the Mohammedan faith, &c. The district governors seem to have powers equivalent to the bey, in their own districts; thus, the aga of Misurata, besides his military attributes, unites in his own person all the judicial and legislative powers of the state, if we may so describe the functions exercised by an officer uncontrolled either by equity, reason, custom, or public opinion. (*Della Cella, p. 46.*) The revenues of the bey are derived from the tribute of the district governors, and the Arab tribes in the interior, taxes on the Jews and merchants, a tax of 10 per cent. on all land-produce, import and export duties, monopolies, presents, and exactions, fines for the mitigation of punishment, confiscations, &c.; their amount being estimated by Blaquiere at from 20,000, to 25,000, sterling a year; in addition to which a large portion of the necessities for his use are procured by extortion from his subjects. His standing army is said to amount to 3,000 men; but in time of war an army of 10,000 irregular cavalry and 40,000 foot may be raised by levies from the Arab tribes. The naval force is insignificant, consisting almost wholly of a few small vessels.

The character of the natives of Tripoli appears to be very indifferently. Captain Lyon says drunkenness is more common than in most towns in England. There are public wine-houses, at the doors of which the Moors sit and drink without any scruple; and the greater part of the better sort of people also are great drinkers. Blaquiere says he was unable to discover any good qualities to be contrasted with the well known attributes of revenge, avarice, treachery, and deceit, which predominate alike in the prince and the peasant. There is probably no country on earth where the inhabs. are more inclined to be vicious. (*Blaquiere, in Mod. Trav. xx. 80.*) And yet it is said such is the promptitude with which justice is administered, that crimes in Tripoli are less frequent than in European countries, and the people are more civilised than in most parts of Barbary. The manners towards Christians are formerly very strongly marked; but foreigners are now treated with respect, piracy and Christian slavery having been wholly abolished.

This territory contains some Roman antiquities, but they are much less frequent than in the adjacent territory of Barca. In the middle ages it generally shared in the fortunes of the rest of this portion of Africa. In 1522, Tripoli was given by the Emperor Charles V., who had become possessed of some authority over it, to the Knights of Rhodes; but these were driven from it by the Turks in 1551. Fezzan was rendered tributary about 1714; but the authority of the pacha, over either that country or Barca, appears to be little more than nominal, or at any rate very much disturbed.

TRIPOLI (an. *Ṭā*), a maritime city of N. Africa, cap. of the above regency, on a low rocky tongue of land, projecting into the Mediterranean; the castle being in lat. 32° 53' 56" N., long. 13° 10' 58" E. Pop. estimated at 25,000; 2,000 of whom are Jews, residing in a suburb of their own. The town is much smaller than either Algiers or Tunis; it may be $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in length, by $\frac{1}{3}$ furlongs in breadth; but its shape is very irregular. It is encompassed by high and thick walls, of the original stone-work of which appears to have been very good; but they have been patched up in all directions with mud and fragments. A good many cannon are mounted on the ramparts, and Tripoli has some degree of strength as a fortress; it is entered by two gates, one to the E. and the other to the S. Viewed from the sea, the town appears to be semicircular; and the extreme whiteness of the square flat buildings, covered with lime, which in this climate encounters the sun's fiercest rays, is very striking. The baths form clusters of large cupolas, to the number of 8 or 10, crowded together in different parts of the town. The mosques are in general surrounded by plantations of Indian figs and date-trees, which, at a distance, give the whole city a novel and

pleasing aspect. Internally, however, it has narrow and irregular streets, and mean houses. The pacha's castle is at the E. end, within the walls, with a dock-yard adjoining. It is very ancient, and inclosed by a high strong wall; and the numerous buildings which have been added at different periods to its interior, to receive the junior branches of the royal family, have both deprived it of all symmetry, and increased it to a little irregular town. (*Mod. Trav.*) Tripoli is, in most respects, inferior to the capitals of the other Barbary regencies. Ali Bey, however, says, "In point of tranquillity and cleanliness, Tripoli might be taken as a model by some European towns in the Mediterranean. Though it possess neither the elegance nor the regularity of Valletta, you never hear of acts of violence being committed in the streets, and robberies are altogether unknown; the result of a well-mounted police. Independent of a nightly patrol, there is a guard stationed in each street, who is responsible for whatever may occur in it. There is, besides, always a number of persons kept for the express purpose of sweeping the town. The caravanserais, mosques, and houses of the different consuls and higher classes, are usually built of stone, and regularly white-washed twice a year; the dwellings of the lower orders are of earth, small stones, and mortar. Tripoli has 6 mosques of the first rank, with minarets, and 6 smaller ones. The great mosque has a roof composed of small cupolas, supported by 16 elegant Doric columns of fine grey marble." There are 3 synagogues, one or two places of worship for Christians, several market-places, cafés, European hotels, &c. E. of the town, on a tract of rocky and elevated ground, is the site of the ancient cemetery, where several remains of antiquity have been discovered; and some portions of Roman tessellated pavements, fragments of columns, and entablatures, built up in modern walls, are met with in the city. The most striking relic of antiquity, however, is a magnificent triumphal arch, near the marine gate, at present used as a storehouse. Though half sunk in sand, its upper part is still in good preservation; and an inscription shows that it had been erected in 164, in honour of the emperors Aurelius Antoninus and L. Verus. It is built of huge blocks of marble, without cement, and has been ornamented with warlike trophies and other carvings in relief. The ceiling, also, is beautifully sculptured. (*Lyon, Trav. in N. Africa*, p. 18.)

The harbour of Tripoli, though not very spacious, is safe, and capable of accommodating a large fleet of merchant ships. Small frigates, whose draught of water does not exceed 15 ft., may also ride there in perfect safety. (*Blaquiere, Letters*, l. 23.) It is formed by a long reef of rocks running out to the N.E., and by other reefs to the E. In the deepest part there are from 5 to 6 fathoms water. It is defended by the new Spanish and French forts, the reef and insulated rocks on the W., and by two other forts on the beach to the E. It is the principal entrepôt for the maritime trade for the regency. We subjoin an

ACCOUNT of the principal Articles of Import and Export at Tripoli in 1836, with their estimated Value in France:—

Imports.		Exports.	
Articles.	Value in fr.	Articles.	Value in fr.
Wheat and barley	591,681	Mantles	57,090
Beans and peas	108,535	Oil	9,283
Wool	34,257	Hides, &c.	10,815
Hardware	30,289	Saffron	4,070
Coffee	35,779	Senna	7,903
Sugar	30,954	Wool	9,837
Cotton, manufactured	114,906	Cattle	5,938
Wines	32,896	Various	31,533
Various	472,053		
Total	1,399,336 fr.	Total	130,507 fr.

But it is obvious that this statement is but little to be depended upon; and that there can be in reality no such difference between the imports and exports. If the amount of the former be not overrated, we may be quite sure that that of the latter must exceed one million francs.

TRIPOLI, or TARABULUS, a town and sea-port of Syria, cap. of the pachalik of its own name, on the Mediterranean, 130 m. S.W. Aleppo. Lat. 34° 56' 22" N.; long. 35° 51' 32" E. Pop. estimated at about 15,000. The town stands at the foot of a branch of Mount Lebanon, on a small triangular plain at some little distance from the sea; the Marina, S.W. from the city, on a projecting point of land, is the place where merchant ships usually load and unload their cargoes. Tripoli is one of the nearest towns in Syria, and is surrounded by fine gardens; but its neighbourhood being marshy, its climate is frequently unhealthy. It is traversed by the small river Kadisha, which, however, is too shallow to be navigable even for boats. The houses are principally of stone, and many parts of the city bear traces of the architecture of

the Crusaders, particularly some high Gothic arcades over certain streets; but there are no public buildings worth notice. Tripoli is commanded by an old castle on the heights behind, built during the crusades by the Count de Toulouse. The name *Tripoli* is, no doubt, derived from its being formerly divided into three separate towns at short distances from each other; and, in fact, El Mina, as the Marina is sometimes called, is a distinct town from Tripoli proper. Numerous granite columns and other ruins may still be seen along the shore. (*Pococke, Burchardt, &c. in Mod. Trav.*) The port of Tripoli, to the N. of the Marina, and opposite the town, is merely a roadstead, sheltered on the W. by some rocky islets, and is safe only in fine weather. It is dangerous in winter, and particularly at the equinoxes, from the foulness of the bottom and the prevalence of strong gales. (*Purdy's Sailing Direct.*) It has, however, some trade, exporting silk, wool, cotton, and tobacco, with small quantities of oil, wax, cochineal galls, and soap, manufactured in the town. There are numerous Greeks among the inhab., and a large share of the trade is in their hands. It is, also, the see of a Greek bishop, and the residence of several European consuls. (*Bosworth's Rep. on Syria; Mod. Trav.*)

Tripoli was taken by the Crusaders in 1108. It had previously been one of the most flourishing seats of oriental literature, and possessed a very large collection of Persian and Arabic works. It is said that 100 copyists were constantly kept employed copying manuscripts, and that the princes of Tripoli were in the habit of sending messengers into foreign countries to discover and purchase rare and valuable works. Unfortunately, however, this extensive and precious collection, amounting, it is said to 100,000 vols., was destroyed by the Crusaders, who displayed on this occasion the same fanatical zeal of which they have accused, though we believe unjustly, the Arabs in the case of the Alexandrian library. (*See Alexandrian*.) A priest in the suite of Count Estren de St. Gilles, having visited an apartment of the library in which were a number of duplicate copies of the Koran, reported that it contained none but the impious works of Mohammed, and that, consequently, it should be destroyed! And, as a matter of course, it was forthwith set on fire!

Balbi, despite his pretensions to superior criticism and sagacity, states, after Quatremere de Quincy, that this library contained no fewer than 2,000,000 vols. (*Bibliothèques de France*, p. 81.) Michaud most properly rejects this statement as incredible and absurd, and adopts in preference the reasonable account given by Novalis. (*Histoire des Croisades*, li. 43, ed. 1841.)

TRIPOLITZA, or TRIPOLITZA, a town of the kingdom of Greece, cap. dep. Mantinea, and under the Turks, the cap. of the Morea, near the centre of which it is situated, 20 m. S. by W. Argos. It stands in a plain nearly 2,000 ft. above the level of the sea, and before the late war was about 3 m. in circuit, and probably more populous than Athens; but we can form no estimate of its present population. It is of modern origin, and is supposed to owe its name to its having been principally constructed by the ruins of three cities—Tegea, Mantinea, and Pallantium, the sites of all which are at no great distance. Previously to the Greek revolution it had some large and conspicuous buildings; but it suffered severely during its capture and sack by the Greeks in Oct. 1821, and its ruin was completed when it was retaken by Ibrahim Pacha in 1835; indeed, an arched gateway is now said to be the only existing relic of the Turkish period. (*Mure's Journal*, li. 317.) But it is again rising from its ruins, and is the seat of one of the first class treasuries in Greece and of other government establishments. It is said, however, that the government contemplates the removal of them to some other town; and if so, it is not very probable that Tripolitza should ever regain its former importance. (*Gell; Burgess's Greece*, &c., l. 210; *Strong; Greece as a Kingdom*, &c.)

TROAD (TR), or site of the ancient city of Troy, and the scene of the battles described in the Iliad. The situation of this classical region has been pointed out with sufficient precision by Homer, and has been admitted, from the earliest antiquity, to comprise that portion of Asia Minor bounded by and immediately S. of the W. entrance to the Hellespont, opposite the island of Tenedos, having Mount Ida on the E. and the gulph of Adramytti on the S. Here, no doubt, are the *campi ubi Troja fuit*:—

"Hæc Ibat Simois; hic est Sigeia tellus;
Hic steterat Priami regia celsa senis;
Illic Næstides, illic tendebat Ulyssea
Hic laeæa diuocens tetrak Hæcææ eques."

Orin. Epist. l. lib. 33.

But, notwithstanding the immortality of renown that has been conferred on the "heaven-built" city, and the interest which the Troad has always excited, such and so great have been the changes brought about by the in-

fluence of war, the ravages of barbarians, and the lapse of ages, that it is now no easy matter to reconcile the descriptions of Homer with the existing appearances of the country.

The Troad has been examined by several learned travellers, including Chandler, Wood, Chevalier, Clarke, Hobhouse, Gell, and others. But as none of them had the means of making a proper topographical plan of the country, and as its appearance, and especially the magnitude and even number of the rivers, differs at different seasons of the year, we need not be surprised at their conflicting statements, even had they not been mostly under the influence of some preconceived theory. The system of Chevalier, which for a while was pretty generally acquiesced in, was founded on the assumption that the Menderes, the principal river of the Troad, was the Simois, and that the small river to the S. of the latter, the Bour-nabashi or Kerki-Jos, was the Scamander of Homer. This hypothesis is now, however, generally abandoned, and it is indeed surprising it should ever have obtained currency.* Inasmuch, however, as it would be impossible to make minute details intelligible without the aid of a map, we shall merely observe that Major Rennet and Mr. Maclaren have all but demonstrated that the Menderes is identical with Dr. Chandler, that the Thymbrius, (now the Dumbrek-sou), a river to the N.E. of the Menderes, with which it unites before they fall into the sea, is the Simois of Homer, appears to be satisfactorily established by Mr. Maclaren. It is, in fact, the only river in the Troad, excepting the Menderes, that in any respect corresponds with the descriptions given in the Iliad of the Simois; and the plain between the Menderes and the Thymbrius is the only one of sufficient extent to allow of the battles described by the poet being fought.

Dr. Clarke has conclusively shown (iii. 133, 8vo. ed.) that the ruins at *Palaio Catifus*, or Iastir, are certainly those of the New Ilium of Strabo. They are situated on a rising ground about 3 m. from the sea, and about midway between the Menderes and Thymbrius. Here the learned traveller found not only the traces but the remains of an ancient citadel; and at the very moment of his visit the Turks were employed in raising vast blocks of marble from the foundations of this edifice, which exhibited the colossal and massive style of architecture peculiar to the early ages of Greek history. The ground around was covered with fragments of broken pottery, and medals have been discovered among the ruins.

In the time of Strabo, New Ilium, whose position is thus clearly identified, was believed by its inhab. to occupy the identical site of the ancient city, and such had been the belief uniformly entertained by them from the earliest period: "Hence," says Tacitus, "*Illenses antiquitatis gloria pollebant* (Annal. lib. iv. cap. 55.) Strabo, however, places the old city considerably more to the E., but we agree with Mr. Maclaren in rejecting this statement, and in believing that the old and new city stood upon the same site. The fact is, that a city taken by an enemy, and given up to military execution, is never completely destroyed; the foundations, with portions of its walls and temples, are always sure to remain, and these with the ruins afford many facilities for the construction of a new city. There is no reason to think that the destruction of Troy was in any respect more complete than that of Thebes by Alexander the Great, and yet the latter was rebuilt in the course of 20 years. And it is further to be observed that the conqueror now named visited New Ilium, in the full conviction that it represented the ancient city, sacrificed to Minerva and the manes of Priam, conferred immunities on the inhab., and gave orders that the walls of the town should be rebuilt, which intention was carried into effect after his death by Lysimachus. It is childish to suppose that Alexander should have done this unless he had been satisfied of the identity of the old and new city; and neither Arrian, nor any one else of his historians, so much as intimes a doubt upon the subject. It would be rash and unwarrantable to set aside such evidence on the sole authority of Demetrius of Scerpius, who has, in this instance, been followed by Strabo, more especially as it has been shown that the site of New Ilium corresponds incomparably better with the Ilium of Homer than any other site on the Troad.

Perhaps it may be said, that, before endeavouring to point out the situation of Troy, it might have been as well to inquire whether that city ever existed, and whether any such war as that of Troy was ever carried on. But such inquiries would be wholly misplaced in a work of this kind; and though it had been otherwise, they would be wholly superfluous. It is the mere wantonness of scepticism to call in question the existence of Troy. Even if there were nothing more, the Iliad, which obvi-

ously describes real and not fictitious events, would be conclusive of the question; and when we add the concurrent testimony of the most ancient and best Greek authors, including Hesiod, Herodotus, and Thucydides, and the traditions universally prevalent as to the event, we should be quite as much disposed to deny the existence of Nineveh, Babylon, or even Jerusalem, as of Troy.

Exclusive of Troy, the Troad contained, at a later period, some other cities, such as Sigium, on the sea shore, at the mouth of the Hellespont, near the promontory of the same name, and adjoining the barrow or mound called the tomb of Achilles. It was founded posterior to the siege of Troy by an Æolian colony. It had, however, ceased to exist in the time of Strabo. But the town of Alexandria Troas, on the coast, about 17 m. S. from Sigium, was by far the most important of the towns in the Troad built after the destruction of Troy. It was founded by Antigonus, one of Alexander's generals; and became, under the Romans, one of the most flourishing of their Asiatic colonies. (Strabo, lib. xiii.) It is twice mentioned in the "Acts of the Apostles," and was the scene of a miracle. (*Acts*, caps. xvi. and xx.) Its site, now called Eski Stambul, is identified by the remains of walls and other buildings, including a theatre, gymnasium, a magnificent aqueduct, &c., that sufficiently attest its ancient magnificence. (See *Chevalier on the Plain of Troy*, with Notes by Dabell, 4to., 1791; *Rennet on the Topography of the Plain of Troy*, 4to., 1814; *Chandler's History of Ilium or Troy*, 4to., 1802; *Maclaren's Dissertation on the Plain of Troy*, 8vo., 1822, &c. In 1794, (most probably, for the date is not given), Mr. Bryant published at Eton his singular Dissertation, to show that no such city as Troy ever existed, and that the expedition against it never was undertaken. This Dissertation was answered, and, as we think, completely refuted, by Mr. J. B. S. Morritt, in his *Vindication of Homer*, 4to., 1798; a variety of other tracts have appeared on this curious question, but the above, with the replies of Bryant and Morritt, exhaust the subject.)

TRONDHJEM (vulg. *Drontheim*), a town and seaport of Norway, cap. prov. of its own name, on the Nid (whence its an. name *Nidrosia*) at its mouth, in the deep gulph called Trondhjem-fjord, 375 m. N.E. Bergen, lat. 60° 25' 50" N., long. 10° 22' 50" E. Pop., in 1838, 12,358. A great deal of expense has been incurred in its fortification; but, as it is commanded by heights beyond the Nid, which surrounds it on the S. and E., it is not really strong. The fortress of Munkholm, bristling with cannon, stands on a small island in the fjord opposite the city; but it is, perhaps, more serviceable as a prison than a military outwork.

Trondhjem is, on the whole, well built, though its houses be almost all of wood. The streets are spacious, with water cisterns at their intersections; and the town has a singular air of cleanliness and comfort. The most remarkable edifice is the cathedral, built principally of stone, and founded early in the 11th century, though little of the original structure remains. It is, however, large enough to show that it had been originally one of the most magnificent ecclesiastical structures in Europe. (*Clarke's Travels*, x. 232.) Part of the architecture is Saxon, the rest Gothic, and round and pointed arches are frequently intermixed. The extreme length has been 346 ft., and its breadth 84 ft.; but the W. end, where was the grand entrance, had a chapel at each corner, making the breadth of that front 140 ft. (*Laing*, p. 69.) Only the transept and E. end of the building are now roofed in and used; the W. part serves for a timber yard. There are three other churches, all plain structures; an hospital for the aged and infirm; a work-house; a public library and museum, in which are collections of books, minerals, natural history, and antiquities, better than might have been expected in so remote a part of Europe; a public grammar-school, Lancasterian schools, a theatre, and many hospitals and charitable institutions. The palace of the military commandant, though constructed wholly of wood, was, in the opinion of Clarke, the first edifice of its kind in Scandinavia. There are no regular inns in Trondhjem, but several good boarding houses.

The town is governed by a corporation of twelve persons, elected from among the mercantile body; and is the seat of the superior courts, &c. for all the country N. of the Dovre-field. The roadstead of Trondhjem is but indifferent, being unprotected both on the N. and W., and the bottom loose ground in 20 fathoms: the river does not admit vessels drawing more than 10 or 12 ft. water. Dried fish, tar, deals, and copper from Rorasa, are the principal articles of export.

According to Dr. Clarke, Trondhjem-fjord never freezes; and the cold of winter, though severe, is not nearly so great as at Rorasa, which lies more to the S. The surrounding country is studded with merchants' villas; and immediately beyond the town is an extensive suburb, reached by a good wooden bridge across the river.

Trondhjem is now connected by a continuous carriage-
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* Chevalier's theory has been opposed by Cramer: see his *Asia Minor*, i. 97, &c.; but he adds nothing to Chevalier's statements, and does not even seem to have been aware of the existence of Mr. Maclaren's work.

road with the Swedish capital; and in 1838 a government steam-boat commenced running between Trondhjem and Hammerfest, calling off Tromsø and other intermediate ports, from spring till Sept. English is understood and spoken by many of the inhabs. Mr. Barrow says the manners and appearance of the upper classes nearly resemble our own; and most of them are, in fact, more or less connected with mercantile houses in England, many having been educated in England, and others being accustomed to visit it once a year. (*Barrow's Excursions in the N. of Europe*, pp. 345, 346.) The lower classes generally read and write; and among the opulent many are distinguished for their literary taste. (*Clarke, Preface to Scandinavia*, x. &c.; *Laing; Barrow*, &c. passim.)

TRIOIS RIVIERES. See THREE RIVERS.

TROND (ST.), Flem. *St. Trogen*, a town of Belgium, prov. Limbourg, cap. cant., on a tributary of the Demer, 30 m. W. by S. Maestricht. Pop., in 1836, 8,490. It is supposed to owe its origin to a Benedictine abbey, founded here in 657: it was formerly fortified; but its works were dismantled in 1697. It has a considerable manufacture of fire-arms; and some trade in lace, leather, &c. A sanguinary action took place between the French and Austrians, in its vicinity, in 1793.

TROON, a sea-port town of Ayrshire, on a point of land projecting into the sea, 6 m. N. by W. Ayr, and 8 m. S.W. Kilmarnock. Pop. in 1841, 3,148. It is a neat, well-built town. The par. church is at Dunsodal, about 4 m. distant; but it has a chapel-of-ease and a chapel belonging to the United Secession church. Troon Harbour, on the N. side of the promontory on which the town is built, is the most accessible of any on the Ayrshire coast, has 16 ft. water at low spring ebbs, and sufficient accommodation for a great number of ships. Its advantages had, however, been wholly neglected till it came into the possession of its present noble proprietor, the Duke of Portland, who has constructed a large dry or graving dock, not surpassed by any other in Scotland, for the building or repair of vessels of large size; a smaller do.; and is now constructing a wet dock, which will accommodate 50 sail. It is also furnished with commodious warehouses, and a harbour-light. Through the exertions of his Grace, the Troon has been united, by a railway, with Kilmarnock, by which it has been made, to some extent at least, the port of the latter. Great quantities of coal are raised in the vicinity, which, being brought to this port by the railway for shipment, are exported to the amount, in ordinary years, of about 168,000 tons. Ship-building employs from 100 to 200 hands; and rope and sail-making, and the trades connected with them, are also carried on to some extent. About 4,000 tons shipping belong to the port. Branches of the Ayr Bank, and of the Glasgow Union Bank, have been opened in the town. The Glasgow, Paisley, and Ayr Railway, passes within less than a mile of Troon, with which it is about being connected by a branch railway. (*Private Information*.)

TROPEZ (ST.), a maritime town of France, dep. Var, on a bay of the Mediterranean, 38 m. E. by N. Toulon. Pop., in 1836, 3,637. The inscriptions, medals, &c., found here, prove that it occupies the site of *Ac-racka*, an important maritime town of antiquity. It has a citadel, and towards the sea is defended by some old walls; its port is spacious and good, but is little frequented, except by fishermen, which comprise a large proportion of its inhabs. St. Tropez is the seat of a tribunal of commerce, a council of *prud'hommes*, and a school of navigation.

TROPPEAU, a town of the Austrian dominions, cap. Austrian Silesia, and of the principality and circle of its own name; on the Oppa, a tributary of the Oder, 37 m. N.E. Olmütz. Pop., in 1837, including its suburbs, 12,566. It is well situated, is walled, and entered by four gates, and is well built. Its principal edifices comprise a castle, town hall, theatre, high school, and sundry churches. It is the seat of courts for its province, circle, and duchy, a tribunal of commerce, a gymnasium, to which a flourishing museum was attached in 1814, and considerable manufactures of woollen and linen fabrics, with others of soap, leather, liqueurs, &c. Troppau was, from 20th Oct. to 20th Nov., 1820, the place of meeting of the diplomatic congress, which afterwards removed to Laybach. (*Oesterr. Nat. Encyc.*; *Berghaus*.)

TROY, a town or city of the United States, in New York, co. Rensselaer, of which it is the cap., on the Hudson River, 7 m. N.N.E. Albany. Pop., in 1830, 11,405; in 1840, 19,344. It stands on a high alluvial flat, on both sides the river, but principally on the E. bank, where it is backed by some eminences dignified with the names of Mounts Ida, Olympus, &c. It is regularly laid out, most of the streets crossing each other at right angles; and well built, the houses being commonly of brick, and some of stone. The thoroughfares are, in general, about 60 ft. in breadth, macadamised, shaded with trees, and well lighted. Many of the public buildings are elegant, particularly the court-house, with a Grecian front, and the episcopal church, one of the finest specimens of

modern Gothic architecture in the United States. There are many churches for other sects, 3 large female seminaries, the Rensselaer Institute, a bureau of natural history academy, Lancasterian school, orphan asylum, house of industry, county prison, mechanics', national, and other halls, several banks, &c. "The city is abundantly watered by subterranean iron pipes from a basin in the neighbouring town of Lansingburg, 73 ft. above the city plain. The height and volume of water are sufficient to furnish *jets d'eau* in the city, and to throw large streams, in case of fire, through hose, without the intervention of engines. The supply of water is 1,500,000 gallons per day; the cost of the works 130,000 dollars, for which a large debt remained in 1835 on the city." (*New York Gazetteer*.) Two streams join the Hudson within the city, and afford water power for many factories. Troy had in 1835, 8 flour and 4 cotton mills, with paper and slitting mills, nail and iron works, breweries, tanneries, and leather factories, 2 carriage factories, where were built, in one year, 150 stage coaches, &c. "The trade of Troy by land is with an extensive range of country E. and N., within which there are 67 cotton factories, using annually more than 3,500,000 lbs. of cotton; and 40 woollen factories, making up annually more than 1,000,000 lbs. of wool. The merchants and millers have, in one season, purchased more than 500,000 bushels of wheat, 180,000 bush. of other grain, and 35,000 barrels of provisions, besides large quantities of lard, butter, cheese, &c." (*New York Gaz.*) The canal trade had nearly doubled between 1829 and 1835. W. Troy is on the United Champlain and Erie canal, and at present communicates with the rest of the city by 3 steam-boat ferries; though the erection of a bridge is in contemplation. Rensselaer and Saratoga railroad crosses the Hudson at Troy by a bridge 1,600 ft. in length, resting upon 8 stone piers. Troy was first incorporated in 1796, and has now become the third city in the State, in wealth and importance. (*New York Gaz.*; *Amer. Traveller*.)

TROWBRIDGE, a market town and pa. of England, co. Wilts., hund. Melkham, on a tributary of the Avon, the Wre, which is here crossed by a stone bridge, 31 m. N.W. Salisbury. Area of par. 1,960 acres. Pop. in 1831, 10,863; in 1841, 11,060. The principal street is spacious, but the others are generally narrow and inconvenient, and though some of the houses are good, the greater proportion are but indifferent. Many are, however, constructed of stone, and the town is paved, and lighted with gas. Trowbridge Church, a large and striking edifice, consists of a nave, chancel, two side aisles, with attached chapels, in the windows of which is a good deal of stained glass, and lofty N. and S. porches. The two side aisles are separated from the nave by five pointed arches, springing from clustered columns, and are externally embellished and ornamented with crocketed pinnacles; at the W. extremity is a large tower with a tapering spire. The living, a rectory, worth 600*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Duke of Rutland. Trinity Church, at the W. end of the town, erected within these few years, is a fine building, with a considerable number of free sittings. It has, also, meeting-houses for General and Particular Baptists, Presbyterians, Wesleyans, Independents, &c. (dissenters being very numerous in Trowbridge); a free school, an almshouse, and most of the different sects support Sunday-schools. The manufacture of woollen cloth was established in Trowbridge at an early period. Casimeres, fancy kerseys, tweeds, &c., and other narrow woollens, are the principal products. In 1839, 19 woollen mills were in full work in the par., employing together 1278 hands, and there may be in the town and its immediately contiguous district about 1650 looms. (*Hand-loom and Factory Rep.*) But at present (1842) the trade is very much depressed. The Kennet and Avon canal passes about 1 m. N. of the town, placing it in communication with London on the one hand, and Bristol on the other. Trowbridge is under the jurisdiction of the co. magistrates, who hold petty sessions here monthly, and a court of requests, for debts not above 5*l.*, every three weeks. Markets, Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays; fairs, Aug. 5 to 7, for cattle, pedlars, millinery, &c. Crabbe, the celebrated poet, was for 18 years rector of this par., where he died Feb. 3d, 1832.

TROYES (an. *Trecca* and *Augustobona Tricassium*), a town of France, dep. Aube, of which it is the cap., on the Seine, which partly surrounds it, and is partly diverted into its interior by numerous canals, for the supply of its various factories, 52 m. E.S.E. Paris. Lat. 48° 16' 3" N., long. 30° 46' 39" E. Pop., in 1846, 24,702. It is inclosed by an old wall in pretty good condition, and has several suburbs. The town is but ill-built, most of its houses being constructed of timber; though some of its new quarters are clean and sufficiently well laid out. Before the Revolution, Troyes comprised 22 par., but their number has since been greatly diminished. The cathedral is a fine Gothic structure, chiefly constructed on the site of a previous edifice, in the 13th century, though not finished till towards the end of the 16th. Its

terior length is 374 ft.; breadth, 164 ft.; height of the vault, 96 ft., and of the cupola externally, 304 ft. There is a good deal of curious stained glass in this church, the figures representing the kings of France, counts of Champagne, bishops of Troyes, and other personages of the 13th century, in the peculiar costume of that period, and of the size of life. Some of the other churches deserve being visited. The town-hall is an edifice of the 17th century, with a handsome front, and a hall in which are the marble busts of the most distinguished natives of Troyes. The museum contains collections of mineralogy, natural history, and paintings; and the public library is said by Hugo and others to comprise 55,000 printed vols., and nearly 5,000 MSS. The hall in which these works are placed is about 160 ft. in length, and 30 ft. in width; and on its panels are paintings by Gonthier, representing the principal achievements of Henry IV. The prefecture, bishop's palace, seminary, hospital, court-house, public baths, and *abbattoir* are the other most remarkable buildings. The environs are particularly beautiful. It is the seat of courts of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a chamber of commerce, council of *prud'hommes*; the residence of an inspector-general of navigation, &c. It has manufactures of cotton, hosiery, calico, woollen cloths, blankets, and cotton and woollen yarn; with bleaching establishments, for which the water of the Seine is said to be most suitable; paper-mills, &c. Troyes was formerly the cap. of Champagne; and it was here that Hen. V. of England espoused Catherine of France. In 1429, it was taken from the English by the French troops, under Joan of Arc. In the campaign of 1814, it was the head quarters of Napoleon. Among the distinguished individuals, natives of Troyes, may be specified Pope Urban IV., the sculptor Ghardon, and the painter Mignard. (*Hugo, art. Aube, &c.*)

TRURO, a pari. and mun. bor. and market-town of England, in Cornwall, hund. Powder, on the Fal, 7 m. N. by E. Falmouth, and 330 m. W.S.W. London. Pop. of pari. bor., in 1841, 9,901. This is decidedly the handsomest, and including its suburbs, the largest town in Cornwall. It owes its increase and prosperity partly to its being in the centre of an important mining district, and a principal stannary town, and partly to its situation on a river navigable thus far at high water by vessels of 100 tons. The streets are partially paved, and lighted with gas. The town and bor. are comprised in the 3 pars. of St. Mary, Kenwyn, and St. Clement's. St. Mary's church is built of Boborough stone, which, at first sight, seems like granite. In a rich and beautiful perpendicular style. The interior has, however, been modernised; and a modern steeple has been attached to the church. (*Rickman's Goth. Architect.*) The living, a rectory worth 138*l.* a year, is in the gift of Lord Mount Edgcumbe. There are meeting-houses for Independents, Wesleyans, Baptists, Unitarians, Friends, Bryanites, and various other sects; and a grammar-school, founded in 1760, which has an income of 100*l.* a year, with two exhibitions at Exeter College, Oxford. Sir H. Davy received his early education in this school. It has also an almshouse, and several mar. halls, town and coinnage hall, a court, infirmary, barracks, theatre, workhouse, a small gaol, a subscription library, and several societies for instruction or amusement. The exports of Truro consist chiefly of tin and copper; with some paper and carpeting made in the town. Truro is of high antiquity; and had formerly a castle built in the reign of Henry II., and some other ancient edifices; but these no longer exist. It is said to be a bor. by prescription; its earliest charter appearing to have been one granted by Reginald, Earl of Cornwall, at an uncertain date, but certainly before 1280. It is now divided into 2 wards, and is governed by a mayor, 5 other aldermen, and 18 councillors. It has a commission of the peace, a weekly court of record, and some minor courts. (*Corp. rev.* in 1847-8, 3,658*l.* It has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the 23 Edward I., the right of voting, down to the Reform Act, having been in the mayor, and 26 capital burgesses. The old pari. bor. comprised only the central part of the town, and the adjacent part of Kenwyn par.; but the Boundary Act at least doubled its former extent. Registered electors, 1849-50, 558. Markets, Wednesday and Saturday, and a cattle-market the first Wednesday in every month, for some time past, principally for cattle. Foote, the comedian, was a native of Truro, where he first saw the light 27th Jan. 1721. (*Parli. Boundary and Mun. Corp. Reports; and Appendix, &c.*)

TRUXILLO, or TRUJILLO, a town of Spain, in Estremadura, prov. Caceres, cap. dep., on the Tozo, a tributary of the Tagus, and on the high road between Madrid and Lisbon, 134 m. S.W. by W. the former. Pop. about 4,500 (*Milano*). It is divided into the city, the old town, and the citadel, which successively occupy the foot, acclivity, and summit of a hill facing the S. The city is the newest portion; it is well built out, and has a fine square, and several handsome residences, most of the wealthy inhabitants, having removed thither from the old town. In the

square is a large mansion, once belonging to the family of Pizarro, a native of Truxillo; the front of which is ornamented with bas-reliefs, representing the conquest of Peru. The old town, surrounded by a wall, is ill-built and dirty; but the castle, with a mixture of ancient and Saracenic architecture, is imposing; and the appearance of Truxillo at a distance is very prepossessing. It has the usual complement of churches and convents, with several hospitals, a college, post-house, &c., and manufactures of leather and linen fabrics. The name of this town appears to be a corruption of *Turris Julia*. It is supposed to be the *Castra Julia* of Ptolemy; and several Roman antiquities have been discovered in the town and neighbourhood. (*Milano; Mod. Trav. xix.*)

TRUXILLO, or TRUJILLO, a town of Colombia, in Venezuela, cap. prov. of its own name, in a mountainous valley, 150 m. S.E. Maracaybo. Pop. estimated at about 8,000. It is said to have been one of the finest and most opulent cities of this part of America, previously to its being pillaged by the buccaneer Gramont, in 1678, when most of its inhab. fled to Merida. The valley in which the city is built is so narrow as to admit nowhere of more than two parallel streets, and the houses are small and mean. There are Dominican and Franciscan convents, a college, several schools, &c. The climate is healthy; the adjacent lands produce sugar, cocoa, indigo, coffee, and wheat; the mutton is larger and finer than in any other part of the prov. The inhabs. make superior cheese and preserves; and are famed for cleaning and carding wool. Its trade is principally northward with Carora and Maracaybo. (*Depons in Mod. Trav. xxvii. 219; Codazzi, Géog. de Venezuela.*)

TSCHERKASK (NOVI or NEW), a town of European Russia, cap. of the country of the Don-Cossacks, on a hill adjoining a tributary of the Don, 250 m. S.S.E. Voronezh; lat. 49° 24' 29" N., long. 89° 38' E. Pop., according to Schmitzler, about 14,000, but, according to Possart, only 12,000. It is wholly modern, having been founded under the auspices of Platoff in 1806; its streets are regular and broad, but some years since they were neither paved nor lighted, and most of the buildings were of wood. A triumphal arch, of hewn stone, stands at either extremity of the main thoroughfare, and there is a large square in which Platoff had begun to build a residence for himself. The town is a bishop's see; and has a new cathedral, gymnasium, circle-school, hospital, arsenal, &c. It is the seat of all the government offices for the Don-Cossack country, which were removed thither, in 1807, from Staro, or Old Tscherkassk, on the Don, about 10 m. S. by E., in consequence of the inundations to which the latter was subject. The new cap. is favourably placed to avoid this evil, but it labours under a great drawback in being near no navigable river. Staro-Tscherkassk, which formerly had 15,000 inhabs., has now dwindled into insignificance. The new town has annually four large fairs; to one of which goods to the value of upwards of 2,000,000 roubles are frequently brought. (*Possart Kaiserth. Russland; Schmitzler, Geogr. Trav. in Russia.*)

TUAM, an island of Ireland, prov. Connaught, Co. Galway, on a small river, 15 m. E. Lough Corrib, and 105 m. W. by N. Dublin. Pop. in 1841, 6,037. This town has greatly improved, and increased in pop. during the last 20 years. Several new buildings are in progress. The principal streets diverge from the market-place, in the centre of the town; and some of them have lately been widened and much improved. Still, however, much squalid poverty is to be found in the town and its wretched outlets. It is of considerable importance in an ecclesiastical point of view, having been till recently the seat of a Protestant, as it still is of a Catholic archbishop. But, in 1859, on the demise of the late Protestant prelate, the see was reduced from an archbishopric to a bishopric, suffragan to Armagh. The Protestant cathedral is a small plain building; but the Rom. Cath. cathedral is a splendid structure, and is, indeed, by far the finest of the modern Rom. Cath. churches in Ireland. Here, also, is the Rom. Cath. college of St. Jarlath, founded in 1814, usually attended by about 140 pupils. It has also a nunnery, a diocesan school, and other public schools, a court-house and gaol, barracks, dispensary, &c. The town comprises the palace and handsome demesne of the Protestant bishop. Tuam sent 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C. down to the Union, when it was disfranchised. General sessions are held twice a year, and petty sessions on Wednesdays: it is a constabulary station. The manufacture of coarse linens and leather is carried on to some extent; and it has a brewery and flour-mills, and a weekly newspaper. Markets on Wednesdays and Saturdays; fairs, May 10, July 4, Oct. 20., and Dec. 15. Post-office revenue in 1830, 849*l.*; in 1836, 1072*l.* Branches of the agricultural and national banks were opened in 1835 and 1836.

It is worthy of remark, that, notwithstanding Tuam has been for long an episcopal see, the seat of a Protestant archbishop, with a large revenue at his disposal, there were, in 1834, only 428 individuals in the par. that be-

longed to the Established Church, whereas the Catholic pop. amounted to no fewer than 14,511! The country round Tuam is flat, badly cultivated, and the peasantry poor and depressed in the extreme. (*Municipal Boundary Report, Fraser's Guide to Ireland, &c.*)

TUBINGEN, a town of S. Germany, kingd. Wirtemberg, circ. Schwartzwald on the Neckar, 17 m. S.S.W. Stuttgart. Pop., in 1843, 8,000. It is old and irregularly built; its principal edifice is the castle, formerly the stronghold of the Palgraves of Tubingen, but now appropriated to the university of Wirtemberg. This university was founded in 1477; and the famous reformers, Melancthon and Rauchlin, were among its earliest professors: It has both a Rom. Catholic and a Protestant theological faculty. In 1835, it had 734 students; of whom 289 attended divinity, 82 law, 166 medicine and surgery, and 181 philosophy, &c. About 100 students were subjects of other German states. (*Journ. of Educ.*, vol. ix.) In 1846 it had 863 students. This university has an observatory, botanic garden, cabinets of mineralogy, zoology, &c. and a library. The chief support of the inhab. of Tubingen is derived from the retail supply of this and the other public schools; but they have also a few manufactures of woollens, gunpowder, &c. (*Berghaus; Memminger, Beschreibung von Wirtemb.*)

TUCUMAN, the cap. of the state of the same name, in the S. American confederacy of La Plata, in a fertile plain on a tributary of the Medinas, and on the high road between Buenos Ayres and Potosi, about 315 m. N.N.W. Cordova; lat. 26° 49' S., long. 64° 55' W. Pop. estimated at 12,000. It has a cathedral, several convents, a Jesuit's college, &c.; but the inhab. generally, from their remote inland position, appear to have made little progress in science or the arts of civilised life. Their principal trade is in oxen and mules. Tucuman was founded in 1685. It is memorable in history as the place at which the declaration of the Independence of the Plata provs. was first promulgated, and where their first congress was held in 1816. (*Dict. Geog.*)

TUDELA (an. *Tudela*), a city of Spain, prov. Navarre, in which it holds the second rank on the Ebro, where it is joined by the Quellos, and near the commencement of the great canal of Aragon, 50 m. N.W. Saragossa. Pop. 8,150 (*Milano*). The Ebro is here crossed by a noble bridge, of uncertain origin, 400 Spanish (or nearly as many English) yards in length, and having 17 arches. Tudela was formerly fortified, but nothing remains of its ancient walls, except the gates, or of its citadel more than one tower. Its streets are narrow, crooked, and dirty; its houses lofty, and mostly of brick: there are many private and some public fountains, and the remains, in several places, of baths, constructed by the Moors. Along the river are some shaded public walks. It has a cathedral, in which Blanche, of Castile, the queen of Peter the Cruel was buried, many other churches and convents, two hospitals, an orphan asylum, workhouse, prison, society of public good, Latin and medical schools. Its inhab. manufacture coarse woollens, hair fabrics, soap, tiles, bricks, and earthenware, and trade in oil, flour, and wine, esteemed the best in the prov. Tudela has two large annual fairs; one from 1st to 21st March, and the other from 22d July to 10th Aug. It has given birth to several distinguished characters, including, amongst others, the Jewish traveller of the 12th century, the rabbi Benjamin Ben Jonah, commonly called Benjamin of Tudela. On the 33d of Nov. 1808, a French army, under Marshal Lasnes, completely defeated, in the vicinity of this town, a greatly superior Spanish force under Castaños. The latter lost about 8,000 men, killed, wounded, and prisoners, and were completely dispersed. (*Milano; Napier's Peninsular War*, l. 406.)

TVER, a gov. of European Russia, between the 56th and 59th degs. of N. lat., and the 32d and 38th of E. long.; having N. Novgorod, E. Jaroslavl and Vladimir, S. Moscow and Smolensko, and W. Pakof. Area estimated at 26,000 sq. m. Pop. in 1846, 1,327,700. The surface of this government is generally more elevated than that of other parts of European Russia; and several large rivers, as the Volga, Tvertza, Mologa, Medvezitsa, &c. rise within its limits. In its W. part are several lakes. The Volga has its source in the lake of Selighur, and afterwards traverses the government in nearly its whole length from W. to E. The climate is severe, and the soil is but indifferently fertile. The harvests are precarious, and scarcely ever produce more than sufficient for home consumption. A good deal of hemp and flax, with beans, &c., are grown; but few kinds of fruit succeed. The forests are extensive, particularly in the N.; and about 319,000 declinations of forest land belong to the crown. Manufactures of little consequence, but increasing: those of drying materials and spirituous liquors are the principal; and there are others of bricks, glass ware, ropes, leather, woollen cloths, &c. This government is, however, distinguished for its commercial activity: and the capital of its merchants has been estimated at 17 million roubles. The trade centres mostly

in Tver, the cap., and is facilitated by the Vitchny-Volotschok Canal, which establishes a water communication between the Baltic and Caspian seas. The district of the government traversed by this canal is inhabited by a tribe of Carelians, and in the cap. is a German colony; but the pop. is mostly Russian, of the Greek church. This government is divided into 12 districts; chief towns, Tver, the cap., Torshok, Rjef and Bejests.

TVER, a town of European Russia, cap. of the above gov., on the Volga, here crossed by a wooden bridge 550 ft. in length, where it is joined by the Tvertza and Tmaka, and on the high road between Moscow and Petersburg; 90 m. N.W. the former; lat. 56° 51' 44" N., long. 35° 57' 36" E. Pop. in 1850, about 35,000. In respect of the regularity of its streets and buildings, Tver ranks next to the two Russian capitals; but wants their bustle and animation. It is divided by the several rivers into the town proper, suburbs, and citadel. The last, surrounded by a rampart of earth, comprises the governor's residence, an imperial palace, the cathedral, and a seminary; and its numerous towers and cupolas rise, at a distance, an imposing appearance. The cathedral is a square edifice, with a lofty spire, surmounted by a gilt copper dome, and surrounded, lower down, by four similar domes. The seminary, founded in 1727, for the instruction of 700 pupils in the sciences and ancient languages, is established in a convent built in the 13th century. There are numerous churches, government buildings, barracks, inns, a theatre, &c. and several public promenades, planted with trees. Tver owes its present regularity and beauty to a fire which almost totally destroyed it in 1703; after which the Empress Catherine ordered it to be rebuilt on a uniform plan. Some houses are of stone, but the greater part are of wood; and the paving is mostly of the same material. Captain Cochrane states that an impost is levied upon every horse that passes the gates, expressly to pave the streets. (*Mod. Trav.*, xvii. 114.)

Tver is a place of considerable trade, a large part of its pop. being merchants, or engaged in the navigation of the Volga. It is an entrepôt for corn from the S. destined for Petersburg, and for goods conveyed overland to and from Riga. It is of considerable antiquity, having been the cap. of a principality as early as the middle of the 13th century. It has frequently suffered from the plague, and been taken by both the Tartars and Poles; but it has remained, with little interruption, attached to the dom. of the Russians since 1490. (*Schultze; Pessart; Mod. Trav.*, &c.)

TULA, a government of European Russia, principally between the 53d and 56th degs. of N. lat., and the 36th and 39th of E. long., having N. the government of Moscow, E. that of Riazan, S. Orloff, and W. Kaluga. Length, about 130 m.; average breadth, about 85 m. Area estimated at 11,300 sq. m. Pop. in 1846, 1,327,000, this being one of the most populous of the Russian governments. It slopes generally to the N. and E., in which direction the Oka flows, forming its N. and N. boundary. The Don rises in this government. The surface is an undulating plain, and, though not very fertile, it produces a good deal of corn, with beans, turnips, mustard, flax, hemp, tobacco, potatoes, and other vegetables. The peasants, almost everywhere, have gardens in which they grow fruit, &c.; the climate being tolerably mild and healthy. In 1820, there were estimated to be about 300,000 head of cattle, 350,000 horses, and upwards of 1,000,000 sheep in Tula. Iron is abundant, and in the neighbourhood of the cap. iron mines extend over an area of 10 sq. m.; but the metal is of inferior quality, and iron is one of the chief imports into the government. A bad sort of coal has, also, been met with; but wood and charcoal continue to be the principal fuel used in the forges and other factories. Forests cover about 1-6th part of the surface. Dr. Lyall says that, S. of Tula, there is not so profuse a waste of timber in the construction of the peasants' houses as nearer Petersburg. Indeed, some of the houses are not built in the usual way with trunks of trees morticed together at the corners, but consist of wattled wicker-work. The dwellings, or rather the huts of the peasants, which range along both sides of the roads, are more paltry in their appearance, and more simple in their structure than those between the capitals. Indeed, they gradually become more miserable as we proceed S. till we come to regions where stone abounds. (*Trav.* l. 51-2.) Except in the capital there are hardly any manufacturing establishments other than tanneries, breweries, and distilleries, the last two being on a very extensive scale. The exports consist principally of corn, hemp, and flax, with cutlery, jewellery, hardware, &c., from Tula; the latter, with Breleff, being the chief seat of commerce. In this government is the canal of Ivanof, uniting the Oka with the Don, excavated by the Swedish prisoners in Russia early in the 18th century. Tula has been a separate government since 1796: it is divided into 13 districts; chief towns, Tula the cap., Breleff, Venef, and Oodief. Its inhab. are nearly all Russians,

with some German colonists. In respect of public instruction, Tula is subordinate to the university of Moscow: in 1835, 1,476 children were attending the public schools. Public revenue in 1821, 9,312,173 roubles.

TULA, a town of European Russia, cap. of the above government, on both sides the Upa, 110 m. S. Moscow, lat. 54° 11' 25" N.; long. 37° 1' 24" E. Pop., including the government workmen, but exclusive of troops, about 35,000. (*Possart*, 537.) This town, the "Sheffield and Birmingham" of Russia, is one of the most interesting in the empire. Clarke says that, as seen from a distance, it has an imposing appearance. A very handsome church, with white columns, appears above the town, which occupies an extensive vale, and is flanked with spires and domes. The entrances on both the N. and S. sides, are through triumphal arches, made of wood painted to imitate marble. (*Trav. I.* 337.) It is divided into several quarters, the communication between them being kept up by a number of wooden and stone bridges; and there are several suburbs. There are 2 convents and 26 churches in Tula, all of stone; but the edifices which chiefly attract the stranger's attention, are the gun-manufactory, the gymnasium for the government; Alexander's school, opened in 1802 for the education of youth, at the expense of the nobility; the foundling hospital, a branch of that of Moscow; the house of correction, prison, arsenal, theatre, *gostinoi door*, or building for the preservation and sale of merchandise, &c. The shops in the latter present more activity and industry than are usually met with in Russian towns, and some of the merchants are reputed rich. There is a continual mixture of wood and stone houses; but some streets are lined on both sides with stone edifices, many of which are massive and in good taste. (*Clarke*; *Lyall*; &c.)

The musket manufactory, though commenced at an earlier period, is indebted for its original importance to Peter the Great. It was remodelled and improved by Catherine II. in 1786; but its present excellence is mainly owing to Mr. Jones of Birmingham, invited into Russia in 1817. About 7,000 men and 9,600 women are employed in this factory, besides 3,500 hands in subsidiary occupations. About 70,000 muskets and 50,000 swords are said to be annually made here, exclusive of great numbers of carbines, pistols, bayonets, pikes, &c. The metal employed comes wholly from Siberia, and is of excellent quality. The workmen in the gun-factory enjoy peculiar immunities and privileges; they form a separate body, and have their judges selected from among themselves. They are divided into five trades; barrel-makers, lock-makers, stock-makers, furnishing-makers, and makers of small arms. The arms made at this factory have been ridiculously depreciated by some travellers, and as extravagantly extolled by others. The exploits of the Russian armies speedily shewed the entire worthlessness of the statements made by Clarke as to the badness of the Tula muskets; and, in point of fact, though they want the neatness and finish of the muskets of Birmingham, they are of very good quality. Some, also, of the fire arms and swords made here are very highly finished; but these are comparatively high priced. Among the other fabrics of Tula are mathematical and physical instruments, jewellery, and platin ware, with silk and bat fabrics, tanneries, &c. The town is the residence of a military governor, with authority extending over the governments of Tula, Tambouf, Riasan, Orlof, Voroneje, and sometimes Kaluga.

Ancient Tula, which existed in the 12th century, did not occupy the site of the modern town, though it was on the Upa, at no great distance. The present city was founded in 1609, by Vassili-Ivanovich, who fortified it with a stone and brick wall, &c. Its defences, however, were insufficient to prevent its being frequently plundered by the Tartars, it being on the high road to Moscow from the Crimea. It has often suffered severely from fire; the last visitation being in 1834. (*Schweitzer*; *Possart*; *Clarke's Trav. I.*; *Lyall's Trav. in Russia*; *Modern Trav. xv.*)

TULLAMORE, an inland town of Ireland, prov. Leinster, King's co., of which it is now the cap., on the Tullamore river, an affluent of the Broena, and on the line of the Grand Canal, in the centre of the Bog of Allen, 49 m. W. by S. Dublin. Pop. in 1841, 6,243. In consequence of its advantageous position on the Grand Canal, this town, which in 1780 was an obscure village, has risen to be the principal town of the co. The streets are wide and regular, and the shops and private dwellings are most respectable. In addition to the ordinary passage-boats between Dublin and Ballinasloe and Limerick, which all touch here, it has a daily communication with Dublin, by means of the swift iron boats lately established on the canal. Large quantities of corn and other articles of provision are shipped here for the metropolis. In consequence of its increasing size and importance, the assizes and other co. business were transferred thither in 1833, from Philipstown. The principal public buildings are the court-house and gaol, on the radiating plan, which stand contiguous, on a raised platform, at the W. end of the

town. It has also a par. church, a large Rom. Cath. chapel, a Quaker and two Methodist meeting-houses, some large public schools, a market-house, barracks, and infirmary. It is a constabulary station, has 3 breweries, and 3 distilleries; and large quantities of bricks are made in the vicinity. Markets on Tuesdays and Saturdays; fairs May 10., July 10., and Oct. 21. Post-office revenue in 1830, 646*l.*; in 1836, 688*l.* A branch of the Bank of Ireland was opened here in 1836. Adjoining the town is Charleville Forest, the seat of its noble proprietor, the Earl of Charleville, to whose liberality and munificence the town is greatly indebted. The pleasure-grounds are open to the inhabs.

TUNLIZ, a town of France, dep. Correse, of which it is the cap., on the Correse, 73 m. S.W. Clermont. Pop. in 1846, ex. comm. 2,699; or inc. comm. 10,789. It stands partly on the steep declivities on either side the river, and partly on the narrow space of ground between. "It is small, and its buildings are old and unprepossessing; but it has a pleasant promenade on the river's bank, good quays, many bridges, a church in a semi-Gothic, semi-Carolingian style, a well-planned court of justice, some large buildings appropriated to a royal manufactory of fire-arms, carried on upon a very extensive scale, a well kept hospital, gendarmerie barracks, a departmental prison, college, seminary, theatre, and public library of 2,000 vols. Its inhabs. appear to have a decided taste for embellishment, and the town is expected thereby to manifest marked improvement in a few years. It has several mansions ornamented with Gothic and other sculptures, testifying the opulence of its ancient families. One house in particular, in the principal square, called the *Maison Sage*, and dating from the 14th century, has its front decorated with arabesques in good taste, and of superior execution. The cemetery of Tulle is in a remarkable situation, on an isolated hill, commanding the town, on which also is a lofty square tower, supposed to have been built by the Romans, which has long served for a prison." (*Hugo*, and *Guide du Voyageur*.)

Tulle has tribunals of original jurisdiction and commerce, a school of geometry, &c., a society of agriculture, and manufactures of wax candles, oil, nails, and hardware, paper and leather; but it is a curious fact that though the linen fabric called *Tulle*, most probably derived its name from this town, it is no longer produced either here or in the neighbourhood. It has 12 fairs a year, one of which lasting the 3 first days of June, is a great mart for horses. The principal races within a circle of several depts. are held near Tulle. This town is supposed to be not older than the 7th century; but about 3 m. northward are the ruins of Tintignac, probably the *Ratiastum* of Ptolemy, exhibiting traces of a large amphitheatre, and of other extensive edifices. (*Hugo*, art. *Correse*; *Dict. Geog.*)

TUNBRIDGE, or TONBRIDGE, a market town and par. of England, co. Kent, lathe Aylesford, hund. Tunbridge, on the Medway, 27 m. S.E. London. Area of parish, 14,730 acres. Population, in 1841, 12,530. The town appears to have owed its origin to a strong fortress situated in the 11th century, of which the entrance gate, flanked by two round towers, and part of the rampart still remain. It consists principally of one long, wide, and pretty well built street, paved, lighted, and very clean. The public buildings include the church, grammar-school, town-hall, and market-house. Several bridges cross the Medway, which is here divided into different streams, the principal being erected in 1775, from a design by Mr. Milne, architect of Blackfriars-bridge, London. The living, a valuable rectory, in the gift of — Deacon, Esq., is worth 763*l.* a year, nett. There are several dissenting chapels. The grammar-school, founded in 1554, by Sir Andrew Judd, a native of the town is under the government of the Skinner's Company, and has one exhibition to either university, of 18*l.*, two of 12*l.*, six of 10*l.*, and several to a less amount; besides which, 366*l.* is paid for master's salary, &c., leaving a considerable annual surplus. At present there are about 45 scholars on the foundation. Holme's school at Southborough, at which 50 children are taught the rudiments of instruction, has an income of 108*l.* a year; and there are several minor establishments for education, besides various other endowments for the benefit of the poor, amounting altogether to upwards of 60*l.* a year. (*Parl. Rec.*) It has a market on Friday, and four annual fairs. The grammar-school has had some very distinguished masters, among whom may be specified the learned Vicissimus Knox, D.D., author of *Moral and Literary Essays*, a treatise on *Liberal Education*, and various other popular and exceedingly useful works. Dr. Knox succeeded his father as master of the school in 1778; and having held the situation for 33 years, or till 1812, he was in his turn, succeeded by his son. The doctor died at Tunbridge in 1821.

The favourite watering-place, Tunbridge Wells, is partly in this par. and partly in those of Speldhurst and Frant in Sussex, being about 5 m. S. Tunbridge. It cony

sists of several different divisions, as Mounts Ephraim, Sion, and Plesant, and the Wells, the pump and assembly rooms, public parades, chapel of King Charles the Martyr, &c. being in the latter. The springs, which were first discovered in the reign of James I., soon attracted the notice of the fashionable world. Henrietta Maria, queen of Charles I., paid a visit to the wells; but there being at that period no houses nearer than Tunbridge, and those not particularly suitable for such a guest, her majesty and her suite lodged in tents pitched on Bishop's Down! The wells were also visited by Catherine, queen of Charles II., Queen Anne, and other distinguished personages. The water is a chalybeate, with an excess of carbonic acid gas, very similar to that of the *Poussou* spring at Spa in Belgium. Tunbridge Wells resembles Spa in some other particulars; as in its manufactures, toys, boxes, and turned wares being made here in great variety, and also in its being much less frequented now than formerly by the leaders of the *haut ton*. The season for taking the waters continues from May to November. There are races in August, which are tolerably well attended. The chapel at Tunbridge is situated at the junction of the three parishes of Spedhurst, Tunbridge, and Frant, and is partly in each. The air of this district is pure and salubrious, and is, perhaps, little less efficacious than the waters in removing complaints.

TUNIS (an. *Zugitania* and *Bracium*), the E. portion of the *Africa* of P. Mela, with part of *Gætulia*, a kingdom or regency of N. Africa, a nominal dependency of the Turkish empire, principally between the 33d and 37th degs. of N. lat., and the 9th and 11th of E. long.; having S.E. the regency of Tripoli, N.W. that of Algiers, S. and W. the desert, and N. and E. the Mediterranean. Length N. to S. about 400 m. Its area has been roughly calculated at 72,000 sq. m. The pop. has been very variously estimated; but, perhaps, it may be taken at 2 or 3 millions, of whom probably from 7,000 to 10,000 may be Turks, about the same number Christians, 112,000 renegades, 100,000 Jews, and the remainder Arabs, Moors, and Berbers, the Arabs being the most numerous. This territory is traversed by several branches of the chain of Atlas, one of which separates it from the *Bilud-El-Jerid*, or "country of dates." The S. part of the regency is mostly a sandy waste, and some other parts are desert; but many tracts are of the highest fertility, particularly those watered by the Mejerdah. This river, the *Bagrada* of the ancients, is formed by the union of two streams, on the W. frontier of Tunis, and runs thenceforward generally N.E., entering the Mediterranean about lat. 37° N., long. 10° E. a few m. N. of the site of Carthage. According to Shaw, it is "equal to the Isis united with the Charwell." Flowing through a rich and fertile country, it becomes highly impregnated with soil:—

"Turbidus arenos lento pede silvas arenas
Bagrada." *Silius Ital.*, l. vi. 140.

The Mejerdah receives no large tributary, nor is there any other considerable river in the regency. In the S., about 40 m. inland, is the Sihbah, a remarkable tract 70 m. in length N.E. to S.W., portions of which formed the *Palus Lybie*, *P. Tritonis*, &c., of antiquity. In winter, it is covered with water to the depth of 2 or 3 ft., but at other times it is a dry plain, the surface being entirely covered with a salt incrustation. Sir G. Temple, who in the dry season, spent seven hours in crossing the Sihbah, says that, on approaching it, "the grass and bushes become gradually scarcer; then follows a tract of sand, which, some way beyond, is in parts covered with a very thin layer of salt; this, as you advance, becomes thicker and more united; then we find it in a compact or unbroken mass or sheet, which can, however, be penetrated with a sword or other sharp instrument, and here I found it to be 11 inches in depth; and finally, in the centre, it becomes so hard, deep, and concentrated, as to baffle all attempts at breaking its surface, except with a pickaxe. The salt is considerably weaker than that of the sea, and is not adapted to preserving provisions, though its flavour is very agreeable." (II. 160–163.) About the centre of the lake are the foundations of a circular tower, where caravans halt to feed their camels; and in several parts are elevated plateaus, forming islands in the rainy season, the largest of which, covered with a luxuriant vegetation of date palms, is the *Phia* of Herodotus. The Arabs have a tradition that this lake once communicated with the sea by means of a river, but no traces of such communication appear to exist at present. There are no other inland lakes of consequence, but several considerable arms of the sea, as the Gulf of Biserta (an. *Sinns Hipponeus*), the Lake of Tunis, &c. The coasts of Tunis are greatly indented by bays, those of Tunis, Hamamet, and the Gulf of Gabes, or Lesser Syrtis, being the principal. The principal promontories and headlands are the Dakhul, a long tongue of land terminating in Cape Bon (an. *Prom. Mercuri*), the scene of several events in the 5th book of the *Æneid*; Capes Serra, Ras-el-abiad, or the white promontory (an. *P. Candidum*), Ras-Zibeeb (an. *P. Apollinis*), &c. The

shores in the N. are frequently bold, but in the S. they are low and sandy.

The *geology* of this country has been little or not at all studied; nor have its mineral resources been turned to profit for many ages. Copper and lead were among the exports of the Carthaginians; and these metals, with silver, are still to be found in the mountains: there is also a quicksilver mine near Porto Farina, but mining is altogether neglected. The *climate* appears to be less hot than might have been supposed. Sir G. Temple says, the average heat in Aug. and Sept. at Tunis is 83° Fah.; and in the year of his visit the thermometer seldom rose to 96°, and never exceeded that limit. From the 19th Dec. 1832 to the 19th Jan. 1833, it averaged 56½°; the highest range during that period being 60°, and the lowest 52°. Rainy weather commences about the end of Oct., and continues, at intervals, till May. As early as Jan. the surface is covered with fresh verdure; and, on the whole, the climate may be said to be healthy as well as pleasant. It is true that the plague is not unfrequent, and that its ravages have been supposed to be a principal cause of the depopulation that is admitted to have taken place during the last half century. But this is to be ascribed far more to the sluttishness of the inhabitants, and the want of precautions, than to any thing unfavourable in the climate.

The *vegetation* is, for the most part, the same as in the adjacent regency of Algiers, and on the opposite shores of Sicily and S. Italy; the olive, pistachio, carob, with dates, melons, the lotus, &c., are common products. This region was, in antiquity, deservedly celebrated for its extraordinary fertility. It exported large quantities of corn to Rome, of which it was one of the granaries. Pliny, in speaking of the extraordinary productiveness of the soil, assures us that a plant of wheat (*triticon*), sent from it to Augustus, had little short of 400 stalks; and another, sent to Nero, had 340! In antiquity, indeed, the common opinion was, that in this favoured region the labour of the husbandman was rewarded by the enormous increase of 100-fold! Hence, says *Silius Italicus*:—

"—ecce sunt Byrsæ cordi
Rura magis, centum Cereri fructu sacra colima."
Lib. ix. l. 204.

And it would still seem to be endowed with the same wonderful productiveness. Sir G. Temple says, that "whilst halting in a field of young barley to feed our horses with its tempting crop, I counted on one plant 97 shoots or stalks; and this was not selected by me as being the largest, but as the nearest to where I was sitting." (*Excursions*, II. 108.) In fact, there cannot be so much as the shadow of a doubt, that were Tunis subject to an intelligent government, it would, at no distant period, furnish large quantities of corn for exportation. At present, indeed, such is the undiminished fertility of the soil, that a surplus is raised for exportation notwithstanding the oppression and extortion to which the husbandman must submit. The government assessor goes into a field while the crop is in ear, and values it according to his caprice; taking care, however, to be always above, and never below the mark. The owner is then obliged to pay a tithe on this supposed value of his future crop; though, when harvest time has arrived, he finds, perhaps, that it does not exceed 1-4th part of the sum at which it was estimated! The same is the case with olives, the principal resource of the country; and these, moreover, are not allowed to be gathered till an order to that effect has been received; and in consequence of the great delay which often takes place in sending it, the fruit frequently falls and rots on the ground, the owner not being permitted to pick it up; he is also obliged to send his olives, when they have finally been collected, to mills established by the *bey*, who derives therefrom a considerable profit. (*Temple*, I. 223, 226.) We need not, therefore, be surprised that the agriculture should be almost wholly neglected and abandoned, no one venturing to cultivate more ground than is sufficient to supply his immediate wants, and to furnish the taxes to government. Wheat, barley, sorgho, maize, and millet are the grains principally raised; in the S. the date tree supplies the Arabs, not only with their principal nutriment, but also, with their fuel, and the materials for most of their domestic furniture. Cotton and indigo have been introduced into culture somewhat recently; in some parts saffron, white mulberry, opium, &c., are grown; and tobacco is pretty general. The sugar cane succeeds well, but no sugar is made. All the fruits of S. Europe, as pomegranates, oranges and lemons, figs, jujubes, &c., and the vines on the N. coast yield excellent raisins, most of which are dried for exportation; but apples and pears degenerate. Among other products of importance is hennah (*Alkaraah Arabum*), so much used "as a dye for ladies' hands and horses' legs," and which is a chief article of trade at Gabes. This plant, where not annually cut, and kept low, grows to 10 or 12 ft. in height, putting out clusters of small flowers, having an odour of camphor. (*Shaw*, 114.) The dye is a bright orange, or tawny saffron.

The leaves are picked twice a year, dried and powdered, and in this state sold in all the markets of the E. The powder, formed into a paste, is applied to the part required, and then bandaged round. The plant is cut level with the ground as soon as the leaves have been picked. The bennah, like the date palm, requires to be frequently watered, for which purpose the plantations are divided into squares, and enclosed by banks; a stream is then admitted into them, and allowed to flow for a certain time every week, generally an hour a day, and two hours during the night, each square being watered in turn. The expenses of watering are defrayed by the various occupants, in proportion to their number of squares. (*Shaw's*. This system of irrigation is noticed by Pliney. (1. lib. xviii. cap. 22.)

Horses, mules, camels, and oxen are used for field labour, and, with sheep, are the principal domestic animals. The breed of horses has deteriorated, in consequence of the government seizing for its use those that are most valuable. The cattle are small, but good, and many are sent to Malta. Some of the sheep are very fine, and all have the large fat tail which characterises the African breeds. The Merino breed is said to have been originally introduced into Spain from Barbary. (*Temple*, i. 227.) The lion, panther, jackal, wild boar, jerboa, genet, &c., are among the wild animals. Most of our readers are, no doubt, aware, that the banks of the Bagrada are celebrated in history for the stubborn resistance which an enormous serpent (190 ft. in length), found on its banks, is said to have opposed to the progress of the Roman army under Regulus! (*Lib. Eph.*, lib. xviii.; *Aulus Gellius*, lib. vii. cap. 3.) But it is now generally acknowledged that many apocryphal statements have been mixed up with the history and fate of Regulus; and the *prælium grande atque acre* with the serpent does not certainly seem to be the most authentic part of the story. At all events, this gigantic brood of reptiles has now luckily disappeared; and Sir G. Temple says that the largest of those existing never exceed 12 ft. in length. The locusts, which often visit the country in clouds, eating up "every green thing," are incomparably more destructive than the reptiles. Large quantities of fine coral are found round the coasts, which are visited in consequence by Sicilian and Neapolitan fishermen.

Manufactures are few: they comprise some silk, linen, and woollen fabrics, leather, &c.; but the principal are soap and the *beretti*, or red caps of Tunis, so well known throughout the Mediterranean. The principal soap-works are at Suse. The soap is of good quality, and the soft especially is much esteemed. Little is prepared on a speculative anticipation of a demand for exportation, but any quantity may be had by contracting for it a few months beforehand. The manufacture of skull-caps is said to have employed formerly more than 50,000 persons, and 3,000 bales of Spanish wool were annually used. (*Macgill*, in *Mod. Trav.*) At present it is reduced to one third of this extent; spurious imitations of the Tunis caps having been made in Marseilles and Leghorn. The dye employed for the caps is the kermes chiefly; the process of dyeing is conducted mostly at Zaghwan, an inland town, the water of which gives great brilliancy and permanency to the colours. Previously to their being dyed, the caps are boiled for a whole day in alum-water. The woollen cloth made in the regency, principally at Jerba, is thin, resembling soft serge. Morocco leather is made in considerable quantities, and dyed skins are articles of extensive export. Though cochineal is used in dyeing, and the prickly pear grows most luxuriantly in Tunis, no attempts have yet been made to introduce the insect into the country.

Trade.—None of the Barbary states is so well situated as Tunis for an extensive commerce, particularly with Europe. Three caravans come annually from the interior of Africa, bringing slaves, senna, ostrich feathers, gold-dust, gum, ivory, &c.; and take back woollen cloths, muslin, linen and silk fabrics, red leather, spices, fire-arms, gunpowder, &c. Other caravans come from Constantinople with wine, wax, dried skins, cattle, and sheep, which they exchange for cloth, muslin, Tunis mantles, linen, raw and manufactured silks, colonial produce, essences, &c. According to a statement by the French consul, the value of the different articles of export from Tunis may be estimated as under:—

	France.
Oil	4,200,424
Grain and pulse	279,437
Pistachios and dates	87,960
Wool	1,166,651
Cattle	97,101
Sponges	210,504
Senna	60,017
Wax	40,140
Hides	240,770
Tunny fish	221,437
Gold-dust and elephants' teeth	400,000
Red caps	1,684,151
Resin	87,090
Barnouses, shawls, blankets, and various other articles	581,060
Total	9,406,436

The imports are woollen goods, from France and England; cottons and linens, from the latter and Germany; with coffee, spices, sugar, tin, lead, and iron, silk, wool, wine, &c. The government monopolises the trade in many articles, as tobacco, wax, wool, and provisions, which it farms out to various individuals.

The Government is in the hands of a *bey*, who rules with despotic power: he receives the caftan, with the dignity of a pacha of three tails, from the sultan, but is not otherwise in any way dependent on Turkey. The divan is composed of 27 mems, each of whom has a vote in council; but this body has only a nominal authority. The revenues of the bey have been estimated at 24,000,000 piastres, or upwards of 1,600,000*l.* a year; though at present that derived from regular sources is supposed not to exceed one fourth part of this sum. Its principal sources are the customs, which are farmed every year to the highest bidder; the tithes upon the cultivation of olives, corn, and other products; the sale of permits for the exportation of necessaries and the importation of wines and spirits, usury taxes, the bey's domains, the sale of government offices, a poll-tax on the Jews, the traffic in slaves, and private mercantile speculations of the bey, occasional extortions from the wealthy, and the property of those who die without heirs, of which the exchequer takes formal possession.

The armed force consisted, in 1832, of nearly 50,000 men; but of these 40,000 composed the contingents (chiefly cavalry) furnished by the different Arab tribes, and the standing army consisted of only about 6,000 men. The regular infantry, a body of 2,000 men, were originally organised by a French officer in 1831. There are 2,000 Turkish infantry, 2,000 spahis, or paid cavalry, 300 Mamelukes, forming a body-guard, and 16 pieces of artillery. The naval force now consists of only a corvette, a few brigs and schooners, and about 30 gun-boats; and Tunis is no longer formidable for piratical expeditions. By a treaty with France in 1830, piracy and Christian slavery were wholly abolished.

The people, their manners, customs, &c., are similar to those of Algiers, to which we beg to refer the reader. The Tunisians may, however, claim to be considered the most civilised and tolerant nation in Barbary; though in negotiations with them, as well as the neighbouring powers of N. Africa, Sir G. Temple thinks an attitude of firmness, and not of conciliation, should be adopted, the latter being always supposed to indicate fear and weakness.

This region, which in antiquity was the centre of the Carthaginian dominions, remained in the possession of the Romans from the destruction of Carthage to the beginning of the fifth century, when the Vandals settled themselves in Africa. In 660 it became subject to the caliphs, and, after belonging to several successive dynasties, was conquered by Barbarossa in 1534. The emperor Charles V. in 1557, took Tunis, and restored the dethroned Muley Hassan; but in 1570 the country was taken anew by the Turks, and it has only regained independence by the gradual decline of their empire. (See *Shaw's Travels in Barbary*; *Temple's Excursions in the Mediterranean*, 2 vols.; *Mod. Trav.* xx.; *Private Information*.)

TUNIS (an. *Tunes*), a marit. city of N. Africa, cap. of the above regency, on the W. side of the Gulph of Tunis, being separated from it by a large salt-water lake or lagoon, about 4 m. W. from the sea, and 3 m. S. W. from the ruins of the ancient Carthage; lat. 36° 47' 59" N., long. 10° 11' E. Its pop., which is greater, perhaps, than that of any other African city, Cairo excepted, has been estimated at from 100,000 to 150,000, of whom, perhaps, 30,000 are Jews and 3,000 Christians. It stands on the edge of the lagoon, upon rising ground, backed on the W. by heights, which are crowned by the *kasbah*, or citadel. The town is inclosed by a wall of earth and stone, and a second wall surrounds its 3 suburbs, the outer wall being about 5 m. in circ. Towards the N. it is defended by 2 castles, and other heights around it, on the E. and S. are protected by detached forts; but notwithstanding the sums laid out on its defence, it is not a well fortified or strong town, and has been repeatedly taken. The houses, though of stone, are mean and poor, and the streets narrow, unpaved, and filthy: the bazaars, which are superior to those of Algiers, are vaulted overhead, and sometimes furnished with footways. There are a great number of mosques, several of which are handsome, and one was converted into a Catholic cathedral during the Spanish occupation. The palace built by the late bey, in which Queen Caroline lodged during her visit to Tunis, is a square edifice, magnificently decorated within. The rooms are paved with marble, and all open upon marble courts, with fountains in their centre. For about 10 ft. from the floor the walls of the rooms are lined with glazed tiles, and above this with stucco-work peculiar to the Moors; while the ceilings are traced in different-coloured patterns, with much taste. The great hall of justice has never been finished. In different parts of the city are five

large barracks, also built by the late bey ; and a very extensive edifice of the same description, fitted to accommodate 4,000 men, was, a few years since, in the course of being built. (*Twispie*, l. 175.) In digging the foundations of this edifice, two sarcophagi were found, and an ancient cistern of great extent, and in good preservation. The citadel, though large, is in a ruinous state, having but one efficient battery : in it is a gunpowder factory. Tunis has many gates, one of which, called the *Bab-Kartajnah*, or Carthage-gate, has in its vicinity the Protestant burial ground. It has also a Rom. Cath. convent, church and chapel, a Greek church, an English consulate, and a theatre at which Italian operas and comedies are performed 3 or 4 times a week. About 14 m. W. from the city is the Bardo, or summer palace of the bey. It resembles a little fortified town, with its ramparts, bastions, &c., and has a pop. of at least 4,000 persons, employed in some way or other about the court.

The Gulph of Tunis opens to the N., in the form of a horseshoe ; it is 16 m. deep, and has good anchorage all over in from 4 to 10 fathoms water. The N. and N.E. gales sometimes throw in a heavy sea, which, however, seldom occasions any damage. The port is at the Goletta, or channel, passing through the narrow belt of land separating the lagoon of Tunis from the sea. There is at all times about 15 ft. water in the canal, and ships may use it on paying a fee of 3 vassels a day. It is not, however, much resorted to, all vessels of considerable burden loading and unloading from their moorings in the bay, by means of lighters. The Goletta is pretty strongly fortified, though commanded by a hill to the N. A harbour light, 40 ft. in height, was erected at the entrance to the canal in 1819. A great number of boats are employed in conveying goods and passengers across the lagoon between the port and the city.

The lagoon of Tunis was formerly, as Procopius states, a deep port, with water sufficient to float large ships. But now, from its being the receptacle of the filth conveyed to it by the common sewers of the city, and other causes, its greatest depth does not exceed 6 or 7 ft.; while round the shores it is comparatively shallow. An island in its centre, opposite the city, is defended by a fort. It does not receive any rivulet, and its loss by evaporation is supplied by a current which sets into it through the Goletta.

The average annual value of the exports from the regency of Tunis from 1830 to 1887 has been estimated at 7,527,000 piastres, and that of the imports at about 12½ millions do. Subjoined is an

ACCOUNT OF THE Value of the Exports and Imports of Tunis in 1837, specifying the Value of those sent to each Country :—

Countries.	Exports. Value in Piastres.	Imports. Value in Piastres.
France	2,134,071	1,849,229
Algiers and Bona	437,732	86,935
Great Britain	530,774	1,299,898
Austria	21,960	120,596
Sardinia	916,271	615,418
Tuscany	730,565	4,638,010
Turkey	1,470,980	1,181,498
Barbary States	66,550	83,145
Greece	438,060	583,470
Naples and Sicily	79,994	161,865
U. S. of America	98,419	
Spain		119,550
Total	7,048,496	10,599,407
Equal to	£ 339,480	£ 360,140

But this, though it be the most considerable native trade of any city on the Barbary coast, is certainly not a tenth part of what it would amount to were the country subjected to an intelligent government, and its gigantic resources properly developed. Naval and military stores imported into Tunis pay no duty ; other articles pay 3 per cent *ad valorem* on a rated tariff. Accounts are kept in piastres (worth about 1s. 1d.) of 16 carobas, or 52 aspers each. The Tunis lb. of 16 oz. = 7,773 grs. : the principal commercial weight is the cantaro of 100 lb. = 111 lb. avoird. The *caffa*, for corn, = 14½ imp. bushels ; the *matlar*, for oil, = about 5 galls. The *pic* varies from 18 to 26 in.

According to Strabo, *Tunes* existed before the foundation of Carthage. The chief events in its history are its numerous sieges and captures. Louis IX. of France died before its walls in 1270 ; and it was taken by the Emperor Charles V., who defeated Barbarossa under its walls, in 1535. On this occasion about 30,000 Christian slaves were freed from bondage ; but, unfortunately, 30,000 Moslem inhab. of the city were, at the same time, put to the sword, despite the efforts of the emperor to prevent it, by the victorious troops, while 10,000 more were carried away, and sold as slaves. (*Robertson's Charles V.*, li. 37th. 4to ed. ; *Shaw's Travels* ; *Temple's ditto* ; *Comen. Dict.* ; and *private information*.)

TURCOING, or TOURCOING, a town of France, dép. du Nord, cap. two cantons, immediately adjoining

the Belgian frontier, 10 m. N.E. Lille. Pop., in 1836, 8,749. It is regularly laid out, and pretty well built : the town hall in the great square, two churches, a college, a charitable asylum, and the remains of an old feudal castle, are its most conspicuous objects. The inhab. share in the manufactures common to Lisle and Roubaix, and their condition has been noticed in the article on the latter (*ant2*, p. 603—604.) "Tourcoing has fewer looms than Roubaix : the articles woven are chiefly coarse cotton goods and linens. The weavers gain 9 or 10 francs gross per week ; the other working classes (adult males) get from 1½ to 2½ fr. a day. The weavers are the most moral class in the town ; they attend to the education of their children, and seem contented with their condition." (*Symons in Hand-Loom Weavers' Report*.)

TURIN (Ital. *Torino*, an. *Augusta Taurinorum*), a city of N. Italy, the cap. of the Sardinian dominions, prov. of same name, in Piedmont, near the Po, where it is joined by the Dora, 80 m. W.S.W. Milan. Lat. 45° 4' 8" N. ; lon. 7° 40' 13" E. Civil pop. in 1838, of the city proper, 82,469 ; do. with suburbs included, 104,078 ; and including the castron, or immediately adjacent territory and the garrison, 129,892. The city is of an oval shape, and about 4 m. in circuit : it was formerly fortified, but is now an open town, standing in a rich, well watered, and well cultivated plain : it is approached by four fine roads shaded with forest trees ; the surrounding hills being covered with handsome edifices, among which the church of La Superga is pre-eminent. The impressions which Turin produces on the traveller are very much governed by the circumstance of its being the *first* or the *last* city he visits in his progress through Italy. Mr. Woods, who had already seen the best productions of architecture, states that being built on a flat, Turin makes no show as a distance ; the domes and towers are neither numerous nor lofty, and on looking down on the city from the neighbouring hills, the dingy red tile roofs have a disagreeable appearance. (*Lectures on Architect.*, ii. 422.) But Forsyth, a severe as well as an excellent judge, says that Turin is admired for the regularity of its plan, the cleanness of its streets, the symmetry of its squares, the splendour of its hotels, and the general elegance of its houses ; and Simond adds, "Turin forms a perfect contrast with all the cities we have been accustomed to see in Italy : it is new, fresh, and regular, instead of antique and in decay ; and the buildings, all alike, are collectively magnificent if not quite so in detail, the materials being only brick coated over in imitation of stone. A profusion of running water keeps the fine wide pavement clean. All round the town, ancient trees of luxuriant growth oppose their impenetrable shade to the intolerable heat of the sun, and the views of the Alps are magnificent." (*Trav.* p. 806.) On the whole it may be truly said, that, were it not for the taste for meretricious ornament which is offensively prevalent every where in Turin, it would be one of the very finest cities of Europe. It has indeed comparatively few modern works of art, and little to interest the antiquary ; and there is scarcely any thing to characterise it as an Italian city : to most travellers it has appeared rather like a new and handsome French town.

Except in the old town, which forms about one sixth part of the whole, the streets, which are bordered by houses four or five stories high, are straight and cross each other at right angles ; and here, as in the new town of Edinburgh, and the N.W. and other parts of London, entire rows and streets of considerable extent are of precisely similar architecture. The royal palace stands in the centre of the town, in the *Piazza Reale* or *di Castello* a very large and elegant square, surrounded by many other public buildings, and having in its centre the former palace of the Dukes of Savoy, a castellated mansion environed by a moat. The *Strada Reale*, a new street 1½ m. in length, leads to this square from the river, which is here crossed by a fine stone bridge of five arches, erected by the French ; but which is said to be surpassed by a new bridge over the Dora recently completed. The *Strada di Po*, like the *Strada Nuova* and *di Dora Grande*, the *Piazza Reale*, S. Carlo, &c., is embellished in its whole length with arcades over the footways, which give a most agreeable and imposing appearance to these parts of the city. The royal palace is little remarkable in its architecture, but it has some spacious and richly adorned apartments, and a good collection of paintings, including many of the Flemish school, and others by Titian, Guerino, Albani, Murillo, &c. In this edifice is the equestrian statue of Amadeus I. the figure in bronze, the horse in marble. Attached to the palace are gardens open to the public, the fashionable resort during day ; the *Rondo* between the city and the Po, and Valentino grounds, being the favourite resort in the evening. The old palace of the Dukes of Savoy is a singular building with four fronts of different architecture. According to Forsyth "three of these are hideous in themselves, and derive comparative ugliness from the beauty of the fourth. This last front, composed of one Corinthian peristyle

raised on a plain basement, is the noblest elevation in Turin, where it holds the post of honour." (P. 418.) The private palaces would strike a stranger who had just crossed the Alps as very magnificent, but there are many in Italy equally large and in a much purer taste. That of Prince Carignano has a remarkable staircase by Guarini, who, along with Guivarra, has been the architect of most of the principal edifices in Turin.

The cathedral, a Gothic structure built about the end of the 15th century, has been praised for the richness of its appearance, particularly the W. front, which is ornamented with well executed bas-reliefs, &c. In it is the chapel of the *Santo Spirito*, in which the winding-sheet of our Saviour is preserved with all the attention due to so important and so authentic a relic. This cathedral was formerly among the wealthiest churches in Italy; but its plate has been sold, and the produce applied for the most part to secular, indeed, but certainly quite as useful, purposes as those to which it had been previously appropriated. In fact, the useless riches of this cathedral, its images, vases, &c., defrayed the cost of erecting the bridge across the Po in this city, and embanking that river, as well as of improving the Tuilleries, and building the Rue de Rivoli in the French capital. (*Conder's Italy*, i. 189.)

The churches of *San Filippo*, *San Cristina*, and many others, are richly adorned; but they all yield the palm to *La Superga*, situated on a hill about 5 m. from Turin. It was on this spot that the Duke of Savoy (Victor Amadeus) and Prince Eugene met to concert their plans for the attack of the French, and the deliverance of the city in 1706; and the church was constructed by the duke as a monument of his gratitude to God of his victory for having given a signal victory to his arms. The edifice is not unworthy its origin. It is of a circular form, and surmounted by a dome. Eustace says, "All the columns in this building are of marble of different colours, and give the edifice an appearance unusually rich and stately. Instead of pictures, the altars are decorated with bas-reliefs; the pavement is of variegated marble: in short, all the different parts of the building, and even the details of execution, are on a scale of magnificence." (*Class. Tour*, iv. 100.) It must be admitted, however, that the building has some considerable defects, which have been pointed out by Mr. Woods.

The university of Turin was founded in 1405. It consists of 5 faculties, or colleges, consisting of theology, with 4 professors; law, with 5 do.; medicine, with 6 do.; surgery, with 5 do.; and the arts, with 22. It is usually attended by about 1,200 students, who board out in private families. (*Journ. of Educ.* xvi. i. *Simond*, &c.) Its library is said by Rampoldi to have 60,000, and by Valery 112,000 vols. Its buildings are extensive and well arranged: the court is surrounded with a double tier of porticoes, under which is a collection of ancient sculptures, bas-reliefs, &c., from the excavated Roman city of *Andesina*, about 18 m. distant. In the museum of the Academy of Sciences is the valuable collection of Egyptian antiquities, formed by Drovetti, and purchased by the King of Sardinia for 400,000 fr. It comprises several colossal statues of Egyptian sovereigns, domestic and agricultural implements, MSS. and papyri, the famous Isiac table, &c. Under the same roof are museums of natural history, anatomy, and medals; and the royal library, comprising an extensive and valuable collection of historical and other works, including an extensive series of Bibles.

The citadel of Turin is a regular pentagon, planned by Urbino in the 16th century: it has extensive subterranean galleries, and is still of considerable strength. The gates of the city, which were cased with marble, were demolished by the French, and the ramparts dismantled and converted into public walks. But, to use the words of Rampoldi, *con tale distruzione divenne una città tutta nuova e d'un aspetto deliziosoissimo*. The Valentino palace, and the other royal seats around the city, are now either deserted or appropriated to schools and museums; these, with 9 hospitals, 3 asylums, the colleges of the Jesuits and Ignorantini, an arsenal, with a school of military engineering, a grand opera-house, ranking as the 2d theatre in Italy, 3 smaller theatres, the cemetery of the aristocracy, observatory, botanic garden, royal academy of painting, and *monie di pietà*, comprise most part of the other establishments worth notice. Turin is the residence of the king and seat of the royal senate, or superior court for the kingdom, and of a tribunal of primary jurisdiction, an archbishop's see, and has chambers of agriculture and commerce. Its manufactures consist chiefly of silk fabrics and twill; but it has others of woollen and cotton goods, hardware, arms, paper, glass, earthenware, liqueurs, &c.; and its printing business is pretty extensive. The shops and hotels of the city are good, but the supply of water is bad, and the prevalence of fogs render it rather an unpleasant residence in autumn and winter. The manners, habits, language, &c., of the inhabitants are more French than Italian.

Turin was made a military station by Julius Caesar on his invasion of Gaul. In 312 Constantine gained in its vicinity a great victory over Maxentius. Charlemagne annexed this city to the Marq. of Susa: it came into the possession of the Dukes of Savoy in 1032; and became their cap. in 1281. (*Rampoldi*.) It was taken by Francis I. in 1566, and held for 36 years by the French, who again took it in 1640. But the most celebrated by far of the sieges of Turin took place in 1706, when it was invested by a powerful French army. Voltaire has described the immense preparations made for this siege (*Siege de Louis XIV.*, cap. 20); but the incapacity and disagreement of the French generals, and the talents of Prince Eugene and the Duke of Savoy, secured for the latter an easy and complete victory. All the vast stores accumulated by the French fell into the hands of the conquerors, and the besieging army was wholly dispersed. Under the French ascendancy, from 1800 to 1814, Turin was the cap. of the dep. of the Po. (*Rampoldi*; *Eustace*, iv. 88-102; *Forghy*; *Woods*, ii. 422-5; *Rose's Letters from the N. of Italy*, i. 186-178, &c.)

TURKEY, or the OTTOMAN EMPIRE, is a very extensive country, partly in S.E. Europe, and partly in W. Asia, comprising some of the most celebrated, best situated, and naturally finest provinces of the continents to which they belong. The limits of the Turkish empire are not easily defined; inasmuch as it is usually represented as including several extensive countries, that are either substantially or virtually independent. Moldavia, Wallachia, and Servia, in European Turkey, are now connected with the Porte only by the slenderest ties; though, as some of their fortresses are garrisoned by Ottoman troops, and as they continue to pay tribute to the Porte, they may still, perhaps, be properly included within the wide range of the Turkish dominions. Egypt, however, and the other African territories that formerly belonged to the Porte, may now be considered completely dismembered; and, but for the interference of England and the other European powers, Syria and Palestine would have been annexed to the dominions of the pacha of Egypt.

European Turkey, including Wallachia, Moldavia, and Servia, comprises, with the exception of the new kingdom of Greece, almost the whole of the most easterly of the three great peninsulas of S. Europe, extending from 30 to 48° deg. N. lat., and from 15° to 29° deg. E. long. It is bounded on the N. by the Austrian empire, from which it is separated by the Save, the Danube, and the E. Carpathian mountains; on the N.E. it is separated from the Russian prov. of Bessarabia by the Pruth; on the E. it has the Black Sea, the Bosphorus, the Sea of Marmora, and the Hellespont; on the S., Greece; and on the W., the Mediterranean, the Adriatic, and the Austrian prov. of Dalmatia.

Very different estimates have been formed of the extent and pop. of this vast country, and neither is it possible to add anything approaching to precision. Perhaps, however, we shall not be far wrong if we estimate its extent at 210,000 sq. m., and its pop. at from 14,000,000 to 15,000,000.

The Turkish dominions in Asia are of still greater extent than those in Europe, but their pop. is much less considerable. They embrace the whole peninsula of Asia Minor and the adjacent islands, the greater part of Armenia and Koordistan, with Syria and Palestine, Mesopotamia, and a portion of Arabia. In all, they may comprise an area of about 437,000 sq. m., with a pop., probably, of about 10,000,000.

Physical Geography.—Bruguläre includes the mountains of Turkey in Europe in the Alpine system. But, according to other authorities, there are several different mountain systems in Turkey, having little connection with each other; and Boué states that most maps of the country err greatly in their representations of the direction, position, and height of the mountain chains. The high table-land anciently called *Mæsia Superior*, extending between Sophia and Pristina, and dividing the basin of the Morava on the N. from those of the Vardar, Struma, &c. on the S., and of the Lower Danube on the E., forms the central nucleus of the Turkish mountains. From this centre branches pass off northward, bounding Servia on the W. and E. on the E. the Balkan chain (an. *Hæmus*) stretches in a nearly straight line from the sources of the Isker to the S. of Sophia, E. to the Black Sea, a distance about 250 m.; dividing Bulgaria from Roumelia, and the waters that flow into the Lower Danube on the N. from those that flow into the Maritza on the S. The Despot-Dagh (anc. *Rhodope*), and the mountain chains that run through Macedonia, branch off from the central nucleus on the S.; while on the W. it gives off various chains that unite with the true Alpine chains, which ramify through Croatia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, Montenegro, and Albania. Nearly in a direct line S. from Pristina runs a chain which divides Albania from Macedonia, and thence extending into Thessaly and Greece under the name of Pindus, separates the waters flowing into the *Ægean* from those flowing into the

Adriatic and Ionian Seas. The interposition of those mountain chains frequently renders the communication between contiguous provinces rare and difficult. But with the exception of a few heights, as Mount Scardus, nearly 10,000 ft. in elevation, and Scymus and Pindus, near Mezzoro (about 9,000 ft.), the Turkish mountains seldom reach an altitude of 8,000 ft. Mount Dinara, whence the Dinaric Alps derive their name, is only 7,456 ft. in height; the Albanian mountains are generally under 7,700 ft.; Mount Athos is 6,778 ft., and Mount Monikon (an. *Cercina*), the loftiest of the Balkhan chain, 6,393 ft. in height. (*Bruguère, Orographie de l'Europe.*) The Balkhan has recently acquired a greater degree of interest than most of the other chains, from its being supposed to form an all but insurmountable barrier to an invading army. This, however, does not appear to be really the case. The W. portion of the Balkhan is seldom more than 4,000 ft., and its more easterly portion, near the Black Sea, not more than from 1,800 to 2,000 ft. in height, while it is traversed by half a dozen different passes, none of which is fortified. Hardly one of those appears, in fact, to present any very formidable obstacle to an invading army; and Major Keppel expresses his surprise that the Russians did not cross the Balkhan long before their last irruption into Turkey. (*Keppel, Journey across the Balkhan*, ii. 11.) We may further mention that there are more lines of communication for carriages across the Balkhan, between Thrace and Bulgaria, than between any of the other Turkish provs. Indeed, there is only one road between Macedonia and Bosnia, and one between Macedonia and Servia; the last, though the only route by which the produce of Macedonia is conveyed to the N., being merely a mule track. There are three passes between Macedonia and Albania, but only one between Albania and Thessaly.

European Turkey has numerous narrow valleys, and some very extensive plains. By far the largest of the latter is that of Wallachia, Moldavia, and Bulgaria, traversed in its centre by the Lower Danube, and ranking at least as the third, if not the second, of the great plains of Europe. A considerable portion of Thrace, and some parts of Macedonia, are level, and Thessaly principally consists of a very fertile basin. Almost every part of the country is well watered; and, besides the Danube and Save (which last constitutes a great part of its N. boundary), Turkey has several rivers of very considerable size. Among those on the N. side of the great central plateau and its ramifications, affluents of the Save and Danube, are the Unna, Verbas, Bosna, Drin, Morava, Timok, Schyl, Isker, Aluta, Jalomnita, Sereth, Pruth, &c. Among the rivers to the S. of the central plateau, the following may be specified, viz. the Maritza (an. *Hebrus*) has its sources in the N.W. angle of Roumelia, in the Balkhan and Despotodagh mountains, and flows generally E. or S.E. to the centre of Thrace. Near Adrianople, where it receives the Tondja (the *Tonxus* of Ptolemy), and thence S. or S.W. to the Ægean, which it enters close to the Gulph of Enos, after a course of about 240 m. Its greatest width is about 3 furlongs. Adrianople, Philippolis, Demotica, Ipsala (an. *Cypselia*), &c., are on its banks, which, in many parts, are covered with forests of oak and elm. The Maritza is navigable from the time of the autumnal rains till May, as far as Adrianople, for boats of 200 tons; but during the summer months sea craft ascend only as high as Demotica. (*Keppel*, i. 253.) The Kara-su (*Xestus*), Struma (*Strymon*), and Vardar (*Axius*), which traverse Macedonia in a S.E. direction, are all of considerable size, but generally shallow and unfit for navigation. The Selembria (*Peneus*) rises near Mezzoro, and drains the basin of Thessaly, falling into the Gulph of Salonica at the mouth of the famous defile and vale of Tempe. The principal rivers flowing into the Adriatic are the Narenta, in Herzegovina, and the Drin and Vojutza (*Aous*), in Albania.

European Turkey has no lakes of any very great extent. The principal are those of Ochrida (*Palus Lychnitis*), about 30 m. in length by 8 m. in breadth, Scutari (*Palus Labeatica*) and Yanina, in Albania; there are numerous small lakes in Macedonia and Thessaly.

The physical geography of Asiatic Turkey requires but a brief notice, having been already treated of in the arts. NATOLIA, KURDISTAN, SYRIA, &c. in this work. Asia Minor consists chiefly of an extensive table-land, traversed by many parallel mountain ranges from W. to E., extending into Armenia and Kurdistan. This table-land appears generally to increase in height as we proceed eastward; Mount Ida, overlooking the Plain of Troy, being only about 5,000 ft., while Mount Bisanus, the culminating point of N. Kurdistan, is 12,000 ft. above the sea. From this lofty plateau several mountain ranges are given off to the S., inclosing the basins of the Euphrates, Tigris, Jordan, Orontes, &c., which, with the Halys (see NATOLIA, *anté*, p. 378.), Sangarius, Araxes, &c., are the principal rivers in this part of the empire. The largest lake is that of VAN (which see); next to which are the Dead Sea and Lake of Tiberias, in Palestine; many small lakes exist in NATOLIA. The N.

part of Asiatic Turkey is mountainous, the surface declining towards the S., where it spreads out into extensive plains (an. *Chaldæa*, *Mesopotamia*, *E. Syria*, &c.) of much natural fertility, but at present for the most part desert and uninhabited.

The coasts of Turkey, both in Europe and Asia, are in general bold and rocky. In many parts they present a long and tolerably uniform line, with few gulphs or harbours of any magnitude. This is particularly the case with the coasts of the Black Sea, Syria, and a part of Albania. But the shores of the Ægean and the adjacent seas are deeply indented with numerous bays and inlets, and present many good harbours, as those of Smyrna, Salonica, Constantinople, &c. Varna is the only good Turkish port on the Black Sea.

Durazzo (the an. *Dyrrachium*), on the Albanian shore, might easily be rendered an admirable port (see *Ugarkier's Turkey*, &c. p. 199.); but at present there is not a single safe or convenient harbour along the whole W. coast of European Turkey.

The Geology of the two great portions of the Ottoman empire presents considerable differences. The great mountain chains of Europe consist of granite, gneiss, trachyte, syenite, serpentine, talc, mica, and clay-slate, and many other primary and transition rocks, inclosed between beds of sandstone or limestone; the latter being the most prevalent formation in the alpine ranges of the W. provs. and in Thrace. This latter prov., with Bulgaria, &c., consists, in great part, of shelly limestone, marly clay, and other tertiary formations. Iron and other metallic ores are found in great abundance; but volcanic formations appear to be scarcer in Europe than in Asia. In Asia Minor, according to Mr. Brant, "the whole range of mountains, from sea to sea, is limestone. Volcanic rocks are frequently found, and granite rises up occasionally. The mountains abound in veins of copper and lead, the last being rich in silver. Mineral springs frequently occur; most of them hot." (*Geog. Journal*, vi. 188.)

As the country rises towards the E., granite and the other primary rocks become more prevalent. The lower basins of the Euphrates, the Danube, and other large rivers, are mostly alluvial.

Climate, and Natural Products.—In a region extending through nearly 30 degs. of lat. and more than 30 degs. of long., having every variety of elevation, exposure, soil, and subsoil, there must necessarily be the greatest variation of climate. The climate of European Turkey is much colder than that of the parts of Italy and Spain under the same latitudes, and is so very changeable that at Constantinople Fahrenheit's thermometer is said sometimes to fall 81° within an hour. In the Danubian provinces snow lies several feet deep on the higher mountains, for six months together; the thermometer frequently stands between 10° and zero, and in Moldavia it has been known to descend to 16° below zero. On the other hand, the summer heats are oppressive, and even in the N. the grape ripens by the end of July. The temperature and salubrity of Asiatic Turkey is almost equally variable with that of European Turkey. In the highlands of Armenia, even the plains are covered with snow as late as May; and the fine season, properly so called, does not comprise more than four months of the year, during which period both sowing and reaping are completed.

Asia Minor has but two seasons, the transition between them being scarcely perceptible. In winter, while the uplands are covered with snow, the lowland plains and valleys are visited by perpetual rains and N. winds. During summer there is scarcely any rain, but the soil is fertilised by heavy night-dews. Caramania suffers from very arid winds; and in the delta of the Euphrates and Tigris the barometer often rises to 40°. The climate of Syria, Mesopotamia, &c., has been already noticed in the arts. SYRIA, BAGDAD, and BUSRA, &c.

The best indication of the relative temperature of different parts of Turkey is afforded by their vegetable products. In Croatia, Bosnia, and the adjoining provinces, the mountains are covered with forests of oak and elm; S. of the Balkhan the country is covered with forests of the sycamore, carob, and plane trees; gardens of roses, jasmine, and lilac; vineyards and orchards of nearly all kinds of fruit-trees; but is destitute of the olive, which, except in some particularly favourable situations, does not thrive N. of lat. 40°. The flora of Albania is similar to that of the opposite coast of Italy; and in Thessaly, the garden of European Turkey, oil, wine, cotton, tobacco, figs, citrons, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, &c., grow to perfection. The same fruits, and other products, flourish in the more sheltered parts of Asia Minor, even on the shores of the Euxine; where, however, owing to the severity of the N. winds, among other causes, the forests seldom extend up the mountains above 5,000 ft. In Armenia and Koordistan, the olive and orange ripen only in the warmer valleys, and we find on the high grounds much of the vegetation that

prevails in the mountainous provs. on the Danube and Save. S. of Taurus we enter an entirely new region, where the date palm, oriental plane, Babylonian willow, banana, plantain, sugar-cane, and indigo, betoken a close approach to the vegetation of tropical climates. (*Geog. Jour.* x. 505-508. &c.)

The forests of European Turkey are infested by bears, wolves, jackals, &c.; to which, in parts of Asia, may be added, it is said, the lion and tiger. The gazelle, and deer of various kinds, hares, and other kinds of game, are very abundant. The great bare-necked rulture inhabits the ranges of Taurus, and the ostrich wanders over the sandy deserts of the South. The camel, a native of this region, is the chief beast of burden throughout the greater part of Asiatic Turkey. The other domestic animals will be mentioned hereafter.

Population. — We have already stated that the pop., as well as the area of the Turkish empire, is very imperfectly known. Hence there is the greatest discrepancy in the estimates which have been formed of its amount, which vary from 6 or 7 to 21 or 22 millions for Turkey in Europe, and in about the same ratio for the Asiatic provinces. Latterly, however, the Turkish government has directed some portion of its attention to statistical inquiries, and the pop., though the accounts of it be still very vague, is better known now than formerly. In as far as respects Turkey in Europe, the estimates on which most reliance may be placed are those of Mr. Urquhart (*Turkey and its Resources*, p. 272), and of M. Boué (*Turquie d'Europe*, il. 32). We subjoin these estimates: —

	Pop., according to Mr. Urquhart.		Pop., according to M. Boué.
Wallachians and Moldavians -	1,500,000	Wallachia, 1839 -	2,402,027
Osmanlis	700,000	Moldavia, 1839 -	1,419,105
Greeks (Hellenic race and language, all Christians)	1,180,000	Serbia -	886,000
Albanians (Slipetar race and language, two thirds Mohammedans)	1,600,000	Musulmen - in	10,400
Tribes of Slavonic race and language, Bosnia, Tulemaria, Fennec, one third Mohammedans; the rest (Servians, Bulgarians) Christians of the Greek and (Myrdins, Croats) of the Latin church -	6,000,000	Romians -	700,000
Vlach Greek church	600,000	Herzegovinians -	300,000
Gypsies -	300,000	Croats -	200,000
Jews -	250,000	Montenegrins -	100,000
Armenians -	100,000	Bulgarians -	4,500,000
Franks, &c. -	50,000	Albanians -	1,500,000
		Greeks -	900,000
		Zinzars (Wallachians of Pin-dus) -	300,000
		Turks -	700,000
		Armenians -	100,000
		Jews -	250,000
		Gypsies -	150,000
		Franks, &c. -	60,000
		Total -	14,577,552
		Or at most -	15,570,000
Total -	12,180,000		

The Turks or Osmanlis, who have, for about four centuries, been the dominant race, were originally of Scythian or Tartar extraction. We have already noticed their general characteristics as they are found in Asia at the present day (i. 185.). But it is of importance to observe that even there the Turkish blood has been largely intermixed with the Mongolian and the Persian; and in Europe the higher class of Turks have generally furnished their harems with the finest women of Circassia and Georgia; while the inferior Turks have allied themselves with Servians, Albanians, Bulgarians, Greeks, &c. In consequence the original and distinguishing features of the race are now, in Europe at least, very much obliterated; and the Turkish, from being one of the ugliest of Asiatic nations, is become, speaking generally, one of the handsomest; though, from the peculiar mode in which the race is maintained, there is necessarily the greatest variety in their stature and appearance.

Turkish ladies have, in general, very white delicate complexions, a consequence of their se-

dentary mode of life, and of their habit of veiling themselves when they take the air. Their mode of life, and their great addiction to the bath, render them rather disposed to *embonpoint*; but it is absurd to allege that this constitutes the *ne plus ultra* of a Mussulman's idea of beauty. Had such been the case, the Circassians and Georgians would not have constituted the pride of the harem. (*Boué*, l. 58.)

The national character and dispositions of the Turks have changed as well as their physical constitution, but in a far less degree. They are now, as of old, at once excessively proud and excessively sensual. Their pride is a consequence of their ignorance, and of the recollection of their former victories and conquests; and their sensuality is a consequence of the peculiar nature of the Mohammedan paradise, and of their wish to realise in this world some portion of that felicity which is to be the portion of all true believers in the next. Other nations have affected to believe in the doctrine of predestination, but in this respect the Turks alone have given a practical effect to their speculative tenets; and their stationary state and contempt for the inventions and discoveries of other nations may be, in no small degree, ascribed to their conviction of their inutility; from their belief that every thing that occurs is determined by an overruling Providence, against whose decisions it would be alike vain and impious to contend. Speaking generally, the Turk is true to his word; he is not prone to anger, nor liable to sudden gusts of passion; but when provoked, his fury has no limits; and he becomes brutal and ferocious in the extreme, involving the innocent and the guilty in one common ruin. His religion interdicts the use of wine; and though not always respected, this precept has, on the whole, a great and salutary influence.

Though capable, on emergencies, of great and vigorous exertion, laziness and apathy are distinguishing characteristics of the Turks. There is nothing in which they take so much delight as in reclining in the shade from sunrise to sun-set, apparently in a state of total indifference, occasionally sipping coffee, and inhaling the fumes of tobacco. Whatever may be their object, they saunter through the streets with the same measured and monotonous step. They converse little, and the presumption is that their mind is as indolent as their body.

Perhaps no nation ever possessed so little talent for governing others as the Turks. They have never struck their roots, or acquired any solid footing, in the countries they have conquered. They are encamped in and occupy them; but they hold them by no tie other than the sword. They have never coalesced or associated with the original inhabs.; they look upon themselves as the nation, and the rest of the people, or those at least who have not embraced Mohammedanism, as an inferior and degraded race, which it is, if not a duty, at all events but a venial offence, to insult and trample upon. In this respect they differ widely from the Tartars who overrun China, and, indeed, from every other people; and to this more than any thing else their weakness, and the wretched state of the countries subject to their dominion, is to be ascribed.

We have elsewhere noticed, under the names of the countries which they principally inhabit, the more important features in the constitution and character of the other great races inhabiting the Turkish empire; and to these we beg to refer the reader. (*See ARABIA, ARMENIA, BUL-*

GALIA, GREECE, SERBIA, SYRIA, WALLACHIA, &c.)

Property.—There is, in many respects, a considerable similarity between the mode in which property has been distributed in Turkey, and that in which it was distributed in Europe during the middle ages. In both cases the object in view in this distribution was the establishment and support of a militia, who should be bound to repair, at their own expense, to the standard of the sovereign, and to follow him in his campaigns. *Le gouvernement militaire est devenu la constitution fondamentale de tous les états Musulmans. Chaque individu s'y reconnoît soldat; toujours il est prêt à prendre des armes et à marcher sous l'étendard du prophète. On doit enfin considérer la nation (Turque) comme un grand corps d'armée dont le souverain est le généralissime.* (*D'Osson*, iv. 302.) Hence when the Turkish sovereigns made any new conquest, they were in the habit of dividing a portion of the territory into estates called, from their greater or lesser size, *zaimets* and *timariots*, which they assigned to the more deserving or most favoured of their followers. The latter, however, did not succeed to the hereditary or absolute property of these estates. On the contrary, they only held them during life or good behaviour; and whenever any vacancy occurred, whether by death or forfeiture, the sultan made a new appointment to the vacant fief; and it is affirmed that instances have been known of the same lordship having been held by eight different masters in the course of a single campaign! It is further to be observed, that the rights of the peasantry (*rayahs* or cultivators) on these estates were carefully preserved; and, in point of fact, the new feudal lord, or lord of the manor (*spahi*), was merely entitled to demand from them, in full of rent, a tithe of the produce of their land and of the increase of their stock; and in consideration of this, he was not only bound to perform military service to the sultan, but also to protect the cultivators on his estate. When the Turkish institutions were in their vigour, and the exactions of the pashas and feudal lords were restrained by the vigilance of the sultan, this state of things contrasted most favourably with the rapine and anarchy that then prevailed in the greater part of Europe. 'I have seen,' says a contemporary writer, 'multitudes of Hungarian rustics set fire to their cottages, and fly with their wives and children, their cattle and instruments of labour, to the Turkish territories, where they knew that, besides the payment of the tenths, they would be subject to no imposts or vexations.'" (*Leunclavius in Turc. Imp. Stat.*)

According to the imperial survey ordered by Solymán the Magnificent, the number of *zaimets*, or estates, estimated at 500 acres of land, and upwards, amounted to 3,192, and the number of *timars*, or estates valued at from 300 to 500 acres of land, amounted to 50,160; the whole furnishing a revenue of nearly 4,000,000 rix-dollars, appropriated to the maintenance of an army of about 150,000 men. (*Present State of Turkey*, i. 220, 221.) Oliver states that in his time it was computed that there were in the European part of the empire 914 *zaimets*, and 8,356 *timars*; the number in Asia being nearly the same, and the whole furnishing a militia of above 60,000 men.

In 1818, it would appear that there were still 914 *zaimets* in Europe, and in Asia 1,479; the annual revenue from these amounting to from 25,000 to 100,000 aspers each, which, at 100 aspers to a Turkish piastre, would give a yearly income of about 500, on an average from each; but more recently the numbers of both have been still farther reduced.

Lastly, too, or since the disorganisation of the empire, all sorts of abuses have crept into the management of the estates held by the *spahis*, or feudal lords. These have been oppressed by the pashas; and they, in their turn, oppress the cultivators, increasing their demand for corvees or other services, and claiming and exacting, though illegally, a much greater portion of the produce than the tenth, to which they are legally entitled. And yet, despite their pillage of the cultivators, many *spahis* have, like the zemindars in Hindostan, been forced to abandon their estates; and indeed, in many districts, especially in Asia Minor, owing partly to the illegal exactions of the lords, but still more to the arbitrary exactions of the pashas, the cultivators have wholly deserted the lands. The truth is, that, in most parts of Turkey, power makes law; there is no real security, the rights of the people being trampled on at the pleasure of those in authority.

But it would be the greatest imaginable error to suppose that all, or that even the greater portion of the lands conquered by the Turks, were distributed in the way previously stated. The revenues of extensive tracts were appropriated to mosques, the great officers of state, the mother and mistresses of the sultan, the children of the imperial family, and the sultan himself; and after these deductions, the residue, which still amounted to a very large proportion of the whole, was left, burdened

with a tithe or land-tax of one tenth part of the produce, to the ancient proprietors. These, if Mohammedans, had the privilege of going to war; others, whether Turks or Christians, that is, Infidels, who, from choice or civil dissimilarity, devoted themselves to the arts of peace, and employed their estates under the protection of the law, commuted their military service by the payment of a tribute instead.

It is commonly said that Turkey is a country in which there is no security for property; and if by this be meant that it is exposed to illegal exactions of all kinds, partly by the feudal lords, and partly and principally by the pashas and their subordinate authorities, nothing can be more correct. But it is not true, speaking generally, to allege that in Turkey private property is not recognised by law, or that it may be seized at the pleasure of the sultan. This is the case, no doubt, with the property of persons in the public service, whose lives and fortunes must answer for their real or imputed misconduct. But all other sorts of property are respected in Turkey; and even a pasha, or other public functionary, who has acquired property by the most objectionable means, may, if he please, easily place it beyond the grasp of the grand seignor. To accomplish this, he has merely to settle it on his family and direct heirs, leaving the reversionary interest in it to some mosque, which, on receiving a nominal quit-rent, takes charge of the property, which can no longer be either forfeited or affected by the crimes or misconduct of the original founder of the family or his heirs. Property so left is denominated *vakouf*. But this device, though quite effectual for the object in view, necessarily tends, in the end, to accumulate much too great a quantity of property in the hands of the church; so that in obviating one abuse it occasions another.

If the *Hatt-i-Scherifs*, or imperial decrees, issued within the last three or four years, were really carried into effect, they would effect a total and most beneficial change in the conditions under which property is held in Turkey; practically, however, we believe they will have little effect, at least for many years to come.

Agriculture.—In Turkey the cultivators do not live dispersed over the country in hamlets, or in single farm-houses, but are congregated in villages, which, owing to the depopulation of most districts, are frequently at great distances from each other. These villages present a very striking picture of primeval manners, each family providing itself with most articles required for its consumption, while their municipal affairs, or those in which the community have an interest, are conducted by their elders. The village communities in certain districts, especially of European Turkey, enjoy considerable powers; and wherever this is the case, or where a tract of country happens to belong to a powerful individual, the cultivators, speaking generally, are comparatively prosperous. This, however, is the exception, oppression and a want of security being the usual consequences of Turkish ascendancy.

Turkey is not dependent upon any foreign country for the subsistence of its inhabs.; it yields, on the contrary, corn and other produce, sufficient not only for the home demand but also for exportation. Ten times the produce might, however, be raised in these fine countries were a better policy adopted, and the inhabs. protected against vexatious exactions. The native *rayahs* or peasants, by whom cultivation is carried on, have generally little or no capital; and as the tax on the crop has generally to be paid before the produce is gathered, they are in most cases obliged to borrow the money for this purpose at a ruinous rate of interest. Agriculture is accordingly in a very backward state throughout most parts of the empire. In Thrace, Boué says, the rotation of crops is tolerably well understood; but elsewhere in European Turkey cultivation is extremely depressed. Manuring is next to unknown, and in the mountainous parts, particularly in Servia and Albania, an immense waste of timber occurs, from the forests being burnt that the ground may be fertilised by their ashes. The ploughs (except perhaps in Wallachia and a few other parts) are of the most wretched description, being seldom shod with iron, and fit only to scratch the surface of the earth: a bunch of thorns performs the functions of a harrow; and the other farming implements, if so we may call them, are in general equally bad. Threshing is performed, as in most eastern countries, by treading out the grain with cattle; the straw being subsequently chopped by dragging over it a sort of heavy cylinder stuck with sharp flints. But the fertility of certain portions of the empire, as Thessaly, the valley of the Maritza, &c., is so great, that, despite the low state of husbandry, the average produce of corn is said to amount to from 15 to 30 times the seed.

On the whole, the cultivation of the soil appears to be better understood in Bulgaria than anywhere else. (*Boué, La Turc. d'Europe*, iii. 5.) Some notices of the agriculture of this and the other European provs. will be found under their separate heads in this Dict.

Maize is the principal species of grain cultivated in Eu-

European Turkey, in the mountain-valleys as well as the plains, except in Bosnia, &c., where the climate is too cold. Wheat, rye, barley, oats, and buckwheat are also pretty generally cultivated, and millet is grown in the more sheltered places. Rice is grown only along the banks of the Maritza and other marshy tracts in the S. provs. The quantity of this grain produced in European Turkey being insufficient for the consumption, a portion of the required supply is imported from Egypt and Asia Minor. Great quantities of haricots, beans, cabbages, onions, melons, cucumbers, tomatoes, capsicums, &c., are raised as articles of food; but the potato is eaten only in Bosnia, Croatia, Herzegovina, Montenegro, and a few places in Servia and Albania: lentils, turnips, artichokes, asparagus, beet-root, and many other vegetables common amongst us, are almost unknown in Turkey. Though not usually drunk by the Mussulmans (except those of Lower Albania), wine is grown in most provs. of Turkey in Europe, but Wallachia and Moldavia (which see), Bulgaria and Servia, are the principal wine countries.

Turkish wines are mostly red; white wine is produced only in Wallachia, W. Bulgaria, and at Semendria, and a few other places. The best wines are very high coloured and somewhat similar to those of Cahors, and of Radiciopani in the Papal States. These are grown chiefly in Macedonia, in the basins of Scutari and Prizren in Albania, Mostar in Herzegovina, on the hills along the Servian Morava in Thrace, and in the vicinities of Lovditch in Bulgaria, and Metocra in Thessaly. Certain growths in the S.W. of Macedonia, deserve particular mention. The inhabs. of those places possess, in fact, a valuable source of wealth, for there is no doubt that several of their wines might be advantageously exported. (*Bosn.* II. 251.) The want of proper cellars for storing the wines, and their rude preparation, detract greatly from their excellence. In Thessaly and Albania they are commonly spoiled, at least in the estimation of most foreigners, by the addition or absorption from the barrels, skins, &c., of resin or turpentine. In certain cantons, however, the use of such substances is not supposed to be necessary, and the wines there are accordingly very palatable. In Bosnia the vine is replaced by the plum, and the favourite beverage there is a liqueur made from its juice, called *slivovitz*. Peaches, apples, cherries, almonds, hazel nuts, &c., are grown, but grafting, and all other horticultural operations, are either unknown or much neglected. The olive flourishes in the S. provs. only, and most of the Turkish oil is grown in Asia. Flax, hemp, sesamum, saffron, cotton, tobacco, castor oil, and madder, are among the principal remaining articles of culture. The care of the forests does not seem to occupy much attention; nothing like a forest-board exists, and in many districts, formerly well wooded, wood for fuel is becoming scarce.* Live hedges are rare; where the fields are enclosed it is either with dry wood or stone walls, and where neither material is plentiful, as in E. Thrace, the fields are entirely open.

We have already given some notices of the condition of property and cultivation in Asiatic Turkey in the arts. NATOLIA, KURDISTAN, SYRIA, &c. In regard to Armenia, Mr. Brant says, "I had scarcely seen any place in this region approach to the state of apparent prosperity enjoyed by the inhabitants of the plain of Kharpout. An Armenian farmer there had ten pair of draught oxen, and a few cows and sheep. The produce of his land was—wheat about 375 bushels, valued at 75s. a year; cotton to the value of perhaps 38s.; grapes about 3,300 lbs.; which, together with millet, lentils, and other sundries, made up the value of about 142s. sterling. The millet, and fifty bushels of wheat, the grapes and sundry produce were consumed by the farmer and his family. The cotton sold, after the lord of the soil had taken his rent, was about sufficient to pay the tax of 10 per cent. on the whole produce to the pacha. I was not informed how much land he had in cultivation; there is no measure of land; it is estimated by the quantity of seed used in sowing, or the number of oxen necessary to plough it. They do not manure much, but allow the land to lie fallow every alternate year. Such is the general system of agriculture throughout Armenia." (*Geog. Journ.*, vi. 207–208.) The vine, and mulberry, tobacco, cotton, and oil, share the chief attention of the agriculturists in Asiatic Turkey, after the production of the grains, &c., necessary for food. The culture of silk is extensively carried on in several districts, but especially round Brusa in Asia Minor, where the mulberry-tree is kept cut short, and receives a good deal of careful attention.

In consequence, however, of the oppressions practised on the cultivators, vast tracts of land in Asia Minor are wholly deserted, or occupied only by the scanty population of a few wandering tribes. No where, indeed, is

the destructive influence of Turkish misgovernment so apparent as in the present state of this celebrated country, favoured alike by situation and climate, and which, in antiquity, was the seat of many noble cities, and powerful and refined nations. Industry and civilisation have all but disappeared. "No care whatever," says Mr. Kinner, "is taken to improve the land; nor can this be a matter of surprise, when we reflect that the farmer is liable to be turned out at a moment's warning, and is certain of being taxed or plundered in exact proportion to the yearly produce of his farm. It is not, indeed, uncommon, should there be a prospect of a plentiful harvest, for the crops upon the ground to be seized by the pacha at a low valuation, and then put up to the highest bidder. This system, so destructive of industry, may be traced to the ill-judged but favourite policy of the Porte in continually changing the governors of their provinces, lest by being settled for a considerable period in their governments, they should shake off their allegiance, as many have already done. The pacha, therefore, who, during the short time he remains in favour, has not only to feed the avarice of the imperial ministers, but also to accumulate an independency for himself before his retirement from office, is heedless of the interests of the farmer, or of those who are to succeed him, and only anxious to collect wealth. We consequently observe that those provinces where the chiefs maintain their independence, are invariably the richest, best peopled, and in every respect the most flourishing; since they find it their interest to encourage the cultivators of the land, who are continually deserting those parts of the country immediately governed by the sultan's officers, to place themselves under their protection. The prosperity of the provinces of Asia Minor is in this manner always fluctuating, according to the actions and dispositions of their respective rulers. Sometimes they are well peopled and cultivated (I speak comparatively), and at others waste and forsaken; whole villages emigrate from one district to another without much trouble or expense, since their houses are simple and of easy construction, and their articles of furniture so trifling as to be transported with facility on the backs of the cattle, which supply them with milk during the journey, and every where find abundance of pasture. The Greeks, called *Uroomi* by their Turkish lords, constitute a considerable portion of the peasantry in this part of the empire, and are not, in my opinion, the fallen and dastardly race usually represented. The political or religious institutions of a state affect, without doubt, the character of a people, and this is no where more conspicuous than throughout those quarters of the globe where the blighting doctrines of Mahomet have been diffused. The unjust and cruel persecutions carried on by the Turks have damped the fiery spirit of the Greeks, and rendered distrust and deception absolutely necessary to the safety of their persons and property; whereas, under a more enlightened and less despotic government, the national character of that people would probably rise to the standard of the inhabitants in most of the civilised countries of Europe. To me they have always appeared as dispirited and broken-hearted; but at the same time ready to rise, if supported, and crush their vindictive rivals to the earth." (*Asia Minor*, &c. p. 31.)

There are in Turkey great numbers of sheep and goats, the flesh of which constitutes the principal animal food of the inhabitants; but there are proportionally fewer cattle than in other countries of Europe, beef being seldom, and veal never eaten, by the Turks. The sheep are nearly all of a small, thick-bodied breed, with a white fleece; merino, large-tailed, or other improved breeds, are met with only in Servia, into which they were introduced by Prince Milosch, or in Bosnia. In Wallachia the sheep have tall spiral horns, and their wool is a principal source of wealth. The pastures there are large and extensive, and large flocks are brought thither from Transylvania, to be depastured during winter. At the same season the sheep from the table-land of Cappadocia, &c., are driven into the plains of N. Syria; and many of the migratory Koord and Turkman tribes of Asia seek the pasture lands about Angora, the traders of which town supply their various wants, receiving in return the wool, skins, and other produce of their flocks, in which articles Angora has a very considerable trade. (*Geog. Journ.*, vi. 213.) The cattle along the banks of the Save and Danube appear to be a degenerate Hungarian breed. Those of the more S. provs. are different, being of medium size, and short-horned. Oxen are every where employed in field labour. Buffaloes are common, particularly in Bulgaria and Thrace. In Bosnia and other W. provs. some tolerably good cheeses, similar to Gruyère, are made; but the cheese of most parts of Turkey is in general too insipid to suit our taste. In making cheese, the milk of ewes and goats is partially employed, but in general only in the absence of that of the cow and buffalo. Turks abhor the hog so much, that they do not generally permit its

* En Servie, says Bonie, la dévastation de ces belles forêts de chênes et de hêtres se continue activement. But we incline to think that this statement at present is incorrect, government of late years having prohibited the cutting of timber. (*See SERVIA*, only, p. 673.)

sale in the towns, where they form the chief proportion of the pop.; and Boué says, "that the carcasses of hogs are only suffered to be brought to Constantinople at certain periods of the year, under an especial firman." (i. 503.) Nevertheless, they are reared in vast numbers in Servia, Bosnia, and other N. and W. provs., and, in fact, constitute the chief resource of the Servians. The Turks are good horsemen, and take pride in their horses. Little of that caste, however, bestowed on them that is common in W. Europe. They are fed only twice a-day, sometimes they are not put into stable, and are not groomed and trimmed as in Europe. The horse of European Turkey is generally of middle size, or rather below it, with a short neck, strong limbs, and a bay, chestnut, reddish brown, or white, seldom a grey colour. They are usually fed on barley; oats being used for horses only in the N.W. provs. The horses of Asiatic Turkey seem to be chiefly of Arabian descent. "The Montekli are an excellent race of horses, bred by a great tribe of that name on the banks of the Euphrates. In Armenia and Koordistan a prodigious number of fine animals might be procured at a cheap rate for the cavalry: the horses of Bagdad are large, and many of them show a great deal of blood; but those bred in the desert bordering on Damascus, are upon the whole the finest. I have heard of a poor Arab at Antioch in Syria, refusing 86,000 piastres for a mare of that breed. The only blood-horse I ever met with in Asia Minor was bred near Ooscat in the plains of Cappadocia, and may be descended from that which was so much admired by the Romans." (*Kisner's Asia Minor*, &c., p. 508.) The ass is much used in Roumelia, S. Albania, &c. Mules are scarce in those provs., but very numerous in Montenegro, and other mountainous parts of Turkey.

There are mines of copper, argentiferous lead, iron, &c. in various parts of both European and Asiatic Turkey; and it is generally believed that several of the mountain chains, which bound or intersect the Turkish provs., contain ores, not only of the useful, but of the precious, metals. The Wallachian and Moldavian gipies collect from the beds of the rivers pellets of gold mixed with a small quantity of silver, by means of which they are enabled to pay into the treasury the annual tribute of a drachm of gold imposed upon each man. But mining industry is not profitable in Turkey from various causes. "The ignorance of the people in the art of working the mines with economy is perhaps one cause of the neglect with which the Ottomans appear to treat this source of wealth; but the chief obstacle to exploration is the rapacity of government, which would seize upon the advantages of any new discovery, and subject the provincialists to the unrecompensed labour of opening the mines and extracting the ore." (*Thornton*, i. 31, 32.) Asphaltum, nitre, salt in Wallachia, &c., and coal in Bulgaria, are among the mineral products of the empire, but are by no means raised to the extent that they would be under a liberal political system. Between Eski-shehr and Servli-Hissar, in Asia Minor, the substance called *meerschaum*, so much used for German pipes, is found in large quantities. A specimen, procured by Mr. Ainsworth at this place, fresh from the mines, proves it to be a hydrated silicate of magnesia. It is a porous friable stone, almost entirely composed of small-grained vitreous or transparent felspar, decomposing and passing into a variety of porcelain earth. Great quantities of pipe-bowls are manufactured from this material, and sent to Constantinople for export into Germany, &c. (*Geog. Journ.*, x. 490, 491. *Clarke's Trav.*, &c.)

The manufactures of Turkey are more numerous, and display greater excellence, than might have been expected in a country so backward in the arts: indeed, her success in manufacturing industry is, upon the whole, greater than that of several countries ranking higher in civilisation. Thornton, who though somewhat partial to the Turks, is, on the whole, an excellent authority, says, "I know not whether Europe can equal, but certainly it cannot surpass, the Turks in several of their manufactures. The satins and silk stuffs, the velvets of Brusas and Aleppo, the serges and camlets of Angora, the crapes and gauzes of Salonica, the printed muslins of Constantinople, the carpets of Smyrna, and the silk, linen, and cotton stuffs of Cairo, Scio, Magnesia, Tokat, and Costambol, establish a favourable, but not an unfair, criterion of their general skill and industry. The workmen of Constantinople, in the opinion of Spon, excelled those of France in many of the inferior trades. They still practise all that they found practised; but, from an indolence with respect to innovation, they have not introduced or encouraged several useful or elegant arts of later invention. They call in no foreign assistance to work their mines: from their own quarries their own labour extracts the marble, and more ordinary stone which is employed in their public buildings. Their marine architecture is by no means contemptible, and their barges and smaller boats are of the most graceful construction. Their foundry of brass cannon has been much admired, and their musket and pistol barrels, and

particularly their sword blades (though the sword blades of Damascus are not so famous as formerly) are held in great estimation even by foreigners." (*Pres. State of Turkey*, i. 67, 68.) Their manufactures of Morocco and other leather, and of gold and silver lace, &c. deserve also to be mentioned with praise.

But if the Turks be more successful in the practice of some of the useful arts than is commonly supposed, they have made no progress in the fine arts, and are necessarily ignorant of the higher sciences. "Their buildings are rude incoherent copies, possessing neither the simplicity nor unity of original invention. Heavy in their proportions, they are imposing only from their bulk: the parts do not harmonise, nor are they subservient to one leading principle; the details are bad both in taste and execution; the decorations have no use, no meaning, no connection with the general design; there is nothing which indicates the conceptions of genius. The energies of the latter are chilled and repressed by the monotony of Turkish habits and the austerity of their customs. Their cities are not adorned with public monuments whose object is to enliven or to embellish. The circus, the forum, the theatre, the pyramid, the obelisk, the column, the triumphal arch, are interdicted by their prejudices. The ceremonies of religion are their only public pleasures. Their temples, their baths, their fountains, and sepulchral monuments, are the only structures on which they bestow any ornament. Taste is rarely exerted in other edifices of public utility, *khanas* and *besestians*, bridges and aqueducts. Sculpture in wood or in stucco, and the engraving of inscriptions on monuments or seals, are performed with neatness and admirable precision; and the ceilings and wainscoting of rooms, and the carved ornaments in the interior of Turkish houses, show dexterity and even taste. But their paintings, limited to landscape or architecture, have little merit either in design or execution; proportion is ill observed, and the rules of perspective are unknown. They reckon time by lunar revolutions, so that in the space of 33 years the Turkish months pass through every season. Their knowledge of geography does not extend beyond the frontiers of their empire. Their surgery is rude, from want of science, of skill, and of instruments." (*Ibid.*, 69—77.)

The domestic manufacture of cotton stuffs in Turkey is pretty general; and Cannabich estimated the consumption of raw cotton in the Turkish empire at 20,000 bales a year, 10,000 of which are consumed in the fabrics of Thessaly alone (*Handb. der Geog.*), the best Turkish yarn being made in this prov. Urquhart says, that in the S. provs. the poorest family requires 20 okes of uncleaned cotton, and 10 of wool, for its yearly consumption; and the manufacture of these materials occupies a large share of the peasant's in-door labour. Handkerchiefs, shirting, long-cloths, napkins, coarse cotton stuffs, and clothing in general, are the goods principally produced by the women; and, according to Urquhart, 44,000,000 lbs. of cotton manufactures, worth 5,000,000*l.* are made annually in European Turkey and Greece. (p. 180.) Very little dependence can, however, be placed on these statements; and there can be no doubt that the native manufacturers, who produce goods not for domestic consumption but for sale, have been involved in the greatest distress in consequence of the importation of English and other foreign goods. The manufacture of cotton yarn has been especially interfered with, and English cotton twist is now generally used for warp in such Turkish looms as are still at work, and is an article of increasing consumption.

The commerce of Turkey owes most part of its activity to the immunities and protection enjoyed by those engaged in it; which are not extended to individuals occupied in other vocations. The cultivator of the soil is ever a helpless prey to injustice and oppression, and the manufacturer has to bear his full share of the common insecurity; he is fixed to the spot, and cannot escape the grasp of the local governor. The raw material monopolised by a bey or *ayan* may be forced upon him at more than its fair value, and perhaps its quality may be inferior; fines may be imposed on him; he may be taken for forced labour, or troops may be quartered on his workshop. (*Urquhart*, p. 180.) It was not till 1837 that the firman was issued by the sultan allowing the free exportation of wheat to foreign countries. The Turkish gov. had previously been accustomed to prevent the exportation of grain from any part of the empire till Constantinople had been first abundantly supplied. In this view, the principal corn-growing provs. were obliged to furnish to the officers of the sultan a quantity of wheat equal to about a 12th part of the produce of their harvests. This contribution was called *istitra*. The *istitra*, or collectors, on receiving the corn from the proprietor, paid him 20 paras for every ton (about 60 lbs.). The total quantity of corn thus purchased for the supply of the capital amounted to about 1,000,000 kilos a year: this was sent by sea to Constantinople, and lodged in public granaries on the

N. side of the harbour. As this stock was considered a resource against times of scarcity, it was not distributed till it began to be damaged, unless when it could be sold with considerable benefit. This frequently happened; for individuals were not suffered to lay up their corn in magazines to re-sell in a similar manner; and Olivier estimated the yearly produce of this monopoly at 10,000 purses, or 5,500,000 piastres. After the treaty which opened the Black Sea to the commerce of foreign nations, vessels with cargoes from the Russian ports were allowed the free passage of the Bosphorus and Hellespont; "a privilege," says Thornton, "so important, that I have known ships, which had surreptitiously loaded wheat, the produce of the Turkish prov., sail to the Russian port of Odessa, and subject themselves to the delays and expenses of performing quarantine, paying the harbour fees and custom-house duties, for no other purpose than to obtain a certificate of their cargo being the produce of Russia, and thereby rescuing it from the vexations and extortions of the officers of the Turkish *maré*." (1. 285.) Other articles of provision, such as sheep, oxen, butter, cheese, wax, tallow, &c., used to be bought up in the same manner by the officers of government at their own price; but probably this system has now been in great part abolished; and except in the article of provisions, no restriction on commerce ever existed in Turkey. All foreign articles may be imported into the Turkish ports, without let or hindrance of any kind, on payment of an import duty of 3 per cent. *ad valorem*; and all articles of foreign and domestic growth or manufacture may be freely conveyed all over the empire. Her commercial system is, in fact, by far the best feature in the policy of Turkey.

The internal traffic of Turkey is greatly impeded by the badness or rather total deficiency of roads. Burgess says the sultan has not an inch of road in his dominions, which would not, in any civilized country, be indicted as a nuisance. (*Greece and the Levant*, p. 145.) Accordingly, in many provs., particularly in Asia Minor and Armenia, the communication between different places is quite cut off in winter, unless they can correspond by sea. Wheel-carriages are of course disused; and the caravans of merchants, from Hungary to the Persian Gulph, consist of horses and camels, by which almost all merchandise is conveyed. In European Turkey, after the capital, Adrianople and Salonica are the chief centres of trade, and the first being the great *dépôt* for all the goods coming by land to Constantinople from England, France, and Austria, supplies all the fairs throughout Roumelia and Bulgaria. (*Keppel's Journey across the Balkan*, p. 356.) Next to Smyrna, Aleppo is the chief seat of commerce in Asia. Caravans bring thither pearls, shawls, Indian and Chinese goods, from Bussorah and Bagdad; camels from Arabia; cotton stuffs and thread, Morocco leather, goat's hair and galls from the paches of Mosul, Diarbekir, Orfa, Alintab, &c.; furs, goat's hair, wax, gum ammoniac, &c., from Van, Erzeroum, and Kars; silk, copper, furs, and linens, from Asia Minor; silk, Mocha coffee, soap, scented woods, ambergris, drugs, and pearls, from Syria and Arabia; rice, coffee, and Egyptian produce, from Latakia; silk manufactures from Brusa and Damascus; European cotton and woollen stuffs, printed muslins, hardware, watches, wrought amber, and fur, from Smyrna and Constantinople. The principal articles of export are, sheep's wool, goat's hair, cattle, horses, hogs (from Servia, &c.), hides, hare skins, wheat, raw cotton and silk, tobacco, raisins, figs, almonds, mastic and other gums, gall-nuts, valloones, leeches, honey, wax, saffron, madder, anise and linseed, turpentine, safflower, meerschaum pipes, whetstones, carpets, silk and cotton fabrics, leather, copper and metallic wares, ornament, &c., with Arabian, Persian, Indian, and Chinese goods. The principal imports are linen, cotton, cotton, and silk goods, colonial products and dye stuffs, hardware and earthenware, paper, furs, &c. The British trade in Manchester, Glasgow, Birmingham, and Sheffield manufactures, and other British produce, has, however, been steadily increasing during the last 10 years. Subjoined is an

Articles.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Corn (wheat) - - - - -	grs. 5,150	43,740	4,809
Fig - - - - -	cwt. 13,346	14,823	17,463
Madder root - - - - -	- - - 29,059	47,587	56,559
Oil (olive) - - - - -	galls. 36,753	30,303	24,926
Opium - - - - -	lbs. 80,534	177,631	204,746
Raisins - - - - -	cwt. 28,942	22,000	54,333
Saffron - - - - -	- - - - -	7,968	6,554
Fur and skins - - - - -	lbs. 28,295	45,970	16,408
Silk (raw, &c.) - - - - -	lbs. 475,755	721,905	747,189
Skins (lamb) - - - - -	No. 245,565	199,766	163,394
Valloons - - - - -	cwt. 106,756	127,008	143,093
Wool (country) - - - - -	lbs. 680,534	1,055,978	1,055,978
(sheep's) - - - - -	762,018	1,183,332	695,964

ready money; no fictitious capital is created; no risk or loss from bankruptcy to incur. A merchant, whose capital may exceed 20,000*l.*, will, very possibly, be without a clerk; and a small box, which he places on his carpet, and leans his elbow upon, encloses, at once, his bank and counting house." (*Urkhart*, 136.)

Accounts are kept in piastres of 40 paces of 3 aspers each; or in purses of 500 piastres. But the rate of exchange is very variable, on account of the continual deterioration of the coin. In 1810, the pound sterling was worth only 12 piastres; but in 1839, it was equivalent to 104, and in 1842 is worth nearly 120! The most common measures and weights are the oke = about 24 lbs., and the quintal of 44 oks. The arshue = 2 ft. Engl. Distance is commonly measured by the hour = about 3 m.

Government, &c.—Châteaubriand said of the Turkish government that it was absolute despotism, tempered by regicide! In truth and reality, however, the government of Turkey is a species of theocracy. The grand seignor is supposed to be the lieutenant and vice-gerent of the prophet, and consequently, also, in some degree, of the Deity himself. But though, at first sight, this may appear to confer all but unlimited powers on the sovereign; and though, in some respects, it certainly gives very great latitude to his actions, it at the same time subjects him to various restraints and limitations, which he dares not contempt or break through. His authority, in fact, is principally bottomed on the Koran; and were he to abandon its doctrines, and to act in the teeth of its precepts, or those deduced from it by eminent commentators, and sanctioned by custom, the foundations of his authority would be loosened, he would cease to be the lawful sovereign, and would be regarded as a usurper whom it is meritorious to dethrone. Hence, though absolute in some respects, the power of the grand seignor is, in others, in the last degree limited. He may put those engaged in his service to death at pleasure, but were he to interfere in any way with property left in trust to a mosque, or to outrage the law by drinking wine in public, he would run a great risk of exciting discontent, and if he persisted in such conduct, of being de-throned.

"The Turks," says an accurate observer, "learn very early that, if the prince be of right divine, he finds it on the Koran; that he is constituted such by the sacred code of laws, which, as a true believer, he has studied, and knew, before his accession to the throne, it would ever be his duty to observe; and that, consequently, he is as much bound and tied by all those laws as they themselves are.

"This is so explicitly and fully laid down in the Koran, that Mohammed thought it necessary to throw in rules of exception expressly for himself.

"Hence, when the people are notoriously aggrieved; their property or that of the church repeatedly violated; when the prince will riot in blood, or carry on an unsuccessful war; they appeal to *law*, pronounce him an infidel, a tyrant, unjust, incapable to govern; and, in consequence, depose, imprison, and destroy him." (*Porter's Observations on the Turks*, l. 109, l. 12mo ed.) And every one who has any knowledge, how slender soever, of Turkish history, is aware that this principle has not been inoperative; and that the Turks have, over and over again, exercised the right of resistance to what they looked upon as arbitrary power.

It may not, however, be out of place to mention that this dependence of the sultan on the Koran, though it limits, in some degree, his power to tyrannise over his subjects, opposes, at the same time, the most formidable obstacles to his attempts to introduce any organic changes, how expedient or necessary soever. The rights and social condition of the people, living in the Turkish empire, who have not embraced the religion of the conquerors, is supposed to be determined by the Koran. And hence the difficulty—without, as it were, overturning the very foundations on which the monarchy rests—of effecting any material changes in the situation of the dependent population. The Turks cannot, unless they abandon their own religion, amalgamate with them, or raise them to the same level as themselves; so that the nation must always consist of two distinct parts—

ACCOUNT showing the Quantities of the Principal Articles Imported into the United Kingdom from Turkey*, in 1838, 1839, and 1840. [See top of next column.]

The wealthier class of Turks are generally too apathetic and indolent for commercial pursuits, which they leave to the Greeks, Armenians, Arnauts, and Jews. "The extreme simplicity of commerce, from the absence of all legislation on the subject, is visible in the establishment of a merchant: no books, save one of common entry, are kept; no credits are given; no bills discounted; no bonds, nor even receipts: the transactions are all for

* In the official accounts, the commerce of Turkey is not distinguished from that of Greece N. of the Isthmus; but the latter is quite inconsiderable.

the Turkish, or ruling portion; and the *rayahs*, or subjugated infidels, who exist upon sufferance, and who can never arrive at any situation of power or emolument. The character of the Mohammedan religion is, in truth, an all but insuperable obstacle to any thing like real reform. Though less intolerant than many others, it inculcates on the mind of its votaries the most exalted ideas of their own importance, and the most profound contempt for all sorts of unbelievers. There may, no doubt, be an imitation of European tactics, and an attempt to introduce something like the practices and institutions that prevail in European states; but it is impossible, so long as the religion of the prophet maintains its ascendancy, that they can have any considerable influence. Submission to their power has saved the unbelieving population of the country from death; but nothing short of their embracing the religion of the conquerors can effectually protect them from insult and contempt, and consequently, also, from extortion and tyranny.

The grand seignor is assisted in the government of the empire by a cabinet-council or *divan*, consisting of the principal ministers of the empire, and of the mufti or head of the law. Until very recently the sultans were in the habit of delegating the greater portion of their authority to the grand vizier (*reis azem*), who became, as it were, regent of the empire, being at the head of the civil government, and generalissimo of the military and naval forces. But of late years the powers of this high functionary have been very much curtailed. Indeed, the place was wholly abolished by the late, though it has been revived by the present, emperor. The functions of the other ministers correspond with those of minister for foreign affairs (*reis affairi*), of the interior, commerce, and finance (*tefferdar*), and of a commander in chief (*seraskier*), a grand admiral, &c. The court of Constantinople is generally known in other European countries by the title of the *Sublime Porte*, a designation derived from the *Bab Hamayoun*, or principal outer gate of the seraglio, whence the hattîscheriffs, or imperial edicts, are usually issued.

The *shêik-ul-islam* (mufti), or head of the clergy and chief interpreter of the Koran and the canonical laws, is a very important functionary. He nominates to all the principal offices in church and law; and takes precedence of every other subject in the empire, even of the grand vizier. On most great occasions the sultan applies to the shêik-ul-islam for a *fatwa*, or legal opinion, to ascertain whether his intended course of action be in accordance with the Koran. But this is not indispensable, and has very rarely been refused. Latterly, too, the opinions of the mufti have become of less importance.

The mufti is always chosen from the *ulema*, a body comprising the clergy with the interpreters and administrators of the law. But, though they all study together, the lawyers and judges are quite distinct from the clergy; it being left to every young man brought up in one of the colleges of the order to determine for himself, when he has attained a proper age and acquired a sufficient stock of learning, whether he will become a priest, or a doctor of law, or a judge; but it is to the latter, or the *ulema*, that the title of *ulema* is more peculiarly appropriated.

Throughout Turkey, the ministers of religion are all subordinate to the civil authorities, who exercise over them the powers of diocesan. Magistrates may supersede and remove clergymen who misconduct themselves, or who are unequal to the proper discharge of the duties of their office. The magistrates themselves may also, whenever they judge proper, perform all the sacerdotal functions; and it is in virtue of this prerogative, joined to the influence which they derive from their judicial power and their riches, that they have so marked a pre-eminence, and so preponderant an authority, over the ministers of public worship. (*Thornton*, l. 126.)

The members of the *ulema* constitute a sort of aristocracy. They pay no taxes or public imposts, and, by a peculiar privilege, their property is hereditary in their families, and is not liable to arbitrary confiscations. Their persons are sacred; their blood may on no account be shed; nor can they be legally punished in any way but by imprisonment and exile. It is to be observed, however, that the power and dignity of the *ulemas* are not hereditary in individuals, but in the order. Formerly they held their offices for life; but about the end of the 17th century they were made removable at pleasure, like all other public functionaries. They now are appointed only for a year. Each individual, however, enjoys all the privileges of the order, independently of his holding any office, or exercising any public employment. There have been instances of muftis declining to obey the commands of the grand seignor, and of their remonstrating with him on the impropriety or illegality of his conduct; though, as the sultan makes the mufti, and can depose and exile him at pleasure, such conduct must necessarily be very rare, except when some formidable conspiracy is on foot, and when the powers of the sultan are consequently circum-

scribed. In the reign of Mustapha, the people put to death the mufti for having, as they alleged, misled the sultan. Pauthenir says, that Murad IV. commanded a mufti to be panted in a marble mortar, saying, that heads, whose dignity exempts them from the sword, ought to be struck with the pestle! but the fact is doubtful. (*Thornton*, l. 130.) Speaking generally, the influence of the mufti and *ulema* is uniformly opposed to all measures of reform; at least, to such as might be supposed to militate in any way against the peculiar doctrines and regulations enforced by the Koran.

Besides the *ulema*, there is a privileged order, limited to the descendants of Mohammed by his daughter Fatima. These are called *owsees*, or *uncsees*, have *agnos* prefixed to their names, and are authorised to wear green turbans. Inasmuch, however, as they are very numerous, *owsees*, like brahmins in India, are found in even the most abject ranks of life.

The government of the provinces is extremely rude, and is practically, indeed, little else than a tissue of abuses. European Turkey was formerly divided into the two great governments, or *ojaks*, of Roumelia and Bosnia; the former of which was subdivided into 16 sanjacks, or great governments, or pachaliks, and the latter into 7, besides some inferior governments. The power of the pachas within their respective districts is, in many respects, unlimited. They have under them *musehims*, or sub-pachas, to whom they delegate a portion of their authority, and who watch over a certain extent of territory. Every pacha, or governor, is supposed to represent the sovereign within the limits of his own jurisdiction, is invested with his authority, and exercises his prerogatives in all their plenitude. Nominally, however, contentious jurisdiction, or the determining differences between subjects, is left to the *cash*, or judge, in conformity with the principles of musulman government and the practice of the sultan.

Formerly the pachaliks or rather *beylerbeyliks*, for such was the name given to the larger governments, were much more extensive than at present; and it not infrequently happened that a pacha, at the head of a large government, having succeeded in getting his creatures made pachas of the surrounding governments, acquired such a degree of power as to be able to cast off his allegiance, and defy the sultan. Latterly, however, it has been the policy of the government to diminish the sanjacks, and so to lessen the danger of insurrection on the part of the pachas. The latter are appointed only for a single year; and the limits of the different pachaliks are being constantly changed. (*Bowd.* iii. 161, &c.)

All musulmen, how humble soever their origin, are eligible to, and may fill, the highest offices in the state. In Turkey, birth confers no privilege, all true believers being equal in the eye of the law. But this sound principle is rendered of little or no value, or rather positively injurious, by every thing being made to depend on the pleasure of the sultan. With the exception, indeed, of the law and the church, no previous study or preparation, nothing, in short, but the favour of the prince, which is most frequently obtained by the most unworthy arts, is required to elevate individuals from the very lowest to the very highest stations! And hence it is, that though individuals be sometimes found in Turkey admirably adapted for the situations they fill, these are very rare exceptions, incapacity and unfitness for their duties being the distinguishing characteristics of Turkish functionaries.

Till this vicious system be wholly abandoned, and individuals be appointed to important situations from other motives than the mere caprice of the sultan, it is nugatory to suppose there can be any substantial improvement. In this respect, however, little or no progress has hitherto been made. When Marabout Marmont visited Constantinople, towards the close of the late sultan's reign, who had been called, and not without reason, the Turkish reformer, a black eunuch was a general of brigade; and Achmet Pacha, who was then a general of cavalry, had been bred a shoemaker, and practised at a more recent period as a waterman in the harbour! And a short while subsequent to this the same Achmet Pacha was made *capitan pacha*, or high admiral of the fleet, of the duties of which station, it is hardly necessary to add, he knew no more than he did of the Principia of Newton. This, we apprehend, may be taken as a pretty fair specimen of Turkish reform. Marabout Marmont, who is a most intelligent and unexceptionable judge, says, that *aujourd'hui comme autrefois, le faveur et le caprice du maître sont les seuls titres pour occuper les emplois les plus importants. Les prétendus progrès en civilisation du gouvernement Turc n'ont pas encore consacré le principe qu'il faut attacher ce que l'on veut savoir.* (ll. 58., 12mo. ed.)

But if the rapid advancement of individuals from the lowest to the highest stations be so common in Turkey as hardly to excite attention, the sudden downfall and total ruin of the most exalted functionaries is no less common. In fact, a man who takes office in Turkey loses

from that moment all feeling of security, and tacitly admits the right of the sultan to deprive him at pleasure of his office, his property, and his life. "All the officers of government owe," to use the words of Mr. Thornton, "their appointment to the sole favour of the sultan, without respect to birth, talent, services, or experience. They are deposed and punished without the liberty of complaint or remonstrance; and at their death the sultan inherits their property." (l. 162.)

Formerly the government of pachaliks and other important situations, if not bestowed by the sultan on some of his favourites, were regularly sold to the highest bidder, the leases being renewed annually, provided the pacha or other functionary remitted to Constantinople a sufficient *doucouer*, or, if not, he was superseded by some less parsimonious competitor. And, when in office, the only criterion of an approved administrator was the magnitude of his *doucouers*, and the amount of tribute he remitted to the public treasury, no inquiry being ever made into the means by which this revenue was raised.—*Quocumque modo res* was the brief and comprehensive maxim by which their conduct was regulated. "To rob those below him that he may bribe those above him, is the constant aim and sole object of each petty tyrant, through all the gradations of this baleful despotism." (*Modern Trav. Turkey*, p. 94.) The legitimate revenues of the pachas arise from the rents or produce of lands assigned for their maintenance, and from certain fixed imposts on the cities, towns, and villages of their pachaliks. These, however, are in most instances the smallest portion of the revenue of the pachas. The far greater portion consists of illegal demands of all kinds, which the people have no means of resisting. M. Beaujour states that, during the time he resided in Salonica, the pacha enjoyed a revenue of about 140,000 piastres, derived from the rent of land, casualties, and other legitimate sources; and that, in addition to this, he made about 100,000 piastres more by *avances*, or extortions. And yet this was regarded as a man of singular justice and humanity! (*Traité des Cons. de la Grèce*, l. 47.) Judge, then, what must be the state of a province governed by a covetous and rapacious pacha, which is the general character of these functionaries.

The flagrant abuses consequent on such a system have brought the Turkish empire to its present state of weakness and degradation; and the necessity of making some very decided changes in the administration has been long obvious. In consequence, a *hatti sherif*, or imperial decree, was issued 3d Nov. 1839 (see post), which, if it could be *bona fide* carried into effect, would go far to suppress most part of the existing abuses, and to introduce security and good order. But, unfortunately, the age of miracles is past, and nothing short of a miracle would suffice for the regeneration of the Turkish empire. Some of the grosser abuses may be suppressed; but, speaking generally, they are too deeply seated, too much interwoven with the religion of the country and the constitution of society, to allow any one to suppose that they can be extirpated otherwise than by the agency of some tremendous revolution that should overthrow every thing that now exists. There is neither science, nor virtue nor knowledge in Turkey sufficient to accomplish any considerable reforms. Corruption and venality are every where the order of the day; and M. Boué, who has very recently been in Turkey, and is well acquainted with the people and their institutions, affirms that now, as heretofore, the important places of pachas and *cadis* are sold to the highest bidder, *sous, pour ainsi dire, des enchères au plus offrant!* (lil. 224.) And he farther affirms, that the most trifling as well as the most important affairs are all settled by the intervention of *doucouers*. A sovereign, with the absolute power, sagacity, and sternness of purpose of Peter the Great, might, perhaps, effect a substantial reform of the Turkish government; but to suppose that such a sovereign should be bred in the slothful luxury of the seraglio, is a contradiction and an absurdity.

In addition to the various sources of weakness and decay originating in vicious institutions and a bad system of government, may be added the imperfect subjugation of the countries comprised within the limits of the empire. The *Inhab.* of several districts, both of European and of Asiatic Turkey, enjoy, some almost a total and others a sort of semi-independence, forming so many asylums to which discontented and rebellious subjects from the adjoining provs. may retreat and form new schemes, and holding out the seductive and dangerous example of successful resistance. Exclusive of Servia, which is now only nominally under the Porte, there are numerous districts in Albania and Thessaly that are all but independent. Of these, the most important is the country called Myrdita, or the mountainous country occupied by the Myrdises on both sides the Drin. They can bring 10,000 men into the field, pay no taxes, and do not even allow a single Turk to remain within their boundaries! In many parts of Epirus there

are similar independent communities. The extensive district of Montenegro, under the government of a bishop, is also substantially independent; as are several districts in other parts of the country. In Asiatic Turkey the Druses, Maronites, &c. in Syria, have succeeded in maintaining their independence; and many of the Turkman and other tribes found in Asia Minor are only nominally dependent on the Porte. (*Bond*, lil. 192–209., &c.) With such elements of disorder scattered over the whole face of the country, the only wonder is that anarchy and insubordination are not more widely diffused than we find them to be.

Mr. Urquhart devotes a large portion (caps. li. lil. and iv.) of his work on Turkey to a description of its municipal establishments, of which he greatly overrates the importance. No doubt, however, they are the best part of the Turkish institutions. They form, as it were, as many little republics. Their authorities or elders, which are freely chosen by the *Inhab.*, assess and collect the poll, house, and land taxes; manage the municipal funds, arbitrate in petty matters, &c. These communities are modelled upon a plan similar in almost all respects to the village system of Hindostan.

Justice.—The Ottoman empire is governed by a code of laws called *multaka*, founded on the precepts of the Koran, the oral laws of Mohammed, his traditions, usages, and opinions, together with the sentences and decisions of the early caliphs, and the doctors of the first ages of Islamism. This code comprises a collection of laws relating to religious, civil, criminal, political, and military affairs; all equally respected as being theocratical, canonical, and immutable, though obligatory in different degrees, according to the authority which accompanies each precept. In some instances it imposes a duty of eternal obligation, as being a transcript of the Divine will revealed to the prophet: in others it invites to an imitation of the prophet in his life and conduct. And though to alight the example be blamable, it does not entail upon the delinquent the imputation of guilt; while the decisions of doctors on questions that have arisen since the death of the prophet are of still inferior authority. When a matter occurs that has not been foreseen or provided for by the early promulgators of the law, the Sultan pronounces a decision; and his authority is absolute in all matters that do not interfere with the doctrines or practical duties of religion. The code *multaka* is, however, alone considered as paramount law: the decisions or decrees of the Sultan (*hatti sherif*), of which a compilation was made by Solymann the Magnificent, under the name of *awam namak*, are considered as emanations from human authority, and as such, are susceptible of modification, or even abolition remaining in force only during the pleasure of the Sultan or his successors. (*Thornton*, l. 107. &c.) The *adet* or provincial customs are also allowed considerable influence.

In all the districts and towns of the empire, justice is administered by judges (*cadis*), who are of five different ranks, according to the importance of the place in which they are established, each *cadi* being assisted by a deputy, or *nash*. Nothing can be more simple and expeditious than the forms of proceeding in Turkish courts. Each party represents his case, assisted by counsellors, advocates, or pleaders of any kind, and supports his statement by the production of evidence. The deposition of two competent witnesses is admitted as complete legal proof, in all cases whatever.

The promptitude of Turkish justice has been often praised: but though dilatoriness be, in this respect, highly blamable, we apprehend that it is a far less evil than the other extreme. In Turkey no ordinary legal authority can detain an untried man in prison more than 3 days; and in criminal cases the execution of sentences follows close upon the decision of the judge: but neither of these regulations appears to be scrupulously followed. In the one case, sufficient time is not allowed to prepare either a defence or an accusation; and in the other, the immediate execution of the sentence prevents the power of appeal to a superior tribunal, and consequently takes away the only means of getting an unjust decision reversed, and what is of more consequence, an unjust or ignorant judge exposed and degraded. In the greater number of civil cases appeals may be made from the *nash* to the *cadi*, from the latter to the *cadi-asker*, or judge of the prov., and hence to the sultan. The latter, however, is rarely practised; and is effected only by presenting a petition for redress to his highness on his way to the mosque. Bastinado, fine, imprisonment, the gallies, and capital punishment, by hanging, drowning, beheading, or strangling, are the principal means of disposing of criminals. Death is sometimes awarded for what we should consider comparatively venial crimes, as, for instance, unfair dealing on the part of tradesmen; though a butcher or baker convicted of short weight is more frequently nailed by the ear to the door of his shop.

Speaking generally, the administration of justice is in the most disgraceful state in Turkey. According to law, all the judgments of the pachas and of their deputies

should be submitted to the *cadî*, and can only be legally carried into effect when approved by the latter. But, in practice, this salutary regulation is generally disregarded, and in most cases the sentences of the *pachas* are executed whether they be approved by the *cadî* or not. (*Boué*, iii. 351.) But the grand vice of Turkish justice consists in the venality of the judges and the toleration of perjury. "The monarch's despotism is not the greatest evil in Turkey: his subjects would, perhaps, bear that without much murmuring or great distress. The radical destruction of all security lies in the iniquitous administration of their laws, which are an impending sword in the hand of corruption, ever ready to cut off their lives and properties." (*Porter*, ii. 1.) Mr. Thornton seems to think that Turks have rarely to complain of injustice, and that, speaking generally, the decisions of the judges, in cases where both parties are Mussulmans, are fair and impartial. We are assured, however, by those well acquainted with the fact, that this statement must be received with great modification, and that a rich or powerful Turk has, in most instances, little or no difficulty in obtaining a decision in his favour, however unjust his cause; and that as respects Christians and Jews, they have no chance in a litigation with a Turk, unless they succeed beforehand in securing the good offices of the judge. It is a principle of Turkish law that written testimony is of no avail when opposed to living witnesses; and hence every precaution should be taken to render the latter trustworthy. But, instead of this, the most detestable perjurers enjoy an all but total impunity, and carry on a lucrative as well as an infamous profession. False swearing is punished by leading the culprit through the streets seated on an ass, with his face turned to the animal's tail; and even this punishment, trifling as it is when imposed on such wretches, is rarely enforced. Magistrates are compelled to decide according to the evidence of notorious perjurers, unless they detect their falsehood at the moment. The subjects of foreign powers residing in Turkey are allowed, in virtue of treaties to that effect, to support their claims by written evidence. (*Thornton*, i. 196, &c.)

M. Boué, whose remarks on the administration of justice are as superficial as can well be imagined, is good enough to inform his readers that *si on ne pouvait pas citer de faux témoins, des témoins subornés à prix d'argent, et même des juges qui se laissent gagner, la justice Turque mériterait tout aussi bien ce nom que le nôtre!* (iii. 355.) True, and on the same principle we might say that if A. were not a thief, he would be as honest as B.

There is a considerable discrepancy in the accounts of the state of the police in Turkey, though most recent travellers say that it is extremely defective. No doubt, however, considering the abuses inherent in every department of the administration, it is superior to what might have been expected. This is mainly ascribable to the regulation which makes every district of the country responsible for all the murders, robberies, and other crimes of violence committed within its bounds; and which consequently makes their repression the business of all the more respectable inhabitants.

Owing to the jealousy of the Turks of the invasion of their privacy, no writ of search can at any time be executed in the interior of the house of a Turk but in the presence of the *IMAM*; nor in that of a Christian, except accompanied by a priest, nor of a Jew unless a rabbi be present. The rooms occupied by the women, which are never entered, frequently shelter criminals.

Army.—The Turkish land forces may comprise, exclusive of artillery, about 100,000 infantry, of whom about 70,000 are regulars (*niçam*), and about 100,000 cavalry, of which by far the largest proportion formerly consisted of irregular troops, partly and principally furnished by the *spahis*, and other holders of estates, on condition of military service; but of late years the number of this description of troops has been greatly reduced. Previously to 1826, the janizaries formed the nucleus and main strength of the Turkish armies; and, though now destroyed, a short notice of that once famous militia, long the terror and scourge of Christendom, may not be unacceptable.

The most probable opinion seems to be that the janizaries were originally established by Amurath I., in 1362, and consisted at first of about 12,000 Christian captives, who were renewed by incorporating with them a fifth part of the prisoners of war. "But when the royal fifth of the captives was diminished by conquest, an inhuman tax of the fifth child, or of one every fifth year, was rigorously levied on the Christian families. At the age of 12 or 14 years, the most robust youths were torn from their parents; their names were enrolled in a book; and from that moment they were clothed, taught, and maintained for the public service. According to the promise of their appearance, they were selected for the royal schools of Brusa, Pera, and Adrianople, entrusted to the care of the *pachas*, or dispersed in the houses of the Anatolian peasantry. It was the first care of their masters to instruct them in the Turkish lan-

guage: their bodies were exercised by every labour that could fortify their strength; they learned to wrestle, to leap, to run, to shoot with the bow, and afterwards with the musket; till they were drafted into the chambers and companies of the janizaries, and severely trained in the military or monastic discipline of that order. The youths most conspicuous for birth, talents, and beauty, were admitted into the inferior class of the *agrimedans*, or the more liberal rank of *ichogians*, of whom the former were attached to the palace, and the latter to the person of the prince." (*Gibbon*, chap. 65.)

It is needless to add that the janizaries were taught to believe implicitly in the doctrines of Mohammedanism; and, having no relations or family ties to bind them to society, they regarded themselves not merely as the soldiers, but as the children, of the sultan. They enjoyed, partly by the voluntary and partly by the forced concessions of their sovereigns, several valuable privileges and immunities. They formed the body guard of the sultan; they were stationed in the capital, and paid, not like the rest of the army, by assignments of land, but in money; and their captain was one of the most important officers in the public service.

But though formidable at first only to the enemies of the country, they gradually became hardly less formidable to their sovereigns. According as the severe discipline by which the Turkish armies had been originally distinguished was relaxed, and the recruits fell into feebler hands, the janizaries became unruly, insolent, and overbearing. On various occasions they insulted the majesty of the throne, and, in 1622, they even proceeded to depose Osman II. Hence it had long been a favourite object with the sultans to endeavour to weaken the force and influence of the janizaries. But their efforts in this view had, until very recently, but little success. Selim III. having endeavoured to counteract the influence of the janizaries, by creating a regular army (*niçam*), the former mutilated, and Selim lost his life in the contest, that ensued. But his successor, the late sultan, was more fortunate in his struggle with this unruly soldiery. In 1826 he issued a *hatti scherif*, directing that the janizaries should be incorporated with the regular troops. The janizaries refused to obey this order; but the sultan having previously secured the co-operation of the mufti and of their *agha*, they were completely defeated; and such of them as escaped the conflict in which they were involved*, were deprived of their former insignia, and distributed among the new regiments of the line, so that there is now hardly a trace to be found of this once powerful force.

Previously to and since the destruction of the janizaries, it has been a favourite object with the last and present sultans to organise and discipline their troops after the European fashion. But it does not appear that hitherto their efforts have been attended with much success; and it seems doubtful whether the troops have gained as much by the change in their discipline and tactics, as they have certainly lost in the decline of their enthusiasm and sense of nationality. They are now fully aware that they have become the pupils and copyists of those very infidels they were so long accustomed to hold in contempt; and that circumstance has made them lose that confidence in themselves, for the want of which it is very difficult, if not impossible, to compensate.

The regular troops are raised by a conscription among the Turkish part of the pop. Inasmuch, however, as little or no attention is paid to the number of children in a family, or even to the health, size, or age of the conscripts, the conscription is found to be an intolerable hardship; and the recruits produced by it are of the most motley kind, youths of 15 and 17 being intermixed with men of 40, 50, and 60 years of age! The mortality among the conscripts is very heavy. According, however, to the *hatti scherif* of 1826 (see post), the defects in the present recruiting system are to be corrected; and the period of service is to be reduced to four or five years.

The uniform of the regular troops is blue, faced with red. The household troops, or body guard of the sultan, comprises the *élite* of the army: their pay and appointments are better than those of the other troops. Marshal Marmont, whose intelligence and experience entitle his opinion on military matters to the greatest weight, makes the following statements with respect to the state of the Turkish troops:

"The Turkish soldiers are a very happy one. They are better fed than any other troops in Europe, having an abundance of provisions of excellent quality, and partaking of meat once, and of soup twice a day. Their magazines are filled with stores, and the regiments have large reserves. The pay of each soldier is 30 *para*.

* The number of janizaries who fell in this conflict, or massacre, as it has been called, has been grossly exaggerated. Marshal Marmont says that not more than 600 lost their lives in Constantinople in the conflict, and in the punishments by which it was followed. A few were killed in other parts of the empire.

tres per month*; the whole of which he receives, as there is a prohibition against withholding from him any part of that sum. In short, every thing has been effected that could promote the welfare of the soldier.

"If no fault can be found on the score of the *matériel*, much is to be said against the *personnel* of this force. On the arrival of Achmet Pacha, we repaired to the exercising ground. Four battalions were in line; and, after inspecting them, they manoeuvred before me. Nothing could be worse than this exhibition; indeed, these men ought not to be looked upon as troops, but merely as a mass of people, bearing the stamp of misery and humiliation; and they are evidently depressed by a knowledge of their own weakness. They all seem to have a willingness about them, but feel ashamed of their occupation; and, from the private to the colonel, not an individual amongst them has any conception of his duty. Moreover, the men are diminutive in stature, and wretched in appearance: many of them are too young for service; and we are led to inquire what is become of that noble Turkish people, the lofty, proud, majestic, handsome race of former days; for now we find no trace of them in the existing troops.

"I have endeavoured to discover why they have not hitherto succeeded better with the new system, and I thus account for the failure. The sultan was desirous of organising troops according to the European mode; and his ambition was to form an army on the instant. He accordingly raised at once a great number of regiments; but the instructors, being generally individuals of an inferior station of life, without capacity or talent, who had been led to Constantinople by the circumstances which attend revolutions, were unfitted to accomplish the object in view.

"The new organisation commenced simultaneously in all the corps; and the same description of persons were universally employed in endeavouring to carry it into effect. In none of the grades had any man confidence either in himself or in others; and no one, therefore, had a right to the command, which should always be derived from some superior claim. It is only as a consequence of such a principle that men are ever found disposed to yield obedience. In the troops of all the other powers of Europe, there are two admitted titles to precedence—birth and merit. The former has its basis on a higher social grade, which, by giving opportunities for better education, leads to the expansion of the mind; the latter, on the experience and information resulting from previous service. In Turkey there are no gradations in the social order, and the son of the water-carrier is on a par with the vizier's child, having often the same education. Hence, there is no admitted superiority in those invested with power; and the previous equality indisposes others to obey authority obtained through mere caprice.

"As to the right derived from merit or experience, there can be none where all are novices.

"Such were the radical defects that prevailed in the formation of the Turkish army. The remedy would be to reduce things to their elements; and to re-consequence, by establishing to public opinion a respect for talent and capacity, in order to obtain that obedience and confidence in superiors, without which an army cannot exist: for it is such confidence that produces discipline and order, and creates the moral power requisite to give unity, compactness, and energy to the whole.

"If, instead of attempting to raise an army, as it were, by a mere decree, the sultan had been content with forming a single battalion, and had obtained the services of 50 or 40 really good officers, and a chief capable of comprehending the importance of his duties, it is probable that, in two years, he would have succeeded in producing a battalion to serve as a model for the rest; and, this result once obtained, the sultan would have possessed the elements required. At the end of six months, or, at the utmost, of one year, by adding to the numbers of those first enrolled, and dividing the whole into two battalions, he might have formed a complete regiment; for the men of the first levy would, in the eyes of the recruits, have appeared as old and instructed soldiers. It is obvious that in ten years he would then have obtained an army. Whereas, according to the system followed, such a result is improbable, for an union of men like the present cannot be said to merit this title." (*Translation by Smith, p. 61, &c.*)

If the opinions of so eminent a judge as Marshal Marmont of the bad quality of the Turkish troops required any confirmation, it would be found in the history of their campaigns with the Egyptians. How superior soever in point of numbers, they never were able to make any head against the latter, till supported by European troops. The irregular troops consist principally of Kurds and Albanians, who, when properly commanded, make excellent troops.

The same corruption that infects the other depart-

ments of the Ottoman government, extends to that of the army. The pashas, commanders of regiments, and other functionaries, contrive to make large sums by keeping on their books a greater number of troops than they really have, and putting the pay and other emoluments drawn on their account into their pockets. At inspections, the place of the deficient troops is supplied by substitutes hired for the occasion, who disperse as soon as the inspecting officers have retired! (*Ibid.*, iii. 333.)

The attempt to reform the Turkish army would really, therefore, appear to have been one of the most abortive that has ever been made. The nationality, fanaticism, and confidence of the troops themselves has been destroyed, and nothing but a miserable imitation of European tactics and discipline substituted in its stead. The ignorance of the officers, and the mischievous principle, if we may so call it, on which they are selected, were the first evils that should have been corrected; and, till they have been obviated, no other improvement can be of the smallest consequence. Marshal Marmont speaks very favourably of the school established at Constantinople for the instruction of the guards; but supposing it and other schools to be kept up, a lengthened period must elapse before they can have any material influence. Unless, indeed, the sultan should be able to avail himself, which probably the prejudices of his subjects will not permit, of the services of European officers in the command and organisation of his army, we apprehend that it is not destined speedily to acquire any considerable degree of efficiency or strength.

Navy.—It is unnecessary to enter into any lengthened details with respect to the Turkish navy. At no time has Turkey been considerable as a naval power; and as the Turks have no taste for the sea, her best sailors have always been Greeks, Christian slaves, or renegades. In 1770 the Turkish fleet was destroyed by the Russians in the harbour of Tchesmeh; and the defenceless state in which the coasts, and even the capital, were then found to be placed, awakened the attention of government to the subject. Since that period many fine line of battle ships have been built in the Turkish ports, principally under the direction of Europeans; but, owing to the unskillfulness of the crews, and the all but total ignorance of the officers, most of whom have not been bred to the sea, and when appointed to be lieutenants and captains, can hardly distinguish between a rudder and a main-mast, the money laid out on the ships has been little better than thrown away. The battle of Navarino inflicted a severe blow on the Turkish navy, and soon after the accession of the present sultan, the captain-pacha, or high-admiral, carried off the fleet to Alexandria, and delivered it up to Mehemet Ali! The latter, however, has since been obliged to return it. The emancipation of Greece, which formerly furnished the best sailors to the Turkish fleet, has been a serious injury to the latter.

Houses and Mode of Life.—The houses of the Turks are built in contempt of all architectural rules. They are mostly only of one story, and are very rarely more than two stories in height, constructed of wood and sun-dried bricks, those of the better class being plastered and painted over on the outside. The windows when they open on a street or other exposed situation, are uniformly covered with lattice-work, which prevents the most inquisitive eyes from obtaining even a glimpse of what is going on within. But though mean and shabby on the outside, the houses of the more opulent Turks are often very sumptuously fitted up in the interior. The most convenient and magnificent apartments belong to the *karem*, or to the portion of the house appropriated to the exclusive use of the women; and this very frequently opens on a court having a fountain in the middle, and sometimes on a garden. The houses of the poorer classes are most uncomfortable, their windows being generally without glass, and their rooms without fire places. In winter they are usually heated by means of braziers, or pans of charcoal, which suffocate while they warm.

Lady Mary W. Montague has given a lively and accurate description of the houses of the higher class of Turks. "Every house," says her ladyship, "great and small, is divided into two distinct parts, which only join together by a narrow passage. The first house has a large court before it, and open galleries all round it, which is to me very agreeable. This gallery

* Strictly speaking, this is the pay of the guards only; the others receive 15 piastres per month. (*Ibid.*, iii. 335.)

leads to all the chambers, which are commonly large, and with two rows of windows, the first being of painted glass: they seldom build above two stories, each of which has galleries. The stairs are broad, and not often above thirty steps. This is the house belonging to the lord, and the adjoining one is called the *harem*, that is, the ladies' apartment (for the name of *seraglio* is peculiar to the grand seignor); it has also a gallery running round it towards the garden, to which all the windows are turned, and the same number of chambers as the other, but more gay and splendid, both in painting and furniture. The second row of windows is very low, with grates like those of convents; the rooms are all spread with Persian carpets, and raised at one end of them (my chambers are raised at both ends) about 2 ft. This is the sofa, which is laid with a richer sort of carpet, and all round it a sort of couch, raised half a foot, covered with rich silk, according to the fancy or magnificence of the owner; mine is of scarlet cloth, with a gold fringe; round about this are placed, standing against the wall, two rows of cushions, the first very large, and the next little ones; and here the Turks display their greatest magnificence. They are generally brocade, or embroidery of gold wire upon white satin; nothing can look more gay and splendid. These seats are also so convenient and easy, that I believe I shall never endure chairs as long as I live. The rooms are low, which I think no fault; and the ceiling is always of wood, generally inlaid or painted with flowers. They open in many places with folding doors, and serve for cabinets, I think, more conveniently than ours. Between the windows are little arches to set pots of perfume, or baskets of flowers. But what pleases me best is the fashion of having marble fountains in the lower part of the room, which throw up several spouts of water, giving at the same time an agreeable coolness, and a pleasant dashing sound, falling from one basin to another. Some of these are very magnificent. Each house has a bagnio, which consists generally in two or three little rooms, leaded on the top, paved with marble, with basins, cocks of water, and all conveniences for either hot or cold baths.

"You will, perhaps, be surprised at an account so different from what you have been entertained with by the common voyage-writers, who are very fond of speaking of what they don't know. It must be under a very particular character, or on some extraordinary occasion, that a Christian is admitted into the house of a man of quality; and their *harems* are always forbidden ground. Thus they can only speak of the outside, which makes no great appearance; and the women's apartments are always built backward, removed from sight, and have no other prospect than the gardens, which are enclosed with very high walls. They have none of our *parterres* in them; but they are planted with high trees, which give an agreeable shade, and, to my fancy, a pleasing view. In the midst of the garden is the *chiosk*, that is, a large room, commonly beautified with a fine fountain in the midst of it. It is raised nine or ten steps, and enclosed with gilded lattices, round which vines, jessamines, and honeysuckles, make a sort of green wall. Large trees are planted round this place, which is the scene of their greatest pleasures, and where the ladies spend most of their hours, employed by their music or embroidery. In the public gardens are public *chiosks*, where people go that are not so well accommodated at home, and drink their coffee, sherbet, &c."

Owing to the houses being mostly built of wood, fires are very frequent at Constantinople, and have sometimes been so very extensive as to threaten destruction to the entire city. The sultan generally attends in person to superintend the efforts made to suppress the fury of the flames. When rebuilt, little or no alteration is ever made in the form of the streets.

It should, however, be observed, as especially marking the character of the Turkish government, that these fires are not always accidental. Indeed, how singular soever the circumstance may appear, there can be no doubt that fires in Constantinople are made to perform the functions of petitions and public meetings in England! In fact, the city has been set on fire, over and over again, for a number of nights together, in order that the grand seignor may be made aware of the deep discontent of his subjects, and of their dissatisfaction with his measures or his favourites, or both. The frequency and continuance of the fires evince their origin; and they have seldom failed to produce a change in the measures of government, and the dismissal or execution of the unpopular favourites! (*Porter*, i. 100.; *Thornton*, i. 187., &c.)

Public baths and *khans* are varieties of public buildings, that are found in most parts of Turkey. The use of the warm bath is universal among persons of both sexes, and all classes. Many of the public baths are handsome, and a few are really magnificent structures. They are mostly built of hewn stone, and comprise several apartments. "On entering one of these establishments, the visiter is conducted into a spacious and lofty hall, lighted from above: round the sides are high and broad benches, on which mattresses and cushions are arranged: here the bather undresses, wraps a napkin about his waist, and puts on a pair of wooden sandals before going into the bathing-room. The first chamber is but moderately warm, and is preparatory to the heat of the inner room, which is vaulted, and receives light from the dome. In the middle of the room is a marble estrade, elevated a few inches: on this the bather stretches himself at full length, and an attendant moulds or kneads the body with his hand for a considerable length of time. After this operation, the bather is conducted into one of the alcoves, or recesses, where there is a basin supplied by pipes with streams of hot and cold water; the body and limbs are thoroughly cleaned by means of friction with a horse-hair bag, and washed and rubbed with a lather of perfumed soap. Here the operation ends: the bather stays a few minutes in the middle chamber, and covers himself with dry cotton napkins: thus prepared, he issues out into the hall, and lies down on his bed for about half an hour." (*Thornton*, ii. 202.)

The baths for ladies are similar, in most respects, to those for the other sex; but are more handsomely fitted up. Lady Mary W. Montague visited one of these baths at Adrianople, and has given an interesting account of it, and of the reception she met with from the Turkish ladies.

Khans are a description of public inns, or caravanseras, sometimes built by sultans and munificent individuals, for the public use and accommodation; and sometimes constructed, as in England, on speculation. They are of very various kinds. Exclusive of apartments for the use of travellers, and stables for their horses and camels, the larger khans have rooms in which the goods of merchants may be stored up. These

are generally quadrangular structures, consisting of a series of apartments that open upon a terrace, which surrounds an inner court, and having stables in the back part of the building. The merchants store their goods in separate apartments, or in the rooms which they occupy; the muleteers, with their horses, encamp in the open air in the court, or retire to the stables; and the gateway, by which alone the court and rooms can be entered, being shut up at night, all are as safe as if they were in a fortress. In many towns these are the only taverns. Each khan has its *khanjy* (landlord), a *kakhia* (major-domo), a *khaury* (coffee-maker), and an *oda-basher* (waiter), who attends to the commands of all the inmates. Sometimes the rooms are furnished, and sometimes not; and frequently, especially in Asiatic Turkey, the apartments are lighted by a window, having paper for glass, opening on the terrace, so that they are, for the most part, dark and gloomy. Food is sometimes, but not generally, furnished in these establishments, the usual method being to have it cooked abroad, and sent in. Coffee, however, is generally prepared in the establishment. (*Missionary Researches*, p. 67.)

Rice is the principal food of the lower orders, but the wealthier classes have a great variety of dishes. The breakfasts of the latter consist of fried eggs, cheese, honey, liban (coagulated milk), &c. The hour of dinner is very early. At entertainments the guests sit cross-legged on sofas or cushions round a low table. In the houses of persons of distinction, handsome ivory spoons (the use of gold or silver for such purpose not being permitted), and small pointed sticks, are laid beside each plate. The dishes are served singly, and in rapid succession, sometimes to the number of 20 or 30: the guests help themselves, sometimes with their spoons, and sometimes with their fingers. Hashed lamb, poached eggs and lemons, stewed fowls, pigeons, &c.; pillaws, roasted meats, a whole lamb stuffed with rice, almonds, &c., are favourite dishes: they are all highly seasoned with salt and spices, and sometimes with onions and garlic. The dessert consists of sweetmeats, of which the Turks are exceedingly fond; with coffee, sherbet, fresh honey, grapes, figs, &c. During dinner, nothing is drunk but water or lemonade. The supper is very similar to the dinner. (*Russell's Aleppo*, p. 105, &c.)

The month of Ramadan is observed as a fast; and from dawn till sun-set, during this month, the Turks neither eat nor smoke. But the moment the sun goes down, they eat a hearty meal; and the practice is, for the richer classes to keep the fast, if we may so call it, by sleeping at this season during the day, and sitting up eating and drinking during the greater part of the night! (*Russell*, p. 108.)

The national dress of the Turks is loose and flowing; that of the women, with the exception of the turban, differing but little from that of the men. The shape and colour of the turban serves to distinguish the different orders of the people, and the functions of public officers. Lately, however, it has become fashionable to imitate the dress and manners of the other European nations; though the former is inconvenient in consequence of the numerous ablu-tions, the performance of which is enjoined by the Koran.

Every body knows that when females appear in the streets their faces are carefully veiled. And such is the privacy of the harem or women's apartments, that, unless on very rare occasions,

all males are excluded from them except the master of the family. "*Les plus proches parents, tels que les frères, les oncles, les beaux-pères, n'y sont reçus qu'à certaines époques de l'année, c'est-à-dire, dans les deux fêtes de beyram, et à l'occasion des noces, des couches, et de la circoncision des enfants.*" (D'Osson, Tab. Générale, iv. 318.)

Polygamy is authorised by the law of the prophet; but is a privilege not often resorted to. If a man marry a woman of equal rank, the marriage of any other wife is frequently guarded against by the marriage contract. In cases of polygamy, the wives are usually either slaves or women of an inferior rank to the husband.

There is a regular slave-market in Constantinople: but slaves in the East, and especially in Turkey, are far from being in the depressed condition we might suppose. The laws of Turkey protect the slave from ill-usage; and, in this respect, the customs of the country are in complete harmony with the laws. "The most docile slave rejects with indignation any order that is not personally given him by his master; and he feels himself placed immeasurably above the level of a free or hired servant. He is as a child of the house; and it is not unusual to see a Turk entertain so strong a predilection for a slave he has purchased, as to prefer him to his own son. He often overloads him with favours, gives him his confidence, and raises his position; and, when the master is powerful, he opens to his slave the path of honour and of public employment. If we seek for any confirmation of the truth of this assertion, let us look around the sultan, and observe who are the most distinguished men within his empire. Khosrew pacha, the old seraskier, the man who has governed and ruled all things in Constantinople, was a slave from the Caucasus, purchased by a Capudan pacha, whose protection has raised him to the highest offices. Halil-pacha, the son-in-law and most distinguished servant of the sultan, and to whom the brightest prospects are open, was a slave to the seraskier." (*Marmont*, Smith's trans., p. 25.)

The Turks are excellent horsemen, and throw the *djerid* or lance with the greatest dexterity and force; but, excepting this exercise and that of wrestling, they indulge in no active exertion. "Their delight is to recline on soft verdure under the shade of trees, and to muse without fixing their attention, lulled by the trickling of a fountain or the murmuring of a rivulet, and inhaling through their pipe a gently intoxicating vapour. Such pleasures, the highest which the rich can enjoy, are equally within the reach of the artisan or the peasant." (*Thornton*, p. 203.) They never dance themselves, but enjoy public dances, the performers in which, however, are reckoned infamous.

Turkish usages are, in truth, in almost all respects, quite the opposite of ours. "Our close and short dresses, calculated for promptitude of action, appear in their eyes to be wanting both in dignity and modesty. They reverence the beard as the symbol of manhood and the token of independence, but they practise the depilation of the body from motives of cleanliness. In performing their devotions, or on entering a dwelling, they take off their shoes. In inviting a person to approach them, they use what with us is considered a repulsive motion of the hand. In writing they trace the lines from right to left. The master of a house does the honours of the table by serving himself first from the dish: he drinks without noticing the company; and they wish him health when he has finished his draught. They lie down to sleep in their clothes. They

affect a grave and sedate exterior: their amusements are all of the tranquil kind: they confound with folly the noisy expression of gaiety: their utterance is slow and deliberate; they even feel satisfaction in silence: they attach the idea of majesty to slowness of motion: they pass in repose all the moments of life which are not occupied with serious business: they retire early to rest; and they rise before the sun." (Thornton, ii. 186.)

Language, Literature, and Education.—The principal languages spoken in European Turkey are: 1. The *Turkish* and *Tartaric* languages, spoken by the Osmanlis, Tartars, and Yarusks (descendants of the Turcoman settlers in Macedonia). The Turkish language is very much intermixed with Arabic and Persian. It is expressive, soft, and musical, and easy to speak, but not easily written. Its construction is artificial and laboured, and its transpositions are more remote from the natural order of ideas than the Latin or German. 2. The *Arabic*, the literary language, used at court and in public worship. 3. The new *Greek* or *Rossic*, which consists of a great many dialects, and differs from the Hellenic, or ancient Greek, still in some measure preserved among the inhabitants of the Epirotic mountains, and in the valleys of the Cassiodorus (Suli), though greatly intermixed with foreign words and phrases. 4. The *Slavonic*, in several dialects, spoken by the Slavonians, Bosnians, Croatsians, and Bulgarians. 5. The *Armenian*. 6. *Wallachian*, derived mainly from the Latin, but much intermixed with other languages. 7. The *Armenian*, *Scipetarian*, or *Abasian*, is not, as was formerly supposed, a jargon formed of the admixture of a number of languages, but is a peculiar and distinct language, having regular grammatical forms and an essential character of its own. 8. The *Jewish*, i. e. Hebrew, intermixed with Spanish and Italian words. 9. The *Lingua Franca*.

The Turkish characters are, with some slight difference, the same as the Arabic and Persian, but they have a variety of handwritings. The Arabic *Kufi*, in later times *Meschi* (literally the characters used in transcribing), is only used in copying the Koran, and other sacred works. The *Diwani* is the handwriting used in business, letters, public documents, judicial proceedings, diplomatic affairs, official orders, passports, &c. It is written from the right to the left in an oblique direction, especially at the conclusion: all the letters are joined to each other, and twisted together, and the more they are so the more elegant is the writing considered. The *Daheri* is used in patents, diplomas, inscriptions on mosques, burial-places, and other public edifices; its beauty consists in its oblique direction, upward and downward, and in the words being placed alternately above and below each other. The *Tale* writing was originally borrowed from the Persians, and properly signifies a flying or running hand. It is more pleasing to the eye than the other hands, and is a fine specimen of Oriental calligraphy. The *Kirans*, consisting of disjointed letters, is used in ledgers and registers. The *Sulus* (i. e. trebly thick) serves for title-pages, devices, and inscriptions upon coins, &c. There are many more varieties of handwriting, which it is needless to specify. Instead of pens the Turks write with a reed (*Calam, Calamus*), which is cut like our pen, but without a slit. The vowels, which, as in Arabic and Persian, are placed above and below the consonants, are generally omitted in writing (the Koran excepted), which renders the reading difficult to an unpractised eye. There are no marks of punctuation. As they are without tables, they usually write upon the left knee or hand, and instead of moving the hand, they move the paper in the process of writing.

The first printing-press introduced into Turkey was established at Constantinople, in 1576, by Jews, who were, however, prohibited from publishing any Arabic and Turkish works. About 150 years afterwards, Ibrahim, a Hungarian renegade, succeeded in establishing a Turkish press; and it is worthy of remark, that in the Hatt-i Scherif authorizing its introduction, the Sultan, Achmet III., felicitates himself that Providence had reserved so great a blessing to illustrate his reign, and draw down upon his subjects the benedictions of his subjects, and of all Mussulmen, to the end of time. (*D'Osson, Tableau Général*, ii. 500.)

Down to 1742, 17 works in 23 volumes had issued from the press. From 1742 until 1755 it was not employed at all, and only at intervals until 1758, when it was attached to the newly-established school of engineers. In the beginning of the present century, it was transferred to Scutari, and attached to the military barracks in that place. The late sultan did much to advance its efficiency and extend its utility. The Turks, however, have a prejudice against printing, originating partly in an apprehension lest the Koran should be printed, which they would regard as the highest profanation, and partly in the oppo-

sition of the vast numbers of scribes and copyists, which the general use of the press would throw out of employment, and who, in consequence, take every opportunity to inflame the prejudices of their fellow-subjects against it; but despite these difficulties, the art has made, and is continuing to make, some progress. A few years ago, a government newspaper was established, entitled, *Takvî-i Ewla*, which contains the different resolutions and orders of the divan. The *Musileur Ottoman*, in the French language, also published at Constantinople, consists only of extracts from the former.

No sooner were the Turks converted to Islamism, than they began not only to study the Koran, but also the works of the Arabians, their superiors in civilisation. It is a vulgar prejudice to suppose that the Koran discourages learning; on the contrary, "the ink of the learned and the blood of martyrs are," according to the prophet, "of equal value in the sight of heaven." (See the curious article on *Edw* (science), in the *Bibliothèque Orientale*, i. 629.)

Their favourite studies are law and theology. In the interpretation of the Koran and of the traditions, they follow the Arabian authorities, and most Turkish divs occupy their time with biographies of the prophet, and evidences and reasonings in favour of the Mohammedan religion; these, with the innumerable commentaries on the Koran, form a mass of works which fill the greater part of their libraries. History, poetry, and philosophy, however, are by no means neglected. Hammer, in his elaborate and valuable *History of the Ottoman Empire*, has consulted an immense number of Turkish historians; and in his *History of Ottoman Poetry* (the first volume of which was published at Pesth in 1836) he gives short sketches of the lives of 212 Turkish poets, with specimens of their works. At the same time, however, Hammer acknowledges that the Turks have no genius for original poetry, and that the whole of their poetry consists of translations from, and imitations of, the Arabic and Persian poets, to whom they stand in nearly the same relation that the Roman poets did to the Greek.

Jurisprudence, a favourite pursuit of the Turks, is studied in the works and laws of the learned imams, sheiks, and sultans, the traditional law of the prophet (*Sunnah*). The most remarkable printed collections of Fetvas (decisions) are by Mufti Dshemali, Abdubrahman, and Costapha Kodol; the work of the latter, published at Constantinople in 1822, contains several thousand fetvas of 30 months in the 18th century. In 1847, there issued from the press 10,000 fetvas, by Abdubrahman, from 1645 to 1676, in 2 vols. folio; and in 1830, 5,400 by Ali Effendi, which, with the collection of Abdulkarim Effendi, forms a work of high authority.

Turkish literature is particularly rich in collections of bon-mots, puns, proverbs, tales, anecdotes, and even novels; and they possess several encyclopedias, and works upon the history of literature. The first volume of a biographical dictionary, in which are enumerated the names of more than 30,000 different works in the Arabic, Persian, and Turkish languages, has been translated by Eugel, and published by the "Oriental Translation Fund." The reign of Solyman the Magnificent may be considered as the Augustan age of Ottoman literature. This great prince was a liberal patron of the arts and sciences, and of literature and learned men.

Public schools are established in most considerable Turkish towns, and *medreses*, or colleges, with public libraries, are attached to the greater number of the principal mosques. But, owing to the total want of eminent masters, and of good elementary books, the instruction afforded by these establishments is of comparatively little value. In schools the pupils are taught to read and write the first elements of the Turkish language; the class-books being the Koran, and some commentaries upon it. In the *medreses*, which are the colleges or schools of the ulemas, the pupils are instructed in Arabic and Persian, and learn to decipher and write the different sorts of Turkish characters; instruction in a species of philosophy, logic, rhetoric, and morals founded on the Koran; and these, with theology, Turkish law, and a few notions on history and geography, complete the course of study.

"If," says Mr. Thornton, "we call the Turks an illiterate people, it is not because learning is universally neglected by individuals; for, on the contrary, the ulema, or theological lawyers, undergo a long and laborious course of study; the Turkish gentlemen are all taught certain necessary, and even ornamental, parts of learning; and few children, at least in the capital, are left without some tincture of education. It must be acknowledged, however, that the objects of Turkish study, the rhetoric and logic, the philosophy and metaphysics of the dark ages, do in reality only remove men farther from real knowledge. The instruments without which the researches of the acutest natural philosopher would be imperfect, are either entirely unknown in

* "Geschichte des Osmanischen Reiches," 10 vols. 8vo. Pesth, 1837-54.

Turkey, or known only as childish playthings, to excite the admiration of ignorance, or to gratify a vain curiosity. The telescope, the microscope, the electrical machine and other aids to science, are unknown as to their real uses. Even the compass is not universally employed in their navy, nor are its common purposes thoroughly understood. And it may be truly said, that navigation, astronomy, geography, agriculture, chemistry, and all the arts which have been, as it were, created anew since the grand discoveries of the two last centuries, are either unknown, or practised only according to a vicious and antiquated routine." (I. 29.)

The facts and details given by M. Boué show that this statement is as applicable to the present period, as it was to that when it was written, nearly 40 years ago. At this moment (1842) the useful sciences are, without exception, in the most abject state. A school for medicine and surgery transferred, in 1839, to Galata Seral, the school for the guards already alluded to, and a naval school, are the only establishments in which any attempt is made to supply really useful information. But even these are very far behind. The great deficiency, according to Boué, consists in the want of good elementary books; and he justly thinks that it would be of the greatest importance to get the best elementary works on the different branches of science translated into Turkish, either by native Turks, or by foreigners acquainted with the language. In 1839, the late sultan appointed a commission for the establishment of useful institutions; which, among other projects, proposed to found scientific academies on an improved plan, at Constantinople, Smyrna, Adrianople, and other large towns. But nothing of the sort has hitherto been carried into effect.

It must, also, be borne in mind that Turkish schools are mostly attended by boys only. In Turkey education is not considered necessary to a girl; so that by far the greater number of women, knowing little or nothing themselves, can communicate nothing to their children.

Taxation.—The Turkish exchequer consists of two parts; the *mirl*, or public, and the *hazne*, or sultan's private treasury. The former is derived from various sources, of which the principal are—1st, the *haratch*, or poll-tax, imposed, with very few exceptions, on all the males in the empire, not Mohammedans, between the ages of 7 and 60 years. Formerly the tax varied, under different circumstances, from 3 to 14 piastres per individual; but the value of money was greater then than now, and at present it varies, in different provinces and under different circumstances, from 10 to 60 piastres. Various districts compound for the poll-tax, the amount of which is then added to the land-tax. Mussulmen, though exempted from the poll-tax, pay the *avariaz*, amounting to 5-8ths of the *haratch*; 2d, the land-tax, of 1-10th of the produce of the estates not subject to military service; 3d, taxes on movables, such as cattle, sheep, and goats, assessed taxes, &c.; 4th, customs' duties, and octrois; and 5th, the excise upon gunpowder, tobacco, salt, wine, &c. No authentic details have been given of the amount of the *mirl*, and the estimates put forth by the best informed writers differ extremely. Probably, however, we will not be far wrong if we estimate it at about 3,000,000*l.* sterling a year.

The *hazne*, or private revenue of the sultan is derived partly from the imperial domains, or estates belonging to the crown; partly from the sums paid by the pachas and other dignitaries, on their accession to office, from presents from the same parties, on occasion of the *bayram*, and other public festivals, and from confiscations and inheritances; and partly from the contributions paid by the tributary provinces of Servia, Wallachia, &c. The female branches of the imperial family have their own special revenues derived from lands appropriated to their use, or from peculiar taxes.

But in addition to the taxes now noticed, the subjects of the Porte are liable to be called upon, at the pleasure of the pachas, for contributions in kind for the maintenance of troops passing from one part of the country to another, for *corteges*, or requisitions of forced labour, and, in time of war, for forced loans, &c. In fact, the pachas and their satellites squeeze out of the people all that they possibly can, without inquiring or caring whether their demands be legal or otherwise. They know right well that if they pay the stated amount of tribute, and secure by bribes and presents the good opinion of those in power, they may leave the cultivators without let or hindrance. Since the time of Mohammed II., the revenues of Turkey have been farmed, or let to the highest bidder.

Exclusive, too, of the taxes on account of the general government, and the *avariaz* of the pachas, the people have to provide for their local and municipal expenses, which are so very heavy as considerably to exceed the amount of the *mirl*. (*Boué*, li. 233, &c.)

The more intelligent Turks have long been sensible that the arbitrary power of the pachas, and especially their *avariaz*, or extortions, was the most objectionable

part of their political system, and would, if not redressed, terminate in universal poverty and dissatisfaction. So early as 1690 the inconveniences of the existing order of things had become apparent, and it was then proposed to obviate them by commutating the different taxes on the rayas, or cultivators, and their contributions of forced labour and horses, for a single tax, which it should not, in any case, be permitted to exceed. (*Hummer Osmanische Geschichte*, vi. 551.) Nothing, however, was done; and abuses of all sorts have continued to multiply according as the machine of government became relaxed down to the present day. The Hattî Scherif previously alluded to as having been issued on the 3d of Nov., 1839, is principally directed to the obviating of these abuses. But, how indispensable a sewer, we apprehend it will be found to be wholly impracticable, so long as the present form of government is maintained, to remedy the abuses in question. All the agents of a despot are despots in their peculiar sphere; and though the sultan may be most anxious to suppress abuse, he is neither omnipresent nor omniscient, and it is to be feared that the same means that have hitherto maintained the pachas in power despite their oppressions, will be effectual for the same purpose in time to come. We should be happy to be able to think otherwise; but our firm conviction is that self-reform is impossible in Turkey, and that the abuses of which she is the victim will very gradually increase in number and virulence, till foreign force or domestic violence overthrow the religion and government, of which they are the bitter but legitimate fruits. We subjoin the Hattî Scherif, or Imperial Decree, now alluded to. It is, at all events, a most remarkable document; and the fact of its having issued from a Mohammedan government is not the least singular circumstance in the history of the present times.

"Every one knows that in the beginning of the Ottoman Empire, the glorious precepts of the Koran and the laws of the empire were held as rules always revered, in consequence of which empire increased in strength and greatness; and all its subjects, without exception, attained the highest degree of welfare and prosperity. Within the last 500 years a series of events and various causes have, from not abiding by the holy code of laws, and the regulations that arose from it, changed the welfare and strength into weakness and poverty. Thus it is that a nation loses all its stability by ceasing to observe its laws. These considerations should convince every person of the necessity of our notice, and since the day of our accession to the throne, the public weal, the amelioration of the state of the provinces, and the relief of the people, have never ceased to occupy our thoughts. Bearing in mind the geographical position of the Ottoman empire, the fertility of its soil, the aptitude and intelligence of its population, it is evident that by bringing into operation efficacious means, we may obtain, by the assistance of God, the objects we hope to attain perhaps in the space of a few years. Thus, full of confidence in the Almighty, and relying on the intercession of our Prophet, we deem it necessary to seek, by new institutions, to procure to the states which compose the Ottoman empire the happiness of a good administration.

"These institutions should have three objects in view—first, to guarantee to our subjects perfect security of life, honour, and property; secondly, the regular levying and assessing of taxes; and thirdly, a regular system for the raising of troops, and fixing the time of their service.

"For, in truth, are not life and honour the most precious of all blessings? What man, however avaricious and greedy of gain, can withhold having recourse to them, and thereby injure both the government and his country, when both his life and honour are in jeopardy? If, on the contrary, he enjoys in this respect full security, he will not stray from the paths of duty, and his conduct will tend to increase the prosperity of the government and his countrymen. If there be absence of security of property, every one remains alien to the voice of his prince and country. No one cares about the progress of the public good, absorbed as one remains with the insecurity of his own position. If on the other hand, the citizen looks upon his property as secure, of whatever nature it be, then, full of ardour for his interests, of which for his own contentment he endeavours to enlarge the sphere, thereby to extend that of his enjoyments, he feels every day in his heart the attachment for his prince and for his country grow stronger, as well as his devotedness to their cause. These sentiments in him become the source of the most praiseworthy actions.

"The assessment of regular and fixed taxes is a consideration of vital importance, since the state, having to provide for the defence of its territory, can only raise the means necessary for the maintenance of the army by contributions on the people. Although, thanks be to God, the inhabitants of this country have lately been freed from the cruel miseries, formerly imposed upon them, and although, in consequence, a fiscal practice still remains in force, although it cannot fail to give rise to the most disastrous consequences—it is that of venal corruption, known under the name of *Hizmet*. According to this system of civil and financial practice, a district is subjected to the arbitrary rule of one individual, but too often notorious for his rapacity, and the most cruel and most insatiable disposition; for, should the farmer of the revenue not be a virtuous man, he will have no other care but that tending to his own advantage.

"It becomes, then, necessary for every member of the Ottoman society to be taxed according to a fixed rate, in proportion to his means and circumstances, and that nothing be exacted from him, and that special laws should also fix and limit the expenses of our army and navy.

"Although we have already observed the defence of the country is a most important consideration, it becomes necessary to be obliged to supply soldiers to that object; it becomes essential to establish laws to regulate contingents which each district is to supply, according to the urgency of the moment, and to reduce the time of the military service to four or five years, for it is at the same time doing an injustice, and inflicting a mortal blow on agriculture and industry, to take, without regard to the respective populations of each district, from one more men, than from another; and, besides, to depopulate, and it is also reducing the soldiers to despair, and contributing to the depopulation of the country, to retain them all their lives in the service. In short, without the different laws of which the necessity has been shown, there is neither strength, riches, nor tranquillity, nor security for the empire, and it has to expect these blessings as soon as laws come into operation.

"It is therefore that in future the cause of every individual shall be tried publicly, according to our divine laws, after mature inquiry and examination; and till a regular sentence has been pronounced, no one shall have it in his power, either secretly or publicly, to put an individual to death, either by poison or by any other means.

"It is not permitted to attack the honour of any individual, unless before a court of justice.

"Every individual shall be allowed to be master of his own property, of whatever kind, and shall be allowed to dispose of it at his liberty, without any obstacle being offered by any one. For instance, the innocent heirs of a criminal shall not forfeit their right to his property, nor shall the property of a criminal be any longer confiscated.

"These important principles extend to all our subjects, of whatever religion or sect they may be, and these advantages they shall, without exception, enjoy.

"Thus we grant full security to the inhabitants of our empire of life, honour, and property, as we are bound to do, according to the text of our holy law.

"As to the other subjects, they are subsequently to be regulated after the decision of the enlightened members of our Council of Justice, the members of which will be increased according to necessity, which is to meet on certain days, which we shall appoint. Our ministers and dignitaries of the empire will assemble to establish laws for the security of life and property, and the assessment of taxes, and every member of these assemblies shall be free to express his opinion and to give his advice.

"Laws concerning the regulation of the military service will be debated at the imperial council, which will hold its meetings at the palace of the Seraskier.

"As soon as one law is settled, in order that it may be for ever valid, it shall be presented to us, and we shall honour it with our sanction, and to the head thereof shall be added our imperial seal.

Since the above Hatt-i-Sherif was issued, the following statement has appeared in the Turkish Gazette:—

"The sultan, ever since his accession, has most ardently desired to signalise his reign by the re-establishment of the Ottoman power on the basis of the common well-being of his subjects. His efforts have on various occasions been crowned with the most signal success; but one fundamental reformation was requisite to crown his labours, and to assure to his people the benefits which he sought to confer upon them. The collection of the revenue has remained up to the present time laden with almost oppressive and almost detrimental to the state. Numerous farmers have been injured—incapacitated have taken place; but the sultan, during his late journey through the provinces, having employed himself in examining into the state of the imperial treasury, has been convinced that no sensible improvement has been effected, and that more decisive measures are required.

"In order to proceed methodically in this reformation, his highness has ordered a comprehensive inquiry to be instituted, so as on the one hand to ascertain the amount of the contributions actually paid by each district, and, on the other, to ascertain the actual disbursements for the army, the marine, the arsenals, and the other military establishments.

"The council of the Porte has, therefore, been assembled in presence of the high functionaries of the state, to deliberate on the best means for carrying the intention of his highness into execution; and after a long debate, it has been resolved as follows:—

"1st, That a table shall be constructed, exhibiting the sums received—1st, for the treasury; 2d, for the Valis and Vayvodas; 3d, for the expenses of travelling; 4th, for the amount of contributions in kind to different departments; 5th, paid in salt-petre, corn, timber, &c.; 6th, the value of labour to which certain towns and districts were liable, under the denomination of Angaria (forced); 7th, the sums paid for local police, judges, &c.

"That an exact statement or balance-sheet be prepared of the whole revenue, fixed and casual, of the state.

"Henceforward every tax unauthorized by the ancient custom shall be abolished.

"The properties of the high functionaries of the state, whether military or civil, and the persons attached to their services, shall be equally assessed with the rest of the nation.

"Every exemption from taxation, and every privilege through which the common burdens were avoided, shall cease.

"The imposts shall be imposed with complete impartiality, at a rate of so much per thousand, which shall yearly be settled in the month of March, according to the new ordinance.

"Each individual shall receive a ticket bearing the seal of the community, signifying the amount of his contribution; and these sums shall be entered in the public register of each municipality.

"Men of recognised probity and intelligence shall be commissioned, at the public expense, to prosecute the necessary inquiries throughout the empire.

"The above regulations shall immediately be carried into execution in the two provinces nearest to the capital, Broussa and Gallipoli, so that the effects and advantages of the change may be observed, and with the least possible delay extended to the remainder of the empire.

"From the date of the execution of this order, the two provinces designated shall be exempt from the payment of the impost termed 'Ichtilas' (internal customs).

"The confiscation of private property shall in no instance be allowed. The government shall in no case appropriate to itself the property of individuals, except on the death of persons who have no heirs.

"The government will reserve to itself the right of previous liquidation in the case of a holder of government money dying without sufficient effects to cover his debts.

"These regulations, fixed by the Council of the Porte, have been confirmed by the High Council, and sanctioned by the Imperial Firman.

"As these present institutions have for their object to cause the religion, government, nation, and empire to flourish, we solemnly bind ourselves to do nothing in contravention to them. As a pledge of our promise, it is our intention to cause to be constructed in the city of Constantinople a hall which contains the glorious mantle of the prophet, in presence of all the ulema and dignitaries of the empire, to abide by these institutions in the name of God, and then erect the splendid and grandiose of the empire and its subjects.

"After that, he who shall violate these institutions shall be liable, without any regard being paid to his rank, consideration, or credit, to corresponding punishment in his life; and after once it has been made clear.

"A penal code shall be drawn out to this effect.

"As every functionary receives at present a suitable salary, and as the pay of those who are not yet sufficiently rewarded is to be subsequently increased, no tax shall be levied on the subjects, except the sale of postage and places under government, which the divine law reprobates, and which is one of the principal causes of the downfall of the empire.

"The above resolutions being a complete renovation of ancient customs, this imperial decree shall be published at Constantinople and in all the provinces of our empire, and shall be communicated

officially to all the ambassadors of friendly powers residing at Constantinople, in order that they may be witnesses to the grandeur of these institutions, which, if it may please God, are to endure for ever.

May the Almighty God extend his protection to us all. Let those who may presume to violate the present institutions be the object of divine malediction, and be deprived of happiness now and for ever! Amen."

Historical Notice.—Othman, chief of the Oguzian Tartars, is generally accounted the founder of the Turkish empire. On his succeeding his father in 1289, his dominions were comparatively inconsiderable, being confined to the lordship of Siguta, in Bithynia, and a small tract of adjoining territory; but the talent of Othman, and the bravery and zeal of his followers, enabled him to add greatly to his paternal inheritance, and to bequeath the whole of Bithynia, Asia Cappadocia to his son and successor. From this period the tide of Turkish conquest began to roll forward with a force that could not be checked by the feeble resistance of the Greeks. In 1338, the Ottomans first obtained a footing in Europe. In 1362, Amurath, the grandson of Othman, instituted the Janizaries—the first, and for a lengthened period the most powerful, numerous, and best-disciplined standing army established in modern times. The conquests of Timour threatened to subvert the Turkish power; but it soon recovered from the rude shocks it had sustained, and, in 1453, Mahomet II. entered Constantinople sword in hand, and established himself on the throne of Constantine and Justinian! But the undisturbed possession of all the countries from Mount Amanus to the Danube did not satisfy the restless and insatiable ambition of the Turks. Selim, the grandson of Mahomet II., added Syria and Egypt to the dominions of his ancestors; and Solymán the Magnificent, the contemporary of the Emperor Charles V., and the most accomplished of all the Ottoman princes, conquered the greater part of Hungary, and in the East extended his sway to the Euphrates. At this period, the Turkish empire was, unquestionably, the most powerful in the world. "If you consider," says the historian Knolles, who wrote about two centuries since, "its beginning, its progress, and uninterrupted success, there is nothing in the world more admirable and strange; if the greatness and lustre thereof, nothing more magnificent and glorious; if the power and strength thereof, nothing more dreadful and dangerous; which, wondering at nothing but the beauty of itself, and drunk with the pleasant wine of perpetual felicity, holdeth all the rest of the world in scorn." Nor had this mighty power even then reached its greatest height. Solymán was succeeded by other able princes; and the Ottoman arms continued to maintain their ascendancy over those of Christendom until, in 1683, the famous John Sobieski, king of Poland, totally defeated the army employed in the siege of Vienna. This event marked the era of their decline. For a while they continued to oppose the Austrians and Hungarians with doubtful fortune and various success; but the victories of Prince Eugene gave a decisive superiority to the Christians. The Crescent, instead of recovering its former lustre, has fallen like a star plucked from its place in heaven. Province after province has been dismembered from the empire: the Austrians now its most formidable enemy, have advanced to Adrianople; and, but for the mutual jealousies and animosities of the different Christian states, last century would have witnessed the final extinction of the Ottoman power.

When considered with attention, it does not seem difficult to discover the causes of these apparently anomalous results. The Turks, like their Tartar ancestors, are naturally a brave, patient, and hardy race. After their emigration from central Asia, they were long exposed to the greatest difficulties and privations. Pressed on all sides by Mongols, Turkmans, Saracens, and Greeks, they could not maintain their footing in Asia Minor without waging incessant hostilities with their neighbours: they were thus early inured to habits of pillage and blood. And, after they embraced the Mohammedan faith, they found in the law of the prophet not a licence only, but a command to desolate the earth, and to propagate their religion and empire by violence. The peculiar tenets and doctrines of the Koran made a profound impression on the ferocious, ignorant, and superstitious minds of the Turks, who early became the most zealous apostles of a religion of which implicit faith and unconquerable energy are the vital principles. Their fanaticism knew no bounds. They literally believed that the sword was the key of heaven, and that to fall fighting in defence of the true faith was the most glorious of deaths, and was followed by the largest portion of eternal felicity. Firm and unshaken believers in the doctrine of predestination, assured that no caution could avert, and no dangers accelerate, their inevitable destiny, they met their enemies without fear or apprehension. Tribute, slavery, and death to unbelievers, were the glad tidings of the Arabian prophet; and have been loudly proclaimed by his followers over half the Old World. The

Ottomans did not, like the Crusaders, require an impulse from pontiffs or preachers to stimulate them to engage in the great work of conquest and conversion: the precept was in their law, the principle in their hearts, and the assurance of success in their words.

To such desperate energies, wielded by a succession of sultans distinguished for various and great ability, the Greeks had nothing to oppose but dispirited troops, and generals destitute alike of courage and capacity. From the age of Justinian the Eastern Empire had been gradually sinking. The emperors were alternately prodigal and avaricious, cruel, profligate, and imbecile: the people were a prey to all the evils of civil and ecclesiastical tyranny; their bodies were emaciated by fasting; and their intellectual powers dissipated in theological controversies, alike futile and unintelligible. The total defeat of Bajazet, the great grandson of Othman, afforded an opportunity which, had it been rightly improved, might have enabled the Greeks to expel the Turks from Europe: but the Greeks were totally incapable of profiting either by this or of other events; and the schism of the West, and the factions and wars of France, England, and Germany, deprived them of all foreign assistance, and enabled the Turks to repair their shattered fortunes, and again become the terror and the scourge of Christendom.

But the same cause to which the Turks principally owed their success—the intolerant bigotry and fanaticism of their religion, proved also the principal cause of their decline. It isolated them from the rest of Europe, and taught them to look down with contempt and aversion on the arts, sciences, and attainments of the infidel world. "There is," said the "but one law, and that law forbids all communication with infidels." The more the surrounding nations have distinguished themselves by their advances in civilization and literature, the more determined have the mass of the Turkish people become to resist their example, to keep within the pale of their own faith, and to despise their progress. The fiery and impetuous zeal by which they were distinguished in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries has long since subsided; but had it continued to burn with undiminished force, it could no longer have rendered them really formidable. The invention of gunpowder, and the various improvements that have been made in the art of war, have happily opposed an invincible obstacle to the success of multitudes without discipline, and of courage without skill. "*Tant qu'il ne s'agissait que de rassembler et de retenir sous les drapeaux une multitude des soldats animés par le fanatisme, l'avantage fut pour les Ottomans; mais cet avantage disparut quand la guerre appela le concours des sciences humaines, et que le génie, avec ses découvertes, devint le redoutable auxiliaire de la valeur.*" (Michaud, Hist. des Croisades, v. 384. Ed. 1841.) That fanatical fervor, contempt of danger, and superiority of the Ottomans, formerly gave so decided a superiority to the Ottomans, that they were enabled to withstand the science, cool deliberate courage, artillery, and tactics of the troops of Austria and of Russia. The Turks have degenerated both in their civil and military institutions, but their present weakness is to be ascribed more to their not keeping pace with the progress of their neighbours, than to their positive decline. Haughty, confiding, and illiterate, they have experienced all the fatal consequences of ignorance without once suspecting the cause. Resolved to employ no other means than force, they sunk into despondency when it no longer availed; and having now almost abandoned the hope of recovery, they present, to their own astonishment and the mockery of Europe, the *ombra magni nominis*—the mighty shadow of unreal power:—"We effected our conquests," said the mufi to the Baron de Tott, "without any aid from European tactics, and we do not now stand in need of them. Our defeats are not the effects of human force; they are the chastisement of our crimes; the decree of heaven has reached us, and nothing can avert the wrath of Omnipotence!"

The despotism of the sultans, and the vast extent of their power, have for a lengthened period contributed to accelerate their progress of decline. For a while, however, it was otherwise. The perilous circumstances under which the Turks were originally placed, and the difficulties and dangers with which they had to struggle, obliged their chiefs to exert all their faculties. Having to rule over bold and fanatical subjects, to act as their generals in war and their legislators in peace, they were compelled to practise the military and peaceful virtues; to inspire confidence by superior knowledge and resolution; attachment by kindness; respect by dignity; emulation by discernment in the bestowing of rewards; and discipline and good order by a steady adherence to a uniform system. We do not say that nothing is to be ascribed to the personal character of the sovereign; but if we reflect, that, except in a single instance, a period of nine reigns, and of 264 years, is occupied from the elevation of Othman to that of Solyman, by a series of warlike and able princes (Gibbon, xii. 57.), it must be allowed that some-

thing more than chance, that the necessities of the times had produced this long line of able monarchs.* No sooner, however, had the tide of Turkish conquest been stopped by the firm resistance of the Hungarians and Germans on the one side, and that of the Persians on the other, than the Ottoman monarchs began rapidly to degenerate. The evil was greatly aggravated by the regulation of Solyman the Magnificent, who, in order to hinder the rebellions and internal divisions that had sometimes occurred, established it as a principle, which has ever since been strictly adhered to, that none of the sultan's sons should be appointed to the command of armies or the government of provinces. This regulation had a fatal effect: instead of being educated, as formerly, in the council or the field, the heirs of royalty and of almost omnipotent power have since been brought up in the slothful luxury of the palace. Shut up constantly in their seraglios, ignorant of public affairs, benumbed by indolence, depraved by the flattery of women, of eunuchs, and of slaves, their minds contracted by their enjoyments, their inclinations were vitiated by their habits, and, when they succeeded to the throne, their government became as vicious, corrupt, and worthless as themselves.

The vast extension of the Turkish empire was another cause of its decline. It multiplied the enemies, not the subjects of the state. To animate the various and discordant classes of people comprised within its widely-extended limits with the same spirit, and give them one common interest, would have required the adoption of a liberal and enlarged system of policy: but to act in this manner was utterly repugnant to the maxims of Ottoman legislators. The inhab. of the conquered provinces who refused to embrace the religion of the prophet were branded with the title of infidels, and looked upon with aversion and contempt. To associate with such persons on any thing like a footing of equality, or to admit them to the enjoyment of political privileges, was out of the question. They existed only on sufferance; and though their rights were legally defined, their proud and fanatical masters seldom hesitated about trampling them under foot, and subjecting them to every species of insult, extortion, and ill-treatment. Perhaps, however, it is true that the very weight of the tyranny to which the non-Mohammedan portion of the pop. has been subject, has, by subduing their energies and debilitating their minds to the level of slavery, tended to secure the tranquillity of the empire! But, whether this be so or not, it has, at all events, ensured its depopulation, impoverishment, and degradation. Under this miserable government, palaces have been changed into cottages, cities into villages, and freemen into slaves. Sandys, who visited the Turkish empire early in the 17th century, when it was comparatively flourishing and vigorous, has described the unhappy state of the regions subject to its destructive despotism, with a truth and force of eloquence that will speedily be repeated. "These countries, once so glorious and famous for their happy estate, are now, through vice and ingratitude, become the most deplorable spectacles of extreme misery: the wild beasts of mankind having broken in upon them, and rooted out all civility, and the pride of a stern and barbarous tyrant possessing the thrones of ancient and just dominion: who, aiming only at the height of greatness and sensuality, bath, in tract of time, reduced so great and goodly a part of the world to that lamentable distress and servitude under which (to the astonishment of the understanding beholders) it now faints and groweth. These rich lands at this present remain waste and overgrown with bushes, receptacles of wild beasts, of thieves, and murderers; large territories despoiled or thinly inhabited; goodly cities made desolate; sumptuous buildings become ruins; glorious temples either subverted or prostituted to impietie; true religion discountenanced and oppressed; all nobility extinguished; no light of learning permitted nor virtue cherished; violence and rapine insulting over all, and leaving no security, save to an abject mind and unlookt on poverty." (Preface, ed. of 1637.)

Such is the government which the great powers of Christendom, including, we are sorry to say, England, profess themselves desirous to maintain in all its integrity! We hardly, however, think that it is destined to a much longer endurance; and, happily, into whatever hands it may fall, there cannot be so much as the shadow of a doubt that the overthrow of the Turkish government and power will be productive of the greatest possible advantage to the interests of humanity.

TURNHOUT, a town of Belgium, prov. Antwerp, cap. arrond., in a wide heathy distr. 25 m. E.N.E. Antwerp. Pop. in 1836, 12,900. (*Heuschling*.) It is well built, and has manufactures of cutlery, linen cloths, lace, carpets, and oil, with bleaching and dyeing establishments, tanneries, brick and tile factories, &c. It sends 3 deputies to the states of the prov.

TUSCANY (GRAND DUCHY OF), (an. *Etruria*), * Some of the foregoing statements have been borrowed from the notice of the Increase and Decline of the Turkish Power in the translation of Malte-Brun, written by the author of this work.

a state of N. and Central Italy, being the third in rank in that peninsula, principally between lat. 42° and 44½° N., and the 10th and 13th degs. of E. long.: the main body of the country has N.E. and S. the Papal States, from which it is mostly shut off by the Apennines, W. the Mediterranean, here called the Tyrrhene or Tuscan Sea, and N.W. and N. Sardinia and Modena; but exclusive of the above, it has some detached portions of territory collectively termed Lunigiana, surrounded by the dominions of Modena, Parma, and Sardinia, and the islands of Elba, Pianosa, &c. The area, divisions, and pop. are as follow:—

Provinces.	Area in sq. m.	Population in 1848.		Chief Towns.
		Families.	Inhabitants.	
Firentine - -	1,978	105,165	565,899	Firenze.
Lucchese - -	427	23,609	170,319	Lucca.
Senese - -	1,465	31,488	180,695	Vienna.
Arezzino - -	1,274	36,481	218,689	Arezzo.
Pistoiese - -	371	37,968	150,413	Pistoia.
Grossetano - -	1,731	15,940	81,735	Grosseto.
Livorno, &c. -	38	15,166	81,735	Leghorn.
Elba, &c. - -	97	4,289	20,061	Porto Ferrajo.
Total - -	8,553	302,544	1,593,597	

The main chain of the Apennines, where it forms the boundary between Tuscany and the Papal dominions, lies wholly within the former. It is neither so lofty nor so rugged as in other parts of Italy, seldom rising to 4,000 ft.; though one summit, Boconigione, attains to an elevation of 4,178 ft. The principal passes across the Apennines in this part are those of Fumarolo, Pietra Mala, and Pontremoli, by which last Tuscan Lunigiana communicates with Parma. The principal valley is that of the Arno, which comprises about 1-6th part of the entire surface of the duchy. The Arno, one of the secondary rivers of Italy, rises in Monte Falterona, near Prato Vecchio; and after running at first S.E., and then N.W., it flows generally W. to its mouth in the Mediterranean, 6 m. W. Pisa, after a course of about 130 m. Its principal tributaries are the Chiana Canal, the Sieve, Ombrone di Pistoia, &c.; Florence, Empoli, and Pisa, are on its banks. It is usually navigable to Florence, but the navigation is bad, and in the early part of the 17th century a canal was formed from Pisa to Leghorn, avoiding the mouth of the river. The greater Ombrone (an. *Umbro*) drains the S. part of the country; the Serchio enters from Lucra; and the Chiana and Tiber rise in Tuscany, as do nearly all the rivers of the N. part of the Papal dominions. There are no lakes of any consequence: those of Castiglione, now in process of filling up, Orbitello, Burano, &c., are mere lagoons or arms of the sea. Few countries are better furnished with streams for irrigation, and the greater part of Tuscany is so fertile and diversified with hill and dale as to be one of the most pleasant regions of Italy. Mr. MacLaren says, "Florence lies in the centre of a magnificent basin. From the tower of the cathedral the eye ranges over a breadth of 30 m., which seems one vast grove, diversified with wooded hills of moderate height, and yet so thickly studded with glittering villages, hamlets, villas, and houses, that if Florence were a larger town, the whole country, back to the mountains, might be considered as its suburbs. The landscape has all the luxuriant beauty of the view from Richmond Hill, with the grandeur of mountain scenery superadded. With the addition of a sheet of water, the scene would reach the perfection of rural beauty. The Arno is, indeed, much finer than the Tiber; but it wants volume suitable to the grand scale of the scenery. It is but a thread in the rich valley through which it meanders." (*Notes on Italy*, 185-6.)

Along the coast there is a succession of marshy plains, and all the S.W. part of Tuscany is occupied by the Maremma, an undulating and pestiferous tract of country, similar, in some respects, to the Campagna di Roma. The Maremma, which have long been the abode of desolation, were in remote antiquity among the richest and best peopled portions of Italy, and the seat of many of the chief cities of Etruria. For a lengthened period the drainage and improvement of this neglected tract has been a principal object of the reigning dynasty. The present Grand Duke, in particular, has prosecuted this great work with singular vigour; and from 1829 to 1832, he is said to have expended 200,000*l.* sterling of his own property in hydraulic works, roads, bridges, buildings, &c., in the Maremma. (*Bowring's Report*, p. 49.)

The Lake of Castiglione had, in 1836, been already half drained, as well as other stagnant pools; and the river Cornia has been diverted to fill up by its deposits the marshes of Pistoia. Large tracts in the Maremma belong to an impoverished nobility, whose profit from the land is principally derived from wood-cutting, and the pasturage of sheep and goats, at from 10*d.* to 1*s.* 4*d.* a head during the winter season, or of buffaloes and other cattle. But the government has lately purchased up

many of these estates, and frequently grants small tracts of land to those who agree to build houses and settle on them; or lets out farms at a low ground rent, which is easily raised by the tenant from the sale of the wood he clears from the estate. At Borgheri, Count Gherarducci has introduced the cultivation of olives, vines, and mulberry trees to a great extent; and good crops of wheat are now grown in many places where a few years since a few wandering fishermen with difficulty obtained a scanty subsistence.

But it is not in the Maremma only that important drainages have been effected in Tuscany. The Grand Duke Leopold I. in 1789 began the canal which unites the Chiana with the Upper Arno, by which a large extent of very fertile land in the Val di Chiana, formerly a pestiferous marsh, has been rendered productive and salubrious. The canal brings down a large quantity of river deposit, particularly during floods; and between 1816 and 1823, 3,000 quadrati, or nearly 4 sq. m. of cultivable land, were acquired in this manner. (*Bowring's Report*, 10, 47-51.)

The Climate of the Apennines is severe in winter, when the snow often lies for a month together. But in the valleys the winter is but imperfectly defined; the snow seldom lies for more than a day at a time; and vegetation is scarcely interrupted. The average temperature of the year at Florence is about 58° Fahr. (*Berghaus, Allg. Länder, &c.*) The *libeccio* and *scirocco* are occasionally prevalent, but the latter is much less annoying than at Naples. Putrid and intermittent fevers, with dropsies, scurvy, &c., as in the Campagna di Roma, are common in the marshes of Pisa and the Maremma, particularly in the autumn, when these tracts are deserted by almost all their inhabs. But the other parts of the country are salubrious, and often favourable to longevity: in the prov. of Arezzo, during the decadal period, ending with 1823, the annual deaths sometimes did not exceed 1 in 40 of the pop., and were never so high as 1 in 36. (*Bowring's Rep.*)

The geological rocks of the great Apennines, in this part of Italy, are chiefly serpentine, calc. mica, clay-slate, and quartz; gneiss, which is here absent, appears in the Maremma. The marble found near Saverza is little inferior to that of Carrara. Tertiary deposits are frequent, consisting of sandstone, marl, coarse limestone, chalk, and gypsum; and in the Vaie of the Arno, the country about Siena, &c., they contain numerous fossil remains. A great variety of chalybeate, sulphurous, and other springs exist in the Maremma and elsewhere, and one of the Apennines, the *Monte Di Fo*, is a volcano scarcely yet extinct; since, at intervals, it continues to send forth smoke, &c. Many other places exhibit distinct traces of volcanic agency. (*Hoffman's Europe; Stein; Schütz, &c.*)

Land and Produce.—Of 6,138,993 quadrati of land comprised in the Grand Duchy, according to a government survey, in 1834, 1,836,636 were estimated to be in pasture; 1,261,718 in forests; 997,672 arable; 644,285 in vineyards; 23,184 under trees and orres; 361,208 in chestnut woods and the rest in meadow land, buildings, roads, &c. The same survey gives, in all, 162,067 separate properties, including from 50,000 to 60,000 farms: there are, in all, about 123,000 landed proprietors. Except in the Maremma, properties are mostly small; and the metayer system, by which the produce of the soil is divided between the proprietor and the cultivator, is generally prevalent. In this system the proprietor supplies the capital, and the cultivator the labour and utensils; the produce is equally divided between them, even as regards the profits arising from the sale of cattle. The cultivator is only obliged to supply the labour required in ordinary cultivation. Should the proprietor desire to make new plantations, or reclaim waste lands, the expense falls wholly upon him, and he is obliged to pay the cultivator wages for extra work. The manure and seed is supplied at their joint expense; but the proprietor is obliged to furnish the cultivator with as much of the latter as is necessary for his support. On all occasions it is the proprietor who receives or disburses the money for the sale or purchase of cattle. The contract, which is not in writing, holds good only for a year, and the proprietor may at its termination discharge his cultivators; but in such cases he loses all claim upon them should their accounts be in arrear; and in general good tenants continue on the same estate from generation to generation.

The cultivators do not reside in villages, but in isolated houses, or cottages in the centre of their farms. They seldom see their neighbours, except on holidays or at church. A good cultivator rarely goes to market; he neither buys nor sells; the great recommendation of the metayer system being that his land supplies the farmer with all he wants. The same field is frequently, at the same time, under different crops; and there is, in fact, but little division of labour either in husbandry or anything else.

The coloni, or occupiers, seldom sink into absolute poverty; but, on the other hand, they as seldom rise to

any thing like wealth or comfort: and, though they may nearly all be above want, they enjoy extremely few of the luxuries and conveniences of life, other than those conferred on them by the bounty of nature. They are at once poor, ignorant, and incapable of vigorous and systematic exertion. "The metayer," says Sismondi, "lives from hand to mouth. He has rarely any corn in store, and still more rarely any oil or wine. He sells his oil when in the press, and his wine when in the vat. He has no provision of salt meat, butter, cheese, leguminous plants, &c. His kitchen utensils are of earthenware; and the furniture of his cottage consists only of a table, and some wooden chairs, one or two boxes, and a miserable bed, on which father, mother, and children sleep. Hence, as they possess nothing, they would in a bad year die of hunger, if they were not assisted by the proprietors, who rarely refuse making them a loan on security of the ensuing crop. Their debts are paid after the vintage, but before winter is over new ones are contracted. Of ten metayers, there is hardly one who owes nothing to his master. Such is their idleness, that a hired labourer will execute three times as much work in a day as a metayer." (*Tableau de l'Agriculture Toscane*, pp. 212-216.)

"I had more than once occasion," says Bowring, "to see 4 generations inhabiting the same cottage: but the last had not added a particle of knowledge to the ignorance of the first: the same gross superstitions; the same prejudices against books; the same unwillingness to introduce any species of improvement; the same reference to ancestral usages. In innumerable cases, families have occupied the same farms for hundreds of years, without adding a farthing to their wealth or a fragment to their knowledge." The metayer system of agriculture is, however, not only the oldest, but the only one that is understood in Tuscany. At Pistoja, indeed, and some other places, the system of letting the land to the cultivator at a fixed rent has been partially adopted; but it has taken no deep root, and the *mezzzeria* has been introducing itself also with the extension of cultivation into the Maremma. Any change in the existing mode of occupancy must, therefore, be remote.

Every species of cultivation, except that of wheat, vines, and olive, is neglected. Forests have been destroyed or badly managed; and the proper treatment of meadow lands is wholly unknown. All kinds of produce not suitable for direct consumption are but little esteemed. Mulberry trees, which answer admirably well, are not in favour; and the rearing of silkworms, though carried on more or less in the house of every cultivator, is reckoned of inferior importance, and is abandoned to the females. The produce of silk, therefore, is much less than it might be; and the same may be said of most articles of export.

The culture of the corn, and other articles required for home consumption, is however conducted with the utmost care and attention. The hill sides are formed into a succession of terraces; and a small extent of land of very moderate fertility suffices for the support of a family of 10 or 15 individuals. "The Val d'Arno," says Mr. MacLaren, "is cultivated like a garden. Much of the land is in drills, about 2 ft. wide and 1 ft. deep, planted with maize, &c.; and about every 100 yards there is a neatly cut drain bordered by a row of poplars to serve as vine props. The rich bottom land is skirted with low hills, which are also carefully cultivated, and bear great numbers of olives. Though not a foot of land be wasted, and not a tree grows which has not been planted by human hands for use or ornament, the whole valley, from the bare hills on one side to those on the other, looks like a forest." (*Notes on Italy*, 185.)

But, as already seen, the appearance of the country furnishes no sure criterion of the condition of its inhabitants. The land is split into very small portions; and here, as in most other parts of Italy,

"The poor inhabitant beholds in vain
The redd'ning orange and the swelling grain;
Joyless he sees the growing vines and vines,
And in the myrtle's fragrant shade repines:
Starves in the midst of Nature's bounty curst,
And in the laden vineyard dies for thirst."

M. de Chateaufieux states that the occupiers in the Val d'Arno are "never able to lay by any thing as a reserve against unfavourable years. On entering their houses, we find a total want of all the conveniences of life, a table more than frugal, and a general appearance of privation." (*Eng. Trans.*, p. 78.) It is true that, owing to the mildness of the climate, the temperance and contented disposition of the people, poverty is here productive of much less inconvenience than in England or less favourably situated countries. It appears, indeed, to have had but little influence over the increase of population. In 1801, for example, the pop. of Tuscany amounted to only 1,096,641, whereas, as already seen, it amounted in 1836 to 1,436,785.

Corn is the principal object of culture; but the quantity grown is inadequate to the consumption, and a good

deal is imported at Leghorn from the Black Sea and elsewhere. Maize, wheat, barley, and rye, are the grains principally raised. The husbandry is not uniformly the same, but, according to Chateaufieux, it is generally under a 5 years' rotation as follows:—1st, maize, French beans, pease, or other vegetables, manured; 2d, wheat; 3d, winter beans; 4th, wheat; 5th, natural clover, sown after wheat in the spring, and followed by *vergho*, a large species of parsnip. The terrace cultivation absorbs a good deal of capital, time, and labour. Walls of turf, sod, and sometimes stone, are raised in succession along the sides of the hills, and support the soil brought down by the rains. The sunny sides of the hills thus terraced are chosen for vines; the shady sides for olive trees. The culture of olives and vines is not conducted on any scientific principle; but, from the care bestowed on their produce, the oil and wines of Tuscany hold a respectable rank. The best oil is raised near Pisa, Pescia, and Calcil. The wines of Tuscany were formerly very celebrated: they include the Aleatico, and the red and model wine of Montepulciano, which last was, with excusable partiality, preferred by Redi to all other wines:

"Montepulciano d'ogni vino e il re."

Bacco in Toscana.

Two centuries ago the wines of Chianti were well known in England: those of Carengiano, Monte Catini, Ponte a Moriano, &c. have some reputation. The annual produce of silk is estimated at about 250,000 lbs.

Out of five years' crops in the Val d'Arno it will be seen that only one is for cattle, the rearing of which is but a subordinate branch of Tuscan husbandry. Except the herds and flocks belonging to the grand duke, and a few other large proprietors, in general only as many are kept as are indispensable for manuring the fields and other agricultural purposes. In 1832, the cattle, including buffaloes, were estimated at about 356,000, and the sheep at 600,000 head. The oxen are mostly of the Hungarian breed; they are not so much used for draught as buffaloes. From 60,000 to 70,000 sheep are pastured in the Maremma from Oct. to May, and in the Apennines the rest of the year. The wool of the Tuscan sheep is coarse, and little used for any but home manufactures; though during the short period of the French domination there was a considerable introduction of Merino flocks. Cheese made of the ewes' milk is consumed in the country, but it is of very inferior quality. The horses of the grand duchy are among the worst in Europe, small, weak, and ill-shaped; and though some attempts have been made to improve the breed, we believe the success has been only very partial. On the other hand, however, the Tuscan asses are the strongest and finest in Italy. Goats, being easily fed, are kept in large numbers in most districts; and the *ricotta* cheeses are made of their milk. Pigs are very abundant in the provs. of Sinina and Grosseto, where they roam at large in the oak woods of the Maremma; and poultry and bees are pretty numerous.

It is a curious fact that, notwithstanding the houses of the peasants are so miserably ill-furnished, they are themselves of a very superior description. "In no country are the peasantry so well lodged. Probably half or more of their houses have been rebuilt within the last 60 years, and the remainder have been improved. It is reckoned, taking one house with another, they must have cost 1,000 crowns or 5,000 fr. each, and the average value of a farm is 2,000 crowns. The living of the peasantry does not correspond to the luxury of their habitations: it is wholesome, though frugal. In most of the provs. bread is a mixture of rye, barley, and maize, with a little wheat; in some places, however, it is of pure wheat. Next to bread, beans form the principal nourishment of the cultivators. They drink but little wine; more frequently aquarello or piquette. To eat fresh meat once a week is considered a luxury; and the poorest are satisfied with a piece of bacon. Salt fish is a good deal eaten. The import of salt cod into Tuscany exceeds 1,000,000 fr. a year." (*Bowring's Rep.* p. 44.) The day labourer gets on an average 10d. a day for 11 hours' work in the summer, and 8 hours in winter. An English gentleman farming an estate of 40 acres near Florence stated to Dr. Bowring that the value of its gross produce amounted to about 315*l.* a year, which, after deducting the half share of the contadino, and the expenses either shared by him or falling solely upon the proprietor, with casual expenses, left him a net profit of about 2*l.* 10*s.* per acre, or not quite 3*l.* 2*s.* per cent. interest on his outlay. (*See Report*, pp. 46, 47.)

Tuscany has a great variety of mines, which were formerly extensively wrought; but many of these have been abandoned. The principal are the iron mines of Elba (which see, I. 754.) Copper is obtained at Monte Catini, Montieri, &c.; cinnamon, lead, silver, &c. in different places. During a recent decennial period 413,000 lbs. a year of sulphur were produced at Fertit; and alum, nitre, various kinds of marble, &c. are found in different parts of the Maremma. But the most remark-

able mineral product is borax, obtained from a collection of lagoons, unique in Europe, if not in the world, and spread over a surface of about 30 sq. m. at and near M. Cerboli, about 15 m. S. by W. Volterra. "As you approach the lagoons, the earth seems to pour out boiling water as if from volcanoes of various sizes, in a variety of soil, but principally of chalk and sand. The heat in the immediate vicinity is intolerable, and you are drenched by the vapour which impregnates the atmosphere with a strong and somewhat sulphurous smell. The ground, which burns and shakes beneath your feet, is covered with crystallisations of sulphur and other minerals. The vapours break forth violently in different parts of the mountain recesses: they only produce boracic acid, when they burst with a fierce explosion. In these spots artificial lagoons are formed by the introduction of the mountain streams. The hot vapour keeps the water perpetually boiling, and after it has received its impregnation during 24 hours at the most elevated lagoon, the contents are allowed to descend to the second lagoon, where a second impregnation takes place, and then the third, and so forth, till it reaches the lowest receptacle; and having thus passed through from six to eight lagoons it has gathered half per cent. of the boracic acid. It is then transferred to the reservoirs, and thence, after a few hours' rest, to the evaporating pans, where the hot vapour concentrates the strength of the acid, by passing under shallow leaden vessels from the boiling fountains above. There are from 10 to 20 pans, in each of which the concentration becomes greater at its descent, till it passes to the crystallizing vessel; from whence it is carried to the drying rooms, when after 3 or 5 hours it is ready to be packed for exportation. There are in all 9 establishments. The whole amount produced varies from 7,000 to 8,000 lbs. of 12 oz. a day. The borax-lagoons have been brought into their present profitable action within a very few years. In 1833, only about 650,000 Tuscan lbs. were obtained; in 1836, 2,500,000 lbs. But the produce does not appear susceptible of much extension, as the whole of the water is now turned to account." (*Report*, pp. 36-38.) The territory around Volterra is rich in salt springs, and the royal salt works employ about 90 labourers, and produce nearly 18,000,000 lbs. of salt a year, exclusive of the produce of Elba.

Among the *manufactures*, one of the principal is that of straw plait, so large an export from Leghorn. It is made with the straw of the headless wheat, grown on soil the poorness of which renders the reed white, and is cut before it be quite ripe. Small patches of ground are chosen for its culture, on calcareous hills, and it is never manured. The seed is sown very thick; and Chateaufieux was assured that a crop of two acres would supply straw sufficient for the whole hat manufacture of Tuscany. (*Lettre*, p. 75.) This manufacture employs a vast number of hands in Florence, Prato, and in all the districts from Florence to Pistoja on one side, and to Pisa on the other. It is estimated that between Florence and Prato only there are fifty manufactures; besides which, the females of nearly all the *contadini* families in the Val d'Arno employ themselves, more or less, in making straw hats. This branch of industry has latterly diminished; but when Chateaufieux wrote, it brought "an annual return of 3,000,000 fr. to the females of the country, for the men have no concern in it. Every young woman, for a few pence, purchases the straw she has occasion for; she exerts her talent to braid it as fine as possible; and sells, for her own profit, the hats she has made; the money which she thus earns at length forming her dower. Each individual in a family can earn from 30 to 40 sous (15d. to 30d.) a day in plaiting straw, while they can hire a poor woman from the Apennines for 8 or 10 sous (4d. or 5d.) to do the domestic work." (*Ib.* pp. 74, 75.) From 3,000 to 4,000 looms in Florence, 600 to 700 in Siena, and some at Prato are engaged in the silk manufacture; and, in many parts of Tuscany, there are steam mills for the chain and tram. At Siena, Prato, &c. are several factories for woollens, including *berretti* or red woollen caps, in imitation of those of Treviso. Pistoja has extensive iron works, hardware factories, and paper mills; Prato, many copper foundries; and at Folonica nearly all the iron of Elba is smelted and wrought; carpets at Florence; leather and rope at Leghorn; marble and alabaster goods at Volterra, &c.; glass, earthenware, hats, hempen and linen fabrics are the other articles principally manufactured. At Prato, which town may give a fair average, the wages of a working man, in most trades, may be about $\frac{3}{4}$ pauli, or 1s. a day; few earn more than 3 pauli (15d.), or less than 2 pauli (10d.) The retail prices of food are, bread, 3d. per lb.; mutton and beef, 1d. to 3d. per lb.; oil, $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per lb.; *vin-ordinario*, 2d. to 5d. for about three bottles, &c. (*Bozzing's Report*.)

The exports are principally oil, charcoal, borax, straw plait and hats, cork, rape, potash, tanned hides, marble, coral, woollen caps for the Levant, timber, paper, soap, tartar, &c.: the imports, colonial produce, spices and dye stuffs, manufactured goods, hardware and earthen-

ware, salted fish, &c. Leghorn (which see *Ante*, 180.) engrosses almost the whole foreign trade of the country. Accounts are kept *in lire* (= about 8d.) of 20 *soldi*, and 240 *denari* each. The paulo = $\frac{1}{4}$ lire; the pezza = $\frac{3}{4}$ lire. The Tuscan lb. = about 12 oz. troy. The staja, for corn, &c. = 3-4ths bushel; the moggio = 25 staja. The barile (of wine) = 10 imp. galls; (of oil) = 7½ galls. The braccio = about 2 ft.: the seccata of 660 partiche = about an acre.

The Government is an absolute monarchy, mildly exercised, being, in a practical point of view, not only the best in Italy, but one of the least exceptionable in Europe. The Grand Duke is assisted by a council of 4 ministers. Justice is usually administered by the syndics in the small towns and villages, from whose decision appeal may be made to the *vicario* of the canton. There are courts of primary jurisdiction in Florence, Leghorn, and Pistoja, from which appeal lies to the highest court, the *consiglio* in Florence. Crime is rare, and is mostly confined to petty frauds and robberies. The civil legislation is far more defective than the criminal, and is often dilatory in the extreme. The total number of criminals and petty offenders convicted before the Tuscan courts in 1833 amounted to 1,390. All the inhab., except a few Jews, Protestants, Greek communicants in Leghorn, &c., are R. Catholics, being subordinate to the three archbishops of Florence, Pisa, and Siena, and seventeen bishops. Education is almost exclusively in the hands of the ecclesiastics, but is notwithstanding better conducted than in most parts of Italy, especially the Papal States and the kingdom of Naples. There are universities in Pisa and Siena; the former, in 1836, was attended by 545 students, and the latter by 254; and in Florence the famous schools of the Scolopi are attended by upwards of 1,000 students. Numerous other superior schools and many learned societies exist, and no better evidence can be given of the increase of knowledge than the fact that in 1814 there were but 6 printing presses in Florence, whereas in 1836 they amounted to 35. In 1835, about 31,200 children were attending the public schools. "Since 1830," says the *Journal of Educ.* No. xvi., "much has been done to forward elementary education, though no general system be established. In the towns there are very good gratuitous schools, and Lancasterian schools have been established in various parts of the country. Holiday schools have also begun to be established." No ill. of this Journal has a very full account of the state of education, &c., in Tuscany.

Tuscany, as compared with its population and resources, has the smallest military force of any European state: it consists altogether of about 6,000 men, of whom only 4,600 are usually under arms. Military service is obligatory upon all classes, recruits being chosen by lot. The army is maintained on an economical footing, and is retained on duty till advanced in years, to avoid a multiplicity of pensions. The military force is insignificant; there being only one ship of war to guard the port of Leghorn. (*Quindici, Italia e ses Forces Milit.* pp. 290-292.)

The roads, bridges, canals, &c., of Tuscany are well kept; the roads, in particular, are so good, that the conveyance of goods by the rivers and canals is comparatively little resorted to. Between Florence and Leghorn there is a daily post; between the other towns about two posts a week. Mendicity is prohibited by law; but there are numerous and richly endowed charitable institutions. Workhouses exist at Florence, Siena, and Arezzo, supported partly by the state, and partly by voluntary contributions and the labour of the inmates. Pisa and Siena have deaf-and-dumb institutions; and, together with Florence, Leghorn, and Pistoja, establishments at which orphans are taught different trades. Several institutions distribute food, bedding, clothing, and working tools to persons in want, and at Prato is one which makes annual grants for study, and furnishes loans for various purposes. Government pawn-banks and savings-banks are established in the principal towns; the latter paying 3½ per cent on deposits up to a certain amount. The public revenue derives principally from the government rents, custom dues, stamps, salt monopoly, lottery, tobacco duties, patents for carrying arm. fees, fines, &c., amounted in 1830 to 26,104,898 Tuscan lire; and the expenditure to 22,078,029 lire. In every respect we may consider Tuscany as the most flourishing state of the Italian peninsula. At two distant epochs, in remote antiquity, and at the revival of science and commerce in the middle ages, Tuscany has been the seat of the highest degree of civilization in Europe. The Tuscans of the present day are admitted generally to excel the inhab. of Italy in their taste for the fine arts, and the polish of their manners; and the Italian, or, as it is sometimes called, *Lingua Toscana*, is here spoken in the greatest purity and perfection. Even within this limited territory, there are, however, no fewer than five different dialects—the Florentine, Senese, Pistojan, Pisan, and Aretine. The best Italian is said to be spoken in Siena.

History. Etruria was finally conquered by the Romans

about *anno* 280 B.C. After the fall of the Western Empire, it successively belonged to the Goths and the Lombards, by the last of whom it was erected into a duchy. Charlemagne conquered Tuscany with the rest of the Lombard dominions; but under his feeble successors its marquises made their government hereditary and independent. The Tuscan territories were afterwards divided. In the 12th and 13th centuries, among the famous republics of Florence, Pisa, and Sienna; but these were re-united in 1531 into a duchy under Alexander de Medici, in whose family it continued till its extinction in 1737, when it fell into the hands of the H. of Austria. In 1801, by the treaty of Lunéville, Napoleon erected it into the kingdom of Etruria for the Prince of Parma; but in 1805 it was incorporated with the French empire, and subdivided into the depts. Arno, Mediterranean, and Ombrone. Since 1814 it has reverted to Austria, and is now governed by one of the Austrian archdukes. (*Bovering's Rep. on the Statistics of Tuscany; Ramponi; Serristori, Statist. d'Italia; Simondi, Agricoltura Toscana; Chateaufort, &c.*)

TUY (an. *Tuda ad Finis*), a fortified town of Spain, in Galicia, cap. prov., on the Minho, which separates it from the Portuguese territory, 87 m. S. by W. Saint Jago. Pop. about 7,000. (*Mifano*.) It stands on a height surrounded by several small rivulets, and has always been a fortress of some strength, and a key of Spain on this side. It is regularly laid out, and has well paved and clean streets, several squares and bridges, a cathedral, several hospitals and convents, a seminary, college, and 2 barracks. Its principal manufacture is of table linen, in which its inhabitants trade with Portugal; but it also produces hats, leather, liqueurs, &c. Its climate is rendered unhealthy by adjacent marshes.

TWEED, one of the principal rivers of Scotland, forming, in the lower part of its course, the boundary between Scotland and England, has its sources on the E. side of Errickstane hill, about 6 m. from Moffat. Its course is first N.E. to Peebles; then E. with a little inclination to the S. to Melrose; it next passes Coldstream and Kelso; and, pursuing a N. easterly direction, falls into the sea at Berwick. The descent from the source of the Tweed to Peebles is 1,000 ft., and thence to Berwick about 500 ft. more. (*New Statistical Account of Scotland*, p. 2.) The waters of the Tweed are particularly pure and limpid. The first part of its course is through a fine pastoral country, especially celebrated in Scottish song, and the latter through one that is rich and well cultivated. Including windings, its length is reckoned at rather more than 100 m. Notwithstanding it conveys a large body of water to the sea, it is not navigable for any considerable distance. The salmon fisheries on the Tweed are of very considerable value and importance; being, in this respect, second only to those of the Tay. The fish is almost all conveyed, packed in ice, to London.

Among its principal tributaries is the Etterick, which, flowing from the S. parts of Selkirkshire, joins it at the Eildon Hills. A little lower down it receives the Gala, from Mid Lothian, and the Leader from the borders of East Lothian. The Tweed rises in Roxburghshire, on the confines of Dumfriesshire, and flows in N.E. and receiving several tributaries, it falls into the Tweed at Kelso. The Till rises in Northumberland, near Ingram, and, pursuing a N. westerly course, falls into the Tweed at Tilmouth. Near Berwick, the Tweed receives the Adder, a considerable river, formed by the junction of the Blackadder and Whiteadder, having their sources in the Lammernoor hills. The basin of the Tweed is estimated at about 1,870 sq. m.

TWENTY-FOUR PERGUNNAHS, a district of British India, presid. and prov. Bengal, between lat. 23° 30' and 25° N., and long. 88° and 90° E., having N. Nudda, E. Jessore, W. the districts of Calcutta, Hooghly, and Midnapore, from which it is divided by the Hooghly river, and S. the Bay of Bengal. Area, 3,690 sq. m. Pop., in 1822, 599,595. Its surface is a dead flat, intersected by arms of the Ganges, and comprising many extensive jeels or marshes, with a considerable portion of the jungle tract known as the Sunderbunds. It has long been progressively increasing in productiveness and importance; but, like the adjacent district of Bacher-gunge, has been notorious for the prevalence of dacoity or gang-robbery. The Hindoos are reckoned in proportion to the Mohammedans as 3 to 1. Total land-revenue, 1829-30, 1,129,898 rupees.

TWICKENHAM, a village and par. of England, co. Middlesex, hund. Isleworth, on the Thames, 10 m. W. by S. London, and 2 m. S.W. Richmond. Area of par., 2,440 acres. Pop. of do. in 1841, 5,308. The village consists of a street nearly parallel to the river, and of a number of detached villas. It would hardly, however, have been worth notice in a work of this kind, but for its having possessed the villa famous as the favourite residence of the most elegant, harmonious, and correct of English poets, where he has lived many of his noblest works, and where he expired on the 30th of May, 1744.

But to the disgrace as well of the country as of the parishes were immediately concerned, "Pope's Villa" has been levelled with the ground! The structure now lives only in his immortal verses; and even his grotto,

"Where, molly-palmer, St. John sits and thoughts;
Where Britain sighs from dying Wyndham stole,
And the bright flame was shot through Marchmont's soul,"

has been suffered to go to ruin!

The church, a brick building, erected in 1714, contains the remains of the poet and of his parents. Pope himself raised a monument to the memory of the latter; and a monument to himself was raised, some years after his death, by his friend and literary legatee, Bishop Warburton. It is of grey marble, in the pyramidal form, and has a bust or medallion of the poet.

Among the existing villas in the vicinity of Twickenham, the most celebrated is that of Strawberry-hill, long the residence of Mr. Horace Walpole, by whom it was built, in a sort of trumpery Gothic style, and filled with a singular collection of rare, though mostly trifling articles. In the course of 1842, however, the collection was sold by auction; and the villa itself, which is a very paltry affair, has not since been occupied, and will probably soon share the fate of that of Pope. A national school, for the education of children of both sexes, was established in the village in 1809.

TYNE, an important river in the N. of England, is formed by the junction of two very considerable streams, the N. and S. Tyne. The latter rises on the borders of Durham and Cumberland, near Cross-Fell, one of the highest mountains in the great central range; and the former in the moorlands of Northumberland close to the Scottish border. They unite a short way from Hexham. After their junction, the river takes an easterly direction; and dividing Northumberland from Durham, and passing Newcastle, falls into the sea at Tynemouth, having the towns of N. and S. Shields close to its embouchure.

The Tyne is navigable for ships of from 300 to 400 tons burden, as far as Newcastle, and is navigated a few miles farther by keels, a peculiar description of craft employed to carry coal to the coal-ships. The banks of the Tyne at Newcastle are steep, and the ground rises on each side to a considerable height. Down to a comparatively late period the salmon fisheries in this river were of considerable value and importance. In 1761, no fewer than 280 fish were caught at one draught at Newburn; and in 1775, 275 were landed at one draught at the Low Lights, near the mouth of the river. The fisheries have, however, for several years past, been all but annihilated; a circumstance which has been variously accounted for, but which, perhaps, is most properly to be ascribed to the locks constructed at Bywell to improve the navigation of the river, preventing the ascent of the fish in the breeding season to the shallow streams in the upper parts of the river. For an account of the trade and shipping of this river the reader is referred to the articles NEWCASTLE, SOUTH SHIELDS, and TYNMOUTH, in this work.

TYNEMOUTH and NORTH SHIELDS, a par. bor. co. Northumberland, on the N. bank of the Tyne, at its mouth in the German Ocean, immediately opposite South Shields, and 7 m. E.N.E. Newcastle. The par. bor., consisting of the townships of Tynemouth, N. Shields, Chirton, Preston, and Cullercoats, had in 1831, a pop. of 25,201, and in 1841, of 25,168. The township of Tynemouth occupies its most E. angle, and at its S.W. extremity is the town of N. Shields. The township of Chirton stretches along the whole S.W. side of the par. adjoining N. Shields. Preston adjoins both that town and the township of Tynemouth; it is of small extent, but contains some excellent houses, and a large pop. for its small area, as compared with some of the other townships. At the N. extremity of the township of Tynemouth is that of Cullercoats, which contains the fishing town of that name. This township comprises only about 5 or 6 acres of land, the greater part of which is covered with buildings. (*Boswell's Rep.*) The village of Tynemouth has been much enlarged of late years; it is in general well built, and during the summer season is much resorted to for bathing. Its most remarkable edifice is the castle, originally a priory erected in the 11th century upon a previous foundation; it stands on a lofty and rocky peninsula, and is approached from the W. by a gateway flanked by towers, the whole being inclosed by a wall which runs for the most part along the edge of the cliff, at the N.E. angle of which is a light-house. Great care is taken by government to preserve the remains of the edifice, which forms a sea-mark for ships approaching the harbour or navigating the coast. The ruins of the priory within consist of a turret, now serving as a barrack, other buildings converted into military magazines, &c. Mr. Rickman says, that these exhibit very fine specimens of monastic remains, and the parts now existing, which belonged to the E. end, and some other portions of the church, are of remarkably beautiful design. The style is early English, with considerable

enrichment, and though the stone is much decayed, it shows great delicacy of execution. (*Goth. Archiv.*) A monument has been erected in honour of Lord Collingwood. This church was parochial till 1657, when a new church was built near N. Shields. The living of Tyne-mouth, a vicarage, worth £284. a year, is in the gift of the Duke of Northumberland. Two other churches have been erected: one at the W. end of the par., and the other at the village of Tynewmouth, which are curacies in the appointment of the vicar.

North Shields has increased rapidly of late years in size and importance, along with the increasing trade of the Tyne. It has many good streets and squares, a good market-place, gas and water works, a public library, scientific institution, neat theatre, Lancastrian and other schools, a sailors' relief society, meeting-houses for most of the principal dissenting sects, and a weekly newspaper. The Master Mariners' Asylum, the site for which was granted by his grace the Duke of Northumberland, is a neat stone edifice, recently built on the road leading from North Shields to Tynewmouth. "The constitution of the town of North Shields is certainly prosperous; it is progressively increasing in importance. The manufactories in this town are merely of those articles which are required by the ship-builder. Much building is in progress; and many improvements have been both commenced and agreed upon. New roads are to be made through the par. towards the W. and N.W.; and a railroad, 64 m. in length, now connects this town with Newcastle, passing through the township of Chirton. The town is chiefly extending itself on the W. and N.W. into Chirton and Preston townships, and in the direction of the town of Tynewmouth. There is no doubt that in a few years the village of Chirton will be nearly united to North Shields by a continuous street, and that a great portion of the township of Preston will be occupied by that town. Already several buildings of a superior class have been erected in that township in its immediate neighbourhood; and the whole of a small part of that of Tynewmouth, adjoining both Chirton and Chirton, is either covered with new buildings, or marked out as their future site. It is stated that the town had taken the direction of Tynewmouth and Preston, rather than Chirton, in consequence of the land of the latter township adjoining that town being in settlement." (*Boend. Rep.*) There is a bar at the river's mouth, but at high water it may be crossed by vessels of 500 tons, and those of 300 tons lie close to the quays. Ships, as explained in the article on SOUTH SHIELDS (which see), lie in tiers in the river, and were formerly loaded with the coal brought down the river in lighters; but of late years, staiths and drops having been erected, the intervention of lighters is in a great measure superseded. This town is included in the port of Newcastle; but there belongs to it especially about 350 ships; and some business is done in ship-building. The entrance to the Tyne is defended by Clifford's Fort, on its N.E. bank, near which is the low lighthouse; the high lighthouse being on the hill opposite Dockway Square. Its dependence on Newcastle is much complained of, as it obliges all ships to clear out from the latter. The shipping of coal is the staple business of the port.

The town is under the jurisdiction of the co. magistrates. It has a county court, before which 710 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. It is lighted and watched by commissioners under a local act. The erection of a bridge over the river was formerly contemplated; but that project has been abandoned, and the communication between the towns of North and South Shields is maintained by means of a steam ferry. The Reform Act conferred on the bor. of Tynewmouth the privilege of returning 1 m. to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 817.

TYRE (*Tyre*), the principal city of Phœnicia, and the most celebrated emporium of the ancient world, on the S.E. coast of the Mediterranean, where the inconceivable town of Taur, with 1,500 inhabs., now stands, lat. 33° 17' N., long. 35° 14' 35" E. The harbour of the modern town is choked up; and we have introduced this article merely that we might have the opportunity of laying before the reader some statements respecting the commerce, arts, and navigation of the Tyrians, the most distinguished mercantile people of antiquity.

Tyre was founded by a colony from Sidon, the most ancient of the Phœnician cities. The date of this event is not certainly known, but Larcher supposes it to have been 1,990 years before the Christian era. (*Chronologie d'Hérodote*, cap. ii. p. 131.) It is singular that while Homer mentions Sidon, he takes no notice of Tyre, whose glory speedily eclipsed that of the mother city; but this is no conclusive proof that the latter was not then a considerable emporium. The prophets Isaiah, Jeremiah, and Ezekiel, who flourished from 700 to 600 years before Christ, represent Tyre as a city of unrivalled wealth, whose merchants were princes, and her traffickers the honourable of the earth. Originally, the

city was built on the main land; but having been besieged for a lengthened period by the Babylonian monarch Nebuchadnezzar, the inhabitants conveyed themselves and their goods to an island at a little distance, where a new city was founded, which enjoyed an increased degree of celebrity and commercial prosperity. The old city was, on that account, entitled *Palætyre*, and the other simply Tyre. The new city continued to flourish, extending its colonies and its commerce on all sides, till it was attacked by Alexander the Great. The resistance made by the Tyrians to that conqueror showed that they had not been enervated by luxury, and that their martial virtues were nowise inferior to their commercial skill and enterprise. The overthrow of the Persian empire was a less difficult task than the capture of this single city, which was not effected till a mound had been carried from the main land to the island on which it was built. The victor had not magnanimity to treat the vanquished as their heroic conduct deserved. In despite, however, of the cruelties inflicted on the city, she rose again to considerable eminence. But the foundation of Alexandria, by diverting the commerce that had formerly centered at Tyre into a new channel, gave her an irreparable blow; and she gradually declined till, consistently with the denunciation of the prophet, her palaces have been levelled with the dust, and she has become "a place for the spreading of nets in the midst of the sea."

Commerce, Colonies, &c. of Tyre.—Phœnicia was one of the smallest countries of antiquity. It occupied that part of the Syrian coast which stretches from Aradus (the modern Roud) on the N., to a little below Tyre on the S., a distance of about 50 leagues. Its breadth was much less considerable, being for the most part bounded by Mount Libanus to the E., and Mount Carmel on the S. The surface of this narrow tract was generally rugged and mountainous; and the soil of the valleys, though moderately fertile, did not afford sufficient supplies of food to feed the pop. Libanus and its dependent hills were, however, covered with timber suitable for ship building; and besides Tyre and Sidon, Phœnicia possessed the ports of Tripoli, Byblos, Berytus, &c. In this situation, occupying a country unable to supply them with sufficient quantities of corn, hemmed in by mountains, and by powerful and warlike neighbours, on the one hand, and having, on the other, the wide expanse of the Mediterranean, studded with islands, and surrounded by fertile countries, to invite the enterprise of her citizens, they were naturally led to engage in maritime and commercial adventures; and became the boldest and most experienced mariners, and the greatest discoverers, of ancient times.

From the remotest antiquity, a considerable trade seems to have been carried on between the eastern and western world. The spices, drugs, precious stones, and other valuable products of Arabia and India have always been highly esteemed in Europe, and have exchanged for the gold and silver, the tin, wines, &c. of the latter. At the first dawn of authentic history, we find Phœnicia the principal centre of this commerce. Her inhabs. are designated in the early sacred writings by the name of *Canaanites*,—a term which, in the language of the East, means merchants. The products of Arabia, India, Persia, &c. were originally conveyed to her by companies of travelling merchants, or caravans; which seem to have been constituted in the same way, and to have performed exactly the same part in the commerce of the East, in the days of Jacob, that they do at present. (*Gen. xxvii. 25.*, &c.) At a later period, however, in the reigns of David and Solomon, the Phœnicians, having formed an alliance with the Hebrews, acquired the ports of Elath and Eziongaber, at the N.E. extremity of the Red Sea. Here they fitted out fleets, which traded with the ports on that sea, and probably with those of Southern Arabia, the W. coast of India, and Ethiopia. The ships are said to have visited Ophir; and a great deal of gold had been expended in attempting to determine the exact situation of that emporium or country. We agree, however, with Heeren in thinking that it was not the name of any particular place; but that it was a sort of general designation given to the coasts of Arabia, India, and Africa, bordering on the Indian Ocean; somewhat in the same loose way as we now use the terms *East* and *West Indies*. (See the chapter on the *Navigation and Commerce of the Phœnicians*, in the translation of Heeren's work.)

The distance of the Red Sea from Tyre being very considerable, the conveyance of goods from the one to the other by land must have been tedious and expensive. To lessen this inconvenience, the Tyrians, shortly after they got possession of Elath and Eziongaber, seized upon Rhinoculura, the port in the Mediterranean nearest to the Red Sea. The products of Arabia, India, &c., being carried thither by the most expeditious route, were then put on board ships, and conveyed by a brief and easy voyage to Tyre. If we except the transit by Egypt, this was the shortest and most direct, and for that reason, no

doubt, the cheapest, channel by which the commerce between Southern Asia and Europe could then be conducted. But it is not believed that the Phœnicians possessed any permanent footing on the Red Sea after the death of Solomon. The want of it does not, however, seem to have sensibly affected their trade; and Tyre continued, till the foundation of Alexandria, to be the grand emporium for eastern products, with which it was supplied by caravans from Arabia, the bottom of the Persian Gulf, and from Babylon, by way of Palmyra.

The commerce of the Phœnicians with the countries bordering on the Mediterranean was still more extensive and valuable. At an early period they established settlements in Cyprus and Rhodes. The former was a very valuable acquisition, from its proximity, the number of its ports, its fertility, and the variety of its vegetable and mineral productions. Having passed successively into Greece, Italy, and Sardinia, they proceeded to explore the southern shores of France and Spain, and the northern shores of Africa. They afterwards ventured upon the Atlantic, and were the first people whose flag was displayed beyond the Pillars of Hercules.

Of the colonies of Tyre, Gades, now Cadix, was one of the most ancient and important. It is supposed by M. de St. Croix to have originally been distinguished by the name of Tartessus or Tarshish, mentioned in the sacred writings. (*De l'Etat et du Sort des Anciennes Colonies*, p. 14.) Heeren, on the other hand, contends, as in the case of Ophir, that by Tarshish is to be understood the whole southern part of Spain, which was early occupied and settled by Phœnician colonists. (See also *Huet, Commerce des Anciens*, cap. 8.) At all events, however, it is certain that Cadix early became the centre of a commerce that extended all along the coasts of Europe as far as Britain, and perhaps the Baltic. There can be no doubt that by the Cassiterides, or Tin Islands, visited by the Phœnicians, is to be understood the Scilly Islands and Cornwall. The navigation of the Phœnicians, probably, also extended a considerable way along the western coast of Africa; of this, however, no details have reached us.

But of all the colonies founded by Tyre, Carthage has been by far the most celebrated. It was at first only a simple factory; but was materially increased by the arrival of a large body of colonists, forced by dissensions at home to leave their native land, about 883 years a.c. (*St. Croix*, p. 20.) Imbued with the enterprising mercantile spirit of their ancestors, the Carthaginians rose in no very long period to the highest eminence as a naval and commercial state. The settlements founded by the Phœnicians in Africa, Spain, Sicily, &c., gradually fell into their hands; and after the destruction of Tyre by Alexander, Carthage engrossed a large share of the commerce of which it had previously been the centre. The history, commerce, and institutions of Carthage, and the misfortunes by which she was overwhelmed, have, however, been already noticed in this work (See *CARTHAGE*); and we shall only, therefore, observe, that commerce, instead of being, as some shallow theorists have imagined, the cause of her decline, was the real source of her power and greatness; the means by which she was enabled to wage a lengthened, doubtful, and desperate contest with Rome herself for the empire of the world.

The commerce and navigation of Tyre probably attained their maximum from 650 to 650 years a.c. At that period the Tyrians were the factors and merchants of the civilised world; and they enjoyed an undisputed pre-eminence in maritime affairs. The prophet Ezekiel (chap. xxvii.) has described in magnificent terms the glory of Tyre; and has enumerated several of the most valuable productions found in her markets, and the countries whence they were brought. The fir trees of Senir (Hermon), the cedars of Lebanon, the oaks of Bashan (the country to the E. of Galilee), the ivory of the Indies, the fine linen of Egypt, and the purple and hyacinth of the Isles of Elisahai (Peloponnesus), are specified among the articles used for her ships. The inhabitants of Sidon, Arvad (Aradus), Gebel (Byblos), served her as mariners and carpenters. Gold, silver, lead, tin, iron, and vessels of brass; slaves, horses, mules, sheep, and goats; pearls, precious stones, and coral; wheat, balm, honey, oil, spices, and gums; wine, wool, and silk; are mentioned as being brought into the port of Tyre by sea, or to its markets by land, from Syria, Arabia, Damascus, Greece, Tarshish, and other places, the exact site of which it is difficult to determine.†

Such, according to the inspired writer, was Tyre, the "Queen of the waters," before she was besieged by Nebuchadnezzar. But, as there has been already remarked, the result of that siege did not affect her trade, which was as

* Mons Calpe and Mons Abyla, the Gibraltar and Ceuta of modern times.

† There is, in Dr. Vincent's *Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients in the Indian Ocean* (vol. ii. pp. 684–692), an elaborate and (like the other parts of that work) profusely commented on this chapter of Ezekiel, in which most of the names of the things and places mentioned are satisfactorily explained. (See also *Huet on the Phœnicians*, cap. iv.)

successfully and advantageously carried on from the new city as from the old. Inasmuch, however, as Carthage soon after began to rival her as a maritime and mercantile state, this may, perhaps, be considered as the era of her greatest celebrity.

It would not be easy to over-rate the beneficial influence of that extensive commerce from which the Phœnicians derived such immense wealth. It inspired the people with whom they traded with new wants and desires, at the same time that it gave them the means of gratifying them. It every where gave fresh life to industry, and a new and powerful stimulus to invention. The rude uncivilised inhabs. of Greece, Spain, and Northern Africa, acquired some knowledge of the arts and sciences practised by the Phœnicians; and the advantages of which they were found to be productive secured their gradual though slow advancement.

Nor were the Phœnicians celebrated only for their wealth, and the extent of their commerce and navigation. Their fame, and their right to be classed amongst those who have conferred the greatest benefits on mankind, rest on a still more unassailable foundation. Antiquity is unanimous in ascribing to them the invention and practice of all those arts, sciences, and contrivances that facilitate the prosecution of commercial undertakings. They are held to be the inventors of arithmetic, weights and measures, of money, of the art of keeping accounts, and, in short, of every thing that belongs to the business of a counting-house. They were, also, famous for the invention of ship-building and navigation; for the discovery of glass; for their manufactures of fine linen and tapestry; for their skill in architecture, and in the art of working metals and ivory; and still more for the incomparable splendour and beauty of their purple dye. (See the learned and invaluable work of the President de Goguet, *Sur l'Origine des Loix*, &c., Eng. trans. vol. i. p. 236; and vol. ii. pp. 98–100; see also the chapter of Heeren on the *Manufactures and Land Commerce of the Phœnicians*.)

But the invention and dissemination of these highly useful arts form but a part of what the people of Europe owe to the Phœnicians. It is not possible to say in what degree the religion of the Greeks was borrowed from theirs; but that it was to a pretty large extent seems abundantly certain. Hercules, under the name of Melchæthus, was the tutelary deity of Tyre; and his expeditions along the shores of the Mediterranean, and to the straits connecting it with the ocean, seem to be merely a poetical representation of the progress of the Phœnician navigators, who introduced arts and civilisation, and established the worship of Hercules, wherever they went. The temple erected in honour of the god at Gades was long regarded with peculiar veneration.

The Greeks were, however, indebted to the Phœnicians, not merely for the rudiments of civilisation, but for the great instrument of its future progress—the gift of letters! No fact in ancient history is better established than that a knowledge of alphabetic writing was first carried to Greece by Phœnician adventurers; and it may be safely affirmed, that this was the greatest boon any people ever received at the hands of another.

Before quitting this subject, we may briefly advert to the statement of Herodotus with respect to the circumnavigation of Africa by Phœnician sailors. The venerable father of history mentions, that a fleet fitted out by Necho, King of Egypt, but manned and commanded by Phœnicians, took its departure from a port on the Red Sea, at an epoch which is believed to correspond with the year 604 before the Christian era, and that, keeping always to the right, they doubled the southern promontory of Africa; and returned, after a voyage of 3 years, to Egypt, by the Pillars of Hercules. (*Herod.* lib. iv. § 42.) Herodotus further mentions, that they related that, in sailing round Africa, they had the sun on their right hand, or to the north—a circumstance which he frankly acknowledges seemed incredible to him, but which, as every one is now aware, must have been the case if the voyage were actually performed.

Many learned and able writers, and particularly Gosselin (*Recherches sur la Géographie Systématique et Positive des Anciens*, tome i. pp. 250–261), have treated this account as fabulous. But the objections of Gosselin have been successfully answered in an elaborate note by Larcher (*Herodote*, tome iii. pp. 458–464, ed. 1802); and Major Rennell has sufficiently demonstrated the practicability of the voyage. (*Geography of Herodotus*, p. 682, &c.) Without entering upon this discussion, we may observe, that not one of those who question the authenticity of the account given by Herodotus presume to doubt that the Phœnicians braved the boldest seas on the coasts of Spain, Gaul, and Britain; and that they had, partially at least, explored the Indian Ocean. But the ships and seamen that did this must, inevitably, undoubtedly, under favourable circumstances, double the Cape of Good Hope. The relation of Herodotus has, besides, such an appearance of good faith, and the circumstance which he doubts, of the navigators having the sun on the right,

affords so strong a confirmation of its truth, that there really seems no reasonable ground for doubting that the Phenicians preceded, by 2,000 years, Vasco da Gama in his perilous enterprise. (We have borrowed this article from the *Commercial Dict.*)

TYROL and VORARLBERG (an. *Rætia*, with part of *Noricum*), a prov. of the Austrian empire, principally between the 46th and 48th degrees of N. lat., and the 10th and 13th of E. long.; having E., the archd. of Austria (Salzburg, &c.), and Carinthia; S., the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom; W., Switzerland (the Grisons, &c.) and the princip. of Liechtenstein; and N., Bavaria. Length, E. to W., about 120 m.; average breadth somewhat less than 100 m. Area estimated at about 11,000 sq. m. Pop., in 1838, 531,358. This country may be regarded as an extension of Switzerland towards the E. It is traversed in its whole extent by the main ridge of the Alps, which has here some of its loftiest summits, including, among others, Mount Ortel 12,823 ft., and the Gross Glucker 12,567 ft. above the level of the sea. This grand chain separates the waters that flow N. to the Rhine and the Upper Danube from those that flow S. to the Po and the Adriatic, and the Lower Danube. But, exclusive of this gigantic chain, an inferior chain from 50 to 60 m. S. of the latter divides the country into three portions: the Valley of the Inn, to the N. of the High Alps; that of the Drave, between the High Alps and the inferior chain; and the country to the S. of the latter drained by the Adige, Piave, and other rivers flowing into the Adriatic. The Vorarlberg, N.W. from the Tyrol, forms part of the basin of the Rhine, being drained by the Ill and Bregenz, and bounded on the N.W. by the Lake of Constance. There are many small lakes in the country, but none is of any consequence; the Achensee, in the S., is the principal. The climate is very various. To the N. of the High Alps, and in the intermediate district, or valley of the Drave, it is very severe. Some very extensive mountain tracts are covered with immense glaciers and the accumulated snows of ages. The medium temperature of the year at Innsbruck is about 50°; at Botsen, or Bolzano, 57° Fahr. But the narrow valleys in the S., which unite with the plain of Lombardy, are very hot in summer; and frequently, indeed, experience the sirocco. In general, the spring and summer are wet, and autumn is the most agreeable season.

The central chain of the Alps is composed chiefly of granite, flanked on either side with a zone of slate, overlapped by limestone: the accompanying ranges on both the N. and S. sides are mostly calcareous. Estimating the total extent of land in the prov. at about 7,000,000 acres, it has been distributed in *Becker's Handb. d. Lexicon*, Vienna, 1836, as follows: viz., cultivated or arable land, 536,590 acres; vineyards, 78,636 do.; meadows and gardens, 615,690 do.; commons, 922,593 do.; and forests, 2,767,496 do, making in all 4,920,873 acres; leaving, consequently, above 3,000,000 acres of land occupied by inaccessible mountains, glaciers, and snow-tracts. The products and husbandry in the S. are much the same as in the N. parts of Lombardy. In other parts of the Tyrol, maize, wheat, and pulse are grown in the bottom, and scanty crops of buckwheat, rye, and oats on the mountain sides; but the produce of corn is insufficient for the consumption. The Tyrol is in fact, like the greater part of Switzerland, a pastoral country: the chief wealth of its inhabs. consisting in their cattle and other live stock. The cattle are kept in the valleys throughout the winter, but are in spring driven to the uplands, proceeding higher and higher as the lower meadows become exhausted and the upper divested of snow; and returning again in September. The meadows yielding the thickest grass are set aside for a hay crop. The hay, when cut, is carefully dried under cover, and stored up in sheds; but it is quite insufficient for the winter supply of the cattle, many of which have to be fed on maize stalks, ash leaves, &c. In the circle of Roveredo, and other parts of the country adjoining Italy, a good many silk-worms are reared; and the annual average produce of silk is estimated at 3,300 centners. The rearing of canary-birds, though apparently an insignificant branch of industry, is pretty extensively carried on at Imst, and other places in the valley of the Inn; and, in fact, the Tyrol supplies most parts of Europe with these songsters. Among the wild animals are wolves, wild boars, and bears: the cliffs of the rocks afford shelter to the marmots; and the chamois finds refuge on the highest summits, or in places secure from the approach of the hunter.

The precious metals and copper are met with; but they are of little importance. Iron and salt are abundant in certain districts; and though mining industry be in a rather backward state are produced in considerable quantities. Silk is manufactured in the S.; next to which, iron wire, plates, nails, and other kinds of hardware are the principal products. Leather, linen fabrics, wooden articles (some of which are executed with great skill, and display much ingenuity), glass, paper, toys,

and (at Innsbruck, Imst, &c.) some cotton goods, are produced. But the principal exports are cattle, cheese, silk, iron, salt, wine, timber, tobacco, and other raw produce, in return for corn and most sorts of manufactured goods. The inhabs. are exceedingly industrious, ingenious, and inventive; but the poverty of the country obliges them, notwithstanding, to migrate in great numbers; and several thousands annually leave their homes for Swabia, Bavaria, Italy, and more distant countries, where they exercise various functions, and continue for a longer or shorter time till, by dint of economy, they have saved what they suppose will maintain them at home, when they immediately return. A considerable transit trade is carried on across the Tyrolese Alps, between Italy and the S. parts of Germany. The principal route for this is by the road over the Brenner pass, between Innsbruck and Brinnz, and thence to Bolzano and Roveredo. At its highest point this road attains to an elevation of 4,634 ft. At the W. extremity of the Tyrol is the famous military road over Monte Stelvio, rising to the prodigious height of 8,960 ft. above the sea: being the highest elevation of any carriage road in Europe.

In the official registers of the Austrian empire, Tyrol bears only the appellation of country; but it has its own diet composed of four orders of members—the clergy, nobility, the deputies of the towns, and those of the peasantry, all of whom assemble in one chamber. A new tax can be imposed without the consent of this body; and when it is granted, the sovereign is bound to make an explicit acknowledgment that the states might have refused it had they chosen. In addition to the states, there exists a permanent deputation and tribunal, in which the peasantry are represented. The only imposts are a land tax, payable indiscriminately by all classes, and a charge on the higher classes, consisting of a per centage on pensions, tithes, and rents.

The Tyrol is divided into seven circles, their chief towns being Botsen, Schwatz, Imst, Bruneck, Trent, Roveredo, and Bregenz; in each of which is a court of justice. Innsbruck is the general cap. and the seat of the highest judicial tribunal. The pop. is almost wholly R. Catholic, under the superintendence of ten bishops subordinate to the archbishop of Salzburg.

The character of the Tyrolese is said to contrast favourably with that of the Swiss. In the N. or German portion of the country they are neither so fawning nor mercenary as the latter; and in the S. they approach the Italian standard in their manners and dispositions as well as their language. Though quite as attached to personal and national liberty as the Swiss, the Tyrolese have always been steadfast adherents of Austria; and, next to the archduchy, the Tyrol may be depended upon as the prov. most likely to remain firmly attached to the House of Hapsburg in the event of any future dismemberment of the empire. But the Austrians draw little or no disposable military force from the Tyrol. Its inhabs. form an irregular militia, and act with the greatest vigour and alacrity in the defence of their country; but their natural repugnance to a disciplined military life is so great, that all attempts to extend the conscription to this prov. have hitherto proved unsuccessful. Of late, indeed, a part of the regiment of *Jägers*, raised in the Tyrol for its own defence, has been removed into another prov.; but this measure appears to have produced much dissatisfaction.

The dress of the peasantry is peculiar. The principal finery of the men consists of a straw hat ornamented with ribands and nosegays; the dress of the women consists of a thick and short gown, stockings with cross stripes, and a cap tapering in the shape of a sugar-loaf. Music and dancing, rifle-shooting and athletic exercises, are the favourite amusements of the Tyrolese; in all which they excel.

From the fall of the Roman empire, this region ceased to be permanently united under one head till 1293; not long after which period, it passed by inheritance to the dukes of Austria, to whose descendants it has ever since belonged, with the exception of the period from 1806 to 1814. From 1806 to 1809, it belonged to Bavaria. The government of the Bavarians was, however, very disturbed; and the Tyrolese under Hofer maintained a doubtful contest with them and the French till 1810; when Hofer, having been taken and shot at Mantua, the Tyrol was governed by the French till 1814, when it reverted to Austria. (*Austrian Nat. Encyc.*; *Berghaus*; *Malte-Brun*, &c.)

TYRONE, an inland co. of Ireland, prov. Ulster having N. Londonderry, E. Lough Neagh and Armagh, S. Monaghan and Fermanagh, and W. Donegal. It contains 754,286 acres, of which 171,314 are unimproved mountain and bog, and 27,361 water, being a fraction of Lough Neagh. Surface in many places, especially on the N. and W., rough and mountainous; but there is, notwithstanding, a large extent of fertile land. Property mostly in very large estates. Farms of various sizes; those in the mountainous districts large, and seldom

much subdivided. Tillage farms small, and generally held under partnership leases, and it is almost needless to add that wherever this is the case agriculture is execrable. A great deal of work is done by the spade; and where ploughs are used, they are sometimes drawn by horses, bullocks, and milch cows, all yoked together! Potatoes and oats, the principal crops. Cattle and sheep very inferior. "Tenants may do what they will in regard to the management of their farms, if they only pay the rent." (*Poor Inquiry*, Append. F., p. 333.) Average rent of land, 14s. 6d. an acre. Habitations of the bulk of the people extremely mean; they live principally on oatmeal and potatoes, rarely tasting butchers' meat. Linen manufacture pretty generally diffused. A coal mine is wrought between Dungannon and Stewartston, but the coal is inferior. There is a good pottery near Dungannon. This is one of the counties in which illicit distillation was most prevalent. Principal rivers, Blackwater, Foyle, Ballinderry, with several others of inferior importance.

Tyrone contains 4 baronies, and 35 parishes; and returns 3 mems. to the H. of C., registered 2 for the co., and 1 for the bor. of Dungannon. Registered electors for the co. in 1845-6, 1,306. In 1841, Tyrone had 84,919 inhab. houses, 67,337 families, and 312,966 inhab., of whom 153,463 were males, and 159,493 females.

TYSDRUS or TYSDRA, an ancient and considerable, but now ruined, city of N. Africa. Reg. of Tunis, at present represented by the inconceivable village of El Jemma, 110 m. S. by E. Tunis, and 30 m. W. by S. the port of Mehadiah, or Africa. The walls of the ancient town may still be distinctly traced, and it comprises, besides the foundations of temples and other buildings, the mutilated fragments of columns, statues, &c. But the distinguishing feature of the place, and that which gives it all its present interest, is its superb amphitheatre. This noble ruin, the exterior of which is in a high state of preservation, is of vast size and magnificence, being 429 ft. in length, by 368 ft. in breadth, and 96 ft. in height, so that it is inferior only, in respect of magnitude, to the Colosseum and the amphitheatre of Verona. It consisted originally of 64 arches, and 4 rows of columns of the Composite order, placed above each other. At each extremity was a grand entrance; but one of these, with an arch on either side, was destroyed, about a century ago, by one of the boys of Tunis, to prevent the ruin being occupied as a fortress by his rebellious subjects. The arena is nearly circular. There are no inscriptions by which we may learn the date or founders of this magnificent structure; but Dr. Shaw supposes, from its similarity to other structures of the same period, that it is of the age of the Antonines; and as the elder Gordian was proclaimed emperor in Tyndrus, he concludes that he may, probably out of gratitude to the citizens, have presented them with this grand structure for the celebration of those barbarous sports then so much in fashion. (*Travels*, p. 117, &c. ed.; see also *Temple's Excursions in Algiers and Tunis*, i. 150.)

U.

UDINE, a town of Austrian Italy, cap. deleg. Udine or Friuli, on the Roja, 60 m. N. E. Venice. Pop., in 1846, 26,700. It is fortified and well built, but, from its situation in a wide and level plain, its external appearance has nothing striking. Its streets are lined with arcades; and in the great square is a fine monument in commemoration of the treaty of Campo Formio (which village is in the immediate neighbourhood). Principal buildings, the cathedral, with some handsome marble columns and bas-reliefs, two par. churches, the chief guard-house, surmounted by a tower and two iron figures to strike the hours, the town-hall, bishop's palace, a good opera-house, &c. The old castle, on elevated ground in the middle of the town, is now a prison. The French, during their occupation, constructed several public walks, and otherwise embellished the town. Udine is the seat of the provincial assembly and superior courts, and has a lyceum, 2 gymnasia, a high school, episcopal seminary and library, a society of agriculture, several hospitals, asylums, &c. The inhabs. are principally engaged in the silk trade, but they also manufacture linen fabrics, leather, paper, and liquors. (*Aust. Nat. Encyc.*, &c.)

UIST, NORTH AND SOUTH. See HESBURN.

ULBORG, a town and seaport of Flind, cap. lla, or district of its own name, on a peninsula at the mouth of the Ulea in the Gulf of Bothnia, 68 m. S. S. E. Tornea. Pop. about 5,000. It is regularly built and is, after Abo, the principal commercial town of the prov. Its harbour is, unfortunately, in great part choked up with sand. The chief exports are pitch, tar, fish, and salted butter. It was founded in 1605, and has frequently suffered from fire, by which it was nearly destroyed on May 20., 1822. (*Schnitzler, La Russie*; *Porsart*.)

ULM, a frontier town of Wurtemberg, cap. circ. Da-

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nube, on the Danube where it begins to be navigable, 45 m. S. E. Stuttgart, and 44 m. W. by N. Augsburg. Pop. about 13,400. It has an antiquated appearance, and, though it has some traffic, a garrison, &c., it is dull. The cathedral, a fine Gothic building, has an unfinished tower, 337 Germ. ft. in height. The body of the building is 416 ft. in length, 166 ft. in breadth, the nave being 152 ft. in height (*Schra*), so that it is larger than any other church in Germany. This edifice was erected, between 1377 and 1494, at the sole expense of the citizens of Ulm. It has some beautiful stained glass and carved work, and a tablet commemorating a showman's feat of the Emperor Maximilian, in 1492, who is said to have stood on the parapet of the tower, on one foot, balancing a coach-wheel with the other! Several other buildings are worthy of notice, as the town-hall, government and custom houses, corn-hall, and arsenal. Ulm has a gymnasium, a large and richly endowed hospital, a female orphan asylum, and the house of correction for the circle. Tobacco pipe-bowls, linen fabrics, leather, paper, vinegar, &c., are made by the inhabs., many of whom also engage in horticulture, boat-building, the transit of goods, and the rearing of snails for export to Bavaria and Austria. Large quantities of Rhenish, Swiss, and other wines, are brought thither to be shipped down the Danube. Ulm was formerly strongly fortified, and a military post of importance. (*Borghaus; Memminger's Wurtemberg*; *Spencer's Germany*.)

In 1805, Ulm was the theatre of some most important military events. Austria, having declared war against France, pushed forward a strong army into Bavaria, under General Mack, who established his head quarters at Ulm. But Napoleon having succeeded by a series of masterly manoeuvres in cutting off Mack's communications with Austria, the latter was cooped up in the city with all that portion of his army, amounting to about 26,000 men, that had not already fallen into the hands of the French. Considering the strength of the place, and the numbers of the garrison, a vigorous resistance might have been anticipated; but, instead of this, Mack capitulated on the 17th of October, and delivered up the town, and his army as prisoners of war, without so much as firing a shot!

ULSTER, one of the provinces into which Ireland is divided, and the most northerly, comprising the cos. of Londonderry, Londonderry, Antrim, Tyrone, Fermanagh, Monaghan, Armagh, Down, and Cavan.

ULVERSTONE, a market-town and par. of England, hund. Lonsdale, co. Lancaster, about 3 m. from the W. side of the embouchure of the Leven in Morecambe bay, on a tract apparently abandoned by the sea, 14 m. N. W. Lancaster. Area of par., 29,100 acres. Pop., in 1841, 5,778. Of late years the town has greatly improved: it has now a neat theatre, two subscription libraries, news and assembly rooms, &c.; and, besides the par. church, Trinity Church has been erected within these few years. The livings of both are perpetual curacies, in the gift of — Braddell, Esq.; that of the par. is worth 1,400 l., and that of Trinity Church 143 l. a year. The par. church is a handsome modern structure, in the style that prevailed in the time of Henry VIII., with a good altar-piece of the Descent from the Cross, and an E. window of stained glass. There are also meeting-houses for Dissenters, and some public schools of a minor kind. In 1795 a canal was cut from the river Leven, by which vessels of 400 tons reach a large basin, and load or unload close to the town. The inhabs. principally manufacture cotton goods, canvass hats, &c., and are occupied in conveying coastwise copper and iron ore, limestone, corn, and slates; the latter being exported in large quantities. Ulverstone belongs to the port of Lancaster. It is the seat of petty sessions for the hundred, and of a county court, before which 349 plaintiffs were entered in 1848.

UNITED STATES (THE), a federal republic, and the leading state of N. America, and indeed of the American continent, ranking immediately after the great powers of Europe. The U. States claim the sovereignty over a vast portion of the N. American continent, stretching from the Atlantic on the E. to the Pacific on the W., between the British territories on the N. and those of Mexico on the S., and included within the 25th and 49th degs. of N. lat., and the 65th and 125th of W. long., comprising in all an area of above 3,000,000 sq. miles. But large portions of this vast territory have not yet been divided into states, nor even explored; though from the wonderful increase of population and the rapid extension of civilisation it is all but certain that, in no very lengthened period, the entire country from the Atlantic to the Pacific will be distributed into states, and oc-

cupied by a people of whom it would be difficult to exaggerate the intelligence and the enterprise.

Physical Geography.—The entire territory belonging to the U. States is divided into four great regions: 1st, the Atlantic slope; 2nd, the vast basin of the Mississippi and Missouri; 3rd, the country between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada; and, 4th, the Pacific slope. These divisions are formed by three mountain ranges—the Appalachian chain towards the E., the Rocky Mountains in the centre, and the Sierra Nevada on the W. The Appalachian or Alleghany chain is more remarkable for length than height; it extends from the state of Mississippi, N.E. through the states of Alabama, Georgia, Tennessee, N. Carolina, Virginia, Pennsylvania, New York, Vermont, &c., for about 1,900 m., at a variable distance of from 70 to 300 m. from the Atlantic, and consists of several parallel ranges of an average aggregate breadth of about 100 m. The mean height of the Alleghany is not more than from 2,000 to 3,000 ft., about half of which consists of the elevation of the mountains above the adjacent plain, and the rest of the elevation of the latter above the sea. The White Mountains, in New Hampshire, which belong to this chain, reach a height of above 7,000 ft. The Black Mountain, in N. Carolina, is said to rise 6,476 ft. above the sea; and other summits reach 6,000 ft. and upwards. The Rocky Mountains are a prolongation of the great Mexican Cordillera. Their average height may be about 8,500 ft. above the ocean, but some of their summits attain to from 12,000 to nearly 15,000 ft. About 10 or 12 deg. W. from the Rocky Mountains is the great coast chain of the Sierra Nevada, or Snowy Mountains, which extends, under different names and with different altitudes, from the Peninsula of California to Russian America. It is of still greater elevation than the Rocky Mountains; some of its passes (within the U. States) being about 9,000 ft., and some of its summits 15,500 ft. above the level of the sea. The region between these two vast mountain ranges comprises the Eastern and most extensive and sterile portion of Oregon; the great inland basin of Upper California, elevated from 4,000 to 5,000 ft. above the Pacific, and mostly a desert; and the country drained by the great river, the Colorado, and its affluents. W. of the Sierra Nevada is the Pacific slope.

The country extending from the Atlantic nearly to the E. bank of the Mississippi, was, in its native state, almost covered by a continuous forest; and the greater part of it still remains in the same primitive condition. The portion of the basin of the Mississippi and Missouri, on their right bank, is by far the most extensive. It comprises, 1st, a tract of low, flat, alluvial, and well-wooded land, lying along the rivers, and stretching inwards from 100 m. to 200 m. or more; and, 2d, the Prairie and wild region, extending from that last mentioned, by a pretty equal ascent, to the Rocky Mountains. The Prairies are of immense extent; but they are not, as is commonly supposed, level. Their surface, on the contrary, is rolling or billowy, sometimes swelling into very considerable heights. They are covered with long, rank grass; being interspersed in Texas and the S. States with clumps of magnolia, tulip, and cotton trees, and in the N. States with oak and black walnut. The Prairies gradually diminish in beauty and verdure as they stretch towards the W., and become more elevated; till at length they imperceptibly unite with and lose themselves in a desert zone or belt skirting the foot of the

Rocky Mountains. In the S. this desert belt is not less than from 400 m. to 500 m. in width; but it diminishes in breadth in the more northerly latitudes. It is, in most respects, similar to the sandy, sterile deserts of Central Asia. This sterility is, also, as already stated, characteristic of a large portion of the extensive territory between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada. The Pacific slope, comprising the country W. of the Sierra Nevada, includes maritime California, so famous for its minerals, and the best and most fertile portion of the Oregon territory. Like the Atlantic coast it is, for the most part, heavily timbered. (*Darby's U. States*, p. 358, &c.; *Mrs. Somerville's Physical Geography*, i. 208, &c.; *Humboldt's Views of Nature*, Bohn's edit., pp. 36, 206, &c.)

Rivers.—The rivers of the U. States are of prodigious magnitude and importance. Of those flowing S. and E. the principal are the Mississippi and Missouri, which, with their tributaries, the Ohio, Arkansas, Red River, &c., give to the interior of the United States an extent of inland navigation, and a facility of communication, unequalled, perhaps, and certainly not surpassed, in any other continent. (See *ant.* p. 334.) The Alabama, Appalachicola, &c., flow, like the Mississippi, into the Gulf of Mexico; the Atlatama, Savannah, Roanoke, Potomac, Susquehanna, Delaware, Hudson, Connecticut, Penobscot, &c., into the Atlantic; and the Oswego, Cuyahoga, Maumee, &c., into the great lakes of the St. Lawrence basin. Of the rivers which have their sources W. of the ridge of the Rocky Mountains, and their embouchure in the Pacific, or in some of its arms, the principal are the Columbia, which falls into the Pacific; the San Joaquin and Sacramento, which fall into the great bay of San Francisco; and the Colorado, which, with its tributaries, after draining a vast extent of country, falls into the Gulf of California.

Next to the great Lakes SUPERIOR, MICHIGAN, &c., in the basin of the St. Lawrence, noticed in separate articles in this work, the largest lake within the limits of the U. States is the Great Salt Lake, in E. California, in the territory of Utah, in about 41° N. lat. and 113° W. long. Lake Champlain, between New York and Vermont, is also of considerable dimensions. Numerous small lakes occur in N. York, Maine, and especially in Wisconsin, and the Minnesota territory.

The coast of the Atlantic is indented by many noble bays, as those of Passamaquoddy, Massachusetts, Delaware, Chesapeake, &c.; and several extensive and sheltered inlets are formed by the islands off the coast, the principal of which are Long Island Sound, near New York, and Albemarle and Pamlico Sounds, in N. Carolina. The coast of the Gulf of Mexico has, also, many valuable inlets and back waters; and there are some, though fewer, on the shores of the great lakes. The great bay of San Francisco, in California, on the Pacific, is one of the finest basins anywhere to be met with. Altogether, the United States are furnished with some of the best harbours in the world.

Climate.—In a country extending through 34 degrees of lat., and nearly 60 of long., the climate must, of necessity, vary considerably. In the N., along the British frontier, the winter is very severe; during this season the snow is sufficiently abundant in the N. England states to admit the use of sledges, and the ice on the rivers strong enough to bear the passage of horses and waggon. In summer, on the contrary, the heat is proportionally oppressive. As far S. as New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, &c., the thermometer falls in winter below zero; rising, in summer, to nearly 100° Fahr. The climate of

the Atlantic coast, between the 41st and 46th degrees of lat., is colder in winter and warmer in summer, by nearly 10 degrees, than the parts of Europe under the same parallels; and even at New Orleans, where the summer heats are intense, a winter seldom passes without frost. Snow, however, rarely falls further S. than lat. 36°, nor is it often seen S. of the Potomac river, except on mountains. (*Encyc. Amer.*) According to Berghaus, the mean annual temp. of Albany is about 45° Fahr.; of Philadelphia, 51° of New York and Cincinnati, nearly 54°; of Natchez, 69°; and of Cantonment Brooke, in Florida, 75°. (*Alg. Lander, &c.*, i. 325-365.) The prevalent winds are from the N.W., S.W., and S.E. The first is by far the driest and coldest, and predominates in winter. The second prevails throughout the basin of the Mississippi for most part of the year, except during about 2 months of the winter season. The N.E. wind brings moisture, particularly in the N. part of the Union. The rains are much heavier than in most parts of Europe, resembling, rather, the torrents of tropical countries. According to Darby, the mean annual fall of rain in the Union S. of (the Mississippi) is about 57½ inches; that of N.W. Europe amounting to 31-32 inches; but evaporation is quicker, and there are more dry days in the year in the United States than in Great Britain.

The temperature in the country along the Pacific is a good deal higher than along the corresponding latitudes on the E. coast. The year is divided into two seasons; the wet, extending from April to November, and the dry. In the former, the rains, though not by any means continuous, are frequent and heavy. In the E. parts of the coast the dry season commences sooner and continues longer than in those more to the N.

Vegetable Products.—The forests of the E. section of this great territory comprise 140 different kinds of trees, of which 80 are said to attain the height of 60 ft. and upwards. Among them are numerous species of oak, ash, and pine, the hickory and tulip tree, American cypress, and plane; several magnolias, walnuts, &c. In respect to its vegetable products, the country, E. the Rocky Mountains, may be divided into the following regions:—

Regions.	Products.
Northern: N. of lat. 44°	Birch, American elm, red and white pine, numerous willows, sugar, and other maples; many herbaceous plants common to N. Europe and Siberia: few climbing or peculiar aquatic plants.
Middle: From lat. 44° to 35°	Numerous oaks, hickory, and ash trees, W. plane, white cedar, fever willow, mannafrax, witch hazel, red maple, yellow birch, nurse climbing and herbaceous plants, and many fine flowering aquatics.
Southern: From lat. 35° to 27°	Many of the foregoing, deciduous cypress, <i>C. rostrata</i> , <i>Aquilegia grandis</i> , five salt swamp hickory; very many climbing, herbaceous, and aquatic plants. S. of lat. 27° the character of N. America merges in that of tropical vegetation.

Apples, pears, cherries, plums, &c., flourish in the N.; pomegranates, melons, figs, grapes, olives, almonds, oranges, &c., in the E. section. Maize is grown from Maine to Louisiana, and wheat throughout the Union; tobacco as far N. as about lat. 40°, and in the W. States S. of Ohio. Cotton is not much raised N. of 37°, though it grows to 29°. Rice is cultivated in Carolina, Georgia, Louisiana, and as far N. as St. Louis in Missouri. The sugar-cane grows as high as 33°, but does not thoroughly succeed beyond 31° 30'. The vine and mulberry tree grow in various parts of the Union; oats, rye, and barley in all the N. and the mountainous parts of the S. states; and hemp, flax, and hops, in the W. and middle states. The cultivation of these crops, &c. will be treated of hereafter.

The Animal Kingdom comprises the buffalo (*Bos Americanus*), and the musk ox (*Bos moschatus*). The former, though its numbers have of late years been greatly reduced, is still found in the boundless prairies W. of the Mississippi in very large herds. Among the other quadrupeds are the moose, or American elk (*Cervus alces*), the prong-horned antelope, peculiar to N. America; the Virginian deer, cougar, black and grisly bears, American fox (*Fuupes fulvus*), racoon, opossum, beaver, skunk, glutton, &c. Among the birds are the white-banded eagle, several vultures, and a great many birds common to the old world, though few of the wading species resemble those of Europe. The alligator (*Croc. lucius*) is a native of the S. states, but does not occur N. of the Carolinas and the Red River. The rattle-snake is among the serpents of the United States, and the *sirens* is a native of the muddy pools of Georgia and Carolina. Cod, mackerel, salmon, &c. abound on the shores; and shellfish are particularly abundant in the rivers of the Mississippi basin. The domestic animals of the States are the same as in Europe. (*Encyc. of Geog.*, Amer. edit.)

Geology and Minerals.—The White Mountains consist of granite, which is also very prevalent in the greater part of New Hampshire and Maine. The Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada consist principally of granite intermixed with volcanic matter. Silente, porphyry, and greenstone occur in the N.W. part of the Appalachian chain; gneiss forms the upper regions in New York and New Jersey; most of the mountain summits S. of the Juniata river consist of feucoidal sandstone; and talcose mica, chlorite, and other slates, with crystalline limestone and serpentine, lie along the W. side of the primary belt, in the middle and S. parts of the Union. Blue limestone, red sandstone, shales, anthracite, coal-measures, and other transition formations, flank these rocks in many places. Secondary strata occupy by far the largest portion of the U. States; but no strata corresponding in date with the new red sandstone or oolitic groups of Europe appear to be present. Tertiary formations, many of which abound with fossil remains, have been found in many parts of the Atlantic slope, and in Alabama, &c.; in the S. part of the Mississippi basin; but they seem to be almost exclusively confined to those regions. The most extensive and remarkable alluvial tract is that around the mouth of the Mississippi. If we except a few small insulated fields, all the bituminous coal in the U. States lies W. of the Appalachian chain, where a vast series of coal-beds stretch from the mountains westward through Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, and parts of Kentucky and Alabama, into the state of Missouri and even as far as 200 m. beyond the Mississippi! Anthracite coal, or that best suited for manufactures, &c., lies at the N. extremity of this great field, in Pennsylvania, and in the W. part of Virginia, the E. part of Ohio, and Illinois. The production of the latter has increased with such rapidity, that while the yield of the Pennsylvania mines amounted, in 1840, to 867,043 tons, it had increased, in 1849, to 3,242,641 tons! At this moment (1850) the entire produce of coal in the U. States may, perhaps, be estimated at about 5,500,000 tons. Numerous salt springs exist in New York, Virginia, Pennsylvania, and the W. states; the produce of those of Onondaga in the former having amounted, in 1839, to 4,358,919 bushels. Iron is distributed most abundantly through the coal measures in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Virginia, Tennessee, &c., where the ore contains from 25 to 33 per cent. of metal, though it has hitherto been little wrought. It also abounds in the N.W. states, and in one part of Vermont the ore is said to yield 78 per cent. iron. A large proportion of the ore found in this part of the Union is magnetic. The produce of pig iron, in 1840, was estimated at 367,560 tons; and as the make has increased rapidly in the interval, it may now (1850) be probably estimated at 500,000 tons. Lead is next in importance; it is found in various places, especially in Missouri, Wisconsin and Illinois; and its average annual produce may be estimated at about 14,000 tons. In some parts of Wisconsin the lead ore is so very rich as to yield from 60 to 70 per cent. of lead. Copper has been found in large deposits in the state of Michigan, in the peninsula which stretches into Lake Superior. Immense sheets, or walls of native copper, occur in some of the mines in this district; and it is a curious fact that, though only recently re-discovered, they had evidently been opened and wrought at a remote period by the Indians. At present about 6,400 tons copper are annually imported into the U. States. But the probability seems to be that the re-opened mines, which are being wrought with great vigour, will speedily be able not only to supply the home demand for copper, but also to furnish a large surplus for exportation. (*Johnston's Notes*, &c., i. 284.) Gold has been found in certain parts of Virginia, both Carolina, Georgia, and Tennessee; but its importance has been much exaggerated: the value of the quantity produced, which, in 1834, amounted to 838,000 doll., fell off in 1840 to 176,766 doll. Latterly, however, has been found in extraordinary quantities in the rivers and ravines at the foot of the W. slope of the Sierra Nevada, in California; and the fortunes that have been made by many of those engaged in the "diggings" have given such a stimulus to immigration that it has already led to the introduction of California as a state into the Union. Quicksilver, copper, zinc, manganese, with lime, building-stone, &c., constitute the other chief mineral products. Substances of volcanic origin appear to be rarely, if ever, found in the U. States, E. of the Rocky Mountains.

No account has yet been published, on which it would be safe to rely, of the produce of gold in California. Down to August last (1850), 24,508,454 doll. of Californian gold had been coined at the mint of the U. States and its branches. But this is only a portion of the total supply, very large quantities of bullion having been shipped for Europe and other parts; and great, though unknown, quantities having, also, been carried away by emigrants leaving California. Perhaps we may safely estimate the total produce of 1849 and 1850, at not less than 8,000,000, to 10,000,000, sterling a year! The estimates of the

future supplies from California differ very widely, and are, in fact, mere guesses. It would appear, however, that latterly the supplies are not increasing; and unless new deposits should be discovered, it is reasonable to suppose, notwithstanding their great extent, that those which are now being wrought will become less and less productive.

Population.—The progress of population in the U. States has been rapid beyond any previous example. This, however, may be easily explained, from the peculiar circumstances under which they have been placed. They have the good fortune to possess an all but boundless extent of fruitful soil, and a climate which, as it is, speaking generally, neither too hot nor too cold, is most favourable to the exercise of industry; they are, also, well situated for commerce, and enjoy an almost unequalled extent of inland navigation; and at the period of its discovery this vast country, possessing such natural advantages, was occupied only by a few thousand miserable savages. The colonists who left this country to settle in America had, therefore, after the difficulties incident to the foundation of the first settlements had been got over, unparalleled opportunities for increasing in wealth and population. They carried with them the science and the arts of the most civilised nations of the old world; and they applied them to the culture of a virgin and unoccupied soil. Each colonist got as much land as he could cultivate or occupy without being subject to any charge for lordship or rent, at the same time that his taxes were quite inconsiderable. In fact, all that the colonists had to do was to provide for their internal government, as Britain took upon herself and defrayed the cost of their defence against foreign aggression. She, also, supplied them with manufactured products at the lowest possible rates, so that they were able to apply all their energies to agriculture, which, under the circumstances, was especially profitable. In such a state of things, the demand for labour could not be otherwise than astonishingly great; for a high rate of wages, combined with a facility of procuring land, speedily changes the labourers into landlords, who, in their turn, become the employers of fresh labourers. Under such circumstances every man might enter into matrimonial engagements without being deterred, as in old settled and densely peopled countries, by the fear of not being able to provide for the children that might be expected to spring from them. In America, indeed, and in all similarly situated countries, a large family is a source of wealth; marriages, in consequence, are at once comparatively general and early. And in addition to the extraordinary stimulus thus given to the principle of population in the United States, they have been ever since their settlement a "land of promise," to which industrious and ambitious individuals in depressed circumstances have been emigrating from Europe; and they have, also, been "a city of refuge," in which the victims and the foes of political or religious intolerance have found a secure asylum.

It is true that the progress of population in the *ci-devant* Spanish colonies has been much less rapid than in the English colonies; but the differences in their situation have not been less considerable than the points of resemblance, and are quite sufficient to account for the different rate at which their population has increased. The Spanish colonies were placed under the most degrading system of civil and religious intolerance; their industry and freedom of action were interfered with in a thousand different ways; and all emigration to them from foreign

countries, and, in fact, all intercourse with the latter, was strictly prohibited. The English colonies, on the other hand, have always enjoyed a remarkably free system of government; their mental and physical energies have been allowed to expand without let or hindrance; and they have been always open to all classes and descriptions of immigrants, not from England only, but from all the world. We need not, therefore, wonder at the more rapid progress of the latter, or at the fact that they have gone on for a lengthened period doubling their population once in every 25 years!

It is, however, to be observed, that this rate of increase, though it prevails at an average of the entire Union, does not prevail in each particular state. Indeed the western are now, in respect to the eastern states, what the latter formerly were in respect to Europe,—a field to which the impoverished, enterprising, industrious, and adventurous are glad to resort. There is, in fact, a constant emigration current setting from the eastern to the western states. And hence, while population is now but slowly increasing, in the old settled parts of the country, it is advancing with unprecedented rapidity in the valley of the Mississippi, and the territory to the W. of that great river. And the fair presumption is that this progress will continue till the country be occupied westward to the Pacific, or, which is the same thing, till the existing facilities for the support and employment of additional inhabitants begin to fail; when new habits and a slower rate of increase will, no doubt, also, begin to manifest themselves. We subjoin a [see table top of p. 847.]

We borrow from the American edition of the *Encyclopædia of Geography* the following details with respect to slavery in the U. States:—

"Slavery has been abolished in the eastern states, and prospectively in New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey, and has never been permitted in the north-western states. By the laws of Pennsylvania, all persons born within that state since 1780 are free, but the children of a slave are subject to a limited servitude to her owner. In New Jersey, every child born in the state after July 4, 1804, is declared to be free, and the traffic in slaves between that and other states was prohibited in 1798. The revised laws of New York declare that every person born in that state is free, and that all persons brought into the state, except for a limited period, become free; and no person can sell any other person in that state. Provision is, however, made in these and the other non-slaveholding states for the delivery of runaway slaves from the other states. The ordinance for the government of the territory north-west of the River Ohio passed in 1787 prohibits for ever the introduction of slavery into that tract of country, in which four states have already been formed with this prohibition incorporated in their constitution. The introduction of slaves from abroad was prohibited by Virginia in 1798, and by Congress into the Mississippi Territory in the same year. In 1808 the importation of slaves into the U. States was forbidden; and it is believed that the number since clandestinely introduced into the country has been very small. Slavery may be said to exist in thirteen states: Delaware, Maryland, Missouri, Arkansas, and all the states S. of the Potomac and the Ohio. The slaves form rather more than one third of the whole pop. in the states in which the institution exists, but they are unequally distributed, although the white pop. generally predominates. In Missouri, Tennessee, and Kentucky, the whites are to the slaves in the proportion of about 4 to 1; in Maryland, of about 3 to 1; in North Carolina, of about 2 to 1; and in Virginia, rather less; in Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, the whites are little superior, and in South Carolina and Louisiana, a little inferior, in number to the slaves. Louisiana and other states have prohibited the introduction of slaves from the other states, except by an immigrant proprietor; but there is an active traffic in slaves carried on between the different states, consisting chiefly in their exportation from the worn-out tracts of more northern and eastern to the new cotton lands of the southern districts.

"In the slave-holding states slaves are chattels personal, except in Louisiana, and, with certain qualifications, may be sold to pay the debts and bequests of their master.

Statement exhibiting the Area of the different States and Territories comprised within the limits of the Union in 1850, with the Progress of Population in each from 1790 downwards.

States and Territories.	Area in Sq. m.	Population.						
		1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
<i>States.</i>								
1. Maine	35,000	96,540	151,719	228,705	396,335	569,055	801,793	889,826
2. New Hampshire	8,280	141,886	183,656	214,460	344,161	509,338	684,574	818,003
3. Vermont	9,380	85,530	154,465	217,893	353,784	580,032	821,948	914,532
4. Massachusetts	7,800	378,787	422,845	472,040	522,287	610,008	737,699	994,734
5. Rhode Island	1,350	68,819	69,124	76,301	83,059	97,199	106,830	147,548
6. Connecticut	4,700	237,946	251,005	281,919	325,948	395,755	509,973	570,915
7. New York	45,650	540,180	686,050	959,049	1,279,512	1,918,008	2,499,221	3,098,518
8. New Jersey	6,900	184,139	211,149	245,562	377,115	520,233	675,306	889,920
9. Pennsylvania	66,900	434,373	602,545	810,091	1,049,513	1,348,353	1,724,053	2,511,204
10. Delaware	2,070	89,096	64,875	78,574	78,749	76,748	78,083	90,009
11. Maryland	10,800	319,728	345,894	380,546	407,530	447,400	469,222	583,016
12. Virginia	65,000	747,610	880,800	974,622	1,035,566	1,211,005	1,238,797	1,400,000*
13. North Carolina	51,000	395,961	478,103	535,900	638,939	737,867	783,419	760,000
14. South Carolina	31,000	249,073	345,591	415,115	507,741	581,185	664,398	630,000
15. Georgia	36,000	82,548	161,686	252,433	340,989	516,423	691,292	920,000
16. Florida	84,300	-	-	-	-	34,720	54,777	67,000
17. Alabama	51,000	-	8,850	40,362	117,901	209,227	360,752	530,000
18. Mississippi	47,000	-	-	40,362	75,445	136,321	375,651	690,000
19. Louisiana	68,500	-	-	76,566	163,407	212,789	302,411	450,000
20. Texas	60,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	150,000
21. Arkansas	43,260	-	105,602	1,062	14,473	30,388	97,574	185,000
22. Tennessee	43,260	-	105,602	261,727	420,813	681,904	829,210	1,050,000
23. Kentucky	39,000	73,677	220,359	406,511	564,317	687,917	779,829	995,000
24. Ohio	38,830	-	45,565	230,760	381,484	587,905	767,038	1,301,940
25. Michigan	60,500	-	551	4,762	4,896	31,639	112,267	297,576
26. Indiana	35,100	-	4,631	24,620	147,178	343,031	645,866	990,238
27. Illinois	59,000	-	215	13,222	55,311	157,155	476,183	850,000
28. Missouri	61,000	-	-	19,783	66,506	140,445	283,170	681,547
29. Iowa	51,000	-	-	-	-	-	43,112	192,000
30. Wisconsin	54,000	-	-	-	-	-	30,945	205,596
31. California	100	-	15,083	24,023	33,039	39,854	43,712	200,000
<i>Territories.</i>								
1. Oregon	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	301,485
2. Minnesota	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3. Utah	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4. New Mexico	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Totals		3,929,728	5,309,758	7,239,905	9,638,166	12,966,990	17,062,566	23,138,454

* Some of these returns are only approximate.

Slaves.—Of the 23,138,454 inhab. belonging to the U. States in 1850, no fewer than 3,067,286 were slaves. We subjoin an

Account of the Number of Slaves in the different States and Territories comprised within the Union, at the different Enumerations from 1790 downwards:—

States.	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
New Hampshire -	158	8	-	-	-	1	-
Vermont -	17	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rhode Island -	952	281	105	48	75	-	-
Connecticut -	4,736	361	310	97	17	17	-
New York -	21,294	30,343	15,017	10,000	17	4	-
New Jersey -	11,422	12,422	10,651	7,557	2,554	674	52
Pennsylvania -	3,737	1,706	795	211	403	64	-
Delaware -	8,287	4,143	4,177	4,309	5,329	2,565	770
Maryland -	103,036	106,635	111,402	107,398	102,294	80,495	90,333
Virginia -	303,427	345,796	292,518	426,153	469,707	448,987	460,000
North Carolina -	106,573	133,595	168,814	205,017	245,401	245,817	280,000
South Carolina -	107,024	146,161	195,355	228,476	215,401	217,038	230,000
Georgia -	29,264	59,404	105,218	149,656	217,231	280,944	366,000
Alabama -	-	-	-	41,879	117,249	203,522	330,000
Mississippi -	-	5,489	17,088	35,814	65,859	138,211	200,000
Louisiana -	-	-	34,660	68,064	109,588	168,422	200,000
Arkansas -	-	-	-	1,617	4,276	19,955	45,000
Tennessee -	3,417	15,584	44,335	80,107	141,603	183,099	280,000
Kentucky -	11,830	40,343	80,561	126,732	165,313	182,258	311,000
Ohio -	-	-	24	190	32	5	-
Michigan -	-	-	237	190	-	-	-
Indiana -	-	135	166	917	747*	331	-
Illinois -	-	-	-	-	-	66,240	91,547
Missouri -	-	-	3,011	10,222	25,081	4,694	-
District Columbia -	-	5,944	5,365	6,377	6,119	85,717	21,000
Florida -	-	-	-	-	15,501	11	-
Wisconsin -	-	-	-	-	-	16	-
Iowa -	-	-	-	-	-	-	50,000
Texas -	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,500
District of Columbia and Territories	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Totals	607,897	805,041	1,191,364	1,538,064	2,009,031	2,467,115	3,067,286

* Not slaves, but "indentured coloured servants."

Slavery is hereditary, and the servitude of the mother determines that of the child. When a coloured person claims to be a freeman, the burden of proof is thrown upon him, his colour being, *a priori*, a sufficient indication of slavery. The life and person of the slave are protected by law under the same penalties as those of whites, but the master or overseer may punish minor offences by flogging; for greater offences, the slaves are tried by justices of the peace and from two to five freeholders. The slave can make no contracts, nor can he legally hold any property; the instruction of slaves is prohibited by law, but they often receive some education from the members of the family, and they are generally allowed to attend public worship, which must be conducted by a white. There are in all the states restraints upon manumission, as a pop. of free blacks is felt to be dangerous to

the subordination of the slaves. Although some of the laws relating to slaves are severe, it is to be observed that many of these are not enforced, or are of very rare application. There are various laws restraining cruel punishments or tasks, and prescribing suitable food and clothing for the slaves; but their best security is in the force of custom and public opinion, and in the humanity and interest of their masters. They are in general humanely and even kindly treated, well fed, and lightly worked; they are commonly allowed a little patch of ground to cultivate for their own benefit; they may raise poultry and hogs, which, with the produce of their farm, they may sell to the family or elsewhere at their option; in this way they often acquire a little property, or expend their earnings in ornaments. It is a sufficient proof of their general ease in this country, that their numbers

have increased with amazing rapidity, and that many of them live to a great age. "All those," says Paulding, "who have visited the states in which slavery prevails, whatever may have been their previous impressions of the horrors of that condition, must have been struck with the uniform hilarity and cheerfulness which prevail among the blacks." Labouring generally in large numbers together, they partake of the influence which companionship always exercises over man, the most social of all beings. In the meadows and harvest fields they lighten their labours by songs, the measures of which accord with the strokes of the cradle and scythe; and in whatever employment they may be associated, they are always joking, quizzing, or bantering each other. The children enjoy a life of perfect ease, and are maintained by the produce of the land which belongs to them and theirs. The parents, being freed from all anxiety or exertion for the present or future support of their offspring, are never beset by the gnawing cares of the free white man, whose whole life is one continued effort to provide for himself and his children. The aged and infirm are also taken care of by the master, either from the dictates of his own humanity, or the obligation imposed on him by law.

"The slaves do not work on Sundays, and they have generally several days—Christmas, Easter, and Whitsunday, and often other holidays. The usual hours of labour are from sunrise to sunset,—with about two or three hours' intermission at breakfast and dinner, according to the season and the nature of the work; they frequently gain a day by doing the task of three days in two, and women with a certain number of children are allowed some further indulgences. Their food and clothing vary in different sections of the country, but they generally receive from nine to twelve quarts of Indian corn a week, with bacon and salt fish; instead of the corn, a bushel of sweet potatoes or two pecks of peaddy are given by way of change, and on the rice plantations rice is the principal article of food. For clothing each man receives six or seven yards of woollen cloth, each woman five or six, and the children in proportion; a new blanket is given to each grown person, and one for every two children, once in two years, and in winter a handkerchief is given to the women, and a cap to the men. A suit of cotton or linen clothes is also allowed in summer. On every plantation there is a nurse, and the overseer has a chest of medicines. The marriages of the slaves are merely a connection subsisting during pleasure. Their amusements are chiefly music and dancing, many of them being able to play and sing in a rude manner."

But this, though on the whole a pretty fair statement, certainly sets the condition of the slaves in too favourable a point of view. The truth is, that the American legislators have done but little for the protection of the slave against the tyranny and caprice of his master; and that little is in a great measure defeated by the prejudices of the people, and the difficulties which the partiality of the law throws in the way of getting evidence sufficient for the legal conviction of a master of whose guilt no doubt can be entertained. We do not, however, suppose that acts of cruelty and ill treatment are more common in the U. States than in most other countries where slavery exists; but it is idle to imagine, where there is such tremendous power on the one hand, and nothing but abject submission on the other, that the former should not be sometimes abused.

But if the treatment of slaves by their masters be, on the whole, favourable, nothing can be said in favour of their treatment by the law. Whether it be that the rapidly increasing magnitude of their numbers has alarmed the legislatures of the states in which they are most numerous, or that they are resolved that slavery shall be maintained at all hazards without any relaxation, certain it is that the legal condition of the slaves has, in most of the slave-holding states, been latterly altered for the worse; and that few or no measures have been taken either for their moral or religious improvement. In 1830, the legislature of Louisiana passed certain laws in relation to slaves, in which, among other things, their instruction in reading and writing is expressly forbidden; and in which the penalty of death, or of imprisonment at hard labour for life, or, at least, for three years, is denounced against every

one who shall print, publish, or distribute anything "having a tendency" to create insubordination among the slaves, or who shall use any language in any public discourse from the bar, the bench, the stage, or the pulpit, or in private, having the above-mentioned tendency! (*Stuart's America*, ii. 208.) And laws of an equally severe character have been enacted in most of the other slave-holding states. People of colour, including all who have any taint, how slight soever, of African blood, are, also, almost everywhere treated with contempt, and are deprived of various privileges enjoyed by the whites.

It is as impossible to foresee, as it would be presumptuous to conjecture, how this state of things may terminate. It seems, however, to be reasonable to suppose, seeing the rapid growth of the black population, that it will be extremely difficult to maintain the existing constitution of society, without incurring the most imminent hazard of servile wars and of the most formidable outrages. But it is easier to point out the probable consequences of maintaining the present order of things, than to suggest the means by which they may be obviated. This is a problem that has puzzled, and will, no doubt, continue for a lengthened period to puzzle, American legislators and philosophers. But, perhaps, on the whole, the best and safest plan would be gradually to modify the severity of the laws against blacks, to hinder the separation of families, to endeavour to improve their moral and religious habits, to enable them to accumulate a little property, and to train them up for that entire or modified emancipation which sooner or later most likely awaits them. The subject, however, is one that should be approached with extreme caution. And though we do not state it in the view either of justifying the existence of slavery or of extenuating the abuses to which it has given rise, it will, we apprehend, be found to be impossible to continue the cultivation of the southern states on the same scale and with the same vigour that it is now conducted without the aid of slaves of one kind or other. The climate is too hot and the labour too severe to be voluntarily undertaken. It has, we are aware, been alleged, over and over again, that slavery has retarded the progress of Virginia, the Carolinas, and other S. states. But there is really no foundation whatever for this allegation. New York and the middle and northern states, that have so rapidly advanced without the aid of slaves, are placed under totally different circumstances. They are to Louisiana, Alabama, Mississippi, &c., what England is to Jamaica. Branches of industry suited to the one are not suited to the other; and that field labour which may, without difficulty, be carried on in the New England states, New York, and Pennsylvania, would be oppressive and all but intolerable in the states lying along the Gulf of Mexico. But, as stated above, we do not mention this in vindication of slavery, or as an apology for the cruelties of slave-masters. This probable consequence of the abolition of slavery should, however, be kept in view by those who would fairly estimate its real influence. The dangers of rebellion, anarchy, and bloodshed, are not the only contingencies American statesmen have to guard against in dealing with the blacks; they must, also, keep in view the probable influence of their acts on the productive energies and trade of the country; and should endeavour, in as far as possible, to combine with the maintenance of the latter a proper respect, for the rights and interests of humanity.

Whatever may be the influence in other respects of the strong prejudice entertained in the U. States by the Whites against the Blacks, it has, at all events, the good effect of preventing any very extensive admixture of the races; and, consequently, of preserving the European blood in a state of comparative purity.

The rapid increase of population, and particularly the continual extension of the white settlers further W., will, ere long, go far to extinguish the native races. The Sioux Indians, estimated at 27 000 or 28,000, still hold their ground W. of the Mississippi; and nearly all the region from that river to the Rocky Mountains, and from the Arkansas to the head waters of the Missouri, are inhabited by nations more or less connected with them; but of the tribes formerly inhabiting the country E. of the Mississippi, few remnants exist. Of the quoniam and Algonquins, there are now estimated to be only about 8,000 individuals in all, chiefly in New York, and the New England States. Further S. a few Cherokees, Chickasaws, &c. still occupy their original seats; but a war of extermination has been latterly carried on against the Indians of Florida, provoked in a great measure by their hostility to the whites; and it is stated, "from the Tennessee to the Lakes, and from the Des Moines to the Gulf of Mexico, scarcely a drop of Indian blood remains within the limits of the States." (*Encyc. of Geog.*) The Indians who remain within the States are allowed to retain their own government, laws, &c., but inducements have been held out to them either to become citizens of the states in which they reside, or to emigrate to the Platte country, W. of Arkansas and Missouri, where lands have been provided for the purpose; and where they are supplied with agricultural implements, and other necessities of civilised life. In 1835, about 31,300 Indians had migrated thither; and the number remaining within the States at the same period was estimated at rather more than 150,000.

Land and Agriculture.—In the N. States, extensive landholders are not common; and where they exist, a great part of their possessions is unproductive. The soil is chiefly cultivated by its owners, who in many respects resemble the tenants of Scotland, and often perform a great portion of the manual labour of the farm. But in many parts of the country, which have been long settled, the farmers are opulent, and hire a good deal of labour; and in the more recently settled tracts they do not labour hard after the first 3 or 4 years from their settlement. (*Shirreff's Tour in N. America*, p. 340.) In the S. states are larger; and in the rice plantations of Louisiana, a single field sometimes comprises 300 or 400 acres (1 *Plant.*). The price of land is very variable: near Philadelphia land of fine quality and in high condition may be had at from 100 to 120 dollars an acre; but there produce of all kinds fetches a high price; and the straw of a wheat crop has been sold at 30 dollars per acre. In some parts of New York, as near Canandaigua, 25 doll. an acre is asked for fine cleared land; but in other parts of the same state land is sometimes sold by auction at 14 doll.; and Mr. Shirreff attended a sale in New York at which 35,000 acres in the co. St. Lawrence were knocked down in one lot at 1s. 14d. sterling per acre! (*Shirreff*, p. 316.) Almost every farmer in the E. states who has a family, or is in straitened circumstances, is willing to sell his land, and move to the W. states, where he can obtain soil of an equal or better quality, and in a finer climate, usually at one twentieth part of the price. In Michigan, &c., though the prairie lands sometimes fetch from 3 to 6 doll. an acre, the government upset price is only 14 doll.; and the rich land in Illinois, and elsewhere in the Union, is often to be had at the same low rate. The terms of rent, at least in the N., are almost equally variable. Near towns, and in thickly peopled districts, a small rent is paid in money, and at lease several years taken. In remote situations, land is commonly let in shares from year to year. If the owner of the soil furnish seed and labouring animals, he gets two thirds of the produce; if the tenant supply animals and seed, the landowner gets one third. But terms may vary according to situation, soil, and crop." (*Shirreff's N. Amer., passim.*)

The quantity of land unoccupied within the U. States is of prodigious extent. The cleared land is, indeed, quite inconsiderable, as compared with the whole surface. In the country E. of the Alleghanies, which, however, is but of very limited extent, all the land worth occupying belongs to private individuals. But even of this, a great part is covered with forest; and in all situations near a village, or where there is ready access to water-carriage, forest land is more valuable than that which has been cleared, fuel, in many places, having latterly become very dear. Except on the banks of the rivers, the soil E. of the mountains is generally so inferior, that much of the land covered with wood is not worth cultivating; and should the trees be cut down, it is likely to remain in pasturage,

or be preserved as a forest for the production of new trees. The price of farms, however, varies from 5l. to 30l. an acre, according to the quality of soil, buildings, and situation. This part of the States has a comparatively abundant supply of labour, and a ready market for all kinds of produce. Market-gardening and dairy husbandry are here the most profitable branches of industry.

The soil W. of the Alleghanies is generally much superior to that on their E. side; and large tracts produce, for a while at least, Indian corn and wheat without manure. Almost all the land in the K. part of this region belongs to private individuals, though a large proportion be still covered with forest trees. On the W. side of the Mississippi, the greater part by far of the country is public property; but in either case great quantities of land are always in the market. Labour can generally be had, except in the extreme W. Farm produce is in constant demand, and prices are regulated by the markets of New Orleans, to which it is sent by the Mississippi; these being in part governed by the prices on the E. coast, and in part by those of the Havannah and other great W. Indian ports. Manures are seldom used except near the larger towns. The price of farms of an equal quality of soil vary according to their distance from the means of transport, from a dollar to 12l. the acre. The money wages of labour may be stated to be nearly the same from the E. to the extreme W., any difference being towards a rise in the W. But land is there so cheap, that every prudent labourer is able to purchase a farm for himself in a year or two, and it is only the imprudent who continue labourers. (*Shirreff*, 306—308.)

Speaking generally, agriculture is little known as a science in any part of America, and but imperfectly understood as an art; and it could not rationally be expected that it should be otherwise. In all those countries in which, as in the greater part of America, portions of fertile and unoccupied land may be obtained for little more than a nominal price, the invariable practice is, after clearing and breaking up a piece of land, to subject it to a course of continuous cropping; and when it is exhausted, to resort to some other tract of new ground, leaving that which has been abandoned to recover itself by the aid of the *vis medicatrix nature*! But in those parts of the Eastern or Atlantic States that have been long settled, and are fully occupied, this scourging system can no longer be advantageously followed; and there, consequently, a better system of agriculture is beginning to be introduced; and a rotation of crops, and the manuring of land, are practised sometimes with more and sometimes with less success. Still, however, it is certain that even in the best farmed districts agriculture is in a very backward state; and, except where the land is naturally of a very superior quality, the produce is scanty indeed, compared what is obtained in this country. In illustration of what is now stated we beg to subjoin

An Account of the average Produce per Acre of the Corn Crops in the State of New York, as published in a late Report by the "State Agricultural Society," in Contrast with what is believed to be the Produce of similar Crops in this Country.

Produce.		New York.	England.
Wheat	bushels per acre	14	30 or 32
Barley	—	16	32
Oats	—	36	40
Indian corn	—	25	none

It results from this statement that the returns per acre are about twice as great in this country as in New York, which has some of the best corn growing land in the Union. In Ohio, which is supposed to be the most productive of all the states, the results are similar, the produce of wheat and barley in it being respectively 15½ and 24 bushels an acre. It is true, no doubt, that these returns may be increased; but this can only be done, if it be done at all, by the employment of greater capital and skill in the culture of the land. And in the meantime the New York farmers, and those of the

other Atlantic States, have to withstand the competition of their neighbours in the newly-formed states on the Mississippi and Missouri, where the best land is subjected to the scourging treatment already referred to. But in these states, though the land be cheap, the produce per acre is, in most cases, very small. In Michigan, for example, it appears, from a return published by the state legislature in 1849, that the average produce of wheat per acre does not exceed 10 and 1-5th bushels, being less than 9 bushels an acre when seed is deducted! It would further appear from the best attainable information on the subject, that if we take the produce of the new states generally at 12 or 13 bushels per imp. acre, we shall not be within, but beyond, the mark. And though it be very difficult and, perhaps, impossible, to anticipate with any degree of confidence what may be the ultimate result of this infertility, or in what degree it may be defeated or modified by future discoveries and improvements, we are, in the meantime, disposed to concur with Mr. Johnston* in thinking that the wheat-producing powers of the U. States have been greatly exaggerated; and that at no very distant period their exports of wheat and flour will, if they do not cease altogether, become comparatively inconsiderable.

In the course of 25 years from this date the pop. of the Union will most likely amount to or exceed 46,000,000; and what with this enormous increase in the demand for corn, and the abusive treatment to which the land is subjected, we see but little ground for the fears so generally entertained in regard to the injury to be inflicted on the agriculture of Europe, and especially on that of England, by the importation of American corn. It is not so much, indeed, in the importations of wheat and flour as in those of maize or Indian corn, that the importance of the American supply has lately been manifested. And these have been mainly occasioned by the failure of the potato crops, and the wretched state to which the pop. dependent on them has been reduced. Very few of those who have been consumers of wheat, barley, or oats, have resorted to Indian corn. And the presumption is that it will rarely be imported in large quantities, except when the potato is deficient, or to supply those who have no means of obtaining the higher-priced varieties of corn.

"I have said," says Mr. Johnston, "that the wheat-exporting capabilities of the Union are lessening rather than increasing, though it may be 10 years or more before the falling off becomes very distinctly sensible. The main reasons for this opinion are: 1st. That the virgin soils are already, to a considerable extent, exhausted of their first freshness, and that a comparatively expensive culture, likely to make corn more costly, must be adopted, if their productiveness is to be brought back and maintained; 2nd, that the new settlers live poorly and hardly at first, and, as their wheat is the only thing that they have to sell, confine themselves for some seasons to potatoes, buckwheat, and Indian corn, and send the wheat to market; but as they become more easy in their circumstances, retain more of this grain for their own consumption, while they produce it also at a greater cost; and 3d, that as the population increases, that of wheat-consuming individuals, who do not raise their own food, increases also, and thus every year a larger proportion of wheaten food will be required and retained at home." (*Notes*, &c. ii. 336.)

* See his valuable and important work, *Notes on N. America, Agricultural, Economical, and Social*, i. 172, ii. 334, &c.

According to the official returns, which, however, are but little to be depended on, there were raised in the Union, in 1848, 114,475,000 bushels of potatoes. Near Philadelphia, and in many other parts of the Union, Mr. Stuart says that, in appearance at least, the farms and buildings are like those seen in England and Scotland, except that thorn hedges and other fences are often wanting. The official returns make the total produce of wheat in the Union, in 1848, 126,964,600 bush., or 15,795,575 quarters.

Maize is the great staple of American husbandry, and it grows on soil, not particularly rich, as respects other products, for a succession of years, without manure, in all the vigour and luxuriance of an indigenous plant. It has been justly called the "meal, meadow, and manure" of the farm, as it is used for both human food and the supply of the farm stock in winter; and furnishes more nourishment for man or beast on a given space, and with less labour, than any other bread-corn. But it is not successfully cultivated beyond lat. 43° N., where it begins to be superseded by the grains of Europe. The total produce of maize in the Union, in 1848, was estimated at 588,150,000 bush. Tennessee is the principal maize-growing state; and next to it are Ohio, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, &c.

The surface of the New England States is often hilly, and the soil rocky, or of the most inferior kind of sand. The principal crops are oats for horses, &c., and rye for distillation; the corn produce of these states being insufficient for the support of their inhabs. Boston, the largest corn and flour importing port in the Union receives nearly all her supplies of these articles from the S. states. We subjoin, [see table top of p. 852.]

The entire produce of the corn crops in the Union, in 1848, was reckoned at

Bushels of wheat	-	-	-	126,964,600
— barley	-	-	-	6,323,080
— oats	-	-	-	185,500,000
— rye	-	-	-	32,982,500
— buck-wheat	-	-	-	12,538,000
— Indian corn	-	-	-	588,150,000
Total bushels of grain	-	-	-	951,737,180

Tobacco is grown from lat. 39° or 40° throughout all the S., and in a part of the W. states; it is a staple product of Kentucky, Tennessee, Maryland, Virginia, and Missouri. The tobacco of the U. States is of very superior quality; but it is a crop which scourges the land, and the labour attending its cultivation is very severe. [*See VIRGINIA.*] Its aggr. produce in 1848 was estimated at 218,909,000 lbs.

Cotton and rice are the great staples of the S. part of the Union: the former has even supplanted the culture of tobacco in some of the cos. of Virginia.

A little cotton had been raised for domestic use in the Southern states, previously to the revolutionary war; but its produce was quite inconsiderable. In 1791 it began, for the first time, to be exported; the trifling quantity of 189,316 lbs. having been shipped in the course of that year, and 138,928 lbs. in 1792. Such was the late and feeble beginning of the American cotton trade! And we are warranted in saying that there is nothing in the history of industry to compare with its subsequent progress and extension, unless it be the growth of the manufacture in this country.

American cotton, the produce of the *Gossypium herbaceum*, is of two kinds, generally known by the names of *sea island* and *upland*. The former

UNITED STATES (THE).

An Official Account of the Produce of the principal Corn Crops raised in the States in 1848, as ascertained by Mr. Burke, Commissioner of Patents.

States and Territories.	Bushels of Wheat.	Bushels of Barley.	Bushels of Oats.	Bushels of Rye.	Bushels of Buck-wheat.	Bushels of Indian Corn.
Maine	900,000	230,000	2,000,000	200,000	80,000	3,000,000
New Hampshire	600,000	180,000	2,500,000	500,000	175,000	2,000,000
Massachusetts	260,000	175,000	2,300,000	750,000	145,000	3,800,000
Rhode Island	4,000	15,000	300,000	55,000	5,000	300,000
Connecticut	120,000	30,000	2,000,000	1,500,000	500,000	3,400,000
Vermont	680,000	60,000	2,300,000	370,000	350,000	3,500,000
New York	15,500,000	4,500,000	24,000,000	4,000,000	3,800,000	17,500,000
New Jersey	1,000,000	12,000	5,000,000	3,500,000	1,000,000	9,000,000
Pennsylvania	15,000,000	155,000	30,000,000	15,500,000	3,800,000	21,000,000
Delaware	450,000	4,000	700,000	65,000	16,000	8,000,000
Maryland	5,150,000	5,000	2,000,000	1,800,000	120,000	8,000,000
Virginia	10,250,000	94,000	11,000,000	1,800,000	270,000	38,000,000
North Carolina	2,450,000	4,800	4,000,000	300,000	20,000	25,000,000
South Carolina	1,400,000	4,800	1,500,000	60,000	-	15,000,000
Georgia	1,300,000	13,000	1,500,000	80,000	-	27,000,000
Alabama	1,300,000	7,000	2,000,000	85,000	-	28,000,000
Mississippi	550,000	2,500	1,500,000	30,000	-	10,000,000
Louisiana	-	-	2,500	-	-	17,000,000
Tennessee	9,000,000	6,800	10,500,000	400,000	24,000	76,000,000
Kentucky	1,500,000	20,000	15,000,000	2,800,000	18,000	65,000,000
Ohio	30,000,000	20,000	30,000,000	1,250,000	1,500,000	70,000,000
Indiana	8,500,000	42,000	17,000,000	300,000	11,000	45,000,000
Illinois	5,000,000	120,000	5,000,000	170,000	130,000	40,000,000
Missouri	5,000,000	15,000	7,000,000	90,000	80,000	25,000,000
Arkansas	1,100	-	500,000	10,000	-	8,000,000
Michigan	10,000,000	300,000	6,000,000	100,000	310,000	10,000,000
Florida	-	-	15,000	-	-	1,500,000
Wisconsin	1,000,000	55,000	1,500,000	10,000	40,000	8,000,000
Iowa	1,500,000	40,000	1,500,000	15,000	55,000	2,500,000
Texas	-	-	-	-	-	4,000,000
D. of Columbia	80,000	-	17,000	8,000	-	50,000
Oregon	100,000	-	-	-	-	1,000,000
Total, 1848	126,364,000	6,225,000	185,000,000	39,932,000	12,538,000	681,150,000
Total, 1847	114,245,500	6,519,250	167,567,000	30,772,700	11,673,900	539,538,000

grows along the low sandy islands off the shores of Carolina, Georgia, &c. It is long in the staple, has an even silky texture, a yellowish tinge, is easily separated from the seed, and is decidedly superior to every other description of cotton hitherto brought to market. Unluckily, however, it can be raised only in certain situations; so that its quantity is limited, and has not, in fact, been at all increased since 1805. At present 97 or 98 per cent. of the cotton produced in the United States consists of what is denominated upland, from its being grown on the comparatively high ground at a distance from the coast. Though of varying qualities, it is all short-stapled; and its separation from the seed and pod, if attempted by the hand, is so very difficult, that the cotton is hardly worth the trouble and expense. This, however, was the only way in which it could be made available for home use, or exportation, in 1791; and had any one then ventured to predict that 10,000,000 lbs. of upland cotton would ever be exported, he would have been looked upon as a visionary. But the genius of Mr. Eli Whitney did for the cotton planters of the United States, what Arkwright did for the manufacturers of England. He invented a machine by which the cotton wool is separated from the pod, and cleaned with the greatest

ease and expedition; and in this way may be said to have doubled the wealth and industry of his countrymen. (*Pittin's Statistics of the United States*, p. 109, ed. 1835.) Mr. Whitney's invention came into operation in 1793; and, in 1794, 1,601,760 lbs., and, in 1795, 5,276,300 lbs. of cotton were exported. The effect of the machine has been, like that of Arkwright, all but miraculous. The exports of cotton from America, during the year ending the 30th of June, 1849, reached the enormous amount of 1,026,602,269 lbs.; worth, when shipped, 66,396,976 dollars! And it is not going too far to say that, had not Whitney's or some equivalent machine been invented, there is no reason to think that the exports, during the above year, would have exceeded 50,000,000 lbs., if so much, so that the existence of the other 976,000,000 lbs., with the greater part of that retained for home consumption, may be ascribed to Mr. Whitney's machine, as to its real source and origin. American cotton is generally exported in bales, firmly packed, and containing each from 390 to 455 lbs. The quantity of cotton produced per acre varies, according to the American edition of the *Encyc. of Geog.*, on good lands, from 250 to 300 lbs., and on inferior lands from 125 to 150 lbs. We subjoin

An Account of the Export of Cotton from the U. States, in each Year, from 1891 to 1896, both inc.; showing, also, its Price per lb., and its Gross Value.

Years.	Exports in lbs.	Average Price per lb.	Total Value.	Years.	Exports in lbs.	Average Price per lb.	Total Value.
		Cents.	Dolls.			Cents.	Dolls.
1891	194,895,405	16-2	30,157,484	1896	428,631,207	16-2	71,284,225
1892	144,675,095	16-6	24,033,008	1897	444,211,537	14-2	63,240,102
1893	175,725,270	11-8	20,445,560	1898	595,592,267	10-3	61,556,811
1894	143,360,663	15-4	21,947,401	1899	415,624,421	11-8	61,238,988
1895	176,449,907	90-9	26,846,649	1800	715,941,051	8-5	65,870,207
1896	204,535,413	12-2	25,025,214	1801	520,204,100	16-2	84,530,541
1897	204,310,115	10	20,559,545	1802	584,17,017	8-1	47,593,404
1898	210,580,463	10-7	22,487,219	1803	792,297,106	6-2	49,119,806
1899	264,837,186	10	26,575,311	1804	665,633,453	8-1	54,085,501
1800	298,459,102	9-9	29,674,083	1805	872,905,996	5-98	51,739,643
1801	276,979,784	9-1	25,289,492	1806	547,538,035	7-91	42,767,841
1802	322,215,122	90-9	31,794,648	1807	527,619,856	10-34	58,415,848
1803	324,698,604	11-1	36,191,105	1808	814,274,451	7-613	61,296,204
1804	381,717,907	12-8	49,448,402	1809	1,026,602,269	18-19	66,396,967
1805	387,558,992	16-8	64,961,502	1810	635,281,604	11-3	71,984,616

(See table top of next page.)

Rice is produced chiefly in S. Carolina. It besides supplying the home consumption, from was introduced into the States in 1694 from Madagascar, and has since succeeded so well that 100,000 to 140,000 tierces, worth from 2 to 3 million dollars, are exported yearly. "The usual

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Account showing the Destination of the Cotton exported from the United States in 1846, 1847, 1848, and 1849.

Countries.	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.
	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>
Russia	4,291,680	5,678,565	10,266,911	10,620,651
Sweden and Norway	2,555,788	2,287,293	4,978,074	7,084,169
Denmark	32,357	266,732	69,070	4,779
Hanse Towns	7,343,017	10,689,542	17,430,498	15,844,494
Holland	5,749,559	1,978,324	4,481,509	11,887,386
Belgium	7,406,422	10,184,348	15,479,676	28,113,309
England	266,365,971	328,130,544	846,911,182	687,430,911
Ireland	18,317,450	12,681,738	25,091,963	24,177,773
France	5,379,746	494,497	155,908	5,968,547
Gibraltar	1,054,310	30,159	103,866	5,725,812
Canada	47,380	175,507	22,394	2,747
British American Colonies				
France, Atlantic	124,185,269	97,481,968	129,988,272	142,932,509
Spain, Mediterranean	7,287,480	117,884	7,054,565	5,528,283
Spain	117,884	117,884	19,133,455	28,283,800
Cuba	10,102,909	2,139,133	4,607,474	1,584,784
Portugal	19,353	8,780,718	774	910,895
Italy	11,218,029	6,077,691	6,053,707	10,604,462
Sardinia	2,287,954	4,494,564	2,514,564	6,053,707
Trieste and Austrian ports	15,388,045	11,280,623	30,463,630	15,479,584
Alexandria	4,997,368	-	-	2,909,704
Central Republics of America	-	-	-	4,241,311
China and South Seas	68,780	848,998	12,988	760,261
Total	547,558,065	527,219,958	814,874,451	1,014,633,010

Of the total exports in 1849, 11,398,359 lbs. were sent to India, and the rest to other parts.

time of planting rice is from the 20th of March to the 20th of May, and the harvest begins about 1st Sept. No grain yields more abundantly. From 40 to 70 bushels an acre is an ordinary crop; but 80 and 90 bushels are often produced on strong lands, having the advantage of being overflowed by a river or reservoirs. The water is not let in upon the field till after the second hoeing, and is kept on frequently for 30 days." (Stuart, ii. 89.)

An Account of the Exports of Rice and Tobacco from the United States.

Year.	Rice.			Tobacco.		
	Therms.	Value.	Per Therm.	Hhds.	Value.	Per Hhd.
		<i>Dolla.</i>	<i>Dolla.</i>		<i>Dolla.</i>	<i>Dolla.</i>
1844	134,725	2,182,468	16-20	163,042	5,397,255	31-55
1847	144,427	5,265,839	36-90	155,732	7,948,086	51-40
1848	100,403	2,331,824	23-25	130,565	7,551,172	57-75
1849	128,461	2,569,362	19-90	101,521	5,904,207	58-75
1850	121,069	2,651,357	20-75	145,729	5,915,023	67-50

The sugar-cane grows in low and warm situations as high as lat. 23°, but the climate does not suit well N. of 31° 30'. In Louisiana, however, it is cultivated with success, and in 1849-50 there were, in that state, 1,536 sugar plantations, which produced 247,923 hhd., or about 270,000,000 lbs., inc. 12,500,000 lbs. wet sugar. But the crop is very variable. (Hunt's Com. Mag. for Aug. 1850.) Several varieties of the cane, as the African, Otaheite, W. Indian, and Ribband, are grown. The last is the most prolific of juice, and, according to Mr. Stuart, an acre of ground, properly managed, will yield a hhd. of sugar. (ii. 156.) In the N. part of the Union, as in Canada, maple sugar, a saccharine matter derived from maple trees, either growing wild or cultivated for the purpose, is extensively collected. "The trees are tapped two or three inches into the wood to obtain the sap, from which the sugar is extracted, some time in February or the beginning of March. The holes are made in a slanting direction, in which sprouts of alder or sumach are placed; but they are plugged up as soon as the sap is drawn. The tree does not become impoverished by repeated tapings. There are instances on the Hudson, where the process has been continued for 50 years." (Stuart, i. 74, 75.)

Indigo was formerly raised in Georgia and Carolina, but its culture has been superseded by that of cotton. Some good wine has been produced in the same states, and the vine and mulberry tree are common in many parts of the Union, without, however, having yet become objects of much attention. Fruits of most temperate and tropical climates, and European vegetables, thrive well. The apples grown in the vicinity

of New York are decidedly the best variety of the fruit that is anywhere to be met with. Hemp, flax, hops, &c., are frequent crops in the N. and W. states.

Mr. Shirreff speaks disparagingly of the cattle and sheep of the Eastern states. Near New York, he says, the cattle grazing on the scanty herbage appeared more starveling, and smaller than some of the highland cattle of Scotland. The sheep were even more miserable-looking than the cattle; pigs corresponded; and the horse alone formed an exception to the general wretchedness, some fine animals of this species being met with. The same appeared to him to be the case in the New England states, sometimes even on superior farms, and with cattle originally of a good breed. This inferiority of the cattle in the Eastern states has been explained as follows by Mr. Jefferson: "In a thinly-peopled country, the spontaneous productions of the forests and waste fields are sufficient to support indifferently the domestic animals of the farmer, with very little aid from him, in the severest and scarcest seasons. He, therefore, finds it more convenient to receive them from the hands of nature in that indifferent state than to keep up their size by a care and nourishment that would cost him much labour." (Notes on Virginia, p. 90.) This, no doubt, is the cause of the lean and wretched condition of the cattle in most parts of the Atlantic states; but wherever the pastures are of especial excellence the cattle are comparatively good; and, luckily, fine grass lands are not unfrequent even in the old settled states. Mr. Shirreff says of the Genesee flats in the state of New York, "Perhaps no gentleman's park in Britain equals them in fertility and beauty. They differ from the rest of the surface in this part of the country, in having been cleared by nature; and are chiefly in grass, affording the richest pasturage I ever saw, with the exception of some fields in the neighbourhood of Boston in Lincolnshire." (Tour, p. 84.) But the great cattle-breeding states are in the W.; and herds of some thousands are brought up from Kentucky, &c., for sale at New York. They bear some resemblance to the Hereford cattle, and when 4 or 5 years old are estimated to weigh at an average 80 stone. (Ibid. p. 82.) The dairy is now attracting considerable attention in some states, and the exports of cheese have astonishingly increased. On improved farms, the sheep are mostly crosses of the Saxon and Merino; for, though the Leicester and Cotswold breeds are reared, the former, particularly if pure, is not found to answer. In 1840 the U. States are said to have possessed 19,311,374 sheep, producing 25,802,114 lbs. of wool. Illinois appears to be the state best adapted for sheep, as it is for most other species of husbandry; and so much of its surface remains to be disposed of, that, estimating the fleece of a Merino sheep at 4 lbs., and its price at 60 cents the lb., the wool of one sheep in a year will nearly purchase 1½ acre of land! Wool can be transported from Illinois to the E. states for 2 or 4 cents per lb. (Shirreff, p. 457.)

The stock of hogs in the U. States is estimated at about 40,000,000, and their breeding and fattening is a most important branch of rural economy. Except, indeed, in seasons like 1847, when there was a large export of Indian corn to supply the place of the potato, almost the entire produce of that grain is employed in distillation and in the feeding of hogs. The latter are usually allowed to run wild in the woods till 6, 8, or 7 weeks before they are to be killed, when they are turned into the fields of Indian corn to fatten and harden their flesh. Ohio is the principal hog-fattening state; the killing and packing departments of the business having

been gradually concentrated in and about Cincinnati. Here, in the winter of 1848, about 430,000 hogs were slaughtered and packed. These were estimated to have produced as follows, viz.:

Pork	150,000 bar., or 32,400,000 lbs.
Bacon	41,000,000 "
Lard (No. 1.)	13,800,000 "
Lard (No. 2.)	1,000,000 "
Stearine candles	1,800,000 "
Rose soap	5,300,000 "
Fancy and soft soaps	7,300,000 "
Frustles of potato	80,000 "

The business is, also, largely carried on in Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Tennessee, and other states; and is altogether of great extent and value.

The exports of all sorts of provisions from the U. States have increased prodigiously, as is evident from the following

Years.	
Oil, sperm	gals.
Oil, whale	"
Staves	M.
Naval stores	bbls.
Beef	lbs.
Tallow	lbs.
Hides	No.
Pork	bbls.
Bacon	lbs.
Lard	"
Butter	"
Cheese	"
Wool	"
Hops	"

Account of the Quantities shipped from 1846 to 1850.

Years.	Beef.	Butter.	Cheese.	Pork.	Ham.	Lard.
1846	19,631	1,177,639	783,417	56,284	1,433,897	7,418,832
1847	56,537	3,785,983	1,748,471	133,290	2,796,511	10,307,261
1848	48,881	2,035,135	2,456,607	180,032	2,518,841	10,102,261
1849	37,812	5,408,114	5,410,144	80,310	2,652,067	10,307,261
1850	106,171	3,251,959	7,543,145	161,679	3,806,970	10,307,261
1851	101,538	5,587,489	7,941,187	161,609	2,719,309	10,307,261
1852	119,225	5,436,660	8,675,590	190,422	3,006,630	10,307,261
1853	111,979	4,214,433	15,637,600	206,190	17,591,471	17,591,471
1854	103,719	2,751,086	12,915,305	218,269	33,551,074	33,551,074
1855	103,286	5,406,742	17,613,682	253,186	56,000,000	56,000,000

The under-mentioned quantities of the above and other articles were shipped for the U. Kingdom.

Years.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.
Oil, sperm	325,944	325,987	307,597	626,633	683,770
Oil, whale	69,738	245,658	184,828	84,256	289,222
Staves	167	85	831	2,560	2,871
Naval stores	145,006	270,317	279,263	205,654	245,778
Beef	6,802	48,117	41,185	80,820	66,473
Tallow	3,635,514	6,537,300	6,348,140	6,183,452	5,894,112
Hides	5,230	46,107	41,179	67,056	74,481
Pork	5,230	10,220	14,140	15,001	73,949
Bacon	636,323	230,189	96,007	830,059	14,387,165
Lard	4,690,424	5,976,805	5,678,675	8,211,590	17,758,770
Butter	1,099,776	621,899	380,549	515,514	1,255,871
Cheese	2,515,545	5,378,965	5,994,302	6,840,373	13,800,280
Wool				610,688	349,518
Hops		4,166	69,894	71,252	441,905

The condition and mode of life of the agricultural pop. is very different in different parts of this extensive region. The N. E. states, the oldest settled portions of the country, bear the greatest resemblance to Great Britain. "The villages of New England are uniformly clean, airy, and neat, with spacious openings near the centre, in which churches form the most prominent feature. The houses are, in some instances, built of brick, but more frequently of wood, painted white, and with green Venetian blinds opening to the outside. Both churches and dwelling-houses seem to be painted annually; at least they are never seen in the slightest degree dingy coloured. The houses of every size and fabric have a light appearance from the number of windows they contain. They seldom indicate either extensive wealth or poverty in the inmates, and the villages want only the judicious aid of flowers and shrubs to render them beautiful." (Shirreff, p. 52.) Landscape gardening, and similar ornamented work, is, however, very backward in America.

In the newly settled states of the W., the farmer must dispense with much of the civilisation of the E., and live in his log-house with a few necessary articles of furniture, in the rudest and most primitive manner. But if his style of life be less comfortable, he reaps the benefit of his privations in a more rapid accumulation of wealth. "The settler of Illinois places his house on the forest or on the open field as fancy may dictate. The prairie furnishes summer and winter food for any number of cattle and sheep, and poultry and pigs shift for themselves until the crops ripen. With the preliminary of fencing, the plough enters the virgin soil, which, in a few months afterwards, yields a most abundant crop of Indian corn, and, on its removal, every agricultural operation may be executed with facility. Pastoral, arable, or mixed husbandry, may be at once adopted, and produce of all kinds obtained in profusion." (Shirreff, p. 459.)

The agricultural labourers of the U. States are well fed, and generally efficient. Mr. Shirreff states, that, near Philadelphia, a cradler or mower boarding with another labourer, and paying 45 cents a day, would breakfast at 7 o'clock on wheat or rye bread, fish, cheese, butter, and coffee; lunch at 10 on cold meat, pickled pork, cheese, butter, pickles, bread and coffee; dine at 12 on every thing good and substantial; at 5 take coffee, with bread, butter, fruit, and fruit pie; and occasionally have supper at 7, though this meal is considered superfluous. (P. 25.) Generally, however, the labourers do not fare quite so well. The hours of labour are usually from sunrise to sunset. Near New York farm labourers get from 10 to 12 dollars a month, with bed and board, including washing; spademen get 75 cents a day, without board, all the year round. Near Philadelphia, wages are about the same. In Michigan, where labour is scarce, a good farm help obtains 120, and an indifferent one 100 dollars a year, with bed and board; and a female help receives, in private families, one dollar a week. An ordinary farm labourer in Illinois gets the value of 80 acres of land a year; in Britain, due allowance being made for the board of the labourer, he does not get 1-10th of the value of an acre of good land; so that when wages are compared with land, the farm labourer of Illinois is about 800 times better rewarded than in Britain! (Shirreff.) This, however, does not show

that labour is better paid in America than in England; but that there land is very cheap, and here very dear. As respects clothing and lodging, the English labourer is better off than the American. For further particulars we refer the reader to the articles on the several States in this work.

Manufacturing Industry in the United States. though, of course, very considerable, is carried on under several disadvantages incident to their situation. The fact is, that, under the peculiar circumstances in which America is placed, agriculture is necessarily the most advantageous employment in which her population can engage; and it is a short-sighted policy to endeavour, by dint of custom-house regulations, to force up a manufacturing interest. The boundless extent of her fertile and unoccupied land gives her extraordinary advantages as compared with almost every other people in respect of agriculture; but she has no such advantage as regards manufactures; and yet it is plain that, unless the work-people engaged in manufactures in different parts of the Union realised the same rate of wages, and the capitalists the same rate of profits that is realised by the workmen and capitalists engaged in agriculture, they would either never engage in the former, or speedily abandon it for the latter. Hence the futility of all attempts to establish the finer branches of manufacture in America, without burdening similar articles when imported from abroad with heavy duties. The coarser description of articles, or those which are bulky and heavy, and in which the value of the raw material exceeds the value of the workmanship, must, of course, in America, as elsewhere, be always produced at home. But the finer description of goods, or those of which the value or price is principally made up of wages and profits, would, but for the interference of Congress, be wholly imported from countries in which wages and profits are comparatively low. And it is needless to say, that every attempt to limit or hinder such importation is inconsistent with and subversive of every sound principle. If the cotton and woolen manufactures now carried on in the United States cannot exist without a duty of 25 or 35 per cent. being laid on foreign cottons and wools, it is plain that the existence of such manufactures obliges every individual in the United States to pay from 25 to 35 per cent. additional price for every yard of their produce that he has

occasion to use! And even this is not all; for the prohibition withdraws a large portion of the public capital and industry from employments in which America has an advantage, to make them be vested in employments in which the advantage is on the side of others!

The commercial policy of America is, in truth, but little creditable to her people and legislature. The prohibitions that have so long fettered the employment of industry, and the growth of commerce in Europe, grew up in a comparatively dark and unenlightened age, and have for many years been progressively declining. But America has been foolish enough to adopt the prohibitory and forcing system after its *felo de se* character had been fully demonstrated. She has not acted in ignorance, but in contempt of well-established principles and of the most comprehensive experience; and has consequently involved herself in difficulties and losses of which it is not easy to estimate the extent nor to foresee the termination.

No doubt America will gradually become more and more suitable for manufacturing industry. Her command of water-power and coal, and her facilities for internal transport and navigation, are circumstances eminently favourable to manufactures. Still, however, it is certain that her natural progress to manufacturing eminence cannot be advantageously hastened by the policy on which she has embarked. When population has become dense in America, and her unoccupied land has been generally appropriated, she will necessarily undertake, and will no doubt successfully carry on, such branches of manufacturing industry as are suitable to her peculiar capabilities; but

this natural development of her maturer growth should be waited for; and cannot be profitably forwarded by interfering with the free exercise of industry.

Cotton Manufacture.—The American cotton manufacture, though consisting principally of coarse fabrics, is, in extent and value, next to that of the U. Kingdom. It is principally located in the New England States, especially in Massachusetts which has nearly half the manufacture, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Hampshire. At an average of the three years ending with 1848, the consumption of raw cotton in the different manufacturing establishments of the Union is believed to have amounted to about 300,000,000 lbs. a year. The American fabrics consist principally of shirtings, sheetings, printed calicoes, yarns, sail-cloth, &c., in which the raw material forms a large portion of the value of the finished articles. And hence it is that the American manufacturers have suffered more than ours from the falling off in the supply of cotton in 1847 and 1850, and that they have had proportionally more mills standing and working short time. The value of the cottons exported from the Union is not very considerable, having been \$ 5,718,205 in 1848, and \$ 4,533,129 in 1849.

Lowell is the principal seat of the manufacture in Massachusetts; and we subjoin the following statements in regard to its condition there from 1840 to 1850. (See 2nd table below.)

But for the six months ending with March, 1851, the business in Lowell was much depressed, and the manufacturers involved in great difficulties.

The values of the imports of cotton goods into the U. States during the year ending the 30th June, 1849, was as follows, viz.,

	Dollars.
Stuffs printed, stained, or coloured	10,386,894
— white, or uncoloured	1,434,635
— lamboured or embroidered	700,311
Velvets, wholly of cotton	99,280
Cotton and silk	14,076
Cords, gimpes, and galloons	18,564
Hosiery, and articles made on frames	1,315,783
Twist, yarn, and thread	770,509
Hatters' plush, of silk and cotton	170
Manufactures of, not specified	946,958
Total	15,784,841

Lowell.	1840.	1842.	1844.	1846.	1848.	1849.	1850.
Capital	\$10,500,000	\$10,700,000	\$10,650,000	\$10,550,000	\$12,110,000	\$12,110,000	\$13,810,000
No. of mills	38	38	38	35	47	48	50
— spindles	166,044	194,333	185,076	228,350	301,297	310,000	319,946
— looms	5,145	5,794	6,345	6,504	8,719	9,359	9,863
— frames	6,420	7,375	6,905	8,635	7,444	8,860	9,860
— mules	2,077	2,345	2,353	2,690	3,995	3,629	3,744
Cloth, per week, yds.	1,120,260	1,351,450	1,425,800	1,594,000	1,920,900	1,704,996	2,110,000
Cotton used per week, lbs.	570,500	601,206	640,000	687,000	839,000	839,000	839,000
Wool, ditto	30,153			24,000	46,000	46,000	69,000
Printed, ditto, yds.	265,000			325,000	280,000	280,000	245,000
Dyed, ditto		375,000					
Female wages	\$1 00		\$1 75		\$2 00	\$2 00	\$2 00
Male wages	4 80		4 80		4 80	4 80	4 80

The manufacture of woollens has been extensively carried on from an early period in the history of the States: but it is principally conducted in private families; and it is only in recent times that woollen factories have been established on any large scale. Broad cloths, cassimeres, satinetts, flannels, jeans, linens, blankets, yarn, and carpets are the goods principally made.

The returns under the census of 1840 as to the woollen manufacture were as follows:—

Falling-mills	2,583
Woollen manufactories	1,420
Persons employed	21,548
Manufactures, value of	30,636,000 dolls.
Capital invested	15,765,194 do.

The values of the imports of woollen goods into the U. States in 1848-49 were as follows:—

	Dollars.
Cloths and cassimeres	283,837
Merino shawls, of wool	1,196,576
Blankets	1,161,429
Hosiery, and articles on frames	718,794
Worsted stuff goods	4,070,185
Woolen and worsted yarn	113,483
— articles embroidered, &c.	13,910
Manufactures not specified	837,577
Flannels	54,539
Haines	51,518
Wilton, Saxony, and Ambrosian carpets	18,067
Brunels, Turkey, and treble ingrained do.	249,906
Venetian, and other ingrained do.	96,435
Not specified	28,650
Total	13,704,606

The manufactures of leather, and articles made of leather, of linen and linen yarn, iron and hardware, glass, soap, candles, &c., are all carried on pretty extensively; but we have no estimates of their amount on which it would be safe to rely. Steam-engines, and all kinds of machinery, nails, fire-grates, and stoves, chain

cables, agricultural and mechanical implements, fire-arms, &c., are extensively manufactured; but all the finer descriptions of hardware and cutlery, and a great variety of hardware articles, are imported from England. In 1840, according to the census, there were 10,306 distilleries in the United States, producing in that year 41,402,627 gallons spirits. Vast quantities of whisky are distilled in N. Carolina, Pennsylvania, New York, Massachusetts, and other states. Cincinnati, in Ohio, is, however, the grand centre of the whisky manufacture. The whole quantity produced by the distilleries in this city, and brought into it from adjacent distilleries, is said, by Mr. Johnston, to amount to about 14,500,000 gallons a year! (Notes on N. American, 1. 376.) Of course the largest portion of this immense supply is forwarded to other parts. It is wholly made from Indian corn.

The shot, and red and white lead manufactured in the States, now barely supply their consumption. About 6,000,000 bushels salt are estimated to be annually made from brine-springs. But, notwithstanding, about 8,000,000 bushels salt are annually imported, principally from Great Britain, but partly, also, from Spain and Portugal.

Commerce.—The trade of the U. States is very extensive. The great article of export is cotton wool, the value of the exports of which, in 1850, amounted, as already seen, to 71,984,616 dolls., being considerably more than half the value of the entire exports (of domestic growth) from the Union. Indeed, the astonishing increase in the production of cotton, and in the demand for it in foreign countries, has been the principal cause of the rapid growth and vast magnitude of American commerce. Cotton is principally shipped for the United Kingdom, France, and Germany. Next to cotton, the great articles of export are wheat flour, Indian corn and provisions; tobacco, raw and manufactured; rice;

the produce of the American fisheries; timber, lumber, &c. The flour and provisions are partly sent to Europe, and partly to Cuba, Brazil, and the W. Indies generally, which are also the great marts for lumber. Tobacco is principally sent to England and Holland.

The great articles of importation are manufactured products, including cottons, woollens, linens, hardware, and earthenware, principally from England; silks and wines, from France and Spain; tea from China; sugar and coffee from Cuba and Brazil; linens and woollens from Germany; salt from England and Portugal; with spices, dye-stuffs, and an infinite variety of other articles from all parts of the world. We subjoin some statements illustrative of the progress and present magnitude of American commerce.

Summary Statement exhibiting the Value of the Articles of Domestic and of Foreign Growth and Manufacture exported from the United States, during each Year, from 1803 down to 1849 inc.; with the Value of the Imports during the same Years.

N. B. The years down to 1843 end on the 30th of September, and since then on the 30th of June.

Years.	Value of Exports in Dollars.			Value of Imports in Dollars.
	Domestic.	Foreign.	Total.	
1803	42,805,961	15,594,072	58,400,033	64,668,666
1804	41,467,477	56,531,597	97,999,074	85,000,000
1805	42,387,072	53,179,019	95,566,091	120,000,000
1806	41,253,474	84,591,295	125,844,769	109,536,953
1807	48,699,592	59,643,558	108,343,150	138,500,000
1808	9,433,546	16,997,414	26,430,960	66,990,000
1809	31,405,700	30,797,551	62,203,251	59,400,000
1810	42,366,674	84,591,295	126,957,974	85,400,000
1811	45,294,041	16,072,790	61,366,831	55,400,000
1812	30,032,109	8,495,127	38,527,236	77,030,000
1813	35,008,132	2,847,845	37,855,977	32,000,000
1814	6,782,272	145,169	6,927,441	13,965,000
1815	45,974,403	6,583,530	52,557,933	115,031,274
1816	64,781,896	17,138,556	81,920,452	147,103,000
1817	68,313,589	19,338,697	87,652,286	99,450,000
1818	73,541,437	19,496,696	93,038,133	121,750,000
1819	80,976,838	19,165,083	100,141,921	87,125,000
1820	81,685,640	18,008,029	99,693,669	74,430,000
1821	85,671,494	21,802,488	107,473,982	67,805,731
1822	49,874,079	32,886,202	72,760,281	83,541,541
1823	47,135,408	27,645,632	74,781,040	77,579,367
1824	50,649,800	25,537,157	76,186,957	80,549,007
1825	66,947,475	39,590,643	106,538,118	96,540,075
1826	53,038,710	24,339,612	77,378,322	84,974,477
1827	58,921,691	25,403,136	84,324,827	79,481,068
1828	50,669,669	21,205,017	71,874,686	85,509,834
1829	53,700,193	16,658,478	70,358,671	74,492,597
1830	59,462,029	14,387,479	73,849,508	70,476,920
1831	61,227,037	99,038,226	160,265,263	103,191,134
1832	63,137,479	94,039,473	157,176,953	101,175,000
1833	70,317,698	10,822,755	81,140,453	108,118,311
1834	81,074,162	23,043,111	104,117,273	126,521,332
1835	101,189,082	30,504,495	131,693,577	145,935,742
1836	106,916,680	31,746,360	138,663,040	189,980,025
1837	95,564,414	21,854,962	117,419,376	140,980,317
1838	96,023,821	12,452,799	108,476,620	115,717,404
1839	103,535,821	12,494,364	116,030,185	169,009,132
1840	113,895,634	18,180,319	132,075,953	160,409,132
1841	106,382,722	14,629,081	121,011,803	137,946,177
1842	92,969,596	10,771,538	103,741,134	106,469,062
1843	99,715,179	11,484,867	111,200,046	108,435,035
1844	99,299,776	16,146,830	115,446,606	117,254,364
1845	102,111,923	15,546,613	117,658,536	121,691,797
1846	150,637,464	8,011,158	158,648,622	146,545,636
1847	132,904,121	21,152,315	154,056,436	154,997,928
1848	132,666,335	15,088,965	147,755,300	147,857,430

• Only 9 months of 1845.

Summary Statement of the Value of the Exports of the Growth, Produce, and Manufacture of the U. States, during the Three Years ending 30. June, 1847, 1848, and 1849.

TAX SEA.	1847.	1848.	1849.
	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.
Fisheries			
Dried fish, or cod fisheries	659,629	609,482	419,392
Pickled fish, or river fisheries (herring, salmon, mackerel)	156,291	109,515	95,663
Whale and other fish oil	1,070,639	552,348	965,597
Spermaceti oil	734,456	29,832	572,463
Whalebone	29,590,643	115,488,516	169,009,132
Spermaceti candles	191,467	186,839	159,023
Total Fisheries	3,468,033	1,280,965	2,547,664
Tree FOSTER.			
Skins and Furs	747,145	607,780	656,928
Ginseng	64,668	102,647	182,566
Products of Wood			
Staves, shingles, boards, &c.	1,849,911	2,429,863	1,776,749
Other timber	60,544	283,435	283,435
Masts and spars	25,270	129,760	87,720
Oak bark and other dye	95,535	148,196	95,599
All manufactures of wood	1,495,224	2,042,695	1,697,588
Naval stores, turpentine, rosin and turpentine	759,321	732,303	815,164
Aspen - pot and pearl	618,000	466,477	810,003
Total Products of Wood	5,194,462	6,532,657	5,078,500

Value of Exports of the Growth, Produce, and Manufacture of the U. States, &c. — continued.

	1847.	1848.	1849.
	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.
AGRICULTURE.			
Products of Animals			
Hed, tallow, hides, horned cattle	2,434,003	1,905,541	2,008,356
Butter and cheese	1,741,770	1,361,668	1,654,137
Pork (pickled), bacon, lard, live hogs	6,630,842	9,005,272	9,243,281
Horses and mules	877,339	180,295	98,882
Sheep	29,100	20,253	16,543
Wool	89,460	67,497	81,253
Total Products of Animals	11,807,534	12,538,896	13,155,309
Vegetable Food			
Wheat	6,949,380	2,662,175	1,736,848
Potatoes	26,125,811	13,194,109	11,284,482
Indian corn	14,385,812	8,537,437	7,562,562
Indian meal	4,301,334	1,807,891	1,699,085
Rye meal	235,202	174,566	212,254
Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse	1,800,569	376,572	238,793
Buckwheat, or shape-lard	556,966	619,096	264,514
Potatoes	109,062	96,277	83,573
Apples	85,361	88,064	88,064
Rice	3,603,896	2,331,224	2,469,302
Total Vegetable Food	57,970,306	25,185,647	25,671,897
Tobacco	7,249,086	7,251,192	5,801,990
Cotton	53,415,944	61,998,294	66,386,967
Hemp	-	27,657	8,436
All other Agricultural Products			
Flax-seed	1,246	1,594	1,594
Hops	15,534	17,671	22,125
Brown sugar	25,483	8,491	24,607
Indigo	10	1,100	20
Total	177,493	29,946	53,781
MANUFACTURES.			
Soap and tallow candles	606,278	670,293	627,389
Leather boots and shoes	232,816	191,055	151,274
Household furniture	92,100	92,100	92,100
Couches and other carriages	75,269	83,963	84,923
Hats	56,236	55,493	64,952
Upholstery	15,106	27,600	27,600
Wax	161,527	124,577	121,730
Spirits from grain	67,781	80,937	67,190
Beer, ale, porter, and cider	86,114	74,071	77,666
Wine	658,350	608,435	613,044
Unsweet oil and spirits of turpentine	498,110	331,001	144,056
Cordage	27,054	29,911	41,626
Fig, bar, and nails	168,817	154,036	169,380
Casings	66,289	63,180	60,174
All manufactures of Spirits from molasses	253,629	1,072,408	866,338
Sugar, refined	134,229	263,507	193,001
Chocolate	1,633	1,633	1,633
Coffee	8,877	123,363	131,291
Copper and brass	64,980	61,468	66,386
Medicinal drugs	163,735	214,084	220,094
Cotton Fibre Goods			
Crimped and coloured	221,320	351,160	408,574
White	3,245,932	4,866,259	3,853,117
Nankasee	8,794	10,333	3,302
Twist, yarn, and thread	106,330	126,633	145,025
All other manufactures of Cotton	336,373	327,479	413,680
Total of Cotton Goods	4,089,253	5,718,205	4,533,129
Flax and Hemp			
Cloth and thread	477	629	1,009
Bags and all manufactures of			
Wearing apparel	47,101	874,834	754,943
Coats and buttons	17,886	16,461	36,126
Boots	2,967	2,168	2,966
Billiard tables	615	12	701
Umbrellas and parasols	2,150	2,910	3,808
Leather and Morocco skins not sold, per lb.	29,536	16,423	9,427
Pine engines and apparatus	5,443	7,696	128
Printing presses and type	17,431	30,408	30,408
Musical instruments	12,997	12,997	12,997
Books and maps	44,751	75,193	94,427
Paper and stationery	88,781	78,267	86,927
Paints and varnish	54,115	60,739	54,115
Firearms	12,997	12,997	12,997
Earthen and stone ware	4,758	5,512	10,632
Manufactures of			
Glass	71,155	78,007	101,419
China	6,363	12,353	13,145
Pewter and lead	13,891	7,789	13,145
Marble and stone	11,760	27,466	34,887
Gold and silver, and gold leaf	4,368	6,211	4,368
Gold and silver coin	67,297	2,700,412	936,474
Artificial flowers and jewelry	5,126	11,977	5,126
Masses	26,350	6,863	7,419
Trunks	3,770	6,190	5,099
Brick and lime	17,023	17,023	17,023
Salt	42,533	42,533	42,533
Lead	194,081	84,878	80,198
Ice	-	13,547	35,807
Articles not enumerated			
Manufactures	1,708,984	1,137,380	1,008,270
Other articles	1,199,276	851,393	709,237
Total	150,657,464	139,504,121	139,656,934

UNITED STATES (THE).

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Account of the Value of the Exports from and Imports into each State and Territory of the American Union, during the Year ending 30th June, 1849, specifying the Value of those Imported in American and Foreign Ships.

States.	Value of Exports.			Value of Imports.		
	Domestic Pro- duce.	Foreign Pro- duce.	Total.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	Total.
	<i>Dolls.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>		<i>Dolls.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>
Maine	1,279,593	7,898	1,287,491	577,405	144,008	721,409
N. Hampshire	5,538	86	5,624	51,729	18,282	69,911
Vermont	999,998	338,931	1,338,929	147,721	147,721	295,442
Massachusetts	8,174,667	2,090,196	10,264,863	18,357,859	6,377,836	24,735,695
Rhode Island	178,691	5,441	184,132	178,152	7,351	185,503
Connecticut	264,000	-	264,000	370,260	14,368	384,628
New York	36,736,915	9,224,865	45,961,780	76,148,808	16,419,681	92,568,489
New Jersey	3-5	8	3-5	3,360	893	4,253
Pennsylvania	4,850,878	492,549	5,343,427	10,008,073	637,427	10,645,500
Delaware	35-50	379	38-50	4,815,919	363,512	5,179,431
Maryland	7,794,693	213,963	8,008,656	-	-	8,008,656
D. of Columbia	111,607	-	111,607	26,668	-	26,668
Virginia	3,569,422	4,316	3,573,738	223,214	18,717	241,931
N. Carolina	270,076	-	270,076	105,073	7,171	112,244
S. Carolina	9,699,875	1,301	9,701,176	996,168	479,247	1,475,415
Georgia	6,837,806	-	6,837,806	176,437	194,267	370,704
Florida	2,518,027	-	2,518,027	42,811	80,400	123,211
Alabama	13,835,725	-	13,835,725	108,913	637,147	746,060
Louisiana	36,937,119	634,549	37,571,668	7,853,664	2,197,283	10,050,947
Mississippi	-	-	-	2,433	-	2,433
Tennessee	-	-	-	13,145	-	13,145
Missouri	-	-	-	150,382	-	150,382
Ohio	149,734	-	149,734	137,532	12,287	149,819
Kentucky	-	-	-	79,738	-	79,738
Michigan	137,344	5,007	142,351	98,441	-	98,441
Illinois	88,417	5	88,422	8,173	4,293	12,466
Texas	82,791	-	82,791	14,333	-	14,333
Total	132,666,933	13,088,865	145,755,798	120,392,152	27,475,287	147,867,439

A very large proportion of the commerce of the U. States is carried on in native ships, and the mercantile marine of the Union is inferior only to that of the U. Kingdom. We subjoin

An Account of the total Tonnage of the American Mercantile Marine, from 1830 to 1849, both inclusive.

Years.	Tons.	Years.	Tons.
1830	1,191,778	1840	3,180,764
1831	1,267,416	1841	3,130,748
1832	1,439,450	1842	2,099,389
1833	1,606,150	1843	2,158,608
1834	1,734,907	1844	2,480,094
1835	1,834,840	1845	2,416,001
1836	1,881,103	1846	2,561,081
1837	1,896,696	1847	2,834,544
1838	1,993,610	1848	3,154,011
1839	2,096,479	1849	3,234,014

Internal Communications.—Nowhere in the world, a few parts of Europe excepted, have such extensive canals, and other public works, been undertaken and completed as in the U. States. The greater portion of Pennsylvania, with the adjacent parts of New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland, is one continued net-work of canals and railroads; and similar works exist, more or less, in nearly all the States; but particularly in those of New York, Ohio, Virginia, S. Carolina, and New England. The great length of many of the U. States' canals is one of their most remarkable features, in which they far surpass any hitherto constructed in Europe. The Erie Canal, connecting Lake Ontario with the Hudson River, is 363 m. in length, being more than twice as long as the Canal of Languedoc, the longest of which Europe can boast. Generally, however, they are deficient in breadth and depth for the increased traffic conducted by their means; several of them have, however, been enlarged.

The tolls paid to the State, by the persons who have boats on these canals, are usually 14d. per mile for each boat, and a small charge per mile for each passenger conveyed. The passenger-boats vary from 12 to 15 ft. in breadth, and are 80 ft. in length; the large-sized boats weigh about 20 tons, and cost about 350l. each. They are usually dragged by three horses, which run 10 m. stages, and the rate of travelling is from 4 to 44 m. an hour. Except in the most S. part of the Union, the canal navigation, as well as that on the rivers and lakes in the N. States, is completely suspended for from three to five months a year during winter, and then the water is always withdrawn from the canals and feeders.

The American railway system commenced in 1827, since which its progress has been as follows:—

Year.	Miles in Operation.	Cost.	Year.	Miles in Operation.	Cost.
		<i>Dollars.</i>			<i>Dollars.</i>
1827	3	50,000	1845	5,659	111,650,000
1828	167	3,000,000	1846	6,144	120,750,000
1829	213	4,850,000	1847	6,349	123,150,000
1830	737	22,650,000	1848	8,236	165,650,000
1840	2,380	60,700,000			

At the close of 1849 above 7,000 m. railway were in

operation, the cost of which exceeded 300,000,000 dollars. And in January, 1851, no fewer than 8,797 m. railway had been completed at a cost of above 396,000,000 dollars, or about 80,000,000l. sterling. These railways were distributed as follows:—

State.	Miles.	Cost.
		<i>Dollars.</i>
New York	1,4094	56,874,080
New Hampshire	-	15,046,000
Rhode Island	-	2,614,164
Maine	290	5,765,518
Vermont	568	10,023,987
Massachusetts	1,046	48,235,997
Connecticut	515	15,445,508
New Jersey	359	8,215,000
Pennsylvania	917	55,000,000
Delaware	17	600,000
Maryland	292	13,044,173
Virginia	274	7,676,549
North Carolina	349	4,000,000
South Carolina	371	6,843,878
Georgia	716	11,271,880
Alabama	114	860,000
Florida	64	280,000
Mississippi	80	735,000
Louisiana	89	805,000
Illinois	86	800,000
Kentucky	77	1,480,000
Indiana	219	4,600,000
Ohio	114	7,688,798
Illinois	117	2,100,000
Michigan	358	7,704,535
Wisconsin	204	460,000

And new undertakings are every day entered into, and are prosecuted with a constancy and a vigour that have nowhere been surpassed. The probability is that at no very distant period the Atlantic and Pacific states will be united by railway. And though such an undertaking will be of the most gigantic description, it is less so, perhaps, than it may at first sight appear to be; for, owing to the gradual rise of the land from the Mississippi to the Rocky Mountains, that formidable barrier may be reached and penetrated with far less difficulty than might be anticipated.

The internal improvements of the United States are placed under the management either of the legislature of the state in which the works are situated, or of joint-stock companies. Those constructed by the states are called state-works, and are conducted by commissioners chosen from the different legislatures. The joint-stock companies, on the other hand, are composed of private individuals, who, as in Britain, receive a charter from the government empowering them to act accordingly.

At first view, a person from England is struck by the temporary and apparently unfinished state of many of the American works; in which it is in vain to look for the finish which characterises those of France, or the stability with which those of Britain are framed. The American railroads are much more cheaply constructed than the English, not only because they are in a less substantial and costly style, but because they are exempted from the heavy expenses incurred, in the construction of the English railways, by the purchase of land and compensation for damages; and because wood, the principal material used in their construction, is got at a small cost. Among the greatest public works of the Union is a rail-

way (the Alleghany, forming part of the line connecting the Ohio with the Delaware river), which, says Mr. Stevenson, "in boldness of design and difficulty of execution, I can compare to no modern works I have ever seen, excepting, perhaps, the passes of the Simplon, and Mont Cenis in Italy." (p. 185.) (Stevenson, p. 264.) Wood is the material mostly used in the construction of bridges, and wooden pavement has been adopted in parts of New York city. The making of common roads is a branch of industry that has yet been little attended to, and in many parts of the country they are mere forest tracks, or what are called "corduroy roads," formed by the trunks of felled trees laid parallel to each other, in a soft, marshy soil, and over which vehicles advance by a series of leaps and starts sufficiently unpleasant to European travellers. The best roads are in the New England States; but there is a macadamised road from Albany to Troy; and a national road 700 m. in length, and 30 ft. wide, extends, in a tolerably straight line, from Baltimore on Chesapeake Bay to the Mississippi opposite St. Louis; it was constructed at the expense of the central government.

The Americans have very successfully turned their attention to the building of steamboats; and some of the vessels navigating the Eastern waters of the U. States are unequalled in point of speed by those of any other quarter of the globe. On the Mississippi, and other W. waters, the vessels have a greater draught and less speed. The seagoing steamers of the U. States are, as is well known, luxuriously fitted up. The American canal and river travelling, on the other hand, in respect of accommodation for travellers, contrasts unfavourably with that of England, Belgium, or Holland.

Fisheries and Navigation.—Notwithstanding the extraordinary temptations to engage in agriculture afforded by the cheapness and facility of obtaining land, the Americans have always been distinguished by their skill in fisheries and navigation, and by the vigour and success with which they have pursued those branches of industry. They commenced the whale-fishery in 1690, and, for about 50 years, found an ample supply of fish on their own shores: but the whale having abandoned them, the American navigators entered with extraordinary ardour into the fisheries carried on in the Northern and Southern Oceans. From 1770 to 1773, Massachusetts employed annually 183 vessels, carrying 13,520 tons, in the former, and 121 vessels, carrying 14,096 tons, in the latter. Mr. Burke, in his famous speech on American affairs, in 1774, adverted to this wonderful display of daring enterprise as follows:—

"As to wealth," said he, "which the colonists have drawn from the sea by their fisheries, you had all that matter fully opened at your bar. You surely thought these acquisitions of value; for they seemed to excite your envy; and yet the spirit by which that enterprising employment has been exercised ought rather, in my opinion, to have raised esteem and admiration. And pray, sir, what in the world is equal to it? Pass by the other parts, and look at the manner in which the New England people carry on the whale fishery. While we follow them among the tumbling mountains of ice, and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson's Bay and Davis's Straits; while we are looking for them beneath the Arctic circle, we find that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold; that they are at the antipodes, and engaged under the frozen serpent of the south. Falkland Island, which seemed too remote, and too romantic an object for the grasp of national ambition, is but a stage and resting-place for their victorious industry. Nor is the equinoctial heat more discouraging to them than the accumulated winter of both Poles. We learn that while some of them draw the line or strike the harpoon on the coast of Africa, others run the longitude and pursue their gigantic game along the coast of Brazil. No sea, but what is vexed with their fisheries: no climate that is not witness of their toils! Neither the perseverance of Holland, nor the activity of France, nor the dexterous and firm sagacity of Great Britain, ever carried this most perilous mode of hardy industry to the extent to which it has been pursued by this recent people; a people who are still in the gristle, and not hardened into manhood."

The unfortunate war that broke out soon after this speech was delivered checked for a while the progress of the fishery; but it was resumed with renewed vigour as soon as peace was restored. The American fishery has been principally carried on from Nantucket and New Bedford, in Massachusetts; and for a considerable time past the ships have mostly resorted to the southern seas. "Although," says Mr. Phipps, "Great Britain has at various times given large bounties to her ships employed in this fishery, yet the whalemen of Nantucket and New Bedford, unprotected and unsupported by anything but their own industry and enterprise, have generally been able to meet their competitors in a foreign market." (*Commerce of the U. States*, 2d. ed. p. 46.) In 1849

there arrived at the different ports of the U. States 155 ships, 9 brigs, and 14 schooners, bringing with them 39,428 barrels of sperm, and 226,183 barrels common whale oil. During the year ended the 30th June, 1848, the Americans had 180,186 tons shipping employed in the whale fisheries.

The Americans, or rather the New Englanders, also carry on the cod-fishery, partly on the Labrador coast and partly on the coast and banks of Newfoundland, with spirit and success. Their fishermen are remarkable for activity and enterprise, sobriety and frugality; and their proximity to the fishing-grounds, and the other facilities they possess for carrying on the fishery, give them advantage with which it is very difficult to contend. During the year ending the 30th June, 1848, the Americans had 73,863 tons shipping employed in the cod, and 42,943 tons in the mackerel fishery.

The System of Banking in America has attracted a great deal of attention in this country; and it certainly deserves to be carefully studied and meditated, were it only for the incontestable evidence which it affords, that, how flourishing soever in other respects, a country with a vicious banking system may be every now and then involved in the greatest difficulties and reduced almost to a state of bankruptcy. Considering the peculiarly favourable circumstances under which the U. States are placed, the boundless extent of their fertile and unoccupied lands, the lightness of their public burdens, and the intelligence, enterprise, and economy of the people, it might be presumed that distress and bankruptcy would be all but unknown in the Union, and that she would be exempted from those revolutions which so seriously affect less favourably situated communities. But, in so far as respects mercantile and monied fortunes, the reverse of all this is the fact: discredit and bankruptcy are incomparably more prevalent in America among the mercantile classes than in any European country; and monied fortunes are infinitely more secure in Russia, and even in Turkey, than in the U. States! This anomalous and apparently inexplicable state of things is entirely a consequence of the American banking system, which seems to combine within itself every thing that can make it an engine of evil. Had a committee of clever men been selected to devise means by which the public might be tempted to engage in all manner of absurd projects, and be most easily duped and deceived, we do not know that they could have hit upon any thing more likely to effect their object than the existing American banking system. It has no one redeeming quality about it, but is from beginning to end a compound of quackery and imposture. Our own banking system, before the change introduced by Sir Robert Peel in 1844, was bad enough certainly; but it was, notwithstanding, as superior to the American as can well be imagined. A radical reform of the latter, or, if that cannot be effected, its entire suppression, would be one of the greatest boons that can be conferred on the Union; and would be no slight advantage to every nation with which the Americans have any intercourse.

The American banks are all joint-stock associations; but instead of the partners being liable, as in England, for the whole amount of the debts of the banks, they are in general liable only for the amount of their shares, or for some fixed multiple thereof. It is needless to dwell on the temptation to commit fraud held out by this system, which has not a single countervailing advantage to recommend it. The worthlessness of the plan on which the banks are founded was evinced by the fact that, between 1811 and the 1st of May, 1836, no fewer than 16 became altogether bankrupt, many of them paying only an insignificant dividend; and this exclusive of a much greater number that stopped for a while and afterwards resumed payments. Various complicated schemes for insuring the stability and prudent management of banks have been devised; but, as they all involve regulations which it is impossible to enforce, they are practically worse than useless. In Massachusetts, for example, it is provided that no bank for the issue of notes can go into operation in any way until at least half its capital stock be paid in gold and silver into the bank, and be actually existing in its coffers, and even in the hands of inspectors appointed for that purpose; and the cashier of every bank is bound to make specific returns once a year of its debts and assets, on being required to do so by the secretary of state. But our readers need hardly be told that these elaborately contrived regulations are really good for nothing, unless it be to afford an easy mode of cheating and defrauding the public. Instances have occurred of banks having borrowed an amount of dollars equal to half their capital for a single day, and of such cases having been examined by the inspectors appointed for that purpose, and reported by them, and sworn by a majority of the directors, to be the first instalment paid by the stockholders of the bank, and intended to remain in it. (*Gough's Paper Money and Banking in the U. States*.) We do not, of course, imagine that such diabolical instances can be of common occurrence; but what is to be

thought of a system which permits a company for the issue of paper money, founded on such an abominable fraud, to enter on business with a sort of public attestation of its respectability? The publicity, too, to which the American banks are subject is injurious rather than otherwise. Those who are so disposed may easily manufacture such returns as they think most suitable to their views; and the more respectable banks endeavour, for a month or two previously to the period when they have to make their returns, to increase the amount of bullion in their coffers by temporary loans and all manner of devices. The whole system is, in fact, bottomed on the most vicious principles. The facility, too, with which loans may be obtained from the different banks in periods of prosperity tempts private individuals and associations, and even states, to engage in the wildest and most gigantic projects. But whenever a pressure for money occurs, fresh supplies being no longer obtainable, those who depend on the banks are involved in the greatest difficulties, while the latter, being unable to procure the payment of their advances, and having, in most instances, no sufficient capital, are obliged forthwith to suspend their payments. Perhaps no instance is to be found in the history of commerce of such a wanton over-issue of paper as took place in the U. States in 1835 and 1836; and the revulsion to which it necessarily led, after producing a frightful extent of bankruptcy and suffering in all parts of the Union, compelled, in May, 1837, every bank within the states, without, we believe, a single exception, to suspend payments. In 1838, such of them as were not entirely swept of resumed specie payments; and in 1839, by far the larger number of them, with the bank of the U. States at their head, again suspended payment!

The Bank of the U. States had a *bond fide* paid-up capital of no less than \$5,000,000 doll., the whole, or nearly the whole, of which immense sum has been lost! It would be out of place to enter into any detailed statement explanatory of the various circumstances that have contributed to the downfall of this establishment. Something, no doubt, must be attributed to the hostility of General Jackson and the government; but the real cause of the catastrophe must be sought for in the mismanagement of the directors and the vices inseparable from the American banking system.

Unfortunately, however, there seems little reason to expect that this system will be speedily amended. The only effectual cure for the evil would be the suppression of all local issues of paper, leaving it to be wholly supplied, in exchange for bullion or other convertible securities, by a single central bank, and in an alteration of the law of partnership as respects banks of deposit. But there is not the smallest probability that any measure of this sort, if proposed, would ever be agreed to; and there can be no doubt that, in time to come, as in time past, each state will zealously patronise its own banking system; that the Union will continue to have hundreds, or rather thousands, of issuers of money; and that those periodical alternations of extreme prosperity and all but universal bankruptcy we have hitherto witnessed will continue, for a lengthened period, to delight and disgrace the republic.

Coin.—The American gold coin, the Eagle, contains 225 gr. pure gold and 36 alloy. This coin is made the equivalent of 10 dollars, so that the English sovereign is equal to 4 dolls. 97 cents. The doll. is worth at par about 4s. 3d. Weights and measures same as in England.

The Government. as established in 1787, is a federal democracy. The legislative power is vested in the Congress, an assembly of two separate bodies, the Senate and the H. of Representatives. The Senate consists of 62 mems., 2 from each State, chosen for a term of six years by the legislatures of the several states they represent. The qualifications necessary for a senator are, that he having attained the age of 30 yrs. having been a citizen of the U. States for 9 years, and being an inhab. of the state for which he is elected. The Senate has a concurrent vote in the ratification of treaties and executive nominations, and the sole power to try impeachments. One third of its number goes out of office every two years. The H. of Representatives is composed of mems. from the several states, elected by the people for the term of 2 years. According to an act of Congress, the number of representatives shall be fixed at 323. And the entire "representative population" of the different states (3 slaves being reckoned equivalent to 3 free persons), as ascertained by the decennial censuses, being divided by 323 gives, of course, the population entitled to send a member to Congress. Some of the returns given in the preceding table of the pop. for 1860 are not quite complete; but they are sufficiently accurate for most practical purposes. And it results from them that the representative pop. may be taken at about 21,710,000, which, being divided by 323, gives 98,170 for the representative unit. Hence the number of members which each state will be entitled to return during the next 10 years is, at

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once, ascertained by dividing its representative pop. by 98,170. Should these divisions not give, as is usually the case, the entire number of members, the deficiencies are supplied by the states who have the largest unrepresented fractional pop. Thus, Connecticut will, according to the late census, be entitled to send 3 mems. to Congress, and will have, in addition, an unrepresented pop. of 91,384, so that she will be all but certain to have a 4th mem. assigned to her. During the last 10 years the representative unit was 70,680. New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, will have the largest number of representatives in the new Congress.

The qualification for representatives is, their having attained the age of 25 years, and been 7 years citizens of the U. States. The House of Representatives has the sole power of impeachment, and of originating money-bills. Congress must assemble at least once a year, on the first Monday in Dec. Each house chooses its own speaker and other officers; the president of the senate being the president of the U. States. Both houses are divided into a number of committees for the despatch of business, chosen by ballot. The mems. of both houses receive a salary of 8 dollars a day during their attendance, and travelling expenses of 8 dollars for every 20 m. The speakers of both houses have 16 dollars a day. The executive power is vested in the president, who is chosen by the electoral colleges of the several states for the term of 4 years; he must be 35 years of age, and a natural-born citizen who has resided for 14 years in the U. States. The president is commander-in-chief of the land and sea forces; and has power to make treaties, and appoint to the principal civil and military offices in the states, with the consent of the senate. He has a veto on bills which may have passed both houses of Congress, though if these be passed a second time by a vote of two thirds of each house, they become law without his sanction. His salary is 25,000 dollars a year. The president is assisted by a cabinet of six ministers, who hold office during his pleasure; the secretary of state, the secretaries of the treasury, war, and navy, the post-master-general, and the attorney-general, the salaries of each being 5,000 dollars a year. Besides the General Congress, each state has its own separate senate and H. of Representatives, elected by its inhabs. The qualifications of electors are not the same in every part of the Union; and respecting them we refer the reader to the arts. on the several states. The individual states are in most respects independent as to their internal administration; but no state can enter into any treaty or alliance with any foreign power, grant letters of marque and reprisal, coin money, emit bills of credit, grant titles of nobility, &c. &c.

In order that the reader may be fully acquainted with the institutions and government of the U. States, we subjoin a copy of the general constitution of the Union, as agreed upon in 1787, and of the amendments that have since been made upon it.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

We the people of the U. States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the U. States of America:—

ARTICLE I.

SECTION I. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the U. States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION II. 1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year, by the people of the several states; and the electors in each state shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the state legislature.

2. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of 25 years, and been seven years a citizen of the U. States, and, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state in which he shall be chosen.

3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within this union according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the U. States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each state shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the state New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose 3; Massachusetts, 8; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, 1; Connecticut, 5; New York, 6; New Jersey, 4; Pennsylvania, 5; Delaware, 1; Maryland, 6; Virginia, 10; North Carolina, 5; South Carolina, 5; and Georgia, 3.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any state, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. The House of Representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION III. 1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

2. Immediately after they shall be assembled, in consequence of the

first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The first of the members of the 1st class shall be vacated at the expiration of the 2d year, of the 2d class at the expiration of the 4th year, and of the 3d class at the expiration of the 6th year, so that one third may be chosen every 2d year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any state, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of 30 years, and been 9 years a citizen of the U. States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state for which he shall be chosen.

4. The Vice-President of the U. States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president pro tempore, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the U. States.

6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments: when sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath of affirmation. When the President of the U. States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honour, trust, or profit, under the U. States; but the party convicted shall, nevertheless, be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

Section IV. 1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each state by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the 1st Monday in Dec., unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Section V. 1. Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner and under such penalties as each House may provide.

2. Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behaviour, and with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

3. Each House shall keep a Journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may, in their judgment, require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either House on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the Journal.

4. Neither House, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

Section VI. 1. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the U. States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the U. States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the U. States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

Section VII. 1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments on other bills.

2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States: if he approve, he shall sign it; but if not, he shall return it with his objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their Journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two thirds of that House shall agree in passing the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a law. But in all such cases, the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays; and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the Journal of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in the manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the U. States; and before the same shall take effect shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Section VIII. The Congress shall have power—

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the U. States; but all duties, imposts, and excises, shall be uniform throughout the U. States;

2. To borrow money on the credit of the U. States;

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes;

4. To establish an uniform rule of naturalisation, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the U. States;

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coins, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the U. States;

7. To establish post offices and post-roads;

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court;

10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations;

11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

12. To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

13. To provide and maintain a navy;

14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the U. States, reserving to the states respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

17. To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may by cession of particular states, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the U. States; and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the state in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other useful buildings;—And

18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the U. States, or in any department or officer thereof.

Section IX. 1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the states now existing shall think proper to admit shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year 1808; but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding 10 dollars for each person.

2. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

3. No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

4. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration herein-before directed to be taken.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any state.

6. No preference shall be given to any vessel of one state over revenue in the ports of one state over those of another: no state shall vessels bound to, or from, one state, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

7. No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

8. No title of nobility shall be granted by the U. States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any prince, prince, or foreign state.

Section X. 1. No state shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts; or grant any title of nobility.

2. No state shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any state on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the U. States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

3. No state shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another state, or with a foreign power, engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

Section I. 1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the U. States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

2. Each state shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the state may be entitled in the Congress; but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the U. States, shall be appointed an elector.

3. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes, which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

4. No person, except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

5. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

6. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

7. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath, or affirmation (which he may swear or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States.

Section II. 1. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the armed forces of the U. States, he may grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the federal laws, except in cases of impeachment; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officers in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the supreme and all inferior courts of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may, by law, vest the appointment of some inferior officers, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECUTION III. He shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECUTION IV. The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

SECUTION I. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behaviour, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECUTION II. 1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority; — to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; — to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; — to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; — to controversies between two or more states; — between a state and citizens of another state; — between citizens of different states; — between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states, and between a state or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, and those in which a state shall be party, the supreme court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the supreme court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations, as the Congress shall make.

3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the state where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any state, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECUTION III. 1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

2. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

3. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall carry any forfeiture of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

SECUTION I. Full faith and credit shall be given in each state to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other state. And the Congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECUTION II. 1. The citizens of each state shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states.

2. A person charged in any state with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another state, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the state from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the state having jurisdiction of the crime.

3. No person held to service or labour in one state, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labour; but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labour may be due.

SECUTION III. 1. New states may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new state shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other state; nor any state be formed by the junction of two or more states, or parts of states, without the consent of the legislatures of the states concerned, as well as of the Congress.

2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular state.

SECUTION IV. The United States shall guarantee to every state in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and, on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two thirds of the several states, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the several states, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment, which may be made prior to the year 1808, shall in any manner affect the 1st and 4th clauses in the 9th section of the 1st article; and that no state, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the senate.

ARTICLE VI.

1. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution as under the Confederation.

2. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every state shall be bound thereby, any thing in the constitution or laws of any state to the contrary notwithstanding.

3. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several state legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several states, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the conventions of 9 states shall be sufficient for

the establishment of this Constitution between the states so ratifying the same.

Done in convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the 17th day of Sept., in the year of our Lord 1787, and of the Independence of the United States of America the 12th. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, President,
and Deputies from Virginia, &c.

[Congress at their first session under the Constitution, held in the city of New York, in 1789, proposed to the legislatures of the several states, 12 amendments, 10 of which only were adopted. They are the first 10 of the following amendments; and they were ratified by three fourths of the constitutional number of the States, on the 15th of Dec., 1791. The 11th amendment was proposed at the session of the third Congress, and was declared in a message from the President of the U. States to both Houses of Congress, dated the 5th of Jan. 1795, to have been adopted by the constitutional number of States, in the year 1804, according to a public notice by the Secretary of State, dated the 25th of September, 1804.]

AMENDMENTS

To the Constitution of the U. States, ratified according to the provisions of the 5th Article of the foregoing Constitution.

ARTICLE I. Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II. A well regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V. No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous, crime, unless on indictment or presentment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence, to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled, in any criminal case, to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the state and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favour, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ARTICLE VII. In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed 20 dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved; and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the U. States than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX. The enumeration, in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X. The powers not delegated to the U. States, by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI. The judicial power of the U. States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the U. States by citizens of another state, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XII. The electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the U. States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; — the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors; if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three, on the list of those voted for as President, the President shall be chosen by a majority of the whole number of the electors. But in choosing the President, the electors shall not choose a President, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the 4th day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the U. States.

The fact that the legislature, and that all the principal officers of the government, from the president downwards, are chosen by a widely

extended system of election, constitutes the distinguishing characteristic of the American constitution. Any lengthened inquiry into the advantages and disadvantages of such a form of government would, perhaps, be foreign to our subject; and would, at all events, be incompatible with our limits. It is sufficient to observe that, as the suffrage in the greater number of the states is now nearly or completely universal, the legislature and officers of government, as well of separate states as of the Union, are chosen rather by the numerical majority than by the intelligence of the country. It has, it is true, been contended in an able, though partial article on the U. States, in the new edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, that, "when the people have a free choice, they will always prefer merit to demerit." And no doubt this would be the case provided they could readily distinguish between the merit and demerit of the parties soliciting their suffrages. But how are they to do this? how are they to discriminate between the tares and the corn? between protestations and realities? between a simulated zeal for the public interests and a secret determination to prostitute them to selfish ends? Every one knows that the most popular individuals are not always, nor even frequently, the most deserving; but those who can best contrive to recommend themselves, whether by worthy or unworthy means, to the favour of the public. This, no doubt, is an evil that is, partially at least, inherent in all elective systems; but it becomes more obvious the lower the suffrage is extended, and the greater the number of the electors. The bulk of the latter can then know but little of the private history, connections, and real character of the candidates for their favour; and having, in the great majority of instances, nothing better to trust to than protestations and promises, are often deceived in the estimate they form of those whom they choose for representatives. In the election to the highest offices, such as those of president and vice-president, which are chosen by the whole Union, the inconvenience now stated is not so much felt; for, before a man can aspire to such offices, he must have been for a lengthened period before the public, and have, consequently, afforded them the means of making a pretty fair appreciation of his public principles and conduct. But in the case of the representatives sent to the legislature of the different states, and those selected to fill local offices, the principle now noticed does not apply. In these the electors always have been, and, it may safely be affirmed, always will be caught by the same baits; declamatory harangues, violent party demonstrations, and specious, though hollow, promises, will too frequently succeed where talents, knowledge, good sense, and integrity are disregarded.

The universality of the franchise in the U. States, and the frequency of elections, have the advantage of keeping the public attention alive to political matters; but this, on the other hand, keeps up the most violent party contentions; and too frequently tempts one or other party, in difficult exigencies, to resort to unjustifiable proceedings. The tyranny of a majority may be quite as oppressive as that of a despot. And where the government is so entirely dependent on the democracy, it dares not take any course, how just soever or expedient, that might clash in any way with popular prejudices. In its results, at least, the *vox populi* is here the *vox Dei*; and as it is very apt to be influenced by sudden impulses, injustice is apt to be committed before

time is given for reflection, or a fair estimate can be formed of the consequences of measures. In proof of what is now stated we may refer to the recklessness which the greater number of the separate states evinced of late years in the contraction of debts; and the shameless effrontery with which several of them have refused, notwithstanding their undoubted ability, to make good the engagements into which they had so recently entered. The mere populace has, in fact, far too much influence in America; and the government will never be secure, nor able to act consistently on just and sound principles, till this influence be diminished.

The division of the Union into separate states, each of which is, as it were, a semi-independent republic, with its local government and legislature, has some advantages, but many more defects. It enables the private and peculiar affairs of the different states to receive that proper attention that could hardly be expected from a general government, and in so far is beneficial: on the other hand, however, it weakens, and indeed goes far to nullify, the authority of the central government, in the transacting of the public business of the Union. The fact of all its local and private business being transacted at home makes each state regard itself rather as an independent community than as a portion of one great empire. Owing, also, to the vast extent of the Union, the inhabs. of its different states have but little intercourse with each other; and their interests as regards foreign countries may not unfrequently have little in common, and be even opposed to those of their fellow-citizens in some other quarter. What interest, for example, could the Southern States take in the question as to the boundary of Maine? And supposing the negotiations respecting it had unhappily terminated in war, is it to be supposed that Louisiana, Alabama, and other states along the Gulph of Mexico, would have submitted to the burdens and privations it would have brought along with it, for a matter in which they really had very little, if any, interest? Again, in the case of the imprisonment of black sailors in Charleston, which is of importance only to the slave-holding states, is it to be supposed that their pretensions will be abetted by those who repudiate slavery?

But, though the States E. of the Rocky Mountains should hold together, we apprehend it will be quite another thing with the States on the Pacific. Their interests are not identical with, but are in various respects opposed to those of the Eastern States. And we hardly think that the miners and cultivators of California and Oregon will continue, for any very lengthened period, to pay high duties on their clothes, hardware, &c., for the sake of the weavers of Lowell and the iron founders of Pittsburgh.

Apart, however, from these prominent causes of dissension, it seems pretty clear, in the event of the central government getting, on whatever grounds, into a dispute with a foreign power, that their opponents would gain a majority in the legislatures of some of the states, and it is impossible to say to what lengths faction and party spirit might carry them. The general opinion is, and we believe that it rests on a solid foundation, that had the last war with this country been protracted for a year or two longer, and been conducted with proper vigour on our part, it would have occasioned a disruption of the Union. In fact, the latter could not exist for any length of time were the country surrounded, like the European states, by other independent and formidable nations; and even as it is, the dif-

ferent interests of the different states, and the necessity of obviating, in as far as possible, the causes of disagreement, obliges the central government to adopt a timid and tentative policy, and deprives it of the greater portion of the weight and influence it would certainly enjoy were its action at home less impeded.

Even if a purely democratic government had been more successful in America than it appears to have been, that would be but a slender recommendation in its favour. There are so many important circumstances of a special and peculiar character in the condition of America, that it would be rash in the extreme to infer that institutions suitable for her would answer equally well in other countries. The extraordinary facilities for obtaining wealth and the means of subsistence in the U. States render universal suffrage incomparably less dangerous there than in old settled, and densely-peopled countries. The people in the former are not exposed to those severe distresses and privations which they frequently suffer in the latter; and that incomparably larger proportion of their number who are dependent on the land are always sure to obtain a pretty ample share of, at least, the necessities of life. They have, therefore, but little motive to interfere with the rights of property, or to adopt any violent means for improving their own condition at the expense of their neighbours. Certainly, however, the conduct of some of the states in repudiating their debts shows what might be expected from them, had they any very conspicuous objects of attack, were distress at all prevalent. We do not, however, think that in this respect the Americans are at all worse than others; and our conviction is, that if we had the same sort of ultra-democratical government in England that exists in the U. States our national debt would be very speedily wiped off, and our large estates parcelled out into more convenient portions. The American institutions are not very unsuitable, for a country where property is generally diffused; and where, owing to the abundance of fertile and unoccupied land, every industrious man may become independent: but they are wholly unsuitable for countries in the condition of most of those in Europe. Can any one doubt that if those who have nothing were permitted to legislate for those who have, as would be the case were we subject to a system of universal suffrage, a division of property would, sooner or later, be the inevitable consequence?

The *judiciary power* of the U. States resides in a supreme court at Washington, and 43 district courts, one or more in each separate state, and the district of Columbia. The supreme court consists of a chief justice, with a salary of 5,000 dollars, and at present (1860) eight associate judges, who each receive 4,500 doll. a year. The U. States are divided into 9 circuits, which are travelled separately twice a year by the judges of the supreme court; and the circuit courts have jurisdiction in all criminal cases, and in civil causes to the amount of more than 500 doll., and, in some cases, exercise a jurisdiction of appeal from the inferior courts. The laws of the U. States are bottomed upon the common and statute law of England; but capital punishments are less frequently resorted to than they used to be in this country.

On the whole, however, we apprehend it cannot be denied that the administration of justice in the U. States labours under several, and those probably incurable, defects. Party-spirit, which is the bane of all free countries, runs very high in America, and in cases involving political considerations jurors are very apt to be biased, and the most obvious principles of justice are too often sacrificed to the most unworthy feelings and prejudices. In the Southern and Western States the existence of slavery, the weakness of the government, and the turbulent unruly character of many of the settlers, oppose the most formidable obstacles to the due administration of the laws; and the fact is, that the most barbarous actions,

and crimes of the utmost atrocity, are there frequently perpetrated with impunity. This weakness of the law keeps alive, and, in some degree, excuses the practice of *Lynch law*, or the execution of summary justice by the populace upon individuals whose offences the law might not be able to reach. It is not easy, however, to say whether the toleration of such a practice, or the negation of all law, be preferable. Numerous instances may, no doubt, be specified, in which notorious offenders, who would otherwise have escaped all punishment, have, through the intervention of Lynch law, suffered the penalty due to their crimes; but, on the other hand, it exposes all individuals who have, how undeservedly soever, become objects of popular aversion and dislike, to the most serious danger; and instances have not been wanting, especially in the Southern States, in which individuals have met with the most savage treatment, and even been put to death, for manifesting some little interest in the fate of the blacks, and some wish to meliorate their condition!

The truth is, where so much power is conceded to the lower classes as in the U. States, the administration of justice must always be liable to great abuse. Juries chosen from among the people must necessarily be influenced to a greater or less extent by the passions and prejudices prevalent amongst the class from which they are taken. In Great Britain jurors are selected from among the middle classes, and are not, therefore, so apt to be swayed by popular enthusiasm, at the same time that the station, authority, and learning of the judges give them an influence over juries which it were idle to suppose should be enjoyed by such functionaries in the U. States. Many of the latter, indeed, are chosen for short terms only by popular election, and carry to the judgment seat all those narrow party views that recommended them, in the first instance, to the support of their friends. It is true there have been, and still are, numerous judges in the U. States, whose learning and judicial talent would do honour to any country; but this is not, and cannot be, the general character of this class of functionaries when chosen under such a system as prevails in America.

Public Instruction is nowhere more extensively diffused than in the N. part of the Union; and the education in the common schools is of the best description. Their attention to the education of the people, and the liberal provision made to insure that grand object, are most creditable to the American legislators. Everywhere in New England, except in Connecticut, the primary schools are supported by a property tax; and some of the states have school funds in addition, the income of which is distributed among the towns in proportion to the number of pupils educated. The common or public free schools are managed in each district by 12 directors, chosen by the people; and the children are taught gratuitously, the only expense being for books. Each town has one of these schools, and one is generally established in every district of 5 or 6 sq. miles. The instruction which is thus brought as it were within reach of every body, embraces the rudiments of English education, including arithmetic and geography; and in the larger towns Latin and Greek.

The principles of this system, its adaptation to the peculiar circumstances of the country, and its probable influence over the character and condition of the people, were set in the most striking point of view in a speech delivered by Mr. Webster, in an assembly held in Massachusetts in 1831:—"For the purpose of public instruction," said he, "we hold every man subject to taxation in proportion to his property, and we look not to the question whether he himself have or have not children to be benefited by the education for which he pays; we regard it as a wise and liberal system of policy, by which property, and life, and the peace of society, are secured. We seek to prevent, in some measure, the extension of the penal code, by inspiring a salutary and conservative principle of virtue and of knowledge in an early age. We hope to excite a feeling of respectability and a sense of character, by enlarging the capacities and increasing the sphere of intellectual enjoyment. By general instruction we seek, so far as possible, to purify the moral atmosphere; to keep good sentiments uppermost; and to turn the strong current of feeling and opinion, as well as the censures of the law, and the denunciations of religion, against immorality and crime. We hope for a security beyond the law and above the law, in the prevalence of enlightened and well principled moral sentiment. We hope to continue and to prolong the time, when, in the villages and farm-houses of New England, there may be undisturbed sleep within unbarred doors. Knowing that our government rests directly upon the public will, that we may preserve it we endeavour to give a safe and proper direction to that public will. We do not, indeed, expect all men to be philosophers, or statesmen; but we confidently trust, and our expectation of the duration of our system of government rests upon the trust, that by the diffusion of general knowledge, and good and virtuous sentiments, the political fabric may

be secure, as well against open violence and overthrow, as against the slow but sure undermining of licentiousness. We rejoice that every man in this community may call all property his own, so far as he has occasion for it to furnish for himself and his children the blessings of religious instruction and the elements of knowledge. This celestial and the earthly light he is entitled to by the fundamental laws. It is every poor man's undoubted birthright; it is the great blessing which this constitution has secured to him; it is his solace in life, and it may well be his consolation in death, that his country stands pledged, by the faith which it has pledged to all its citizens, to protect his children from ignorance, barbarism, and vice."

Out of New England an adequate provision for public schools exists in all the populous states, as Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, &c.; and whites may everywhere procure free education. In the newly settled states the provision for the support of common schools has been settled by Congress; and every township is divided in 36 sections of a sq. m. each, one of which is appropriated to the support of schools. We have previously seen, that the blacks are not permitted to share in the advantages of education; and if it be determined, *comme ça va*, to retain them in their present abject state of slavery, this regulation cannot, perhaps, be fairly objected to. But its modification or repeal should certainly precede any attempt to improve their condition, or to invest them with any portion of the rights and privileges enjoyed by the whites.

Superior instruction is, also, provided for in the most liberal manner, partly by the central and local governments, and partly by private individuals and associations. Academies of various degrees of excellence are found in every part of the Union. In these the ancient and modern languages, grammar, history, logic, rhetoric, natural and moral philosophy, &c. are taught. There are, besides, about 130 colleges and universities, supported by different religious denominations or by the states; and in the more populous parts of the country, there are but few districts of any considerable extent without one or more of these institutions. The principal are Harvard University, in Massachusetts; Yale College, in Connecticut; Dartmouth Union, Rutgers' Colleges, &c. There are about 40 theological, 35 medical, and 13 law schools, the last of which are the least frequented.

A vast number of newspapers and journals issue from the American press. But, with some few exceptions, the newspapers and political journals are more distinguished by the violence of their party-spirit and outrageous abuse, than by ability or information. The best European works are mostly republished in America; and the Americans have themselves made some valuable contributions to the literature they have inherited from their forefathers. Numerous scientific societies are established, and science and the fine arts have made considerable progress in the Union. A vast number of hospitals and charities of all kinds, missions, Sunday-schools, prison societies, savings' banks, and other benevolent institutions, have also been established.

The *Standing Army*, in 1850, amounted to 10,320 men, including 8 regiments of infantry, 4 of artillery, 3 of dragoons, 11 staff officers, and medical officers. The whole territory of the U. States is subdivided into military departments, and 3 grand divisions, the head-quarters of the E. of which are at Troy, New York, and of the W. at New Orleans, and those of the Pacific division at Sonoma, California. The army, however, has been increased in the course of this year (1851). The pay of a major-general is 900 dollars a month; of a colonel, 75 do.; of a captain, 40 do.; and of lieutenants, from 25 to 30 do., with proportional rations. Sergeants-major receive 17 dollars; corporals, 9 do.; and privates, 7 do. a month, without rations. No half-pay is given. The army is not a favourite service, which, considering the demand for labour, and the facilities of rising in all ordinary employments, is not to be wondered at. The native Americans are all enrolled in the militia, which, in 1849, comprised 1,914,100 men.

The *Naval Force* comprised, in 1849, —

In *Commission*—Ships of the line, 3; rases, 1; frigates, 7; sloops of war, 14; brigs, 4; schooners, 4; steamers, 7; store ships, 6; total, 46.

In *Ordinary*—Ships of the line, 4; frigates, 5; sloops of war, 4; schooners, 1; steamers, 1; total, 16.

Repairing and Equipping—Sloops of war, 1; steamers, 5; store ships, 3; total, 9.

On the Stocks and Constructing—Ships of the line, 4; frigates, 3; steamers, 1; total, 8.

Marryat says, "It is impossible not to be struck with the beautiful architecture of most of these vessels. The Ohio is, as far as I am a judge, the perfection of a ship of the line." (*Diary*, iii. 8. 10.) The navy is a favourite service; and the pay is much higher proportionally than in the army: captains receive from 2,500 to 4,500 dollars a year; lieutenants, from 1,200 to 1,800 do.; surgeons, from 1,000 to 2,700 do.; assistant-surgeons, from 650 to 1,150 do.; midshipmen, from 400 to 750

do.; masters, from 750 to 1,100 do.; and boatswains, sail-makers, &c., from 360 to 750 dollars. This scale is much higher than that in the English navy; but, according to Captain Marryat, the officers of the American navy have not one cent more than they absolutely require; all things being much dearer in America than in England to a person not growing or otherwise reducing his own necessities, but living upon his income. Besides which, in a country like the U. States, where any one, in a few years, by personal industry, may become independent, it would be impossible for the government to procure officers if they were not tolerably well paid. (*Diary*, iii. 15.)

The Americans are justly proud of their navy, and of its gallant exploits during the last war with England. But it should be remembered, that the American ships were mostly of much greater size and weight of metal than the British ships which they captured; and that, in cases such as the contest between the *Shannon* and *Chesapeake*, where the ships on both sides were of nearly equal force, the result was different. No doubt, however, the Americans are excellent seamen; and the bulk, outfit, and discipline of their ships of war do them infinite credit. Seamen for the American navy are not obtained by impressment, but by voluntary enlistment, and, unless we give up the practice of impressment, it is all but certain, in the event of another war occurring, that it will draw vast numbers of British seamen to the American service. This, in fact, it has already done. At the end of last war it was estimated that about 16,000 English seamen were in the American service; so that it may really be said that the victories of the Americans over English ships were in great part achieved by English seamen. It is to be hoped that we may not, by obstinately clinging to a practice fraught with injustice and oppression, so greatly lessen our own and increase the number of foreign seamen.

There are 7 navy-yards in the U. States; those of Portsmouth, in New Hampshire, Charleston, near Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Washington (where all the anchors, cables, blocks, &c. required are made), Portsmouth, in Virginia, and Pensacola, in Florida.

Revenue and Expenditure.—The revenue of the Union is almost wholly derived from the customs' duties, the produce of the sales of public lands, and the post-office. Since 1845, the customs' duties have been as follows:—

1845	1846	1847	1848	1849	1850
27,745,115	28,715,155	31,757,071	31,757,071	31,757,071	31,757,071

The revenue derived from the sale of public lands fluctuates in a still more extraordinary degree than the customs' duties, as is obvious from the following

Statement of the Quantity of Public Land sold in the U. States, and Amount paid for the same in each year since 1834 to the end of the Third Quarter of 1850.

Years.	Acres.	Dollars.
1834	4,658,218.71	6,099,981.06
1835	18,504,478.99	15,089,304.11
1836	30,074,457.92	25,167,833.06
1837	5,601,103.12	7,007,528.04
1838	5,414,697.48	6,405,264.64
1839	4,976,136.81	5,976,536.79
1840	2,856,880.74	2,789,837.53
1841	1,164,190.11	1,463,364.06
1842	1,129,217.58	1,417,977.06
1843	1,608,954.08	2,015,644.30
1844	1,704,763.18	2,707,678.04
1845	1,845,967.05	2,470,303.17
1846	2,001,230.81	2,800,618.79
1847	2,041,505.59	3,196,474.06
1848	1,887,553.04	2,621,618.76
1849	887,222.40	1,177,067.61
Total	72,410,467.96	92,592,949.90

We may remark, by the way, that this table sets the influence of the excessive over-issue of bank paper in 1846 in the clearest point of view, as well as the depression under which the Union was labouring in 1841 and 1842.

The post-office revenue barely suffices to defray the expenses of the establishment, and the other sources of revenue are quite inconsiderable.

The total Revenue and Expenditure of the U. States in 1849 and 1850, w.e.e as follows, viz.:—

Revenue.	Customs.	Lands.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
1849	27,745,115	1,845,967	3,123,071	32,714,153
1850	31,757,071	1,748,715	1,156,387	34,662,173

Expenditure.	Civil.	War.	Navy.	Interest.	Total.
1849	11,636,605	1,263,371	10,164,648	2,661,314	35,725,938
1850	14,374,699	1,973,112	7,775,410	3,770,815	37,934,036

The public debt of the Union, which amounted at the close of last war with Great Britain, to 146,713,040 dollars;

was entirely paid off in 1835. The surplus revenue which accrued in that and the years immediately following was distributed, pursuant to the act of Congress, among the several states of the Union, on condition that it should be repaid at certain intervals by quarterly instalments. But, owing to the pecuniary difficulties in which they have since been involved, the payment of the last instalment has been indefinitely postponed. Small, indeed, as is the expenditure of the Union, the government has sometimes, owing to the embarrassments arising out of the vicious banking system with which the country is afflicted, found the greatest difficulty in meeting its engagements. The cost of the late war with Mexico, inc. the sum which it was agreed to pay to that republic, is said to have amounted to above 317,000,000 dolls. To meet this heavy expense several loans became necessary, and hence, in 1849, the Union owed a debt of 64,704,898 dolls.; which, compared with its revenue and resources, is a mere trifle.

Most of the separate states, and some of the principal cities of the Union, have contracted a greater or less amount of debt, principally for the construction of canals, railways, or other local improvements, the erection of public buildings, the establishment of banks, and other institutions, &c. Subjoined is a

Statement of the Debts of the several Indebted States of the Union, at the close of 1850:—

States, &c.	Debts in Dollars.	States, &c.	Debts in Dollars.
Maine -	853,750	Tennessee -	8,537,856
Massachusetts -	6,135,064	Kentucky -	4,497,529
New York -	24,038,192	Ohio -	19,926,300
New Jersey -	57,595	Indiana -	6,531,737
Pennsylvania -	40,511,125	Illinois -	16,612,785
Maryland -	15,909,981	Missouri -	256,481
Virginia -	15,477,455	Michigan -	2,512,717
N. Carolina -	2,510,896	Arkansas -	5,565,172
Georgia -	2,478,000	Texas -	11,053,694
Alabama -	8,539,110	Iowa -	55,000
Mississippi -	7,371,707	California -	390,000
Louisiana -	16,236,131		

Some of the funds so borrowed have been profitably laid out; but a large proportion was, we believe, expended on projects, some of which will, most probably, be a total loss, while others yielded little or no revenue for years after the outlay. But their injudicious expenditure did not afford so much as the shadow of an excuse for the conduct of Michigan, Mississippi, Louisiana, and other states who proceeded to repudiate their debts. Nothing, in fact, was ever heard of in the public conduct of nations more audaciously profligate than this repudiation. Necessity may compel a state, as well as an individual, to become bankrupt; but the repudiating American states had no such excuse; they were all but entirely free from the burden of taxes; and the smallest sacrifice on their part, such as the imposition of a small internal duty on spirits, tobacco, or some such articles, consumed within their limits, would have enabled them to face all their engagements. The truth is, that their dishonesty was so glaring and barefaced, as to admit neither of palliation nor excuse. The pretences they put forward in extenuation of their roguery served only to set it in a still more striking point of view. What was it to the capitalists who made them loans, whether they expended them judiciously or employed honest agents? That was their own private affair; and to decline paying their just debts on such flimsy grounds was the climax of knavery. Our countrymen were large creditors of the states who repudiated their debts; and we would fain hope that this experience will make them more cautious how they embark in such like transactions on future occasions.

At the same time, however, it would be unjust not to mention that several of the leading states of the Union have treated the doctrine of repudiation with contempt, and have honourably distinguished themselves by their adherence to their engagements. Some, also, of the repudiating states have recommenced paying their debts, with the arrears accumulated upon them; and we have little doubt that at no very distant period this will be done by them all.

Local Taxation.—Notwithstanding the economy that pervades every department of the public service in the U. States, their civil government costs a great deal more than it is generally supposed to do, at least in this country. The entire cost of the government of the U. Kingdom is brought into one aggregate sum; but such is not the case in the U. States. In the latter the different states, though, in some respects, subordinate to the central government at Washington, are each, in so far as respects their own local and internal affairs, quite in-

dependent, and have separate administrations, legislative bodies, judicial establishments, and so forth. Hence, in estimating the cost of the government of the U. States, we must include, in addition to the cost of the central government, the cost of the different (at present 31) state governments, some of which have large revenues. In 1849, for example, the revenue of the state of N. York, raised for local purposes, amounted to 5,548,981 doll.; that of Pennsylvania to 4,493,689 doll.; and that of Ohio, in 1850, to 3,092,994 doll. The revenues of some of the other states, such as Virginia, Illinois, Louisiana, Maryland, &c., are also very large.

A portion of the revenues of some of the states is derived from investments in public works, such as canals and railways, and in banking companies, &c. But the largest portion by far is derived from taxes; and these are sometimes imposed in a mode, and collected with a severity, that would be little relished in this country. Thus, in Ohio, to borrow the words of the State Auditor:—

"All personal property is annually assessed by township assessors, elected by the people of the townships. Forms and instructions are prepared by the Auditor of State, and forwarded to the county auditors annually, for the use of the township assessors. A blank form is delivered to each individual, who is required to return the value of his own property, under oath, to the assessor. If any person refuses to return a statement of his personal property under oath, as required, the assessor ascertainment the value from such evidence as he can obtain, or from his own knowledge, and in such case he returns the party *'refuse to swear'*, and the county auditor adds 50 per cent. to the sum returned by the assessor as a penalty.

"Merchandise and the stock, or raw material, of manufacturers are taxed in the city, town, or township in which they are located. No matter where the owner resides, his real property, stock in merchandise, and manufactures, are placed on the list and taxed where they are situated when the assessment is made. Thus, the store, manufactory, and merchandise in the city and town are subject to the local and corporation taxes, without regard to the place where the owner resides."

Nothing, therefore, can be a greater mistake than to suppose, as many do, that the Americans enjoy an all but total immunity from taxation! In some of the states it is very heavy, quite as much so as in G. Britain, and much more so than in Ireland. Taking the general revenue of the U. States, exclusive of the portion raised by the sale of public lands, at 30,000,000 doll., we may add to it 35,000,000 doll. more for the sums raised by taxes to defray the local expenditure of the different states. Here then we have a total revenue of 65,000,000 doll., or about 14,000,000L stg., a sum which would more than defray the entire cost of the government of this country, ex the interest of the debt and the expenditure on account of colonies.

Religion.—No particular form of religion is established by law in the U. States. Each sect supports its own ministers, and provides for its own religious instruction. Subjoined is an (see top next page)

Historical Notice.—The first English settlement in America was made in Virginia, by a private company, in 1607; and during the civil war of the subsequent period, the pop. of the states was successively augmented by numbers of Puritans from the mother country, who settled in New England, R. Catholics in Maryland, defeated Royalists in Virginia, &c., with numbers of Swedes, Germans, and others. The settlement of the several colonies, down to 1776, when the revolutionary war broke out, took place as follows:—

Colonies.	Settled.	Colonies.	Settled.
1. Virginia -	1607	8. Providence -	1638
2. New Hampshire -	1623	9. Rhode Island -	1638
3. New Jersey -	1624	10. North Carolina -	1630
4. Delaware -	1637	11. New York (previously Dutch) -	1664
5. Massachusetts -	1630	12. South Carolina -	1670
6. Maryland -	1633	13. Pennsylvania -	1682
7. Connecticut -	1635	14. Georgia -	1733

Account of the Churches or Congregations, Ministers, Communicants, &c., belonging to the principal Religious Bodies, according to Returns made 1844-50, and by Estimate.

Denominations.	Churches or Congregations.	Ministers.	Members or Communicants.
Roman Catholics -	1,073	1,081	1,235,550
Protestant Episcopalians -	1,232	1,497	67,550
Presbyterians, Old School -	2,512	1,460	200,430
New School -	1,651	1,551	155,000
Cumberland Presbyterians -	480	550	50,000
Other classes of Presbyterians -	280	283	45,500
Dutch Reformed -	222	229	35,920
German Reformed -	261	273	70,000
Evangelical Lutheran -	1,604	663	165,000
Moravians -	22	94	6,000
Methodist Episcopal -	-	5,042	1,112,756
Methodist Protestant Ch. -	-	740	64,513
Reformed Methodist -	-	75	5,000
Wesleyan Methodists -	-	600	20,000
German Methodists (United Brethren) -	1,800	600	15,000
Allbright Methodists (Evangelical Association) -	600	250	15,000
Memnonians -	400	250	26,000
Methodist Congregationalists -	1,271	1,087	197,190
Unit. Congregationalists -	445	250	30,000
Universalists -	1,194	700	60,000
Swedenborgians -	5	5,000	5
Regular Baptists -	8,406	5,112	686,507
Rix-Principle Baptists -	21	25	3,566
Seventh-Day Baptists -	52	42	6,943
Free-will Baptists -	1,252	56	14,518
Church-of-God Baptists -	97	128	10,102
Reformed Baptists (Campbellites) -	248	248	118,618
Christian Baptists (Unit.) -	607	498	5,040
Anti-Mission Baptists -	2,035	907	67,243

The delegates of the above colonies, afterwards called states, signed the memorable Declaration of Independence on the 4th of July, 1776, since which the following states have been added to the Union:—

States.	Added.	States.	Added.
14. Vermont -	1791	33. Maine -	1820
15. Tennessee -	1796	34. Missouri -	1820
16. Kentucky -	1792	35. Michigan -	1836
17. Ohio -	1802	36. Arkansas -	1836
18. Louisiana -	1812	37. Florida -	1845
19. Indiana -	1816	38. Texas -	1845
20. Mississippi -	1817	39. Iowa -	1846
21. Illinois -	1818	40. Wisconsin -	1848
22. Alabama -	1819	51. California -	1850

It would be useless to attempt giving in this place any exposition of the causes which led to the revolutionary war, or any account of its progress. The attempts of the English minister to impose duties on certain articles imported into America, were, as every one knows, the immediate cause of the contest. But though these attempts had not been made, we are not of the number of those who suppose that the struggle could have been much longer delayed. It is idle to suppose that a powerful and rapidly growing country, on the other side of the Atlantic, should have continued to submit to have her governors appointed, and her intercourse with other countries regulated by England. At a certain stage of their progress, all great colonies must separate from their mother countries; and the only thing to be regretted in the American revolution is, that it was not allowed to take place without opposition on our part. We derive quite as much advantage from America, now that she is independent, as we should have done had she continued to be a colony; and we do this without being obliged to keep up expensive armaments for her defence and protection.

It will always be one of the chief glories of England, that she was the *magna virum mater*, that she bred and sent forth the men who established this mighty empire in the wilderness. But it would be invidious to attempt to institute any comparison between the English and Americans of the present day. That their characters have diverged considerably is certain. Nor is this to be wondered at, seeing the extremely different circumstances under which the mother people and their descendants have been placed. The merits and the faults of the latter both stand prominently forward; and may be

easily and satisfactorily accounted for by those who fairly appreciate the nature of the country they inhabit, and the institutions under which they live.

It may be further observed, that the bankruptcy and mischief occasioned by her worthless banking system, and the disorder it occasionally introduces into all the commercial dealings of the country, only affect her property in a very slight degree. The latter is essentially bottomed on agriculture, or rather on the facility with which all classes may acquire tracts of fertile and uncultivated land. The great mass of the American citizens may, like Antæus, on the occurrence of any difficulty, fall back upon the land, and gather new vigour from its embrace. The merchants and ship-owners in the great towns, the speculators in banks, railway and canal shares, &c., may be ruined, the local governments may be reduced to a state of bankruptcy, and even the federal government be involved in difficulties, without affecting the elements of the national prosperity, or having any material influence over the condition of the great bulk of the people. In this respect America differs from most other countries; but it is to be observed that this difference depends wholly on natural circumstances; it is not occasioned by any foresight on the part of the American people, or any peculiar excellence in their government or institutions; but is merely a consequence of the physical circumstances of the country they have the good fortune to inhabit.

(See GENEVEY AND SUTLAND ISLES.)

UNTERWALDEN, one of the Four Forest Cantons of Switzerland, near the centre of the confed., in which it holds the 6th rank; between lat. 46° 40' and 6° N., and long. 8° and 58° E., having W., Lucerne; N., the same cant., and the Lake of Lucerne; E., Uri; and S. the Bernese Oberland. Area, estimated at 262 sq. m. Pop. in 1850, 26,138, all R. Catholics; and of whom 13,799 belonged to Upper, and 11,337 to Lower, Unterwalden. The territory consists principally of 4 valleys, inclosed by mountains of various heights, the highest of which, the Töls, rises to nearly 11,000 ft. above the sea. Two streams called Aa, hardly deserving the name of rivers, flow into the Lake of Lucerne; and there are several small lakes, and numerous cascades. The climate is temperate, particularly in the E., where various kinds of fruit are grown. The valleys and lower hills afford fine pasturage; which makes cattle-breeding the chief occupation of the inhabs. The cattle are small, but a good cow is estimated to yield a profit of from 50 to 100 florins a year to the owner; and about 10,000 head of cattle are annually depastured in the canton. The cheese of Unterwalden is reckoned inferior only to that of the Emmenthal; and a good deal is sent into Italy. In good years the value of the cheese exported from the valley of Engelberg amounts to about 40,000 florins. Agriculture is comparatively neglected; and corn, to the value of at least 120,000 florins, has to be imported from Lucerne. The vine does not succeed; and the place of wine is supplied by liquors made from different fruits. The forests are a chief source of wealth; and fir, and after these, beech, oak, and pine, are the principal trees; the extensive forest of Kerswald has formed the line of separation between the republics of Lower or N., and Upper or S., Unterwalden, ever since the 12th century. Mining and manufactures are insignificant; some linen thread is, however, spun in the valley of Engelberg.

In both parts of the canton, the constitution is wholly democratic. Upper Unterwalden consists of 7 communes, all the male inhabs. of which above 20 years of age meet in a general assembly, exercising the sole deliberative and legislative power, on the 1st Sunday in April at the cap. Sarnen. The executive body, consisting of 14 principal functionaries, chosen by the general assembly, and 65 other mems. appointed by the different parishes, exercises all the high judicial and other functions, except in case of capital punishment; when the *triple council*, an assembly composed partly of special delegates, must pass sentence. Lower Unterwalden consists of 13 communes. Its general assembly is similarly constituted; but its government, carried on at Stans, the cap., is more complicated than that of the other part of the canton, being conducted by a great variety of councils and assemblies. Public education is everywhere very backward. Both parts of the canton have but one united voice in the Swiss diet; they contribute 382 men to the Swiss army, and 1,907 fr. a year to the federal treasury.

Unterwalden, with Uri and Schwytz, formed the nucleus of the Swiss Confederation early in the 13th century; but little worth notice has occurred in its subsequent history, except that the inhabs. of Lower Unterwalden made a vigorous opposition to the French revolutionary troops in 1798, for which they suffered proportionally. (*First Statist. des Suisses*, 1843, &c.)

UPSAL, or UPSALA, a city of Sweden, cap. prov. of

same name, on the Sala, by which it is divided into two parts, 37 m. N. by W. Stockholm. Pop., 4,500. It is a fine, old-fashioned city. Only a few of the inhabs. are engaged in manufactures, or in the little trade carried on by the river, on which a steam navigation is kept up with Stockholm. The greater number depend for support on the University, the principal in the kingdom. This establishment was founded by Steno Sture in 1478, and modelled on the university of Paris. It was warmly patronized by Gustavus Vasa, who was partly educated in it. At a subsequent period, however, it was transferred to Stockholm, but was again restored to Upsal by Charles IX. It has long enjoyed a very extensive celebrity, and is at present attended by from 1,350 to 1,450 pupils, though of these only from 800 to 900 may be resident at any one time. Thus in the winter session of 1837, the University had in all 1,376 students, of whom 874 were resident. Of the entire number, 359 attended the theological, 305 the legal, 143 the medical, and 408 the philosophical classes. The students, like those of Scotland and Germany, lodge in the town. Their average expenditure may be estimated at about 30*l*. The fees at the University as 150 students are maintained free of expense from endowments left by Gustavus Adolphus. The public lectures are all gratuitous, and but few private lectures are attended. Most of the professors lecture in their own houses. None have a salary of more than 800*l*. a year, and many have much less. The new University is a handsome and spacious edifice, built of freestone, in the Florentine style of architecture. Most part of it has been devoted to two splendid halls, one on the first story of the principal library, and another on the second for the conferring of academic degrees, &c. The ground floor is occupied by rooms appropriated to MSS.; but, until very lately, the library, comprising 100,000 volumes, remained in the old university building. The greatest curiosity in this collection is a manuscript of the four gospels, called, from its silver letters, the *Codex Argenteus*, supposed to be a copy of the Gothic translation made by Ulfphilas, the apostle of the Goths, in the 4th century. Much controversy has existed among the learned as to the characters in which this famous codex is written; especially whether it be in those used by the Goths of Measia, ancestors of the present Swedes, or in the Frankish idiom. At all events, however, there can be no doubt of its high antiquity; it is admitted on all hands not to be later than the 6th century, and may be of the 4th or 5th, while it certainly has the further advantage of having been translated from the original Greek. The codex was found in 1567, in the library of the Benedictine abbey of Werden, in Westphalia; and having found its way (whether honestly is doubtful) into the library of Isaac Voelkeus, was, on his death, purchased for the comparative trifling sum of 25*l*. by the Count de Gardie, who presented it to the university. (*Coxe*, iv., 173, &c. 8vo. ed.)

In the same edifice are preserved a beautiful cabinet, presented to Gustavus Adolphus by the city of Augsburg in 1632, and the large chest, sealed and left by Gustavus III., with instructions that it should not be opened till 50 years from the day of his death. The prescribed period expired in 1842; but we have not learnt whether the chest has been opened. Here, also, is a botanic garden, and a museum, in which is a fine statue of Linnaeus by Bystrom. This university has had many celebrated individuals among its professors, especially in the department of Natural History; among others may be specified Linnaeus, Bergman, Afzelius, &c.

The cathedral is an imposing edifice, though built only of brick: in some respects its appearance is similar to that of Notre Dame at Paris. It is 350 feet in extreme length, with a lofty nave and a magnificent altar. The Swedish monarchs were formerly crowned in this cathedral, and here, also, they are doctally interred. Among the numerous tombs, the most interesting is that of Gustavus Vasa; distinguished in every station of life, and equally great as a legislator, a warrior, and a politician. Linnaeus, also, is entombed in this cathedral, and the house is still shown which he occupied in the town.

Upsal has some public walks, on one of which a fine obelisk has been erected to the memory of Gustavus Adolphus. It is the metropolitan see of Sweden, and possesses an ecclesiastical school, a cosmographic, and other scientific societies. (*Coxe*, iv., *Bergman's Exercitationes*, ii.; *Dict. Gtog.*; *Voyage de deux Français*, &c.)

UPTON ON SEVERN, a market-town and par. of England, co. Worcester, hund. Pershore, on the Severn, here crossed by a stone bridge of 6 arches, 9 m. S. Worcester. Area of par., 3,110 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 2,696. The town is neatly built with well-paved streets. The church, rebuilt in 1758, is a handsome structure. The Baptists, and other sects, have also places of worship. A charity school for 16 girls, founded and endowed in 1718, to which a boys' school was attached in 1797, has been incorporated with 2 national schools, supported by voluntary contribution. A subscription library has been founded. The river, which is navigable

thus far for vessels of 100 tons, has a commodious wharf, and a good harbour for barges. It has no manufactures of any importance; but a considerable trade is carried on in corn, malt, coals, &c.; and a good deal of cyder is brought here for shipment from Hereford and other parts.

URBINO (an. *Urbanum Hortense*), a fortified town of Central Italy, in the Papal States, cap. leg. and formerly of the duchy of its own name, on a mountain near the Metauro, 20 m. S.W. Pesaro. Pop. of the town only about 7,000, but, including the suburbs, 12,000 (*Ramsbotham*). Its fortifications are a good specimen of the military works of the 14th century. Its old castle now forms part of a Carmelite convent, in which and in the churches are several fine works by Raphael and other distinguished artists. Urbino has an ancient ducal palace, which, like the *Palazzo Albani*, is a large and fine building; a newly built cathedral, with a rich chapter and archbishopric; a university, with about 200 students; a college, hospital, seminary, an association called by the singular title of *Accademia dissolutiorum*, and a court of primary jurisdiction. But the legate and other chief authorities of the leg. of Urbino and Pesaro reside at the latter town. Urbino is celebrated for its brass manufactures, to the value of about 14,000 crowns a year. (*Bosworth's Rep.*)

Among other illustrious individuals, Urbino has to boast of having given birth to Raphael, hence called by the Italians *Raffaello d'Urbino*, unquestionably the greatest painter of modern times. He was born on Good Friday, 1483, and died at Rome in 1520, on the anniversary of his birth, at the early age of 37 — a wonderfully brief space in which to have attained to such matchless proficiency, and to have completed so many great works. This was also the birthplace of Bramante, one of the greatest modern architects, a relative of Raphael; of the machinist Zerbaglio, and other distinguished personages. (*Ramsbotham*; *Conder's Italy*, &c.)

URI, a canton of Switzerland, in the S.E. part of the Confed., between the 46th and 47th degs. of N. lat., and 8° 30' and 9° E. long., having N. Schwyts and the Lake of Lucerne, E. Glarus and the Grisons, S. Tessin, and W. the Valais, the Bernese Oberland, and Unterwalden. Area estimated at 335 sq. m. Pop. in 1850, 14,505, all Roman Catholics. It is a fertile and well-cultivated principal valley, that of the Reuss, into which several others open laterally; and the whole are shut in, except at the N. and S. extremities of the canton, by lofty and generally impassable mountains. Among the mountains comprised in this canton is the celebrated St. Gothard, the passage across which is the principal route from Italy into E. Switzerland. The transit trade by this road was, and perhaps still is, the most profitable occupation of the inhabs. of Uri. Various other lofty and remarkable summits are included in the ranges surrounding the canton. The principal river is the Reuss, which rises in Mount St. Gothard, and after a course usually N., through Uri, in its whole length, falls into the Lake of Lucerne, near Altorf. Besides the Lake of Uri (the S. extremity of that of Lucerne) there are numerous small alpine lakes; and the canton is a good deal visited by strangers, both on account of its sublime scenery and the historical interest attached to it as the land of Tell, said to have been a native of Bürglen, near Altorf.

The pastures of this canton are very superior, and these and their cattle constitute the entire wealth of the inhabs. A good many cattle, tended by Bergamesque cowherds, are sent thither from Italy to feed during summer. The cheese of the canton is in high repute; but it is not extensively produced; and the stock of sheep, goats, hogs, &c., is not more than sufficient for the wants of the pop. Agriculture is entirely neglected. "Throughout the whole of the upper part of the valley of the Reuss and in the vale of Ursern, not one stalk of any kind of grain, nor one cultivated vegetable of any kind, is to be seen. I saw many warm stripes, and even little plains along the river side, where wheat and vegetables could have been successfully cultivated; but I still continued to meet carts laden with flour and potatoes. As I descended still lower in the valley, the scenery became more varied and more beautiful. Charming meadows lay by the river side, prettily diversified by clumps of walnut and pear trees; and cottages and hamlets thickly dotted the slopes. Altorf is surrounded by gardens and orchards; yet even here, where the climate is mild, and where the ordinary fruits come to great perfection, scarcely a ear of corn is to be seen." (*Agassiz*, p. 104.) This, however, does not originate in any want of industry; but in what is most probably a well-founded conviction on the part of the inhabs., that it is most advantageous for

them to confine their attention to the breeding and depasturing of cattle, and to import their corn, flour, and other provisions, and such manufactured goods as they do not produce in their cottages. The devastations of the late war, and the construction by Napoleon of the route over the Simplon, by diverting a considerable portion of the travelling and transit trade carried on through this canton into a new channel, have been especially hostile to its interests. Several metallic ores are met with, and Picot (p. 237.) enumerates a long list of valuable minerals found on Mount St. Gothard; but mining industry is quite insignificant.

Uri is subdivided into two districts, Uri and Ursern; Altorf is the cap. The constitution is strictly democratic. The legislative power resides in the General Assembly, composed of all the male pop. above 20 years of age, which assembles every year on the first Sunday in May, to choose the cantonal council of 44 mems., to which is confided the direct executive power. There are several inferior councils for separate departments of service. Each district has its own assembly and tribunals; and in the cap. is a tribunal of appeal, composed of 15 mems., and presided over by the *landammann*. The communes are generally too poor to support public schools all the year round, and education is very backward; no libraries or literary societies worthy of notice exist in the canton. The inhabs. are under the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the Bishop of Chur: they are mostly of the German stock, though in the S. an Italian dialect is spoken. Contingent to the Swiss army, 226 men; do. of money to the federal treasury, 1,184 fr. a year. This canton is supposed to have derived its name from the *urus*, or wild bull, which formerly inhabited its valleys in great numbers. Uri was one of the three cantons which revolted from the German empire in 1307, and formed the nucleus of the Swiss Confed. It was a principal theatre of war between the French and Austrians, in 1799–1800. (*Picot, Statist. de la Suisse*, &c.)

URUGUAY, or BANDA ORIENTAL, a republic of South America, between lat. 30° and 36° S. and long. 58° and 69° W.; having N. Brazil, E. and S. the Atlantic Ocean and the estuary of the La Plata, and W. the Uruguay river (see *ante*, p. 517.), by which it is separated from the Argentine or La Plata territories. It is of nearly circular form, and is supposed to embrace an area of about 200,000 sq. m., while its pop. is not supposed, Indians included, to exceed 150,000, or at most 200,000. It is but very little known. The coast presents the aspect of a low flat plain, without wood of any kind, and as far as the eye can reach quite level in appearance with the water. Inland, however, and particularly in the N., the country is intersected by many hill-ranges alternating with valleys traversed by considerable affluents of the Uruguay. In this territory, the humidity of the soil, which is watered by numerous rivers, is corrected by the Pampero, a remarkably dry wind. The climate of Uruguay is proverbially healthy, and it is evident that the thinness of the pop. must arise from the mode of life followed by the settlers, or from political causes, and not from any deficient fertility of the soil, or other natural or necessary cause. It is divided into 9 depts., and possesses 3 principal towns, Monte Video, La Colonia, and Maldonado, 13 small towns, and 8 hamlets, without including estancias or farms, and ranchos or cottages. Monte Video, having a better port and as good a government, bids fair to become a city of greater trade and wealth than its opposite rival, Buenos Ayres. (For its trade and that of the republic generally, see the art. MONTA VIDEO.) Uruguay is an integral, not a federal, republic: it formed a prov., under the gov. of Buenos Ayres, till 1821, when it was taken by the Brazilians, and incorporated with Brazil under the title of Prov. Cisplatina. In 1825, however, it declared itself independent, and its independence was recognized in 1828 by a treaty between Brazil and La Plata. (See Mr. Scarlett's *S. America*, 52–56.)

URUMEA, OORMIAH, or SHAHEE, a town and considerable lake of Persia, prov. Azerbajan. The town stands in a fine plain, watered by the Shar, 8 m. W. the lake, and 65 m. S.W. Tabriz. Its pop. has been roughly estimated at 12,000. It is fortified with a strong wall and deep ditch, which may be filled with water from the river. Though supposed to be the *Therapsa* of Strabo, it is said to possess no remains of its kind; but notice: it has, however, been rarely, if at all, visited by recent European travellers.

The lake of Urumea or Shahee was visited by Major Rawlinson so late as 1838. "It extends above a degree of lat. in length, and is about 1-3d of that distance in extreme breadth. The greatest depth of water that is found in any part is four fathoms, the average is about two fathoms, but the shores shelve so gradually that this depth is rarely attained within 2 m. of the land. The specific gravity of the water, from the quantity of salt which it retains in solution, is so great, that a vessel of 100 tons' burden has a draught of no more than 3 or 4 feet. This heaviness of the water prevents the lake from being much affected by storms, which, from its extreme shall-

owness, would otherwise render its navigation dangerous. A gale of wind raises the waves but a few feet; and as soon as the storm has passed, they subside. It is an old opinion that the waters of this lake are too salt to support animal life. No fish, certainly, are found in it, but the smaller class of scophytes are the most with considerable numbers. The islands in the lake, until lately, were barren and uninhabited; but the largest has been recently colonized, and settlements on the rest have been proposed." (*Geog. Journ.* x. 7. &c.)

On the E. side of the lake is the village of Shishewah, the residence of a Persian prince, Melik Kasim Mirza, a brother of the late shah, who has adopted in every particular European habits and pursuits. He has built a palace in the European style, near which he has established mulberry gardens for the culture of silk, a farm yard, a glass work, a pottery, looms for weaving cotton, silk, and worsted goods, and various other kinds of manufactures. He has also built a vessel of 100 tons, which he employs in trading on the lake; on which also, he contemplated the introduction of steam navigation. (For further particulars, see *Review* in *Geog. Journ.* x. 5–9, &c.)

USHANT (Fr. *Ouessant*), the most W. of the islands off the coast of France, forming a portion of a group near the W. coast of Brittany, dep. Finistère, in lat. 49° 28' 8" N., long. 6° 2' W., 36 m. W.N.W. Brest. Its area is 2 sq. leagues, and its pop. rather exceeds 2,000. It is difficult of access, but is tolerably fertile, affording pasture to a good many sheep and horses. It has a village, several hamlets, an old castle, and a small harbor frequented by fishing boats. Sir Edward Hawke totally defeated a French fleet, under Admiral Conflans, off the coast of this island, in 1759. Owing to the violence of the weather, two of the British ships accidentally got ashore, and were lost. At a later period, on the 27th July, 1774, an indecisive action took place off the island between the English fleet under Admiral Keppel, who had been second in command in the former action, and that of the French under Comdant d'Orville.

USK, a parl. and mun. bor., market-town, and par. of England, hund. Usk, co. Monmouth, on the Usk; here crossed by a stone bridge of 5 arches, nearly in the centre of the co., 12 m. S.W. Monmouth. The modern bor., which is more extensive than the ancient, has an area of 410 acres, with a pop. in 1841, of 1,503. The town is neatly, but irregularly built, the houses being mostly detached and interspersed with gardens and orchards. It is indifferently paved; and down to a recent period was not lighted. The church, which belonged to an ancient priory, appears to have been erected in the Norman period. It was originally cruciform, but has been very much altered; the square embattled tower now at its E. end, seems to have been formerly in its centre; its interior contains little worth notice, except an inscription on a brass plate, which has not yet been satisfactorily explained. The living, a vicarage, worth 250*l.* a year, is in the gift of—Williams, Esq. Here, also, are chapels for Independents, Wesleyans, and R. Catholics. Over the market-place is the town-hall, a handsome building, erected at the expense of the late Duke of Beaufort; attached to which is a hospital, now for the custody of prisoners till they can be conveyed to the co. goal. The educational establishments comprise a free grammar-school, founded and endowed in 1624, to which a writing school has since been attached; a national school for both sexes, supported by voluntary contributions; and almshouses for 24 inmates. Near to the latter are the remains of the ancient priory previously alluded to.

"Usk is increasing not only from natural increase of pop., but also from the beauty of its situation, attracting persons of independent property to build cottage villas; and it has been erected in the manufacture of Pont-y-pool japan ware, which employs 4 or 5 hands, and is the only one remaining in this part of the country, the trade having removed to Birmingham. It has no other trade peculiar to it, and very little of any kind." (*Parl. Board. Report*.) Most part of the inhabs. are engaged in husbandry and salmon-fishing. The earliest charter of the bor. dates from 1398; but it has not been governed for a long period by this or any other charter. The local authority is vested in a portreeve chosen annually; a recorder, 2 bailiffs, 4 council, and an indefinite number of burgesses. It is associated with Newport and Monmouth, in returning 1 mem. to the H. of C. Total electors for the three bors., in 1845–46, 1,546. Quarter sessions for the co. are held here, as well as a county court, before which 243 claims were entered in 1848.

Usk is a place of remote antiquity, and appears to have formerly been of much more importance than at present. On an eminence adjoining the town are the extensive remains of its ancient castle, formerly the one of the most considerable structures of its kind in the country. It came through the Mortimers, earls of March, into the possession of the crown, and was the favourite residence of Richard duke of York, nephew of Henry VI., whose

sons, Edward IV. and Richard III. were born within its walls. At a subsequent period it belonged to the Earls of Pembroke; and is now the property of the Duke of Beaufort.

Market-day, Thursday; fairs, four times a year, for wool, horses, cattle, and pedlary; and once a month for cattle only. (*Beauties of England and Wales; Pari. and Mus. Board. Repts.*)

USKUP or SCOPJA (an. *Scopi*), a considerable town of European Turkey, prov. Macedonia, cap. Sandjagh, on the river of its own name, a tributary of the Vardar, 110 m. N.W. Salonica. Its pop. is estimated at about 10,000. It has a good many handsome mosques, Greek churches, &c.; but its streets, though wide, are filthy in the extreme. It is the see of a Greek archbishop, and has some manufactures of leather. A Turkish garrison is stationed in its old dilapidated castle.

USTIUG (VELIKI, or 'the Great'), a town of Russia, gov. Vologda, at the confluence of the Joug and Soukhonla, tributaries of the Dwina, about 400 m. from the White Sea, and 650 m. E. by N. Petersburg. This town, though in so remote and desolate a region, has 8,000 inhab., and is the seat of a considerable trade between Europe and Asia. It has, according to Possart, 3 cathedrals and 28 par. churches, many of which are built of stone; and several private buildings, and a large exchange, are of the same material. It has numerous tallow, soap, candle, leather, and tile factories, with saw-mills, and some jewellery and silver works: but its trade is chiefly in corn, lard, linen, ship timber, and sail cloth. Its merchants, who trade with the Siberian towns generally, as far as Kischta, were estimated, in 1820, to possess an aggregate capital of 298,000 roubles; and the town revenues are estimated at 20,000 d. a year. A large annual fair is held here on the 8th July. (*Possart, Katerik; Russland.*)

UTICA, a town or city of the U. States, nearly in the centre of the state of New York, on sloping ground, gently rising from the Mohawk river, and on the line of the Erie canal, 82 m. N.W. Albany, and 180 m. N. by W. New York. Pop., in 1840, 12,572. It is regularly laid out; the streets, which generally cross each other at right angles, are, in some instances, shaded by rows of trees; and the houses are, for the most part, handsome and substantially built. The Erie Canal, which intersects the town, is crossed within its limits by several bridges, and here unites with the Chenango canal, which opens a communication with the Susquehanna. Utica has above a dozen churches for different religious bodies, some of which are large and costly edifices. It has also a lyceum, and various superior public and private academies; a mechanics' association for the promotion of manufactures, &c.; a young man's association, with a library and reading-room open to the public; an apprentices' library; a theatre; and numerous religious and charitable institutions. Its situation, at the junction of the Erie and Chenango canals, has made Utica the seat of an extensive and rapidly increasing commerce; and it has numerous banks; insurance companies, and other joint-stock associations. Its manufactures are also extensive and various; and it is in the centre of a district which is well supplied with water-power, and in which there are manufactories, with power-looms, for the weaving of cotton and other cloths, the spinning of cotton yarn, &c.; with saw-mills, grist and flour-mills, &c. In 1836, six weekly and two monthly periodical publications were issued in the town. It also derives considerable advantage from its being at the W. terminus of the Utica and Schenectady railroad, 77 m. in length, opened in 1830, and from another railroad, 53 m. in length, by which it is connected with Syracuse. In 1794, Utica was an inconsiderable village; and so late as 1820, its pop. amounted to only 2,973; but the Erie canal having been opened, in 1823, its subsequent increase has been astonishingly great. It was incorporated as a town in 1817, and as a city in 1832; and is worthy of remark, that in the charter by which it is erected into a city, the licensing of shops and houses for the retailing of ardent spirits is expressly prohibited! We are unable, however, to say whether this prohibition has been practically carried into effect. In the list of businesses in the town, in 1835, we observe 21 inns. (*Encyc. Americana; New York Gazetteer; American Almanac, 1841-42, &c.*)

UTRECHT (an. *Ultra-Trajectum*), a city of Holland, cap. prov. of its own name, on the Old Rhine, by which it is divided into two parts, 20 m. S. by E. Amsterdam. Pop. 44,000. It is oval-shaped, and is one of the best situated towns in the kingdom, being built on an undulating tract of land, more elevated than the surrounding territory, and having, in consequence, a drier and purer atmosphere. The country immediately around is finely wooded, and well sprinkled with farm-houses and cottages. Fields of wheat and other grain are seen instead of unvarying green pastures; and the novel spectacle presents itself of rivers and canals flowing below the general level of the country, and not above it on the tops of mounds, as elsewhere in Holland. The approach to

Utrecht, from Amsterdam, is very fine, being through a long avenue of lime trees, which forms a favourite public walk. The city was formerly defended by lofty brick walls; but these are now broken and dismantled, and the old ramparts have been converted into *boulevards*. Since the separation of Holland and Belgium, however, some outworks have been thrown up.

Utrecht has an antique appearance, many of the houses being built in the Gothic style: as in other Dutch towns, the material for building is mostly brick. Mr. Jacob says, "The streets are more regular, the houses more modernised, and the squares more spacious, than in other towns of Holland. In some of the streets there are canals, or rather branches of the Rhine, for though they soon terminate in stagnant canals, they have here some motion. The water is so far below the level of the thoroughfares, that the wharfs on its sides have doors opening to a kind of caverns under the streets, in which many of the poorer classes find habitations." (*Tour in Germany, &c. p. 48.*)

The fine public walk called the Mall, on the E. side of the town, about 2,000 yards in length, is divided into alleys by rows of linden trees. The cathedral, formerly a fine edifice, has been so much dilapidated that only the choir, transept, and tower remain: the last is wholly detached from the other parts, leaving room for a wide street on the place formerly occupied by the nave. It must have been originally larger than York Minster, but less elegant, being mostly constructed of brick. The transepts are shut up, and the only portion at present in use is the choir, fitted up in a plain manner for the Presbyterial services, though it has some fine monuments. The tower is a huge square structure, 368 ft. in height; and from its summit the view extends over a wide extent of country, comprising many cities, towns, and villages.

Utrecht has a celebrated university, founded in 1636 at the expense of the city, which ranks next to that of Leyden: it has 5 faculties and 19 professors, and is attended by about 600 students. The university buildings have no outward show, but they comprise a valuable library, a pretty good museum of natural history, and extensive collections in anatomy, pathology, &c., especially one of beautifully-executed models in coloured wax. This city has also acquired distinction from the number and excellence of its superior schools. It has a museum of national agricultural implements, established in a fine building, once the residence of Louis Bonaparte, but this, according to Mr. Chambers, is an inferior collection. It has also a tribunal of commerce, an academy, founded in 1778, which gives prizes for the best memoirs on scientific subjects, a branch of the Society of Public Good, a mint, the machinery of which is partly wrought by steam-pressure, &c.

Utrecht, being in the centre of a populous agricultural district, is more bustling than the small Dutch cities in general. It has considerable manufactures of cloth and other woollen stuffs, velvets, linen fabrics, silk twist, fowling-pieces, pins, &c., with bleaching-grounds, sugar and salt refineries, brick and tile works, &c. It sends 6 deputies to the provincial states. The famous act, called the Union of Utrecht, declaring the independence of the seven United Provinces, was signed here on the 25th of Jan. 1579; and the treaties of Utrecht, which terminated the war of the Spanish Succession and gave peace to Europe, were concluded here, in 1713 and 1714. Among other distinguished individuals, Pope Adrian VI., the preceptor of Charles V., was a native of this city. (*Schreiber, Guide du Rhin; Chambers' Tour in Holland; Dict. Géog., &c.*)

UTRERA (an. *Ullurige Verticatum*), a town of Spain, in Andalusia, prov. Seville, cap. distr. on the road from Madrid to Cadiz, 14 m. S.E. Seville. Pop., according to Milbano, 11,050, but, according to Cape Scott, 15,000, mostly agriculturists. "Utrera stands in the midst of marshes of the Guadalquivir towards the Ronda Mountains, 12 m. distant to the E. A slight mound, that rises in the centre of the town, and is embraced by an extensive circuit of dilapidated walls, doubtless offered the inducement to build a town here; and these walls, some parts of which are very lofty, and in a tolerably perfect state, appear to be Roman, though the castle and its immediate outworks are Moorish. The town is large, and not walled in; the streets are wide and clean, and a plentiful stream, remarkable as being the only running water within several miles, rises near, and traverses, the place." (*Scott's Ronda and Granada, li. 141, 142.*)

It has a spacious square, 2 par. churches (one of singular architecture), various convents and hospitals, a good town-hall, prison, cavalry barracks, &c.; and near it is a convent, resorted to by a great concourse of devotees during a festival which lasts eight days from the 8th of September. The bulls bred in the vicinity are the most ferocious of any in Andalusia: and a considerable trade is carried on here in cattle and horses; it has also, some manufactures of hats, soap, starch, wax, and leather. In

its vicinity are some productive salt springs. Utrera is an important military post, being at the divergence of several cross roads. The French, when advancing upon Cadix in 1810, made strenuous efforts to reach it before the Spanish troops under the Duke of Albuquerque; but, being anticipated by the latter, Cadix was prevented from falling into their hands. (*Scott's Ronda, &c., ii.; Memo.*)

UTTOXETER, a market town and par. of England, co. Stafford, hund. Totmonslow, near the Dove, which is here crossed by a fine stone bridge of six arches, connecting the co.s of Stafford and Derby. Area of par. 6,990 acres. Pop. of do. in 1831, 4,864. The town, 17 m. W. by S. 3. Derby, stands on a hill sloping towards the river, and consists principally of three streets, diverging from the market-place in its centre. With the exception of the tower and lofty spire, which are ancient, the church has been recently rebuilt: the living, a rectory, worth 186*l.* a year, is in the gift of the dean and canons of Windsor. Here, also, are several dissenting chapels. It has a free school for 14 boys, founded in 1688 by Mr. Thomas Allen, a native of the town, celebrated by Selden, Camden, and others for the extent of his mathematical and antiquarian learning; a national school supported by subscription; almshouses for 18 inmates; a fund for the apprenticeship of poor children, &c. Petty sessions are held weekly by the co. magistrates. The hardware manufacture is carried on to some extent, and there are numerous iron forges in the vicinity. Owing to the fertility of the surrounding country, especially the excellence of the pastures along the Dove, the market held here for agricultural produce, cattle, sheep, &c., is one of the best in the county. Its trade is facilitated by the Caldon canal, which joins the Trent and Mersey canal, coming within a short distance of the town. Market day, Wed. Fairs 10 times a year, chiefly for cattle, horses, and sheep.

UXBRIDGE, a market town and chapelry of England, par. of Hillingdon, co. Middlesex, hund. Eithorpe, border of Buckinghamshire, on the Colne and Grand Junction canal, over each of which it has a bridge, and on the high road from London to Oxford, 15 m. N. by W. the former. Pop. in 1831, 3,043. It is situated on a slight eminence sloping to the river, and consists mostly of one long street, with a smaller one on the road branching off to Windsor. The main street is paved and lighted with gas; and many of the modern houses are handsome and substantially built. The market-house, erected in 1789, is a brick building 140 feet in length by 49 in width, supported on about 50 wooden columns. St. Margaret's chapel, built in 1447, is an irregular edifice of flint and brick in the Pointed style, with a low square tower: the living, a perpet. curacy, worth 111*l.* a year, is in private patronage. The Baptists, Friends, Independents, and Methodists have each places of worship. Two free schools, on the Lancasterian system, are held over the market-place, and are supported partly by voluntary contributions, and partly by annual subscription from the manor-funds, market-tolls, &c. A school of industry was founded in 1809, and there are several other charitable institutions for education and the relief of the poor. A reading room and public library has been established.

Uxbridge has the largest country corn-markets in the kingdom. A great deal of excellent flour is made at the four-mills in the town and its immediate vicinity, and its millers and mealmen are in general as opulent as they are respectable. Large quantities of malt are, also, produced in the town, the trade of which is greatly facilitated by the Grand Junction canal. It has also an extensive manufactory of implements of husbandry, garden-chairs, &c.; and a brick-field to the S.E. of the town furnishes employment for numerous hands. The municipal government is vested in the hands of 2 constables, 4 headboroughs, and other officers elected annually. Petty sessions for the town and several adjoining par.s are held every fortnight, and a court of requests for debts under 40*l.* once a month. The unsuccessful negotiation between Charles I. and his son in 1644 took place in an old brick building called the "Treaty House," which has latterly been converted into an inn. Markets, Thursday and Saturday; fairs, 4 times a year. (*Beauties of England and Wales; Priv. Inf.*)

UZÈS, a town of France, dep. Gard, cap. arrond., on the Auzon, 12 m. N. by E. Nîmes. Pop. in 1836, ex. comm., 5,986. It is built on the declivity of a hill, at the foot of which rises the stream which was anciently conducted to Nîmes by the *Font du Gard*. It is old, ill built, and ill laid out. It was a bishopric in the time of the Visigoths, and the old episcopal palace, and the former residence of the dukes of Uzès, are the principal edifices: the last is a huge castle, inclosed by high walls flanked with round towers, and bearing a good deal of resemblance to the Bastille in Paris, destroyed in 1789. Uzès suffered much in the religious wars, when its bishop, chapter, and most part of its inhabs., embraced Protestantism, and destroyed their cathedral. It has a court of

primary jurisdiction, communal college, &c., and manufactures of silk hosiery, coarse woollens, pasteboard, &c. (*Hugo. Art. Gard; Guide du Voyageur en France.*)

V.

VAL-DE-PENAS, a town of Spain, in New Castile, prov. La Mancha, part. Ciudad-Real, in a tolerably fertile plain, 112 m. S. by E. Madrid. Pop., according to Mifano, 10,284. It is well built; the mansion of the Marquis of Santa Cruz and the warehouse of the royal tithes, being conspicuous among many other good edifices. This town would appear to be less overstocked with religious edifices than most others in Spain, for it is said to have only one par. church and one convent. It is, however, best known by the dry red wine produced in its neighbourhood, and hence called Val-de-Penas, which is in much request in Madrid, and approaches in quality to some of the stronger Bordeaux wines. The bread here is also of peculiar excellence. Some linens and say are also manufactured, and woollen stuffs are sent to the town to be dyed. It has a large fair on the 7th of Aug. (*Mifano.*)

VALAIS (Germ. *Wallis*), a canton of Switzerland, in the S.E. part of the Confed., between lat. 45° 50' and 46° 40' N., and long. 7° and 8° 25' E., having N. the Bernese Oberland, N.E. Uri and Tessin, E. and S. Piedmont, and W. Savoy and the canton of Vaud. Area estimated at 1,660 sq. m. Pop., in 1837, 75,798, all Roman Catholics. This canton consists of the valley of the Upper Rhone, and may be described as "an immense trough," 70 m. in length, 1½ m. in depth, and 3 m. wide at the bottom. The mountains on the S. side are the highest in Europe; they form two walls of rock, rising from 10,000 to 14,000 ft. above the Rhone: this valley may therefore be considered as the deepest in the known world. On the N. side are the Alps, to which belong the Finsteraarhorn, Jungfrau, Breithorn, and other enormous peaks; while the S. boundary is formed by the great chain from Mount Blanc to St. Gothard, including the Cervin and M. Rosa. At the upper end of the valley these two ranges unite. Sixteen lateral valleys, some of considerable extent, open into the main valley of the Rhone; and where they join it, the width of the last part of the valley is increased. Thirteen of these lateral valleys are inhabited. That part of the valley below Sion, formerly distinguished as the *Bas-Valais*, is a flat plain, swampy, and unhealthy, where the heat of summer is intense, and millions of mosquitoes, with intermittent fevers, cutaneous diseases, and cretinism in its worst forms, abound. Above Sion, in the *Haute-Valais*, the marshes disappear, and fine pasturage and vineyards indicate a more favoured region." (*Cowder's Italy, &c. i. 1. 22.*)

The Valais is remarkable as presenting within the smallest known area all the different climates and kinds of vegetable produce met with between Italy and Iceland. At the foot of the Bernese Alps the vine succeeds remarkably well, and very good wine is produced, though in its management the inhabs. be both unskilful and slovenly. Indian figs, almonds, chestnuts, pomegranates grow with little or no culture along the banks of the Rhone, and corn of all kinds is produced at different elevations. The cattle of the Valais are inferior to those of most of the other Swiss cantons; but the rearing of stock is the principal branch of rural industry; the surplus produce in cattle, cheese, &c. being exported chiefly across the Simplon into Lombardy. The pop. is much poorer than that of the Bernese Oberland; which Mr. Bakewell attributes, though, perhaps, with less justice than he supposes, to two causes: first, that the land belongs to a few great proprietors, and the peasantry, being merely tenants, feel but little interest in its improvement; and next, the prevalence of the Rom. Cath. religion, with which there is usually found combination in Switzerland at least, much ignorance and indolence. Iron, copper, lead, silver, cobalt, and small quantities of gold, &c. are met with; but mining industry is altogether neglected. Hempen cloths, woollen yarn, and woollen cloths, with a few other articles, are made; but these are almost the only manufactures. Next to cattle breeding, the transport of goods across the Simplon is the principal occupation of the inhabs., for which purpose many mules are bred. The mineral waters of Brieg and Louche are of some advantage to the canton, being resorted to by a good many invalids.

This canton is divided into 13 districts, called *départes*: Sion (Germ. *Sitten*), on the Rhone, a town of 3,500 inhabs., a bishop's see, is the cap. The supreme power is in diet, composed of four deputies from each *départ*, chosen for two years by the *départes* councils, which are elected by all the citizens above the age of 18 years. The presidents of the *départes* are mems. of the diet by virtue of office, and the bishop of Sion has a vote in the diet equivalent to four votes. The diet meets annually on the first Mondays in May and Nov. The ex-

entive power is in a state council of five mems. elected by the diet, and who are all re-eligible, except the grand *bailli* or president, who is eligible only after an interval of two years. Each commune has a court of primary jurisdiction; from which, appeal lies to the district tribunals: the supreme court for the canton consists of 13 judges, nominated by the diet for two years, but always re-eligible. In respect of education, the Valais is behind most other parts of Switzerland. The public revenue, derived chiefly from salt and transit duties, is estimated at about 200,000 Sw. livres.

The inhabitants of the *Bas-Valais* are chiefly of the French, and those of the *Haut-Valais*, of German descent. The Valais formed a part of the Burgundian, and afterwards the Frankish, dominions; it next became subject to its own count-bishops; but in 1032, it was annexed to the Germanic empire. It was allied, not associated, with the cantons that formed the Swiss Confed. in the 14th century. In 1798 it entered the Confed. as a canton; but in 1802 was detached from it to form a separate republic under the protection of France. In 1810, it was incorporated with the French empire as the dep. of the Simplon; and in 1815 it again became a canton of the Confed., in which it holds the 30th rank, contributing 1,200 men to its army, and 9,600 to its treasury. (*Picot, Statist. de la Suisse; Ebel; Bakerwell; Conder's Italy, &c.*)

VALDIVIA, a town and harbour of Chill, prov. of same name, of which it is the cap. The town, on the river Calacutta or Valdivia, about 16 m. from its mouth, is an insignificant village of wooden huts, and was, for the most part, ruined by the earthquake of Nov. 7. 1837; but the harbour is probably the finest, as it is one of the most strongly fortified, in the Pacific. It is in lat. 39° 53' 30" S., long. 77° 32' 14" W., and consists of an estuary formed by the Valdivia and several smaller rivers, entered by narrow strait, the shores of which are lined by numerous batteries, mounting, in all, nearly 130 pieces of cannon. Ships of the line ride here in perfect safety; the depth of water, in the centre of the bay, being from 6 to 7 fathoms, and close to the shore 3 fathoms. During their struggle for independence, this valuable station was captured, with a very inferior Chilean force, by Lord Cochrane, on the 3d of Feb. 1820. (*Miers's Chili; Voyage of the Adventure and Beagle.*)

VALENCÉ, (an. *Julia Valentia*), a city of France, cap. of the dep. Drôme, on the Rhone, here crossed by a handsome suspension bridge, 50 m. S. Lyons. Pop. in 1826, 9,260, or, inc. comm. 10,967. "Valence lies pleasantly on the left bank of the river, surrounded by a fertile country, abounding in mulberry, almond, and other fruit trees. Opposite the town, a conical hill rises close to the Rhone; and about a mile beyond, a long range of vine-covered hills runs parallel with the river, producing the different species of St. Peray." (*Inglish's Switzerland, &c.*) The wine now alluded to, and which is not so much known in England as it deserves to be, is a dry white wine, characterised by great delicacy and sprightliness, and a flavour that partakes of the odour of the violet. When bottled in the spring following the vintage, St. Peray effervesces like Champagne. (*Henderson on Wines*, p. 176.) The town is enclosed by an old wall flanked with towers, and entered by several gates. It is irregularly laid out; but is pretty well built, and has latterly been much improved, both in its houses, a large proportion of which are of stone from the quarries of St. Peray, and in respect of cleanliness. It has several public squares and promenades, as the *Champ de Mars*, planted with trees, the *places d'Orléans* and *Civras*, &c. The cathedral or church of St. Apollinaire is a building said, by Mr. Wood, to be in a degraded Roman style. (*Lettres*, l. 166.) It has a large square tower of four stories, and in the interior is the tomb of Pope Pius VI., who died, at Valence, in 1799, with a bust of that pontiff by Canova, and some fine paintings by A. Caracci and other artists. Near this church is a private mausoleum, worth notice for its architecture. The barracks and citadel, the old residence of the governor, the court-house, prison, public library with 15,000 vols., and theatre, are among the principal buildings. Near the town is the polygon, a ground for the artillery-school practice.

Valence is a bishop's see, the seat of a court of primary jurisdiction, a communal college, ch. of manufactures, societies of agriculture, commerce, and arts, &c. It has two seminaries, a school of design, several asylums, a convent, a Lutheran church, a yard for building boats for the navigation of the river, manufactures of cotton goods, silk organdie, gloves, hosiery, leather, and earthenware, with marble works, lime and brick kilns, and sawing yards. It is a depot for the wines, silk, and other produce of the S. of France, and has six fairs a year. It was anciently the cap. of the Segalaun, and became a Roman colony under Vespasian; but it possesses no Roman antiquities. It formed successively part of the kingdoms of Burgundy and Arles, and of the dominions of the counts of Provence and Toulouse:

It subsequently became the cap. of the Valentinois, and was governed by its own feudal nobles till ceded to Louis XI., in 1449. From the 4th to the 13th century 8 church councils were held in Valence. (*Hugo, Art. Drôme; Guide du Voyageur, &c.; Inglish; Woods; Dict. Geog.*)

VALENCIA, a kingdom or grand division of Spain, in the E. part of the peninsula, principally between the 38th and 41st deg. of N. lat., and 0° 30' E. and 10° 30' W. long., consisting of a long and comparatively narrow strip of country, extending along the Mediterranean, which bounds it to its whole length on the E.; and having inland from the N. round to the S. Catalonia, Aragon, New Castile, and Murcia. Area, 7,683 sq. m. Pop. about 998,000. This is, upon the whole, one of the finest and most productive parts of the peninsula. A great proportion of the surface, particularly in the N. and W., is mountainous and rude; but the plain country, which stretches along the coast, and is watered by the Guadalquivir, Xucar, Mogra, Segura, &c., is a species of garden. All travellers coincide as to its extreme beauty, and superior cultivation, compared with the rest of Spain. Inglish, who has travelled over many of the finest parts of Europe, says, "The view of the plain is superb. Though not greater or more beautiful than the vale of Murcia, its immense extent and great populousness produce a more striking effect. The plain is probably little less than 30 m. long, and 30 wide; on three sides it is bounded by the mountains, and on the 4th by the sea; and throughout the whole of this vast extent, there is not an acre that does not produce its crop of grain, vegetables, or rice. The olive, mulberry, flex, algarrobo, orange tree, and palm, with all of which the plain is thickly dotted, give it the appearance of a union of garden and orchard; but the populousness of the plain is even more striking than its beauty and fertility. It forms altogether, I expect that, in richness and animation, cannot be equalled in any other country."

"The plain of Valencia produces every kind of crop congenial to the climate: two and three crops in the year are taken from it, and the greater part of the land returns 8 per cent. The rice crops are among the most valuable; they are chiefly produced in the territory of Albufera, surrounding the lake of the same name. This was the property first proposed to be granted to the Duke of Wellington, but the Cortes of Valencia objected to it, and the estates near Granada were substituted. The rice grounds produce only one crop in the year, but the return is from 8 to 10 per cent. The rice is put into the ground in June, and cut in September; water is then let in upon the ground, and when the stubble rots, the land is ploughed up, and no other manure is required. In Valencia and its neighbourhood, rice is in universal use by all classes, but the produce is much greater than the consumption of the plain; and the surplus is exported to the different parts of Andalusia. The whole produce is estimated at 13,000,000 arrobas, one half of which at least is exported; and the average price may be taken at about 2s. 6d. per arroba, or nearly 10s. per lb. The other chief product is the white mulberry, once the source of great riches, through the silk factories of Valencia. The produce of silk from the plain is now computed at about 1,000,000 lbs. a year; by far the greater part is exported in its raw state, at an average price of from 8s. to 10s. per lb. The export of fruit from Valencia is large, particularly of raisins; these are of two kinds, the muscatel and an inferior raisin; but neither is equal to the raisins of Malaga. In 1829, 47,000 quintals of the best, and 42,000 of the inferior sort, were exported exclusively for the English market. The export of figs, oil, and wine from the prov. and different parts of Valencia, is also considerable; particularly the latter, called *Bent Carlo*, exported from the town of the same name. This wine is sent chiefly to Certe, from whence much of it finds its way, by the canal of Languedoc, to Bordeaux, to give body and colour to the clarets." (*Inglish*, li. 258—262.) Barilla, sugar-cane, saffron, aniseed, &c., are also grown.

But, despite the abundance of the prov., the peasantry, as is frequently the case in the most productive parts of the Continent, appear to be in a very depressed condition. The peasantry of Valencia says little, belongs, for the most part, to great proprietors. The Duke of Medina Celi has a revenue of 75,000 dollars a year from his estate there, and the families of Villa Hermosa and Benavente have almost as much; and, in fact, there are very few persons who cultivate their own land. And, though state taxes do not weigh down industry in this prov., the Valencians are subject to heavy feudal services and seigniorial demands, levied in kind on the produce of the soil, amounting to 1-7th, 1-6th, and, in some places, 1-4th, of the crop! (*Mod. Trav.*) But these circumstances do not sufficiently account for the depressed condition of the peasantry; which is rather to be explained by the ferocity of their wants, originating in the mildness of the climate, and their want of all desire to improve their situation.

No great number of cattle or horses are kept; and the

sheep, though pretty numerous, yield wool of only a mediocre quality. A good many tanneries are taken on some parts of the coast by a method similar to that practised in the Neapolitan dom. Mercury, copper, sulphur, arsenic, argentiferous lead, iron, coal, &c., exist in many places; but are procured only in small quantities. Salt from springs, marble, and potters' clay are the principal mineral products. Manufactures are unimportant: woollen and linen fabrics are indeed made in most of the towns, and silk goods in Valencia, Gandia, &c., but, at present at least, in very inconsiderable quantities. Cordage is made from the fibre of the esparto (*stipa tenacissima*), aloe, *juncos*, &c.; and tiles, similar to the Delft manufacture, soap, glass, paper, &c., are made in small quantities. An active internal traffic is kept up, the N. supplying the S. districts with timber, earthenware, linen and woollen stuffs, esparto, brandy, cattle, &c.; while the latter send to the former corn, fish, Levant produce, silk, algarrobs, &c.; Valencia sends rice, silk, fruit, and fish to Aragon and Castile, for corn, wool, and cattle; and flax, hemp, silk, oil, rice, soap, &c., to Murcia and Granada. Its foreign commerce is chiefly with Italy, England, France, Holland, and S. America; from which countries, corn, salt fish, ship-timber, pitch, tar, iron, fine linens, and other manufactured goods, are imported. Alicante, Valencia, Vinaroz, Murviedro, Benicarlo, and Guardamar, are the principal ports. (*Fischer's Picture of Valencia*.)

Very different opinions respecting the character of the pop. have been entertained by different travellers. "Upon the whole, the Valentians would appear to be an airy, lively, active, but effeminate people, very different in manner from the Castilians; while their character forms apparently a still stronger contrast to the savage heroism of the Catalonians and Aragonese. Their dialect, though much akin to the Catalonian, is said to differ from it in retaining more of the provincial." (*Asiatic Trav.*, viii. 167.) This prov. was successively subject to the Carthaginians, Romans, and Visigoths, from whom it was taken by the Moors in 713. They held possession of it till 1238, when it was conquered by the Spaniards and annexed to Aragon. It afterwards formed a component part of the Spanish monarchy, but continued to preserve its representative body and its privileges, till the early part of the 18th century, when having, in the War of the Succession, taken part against the Bourbon dynasty, it was, on their establishment on the throne, deprived of its old constitution, and obliged to conform to the laws of Castile. (*Milano*, *Andalus*, *Inglish's Spain*; *Switzerland*; *Townsend*, *Twiss*, &c.)

VALENCIA (an. *Valentia Edetanorum*), a city of Spain, cap. of the above kingdom, on the Guadalaviar, about 4 m. from its mouth, and 188 m. E.S.E. Madrid. Lat. 39° 28' 55" N.; long. 0° 24' 50" W. Pop. 65,840. (*Milano*.) It stands in a wide plain on the bank of the river which washes its walls, and separates it from its suburbs, with which it communicates by 5 bridges, of from 10 to 13 arches. The city is nearly circular, and about 2½ m. round, enclosed by massive walls, with towers, and 4 gates. The streets are crooked, narrow, unpaved, and frequently destitute of thoroughfare; but some new quarters have been laid out, with broad streets and squares, which are said to be well paved and well kept. Valencia is well lighted, and guarded by a patrol of watchmen, termed *serenos*. It is furnished with public sewers of great solidity, which some affirm were constructed by the Romans; and it has many private wells, though only one public fountain.

Good quays faced with stone, and planted with trees, line the river in the whole length of the city. A fine view is obtained from any one of the bridges; the line of irregular buildings following the curve of the river, and the bridges, one beyond another, with the great Moorish gates, give it an air of much grandeur. Few cities, even in Spain, have, or rather had, so many religious edifices as Valencia: among these were reckoned no fewer than 37 convents for men and 23 for women, 16 churches and 34 chapels and hermitages, amounting altogether 86; so that we need not wonder that the streets abounded with friars and priests, and that the influence of the religious bodies was predominant. (*Trav.*, ii. 251.) The cathedral is of intermixed Greek and Gothic architecture, surmounted by a dome. It has numerous altars, a good deal of fine marble, some bas-reliefs, and paintings by some of the first Spanish masters. It is very rich in plate and relics. Some of the churches have domes, but the greater part tall, slender turrets, with all sorts of pilasters and whimsical devices. In the multitude of sacred edifices, some may be found that excel in particular parts, or strike by the richness of their decorations; but all are overloaded with ornaments. (*Switzerland's Trav.*, i. 153.) In most, however, are fine paintings by Juanes, Espinosa, Ribalta, Ramirez, Victorio, a pupil of Carlo Maratti, and many other artists, all natives of Valencia. The famous Supper of Ribalta is in the Corpus Christi College; and the same subject by Juanes, a work reckoned among

the finest pictures of Valencia, is in the church of S. Nicholas, which also possesses sundry other fine pictures.

The exchange, custom-house, the temple, a palace built for a military order, by Charles III., the archbishop's palace, college of Pius V., and several noble residences are worthy of notice; there are 5 hospitals, one of which is a large establishment for medical treatment of all kinds, several asylums, prisons, barracks, a theatre, &c. Ingils says, "Valencia is one of those cities, in which traces of Moorish dominion are the most visible; not in any splendid Alhambra or Alcazar, but in every day sights and common objects. Gateways are occasionally seen sculptured in marble upon Moorish designs; stones over the doors, or underneath the windows, show by their chiselled marks their ancient fashioners. All the Moorish tokens also distinguishing the pop. of Seville, Malaga, and San Felipe, are found in even greater distinctness in Valencia." (*Spain*, ii. 253.)

The university, founded in 1411, was formerly considered the best in Spain, particularly for the study of medicine. In 1830, it had nearly 2,500 students, who were principally divided between law and philosophy. The professors, of whom there are about 70, are gratis, except those who instruct in law: their salaries range from 50*l.* to 120*l.* a year. Lectures are delivered from Oct. 11. to May 31. Education in the university is nearly gratuitous, and many of the students were in the habit of receiving portions of the food distributed daily from the convents. The university library has not more than 15,000 vols., but its deficiencies are compensated by a good library in the archbishop's palace, with attached cabinets of antiques, medals, &c., open for 6 hours daily. There are 6 other colleges, and many inferior academies: the royal academy of Saint Charles, for the instruction of students in the fine arts, is the only institution in the city not under the superintendence of the priests.

The manufacture of velvets, taffetas, flowered damasks, and other silk stuffs, are said, at the end of last century, to have employed upwards of 3,000 looms; but if so, they have greatly declined in the interval. The existing manufactures comprise woollen fabrics, camlets, hats, table and other linen, gauzes, artificial flowers, leather, glass, paper, &c., with the "Valencia tiles," used for the flooring of houses in all the cities of the S. of Spain. These tiles are at once cool, and highly ornamental; but they are far from cheap, those of the best quality being much more expensive than an equal extent of the most sumptuous carpeting. A good workman employed in painting the tiles earns about a dollar a-day.

The port of Valencia is at Grao, about 3 m. distant. It is connected with the city by a broad planted avenue, forming the favourite public promenade around the city. The harbour is suitable only for boats, and the roadstead is exposed to the S. and S.W. gales. The climate, though hot, is agreeable and healthy; and the city is a good resort for invalids. Society in Valencia appears to differ little from that in other S. Spanish towns. Many persons of rank and wealth reside here, but without any display; the salient bear testimony to the agreeable vivacity, ready wit, freedom from affectation, and obliging disposition of the inhabitants. But Ingils says, that in Valencia, more than in any other city, he was struck with the absence of mental cultivation. But we apprehend the traveller must have been unlucky in his acquaintance. Mental culture may and most probably is at a low level; but the city which is the seat of perhaps the most flourishing university in the country, which has, also, produced many distinguished natives, and in which the first printing-press introduced into Spain was established, is not likely to be the zero of the intellectual scale.

Valencia was held by the Moors from 1715; but taken from them, in 1094, by the celebrated Cid, Ruiz de Diaz de Bivar. After his death it was governed by his widow Ximena, under whom it sustained successfully one siege against the Moors of Cordova, but ultimately capitulated to them in 1101. It was retaken by James I. of Aragon, in 1238, and peopled afterwards with Catalans and French settlers. It was taken by the French under Sacket, in 1812, and held by them till June, 1813. (*Milano*, &c., vi.

VALENCIA (NUEVA), a city of Colombia, repub. Venezuela, prov. Carabobo, in a plain about 3 m. W. of the Lake of Valencia, and 16 m. S. by E. Puerto Cabello. Pop. estimated at 16,000. It covers a large extent of ground, most part of the houses having only a ground-floor. The streets are very broad, and the market-place is of great size. The entrance to the town from the N. is by a good bridge of three arches built of stone and brick; near which is the *gloriosa*, a large circular space where the inhabs. meet in the evening for dancing and festivity. Humboldt says, "It is regretted, and perhaps justly, that Valencia has not become the capital of the country." Its situation near Puerto Cabello, with which it is said to communicate by a good road, gives it many advantages, and it is a place

of brisk traffic. But it has the great disadvantage of being infested with white ants, whose excavations underground at certain seasons become very dangerous to the buildings of the city.

The Lake of Valencia or Tascargan is larger than the Lake of Neuchâtel in Switzerland, but in its general form it has a nearer resemblance to that of Geneva, which is about the same height above the sea. The opposite banks of the lake also offer a similar contrast. Those on the S. are desert and almost uninhabited, and a screen of high mountains gives them a gloomy and monotonous appearance: the N. shore, on the contrary, is cheerful, pastoral, and set off with sugar, coffee, and cotton plantations. There are numerous islands in this lake, the waters of which are gradually diminishing. Its mean depth is from 12 to 15 fathoms; where deepest, it is not more than 40 fathoms. It abounds with fish, and is used for the purposes of commerce; but it is a singular fact, that for more than two centuries none of its navigators ever thought of using a sail! An English traveller, of no very distant period, says that a native of Biacy, settled in Valencia, had then first tried the experiment, "and the circumstance formed no small part of the conversation of those who were assembled at the pulperia of La Cabrera." (*Mod. Trav.* xxviii. 178.; *Humboldt, Pape's Narrative*, iv. ch. xvi.; *Codazzi, Geog. de Venezuela*; &c.)

VALENCIENNES (an. *Valentines*), a town of France, dep. du Nord, cap. arrond.; on the Scheldt, where it is joined by the Rhonelle, 28 m. S.S.E. Lille. Lat. 50° 21' 27" N., long. 3° 31' 55" E. Pop., in 1846, inc. com., 19,766. It is a secondary fortress, and has a citadel constructed by Vauban. It is tolerably well built, but ill laid out; a part of it was much damaged by the severe bombardment it received in 1793, the marks of which are still visible. The Scheldt intersects the town from N. to S., dividing it into two unequal parts. There are several public buildings. The town-hall, built in 1612, is of mixed architecture, highly decorated, and contains some fine apartments; a second story is appropriated to a picture gallery, in which are some works by Rubens. Attached to it is a belfry, constructed in the 13th century, 180 ft. in height. The lower part of a handsome theatre serves for a corn-hall. The general hospital, founded in 1751, is one of the largest establishments of its kind. The public library has 18,000 vols. and the museum of natural history is rich in collections. There are military and founding hospitals, barracks, magazines, an arsenal, a college, an academy of the fine arts founded in 1782, &c. Besides Valenciennes lace, a good deal of fine cambric, cotton yarn, hosiery, and blankets, iron plate and nails, starch, saltpetre, sased oil, cheiory, earthenware, and toys, are made in the town, which has also cotton-printing works, tanneries, distilleries, and salt refineries; and a considerable trade in wine, brandy, oil, soap, timber, and charcoal.

Valenciennes has sustained several sieges, the most memorable of which took place in 1793, when it was invested by an Anglo-Austrian army under the late duke of York, to whom it surrendered at the end of six weeks, during which the besiegers sustained great loss. It was re-taken by the French from the Austrians in the ensuing year. Among the most distinguished natives of this town have been—Frolsart, the historian of chivalry, Watteau, the painter, and D'Argenson, the minister. (*Hugo, art. Nord*; *Guide du Voyageur*, &c.)

VALERY (ST.), usually called St. Valery-en-Caux, a town and sea-port of France, dep. Seine-Inférieure, cap. cant.; on the British Channel, 34 m. N.W. by N. Rouen. Pop., in 1836, 5,326. Its port, enclosed between two cliffs, is small, and not fit for the accommodation of vessels of considerable burden. St. Valery has manufactures of soda and cotton thread, with some trade in the exportation of Rouen spices, and in the importation of timber, dried fish, cod, &c. Many of its inhabitants are engaged in the cod, herring, and mackerel fisheries, and they enjoy the reputation of being good seamen. The country round is mostly in pasture.

St. Valery-sur-Somme is another sea-port town, on the N. coast of France, dep. Somme, 11 m. N.W. Abbeville. Pop., in 1836, 3,285. Its port is much larger than that belonging to the above town, and admits vessels of from 300 to 400 tons. It has large salt magazines, with manufactures of cordage and sail-cloth, and a brisk general traffic: of late years, an intercourse by steam has been occasionally kept up between this town and London. (*Hugo, arts. Seine-Inférieure and Somme*; *Dict. Géog.* &c.)

VALETTA (LA). See MALTA.

VALLADOLID (an. *Pinitia*), a city of Spain, cap. prov. and dep. of its own name, in Old Castile, on the Pisuerga, here crossed by a stone bridge of 10 arches, where it is joined by its tributary the Esgueva, over which many small bridges are thrown, 73 m. S.W. Burgos, and 100 m. N.W. Madrid. Lat. 41° 45' N., lon. 4° 47' W. Pop. 29,960 (*Mémo*). It stands in a plain bounded by limestone hills, and is surrounded by an old

wall which encloses a large extent of ground. Swinburne says "Valladolid is a very large rambling city, full of edifices, which, during the reign of Philip III., who made it his constant residence, were the palaces of his great officers and nobility. Being abandoned by their owners, who have followed the court in all its different emigrations, they are fallen to decay, and exhibit a picture of the utmost desolation. The private houses are ill-built and ugly. The great square, some streets built upon porticoes, and many colleges and convents, are still grand, and denote something of former magnificence; but in general, Valladolid has the appearance of having been run up in a hurry to receive the court, and as if it had been meant to rebuild it afterwards, at leisure, of more durable materials than bad brick and mud, the composition of most of its present houses." (*Trav.* ii. 254, 255.) Upon passing the first gate from the Madrid road, the traveller enters the *campo grande*, a spacious area surrounded by 17 convents, the scene of repeated *auto de fees*, signalled by the burning of not a few heretics.

Valladolid has, or recently had, 16 par. churches, upwards of 40 convents, 9 chapels, 8 colleges, 3 hospitals, several asylums, barracks, &c., though, except some of the religious buildings, none deserve much notice. The cathedral, an unfinished edifice, built by Juan de Herrera, at the expense of Philip II., was intended to have been one of the most sumptuous in Spain; but, according to Townsend and others, it is heavy and inelegant. The church and convent of St. Benito, however, are handsome, but the church of St. Paul is probably most worth attention, from its general elegance, and the finish of its bas-reliefs and ornaments, which, after a lapse of 300 years, seem to have suffered little by their exposure to the weather. (*Townsend*, i. 365.) Laborde speaks of fine sculptures by Gregory Hermantes, &c., in this and several other churches of Valladolid; but whether they have been removed is more than we can undertake to say. The royal chancery is a large and fine structure in the Tuscan order. The old palace, in which Philip II. and III. were born, and in which Philip Twiss visited the city its bare walls only were standing.

Valladolid has a university founded by Alonso XI. in 1346: it was formerly distinguished for its school of jurisprudence, and continued to flourish till the end of last century; and it appears, even now, to be more frequented than Salamanca. Among the colleges of the city were one for the Scotch and one for the English, both of which were well endowed. The school of the fine arts is privileged as an academy, and has a superior collection of models in sculpture, architecture, and painting.

Valladolid was formerly an opulent commercial city; but its manufactures of woollen stuffs, lace, silk ribands, linen and cotton yarn, paper, liquorice, perfumery, earthenware, leather, &c. are now little more than sufficient for the supply of the town: its trade, however, would most probably increase were the Pisuerga made navigable to the Douro, only 10 m. distant. The country round produces white wine, of good quality, madder, silk, olives, &c., and coal is said to abound in the neighbourhood, though, if the statement be correct, little, if any, use is made of this valuable material.

Philip II. made it the see of a bishop, under the archbishop of Burgos, the residence of a captain-general, military intendant, *corregimiento*, &c. It was incorporated as a city, and made a bishop's see by Philip II., and was the residence of the court from his time till that of Philip IV., who removed to Madrid. Columbus, the discoverer of the New World, expired in this city on the 20th May 1506. (*Milano*; *Swinburne*; *Townsend*; *Twiss*; *Mod. Trav.* xix., &c.)

VALLADOLID, or MICHOACAN, a city of Mexico, cap. intend. of same name, in a fine valley, 150 m. W.N.W. Mexico. Its pop. in the present census was estimated at 18,000, and probably about the same at present. Mr. Ward says, "I know few places the approach to which (from the N.) is so tedious as that to Valladolid. For more than two hours you see the city apparently below you, while the road continues to wind among the surrounding hills. At length a rapid descent conducts you to the plain, where a long causeway, built across a marsh, forms the entrance to the town. The suburbs are poor and insignificant, but the high street is fine, and the cathedral, standing alone and open, has a very imposing effect. The view of the town from the Mexico side is beautiful: gardens and orchards form the foreground; while the lofty aqueduct, erected toward the end of the last century, the gorgeous churches, and a bold range of mountains behind, fill up the remaining space. Nearly all the public edifices, not immediately connected with the government, are due to the munificence of the bishops, most of whom have contributed to enrich or adorn the town. The cathedral, hospitals, and aqueduct are all the works of the Church. The first is a magnificent building, and wealthy, though despoiled of much of its treasures during the revolution." (*Hard's Mexico*, ii. 374—377.) Valladolid has a handsome public

promenade; and its climate is temperate, as it stands nearly 5,400 ft. above the level of the sea. Its rude, the short-lived Emperor of Mexico, was a native of this city. Valladolid is the name of another Mexican town in Yucatan; but it is of no great importance.

VALOGNES, a town of France, dep. Manche, cap. arrond., on the Merderet, 12 m. S.E. Cherbourg. Pop. in 1836, ex. comm., 6,034. It is a well built town, and has a handsome communal college, and public library, with 15,000 printed volumes; manufactures, on a small scale, of earthenware, lace, gloves, and leather; and some trade in provisions and shell fish for the Paris market. The ancient Roman town *Alauna* was situated in its vicinity. In the middle ages it had a strong castle, which, however, has been totally destroyed. Tourneur, the translator of Shakspeare, and the celebrated anatomist Vicq-d'Asy, were natives of Valognes. (*Hugo, art. Manche, &c.*)

VALPARAISO, the principal sea-port town of Chili, prov. Santiago, on the Pacific, 60 m. N.N.W. Santiago. Lat. 33° 11' 55" S., long. 71° 31' 30" W. Pop. probably about 10,000. It is inconvenient and ill-built, but its appearance from the sea is imposing, being built, somewhat like Hastings, at the foot of a precipitous range of hills. It consists chiefly of a straggling, long street, or rather terrace, for it is built on only one side, with some narrow and inconvenient thoroughfares leading out of it up the several ravines. In one of these is the plaza, a small triangular space, where the market is held; and near it are the principal church, the Dominican and Franciscan chapels, &c. A little to the N. is the castle of Antonio, mounting about 4 dozen guns; and between it and the plaza are a number of low buildings and sheds, termed the arsenal. In the N. quarter of the town, in a recess larger than the other ravines, is a collection of narrow lanes and mean houses; and many isolated dwellings are scattered about among the hills, the only access to which is by winding foot-paths. The suburb Almendral, on the sandy shore to the S. is more regularly laid out: the houses here, where there has been more room to build, consist mostly of a ground floor only; but in the town of Valparaiso all have stories above the ground floor. They are in general painted of lively colours. About the middle of the Almendral are the ruins of the church and convent of La Merced, which, like many other buildings in Valparaiso, was destroyed by the earthquake of 1822.

The bay of Valparaiso is open to the N., but sheltered by heights on all other sides; and the holding ground, being mostly a stiff clay, offers a secure anchorage, except during N. gales. Opposite the custom-house, 100 yards from the shore, there are 5 fathoms water, which suddenly deepens to 10 and 30 fathoms, at the distance of 300 yards, and in the centre of the bay are from 26 to 30 fathoms. (*Miers, l. 444.*) The harbour is defended by the castle, and 3 forts at the N. end of the Almendral, and another fort inland. There is no mole, nor any facility for landing goods, except by launches, which are moored to the shore, and across which all packages are brought on men's shoulders; or by boats, which, however, can land in all weathers, in the Fisherman's Bay, between the castle and Fort St. Antonio. There are generally a considerable number of vessels in the bay, the greater part British and American; and Valparaiso continues to be the central depot for the trade of Chili. Large quantities of corn are shipped here for Callao and Panama, especially the former. Wheat, tallow, hides, copper, the precious metals, indigo, wool, and sarapailla, are among the principal exports. The market of Valparaiso is well supplied with meat, poultry, fish, bread, fruit and vegetables, at very moderate prices and of good quality; and its climate is generally agreeable. (*Stevenson's S. America, lib. 161.*) Unless, however, it have materially altered of late years, it would appear, from Mr. Miers' report, to be subject to many drawbacks as a place of residence. "Independent of the want of society, there exists no public amusement, no theatre, commercial reading or news-room, no parade, not even a single spot to walk upon, nor any retirement or exit from the town, but over the barren steep hills, which renders the exercise more a toil than a pleasure. In short, in spite of its matchless and beautiful climate, I do not know in all Chili a spot presenting a more uncomfortable and cheerless place of residence than Valparaiso." (*Miers' Trav. in Chili, l. 449; Commercial Dict., &c.*)

VAN, a city and considerable lake of Asiatic Turkey, pass. of same name: the city being on the E. bank of the lake, 140 m. N. by E. Mosul, and 145 m. S.E. Erzurum. Pop., according to Col. Shiel, 12,000; but this is most probably much under the mark, seeing that it had been previously estimated by Kinnaird at 50,000, and has since been estimated by Mr. Brant at 7,000 families, which would amount to at least 40,000. The inhabs. consist of Turks, Kurds, and Armenians. It is situated in a fine plain, covered with gardens, nearly 5,500 feet above the sea, at the S.W. foot of an isolated rock, on which is its

citadel. It is inclosed with double walls of mud and stone, having large round and small square bastions, and is further defended, though not on all sides, by a ditch. "The streets are narrow, dirty, and ill paved; the exterior appearance of the houses in general mean: there was, however, to be seen occasionally a residence, which showed that it had once belonged to a man of consequence; but the general aspect of the city indicated decay. The bazars were confined, and the shops ill-furnished; and I scarcely saw an article of European manufacture: there was, however, an abundance of Venetian glass beads, with which the Kurd females ornament their persons. The supply of fruit was superabundant." (*Brant, l. 384.*) The account of the city given by Kinnaird is less accurate; but Brant's, being the later, is perhaps also the more accurate.

It has 2 large Armenian churches, 4 large mosques, several baths, caravanserais, &c. The great boast and dependence of Van is its gardens, which cover an extensive area between the city and the mountains. They comprise vineyards, orchards, melon-grounds, fields, &c. In summer the inhabs. of the town mostly reside in the gardens, the roads in which being lined with houses, the whole appears like an extensive village. Streams, bordered with willows, run through the main avenues. (*Brant, in Geog. Journ. x. 391-3.*)

The castle on the N.E. side of the town is built on a high and abrupt limestone rock, and, if the works were in proper repair and efficiently manned, would be all but impregnable. There are some very extensive excavations in this rock.

The trade of Van is at present inconsiderable. About 800 looms are employed in manufacturing coarse calicoes from cotton imported from Persia, mostly for home consumption: though some are sent to Bitlis to be dyed and exported. Almost the only other articles of export from Van are fruits, wine, and grain, the produce of the surrounding gardens and fields. Every person of respectability has a house in town, with a country house, an orchard and vineyard, and perhaps a few fields. Most of his wants are supplied from his garden, or from the profits of a petty trade carried on with a capital of from 200 to 1000.

There can be no doubt that Van is very ancient. The walls of the castle are in part Cyclopean, and many inscriptions in the cuneiform character have been discovered in the town and its environs. It is even affirmed that the castle was originally founded by Semiramus; but it is almost needless to say that there is no evidence by which to support this very improbable statement. Timour Bee, or Tamerlane, who took Van towards the close of the 14th century, is said, by the Persian writers, to have endeavoured, though ineffectually, to destroy its ancient monuments.

The Lake Van, the *Arasis* of Ptolemy, is of a very irregular shape; greatest length N.E. to S.W. 70 m.; greatest breadth about 39 m. Area estimated at 1,000 geogr. sq. m. (*Geog. Journ. x.*) It seldom freezes to any distance from the shore, except at its N.E. end, where, being shallow in several winters, it may be crossed on the ice. It has several islands, on one of which is an Armenian monastery. It is navigated by 5 or 6 crazy boats, which are sometimes employed to convey cotton cloths to Tadvan on their way to Bitlis, bringing back grain and timber. From the many wild fowl that frequent it, there is no doubt that fish abound in the lake; the fishery, however, occupies very few hands. (*Geog. Journ.; Kinnaird's Pers. Emp.; Smith and Dwight's Missionary Researches, introd., &c.*)

VANCOUVER'S ISLAND, see *SEATTLESTOWN*.
VAN-DIEMEN'S LAND, or TASMANIA, an island belonging to Great Britain, in the S. Pacific and Eastern Oceans, off the S. extremity of Australia, from which it is separated by Bass's Straits, between lat. 41° 30' and 43° 40' S., and long. 144° 40' and 148° 20' E. It is shaped like a heart. Area estimated at about 27,000 sq. m. Pop., in 1847, 70,104; of whom 43,916 were free, and 24,188 convicts: the number of aboriginal inhabitants is quite trifling. The country is in general hilly or mountainous. Captain Fitzroy says, "The change of scene from Sydney to Hobart Town was as striking as a view of Gibraltar or Madeira after leaving the Downs. Comparatively speaking, near Sydney all was light-coloured and level, while in Van-Diemen's Land we almost thought ourselves in another Tierra del Fuego." (*Voyage of the Adventure, &c., li. 624.*) The mountains rise to 3,500 or 4,000 ft., not forming continuous ranges, as in the adjacent continent, but generally isolated peaks. The surface consists alternately of elevated table lands and fertile valleys, most part of it being fit either for cultivation or pasturage. Several considerable rivers water the colony. The principal are the Derwent, and Tamar, formed by the union of the N. and S. Rak, all which rise towards the centre of the island, in about lat. 43°; the first running to the S.E., and the rest Northward. There are several large lakes in the interior, one of which is said to be 60 m. in circ.

The coasts are very much indented, and abound with excellent harbours. The climate is comparatively healthy, being apparently more congenial to European constitutions than that of Sydney. The winters are colder; but the country seldom suffers from those long-continued droughts which are the bane of New S. Wales, nor from too much rain. Sandstone, limestone, and basalt, are among the principal geological rocks. Indications of coal have been met with, and iron ore has been dug up, some of which is said to yield as much as 80 per cent. of metal. Copper, lead, zinc, and manganese exist, but no mines have been hitherto wrought. The upper soil is usually sandy or argillaceous; or else consists of a rich vegetable mould. There appears to be comparatively a much larger proportion of good soil than in Australia: fine tracts of land are found quite down to the borders of the sea, a circumstance unusual in the last-named continent; and extensive tracts covered with luxuriant herbage, and free from timber or underwood, and which, consequently, require no clearing on the part of settlers previously to being ploughed, are met with in all parts of the interior. Timber, however, is by no means scarce; and besides the quantities used in ship-building, the value of the exports of timber in 1848 amounted to 30,464. The Huon and Adventure bay pines, and the black wood, are peculiar to the country; in most other respects the vegetable products, as well as the animals, are similar to those of Australia. A species of panther, which commits much havoc among the flocks, and kangaroos, is found in great numbers; there is, however, no native dog. Poisonous reptiles are less numerous than in the adjacent continent. The aboriginal inhabitants appear to belong to the negro race of the R. Archipelago: they seem to be sunk in the lowest depths of barbarism; and are said to be ignorant even of the most useful and obvious arts, as fishing, and the construction of the rudest of canoes. Their numbers have rapidly decreased since the establishment of the whites, and a few years since the greater part of those remaining in the colony were removed to Flinders' Island in Bass's Straits.

The settled portions of Van-Diemen's Land stretch across the interior from the N. to the S. E. coast along the courses of the Derwent, Tamar, and other rivers. All the W. and N. E. parts of the island are not merely unsettled, but hardly even explored.

From the settlement of the colony down to the 31st December, 1848, the extent of land granted and sold to settlers amounted to 2,731,446 acres, 1,363,437 acres being at the same time held under depaturing licenses. The plan of selling the unappropriated land by auction is now adopted in this colony, as in most others belonging to England. And little could be objected to this plan, provided the upset price were sufficiently low, and the quantities exposed to sale suited to the wants of the different purchasers. But here, as elsewhere, the interests of the colony have been sacrificed to the quackish scheme of concentrating the most profitable lands at exorbitant prices for the land. It is true that Van-Diemen's Land has been excepted from the act (5 & 6 Vict. c. 36.) regulating the sales of land in Australia, which has fixed the *minimum* upset price, even of the worst land, at 20s. an acre! Practically, however, this *de facto* policy is acted upon in this colony; and in consequence the sales of country lands in 1848 amounted to only 1,544 acres, sold at 24s. an acre. And trifling as the quantity sold may appear, it is surprising it is so large; or that any person should be found to pay 24s. an acre for inferior land at the antipodes when the best land in the valley of the Mississippi is sold for 6s. 6d. an acre or less.

In 1848 about 171,500 acres were said to be under crop, including about 64,700 in wheat, 14,042 do. in barley, 29,463 in oats, 3,916 in potatoes, 8,936 in turnips, and 45,000 or upwards in grasses. The returns of the produce for the same year are, also, given, and provided they may be depended upon, they show that the yield of wheat is 17½ bush. to the acre, of barley 31 do., and of oats 25 do., being not much more than half the produce of the same crops in England. This lamentable deficiency of produce may be ascribed partly, we believe, to the backward state of agriculture, and the want of care in the preparing of the land, and partly to the inferior fertility of the latter. In fact, Van-Diemen's Land, though superior as a corn-growing country to New S. Wales, is notwithstanding better fitted for grazing than cropping. Wool, indeed, is here, as well as in Australia, the staple produce of the colony; and the increase in the breed of sheep has been so very great that the stock, which, in 1828, amounted to 458,898 head, had, in 1848, increased to 1,800,000 head. And while the imports of wool from Van-Diemen's Land into the U. Kingdom, in 1850, did not exceed 993,575 lbs., they amounted, in 1848, to 4,955,968 lbs. Maize is not raised in the colony, the climate being too cold. Apples, currants, gooseberries, &c., attain perfection, but the orange, citron, and pomegranate are not raised, and the grape and peach attain only an inferior degree of maturity.

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In 1848, the stock of cattle was estimated at 85,000 head; of horses, at 17,196; and goats, at 2,900. All kinds of stock attain a much greater size than in the neighbourhood of Sydney. During the half dozen years previous to 1836, there was a great deal of over-trading in the colony, the revulsion consequent on which was productive of a great deal of suffering. But the continued importation of convicts has been the great drawback on the colony; and, besides preventing the influx of free settlers, has filled the island with vice and crime. And supposing the future importation of convicts to be prevented, it will require a lengthened period to efface the deep taint it has already impressed on the population. In 1848, 219 vessels of the aggregate burden of 18,413 tons, belonged to Van-Diemen's Land: of these 23, of about 6,000 tons burden, employed in the whale fishery, imported oil, &c., to the gross value of 104,000*l*. We subjoin an

Account of the Import and Export Trade of the Colony in 1848.

Countries from and to which Imports and Exports were made.	Value of Imports.	Value of Exports.
	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>
Great Britain - - -	480,244	255,027
Foreign States - - -	102,980	2,586
Totals - - -	583,224	490,281
	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
Ships:—Inwards - - -	645	91,843
Outwards - - -	677	95,983

The great articles of export are wool, whale oil, and whalobone, and bark. The imports comprise every description of manufactured goods, colonial products, wines, farming utensils, &c. The value of the exports from the U. Kingdom to Van-Diemen's Land, in 1849, amounted to 315,021*l*.

The government is subordinate to that of New South Wales; but the lieutenant-governor, with the aid of the executive and legislative council, administers the local government independent of the parent-colony. The executive council consists of 5 members, including, with the lieutenant-governor, the chief justice, colonial secretary, and treasurer, and the officer in command of the troops. The legislative council is composed of from 10 to 15 members, appointed by warrant of the sovereign; and all the above functionaries are *ex officio* members. The laws of England, and acts of the British parliament, are generally administered in the colony, but special acts may be passed by the governor and council. The initiatory proceedings in the passing of all acts belong to the governor; and two-thirds of the council must be present at their passing, and the majority vote with the governor, or no proposition can become law. Civil causes are tried before a judge and two assessors, and criminal cases by a jury of seven naval or military officers. In most other respects this colony is administered in a manner similar to New South Wales. But a legislative council, partly elected by the colonists, and partly named by the crown, is to be formed under the act 13 & 14 Vict. c. 59. Public revenue in 1848, 129,545*l*.; expenditure, 136,193*l*. Of this expenditure 5,623*l*. was for day schools.

The settled part of Van-Diemen's Land is divided into 15 districts. Hobart Town, or Hobarton, the cap., is in the district of same name, on the Derwent, about 30 m. from its mouth, lat. 43° 54' S., long. 147° 34' E. Pop. of the town and district, in 1848, 21,467; of whom 5,369 were convicts. The town covers about one sq. m.; it stands upon the declivities of two gentle hills, and is intersected by a fine stream from the heights of the Table Mountain, which tower above the town on the W. to the height of 3,936 feet. The streets are wide, and intersect each other at right angles; and, having been from the first laid out on a uniform plan, it is built with much greater regularity than Sydney. Its houses are substantial, and 2 stories high: it has some good public buildings, including a church constructed of brick, a gaol, and a quay, close to which vessels of the largest burden load and unload. Hobart possesses one of the finest harbours in the world. The Derwent, which here forms a fine sheet of water, is navigable for ships for 3 m. above the town, and continues to afford a safe passage for vessels of 50 tons as far as New Norfolk, 30 m. higher up, where a ridge of rocks abruptly puts an end to the navigation. In 1848, 163 ships, of the aggregate burden of 14,640 tons, belonged to this port. The suburbs of Hobart are increasing and receiving much embellishment; villas, enclosures, &c., are said to be springing up in every direction. The principal settlement on the N. side of the colony is Launceston, on the Tamar, about 40 m. from its mouth, and 105 m. N. by W. Hobart Town. The river is navigable to it for vessels of 300 tons. The other towns are insignificant.

This island was originally discovered by the navigator Tasman in 1642, and subsequently received its name in honour of a governor of the Dutch E. Indies. It was

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afterwards visited and partially explored by Cook, Furneaux, D'Entrecasteaux, &c.; but it was not ascertained to be an island till Bass sailed through the Straits which bear his name in 1798. The first English penal settlement was established here in 1803, and down to 1813 it continued to be merely a place of transportation from New South Wales. The settlement continued to suffer from the depredations of escaped convicts, termed bush-rangers, till 1817, when these were finally put down; voluntary emigration began to take place to a considerable extent in 1831, and has since progressively increased. (*Parl. Rep. on Van Diemen's Land, &c.*)

VANNES, a town and sea-port of France, dep. Morbihan, of which it is the cap., at the bottom of the Gulph of Morbihan; 63 m. W.N.W. Nantes. Lat. 47° 39' 26" N., long. 9° 45' 4" W. Pop., in 1846, inc. comm., 11,366. It was formerly fortified, and entered by six gates, five of which, with some towers, still remain. It is clustered around its cathedral, and except one or two tolerable streets is irregularly and badly built, badly paved, and dirty. The cathedral, rebuilt in the 15th century, is a massive, but heavy edifice; in its interior, however, are some good monuments and paintings. It has another church, and several chapels, one of which, attached to the communal college, is of good architecture. The prefecture is an ancient castle; and a convent has been converted into the residence of the bishop. There were formerly many monastic establishments at Vannes; but their buildings have now mostly received their destinations, and one is appropriated to the *fraternelles de Perse*, which, besides boarding and educating 60 poor girls, has a great many out-scholars receiving primary instruction. The edifice, now the theatre, has served at different periods for the meetings of the states of Brittany, and the parliament of Rennes. Vannes has 3 hospitals, a communal college, school of navigation, a Polytechnic society, established in 1836, for the culture of the arts and sciences, a public library of 6,000 vols., and manufactures of coarse cloths, linen and cotton yarn, and lace. Its port is small, and the entrance being shallow, it is fit only for vessels of small burden; on one of its sides is a planted promenade, and on the other are slips for building boats and small craft. It has been supposed that Vannes occupies the site of *Dariorignum*, the cap. of the Veneti; but the better opinion seems to be that the latter was about 5 m. N. by W. Vannes, at Locmarlaker, where the remains of a circus and Roman road are still extant. (*Hugo, art. Morbihan; D'Anville, Notice de L'Antienne Gaule, p. 363; Mariniere, &c.*)

VAR, a maritime dep. of France, reg. S.E., between lat. 45° and 44° N., and long. 40° and 39° E.; having W. the dep. Bouches-du-Rhône, N. the Baas-Alpes, N.E. the Sardinian States (co. Nice), from which it is separated by the river Var, and E. and S. the Mediterranean. Area, 726,866 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 349,869. The surface, particularly in the N. and E., is mostly covered with ramifications of the Alps, consisting of primitive or calcareous formations covered with a gravelly and arid soil. The dep. is, however, well watered, and on the banks of some of the rivers, as the Var and Argens, are some very fertile tracts. The Var, whence the dep. derives its name, and 20 m. E. of the Basses-Alpes, about 6 m. S.E. Colmar, and, after running generally southward, falls into the Mediterranean at St. Laurent, 34 m. S.W. Nice, after a course of 68 m., for about half of which it is navigable for rafts. The Berton and Vesoubia are its chief tributaries; no towns of much consideration are on its banks. Numerous lagoons and marshes border the coast of this dep., which is generally abrupt, rocky, and indented with numerous inlets. In 1834, the arable lands were estimated to comprise 118,063 hectares; vineyards, 67,687 do.; woods, 260,700 do.; and wastes, about 187,800 do. Agriculture is very backward, and the supply of corn is inadequate for the consumption of half the pop.: the produce in wine, olives, and fruits of various kinds is, however, considerable; and 115,494 kilogs. of silk were gathered in 1835. Capers, oranges, lemons, chestnuts, and perfumery are among the principal exports. Grasse is especially famous for its essences and liqueurs; and roses, jasmies, &c., are grown there and elsewhere in large quantities for their manufacture. The forests comprise many cork-trees, and bottle corks are made in several places. Kermes and a little tobacco are among the other products. Few horses or cattle, but a good many mules, are bred. In 1830, there were estimated to be upwards of 370,000 sheep, and 18,000 goats, in the dep., and the woods afford nourishment for numerous hogs. In 1835, of 109,560 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 42,013 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 21,790 at from 5 to 10 fr., only 37 were assessed at 1,000 fr. and upwards. Lead, coal, copper, iron, manganese, &c., are met with, though very few mines are wrought. The tunny and anchovy fisheries are of considerable importance, and coral of good quality is fished up on the coast. Manufactures of no great consequence; but silk twist, perfumery, soap, paper, and leather are produced to some

extent: the dep. has, however, a considerable trade with the Sardinian States, &c. It is divided into 4 arrond.: chief towns, Draguignan, the cap., Toulon, Brignolles, and Grasse.

VARINAS, a town of Colombia, repub. Venezuela, cap. prov. on a tributary of the Apure, 300 m. S.W. Caracas. Pop. uncertain, being variously estimated at from 6,000 to 13,000. It is the principal mart for the excellent tobacco grown in its prov., but has also a considerable trade in sugar, coffee, cotton, indigo, and cattle, which are mostly exported by way of the Apure and Orinoco. (*Coderal; Geog. de Venezuela, &c.*)

VARNA, a fortified town and seaport of European Turkey, prov. Bulgaria, on the Black Sea, at the mouth of the Pravadi, 47 m. E. Schumla; lat. 43° 12' N., long. 27° 54' E. Pop. estimated at about 16,000. The fortifications have been considerably enlarged and strengthened since it was occupied by the Russians in 1829. Though the residence of a pacha, it is but indifferently built, and has only an open roadstead. The latter, however, being sheltered from N.W. winds, which are the most to be feared in this sea, and having good holding ground, presents but little danger. Varna has always been a principal port for the shipment of wheat and other Bulgarian produce to Constantinople; and latterly her importance in this respect has been greatly increased, and she now supplies corn to all parts of the Levant, and sometimes even to England. In 1847 the exports of wheat from Varna amounted to 377,550 qrs.; and, in 1848, exports considerable quantities of tallow, with hides, corn, dried beef, wool, &c. The imports consist principally of manufactured goods, especially cottons and cotton twist, colonial produce, spirits, oil, &c. The badness of the communications with the interior is the principal drawback on the trade of Varna. Were these improved, her exports would be largely increased.

A great battle was fought near Varna on the 10th of Nov. 1444, between the Hungarians and their allies, under their king Ladislaus, assisted by the famous John Hunniades, and the Turks, under their sultan, Amurat II. The Christians, who had broken a truce which they had a short while before solemnly sworn to observe, suffered severely for their perfidy; their king having been killed in the battle, Hunniades taken prisoner, and their army totally defeated with a prodigious slaughter. (*L'Art de Vérifier les Dates, 3e partie, v. 280. 8vo. ed.*)

VASTO (*an. Histonium*), a town and sea-port of the Neapolitan Dom., prov. Abruzzo-Citra, on the Adriatic, 31 m. S.E. Chieti. Pop., in 1830, 9,016. It is walled, and has two collegiate churches, one of which is said to occupy the site of a temple of Ceres, several convents, hospitals, &c., with many good private buildings. Its inhabs. are mostly occupied in the manufacture of earthenware, in fishing, and the cultivation of olives and vines. On the 1st of April, 1816, this town was the theatre of an extraordinary catastrophe, by which it was partially destroyed by a sudden falling in and sliding of the soil, supposed to have been occasioned by the escape of subterranean water. (*Del Rê, Descrizione delle Due Sicilie, il 410.*)

VAUCLUSE, a dep. of France, reg. S.E., between lat. 45° 40' and 44° 35' N., and long. 4° 45' and 5° 40' E., having N. the dep. Drome, E. Basses-Alpes, S. Bouches-du-Rhône, from which it is separated by the Durance, and W. the Rhone, separating it from Gard. Area, 347,377 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 259,154. The general slope of this dep. is to the W., in which direction it is traversed by many small tributaries of the Rhone. Soil, mostly calcareous, but it is only in the neighbourhood of the larger rivers that it possesses much fertility. In 1834, the arable lands were estimated to comprise 157,738 hectares; vineyards, 28,994 do.; woods, 62,141 do.; willow plantations, &c., 2,717 do.; and heaths, wastes, &c., 67,760 do. In 1835, of 81,140 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 38,804 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and only 23 at 1,000 fr. and upwards. Agriculture, though still very backward, is said, of late years, to have made considerable progress. Oxen, horses, or mules are used indifferently for the plough; but the last are principally employed. The scarcity of other manure obliges the farmers to cut the wild box on the hills, which, being macerated and suffered to rot, is used for the purpose, and found peculiarly suitable for manuring vines. Wine and silk are among the most important products of the dep.: the produce of wine may, perhaps, be estimated at about 500,000 hectolitres, of which a considerable portion is exported. The best wines are those of *Coteaux-Bridé*, near Avignon, and of *Châteauneuf*, 44 leagues from Orange. Speaking generally, however, too little attention is paid to the culture and care of the vine. "On en comptaient," says Jullien, "beaucoup plus de bons vins, si les propriétaires apportèrent plus de soin dans le choix des plants et dans la culture." (p. 266.) In 1833, upwards of 1,500,000 kilogs. of raw silk were gathered. The produce of wheat is insufficient for home consumption, but a good deal of rye, and some maize, barley, buck wheat, potatoes, &c. are grown, besides saffron, madder, and cori-

ander and anise seeds. Almonds and other fruits, and essence of lavender, are among the exports. Artificial grasses are sown; but the pasture lands are not extensive, and the quantity of stock is less than in any other of the S. depts. Bees are pretty numerous; the honey is of good quality; and about 60,000 kilog. of wax are supposed to be exported annually. This dep. does not appear to be rich in metals; but building stone, of good quality, lime, potters' clay, &c. are plentiful. Silk fabrics are made at Avignon and Orange; and the town of Apt is famous, in the S. of France, for its earthenware and confectionery, as is Avignon for its printing establishments, and manufactures of printing types, bells, and other metallic goods. Copper, lead, and iron-plates, prep red madder, woollen stuff, leather, paper, cordage, linen thread, glass wares, and tiles are made in this dep., which has also many distilleries and dyeing-houses.

Vaucluse is subdivided into 4 arronds.: chief towns, Avignon, the cap., Apt, Carpentras, and Orange.

VAUDOUZ, a famous fountain in the above dep., close by the small village of the same name, 4 m. W. side, and 18 m. W. by N. Apt. This fountain has its source in a vast cavern at the foot of a rock 300 feet in height, at the bottom of a narrow gorge in the mountains. Within this cavern is a deep basin of the purest water, the surface of which appears to be perfectly smooth and placid, but which, notwithstanding, emits so great a quantity of water as to give birth to the small river Sorgues, an affluent of the Rhone. After the melting of snows, or the occurrence of long-continued rains, the flow of water is greatly increased; but even in the driest season it is astonishingly copious. In ordinary states of the fountain the water escapes by percolating through the rocks, stones, and gravel, that form the outward side of the abyss; whereas during floods it overflows its banks. It is possible, taking proper precautions, to descend, when the water is low, to its edge. Owing to its great depth it appears as if it were jet black, though, as already stated, it is limpid in the extreme.

This fountain is celebrated in the history of Petrarch. An old castle near the village, which belonged to his friend the Bishop of Cavallion, was frequently visited by Petrarch, and is thence called his castle. The poet, however, lived in the village. He here frequently saw Laura, who is generally supposed to have been the wife of the Count de la Sade, the lord of the village. But this is doubtful, as well as the Platonism of her lover. (*Hugo, art. Vaucluse, &c.*)

VAUD (Fr. *Pays de Vaud*, Germ. *Waadt*), a canton of Switzerland, holding the 19th rank in the confederation, between lat. 46° and 47° N., and long. 6° and 7° 12' E., having N. the cant. and lake of Neuchâtel, E. Friburg and the Bernese Oberland, S. the Valais, Savoy, and the lake and territory of Geneva, and W. the dep. of Jura in France. Area, about 1,180 sq. m. Pop. in 1850, 199,568. It is divided into 10 districts, of which 8 are Catholic. Both the S. E. and N. W. extremities of this canton are mountainous: the former quarter is covered by ramifications of the Alps, one summit of which, the Diable's, rises to 11,130 ft. above the level of the sea; the latter region is traversed by ranges of the Jura. The middle of the canton, between the Jura mountains and the lakes of Geneva and Neuchâtel, is a rich undulating country, and so celebrated for its agreeable character and picturesque beauty, that it has long been resorted to by visitors from many parts of Europe; in 1857, 14,400 of its inhabs. were citizens of other cantons, and nearly 4,000 foreigners! The raising of corn and wine is the chief occupation of the pop. The vineyards, reckoned the best in Switzerland, are supposed to comprise about 18,000 acres, and to employ 20,000 vine-dressers, independently of women and children. The wines of La Vaux and La Côte, both grown on the shores of Lake Lemane, are the best: the first is produced near Vevay, where the Romans, who erected a temple to Bacchus at Cully, are supposed to have originally planted the vine. A society of high antiquity in that town exercises a survey of the vineyards in the district, celebrated as remarkably well attended by a great concourse of strangers, every 15th or 30th year. The number of cattle in Vaud has of late increased very much: in 1830, it was supposed to have about 75,000 head of cattle, 23,800 horses, and 77,000 sheep; and the improvement in the breeds is said to have kept pace with the increase of numbers. Almost the only salt springs in Switzerland exist at Bex in this cant. They were discovered in the 16th, and bought by the government of Bern in the succeeding century; in 1834, they produced a revenue of 18,438 S.w. francs. Marble, coal, crystal, sulphur, petroleum, and a few metallic products, are met with, though not raised in any large quantities. Manufactures are very unimportant, and mostly confined to those of leather and yarn. The transit trade from France into Switzerland and Germany is of more consequence to the inhabs.

Vaud is subdivided into 19 districts and 60 circles; all

the towns of more than 3,000 inhabs. forming a separate circle. Its constitution is more aristocratic than that of most of the other Swiss cantons.

The legislative power is vested in a grand council of 184 mems. elected for 5 years, which meets yearly in May at Lausanne. The electors include a certain portion of those among the citizens who are taxed to the highest amount (*du nombre des trois quarts des citoyens le plus imposés à l'impôt foncier*), and must be neither domestic servants, recipients of public relief, bankrupt, nor under penal condemnation. Each circle sends 1 deputy to the grand council, who must be an inhabs. of the circle, 30 years of age, and possess property in the canton of the value of 2,500 fr., or some equivalent thereto; the town of Lausanne sends 4 deputies; 4 candidates are also nominated by each of the circles, and from among the general list the mems. already chosen elect 63 other mems. Finally, an electoral commission, composed of the mems. of the executive body, of the court of appeal, and 40 mems. of the legislative council, chooses the remaining mems., electing 36 from among the cantonal citizens 20 years of age and possessors of landed property to the value of 10,000 fr., and 18 above 35 years of age without property qualification. (*Picot*.) The legislature chooses the executive council, which consists of 9 mems., and has the initiative in all propositions of laws and taxation. Each district has a court of primary jurisdiction, and each circle a justice of the peace. The inhabs. understand and speak French; but their common *patois* is a dialect somewhat similar to the Romanesco. Schools are pretty general, and in 1834 it was estimated that 1 in 6 of the pop. was receiving public instruction. Public revenue, in 1834, 1,276,977 fr.; expenditure, 1,115,658 do.

This territory nearly corresponds to the *Pages Urbigenus* of Caesar. It successively belonged to the Burgundian and Frankish kingdoms, the Germanic Empire, and the dukes of Zähringen. From 1273 to 1586 it was possessed by Savoy; and by the gov. of Bern from the latter year till 1798, when it was erected into the canton of Leman. It reassumed its present name in 1803. It furnishes 2,964 men to the army, and 59,273 fr. a year to the treasury of the Swiss Confederacy. (*Picot, Statist. de la Suisse; Edel; Boering's Rep. on Switzerland*.)

VELLEZ-MÁLAGA (an. *Mérola*), a town of Spain, in Andalusia, prov. Malaga, cap. distr. on the Velez, near its mouth, and 14 m. E.N.E. Malaga. Pop. with its vicinity, according to Miffano, about 14,000. The town is slightly elevated above and on the left bank of the stream, and is commanded by the neighbouring hills. The streets are wide, clean, and well paved; but the thriving commerce, and abundant market naturally looked for in a place once so noted for the productiveness of its orchards and extent of its export trade, are no longer to be seen. (*Scott's Travels through Granada, i. 319*.) Under the Moors, Velez was a place of considerable strength, and had a castle, now in ruins. It has two par. churches, six convents, several workhouses, a prison, public granary, &c., and some fine public promenades. It is said to be peculiarly well situated; its climate is not oppressively hot, the town being sheltered by the neighbouring heights; and its neighbourhood is very fertile, producing sugar, coffee, cotton, cochineal, large quantities of wine, silk, various fruits, the sweet potato, &c. It has some sugar-mills, and manufactures of hats, soap, brandy, &c. It was taken from the Moors in 1497, the siege having been conducted by Ferdinand in person. (*Mifano, Townsend; Scott; &c.*)

VELLETRI (an. *Vellitra*), a town of S. Italy, Papal States, Comarca di Roma, near the Appian Way, 30 m. S.E. Rome. Pop. about 10,000. It stands on a commanding eminence at the foot of Mount Artemisio, and enjoys an extensive view of the Pontine Marshes, as far as Monte Circeo, and of the sea, with the range of the mountains of Norba, Cora, and Segni, and even those beyond Palestrina. It is surrounded by ruined walls, with decayed towers, and ruinous curtains, and is but indifferently built. It has a town-hall by Bramante, and some fine palaces. The principal square has a fine fountain, and a bronze statue of Pope Clement VIII. The Borgia Museum, now in Naples, was originally established in the Borgia palace, in this town. The inhabs. are mostly peasants, who work in the neighbouring fields and vineyards, and at night retire to the town, the air of which is extremely good. According to Sinondo, the inhabs. are "not quite so ragged as their neighbours, although the place is full as dirty, and the inn as miserable." *Vellitra* appears to have been one of the most considerable cities of the Volsci, and is said by Dionysius to have been fortified by Coriolanus. It was the residence of the Octavian family before they settled in Rome; and is celebrated as the birth-place of Augustus, who was born here on the 23d Sept., anno 63 a. c., in the consulship of Cicero. (*Rampoldi; Gell's Topography of Rome, &c., ii. 340. &c.*)

VELLORE, a town and fortress of British India, presid. Madras, distr. Arcot, 30 m. W. by S. Madras. The fortress, which is of considerable extent, comprises spacious barracks and the other necessary accommodations for a garrison, with various handsome buildings round a square, on one side of which is a curious pagoda, now used as a magazine. The native town, which is also large and populous, is situated to the S. of the fort, with which it is connected by additional battlements. In 1677 it was taken by Sevajee; and, during the war of 1782, was relieved by Sir Eyre Coote, in the face of Hyder's army. After the capture of Seringapatam, Tippeo's family was removed thither. In 1806 a formidable revolt of the native troops, followed by a massacre of the Europeans, took place here, of which Tippeo's family were supposed to have been the instigators. This occasioned the removal of the latter to Calcutta. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gazetteer.*)

VENDÉE (LA), a maritime dep. of France, reg. W.; formerly included in the prov. of Poitou, and, exclusive of the islands Dieu and Noirmoutiers, extending between the 46th and 47th degrees of N. lat., long. 9° 23' and 10° 10' W.; having N. Loire-Inférieure and Maine-et-Loire; E. Deux-Sèvres; S. Charente-Inférieure; and S.W. and W. the Atlantic. Area, 781,700 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 376,164. No portion of the surface is much elevated; the E. part of the dep. is undulating, though nowhere rising to the height of 800 ft. The principal rivers are the Sèvre-Nantaise and Nottaise, Antise, Vendée, Lay, Yon, and Vic. The Vendée rises in the dep. Deux-Sèvres, runs generally in a S.W. direction, and joins the Sèvre-Nottaise, after a course of about 16 leagues, only a small portion of which is navigable. Fontenay is the only town of consequence on its banks. The dep. is subdivided into 3 districts; the marshes, the plain country, and the bocage. The marshes extend principally along the coast; the bocage, so called from the wood sprinkled over it, occupies the centre and upper parts of La Vendée; and the plain country, a great part of which is very fertile, comprises the rest of the surface. In 1834, the arable lands were estimated to comprise 408,556 hectares; pastures, 109,896 do.; vineyards, 17,700 do.; and woods, 29,900 do. Agriculture is conducted in much the same way as in the same and Maine-et-Loire-Inférieure (which see). Leases run from 3 to 7 years. Few of the farms are let for money; but the rent, paid in produce, may be equivalent for corn land to 26 fr.; for vineyards, 34 fr.; and for meadow lands, 40 fr. an acre. In the plains the ground is left idle the second year, as in Loire-Inférieure.

"The whole of this dep., as well as that of the Loire-Inférieure is, with a very few exceptions, most miserably farmed. The farmers are without capital, and badly provided with implements, and have not half the number of labourers required for the land; the fields are always full of weeds, for the roots are left entire by the bad ploughs in use, and from the want of hands to pull them out." (*Parl. Rep. on Agriculture, 1834.*) A greater quantity of wheat is grown than in any other of the W. depts.; and, next to it, barley is the grain principally cultivated. Flax and hemp are grown to a considerable extent in the marshy tracts. A large quantity of wine, principally white, is produced; but, according to Jullien, it is *d'une qualité très-médiocre, et en général vert, plat et sujet à tourner à la graisse dès la première année.* (P. 147.) This inferiority is ascribed to the circumstance of the cultivators being more anxious to increase the quantity than to improve the quality of their wines. Throughout a great part of the dep., estates are usually divided into farms of from 45 to 80 acres; and in the plain country few farms of this size have fewer than 60 or 80 sheep. The annual produce of wool is estimated by Hugo at 600,000 kilogr. Oxen are sold from the plain to the bocage farmers, who fatten a good deal of stock. In some places mules are used for ploughing; they are brought from Deux-Sèvres when young, and after having been worked lightly for 4 or 5 years, are sold to merchants for the Spanish market. (*Rep. on Agric.*) In 1835, of 124,113 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 69,644 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 17,037 at from 5 to 10 fr. (*Official Tables.*) A little lead and antimony, with some iron and coal, are obtained; but the dep. is not rich in mineral products. Pilechards are taken on the coast, and the inhabs. of Sables d'Olonne are interested in the Newfoundland fishery. Manufactures few; being principally of hats and woollen stuffs, for home consumption. La Vendée is divided into 3 arrondis: chief towns, Bourbon Vendée, Fontenay, and Sables d'Olonne. It sends 5 mems. to the Ch. of Dep. Reg. electors in 1838-39, 1,477. Total public revenue, in 1831, 6,671,803 fr. This dep. is distinguished for the chivalrous and obstinate stand made by its inhabitants during the progress of the French revolution, in favour of the rights or pretensions of the Bourbons. In this, no doubt, they were a good deal assisted by the nature of the country; but their gallantry and their sacrifices were alike remarkable, and were worthy of a better cause.

(Hugo, art. *La Venée*; *Dict. Géog.*; *French Official Tables.*)

VENDÔME, a town of France, dép. Loir-et-Cher, cap. arrond.; on the Loir, 20 m. N.W. Blois. Pop., in 1836, ex. comm., 7,030. It is well built, clean, and handsome. The remains of an ancient castle, the communal college, cavalry barracks, theatre, and public library, are the objects most worthy notice. It has manufactures of kid gloves, cotton cloths, hosiery, yarn, paper, and leather.

VENEZUELA, see COLOMBIA.

VENICE (Ital. *Venezia*), a famous maritime city of Austrian Italy, formerly the cap. of the republic of the same name, and now of E. Lombardy, on a cluster of numerous small islands, in a shallow, but extensive lagoon, about 4 m. from the mainland, in the N.W. portion of the Adriatic, 75 m. W. by S. Trieste; lat. 45° 25' 33" N., long. 12° 30' 31" E. Pop., in 1842, 110,000. The appearance of Venice, from whatever side she may be approached, is striking and singular in the extreme. Owing to the lowness of the islands on which she is built, she seems to float upon the sea.

— "From out the sea her structures rise,
As from the stroke of the enchained's wand."

She is divided into two principal portions, of nearly equal size, by the Grand Canal (*Il Canale Maggiore*), a serpentine channel, varying from about 100 to 180 ft. in width, crossed by the principal bridge of the city, the celebrated *Rialto*. The various islands, which form the foundations of these two grand divisions, are connected by numerous bridges, which, being very steep, and intended only for foot-passengers, are cut into steps on either side. The canals, or *rii*, crossed by these bridges, intersect every part of the town, and form the "water-streets" of Venice; by far the greater part of the intercourse of the city being carried on by their means in gondolas or barges.

But, besides the canals, Venice is everywhere traversed by streets, or rather passages (*calli*), bearing a striking resemblance to Cranbourn Alley; and so very narrow, as to be in general only 4, and seldom more than 5 or 6, ft. in width. The only exception is the *Merceria*, a street in the centre of the city, lined on each side with hand-some shops; but even this, which may be regarded as the Portland Place, or Regent Street of Venice, is only from 12 to 20 ft. across! To ride in a carriage, or on horseback, is here wholly out of the question. The streets, or lanes, are consequently not paved with round stones, or blocks, but with flag, or marble slabs, having small sewers for carrying off the filth. Almost all the principal houses have on one side a canal, and on the other a *garden*, or *calle*. The former, however, is the grand thoroughfare; and gondolas or carriages, are here the universal substitute for carriages and horses. They are generally long, narrow, light vessels, and, though rowed only by a single gondolier with one oar, cut their way through the water with extraordinary velocity. A summary law of the old regime directed that the gondolas should all be painted black. In the middle is an apartment fitted with glass windows, blinds, cushions, &c., for the accommodation of 4 persons. Some of the gondolas, belonging to private families, are magnificently fitted up. The charge for a gondola is about 10d. an hour; and with it you may soon visit every part of the city.

In many parts there are small squares, or *campi*, in which are usually cisterns, for the careful preservation of rain water; but the only open space of any magnitude is the piazza of St. Mark, with the piazzette leading to it, and forming the state entrance to Venice from the sea. "The piazzetta is at right angles with the great square, branching off in a line with the church of St. Mark. On one side, and turning a side front to the port, is the old palace of the doges; on the other side are the doges' mint, and the library of St. Mark, the regular architecture, and fresh and modern architecture, which seem to mock the fallen majesty of their antique neighbour. On the sea shore, which forms the 4th side of the piazzetta, stand two magnificent granite columns, each of a single block; one crowned with the winged lion of St. Mark, in bronze, and the other bearing the statue of St. Theodore. Between these two columns, in former times, public executions took place." (*Condor's Italy.*) The piazza of St. Mark is an oblong area, about 800 ft. by 500, flagged over. Two of its sides consist of regular buildings with deep arcades. Each side is faced uniformly, though not similar to the other. On the N. is the *Procuratie Vecchie*; on the S., the *Procuratie Nuove*. The W. side was formerly occupied by the church of St. Geminiano; but this was taken down by the French, who erected in its stead the staircase of the new Imperial palace. At the opposite end are the cathedral of St. Mark, the Orologio, and the Campanile; and in front of the cathedral are 5 tall poles, supported on handsome bases of bronze, whence the flags of the Morea, Crete, and Cyprus were formerly displayed. From being the

only piece of open ground in Venice of any consequence, this square is almost constantly thronged with company, and it is the scene of all the public masquerades, festivals, &c., that take place in the city.

Venice has a vast number of fine private palaces by Sansovino, Palladio &c.; but many of its public buildings are more remarkable for gorgeousness and display, than for purity and taste. They present generally a heterogeneous intermixture of Byzantine, or other Eastern, with Greek, Roman, and Gothic architecture. The celebrated church of St. Mark is not Gothic, Saracenic, or Roman, but a mixture of all those styles; neither a church nor a mosque, but something between the two; too low for grandeur, too heavy for beauty, no just proportion being preserved among the different parts. Yet it has the effect of grandeur, and a sort of beauty, from the richness of the materials, and the profusion of ornament. The original church was founded in 829; but the present edifice was founded in 977, under the direction of architects from Constantinople. The nave is 245 ft. in length, the transept 301 ft.; the middle dome is internally 90 ft. in height, and the 4 other domes 80 ft. each. The front is 170 ft. in width, and 72 ft. in height, without its surmounting figures. In its lower part are 5 recessed doorways, each adorned with 3 stories of little columns, though these are mostly ill proportioned, and their capitals nearly all different. Over these arches is a gallery or balcony of marble, in the centre of which are the famous bronze horses, most probably of Chian origin, and carried to Constantinople by Theodosius, whence they were conveyed away by the Venetians, when they took and plundered the capital of the eastern empire, in 1206. For 18 years, or from 1797 to 1815, they crowned the triumphal arch in the *Place du Carrousel* in Paris; but, though restored, we may well inquire,

— "Is not Doria's vengeance come to pass?
Are they not better left to rot?"
(*Childe Harold*, cent. iv. st. 13. and note.)

Immediately behind the horses is a large circular window, on either side of which an arched doorway opens upon the balcony. The front terminates in pointed arches, surmounted by a crowd of spires, pinnacles, statues, crosses, &c. The finishings are in the style of the Italian Gothic of the 15th century, but overcharged and heavy. Forsyth, speaking of this edifice says, "No where have I seen so many columns crowded into so small a space. Nearly 300 are stuck on the pillars of the front, and 200 more on the balustrade above. A like profusion prevails in the interior, which is heavy, dark, and barbarous." But, from Mr. Wood's account, it would appear that the same barbarous taste that prevails in the exterior, is not so obtrusive within. "The vaulting and great part of the walls are covered with mosaic, and the rest with rich marbles. The columns of porphyry, verd-antique, &c.; the pavement of minute pieces of white and coloured marbles, jasper, agate, lapis lazuli, &c., variously, and for the most part, beautifully disposed; the inlaid ornaments, and gilded capitals, produce a degree of astonishment and admiration in the mind of the spectator." (*Letters of an Architect*, l. 260.) The Orologio, or clock-tower, on the N. side of the cathedral, has little to recommend it; and the campanile is merely a large square tower upwards of 300 ft. in height, terminated by a pyramid. In it, however, Galileo made many of his astronomical observations. The *loggia* around its base, now converted into a lottery-office, is a beautiful building of the Corinthian order, from the designs of Sansovino. The *Procuratorie Nuove*, now the royal palace, is a rich line of building, fronted with all the different Greek orders.

The ducal palace was originally founded in the 9th century, but the present edifice dates only from the middle of the 14th, when it was erected by the doge Marino Faliero. Externally, it presents a double range of arches, supporting a great wall of brickwork, with a few windows. The corners are cut to admit thin spiral columns. Notwithstanding its many defects, this structure derives an imposing effect from its grandeur of dimensions, and unity of design. The palace is entered by 8 gates, the principal leading into the *cortile*, which is surrounded on 3 sides by 3 stories of arcades. One side is richly ornamented, though the whole be in bad taste. A noble flight of steps, called, from the colossal statues of Mars and Neptune, by Sansovino, the *Giant's Staircase*, leads up from the *cortile* to the open arcade, where, under the Republic, the lions' mouths gaped to receive communications or surmises of plots against the state! From this exterior corridor the state apartments are entered. The walls of the *Sala di Quattro Porte* are covered with paintings by Tintoretto, Vicentino, and Titian. The hall of the Great Council, *Sala del Gran Consiglio*, 153 ft. in length, is now principally appropriated to the library, of which Petrarch was one of the founders; but it is also rich in frescoes, by Bassano, &c., and contains a fine collection of ancient sculpture, the portraits of the Venetian doges, &c. The *Sala dei Pre-*

gedi, and numerous other apartments, are richly gilt, and exhibit all the glories of the Venetian school of painting, "which spreads over the walls and covers the ceilings, as if it had only cost a few shillings the sq. yard." In the hall of the Council of Ten, converted by Napoleon into the chamber of a court of cassation, the ceilings have been painted by Paul Veronese; and on every side the eye rests on pictorial representations of the achievements and glories of the Republic. In the lower parts of the palace are the former tribunals and dungeons of the state inquisition, from which a passage leads across the *Ponte de Sospiri*, or Bridge of Sighs, to a door now walled up, but which formerly opened into a chamber where prisoners were despatched.

Next to the buildings in the neighbourhood of St. Mark's, those bordering the harbour and the canal of Giudecca appear to be the finest, including the Dogana or custom-house, the church of La Salute, and those of San Giorgio and Il Redemptore, both designed by Palladio. These last were on the point of being pulled down by the French, and only saved by being redeemed for a large sum of money. The *Redemptore*, Forsyth says, is admirable both in plan and elevation, and its interior is perhaps perfect in its proportions, simple, grand, and harmonious. It is, in fact, one of Palladio's *chef d'œuvre*, and is perhaps the finest church in Italy, though inferior to a great many in costliness and magnitude. Besides a Greek church and 7 synagogues, Venice has altogether about 100 Rom. Cath. churches, which are, on the whole, among its best buildings. There were formerly many more; but the French pulled them down, with a number of convents, in pursuance of their plans for the improvement of the city. Several of the churches date from the middle ages, though few of them are worth especial notice. One, however, is interesting, from its containing the remains of one of the greatest painters and of one of the greatest sculptors that Italy has produced — Titian and Canova: the grave of the former is marked by a short inscription on a plain stone let into the pavement. Canova has a fine pyramidal monument, from one of his own designs, the expense of which was defrayed by contributions collected in all parts of Europe. The famous painter, Paul Veronese, is buried in the church of St. Sebastian, where he has a monument. The bellies of all the churches are detached, and appear to be built on the model of St. Mark's.

The general cemetery or burying-place for the city is on the island of San Cristoforo di Murano. Here, rich and poor, the noble and the beggar, are all interred, the expenses of the burial of the latter being defrayed by government. This cemetery was formed, and the plan of conveying all dead bodies to it from the city enforced, by the French; and, happily, it has since been continued. A gondola, moored to the island, is appropriated to the translation of corpses. The Jews have their burying-ground at Malomocco.

For a lengthened period after the foundation of the city, the communication between its E. and W. divisions, across the grand canal, was effected by ferry-boats. A wooden bridge was subsequently established; and this having fallen to decay, it was determined to replace it by one of marble from the designs of Antonio da Ponte. The building of the Rialto was commenced in 1588; but, though it consists of a fine elliptic arch, neither its beauty nor its magnitude corresponds with its fame and the attention it has excited. Its arch is 99 ft. in span. The roadway of the bridge is divided into three parts, viz. a narrow street in the middle, with shops on each side, and two still narrower streets between the shops and the balustrades. The shops disfigure the bridge, and make it look heavy. It is lofty in the middle, and is ascended, like the other bridges, by long flights of steps at either end. The view from the summit, along the grand canal, frequently presents a very animated scene, and is one of the finest in Venice.

The palaces of Venice, built, like those of Amsterdam, on piles, are massive structures; but, except such as have been built by Palladio, Sansovino, Sanmichele, Longhena, Scamozzi, and a few other architects of eminence, they are mostly deficient in good taste. They in general exhibit too many orders in front. Venice, in truth, is more attractive from its singularities than its architectural elegance. Yet it is still highly interesting to the student of architecture, who may here trace the gradation from the solid masses and round arches, the stately remains of the ancient grand style in the 6th, 7th, 8th, and 9th centuries, through the fanciful forms and grotesque embellishments of the middle ages, to its revival and re-establishment in later times." (*Excuse, Classical Tour*, l. 167.) Many, however, of the old patrician mansions are deserted, and not a few of them have been pulled down. Necessity, too, has, in many instances, obliged their owners to part with the fine works of art, with which they were formerly embellished. Still, however, some of the palaces have yet to boast of good collections of pictures, statues, &c. The Manfrin palace has a splendid gallery of pictures; and

the Palazzo Barberigo has some fine works by Titian. The Grimani palace contains the only extant statue of Marcus Agrippa, a fine bust of Caracalla, &c.; and in the Pisani palace is Dadaus fixing wings on his son, the first group executed by Canova.

But, notwithstanding their magnitude and imposing external appearance, the rooms inhabited by the family, in the greater number of the palaces which are still occupied, are often small, ill furnished, and uncomfortable. Personal accommodation and the enjoyment of good air have been sacrificed that space might be found for the exhibition of statues, pictures, and other works of art. All the larger houses, or palazzi, are from three to four stories in height, being generally of a square form, with an inside court containing a cistern, in which the rain-water is carefully collected. As already stated, they have, for the most part, two entrances—the principal opening on a canal, and the other on a street or alley. Some of the finest palaces are built wholly of marble. The grand canal has on each side many such buildings.

The houses occupied by the middle and lower classes are built of brick, and are in general covered with wood. Few of these have arcades but they are mostly provided with balconies. From the extreme narrowness of the streets, the houses are usually gloomy; and are miserably deficient in the appropriate distribution of their different parts, and in all those conveniences and adaptation to comfort that distinguish houses in this country.

The arsenal, which opens upon the port not far from St. Mark's, together with the dockyard, occupies an island between two and three m. in circuit, and is defended by lofty turreted walls. The entrance is guarded by two towers flanking a gateway, over which the winged lion still frowns defiance; and in front of this entrance are four lions, brought from the Piræus: two being of very fine proportions, and probably of Penticte marble. The magazines and docks are kept in good order, and ship-building is one of the chief branches of industry at Venice. Besides the armoury, magazines, forges, foundries, and other necessary establishments, here is a rope-house, 1,000 ft. in length. One of the walls of the armoury has a statue of Pisani, famous for his contests with the Genoese, and a beautiful monument by Canova, representing Fame crowning the Venetian admiral Angelo Emo. During the times of the republic, the Bucentaur was the great lion of the arsenal. This was the state barge, in which the doge, accompanied by a splendid cortège, proceeded to espouse the Adriatic. The ceremony was performed by the doge dropping a ring of no great value into the sea, pronouncing at the same time the words, *Desponsamus te, Mare, in signum veri perpetueque dominii*. In these days, however,

"The spouses Adriatic mourns her lord,
And annual marriage now no more renewed."

Byron adds that the Bucentaur "lies rotting, unstored;" but, in fact, she was burned by the French soon after the downfall of the republic.

Venice has 6 theatres, the largest of which may contain 3,500 spectators: the Venetian drama is, however, in a very low state. The Dogana, the old exchange, is a fantastic edifice of the 17th century; and the new prison, built by Antonio da Ponte in 1589, is much too handsome for its purpose, being an elegant Doric edifice. The bishop's palace and seminary, the various hospitals and barracks, are among the other principal edifices. A flourishing academy of the fine arts, 4 schools of music, and a public school for each corporation of tradesmen, are among the principal institutions for education. "Venice holds a prominent place in Italy for its charitable institutions. There is one house within the city in which 700 poor people are lodged, and many more have free lodgings and receive pecuniary assistance out of the establishment. There is an orphan house for about 350 children; an infirmary for 36 women; a wealthy institution for the reception of penitent women; an hospital, capable of receiving 1,000 patients; a house of education for 90 young girls; a foundling hospital, &c.; and the yearly revenues, chiefly arising from endowments, amount to about 550,000 florins." (*Von Hammer's Italy*, i. 85.)

Venice has been represented as a delightful residence; but though it may be, and perhaps is, an aquatic paradise to the amphibious bipeds born within the sound of St. Mark's bells, it is very different to a stranger. At first, no doubt, it is surprising and lovely by its novelty; but soon becomes tiresome from its sameness, the incessant recourse to boats, the narrowness of the streets, the want of room, the absence of all rural beauty, and the constant sense of imprisonment. It would not, in fact, be habitable were the water fresh; but the saltiness of the water, and the flux and reflux of the tide, make it tolerably salubrious. The latter phenomena, however, which are at all times much less sensible in the Mediterranean than on the British shores, are in summer so inconsiderable, that the canals become stagnant, offensive, and unhealthy. The characteristic of the climate are, a sum-

mer much hotter than in England, accompanied with occasional visits of the *scirocco*; a winter, not of great length, but sharp, particularly during the prevalence of the N.W. wind, which blows across the interior of Switzerland and the Alps. Rains are frequent, particularly in spring; and there being no springs or wells, the inhabitants, as already stated, supply themselves with water collected in cisterns, from the tops of the houses.

It should, however, be observed, that the Venetians are no longer wholly without trees and flowers; very extensive gardens, with a fine street leading to them, were constructed by the French, and are a noble monument of their taste and munificence. "These gardens," says Mr. Pennington, "excite interest from the mode in which they were formed, more than from their beauty; not that they are deficient in taste or variety. They were formed with immense labour by the introduction of artificial earth, brought at an immense expense from *terrefirme*, and no expense was spared in their completion. There are several serpentine walks over mount, many trees and shrubs thriving very fast; and all this, with the different views of the lagoon, the many islands interspersed, and Venice, make this promenade both agreeable and interesting. The gardens are nearly 2 m. round, and are connected by a handsome bridge." (*Tozer*, ii. 225.)

Port.—The islands on which Venice is built lie within a line of long, low, narrow islands, running N. and S., and enclosing what is termed the lagoon, or shallows, that surround the city, and separate it from the main land. The principal entrance from the sea to the lagoon is at Malamocco, about 1½ league S. from the city; but there are other, though less frequented, entrances, both to the S. and the N. of the latter. There is a bar outside Malamocco, on which there are not more than 10 feet at high water at spring tides; but there is a channel between the western point of the bar and the village of San Pietro, which has 16 feet water at springs, and 14 at neaps. Merchant vessels usually moor off the ducal palace; but sometimes they come into the grand canal which intersects the city, and sometimes they moor in the wider channel of the Giudecca. Vessels coming from the S. for the most part make Pirano or Rovigno on the coast of Istria, where they take on board pilots, who carry them to the bar opposite to Malamocco. On arriving at the bar, ships are conducted across it and into port by pilots, whose duty it is to meet them outside, or on the bar, and of whose services they must avail themselves.

The chain of low, narrow islands which bounds the lagoon on the side next the sea, being, in part, broken, the republic constructed, during last century, a mole several miles in length, to fill up the gaps in question, and protect the city and port from the storms and swell of the Adriatic. This vast work, formed of blocks of Istrian stone resembling marble, connects various little islands and towns, and is admirable alike for its magnitude, solidity, and utility. It bears the following inscription:—

Ut sacra æstueria, urbis et libertatis sedes, perpetuum conservetur, colossos moles ex solido marmore contra mare posuere cutores æquarum. Anno salutis, 1781: ab urbe condita, 1830.

Money.—Formerly there were various methods of accounting here; but now accounts are kept in Austrian lire, divided into centesimi, or 100th parts. The lira is worth about 8d.

Weights and Measures.—The commercial weights are here, as at Genoa, of two sorts; the *peso ostiale* and the *peso grosso*. The French kilogramme, called the *libra Italiana*, is also sometimes introduced. 100 lbs. *peso grosso* = 106½ lbs. avoirdupois, and 100 lbs. *peso ostiale* = 66½ lbs. avoirdupois. The *moggio*, or measure for corn = 9 Winchester bushels. The measure for wine, *anfora*, contains 137 English wine gallons. The foot of Venice = 13.68 English inches.

The Old Bank of Venice was founded so far back as 1171, being the most ancient establishment of the kind in Europe. It was a bank of deposits, and such was the estimation in which it was held that its papers continued to bear an agio as compared with coin down to 1797, when the bank fell with the government by which it had been guaranteed. At present there are no corporate banking establishments in the city; and no bank notes are in circulation. There are, however, several private banking houses, which buy, sell, and discount bills; and make advances on land and other securities. They are under no legal regulations of any sort, except formally declaring the amount of their capital to the authorities when they commence business. The legal and usual rate of interest and discount is 6 per cent. It is not the practice to allow interest on deposits. Bills on London are usually drawn at 3 months, and on Trieste at 1 month.

Morals and Manners.—Most travellers have been accustomed to represent Venice as distinguished by a peculiar profligacy of morals. It may be doubted, however, whether she be entitled to any peculiar pre-eminence in this respect over most of the other great cities of Italy; and the loss of her commerce and of that wealth which the expenditure of government brought

into the city, has reduced alike the means of, and incentives to, corruption. It is now, we believe, pretty generally acknowledged that the impressions made on foreigners during the carnival season were in a great degree exaggerated; and that much of what they took for intrigue and profligacy, was no more than what the license of the period, and the universal use of masks, allowed even the most scrupulous persons to indulge in without any violation of propriety. Undoubtedly, however, the conduct of the government, the nature of her religion, and the vast wealth that formerly centred in Venice, all tended to corrupt the morals of the people and to immerse them in sensual pleasures. We hardly think it was ever, as Addison has stated, a part of the policy of government "to encourage idleness and luxury in the nobility, to cherish ignorance and licentiousness in the clergy, to keep alive a continual faction in the common people, to connive at the viciousness and debauchery of convents, to breed dissensions among the nobles of the terra-firma, and to treat a brave man with scorn and infamy." (*Travels, art. Venice.*) But, whether intended or not, this, no doubt, was the effect of their jealous despotism, which, by its intolerance of all that was truly great, generous, and noble, shut up, in as far as possible, all the avenues to distinction in politics, literature, and even war, leaving little, save intrigue and licentiousness, to occupy the public mind. But, as already stated, society in Venice has been materially changed since the revolution of 1797. Lord Byron says, that "of the *gentiluomo Veneto*, the name is still known, and that is all. He is but the shadow of his former self, but he is polite and kind. It may surely be pardoned to him if he is querulous." But, notwithstanding the changes to which they have been subjected, and which have reduced them from haughty lords, but "one degree below kings," to abject subjects, the Venetians are now, as of old, most agreeable companions, and the Paphian Queen still holds her court in the sea-girt city.

"In Venice Tasso's echoes are no more,
And silent rears the songless gondolier;
Her palaces are crumbling to the shore,
And music means not always now the ear:
These days are gone — but Beauty still is here.
States fall — arts fade — but Nature doth not die;
Nor yet forget how Venice once was dear,
The pleasant place of all festivities,
The revel of the earth, the masque of Italy!"

Foreigners, especially, are extremely well received, and society is on a very easy footing in Venice. Owing to the facility with which the city is supplied with provisions from the interior of Lombardy and elsewhere, and the lowness of rents, living is here unusually cheap; and were it not for its disadvantages in other respects, it would be a very desirable residence.

The Government of Venice was one of the most singular that has ever existed. In her earlier period she appears to have been governed by doges, or princes, who were elected by the popular voice; but who, on being elected, became the absolute rulers of the state. The doge enjoyed, however, only a precarious dignity; for, in the event of any disaster occurring to the arms of the republic, or of his becoming unpopular, he was not unfrequently deposed, and sometimes assassinated. (*Daru, l. 186, &c.*) To obviate the disorders that grew out of this state of things, it was resolved, in the 12th century, that each of the six districts into which the city was then divided should nominate two individuals as electors, and that the twelve electors so chosen should nominate a grand council of 470 individuals which should represent the public, the general assemblies of which were henceforth discontinued. A senate was at the same time created, and six councillors were appointed to assist, or rather control, the proceedings of the doge. (*Daru, l. 193, &c.*) But notwithstanding the influence of the popular voice was greatly lessened by the establishment of the grand council, which included all the most distinguished citizens, it was still very considerable; and on several occasions the people endeavoured by violence to recover the power they had lost. In this, however, they were wholly unsuccessful; and at length, after various struggles, it was resolved, in 1319, that the grand council should no longer be elected, but that the dignity should be hereditary in its members! (*Daru, l. 518.*) The aristocracy was thus established on a solid

foundation; but no sooner had this been done than the dignified families became jealous of each other; and to avert the chance of any individual acquiring a preponderating influence in the state, a carefully devised scheme of indirect election to all the higher offices was established, at the same time that the nobles subjected themselves, the doge, and every one else, to a system of despotism, which not only determined the public and private conduct, but, in some measure, even the very thoughts of individuals! This was accomplished, partly by the institution of the Council of Ten, a committee chosen from the Grand Council, to which all the powers of the state were entrusted, and partly by the institution, in 1454, of three State Inquisitors, selected from the Council of Ten, and invested with all but unlimited authority. The proceedings of this most formidable tribunal were shrouded in the most impenetrable secrecy; but it was believed at the time, and is now certain, that it did not wait for overt acts, but proceeded on suspicion and presumption; that it had secret prisons; and that it made free use of the agency of spies, torture, and even of assassins. An individual disappeared, by what means no one knew; but if it were supposed that he had fallen a victim to the fears or suspicions of the Inquisitors, his relatives prudently abstained from all complaint, and even from making any inquiries respecting him. An unguarded expression, if reported, as was frequently the case, to the Inquisitors, was sure to draw their attention to the offender, so that not merely the freedom of the press, but even of speech, at least on political matters, was completely annihilated. Although, however, this jealous tyranny did not fail to repress, or rather extinguish some of the nobler energies of the mind, it must be admitted, that it preserved for a lengthened period the peace of the republic. It is true, also, that its despotism pressed equally on all classes and all individuals; the doge was as liable, and as likely, if occasion required, to be called to account by the Inquisitors as the humblest gondolier. Nothing, in fact, but implicit obedience to established authority, and a perfect abstinence from every sort of political preference and remark, could enable any individual, however high or low, to sleep soundly in Venice.

Historical Notice. — Venice was the earliest, and for a lengthened period the most considerable, commercial city of modern Europe. Her origin dates from the invasion of Italy by Attila in 452. A number of the inhabitants of Aquileia, and the neighbouring territory, flying from the ravages of the barbarians, found a poor but secure asylum in the cluster of small islands opposite the mouths of the Brenta, on which the city is built. In this situation they were forced to cultivate commerce and its subsidiary arts, as the only means by which they could maintain themselves. At a very early period they began to trade with Constantinople and the Levant; and notwithstanding the competition of the Genoese and Pisans, they continued to engross the principal trade in Eastern products, till the discovery of a route to India by the Cape of Good Hope turned this traffic into a totally new channel. The crusades contributed to increase the wealth, and to extend the commerce and the possessions of Venice. Towards the middle of the 15th century, when the Turkish sultan, Mahomet II., entered Constantinople sword in hand, and placed himself on the throne of Constantine and Justinian, the power of the Venetians had attained its maximum. At that period, besides several extensive, populous, and well cultivated provinces in Lombardy, the republic was mistress of Crete and Cyprus, of the greater part of the Morea, and most of the isles in the Egean Sea. She had secured a chain of forts and factories that extended along the coasts of Greece from the Morea to Dalmatia; while she monopolised almost the whole foreign trade of Egypt. The preservation of this monopoly, of the absolute dominion she had early usurped

over the Adriatic, and of the dependence of her colonies and distant establishments, were amongst the principal objects of the Venetian government; and the measures it adopted in that view were at once skillfully devised, and prosecuted with inflexible constancy. With the single exception of Rome, Venice, in the 18th century, was by far the richest and most magnificent of European cities; and her singular situation in the midst of the sea contributed to impress those by whom she was visited with still higher notions of her wealth and grandeur. Sanazarius is not the only one who has preferred Venice to the ancient capital of the world; but none have so beautifully expressed their preference.

Videtur Adriaticæ Neptunus Neptunus in undis,
Stare urbem, et tota ponere Jura mari.
Nunc mihi Tarpæia quantumvis, Jupiter, arcus
Obsecro, et illa tunc monstra Maris, aut
Si Theræis pelagus præferas, urbem sapientie utramque,
Illam hominibus dicite, hanc potius Deo.

Though justly regarded as one of the principal bulwarks of Christendom against the Turks, Venice had to contend, in the early part of the 16th century, against a combination of the European powers. The famous league of Cambray, of which Pope Julius II. was the real author, was formed for the avowed purpose of effecting the entire subjugation of the Venetians, and the partition of their territories. The emperor and the kings of France and Spain joined this powerful confederacy. But, owing less to the valour of the Venetians, than to dissensions amongst their enemies, the league was speedily dissolved without materially weakening the power of the republic. From that period the policy of Venice was comparatively pacific and cautious. But notwithstanding her efforts to keep on good terms with the Turks, the latter invaded Cyprus in 1570; and conquered it after a gallant resistance continued for eleven years. The Venetians had the principal share in the decisive victory gained over the Turks at Lepanto in 1571; but owing to the discordant views of the confederates, it was not properly followed up, and could not prevent the fall of Cyprus.

The war with the Turks in Candia commenced in 1645, and continued till 1670. The Venetians exerted all their energies in defence of this valuable island; and its acquisition cost the Turks above 300,000 men. The loss of Candia, and the rapid decline of the commerce of the republic, were almost wholly turned into other channels, reduced Venice, at the close of the 17th century, to a state of great exhaustion. She may be said, indeed, to have owed the last 100 years of her existence more to the forbearance and jealousies of others than to any strength of her own. Nothing, however, could avert that fate she had seen overwhelm so many once powerful states. In 1797, the "malden city" submitted to the yoke of the conqueror; and the last surviving witness of antiquity—the link that united the ancient to the modern world—stripped of independence and of wealth, now enjoys only a precarious existence, and is slowly sinking into the waves whence she arose.

The foundation of Venice is described by Gibbon, c. 36.; and in his 60th chapter he has eloquently depicted her prosperity in the year 1900. Mr. Hallam, in his work on the *Middle Ages* (i. 470—487.), has given a brief account of the changes of the Venetian government. Her history occupies a considerable space in the voluminous work of M. Sismondi on the *Italian Republics*; but his details as to her trade and commercial policy are singularly meagre and uninteresting. All previous histories of Venice have, however, been thrown into the shade by the admirable work of M. Daru (*Histoire de la République de Venise*, 2d ed. 8 vols. 8vo. Paris, 1821.). Having had access to genuine sources of information, inaccessible to all his predecessors, M. Daru's work is as superior to theirs in accuracy, as it is in most other qualities required in history.

Trade, Navigation, and Manufactures of the Venetians in the 16th Century.—The Venetian ships of the largest class were denominated galasses, and were fitted up for the double purpose of war and commerce. Some of them carried 80 pieces of cannon, and crews of 800 men. These vessels were sometimes, also, called argosiers or argosies. They had early an intercourse with England; and argosies used to be common in our ports. In 1325, Edward II. entered into a commercial treaty with Venice, in which full liberty is given to them, for 10 years, to sell their merchandise in England, and to return home in safety, without being made answerable, as was the practice in those days, for the crimes or delinquencies of strangers. (*Anderson's Chron. Defection, Anno 1325.*) Sir William Monson mentions, that the last argosie that sailed from Venice for England was lost, with a rich cargo and many passengers, on the coast of the Isle of Wight, in 1597.

In the beginning of the 18th century, the annual value of the goods exported from Venice by sea, exclusive of those exported to the states adjoining her provinces in

Lombardy, was estimated, by contemporary writers, at 10,000,000 ducats; the profits of the out and home voyage, including freight, being estimated at 4,000,000 ducats. At the period in question, the Venetian shipping consisted of 3,000 vessels of from 100 to 300 tons burthen, carrying 17,000 sailors; 300 ships with 8,000 sailors; and 45 galleys of various sizes, kept afloat by the republic for the protection of her trade, &c., having 11,000 men on board. In the dock-yard, many labourers were usually employed. The trade to Syria and Egypt seems to have been conducted principally by ready money; for 500,000 ducats are said to have been annually exported to these countries; 100,000 were sent to England. (*Daru, tome ii. p. 128. &c.*) The vessels of Venice visited every port of the Mediterranean, and every coast of Europe; and her maritime commerce was, probably, not much inferior to that of all the rest of Christendom. So late as 1516, 5 Venetian galleasses arrived at Aden, laden with spices, drugs, silks, &c. for the fair at that city.

The Venetians did not, however, confine themselves to the supply of Europe with the commodities of the East, and to the extension and improvement of navigation. They attempted new arts, and prosecuted them with vigour and success, at a period when they were entirely unknown in other European countries. The glass manufacture of Venice was the first, and for a long time the most celebrated, of any in Europe; besides manufactures of silk, cloth of gold, leather, refined sugar, &c. were deservedly esteemed. The jealousy of the government, and their intolerance of any thing like free discussion, was unfavourable to the production of great literary works. Every scholar is, however, aware of the fame which Venice early acquired by the perfection to which she carried the art of printing. The classics that issued from the Aldine presses are still universally and justly admired for their beauty and correctness.

But the policy of government, though favourable to the introduction and establishment of manufactures, was fatal to their progressive advancement. The importation of foreign manufactured commodities into the territories of the republic for domestic consumption was forbidden under the severest penalties. The processes to be followed in the manufacture of most articles were regulated by law.—“*Des l'année 1173, un tribunal avait été créé pour la police des arts et métiers, la qualité et la quantité des matières furent soigneusement déterminées.*” (*Daru, iii. 153.*) Having, in this way, little to fear from foreign competition, and being tied down to a system of routine, there was nothing left to stimulate invention and discovery; and during the last century the manufactures of Venice were chiefly remarkable as evincing the extraordinary perfection to which they had early arrived, and the absence of all recent improvements. An unexceptionable judge, M. Berthelot, employed by the French government to report on the state of the arts of Venice, observed, “*Que l'industrie des Vénitiens, comme celle des Chinois, avait été précoce, mais étoit restée stationnaire.*” (*Daru, iii. p. 161.*)

M. Daru has given the following extract from an article in the statutes of the State Inquisition, which strikingly displays the real character of the Venetian government, and their jealousy of foreigners:—“If any workman or artisan carry his art to a foreign country, to the prejudice of the republic, he shall be ordered to return; if he do not obey, his nearest relations shall be imprisoned, that his regard for them may induce him to come back. If he return, the past shall be forgiven, and employment shall be provided for him at Venice. If, in despite of the imprisonment of his relations, he persevere in his absence, an emissary shall be employed to despatch him; and after his death his relations shall be set at liberty!”—(*Tome iii. p. 150.*)

The 10th book of M. Daru's history contains a comprehensive and well-digested account of the commerce, manufactures, and navigation of Venice. But it was not possible, in a work on the general history of the republic, to enter so fully into the details as to these subjects as their importance would have justified. *The Storia Civile e Politica del Commercio de' Venetiani*, di Carlo Antonio Marin, in 8 vols. 8vo., published at Venice at different periods, from 1798 to 1808, is unworthy of the title. It contains, indeed, a great many curious statements; but it is exceedingly prolix; and while the most unimportant and trivial subjects are frequently discussed at extreme length, many of great interest are either entirely omitted, or are treated in a very brief and unsatisfactory manner. The commercial history of Venice remains to be written; and were it executed by a person of competent attainments, it would be a most valuable acquisition.

Present Trade and Manufactures of Venice.—From the period when Venice came into the possession of Austria, down to 1830, it seems to have been the policy of the government to encourage Trieste in preference to Venice;

* The native authorities say 16,000; but there can be no doubt that this is a grossly exaggerated statement, and that 1,000 would be much nearer the mark.

and the circumstance of the former being a free port, gave her a very decided advantage over the latter. Latterly, however, a more equitable policy has prevailed. In 1830, Venice was made a free port, and has since fully participated in every privilege conferred on Trieste. But, notwithstanding this circumstance, the latter still continues to preserve the ascendancy; and the revival of trade that has taken place at Venice has not been so great as might have been anticipated. The truth is, that except in so far as she is the *entrepôt* of the adjoining provs. of Lombardy, Venice has no considerable natural advantage as a trading city; and her extraordinary prosperity during the middle ages is more to be ascribed to the comparative security enjoyed by the inhabitants, and to their success in engrossing the principal share of the commerce of the Levant, than to any other circumstance. Still, however, her trade is far from inconsiderable. But, unfortunately, there are no means by which to ascertain its precise amount. The great articles of import are sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; indigo and other dye stuffs, olive oil, salted fish, various descriptions of cotton, woollen, and other manufactured goods; wheat and other grain, from the Black Sea; tin plates and hardware, raw cotton, &c.; amounting, in all, to the value probably of 1,500,000*l.* or 1,600,000*l.* a year. The exports principally consist of silk and silk goods, wheat and other grain, paper, jewellery, glass, and glass wares, Venetian treacle, books, with a great variety of other articles, including portions of most of those that are imported. It should, however, be observed, that by far the greater part both of the import and export trade of the city is carried on through Trieste by coasting vessels, that are every day passing between the two cities. The smuggling of prohibited and over-taxed articles into Austrian Lombardy is practised to a great extent. It is believed that fully two thirds of the coffee made use of in Lombardy is clandestinely introduced; and sugar, British cottons, and hardware, with a variety of other articles, are supplied through illegitimate channels. The facilities for smuggling owing to the nature of the frontier, and the ease with which the officers are corrupted, are such, that the articles passing through the hands of the fair trader afford no test of the real extent of the business done. It is to be hoped that the Austrian government will take an enlightened view of this important matter. It cannot but be anxious for the suppression of smuggling; and it may be assured that this is not practicable otherwise than by a reduction of duties. The regulations as to the payment of the duties on goods destined for the interior, the clearing of ships, &c., are the same at Venice as at Trieste; which see.

The manufactures of Venice are very various, and more extensive than is generally supposed. The glass-works, which produce magnificent mirrors, with every variety of artificial pearls and gems, coloured beads, &c., situated on the island of Murano, employ, in all, about 4,000 hands, including the women and children employed in arranging the beads. (*Bouring.*) Jewellery, including gold chains, is also extensively produced; as are gold and silver stuffs, velvets, silks, laces, and other expensive goods; and treacle, soap, earthenware, wax-lights, &c., to a greater or less extent. Printing is more extensively carried on in this than in any other city of Italy, and books form a considerable article of export. Ship-building is also carried on to some extent, both here and at Chiozza. In 1836, the first steam-engine seen in Venice was set up for a sugar-refinery.

From the circumstance of Venice being situated nearly opposite the mouths of the Brenta, which bring down large quantities of mud, the probability is that the lagoon, by which she is surrounded, will ultimately be filled up. Under the republic this was a subject of great apprehension, and every device was resorted to that seemed likely to avert the result so pregnant with danger to the independence of the city. But now that there is no particular motive for hindering the mud from accumulating in the lagoon, it is probable that, in the course of time, the shallows will be converted into terra firma, and Venice lose her insular position.

There belong to the city, exclusive of fishing-boats, about 30,000 tons of shipping, of which a large proportion is employed in the coasting trade. Many of the inhabitants depend for their subsistence on fishing in the lagoon, and the contiguous portion of the Adriatic. (Exclusive of the authorities already referred to, see *Bouring's Report on the Statistics of Italy; Commercial Dict.; Commercial Circulars, &c.*)

VENLOO, a fortified town of Holland, prov. Limbourg, cap. cant., on the Meuse, 40 m. N.E. Maestricht. Pop., in 1836, 6,525. It is surrounded by a marshy tract of country; but is the centre of an active transit trade, and has manufactures of pins, wafers, tobacco-pipes, and various other small articles, with tanneries, sugar-refineries, and vinegar distilleries. It was formerly one of the Hanse towns: in 1702 it was taken by the troops under Marlborough.

VENOSA (an. *Venusia*, on the frontier of Lucania and Apulia, a town of the Neapolitan dom., prov. Basilicata, 24 m. N. Potenza. Pop. 6,000. It stands on a perfectly flat, but not very extensive, plain. It is reached by a long, winding ascent, when it breaks on the sight under a favourable point of view, chiefly due to the venerable aspect of its castle, an edifice of the 15th century, which, though a complete ruin, exhibits such magnitude of dimensions and regularity of construction as to form a very striking feature in the landscape. The walls of Venosa have long since been levelled with the ground, but the gateways still exist. It is well built, and has numerous public edifices, including a large cathedral, 5 parish churches, an abbey church, a church erected in the 10th century from the materials of a Roman amphitheatre, in which are the tombs of Robert de Guiscard, and other Norman chieftains; an hospital, 2 workhouses, a museum of antiquities, &c.

Venusia is celebrated as the birth-place of Horace, the prince of Latin lyric poets and satirists, born on the 8th of Dec., anno 66 B.C. (A. V. C. 688), in the consulship of L. Manlius Torquatus.

"O nata mecum consule Manlio."—III. Od. 21.

A bust of the poet, on a column of rough stone, has been set up in the city. In the vicinity are many places which have acquired interest from the references made to them by Horace. (*Craven's Excurs. in the Abruzzi*, 270, 280; *Tiraboschi, Della Letteratura Italiana*, i. 177, ed. Modena, 1787.)

VERA CRUZ, a town and the principal sea-port of Mexico, on the S.W. side of the Gulf of Mexico, cap. of the state of its own name, 195 m. E. by S. Mexico, and 225 m. S.E. Tampico. Lat. 19° 11' 52" N., long. 96° 8' 45" W. Pop. uncertain; but previously to the revolution, it was estimated at 16,000. It is well built and clean, and its towers, cupolas, and battlements, give it an imposing appearance from the sea. It is, however, surrounded by barren sand-hills and ponds of stagnant water, and is excessively unhealthy, being, in fact, the principal seat of the yellow fever. The older inhabs. and those accustomed to the climate are not so subject to this formidable visitation as strangers, all of whom, even if coming from the Havannah and the W. India islands, are liable to the infection. No precautions prevent its attack, and numerous individuals have died at Xalapa, on the road to Mexico, who merely passed through this pestilential focus. The badness of the water at Vera Cruz is supposed to have some share in producing the complaint.

The houses of Vera Cruz are mostly large, some of them being three stories high, built in the old Spanish or Moorish style, and generally enclosing a square court, with covered galleries. They have flat roofs, glass windows, and generally wooden balconies in front, their interior arrangement being the same as in Old Spain. The town and castle are built of madrepora, the lime that forms the cement being of the same material. There is one tolerably good square, of which the government-house forms one side, and the principal church the other. The footpaths are frequently under arcades. No fewer than 16 cupolas or domes used to be counted from the sea, but only 6 churches are now in use; and most of the religious buildings have been neglected or abandoned, since the Spaniards were expelled from the town. Rain-water is carefully preserved in tanks; and most sorts of provisions, excepting fish, are dear. Crowds of vultures and buzzards perform the office of scavengers. (*Bullock in Mod. Trav.*, xxv.)

The castle of St. Juan de Ulloa, which commands the town, is built on the small island of the same name, about 400 fathoms from the shore. It is a strong citadel, and its N.W. angle supports a lighthouse, with a brilliant revolving light, 79 ft. above the sea. The harbour of Vera Cruz is a mere roadstead between the town and castle, and is exceedingly insecure, the anchorage being so very bad that no vessel is considered safe unless made fast to brass rings fixed for the purpose, in the castle wall; nor are these always a sufficient protection during strong N. winds. But notwithstanding its numerous disadvantages, Vera Cruz maintains its commercial importance; though latterly Tampico, in a healthier situation, with a better port, has been growing into consequence. The precious metals, cochineal, sugar, flour, indigo, provisions, sarsaparilla, leather, vanilla, jalap, soap, logwood, and pimento, are the principal articles exported; and linen, cotton, woollen, and silk goods, paper, brandy, cocoa, quicksilver, iron, steel, wine, wax, &c. (See *anté*, 317.) During the period that the foreign trade of Mexico was carried on exclusively by the *flota*, which sailed periodically from Cadiz, Vera Cruz was celebrated for its fair, held at the arrival of the ships. It was then crowded with dealers from Mexico, and most parts of Spanish America; but the abolition of the system of regular fleets, in 1778, proved fatal to this fair as well as to the still more celebrated fair of Portobello. We have already noticed (*anté*, p. 317.) the wretched state of disrepair into which the great road from Vera Cruz to

Mexico, formed by the Spaniards, has latterly been allowed to fall. This inflicts a great injury on the trade of the port.

Vera Cruz was founded towards the end of the 16th century, on the spot where Cortes first landed; it received the title and privileges of a city from Philip III. in 1615. The castle was taken by a French squadron, after a vigorous bombardment, in 1639; but was soon after restored to the Mexicans. (*Humboldt; Ward; Poinsett; Mod. Trav., xiv.; Blunt's Coast Pilot; Comm. Dict.*)

VERCELLI (an. *Vercelle*), a town of N. Italy, Sardinian dom., div. Novara, cap. prov. on the Sesia, and on the high road between Turin and Milan, 29 m. N.E. by E. Turin. Pop. in 1838, 13,353. It has a large market-place, one of the best cathedrals in Piedmont, several other churches, and good private buildings; a large and well kept hospital, museum, &c., with (in its environs) some fine promenades. Its fortifications were destroyed by the French in 1704. It is the see of an archbishop, and has some silk manufactures; but its chief trade is in rice, raised in the neighbourhood. A canal connects Vercelli with Ivræa. The date of its foundation is uncertain, but it was a town of some note in the time of the Romans. After suffering severely from the northern invaders, it revived under the Lombards, and took the lead of Turin till the latter became the residence of the court. (*Dict. Geog., &c.*)

VERDUN (an. *Verdunum*), a town of France, dép. Meuse, cap. arrond., on the Meuse, where it begins to be navigable, and by which it is divided into 5 separate parts, 30 m. N.W. by N. Bar-le-Duc. Pop., 1846, inc. comm., 10,843. It has a citadel; and its defences were improved by Vauban. It is tolerably well built; but several of its streets are badly paved and steep. The bishop's palace, new cavalry barracks, military magazines, and theatre, are among the most remarkable buildings. It has 6 churches, including the cathedral; a Protestant church, a synagogue, a communal college, library with 14,000 vols., &c. A planted esplanade separates the town from its citadel. Verdun has manufactures of fine striped serges, flannels, cotton yarn, liquors, &c., and several large tanneries. It was a station of importance under the Romans; and in the middle ages, under the Germanic emperors, it enjoyed the privileges of a free imperial city. It was definitively annexed to France in 1648; and is best known in modern times from its having been selected by Napoleon for the residence of the English prisoners detained in France after the rupture of 1803. (*Hugo, art. Meuse, &c.*)

VERMONT, one of the states comprised in the North American republic, in the N.E. section of the Union, making part of what is called New England, between lat. 43° 40' and 46° N. and long. 71° 18' and 73° 55' W.; having E. New Hampshire, from which it is separated in its whole extent by the Connecticut River; S. Massachusetts; W. New York, Lake Champlain forming half the boundary on this side; and N. Lower Canada. Length, N. to S., 187 m. Average breadth about 60 m. Area, 9,500 sq. Pop. in 1850, 214,223. The surface is generally hilly; it is traversed from N. to S. by a range of mountains, some summits of which rise to upwards of 4,000 ft. in height. About the centre of the state they divide into two ridges, the principal of which passes in a N.E. direction into Lower Canada. These hills, being covered with fine forests of pine, cedar, spruce, &c., are called the Green Mountains, and their verdant appearance has given its name to the state. The rivers are inconsiderable: most of those flowing E. are merely small tributaries of the Connecticut; those on the W. side are larger and longer, and some of the principal rise on the E. side of the mountain chain, which they break through to fall into Lake Champlain. The climate varies according to differences of level and other circumstances; but the winters are colder than might have been expected either from lat. or elevation. The soil is moderately fertile, the best arable land being between the hills and Lake Champlain; but the greater part of the surface is more suitable for pasturage than for tillage.

According to the official returns, 690,000 bushels of wheat, 500,000 do. oats, 2,500,000 m. and 370,000 do. rye were reaped in 1848, in addition to 8,000,000 do. potatoes. Barley, buckwheat, hops, and tobacco are also grown, but in small quantities. Apples succeed better than in Europe; and, in 1840, the value of the produce of fruit of various kinds was estimated at 1,109,000 dollars, being more than in any other state of the Union, New York excepted. In the same year 4,230,000 lbs. maple sugar, and 4,300 lbs. silk cocoons were gathered. The breeding of stock for export to Boston and the adjacent states, the West Indies, &c., is, however, the chief branch of industry; and there are said to be about 1,400,000 sheep, 250,000 head of cattle, 60,000 horses, and nearly 300,000 hogs in Vermont. Iron is very abundant, and coppers to the value of from 70,000 to 80,000 dolls. is made annually from native pyrites.

Marble of good quality is quarried, and lead is also among the mineral products. Linen and woollen fabrics are made in most families, and about 34 million yards of cotton cloth and 112,000 lbs. of yarn are annually furnished by the various mills and factories. Four-ribbed and lumber are among the other chief exports; but as the foreign trade of the state is principally carried on through the adjacent states, no proper estimate can be given of its amount. The public works are insignificant, comprising only three short canals.

The legislature formerly consisted of a single house of assembly; but, in 1836, two separate houses (a senate of 30 members, and house of representatives composed of 1 member from each town) were established; which, together with its governor, lieutenant-governor, and executive council, are chosen annually by the people. The right of suffrage is vested in every male inhabitant twenty-one years of age who has resided in the state for the year previously to the election. The judicial power is in a supreme court of 6 judges, and co. courts, each composed of 1 judge of the supreme court and 2 assistant judges. The supreme court sits once, and the co. courts twice, in each co. Judges are chosen annually by the general assembly, and a court of censors by a popular vote once in seven years. Vermont is divided into 14 co. Montpelier, having, in 1840, a pop. of 5,725, is the cap.; Burlington, where the university of Vermont is seated, though more populous, has only about 1,200 inhabs. Schools are widely diffused in this state, and Middlebury College and Norwich University are flourishing institutions. Public revenue and expenditure, each about 110,000 doll. a year. Vermont has no public debt. This state was first explored by the French Canadians; but the earliest settlement was made by the English of Massachusetts, in 1724. Subsequently, New Hampshire and New York disputed the claim to this territory; but it was finally ceded by the British parliament to the latter. But dissatisfied with this cession, it declared itself independent in 1777. (*Darby's View of the U. S.; Amer. Almanac, 1850-51; Amer. Encyc., &c.*)

VERONA, a celebrated city of Austrian Italy, cap. deleg. of same name, on the Adige, at the point where the last declivities of the Alps sink into the great plain of Lombardy, 64 m. W. Venice; lat 45° 26' 9" N., long. 11° 0' 54" E. Pop., circa 48,500. (*Bergmann.*) It is divided into two unequal parts by the Adige, which sweeps through it in a bold curve, and forms a peninsula, within which the whole of the ancient and the greater part of the modern city is enclosed. The river, which is wide and rapid, is here crossed by four noble stone bridges.

Verona is an extremely well situated, well built, and most interesting city. "You enter it," says Mr. Rose, "by a magnificent approach, and a street probably the widest in Europe. This street is indeed short, and single in its breadth, but the city in general pleases by its picturesque appearance, to which an abundance of marble quarries has not a little contributed, thirty-five varieties of this species of stone being found in its neighbourhood." (*Littré, l. 41.*) The houses frequently present, in their form and ornaments, fine proportions and beautiful workmanship. The old walls and towers still remain, and the city has five gates, two of which are fine structures, by Sanmichele. Its former military defences were destroyed by the French, after the revolt of the inhabs. in 1797; but extensive fortifications are again in the course of being constructed.

But the great glory of Verona is its amphitheatre, one of the noblest existing monuments of the ancient Romans. Excepting the Colosseum at Rome, it is the largest extant edifice of its class. Like all other structures of the same kind, it is elliptical, the extreme length of its transverse and conjugate diameters to the outside of the outer walls being respectively about 510 and 410 ft.; while those of the arena are 349 and 146 ft. (*Woods, l. 226.*) Its outer wall or cincture, which had 72 arches in every story, has been mostly destroyed, with the exception of one fragment containing three stories of four arches each, rising to the height of about 100 ft. Over this, however, there was a fourth story, so that the entire height of the building, when perfect, must have exceeded 180 ft. Internally, the arena consisted of a little; and its concentric rows of benches or seats, of which 43 still remain, exclusive of 5 sunk below ground, with its corridors, stairs, &c., are wonderfully well preserved. Each row of seats is 1½ ft. in height, and as much in breadth; and allowing 1½ ft. of space to each individual, the Marquis Maffei supposes that the amphitheatre might have accommodated 22,000 spectators! The interior of the amphitheatre having been in parts a good deal dilapidated, it was repaired at different periods in the 16th century, when the broken and wanting seats were replaced by others. But these repairs, though, on the whole, highly creditable to the Venetians, do not appear to have been well executed. The ancient benches were formed of vast blocks of marble, admirably cut and jointed; whereas the modern benches consist, according

to Maffei, of a soft flaky stone, which has, in parts, yielded to the weather, and the same distinguished authority adds, that but little care has been taken in laying the stones, and that in parts the elliptical curvature has not even been observed. These defects, however, are not visible on a cursory inspection of the building, which astonishes alike by its mass, its antiquity, and its preservation.

Owing to the want of inscriptions, and of all reference to its origin in the classical writers, we are without any authentic information either as to the founders or the era of this great work. Most probably, however, it was built somewhere between the reigns of Titus and Trajan, or in the early part of that of the latter. In the middle ages it has sometimes used for the exhibition of shows and sports, and sometimes as an arena for judicial combats. In more modern times, a bull fight was exhibited here in honour of the Emperor Joseph II., then at Verona; and at a still later period, the Pope, in passing through the city, gave his benediction to a vast multitude collected in the amphitheatre. The French, when masters of Verona, had the bad taste to erect in the arena a wooden theatre, in which plays, farces, equestrian feats, &c., were performed for the amusement of the troops. This barbarous novelty is still kept up. (Full particulars respecting the amphitheatre are given in the *Verona Illustrata* of the learned Marquis Maffei. That part of the work which relates to amphitheatres having been printed separately, was translated into English, and published in 8vo., London, 1780.)

But the amphitheatre is not the only monument of antiquity that distinguishes Verona. In the middle of a street called the *Corso* is an ancient double gateway, which, on the strength of an inscription importing that the adjacent walls were built by Gallienus, has been named after that emperor; but though loaded with supererogatory ornaments, the Veronese antiquaries affirm that its style is too good for his age. Each gateway is ornamented with Corinthian pilasters supporting a light pediment; and above are two stories with six small arched windows in each. The whole is of marble. The remains of another gateway, of a similar but chaster form, probably the entrance to the ancient forum, are to be seen in another street, and near the old Gothic castle, is the arch of the Gavil, perhaps part of the sepulchral edifice, of the same date, or very remote antiquity. Two arches in the present style of Roman architecture make a part of one of the bridges; and the remains of another bridge, and the traces of a very large ancient theatre and naumachia, are still extant. Addison and Evelyn speak of a triumphal arch of Flaminius, as one of the noblest remains of antiquity in Europe, and of an arch commemorating the victory of Marius, with various temples and aqueducts; but as few or no remains of these exist at present, it would seem that the antiquities of Verona had suffered greatly since the beginning of last century.

The ecclesiastical buildings comprise interesting specimens of middle-age architecture. The cathedral, an edifice of the 12th century, has nothing particularly remarkable except the Assumption by Titian, and the tomb of Pope Lucius III., who, when driven from Rome in 1185, found a secure asylum in this city. In respect of architectural merit the cathedral is very inferior to the church of St. Anastasia, built by the Dominicans at the beginning of the 13th century. Mr. Woods says that if the front were finished this edifice would probably be the most perfect specimen of the style of architecture to which it belongs. The church of St. Zeno, a curious structure, with a remarkable crypt, is said to have been founded by Pepin, but it was not completed till 1178. Its front is covered with bas-reliefs in stone, its doors with sculpture in bronze of a very early date; and near it are the remains of a palace in which the German emperors occasionally resided during the 12th and 13th centuries. Several other churches are worthy of notice: in that of San Giorgio is a fine picture of Paul Veronese. The tomb of the Scala family (*Scaligeri*), once lords of Verona, stand in an inclosure in one of the thoroughfares. According to Forsyth, they are "models of the most elegant Gothic, light, open, spiry, full of statues caged in their fretted niches; yet slender as they seem, these tombs have stood entire for 500 years in a public street the frequent theatre of sedition." The Ponte del Castel Vecchio, built in 1354, is remarkable for an arch 161 feet in span, forming part of a circle. (*Woods*.) The town-hall is ornamented externally with busts of the most celebrated natives of Verona, and has within it some fine paintings. The exchange, the *Museo Lapidario*, and *Philotei*, both having extensive collections of ancient monuments; the opera-house, the fine Ionic portico of which forms, with the arcades of the museum, three sides of a handsome square; the episcopal and new vice-regal palaces; the *Palazzo Bericagioni*, an edifice by Sanmichele; the Canossa palace and several other noble residences; the lyceum, philharmonic academy founded by the Marquis Maffei, and arsenal, are among the most

conspicuous edifices in the city. Verona is the seat of the high court of justice and of the superior military authorities for the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, and of a court of primary jurisdiction for its deleg. It is a bishop's see, and has several gymnasia, a theological seminary, and numerous royal and other schools, learned societies, public and private libraries, galleries, &c. English travellers are shown what is called "Juliet's tomb," which is merely an old sarcophagus without a cover, lying in a garden where it has been made use of as a cistern.

Verona, according to Berghaus, is distinguished as the most industrious of Italian towns. "It has 60 silk twist factories, 5 establishments for weaving silks, large leather, earthenware, and soap factories, and numerous factories for the weaving of linen and woollen fabrics. Its trade is chiefly in the product of these, and in raw silk, grain, oil, smach, and other agricultural produce." (*Allg. Länder*, &c.) It has two weekly markets, and two considerable annual fairs, each lasting 15 days.

We have no certain details as to the origin of Verona. Under the Romans, however, she became a flourishing city; and in the time of Strabo was superior to Brixia, Mantua, Regium, Comum, &c. She was the cap. of the kingdom of Italy from the time of Odoacer to that of Berengarius; and from the 12th to the 15th century she was the cap. of a considerable territory, governed successively by the Scaligers, Visconti, &c. Under the former, in the 13th and 14th centuries, occurred the feuds between the Cappelletti and Montecchi, immortalized by Shakspeare. In 1405 Verona submitted to Venice, of whose dominions it continued to form an important portion till the overthrow of the Venetian republic in 1797. In 1822 it was the seat of a congress.

Perhaps no city of Italy has given birth to a greater number of distinguished men than Verona. Among these may be mentioned Catullus,—

"Tantum magna suo debet Verona Catullo,
Quantum parva suo Mantua Virgilio.
Mortali, lib. xiv. epig. 125.

Macer, Cornelius Nepos, Pliny the Elder, &c., who shed in antiquity an imperishable lustre over the place of their birth. At a later period Guarini, Calderini, Panvinus, and Fracastorius contributed to the revival of literature and of the ancient fame of their native city; which in more modern times has been still further extended by the labours of the famous painter Paolo Cagliari, surnamed Veronese, born here in 1530; Bianchini, distinguished alike as a mathematician, a historian, and a critic; Maffei, whose *Verona Illustrata*, already referred to (1731-1732, in folio, and 4 vols. small 4to.), is a work of the greatest research and value; the poet Pindemonte, &c.

Vitruvius, in antiquity, and the famous Julius Caesar Scaliger, have also been included, though on no good grounds, among the illustrious natives of Verona. The latter, indeed, represented himself as the eldest son of one of the Scaligers, lords of Verona, and as entitled to that seigniory. But Maffei and Tiraboschi have shown that there is not so much as the shadow of a foundation for this statement; that it is a pure fabrication; that Scaliger was, in fact, the son of a miniature-painter of the name of Bordoni; and was most probably born at Padua. (*Verona Illustrata*, p. 300; *Tiraboschi*, vii. 1481.)

VERSAILLES, a town of France, formerly the chief residence of the French court, dep. Seine-et-Oise, of which it is the cap., in an undulating plain, 9 m. S.W. Paris. Pop. in 1846, inc. comm. 28,311 It is one of the handsomest towns in the kingdom; it consists principally of 3 wide streets, lined with trees, diverging from the *Place d'Armes*, an open space in front of the palace: the central and widest of these streets is called the avenue de Paris; and those on the N. and S., the avenues of St. Cloud and Sceaux. The other streets, though of less width, are equally regular, cross each other at right angles, and are lined with handsome residences. The cathedral of St. Louis, founded by Louis XV. in 1743, that of Notre Dame, built after the design of Mansard, in the previous reign; the church of St. Symphonien, the town-hall, prefecture, theatre, royal college, public library with 48,000 vols., civil and military hospital, barracks, *dépôt* of naval and colonial archives, and hall of the *feu de paille*, in which the deputies of the national assembly made their famous declaration (see below), are among the principal buildings. In one of the open spaces is a marble statue of General Hoche, a native of Versailles. The town is ornamented by many handsome fountains, &c.; but it wears a dull and deserted appearance, being no longer resorted to by the *beau monde*.

Versailles is wholly indebted for its celebrity, and, indeed, for its existence, to the royal palace in its immediate vicinity. Louis XIII. had a hunting-seat here; but the present edifice, which is of prodigious size and magnificence, was erected by Louis XIV., who expended

immense sums on its construction and embellishment. On the E. side, where it faces the place d'armes, it consists of only an irregular succession of buildings, including a few small courts. But on the opposite side, facing the gardens, it presents a noble façade, 645 yards in length, 3 stories in elevation, ornamented with Ionic pilasters, and with 80 statues 16 ft in height, allegorically representing the months, seasons, arts and sciences, &c., and crowned by a balustrade. Its galleries and saloons, enriched with every variety of coloured marbles, and splendidly gilt, are like vast and magnificent. The Salon d'Hercule, and the Salles des Mârchaux, de Venus, Diane, Mercure, Mars, Apollon, l'Abondance, de la Guerre &c., so named from the paintings on their ceilings, walls, or other appropriate devices, are all noble apartments. The Grande Galerie is 228 ft. in length, by 32 ft. in breadth, and 42 ft. in height; the ceiling, painted by Le Brun, represents some of the most striking events in the early part of the reign of Louis XIV. At one of its extremities is the Salon de la Paix, corresponding with the Salon de la Guerre. Besides its innumerable apartments, the palace has an elegant chapel, in which the unfortunate Marie Antoinette was united to Louis XVI. on the 16th of May, 1770, an opera-house, or theatre, capable of accommodating 3,000 spectators, a magnificent staircase, &c.

The palace has not been occupied by the court since 1789, and was getting into a state of disrepair, when it was entirely renovated and transformed by his present majesty, Louis Philippe, into what may be called a national museum, intended to illustrate the history, and to exhibit the progress of arts, arms, and civilisation in France. In pursuance of this design, many small apartments, formerly appropriated to the lodging of the various functionaries attached to the court, have been converted into noble saloons. Of these, the Salle des Mârchaux, noticed above, containing portraits of all the Marshals of France, the Galerie des Batailles, the Salle de 1830, the Galerie de Sculpture, &c., are amongst the most striking. The palace is, in fact, filled with an immense collection of statues and paintings, exhibiting all the principal personages and events in the history of the monarchy, from the reign of Clovis down to that of Louis Philippe. Of course, many of these statues and pictures must be very inferior; but these will be gradually replaced by others, and the collection is exceedingly interesting. The library is intended to comprise copies of all works having reference to the history and state of France. The fitting up of the apartments is, also, superb; and the whole reflects the highest credit on the taste and liberality of the king.

Immediately adjoining the palace on the W., is the little park, comprising the gardens, numerous reservoirs, fountains, and public walks; the orangery; Bains d'Apollon, and Bassin de Neptune, both having sculptured groups of much merit, &c. In this park are also the Great and Little Trianon, two royal palaces on a minor scale, and the grand water-works, of unrivalled magnitude, which, however, play only on great occasions. They are supplied from the Seine, by the aqueduct of Marly. The great park comprises a large tract of country, including several villages. (*Hugo, art. Versailles; Guide du Voyageur en France, &c.*)

Versailles has some manufactures of cotton yarn, and wax lights, but only on a limited scale: it had formerly an extensive factory of fire-arms, but this appears to be given up. It is the see of a bishop, and the seat of tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, and of societies of literature and agriculture, &c. Philip V. of Spain, Louis XV., Louis XVI., Louis XVIII., Charles X., and several other eminent personages, were born at Versailles. It is also intimately connected with the history of the Revolution. The States General met in the great hall of the palace on the 5th of May, 1789. And here, on the 17th of June, the *tiers état*, having been joined by the whole body of inferior clergy, and some of the nobles, constituted themselves the National Assembly, and the sole representatives of the people. On the 20th of the same month the deputies, finding the doors of the hall in which they had been accustomed to meet shut against them, retired to the Tennis Court, and took the famous oath, by which they bound themselves to continue their sittings till the constitution of the kingdom had been fixed on a solid basis! The revolution, thus fairly begun, set in with a violence which all the talent and firmness of purpose of Napoleon would, perhaps, have been unable to control, and which the vacillation of the good-natured imbecile king served only to aggravate. And so rapid was the progress of events, that on the 5th and 6th of October the palace at Versailles was forced by a mob, consisting of the lowest scum of Paris; who, in the end, succeeded in forcing off the king and his family to the capital, to encounter, at the hands of the vilest ruffians, imprisonment, every species of indignity, and an ignominious death!

VERVIERS, a town of Belgium, prov. Liege, cap. arrond., on the Vesdre, by which it is intersected, and

which is here crossed by two stone bridges, 14 m. E. Liege. Pop., in 1846, 21,000. It is divided into the upper and lower town; some of its streets are wide and well built, but many others are quite the contrary. When erected into a town in 1681, it was surrounded with walls, but these were afterwards demolished by the French. A new church, the town-hall, and a little theatre with a front of the Ionic order, are handsome buildings. It has a tribunal and chamber of commerce, a college, hospital, and several asylums, nearly thirty public schools, a philanthropic society, bath establishment, &c. The Vesdre is divided into numerous canals, for the use of the various manufactures, which have increased rapidly since the peace. These comprise above 50 woolen cloth factories, and more than 30 dyeing-houses, with fulling and other mills, soap-works, breweries, iron and lead foundries, &c. It has two markets weekly, and four annual fairs. Great quantities of fullers' earth are dug up in the vicinity. (*Vandermaelin, Dict. de Liège; &c.*)

VESOU, a town of France, dép. Haute-Saône, of which it is the cap.; in the valley of the Durpeuse, at the foot of the Mont de Vesoul, a height covered with vineyards and meadows, 56 m. E.N.E. Dijon. Pop., in 1846, inc. com., 5,941. It is well built and clean; most of its streets are wide and straight, and it has several good public buildings, including a cavalry barracks, civil and military hospital, theatre, prefecture, par. church, public baths, court-house, town-hall, &c. It has, also, a public library, said to comprise 21,000 vols., a museum, and a departmental nursery-ground; with manufactures of calico and gold lace, and some trade in corn, wine, silk, nails, and hardware. Near it are mineral waters, but they are turned to little account. (*Hugo, art. Haute-Saône, &c.*)

VESUVIUS (MOUNT), a celebrated mountain of S. Italy. *Ætnæ grand ædificii*, being the only active volcano, of any consequence, at present existing on the European continent; on the E. shore of the bay of Naples, and 10 m. E. by S. from the city, the crater being in lat. 40° 48' N., long. 14° 27' E. Vesuvius does not belong to the Apennine system, but rises, altogether unconnected with any of its ramifications, out of the great plain of Campania. Including M. Somma on its inland side, it consists of a circular mass, the extreme height of which, about 3,800 ft. is to its diameter, 8 m., nearly as 1 to 11; it is somewhat less elevated than Mount Etna, and only two fifths the height, with considerably less than one third the circuit of Etna. M. Maclear, by whom it has been carefully examined and elaborately described, gives the following account of its external appearance:—"To gain a distinct conception of the aspect of the hill, shape out for yourself, by a mental effort, the following objects. First, a sloping plain, 3 m. long, and 3 m. broad, stretching up, with a pretty rapid ascent, to an elevation of more than 2,000 ft., very rugged in the surface, and covered every where with black burnt stones, like the scoræ of an iron furnace, scooped, at the base of this plain, and towering over it, a cone of the same black burnt stone, of very sides remarkably straight and uniform, shooting up in the blue sky to a further elevation of 1,500 ft.; Next, behind this cone a lofty circular precipice (the front of Monte Somma), 1,400 ft. high, and 3 m. long, standing like a vast wall, and of the same burnt appearance; Fourth, at the lower side of the plain, between the burnt ground and the sea, a belt of land, 2 m. broad, laid out in vineyards, but intersected every one or two furlongs by terraces of the same black calcined matter, projecting like footholds from the central mass, and now and then unveiling old currents of lava from beneath them. Very little lava is visible; but the course of the different currents is traced by the long terraces of scoræ which cover and flank them."

"The top of the cone, which is about 2,000 ft. in diameter, presented the aspect of an uneven plane in the end of 1838; but when visited about five weeks after the eruption (of 1839) it had a regularly formed crater, shaped exactly like a tea-cup. I estimated its width at 1,500 ft. and its depth at 500. The rim or crest of loose and solid matter which surrounded it, was of very unequal breadth, 400 or 500 ft. on the W. side, and apparently not 50 at some other parts of the circumference. Snow having fallen some days before, clouds of steam rose from the cavity, which, however, were neither so dense nor so constant as to prevent us from occasionally seeing the bottom of the crater very distinctly. It was nearly level, without crevices or openings, and covered with loose blocks of lava of no great size." (*Notes in France and Italy, 184, 138.*)

Geologically considered, Vesuvius is but the representative of a more ancient and much larger volcano, of which Monte Somma is a remnant, and in the centre of which the modern vent has been upheaved. Monte Somma, on the N.E. side of Vesuvius, is a ridge extending 3 m. in length, forming about one third part of a circle, and rather less lofty than the present cone of Vesuvius. The average distance of the escarpment of

Somma from the centre of the cone is about 1 m.; the back of the ridge dips outwards at an angle of 36°, while the front towards Vesuvius is nearly vertical, rising 1,377 ft. (420 metres) above the level space which divides it from Vesuvius, and which is called the *Arlio dei Caselli*, or "vestibule of horses," because visitors to the crater are obliged to leave their horses, and perform the rest of the journey on foot. The *Arlio dei Caselli* forms a segment of a circular ring, about 1 m. in breadth, at the base of the cone, dividing it from Somma, and having a continuation, in the shape of a depression, on the other sides, where a slight projection, called the *Pedimente*, is supposed to indicate the place of the rest of the ancient escarpment, which, when complete, must have formed a ring 6 m. in circ. (Maclear, p. 140.); being of greater extent than any crater with which we are acquainted. Hence, Mr. Lyell considers it probable that the ancient volcano was higher than Vesuvius, and that the first recorded explosion of the latter blew up a great part of the cone itself, "so that the wall of Somma, and the ridge or terrace of the *Pedimente* were never the margin of a crater of eruption, but are the relics of a ruined and truncated cone." This species of phenomenon has not been without an example in modern times. During the eruption of Oct., 1852, more than 800 ft. of the cone were carried away by explosions, reducing the height of the mountain from about 4,500 to 3,400 ft. (*Forbes's Account of Mount Vesuvius*; *Lyell's Geology*, ii. 80. 88., &c.).

According to Maclear, the rocks of Somma and Vesuvius are mineralogically distinct. Somma, like Vesuvius, is composed of strata of fragmentary and stony matter intermixed with the stone master of Vesuvius consists of lava, more or less cellular, scoriaceous on the surface, and forming long narrow bands on the surface of the hill. That of Somma is a leucite porphyry, containing shells, and continuous with the beds under the tuff which forms the soil of the plain of Naples. Mr. Lyell says, "It is an extraordinary fact, that in an area of 3 sq. m. round Vesuvius, a greater number of simple minerals have been found than in any other spot of the same dimensions on the surface of the globe. Heavy only enumerated 360 species of simple minerals as known to him; and no less than 89 had been found on Vesuvius before the end of the year 1858." Many of these are peculiar to that locality. (ii. 93.) The flora of Vesuvius is also peculiar in Italy, embracing several *Euphorbiaceae* and other plants not found elsewhere in that peninsula. The greater part of the mountain has, indeed, a bare and rugged aspect; but around its base, as previously stated, is an extremely fertile and picturesque region, teeming with plantations, villages, and white country-houses. The land here is divided into small farms of 5 or 6 acres, supporting each a whole family, and the pop. is estimated at not less than 5,000 persons to a sq. league. The land is cultivated, like a garden, with the spade; and yields three crops a year, without fallows or manure. The proprietor of the soil usually receives two thirds of the gross produce in kind for his rent. The leases are long, and the intercourse between farmer and tenant is generally mild and liberal. It is on the slope of Vesuvius that the *Lacryma Christi* is grown. This, which is a red luscious wine, is better known by name than in reality, very little of it being produced, and that little being principally reserved for the royal cellars. The *Vino Greco* and the muscadine wines of Vesuvius, are also deservedly celebrated. (*Simond's Italy*, pp. 431, 432.; *Henderson on Wine*, p. 340.)

Vesuvius, being so near Naples, is usually visited by strangers resorting to that city. M. Simond gives the following notice of his ascent to the mountain in 1818:—"We left Portici, ascending gradually among cultivated fields and vineyards occasionally traversed by streams of old lava, black, rough, and sterile; and in 1½ hour reached the Hermitage, a convent where a few monks keep a sort of inn for the visitors of Vesuvius. Further up we traversed large fields of lava, extremely tough; and at the base of the cone, prepared for the ascent over a heap of crumbling ashes and cinders, extremely steep, of course, as it formed an angle of nearly 45°. In about one hour, stoppages included, we found ourselves on extremely hot ground, intolerable to the hand, and fatal to the soles of our shoes; it teemed with hot vapours, and was covered with beautiful effluences of sulphur. Smoke issued from numerous crevices; at the entrance of which a piece of paper or a stick took fire in a few seconds, and, what seems strange, a stone thrown into one of these openings increased the smoke at all the others. Skipping low, we could hear a noise very like that of a liquid boiling. The hard but thin

crust upon which we stood appeared to have settled down in some places; a woeful indication of its hollow state. After a few steps more we came to the edge of a prodigious hole, on the very summit of the cone, being the crater formed by the last eruption, four months previously. This hole was not by any means the tremendous thing we expected,—a fathomless abyss, fiery and black, with lava boiling at the bottom,—but a slope of grey ashes and cinders, much like that by which we had ascended, or scarcely more precipitous, and ending, at the depth of 400 or 500 ft., in a level place, with grey ashes like the rest." The view from the summit is far inferior in extent and magnificence to that from Etna, but is, notwithstanding, extremely various, rich, and beautiful. The whole ascent and descent to and from Naples may be readily accomplished in seven or eight hours. (*Simond's Trav.*, p. 421—423.; *Eustace, Class. Tour*, iii. 33—35.; *Storke's Guide*, &c.)

From the period of the earliest records down to the reign of Titus Vespasian, the volcano seems to have been inactive; the appearance of its crater, and its cavernous structure being the only indications by which Strabo conjectured that it might at some distant period have been on fire! But in the first year of the reign of Titus (A. D. 79) the volcano that had so long been dormant burst forth with renewed and tremendous energy, in one of the most destructive eruptions of which history has preserved any account. The large and flourishing cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii, near the sea, were both overwhelmed by its lavas and ashes! Even the figure of the coast was materially changed; and for the space of more than 1,600 years all trace of the buried cities was completely lost, and they were only accidentally discovered in the course of last century. The elder Pliny lost his life during this dreadful eruption, which has been described by the younger Pliny, by whom it was witnessed (*Epist.*, lib. vi. 16 and 20.), and by Tacitus. *Luctum*, says the latter, *attulit atro et continuus tremor terras, quem secuta est horrenda Vesuvii montis confagratio. Pulcherrima Campanie ora misere fedita: orbata duce vires Herculaneum et Pompeii: vastis hominum strages, quos inter perire Agrippa, sponse meae Drusilla. At studiorum famæ mors C. Plinii fuit insignis.* (App. Chron.)

Since the destruction of Herculaneum and Pompeii there have been 45 authenticated eruptions; but, luckily, none of them have been equal to it in destructive power. Of those which happened down to the 12th century, we have few accounts; and from 1138 to 1631 there were but two slight eruptions: during this interval, however, Etna was in a state of great activity, and the formation of Monte Nuovo, &c. in the Phlegrean Fields took place. In 1631 a violent eruption occurred, during which seven streams of lava poured from its crater, and from 1666 to the present time, there has been a series of eruptions, the longest intervals between them having rarely exceeded ten years; the last was in Jan. 1859. The energy of Vesuvius, when in action, is extremely great, and the spectacle highly magnificent and sublime. In the eruption of 1779, Sir W. Hamilton says that jets of liquid lava were thrown up to the height of at least 10,000 ft. having the appearance of a column of fire; and in that of 1793, according to Dr. Clarke, millions of red-hot stones were shot into the air to full half the height of the cone itself, and then bending, fell all round in a fine arch, covering nearly half the cone with fire. The lava, however, does not always issue from the crater at the summit, but, as in Etna, sometimes from small cones raised in various parts of the declivity; and occasionally three or four of these cones are in a line, which generally points towards the great crater. The eruptions of 1760, 1794, and 1834, were of this description. (For further details, we beg to refer the reader to Sir W. Hamilton's *Observations on Vesuvius*, and his *Campi Phlegreæ*, and to the works of Clarke, Scrope, DuRoi, &c., with those of Maclear, Eustace, Ramponi, &c.)

VIATKA, a government of European Russia, chiefly between the 56th and 60th degs. of N. lat., and the 46th and 54th of E. long., having N. Volodya, E. Perm, S. Orenburg and Kasan, and W. Nijni-Novgorod, and Kostroma. Area, estimated at about 52,900 sq. m. Pop., in 1846, 1,662,800. The slope of the country is towards the W. and S., in which directions the Viatka, a tributary of the Volga, flows, traversing the government nearly in its centre. The Kama, which forms part of its E. and S. boundaries, also rises in this gov. Surface generally undulating, and even mountainous towards the E., where it consists of the lower Cretaceous ranges. The soil is mostly good, though encumbered in parts with extensive marshes. Climate severe in winter, but not usually unhealthy. Agriculture is the principal occupation of the inhabs., particularly along the banks of the large rivers; and in ordinary years an excess of corn is grown. Rye, barley, and oats, are the principal grains; very little wheat is raised, but pease, lentils, and buckwheat, are grown, with large quantities of hemp and flax. The surplus produce goes chiefly to the N. Russian

* Lyell says:—"The escarpment of Somma exhibits a structure precisely similar to that of the cone of Vesuvius. The principal point of difference consists in the greater abundance in the older cone of fragments of altered sedimentary rocks ejected during eruptions. (*Principles of Geology*, ii. 99.; ii. 363.) But it appears from Mr. Maclear that later discoveries have been made. (*Notes*, &c., p. 139.)

provs. Potatoes are not much cultivated. Fruit is not plentiful; apples scarcely ripen. The forests are very extensive, they consist mostly of fir, intermixed with oak, elm, alder, lase, birch, and other trees. Cattle breeding, though a secondary branch of industry, is still of importance; and a good many small but robust horses are reared. Sheep are few. Furs, tar, iron, and copper, are among the chief products. Manufactures, though not extensive, appear to be on the increase: in 1852, there were 63 factories for woollen cloths, linen and cotton stuff, paper, soap, potash, copper, and iron wares, &c., employing between 6,000 and 7,000 hands. About 2 million articles of woollen, and perhaps nearly double that quantity of linen cloth, are supposed to be annually made in the houses of the peasantry; and large quantities of spirits are distilled. Near Sarapoul is an extensive manufactory of arms, and at Votka anchors, gun carriages, and iron machinery of various kinds are made on a large scale. The government exports corn, flax, linseed, honey, tallow, leather, furs, silk goods, iron, and copper, to Archangel, and corn and timber to Saratof and Astrakhan. It receives manufactured goods from Moscow and Nijni-Novgorod, tea from Irbit, and salt from Perm. Viatka, the cap., is the great emporium of the trade. It is subdivided into 11 districts: Viatka, Siobodskoi, and Sarapoul, being the chief towns. The inhabitants consist of various races: Russians, Votiks (of a Finnish stock, and from whom the prov. has its name), Tartars, Baschkirs, Teptars, &c., professing many different religions. The Mohammedans are estimated at nearly 80,000; and the Shamanists and idolaters at 2,500. In 1831, there were only nine public schools, in which, 1,153 pupils were receiving instruction; but the number has since materially increased. This government is united under the same governor-general with Kassar, but the Tartars and Finns are subordinate to the jurisdiction of their own chiefs.

VIATKA, a town of European Russia, cap. of the above gov.; on the Viatka, near the confluence of the Tehepta, 220 m. W. by N. Perm, and 260 m. N.E. Nijni-Novgorod. Pop. 6,890. (*Possart*.) It has several stone churches, one of which, the cathedral, with a silver altar ornamented with bas-reliefs, cost 130,000 roubles. Here are numerous convents, with an episcopal seminary, gymnasium, and high school, founded in 1829. It was annexed to Russia by Ivan Vassilievitch, about the middle of the 16th century. (*Scheller, La Russie; Possart, Das Kaiserthum Russland, &c.*)

VICENZA (an. *Vicentia*, or *Vicetia*), a city of Austrian Italy, cap. deleg. of its own name, on the Bacchiglione, where it receives the Etroneo, 26 m. E.N.E. Verona, and 37 m. W. by N. Venice. Pop. in 1843, 23,100. Though surrounded by dry moats and dilapidated walls, it is one of the best built cities of Italy. It has an astonishing number of well-designed houses, many of which are of very fine architecture; and even those which are less deserving of praise would, from their number and the richness of their ornaments, produce a great appearance of magnificence to the city, if they were well kept up; but they appear forlorn, neglected, and half uninhabited. (*Wood's Letters, &c.* i. 238.) Vicenza, says Forsyth, "is full of Palladio," the modern Vitruvius, born here in 1518, who has lavished all his skill on his native place. Besides about 20 palaces, the town-house, or *basilica*, the church of Sta. Maria del Monte, the Rotunda, the Olympic triumphal arch leading to the Campo Marzo, the theatre of the Olympic Academy, &c. are the works of this architect. The most celebrated of these is the Olympic Theatre, a noble edifice, constructed upon the plan of the ancient theatre, and bearing a great resemblance in all essential particulars to those of Herculaneum and Pompeii. It is fully described by Eustace, who states that the palatial edifices of Vicenza, though inferior in materials and size to those of Genoa, are much superior in external appearance. (*Class. Tour, i.* 132-5.) The Vicentine villas, which have been often imitated in England, are as beautiful as the larger buildings within the city. Many of them are on the Monte, a pleasant hill adjacent to the town, the favourite resort of the Vicentine gentry, and whence an extensive and rich view is obtained of the great plain of Lombardy. Vicenza has few Roman antiquities, and not many interesting specimens of middle-age architecture. The cathedral has a front exhibiting a mixture of different styles, and its interior presents a nave only, which is of great width; neither the length nor height being in proportion. The church of St. Corona has a fine "Adoration of the Magi," by Paul Veronese; the church of St. Lorenzo is now converted into a barn. All these buildings are in the pointed style, which prevailed in this part of Italy during the 13th century, and of which the church of St. Anastasia at Verona is one of the finest examples. (Wood.) Nine bridges cross the different rivers at Vicenza, one of which, the *Ponte de Sordioleto*, is by Palladio, and, according to Rampoldi, may be compared with the Rialto at Venice.

Vicenza is a bishop's see, the seat of the council, and of the superior courts for the deleg., and has a lyceum, two gymnasiums, an ecclesiastical seminary, and many inferior schools, eleven hospitals and orphan houses, a government pawn-bank, public library, societies of agriculture, &c. The Olympic Academy was founded in 1554, for the encouragement of polite literature, and still, as formerly, includes the most respectable citizens. (*Eustace*.) Some of the palaces have a few fine paintings; but they were mostly carried off by the French.

The Vicentines are said to manifest an aptitude for manufactures and arts, perhaps, inferior in industry only to the inhabs. of Vienna. They weave silk, and woollen fabrics, and make leather, whalebone articles, earthenware, hats, gold and silver articles, fire-engines, &c., and have a considerable trade in agricultural produce. "As you enter the Vicentine territory," says Mr. Ross, "you may observe a visible improvement in the mode of cultivation. The fields are kept cleaner, and every thing indicates superior industry and exactness. If we except the resemblance of dialect, and some community of trifling customs, Calais and Dover are not more unlike than Padua and Vicenza, long subjected to the same government, and connected by facilities of communication both by land and water. To say nothing of the outward appearance of the two cities, which present a most remarkable contrast, it would seem as if the inhabs. were of different blood,—as if a colony of Venetians, making a knight's move, had leaped over Padua and established themselves at Vicenza." (*Letters from the N. Italy, i.* 184, 185.)

Vicenza was anciently a Roman *municipium*, but one of little consideration. (*Tacit. Hist., iii.* 8.) It was sacked by Alaric in 401, and successively pillaged by Attila, the Lombards, and the Emperor Frederick II. Early in the 13th century it came into the possession of the Venetians, who held it till the downfall of the republic in 1796.

Napoleon conferred the title of Duke of Vicenza on Caulaincourt. (*Rampoldi; Austr. Nat. Encyc.; Woods; Forsyth; Eustace; &c.*)

VICH (an. *Ausona*), a town of Spain, in Catalonia, prov. Barcelona, in an undulating plain, 26 m. N. Barcelona. Pop. 12,500. (*Milano*.) It is of a very irregular figure; some parts of it are well built, and 2 of its squares are handsome. The cathedral is very modern, and is, indeed, inferior in many respects to the other churches. It has numerous convents, a seminary, college, and several hospitals, with manufactures of linen and hempen fabrics, printed cottons, woollen cloths, hats, and leather. (*Milano; Dict. Géog.*)

VIENNA (Germ. *Wien*, Lat. *Vindobona*), a city of Germany, cap. of the Austrian Empire, prov. Lower Austria, on an arm of the Danube, where it is joined by the small rivers Wien and Alster, 190 m. E. Munich, 330 m. S.E. Berlin, and 800 m. N.W. Constantinople. Lat. of the observatory, in the centre of the city, 48° 15' 30" N.; long. 16° 22' 15" E. The pop., which in 1818 was about 240,000, had increased, in 1841, i.e. the census of 1840, to 387,927, and in 1846 to 410,946; but it has since declined.

The Danube, opposite Vienna, is divided into three or four separate arms, the most southerly of which washes the walls of the city. Between the third and fourth of these arms, however, is the important suburb of Leopoldstadt, with the Prater, the Augarten, and several other favourite promenades. This part of Vienna communicates with the city and the suburbs on the S. side of the Danube by five bridges, of which the Ferdinands Brücke, in the centre, is the chief. Vienna stands in a plain, elevated about 550 feet above the level of the sea; but so little about that of the Danube in this part of its course, that, with the exception of its S. extremity, which is on the gradual ascent to the heights of Kahlenberg, most part of the city is liable to inundation. Vienna is of a nearly circular form, being about 10 m. in circ. The city-proper, in the centre, is, however, scarcely 3 m. round. It is enclosed by ramparts of brickwork, and a beautiful glacis from 2 to 3 furlongs broad, planted with trees, laid out in public walks, forming, like the parks in London, the lungs of the metropolis; these separate the city from its numerous suburbs, which, on the S. side of the Danube, are again enclosed by a line of ramparts, originally thrown up in 1708, where the passports of travellers are demanded.

Vienna, from its size, wealth, population, and activity, deserves to be compared with London and Paris better than any other European capital. Its chief points of external difference from these cities are that it preserves about it more antique grandeur, and that it is the old and not the new parts of the town which form the fashionable quarters. Most part of the principal edifices are within the city, where the houses are usually four or five stories high, and the streets irregular, narrow, and dark; but where the imperial family and most of the nobility reside. Nearly all the best shops, principal hotels, &c. are also in this quarter. In the suburbs, however, are several of the pa-

laces and garden-villas of the higher nobility, including those of Princes Liechtenstein, Esterhazy, Schwarzenberg, Anersberg, Metternich, &c.; the Belvidere Palace, built by Prince Eugene, but appropriated by Joseph II. to the imperial picture gallery, and other public institutions; with immense barracks, magazines, and other military establishments, hospitals, &c. The streets in the suburbs are generally broad and straight; but some of them, being unpaved, are in wet weather dirty and muddy. The thoroughfares in the city-proper are, on the contrary, uniformly clean, and well paved; but no part of the capital has as yet the advantage of foot-paths.

The houses, both in the city and suburbs, are in general huge edifices, and, as in Paris, are built around courtyards, and occupied by many different families. Some of these dwellings are of enormous extent, and quite towns in themselves. Prince Esterhazy has one comprising 180 different sets of apartments, and yielding a revenue of 1,600*l.* a year; and one belonging to the Stahrenberg family is said to be inhabited by 3,000 persons, and to produce a rental of 4,000*l.* a year! (*Russell, Tour in Germany*.) The Burgtheater, formerly an hospital, was, as citizens were covered by Joseph II. into a dwelling-house, it is 6 stories high, has 10 courts and 30 stair-cases; and several other houses are of equally colossal dimensions. No city in Europe has so large a number of resident nobility as Vienna: 24 families of princes, 70 of counts, and 60 of barons make it their home for the greater part of the year. These nobles may perhaps have fortunes of from 100,000 to 500,000 florins a year, and several, as Prince Esterhazy, Liechtenstein, &c., considerably more. Here, also, many private gentlemen spend 50,000 florins a year; and, with the exception of those of London, the citizens of Vienna are the richest in the world. Berlin and Dresden may, perhaps, have more cornices, pillars, and handsome public buildings, and in Munich and Paris these may have a more imposing effect, but in none of these capitals are there so many noble and extensive private edifices. The Herrengasse and other streets near the imperial residence are full of palaces of the higher nobility. These, as in London, frequently extend along narrow thoroughfares, and are not distinguished from humbler residences except by their greater size and elevation; their interiors are sumptuous.

Nearly all the so-called squares of Vienna are within the city. They are irregular, and comparatively small open spaces, none being so large as Waterloo Place: the cathedral stands in the centre of St. Stephen's *platz*, and the Graben is an incessant thoroughfare, and may be looked upon as the Charing Cross or Mansion House Place of Vienna. Most of these open spaces are ornamented with one or more monuments, or fountains. These, however, are not always in good taste. In the Joseph *platz* is a fine equestrian statue of Joseph II., by Zanner.

The emperor, the resemblance to whom is said to be very striking, is attired in the Roman costume, and is crowned with laurel; with one hand he curbs the impetuosity of his steed, and the other he extends to his people. The statue reposes on an elevated pedestal of granite, bearing the inscription *Saluti publico viati non dicit sed totus*; and which, with its attendant pillars are adorned with medallions, representing, not the remarkable events of his life, but his travels! It was erected by the late emperor, Francis II. (*Spencer's Germany*, &c., ii. 134.) But, except this, Vienna has no other statue of her great men or benefactors; there is none of Montecuculi, Prince Eugene, Lacy, Laudohn, Louis of Baden, or John Sobieski; none of Daun or Kaunitz, Van Swieten, Mozart, or Haydn. In respect of such memorials, Berlin, and even London, are far before Vienna. In her bridges Vienna is also immeasurably behind London and Paris, having none worth notice. The Danube is here nowhere much more than 60 yards across; being, also, a sluggish and muddy, though a navigable stream. The Wien is little better than a mere filthy ditch. The drainage of the town is effected by good underground sewers.

Public Buildings, &c.—The chief of these is the cathedral of St. Stephen, almost in the centre of the city, and from which the principal thoroughfares diverge. It is an elegant Gothic building, ranking in elevation and richness of architecture with the cathedrals of Strasburg and Antwerp. Its length is 350 ft., and its greatest breadth 230 ft. Flanking its great W. doorway are two towers, the remains of the original church, constructed in 1163; and at the angles of this front are two magnificent piles of a similar kind, though only the most southerly has been finished. This tower and spire is 450 ft. in height, or barely 16 ft. lower than that of Strasburg; it has a bell weighing 377 cwt., cast from cannon taken from the Turks, and declines towards the N. about 3 ft. from the perpendicular. The exterior of the cathedral has a good deal of rich tracery. Within are some good wooden carving, a few good pictures, the monuments of Prince Eugene, the emperor Frederick III., &c., and a

gorgeous chapel of the Liechtenstein family; but, on the whole, its interior is but little decorated. A crypt beneath it served for 3 centuries as the burial-place of the imperial family; at present, however, only parts of their viscera are preserved here; their hearts being deposited in the Augustine church, and the rest of their bodies in that of the Capuchins. The church of the Augustines is one of the handsomest in Vienna, and contains the monument of the archduchess Christine, one of the finest works of Canova; besides those of Leopold II., Daun, Von Swieten, &c. The church of St. Charles Borromeo is an imposing edifice, in the Byzantine style; Metastasio is buried in that of St. Michael, and the Carmelite church has some fine stained glass. Vienna has, in all, nearly 60 churches, a third part of which are in the city; 17 conventual establishments, a Scotch Lutheran, 3 Greek churches, and 3 synagogues.

The *Burg*, or imperial palace, occupies a large extent of ground in the S.W. quarter of the city. It is externally a gloomy and shapeless congeries of buildings, erected from the 14th to the 17th century, on a par, Mr. Spencer says, in point of architecture, with St. James's. It comprises extensive suites of rooms; though these, in the simplicity of their furniture and decorations, show the unostentatious habits of the Austrian princes. The state-apartments, with their ancient dilding, and faded velvet hangings, remain in the same condition as in the time of Maria Theresa. But the palace has some fine collections in art and science. The imperial library, which comprised, according to Balbi, in 1835, 284,000 printed volumes, and 16,000 MSS., is placed in a handsome edifice built for the emperor Charles V., whose statue, with that of many other Austrian monarchs, is placed in the centre of the grand hall, an apartment 240 ft. in length, by 48 ft. in width and 62 ft. in height, with a fine dome rising 30 ft. above the ceiling. The library increases by about 3,500 vols. a year, a copy of every work published in the empire being deposited here; besides which, a fund of nearly 2,000*l.* a year is spent in the purchase of new works. This library is open to the public without introduction for five hours a day. It has, among other curiosities, an act of the Roman senate prohibiting the *beccanandia*, engraved on bronze, and bearing date A. V. C. 567 (or B. C. 186); the 5th decade of Livy, a unique MSS.; the Peutingerian Table, a military map of the Roman empire in the 4th century; several MSS. of succeeding centuries, the earliest book printed with a date; the MSS. of the *Germania Liberata*, &c. Here, also, are collections of music and engravings, the last comprising about 300,000 pieces. The museum of antiquities comprises a cabinet of medals, second only to that of Paris, and an unrivalled collection of intaglios and cameos. One of the latter, representing the apotheosis of Augustus on an enormous sardonxy, is supposed to be the finest existing; and the coins and medals amount to 80,000, including 18,000 Greek, and 23,000 Roman (*Turner's Murray's Handbook*). The collection of ancient coins is far inferior to the collections of either Dresden or Munich; but there are excellent museums of natural history and botany, and the cabinet of minerals surpasses every other in Europe. Here are also Egyptian and Brazilian museums, a good collection of Greek vases, and the imperial jewel-office; in which, including a number of relics, are the Austrian and Hungarian regalia, the Florentine diamond, the iron crown, sceptre, &c. of Charlemagne, the sword of Tamerlane, &c.

The Belvidere Palace is appropriated to the Ambros museum, and to one of the finest collections of paintings in Europe, being especially rich in works of the Flemish and German schools. The Ambros museum, formed late in the 16th century, includes, besides other curiosities, a most interesting historical collection of armour. The paintings in the imperial gallery are classed in separate rooms, according to schools. In those of the Italian schools are the famous *Ecc Homo* of Titian, formerly belonging to Charles I. of England; a superb Holy Family by Raphael; many other pleases of these artists; and by P. Veronese, the *Caracci*, &c. In those of the Flemish school are three masterpieces by Rubens: St. Ignatius driving out evil spirits; St. Ildefonso; St. Ambrosius closing the church door at Milan against the Emperor Theodosius; some of the best works of Rembrandt and Vandyck; and pictures by Teniers, Cuy, G. Dow, &c. Other rooms are appropriated to the German, Austrian, and Spanish schools, works of the middle ages, a comparative series of Italian paintings from the 14th to the 19th century. In the Belvidere gallery is the mosaic copy of Da Vinci's Last Supper, for which Napoleon engaged to pay 15,000 zecchinos, and which was afterwards bought for the same sum by the late Emperor Francis II. "At Dresden," says Mr. Turnbull, "the gallery comprises perhaps the grandest ensemble in Europe, but is so neglected, so involved in gloom and dirt, as to afford too often a feeling more akin to pain than to pleasure. At Berlin, the condition, care, and arrangement, are perfect, but the works

themselves are rarely first-rate specimens. The gallery of Vienna is good alike in intrinsic excellence, in order, and in condition. Of the museums generally, as, indeed, of most of the institutions under the Austrian government, the high and eminent excellence is their admirable adaptation to practical utility. In those of other countries we had seen articles of greater individual rarity; entire assemblages of certain branches, more copious and complete; but in no one were the various objects, to our apprehension, so ably and lucidly arranged, labelled, described, and exhibited, as at Vienna; and this, too, in a city where space and light are so defective. They are fully exhibited to the public, during a convenient number of hours; and the student has ample opportunity of following up his researches therein, in connexion with lectures gratuitously afforded on the principal branches of science." (*Turnbull's Austria*, i. 236-238.)

The Imperial arsenal has one of the richest armouries in Europe. In the upper rooms 180,000 stand of arms are kept; and, besides a large store of weapons and armour of different dates, we have here the buff coat worn by Gustavus Adolphus at the battle of Lutzen, the arms of Marlborough, Eugene, Stahremberg, and Moutecuculi, numerous standards, the enormous chain thrown across the Danube by the Turks in 1693, &c. The city arsenal is a fine building, constructed by the citizens at their own expense, and has, with many curiosities similar to the above, arms sufficient for 26,000 civic guards. The Imperial riding-school is also a handsome edifice by Fischer of Erlach, but lost among the buildings of the palace. The Royal Stallung, in the suburbs facing the Burg-theor, is a noble palace appropriated to the Royal Hungarian guard.

Vienna has five theatres; the principal are, the Hof-theatre attached to the palace, and that at the Kärnthner-theor (*Carinthian-gate*). The first is devoted solely to the performance of the regular German drama; and, though not the largest, is by far the finest theatre in Vienna. It is both clean and well lighted, and is said somewhat to resemble Drury Lane. The acting here is at least equal to that at Berlin; and the performers have, after ten years' service, a handsome pension settled on them for life by the government, with an annuity after their death for their widows. (*Strong's Germany*, ii. 232.) The Kärnthner-theor is the opera-house of Vienna, and the singers and orchestra are unsurpassed in Germany. This house is very large, having six complete rows of boxes and a half circle next the pit; but the largest theatre is one on the Wien, appropriated to equestrian pieces. The really national theatre of the Viennese is the *Beym Casperl*, in the Leopoldstadt. This theatre, the *Adelphi* or *Ambigu Comique* of Vienna, is appropriated to farces, and is the arena on which the national character is painted in the most lively colours and broadest manner. Here, says Mr. Strong, one circumstance is noticeable, as indicative of the power of "the million," even in Austria. The police, though exceedingly strict in the regular theatres, are said to *wink hard* at the political jokes that are frequently cracked on this stage; while the pulse of the public is not unfrequently felt here, by somewhat the same means as the old Council of Ten used to adopt at Venice, through the tricks and colloquies of Punchinello. (*Germany in 1831*, ii. 255, 256.)

Vienna has several handsome gates, the chief of which is the Burg-theor, near the palace; but none is comparable for magnificence to the Brandenburg gate, Berlin. Indeed, every object brought under public observation appears externally more splendid, elegant, and attractive in the Prussian capital; "yet it is merely as shadow to substance, for in Vienna, behind dark walls, there is far more sterling value than in the finest palaces of its rival." (*Spencer's Germany*, &c., ii. 138.)

Schools, Libraries, Galleries, &c.—Vienna has a university, founded in 1227, but which was wholly remodelled by Von Swieten in the time of Maria Theresa. It is celebrated on the Continent as school of medicine, and is probably attended by a greater number of students than any other German university, except that of Berlin: in 1832 it had 1,619 students, of whom 309 studied divinity, 332 law, 519 medicine and surgery, and 499 philosophy, &c. (*Journal of Education*, vol. ix.) There are between 70 and 80 professors, all of whom are paid by government, and are neither permitted to receive fees on their own account, nor to give private lessons. The theological, surgical, and veterinary courses are delivered gratuitously; but the student has to pay a fee of 18 flor. (about 11. 11s. 6d.) for attendance on the lectures in philosophy, and of 80 flor. (32. 12s. 6d.) for attending those in medicine and jurisprudence. The whole amount of the moneys thus paid for tuition during the session is expended in stipends to indigent students, and divided among them, without reference to their religious creeds, in allowances varying from 50 to 150 flor. (41. 10s. to 121. 10s.). Nearly all the lectures are delivered in the German language. The university has a library of above 100,000 vols., and 1500.

a year is expended in the purchase of new works, and it receives, gratis, a copy of all works printed in Lower Austria. (*Journal of Education*, 1834; *Statistical Journal*, 1841.) An observatory, and a botanic garden, are attached to this establishment.

The Polytechnic Institute, a handsome structure facing the glacis, was founded by the Emperor Francis in 1816, to afford instruction in the practical sciences, arts, and commerce; and a few years since had about 750 pupils and 35 masters. Besides the ordinary branches of knowledge, the pupils are taught the history of commerce, the knowledge of merchandise, mercantile law, and correspondence, natural history and chemistry as applied to commerce, drawing, mathematics, &c.; for which instruction the pupils pay only 3 fl. a month, and, for a small extra sum, are taught Latin, English, French, and Italian. Among other collections, this school has a museum of the products of arts and manufactures, both Austrian and foreign, and a valuable library. The *Theresianum*, for the sons of the aristocracy, and the normal school of St. Anne, were both established by Maria Theresa. The former was suppressed by Joseph II., and stored by Francis; and it has now a library of 30,000 printed vols., besides MSS. and pamphlets. Joseph II. established both the Oriental Academy and the *Josephinum*; the latter, an institution for the education of army surgeons, which has attached to it an hospital capable of receiving 1,300 patients, a collection of anatomical figures in wax, by Fontana, &c. Besides these establishments, Vienna has a special seminary for the education of the secular clergy, a Protestant seminary, founded in 1824; 6 military colleges, with nearly 1,000, and 49 minor establishments for military education, with nearly 1,000 pupils; an academy of the fine arts for about 1,300, and a technical academy for 300 students; besides about 60 inferior public schools. (*Journal of Educ.*, &c.) In addition to the libraries already mentioned, the Archduke Charles has one of 25,000 vols., Prince Liechtenstein of 40,000, Prince Metternich of 23,000 do., Prince Esterhazy of 20,000, exclusive of many inferior collections. But with all these appliances for knowledge, Vienna cannot be considered so much a resort of learning as of the fine arts. In painting she is, perhaps, the richest capital of Europe. The gallery of Prince Liechtenstein consists of 35 splendid apartments, filled with exquisite originals of the Italian, Flemish, French, and Dutch masters, including *chefs d'œuvre* of Raphael, Guido, Rubens, Vandeyck, Donatello, Guercino, Claude, S. Rosa, Carlo Dolce, &c. The Esterhazy gallery contains upwards of 600 pictures, of which 54 are by Spanish masters, whose works are rarely found out of Spain; with a collection of sculptures, including works by Canova and Thorwaldsen; 50,000 engravings, &c. Counts Cserniz, Schönborn, Harrach, Lemberg, and many other noblemen, have collections of choice paintings; and in the palace of the Archduke Charles is a collection of 160,000 engravings. The foregoing galleries are all open to the public at stated times. (*Baldi, Essai sur les Bibliothèques de Vienne*, pp. 64-113.)

In statuary, also (though not in public statues of celebrated men), Vienna is very rich. Canova's group of Theseus killing the Centaur deserves especial mention. It was originally intended by Napoleon to surmount the grand arch at Milan, but is now placed in the Thebesium, a Doric temple, on the Volksgarten, in imitation of the temple of Theseus at Athens. "This group is of Carrara marble. The hero is in the act of grasping with his left hand the throat of the Centaur; while his right arm, raised behind his helmeted head, clenches the club with which he prepares to inflict the fatal blow. The whole character of the group is in Canova's most effective style." (*Turnbull*, i. 243.)

Hospitals and other Charities.—Few capitals are so abundantly furnished with charitable institutions as Vienna. Many of the principal, as the general hospital, house of invalids, deaf and dumb asylum, &c., were founded by Joseph II. The general hospital is a vast building, ranged around 7 quadrangles, having 2,000 beds. It is said to receive annually from 10,000 to 16,000 patients. It partly answers the purpose of a sanatorium, there being separate bed-rooms, which, with medical attendance, and every comfort necessary for an invalid, are within the reach of persons of limited income, on the payment of a small sum daily. The hospital of the Charitable Brethren, supported partly by voluntary contributions, is a monastic establishment, but open equally to Jews, Turks, and Christians of all persuasions. The House of Invalids is similar in its kind to Chelsea Hospital, having been founded for 800 old soldiers. In its great hall are two large pictures of the Battles of Lepel and Austerlitz. The Deaf and Dumb Asylum is well conducted; and those among the pupils who evince intelligence are often

* It may be remarked here, that there is an increasing tendency towards religious toleration (in Vienna at least) in the Austrian government. Mr. Strong believes that there is a real decline on the part of those in power in Austria to tolerate every kind of religious belief, provided it be not accompanied with offensive sectarian zeal.

afterwards employed in state affairs requiring secrecy. There are schools for the blind, &c., and a lunatic asylum, which is, however, said not to be so well conducted as most of the other public establishments. Attached to the General Hospital are the *maison d'accouchement* and foundling hospital. In the former of these "not even the name of the applicant is demanded; she may enter veiled or masked, and remain incog. the whole time she continues in the house; she has merely to deliver a sealed paper to the superintendent, containing her name and real address, that, in the event of death ensuing, her relations may be apprised of her fate." (*Spencer*, 161.) The person who brings a child to the Foundling Hospital receives a ticket, by presenting which, the child may at any time be taken away: if it is not taken away, it is, at the proper age, brought up to some employment. It is probable that an institution of this kind may prevent a few cases of infanticide; but the mortality in this, as in all similar institutions, is quite excessive, and there can be no doubt that it acts as a powerful incentive to vice and immorality.

Commerce, Hotels, Shops, &c. — Vienna is the great emporium of the Austrian provs. N. of the Alps, and an important *dépôt* for the interchange of goods between E. and W. Europe. It has extensive establishments for cotton printing, and for the manufacture of silks and velvets, and of cotton fabrics. The porcelain manufacture of Vienna is amongst the most celebrated on the continent, and it has an imperial cannon foundry, and a manufacture of small arms, said to employ 500 workmen. Cutlery, watches, and jewellery, bronze and other metallic goods, meerschaum pipes, musical instruments, paper, chemical products, gloves, leather, hosiery, chocolate, and liqueurs, are among the other principal products: it has several large printers and music engravers. Many of the most wealthy mercantile houses belong to Greeks. The National Bank of Vienna, established during the Seven Years' War, was reconstituted in 1815. Its capital of 60,000,000 florins is divided into 51,630 shares. It has the exclusive privilege of issuing notes in the Austrian Empire, and has, or recently had, 11 branches. During the late disturbances it advanced large sums to government, so that the debt due by the state to the bank is now very heavy. The payment or reduction of this debt will depend on the measures taken to improve the financial condition of the empire.

The hotels are of two classes: living in those of first-rate excellence costs about one third more than in Paris; but those of the second class are very good of their kind. Lodgings are twice as dear in the city as in the suburbs, where a room tolerably furnished may be had for 6 fl. a month. The *cafés* of this city are not decorated with the same splendour as those of Paris, but they are quite as much frequented, being resorted to in the evenings by both sexes of the middle classes, and at other times by gentlemen to play at billiards, or to smoke, which is not permitted in the streets. (*Murray's Handbook*, &c.) From their number being limited by government, the profits realised in the coffee-houses are great, and they frequently bear a value so high, that Russell mentions one on the Graben, for the privilege belonging to which a purchaser paid upwards of 3,000 fl. in addition to an extravagant price for the house itself. (il. 245.) Vienna is well supplied with provisions of all kinds, which are generally cheap. House rent is said to be lower than in Paris; servants' wages are much less; furniture is still cheaper; and a pair of good Hungarian carriage horses, the keep of which will cost about 300. a year, may be bought for 400. No town exhibits such an appearance of people living amidst plenty, such an absence of *wanney classes*, and anything that can represent poverty. The hackney coaches are as neat, clean, and showy as private carriages; the horses are generally in excellent condition. The shops, though in such narrow streets, are as *dashing* as those of London or Paris; and most of them have signs, with paintings almost worthy of museums. The booksellers' and picture shops are numerous and large; and besides the literature of every state in Germany, you may find many popular books and the principal engravings published in England and France." (*Austria and the Austrians*, i. 49, 50.)

Parks, Amusements, &c. — The principal amusements of the Viennese are music, dancing, the theatres, and frequenting the Prater and other fine promenades which encircle the city. The Prater, the Hyde Park or Champs Elysées of this capital, is handsomer than either, and may in fact be considered the finest public park in Europe. It is nearly 4 m. in length by half as much in breadth, being enclosed between 2 arms of the Danube. Besides the fashionable drives, the Prater contains a great number of coffee and ice houses, pavilions, shows, &c. and is generally filled with a throng of people, particularly on Sundays and holidays. The glacia is studded in a similar manner with places of entertainment, and the Augarten and Brighthen-au, both N. of the Danube, and the Volksgarten, within the city, are promenades in much the same style. The dancing saloons, or public ball rooms, are not in ge-

neral what can be called *fashionable* places of amusement, though the imperial family and higher nobility attend the balls in the *Redoutensaal* at the carnival and other times. They are, however, resorted to by great numbers of the middle and also of the upper classes, and one of the principal, the *Apollo Saal*, can accommodate with ease 10,000 persons. The music here is of a superior order, the celebrated bands of Strauss and Lanner, and others little inferior, being constantly engaged. Mr. Russell says, "The Viennese take to themselves the reputation of being the most musical public in Europe, and this is the only part of their character about which they display much jealousy or anxiety. So long as it is granted that they can produce among their citizens a greater number of decent performers on the violin or piano than any other capital, they have no earthly objection to have it said that they can likewise produce a greater number of blockheads and debauchees." (*Tour*, &c., ii. 271.)

Morals, &c. — Vienna has acquired the character of being the most dissolute capital in Europe. But without stopping to inquire whether it be entitled to this distinction, it is, at all events, a most agreeable place for a stranger. A liveliness and *bonhomie* prevails society; in bustle and activity Vienna rivals London and Paris; and the pursuit of pleasure appears one of the main occupations of the great mass of the inhabitants. The police of the city is preserved with the utmost care. The arrivals, departures, residences, &c. of strangers are carefully noted; passports are strictly examined, and great care is taken that visitors shall show that they have the means of paying their way. With residents, however, the police interfere but little, and never obtrusively. Among the drawbacks on a residence here are, the furious driving in the crowded thoroughfares, through which pedestrians have to wind their way among heaps of fuel, the howling of which is incessantly carried on before the doors of the houses; the great variability of the climate, and the indifference of the water.

Vienna is an archbishop's see, the residence of the Protestant superintendent for all the S.W. provs. of the empire, the seat of the high judicial tribunals, and central bureaux of the Austrian dom., of the court of appeal for the archduchy of Austria, and the provincial government of the prov. below the Enns. Though not in general famous as a seat of literature, it has, among many other associations, a literary society; of which Von Hammer, the Orientalist, the poet Grillparzer, the historian Malith, the novelist Caroline Pichler, the mineralogist Mubs, Balb, &c., are members. Such was the influence of the censorship, that the city produced only two newspapers, and those worth little or nothing, with a few weekly scientific and fashionable papers, a monthly and a quarterly journal. The upper classes speak English, French, and Italian almost as well as their native language.

The *cavirons* are picturesque, but the roads around are very bad. About 2 m. from the city is Schönbrunn, the favourite summer residence of the emperor. It stands in a large park stocked with deer and game of all kinds. The palace, built by Maria Theresa, is a vast monotonous pile, but richly furnished, and possesses many interesting portraits of the Imperial family. It was twice occupied by Napoleon: the treaty of Schönbrunn was signed in it in 1809, and here the Duke of Reichstadt, son of Napoleon, died in 1832. In the grounds are the *Gloriette*, a large columnar temple, from which a fine view is obtained; a menagerie, a splendid botanic conservatory and gardens, with eating-houses, music and dancing-rooms, &c., for the public. Not far from the Schönbrunn are Laxenburg, Brühl, Baden, &c., frequented by pleasure parties from the metropolis, in much the same way as Richmond, Greenwich, or St. Cloud.

History. — Vindobona was remarkable in antiquity as the place where Marcus Aurelius expired. It was successively taken by the Goths and the Huns, and subsequently by Charlemagne, who placed it under the government of the Margraves of the E. part of his dom., thence called *Oester-reich*, and Austria. The margraves, afterwards, held Vienna till the middle of the 13th century, soon after which it came into the possession of the house of Hapsburg. In 1434, it was taken by the Hungarians, whose king, Matthias, made it the seat of his court. Since the time of Maximilian I., it has been the usual residence of the archdukes of Austria, and emperors of Germany. It was besieged by the Turks in 1529 and 1683; on the first occasion it was relieved by Charles V., and on the second by John Sobieski of Poland, who totally defeated the enemy beneath its walls. In 1619 it was unsuccessfully blockaded by the Bohemian Protestants. In 1797, it was threatened by the French, but its siege was averted by the peace of Leoben. The French took it, however, in 1806 and 1809. The congress which parcelled out Europe into its modern subdivisions sat here from the 3d Nov. 1814 to the 9th June, 1815.

On the 6th Oct. 1848 a formidable insurrection broke

out in Vienna. One of the ministers, Count Latour, having been assassinated, and the others compelled to seek their safety in flight, the town fell into the possession of the insurgents. But the revolutionary spirit did not extend to the other portions of Austria Proper; and the army having continued faithful to its sovereign, the city was reduced to obedience on the 31st Oct., and the insurrection suppressed.

VIENNE, a dep. of France, reg. W., principally between the 46th and 47th degs. of N. lat., and long. 0° and 1° E., having N. Indre-et-Loire, E. Indre, S. E. Haute-Vienne, S. Charente, and W. Deux Sevres. Area, 676,000 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 308,591. It derives its name from the river Vienne, an. *Vigenna*, which rises in the dep. Creuse, and after traversing Haute-Vienne, a part of Charente, Vienne, and Indre-et-Loire, at first in a W., and afterwards in a N. direction, enters the Loire after a lengthened course. Its principal affluents are the Thorizon, Isoudre, and Creuse from the E., and the Briance, Vaire, and Clain, from the S. and W. Limoges, Confolens, Chateaufort, Chinon, &c., are on its banks. Nearly all the other rivers of the dep. are tributaries of the Vienne or of its affluents. Surface, mostly level; but in the S. a chain of heights separates the basin of the Loire from that of the Charente. The soil in the level ground is moderately good, but in the S. it is thin and stony. In 1834, the arable lands were estimated to comprise 413,131 hectares; pastures, 42,732 do.; vineyards, 28,744 do.; woods, 80,573 do., and heaths, wastes, &c., 75,167 do. Wheat and oats are the grains principally cultivated; rye and millet are raised for home consumption; but in years of scarcity, chessnuts are a principal resource of the pop. From 500,000 to 700,000 hectol. wine are annually produced; but, on the whole, its quality is inferior, and large quantities are converted into *cognac de-vie*, frequently of great excellence. The white wines are the most extensively produced; the red wines are generally *tri-colors*, *deux*, &c. *ils se gardent long-temps et s'améliorent en vieillissant; on en a vu qui conservaient encore leur qualité au bout de 40 ans.* (Julien, p. 150.) A good many cattle are reared, and the sheep in some of the cantons are said to be of a superior kind: the produce of wool is estimated at 400,000 kilogr. a year. About 45,000 hogs are said to be annually exported from this dep., by way of the Atlantic ports. Bees and poultry are extensively reared. In 1835, 130,618 properties, subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 79,569 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 16,575 at from 5 to 10 fr.; the number of those assessed at 1,000 fr., or upwards, was only 46. The vicinity of Chateaufort produces very superior lithographic stone; and marble, whetstone, millstone, &c. are found in other parts of the dep. Some iron mines are wrought, and there are numerous iron forges. Chateaufort has rather extensive manufactures of fire-arms; and cutlery, lace, coarse woollen cloths and woollen yarn, paper, furs and skins, biscuits, beer, and vinegar are among the other goods made in Vienne. This dep. is divided into 5 arronds.; chief towns, Poitiers, the cap., Chateaufort, Civray, Loudun, and Montmorillon. According to the *Dict. Géog.*, "L'instruction est arrivée dans ce pays. Le caractère dominant des habitants paraît être l'insouciance et l'indolence; ils sont insoucamment attachés aux usages, et aux préjugés de leurs pères."

VIENNE (an. *Vienne*), a town of France, dép. Isère, cap. arrond., on the Rhone, where it is joined by the Gère, the former being here crossed by a suspension bridge, 16 m. S. by E. Lyons. Pop., in 1846, 14,000, or, including its com., 17,076. "Vienne, situated under a high cliff, with the castle upon its summit, is a striking and beautiful object; and descending the river, and after passing it, there is a perfect union of the beautiful and the picturesque in its scenery. It is here, also, about 1½ leagues after passing Vienne, that the vineyards lie so celebrated for their produce of *Cote-rotie*." (Inglet's *Switzerland*, &c. 179.) A handsome quay stretches along the Rhone; and the lower part of the town, on the high road between Lyons and Marseilles, has broad and well-built streets; but the rest of the thoroughfares, along the narrow valley of the Gère, and up steep declivities, are ill laid out, and lined generally with mean houses.

Vienne has several remains of Roman buildings and other antiquities. In the centre of the town is a temple anciently dedicated to Augustus and Livia, having a good deal of resemblance to the *Maison carrée* at Nîmes, though not in such good preservation. It has been used for a church, a club-house, and a tribunal of commerce, and is now appropriated to a museum of antiquities. Outside the town, and in much better preservation, is a pyramidal monument nearly 45 feet in height, and apparently a tomb. The traces of a bridge across the Rhone, an amphitheatre, a naumachia, theatre, &c. also

exist. Here, also, are several middle-age antiquities, among which is the cathedral, considered one of the best Gothic edifices in France. It stands in an elevated position; its grand entrance is ornamented with sculptures, and flanked by two high towers; the roof is supported by 48 lofty columns in the interior; the galleries have Gothic balustrades; and it has a fine monument of one of the archbishops of Vienne. The church of an ancient abbey is also worth notice. The other principal buildings are the cavalry barracks, college, hospital, work-house, corn exchange, abattoir, and public library with 14,000 vols.

Vienne has manufactures of woollen cloths, pasteboard, iron and copper plates, &c.; and near it are some argilliferous lead mines producing about 1,500 quintals a year of metal. It was anciently a city of consequence, having been successively the cap. of the Allobroges; of its prov. in Narbonnese Gaul, under the Romans; and of the first and second kingdoms of Burgundy; and in the early age of Christianity, it was the seat of an archbishop, prince of Gaul. It was united with Dauphiny to the French dom. by Louis XI. The famous council, held in 1311, which abolished the order of the Templars, met in this town. (*Hago*, art. *Isère*; *Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

VIENNE (HAUTE), a dep. of France, reg. W., between lat. 46° 25' and 46° 35' N., and long. 0° 20' and 1° 45' E., having N.W. and N. Vienne and Indre; E. Creuse; S.E. Corrèze; S.W. Dordogne; and W. Charente. Area, 554,308 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 314,729. The surface is hilly, particularly in the E., and the mean elevation of the dep. is estimated at between 1,800 and 1,900 ft. above the level of the sea. The rivers, the principal of which are the Vienne (see previous art.) and the Gartempe, with their tributaries, have generally a W. direction. The soil, being mostly composed of the debris of granite, and other primary rocks, is, in general, of inferior fertility. In 1834, the arable lands were estimated to comprise 313,354 hectares; pastures, 130,690 do.; woods, 38,856 do., and heaths, wastes, &c. 98,344 do. Wheat is but little grown; its place being supplied by rye, buckwheat, chessnuts, and potatoes. Very little wine is grown. The pasture lands are comparatively good; and, in 1830, the sheep in the dep. were estimated at nearly 610,000 head, and the cattle at 160,000 do. The wool produced in the dep. is, however, of inferior quality. Rural industry of all kinds is very backward. In 1835, of 59,733 properties, subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 25,489 were assessed at less than 5 fr. and only 18 at 1,000 fr., and upwards. The fine pottery clay at St. Yrieix is, perhaps, the most valuable of the mineral products; there is a tin mine at Vautry, the only place in France at which that metal is found; and copper, iron, lead, antimony, manganese, coal, &c. are met with in greater or less abundance. The manufacture of earthenware is the most important; and among its other products are iron and copper plates, cutlery, and other steel articles, nails, linen, woollen and cotton yarn, coarse woollen cloths, paper, leather hats, wooden shoes, &c. It is estimated, that 16,000 inhabitants of this dep. migrate annually as masons, sawyers, carpenters, &c. into the depts. Seine and Rhone, and the arsenals on the W. coast. Haute Vienne is divided into 4 arronds.; chief towns, Limoges, the cap., Bellac, Rochechouart, and St. Yrieix. It sends 5 mems. to the Chamber of Deputies. Registered electors, in 1836-39, 1,686. Total public revenue, in 1831, 5,108,597 fr. (*Hago*, art. *Vienne* and *Haute Vienne*; *French Official Tables*, &c.)

VIERZON-VILLE, a town of France, dep. Cher, cap. cant., on the Evre, near its junction with the Cher, in a fertile plain, 19 m. N.W. Bourges. Pop., in 1836, 4,980. It consists principally of one street, which would be among the best in France, if furnished with footways. (*Guide du Voyageur*, &c.) Its houses are mostly slated. It has manufactures of woollen cloths, earthenware, and iron ware. Its castle was destroyed by the English in 1193; and in 1266, it was pillaged by the army of the Black Prince. (*Dict. Géog.*; *Hago*, &c.)

VIGAN (LE), a town of France, -ep. Gard, cap. arrond., on the Arre, a tributary of the Herault, 40 m. N.W.N. Nîmes. Pop., in 1836, 4,696. The *Dict. Géog.* says that it is old and ill built; but according to the *Guide du Voyageur*, it is the pleasantest and most healthy of all the small towns in the Cévennes, and one to which the opulent inhabs. of Nîmes and Montpellier resort during the heats of summer. In one of its squares has been erected a fine bronze statue of the Chevalier d'Assas, a native of the town. It has manufactures of cotton and silk hosiery, cotton yarn, leather, and paper.

VIGEVANO, a town of N. Italy, dom. of Sardina, div. Novara, prov. Lomellina, cap. mand., on the Mova, near the Ticino, and 14 m. S.S.E. Novara. Pop., in 1838, 15,321. Its site is elevated, and it enjoys a salubrious climate. It is enclosed by walls, has an old castle, a cathedral, which stands in a square surrounded on 3 sides by arcades, one of the best cavalry barracks in Piedmont, numerous convents, an hospital, government

poor-bank, a communal college, and a *seminario*, established in 1632. Near it is a large and handsome Dominican convent. The town has manufactures of silk stuffs, hats, soap, macaroni, &c.; two annual fairs of 8 days each, and markets twice a week. This town gave birth to Francis Sforza II., duke of Milan, and is much indebted to the munificence of the Sforza family. Under the French it was the cap. of an arrond., in the dep. of Arogon. (*Rampoldi, &c.*)

VILLA-REAL, a town of Spain, in Valencia, prov. Castellon de la Plana, on the Mijares, here crossed by a fine bridge of 13 arches, within about 4 m. of the sea, and 32 m. N.N.E. Valencia. Pop., according to Mifanoy, about 8,000. It originated in a country palace of James I., king of Aragon. It has one regular and well-built street; several religious edifices, a prison, a large suburb, and some silk and woollen manufactures, distilleries, &c. It was formerly fortified, and in the War of the Succession was garrisoned for the archduke Charles; but, having been taken by the troops of Philip V., in 1706, its defensive works and most of its buildings were destroyed, and great part of its inhab. put to the sword.

The town of the same name in Portugal, prov. Trás-os-Montes, cap. Comarca, is said by Mifanoy to have 4,100 inhab. (*Dict. d'Esp. &c.; Mod. Trav.*)

VILLA-RICA, a town of Brasil, cap. of the prov. Minas-Geraes, on the Ouro-preto, by which it is intersected, and which is here crossed by four stone bridges, 190 m. N.N.W. Rio Janeiro; lat. 30° 25' 30" S., long. 42° 19' 29" W. Pop. uncertain, fluctuating with the state of the mines; in the early part of the present century it was estimated at 20,000, principally whites, but is now, probably, a good deal less. It occupies an elevated site, but it has no very striking approach; nor, on a nearer view, does it present to the eye of a traveller any object corresponding with the grandeur of its name. It is situated on the declivity of a high mountain, forming part of an immense chain. Most of the streets range in parallel rows along the side of the mountain, being crossed by others leading up the acclivity. These have numerous public fountains, and the town generally is admirably supplied with water, which is conveniently conducted into almost every house. (*Mawe's Brasil*, p. 238, &c.) The streets are ill-paved; but there are many good houses two stories in height, built of stone, tiled, and whitewashed. The governor's residence, the town-hall, 3 par. churches, numerous chapels, the mint, college, and theatre, were a few years ago, the principal edifices. Some of these are superior to the public buildings in most other parts of Brasil. The governor's house commands a view of nearly the whole town; and in its front is an open space surrounded by a sort of parapet, on which a few brass swivels are mounted. Several of the churches, &c. are richly ornamented. The mint is in the lower part of the town, attached to the treasury and custom-house. The climate of Villa Rica, owing to its elevated situation, is very agreeable; the annual range of the thermometer is from 60° to 80° Fahr. in summer, and from 48° to 70° in winter. Thunder-storms, though common, are not violent. The gardens here, which extend in raised terraces along the side of the mountain, produce excellent kitchen vegetables; but beyond these, the vicinity of the town, notwithstanding its fertility, is wholly uncultivated, and the cattle and other stock are allowed to pasture at random. The markets are accordingly ill supplied; and when Mawe visited the country, most sorts of provisions and vegetables brought a very high price. The inhab., in fact, are chiefly interested in mining speculations; Villa Rica being, or at all events, having been, the headquarters of the gold-mining district of Brasil. The metal, found in the mountain on which the town is built, is imbedded in a matrix of slaty clay schist resting on granite, gneiss, or sandstone. Bars of this valuable product, with precious stones, cotton, hides, marmalade, cheese, &c. are sent to Rio, where they are exchanged for slaves, manufactured goods, wines, hams, &c. Owing, however, to the falling off in the productiveness of the mines, this trade is now much less considerable than formerly. The goldsmith trade is prohibited in Villa Rica; but almost all other handicrafts are carried on. There are also manufactures of gunpowder, hats, pottery, &c. The inhab. generally depend on mining; and in consequence of the uncertain, hazardous nature of their employment, which has greatly declined, they are very generally idle, poor, and dissolute. (*Mod. Trav. xxix.; Mawe's Brasil; Dict. Geog., &c.*)

VILLEFRANCHE, a town of France, dép. Aveyron, cap. arrond., on the Aveyron, 36 m. W. Rhodes. Pop. in 1846, Inc. com., 9,400. It is well built; four parallel thoroughfares divide the town into nine parts, besides which it has several suburbs interspersed with plantations. The old collegiate church, and the hospital, formerly a conventual building, are remarkable specimens of Gothic architecture. The public establishments comprise a college, a public library, museum, and club, or subscription rooms. The principal manufactures consist of linens and copper wares; it has, also, a considerable trade in

corn, cattle, and other rural produce, and 12 annual fairs.

Another town of the same name is the cap. of an arrond. in the dep. of the Rhone, on the Saone, 17 m. N.N.W. Lyons. Pop. in 1836, 7,453. It consists chiefly of one very long and wide street, is well built, and has agreeable environs. Its manufactures consist principally of linen fabrics, cotton, thread, and leather, in which articles, with the addition of wine, cattle, hemp, flax, hempen cloths, &c., it has a brisk trade with other towns in the S. of France. Near it are some lead-mines, which were wrought under the Romans. (*Hugo, &c.*)

VILLENÁ (San Fernando de), a town of Spain, prov. Murcia, cap. distr., in a fine plain, 32 m. N.W. Alicante. Pop. about 10,000. Inglis says, "It has its rock, castle, and huerta, and is a place of some size, with several convents and churches. The vine is extensively grown upon the lower acclivities of the neighbouring sierra, and is almost all converted into brandy. The pop. of this town appeared to me to present a singularly disreputable appearance; beggarly, idle, ragged, and ruffian-like." (*Spain in 1830*, li. 289.) Villena gives title to a marquis, whose palace, a town-hall, 2 churches, many chapels and convents, an hospital, and some barracks are its principal edifices. It has some soap factories; and in the neighbouring marishes a good deal of salt is made. (*Milano, &c.*)

VINCENNES, a town of France, dép. Seine, cap. cant. on the road to Coulommiers, within a short distance of Paris. Pop., in 1846, 3,778. Vincennes owes its origin to Philip Augustus, who surrounded the wood of its name with walls, and built at one of its extremities a royal residence, on the site of which, in 1339, the present castle was erected. This castle continued to be a place of resort for the French kings till the time of Louis XI., when it was made a state prison, a destination which it retained, with little intermission, till 1784; the great Condé, Diderot, and Mirabeau, having been among the number of those confined within its walls. Under Napoleon it again served the same purpose, and here, on the 21st of March, 1804, the Duke d'Enghien was shot. The castle of Vincennes is of an oblong form, about 360 yards in length by 210 in breadth, surrounded by deep ditches, and entered by two drawbridges. The keep is a square tower, five stories in height, with four turrets, and a balcony outside the fourth story. The chapel, founded by Charles V. in 1379, but mostly rebuilt under his successors, is a rich Gothic edifice, with some fine stained glass. The *casar royale* is surrounded by modern buildings, in which are some well furnished apartments, and a large collection of arms. In the fosse, a plain column of red granite, on a foot of black marble, and bearing the inscription, "*Hic cecidit*," points out the spot where the Duke d'Enghien met his fate. The wood of Vincennes, comprising about 1,500 acres, is, with the town, a good deal resorted to by the Parisians on holidays, particularly the *fête patronale*, on the 1st of August. (*Guide de l'étranger en France; Hugo, &c.*)

VINCENT (ST.), a town of the W. India islands, belonging to Great Britain, in the centre of the Windward group, about lat. 13° 10' N., and long. 60° 37' W., 31 m. S.S.W. St. Lucia, and 108 m. W. Barbadoes. It is of an elliptical shape, 17 m. in length, and from 7 to 8 m. in mean breadth. Area, about 85,000 acres. Pop., by last census, 27,558; of whom 23,000 were blacks. The centre of the island is occupied by a lofty range of mountains, which in some parts attain the height of 4,000 ft.; but the mountains decline rapidly towards the sea; and there are some considerable and well-watered valleys, the soil of which, consisting of a fine black mould of sand and clay, is especially adapted for the culture of sugar. In the upper grounds the soil is light and sandy. St. Vincent is of volcanic origin, and a tremendous eruption of one of its mountains, in 1812, occasioned great mischief. The mountains are clothed from their base to their summits with immense forest trees; but the ground having every where the advantage of a gradual slope, and there being little jungle or brush-wood, vegetation is not impeded. The valleys also are sufficiently wide, and free from excessive vegetation, to give a healthy character even to the uncultivated portion of the island; and there is little swampy ground, except in a few places near the sea. Only about one-third part of its surface is under cultivation. The atmosphere is generally humid, and the dews heavy; but notwithstanding, St. Vincent is justly considered one of the most healthy of the W. India islands. (*Tulloch's Rep.*) We subjoin

An Account of the principal Articles of Produce Imported into the U. Kingdom from St. Vincent during each of the Three Years ending with 1849.

Articles.	1847.	1848.	1849.
Sugar - cwt.	175,615	144,116	163,176
Rum - cwt.	30,264	15,965	37,599
Clam - galls.	264,222	127,724	194,947
Coffee - lbs.	1,133	1,133	1,133
Cocoa - lbs.	73,187	71,952	8,559

The government is vested in a governor, a council of 12, and an assembly of 19 mems. Representatives of the House of Assembly must have an income of 300*l.* a year, or, if representing the town of Kingston, a house in that town of the yearly value of 100*l.* Electors must possess a freehold of 10 acres, worth 40*l.* a year in Kingston, or 10*l.* a year elsewhere. St. Vincent, with its dependency, the Grenadines, is divided into 6 par. Kingston, the cap. lies at the bottom of a bay, near the S.W. extremity of the island, with an amphitheatre of wooded hills in its rear. The troops, amounting to nearly 900 men, are principally quartered at Fort Charlotte, on a very steep hill, about 1½ m. N.W. the town, and 600 ft. above the level of the sea.

St. Vincent was discovered by Columbus, but was inhabited only by Caribs till the latter part of the 17th century, when a slave ship from Guinea having run ashore on the island the blacks mostly escaped, and settling here became in the sequel the most formidable enemies of the Caribs. It subsequently fell into the hands of the French, who ceded it to the English in 1763. In 1779, it was re-captured by the French; but it reverted, in 1783, to Great Britain. The sum awarded, in 1835, for the manumission of the slaves in St. Vincent amounted to 592,505*l.* (*Edwards's West Indies; Tudock's Rep. on the Health of the Troops in the W. Indies; Parl. Papers, &c.*)

VINCENT (CAPE ST.), the *Sacrum Promontorium* of the ancients, a promontory forming the S.W. extremity of Portugal, prov. Algarve, 110 m. S. Lisbon, lat. 37° 2' 54" N. long. 8° 59' 36" W. This cape is celebrated in naval history for the great victory gained in its vicinity on the 14th of February, 1797, by the British fleet, under Sir John Jervis, over a Spanish fleet. The British fleet comprised only 15, whereas that of the Spaniards amounted to 27 sail of the line. But notwithstanding this disparity, the latter were completely defeated, with the loss of two ships of 112, one of 84, and one of 74 guns. The victorious admiral, in acknowledgment of his gallantry and success, was elevated to the peerage by the title of Earl St. Vincent.

VIRE, a town of France, dep. Calvados, cap. arrond. near the source of the river of its own name, 35 m. S.W. Caen. Pop. in 1846, inc. comm., 7,315. It is well-built, principally on the declivity of a hill, on the summit of which is the Foundling Asylum, and at the base the general hospital; on the ascent, among other buildings, are the court-house, sub-prefecture, town-hall, and new prison, with a handsome square. In the middle ages, Vire had a castle, of which some remains still exist; but the greater part of its site is occupied by the town-hall and a planted promenade. The principal church is a fine Gothic building. A great deal of activity prevails in Vire, which has manufactures of coarse and fine woollens, woollen yarn, paper of all kinds, needles, and other steel articles, horn articles, &c., with tanneries and fulling mills. It has tribunals of primary jurisdiction, and commerce, a chamber of manufactures, council of *prud'hommes*, communal college, and public library. Duhamel, and some other eminent personages, were natives of Vire. (*Hugo, art. Calvados; Dict. Encyc.*)

VIRGINIA, one of the states comprised in the republic of U. States, being the most extensive in the Union, on the Atlantic, between lat. 36½° and 41° N., and long. 77° and 84° W., having N. and N.E. Pennsylvania and Maryland, from which last it is separated by the Potomac. N.W. Ohio, the river of the same name forming the boundary. W. Kentucky, S. Tennessee and N. Carolina, and E. Chesapeake bay and the Atlantic. Length, E. to W., about 350 m.; average breadth, nearly 300 m. Area estimated at about 61,400 sq. m. Pop. in 1850 about 1,400,000, of whom 400,000 were slaves. The Alleghany, Blue, and other mountains traverse this state from N. to S. in several parallel ranges, forming its centre into a table land, which in some parts rises to nearly 6,000 feet in height. The western portion of the state is also very mountainous. "The extreme western part is, indeed, composed of a congeries of hills with alluvial bottoms; but the actual mountain ridges encroach so near Ohio river, and the hills are in themselves so generally abrupt and lofty as to give an alpine appearance to the country." (*Darby's U. States*, 616.)

The rivers may be divided into those that flow into the Atlantic, and those that join the Ohio. The Potomac rises in lat. 39° 12' N.; it flows at first N.E. to about lat. 39° 50' N., and thence in a S.E. direction into Chesapeake bay, which it enters 70 m., in a direct line, below Washington, after a course of about 360 m. It receives its principal affluent, the Shenandoah, from the S.W., at the celebrated mountain-pass of Harper's Ferry, where it breaks through the Blue Mountains, amid some of the grandest scenery of the U. States. The Potomac is navigable for ships of any burthen to Alexandria, upwards of 100 m. from its mouth, being the most distant point from the ocean at which ships of war can be navigated in the interior of the Union. James river, on which the cap. of Virginia is built, rises in and flows through the

centre of this state to Chesapeake bay, being navigable for vessels of 140 tons to Richmond, 100 m. from its mouth. Over one of its affluents, about 25 m. N.W. Lynchburg, is a stupendous natural bridge, 90 feet in length, across a chasm above 300 feet in depth. Mr. Jefferson says, that it is impossible for the emotions arising from the sublime to be felt more intensely than by this spectacle, looking from the bottom of the chasm. "So beautiful an arch, so elevated, so light, and springing as it were, up to heaven it must be seen to be described." (*Notes*, 36.) The Roanoke lies partly within the state; the Rappahannock, York, and Nottoway, are the other principal streams on the Atlantic side. The chief affluent of the Ohio is the Great Kenawah, which rises in N. Carolina, joins the Ohio at Point Pleasant in Virginia, and is navigable to Charleston, 60 m. from its mouth. Darby says, that "Virginia, next to Georgia and Illinois, has the greatest range of lat. of any of the U. States, and it may be doubted if it do not exceed even Georgia in extremes of temperature. The countries on the Chesapeake are much warmer than those in the interior, as is strongly manifested in their vegetation."

As regards surface and soil, Virginia may be divided into 4 sections. The E., or sea-board section, extending about 100 m. inland, or to the head of the tide waters, is generally low and level, but sandy and unproductive, parts of it being mere swamps, and exhibiting almost as desolate an appearance as the pine barrens of New Jersey. The second section, which includes the country between the latter and the Blue Mountains, is, perhaps, the most productive; the alluvial lands along the rivers in this part of the state are, for the most part, very fine; those of James' river especially being remarkable for their fertility. The third section includes the valley between the Blue ridge and the Alleghany Mountains, and, though in parts broken by mountains, has a great deal of fine fertile land. The fourth section includes the country between the Alleghany chain and the Ohio; this portion is in general wild and broken, and is in great part covered by primeval forests. But it also contains large tracts of fine land, with vast deposits of coal, ironstone, salt, &c.

The wheat of Virginia is inferior, but maize, cotton, tobacco, and numerous fruits attain to perfection. In 1848, the official returns state, that upwards of 38 million bushels maize were reaped in this state, being more than was produced in any of the Eastern States of the Union: during the same year, there were also reaped 12,250,000 bushels wheat, and 11,000,000 bushels oats. Tobacco is, however, the principal crop in the E. part of the state, and, here, in 1848, the produce is stated to have been 45,000,000 lbs.; but lately this crop has been rapidly declining.

Jefferson, in his Notes on Virginia, one of the ablest works of its class that has ever been published, speaks in very disparaging terms of the culture of tobacco. He says "that it is suitable only for the very finest lands, which it rapidly impoverishes," that it "is productive of infinite wretchedness," and that the individuals engaged in it "are in a continued state of exertion, beyond the powers of nature to support." (*Notes*, &c., p. 278, ed. Lond. 1787.) Probably this statement may be a little overcharged, but there can be no doubt of its being substantially accurate; and, in fact, the culture of tobacco in this state has, for a lengthened period, been retrograding.

The culture of cotton is carried on to some, though to no great, extent; the quantity produced in 1848 being rated at only 2,800,000 lbs.; some wine is made; and small quantities of sugar are obtained, partly from the cane, and partly from the maple. (*Official Returns for 1848*.) Agriculture in most parts of the state is in a very depressed and backward state; and the crops are very inferior, compared to what they might be under a different system. Land that has been cleared is usually cropped without intermission or manure, till it is exhausted, when it is left to recover itself. Elsewhere the *three shift* system frequently prevails, by which a crop of maize in one year is succeeded by one of wheat, rye, or oats in the next; and this not by a fallow, but by a year of rest, during which weeds and other herbage, the spontaneous produce of the soil, affords a scanty subsistence to a few half-fed cattle. In parts of the country, however, and especially on the Potomac, some improvements have been made in agriculture; and W. of the mountains along the Ohio are some well irrigated meadows. In 1840, the stock of cattle was estimated at about a million head, and of sheep at 1,300,000; the produce of wool was about 3,666,000 lbs., a quantity inferior only to that produced in New York. The mineral riches of Virginia are of first-rate importance. Coal is very widely diffused; the bituminous on the W., and the semi-bituminous and anthracite on the E. side of the mountains. The beds of coal are in many places from 30 to 60 ft. thick, and alternate sometimes with dense beds of iron ore. The coal in the Richmond basin is rather extensively wrought, and the works

at New Carron furnish considerable quantities of iron. Gypsum, magnesia, alum, and petroleum, are among the mineral products; and from 1829 to 1840 gold to the value of 578,595 dollars was sent to the mint of the U. States. The region, including Spotylvania and some other counties, where the gold is found, abounds in quartz, containing cubes of sulphure of iron, often partly or totally decomposed, the cells of which are sometimes filled with gold. The latter is found also on the surface, especially of slate, and in its fissures. The metal is obtained by filtration, or washing the earth, and by an amalgam of quicksilver. On the whole, however, the search after gold here, as in most other parts of the U. States, has not been very productive, and it is doubtful whether it will ever be of any importance. There are numerous salt, and other mineral, springs; those on the Kenhawah furnishing a very large supply of salt.

The manufactures of Virginia are unimportant; but Richmond and Lynchburg are commercial towns of some eminence. The value of its imports from foreign states during the year ending the 30th June, 1849, amounted to 241,935 doll., and that of the exports during the same year to 2,373,734 do. The board of public works in this state had, in 1825, a fund of 3,229,000 doll., and has effected some valuable internal improvements. The Potomac is connected with the Roanoke by railways through Fredericksburg, Richmond, and Petersburg, forming a line 157 m. in length: a line 13 m. in length extends from Richmond to the Chesterfield coal mines; and another line is intended, and is probably in progress, to connect Lynchburg with the Tennessee line across the Alleghany mountains. Several canals are completed; the principal being the James' river and Kenhawah canal, 175 m. in length.

The present form of government, adopted in 1830, vests the legislative authority in a General Assembly, consisting of a Senate of 23 mems., chosen every 4 years, and a House of Delegates of 124 mems. elected annually. The Governor and Council of State are chosen every 3 years. The right of suffrage is exercised by every white male citizen of full age possessing freehold property to the value of 25 doll., or having a reversionary title to land of the value of 50 doll., and who has been a householder for 13 months previously to the election. The General Assembly meets annually at Richmond in December. The State sends 15 representatives to Congress. Virginia is divided into 119 cos. and 10 judicial districts: Richmond on James' river is the cap. and seat of gov.; Williamsburg, Fredericksburg, Charlottesville, Lynchburg, and Lexington, are the other principal towns. Courts of appeal sit once a year at Lewisburg for W., and at Richmond for E., Virginia, and a circuit Superior Court of Law and Chancery is held twice a year in each co. and corporation. The state militia, in 1850, comprised 124,302 men. The public revenue in 1848 amounted to 1,315,440 doll., and the expenditure to nearly as much; total public debt in the same year 15,909,981 doll.

Virginia has several colleges and other seminaries. The university at Charlottesville, established in 1819, has a library with 16,000 vols., and in 1848-1849 was attended by 213 students. The college of William and Mary, estab. by the Baptists in 1691, is, excepting Harvard college, the oldest institution of the kind in the Union. The Washington college at Lexington, founded in 1812, was at the same period attended by 81 students. There are many other superior schools and academies, and, in 1849, there were in the state 3,294 common schools attended, besides others, by 26,472 poor children. An historical and philosophical society was formed in 1832. Baptists and Methodists are the prevailing religious sects, next to whom Presbyterians are the most numerous; there are but few R. Catholics, Friends, Unitarians, and Jews. Nearly the whole of the Baptist association consists either of coloured persons or slaves. The importance of Virginia has, in consequence of the rapid growth of other states, declined rapidly since the Revolution. The principal towns are Richmond, the capital, with, in 1840, a pop. of 30,143; Petersburg, 11,126; and Norfolk, 10,930. (*Jefferson's Notes on Virginia*; *Darby, View of the U.S.*; *American Almanac for 1850*; *Encyclopedia Americana*, &c.)

Virginia was the seat of the earliest colony planted by the English in the States' territory, a part of it having been settled in 1607. Its name, given in honour of Queen Elizabeth, was originally applied to the whole E. coast of N. America. The first legislature of Virginia met in 1619. Notwithstanding serious disputes with the Stuarts, Virginia supported the royal cause in the civil wars; and Charles II. was proclaimed here before the news of his restoration had arrived from England. Among the distinguished natives of Virginia is the immortal Washington, the father of American independence, born in Westmoreland co., on the 11th of February, 1732. It is also the native country of Jefferson, the author of the "Declaration of Independence," and of the "Notes on Virginia," and president of the Union.

VISTULA (Germ. *Weichsel*), one of the great rivers of central Europe, flowing from S. to N. through Poland. The basin of the Vistula is situated between those of the Elbe to the W., the Niemen and Dniester to the N.E. and N., and the Dnieper to the S.E. It rises in Moravia, in a branch of the Carpathians, close on the frontier of Galicia, and about 30 m. S.E. Teschen; and at a short distance from its source is precipitated over a fall 180 ft. in height. It proceeds at first N. for about 40 m., and then turns to the E., separating Silesia, the territory of Cracow, and the kingdom of Poland on the N. from Galicia on the S. Shortly after passing Sandomir it again flows northward, which course it retains through the centre of Poland to beyond Warsaw. It now turns W. N. W., and pursues generally the same direction to the influx of the Braa, 20 m. from Thorn; after which its course varies little from N. N. E. to its mouth in the Baltic. Its entire length is estimated at 550 m. It receives a vast number of tributaries, the principal of which are the Nida, Kamlenka, Pilica, the Braa, from the W.; and the San, Wieprz, and Bug*, with its tributaries, from the E. At Cracow it is only about 150 ft. in width; at Warsaw it is crossed by a bridge of boats 1,500 ft. in length. After receiving the Bug, a stream nearly equal in size to itself, at Modlin, it proceeds generally in a very wide channel past Plock, Thorn, Culm, and Marienwerder, about 15 m. below which last, and about 30 m. from the Baltic, it divides into two great arms, the most easterly of which, called the *Nogat*, flows past Marienburg and Elbing into the Frische Haft. The W. arm, or main stream, subdivides again at about 16 m. from the sea, the E. branch falling into the Frische Haft, and the W. making a long detour round by Dantzig. It is said, however, that during some heavy floods in the autumn of 1840 the eastern arm of the river opened for itself a direct course to the Baltic; a result which it is said the Prussian gov. had contemplated effecting by artificial means. This river is of very considerable commercial importance, being, as it were, the great highway of the extensive countries through which it flows; the channel by which their wheat, timber, and other products are conveyed to Dantzig and Elbing for exportation, and by which they receive supplies of colonial and other foreign produce. As it flows for the most part through a level country, it is navigable throughout the greater part of its extent. "Large flat-bottomed boats convey the produce of the countries through which it passes to the port of Dantzig, and Warsaw is thus placed in direct communication with the Baltic; while, by means of the navigation of the *Nogat*, the colonial produce imported into Königsberg finds a ready access to Poland, Moravia, and Hungary." (*Grassville's Travels*, i. 245.) The Vistula is connected with the Elbe by a canal from the Braa to the Netz, between Bromberg and Nakel; and with the Niemen by means of the canal of Angustowo. (*Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

VITERBO a city of central Italy, Papal States, cap. deleg. of same name, in the Campagna, and on the road between Rome and Sienna, 37½ m. N. N. E. the former. Pop. stated by Rampoldi to be little short of 15,000. It is well built, with volcanic tufa, and well paved, having a large and handsome square, 16 par. churches, and numerous noble residences, and public fountains. Woods says it is a curious looking city, with an abundance of caverns in the perpendicular faces of the rocks, bordering a little valley passing through it. The cathedral has a range of columns on each side, with grotesque capitals supporting semicircular arches. The Trinita is a handsome modern church, in the form of a Latin cross, with a dome in the centre. The church of St. Francis is a large building; the transept has pointed vaulting, and there are 2 fine archways of the pointed style, leading into chapels, and some Gothic tombs. It boasts also a painting by Sebastian del Piombo, from designs by Michael Angelo. (*Letters of an Architect*, i. 325.) The pontifical palace is a fine building, and the seat of a cardinal legate, and a court of primary jurisdiction. It has no manufactures worthy of notice; though alum, vitriol, sulphur, and other volcanic products are obtained in its neighbourhood, which abounds with mineral springs.

Viterbo is supposed to occupy the site of the *Fanum Voltumnae*, the place where the general assembly of the Etruscan nations was held on solemn occasions. The modern town was encircled with turreted walls by Desiderius, the last king of the Lombards. It has been the residence of numerous popes, several of whom are buried in its churches. In its vicinity are many villas belonging to some of the more opulent Roman families. (*Rampoldi's Woods*; *Cramer's Anc. Italy*.)

VITRE, a town of France, dép. Vienne, cap. arrond., on the Vitaine, 22 m. W. Rennes. Pop., in 1846, comm. 8,237. It is enclosed by walls of Gothic character and flanked by round towers. Vitre is ill built, dirty,

* This river must not be confounded with the S. Bug (an. *Hypasis*), respecting which see *Eux* in this Dict., i. 428.

artist, and destitute of any public promenade; though the environs are agreeable, and in the vicinity are two parks open to the public. About 14 m. S. from the town is the Chateau des Rochers, the seat of Madame de Sévigné, the most accomplished of letter writers, who sometimes also occupied a house in the town. Near the town are also the ruins of the castle, formerly belonging to the Dukes de la Trimoiselle. The peasantry of the neighbourhood wear winter cloaks of goat-skins, which, with cotton hosiery, sail cloth, flannels, leather, and barrels are among the principal articles manufactured in Vitry. Wax, honey, and cantharides are here considerable articles of trade, and the town has no fewer than 22 annual fairs. Savary, the traveller, was a native of Vitry, where he first saw the light in 1750. (*Hugo, art. Ille et Velaine.*)

VITRY-LE-FRANCOIS, a town of France, *dép.* Marne, cap. arrond., on the Marne, 80 m. S. E. Châlons. Pop., in 1846, inc. comm., 7,412. Is square shaped, and is inclosed by earth ramparts, and bastions, outside which is a deep moat. It is tolerably well laid out; and though most of its houses are old and unimproving, it has a good many new buildings erected since the peace. Its church, an edifice in the Corinthian and Composite styles, was the earliest of any consequence built after the restoration of the arts, in the time of Francis I., under whom this town was founded. Vitry has a good public hall and theatre, and agreeable public walks, with some manufactures of cotton yarn and hosiery, hats, leather, &c. (*Hugo, Dict. Gén., &c.*)

VITTORIA (Span. *Vitoria*), a town of Spain in Biscay, cap. prov., on the high road between Burgos and Bayonne, 60 m. N. W. the former. Pop. estimated by Mifano at 12,000. It consists of an old and a new town, very different in appearance; the latter being clean and handsome, while the former is quite the contrary. The *Plaza Nueva*, a square, which, according to Inglish, is little inferior to the *Place Vendôme* in Paris, has arcades at its sides, under which are very good shops: the S. side is occupied by the town hall, and the N. side serves for a market place. The hall of the Biscayan Society, orphan asylum, and general hospital are among the principal edifices. Vittoria has a collegiate and four par. churches, six conventual establishments, a school of design, public library, cabinet of coins and Roman antiquities, post-house, &c. Its manufactures comprise chairs and cabinet furniture, copper utensils, earthenware, cutlery, linens, &c., and being one of the principal entrepôts for the trade between Navarre and Old Castile, and the ports of St. Sebastian and Bilbao, it has a considerable traffic in iron, wool, woollen and silk fabrics, articles of clothing, and colonial produce. In modern times, Vittoria is famous for the decisive victory gained in its vicinity, on the 21st of June, 1812, by the Anglo-Spanish army, under the Duke of Wellington, over a French army commanded by King Joseph and Marshal Jourdan. Though the loss of men in the battle was nearly equal, the French were totally defeated, with the loss of all their artillery, baggage, ammunition, and treasure, and obliged to make a rapid retreat across the Pyrenees; this battle having all but annihilated their power in Spain. (*Napier's Peninsular War*, v. 555-560.)

VIZAGAPATAM, a sea-port town of British India, presid. Madras, coast of Coromandel, cap. of a district of same name, in the N. Circars, at the mouth of a small river, lat. 17° 42' 30" N., long. 83° 24' E. It is not a place of any strength, its only defensive works being a thick wall inclosing the Zillah court house, hospital, other European buildings, and a bazar in the centre of the town. The barracks and other public edifices are outside this wall. A good many well-built houses stretch along the shore; but the great salubrity of the town has driven most of the colonial produce. In modern times, Walthier, a village at some little distance. (*Hamilton's E. I. Gazetteer.*)

VLADIMIR, a government of European Russia, between the 55th and 57th degs. of N. lat., and the 38th and 43d of E. long., having N. Jaroslavl and Kostroma, E. Nijni Novgorod, W. Tver, and S. Moscow, Riazan, and Tambov. Area estimated at 17,600 sq. m. Pop. in 1846, 1,346,500. Surface almost a level plain, watered by numerous rivers, the principal being the Oka in the E., the Volga in the W., and the Kiazma, a tributary of the Oka, in the centre; all of which have, more or less, a N. E. course. The soil is not generally fertile, and a large part of the government is covered with forests, marshes, pools, and heaths. Rye, barley, oats, summer and winter wheat, millet, pea-seed, hemp, and flax are grown; but the crops of corn are insufficient for the consumption. The gardens and orchards are pretty numerous and well attended to; and Vladimir is famous for its cherries and apples. A good many cucumbers and some hops are raised. Cattle rearing is a secondary business, and is far behind. The forests are of vast extent, those belonging to the crown alone covering about one ninth part of the entire surface. Extensive and valu-

able beds of iron ore have been found in the forest of Mourom; and at Vixa, on the Oka, are some of the most extensive iron-works in Russia. (*Lepell's Russia*, II. 231-232.) The poverty of the soil, and other concurring circumstances, have turned the attention of the inhabitants towards manufactures, which appear to have succeeded better in this than in most other Russian governments. In 1830, the manufacturing establishments in the government employed 48,176 workmen. The cotton manufacture, which is by far the most extensive, is principally carried on at Choula and Ivanova, where it employed, in 1838, 18,613 looms, and 24,257 work-people. It would seem, however, that this and other branches of industry have rapidly increased in the interval; for the official returns show that, in 1839, 316 factories afforded employment to 63,565 work-people, being little short of double the number employed in the government in 1830-1. The manufacture of woollens and laces is of less importance; but about 4,000 hands are employed in iron foundries; and about 1,300 in glass and crystal works, exclusive of those employed in the production of leather, earthenware, &c. The various products of the government are sent down the Kiazma and Oka, or else to Moscow, by means of land carriage. Corn, cotton-twist, and flax from the neighbouring governments of Kostroma, Jaroslavl, and Nijni Novgorod, are the chief articles of import. Vladimir is divided into 12 districts; chief towns, Vladimir, the cap. Choula, and Mourom. Total public revenue about 4,000,000 roubles.

VLADIMIR, a town of European Russia, cap. of the above government, near the Kiazma, and on one of its small tributaries, 110 m. E. by N. Moscow; lat. 56° 7' 30" N., long. 40° 21' 49" E. Pop. estimated at 7,000. (*Pasport.*) Vladimir occupies a site rather more elevated than the rest of its government. It is surrounded by a ditch and earth rampart, and like almost all the ancient towns of Russia is divided into 3 portions. Its principal street is long, wide, and lined with houses, of wood and stone intermixed. The cross streets are mostly mean. The principal streets are the cathedral of the Assumption, a square edifice, surmounted by 5 domes, and richly ornamented inside, though much less magnificent than formerly. There are about a dozen other churches. The former palace of the archbishop now serves for a seminary. The governor's house, court-house, gymnasium, a nunnery, &c., are brick edifices. Vladimir is not considered a wealthy town or a principal emporium, owing partly to its distance from any large navigable river, and partly to the proximity of Moscow. Being, however, on the great road to the fairs of Nijni Novgorod and Irbit, and on the grand line of communication between Russia and Siberia, it often presents a busy and cheerful aspect. Some of its suburbs are occupied in making linen cloths and leather; and many others in the cultivation of fruit, particularly cherries, which are grown in great quantities in the neighbourhood. The era of its foundation is uncertain; some authors place it in the 10th, and others in the 12th century. Vladimir was, however, the cap. of the Grand Duchy of Russia from 1157 till 1238, when that distinction was transferred to Moscow. (*Lepell's Trav. in Russia; Pasport; Schmitzer, &c.*)

VOGHERRA, a town of N. Italy, Sardinian div., Alessandria, cap. prov., in the efforts, 21 m. E. by N. Alessandria. Pop., in 1838, 10,705. It is well built, is surrounded by walls, has a good market place, a magnificent collegiate church, a Jesuit's college, several monasteries, large barracks, and a good hospital. It is the residence of a governor, and the seat of a provincial court of justice; it has an active trade in corn, wine, and silk. (*Rampoldi, &c.*)

VOLCANO. See LIPARI ISLANDS.

VOLHYNIA, a gov. of European Russia, formerly comprised in the kingdom of Poland; principally between the 50th and 54th degs. of N. lat., and the 26th and 29th of E. long., having N. W. and N. the gov. of Grodno, and Minsk, E. and S. E. Kiev, S. Podolia, S. W. Austrian Poland, and W. the palatinate of Lublin. Area estimated at 27,500 sq. m. Pop. in 1846, 1,445,500. It is in general an undulating plain; and the hills, which are the last ramifications of the Carpathians, though they no where rise to 300 ft. above the sea, give an agreeable variety to the scenery. The Bug rises in this prov.; the other principal rivers are the Styr, Gorynie, &c. tributaries of the Priprya. Along some of these are extensive marshes and beds of turf; but in general the land is very fertile, producing, at an average, a considerable surplus of corn above the consumption. A good deal of flax and hemp is also grown. Agriculture is, however, not more advanced than in the rest of Russian Poland, and the gardens and orchards, particularly the former, are much neglected. The climate, though comparatively mild, is not warm enough for the vine. The forests comprise oak, beech, fir, pines, &c., and are very extensive, though only about 44,784 hectares of forest land belong to the crown. The pastures are excellent, and well adapted for the fattening of cattle; a good many sheep,

hogs, and poultry are kept. Volyhna has a breed of horses smaller than the generality of those of Poland. Fishing is an occupation of some importance; bog-iron, mill-stones, potter's clay, vitre, and flint are among the mineral products. Though agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabitants, the manufacturing industry of Volyhna is greater than that of most other parts of Russian Poland. The women, almost everywhere spin and weave different fabrics; and leather, glass, and earthenware, paper, potash, tar, charcoal, &c., are generally made. The principal exports are, however, corn, cattle, hides, flour, wool, wax, honey, and other rural produce. In 1855, the value of the exports was estimated at about 12,165,000 roubles, and that of the imports at 14,073,000 do. The trade is principally in the hands of the Jews, of whom there are about 40,000 in the gov. The rest of the pop. consists of Ruzsliaks, with Poles in the towns, and some Great Russian, gypsies, Tartars, Moldavians, and Germans. The inhabitants are mostly of the Greek, or united church. Volyhna is divided into 13 districts; principal town, Zytomir or Jitomir, the cap. A large annual fair is held at Easter at Berdichef. Public education appears to be less backward in this than in most of the Russian governments; and in 1852, besides the government printing-press, there were 6 others, and a lithographic press. Volyhna, like Podolia, is subordinate to the military governor of Kief, but is one of the Polish provinces, which preserve in some degree, its ancient constitution and laws. (*Schmitzler, La Russie; Possart, Das Kaiserth; Russland, &c.*)

VOLOGDA, the largest government of European Russia, after that of Archangel, between the 58th and 64th degs. of N. lat., and the 38th and 60th of E. long., having N. Archangel, W. Olonetz and Novgorod, S. Jaroslavl, Kostroma, and Viatka, and E. the Uralian Mountains, separating it from Tobolsk. Area estimated at upwards of 147,000 sq. m. Pop. in 1846, 822,200. Except in the E. where it is divided with the Uralian Mts., the surface generally is an undulating plain, comprised in the basin of the N. Dvina, which is its largest river. The general slope is accordingly to the N.W. In the S. and S.W. the soil is fertile, but elsewhere it is sandy or thin, and the greater part of the surface is covered with marshes and forests of pine, birch, oak, &c. Though the climate varies with the situation, it is, speaking generally, very severe: it is far, however, from being unhealthy, and instances of longevity are frequent. The grains principally cultivated are rye and barley; but the produce of corn is insufficient for the consumption. Hemp, flax, and hops succeed, as do beans and peas. Cattle and horses are numerous and good; but a large part of the government being uncultivated and in a state of nature, the chase necessarily occupies much attention. The forests, which are its principal source of wealth, are of great extent, those of the crown only covering 20,585,000 deciatines of land. Granite, marble, oak, flint, copper, and iron are all obtained in Vologda. In 1834, there were 114 manufacturing establishments, principally for woollen and linen fabrics, soap, leather, potash, glass wares, and paper. Distillation is also very extensively carried on. Furs, tallow, pitch, wooden articles, moss and timber, turpentine and other raw products are the great articles of export; being sent, for the most part, into the governments of Archangel and Tobolsk. The pop. is principally Russian, but include some Zyrians or Surjans of Finnish stock; and in the N. are some wandering Samoyede tribes. Public instruction, owing to the thinness of the pop., is necessarily very limited; but it has been materially increased of late years. This territory is divided into 10 districts: the chief towns are Vologda, the cap., and Ustjug-Velik.

VOLOGDA, a town of European Russia, cap. of the above government; near its S.W. extremity, 24° m. E. by S. Petersburg; lat. $60^{\circ} 12' 30''$ N. long. $40^{\circ} 21' 15''$ E. Pop. in 1834 estimated at 14,000. It is built on both sides the river Vologda, and is supposed to be one of the most ancient towns in Russia. Most part of its houses are still of wood, but the buildings in stone are increasing, and several of its churches are of that material. It has two cathedrals, one of which was rebuilt in 1832. The palaces of the archbishop and governor, the prison, gymnasium, hospital, various asylums, and an episcopal seminary, are conspicuous edifices. Near the town is a famous convent, founded in 1371.

Vologda has manufactures of soap, potash, cordage, bells, and tallow candles; for which last it is famous over all the N. of Russia. Its trade is considerable, which is principally with the Baltic, Germany, and England; and also with Siberia, to the boundaries of the Chinese empire. (*Possart; Schmitzler, &c.*)

VOLTERRA (an *Volaterræ*), a town of central Italy, in Tuscany, prov. Pisa, on a steep hill near a small tributary of the Cecina, 33 m. S.W. Florence. Pop. including its suburbs, about 5,000. It has a citadel, now used as state prison; a hospital, a cathedral, and many other

churches; a very tolerable inn, a large and fine town-hall, a theatre, a Parlat college, and a seminary. Its inhabs. are principally agriculturists, but a few of them are engaged in the manufacture of earthenware vases and plaster figures.

Even if we had not the express authority of Dion. Halicarnassus, (iii. 51.), for assigning to Volterra a place among the 12 principal cities of ancient Etruria, the extent of its remains, its massive walls, vast sepulchral chambers, and numerous objects of Etruscan art, would alone suffice to show its antique splendour and importance, and claim for it that rank. Its walls were formed, as may yet be seen, of huge massive stones piled on each other without cement; and their circuit, which is still distinctly marked, embraced a circumference of between 3 and 4 m. (*Cramer's Anc. Italy*, i. 185.) Two of its oldest gates are still in existence: one, called the Gate of Hercules, consisting of 2 arches, is in a very perfect state, and the other leads to an ancient Etruscan burial ground, in which are some remarkable tombs. Under the Romans it was a colony and a municipium, and the walls of the modern town, 2 m. in circuit, are said to have been built by the emperor Otho, and are still in good preservation. There are several other Roman antiquities, including a *piscina* and what are called the baths of Otho. Volterra has also a public museum, containing numerous remains of antiquity discovered in the neighbourhood. Persius, the satirist, is generally supposed to have been a native of Volterra, where he is said to have been born a.d. 51. (*Rampoldi; Cramer's Anc. Italy, &c.*)

VORONEJE, or VORONETZ, a gov. of European Russia, between lat. $48^{\circ} 40'$ and 53° N., and 38° and 45° E. long.; having N. the govs. Riazan and Tambov; E. Saratov and the territory of the Don Cossacks; S. the latter and the gov. of Ekaterinofslaf; and W. Kharkoff, Koursk, and Orlof. Area estimated at 25,600 sq. m. Pop. in 1846, 1,857,900. Surface undulating, and soil in general good; this being, in fact, one of the most productive govs. in the empire. Principal rivers, the Don and some of its tributaries. Climate comparatively mild; the rivers being covered with ice for only two or three months of the year, and the gov. producing most of the products of temperate climates. Of 6,876,000 deciatines (1 deciat = 27 acres) comprised in the gov., the arable lands have been estimated to include 2,711,800, pasture lands, 2,818,000 do., and forests, 620,758 do. In good years a surplus is raised of about 1,400,000 chetverts of corn beyond the home consumption. Besides wheat, peas, and beans, poppies, tobacco, hemp, and flax are grown; and, in the gardens, melons, cucumbers, onions, &c. in large quantities. Water melons, indeed, are cultivated for the markets of Moscow and Petersburg, being planted in open fields covering whole acres of land. In some parts canes and reeds are used for fuel, but in general the forests furnish a sufficient supply of fire-wood. Oaks are numerous and luxuriant; pine woods are few. In 1832, the cattle in the gov. were estimated at 560,000 head; the sheep at nearly a million, and 11,600 horses were kept in 33 studs. Honey is an important product. Iron, limestone, and saltpetre are among the minerals. Manufactures of coarse woollens and other fabrics are rapidly increasing, having more than doubled between 1821 and 1835. The number of distilleries decreased during the same period; but we are not aware whether the production of spirits has undergone any corresponding decrease. The exports from the gov. consist principally of corn, cattle, skins, honey and wax, fruits, &c.

This gov. is divided into 13 districts: chief town, Voroneje, the cap. Except a colony of Germans near Ostrogojok and some gypsies, the pop. consists in the S. of Cossacks and White Russians, in the N. of Great Russians. Voroneje is under the same governor-general with Riazan, Orlof, Tambov, and Saratov. The revenue of the crown from this gov. amounts to about 15,000,000 roubles.

VORONEJE, a town of Russia, cap. of the above gov., on the river of the same name, near its confluence with the Don, and 290 m. S.S.E. Moscow. Pop. 18,600. (*Possart*.) It stands on a steep height, and might easily be rendered a fortress of some strength, as it is not commanded by any other hill, and is partly surrounded by a marsh for several months of the year. It consists of three portions, the upper town, lower town, and suburbs. "It has some spacious streets, but a great many which are very mean; the suburbs are as black and gloomy as a country village. The principal street has a noble appearance, its sides being lined with massy and handsome edifices, many of them the property of the crown, as the governor's and vice-governor's houses, the tribunals, post-office, commissariat academy, &c. The Moscow (Moskovskaya) street is also very fine, and in it are the archbishop's palace, with an adjoining cathedral. The shops, or bazars, are very respectable." (*Lyall's Trav. II. 303*.)

Voroneje has 18 stone churches, 3 convents, an exchange, or *gostinnoi-dvor*, for the warehousing, exhibition, and sale of merchandise, an episcopal semi-

nary, schools for the children of the clergy, military, civil employes, and citizens, a hospital for 310 sick persons, military orphan asylum, &c. It is one of the most flourishing towns in the S. of Russia; and its merchants carry on a lucrative trade with the Black Sea, Crimea, and Turkey, and travel annually to Tobolsk, to buy furs, which they afterwards take to the great German fairs. The town has also some soap, tallow, leather and woollen cloth factories. It is supposed to be among the oldest Russian towns, and is spoken of as existing in the 12th century. Here Peter the Great built a palace, and established a dock-yard, arsenal, &c.; but the latter establishments were afterwards removed successively to Usteya, Tavrof, and Rostof; and nearly all traces of the palace and magazines have been obliterated by the frequent fires which the town has since suffered. (*Schmitzer, La Russie; Possart; Lyall's Trav. in Russia, &c.*)

VOSGES, a dep. of France, reg. N.E. principally between the 48° and 49° of N. lat., and the 5° and 7° of E. long., having N. the depts. Meurthe and Meuse, E. the dep. of the Rhine, S. Haute-Saône, and W. Haute-Marne. Area, 585,963 hectares. Pop., in 1846, 427,894. This dep. derives its name from the Vosges (Germ. *Wasgau*) mountains, a chain which extends parallel with the Rhine, separating the depts. of Haute and Bas-Rhin on the E. from those of Haute-Saône, Vosges, and Meurthe on the W., stretching also into Rhenish Bavaria, and terminating to the N.E. in Mont Tonnerre. These mountains usually rise between 4,000 and 5,000 feet above the sea, and their summits are covered with snow for most part of the year. They send off a remarkable continuation, the Faucilles mountains, E. and W. through this dep., by the ramifications of which nearly its whole surface is covered. The Moselle, Meuse, Meurthe, Madon, Saône, &c., rise in this dep., all of which, except the Saône, have a N. course. Small lakes are numerous. The arable land, which is said to comprise 244,745 hectares, is not generally fertile; the meadows comprise 76,330 hectares; woods, 129,474 hectares; and pastures, wastes, &c., 36,550 hectares. In a portion of the dep. called "the plain," to the W. of Epinal, agriculture is said by Hugo to be pretty well advanced. The land is divided into very small properties; so much so, that in 1835, of 148,699 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 87,600 were assessed at less than 5 francs, and only 43 at 1,000 francs or upwards. In 1835, the produce of corn, principally oats, wheat, and rye, was estimated at less than 2,000,000 hectolitres, and the potatoe crop was about as much. The rearing of stock is the most important branch of husbandry, and a greater number of cattle are kept in this than in any other of the N.E. depts.; in 1830, they were reckoned at about 140,000 head. Sheep are much less numerous, and the annual produce of wool is said by Hugo not to exceed 45,000 kilogr. The annual produce of cheese may be about 20,000 kilogr.; and that of wine (of very indifferent quality) about 150,000 hectolitres; about 120,000 kilogr. of hops are annually sent to Paris. Cherries are grown in large quantities, and the dep. is famous for its *Airschenwasser*. A good many hogs are fattened in the mountains. The forests abound in good fir timber, great quantities of which are floated down the rivers, and deals and rough timber. Iron is the chief mineral product; but it also produces coal, argenteiferous lead, copper, manganese, granite, marble, porphyry, &c., though many of these resources are much neglected. The manufacture of steel and iron goods hold the first rank. Knives and forks are made at Bruyères; bayonets, &c., at Sionne, and nails at Neufchâteau; plate iron is made in large quantities at various places; and Plombières is famous for its cutlery. Cotton stuffs are made in the arronds. of Remiremont and St. Dié. Lace, musical instruments, barrels, and wooden shoes are considerable articles of manufacture; and there are various glass and marble works, tanneries, breweries, &c. Vosges is divided into 5 arronds.; chief towns, Epinal, the cap.; Mirécourt, Neufchâteau, Remiremont, and St. Dié. It sends 5 mems. to the Ch. of Dep. Number of electors, in 1838-39, 999. Total public revenue, 1831, 7,165,857 francs. (*Hugo, Art. Vosges; French Official Tables, &c.*)

W.

WAAL, a river of the Netherlands, see RHINE.
WAGRAM, a village of the archduchy of Austria, country below the Enns, on the left bank of the Rossbach, 11 m. N.E. Vienna. This village is celebrated in military history for the great battle fought in its vicinity, on the 6th of July, 1809, by the grand French army under Napoleon, and the Austrians under the Archduke Charles. The former gained a complete victory; the Austrians lost above 30,000 men taken prisoners, besides a vast number killed and wounded. This great victory led to an armistice followed by the treaty of Schœnbrunn.

WAKEFIELD, a parl. bor., market-town, and par. of England, W. Riding, co. York, lower div. of Agbrigg,

weapon. Agbrigg and Morley, on the Calder, 30 m. S.W. York, and 9 m. S. Leeds. Area of par., comprising the townships of Wakefield, Stanley-cum-Wrenthorpe, Alverthorpe-with-Thornes, and the chapelry of Horbury, 9,390 acres. Pop., in 1831, 24,538; in 1841, 29,992. The parl. bor., however, includes only the township of Wakefield (pop. in 1841, 18,486), with small portions of Alverthorpe and Stanley. The town is situated on the declivity of a hill sloping to the river, which is here crossed by a handsome stone bridge of nine arches. It is well built, the houses being mostly of brick; streets spacious and regular, paved, and lighted with gas; and since 1839, the town has been plentifully supplied with pure water by the W. Waterworks Company. The market-place is small, but is well supplied with butchers' meat, fruit, vegetables, and other articles.

Wakefield is one of the principal country corn markets in England; and the new corn exchange at the head of Westgate is in all respects suitable for the dispatch of the important business of which it is the centre. On the S.W. side of Wakefield township the buildings advance in a continuous street into that of Alverthorpe, now embodied in the parl. bor.; and at the W. end of the town, and in Stanley township, are a great many buildings known by the name of East Moor, which also form part of the bor., which farther comprises the small village of Thornes on the S. The latter, in fact, is connected with the town by an almost continuous line of houses and warehouses. (*Boundary Report*.) The parish church of All Saints is a handsome edifice of English architecture, 156 ft. in length, and 69 ft. in width, founded in the reign of Henry III., but retaining few of its ancient features. It has a square tower, with battlements and pinnacles, surmounted by a spire, 237 ft. in height, said to be the highest in the co. The living, a vicarage in the gift of the crown, is worth £477 net. The church of St. John, in the district of the same name, erected in 1798, was, in 1815, restored and rebuilt jointly with All Saints the living a perpetual curacy, in the gift of the vicar of Wakefield, is worth 118*l.* a year. In 1840, Trinity Church, in George Street, built by subscription, and vested in trustees, under the Church Building Acts, was licensed for public worship. Here is also a Rom. Cath. chapel, 2 places of worship for Independents, 2 for Wesleyans, and others for Friends, Primitive Methodists, Unitarians, and Baptists. In the centre of the bridge, projecting from its E. side, is a richly ornamented Gothic chapel, 30 feet in length by 24 in breadth, believed to have been founded by Edward III.; but rebuilt and decorated by Edward IV. to commemorate the death of his father Richard, Duke of York, and his partisans at the battle of Wakefield. But (*quantum mutabimur!*) this fine old building has latterly been degraded into a counting-house. In the market place is a Doric cross with an open colonnade supporting a dome, and containing a small room in which the street commissioners transact business. The music saloon, subscription library and news room in Wood Street, is a handsome building. Here, also, is a literary and philosophical society, a mechanics' institute, mechanics' lodge, a theatre, &c. The new and commodious corn exchange at the head of Westgate, contains, exclusive of the exchange and several offices and shops, a very large assembly-room, with ante-rooms. The building called the Tammy Hall, for the exhibition and sale of woollens, has long been occupied as a worsted manufactory. The free grammar-school, founded by Queen Elizabeth II. 1592, and since enriched by various private benefactions, has a considerable income, and has long enjoyed a high reputation. It is open, free of expense, to the sons of the inhabs. desirous of a classical education, and has at present (1842) upwards of 90 scholars. It has an attached writing school, and a exhibitions to Cambridge, and 1 to Oxford. Some very distinguished personages have been educated in this school, among whom may be mentioned Dr. John Potter, Archbishop of Canterbury, author of the popular and excellent work on Grecian Antiquities, a native of the town; Dr. Radcliffe, founder of the library at Oxford which bears his name, also a native of the town; and Dr. Bentley, the eminent critic and scholar, a native of Outton, in the vicinity. The green-coat school, founded in 1707, with an income of above 500*l.* a year, clothes and instructs about 75 boys and 50 girls; and among other schools is a charity school for 106 poor boys and 50 girls, 3 national schools established in 1833, a school of industry, a Lancastrian and several Sunday schools, in all affording instruction to nearly 2,000 children. The proprietary school, opened in 1834, is a fine, collegiate-looking building, in which about 200 pupils receive a classical and commercial education. The West Riding Pauper Lunatic Asylum, erected in 1817, 1 m. N.E. of the town, is a noble building capable of accommodating above 400 patients. A dispensary and fever ward was established a few years since; and there are well endowed almshouses for both sexes. Wakefield had formerly an extensive manufacture of woollens and worsted yarn, but this, owing to the superior facilities for carrying on the manufacture enjoyed by other

places, or their greater attention to the business, has greatly declined: still, however, a considerable business is carried on in the manufacture of spinning worsted and in dyeing; and it is an important mart, not merely for corn but also for wool and cattle. Great quantities of wool are sent from all parts of the surrounding country to be disposed of by the wool factors; the cattle fairs held every fortnight are very extensive: mauling is also carried on to a considerable extent; and there is a soap work at Walton, in the vicinity, which produced, in 1839, 1,127,537 lbs. hard soap. The coal mines in the parish employ a great many hands.

Wakefield, though in an inland situation, communicates by the Aire and Calder Navigation and various canals with Leeds, Manchester, and Liverpool; and several branch railways lead from the town to the different collieries in the vicinity. The W. Riding bank of Leatham, Tew and Co., and the Wakefield and Barnsley Banking Company, have establishments here. The North Midland Railway from Leeds to Derby passes by Oaken-shaw (Wakefield station), $\frac{1}{2}$ m. S.E. from the town; and the Leeds and Manchester Railway passes the S. end of the town. The station near Kirkgate is within a short distance, on the town side of the bridge over the Calder: but the most important station is at Normanton, $\frac{5}{8}$ m. N.E. from the town, at the junction of the North Midland, Manchester and Leeds, and York and North Midland Railway. A very handsome hotel has been erected at this central station for the accommodation of passengers. The town is under the jurisdiction of a constable elected by the inhabitants. Quarter sessions are held in the court-house, a handsome edifice in Wood Street; and petty sessions for the district in the Court House every Monday, by the co. magistrates. A court for petty causes, and the recovery of debts under $\mathcal{L}4$, is held every 3 weeks by the steward of the manor. There is also the W. Riding Register Office; the office of the Clerk of the Peace; and the Rolls Office for the extensive manor of Wakefield. The house of correction for the W. Riding of Yorkshire is at Wakefield; it is built on an improved plan, and comprises a tread-mill, 307 cells, separate yards, a chapel, &c., and was considerably improved and enlarged in 1843. The prisoners are employed in weaving coarse cloths, calicoes, &c. The Reform Act conferred on Wakefield, for the first time, the privilege of sending a mem. to the H. of C. Reg. electors in 1849-50, 731.

At the era of Domesday Survey, Wakefield, with its dependencies, was in the hands of the crown. The battle of Wakefield, fought in the vicinity of this town on the 24th of December, 1460, was one of the most important gained by the Lancastrians during the civil wars: the latter, under Queen Margaret, having totally defeated the Yorkists under the Duke of York, who fell in the battle, and whose son, the Earl of Rutland, was assassinated immediately thereafter. In 1554, Wakefield was united to the Duchy of Lancaster. The manor, which extends for more than 20 m. W. of the town, including above 160 towns, villages, and hamlets, and about one eighth part of the entire pop. of Yorkshire, has belonged to the family of the Duke of Leeds since 1703, and was derived by the late duke to his son-in-law, Walter Saville Lane Fox, Esq., M.P., the present Lord of the Manor. Market days, Fridays, and every alternate Wednesday, for cattle and sheep. Fairs, July 4th and 8th, and Nov. 11th and 12th, for horses, cattle, hardware, &c. (*Allen's Yorkshire; Baines' Gaz. and Direct. of York; Parl. Reps., and Private Information.*)

WALCHEREN, the most W. of the islands of Holland, prov. Zealand, between the E. and W. Scheldt, having on the W. the N. sea, or Atlantic, and on the E. the Narrow Channel, by which it is separated from the island of Beveland. Middleburg, its cap., in the centre of the island, is in lat. $51^{\circ} 30' 6''$ N., long. $3^{\circ} 37' 30''$ E. It is of a compact circular shape; length, E. and W., about 13 m.; greatest breadth, 10 m. Pop. about 45,000. The surface is quite level, and below high water mark. Its W. side, or that facing the N. sea, is defended against its encroachments partly and principally by a line of sand-hills or *dunes*, and partly (at W. Capelle) by a very strong dyke; its sides, washed by the E. and W. Scheldt, are also defended by prodigious dykes. They is the most fertile, most populous, and best cultivated of all the Dutch islands: the inhabs. are mostly in easy circumstances; and besides Middleburg, the cap., it has the towns of Flushing and Vere, and several flourishing villages. It produces excellent crops of wheat and madder, considerable quantities of the last being sent to England. The climate, though not injurious to natives, is apt to exercise an exceedingly unfavourable influence over strangers. This was strikingly exemplified in the result of the ill-fated expedition of the British troops to Walcheren under the Earl of Chatham in 1809; a great proportion of the force died on the spot from the attack of a malignant marsh-fever; while many of those who survived had their constitutions shattered for ever. (*Géographie de Busching*, xiv. 140, Fr. ed.; *Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

WALDECK-PYRMONT, a principality of W. Germany, consisting of two separate portions, the most southern and principal of which has Prussian Westphalia on the N. and W., while the most Northern and smaller, including the town of Pyrmont and adjacent territory, is almost surrounded by Lippe-Detmold and Hanover. Aggregate area, 466 sq. m. Pop. in 1838, 95,480; all Lutherans, except about 500 R. Catholics and 500 Jews. Surface hilly, having a mean elevation of 1,000 feet above the sea: its mean annual temp. is about 45° Fah. Both Waldeck and Pyrmont belong to the basin of the Weser, their principal rivers being its tributaries, the Eder, Diemel, and Emmer. About 152,300 morgen of land, or nearly 1-3rd part of the surface, is covered with forests; the trees being principally beech and oak. It produces an adequate supply of corn for home consumption, with potatoes, fruit of various kinds, and flax. Cattle breeding is an important branch of industry, and within the last 20 years the cattle have been greatly improved by crossing with the breeds of Switzerland and the Tyrol. Copper, iron, salt, alabaster, marble, slates, &c., are raised; and a large proportion of the prince's revenue is derived from the mineral waters of Pyrmont, which is one of the principal spas of Germany. Manufactures unimportant; those of iron goods, which were formerly considerable, having, of late years, greatly declined: at present the principal are those of linen and woollen stuffs, paper, leather, and cotton hosiery. The chief exports are fine wool, corn, cattle, iron, mineral waters, and a few manufactured articles.

The constitution is a limited monarchy, the diet consisting of 18 mems. of the nobility, 13 representatives of towns, and 10 deputies from the rural districts. The diet has the voting of the supplies, &c., but most part of the public business is carried on by a committee consisting of three mems. from each of the three estates composing the diet. The latter and the committee meet once a year. The territory is divided into 6 districts. Arolsen, a town of 2,065 inhabs. on the Aar, a tributary of the Diemel, is the cap. and seat of gov.; Pyrmont, on the Emmer, one of the oldest watering-places in Europe, with about 3,000 resident inhabs. is the other principal town. Total public revenue estimated at 290,000 rix dollars a year; public debt 690,000 do. Waldeck-Pyrmont holds the 25th place in the Germ. Confed., having one vote in the full diet, and one in the committee along with the principalities of Hohenzollern, Reuss, Lippe, and Liechtenstein. It contributes 818 mems. to the confederate army. (*Berghaus; All. Länder u. Völkerverbund*, iv. &c.)

WALEIS. See ENGLAND and WALES.

WALEIS (NEW SOUTH). See AUSTRALIA and SYDNEY. It appears from the official returns, that the pop. of New South Wales amounted, on the 31st of December, 1849, to 246,299. This extraordinary increase is principally to be ascribed to the stimulus given of late years to immigration.

WALLACHIA and MOLDAVIA (an. *Dacia Transalpina*), two contiguous principalities of S.E. Europe, nemally included in European Turkey, but in reality under the protection of Russia. They lie principally between the 44° and 48° N. lat., and the 22° and 28° E. long., and are together of a crescent shape, enclosing Transylvania on the W. and N.W. Wallachia comprises the S., and Moldavia the E. and N. parts of the united territory; the former, from the W. round to the S.E., is divided from Persia and Bulgaria by the Danube, and the latter on the E. and N. from the Bessarabia by the Pruth, and on the N.W. from the Bukowine by some branches of the Carpathians. The Sereth forms the principal line of separation between the 2 provs., the area, pop. &c. of which are as follow:—

	Area in sq. m.	Pop. in 1857-58.	Chief Towns.
Wallachia	37,500	1,747,815	Bucharest.
Moldavia	17,050	1,419,105	Jassy.
Total	44,550	3,166,920	

The two principalities have each their own peculiar government; but their history is so intimately connected, and the forms of their respective governments, the language, manners, and customs of their inhabs. have always been so much alike, that both may be best noticed together.

Physical Geography and Products.—The Carpathians, where they separate these provs. from Transylvania, usually vary in height between 3,000 and 5,000 feet, though some summits rise to 7,000 or 8,000 feet in elevation. (*Boul Targuie.*) From these mountains the surface gradually declines to the S. and E. through regions of a most picturesque character, and hill ranges and valleys of great fertility, till it terminates in a level and marshy plain from 12 to 20 leagues in breadth, which, with parts of Bulgaria and Bessarabia, constitutes what may be considered the second in point of size and importance of the great European plains. The whole country is thoroughly well watered, being intersected by

the Olt, or Aluta, Jalomitza, Argish, Sereth, and other large affluents of the Danube, most of which are navigable for a considerable distance, and which annually inundate the surrounding country. The winter is very severe, particularly in Moldavia, which prov. is open to the full force of the N.E. wind; and the Danube, with its various tributaries, is generally frozen over for 6 weeks, during which period the ice is often strong enough to bear the passage of the heaviest artillery. In the first 2 months of the year, the snow is so very thick, that the communication is every where carried on by means of sledges. A damp spring succeeds; in May the summer bursts in on a sudden, during which season, though the heat during the day be excessive, the nights are cool, or even cold. The pleasantest season is the autumn, from September to the middle of November. The climate, generally speaking, cannot be said to be unhealthy; but in the plains along the Danube endemic fevers occasionally prevail, and in the hill region gutters are extremely common. Earthquakes sometimes occur, but happily they are rarely very violent. Most part of the country towards the Danube consists of a rich alluvial soil; elsewhere, tertiary and calcareous, and in the Carpathians primary formations are prevalent. In the latter, ores of gold, silver, mercury, iron, copper, and other metals are found, and several mines were opened during the Russian occupation of these provinces. At present, except salt mines, few others are wrought, and the gold obtained is chiefly by washing the river deposits, an occupation almost solely confined to the gypsies, who pay their tribute partly in gold dust. Petroleum, sulphur, nitre, and coal are met with, but not much sought after. The salt of Wallachia, which is of the purest kind, forms an article of sale in all the bazaars of the country. Oak, pine, fir, beech, maple, elm, ash, walnut, white mulberry, &c. are the chief forest trees. The climate is unsuitable for the fig and olive; but apples, pears, plums, cherries, apricots, &c. come to perfection with little culture. Asparagus is indigenous; cabbages and artichokes grow to a great size, and cucumbers and melons are among the principal articles of food. Deer, wild goats, and hares are very numerous. Wolves, when pressed by hunger, come down from the mountains and commit much devastation among the flocks and herds; but at other times, like the bears and other wild animals in these parts, they rarely attack a man.

Land and Agriculture.—The land principally belongs to the nobles, or *boyars*, though it is seldom cultivated by them on their own account. No regular system seems to be pursued as respects the arrangements between the landholders and cultivators; but, for the most part, the cultivators pay to their landlords a tithe of their whole produce of corn, and, in addition to this, they are bound to pay the land-tax and other burdens, and to work 30 days in the year for their landlords. M. Hagemeister says that, though nominally free, the cultivators are virtually enslaved, and that they are still subject to great oppression. (*Commerce of the Black Sea*, 112.) Owing to their subdivision among the children, on the death of a parent, there are now but few large properties. The mode of tillage does not much differ from that in other parts of Eastern Europe. Oxen are usually employed for field labour. Manure is never used; but after a crop of corn, the land is left fallow for a season, and then sown with wheat, barley, or maize, which are the principal crops. Oats and rye are but little cultivated, maize constituting the principal part of the food of the people, and barley being used in distillation, and in the feeding of horses and poultry. No probable estimate can be formed of the ordinary produce of the wheat crops; though there can be no doubt that if the cultivators could calculate on a ready market, it might be very greatly increased. Speaking generally, the wheat of Moldavia is much inferior to that of England or Poland, is from 15 to 20 per cent. superior to that of Wallachia. In the latter prov. the wheat is mostly soft, whereas in Moldavia it is mostly hard. (*Hagemeister*, 104.)

It is extremely difficult to form any fair estimate of the price at which Moldavian and Wallachian wheat might be shipped from the Danube. The kilo, or principal corn measure, differs in the two provinces, and the value of the piastre is also constantly fluctuating; and in addition to these causes of uncertainty, the duties laid on corn when exported are liable to vary, and everybody knows how much the price is affected by variations of demand. On the whole, however, we are inclined to think that the cost of corn at Galatz (which see), the principal port of the principalities, has been materially underrated. In some years it has been as low as 15s. a quarter; but, in 1838, when 171,812 quarters were exported, the price varied from 28s. to 28s. 7d. a quarter. Perhaps, under a fair average demand, it might vary from 30s. to 32s. a quarter.

Immediately after having been gathered in, the corn is trodden out by horses and cattle, and laid up in pits, in consequence of which it acquires an earthy flavour, unfavourable to its sale in foreign markets. (*Hagemeister*,

ubi supra.) A good deal of wine is made on the hill slopes, particularly in Moldavia. It is mostly of very inferior quality; but Mr. Thornton says that some of the wines are pleasant and wholesome, resembling the light wines of Provence, and that they are largely exported to Russia and Transylvania. The strength and spirit of the wine, he further states, are increased by a process common among the rich proprietors, and practised also in Russia. "At the first approach of severe cold, the wine butts are exposed to the severity of the weather in the open air: in a few nights the body of wine is encircled with a thick crust of ice; this is perforated by means of a hot iron, and the wine, thus deprived of its aqueous parts, is drawn off clear, strong, and capable of being preserved for a long time." (*ib.* 320.) Ovid may have had a similar practice in view when he says, of the wine at the place of his banishment,

"Ulaque constant formam serventis tamen

Vitis; nec haecesse mori, sed data Frigus hiemps."

De Trist. l. III. et. v. 23, 24.

The rearing of cattle, however, rather than agriculture, has always been the principal employment of the Wallachians; and the Illyrian word *stocak*, signifying a herdsman, appears to have been the original root whence their name, and that of the country they inhabit, has been derived. The chief sources of wealth in both principalities are, in fact, their flocks and herds, which find abundant and nutritive pastures in winter in the plains, and in summer on the Carpathians. The number of sheep and goats in Wallachia has been estimated at 4,000,000, and the annual produce of wool in both provs. at 40,000 quintals. The latter, which is divided into 3 sorts, *cigats*, *strosse*, and ordinary, is sold at from 3 to 24, from 2 to 24, and from 1 to 14 piastres the oke. There is no public establishment for the washing of wool, but private individuals sometimes wash it at home, which commonly increases the price about 40 per cent.; but the greater part is sold in the grease. Merinos have not yet been introduced into the country. About 1-6th part of the whole clip is sent to France.

"The cattle of Moldavia are larger and better than those of Wallachia, for the simple reason that all branches are more backward in the latter country. Taking their size into account, Moldavia is richer in horned cattle than Wallachia, which, on the contrary, takes the lead in the number of sheep. In both the principalities the cattle and sheep are bought up by the dealers, who pasture them throughout the summer, in the view of selling or slaughtering them in August and September. A pair of good oxen commonly costs from 70 to 85 roubles; a cow is worth from 25 to 28 roubles; a sheep 3 to 4 roubles. Pasturage for a herd of 150 head is hired at a price of 150 to 250 roubles. The number of horned cattle fattened in this manner for sale may amount to 60,000 or 80,000 head. The buyers commonly advance one third or a half of the price for some months. The high price of cattle proceeds from the great consumption in Austria, into which numerous herds are annually sent, particularly from Moldavia. Bessarabia and Wallachia also furnish some, and these are always the largest and finest animals: many of the inhabitants of the Austrian frontier are engaged in this trade. A part of the cattle, and especially the sheep, traverse the Danube for sale in Bulgaria; and previously to 1838 the number of cattle and sheep thus exported was estimated at 150,000 for Wallachia, and at 100,000 for Moldavia." (*Hagemeister*, p. 149.) There are several breeds of horses; and the best, which are those of Moldavia, are bought up in large numbers for the Austrian and Prussian cavalry. (*Thornton*, ii. 323-3.) The buffalo thrives in Wallachia, and poultry and game of all kinds are in great plenty; but the species of the latter, as well as beef, pork, and mutton, are said to be insipid and inferior. The honey, wax, and hare-skins are, however, of the best quality; of the last, about 500,000 are annually exported. Timber, yellow berries, butter, cheese, hides, staves, and masts of various sizes and descriptions, are the other chief articles of export: the Moldavian oak timber, which is much finer than the Wallachian, is well calculated for the construction of vessels, and many of the Turkish ships are built of it, and fitted out with masts and ropes of Moldavian growth. The yellow berries are inferior to those of Smyrna, and in demand when the crop of Asia Minor is deficient: the export is, however, estimated at 600,000 oke a year. (*W. Wilson*, pp. 75-78, &c.)

Manufactures and Trade.—Coarse woollen cloth, hats, earthenware, common linen fabrics, glass, jewellery, saddlery, vehicles, &c. are made, and there are estimated to be altogether 5,000 factories of different kinds in the two principalities, inclusive of distilleries. (*Colson, Moldavia*, &c.) But, for the most part, manufactured goods are imported from other parts of Europe, in return for the raw produce of the principalities. Galatz is the grand centre for the foreign trade of the provs. and the point whence the imported goods are sent to Bucharest and

Jassy. Coffee, sugar, pepper, rum, lemons, oranges, and foreign wines are the principal imports. The local consumption of the first in both prevs. is estimated at 800,000 oke, of the second, 900,000 do., and of the third, 30,000 oke yearly. Cotton and woollen goods, earthenware, &c. are brought chiefly from Germany and England, and Russia supplies the principalities with large quantities of furs, taking in return spirits, wines, and specie. (*Wilkinson, &c.*)

People and Condition.—Notwithstanding the various irruptions of the Goths, Gepids, Lombards, Huns, Tatars, and Turks into these provs., their inhabs. at the present day appear to be, with comparatively little intermixture, the descendants of the ancient Dacians, to whom, as represented on Trajan's column at Rome, both in features and costume, Mr. Paget says, the modern Wallachs bear a remarkable resemblance. (*Paget's Hungary, &c.* ii. 189.) They still call themselves *Romani*, or Romans, and their country *Lara Romanes-Este*; and it is a curious fact, that in a prov., which was among the last annexed to the Roman empire, and in a situation more exposed than any other to the irruptions of invaders from the E., the common dialect now spoken contains, together with many Slavonic and Greek terms, a very large infusion of purely Latin words; so much so, that a stranger speaking in Latin is generally understood by the natives. "In appearance the common Wallach presents a decided difference from either Magyar, Slave, or German. In height he is below the medium, and generally rather slightly built and thin. His features are often fine, the nose arched, the eyes dark, the hair long, black, and wavy; but the expression is too often one of fear and cunning to be agreeable. The dull, heavy look of the Slovak is seldom seen among them, but still more rarely the proud self-respecting carriage of the Magyar." (*Paget*). The long-continued misgovernment to which the Wallachians and Moldavians have been subject, has corrupted their morals, weakened their energies, and given them most of the vices of slaves. All the worst features of Turkish despotism were exhibited in these provs. in their most revolting and odious forms. And hence we need not be surprised, that though not without hospitality, and some other redeeming qualities, the inhabs. are treacherous, revengeful, indolent, besotted, and often cowardly. The women, indeed, on whom most of the labour devolves, do not share in the idleness of the men, but their industry exhibits much want of method and thriftiness, and "to be as busy as a Wallach woman, and do as little," is a proverbial comparison among the German settlers in Transylvania, &c. (*Paget's Hungary, &c.* vi. vii., to which, and the art. *Hungary*, in this vol. p. 5, we beg to refer the reader.)

Mr. Paget says, "I had picked the Wallachs of Transylvania, till I saw their brethren of the principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia never saw two countries of their extent so fruitful in resources. Yet, with all their advantages, I never saw a country so thinly populated, nor a pop. so excessively poor and miserable." (ii. 467.) The peasants' dwellings throughout the country are all built in the same style and of the same size. The walls are of clay, and the roofs thatched with straw, neither of which is calculated to protect the inmates from the inclemency of the weather. In winter the people retire to caves under ground, kept warm by fires made of dried dung and branches of trees; and which, at the same time, serve for cooking their scanty food. Each family, however numerous, sleeps in one of these subterraneous habitations, their beds consisting of a piece of coarse woollen cloth, which serves in the double capacity of mattress and covering. These under-ground dwellings, have, in fact, been the winter residence of the inhabs. of Scythia from the remotest antiquity, and have been admirably described by Virgil:—

"Ipsa in densis specubus secreta sub altis
Ole agrestes herba, convivia rebus, tascas
Advolvunt fœces unguis, ignisq; deducit.
Hic necesse ludo ducunt, hic potata laetant
Fœmineo seque aciculis insistantur vitæ torbis."

Georg. iii. line 576, &c.

The ordinary food of the peasants consists of the flour of Indian corn, mixed into a dough with milk. For the first few days after Lent some indulge themselves in meat, but the greater part cannot afford this, and content themselves with eggs fried in butter. (*Wilkinson, 187-8.*) In their holidays they spend most of their time in the village wine-houses, where they amuse themselves with dancing, witnessing the vagabond pipe, &c. They are no longer *adscripti glebæ*, and if abasished with their masters, may, on giving due notice, quit their habitations and pass over to the estate of another, with their families and moveables: this, however, is more an apparent than a real advantage, and, as already stated, the peasants are still in a very oppressed condition. The gipsies continue in a state of regular slavery, belonging either to the government or to private individuals. Their entire number in both principalities is estimated at 180,000, about 80,000 of

whom belong to the government. Some are employed as domestic servants; the rest are suffered to stroll about the country, breeding cattle or horses, manufacturing wooden and iron utensils, or employing themselves as showmen, musicians, &c. For this liberty they bind themselves not to quit the country, and pay an annual tribute of 80 piastres per man, if belonging to the government; it is said that desertions by gipsies are rare.

The nobility and clergy are in general exempted from taxes for the service of the state, and from the demands of private creditors! They are in consequence overbearing, extravagant, and dissolute. Their education has hitherto been little superior to that of the common people; and though ostentatious in their dress and equipage, their manners present little refinement. In Moldavia, which is the most civilized of these provs., the great landed proprietors bestow considerable attention to the management of their estates; but in Wallachia these are mostly left to the care of agents. The boyars who hold no place under government, spend their leisure in absolute idleness, or in visiting each other, to kill time. "They have," says Thornton, "adopted indiscriminately the vices, without inheriting the vivacity of the Greeks." This statement applies, however, rather to their past than to their present state. Of late years some considerable improvements have been introduced; and though society be still very backward, it is, at all events, much superior to what it was under the Turkish regime.

Government, &c.—For a lengthened period these provs. were governed by *veskodes*, or princes appointed by the Sultan from among the Greeks of Constantinople, and, during the continuance of this system, the country was a prey to every species of abuse. Since 1830, however, they have been placed under the sole protection of Russia; and whatever may be the defects of Russian policy, there can be no question that they have gained immensely by the change. The prince, or hospodar, both in Wallachia and Moldavia, is elected for life from among the boyars of the first rank, by an assembly composed of those boyars, and of deputies of the inferior boyars, the academic bodies, and merchants; but his election must be approved by Russia, and the investiture is then given by Turkey. A list of the clergy and boyars (the class which contribute nothing to the state) meets to vote the supplies, and to discuss other propositions of the prince; but no organic changes can be made without the sanction of Russia. Wallachia is divided into 18, and Moldavia into 13 districts, each of which has a prefect or governor, a receiver-general of taxes, a civil tribunal, consisting of a president and two other judges; and Moldavia has a director of police and a town council in each municipality. Judges are removable at the pleasure of the superior authorities. The legal codes are founded upon the civil law, and the customs of the principalities; but though the system of jurisprudence has been much amended, many reforms remain to be effected, especially in the administration of the laws, which is said to be most corrupt. Nearly all the pop. belongs to the Greek church, and every village has a small church or chapel, with one or more priests, who act as curates. The ecclesiastics of this order are chosen from among the people, from whom they are little distinguished in appearance, and whose avocations they follow when not engaged in their clerical functions. The generality of them can neither read nor write, and merely recite the formula of their service from memory; they have, however, an unbounded influence over the ignorant pop. of these countries. There are many large and rich monasteries, and 4 or 5 seminaries for the education of the superior clergy.

Public instruction, though still backward, appears to have advanced since 1832. Colleges and Lancasterian schools are established in the principal towns; and the latter have by this time probably spread into the rural districts. According to the *Journal d'Éduc.*, the higher classes in these provs. have of late set about improving their national dialect with remarkable vigour; and it appears probable that their language will ultimately be rendered much nearer akin to the ancient Roman than even the Italian! There is a printing-press at Bucharest, which is in active employment; and translations of foreign as well as original works are continually being produced by native authors. (Vol. vii. p. 175.) This is a consequence, and by no means the only salutary one, that is likely to follow the establishment of the principalities under Russian protection, or at least their enfranchisement from the debasing rule of the Turks.

The *military force* is organised on the plan of the Russian army, and the staff officers are principally Russians. The militia is formed by the peasantry, in the proportion of 2 men for every 100 families; but along the banks of the Danube all the inhabs. capable of bearing arms are organised into a military force, auxiliary to the quarantine service. The total effective force of the provs. amounts to about 53,000 men, including nearly 5,000 irregular cavalry. There is no artillery, nor are there any fortresses in either prov.

The public revenues are derived from the capitation tax of 30 piastres (the piastre is about 34d. sterling) per head on the rural pop.; from 30 to 130 do. a year on the manufacturing classes, and 50 to 340 do. on merchants, &c.; from the government lands and rights of pasturage, fees, fines, customs, salt monopoly, and in Moldavia tax on the incomes of the clergy. These sources produced in 1839, in Moldavia, 10,467,269 piastres, and in Wallachia, 16,293,299 do. In the latter prov. the expenditure nearly balanced this sum; but in the former there was a surplus of 2,797,800 piastres. Both provs. pay an annual, but not very heavy, tribute to the Porte. (*Colson, Etat présent de Moldavie, &c.*)

History.—Since the conquest of this country by Trajan, it has never ceased to be under foreign dominion. It was alternately in the power of the barbarians and the Greek emperors till the 13th century, when it appears to have been occupied by the Hungarians. Early in the 15th century it was conquered by the Turks, to whose empire it has since been generally tributary, but the last war between Turkey and Russia entirely destroyed the influence of the former, and rendered the latter paramount. (*Colson, Etat présent de Moldavie et de Valachie; Wilkinson's Wallachia and Moldavia; Thomson's Turkey; Boué, La Turquie; Walsh; Paget, &c. passim.*)

WALLINGFORD, a parl. and mun. bor., market town, and par. of England, co. Berks, hund. Moreton, on the Thames, 12½ m. N.W. Reading. The old par., and mun. bor., are co-extensive with four small par., having an area of 370 acres, and a pop. of 1,000. But the modern parl. bor. includes several additional par., partly in Berks, and partly in Oxfordshire, having an aggregate area of about 18,000 acres, and a pop., in 1841, of about 6,000. The modern mun. bor. is about twice as extensive as formerly. The town, 3 m. from the main road, between London and Oxford, is pretty well built, paved, and lighted with portable gas, and, for its size, contains a considerable number of neat private dwellings, and a few of a superior character. (*Bownd, Rep.*) The river is here crossed by a handsome stone bridge, 300 yds. in length, with 19 arches, and 4 draw bridges, built in 1809, upon the site of a former structure of the same description. St. Mary's church has a fine tower, crowned with pinnacles, which appears to have been erected in 1658: the living, a rectory, worth 146*l.* a year, is in the gift of the crown. St. Peter's church, a handsome edifice, rebuilt about 50 years since, is surmounted by a spire: the living, a rectory in the gift of W. S. Blackstone, Esq., is worth 100*l.* a year. The living of St. Leonard's, worth 103*l.* a year, is in the gift of the crown. There are also places of worship for Friends, Independents, Wesleyans, and Baptists. The market-house and town hall are respectable buildings. Among numerous charitable institutions are the free grammar-school, founded in 1659, and several almshouses. No manufacture of any consequence is now carried on: the chief business is that of malting; and, in general terms, Wallingford "may be described as a neat country town, respectably inhabited, and a place of no other importance than as the market-town for the surrounding country." (*Bownd, Rep.*) It is a bor. by prescription, its earliest existing charter being a copy from the reign of Henry I. It has returned 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the 22d. of Edw. I.; the right of voting, previously to the Reform Act, having been vested in individuals paying church and poor rates. Registered electors, in 1840-50, 419; under the Mun. Reform Act, it is governed by a mayor, 4 aldermen, and 12 councillors, and other officers. It has a commission of the peace, court of record, court leet, and a goal for the confinement of offenders before committal. Corp. rev. 1847-8, 364*l.*

WALSALL, a parl. and munic. bor. and par. of England, co. Stafford, hund. Offord, in a small independent of the Tam. in the centre of one of the principal coal and iron districts, 7 m. N.W. Birmingham. Area of par., 7,920 acres, all of which is included in the parl. bor., except an outlying portion called Walsall Wood. Pop., in 1841, 19,654. It is situated on the declivity and summit of a low hill, and is pretty well built, having "the appearance of a compact and flourishing town: several houses of the value of from 20*l.* to 40*l.* a year are now building, and every indication of a thriving community is here exhibited." (*Municipal Bownd, Report, 1837.*) The main streets are broad, well paved, lighted with gas, and well supplied with water; though there be but little that is prepossessing in their general appearance. In the environs, however, there are many handsome villas, with some picturesque scenery. Bloxwich, about 2 m. N. from the town, but included in the parl. bor., is a populous village, the inhabs. of which, like those of Walsall, are mostly occupied in the hardware manufactures. The parish church occupies a commanding situation on the top of the hill: it is an ancient, spacious, cruciform structure, with a tower surmounted by a lofty spire; and was thoroughly repaired in 1821. The living, a vicarage worth 368*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Earl of Bradford, lord of the manor. St. Paul's

chapel, a handsome Grecian edifice, completed in 1825, is a perpetual curacy worth 50*l.* a year. There are places of worship for Independents, Wesleyans, and Unitarians, and 2 Cath. chapels, one of which is a handsome Grecian building. The subscription library, established in 1800, has recently been enlarged: it contains reading and news rooms, and has a Doric colonnade, 30 ft. in height. The grammar school, founded and endowed by Queen Mary, in 1557, open to all the boys of the parish, has an annual income of 780*l.*; and subsidiary schools, dependent on the principal, have been established in different parts of the par. It has also an English school in which 120 boys are instructed; a blue-coat charity; a National and several Sunday schools; and numerous charitable benefactions for the relief of the poor. In the time of Henry VI. an endowment was lent for the annual distribution of 1*l.* to every person in the par.; but, in 1825, this useless endowment was judiciously appropriated to the erection and maintenance of 11 almshouses. Walsall is said to have been a bor. by prescription: its earliest existing charter was granted by Henry VI. Under the Municipal Reform Act, it is divided into 3 wards, and is governed by a mayor, 5 other aldermen, and 18 councillors. Corp. rev., 1847-8, 2,812*l.* The Reform Act conferred on it, for the first time, the important privilege of sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Reg. elec. in 1849-50, 911.

It has a commission of the peace, a weekly court of petty sessions, and a county court, before which 533 pleas were entered in 1846. The jail is of a very modern description. Its command of coal and iron has made Walsall a considerable seat of the hardware business: the manufacture of saddlers' ironmongery, that is, the making and plating of bridles, spurs, and stirrups, the mountings for coach and carriage harness, &c., being the staple employment of the town. It has, also, some brass and iron foundries, and a considerable trade in malt. A branch of the old Birmingham canal comes up to the W. end of the town, which is 3½ m. from Willenhall station on the Grand Junction Railway; The Bank of Walsall and S. Staffordshire, established in 1835, has its principal office in this town. Walsall, though not mentioned in Domesday book, is known to be a town of considerable antiquity; but is not connected with any historical event of importance. Market days, Tuesdays, Fairs, 24th Feb., Whit Tuesday, and the Tuesday before Michaelmas; the two latter are mostly for cattle and cheese. (*Parl. Rep. and Priv. Inf.*)

WALTHAM (NORTH) a market-town and par. of England, co. Norfolk, hund. Tunstead, on a level, about 6 m. from the sea, and 13 m. N.E. Norwich. Area of par., 4,010 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 3,655. The town consists of three streets which meet so as to form an irregular triangle. The par. church is a large venerable old edifice. Its tower fell down in 1734; but it has a fine south porch of flint and stone, and a font with a very rich wooden cover, of tabernacle work. The vicarage is annexed to the rectory of Antingham; the livings being, together, worth 326*l.* a year: patron, the crown. Here are several dissenting chapels, a free grammar-school, with an income of nearly 250*l.* a year, at which Lord Nelson was partly educated; a Sunday-school, with a small endowment, and several other charities. The market-cross, originally erected in the reign of Edward I., was rebuilt in 1600. Two annual courts-baron are held here, and petty sessions for the hund. by the co. magistrates. Market-day, Tuesday. Fairs, three times a year, chiefly for cattle and the hiring of servants. In 1600, this town was visited by a most destructive fire, which consumed 118 houses, besides barns, stables, &c. On Waltham heath, near the town, is a stone cross, erected to commemorate a victory of Henry Spencer, bishop of Norwich, over a band of rebels, in 1582. (*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. xi.; *Parl. Rep.*)

WALTHAM ABBEY, HOLY CROSS, a market-town and par. of England, on the W. border of the co. of Essex, hund. Waltham, on the Lea, 11½ m. N.N.E. London. Area of par., 11,870 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 4,177. The town, originally founded in the time of Canute, consists chiefly of one spacious and irregular street. The church was formerly the nave of the church of an opulent and famous monastery, founded here by Harold II., of which there are now but few remains. This venerable relic, though much disfigured and mutilated, contains some most interesting specimens of the ornamented Norman semicircular arches, and other characteristics of the Norman style of architecture. It is about 90 ft. in length, by about 48 ft. in breadth. At the W. end is a heavy square embattled tower, 86 ft. in height; but this is comparatively modern, and bears the date of 1568. The inside of the church bears witness to the iconoclastic zeal of the Reformers, and to the bad taste and miserable parsimony of those by whom they have been followed; the ornamental parts having been defaced and whitewashed, and the brasses torn from the gravestones. Harold, and his two brothers slain with him at the battle of Hastings, were interred in this church. The living, a curacy worth 237*l.* a year, is in

the gift of the trustees of the Earl of Norwich. The Baptists and Wesleyans have, also, places of worship. The educational and charitable institutions comprise a free school for 20 boys and 20 girls, with an endowment producing about 150*l.* a year; another endowed school, for the education of 5 boys, and several bequests for the support of Sunday schools, almshouses, and the general relief of the poor. The revenues of the monastery amounted, at its dissolution in 1539, to 900*l.* according to Dugdale, and to 1,000*l.* according to Speed. Market-day, Tuesday; fairs, twice a year. At present, however, the town derives its entire importance from the gunpowder mills established here on account of government. These, which were originally acquired from private parties in 1787, consist (in 1842) of 4 mills, each having 2 pair of stones. The moving power is water; the establishment is, in all respects, in the most efficient state, and the powder produced of the very best quality. During peace the consumption of powder by government amounts to about 10,000 barrels a year, of which about 8,000 are supplied by the works now under consideration. The latter, however, were not erected in the view of providing the entire supply of gunpowder, which, in periods of war, sometimes exceeds 80,000 or 100,000 barrels a year; but partly as a check on the combinations of the manufacturers, and partly as affording the means of readily trying and fairly appreciating such new discoveries and experiments as may from time to time be made or suggested in the preparation of so important an article, and in these respects they have been completely successful. At Enfield Lock, about 3 m. below Waltham, manufactory of small arms is also carried on upon account of government. At present (1850) it is almost wholly occupied in the making of new percussion muskets, of which it supplies about 10,000 a year. (*Private Information.*)

In the hamlet of West Waltham, or Waltham Cross, about 1 m. W. from Waltham Abbey, in Hertfordshire, is one of the stone crosses erected by Edward I., at the different places where the corpse of his beloved wife, Queen Eleanor, rested on its way from Hereby, near Grantham, where she died, to Westminster Abbey. Only 3 of these crosses now remain. It had originally been a very fine structure; but the ornaments are now much defaced. (*Beauties of England*, vols. vii. and x.; *Farmer's History of Waltham Abbey*; *Parl. Papers*, &c.)

WALTHAMSTOW, a village and par. of England, co. Essex, hund. Becontree, on the Lea, a tributary of the Thames, 5 m. N.E. London. Area of par. 3,990 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 4,873. The village, on the borders of Epping Forest, is formed by the union of several hamlets; the houses, among which are many villas and country seats, being generally detached, and interspersed with trees and gardens. The church, built on an eminence, is a spacious structure in a mixed style of architecture, with a tower at its W. end; it was repaired and enlarged in 1817, and has several ancient monuments. The living is a vicarage, to which is attached the curacy of St. John's, being worth, together, 77*l.* a year: patron, W. Wilson, Esq. The Unitarians and Independents have each chapels; and to the latter a school is attached, in which 30 girls are educated, 20 of whom are clothed at the expense of the foundation. The free school, founded in 1542, has an endowment yielding 8*l.* a year. Although established for the education of more than 30 pupils, it was lately attended by only 5. It has also national and infant schools, with numerous well endowed almshouses, and benefactions to a considerable amount, for the relief of the poor. Some copper mills and other works are established in this par., on the banks of the Lea. The par. has an exclusive local jurisdiction; and is governed by a council of 17 members, presided over by the vicar and churchwardens. Counts leet and baron are held here when required. (*Guide to London and its Environs*, &c.)

WANDSWORTH, a large village and par. of England, co. Surrey, hund. Brixton; on the Wandie, near its confluence with the Thames, 5 m. S.W. London. Area of par. 1,890 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 7,614.

Wandsworth consists principally of one broad thoroughfare, between 2 eminences called the E. and W. hills. "It is in parts noisy and bustling, in other parts rural and quiet; in parts clean and pleasant, in others low and dirty; and the residents are for the most part in the ranks of rich and poor." (*Guide to London and its Environs*.) The old church, which was mostly rebuilt in 1780, is a plain brick edifice with a heavy square tower at its W. extremity; the living, a valuable vicarage worth 840*l.* a year, is in the gift of W. Borradale, Esq. The new church of St. Anne, erected by act of parliament in 1824, is an elegant edifice of Grecian architecture, with a handsome portico and a steeple of 3 circular arches. Here also are meeting-houses for Friends (to which 2 schools are attached), Baptists, Independents, and Wesleyans. The first Presbyterian congregation in England was established here in 1573. The free endowed school, founded in 1710, has been

incorporated with the national school, and affords instruction to above 300 boys and 100 girls, to some of whom clothing is supplied. It has also a Lancastrian school, in which more than 300 children are educated. A school of industry, attended by 40 girls, and various other charities, among which those of Alderman Smith, a native of the town, who died in 1627, are the most valuable. The manufactures of Wandsworth are more considerable than might have been expected; that of hats was introduced by the French refugees towards the end of the 17th century; and there are works for making coach and livery lace, dyeing (especially in scarlet), with corn, oil, iron, and white lead mills, vinegar works, and distilleries. The Richmond railway passes through the village. Petty sessions for the hund. are held weekly, and there is a county court, before which 2,308 plaints were entered in 1848. Fairs on the first 3 days of Whitstun week, for horses, cattle, pigs, and toys. (*Agony's Eve*, *Review of London*, i. 378-380., &c.)

WANTAGE, a market town and par. of England, co. Berks, hund. Wantage, on a small trib. of the Thames, at the E. extremity of the Vale of the White Horse, 22½ m. W. N.W. Reading. Area of par., which includes the hamlets of Charlton and Grove, 7,530 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,650. The town is irregularly built at the intersection of the high roads from Hungerford to Oxford, and from Farringdon to Wallingford, which form its principal streets. The church, a handsome cruciform structure, has a square embattled tower rising from its centre, and some fine monuments. The living, a vicarage, worth 504*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Dean and Canons of Windsor. It has also places of worship for Independents and Wesleyans; a free grammar-school, with an income of about 200*l.* a year; some almshouses, founded in 1650, with an endowment of 100*l.* a year, Sunday-schools, &c. The town lands produce an income of about 450*l.* a year, which is spent on the relief of the poor, the repair of highways, and the support of a school. Sacking, twine, and tarpaulins are manufactured on a small scale. The market is celebrated for its fine corn, a great deal of the best seed-wheat being brought thither by the Vale farmers. Its trade is facilitated by a branch of the Wilts and Berks canal, which comes up to the town. Wantage was made a bor. after the Conquest; but it no longer retains that distinction. A manorial court is, however, held in it once a year, and petty sessions for hund. every Saturday.

WARDEIN (GROSS or GREAT; Hungar. *Nagy-Varad*), a fortified town of Hungary, co. Bihar, of which it is the cap.; on the Körös, towards the borders of Transylvania, 39 m. S.W. Debrecan. Pop. estimated in the Austr. Nat. Ence. at 10,000; but, according to Berghaus, it amounts, including its suburbs, to upwards of 16,000. It is the residence of a R. Cath. and a united Greek bishop, a Greek propoqas, &c., and the seat of the co. assembly, council, a commissariat department, &c. It has a royal academy, many other superior schools, an abbey, and various religious establishments, with manufactures of silk stuffs and earthenware. Mr. Paget says, "Gross Wardein is really one of the prettiest towns I have seen for a long time. Its wide well-built streets of one-storied houses, and extensive market-places, are quite to the taste of the Magyar, who loves not the narrow lanes and high houses of his German neighbours. But the glory of Gross Wardein is in its gilded steeples, its episcopal palace, its convents, and its churches; and, although of the latter, the 70 which it formerly boasted are now reduced to 22, they are quite sufficient for the inhabs. Prince Hohenlohe, of miracle-working memory, is now the occupant of this see. His elevation to the bishopric has, however, completely extinguished the light of miracle!" (*Paget's Hungary*, &c. ii. 518.)

WARE, a market town and par. of England, co. Herts, hund. Braughon, on the great N. road, and on the Lea, 19½ m. N. London. Area of par., 4,430 acres. Pop., in 1841, 4,653. It consists chiefly of one thoroughfare, nearly a mile in length, and lined in general with substantial and well built houses. The church is a large cruciform structure, mostly in the decorated and perpendicular styles; it has an embattled tower at the W. end, and within are several fine monuments, and a handsome front. The living, a vicarage, annexed to that of Thundridge, worth 335*l.* a year, is in the patronage of Trinity Coll. Camb. Here are also chapels for Independents, Wesleyans, and Friends. The market-house, supported on arches, comprises a good assembly-room. The educational and charitable institutions include a free grammar-school, of very old foundation, attended by about 30 pupils; another free school, with a small endowment, established in 1834; a national, and two other schools, chiefly supported by subscription; numerous almshouses, a lying-in charity, and funds for distribution among the poor, yielding an income of 330*l.* a year. (*Analytical Digest of Charity Reps.*) Ware has a considerable trade in corn, and malting is extensively carried on. It is governed by 3 constables and 4 head-

boroughs: petty sessions, for the division, are held weekly, and a court-baron once a year. Market-day, Tuesday. Fairs twice a year for horses and cattle.

Chadwell spring, near the town, assisted by a cut from the Lea, gives rise to the New River, an artificial stream brought from Hertfordshire, for the supply of water to the metropolis. Though the source of the New River, in a direct line, be not more than 20 m. from London, its course, including its windings, is nearly 40 m. This important work was completed in 1613, principally by the exertions of the famous Sir Hugh Middleton. Though very unproductive at first, it has since been a source of vast wealth to its proprietors, as well as of advantage to the city.

WAREHAM, a parl. and munic. bor., market town, river-port, and par. of England, co. Dorset, hund. Winfrith, in Blandford div., on a peninsula between the rivers Frome and Piddle, about 1 m. above their confluence with Wareham harbour, the most westerly arm of Poole harbour, 30 m. S.S.W. Salisbury, and 102 m. S.W. London. The modern bor. includes the whole of the 3 parishes, of which only of which were comprised in the ancient bor., together with those of Corfe Castle and Bere Regis, and parts of two other adjacent parishes; having a total area of 22,890 acres, and a pop. in 1841, of 6,646.

The site of the town shelves gradually towards the S., and it is mostly surrounded by flat marshy land. Having been nearly destroyed by fire on the 26th July, 1763, it has been built on a regular plan, and consists chiefly of 3 wide streets, intersecting each other at right angles. The houses, built of brick, and tiled or slated, are generally in good condition. It is surrounded by a remarkable ancient mound, the space between which and the town is now laid out in market gardens. Each of its rivers is here crossed by a bridge, that over the Frome being a handsome structure, erected in 1779. Down to a late period it was neither watched nor lighted. (*Boswell and Municipal Reports.*) Of 8 churches which formerly existed here, only 1, St. Mary's, is now used for public worship, though 2 more, Trinity and St. Martin's, are made use of for other purposes; the former being converted into a national school, and the latter being merely used for reading the funeral services. St. Mary's, a spacious and ancient edifice, originally attached to a priory, is built in a mixed style, though principally of the decorated character. (*Nichols.*) It has a handsome tower, and contains some ancient monuments. All the livings of Wareham are now united in one rectory. Two more ancient churches that had fallen to decay, were taken down within the last century, and on the site of one of these the present town hall has been erected. The Independents, Wesleyans, and Unitarians have each places of worship. The educational and charitable institutions comprise a national school, held in the old church of the Holy Trinity; a small endowment for the education of 30 poor children; almshouses for 6 men and 4 women, and some minor charities.

The trade of Wareham consists chiefly in the export of the fine clay found in its neighbourhood to the Staffordshire and other potteries, and in the shipping of vegetables from the market gardens round the town for Poole and Portsmouth. A good many of the inhabs. are also employed in knitting stockings, and in the manufacture of shirt buttons. The port, which was formerly considerable, is now nearly choked up, being only accessible to vessels of from 25 to 30 tons; but vessels of 50 tons ascend to within about 1 m. of the town, and those of 200 tons may anchor at Russell's quay, about 3 m. from the town. "The inhabs. may be said to consist of persons of middling circumstances, and a few retired officers and independent persons, retail tradesmen, and men deriving a subsistence from the small craft. There is no poverty in the place, but its pop. and the number of its houses are probably less now than formerly." (*Parl. Boswell Report.*) We doubt, however, whether there be any good foundation for this surmise. The borough returned 3 mems. to the H. of C. from the 13th of Edward I. down to the Reform Act, the right of voting being exercised, since 1747, by the inhabs. paying scot-and-lot; but under the act now referred to, it returns only 1 mem. along with Corfe-Castle, Bere-Regis, &c. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 403. The bor. has a commission of the peace, a court leet, held annually; and a court of record, opened monthly, but now of little utility. Market day, Sat. Fairs 9 times a year, mostly for cattle, cheese, and hogs. (*Boswell Rep.; Mus. Corp. Append., &c.*)

WARMISTER, a market-town and par. of England, co. Wilts, hund. Warmister, on the Willer, at the W. extremity of Salisbury plain, 20 m. N.W. Salisbury, and 15 m. S.E. Bath. Area of par., 5,450 acres. Pop. of ditto, in 1841, 6,311. The town consists chiefly of one spacious, clean, and well-paved thoroughfare, nearly 1 m. in length, the houses being mostly of freestone. The church of St. Denis is a spacious structure, in the perpendicular style, with a square central tower; the living, a vicarage worth £244. a year, is in the gift of the Bishop of Salisbury.

The new church, erected in 1830, partly by subscription, and partly by a grant from the parliamentary commissioners, is a perpetual curacy, worth 100*l.* a year, in the gift of the vicar of Warmister. Besides a chapel of ease, there are several dissenting places of worship: a free-endowed grammar-school, affording instruction to 20 boys, with national and Lancastrian schools, supported by subscription. Warmister had formerly the most extensive trade in malt of any town in the W. of England: and this branch of industry, though it has declined, is still largely carried on. The manufacture of broad cloths and kerseys has been, in a great measure, superseded by that of silk, in which many women and children are employed. The trade in corn is considerable; the market being one of the most extensive in the part of the country. The town is under the jurisdiction of a high constable, deputy constables, and tything-men, chosen at the annual manorial court. The quarter sessions for the co. are held here in July; petty sessions monthly, by the co. magistrates; and a court of requests for the recovery of debts under 5*l.*, is held alternately in this town and Westbury. Warmister is supposed to have been a Roman station, from the discovery of coins, weapons, a tessellated pavement, and other antiquities in the vicinity. Market-day, Saturday: fairs, 3 times a year, for cattle, sheep, hogs, and cheese.

The manor and lordship of Warmister is the property of the Marquis of Bath; and about 4½ m. W. from the town on the confines of Somersetshire, is Langley House, the truly magnificent seat of that nobleman. The park in which it is situated is of great extent, and is finely laid out. (*Scenery of England and Wales, &c.*)

WARRINGTON, a parl. bor., market town, and par. of England; co. Lancaster, hund. W. Derby; in a low situation on the Mersey, here crossed by a stone bridge, 17 m. E. by S. Liverpool. Area of par. 12,260 acres. Pop. in 1831, 19,155, in 1841, 21,857. The parl. bor., however, comprises only the townships of Warrington and Leachford, with portions of that of Thelwall, and may have at present (1849) a pop. of about 21,000. The town principally consists of four main streets, one or two of which are spacious and contain some handsome buildings; but the other streets are for the most part narrow and badly drained, and very little appears to have been done for the improvement of the town except its being paved and lighted with gas in 1831. (*Boswell Rep. &c.*) The most important public buildings are the sessions-house erected in 1830; the market-hall, over which are the assembly rooms; three cloth halls, theatre, &c. The par. church, which is of Saxon origin and existed at the time of the Conquest, is a large massive cruciform structure. The tower, which rises from the intersections of the transept, was rebuilt in 1695; the interior of the church, which is lofty and handsome, contains two chapels, and some fine ancient monuments. Beneath the chancel has lately been discovered an ancient crypt, now converted into a vestry. At the entrance of the churchyard are two handsome gates. The living, a rectory, has under it the perpetual curacies of St. Paul and the Holy Trinity. There are 2 R. Cath. chapels, founded severally in 1823 and 1826, and 10 other places of worship for different sects. The free grammar-school, founded by Sir T. Boteler in 1595, has an annual income of between 700*l.* and 800*l.*; but in 1843, it was attended by only about 39 day scholars and 13 boarders. The blue-coat school, established in 1677, has since received legacies and benefactions amounting to upwards of 2,000*l.* and has an annual income of 450*l.*; 30 boys and 20 girls, children of settled inhabitants of the town, are lodged, maintained, and clothed in the building, and 170 boys and 40 girls admitted as day scholars. A general subscription library was established in 1758. A society was formed here early in the last century for the purpose of affording assistance to widows and orphans of clergymen in the archdeaconry of Chester; and the relief dispensed by it amounts at present to about 1,000*l.* a year. A handsome building, in the Elizabethan style of architecture, is in progress for the education of the orphan daughters of clergymen. A dispensary and branch of the Royal Humane Society are among the other numerous charities, and there is a small but commodious infirmary, to which two wards for cases of fever are attached.

The appearance of Warrington is less bustling and animated than formerly. Until the opening of the railway it was the great thoroughfare between Manchester and Liverpool; 70 public carriages daily passing through it between these great emporiums, whereas at present (1846) there is not one! But its traffic with the above towns is, notwithstanding, very considerable; for, though not strictly speaking a port, it possesses, by means of the Mersey and Irwell Navigation, many of the advantages of a port. At spring-tides the Mersey rises from 10 to 12 ft. at Warrington bridge, and vessels of from 70 to 100 tons burden navigate the river up to this point.

It is, now, also, a station in the great N.W. Railway from London to Glasgow, and is consequently connected with all parts of the kingdom.

Warrington is distinguished by the number and variety of its manufactures. The making of sailcloth and sack-ing was formerly carried on here upon a very large scale, but it is dwindled to insignificance. At present, among the many that are carried on in the parish, the powerloom weaving occupies a prominent place. In 1838, there were six cotton mills at work in the parish, employing in all 1,136 hands. (*Rep. on Mills and Factories.*) The refining of sugar, though not entirely relinquished, is not a leading branch of industry; but the soap manufacture continues to be of great importance, 4,502,570 lbs. of hard soap having been made in the town in 1849. The manufacture of flint and plate glass is carried on upon a large scale, and has long ranked among the principal businesses of the town. Warrington is also the principal seat of the manufacture of "Lancashire tools," under which designation are comprised files of the maker's quality, chisels, graver's tools, watch and clock maker's tools, &c., and in some of its factories may be seen collections of the articles in question of unrivalled excellence. Pin-making is also carried on; and Warrington has long been celebrated for its malt and ale. The soil, too, in the neighbourhood being especially suitable for horticultural purposes, gardening is here well understood and successfully practised. The government of the town is vested in police commissioners and constables chosen annually in October at the feet of the lord of the manor. A county court is established here, before which 1,275 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. Coram. 1848-49, 1,276l. The Reform Act conferred on Warrington, for the first time, the privilege of sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 697. Market days, Wed. and Sat. Fairs, 18th July and 30th Nov., each lasting 10 days, for horses, cattle, and cloth, and every other Wed. for cattle. (*Parl. Papers; Priv. Inform.*)

WARSAW (Pol. *Warszawa*, Fr. *Varsovie*), the cap. of Poland, palat. Masovia, on the Vistula, 650 m. S.E. Petersburg, lat. 52° 14' 28" N., long. 21° 27' 47" E. Pop., in 1847, including its suburbs, 166,597. The city, which, with its gardens and suburbs, covers a great extent of ground, is on the left or W. bank of the river, which is here about as broad as the Thames at Westminster bridge, being connected with the suburb of Praga on the right, by a bridge of boats. A suspension bridge was some years since projected instead of the latter, but the project has not hitherto been carried into effect.

Warsaw, being situated partly in a plain and partly on an ascent gradually rising to the river's bank, has a magnificent appearance from the Petersburg road. But though the contrary has been affirmed by some travellers, the impression of grandeur is not supported on entering the town. It has, indeed, many fine palaces, public buildings, and noble mansions, and, latterly, its private houses have been improved, by prohibiting the construction of new buildings of wood. But its streets, though spacious, are badly paved, badly lighted, and dirty; the greater part of the houses in the city, and still more in the suburbs, are mean and ill constructed, above one fourth part of their number being at this moment of wood; and the whole town exhibits a painful contrast of wealth and poverty, civilisation and barbarism, luxury and misery. The suburb of Praga, on the E. bank of the river, once strongly fortified and extensive, is now all but deserted. There are still, however, several other suburbs of large extent; and those adjacent to the city proper are included within its rampart and ditch.

The principal public building is the *Zamek*, a huge edifice, formerly the palace of the kings of Poland, and that in which the emperor still resides when he visits Warsaw. The hall of the Polish diet, a splendid gilt ball-room, and the national archives of Poland, are in this building; but the fine paintings of Canaletti, Bacciarelli, &c., with the library and other treasures, have been removed since 1831 to the Russian capital. There are several other royal palaces. That called the palace of Casimir, which was appropriated to the university, has in its square a statue of Copernicus. The Palais de Saxe is a large building in one of the finest squares. At the back of this palace are the principal public gardens in the interior of Warsaw, which resemble in some respects the park at Brussels, though considerably larger. Another handsome public garden, much frequented at the fashionable hour of 12, belongs to what is called the government palace. This latter is, perhaps, one of the most chaste and really beautiful architectural elevations in the Polish capital. It is strictly in the Italian style, and contains the national theatre, custom-house, high tribunals, and offices of the minister of the Interior. The palace of the minister of finance, which is quite modern, forms, with the new exchange, a very imposing object at the end of the street leading to the Breslau gate. The *Marieville bazaar* is a large square, the four sides of which consist of covered arcades, with dwellings for the merchants

above, and shops for the merchandise under them; the latter amount to about 300, besides several warehouses. A great number of churches are to be found in the city; some of which are of really colossal dimensions, as the cathedral of St. John, and the church of the Holy Cross. In the former, are an altarpiece of great merit by Palma Nova, and a large standard wrested from the Turks by Sobieski at the siege of Vienna. The Lutherans have also a magnificent church, erected at an expense of 25,000*l.*, and superior in beauty and boldness of design to all the Catholic churches in the place, having a dome and tower of prodigious elevation. Which way so ever a traveller turns, he cannot fail to pass some one of the monuments which stand in the squares to commemorate the reign of a sovereign, or the achievements of a Polish warrior. The colossal statue of Sigismund III., cast in bronze, gilt, and placed on a lofty pillar of marble of the country, produces a very good effect; and the equestrian group in bronze of Poniatowski, &c., by Thorwaldsen, is another monument worthy of admiration.

Independently of the public gardens, Warsaw may be said to have in its vicinity some of the finest drives and promenades in Europe for width and extent. The numerous avenues of the *Ujazdow*, planted with lofty lime and chestnut trees, are the rendezvous of nearly the entire pop. of Warsaw on Sundays and other holidays, and are admirably calculated for horse and sledge races, both of which take place here. In the immediate vicinity is the royal villa, formerly the country residence of Stanislaus Augustus. The palace is built in the Italian style: Bacciarelli's paintings decorate one of the principal rooms; and it has a ball-room, ornamented with colossal statues in white marble; a chapel, with some curious works in mosaic, &c. In the park is a stone bridge, on which is erected the equestrian statue of John Sobieski. The view of the Vistula from the park is very fine; and a large island lying in the middle stream is much frequented in summer by the amateurs of aquatic expeditions." (*Granville*, ii. 541-547.)

Among the other public buildings, may be specified the Radzivil and Krasinski palaces, the barracks, mint, six hospitals, five theatres, and several good inns. Since the late insurrection, a strong citadel has been erected partly in the view of protecting, but more of overawing the town. This citadel was built from the produce of a loan raised in Poland; and, in 1835, when the emperor Nicholas visited Warsaw in his way from the congress at Toplitz, he distinctly informed the civic authorities that, on the first disturbance breaking out in the city, the guns of the citadel should level it with the ground! A cast-iron obelisk has been erected in the citadel in honour of the late emperor, inscribed "To Alexander, the Conqueror and Benefactor of Poland!"

The university of Warsaw, established in 1816, had faculties of theology, jurisprudence, medicine, philosophy, belles-lettres, and fine arts, and a library containing, it is said, 150,000 vols. of printed books, exclusive of rare MSS., with an observatory and botanic garden, cabinets of natural philosophy, zoology, minerals, medals, and coins, and printing and lithographic presses. Unfortunately, however, the university no longer exists, having been suppressed subsequently to the late ill-fated insurrection, its fine library being then, also, removed to Petersburg. Of late years there has been a R. Catholic college at Warsaw, with twelve professors; but the adherents of the Russo-Greek church are rapidly increasing here, as in all other countries subject to Russia, and have now a cathedral and other churches in the city. The Jews, of whom there are about 25,000, have several synagogues; the Armenians, too, have their places of worship, and the English have a chapel. Among the educational establishments, are numerous superior, special, and elementary schools; all of them being modelled on the new system, and having attached to each a native Russian, as a teacher of his own language, a considerable proficiency in which is now an indispensable qualification for holding any public office, how trifling soever.

Warsaw has, also, a deaf and dumb asylum, a musical conservatory, societies of friends of literature and natural science, a bible society, and some newspapers and other periodical publications. These, however, are subjected to a rigorous censorship, and are, consequently, worth little or nothing. Its manufactures comprise woollen and linen cloths, saddlery, leather, carriages of different kinds, ironmongery, paper, and tobacco, with chemical and cotton printing works, and numerous breweries. Warsaw is the great commercial entrepôt for Poland; and has two large annual fairs, in May and Sept., attended by traders from many parts of Europe and Asia, five banks, an assurance society, &c.

In comparing this city with Petersburg, Dr. Granville says, "There is a notable difference between the general aspect of the inhabs. of Warsaw and those of the cap. he had just left. The women here are handsomer than the men: at Petersburg the impression I received was of an opposite nature. The absence of those semi-Asiatic costumes, which are so prevalent in all the streets of the

Russian cap., tends, in great measure, to give to the cap. of Poland a more European aspect, but there is something else that contributes to produce that effect. The Poles are uniformly merry; they are loud chatters, fond of amusement, and as partial to living in the open air, doing nothing, as the Parisian *fainéants* and the *habitués* of the Palais Royal, the Tuileries, the Boulevards, or the Luxembourg; to which class of people I should be tempted to compare them in many respects. They also do business differently: their shops and public places of amusement are more like those of any other European city farther S.; and their *soirée* appears to be much nearer to that of the French than of the Russians." (*Granville*, ii. 527, 528.)

Warsaw, though a very ancient town, was not the cap. of Poland till 1668, after the union with Lithuania; till the Polish diet was transferred to it from Cracow. The city was occupied by the Swedes in the middle of the 17th century, and surrendered, without opposition, to Charles XII. in 1708. In 1798, the inhabs. expelled the Russian garrison previously in occupation; and the town was successfully defended against the Prussians, in the succeeding year, by Kościuszko. But the suburb of Fraga, being taken and sacked by the Russians under Suwarrow, by whom a large proportion of the inhabs. were put to the sword, the city, threatened with a similar fate, submitted to the conquerors. In 1796, Warsaw was assigned to Prussia: in 1806, she was made the cap. of the grand duchy of Poland; and in 1815, she became the cap. of the new kingdom of Poland. She was the principal seat of the ill-fated insurrection of 1831, which has entailed so much mischief on her and the rest of Poland. (*Malte Bram, Tableau de Pologne; Dict. Géog. Granville, &c.*)

WARWICK, co. of England, situated nearly in the centre of the kingdom, having N.E. the co. of Leicester, E. Northampton, S. Oxford and Gloucester, W. Worcester, and N.W. Stafford. It contains 574,080 acres; of which above 500,000 are arable, meadow, and pasture. The northern and largest part of Warwickshire was formerly an extensive forest, and still retains something of its former character, being interspersed with heaths and moors, and sprinkled with woods; but the former have greatly diminished within the present century. The S. portion is in general very fertile. Both the dairy and grazing systems are successfully practised, but the former has been gaining on the latter. The long-horned breed of cattle is preferred for the dairies; the average produce of a cow being about 2½ cwt. of cheese. Short-woolled sheep have been almost entirely banished from this co. The standing sheep stock is supposed to amount to about 350,000 head, and the produce of wool to be between 8,000 and 9,000 packs. Arable husbandry is not so well understood as grazing; and in some districts it is far behind. Wheat, barley, oats, and beans, are extensively cultivated. The first is generally drilled, and in the case, it is not a little singular that turnips should be almost everywhere sown broadcast, and beans generally dibbled. The system of top-dressing is more commonly followed in this than in any other co. Estates of various sizes; some very large, and others small. Farms vary from 80 to 500 acres; but the smaller class predominate so much, that the average is not supposed to exceed 150 acres. Old enclosures average about 10 acres, new about 15. Leases getting more uncommon, and farms mostly held from year to year. Tenants bound not to exceed three crops to a fallow; but there is no restriction as to the quantity of wheat sown. Average rent of land in 1843, 11.11s.6d., an acre. Little can be said in favour of the farm-buildings. The old houses and offices were sometimes built of timber; sometimes the walls were of stone, and sometimes of mud or clay, or thatched; they are in general injudiciously placed, ill-planned, and inconvenient. The new farm-houses and offices are of brick, covered with tile, and are very substantial; but convenience is said not to be much studied. There are no open sheds for wintering cattle, nor feeding-sheds for soiling with turnips, and other green food. (*Survey, p. 30.*) Coal is wrought to a considerable extent at various places; but Birmingham is supplied with coal brought by canal from Staffordshire. Warwick ranks high as a manufacturing co. Birmingham is the principal seat of the hardware manufacture; and nowhere, perhaps, has the combined influence of ingenuity, skill, and capital been more astonishingly displayed than in the immense variety, beauty, utility, and cheapness of the articles produced in this great workshop. Coventry has been long distinguished for its proficiency in the silk trade, particularly in the manufacture of ribbands. Needles and fish-hooks are made at Atherstone; hats at Atherstone; and flax-mills have been erected at Tamworth, and in other places. Principal rivers Avon, Tame, Alne, and Leam. The Birmingham and Fazely Canal runs along the N.W. side of the co.; and it is intersected by the Warwick and Birmingham Canal, the Warwick and Napton Canal, the Oxford Canal, &c.,

the co. is also intersected by the railway from London to Birmingham, and thence to Manchester. It is divided into 4 hundreds, and 4 subsidiary districts, and contains 206 parishes. It sends 10 mems. to the H. of C.; viz. 4 for the co., and 2 each for the city of Coventry and the bors. of Birmingham and Warwick. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 10,706, whereof 6,755 belong to the E., and 2,951 to the W. division. In 1841 Warwick had 81,321 inhabited houses, and 401,715 inhabitants, of whom 195,679 were males, and 206,036 females. Sum expended for the relief of the poor in 1848-49, 131,938. Total annual value of real property in 1842, 2,264,490.

WARWICK, a pari. and mun. bor. and par. of England, near the centre of the co. Warwick, of which it is the cap., bund. Knightlow, on the Avon, 2½ m. W. Leamington, and 82 m. N.W. London. Area of pari. bor., the limits of which were not altered by the Boundary Act, and which is co-extensive with the two parishes of St. Mary and St. Nicholas, 5,360 acres. Pop., in 1841, 9,134. It stands on an abrupt acclivity on the N. bank of the river, which is here crossed by a handsome stone bridge of a single arch, and is regularly laid out, consisting of two principal thoroughfares crossing each other towards the centre of the town with a number of smaller cross streets. The principal streets are well built, paved, lighted with gas, kept remarkably clean, and ornamented with several handsome public buildings. The most conspicuous of these is St. Mary's church, which, having been nearly burnt down in 1694, was rebuilt in 1704. It exhibits a singular union of various styles: the square tower, which was designed by Sir Christopher Wren, and is finely proportioned, rises to a height of 130 ft.; it is supported on 4 pointed arches, with a thoroughfare underneath, and crowned with pinnacles. Rickman says, that "The whole of this church, except the chancel and its adjuncts, is a composition of the greatest barbarity; but the chancel is an uncommonly beautiful specimen of Perpendicular work, and the east front is remarkably fine, simple in its arrangement, yet rich from the elegance of its parts and the excellent execution of its details. The interior is equally beautiful, and there are, on the N. side, a monumental chapel and vestry of very good character; but the great feature of the church is the Beauchamp Chapel, erected in 1464. It is completely enriched both within and without; its details of the most elegant character and excellent execution, and in very good preservation. It consists of a chapel, of several arches, and a small aisle, or rather passages, on the N. side, between the chapel and the church. In the centre of the chapel stands a very rich altar tomb, with the effigies of Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, whose executors commenced the erection of this chapel, which, however, was not completed until the 3d Edw. IV. There are some other monuments, (including a fine one of Dudley, Earl of Lichfield, favourite of Elizabeth), but others are of much later date, and rather disfigure the chapel than add to its beauty." The living of St. Mary's is a vicarage, in the gift of the corporation of Warwick, worth 300*l.* a year. The church of St. Nicholas is small and plain; the living, also in the gift of the corporation, is worth 218*l.* per annum. Other churches formerly existed, of which there are now no remains. The Independents, Friends, Wesleyans, Unitarians, and Baptists, have their respective meeting-houses.

The court-house in the High Street is a respectable stone building erected in 1730. The county hall, a spacious and handsome edifice 94 ft. in length, and 36 ft. in width, has an elegant stone front supported by a range of Corinthian pillars. In this building the courts of justice are held; and attached to it on the N. side is the co. jail, a large and well designed building, surrounded by a strong wall 22 ft. in height, enclosing nearly an acre of ground. The co. bridewell, in which is a corn-mill, (worked by the male prisoners,) &c., and the market-house, are large and substantial modern structures. It has also a public subscription library and news-room, and a small theatre.

But the great glory of Warwick is its castle, the seat of the Earl of Warwick, and the most magnificent of the ancient feudal mansions of the English nobility, still used as a residence. It stands on a rock overhanging the Avon, a little to the S.E. of the town. It retains much of its ancient grandeur of appearance, and, uninjured by Time, presents an interesting memorial of by-gone ages. Its foundation is attributed to Ethelbeld, daughter of Alfred, in 915; but no authentic trace now remains of the original building. Caesar's tower, 147 ft. in height, supposed to have been built at least 700 years ago, is in a perfect state of preservation. Guy's Tower, 129 ft. in height, and built in 1384, is also, nearly perfect; it appears to be of a decorated character; and though very plain, is perhaps the most perfect reman of its kind in existence, and curious alike as to composition and construction. The principal entrance faces the E. side of the town, and the approach to it is a broad winding road cut in the solid

reck. Before the front is a disused moat, a stone arch over which has replaced the ancient drawbridge. On passing the double gateway, the visitor finds himself in the inner court of the castle, surrounded on all sides by lofty embattled walls and ramparts. This castle was formerly a strong fortress; and by means of open flights of stone steps and passages on the tops of the walls there is a line of communication all round the building. The parts of this vast and venerable pile that are occupied by the family are magnificently fitted up, but so as to harmonise, in all respects, with the style and character of the building. The collection of paintings is at once extensive and valuable.

In a greenhouse attached to the castle is the WARWICK VASE, one of the noblest remains of ancient art. It is of white marble, and of large dimensions, being capable of holding 135 gallons. Its handles are exquisitely formed of interwoven vine branches. On the body of the vase are the heads of satyrs, bound with wreaths of ivy, the skin of the panther, with the head and claws beautifully sculptured, and other appropriate ornaments. This most splendid relic was found at the bottom of a lake, at Adrian's Villa, at Tivoli (which see), of which, no doubt, it had formed a principal ornament; and having been purchased by Sir William Hamilton, was consigned by him to his relative the Earl of Warwick, at whose expense it was brought to England, and by whose liberality it has been placed in a situation where it may at all times be seen by the public.

The remains of several monastic establishments exist in and near Warwick; and at the E. and W. extremities of the town are gates, each containing some ancient work with modern additions. Leicester's Hospital, an ancient building at the W. extremity of High Street, was originally a hall belonging to two guilds, and was converted to its present use by Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, for the reception of 12 poor men, chiefly disabled veterans, and for a professor of divinity as master. In 1811, the clear value of the estates with which it is endowed amounted to 2,000*l.* per annum. In 1818, the master's salary was raised from 50*l.* to 400*l.* a year, and the number of inmates increased to 32. The college school, originally founded by Henry VIII. as a free grammar-school, and endowed out of the revenues of the dissolved monasteries, is open to all the boys of the town. It has two exhibitions of 70*l.* to each of the universities. Of late years it had fallen into a state of decay; but recently the number of youths educated here has increased, and at present (1842) the school is comparatively prosperous. Here is, also, a charity-school founded and endowed for the instruction of 39 boys and 36 girls; a national school; school of industry, &c., and not less than 40 almshouses. Large funds are vested in the hands of the corporation for distribution among the poor.

The manufactures, which are unimportant, comprise a few descriptions of cotton and woollen goods, a worsted mill, with a ropery, and a brass and iron foundry. There are several large malting houses, and lime, timber, and coal-wharfs, on the banks of the Stratford canal, which comes up to the N. part of the town, and by which it communicates with Oxford, Birmingham, and the Severn. It is within about 10 m. of Coventry, and consequently, also, of the London and Birmingham railway. The *Boards Rep.* says, "The town is thriving, and distinguished by an appearance of respectability and neatness. Trade seems to be rapidly increasing, which may be accounted for in great measure by its proximity to and connection with Leamington, where most of the Warwick tradespeople have shops, and where the chief speculators from this town invest their capital." But circumstances have changed materially in the interval. The great increase of Leamington, and its superior advantages, have taken much of the capital and business from Warwick, which it formerly enjoyed, and proportionally depressed the latter. Very few Warwick tradesmen have shops in Leamington. Warwick is a borough by prescription: its earliest charter dates from the 4th of Henry III., but it was not regularly incorporated till 1553. Under the Municipal Reform Act, it is divided into 2 wards, and is governed by a mayor, 5 aldermen, and 18 councillors. Quarterly courts of session are held for all offences not capital; a court-leet annually; and there is occasionally a court of record for the recovery of debts under 40*l.* The bor. has returned 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the reign of Edward I., the franchise having been vested, previously to the Reform Act, in the payers of church and poor-rates. Registered electors, in 1845-50, 744. Corporation revenue, in 1847-8, 2,345*l.* It has a weekly newspaper; and the Warwick and Leamington Banking Company, established in 1834, has its head office in the town. The Leamington Priory Banking Company has also a branch here.

Warwick is conjectured by Dugdale and other writers to have been a Roman station; but there are no proofs of its having existed before the Saxon times. It was in great part destroyed by fire in 1694. Market-day, Saturday. Fairs, twelve times a year; mostly for horses, cattle, and

cheese. (*Hist. of Warwick; Bound. and Munic. Corp. Rep.*; *Coats's Warwick Castle; Private Inform.*)

WASHINGTON, (so called in honour of the father of the republic,) a city of the U. States, being the cap. of the Union, and the seat of the general legislature and government, in the federal distr. of Columbia, on the Potomac, here crossed by a wooden bridge, nearly 1 m. in length, at the confluence of the Anacostia, 310 m. S.W. New York; lat. 38° 39' 54" N., long. 77° 1' 49" W. Pop., in 1840, 23,964. "Every body knows," says Capt. Marryatt, "that Washington has a capitol, but the misfortune is, that the capitol wants a city. There it stands, reminding you of a general without an army, only surrounded by a parcel of ragged little dirty boys; for such is the appearance of the city. (*Diary, &c.* li. 1, 2.) But the staple of this statement consists, as might perhaps have been expected, of fiction rather than of truth. The plan of the city is laid down upon a magnificent scale, and though it has not increased so rapidly as was expected, it is now of very respectable dimensions. The streets cross each other at right angles; and are intersected diagonally by *avenues*, named after the states of the Union. The smaller streets are from 70 ft. to 110 ft. wide, the avenues and streets leading to public places from 150 ft. to 160 ft. wide. Mr. Stuart says, "The entrance to the city by the Pennsylvania avenue, which reaches from the capitol to the President's house, 160 ft. in width, and planted with rows of poplar trees, is magnificent. The city is placed in so fine a situation, and the capitol is so truly an imposing building, that I have seldom been more pleased than with the first view of the seat of the legislature of the U. States." (*Stuart's America*, i. 388.) The capitol, the noblest structure in the Union, stands on a hill elevated about 75 ft. above the Potomac, which it overlooks. It is built of freestone, and consists of a centre and two wings, the entire front being 360 ft. in length. In the centre of the S. side is a fine portico, supported by 18 Corinthian columns, and approached by a flight of steps; over the centre of the building is a large dome rising to 145 ft. in height: smaller flat domes, reaching to about 70 ft. high, cover the wings. In the interior, under the central dome, is the circular chamber called the Rotunda, ornamented with reliefs, and paintings of national subjects. On the W. of this apartment is the congress library, with 30,000 vols. In the S. wing is the House of Representatives, in the form of a Grecian amphitheatre, 96 ft. in diameter, and 60 ft. in height, surrounded with 24 Corinthian columns of variegated native marble. "The seats for the members are conveniently disposed: each member has his fixed place, a chair, and a small desk. The members, when speaking, generally stand in the space between the desk, which affords sufficient room." (*Stuart*, i. 389.) The senate chamber, in the N. wing, is of the same form, but smaller, being 74 ft. in diameter, and 42 ft. in height. Over the president's chair is a portrait of Washington; and statues of Liberty and History ornament this hall. Underneath is the hall of the supreme court of the U. States; and there are, in the building, 70 rooms for the accommodation of committees, &c. The capitol is surrounded by ornamental grounds, comprising about 23 acres. This magnificent building is said to have cost, in all the sum of 2,556,500 dollars. Opposite the N. front of the building is a column, erected in honour of the officers who fell at Tripoli. The President's house, of freestone, two stories high, with an Ionic portico, is a handsome building. Beside it are four large edifices for the chief departments of government. In the city are the U. States general post-office, with the patent-office, the arsenal, and navy-yard, a city hall, 250 ft. in length by 80 ft. in breadth, hospital, penitentiary, upwards of 30 churches, 4 market-houses, the Columbian institute, a Rom. Cath. seminary, a city library; with medical, botanical, masonic, and many benevolent societies and other institutions. Washington has a large glass manufactory, but its trade is mostly confined to the supply of goods to the government establishments and members of Congress. Alexandria, lower down the river, being more conveniently situated for carrying on foreign trade, of which it has a considerable share. Exclusive of several large taverns, the city recently had 4 banks, an insurance company, and 10 printing-offices, from which 3 daily and several weekly newspapers were issued. Its suburb, George Town, to the W. of the city, from which it is separated by a narrow creek, across which are numerous bridges, had, in 1840, a pop. of 7,313; most of its houses are of brick, and it is a thriving town with a considerable trade. The Ohio and Chesapeake canal terminates in George Town, and the city is united to Annapolis by a railway. Mount Vernon, the seat of Washington, the founder and father of the republic, on a bank above the Potomac, is situated about 15 m. from the capitol. It continues much in the state in which it was left by its illustrious owner. The remains of Washington, who died on the 11th of December, 1800, are deposited in a vault in the grounds.

Washington was made the seat of the U. States government in 1800: it sustained a good deal of injury from the British in 1814, more, perhaps, to the discredit of the latter, than to the loss of the Americans; but not a trace is now visible of these injuries. (*Eng. Amer. and American Almanac*, 1843: *Eng. of Geog.*, American edit.; *Stuart's Devonport's Gazetteer*, &c.)

WATERFORD, a marit. co. of Ireland, prov. Munster, having S. St. George's Channel: E. Waterford Harbour, by which it is separated from Wexford and Kilkenny; N. Tipperary; and W. Cork. Area 471,281 acres, of which 118,034 are unimproved mountain, with but little bog. Though generally coarse, there is a considerable extent of fine land in this co., particularly in its S.E. quarter, and the mountains afford good pasturage for cattle. Estates, for the most part, very large; the largest, which belongs to the Duke of Devonshire, is managed on the most liberal principles and greatly improved. Here, indeed, and generally throughout Ireland (and, we believe, that the same thing may be truly affirmed of England), tenants and occupiers on large estates are decidedly better off than those on the smaller class of properties. This is the principal dairy co. of Ireland. When it was visited by Mr. Young, near 1-30th part was under the plough. (*Tour in Ireland*, 4to ed. p. 329.) The proportion in tillage is now, however, much larger. This has principally arisen from the vicious custom of dividing farms. "In this co.," says Mr. Wakefield, "when the eldest daughter of a farmer marries, the father, instead of giving her a portion, divides his farm between himself and his son-in-law; the next daughter gets a half of the remainder; and this division and subdivision is continued as long as there are daughters to be disposed of. The sons are left to shift for themselves the best way they can." (i. 280.) Some of the dairy farmers are in easy circumstances; but the condition of the tillage farmers and cottiers is much the same as in other parts of Munster. Some very material improvements have, however, been introduced since 1830, into this and the contiguous cos. Improved swing-ploughs, made of iron, drawn by two horses driven by the ploughman, are now become very general. Land is kept cleaner; there has been a very great increase in the quantity of lime, used as manure; green crops are more attended to; and the quantity of wheat raised within these few years has been more than doubled; while there has been a decided falling off in the production of oats. There has also been a large increase of the exports of butter and bacon. Average rent of land, 15s. 2d. an acre. The minerals, which comprise copper, iron, &c. are but little wrought, and are unimportant; which, also, is the case with manufactures: a considerable cotton manufacture has, however, been established at Portlaw, and some glass is made in Waterford. Principal rivers, Blackwater, Suir, and Bride. Waterford is divided into 7 baronies, and 74 parishes; and returns 5 mems. to the H. of C.; being 2 for the co., 2 for the bor. of Waterford, and 1 for Duagarvan. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 321. In 1841, Waterford had 28,345 inhab. houses, 33,878 families, and 196,187 inhabs.; of whom 95,576 were males, and 100,611 females.

WATERFORD, a city, parl. bor., and sea-port of Ireland, prov. Munster, on the estuary of the river Suir, about 10 m. from the sea, and 82 m. S.S.W. Dublin, lat. 52° 13' N., long. 7° 10' W. It is a co. of itself, comprising 10,059 acres, but is locally situated near the W. extremity of the co. of Waterford, of which it is the cap.

In 1841, the pop. of the co. of the city amounted to 26,296, and that of the city itself to 23,216. The Boundary Act made no change in the limits of the parl. bor., which embraces the whole co. of the city. The city is situated on the S. or S.W. side of the river, but a considerable portion of the co. of the city is situated on its opposite side, the communication between them being maintained by a fine wooden bridge 832 ft. in length by 40 ft. in width, constructed by an American artist. The quay fronting the river, 1,200 yards in length, is one of the finest in Europe, and is bounded on the land side by a range of well built houses. The other principal streets are the Mall, Beresford Street, Broad Street, &c.; but the city is very irregularly laid out; and in the older parts the streets are mostly narrow and dirty, with mean thatched houses, or rather hovels, occupied by a very poor and wretched population. In the more modern parts, however, the streets are comparatively broad, and the houses well built and substantial. The co. of the city is divided into 13 parishes, of which 3 are entirely rural. The cathedral of the see of Waterford (now merged in that of Cashel) is a fine modern building, with an ornamental spire: near it is the bishop's palace, also a handsome modern structure. Here are 8 parish churches, and 4 Rom. Catholic chapels, the largest of which is the cathedral. The Presbyterians, Baptists, Methodists, Independents, and Quakers have, also, their

respective places of worship. Among the public buildings, exclusive of the churches, may be noticed the town hall, chamber of commerce, county and city prisons and court houses, artillery barracks, penitentiary, custom house, St. Reginald's tower, on the quay, an ancient fortress, now a police barrack, &c.

The educational establishments comprise an endowed classical school, under the patronage of the corporation, which provides a residence and salary for the head master; the College of St. John, a plain but spacious building, provides instruction for candidates for the Rom. Catholic ministry, preparatory to their entrance into the College of Maynooth; and there are various other public and private schools. Mr. Inglis states that he visited a Catholic school, at which upwards of 700 children were educated by an association of young men, called the "Brothers of the Christian Schools." Here, also, is the Waterford Institution for the Diffusion of Knowledge, with a library and a small museum, a Literary and Scientific Society in which lectures are delivered, and Agricultural and Horticultural Societies. In 1849 it had 3 weekly newspapers.

The charitable institutions comprise a Blue-coat School for Protestant boys, founded about 1700, and possessing an estate of 1,400 acres; a Blue-coat Hospital for Protestant girls, founded in 1740; Widows' Apartments, erected in 1702, for the maintenance of 10 poor clergywomen's widows; the Leper Hospital, founded by King John, and now used as an infirmary, is capable of accommodating 400 patients; the Holy Ghost Hospital, founded in 1260, and now appropriated to the reception of females; the Fever Hospital, the first of the kind in Ireland, opened in 1799, and capable of receiving 150 patients; the Lunatic Asylum for the co. and city, a large modern building, has accommodation for 117 patients. The union workhouse, opened in 1841, has accommodation for 1,780 inmates. There is also a lying-in hospital, a charitable loan fund, and several orphan societies.

The manufactures of Waterford are unimportant, comprising only a glass work, 3 breweries, 4 foundries, and several flour-mills; but it is better situated for trade than any other town of Ireland. The harbour is excellent, vessels of 800 tons being coming up to the quay. The Suir, which is navigable for barges as far as Clonmel, gives it a considerable command of inland navigation, and it is also the principal entrepot for the produce brought down by the Barrow and its important tributary the Nore, as well as for the produce which is to be conveyed inland by these channels; its trade is in consequence great and increasing. Its exports of raw produce, including corn and flour, butter, beef, pork, and bacon, hides, tallow, &c., exceed those from any other Irish port, and amount, at present, to above 2,000,000, a year. The opening of a steam communication between Waterford and Bristol, and other towns, has been of peculiar advantage to the first.

Subjoined is a statement of the quantity and value of the principal articles exported from Waterford during the year ending the 30th April, 1835:—

Principal Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Beef - - - - -	53 at 150s.	£ 7 10 0
Pork - - - - -	673 - 30s.	2 04 0
Pork - - - - -	2,919 - 45s.	1 108 14 0
Bacon - - - - -	399,138 - 85s.	515 579 8 0
Butter - - - - -	118,471 - 90s.	475 584 0 0
Lard - - - - -	18,397 - 20s.	45 992 10 0
Wheat - - - - -	65,775 - 11s.	66 963 12 0
Oats - - - - -	208,167 - 12s.	181 900 0 0
Barley - - - - -	57,731 - 14s.	46 411 14 0
Flour - - - - -	496,538 - 18s.	287 470 8 0
Oatmeal - - - - -	11,321 - 12s.	6 792 12 0
Bread - - - - -	1,361 - 12s. 6d.	800 12 6
Cattle - - - - -	4,410 - 160s.	30 370 0 0
Live Sheep - - -	1,850 - 45s.	4 180 10 0
De. Pigs - - - -	56,513 - 55s.	109 047 12 0
Total - - - - -		1,818,553 12 6

There belonged to the port, on the 1st Jan. 1850, 183 sailing vessels of the agg. burden of 21,360 tons, and 15 steamers, burden 2,754 tons. Gross customs' duty, in 1849, 119,269l. The management of the port is vested in 24 harbour commissioners, nominated partly by the Chamber of Commerce, and partly by the corporation. Post-office revenue, in 1849, 2,268l. Branches of the Bank of Ireland, the Provincial Bank, and the National Bank of Ireland, have been opened in the town.

Being the place at which Henry II. landed, in 1172, to take possession of his conquests in Ireland, Waterford was early distinguished by marks of royal favour. It appears, however, that the right to send 2 representatives to the Irish H. of C. was not conferred by charter, but rested only on prescription, the practice having commenced in 1374. At the Union, Waterford was authorised to send 1 mem. to the Imperial H. of C., and under the Reform Act she sends 2 mems. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 1,212. The limits of the municipal

Wor. are much less extensive than those of the parl. bor., inc. only 669 acres. Under the act 3 & 4 Victoria, cap. 108., the city is divided into 5 wards, and is governed by a mayor, 5 other aldermen, and 30 councillors. It has a court of record, which decides pleas to any amount; a civil bill court for debts from 2*l.* to 1*l.* 4*s.*; a court of conscience for debts under 2*l.*; and a mayor's court, for the decision of claims as to wages. Assizes for the co. and city are held here twice a year, and general sessions of the peace 15 times.

It is rather singular, that notwithstanding the increase of its trade, there is a great deal of abject poverty and misery in Waterford. Some improvements have, however, taken place, both in respect of cleanliness and of the dress of the lower orders. When Mr. Inglis was here, whiskey drinking prevailed to a frightful extent; but, thanks to the exertions of Father Mathew, this has been materially diminished. (*Part. Reports; Thom's Almanac; and Private Information.*)

WATERLOO, a hamlet of Belgium, prov. Brabant, on the verge of the forest of Solgnes, and on the road from Brussels to Charleroi, 9 m. S. by E. the former. This village will be for ever memorable in military history for the great battle fought in its vicinity on the 18th of June, 1815, between the allied army under the Duke of Wellington, and the French, under Napoleon. There is some discrepancy in the statements on the subject, but each army probably consisted of about 70,000 men. The French began the attack between 11 and 12 o'clock forenoon. The object of Napoleon was to defeat the British, or force them to retreat, before the Prussians, who he knew were coming up, could arrive on the field; while that of the Duke of Wellington was to maintain his ground till he could be joined by his allies, when it might be in his power to become the assailant. The attacks of the French were repeated with the greatest fury; but they made no serious impression on the British, by whom they were sustained and repelled with invincible courage and resolution. At length, about a past 6 o'clock, the Prussians came into the field, with a strong force of from 15,000 to 20,000 men. The English then became the assailants; and though Napoleon brought forward his guard, which had not previously been engaged, it could not stem the torrent, and, having been forced to give way, the whole army got into inextricable confusion, and the rout became universal. The slaughter was enormous. The British lost, besides officers, about 15,000 men killed and wounded. The French loss is not exactly known; but it was not, perhaps, less, in the battle and pursuit, than 30,000 men. All their cannon and baggage also fell into the hands of the conquerors; and it may, indeed, be said that the French army was entirely destroyed.

Such was the battle of Waterloo, in which the star of Napoleon set never to shine again! It is not, however, to be denied that he did all that was possible in the desperate circumstances under which he was placed. He had already defeated and beat back the Prussians; and his only chance of being able to make head against the forces that were marching against him, of awakening the enthusiasm of the French, and paralyzing his enemies, depended on his being able to defeat the army under the Duke of Wellington before it could form a junction with the Prussians. The skill of the British general, and the invincible courage and resolution of his troops, defeated this project; but it was worthy the genius of Napoleon, whose efforts in this "death struggle" were well seconded by his troops, who, though unsuccessful, did all that brave men could do.

WATFORD, a market town and par. of England, co. Herts, hund. Cassio, on the Colne, here crossed by a bridge, 10 m. N. W. London. Area of par., including the sides Watford 4 adjacent hamlets, 10,980 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 5,989; and of the town 3,677. The latter, which is well built, consists principally of a main street, about 1 m. in length, on the high road from London to Birmingham. The church, in the centre of the town, is a large edifice, consisting of a nave, 3 aisles, and a chancel: it has, at the W. end, a massive embattled tower, 80 ft. in height, surmounted by a small spire rising about 30 ft. higher. It has some fine monuments, especially 3 by Nicholas Stone. The living, a valuable charge, worth 780*l.* is in the gift of the Earl of Essex. Here, also, are chapels for Baptists and Wesleyans. The educational establishments comprise a free school, founded in 1704, for 40 boys and 14 girls, with an income of about 180*l.* a year, which, in 1832, afforded instruction to 60 scholars; another free school, with a small endowment, established in 1641; a national school supported by subscription, &c.: the funds for the general charities yielded, at the date of last inquiry, an income of nearly 850*l.* a year. Next to agriculture, the chief branches of industry pursued here are the spinning and winding of silk, straw plaiting, and mauling. In 1838, there were 9 silk mills at work in the par., which furnished employment for 320 hands. There are some very extensive paper mills on the Colne, in the vicinity;

and Watford is a considerable market for corn, sheep, cattle, and hogs. Its trade in these is facilitated by the Grand Junction Canal, which passes about 3 m. W. of the town, where it is joined by the Colne, which has been rendered navigable to St. Alban's. The London and Birmingham Railway has a station immediately to the E. of Watford, near which the line passes through a tunnel 1,930 yards in length. A council of magistrates, and a court of requests for the recovery of small debts, are held in the town weekly. Markets on Tuesdays; and fairs four times a year for cattle, horses, pedlery, and the hiring of servants. Adjoining Watford on the W. is Cassibury Park, the seat of the Earl of Essex, lord of the manor. The house has a good deal of the appearance of a monastery; it has some good pictures, and a valuable collection of books. (*Private Information.*)

WEARMOUTH. See SUNDERLAND.
WEDNESBURY, a market-town and par. of England, co. Stafford, hund. Offlow, near the source of the Tame, in the great coal and iron district of which Birmingham is the centre, 7 m. N. W. Birmingham. Area of par., 3,190 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 11,626. The church, which stands on a hill, and is supposed to occupy the site of an ancient castle, repaired within these few years, is a fine structure, with a tower surmounted by a lofty spire. It has an octagonal E. end, and other portions in the perpendicular style, and within are some exquisitely carved prebendal stalls, and a curious moveable reading-desk. (*Rickman.*) The living, a vicarage worth 300*l.* a year, is in the gift of the crown. Here are chapels for Independents and Wesleyans; a Lancastrian school, supported by subscription; a small endowed school for poor children, an almshouse, and some minor charities. The inhabs. are mostly employed in various branches of the hardware manufacture, especially in the production of the numerous articles included under the term saddlery, ironmongery, with nails, hinges, edge-tools, and cast-iron works of almost every description. Enamel painting is also extensively carried on; and it has a soap manufactory, which produced, in 1839, 2,571,921 lbs. hard soap. A valuable potter's earth is obtained in the vicinity; in which are, also, several corn mills. A branch of the Birmingham Canal approaches within a short distance of the town on the one hand, and the Grand Junction Railway on the other. The local authority is vested in a committee chosen at the manorial court, held here annually; a court of requests is opened occasionally, for the recovery of debts under 5*l.* Market-day, Wednesday; fairs, twice a year, for cattle and pedlery.

WEIMAR-EISENACH (GRAND DUCHY OF SAXE), a state of Central Germany, the most important of the minor Saxon states, consisting of several detached portions of territory, inclosed on different sides by the dominions of Prussia, Hesse-Cassel, Bavaria, the kingdom of Saxony, the duchies of Coburg, Meiningen, &c., the cap. being in lat. 50° 59' 12" N. long 11° 21' 17" E. Total area estimated at 1,416 sq. m. Pop. in 1848, 261,664, all Protestants, except about 10,300 R. Caths. and 1,450 Jews. The principality of Saxe-Weimar is subdivided into the circles of Weimar-Jena, and Neustadt; that of Eisenach in the W. forms a circle of itself. The greater part of the country belongs to what is called the *Thüringerveld*, or Thüringian forest, and to the basins of the Elbe and Weser; its principal rivers being the Ilm, Saale, White Elster, and Unstrut. Agriculture is the principal occupation of the inhabs.; the soil, consisting of a clayey loam upon a calcareous basis, is moderately fertile. Owing to the minute subdivision of the land the occupiers are for the most part poor. Mr. Jacob says that they live harder than day labourers, and that, despite their industry and economy, they are unable to increase their resources. (*Vicr of Germany*, 328.) The country had not then, however, fully recovered from the devastation produced by the late war, and it is now a good deal improved. In the vicinity near Weimar the soil is a rich black mould, producing, notwithstanding its defective culture, very superior crops. The villages in this part of the duchy are thickly placed and populous, but, in consequence of the smallness of the farms, there is a great scarcity of cattle. Of late years, however, the rearing of cattle has been a good deal more attended to; and the stock of sheep has been greatly increased in consequence of the ready and advantageous market for wool afforded in England. Game is extremely plentiful; and the woods comprise about one million Prussian *morgen* of land. Most of the peasants' houses are built of timber.

Coal and salt are both raised, the former in no great quantities, but the production of the latter, at Kriebitzburg, may amount to 1,100,000 lbs. a year. Iron and manganese are the chief metallic products. Manufactures are not very important; woollen cloths, carpets, hosiery, linen stuffs, iron, hardware, and tobacco-pipes, are the principal products. There are a good many breweries and distilleries. Manufacturing industry is most active in the circle of Eisenach.

The government is a limited monarchy; and the royal

family of Weimar took the lead in Germany after the peace, in introducing a free representative system into their domain. The constitution dates from 5th May, 1816, and is certainly one of the most liberal in Germany. "The miniature parliament forms only one house, for it consists of only 81 mems.; 10 are chosen by the proprietors of estates-noble, 10 by the citizens of the towns, 10 by the peasantry, and 1 by the university of Jena. The last is elected by the *Senatus Academicus*; and, besides being a professor, must have taken a regular degree in the juridical faculty. At the general election, which occurs every 7th year, not only the representatives themselves are chosen, but likewise a substitute for every member, that the representation may be always full. The 10 mems. for the nobility are chosen directly by all the possessors of patents of nobility, or estate-noble. Even ladies in possession of such estates have a vote; but if unmarried, they must vote by proxy.

"In the representation of the towns and peasantry, the election is indirect. The towns are distributed into 10 districts, each of which sends 1 mem. In these, every resident citizen has a vote, without distinction of religion; even Jews possess the franchise, though they cannot be elected. The whole body of voters in a town choose a certain number of delegates, in the proportion of 1 for every 50 houses the town contains, and these delegates elect the mems. for the district. The mems. for a district of towns must have a certain independent income of about 75*l.* sterling, if he be elected for Weimar or Eisenach, and 45*l.* if chosen to represent the towns of any other district. The election of the 10 representatives of the peasantry proceeds in a similar way. Their representatives must belong to *themselves*; they are not allowed to take them from the higher classes of landed proprietors, which they certainly would have been easily brought to do, had it not been expressly prohibited. Neither brothers, nor father and son, are capable of sitting in the chamber at the same time. The parliament elects its own president, whose election is confirmed by the grand duke, and who holds office during two parliaments. Regularly the chamber meets only once in three years, and the budget is voted for the whole of that period; but a standing committee of nine mems. continues during the adjournment. During the session the mems. have an allowance of about 10*l.* a day, besides a certain sum per mile for travelling expenses. The powers of the chamber extend to all the branches of legislation, and its consent is indispensable to the validity of all legislative measures. The majority of voices determines every question. The mems. have full privilege of parliament; their persons are inviolable from the commencement till eight days after the close of the session: they are secured in liberty of speech, and legal proceedings cannot be instituted against them without the consent of the chamber." (*Russell*, i. 111-117.)

The ministry is in three departments, those of justice, finance, and public instruction. There are courts of primary jurisdiction in the principal towns, and courts of appeal in Weimar and Eisenach. In which, with Weida and Dornbach, are also criminal courts, all having appeal to the supreme court of Jena, which is also the supreme tribunal for the States of Saxe-Coburg, Meiningen, and Reuss. According to Berghaus, public education is no where in Germany so widely diffused, and so well attended to, as in Saxe-Weimar. In 1830, 35,285 children were receiving public instruction. According to the budget for 1839-41, the revenue of the Grand Duchy amounts to 773,093 *thalers*, and the expenditure to 664,748 *do.*; the public debt amounts to 8,500,000 *thalers*. The contingent to the army of the Confederation consists of 2,100 men, all persons being liable to service from their 20th to 25th year. Saxe-Weimar holds the 15th place in the Confed.; having one vote in the full Diet, and with Saxe-Coburg, Meiningen and Altenburg, one in the Committee.

WEIMAR, a city of Central Germany, cap. of the above Grand Duchy, and the usual residence of the Grand Duke, on the Ilm, an affluent of the Saale, 104 m. W. by S. Dresden, 116 m. S.E. Hanover, and 126 m. S.W. Berlin. Pop. in 1848, 11,212. The city, which is partially surrounded with walls, though irregularly laid out, has several good and clean streets, and handsome houses; and besides to rank with German towns of the second order. The Ilm, which flows along its S. side, is crossed by 3 bridges; it traverses the centre of the ducal park, the chief promenade of the inhabs.; and has on or near its W. bank, the ducal palace and mews, the riding-house, *rothe schloss* or red castle, public library, and several other public buildings. The ducal residence is a good building, and is tastefully furnished; but comfort rather than magnificence was the object of the late Grand Duke, by whom it was built. The town church has a large organ; an altar-piece of the Crucifixion, by Luke Cranach, in which are introduced portraits of his friends Luther and Melancthon, and of himself; and monuments to Herder, and numerous members of the

ducal family interred here. In the park is a handsome temple containing some beautiful arabesques, and a portrait by Angelica Kauffman. An avenue from this promenade conducts to the Belvedere, a summer palace of the Grand Duke, about 3 m. distant.

If Dresden be the Florence, Weimar was once fairly entitled to be called the Athens of Germany; having been the residence of Wieland, Schiller, Goethe, Herder, &c., invited thither by the late Grand Duke. Goethe and Schiller are buried in the new cemetery, one on each side their patron. During their superintendence, the theatre at Weimar was among the most celebrated in Germany; and its opera is still very well conducted and supported, the inhabs. of the city being great lovers of music. The grand ducal library holds a high rank, and has 96,000 printed vols., besides MSS. (*Statist. Journ.*, 1841.) It is open to the public, who are even allowed the use of the books at their own houses. In this library are some fine busts, and some paintings by A. Durrer. One of the principal objects of notice in Weimar is the *Lamms-Industrie-Comptoir*, a vast printing and publishing establishment, in which a great number of persons are employed in translating such foreign works as are likely to be read in Germany; "and such is the rapidity with which this office is performed, that frequently the translation of a book published in London at the beginning of one month is in full circulation by the end of the same month throughout Saxony, and the independent states of Germany, from the press of the *Industrie-Comptoir*." (*Granville's Trav.*, i. 229.) From this press issues the *Weimar Almanac*, frequently quoted in this work. Weimar is the seat of nearly all the superior educational institutions of the grand duchy. It has a famous academy attended by young English gentlemen, several hospitals, an orphan asylum, central prison, &c. The manufactures of Weimar are inconsiderable: a few woollen and linen cloths, iron-ware, paper, and beer are the principal products. The town has some trade in corn and wool. Weimar was the birth-place of Kotzebue. (*Berghaus, Allg. Länderk.,* iv.; *Stein's Handb.*; *Russell, Jacob, and Grammel's Trav.*, &c.)

WELLINGBOROUGH, a market town and par. of England, co. Northampton, hund. Hamfordaboe, on the slope of a hill, 10 m. E.N.E. Northampton. Area of par. 4,490 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 5,061. The town, which was a place of some consequence in the time of the Saxons, consists principally of four streets, meeting in a market-place. The houses are built of red sandstone, and the town having been almost wholly destroyed by a tremendous fire in 1788, has now a comparatively modern appearance. The church, a large edifice, with a tower and spire, is, like most churches in this co., of a mixed style. It is, however, richly decorated with carved work; in its E. window is some stained glass, and on each side of the chancel are three stalls like those in cathedral choirs. The living, a vicarage worth 400*l.* a year, is in the gift of — Vivian, Esq. Here, also, are places of worship for Baptists, Friends, Wesleyans, &c. The free school, founded by Edward VI., has an income of 112*l.* a year, and is open to all boys belonging to the parish. The numbers, varying from 18 to 20, are taught gratis, but who pay 1*l.* a quarter for English writing, and arithmetic. The governors are the trustees of the town estate; the right of appointing the master and usher is vested in the inhabs. paying taxes. (*Digest of Charity Reps.*) The town estate, yielding an income of 350*l.* a year, partly supports the free school; and the usher's salary, with a charity school for the primary instruction of 60 children, is partly dependent on Fisher's endowment of 137*l.* 10*s.* a year. There are several charities for supplying bread to the poor, &c. The manufacture of boots and shoes was carried on very extensively in this town during the war, and, though fallen off, still continues to be its staple business. The corn market, on Wednesdays, is considerable.

Wellington derived its name from the wells or mineral springs around it, which formerly enjoyed such celebrity that, in 1626, Charles I. and his queen resided here in tents for a considerable period that they might drink the waters pure from their source. The co. magistrates hold petty sessions for the div. weekly in the townhall. Fairs, Easter and Whit Wednesday, and Oct. 29, for live stock and cheese.

WELLINGTON, a market-town and par. of England, co. Salop, head of div. of Bradford hundred, on the ancient Watling Street, 10 m. E. Shrewsbury. Area of par., which, besides the town, includes 6 townships, 7,300 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 11,090. The town consists mostly of narrow streets; but, of late years, these have been lighted with gas, and otherwise much improved, and are mostly lined with well built houses. The par. church is a handsome structure of freestone with cast-iron pillars, the window frames being also of iron. The living, a vicarage conjoined with the rectory of Eytow, worth 842*l.* a year, is in the gift of — Eytow, Esq. (*Ecc. Rev. Rep.*) Here are several dissenting places of worship, free and national schools, and some small

houses and several minor charities. Near the town are some chalybeate and sulphureous springs, frequented by visitors. Most of the inhabs. of the par. are employed in working coal and iron mines, and limestone quarries; and there are in the par. many smelting furnaces, wrought by machinery, with nail-works, glass-works, &c. Malting and some trade in timber are also carried on. The town is governed by a mayor and 2 constables, appointed annually at a mayoral court, who hold petty sessions weekly, and a court of record for debts under 50*l.* at specified times. Market-day, Thursday. Fairs four times yearly, for cattle and stock.

WELLINGTON, a market town and par. of England, co. Somerset, hund. Kingsbury West, on the high road from Bath to Exeter, 46 m. S.W. the former. Area of par. 4,830 acres. Pop. of do. in 1841, 5,795. The town is regularly laid out, and has been mostly rebuilt during last century: it principally consists of two spacious thoroughfares, crossing each other at right angles, the main street being about 4 m. in length. The church at the N. entrance is a handsome structure of mixed architecture, 110 feet in length, and 50 feet in breadth, comprising a nave, chancel, two aisles, and two small chapels. At its W. end is a fine embattled tower, 100 ft. in height, crowned with a turret and pinnacles. Within are several monuments, including a magnificent tomb in honour of Sir John Popham, chief justice of England in the reign of Elizabeth and a great benefactor of the town, and a new altar-piece ranking among the finest in the W. of England. The living, a very valuable vicarage worth 894*l.* a year, is in the gift of W. F. Thomas Esq. A very elegant chapel-of-ease, of Grecian architecture, has been erected at the S. extremity of the town by the Rev. N. P. Thomas; and there are chapels for Baptists, Independents, Wesleyans, and Friends, the latter being here a very numerous sect. Several schools are attached to the various meeting-houses, and there are endowed almshouses for both sexes, founded by Sir John Popham, with some minor charities. A new market-house, over which is the town-hall, was erected in the centre of the town in 1832.

Wellington had formerly a flourishing manufacture of woollen goods, but it is now much fallen off. It still, however, produces drapery and serges, and has a small manufacture of earthenware. In 1838 there were in the par. three woollen mills at work, furnishing employment to 598 hands. The corn market on Thursday is large and well attended. The Bath and Exeter railway will, when completed, pass close to the E. of the town. Wellington is governed by a bailiff and subordinate officers chosen at the annual manorial court.

This town enjoys the distinction of having successively conferred on Arthur Wellesley (3d surviving son of the 3d Earl of Mornington), the greatest of English generals, the titles of Viscount, Earl, Marquis, and Duke. An obelisk upwards of 120 feet in height has also been erected, in honour of the illustrious duke, on a lofty hill about 3 m. S.E. from the town. (*Beauties of England and Wales*, art. Somerset; *Priv. Inf.*)

WELLS, a city, and a par. and mun. bor. of England, co. Somerset, hund. Wells Forum, at the S. foot of the Mendip Hills, 17 m. S.W. Bath. It is situated in the centre of the large par. of St. Cuthbert, which contains numerous hamlets, and has an area of about 14,000 acres, with, in 1841, a pop. of 4,607. The par. and mun. bor., which are now co-extensive, do not, however, include the whole par. of St. Cuthbert, but comprise only the old city, the liberty of St. Andrew, and some additional portions, having, in 1831, a pop. of 4,608. The city consists mostly of four principal streets, named from the four verderies into which it is divided. They are well paved and lighted, and have many good houses. The market-place, an extensive area, communicating by an ancient gateway with the cathedral-close, has in it the town-hall and a handsome public conduit, by which the city is well supplied with water. The great objects of interest in Wells are its fine ecclesiastical edifices. The cathedral, at the E. extremity of the city, is not only one of the most perfect in its original plan, but is more complete as respects its appendages than any other in the kingdom. It was principally designed in the early part of the reign of Henry III. It is built in the form of a cross, from the intersection of which rises a large quadrangular tower 178 ft. in height. The W. front, 150 ft. in breadth, is flanked by two smaller towers, each 130 ft. in height: the total length of the church, from E. to W., is about 380 ft.; its breadth, 131 ft. "The situation of this edifice and the adjoining palace is beautiful; and though no whole side, except the W. front, is visible in any one view, the cathedral is well displayed from several points, particularly the north-west. As at Peterborough, the palace and several other buildings adjoin the cathedral, and add much to its general appearance. The character of a large portion of the building is early English, with portions of the two later styles, which are very beautifully accommodated in their forms to the older parts. The nave and transepts, and part of the towers,

are early English; the W. front is remarkably rich in niches and statues, and not less so in shafts and other small ornaments appropriate to the style. The lower parts of the sides of the western towers are similarly enriched, but the whole of the remaining exterior of the building is rather plain than otherwise; the upper parts of all the towers are much later than the lower, and much accommodated to the earlier portions as to lines and forms. The eastern part of the cross and the chapter-house are of decorated character, and remarkably elegant. The cloisters are perpendicular: the nave and transepts, and a north porch out of the nave, present an early English arrangement very remarkable for simplicity and elegance. There are various excellent portions of stone screen-work, chapels, and monuments, and some stained glass, the effect of which is peculiarly good. This cathedral is very rich in details of the best as well as the most singular kinds, and, in point of composition, some of its best parts yield to no edifice in the kingdom. The bishop's palace, though it has been altered, and, in some parts, much modernised, contains some fine portions, an early decorated chapel, and some parts of earlier date. Taken altogether, the palace is one of the most valuable remains in the kingdom. The gates and other buildings in the precincts of the cathedral deserve careful examination." (*Rickman*.) Wells was first erected into a bishop's see in 908. In the 12th century it was united to the abbey-church at Bath; but the writ of *congé d'élire* for the election of the bishop is still addressed to the dean and chapter of Wells. The chapter consists of a dean and 6 other canons, 4 priest-vicars, and 42 prebendaries. Wolsey and Laud were bishops of this see. St. Cuthbert's church is a handsome perpendicular edifice; but its principal feature is its tower, one of the finest of the kind. The living, a vicarage in the gift of the dean and chapter of Wells, is worth 564*l.* a year. There are, also, places of worship for Independents, Baptists, and Wesleyans. Here is a collegiate school, under the patronage of the dean and chapter, and a united charity-school, founded in 1654, which affords instruction, clothing, &c. to 34 boys and 20 girls, and has an income of 514*l.* a year. Under the town-hall is an hospital, founded and endowed in the 18th century for aged men and women, which has now an income of above 350*l.* a year, and 30 inmates. There are numerous other charities, including several well-endowed almshouses. Several manufactures that were formerly carried on in the town have either ceased altogether or have greatly declined; and that of silk has been wholly given up. It is said in the *Parl. Bound. Report*, that "no trade or manufactures are carried on in the town. It probably has been for a great number of years in the same state as it is now. There is no reason to believe that it will increase. Much of the property of the city belongs to the ecclesiastical or the city corporations, which cannot grant long leases, and give no encouragement to building." The corn-market, which used to be very considerable, has materially declined; but the market for cheese is still one of the most considerable in the W. of England. The trade of the place is mostly, however, confined to the retail supply of the inhabs. The West of England and South Wales District Bank has an office in the city. The earliest charter of Wells dates from the 3d of John; but the governing charter, previously to the Mun. Reform Act, was granted by Elizabeth. By the last-mentioned statute, the town is governed by a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 12 councillors. A court of quarter sessions, the jurisdiction of which is confined to cases of misdemeanour, is held 4 times a year; but it is merely a matter of form, all trials being referred to the co. assize-court, and the court of record has also fallen into disuse. The co. assizes are held alternately here and at Taunton. Corp. rev., in 1847-8, 1,035*l.* Wells has returned 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the reign of Edward I.; the right of voting, down to the Reform Act, having been vested in the mayor, masters, burgesses, and persons admitted to the freedom of the city, which was obtainable by birth, marriage, or apprenticeship. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 881. It is also a polling-place for the E. division of the co. Markets, Wednesday and Saturday, and every fourth Saturday a large market for corn, cattle, and cheese. Fairs are five times a year, mostly for cattle, horses, and pedlery. (*Parl. and Mun. Bound. Rpts.; Mun. Corp. Append.*)

WELLS, a sea-port town and par. of England, co. Norfolk, hund. N. Greenhoe, on a small creek, about 1 m. from the sea, 28 m. N.W. Norwich. Area of par., 2,250 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 3,504. The town consists principally of two streets, only partially paved. The par. church, a spacious edifice built mostly of flint, with a lofty embattled tower, has some curious sculpture and paintings. The living, a valuable rectory, being worth 785*l.* a year, is in the gift of — Hopper, Esq. There are several dissenting chapels: a free school for 60 poor children, supported by a part of Ringar's endowment in 1678 of 120*l.* a year, and other endowed charities to the amount of 66*l.* a year for the general relief of the poor. (*New*

Digest of Charity Reps.) It has a neat theatre, a subscription library, &c. The harbour of Wells is indifferent, and apt to be choked up with shifting sands; but it has been considerably improved of late years, through the exertions of the harbour commissioners.

The principal trade consists in the shipment of corn and malt, and in the import of coals, timber, &c. There belonged to the port, in 1841, 38 vessels of less than 50 tons burden, and 27 of more than that amount, the aggregate burden of the latter being 2,312 tons. Gross customs duty received at the port in 1840, only 596*l*. The oyster-fishing gives employment to a considerable number of persons. Petty sessions for the hund. are held once a fortnight, and courts leet and baron once a year. Fair, Shrove Tuesday. The races formerly held at Wells are now discontinued. (*Parl. Rep.*, &c.)

About 3 m. W. from the town is Holkham, the magnificent seat of the Earl of Leicester; and the country in the vicinity affords some of the best specimens of what is called the Norfolk system of farming.

WELSHPOOL, a pari. and mun. bor., market town, and par. of Wales, co. Montgomery, hunds. Pool and Course, on a branch of the Ellesmere canal, about 4 m. W. from the Severn, and 16 m. W. Shrewsbury. Pop. of pari. in 1841, 4,670. The pari. bor., which was formerly much larger, may now be considered as nearly co-extensive with the pari.; but the mun. bor. is of much smaller extent. It is principally in a hollow, but partly also on the acclivity of an eminence leading towards Powys park and castle, a little S. from the town, but included within the pari. bor.; it is well lighted with gas, and consists of one long and wide street, intersected by others of smaller dimensions, all well paved, and well supplied with water. The houses, which are of brick, have an unusual degree of regularity for this part of the country, the town being, on the whole, neat, cheerful, and English-looking. The church of St. Mary, rebuilt in 1774, is a spacious edifice, in the pointed style, with a lofty square tower: it is situated at the base of an eminence, on which is the churchyard, which in some parts overtops the church, and commands a fine view of the town and adjacent country. The living, a vicarage in the gift of the bishop of St. Asaph, is worth 273*l*. a year nett. A new and handsome church on the W. side of the town has recently been erected on a site given by Lord Powys. Here, also, are places of worship for Baptists, Independents, Calvinists, and Wesleyans. The co. hall, in the centre of the main street, is a handsome brick building, with a colonnade. The co. hall, on the second floor, is 64 ft. in length by 32 ft. in breadth, and 18 ft. in height. Underneath a spacious corn market and a court room for the co. assizes. A national school for both sexes, in which 260 children are instructed, was opened in 1821; and it has, also, a free school with a small endowment, almshouses for eight females, a dispensary, and several charitable bequests for the education of children and the distribution of charity among the poor.

From 1789 to 1834 Welshpool was the chief market in North Wales for the sale of Welsh flannels; but in the latter year the greater part of the trade was transferred to Newtown. The flannel manufacture carried on here is not of much importance; in 1838 new woollen manufactures were at work in the pari., employing together about 30 hands. Flannel markets are still held once a fortnight; but the business is mostly conducted by private sales. (*Hand Loom Weavers' Rep.*; *Factory Returns.*) Malt-making is carried on to a considerable extent, and there are several rather large tanneries. The Severn is navigable to within a short distance of the town; and by means of the Ellesmere canal it communicates with the Birmingham and Chester canal lines. Under the Mun. Reform Act the town is governed by 4 aldermen and 12 councillors; it has a commission of the peace, petty sessions for the hund. of Course, a court leet, &c., and is, twice a year, the seat of the co. assizes. Corp. rev., 1847-8, 286*l*.

Welshpool was formerly joined with Montgomery in the exercise of the elective franchise, but was disfranchised in 1728. Under the Reform Act, however, it has been again re-vested with the franchise, and is united with Llanidloes, Llanfyllin, Machynlleth, Montgomery, and Newtown, in returning 1 mem. to the H. of C. Reg. electors, in the united bors., 1,048. About 1 m. to the S. is Powys castle, the magnificent seat of Earl Powys. It stands on an elevated site, in the centre of an extensive and finely-wooded park. In 1833 the entire building underwent a thorough repair under the direction of its present proprietor. The principal entrance is a gateway between two massive round towers. It has in front two immense terraces rising one above another, the ascent to the castle being by a vast flight of steps. It is superbly fitted up, and has many fine pictures and works of art, including several pieces of sculpture from Herculaneum. In the vicinity are the Freiddyn Hills, on the loftiest of which an obelisk has been erected in honour of Lord Rodney. Market day, Monday; fairs, six times a year. (*Parl. Reports*; *Nicholson's Cambrian Guide*; *Panorama of N. Wales.*)

WENLOCK (MUCH OR GREAT).

WEM, a market-town, pari., and township of Shropshire, co. Salop, hund. Bradford, of the Roden, a tributary of the Severn, 11 m. N. by E. Shrewsbury. Area of pari., 13,230 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 4,119. The town consists principally of one spacious street, from which several smaller streets branch off. The par. church, a handsome edifice, has a lofty tower and a fine chancel: the living, a very valuable rectory, with a curacy, worth 1,767*l*. a year, is in the gift of the Duke of Cleveland. The market-house is a neat brick and stone building, and in one of its rooms courts-leet are held, at which the two bailiffs governing the town are chosen. The free school, founded in 1561 by Sir T. Adams, a native of the town, who became lord mayor of London, and who also founded a free school in Cambridge, has a total income of about 340*l*. a year, and sends to Curwen's exhibitions in Bridgenorth school. There are charities making provisions for the poor, but to no considerable amount. The inhabs. of the town are mostly engaged in tanning and making. Horsey supposes that Wem occupies the site of the ancient *Wustmann*: it formerly had a castle, but of this edifice nothing remains. The manor of Wem having come into possession of the crown by the attainer of Philip, Earl of Arundel, in the reign of Elizabeth, it was conferred by James II. on his third son, chancellor Jeffrey of Blois, in memory, who had the estate, and who was also created Baron Wem. Wem, the dramatist, was born near this town in 1641. Fairs six times a year, for cattle and stock, linen, and flax seed. (*Parl. Reps.*, &c.)

WENDOVER, a market-town and pari. of England, co. Buckingham, hund. Aylesbury, in the vale of that name; 32 m. N.E. London. Area of pari., 5,230 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 1,877. The town is inconsiderable, and meanly built; and would not, indeed, have been worth noticing in a work like this, but for the circumstance of its having enjoyed, from the 21 James I. down to the passing of the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised, the privilege of sending 3 mems. to the H. of C. The right of election was nominally in the borough keepers not receiving alms, but really in the lord of the manor. The famous John Hampden (to whose family the manor belonged) represented Wendover in 5 successive parliaments. The living, a vicarage worth 208*l*. a year, is in the gift of the crown. Petty sessions are held once a fortnight; and courts leet and baron are also held in the town.

WENER and WETTER LAKES, two large lakes of Sweden, which see (*supra*, 739).

WENLOCK (MUCH OR GREAT), a pari. and mun. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Salop, hund. Wenlock, on a small tributary of the Severn, 12 m. S.E. Shrewsbury. Area of pari., 8,420 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 2,487. The pari. bor. is, however, co-extensive with the large district called "Wenlock Franchise," consisting of 16 parishes, in addition to that of Much Wenlock, the whole having, in 1841, a pop. of 19,774. The limits of the old municipal bor. were formerly identical with those of the pari. bor.; but the modern municipal bor. is of much less extent, comprising only the 3 pars. of Dawley, Madely, and Broseley; the town of Wenlock itself being, together excluded. The town, though an inconsiderable place, and differently built, has some handsome residences. It consists chiefly of 3 streets, the houses being mostly of brick. The church, a spacious edifice in the Norman and early English style, has a tower surmounted by a spire at its W. extremity. The living, a vicarage worth 180*l*. a year, is in the gift of Sir W. W. Wynn. It has also a Wesleyan chapel, a free endowed school for 13 boys, almshouses for 4 women, and several minor charities. There are extensive limestone quarries in the vicinity, and copper mines, now abandoned, were formerly wrought to a considerable extent. The mun. bor. is divided into 3 wards, and is governed by 4 aldermen and 12 councillors. It has a commission of the peace, petty sessions twice a year; petty sessions once a fortnight, or oftener, if required; and a court of record, also once a fortnight: the last, however, has latterly fallen nearly into disuse. Corp. rev., in 1847-8, 1,452*l*.

Wenlock received its first charter from Edward IV., under which it sent, in 1478, 1 mem. to the H. of C., but Broseley and Little Wenlock being afterwards added to the bor., it was empowered to return 3 mems., a privilege it has since continued to enjoy. Previously to the Reform Act, the franchise was vested in the freemen of the bor., such freedom being acquired by birth or election. Reg. act, in 1649-50, 689. Wenlock probably owed its origin to the foundation of a famous abbey, of which the ruins still exist, a little S. from the town. This edifice, founded towards the end of the 7th century, was mostly rebuilt, soon after the Conquest, in the Norman and early English styles. The entrance from Wenlock was by a strong gateway, one massive tower of which is still standing. Of the church, which dates from 1080, a large portion of the S. side of the nave, the whole S. wing of the transept, several arches on the N., and the founda-

tions of the choir and Lady Chapel remain. The ruins sufficiently attest the former magnificence and splendour of the structure, the precincts of which included an area of 30 acres. Its revenues amounted, at the dissolution, to 401*l.* a year. Markets, on Mondays; fairs, 5 times a year, principally for horses, cattle, and sheep. (*Parl. and Music. Bound. Rep.; Munic. Corp. Append.*)

WEOBLY, a market-town and par. of England, co. Hereford, hund. Stretford, 10 m. N.W. Hereford. Area of par., 3,160 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 507. The town consists principally of one street, having several modern and well-built houses. The church is a spacious edifice, to which are attached 3 or 4 ancient burial-chapels. The living, a vicarage worth 238*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Bishop of Hereford. A free grammar-school, founded in 1658, affords instruction to 15 boys. Here is also a national school for both sexes, supported by subscription. No particular branch of industry is carried on in the town, which, indeed, would not have been worth notice in a work of this kind, but for the circumstance of its having sent 2 mems. to the H. of C., from the reign of Edward III. down to the passing of the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised. It has a market on Thursdays, but this is little more than nominal.

WESER (German, *Niederrhein*), a frontier and strongly fortified town of Rhenish Prussia, near Düsseldorf, circ. Rees, of which it is the cap., on the Rhine, where it receives the Lippe, 30 m. S.E. Clevea. Pop., in 1838, 10,634. (*Berghaus.*) It is of high antiquity, and was formerly one of the Hanse Towns. It has some manufactures of cotton and woollen stuffs, leather, and tobacco, with distilleries, &c.: its port is convenient, and packets ply regularly between it and Amsterdam. Its defences have been a good deal strengthened by the erection of Fort Blücher on the opposite or W. bank of the Rhine. (*Schreiber, Guide du Rhin, &c.*)

WESER (an. *Wesigra*), a river of N.W. Germany, its embouchure being in the North Sea, and its basin having that of the Elbe to the E., the Ems to the W., and the Rhine and Mayn to the S.W. and S. It is formed by the union of the Fulda and Werra. The former of these rivers has its source in the Rhongebirge, about lat. 50° 27' N., and long. 10° E.; and traversing the electorate of Hesse-Cassel, it passes the cities of Fulda and Cassel. The Werra rises in the Thuringian Forest, in about the same lat., and long. 11°; and intersects several of the smaller Saxon territories, with parts of Prussian Saxony, Hesse-Cassel, and Hanover. Both have a general northerly direction, and unite at Minden, near the southern extremity of the Hanoverian dom. The combined river, or Weser, flows in a N. course, though with numerous windings, through the territories of Hesse-Cassel, Prussian Westphalia, Brunswick, Lippe-Deimold, Hanover, Bremen, and Oldenburg; falling into the North Sea by a wide estuary, about lat. 53° 30' N., and long. 8° 30' E. Its entire length is estimated at nearly 300 m. Its chief affluents are the Aller and Wumme. The Weser is of considerable commercial importance, Bremen being on its banks. Vessels drawing 7 ft. water navigate it up to that city; and it is navigable for boats nearly to its commencement. Vessels drawing from 18 to 14 ft. water ascend the river to Vegesack, 18 m. below Bremen. Ships of large size stop at Bräuerhafen, where a new harbour has been formed. Besides the foregoing towns, Minden, Nienburg, Rinteln, Hameln, &c. are on the Weser; and Hanover, Brunswick, Oldenburg, &c. are on its tributaries. (*Berghaus; Von Recken; Diet. Géog. &c.*)

WEST BROMWICH, a market town and par. of England, co. Stafford, hund. Offlow, on the high road from Birmingham to Liverpool, 5 m. N.N.W. Birmingham. Area of par., 5,880 acres. Pop., in 1831, 15,327; in 1841, 36,121. This, which was formerly an inconsiderable village, has increased rapidly in size and pop., in consequence of its situation in the centre of one of the principal coal and iron districts of the empire, and of the great seat of the hardware manufacture. The main street, nearly 1 m. in length, contains some good houses; but the town is, for the most part, very irregularly laid out, and its proximity to coal-pits, gas, and iron-works, &c. gives it a black and very unprepossessing appearance. The old church of All Saints, on an eminence, in the N.E. part of the town, is in a mixed style of architecture, and surmounted by a tower. The living, a perpetual curacy, worth 665*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Earl of Dartmouth. Christchurch, a handsome Gothic edifice, erected in 1829, is a curacy worth 330*l.* a year. Besides a very fine Rom. Cath. chapel, there are various places of worship for Protestant Dissenters, and a national, and some other schools. The gas-works in this town, belonging to the Staffordshire and Birmingham Gas Company, are probably the most extensive of any in existence. They supply Birmingham, Bilston, Wednesbury, and a vast number of other towns and villages within a radius of 16 m. Here are also some extensive crown-glass works, which, with the gas manufacture, and the extensive collieries in the vicinity, furnish the

chief occupation of the labouring classes. The Birmingham and Dudley canals, in the immediate vicinity of the town, give it the benefit of very extensive water communications. Market-day, Saturday. E. of the town is Sandwell Park, the seat of the Earl of Dartmouth. The house is built on the site of a priory of Benedictine monks, founded in the reign of Henry II., of which some trifling remains may still be seen. (*Parl. Reps.; Railway Guide; Beauties of England and Wales, &c.*)

WESTBURY, a par. and munic. bor., market town, and par. of England, co. Wilts., hund. Westbury; at the N.W. extremity of Salisbury Plain, 23 m. N.W. Salisbury. The ancient bor. comprised only some portions of the town, but the modern bor. is co-extensive with the par. and hund. of Westbury, having an area of 11,340 acres, with a pop., in 1831, of 7,234, and in 1841, of 7,454. The town, which is insignificant and irregularly built, is scattered over a considerable surface, the principal street running nearly N. and S. The church, an old cruciform structure, has a tower rising from its centre, and some fine monuments. The living, a vicarage, to which are annexed the curacies of Bratton and Dilton, worth 238*l.* a year, is in the gift of the precentor of Salisbury cathedral. Here are several Dissenting chapels, a national school for 40 boys, endowed with 1,500*l.* by a benevolent burgess, who also bequeathed a like sum for the annual clothing of 20 poor women. The town hall, a handsome building, was erected in 1815. Westbury and its vicinity had formerly an extensive woollen manufacture, and though much fallen off, this branch of industry is still carried on, there being at work in the par., in 1838, 8 woollen mills, employing altogether 421 hands. (*Mills and Factories' Rep.*) Some malting is also carried on; and, upon the whole, the trade of the town, such as it is, may be considered in a thriving state. (*Munic. Corp. Appendix.*)

The charter by which Westbury was incorporated is not extant; the corporation, by which it has till lately been governed, consisted of a mayor, recorder, and 15 capital burgesses. Westbury returned 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the 27th of Henry VI. down to the passing of the Reform Act, which deprived it of 1 mem. Previously to the Act now referred to, the franchise was vested in the occupiers of 61 burgage tenements comprised in the old bor. Reg. electors in 1849-50, 310. The bor. court, held annually on the 2d of Nov., is the only court held within and for the bor. The election of the bor. officers appears to be its principal duty. (*Munic. Corp. Appendix.*)

Westbury, though a place of considerable antiquity, is not connected with any historical event of importance. It has two annual fairs, and a nominal market every Tuesday. (*Bound. and Munic. Rep. &c.*)

WESTMEATH, an island co. of Ireland, prov. Leinster, having N. Cavan and Meath, E. the latter, S. King's County, and W. Roscommon, (from which it is separated by the Shannon) and Longford. Area, 386,251 acres, of which 55,982 are unimproved bog and mountain, and 16,334 lakes. Surface agreeably diversified with woods, lakes, streams, hills, and bogs. The substratum being limestone, the verdure of the fields is remarkably fine, and the soil generally excellent. Property in moderate-sized estates. Leases commonly granted for 21 years, and a life. Grazing-grounds extensive. Tillage farms much subdivided, and husbandry, in most respects, similar to that of Meath, which see. Average rent of land, 13*s.* 7*d.* an acre. Principal rivers, Shannon, Inny, and Brosna. Westmeath is divided into 12 baronies and 62 parishes; and returns 3 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 2 for the co., and 1 for the bor. of Athlone. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 516. In 1841, Westmeath had 24,002 inhab. houses, 25,693 families, and 141,300 inhabs., of whom 70,353 were males, and 70,917 females.

WESTMINSTER. See LONDON.

WESTMORELAND, a marit. co. of the N. of England, having N. Cumberland, Durham, and Yorkshire, S. Lancashire and the extremity of Morecambe Bay, and W. Lancashire. Area, 487,680 acres, of which only 180,000 are said to be arable, meadow, and pasture. It is what its name (West-moor-land) imports, a region of lofty mountains, naked hills, and black barren moors; but the valleys, particularly those of the Eden in the N., and of Kendal in the S., are fertile and well cultivated. The agriculture, state of property, character, and condition of the occupiers of Westmoreland, are so similar to those of Cumberland, that the statements as to the latter may be applied, with very little variation, to the former. Average rent of land, in 1843, 11*s.* 4*d.* an acre, being the lowest of any in England. Westmoreland abounds in slate of the finest quality; in lead; and, in some few places on its S. and W. borders, there are coal mines. Principal rivers, Eden, Lune, and Kent. The lakes are even more celebrated than those of Cumberland: Windermere, on its W. border, is the most extensive lake in England. The co. is divided into 4 wards and 32 parishes. It returns 4 mems. to the H. of

C.; viz. 3 for the co. and 2 for the bor. of Kandel and some adjoining districts. Reg. electors for co., 1849-50, 4,089. In 1841, Westmoreland had 10,846 inhab. houses, and 56,454 inhab., of whom 28,313 were males and 28,341 females. Sum expended on the relief of the poor, in 1848-49, 16,399. Total annual value of real property in 1843, 334,502.

WESTPHALIA, prov. containing all the N. portion of the Prussian dominions to the W. of the Weser, having N. Hanover; E. the latter, and some of the smaller German States; S. the latter, and the Prussian prov. of the Rhine; and W., Holland. Area, 7,801 sq. Pop., in 1846, 1,445,719; of whom 808,534 are Catholics, 632,036 Protestants, and 14,771 Jews. Principal towns, Munster, Minden, Paderborn, Arnsberg, Hamm, &c. It is divided into 3 regencies, and these again into 37 circles. Principal rivers, Ems, Weser, Lippe, &c. Surface in the E., N. E., and S., hilly or mountainous; but it is level in the middle of the prov., and in the N. W. adjoining Holland. In some places the soil is very fertile, but there are some pretty extensive marshes and heaths. Most part of this, as well as of the adjoining prov. of the Rhine, is divided into small farms, the occupiers of which live together in villages. The rent is paid sometimes in money, but frequently in produce or services, or both. The occupiers are a kind of copyholders, their lands descending from father to son. (*Jacob's Town in Germany*, p. 103.) The Rhine prov. being in possession of the French, when the famous edict of 1811 was published, making copyholders freeholders in the old states of the Prussian monarchy, it did not apply to them. (See *Prussia*.) Principal products, corn, flax, and potatoes. It is also productive of horses, cattle, sheep, and hogs. The latter furnish the Westphalian hams, so abundant in our markets, and so excellent. There is also great plenty of game and honey. There are vast beds of coal, with mines of iron, lead, copper, rock-salt, &c. with salt springs. Manufactures, principally linen, in the production of which 32,321 looms were wholly and occasionally employed in 1837: cottons, hardware, and cutlery, the latter being largely produced at Iserlohn, Dortmund, Hagen, and other places; with paper, spirits, tobacco, and various other articles.

WESTPORT, a sea-port town of Ireland, co. Mayo, prov. Connaught, on a small river near the S. W. angle of Clew Bay, 42 m. by W. Galway, and 136 m. W. N. W. Dublin. Pop., in 1841, 4,365. This is a modern, neat, and rather nice-looking town. It occupies a narrow valley, and on each side and parallel to the stream by which it is intersected is a street planted with trees: the other streets branch from these on either side, and are for the most part inconveniently steep. The par. church is situated within Lord Sligo's park, immediately adjoining the town, and it has also a large Rom. Cath. chapel, with places of worship for Presbyterians and Methodists, several schools, a barracks, a market-house, a linen-hall, and court-house. A manor court, with jurisdiction to the amount of 10*l.* sterling, is held once a month; general sessions in April and October, and petty sessions on Thursdays. It is also a constabulary and coast-guard station. The linen trade was, at no very distant period, carried on extensively in this town and its vicinity. Latterly, however, this branch of industry has greatly declined, and the inhabs. are now principally dependent on the fishery, and on the export of corn, provisions, &c. The gross value of the exports of these, in 1835, was estimated at 87,502*l.* of which corn, meal, and flour made no less than 35,547*l.*, and linen only 550*l.* Several large flour-mills have been opened in the neighbourhood; and there are also distilleries and breweries. Branches of the Bank of Ireland and of the National Bank have been opened here.

The port and corn warehouses are situated a little below the town, on the bay, vessels drawing 13 ft. water coming close to the quay. Clew Bay has at its mouth Clare Island, on the most northerly point of which is a lighthouse: there are many small islands within the bay, which, in many places, affords convenient and secure anchorage. Gross amount of customs' duty collected here in 1849, 14,946*l.* The shipping belonging to the port is quite inconsiderable.

Croagh Patrick, or the Reek, rising 2,499 ft. above the sea, is situated immediately on the S. side of the bay, 4 or 5 m. S. W. from the town. This is not only one of the highest, but also one of the most celebrated, mountains in Ireland, being the spot where St. Patrick is said to have collected the snakes and other venomous reptiles from all parts of the island, and from which he precipitated them headlong into the sea. A altar or cairn is erected on the summit of the mountain in memory of this grand achievement, and it continues to be a frequent place of pilgrimage and devotion. The view from the summit is very magnificent. The land in the vicinity of the town is divided into very small portions, and the occupiers are, for the most part, miserably poor. Lord Sligo's park or demesne, to which strangers have access, is very fine; but the rest of his immense

estate is but little removed from a state of nature. (*Official Returns*; *Englis*, II. 96, &c.)

WEXFORD, a marit. co. of Ireland, prov. Leinster, having on the S. and E., St. George's Channel; on the N., the co. of Wicklow; and on the W., Carlow, Kilkenny, and Waterford Harbour, by which it is separated from Waterford. Area, 564,479 acres, of which 14,300 are unimproved mountain and bog. Surface, pleasantly diversified; climate mild. Soils either light or sandy clay. Property in pretty considerable estates; farms, of various sizes; but there is less of the extreme subdivision of land in this, than in most other Irish cos. Dairies numerous, but badly managed; some districts have been long noted for their great crops of barley. Average rent of land 14*s.* an acre; but, in general, it is too high, and the competition for small patches is carried beyond all reasonable bounds. The barony of Forth, occupying the S. W. angle of Wexford, differs widely from the rest of the co., and, indeed, from every other district of Ireland. It was settled at a distance from a colony from South Wales; and, till very recently, the Welsh language was spoken by every one and is still understood by the older inhabs. The people are industrious, provident, peaceable, and cleanly. The farms are small, running from 10 up to 50 or 60 acres, but those from 30 to 40 are most common. Mr. Inglis says, that the land is clean, and well cultivated; that the crops of wheat and beans, both of which are extensively grown, are excellent; and that the improved Scotch plough with two horses is in universal use. The farm-houses are substantial, and the cottages clean and comfortable, forming, in this respect, a striking contrast with those in most other parts of the co. Persons of different religious creeds live in the barony harmoniously together. Land here, as in the rest of the co., very high-rented. (1. 49.) Wexford has neither minerals nor manufactures of any importance. Principal rivers, Slaney and Barrow. Wexford is divided into 8 baronies, and 142 parishes; and returns 4 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 2 for the co., and 1 each for the bors. of Wexford and New Ross. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 813. In 1841, Wexford had 33,507 inhab. houses, 36,564 families, and 202,933 inhabs., of whom 97,518 were males, and 104,115 females.

Wexford, a par. bor. and sea-port town of Ireland, prov. Leinster, co. Wexford, of which it is the cap., at the mouth of the estuary of the Slaney, on the W. or inner side of Wexford Haven, 67 m. S. by W. Dublin; lat. 52° 20' N., long. 6° 29' W. Area of modern par. bor. 763 acres; pop. of ditto, in 1841, 11,262. It is built wholly on the S. side of the river, and consists of a row of houses along the quay fronting the harbour, of a street parallel to the latter, and of numerous cross streets; but, excepting the quay, they are mostly narrow, irregular, ill-paved, and dirty. A long and poor suburb, principally occupied by fishermen, extends to a creek by a distance S. from the town. Of 783 houses in the par. bor. in 1821, 1,116 were slated and 670 thatched. The communication with the country on the opposite side of the harbour is maintained by means of a wooden bridge, which, with its embankments, is nearly 1,700 ft. in length (measured on the plan in the Round Report), having a drawbridge in the centre, and the river being navigable to Enniscorthy. The expense of keeping it up is defrayed by a toll. The public buildings and establishments comprise two Protestant churches, several R. Cath. chapels, two Methodist meeting-houses, the county court house, a large and handsome gaol, a fever hospital, dispensary, lunatic asylum, a diocesan school for the sons of Ferns, and various other schools; a R. Cath. college, supported by private endowment; a priory, a nursery, a public library, chamber of commerce, assembly rooms, club-house, barracks, &c. The old walls, by which the town was formerly surrounded, were repaired in 1804, but they have since been allowed to go to ruin, and the suburbs extend considerably beyond them. Malt-ing is carried on to a very considerable extent. The union workhouse, opened in 1842, has accommodation for 1,050 inmates.

Wexford Haven is of great extent, and has a fine appearance on a map; but it is shallow, and owing to a bar at its mouth between the two low, long, sandy peninsulas which form its external boundary, it cannot be entered by vessels drawing more than 9 or 10 ft. water, and even these should, with neap tides, have four hours flood to enter. But notwithstanding these drawbacks, Wexford, from her situation in a fertile county, and on a river navigable to a considerable distance by barges, and other circumstances, has a considerable trade, and is, in fact, one of the principal secondary ports of Ireland for the exportation of corn, meal, and flour, butter of superior quality, provisions, and cattle. The value of the exports amounted, in 1835, to 312,186*l.* and is now (1850) estimated at from 450,000*l.* to 500,000*l.*

Steamers ply once a week between Liverpool and Wexford. Excellent oysters are found in the bay, and the fishing business is carried on to a considerable extent. There belonged to the port, in 1850, 109 vessels of the agg. burden of 8,730 tons, ex. 1 steamer.

Gross customs' revenue, in 1849, 19,565*l*. Branches of the Provincial Bank, the Bank of Ireland, and the National Bank, have been opened here. Post-office revenue, in 1849, 910*l*. Two weekly newspapers are published in the town. A patent slip and a building yard are attached to the harbour, and some little business is done in the building and repairing of vessels and boats.

Wexford has several charters, the first having been granted by the Earl of Pembroke, in 1318. Under the Irish Municipal Reform Act, 3 & 4 Victoria, cap. 108, the corporate body consists of a mayor, bailiffs, free burgesses, and commonalty. The bor. returned 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C. from 1374 down to the Union; and it has since returned 1 mem. to the Imperial H. of C. Reg. elec., in 1849-50, 273. The assizes for the co. are held here, with general sessions in January and at Midsummer, special road-sessions twice a year, and petty sessions and a bor. court for debts not exceeding 2*l*, once a week. Markets, Wednesdays and Fridays. Fairs 6 times a year.

In 1649 Wexford was taken by Cromwell, when a considerable number of the inhabs. were put to the sword. During the rebellion of 1798 it was, for a while, the head quarters of the insurgents, by whom it was evacuated after the battle of Vinegar Hill. The town is possessed of considerable property; but it is let on long leases, at a low rate. (*Official Returns and Thom's Almanac.*)

Mr. Ingills says, "There are many good shops in Wexford, and I heard no complaint of the want of trade; the best illustration I can give of the comfortable condition of the people is, that during the two days I spent in the town was not once asked for charity." (i. 45.)

WEYHILL, a village of England, co. Hants, hund. Andover, within a short distance of the W. verge of Salisbury Plain, 13 m. N.W. Winchester. It is celebrated for its great annual fair, held for 6 or 7 days from the 9th of Oct. This, perhaps, is the largest fair in the S. of England for sheep, and is, also, a considerable mart for horses, cheese, and hops. At the fair which began on the 10th of October, 1840, it was estimated that above 150,000 sheep were exhibited for sale. A row of booths, called Farnham-row, is assigned exclusively to the dealers in Farnham hogs; but hogs from Kent, Sussex, &c., are also brought thither in considerable quantities. The horses exposed for sale are principally cart colts, nags, and hunters; the cheese consists mostly of N. Wilts, Somerset, and Gloucester. The booths are formed into regular streets, and exhibit all the features of a large town, every part of which presents a scene of bustle and activity. On old Michaelmas day many farm servants are hired.

WEYMOUTH and MELCOMBE REGIS, two contiguous towns of England, forming together a par. munc. bor. and sea-port, co. Dorset, hund. Callford Tree; on the English Channel, at the mouth of the small river Wyke, 3 m. N. Weymouth, a headland-called the Isle of Portland, and 19 m. W. S.W. London. The modern par. bor. comprising the chapelry of Weymouth and the par. of Melcombe Regis, with portions of the adjacent par. of Wyke Regis and Radipole, had, in 1841, a pop. of 6,784. Weymouth and Melcombe lie on opposite sides of the harbour, that is, of the narrow outlet of an arm of the sea, called the Backwater, nearly 3 m. in length, being connected by a handsome stone bridge, erected over this outlet in 1770. The most considerable part of Melcombe consists of ranges of buildings situated on the N. side of the harbour, extending for nearly 1 m. in front of the esplanade, along the sea, which here forms a fine semicircular bay. The houses here, which are large and handsome, are chiefly occupied by visitors, attracted to the town by its unequalled advantages for sea-bathing, and other conveniences. But with one or two exceptions, the greater number of the other streets are mostly narrow and dirty, with mean houses. Much of the ground on which Melcombe stands is low, and has been reclaimed, at different times, from the Backwater. On the N., about 20 acres of this land have been recently enclosed for the purpose of forming a park, and between this and the sea there is a narrow space, which will probably be built over with good houses.

Weymouth, on the S. side of the harbour, not being resorted to by visitors, retains, in great measure, its original character of a fishing-town, and is irregularly and ill built. It is chiefly, in fact, inhabited by the labouring classes; in the outskirts, however, there are some good ranges of houses, and handsome detached dwellings. The par. church of Melcombe, rebuilt in 1817, though a spacious edifice, is not remarkable for its architecture: the living, a rectory in the gift of W. Wyndham, Esq., is worth 294*l* a year nett. The chapel of ease in Weymouth, opposite the foot of the bridge, is a tasteful modern building in the Gothic style; the living, a perpetual curacy, is attached to the rectory of Wyke Regis, to which par. Weymouth belongs. There are several dissenting chapels; and in Melcombe are spacious assembly-rooms, a small town-hall, neat theatre, good libraries, baths, and other establishments usual at a watering-place. There is a gaol, but of a very inferior description. Two na-

tional schools have been founded, and among other charitable institutions for the education and relief of the poor is a bequest of 75*l* a year for the apprenticing of poor children. The town is lighted with gas; but the inferior streets are badly paved. Facing the sea is the lodge built for the residence of the royal family, by whom the town was frequently visited during the reign of George III. An equestrian statue of that monarch has, also, been erected at the N. extremity of the main street. On the Dorchester road, near the town, are barracks, now occupied as private houses.

Freestone from the Isle of Portland, Roman cement, bricks, tiles, &c. are among the principal exports. Ship-building, and rope and sail making are carried on to a small extent. In 1850, there belonged to the port 92 vessels, of the agg. burden of 6,775 tons. Gross customs' revenue, in 1849, 12,517*l*. Weymouth was of but little consequence till George III. made it his summer residence. Since then it has continued to increase. It is frequented by numerous visitors during the summer season, and a great number of respectable families have made it their permanent residence. The fine sands along the shore, and the gradually increasing depth and purity of the water, render it highly suitable for a bathing place. A raised terrace or esplanade has been constructed round a great portion of its picturesque bay, which constitues the fashionable promenade of the inhabs. Races, and a regatta, take place annually in August.

Harbour and Breakwater.—The harbour, which, as already stated, consists of the inlet between Weymouth and Melcombe, as far as the bridge, is narrow, while the bar at its mouth has only 5 fathoms water at low tide; and as spring tides do not rise here more than 6 or 7 ft., the port is not accessible to large vessels. There is, however, excellent anchorage in Portland Roads, about 1½ m. S. by E. from the town, for ships of any size, in from 5 to 8½ and 8 fathoms water. But as these roads are exposed to the E. and S.E. winds, which often (especially the latter) throw in a very heavy sea, they are, notwithstanding their convenient situation, but little resorted to. It has, however, been determined to obviate this defect by constructing two breakwaters, one projecting N.E. from the N.E. shoulder of the Isle of Portland, a distance of 1,500 ft., and one, 400 ft. from the latter, stretching N.N.E. and S.S.W., 6,000 ft. in length. These stupendous works will, when completed, include, within low-water line, an area of 1,374 acres, which will form one of the best and most secure harbours in the empire. It will be of easy access not only to merchant ships navigating the Channel, but to men-of-war; and will thus be advantageous alike to our mercantile and warlike navies. A branch of the S. Western railway has been completed to Dorchester, within 8 m. of Weymouth.

The stone for the breakwaters is obtained from the quarries on Portland Isle; and as convicts are employed on the works, their cost will be less than might have been anticipated. Above two-thirds of the small breakwater have been already completed. The foundation-stone of the work was laid by Prince Albert, on the 18th July, 1849. It was originally projected by the late Mr. John Harvey, post-master of Weymouth. (See PORTLAND, ISLE OF.)

Weymouth and Melcombe, though originally distinct bors., were united in the 13th of Elizabeth; and from that period down to the passing of the Reform Act, the aggregate bor. possessed the privilege of returning 4 mems. to the H. of C.; but the above act reduced the number of mems. to 3; while, at the same time, some additions were made to the boundaries of the old bor. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 694. Under the Municipal Reform Act, the town is divided into 3 wards; and is governed by a mayor, 5 other aldermen, and 18 councillors. It has a commission of the peace, generally held once a year, with jurisdiction over all but capital offences; and a county court, before which 285 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. Corp. rev., in 1847-8, 511*l*. Markets, Tuesdays and Fridays; fairs, 3 times yearly. (*Parl. Reps.*; *Priv. Inf.*)

WHEELING, a town or city of the U. States, in Virginia, cap. of Ohio, on the Ohio, at the head of the steam navigation, 50 m. S.W. Pittsburgh. Pop. in 1840, 7,868. It stands in a narrow plain, at the back of which rises a range of steep hills, and consequently is built chiefly in one street along the river. The hills adjacent abound with coal. Besides the usual co. courts, offices, and buildings, Wheeling had, in 1835, 4 iron foundries, 4 steam-engine factories, numerous woollen and cotton mills, glass-houses, flour and paper mills, and manufactures of coppers, white lead, tobacco, leather, &c. About 34,000 tons of coal a year were then supposed to be consumed in the various factories, and 30 steam-boats were owned in the town, many of which, as well as keel-boats and barges, were built at Wheeling. (*Encyc. of Geog.*, *Amer. edit.*; *Amer. Almanac.*)

WHITBY, a par. bor. and sea-port town of England, N. riding co. York, liberty of Whitby Strand, at the mouth of the Esk, here crossed by a swing iron bridge, erected

about 16 years ago, instead of an old drawbridge, 43 m. N.N.E. York. Lat. of lighthouse, 54° 39' N.; long. 0° 37' W. Pop. of pari. bor., which includes the townships of Whitby, Runwarp, Hawkser-cum-Stainsacre, in 1831, 10,399, in 1841, 9,862. It is built along both banks of the Esk, the direction of which, from S. to N., determines that of the town; but, as the level ground by the river is of very limited dimensions, the buildings on both sides are carried up its banks, which, on the E. side, are especially precipitous. The houses, partly of stone and partly of brick, in the lower part of the town, are closely packed together, and the streets are for the most part narrow, while those on the banks are inconveniently steep; they are, however, well paved and lighted with gas, and the new streets on the W. side of the town are comparatively handsome; and since the new bridge was erected, the streets leading to it and to the pier have been widened, and the lower parts of the town much improved. The more opulent inha. have residences in the environs, which are beautiful and romantic. The church is inconveniently situated on the top of a cliff nearly 300 ft. above the sea, on the E. side of the town, the ascent to it being by a flight of 190 stone steps; but a spacious proprietary chapel was, about 60 years ago, constructed in the lower part of the town. The living, a curacy in the gift of the Archbishop of York, is worth 202*l.* a year nett. It has also places of worship for Methodists, Quakers, Presbyterians, Independents, Rom. Catholics, &c. Among the educational and charitable institutions may be mentioned, Lancasterian schools for children of both sexes; two infant schools; a seaman's hospital, for 42 widows and their children; a dispensary, established in 1786; a large workhouse, and several minor charities. The public buildings include the town-hall, erected in 1788; a building with public baths and apartments for the subscription library, and the literary and philosophical society, erected in 1836; a handsome cow room, custom house, &c. The Union Mill, for supplying the members with flour at a reduced price, on the W. side of the town, is a conspicuous object. On the whole, "the appearance of the town is that of a substantial and wealthy sea-port." (*Board. Report.*)

The harbour is formed by two piers; that on the W. side, 640 yards in length, terminates in a circular head, on which a lighthouse, having the lantern elevated 83 ft. above the sea, has been constructed. A noble quay, extending from the bridge to the west pier, is now being built, and, when completed, will form one of the finest promenades in the kingdom. The opposite pier extends about 21*½* yards from the cliff on the E. side of the river. The channel between the piers forms the harbour, which, however, labours under the drawback of nearly drying at low water; and in rough weather, when the wind is from the N. or N.E., a heavy sea is thrown in. To obviate the latter inconvenience, an internal pier has been built, and the inner harbour, or that above the drawbridge, is but little affected by the weather. There are dry docks and slips for the construction and repair of ships, the building of which, though less now than formerly, is carried on to a considerable extent: ships of the burthen of 3,918 tons having been built here in 1841. The manufacture of sail-cloth, cordage, &c., is also carried on.

Whitby is principally indebted for its rise to the alum works in its vicinity, commenced in 1595: the exports of the alum, and the import of the coal required in its manufacture, giving birth to a considerable trade. This, however, is by no means so extensive as formerly. There are no alum works now very near to Whitby. Sandsard and Kittleness works, belonging to the Marquis of Northampton, are from 3 to 5, and the Peak works 8 m. off. The shipments of alum amounted, in 1841, to 8,537 tons; and in 1840, to 2,747 do. There belonged to the port in 1850, 386 ships of the aggregate burthen of 60,456 tons. Several of these ships were formerly employed in the N. whale fishery; but this having declined, the shipping belonging to the port is now principally employed in the Baltic, American, and E. Indian trades. Most part of the large ships sail from London, Bristol, Liverpool, and Hull. Gross customs' duty received at the port in 1849, 7,322*l.* It increased considerably after the establishment of bonding warehouses.

The town is under the superintendence of the magistrates of the N. riding; and a county court is established in it, before which 303 plaintiffs were at the bar in 1848. The Reform Act conferred on Whitby, for the first time, the privilege of sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 448.

Whitby abbey, which, having been destroyed by the Danes, was rebuilt after the Conquest, appears to have been a magnificent edifice. The ruins, in a commanding situation on the cliff near the church, are of considerable extent, and exhibit different styles of architecture. The neighbourhood of Whitby abounds with natural curiosities. In the alum rocks are found an immense variety of petrified shells, trunks of trees, pieces of wood, bones of fishes, &c., and several highly interesting specimens of the large marine animals called *ichthyosaurus*

and *plesiosaurus*, with fossil crocodiles, of which the finest hitherto discovered adorns the Whitby museum, which is particularly rich in specimens of the various organic remains found in the vicinity.

The country about Whitby is highly picturesque, and the beautiful valley of the Esk is also rich in ironstone of superior quality, with an admixture of lime. This has become of late an article of export to the iron works on the Tyne to the extent of from 30,000 to 30,000 tons a year. Freestone of several varieties, for building and engineering purposes, is also extensively exported to the London and other markets on the E. coast, as is also the whinstone, (found in the same vicinity,) for the repairing of roads, and paving streets, when shaped into blocks, for which purposes it is considered superior to granite. It is only since the formation of a railway from Whitby to Pickering, opened in 1836, that these mineral stores have been developed and made available. This railway passes for 24 m. through a succession of varied and highly picturesque scenery, affording, perhaps, the most beautiful ride of the kind in the kingdom; and through its medium there is a daily communication (except on Sundays) with York. There are also daily coaches to and from Scarborough and the North. Since the opening of the railway, the fishery at Whitby has very materially increased. There are several mineral springs in the neighbourhood. Good lodgings may be had in the summer and autumn, rendering Whitby a desirable place of resort, where gaiety is not the only object. Market-day, Saturday. Fairs, August 23. and Martinmas-day. (*Private Inform.*)

WHITCHURCH, a market town and par. of England, co. Hants, hund. Evingar, in div. Kingsclere, on the road from London to Salisbury, 12 m. N. Winchester. Area of par., 7,530 acres. Pop. of do. in 1841, 1,741. The town is quite insignificant, and would be wholly unworthy of notice in a work of this kind were it not for the fact of its having sent 3 mems. to the H. of C. from the 17th year of Elizabeth down to the passing of the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised. The living is a vicarage, worth 140*l.* a year, in the gift of the Bishop of Winchester. An endowment to the amount of 102*l.* a year is applied to the purchase of bedding and clothing for the poor.

A little to the E. of the church, near the London road, are the paper mills, at which the paper for the notes of the Bank of England has been manufactured since the reign of George I. down to the present time. Whitby was successively, or successively, a market town and par. of England, co. Salop, hund. N. Bradford, on the borders of Wales and Cheshire, 18 m. N. by W. Shrewsbury. Area of par., 15,280 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 6,272. The town is built on an acclivity, the summit of which is crowned by the church, a freestone edifice, erected in 1723 in the Tuscan order, with an embattled square tower 108 feet in height. The interior is handsome, and it has a good altar-piece, and 2 recumbent stone figures brought from the ruins of the old church, one of which represents Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, celebrated for his exploits in the wars with France under Henry V. and immortalised by Shakespeare in the 1st part of Henry VI. The living, a rectory, united with the rectory of Marbury, in Cheshire, is in the gift of the Countess of Bridgewater, and is one of the most valuable in the co., being worth 1,438*l.* a year nett. Here also are chapels for Unitarians, Baptists, Independents, Wesleyans, &c., and public schools and charities having an aggregate income of above 900*l.* a year. The grammar school, which has an income of above 450*l.* a year, instructs a certain number of boys, free of expense, in classics and mathematics, writing and accounts being paid for separately. The master and usher are allowed 312*l.* 12*s.* a year. (*Digest. &c. of Charity Reps.*) Courts leet and baron are held in the town hall by a high steward appointed by the lord of the manor. The inha. of Whitchurch are principally engaged in the malt and hop trade, in the manufacture of shoes, and lime and brick making. The Ellesmere canal comes up to the town. Markets on Fridays; fairs, 4 times a year, for farming stock, linen, and hempen and some woollen cloths. (*Parl. Rep. &c.*)

WHITEHAVEN, a pari. bor. and sea-port town of England, co. Cumberland, about 3 m. N.E. from St. Bees head, and 35 m. S.W. Carlisle; lat. 54° 32' 59" N., long. 2° 54' 40" W. Pop. of pari. bor., which includes the village of Preston to the S. of the town, and a small rural district, in 1841, 15,841. The creek, on which the town is situated, is surrounded on the land-side by heights which approach close to the buildings. It is regularly laid out; the streets, which are of considerable width, cross each other at right angles, but they are, at the same time, ill-paved and dirty; and though there are many good houses and shops, a considerable proportion of the labouring pop. live in cellars. Among the public buildings are the three churches, or chapels of St. Nicholas, St. James, and St. Andrew, the first erected in 1693, the second in 1772, and the third in 1715; the livings, which are perpetual curacies, worth

respectively 1861, 2001, and 2501, are in the gift of the Earl of Lonsdale, on whose estate the town is built. Here also are chapels or meeting-houses for Methodists, Presbyterians, Anabaptists, Rom. Caths. &c. The educational establishments comprise a marine school for 60 boys, erected on ground given by Lord Lonsdale, and endowed by a citizen of the town; a national and an infant school, &c. It has, also, a theatre, erected in 1769, a subscription library and news-room, a custom-house, market-house, an infirmary, a dispensary, cold and hot baths, &c. There are dry docks and patent slips for the building of ships, which is carried on to a considerable extent; and there are considerable manufactures of sail-cloth and cordage, coppers, tobacco-pipes, &c.; with a small soap-work, and iron and brass foundries. It has also two weekly newspapers, and two joint stock banks.

The harbour, formed by piers, constructed at different periods, dried till recently at low water; but it has been so much improved by the construction of a new pier on its S. side, projecting N., that a portion of it has now 9 ft. water at low ebb, and above 20 ft. at springs. Harbour lighthouses have been erected on the outer and inner pier-heads.

Whitehaven, which, in the beginning of the 17th century, was a miserable fishing village, is wholly indebted for its rise and importance to the working of the coal mines in its vicinity, belonging to the Earl of Lonsdale. Some of these mines extend below the sea; and in the largest of them all, the William Pit, about 600 acres are excavated under the sea, the distance being about 2½ m. from the shaft, 110 fathoms deep, close to the shore, to the remotest part of the working. There is, in this immense pit, a stable under the sea for 46 horses. (*Appendix*, l. 299, to *Report on Employment of Children in Mines*.) A new pit is now being sunk, which, when completed, will run some miles under the sea, and will be the deepest in the country. The coal, which is of excellent quality, is principally shipped, as well as for Dublin, the Isle of Man, and the S. of Scotland. Thus, in 1849, the exports of coal coastwise from Whitehaven amounted to 330,496 tons; and those to foreign parts to only 2,094 tons. Exclusive of its coal, Whitehaven exports considerable quantities of lime, freestone, iron-ore, &c.; and carries on a considerable trade with the W. Indies, N. America, and other foreign countries. Gross customs' revenue in 1849, 74,565*l*. The town, however, is not flourishing, and both its trade and population have latterly declined; a consequence, most probably, of the superior facilities enjoyed by Liverpool, both as respects the trade with Ireland, and that with the W. Indies, America, &c. The shipping of the port has fallen off materially during the last dozen years; still, however, it had, in 1850, 227 ships, of the burden of 26,578 tons, ex. 5 steamers. A piece of ground in the neighbourhood of the town, the gift of Lord Lonsdale, has been fitted up for bowls and other games.

The government of the town, and the care of the docks and harbour, is vested, under an act of Queen Anne, in 21 trustees, 14 of whom are chosen every 3 years by the inhab. carrying on trade and paying harbour dues; and 6 are nominated by the lord of the manor (Earl of Lonsdale), who, being himself added to the list, completes the number. Courts-leet are held annually; and there is a county court, before which 540 plaintiffs were entered in 1848; petty sessions are also held by the co. magistrates. Markets, Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays.

The Reform Act conferred on this town, for the first time, the important privilege of sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors in 1849-50, 529.

Adjoining the town on the E. side is Whitehaven Castle, a seat of the Earl of Lonsdale. The town is in the par. of St. Bees, about 4 m. from the village of that name, in which are two valuable institutions; the one being a college where persons of limited means are prepared for the church, and the other a richly endowed foundation school, affording great advantages to the youth of the neighbourhood. Whitehaven is united by railway with Workington, Maryport, and Carlisle.

A lighthouse of the first class has been erected on St. Bees-head. It exhibits a fixed light elevated 233 ft. above the level of the sea.

WHITHORN, a royal and parl. bor. of Scotland, co. Wigton, the Burrow Head, the S.E. extremity of the co., and one of the principal headlands on the S. Scottish coast, being within the par. Pop. of the bor. in 1841, 1,513. The latter, about 4 m. N.N.W. from the Burrow Head, and 3 m. N.W. from its harbour at Isle of Whithorn, built partly on level ground and partly on a gentle acclivity, consists principally of one long and generally wide and well kept street, intersected in the middle by a rivulet concealed by a bridge the entire width of the street. The houses, which are all of stone, and mostly covered with slate, have been greatly improved of late years, many of those that were old and inferior having been pulled down, and replaced by others of a superior quality. The present church, on a rising

ground, a little W. from the main street, was built in 1823. It is a substantial and commodious edifice; but is totally devoid of architectural beauty, forming, in this respect, a striking contrast to most of the churches latterly erected in this part of the country. Here also is a Free church, and places of worship for the United Presbyterian Synod, the Reformed Presbyterian Synod, and for Rom. Caths. The last, however, have no settled pastor; the individuals attached to their communion being widely dispersed over the country. The par. school is in a very efficient state, and there are several other schools. The only public building is the town-house and gaol, surmounted by a tower and spire, without any pretensions to elegance: the gaol is, also, ill-contrived and defective. Except the tanning of leather, which is carried on to some extent, the town has no manufactures; the inhabitants being either retail dealers, tailors, shoemakers, and other tradesmen, required for the accommodation of the surrounding district, or agricultural labourers. Some of them have small patches of land close to the town, for which they pay high rents. Two branch banks have, of late years, been opened in the bor. The inferior houses are mostly occupied by Irish immigrants, who are very numerous in this part of the country.

Whithorn was made a royal bor., by James IV., in 1511. It is governed, under the Municipal Reform Act, by a provost, 4 bailies, and 15 councillors. Corporation revenue, in 1848-49, 1711*l*. 2*s*. 4*d*. It unites with Wigtown, Stranraer, and New Galloway, in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors in the bor., in 1849-50, 50.

Whithorn, which is of high antiquity, is supposed to be identical with the *Leucophibia* of Ptolemy, and is certainly the *Candida Casa* of the venerable Bede. It was early distinguished in ecclesiastical annals, from the circumstance of a church being founded here late in the 4th or early in the 6th century, by St. Ninian, who is said to have been buried within its walls. At a later period, or in the 13th century, a magnificent priory for monks of the Premonstratensian order was erected here by Fergus, lord of Galloway, of which there still remains a fine Saxon arch, embodied in the wall of the old par. church, and some extensive vaults. The real, or supposed, relics of St. Ninian having been collected in this building, it was regarded with feelings of extraordinary veneration, and was, for a lengthened period, a place of pilgrimage and adoration. Several of the kings and queens of Scotland were among the number of its visitors. On one occasion, James IV. made a pilgrimage hither on foot, to secure the good offices of the saint in behalf of his queen, then dangerously ill. The bishopric of Galloway, or Whithorn, was one of the oldest in Scotland; and this was a principal residence of the bishops till the abolition of the see. (*Murray's Literary Hist. of Galloway*, *Append.* p. 232.)

The *Isle of Whithorn*, about 2 m. N.N.E. from the Burrow Head, and 3 m. S.E. from the bor., may be regarded as the sea-port of the latter. The Isle, now united to the mainland by a causeway, is of very limited dimensions, not probably exceeding 40 or 50 acres. The village, which is built partly on the mainland and partly on the Isle, has about 450 inhab. The par. church, at Whithorn, but a dependence of the Free church of the latter has been established in the village. On the Isle are the ruins of a small church, said, though probably on no good grounds, to be one of the oldest in Scotland. A little ship-building is carried on; and there is some trade in the shipping of corn and other products to Liverpool and Whitehaven, and in the importation of coal, slates, freestone, timber, &c. In the angle between the W. side of the island and the mainland is the harbour. The only danger in entering is the screws, a ledge of rock, overgrown at high water, bounding the harbour on the S.W. But there is a breakers' channel between the extremity of the screens and the Isle. Small vessels may run in at any time, and anchor within the screens till the tide makes, when there is water to bring large ships to the pier. The latter, constructed about 45 years ago, by means of a grant made by the convention of royal bors., is a very considerable and useful work. At high springs there are from 18 to 20 ft. water at the pier, and at neaps from 12 to 14 ft. The ground at the pier-head, and in the harbour, is soft, so that vessels are but little injured by grounding. The steamers from Liverpool and Whitehaven seldom touch at the Isle of Whithorn, which is comparatively secluded; but in purity of air and water, mildness of climate, dryness of soil, cheerfulness, and salubrity, it is superior to most bathing places on the Scottish coast.

It may probably be thought, seeing their limited pop. and importance, that this notice of Whithorn and its port has been extended to an unnecessary length. But not being of the number of those who care nothing for the place to which they belong, we may, perhaps, be excused, if, towards the close of this lengthened and laborious survey of so many countries and places, we have lingered for a moment over scenes once familiar, and

still well remembered. The associations which the mention of this locality calls up are all "redolent of joy and youth," and are too soothing and pleasing to be instantly dismissed.

WICK, a royal and parl. bor., and sea-port town of Scotland, E. coast of the co. of Caithness, of which it is the cap., on the river Wick, at the bottom of a deep bay, 16 m. S. by W. from Dunrobin Head. Pop. of parl. bor., which includes Wick, Pulteney-town, and Louisburg, in 1841, 5,532. Wick, properly so called, or the old town, is on the N. side of the river, and is irregularly and meanly built, and dirty; it has to the N. the suburb of Louisburg, and is connected by a bridge with Pulteney-town, on the S. side of the river. The latter, built on rising ground, feued from Lord Duffus by the British Fishery Society, is laid out on a uniform plan, and is one of the handsomest fishing villages that is anywhere to be met with. Both towns are lighted with gas, supplied by a company recently established. The par. church, at the W. end of the town, with 1,335 sittings, was erected, in 1830, at a cost of £7,811. There are also, Free churches in Wick and in Pulteney-town; and the United Associate Seceders, Independents, Reformed Presbyterians, Rom. Caths., &c., have their respective places of worship. The educational and literary establishments comprise a parochial school, an excellent academy, several unendowed schools, two Sunday-schools, a subscription library, two reading-rooms, and a weekly newspaper. Exclusive of the churches, the town-hall, county buildings and prison, and commercial hall, are the principal public edifices.

Wick has been for upwards of half a century the principal seat of the herring fishery of Scotland; and, besides its own boats, its harbour is frequented, in the fishing season, by great numbers of boats from other parts of Scotland, and from Holland. Its port at the mouth of the Wick being small, inconvenient, and unsafe, a new harbour was commenced, in 1810, by the British Fishery Society, which they completed at a cost of 14,000*l.*, of which 5,500*l.* were defrayed by government. But the accommodation being still insufficient, a new or outer harbour, of larger dimensions, and having deeper water, was completed, in 1831, at an expense of not less than 40,000*l.* In 1840, the town had 765 boats at the fishery, of which 428 belonged to the town, and 337 to other places. The crews of these boats amounted to 3,323 individuals; and they are supposed to have given employment to about 4,000 other individuals, as gutters, coopers, sailors in coasters for carrying away the fish, &c. There were cured, at Wick, during the year ending the 5th of Jan., 1850, 149,500 barrels of herrings, being about one seventh part of the total quantity taken and cured in Scotland during the same year, including Sunderland and Whitby. Unluckily, however, the fishery is subject to great fluctuations in some years, not more than from 30,000 to 50,000 barrels are taken. In consequence, the business partakes considerably of the nature of a gambling pursuit, and has not the beneficial influence that might otherwise have been expected.

The building of ships and boats, especially the latter, is carried on to a considerable extent; and the town has, besides, four rope-walks, a brewery and a distillery, an iron foundry, &c. The principal, or rather sole occupation of the females in and round the town consists in the spinning of yarn for, and in the making and mending of herring nets. The trade of the port is limited to the export of herrings, and of corn, wool, cattle, and other farm products, and to the importation of coals, timber, groceries, &c. It has an intercourse by steam with Leith, Aberdeen, Kirkwall, and Lerwick. There belonged to the port, in 1850, 39 vessels, of the aggregate burden of 2,168 tons. Gross customs' revenue collected at the port, in 1849, 737*l.* The Commercial Bank, and the Aberdeen Town and Country Bank, have each branches in the town.

Wick was made a royal bor. by James VI. in 1589. It unites with Kirkwall, Dornoch, Cromarty, and Dingwall, in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors in Wick in 1845, 10, 364. It is governed by a provost, 2 bailies, and 9 councillors. Corp. rev., in 1848-9, 140*l.*

The country in the vicinity of Wick has been very greatly improved within the last half century: even so late as in 1750, there was not a cart in the county, nor potatoes, turnips, nor rye-grass; and such a thing as a rotation of crops had not then been heard of. The land was split into minute portions, and held under a system subversive of all industry and improvement. The advance in the interval has been astonishingly great; and though there is still an excess of small occupiers, their numbers are gradually decreasing; and a sort of improvements have been introduced, and are extending themselves on all sides. To show the increase in the value of land, it may suffice to mention that the estate of Hemprigs, in the parish of Wick, let in 1783 for 642*l.*, was let in 1830 (exclusive of Pulteney-town) for 5,608*l.* (*New Statistical Account of Scotland, art. Wick; Official Returns, &c.*)

WICKLOW, a marit. co. of Ireland, prov. Leinster, having N. the co. of Dublin, E. St. George's Channel, S. Wexford, and W. Carlow and Kildare. Area, 494,794 acres, of which 94,000 are unimproved mountains and bog. This is a very mountainous co. In some places it is well wooded, and extremely picturesque and beautiful. Estates mostly large; the most extensive, valuable, and best cultivated belongs to Earl Fitzwilliam. Farms of various sizes; many small. Average rent of land, 12*s.* an acre. Speaking generally, rents are much too high; the labouring pop. not half employed; and their condition, and that of the small farmers, as bad as possible. But little wheat is raised, and that principally in the E. parts of the co. Wicklow has to boast of considerable mineral treasures; and some gold has been found in stream-works in different parts of the co. These, however, have been wholly abandoned, the produce of metal being insufficient to repay the expenses. From 600 to 900 persons may be employed in the copper mines of Croobane, Ballymurtagh, &c. The ores are shipped at Wicklow, and are smelted in Walsby, Bismuth, manganese, zinc, &c. have also been met with, but in inconsiderable quantities. Marl is very abundant in parts of the co., and is said to have wonderfully increased the fertility of some districts. Principal rivers, Slaney, Fustia, and Ovoca. Wicklow contains 6 baronies, and 58 par.; and returns 2 mems. to the H. of C., both being for the co. Registered electors for the latter, in 1849-50, 1,077. In 1841, Wicklow had 19,210 inhabited houses, 21,182 families, and 136,143 inhabs., of whom 68,489 were males, and 67,654 females.

Wicklow, a marit. town of Ireland, prov. Leinster, co. Wicklow, of which it is the cap., at the mouth of the Vartry, 28 m. S. by E. Dublin, and 24 m. W. by N. Wicklow Head, on which there are 2 lighthouses with fixed lights. Pop. in 1841, 2,794. This, the poorest of assize towns, is irregularly built, and principally derives its means of support from the concourse of persons on co. business, and for bathing during the summer months. Its public buildings comprise the par. church, a Rom. Catholic chapel, meeting-houses for Methodists and Quakers, the court-house and prison for the co., diocesan school, market-house, co. infirmary, fever hospital, &c. Races are held annually on the Morrough, a flat sandy tract, extending several miles along the shore. The corporation, under a charter of James I. in 1613, consisted of a portreeve, 12 burgesses, and a commonalty, which returned 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C. till the Union, when the bor. was disfranchised. The assizes for the co., general sessions and petty sessions, and a weekly court for the adjudication of small debts, are held here. The town is a constabulary and coast-guard station. Markets on Saturdays; fairs Mar. 28, May 24, Aug. 12, and Nov. 25. The harbour is fit only for small craft, having a bar at its entrance which has only 9 feet at high water springs, and 6 feet at neap. It has, however, some trade in the shipping of copper ore, &c.; and the value of its exports, in 1835, being 86,562*l.* Post-office revenue, in 1830, 342*l.*, in 1836, 356*l.*

WIDIN, or VIDIN, a fortified town of Bulgaria, cap. Sanjack, on the Danube, 130 m. S. E. Belgrade. Pop. estimated at from 30,000 to 35,000, being the most populous town in this part of Turkey. It presents an imposing appearance from a distance, having numerous mosques and minarets; and its streets, though equally dirty, are said to be broader than in most other Turkish towns. It is the residence of a pacha of 3 tails, and a Greek archbishop; its trade is principally in rock salt, corn, wine, and other products of the surrounding territory. Its fortifications are in a pretty good state of repair, and it is one of the strongest towns in Turkey.

The revenue of Bulgaria is raised in the worst possible manner, consisting principally of a tithe charged on all sorts of raw produce, and sold to the highest bidder. In the pachalik of Widin the tithe on the fish taken in the Danube produces about 3,000*l.* a year; and the leech fishery, also, yields a considerable sum. (*Zweif.* ii. 316, and *Private Information.*)

WIESBADEN, a town of W. Germany, cap. of the Duchy of Nassau, and one of the most frequented watering-places of the Confederation; on an affluent of the Rhine, 4 m. N. from the latter, and 6 m. N. N. W. Ments. Its resident pop. was, in 1845, about 12,300; but, during the height of the season, the total number of its inhabs. has sometimes exceeded 25,000. The interior of Wiesbaden is badly laid out; but in its outskirts are many good streets and terraces. Being the seat of the government, superior courts, &c. of the duchy, it has some showy public edifices, including the ducal residence, the infantry and new artillery barracks, mint, Rom. Catholic church, theatre, &c. But most of its buildings consist of hotels and lodging-houses for the accommodation of visitors; its chief prosperity and consequence being derived from its baths and mineral waters. These, the *Aque Mitiacii* of Pliny, are hot saline springs, containing muriate and sulphate of soda, muriate and carbonate of lime, muriate of magnesia and potassa, with

some silica, oxide of iron, and free carbonic acid. There are fifteen different springs; the principal of which is the *Kockbrunnen*, or "boiling spring," though its temperature is not boiling, but only about 158° Fahr. The other springs are not so hot, but all have the same general character, and are efficacious in cases of gout, rheumatism, paralysis, rigidity of the skin, &c. The usual time for drinking the waters, and taking baths, is from the middle of June to the end of August, during which all the usual attractions of a watering place are to be met with. The chief scene of gaiety is the *Kursaal*, a large edifice, with a central ionic portico, which encloses, with its two wings, three sides of a spacious lawn, and comprises many magnificent apartments, including a noble saloon about 140 ft. in length and 50 in height. A band of music attends here every day during the season, and the *table d'hôte* is well and respectfully attended. Besides this establishment, Wiesbaden has a public library with 45,000 vols., museums of antiquities, and paintings, a well-managed hospital, &c.; with manufactures of chocolate, sealing-wax, and glue. The climate is very hot and oppressive in the height of the summer, and there is a deficiency of good ordinary drinking water; but the neighbourhood is very pleasant, and abounds with fine views and vineyards. Numerous Roman antiquities have been discovered in and about the town. (*Gransville's Spas of Germany*; *Schreiber, Guide du Rhin*; *Chambers' Tour*; *Murray's Handbook for N. Germany*; *Berghaus*, &c.)

WIGAN, a pari. and mun. bor., market town, and par. of England, co. Lancaster, bund. W. Derby, on the Douglas, in the centre of an extensive coal-field, 17 m. N.E. by E. Liverpool, and 17 m. N.W. Manchester. The limits of the old parliamentary and municipal bor. were not affected by the Boundary and Municipal Reform Acts, and are co-extensive with the township of Wigan, which has an area of 2,170 acres, and had, in 1831, a pop. of 20,774, and in 1841, of 25,167. The town situated on a hill, is spread over a large extent of ground, and though irregular, is pretty well built; its appearance, however, is not prepossessing, as the employments carried on in it, and the abundance of coal, give it a dirty blackened look. Of late years its manufactures, buildings, and pop. have rapidly increased; several new streets, containing many good houses, have been erected; the approaches have been improved; and the whole town, which has been widely extended, especially towards the E., has every indication of augmenting wealth and prosperity. The charge for lighting, watching, and police, is defrayed by private subscription; and an ample supply of water is furnished by an incorporated company. The par. church is a stately old edifice, in the perpendicular style, with a handsome square tower; its interior is spacious and lofty, and it has several fine ancient monuments. Except on the S.W. it is closely surrounded by buildings. The living, one of the most valuable rectories in the county, being worth 2,200 a year, is in the gift of the Earl of Bradford. Besides a chapel-of-ease and 8 places of worship for Protestant Dissenters, there are 2 large and handsome R. Catholic chapels. The town-hall, in a small market-place, nearly in the centre of the town, a large brick edifice, was rebuilt in 1720, and has a colonnade, added in 1828; the moot or sessions-hall was rebuilt in 1829. Here, also, is a large commercial-hall, for the sale of woollen and cotton goods and hardware, erected in 1816; a small bor. gaol, a subscription library, established in 1787; a dispensary, founded in 1798, with a mechanics' institute, savings bank, &c. Towards the N. extremity of the town is a pillar erected in 1679, in memory of Sir T. Tildesley, killed in the engagement at Wigan on the 25th of Aug. 1650, between the royalists under the Earl of Derby, and the parliamentary troops under Colonel Lilburn. The free grammar-school, founded in the reign of James I., has since received various endowments, and is now in the possession of a considerable income. It is conducted under an act passed in 1812, and affords instruction to numerous scholars in classical learning, mathematics, the modern languages, &c. Here, also, is a blue-coat school, established in 1773; a school of industry, established in 1835, for the education of girls for domestic servants and housewives; and numerous Sunday-schools. The income arising from private legacies for the education and apprenticing of children, and general relief of the poor, amounts to between 350*l.* and 450*l.* a year.

The principal branches of industry carried on in the town comprise the carding and spinning of cotton, the weaving of muslins, calicoes, flustans, &c., by power and hand-looms; the manufacture of coarse linens; and more recently of silks. There are, also, in the parish bleach-works, brass and powder, nail and machine factories, iron foundries, &c. In 1836, there were in the town only 20 cotton factories, which employed 4,392 hands; and in 1839, there were at work in the parish 37 cotton factories, which employed 6,137 hands, and 2 flax-mills employing 400 hands. (*Baines' Lancashire*; *Rep. on Mills and Fac-*

So early as 1730, an act of parliament was obtained for making the Douglas navigable from Wigan to the Ribbles, at the point where the latter empties itself into the sea. This navigation was subsequently purchased by the Leeds and Liverpool Canal Company, and now forms an important branch of their works, conveying vast quantities of coal from Wigan to Liverpool and the N. of Lancashire. The North Union railway, a branch of the Liverpool and Manchester line, passes through the town to Preston and Lancaster.

Wigan is a bor. by prescription; its earliest extant charter dates from the 3d of Henry III.; but numerous others have been granted by subsequent sovereigns. It sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. in the 23d of Edward I.; and made another return 12 years afterwards; but from that epoch till the 16th century, a period of more than 300 years, the privilege remained dormant. At its revival the right of election was vested in the free burgesses by custom, of whom, previously to the Reform Act, there were generally about 100. Registered electors in 1849-50, 623.

Under the Mun. Reform Act, the bor. is divided into 5 wards, and is governed by 10 aldermen, and 18 councillors. It has a commission of the peace, 3 courts met annually, petty sessions 3 times a week; and a county court, before which 1,681 plaints were entered in 1848. Corp. rev. in 1847-48, 3,234*l.* A newspaper, called the *Wigan Gazette*, was first issued in 1836.

Wigan, anciently called Wibiggin, though not mentioned in Domesday-book, is certainly of considerable antiquity. A patent for paving the town, and erecting a bridge over the Douglas, was granted in the 7th Edw. III. During the civil wars it was zealously attached to the royalists. Dr. Leland, author of a "View of Deistical Writers," and of several other publications, was a native of this town, having been born here in 1691. Market days, Munday and Friday; fairs 3 times a year, chiefly for cattle, pedlary, and toys. (*Park Repts.*; *Baines' Lancashire*, &c.)

WIGHT (ISLE OF), the *Vectis* of the Romans, an island off the S. coast of England, opposite to, and included in, the co. of Hants, being separated from it by the road of Spithead on the E., and by the Solent, or W. Channel, on the W. The E. Channel, from below Gosport across to Ryde, is about 3 m. in width, but from Hurst Castle across to the island, the W. Channel is little more than 1 m. in width. The figure of the island is rhomboidal, having its shores parallel to the opposite shores of the mainland. From its E. to its W. angle the distance is about 22 m.; and from the N. to the S., about 13 m. Area, 86,810 acres. Pop. of the island, in 1841, 42,550. This is one of the most beautiful districts in the kingdom, being finely diversified with hills, dales, woods, towns, villages, and gentlemen's seats. A range of chalk hills extends lengthwise across the island, affording excellent pasture for sheep, and some very commanding views. The cliffs on the S. coast are bold and precipitous, and hollowed into chasms, the resort of vast numbers of sea-fowl. The cliffs, called the Needles, on the W. angle, are lofty, almost perpendicular, and strikingly picturesque. One of the tallest of these cliffs, being undermined by the action of the waves, was overthrown in 1782, and totally submerged. Climate extremely mild, and, perhaps, the most salubrious of any in England. Soil dry, loamy, and mostly very fertile; being well adapted for all sorts of agricultural purposes. The husbandry is similar to that followed on the good soils of the mainland (see HAMPSHIRE); and the island has large quantities of agricultural produce to dispose of after supplying its own inhabitants. It is divided into two nearly equal parts by the river Medina. Large quantities of fine sand are shipped from Freshwater Bay, for the glass and china manufactures in different parts of the country; but it has no other minerals of any importance. Since the opening of the railway from London to Southampton, the Isle of Wight has been a great object of attraction, and is visited by crowds of tourists from the metropolis. A constant intercourse is kept up by steam between Southampton and Cowes; and individuals pressed for time may now leave London in the morning, and, after seeing a good deal of the island, return to town in the evening. Under the Reform Act, the Isle of Wight sends 1 mem. to the H. of C. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 1,668.

WIGTON, a market town and par. of England, co. Cumberland, on the Wiza, 10 m. W.S.W. Carlisle. Area of par. 11,800 acres. Pop. of do. in 1841, 6,432. The town, which is commodious and well built, consists principally of a main and transverse street, and has several superior inns and dwelling-houses. The par. church, a handsome building, was erected, instead of an older church, which had become ruinous, in 1788; it has attached to it a spacious Sunday-school, built by voluntary subscription in 1820. The living, a vicarage worth 120*l.* a year, is in the gift of the bishop of Carlisle. The grammar-school, established by subscription in 1714, but afterwards endowed, has now an income of above 70*l.* a year; at the time of the late charity inquiry 35 children were taught

on the foundation. An hospital for six widows of Protestant clergymen, founded in 1723, has an income of 584. a year; and there are some minor charities. The Wesleyans, R. Catholics, and Friends, have meeting houses at Wigtown, and the Friends have, near the town, a school for 60 boys, founded in 1826. Wigtown is a place of some manufacturing activity; checks, gingham, muslins, flustans, &c. being made in the town and par., in which about 450 persons were employed as weavers in 1839. The gross average weekly earnings of the weavers at the same period was stated to be 4s. 10yd. or net 4s. 2d. per loom. (*Home-loom Rep.*, part v.) Several breweries and tanneries are established here: iron and coal are brought to the town from within a distance of 5 m. Petty sessions are held monthly, and an annual court leet and baron in Sept. Markets, Tuesd. and Frid.; the former a considerable corn mart. Large fairs for horses, cattle, Yorkshire cloth, and hardware, Feb. 20. and April 5.; and one on Dec. 31. for butchers' meat, apples, and honey. About 1 m. S. Wigtown is Old Carlisle, probably a Roman station, of the ruins of which Wigtown old church was built. Ewan Clarke, the Cumberland poet, and Sir R. Smirke, were natives of Wigtown. (*Parl. Rep.*, &c.)

WIGTOWN, a marit. co. of Scotland, occupying the S.W. extremity of that kingdom, and forming the W. half of the district known by the name of Galloway, has on the S. and W. the Irish Sea, N. Ayrshire, and E. the Stewartry of Kirkcudbright or E. division of Galloway. It contains 239,760 acres, of which about a third part may be arable. Surface hilly, but the hills do not rise to any considerable height. It is divided into three districts, viz. the *Machars*, extending from Wigtown and Fortwilliam to the Burrow Head; *Raenys*, comprising the peninsula formed by Loch Ryan and the Bay of Luce, terminating in the Mull of Galloway on the S. and Corsewall Point on the N.; and the *Moors*, or upper district. The soil of the first two districts is, for the most part, a hazely loam, dry, and well adapted for the turnip husbandry; but near the town of Wigtown there is a considerable extent of rich alluvial land. The moors, which are bleak and barren, comprise more than a third part of the co. Climate mild, but rather moist. Property has, for a long series of years, been gradually accumulating in fewer hands, and is now, for the most part, distributed in large estates, held generally under entail; farms middle-sized, and uniformly almost let on leases for 19 years. Agriculture in this, as in most other Scotch co's., was formerly in the most barbarous and wretched state imaginable. There was no rotation of crops; the process and implements were alike execrable; the pasture land was overstocked; and the occupiers steeped in poverty. Marl, of which Galloway contained immense quantities, began to be discovered and applied to the land about 1730; and for a while it caused an astonishing improvement in the corn crops. But their unceasing repetition reduced the soil to its former sterility, and convinced the landlords that marling, which promised so much, and by which so much had been realised, could be of no permanent utility to their estates, unless the tenants were restrained from overcropping. In consequence, principally of this feeling, but partly also of the diffusion of intelligence as to such subjects, it was the usual practice, previously to the American war, to prohibit tenants from taking more than three white crops in succession; and it was also usual to prohibit them from breaking up pasture land until it had been at least six or nine years in grass. This practice, barbarous as it is, was a vast improvement on that by which it had been preceded; and it prevailed generally throughout Galloway and Dumfriesshire till the beginning of the present century; and in some backward parts lingers even to this day. But in all the best parts of the district two white crops are now rarely seen in succession; and every department of husbandry has been signally improved. Generally, however, the co. is more suitable for pasture than for tillage; and it, as well as Kirkcudbright, suffered a good deal from overcropping between 1809 and 1815. Oats and barley principal crops; wheat, however, is now raised in considerable quantities. Potatoes largely cultivated. Turnips have been long introduced; but it is only since 1826 that their culture has become an object of general and profitable attention; it is now rapidly extending, and large quantities of bone-dust are imported as manure for the turnip lands. Farm houses and offices mostly new, substantial, and commodious. Roads new, and for the most part excellent. Breed of cattle polled, and one of the best in the empire. Breed of sheep in the low grounds, various; in the moors, principally the black faced, or Linton variety. Average rent of land in 1843, 8s. 7d. an acre. Minerals and manufactures, quite unimportant. The condition and habits of the people have been materially improved since the commencement of the late war with France. "They are now more cleanly, more comfortably lodged, and both their diet and their dress are of a better description. They are gene-

rally, also, intelligent and well informed. Their morality has also kept pace with the progress of society, and the more extensive diffusion of knowledge." (*New Statistical Account of Scotland*, art. *Wigtown*.) Principal river, Cree, Bladnoch, and Luce. It is divided into 17 par., and returns 2 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 1 for the co., and 1 for the bors. of Wigtown, Whithorn, and Stranraer, in this co., with which the inconsiderable bor. of New Galloway, in Kirkcudbright, is associated. Reg. electors for the co., in 1840-50, 1,151. In 1841, Wigtown had 7,440 inhab. houses, and 39,195 inhabs., of whom 18,290 were males, and 20,905 females.

Wigtown, a royal and parl. bor. and sea-port of Scotland, cap. of the above co., on rising ground near the mouth of the Bladnoch in Wigtown Bay, 13 m. N.N.W. the Burrow Head, and 37 m. W.S.W. Dumfries. The parl. bor., which includes a small village at the bridge of Bladnoch, about 1 m. S. from the town, had, in 1841, a pop. of 1,660. This, which is a well-situated, and well-built country town, has much improved of late years. It consists principally of a main street of great width, the centre of which has been enclosed, and is now occupied with a shrubbery, bowling-green, &c. A new and handsome granite cross has, also, been erected within the last few years. The town-house has a low spire at one end. The old prison, inc. under the same roof with the town-house, being insecure, a new and commodious prison has been recently built in a fine situation in the immediate vicinity of the town. The church, which is old and mean-looking, is situated in a retired churchyard, in which are some interesting monuments to various individuals put to death during the persecutions under Charles II., for their adherence to the Covenant. Here, also, is a Free church; and the members of the United Associate Synod and the Relief have meeting-houses. A considerable number of the Irish settlers in the town and parish are Rom. Catholics. Recently a very handsome school-house has been built for the par. school; and another school is supported by subscriptions. A library, founded in 1794, has a good collection of books. If we except a distillery established near Bladnoch bridge, no manufacture of any kind is carried on in the bor. The harbour on the Bladnoch, about 1/2 m. from the town, nearly dries at low water, and the navigation is rather difficult. The only trade is in the shipping of corn, cattle, and other farm produce, coastwise for Liverpool and other ports, and in the importation of coal, timber, freestone, &c. The port is visited about once a fortnight by a steamer from Liverpool. In January, 1850, 68 vessels of the aggregate burden of 3,645 tons belonged to the port and its dependent creeks of Garlieston, Isle of Whithorn, &c., ex. a steamer. Branches of the British Linen Co. and of the Edinburgh and Glasgow bank are established in the town.

Wigtown was made a royal bor. by James III. It unites with Stranraer, Whithorn, and New Galloway, in sending 1 mem. to the H. of C. Register electors, in 1849-50, 108. Under the Municipal Reform Act, it has a provost, 3 bailies, and 15 councillors. Corporation revenue, in 1848-9, 474l., principally arising from the rent of land. (*Private Information*.)

WILMINGTON, a town or city, and port of entry of the U. States, in Delaware, co. Newcastle, between the Brandy-wine and Christiana creeks, immediately above their junction, and 30 m. S.W. Philadelphia. Pop., in 1841, 8,367. It is built on gently-rising ground, in a pleasant and healthy situation, is regularly laid out, and its houses are mostly constructed of brick. It has a town-hall, a large almshouse, about 15 churches, 2 market-houses, an arsenal, public library, and many superior private (though no public) schools. It is supplied with water from works on Brandy-wine, on which also is one of the largest collections of flour mills in the U. States. Cotton and woollen goods, paper, gunpowder, iron wares, &c. are made in Wilmington and its vicinity. The trade, both wholesale and retail, is extensive: there were owned in the town, in 1849, 5,700 tons shipping. The Christiana is navigable up to the town for vessels drawing 14 ft. water: a railroad, 27 m. in length, connects Wilmington with Philadelphia; and others to connect it with different parts of Delaware; and Maryland have been projected. (*Encyc. Amer.*; *Encyc. of Geog. Amer.* edit.)

WILNA, or VILNA, a government of European Russia, comprising a large proportion of the ancient Lithuania and Samogitia; principally between the 54th and 56th degrees of N. lat., and the 21st and 27th of E. long.; having N. Courland, E. Minsk, S. Grodno, and S.W. Poland and Prussia. Area, estimated at 16,390 sq. m. Pop., in 1846, 863,710. It is a vast plain; there being only, in different parts, a few sandhills, reaching sometimes to the height of 200 ft., and abounding with fossil shells, &c. Principal rivers, the Wilna, a tributary of the Niemen, and the Niemen, which forms its S.W. boundary. Lakes are numerous, particularly in the E. and N.E. The soil is partly sandy, and partly marshy; but in many places is

consists of a fertile alluvial deposit. The climate, though severe, is not so cold as in some of the adjacent governments: the mean temp. of the year is about 45° Fahr. Agriculture is almost the sole occupation of the inhabitants; and rather more corn is grown than is required for home consumption. Rye is the grain principally cultivated. Hemp and flax are rarely grown; and hops and pulse are raised in gardens; fruits are neglected. The forests are very extensive, the crown possessing above 400,000 decaïnes of forest land; and there is a considerable trade in deals, timber, tar, potash, and other woodland products. Lime trees are very abundant; and to this cause is attributed the excellence of the honey, for which this government is famous.

The breeding of stock is neglected; the horses are, however, strong and active, though of small size. Game is very plentiful: elks, wild boars, bears, wolves, &c. are numerous; occasionally the urus is met with; and fox, martin, and squirrel skins are articles of trade. Mineral products unimportant. Manufactures increased a little of late; but they are still quite inconsiderable. Dr. Granville says of Shavel, a town of 2,000 inhabs. in this gov. "It consists of a long street of low gable-roofed huts of wood plastered over, and presenting a general appearance of the most squalid misery. This may be considered as a fair specimen of the second-rate towns in the gov. of Wilna, and indeed all over Russian Poland." (*Travels*, II. 516.) The trade, which is almost entirely in the hands of the Jews, is principally in timber and agricultural produce, sent down the Dwina to Riga, or by land into Prussia. Wilna is divided into 11 districts; chief towns Wilna, the cap., and Kowno. It is not subject to the government monopoly of ardent spirits; and preserves several of its old forms of administration. As respects education it is, though far behind, in advance of many of the governments.

WILNA, a town of the Russian empire, cap. of the above gov., and formerly the cap. of Lithuania, at the confluence of the Wilenka and Wilna, 90 m. N.E. Grodno. Pop., in 1834, 35,697, of whom 30,000 were Jews, they being more numerous here than in any other town of Polish Russia. It is surrounded by undulating hills, and enclosed by a wall. Its streets are narrow and crooked, and its houses mostly of timber, though it has several hundred dwellings built of brick or stone. Formerly a royal castle of the Jagellons existed here, but nothing is left of it except its ruins. The cathedral, founded in 1387, has some good paintings, and many chapels, one of which, appropriated to St. Casimir, and built wholly of marble, is very handsome. The body of the saint is preserved here in a silver coffin, made by order of Sigismund III., and weighing, it is said, 30 cwt. 1. The church of St. John is surrounded by the buildings of the university, founded in 1578, and suppressed in 1832. Here are in all about 40 churches, numerous convents, a mosque, and 4 synagogues, a magnificent town-hall, an arsenal, exchange, theatre, 2 hospitals, barracks, magazines, &c. The governor's palace and some residences of the nobility are fine buildings. Previously to its dissolution, the university of Wilna was in a flourishing state, and possessed an observatory, collections in mineralogy and anatomy, and a library of 52,000 vols. A medico-chirurgical school, to which are attached the botanic garden and some of the univ. collections, an ecclesiastical seminary, and 2 gymnasia, are the principal public schools: most part of the university establishment has been removed to Kief. Wilna has deaf and dumb and foundling asylums, various other charitable institutions, a few manufactures, and a considerable trade. It was founded in 1322, and is reported to have had, in the middle of the 16th century, 100,000 inhabs., though this, no doubt, is a gross exaggeration. It has often suffered severely from fire. (*Schmitzer; Pussart; Kaiseritz, Russland.*)

WILTON, a parl. and munic. bor., and par. of England, co. Wilts, hund. Branch-and-Dole; on the Willy, a tributary stream of the Avon, 4 m. W. by N. Salisbury. The old bor. comprised only the greater portion of the town; but the modern bor. includes, besides the whole par. of Wilton, 11 adjacent parishes and parts of 5 others, with an extra-parochial district; it has a total area of about 33,000 acres, and had, in 1841, a pop. of 8,057.

It is a neat country town; the main street is partially paved and lighted, and is crossed by a smaller street nearly in its centre. The public buildings, the principal of which are the church and town-hall, are not remarkable, nor do either these or the private houses appear to be increasing. (*Bosmd. Rep. &c.*)

An extremely handsome church, in the Italian style, with a separate campanile, or bell-tower, has recently been erected here at the expense of the Right Hon. Sydney Herbert. The living is in the gift of the E. of Pembroke. It has, also, chapels for Independents and Wesleyans, an endowed free-school, established early in the 15th century, for the education and apprenticeship of 30 boys; a bequest of 1,000*l.*, the interest of which is annually distributed in marriage portions to 4 young women belonging to the town, and several minor charities.

The hospital of St. John is the only one remaining of the numerous monastic establishments formerly existing here. The hospital itself is an old priory building, consisting of four distinct apartments under one roof, with a garden for the use of the inmates, who consist of 2 brethren and 2 sisters, presided over by a prior nominated by the dean of Salisbury cathedral. The rents reserved for the maintenance of the inmates amount to about 30*l.* a year. (*Charity Commissioners' Rep.*)

Wilton had, for a lengthened period, a flourishing manufacture of woollen goods, especially of carpets, and it was here, indeed, that the first carpet made in England was manufactured. This business, however, gradually declined; and though it has somewhat revived of late years, it is still but inconsiderable.

The earliest existing charter of the bor. dates from the 1st of Henry I., but from a very early period it has been governed by a mayor and an unlimited number of burgesses, including a recorder and five aldermen. This bor. sent two mems. to the Hs. of C. from the 22d of Edward I. down to the passing of the Reform Act, which deprived it of one of its mems. Previously to the last-mentioned Act the franchise was vested "in the mayor and burgesses, who are to do all corporate acts and receive the sacrament." In point of fact, however, it was a nomination bor. belonging to the E. of Pembroke. Reg. electors, in 1849-1850, 208. The only court that ever appears to have been held in the bor., except the court leet, is a court of record, which has not been opened since 1781. There is a small prison, now used only as a lock-up house.

Wilton is very ancient. It had a famous abbey, originally founded in 773, and greatly improved and enlarged after the Conquest. Wilton House, the magnificent seat of the Earls of Pembroke, occupies the site of this abbey. It is built in a fine park, watered by the Willy; its garden front was rebuilt from designs by Inigo Jones, and more recently it was enlarged and considerably altered by Wyatt, especially with a view to the better display of its superb collection of ancient statues and other works of art, paintings, &c. Wilton was most probably the birth-place of the dramatic poet Massinger; and archdeacon Cox, author of "Travels in Switzerland and the North of Europe," and of various valuable historical works, was, for a lengthened period, rector of Bemerton, in its immediate vicinity. The town has no market, but four annual fairs, that on the 12th of Sept. being one of the largest sheep fairs in the W. of England. (*Bosmd. and Munic. Reps.; Beauties of Wiltshire, &c.*)

WILTSHIRE, an inland co. of England, in the S. part of the kingdom, having N. the co. Gloucester, E. Berks and Hants, S. the latter and Dorset, and W. Somerset and Gloucester. Area, 874,880 acres, of which about 800,000 are arable, meadow, and pasture. It is divided by the rivers Kennet and Avon, and the canal by which they are united, into two grand divisions, popularly termed from their situation North and South Wiltshire. The latter consists, in great part, of Salisbury Plain, extending from Westbury and Warminster, on the W., across the co. to Hampshire, and from Lavington, on the N., to near the city of Salisbury on the S. It consists principally of chalky downs, intermixed however with some fertile, well watered, and beautiful valleys. Though called a plain, the surface, as in all chalk land, is undulating: the most level part lies round Stonehenge. There is a good deal of rich land in the S. division, between Trowbridge and Pewsey, and between the Willy and the Dorsetshire border, E. to Wilton and Salisbury. Marlborough Downs, which bear in most respects a close resemblance to Salisbury Plain, lie in the N. division of the co., between Marlborough and Swindon; but, with this exception, this division consists principally of rich vale land, considerably exceeding in extent and importance the cultivated grounds of the S. division. There are some large estates; but property is, notwithstanding, a good deal subdivided. Farms of all sizes; and generally let on lease, for 7, 14, and 21 years, with unobjectionable conditions as to entry. Farm-houses, in the S. division, were formerly built together for the convenience of water, but the more modern ones are generally detached. Agriculture in Wiltshire is in an advanced state, and reflects great credit on the skill and enterprise of the farmers. The land under the plough is remarkably clean and in good order. It is believed, however, that tillage on the down lands has been too much extended. When once broken up, it is extremely difficult to get them again into good condition as pasture; while, unless corn fetches a pretty high price, they are most productive in the latter. Principal corn crops, wheat and barley; the latter being, however, confined, in a great measure, to the light chalky soils. Turnips, rape, or cole seed, and potatoes, largely cultivated. Much of the rich land in the N. division is appropriated to the dairy husbandry and the fattening of cattle. The cheese, which, excepting inferior butter made from the whey, is the only product of the dairies, was formerly sold as Gloucestershire cheese; but is now well known.

and much valued in London and elsewhere by its own proper name of North Wiltshire cheese. Breed of cattle various: they are partly slaughtered in Bath, Salisbury, &c., but the greater number are sold to the London butchers. In despite, however, of the encroachments made by the plough on the downs, sheep continue to be regarded, in the greater part of the co., as the principal support of the farmer. They afford the chief article of manure used on the land; while the sale of lambs and wool furnishes the principal means of paying the rent. In consequence, as it would seem, of this dependence, and of the high price of wool during the last 10 or 12 years, there have been fewer complaints among the Wiltshire farmers than amongst those of most southern coes. The sheep stock, consisting partly of the native horned breed, but in a far greater degree of South Downs, and crosses between the two, is estimated at about 700,000; of which about 565,000 are depastured on the downs, and the rest on the cultivated land; the fleeces of the former are supposed to weigh at an average $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs., and those of the latter 4 lbs.; producing together about 8,650 packs of wool. The irrigation of water meadows is to be seen in the greatest perfection in S. Wiltshire, and is practised on a large scale. Many hogs are kept; and Wiltshire bacon is highly esteemed.

In the vicinity of some of the towns of S. Wiltshire, a good deal of garden husbandry is carried on. Average rent of land, in 1843, 23s. 4d. an acre. Stonehenge stands, in rude magnificence, in the middle of Salisbury Plain. (See STONEHENGE.) The manufactures of Wiltshire are considerable; they consist principally of various descriptions of superfine woollen goods, made at Bradford, Trowbridge, Westbury, &c.; thickets, and other sorts of cotton goods, are also prepared, though in small quantities. Wilton was long celebrated for a carpet manufactory, established by one of the Earls of Pembroke; but this, though it has latterly increased, is not nearly so considerable as formerly. Speaking generally, manufactures of all sorts are here, as in other southern counties, on the decline. Principal rivers, Thames, Upper and Lower Avon, and Kennet. Exclusive of some local jurisdiction, Wilts contains 28 hundreds, and 300 parishes. It returns 18 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 4 for the co.; 3 for the city of Salisbury; 2 each for the bors. of Chippenham, Cricklade, Devizes, and Marlborough; and 1 each for Calne, Malmesbury, Westbury, and Wilton. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 7,338, whereof 4,594 were for the N., and 2,739 for the S. division of the co. In 1841, Wilts had 80,879 inhab. houses, and 358,733 inhab., of whom 128,240 were males, 130,493 females. Sum paid for the relief of the poor in 1848-49, 145,889s. Annual value of real property, in 1840-41, 1,175,516s.; do. in 1843, 1,424,556s.

WIMBORNE MINSTER, a market town and par. of England, co. Dorset, hund. Badbury; in a valley between the rivers Stour and Allen, each of which is here crossed by a bridge, $2\frac{1}{2}$ m. S.S.W. Salisbury. Area of par. 11,480 acres: pop. of ditto, in 1841, 4,336. The town is pleasantly situated; but the streets, though clean, are irregular, and the houses have but little beauty; it is well supplied with water, and has been considerably improved of late years. It is principally remarkable for its magnificent minster or church, which was formerly collegiate. The date of its original foundation is uncertain; but it has been usually referred to the 8th century, when a monastery was established here by a sister of Ina, king of the W. Saxons. Dr. Stukely, however, and some other antiquaries are of opinion, that the E. tower, and most part of the church, are posterior to, but soon after the Conquest. It is a large cruciform structure, 160 ft. in length from E. to W., with two towers: one, a short, massive, Norman tower, rising from the middle of the roof, formerly surmounted by a lofty spire destroyed by lightning early in the 17th century; the other tower, in the Perpendicular style, at the W. end of the building, has a fine window, which has, however, been closed up. The interior is divided after the manner of a cathedral; and till within the last few years the cathedral service was performed here. In the chancel are 16 stalls, with canopies of carved oak. It has some monuments of distinguished personages; but time, and the hand of violence appear to have destroyed a great many more. This edifice underwent extensive repairs and improvements from 1585 to 1840, at the joint expense of Mr. Banks, the Earl of Devon, and the Duke of Beaufort. (Rickman's *Gothic Architecture*.) The living is a rectory in the patronage of the Earl of Shaftesbury. Here also are chapels for Independents, Wesleyans, and Baptists. The free grammar-school, originally founded in 1497, and re-established by Queen Elizabeth, has an income of about 100l. a year. Its freedom is unlimited, but in 1826 there were only 25 pupils on the foundation. Another free school, founded by the endowment of a private individual in 1685, has an income of 200l. a year, and in 1836 was attended by 16 pupils. St. Margaret's almshouse, which is of very ancient foundation, has an income of about 1200l. a year, and the aggregate produce of the

funds for charitable and religious uses in the parish amounted, at the period of the late inquiry by the Charity Commissioners, to nearly 1,0000l. a year. The trade of Winborne is limited to that arising from a small manufacture of woollen goods, and stocking-knitting. Petty sessions are held here for the Winborne division of the hundred, and an annual court at Michaelmas is a tything of the town, at which 2 bailiffs are appointed by 12 jurymen; but these have no authority over other parts of the town. Winborne is supposed, from the various coins and antiquities found there, to have been a Roman station. Market-day, Friday. Fairs frequently, for cattle and cheese. (*Beauties of England and Wales*, art. Dorset, &c.)

WINCANTON, a market town and par. of England, co. Somerset, hund. Norton Ferris; on a declivity beside the small river Cale, here crossed by a stone bridge, 23 m. S. Bath. Area of par. 3,860 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 2,396. Wincanton, having been destroyed by fire in 1747, has been since regularly laid out in four principal streets. The church, a spacious edifice, partially rebuilt in 1748, has a square embattled tower. The living, a perpetual curacy worth 1220l. a year, is in the gift of U. and G. Messiter, Esqrs. It has, also, a chapel for Independents, a neat market-house, and several small charitable institutions. The manufacture of serge, tick, and dowlas, though much fallen off, is still carried on, and the silk manufacture has been introduced on a small scale. Wincanton is an important mart for the cheese made in the surrounding country. The town, divided into a borough and tything, is under the jurisdiction of separate officers; two constables for the former, and a tything-man for the latter, being chosen annually at the manorial court; besides which last, an annual court-leet is held here. Market-day, Wednesday, twice a year. Wincanton is a place of remote antiquity, and is mentioned in *Domesday Book*.

WINCHCOMBE, a market town and par. of England, co. Gloucester, hund. Kibgate, amidst the Cotswold Hills, 6 m. N.E. Cheltenham. Area of par., 5,700 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 2,613. The town consists mostly of three streets; the houses are in general of stone. The church, the erection of which commenced in the reign of Hen. VI., is a noble Gothic structure, with a lofty square tower embattled and pinnacled; the nave is separated from the aisle by octagonal pillars and a screen of pressed arches, and from the chancel by a screen of carved oak. The living, a vicarage, worth 1340l. a year, is in the gift of W. Tracy, Esq. The free-school, founded in the 15th James I., has a yearly income of 420l. a year, has long declined from the condition of a grammar-school; and at the last inquiry, it afforded only rudimentary instruction to 34 boys. An endowment of 200l. a year supplies clothing to the poor. (*Charity Reps.*) The inhabs. are principally occupied in the manufacture of silk goods, paper, leather, cotton stockings, &c.: in 1839, one silk mill in the par. employed 76 hands. (*Mills and Factories Rep.*) Winchcombe is of great antiquity, and before the time of Canute formed a co. of itself, being then surrounded with walls, and having a famous abbey, founded during the Heptarchy, the ruins of which, as of its ancient castle, there are now few or no traces. The town was made a bor. in the time of Edward the Confessor, but its charter has long been obsolete. About $\frac{1}{2}$ m. distant are the remains of Sudeley Castle, now the property of the Duke of Buckingham. (*Parl. Reps.*, &c.)

WINCHELSEA, a bor., cinque port, and market-town of England, co. Sussex, E. div. hund. Staple, on the small river Brede, about $\frac{1}{4}$ m. from the English Channel, 2 m. S. by W. Rye. Area of par., 1,120 acres. Pop. in 1831, 772. Old Winchelsea, a town of importance under the Romans, situated on the coast at the mouth of the Rother, was destroyed by the encroachments of the sea, between 1800 and 1827. Before its destruction was completed, the inhabs. removed to New Winchelsea, as it was called, on a slight eminence about 2 m. S.W. from the ruined town. The new town, which was surrounded with walls by Edward I., covered a space of about 2 m. in circ., had 3 churches, was regularly laid out, and enjoyed a considerable share of the trade with France, especially of that with Bordeaux. But, by a singular fatality, it was ruined by a cause precisely the opposite of that which had destroyed the old borough. Instead of encroaching, the sea began in the 16th century to recede from this part of the coast, leaving, in the end, the town without a harbour, $\frac{1}{4}$ m. from the sea, and in part surrounded with a salt marsh! Since this change was effected, it has progressively declined, and would most probably have been wholly deserted, but for the circumstance of its having enjoyed, from the 42d of Edw. III. down to the passing of the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised, the important privilege of sending 3 m. to the H. of C. It is now included in the bor. of Rye. Of its three churches, only a portion of that of St. Thomas now remains. It has several old monuments, one of which is said by Rickman to be hardly excelled by any in the kingdom for beauty of composition. The living, a

rectory in private patronage, is worth 778*l.* a year. The court-house and gaol underneath are of Saxon architecture. About a mile N.E. of the town are the ruins of Winchester Castle, built in the reign of Henry VIII. An inconsiderable market is held on Saturday, and a fair on the 14th of May, for cattle and pedlery. (*Bound. and Mem. Repts.*)

WINCHESTER, a city, pari. and mun. bor. of England, co. Hants, of which it is the cap., bund. Buddlegate, on the Itchen, here crossed by a modern stone bridge, 12 m. N. by E. Southampton, and 63 m. S.W. London; lat. 51° 3' 40" N., long. 1° 18' 36" W. The ancient pari. bor. was of very limited extent, and did not even include the whole city; but it is now wholly comprised in the modern pari. bor. (identical with the municipal bor.) with the adjacent hamlets of Winnal and St. Cross. Pop., in 1841, 9,270.

The town, standing on the declivity of a hill gently rising from the river, is regularly laid out, clean, well paved, and lighted with gas. In its centre is the High Street, a spacious thoroughfare, running from E. to W., with parallel streets on either side, crossed by others of nearly an equal length. Most of the S.E. part of the town, but without the limits of the city-proper, is occupied by the cathedral and some other ecclesiastical edifices and their precincts. The houses are mostly substantial, and well built, many of them being in an antique style, and having a venerable appearance. It was formerly surrounded with walls; but these no longer exist; and of four ancient gates only the W. now remains.

Of the public edifices the cathedral is by far the most interesting, partly from its vast size and antiquity, partly from the variety of its architecture, and partly from its ancient importance. It was founded in 1079 by Bishop Walkelyn, a relative of William the Conqueror, who constructed the crypts, transepts, and tower; the work was continued under succeeding prelates, and was nearly completed by the famous William of Wykeham, between 1370 and 1400. It is of a cruciform shape, with a low tower rising from the centre; and, though rather heavy, has a grand and imposing appearance. Its extreme length, from E. to W. is 545 feet; length of the nave from the W. porch to the iron doors at the entrance of the choir, 351 ft.; length of the choir, 136 ft.; breadth of the cathedral, 87 ft., and of the choir, 40 ft.; length of the transept, 186 ft.; height of the central tower, 150 ft. (*Milner*.) The character of the building was originally pure Norman, and the transepts and centre tower, built by Bishop Walkelyn, are admirable specimens of that style. The W. front, in the decorated Gothic, built by William of Wykeham, is singularly beautiful: it has a large and two smaller doorways, and a magnificent window, with two slender lantern turrets. The Norman parts of the building are bold, simple, and well executed; the tower massive and finely ornamented. The tower is varied in its details by the tracery of the church, and that of the nave is remarkable for its intricacy and richness. In its smaller structures, screens, monumental chapels, and stall-work, this cathedral is very rich. The altar-piece is of late Perpendicular; and over it is a painting, by West, of the Resurrection of Lazarus." (*Richman*, 174.)

The *comp-d'ail*, on entering the cathedral by the W. door, is grand and imposing: the vast size of the building; the loftiness and long line of its vaulted roof; the lancet pointed windows shedding on the different objects a "dim religious light;" the lines of clustered pillars and branching aisles; the numerous chantries and monuments of eminent men; and the silence that prevails within its walls; conspire to impress the mind with a deep sense of awe and sublimity. In the middle of the presbytery, between the choir and the altar, is a coffin tomb said to inclose the remains of William Rufus, killed while hunting in the New Forest, and buried here in 1100. Several Saxon monarchs are also interred in this cathedral. Among the episcopal monuments, the most interesting are those of William of Wykeham and Waynflete, two of the most illustrious prelates of whom England has to boast. The first, who was bishop of this see from 1366 till his death in 1404, besides completing the cathedral, founded and endowed a college, or school, in the city, the scholars educated in which were afterwards to be sent to finish their university education in New College, in the university of Oxford, of which Wykeham was also the munificent founder. Waynflete, who was Bishop of Winchester from 1447 to 1486, founded Magdalen College, Oxford, one of the wealthiest foundations in that university. Here also are monuments in honour of the celebrated Bishop Hodley, and of old Isaac Walton, the prince of anglers.

The bishopric of Winchester has long been one of the most valuable in the kingdom, its net revenue having amounted, at an average of the three years ending with 1831, to 11,151*l.* a year; but, in pursuance of the recommendations of the Commissioners of Ecclesiastical Inquiry, its revenue will be reduced on the decease of the present incumbent.

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The diocese includes 304 pars., comprising, together with Hants, the greater part of Surrey and the Channel Islands. The cathedral establishment consists of a dean, 12 canons, and 8 minor canons, who enjoy amongst them a gross annual income of about 12,000*l.* a year. Winchester is said to have had at one time no fewer than 90 churches and chapels; but of these many were attached to monasteries and other religious establishments destroyed at the Reformation. There are still, however, as many as 9 churches in the city and suburbs. Of these the small church of St. Lawrence, scarcely visible for the buildings by which it is surrounded, is supposed to be the mother church of the city, and the bishop takes possession of the diocese by making a solemn entry into it. St. Maurice, the principal parochial church, was pulled down in 1840, and an elegant and commodious structure has been erected on the site of the ancient edifice, which had become inconvenient and ruinous; the expense of its construction was defrayed by subscription. Among the other churches are St. Swithun's, built over a postern gate; St. Michael's, a handsome modern edifice in the Pointed style, &c. The livings, except St. Bartholomew, Hyde, a vicarage, and St. John's, a perpet. curacy, are all rectories, and are in the patronage either of the Crown or the Bishop of Winchester. But notwithstanding the number of its established churches, dissent is here pretty prevalent; and the Independents, Baptists, Wesleyans, and Rom. Caths., have all places of worship. The chapel of the latter, a handsome edifice in the Pointed style of architecture, was constructed in 1792.

The college, or school, founded, as already stated, by William of Wykeham, and completed in 1380, stands upon the site of a more ancient scholastic establishment. Its buildings enclose two large quadrangular courts, entered by spacious gateways; and besides apartments for the accommodation of the warden, scholars, &c., it has a noble hall and chapel. The whole structure is richly ornamented with pinnacles, buttresses, statues, &c. It is principally in the Perpendicular style. Over the door of the school, a noble hall constructed, in 1687, at the expense of gentlemen educated in the college, is a fine bronze statue of the founder, by Cibber, the sculptor, father of the hero of the "Dunciad." A building contiguous to the college is appropriated to the residence of the boys attending the school, but not on the foundation, where they are placed under the special inspection of the head-master. The building formerly used for this purpose being found to be inconvenient was pulled down, as well as the house of the head-master, in 1839, and a new and splendid edifice has since been erected in their stead, at an expense of about 25,000*l.*, defrayed by subscription.

This magnificent institution is the most ancient of the existing public schools of England, and formed the model for those of Eton, Westminster, &c. "The establishment consists of a warden, 12 fellows, 10 fellows, 3 chaplains, 3 clerks, 16 choristers, and 70 scholars; but there are in general above 200 boys in the school, including those not on the foundation. Boys on the foundation are provided with board and lodging within the walls of the college; the only payments to which they are subject, exclusive of travelling expenses, amounting to about 20*l.* a year. Boys not on the foundation lodge, as already stated, in an adjoining pile of buildings, under the superintendence of the head-master, and subject to college discipline. Scholars are sent, as vacancies occur, from this school to New College, Oxford. (*See OXFORD*.) Among the distinguished individuals educated in this school may be specified Bishop Lowth, Sir Thomas Brown, Sir Henry Wotton, Otway, the tragedian, Young, author of "Night Thoughts," Collins, the two Warton, &c.

Among the public buildings in the High Street is St. John's House, an ancient structure, formerly the property of the knights templars, and an hospital. The great room in this building, 63 feet in length and finely proportioned, was fitted up, in its present elegant style, by Geo. Brydges, Esq., a connection of the Chandos family, and a liberal benefactor of this city, of which he was long a parliamentary representative. It has a fine whole length portrait of Charles II., by Lely. In the rear of the building are neat edifices occupied by 6 poor widows, who, exclusive of their lodging, receive a weekly allowance of 10*l.*, and other advantages. In 1833, an important addition was made to this charity, by the erection of a building, in the Elizabethan style of architecture, with a spacious quadrangle, intended to serve as an asylum for 13 aged females and 6 old men. Christ's Hospital, founded in 1566, supports 60 old men, 3 boys, and a woman. An almshouse, founded by Bishop Morley in 1579, supports 10 clergymen's widows. Here, also, are charity-schools for boys and girls, a national school for children of both sexes, and a mechanics' institute.

Among the public buildings may be specified the cross in the High Street, a fine structure of the age of Henry VI. in the later Pointed style, above 40 ft. in height. The guild-hall, rebuilt in 1713, has in front a statue of

Queen Anne. The original Winchester bushel of King Edgar, and other ancient standards of length and capacity, formerly preserved in this building, have been removed to an apartment over the W. gate of the city. A bridewell and house of correction has been erected on the site of a magnificent monastery, in which the remains of the great Alfred are said to have been interred. On the N. side of the city is the co. gaol. The co. hospital, in Parchment-street, is a fine structure, which has recently been considerably enlarged; a new corn-exchange was erected in 1838. Beyond the W. gate is an obelisk, erected in 1759, to commemorate a dreadful visitation of the plague to which the city was subjected in 1669. The places of amusement include a theatre, assembly-rooms, &c.; races take place in July, about 4 m. from the city. It has also a public-library and reading-rooms, and a savings bank.

Winchester has no manufactures, but a very considerable retail trade, and all the public business for the co. is transacted within its limits. "It may be considered, without hesitation, as gradually increasing in houses, population, and wealth. A large extent of the surrounding district belongs to ecclesiastical and other corporate bodies, which, not being empowered to grant long leases, give no encouragement to building; but wherever land held in fee-simple, or freehold land, can be procured, it was obvious, from our own inspection, that houses calculated for the habitations of the industrious classes were augmenting." (*Parl. Board. Rep.*) The assize courts for the co. are held and other public business transacted in what was once the chapel of the castle, built by the Conqueror. (See *par.*) At the E. end of the hall is suspended a large round wooden table, 18 feet in diameter, popularly called "Arthur's Round Table," but which is, no doubt, of a much less remote antiquity. It was painted in the time of Henry VIII.

The circumstance of its being the cap. of the co. makes Winchester the residence of a great number of gentlemen connected with the law; and being also the residence of a number of superior clergymen, and of gentlemen attracted to the city by the beauty of the situation, and the facilities for education and amusement, the society is very superior. There are, indeed, but few places in England that seem so well fitted for the residence of people of slender fortune. Being within a very short distance of the Southampton railway, the access to London on the one hand, and to the S. coast on the other, is as easy and expeditious as can possibly be desired.

Winchester was first incorporated in the reign of Henry II. Under the Mun. Reform Act, it is divided into 3 wards, and is governed by a mayor, 6 other aldermen, and 18 councillors. It has a recorder, who holds courts and a commission of the peace, and a county court, before which 322 suits were entered in 1848. Corp. rev. in 1847-8, £392. Winchester has sent 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the 2d of Edward I. Previously to the Reform Act, the right of election was vested in the members of the corporation, who had power to augment their number. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 720.

This is certainly one of the most ancient of the English towns. Under the Romans it was a place of considerable importance, and it subsequently became the capital of the West Saxons. William the Conqueror erected a castle here, under the pretence of protecting the city, which had suffered much from the incursions of the Danes, but really, perhaps, in the view of overawing the inhabs. From this period, however, London became the capital of the kingdom, and Winchester gradually declined in importance. But its castle was repeatedly occupied by the Norman monarchs; Henry III., hence called Henry of Winchester, was born here in 1207, and various parliaments were held in the city in the 14th and 15th centuries. Here, also, in 1552, Henry VIII. entertained his illustrious guest, the emperor Charles V.; and here the marriage of Mary, daughter of Henry, with Philip II., eldest son of Charles, was solemnized, July 25, 1554. In the reign of Charles II. it again became, though for a short period only, a royal residence. Charles, indeed, was so much attached to Winchester, that, in 1693 he employed the famous architect, Sir Christopher Wren, to erect a new and magnificent palace on the site of the old castle. The death of the king put a stop to the progress of the building, before it was finished; and, after various mutations, it is now used as barracks.

About 1 m. S. from the city is the ancient hospital of St. Cross, founded in 1152 by Henry of Blois, bishop of Winchester, and brother to King Stephen. The present establishment, which approaches nearer to a monastery than any other in England, consists of a master, a chaplain, a steward, and 12 resident brethren. The buildings once composed two courts; but they have been partly pulled down. The chapel, in the interior court, is built in the cathedral form, with a nave and transepts, and a low, massive tower, at their intersection, and affords a fine specimen of the transition of the Norman into the Early English style of architecture. The entrance gateway has a handsome tower, with a statue of the founder, Cardinal Beaufort.

No traces now remain of the monastery previously referred to as containing the remains of the great Alfred, rebuilt in the reign of Henry II., the revenues of which amounted at the dissolution to 866*l.* a year. Neither are there any remains of a university founded in the reign of Alfred, and other similar establishments. About 4 m. E. by N. from Winchester is Avington, a fine seat belonging to the Duke of Buckingham. (*Parl. Reports; Camden's Britannia*, Gibson's ed., i. 138, &c.; *Guide to the City of Winchester*; and *Private Information*.)

WINDSOR, a town, parl. and mun. bor., par. and royal residence of England, co. Berks, hund. Ripplesmead on the Thames, 20 m. W. by S. London. Previously to the Reform Act, the parl. bor. was nearly co-extensive with the par.; the modern parl. and mun. bor. comprises about half the par., with the lower ward of the castle, and a small portion of the adjacent par. of Clewer; having an area of about 4,500 acres, with, in 1841, a pop. of 9,162.² The town, partly situated on low ground, along the river, and partly on the declivity of the ridge occupied by the castle, the W. end of which is surrounded by its buildings, consists of six principal and several smaller streets, and is well paved, and lighted with gas. It communicates with Eton, on the opposite bank of the Thames, by a handsome iron bridge of 3 arches, raised on granite piers. Of late years, many buildings of a superior kind have been erected in the W. part of the town, in that portion of Clewer par. included in the modern parl. bor. The par. church is a handsome new Gothic structure; the living, a vicarage worth 600*l.* a year, is in the gift of the crown. The guildhall, a vast edifice supported on columns and arches of Portland stone, occupies a conspicuous site in the High Street. On its N. side is a statue of Queen Anne, and on its S. one of Prince George of Denmark; in the interior are numerous portraits of royal and other distinguished persons. The cavalry and infantry barracks, the new royal stables, a neat theatre built in 1815, and several dissenting chapels, are among the other principal buildings. The charity school, founded in 1705, had at the date of the late enquiry an income of 167*l.* a year, and was attended by 53 children. It has, also, a ladies' charity school for girls, national and Sunday schools, &c. George III. established an hospital for invalid soldiers in 1784; a lying-in charity was founded in 1801, and the royal general dispensary in 1818, and there are numerous minor charities having an aggregate income of about 800*l.* a year. Windsor was first chartered in 1276, by Edward I., in the 30th of whose reign it began to send mems. to the H. of C., though returns have been regularly made only since the 26th Henry VI. The right of voting was formerly in householders paying scot and lot, who had no vote for 6 months before the election. Under the Boundary Act the alterations previously allowed to were made in the limits of the bor. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 679. Under the Mun. Reform Act the bor. is divided into 2 wards, and is governed by a mayor, 3 other aldermen, and 18 councillors. It has a commission of the peace, and a county court, before which 737 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. Corp. revenue, in 1847-8, 1,622*l.* Windsor has no manufacture of importance; and being out of any principal line of road, its trade is merely one of retail, being confined to the supply of goods to the inhabs. and visitors. It has numerous inns and lodging houses, though, considering the resort of company to the town, the former are certainly of a very inferior description to what might have been expected. The ale of Windsor enjoys a considerable reputation, and is sent to London and other places. The town supports 2 weekly newspapers. Markets, Wednesday and Saturday, the latter principally for corn. Fairs, Easter Tuesday, July 5. and October 4. for horses, cattle, sheep, and wool. (*Board. and Mun. Corp. Reports; Private Information*.)

WINDSOR CASTLE is the principal country seat of the sovereign of England, and one of the most magnificent royal residences in Europe. It appears to have been founded by William I. soon after the Conquest, and it has been enlarged or embellished by the greater number of his successors, particularly by Edward III., George III., and George IV. Under the latter it was, indeed, in great part rebuilt, and throughout renovated by Sir Jeffrey Wyattville, and has been fitted up in the most splendid style. Being placed on the summit of a lofty eminence rising abruptly on the S. side of the river, it commands very extensive views, and is, at the same time, a most conspicuous and interesting object from all the surrounding country. R

* Eton and Windsor being so closely connected as to form in effect one town, it is not easy to see any good grounds for excluding the former from the parl. bor. This exclusion will appear the more reasonable when it is borne in mind that the limits of the parl. bor. were made to embrace the lower Ward of the Castle, occupied by the post, the Knights of Windsor, the Duke of Devonshire's house, and other dependants on the court. Had the object been to create an independent constituency Eton would have been included in the parl. bor., and every part of the Castle excluded.

is of an oblong form, and is divided into an upper, a middle, and a lower ward, the entire area comprised within its outer wall being about 12 acres.

The upper or E. ward consists of a quadrangle, having on the N. the state apartments shown to the public; on the S. the apartments appropriated to the use of visitors; and on the E. the private apartments of the sovereign: on the W. the upper ward communicates, by the Norman and St. George's gateways, with the middle ward, a narrow inclosure round the base of the Round tower, which crowns the summit of an artificial mound in the centre of the castle. The lower ward, which is considerably smaller than the upper, has on its S. and W. sides the houses of the military knights, and the Salisbury, Garter, and Bell towers; and on the N. St. George's chapel, and Wolsey's tombhouse, behind which are other buildings inclosing several smaller quadrangles: it is entered from the town of Windsor at the S.W. corner by Henry VIII.'s gateway. On the N. side of the Castle, outside the state apartments and middle ward, is the North Terrace, originally constructed by Queen Elizabeth, and afterwards enlarged and improved by Charles II. This noble walk, resting partly on precipitous ledges of rock, and partly on masonry, rises about 70 ft. over the meadows at its base, and is at once the finest feature of its kind in the kingdom, and a distinguishing feature of the Castle. On the E. side of the Castle, opposite her Majesty's private apartments, are the sunk or royal gardens, comprising about 2 acres.

The principal and most magnificent entrance to the Castle is on the S., by the gateway of George IV., between the York and Lancaster towers. The York edifice, on the right hand, formed part of the ancient foundation having been laid on the 12th of August, 1834. The towers are symmetrical, being about 100 ft. in height, with machicolated battlements. Immediately opposite to this gateway is the principal entrance to the state apartments. The grand staircase, with the guard-room at its top, is, perhaps, among the happiest efforts of Wyattville's genius. The staircase is lighted by an octagonal lantern 100 ft. above the pavement, and has a marble statue of George IV. by Chantrey. In the vestibule is the collection of paintings by West, representing the exploits of Edward III.; and in the guard-chamber are the coats of mail worn by John king of France, and David king of Scotland, while prisoners in the castle, with busts of Marlborough, Wellington, and Nelson, the latter on a pedestal formed of a portion of one of the masts of the Victory.

The decorations of the king's drawing-room are very superb: the ceiling is painted in compartments, representing the restoration of Charles II., the labours of Hercules, and other subjects; and on each side the room are numerous paintings by Rubens, and the arms of several of the English kings. The ceiling of the audience-chamber has an allegorical representation of the church of England; and in the same apartment are West's installation of Knights of the Garter, and several portraits. The ball room, 96 feet in length, 32 feet in width, 34 ft. in height, is finished in the gorgeous style of Louis XIV. It is hung in part with Gobelin tapestry, representing the story of Jason and the Golden Fleece, said to have belonged to the unfortunate Marie Antoinette. St. George's Hall, the banquetting room of the knights of the garter, is 200 feet in length, with an arched ceiling divided into compartments and panels, in which are nearly 700 shields, emblematized with the arms of the knights down to the present time. At the E. end is the throne, under a rich canopy; and on the S. side of the hall are the portraits of the different sovereigns, from James I. to George IV., by Vanduyck, Lely, Kneller, Lawrence, &c. The Waterloo chamber, 100 feet in length by 46 in width, has portraits, principally painted by Sir Thomas Lawrence, of most of the sovereigns, warriors, and statesmen who took a prominent part in the contest with France terminated by the battle of Waterloo. The other state apartments do not require any particular notice; they have the inconvenience of all entering from each other, so that to get to the last in the range all the others must be gone through.

The entrance to her Majesty's private apartments is at the S.E. corner of the upper ward, through a handsome hall, from which a double staircase leads to a magnificent corridor 500 feet in length. The private apartments consist of a dining-room, 50 feet in length by 37 in width; a drawing-room, 66 feet in length by 30 in width; a smaller drawing-room, 40 feet in length by 25 in width; library, 50 feet in length by 40 in width; with bed-rooms, dressing-rooms, boudoirs, &c. These rooms are, as might be expected, most sumptuously furnished. The apartments for servants occupy the lower and higher stories of the palace.

The round tower was originally built by the celebrated William of Wykeham, the architect employed by Edward III. It stands on an artificial mound, and is approached

by a covered flight of 100 steps. From a court in the interior, another flight of steps leads to the battlements whence, in a clear day, portions may be seen of no fewer than 12 cos. This tower, which has been much modernized, is 32 feet higher than formerly, and is surmounted by a turret 20 feet in height, whence the royal standard is displayed: it is the residence of the governor of the Castle. At the base of the tower is a bronze equestrian statue of Charles II., erected by one of his pages.

The great object of interest in the lower ward is St. George's Chapel. "This is one of the finest perpendicular buildings in the kingdom: it is regular in its plan, and nearly all in one style. It is a cross church, with the transepts ending in octagonal projections which have 2 heights of windows. At each end of the aisles are 40 small octagonal projections sideways; all these are separated by screens, and form monumental chapels. In the E. wall of the chapel is a doorway of early English date; and perhaps other portions of a date prior to the present chapel may remain; but the whole of the chapel is a specimen of the perpendicular style in its advanced, but not latest, period. The roof of the nave is painted with armorial bearings, and the whole highly enriched, so that it now presents one of the best examples of the capability of English architecture for the reception of splendid colouring and gilding." (*Rickman's Gothic Archit.*, 124.)

The interior is divided by the screen and organ gallery into two parts, the body of the chapel and the choir. The W. end of the former is wholly occupied by an enormous window, fitted with painted glass, which, however, is deficient in brilliancy and richness of colouring. The fittings of the choir are mostly modern. St. George's Chapel was built between 1474 and 1516, chiefly under the direction of Beauchamp, bishop of Salisbury, and Sir Reginald Bray, minister of Henry VII. It has served as the burial place of Hen. VI. (removed thither by Rich. III. from Chertsey), Edw. IV. and his queen, Hen. VIII. and Jane Seymour, and Charles I. It has a few old monuments, including that of Edw. IV., of hammered steel. Here also is a monument in honour of the late Princess Charlotte; but it is generally admitted to be in bad taste, stiff, and unnatural. Adjoining the chapel on the E. is Wolsey's tomb-house, built by Hen. VII., but which afterwards came into the possession of the Cardinal. James II. fitted it up as a Rom. Cath. chapel. It remained unoccupied from this era down to that of George III., by whom it was repaired, and a vault beneath it fitted up as a mausoleum for the royal family; and in it are now deposited the bodies of Geo. III. and his queen, Geo. IV., Will. IV., the Dukes of York and Kent, the Princess Charlotte, the Princess Augusta, &c.

But despite its magnificence, we confess that Windsor Castle appears to us to be extremely deficient in many things that one should expect to meet with in an ancient and favourite seat of the kings of England. Except the associations connected with the building, and the names of some of its towers and apartments, it has but little to connect it with the nation, or to make it an object of interest. In its interior, every thing has been sacrificed to gratify the taste of Geo. IV. for ostentation and vulgar finery. Not a single apartment has been allowed to continue in its ancient state, to carry us back to the days of the Edwards, the Henrys, Elizabeth, or even the Stuarts. Every thing that was venerable for its antiquity, or interesting from its history or associations, has been demolished or changed; so that one might suppose it had been wholly constructed within the last 20 years. Nor is there any thing in the fittings-up and embellishment of the apartments to atone for the destruction or metamorphosis of all that was old and interesting in the building. It has nothing to mark it as the chosen seat of the constitutional sovereign of the British empire. Excepting the busts of Marlborough, Wellington, and Nelson, there is hardly, in the state-apartments, any memorial of any one of the many great men whose exertions have contributed to increase the power and glory of the British nation. We look in vain for either busts or portraits of Shakespeare, Bacon, Milton, Newton, Locke, Dryden, and Pope. Much as the English nation owes to Watt and Arkwright, Windsor Castle has no monument of either the one or the other. And the same may be said of most of our great parliamentary leaders, and even of the men who brought about the Revolution, and placed the Hanoverian family on the throne. The library is wretchedly deficient in books connected with the history and state of the country and its colonies; and, vast as is the building, it has neither a theatre nor an opera-house. One, in resemblance of some opulent upholsterer; and except in its fine situation, size, and external appearance, it has but little appropriate or worthy of its destination.

The Little Park is a fine expanse of lawn comprising nearly 500 acres round the E. and N. sides of the Castle. In it is the tree usually supposed to be identical with the Herne's Oak of Shakespeare. Windsor Great Park com-

prises about 3,400 acres on the S. side of the castle, being well wooded, and exhibiting a great variety of ground. Here is the long walk, a noble avenue, nearly 3 m. in length, extending in a straight line from the grand entrance to the Castle to the top of a hill, on which a colossal bronze equestrian statue of Geo. III. by Westmacott, has been erected. On the S. side of this hill is Virginia Water, an artificial lake, with a fishing temple in the Chinese style. Windsor forest, the theme of Pope's fine poem, is a tract 46 m. in circ., laid out by William the Conqueror for the purposes of hunting, and kept up by the succeeding sovereigns. Latterly, however, it has been mostly enclosed. Its limits embrace one market town, Wokingham, and numerous villages. Old Windsor, where the Saxon monarchs are said to have had a residence, is on the Thames, about 1 m. S.E. Windsor. (For the history of the Castle the reader may refer to *Jynon's Magna Britannia*, l. pp. 415-432.)

WIRKSWORTH, a market town and par. of England, hund. of same name, co. Derby, at the S. extremity of the lead mining district, 12 m. N.N.W. Derby. Area of par., 14,640 acres. Pop. of do. in 1841, 7,991. The town, in a valley nearly encircled by hills, consists principally of 2 streets formed by the intersection of 2 turnpike roads at right angles. The church of St. Mary, a spacious edifice in a mixed style of architecture, consists of a nave and side aisles, a N. and a S. transept, a chancel, and a square tower supported on 4 massive pillars. The living, a vicarage worth 164*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Dean of Lincoln. There are chapels for Baptists, Independents, and Wesleyans. A free grammar school, founded and endowed in 1570 by Anthony Gell, Esq., for an unlimited number of scholars, has an income of above 300*l.* a year. There are several almshouses, and the funds for general charities yield an income of above 130*l.* a year. The moot and sessions hall, erected in 1778, is a handsome stone building with shambles underneath. The lead mines in the vicinity, though now comparatively neglected, still furnish employment for a considerable number of the inhab. In 1838, there were 3 cotton mills at work in the par., employing 613 hands. The other branches of industry consist of silk weaving, wool combing, and the making of hats, tapes, and hosiery. The Cromford canal passes about 1½ m. to the N. of the town, crossing the Derwent by an aqueduct of one arch 80 feet in span; and the High Peak railway has also its terminus a little to the N. of Wirksworth. The town is under the jurisdiction of a constable and headborough. Petty sessions for the hund. are held weekly, and 4 manorial courts every year in the moot hall, in which all business relating to the mines is decided. The manor of Wirksworth forms a part of the duchy of Lancaster. It was acquired by Sir Richard Arkwright, the great founder of the cotton manufacture, who died at his house at Cromford in this par. in 1792, and is now held by his son, Richard Arkwright, Esq. Market day, Tuesday; fairs 4 times a year for horned cattle. (*Beauties of England and Wales*, art. Derby; *Rep. on Mills and Factories*; *Charity Reps.*, &c.)

WIRTEMBERG (Germ. *Wurtemberg*) KINGDOM OF, one of the secondary states in the German Confederation, in the S. part of which it is situated, between lat. 47° 3' and 49° 35' N. and long 9° 15' and 10° 30' E. having N. W. and S.W. the territory of Baden; E. and S.E., Bavaria; and S. the Lake of Constance, and the Hohenzollern principalities, which last it nearly encloses. Its area, pop., subdivisions, &c. are given as follows, in the *Almanach de Gotha*, for 1842.

Circles.	Area in Engl. sq. m.	Pop. in 1838.	Pop. to sq. m.	Ch. Towns.
Neckar	1,508	458,143	351	STUTTGARD
Black Forest	1,561	443,187	338	Reutlingen
Danube	2,549	380,090	149	Ulm
Jazz	2,128	368,419	173	Ellwangen
Total	7,840	1,649,839	216	

Physical Geography, &c.—The surface is in great part mountainous, being covered by ranges of the Black Forest (*Schwarzwald*), Suabian, and Raube mountains. The Oberhohenberg, near Dellingen, rises to about 3,378, and the Kniebis to 3,100 ft. above the sea; but, in general, the various ranges are less than 3,000 ft. in height. Wirtemberg belongs partly to the basin of the Danube, and partly to that of the Rhine; besides which the principal rivers are the Neckar, with its tributaries, and the Iller, a tributary of the Danube. Except that of Constance, it has no lake of any importance.

The climate is mild in the sheltered valleys: at Stuttgart the mean temperature of the year is about 51° Fahr. The quantity of rain that falls varies, in different places, from 30 to 46 inches a year; but at Stuttgart is about 28.9 inches. As respects its productions, the country may be divided into 3 zones: the region of the vine, which extends to about 1,000 ft. above the sea; that of

fruit and corn, to 2,000 ft.; and that of corn and forests, comprising all above the latter elevation.

Agriculture is the principal occupation of the mass of the pop. The arable lands have been estimated to comprise about 2,440,000 morgen; vineyards, 84,773 do.; gardens and orchards, 150,680 do.; pasture lands, 728,000 do.; and forests nearly 2,000,000 do. Spelt, oats, barley, rye, and wheat are the grains principally cultivated; and a larger quantity of corn is usually produced than is required for home consumption: in 1834, a surplus of 140,000 *schells* was exported. Potatoes are raised in large quantities; and Berghaus has estimated the annual crop at 3,000,000 *schells*. Pease, beans, turnip, hops, and tobacco, are only partially cultivated. The vines grown on the Neckar are tolerably good; and altogether Wirtemberg produces annually about 153,000 cimers of wine, of the estimated value of 2,100,000 *fl.*; but a great deal of the is grown at a considerable elevation on the banks of the Lake of Constance, and elsewhere, and is of a thin and indifferent quality. Apples, pears, apricots, and other fruits of temperate climates, including even figs and melons, come to perfection, and small quantities of cider and perry are made. The forests are an important source of wealth. Pine, fir, and cedar are the principal kinds of trees; but oak, beeches, &c. are also numerous. The timber cut in the Black Forest is estimated to reduce upwards of 400,000 *fl.* a year. According to Berghaus, there are upwards of 800,000 head of cattle, 98,000 horses, 586,000 sheep, and 132,000 hogs in the kingdom; and the value of the wool produced annually may be about 1,713,000 *fl.* (*Allg. Länder, &c.*, iv. 24.) There are numerous associations for improving the different branches of rural industry; and government spends considerable sums in the encouragement of agriculture.

Salt is one of the principal mineral products, and between 400,000 and 500,000 centners a year are obtained from salt springs; of which quantity, about 280,000 centners are consumed in the country, the rest being exported, principally to Switzerland. Coal and lignite are found, but in no great quantities; iron ore, slate, building and mill stone, alabaster, gypsum, nitre, and potter's clay are, however, more or less abundant; and in the Black Forest are several mineral springs frequented by visitors.

Manufactures of linen and linsey-woolsey fabric, hosiery, and woollen cloths are carried on in most of the peasants' houses; and in some places to such an extent, that, in the little village of Leichlingen, there are 400 hand-looms, which annually produce 600,000 ells of linen. The manufacture of wooden clocks, toys, &c., exported to all parts of Europe and America, is extensively carried on in the Black Forest and other parts. Cotton yarn is spun, and cotton cloth woven by machinery, at Stuttgart and Obendorf; and woollen yarn, stockings, leather, paper, glass, and tobacco, and tobacco-pipes are manufactured in the principal towns; and there are also a good many dyeing-houses, glue factories, breweries, distilleries, &c. The principal exports consist, however, of cattle, wool, corn, timber, fruit, wine, seeds, hemp, iron, salt, pitch, tar, oil, and other raw products, which are sent down the Neckar, and thence to the Danube. The total value of the exports and imports may be respectively estimated at from 15,000,000 to 18,000,000 *fl.* a year. Wirtemberg, at one period, proposed with Bavaria to join Austria in a commercial union, for the S. of Germany, in opposition to that established by Prussia in the N.; but the proposal being rejected, Wirtemberg, like Bavaria and Baden, is now a member of the Prussian Commercial League.

Accounts are kept in gulden or florins, worth about 1*l.* 8*sd.*, divided into 16 *schells*, or 60 *kreutzers* of 6 *hellers* each. The elli, about 3 ft. English; the *morgen* = nearly 3½ acres; and the *schefel* = 7,583 cub.

The Government is an hereditary monarchy, limited by the constitution of 1819. The parliament consists of 3 chambers, called together every 3 years, or oftener, if necessary. The first chamber is composed of the subordinate members of the royal family, the mediatised princes, and the heads of the principal noble families: the second chamber, or House of Representatives, consists of 94 mems., including 13 of the inferior nobility, 6 Protestant-superintendents, the Rom. Cath. bishop, and other dignitaries, the university-chancellor, deputies from the towns of Stuttgart, Tübingen, Ludwigsburg, Ellwangen, Ulm, Heilbronn, and Reutlingen; and a representative from each rural district, chosen every 6 years. Members of the second chamber must be 30 years of age. The administration is conducted by 3 ministers of state, viz. with a president, form the privy council. The supreme judicial court in Stuttgart is divided into civil, criminal, educational, and matrimonial tribunals; and in each of the circles, districts, and communes there are courts of justice. The reigning house, which had been previously Protestant, became Rom. Cath. in 1772, without, however, the change having any material influence on the religious persuasion of the people. Of the pop., is

1838, 1,134,928 were Lutherans; 418,290 Rom. Caths.; and 11,368 Jews. In respect of education, Wirtemberg ranks very high. In 1830, it was estimated that 1 in 7 of the pop. was receiving public instruction; and, according to Berghaus, every individual in the kingdom is able to read and write, except a few in that part of the country called the Suabian Terrace, where the Neckar rises. It has a university (at Tübingen), a lyceum, and gymnasiums, in all the principal towns, with ecclesiastical, citizens', and other schools; and a primary school in every village. The total armed force consists of 19,500 men, including 8 regiments of infantry, 4 of cavalry, and 3 companies of artillery, with train, &c. The public revenue, at an average of the 4 years ending with 1841, amounted to 9,667,835 Rhenish florins a year: the public debt, in 1839, was 24,024,179 fl.

Mr. Loudon, who travelled over most part of Wirtemberg, in 1828, says, "From what I have seen of this country (Wirtemberg) I am inclined to regard it as one of the most highly civilised in Europe. I am convinced that the great object of government is more perfectly attained here, than even in Great Britain; because, with an almost equal degree of individual liberty, there are incomparably fewer crimes, as well as far less poverty and misery. Every individual in Wirtemberg reads and thinks, and to satisfy oneself that such is the case, he has only to enter into conversation with the first peasant he meets: and observe the number and style of the journals that are everywhere circulated; and the multitude of libraries in the towns and villages. I did not meet with a single beggar in Wirtemberg, and with only one or two in Bavaria and Baden. The dress of the inhabs. of Wirtemberg, as well as those of a great part of Bavaria and Baden, appeared to me to indicate a greater degree of comfort than I had ever observed in any other country, with the exception, perhaps, of Sweden and of the Lowlands of Scotland." (*London's Letter to Count Laslevitz*).

History.—Wirtemberg derives its name from a castle near Stuttgart, the principal seat of the reigning family. It was formerly a dukedom. The French overran the country in 1796; but the sovereign having made his peace with the conquerors, important additions were made to his territories in 1800; and soon after the battle of Austerlitz, Napoleon raised the duke to the rank of king. Under the congress of Vienna, Wirtemberg holds the sixth rank in the German Confederation, with 4 votes in the full diet and 1 in committee; and contributes 18,558 men to the confederated army. (*Berghaus; Allg. Länder, &c.; Stein's Handbuch der Geog.; Diet. Gög.; Memminger; Besch. von Wirtemberg.*)

WISBEACH, a mun. bor., market-town, river-port, and par. of England, co. Cambridge, hund. Wisbeach, in the Isle of Ely, close to the border of Norfolk, on the Nene, here crossed by a fine stone bridge of one arch, 11 m. S. from the mouth of the Nene, in the Wash, and 32 m. N. Cambridge. The old bor., of very irregular shape, was co-extensive with the par. of St. Peter's: the modern bor. is much more compact, and of less extent, but comprises a suburb of Wisbeach called New Walsooken, on the E. side of the river, excluded from the old bor., and has an area of about 300 acres with a pop. in 1831, of 8,100. The central and main portion of the town lies in an angle between the Nene and Wisbeach canal: other streets extend for some distance N. and S. along both banks of the river, and along the canal, by which the town communicates with the Ouse in a S. E. direction. Most part of the houses on the E. side of the canal belong to the par. of Walsooken, in the co. of Norfolk: this suburb has been built within the last thirty years, and appears to be still extending. The inhabs. consist chiefly of the labouring classes employed in or connected with the interests of Wisbeach. (*Men. Corp. and Bound. Repts.*) The town is irregularly laid out, but has, of late, been much improved: in its centre is a handsome crescent, erected in 1816 on ground formerly occupied by a castle founded soon after the Conquest. Most parts of the thoroughfares are well paved and lighted with gas. The par. church of St. Peter is a spacious but singular edifice, having two naves and two aisles. It exhibits a mixture of the Norman, Decorated, and Perpendicular styles. It has a fine tower, and has within several monuments of distinguished families, but is at the same time much encumbered with modern galleries. The living, a vicarage, to which the curacy of St. Mary's is attached, is one of the most valuable in this part of the country, being worth 1,773*l.* a year: it is in the gift of the Bishop of Ely. A chapel-of-ease has an endowment yielding 200*l.* a year; and the Baptists, Friends, Unitarians, Independents, and Wesleyans have their respective places of worship. The other principal buildings include a town-hall and custom-house, comprised in one building erected in 1804; a corn-exchange, assembly-rooms, and a theatre. Here, also, are some good libraries, and literary and other societies. The free grammar school, of ancient foundation, affords instruction to 20 boys, and has two exhibitions of about 70*l.* a year to

Magdalen College, Cambridge. Among the other educational establishments are two charity-schools, partly supported by voluntary contributions, but chiefly by bequests: one for boys having an income of above 250*l.* a year, and one for girls, of above 230*l.* a year. There are 18 well-endowed almshouses, and the funds in the hands of the corporation for the support of schools, almshouses, apprenticing of children, loans, and the general relief of the poor, are said by the Commissioners of Charity Inquiry to have amounted to above 1,130*l.* a year.

Wisbeach has no staple manufacture; but it has an iron foundry, yards for building and repairing vessels and boats, rope-walks, an extensive brewery, and several large malting establishments. The trade of the town is considerable, from its being the emporium of an extensive tract of country. The exports principally consist of corn, wool, rape-seed, and other products of the fens; and the imports of coal, timber, groceries, &c.

The trade of the port has been largely benefited by the great improvements that have been made, under acts passed in 1827 and 1829, in the course of the Nene from Wisbeach to its outfall in the Wash. These consisted principally in deepening and straightening the bed of the river, and in the drainage and embankment of the adjacent fens. This important work cost about 300,000*l.*, of which 30,000*l.* was contributed by the corporation of Wisbeach, who were at the same time authorised to levy increased port-dues (now 3*d.* per ton) on vessels frequenting the port. The latter may now be reached by a comparatively safe and speedy navigation, at spring tides, by vessels of 150 tons burden, and, at other times, by vessels of 80 tons. There belonged to the port, in 1849, 75 vessels of 50 tons and upwards, having an aggregate burden of 9,361 tons. The gross customs' duty collected in the same year amounted to 11,298*l.* The increase in the amount of shipping belonging to the port, which has nearly trebled since 1835, when the Nene Cutfall was finished, and of the customs' duties, shows the substantial advantages it has derived from that improvement.

"The town is apparently prosperous; its trade is extending, the value of property in the neighbourhood has increased, local taxation is stationary, and labour well paid. The inhabs. are said to be characterised by industry and prudence. Education among them is general, and few serious crimes are committed." (*Appendix to Munic. Corp. Report*).

Wisbeach received its first charter of incorporation from Edw. VI. others being granted to it by James I. and Charles II. Under the Mun. Reform Act it is divided into two wards, and governed by 6 aldermen and 18 councillors. The corp. revenue, which principally arises from harbour dues, was, in 1847-48, 3,911*l.* Wisbeach has a commission of the peace, petty sessions, and a county court, before which 987 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. The assizes are held here annually. The ancient castle of Wisbeach was long the episcopal palace of the bishops of Ely, but no traces of it now exist. A cattle-market was established in 1810. Wisbeach has frequently suffered from inundations. Market-day, Saturday. Fairs five times yearly, chiefly for cattle, horses, hemp, and flax. (*Parl. Repts.*, art. BEDFORD LIVER, in this work, and *Private Information*.)

WISBY, a town of the island of Gotland, which see.

WISCONSIN, one of the recently formed states of the American Union, comprised between the 42nd and 47th degrees of N. lat., and the 87th and 93rd of W. long.; having N. Lake Superior; N. E. and E. the State and Lake of Michigan; S. Illinois; and W. Iowa and Minnesota, from which it is partly separated by the Mississippi. Its area may be estimated at about 34,000 sq. m. Pop., according to the census of 1850, 305,596. It is in part broken by various billowy ridges, which, however, nowhere rise much above the general level. The N. part abounds with lakes, giving rise to streams flowing E. to the great lakes of the St. Lawrence Basin, but mostly W. and S. to the Mississippi. The Wisconsin river, which falls into the latter, after a southerly course, divides the state into two nearly equal portions. By far the greater part of this state was till lately inhabited only by wandering tribes of Indians. The country S. of the 44th deg. of lat. is that over which the settlers are principally dispersed. The S. W. cor. include a portion of the rich lead district of the Upper Mississippi. In winter the climate, especially in the N. parts of the state, is severe; but speaking generally, the country is very healthy.

There are some bogs, wild rice swamps, and cranberry marshes in the S. cor., and there are also some sandy tracts; but a great proportion of the land is of good quality, fertile, and easy of cultivation. Between Rock River and Lake Michigan the surface is well wooded; but W. of the former the land is chiefly prairie, and there is a deficiency of timber. Green Bay, an arm of Lake Michigan, and nearly parallel to the latter, has several good harbours. Milwaukee, on Lake Michigan, is the best harbour between Green Bay and Chicago, in Illinois,

at the bottom of the lake. In no part of the U. States have pop. and improvement advanced more rapidly than in the S. part of this state: And in proof of this it is only necessary to mention that no fewer than 680,000 acres of public lands were sold in Wisconsin in 1847, being a greater quantity than was sold, during the same year, in any other state of the Union; and that Milwaukee, already referred to, which was only founded in 1837 or 1838, had, in 1849, about 17,000 inhabs. while the exports of wheat and flour from it, in that year, amounted respectively to 1,136,428 bush. and 136,657 bar. (See *Milwaukee*, in *Supp.*) The congress of the U. States have given a grant of about 600,000 acres of land for the construction of a canal through the centre of the state, uniting Green Bay and Lake Michigan with Wisconsin river and the Mississippi; and a railway is, also, being made from Milwaukee to the Mississippi. The crops of Wisconsin, in 1848, were estimated at, wheat, 1,600,000 bush.; oats, 2,500,000 do.; maize, 1,500,000 do., with buckwheat, &c. The legislature consists of a house of 44 representatives annually elected, and of 18 senators biennially elected. The governor has 1,250 doll. a-year of salary; and the judges of the supreme and circuit courts, who are elected for 6 years, have each 1,600 doll. a-year. Ample provision has been made for education; and in 1849 the public schools were attended by 32,174 pupils. An institution for the instruction of the blind has been opened at Janesville. Madison is the seat of government, but Milwaukee is by far the largest town of the state. The enrolled militia amounted, in 1850, to 32,303 men. Wisconsin, after having been formed into a territory, was admitted as a state into the Union, 29th May, 1848. (*American Almanac* for 1851, and *Official Returns*.)

WISMAR, a town and sea-port of N. Germany, in Mecklenburg-Schwerin, cap. lordship of its own name, at the bottom of a deep bay at the confluence of the Stör with the sea, 18 m. N. by E. Schwerin; lat. 53° 49' 25" N., long. 11° 36' 15" E. Pop. 11,500. The harbour, which is very extensive, is commodious and safe, being nearly land-locked by the islands of Poel and Wollin. Close to the town there is from 8 to 8½ ft. water; in the inner roads there are from 12 to 13 ft., and in the outer from 16 to 30 ft. water. The town is fortified, and has 6 churches, 3 hospitals, several schools, &c.; with manufactures of tobacco, playing cards, sail-cloth, and other fabrics, breweries, and distilleries. Ship-building is also carried on to some extent; and Wismar is second in commercial importance to no town in the Grand Duchy but Rostock. The articles of import and export are the same as at Rostock (which see), but the trade of the town is more limited. It appears to have been founded in 1229, and afterwards became one of the Hanse towns.

WISSEMBOURG, a town of France, dep. Bas-Rhin, cap. arrond., on the Lauter, on the Bavarian frontier, 33 m. N. by E. Straßbourg. Pop. in 1846, 6,273. It is a fortified town, and of some importance, as it commands a defile leading from the plain of the Rhine into the Vosges mountains, and is connected with a system of military works stretching along the course of the Lauter for some distance, called the lines of Wissembourg. It has an old collegiate church, built in 1288; a Protestant church, in which is a bust of Luther; barracks, &c.; and manufactures of hosiery, straw hats, soap and earthenware. It originated in an abbey founded here in the 7th century, and was annexed to France by the treaty of Ryswick.

WITNEY, a market town and par. of England, co. Oxford, hund. Bampton, on the Windrush, a tributary of the Thames, 10 m. W. by N. Oxford. Area of par. 7,450 acres: pop. of ditto, in 1841, 2,707. It is well-built and cheerful; the main street being on the high road between Burford and Woodstock. The town-hall, a stone building, has beneath it an area used for a market-place. Near it is the market cross, erected in 1663, and repaired by subscription in 1811, and in the High Street is the staple or market hall, a handsome stone edifice, built in 1721. The church, at the S. extremity of the principal street, is one of the handsomest in the co., being a large cruciform structure in the early English, Decorated, and Perpendicular styles, with a tower and lofty spire, ornamented with minarets. In the N. transept is a fine window; and within the building are several ancient monuments, and a handsomely carved and gilded burial chapel. The living, a very valuable rectory, being worth 1,250*l.* a year, is in the gift of the bishop of Winchester. Here, also, are places of worship for Wesleyans and Independents. The free grammar school, founded in 1660, for 30 boys, comprises a spacious school-room, library, and apartments for the master. Another free school, with a small endowment, was established in 1693. A school for the education, clothing, and apprenticeship of weavers' sons, was founded in 1783, and it has besides a national school and several almshouses.

Witney was long celebrated as a principal seat of the blanket manufacture; and, in the reign of Queen Anne,

the weavers of the town and adjacent district were incorporated into a company. But the trade has long been of very inferior importance, and the weavers' corporation has fallen into disuse. Since the peace especially, and the introduction of machinery into the business, blanket weaving has rapidly declined at Witney, and most part of the fabrics now sold at Witney blankets are, in fact, made in Glamorganshire, and elsewhere. Some rough coatings, tilings for barges and waggon-ways, and fabrics for paper-makers, are, however, made here; and, in 1838, there were in the parish 5 woollen mills, employing 238 hands. (*Mills and Factories' Report*, &c.) The glove manufacture also employs a few hands; and stapling is carried on to some extent, and the town has a considerable trade in malt.

Witney was made a parl. bor. in the time of Edward II. but its privilege was withdrawn on the petition of the inhabs. in the succeeding reign. It is governed by 3 burghs and 2 constables, chosen at the annual court leet; and a court baron, presided over by the Duke of Marlborough, opened twice a year. Witney is of considerable antiquity, and its manor is stated to have been one of those given to the monastery of St. Swithin, Winchester, in the reign of Edward the Confessor. Market day, Thursday: fairs 5 times a year, for cattle and cheese. (*Beaumont of England*, art. *Oxford*; *Lewis's Topog. Dict.*, &c.)

WITEPSK, or WITEBSK, a governm. of European Russia, principally between the 55th and 57th degs of N. lat., and the 26th and 33d of E. long.; having N.E. the gov. of Pskov, S.E. Smolensk, and Moghiloff, S.W. Minsk and Courland, and N.W. Riga. Area, 16,500 sq. m. Pop. in 1846, 789,500. Surface generally level, though on the banks of the rivers there are occasionally some low hills. Rivers and small lakes are numerous: of the former, which all flow towards the Baltic, the Dwina is the principal. Notwithstanding the soil is but of medium fertility, and agriculture is in a very backward state, more corn is produced than is required to supply the wants of the inhabs. Hemp and flax are grown on a large scale, pease, beans, hops, fruit, &c., in the smaller inclosures. The forests are very extensive, 121,600 deciatines of forest land belonging to the crown. The grass lands are also extensive, and good many horses and cattle are reared, though of inferior breeds. The sheep yield only coarse wool; and honey is, also, of inferior quality. The mineral products and manufactures are insignificant; the last being, with the exception of a few cloth factories, almost wholly restricted to distilleries and tanneries. The trade of the government is facilitated by the Dwina and the canal of Beresina: it is principally in the hands of the merchants of the principal towns, many of whom are Jews. This gov. is divided into 12 circles; viz. towns, Witepsk, the cap., Wiliis, Dunaburg, and Polotsk. In 1838 it had 84 public schools, attended by about 1,100 pupils, besides three lycœums, and seven private schools.

WITEPSK, a town of Russia, cap. of the above gov., on both banks of the Dwina, where it receives the Vitsba, 330 m. S. by W. Petersburg. Pop. about 14,400. It is irregularly built, and is surrounded by old walls: it has numerous Greek and some R. Cath. churches, convents, and synagogues. Though by far the greater number of its houses be of wood, it has some dwellings of stone, a high school, a bazaar, an old castle, several hospitals, &c.; with manufactures of woollen cloths and tanneries. The Grand Duke Constantine, brother of the late and present emperor of Russia, died at Witepsk on the 27th June, 1832. (*Schmitzer's Possart*; &c.)

WITTENBERG, a town of Prussian Saxony, formerly the cap. of the Electorate Saxony, now the cap. of a circ. of the reg. of Merseburg, on the Elbe, here crossed by a long wooden bridge, and on the road between Pottsdam and Leipzig, 39 m. S.W. the former. Pop. 6,700. (*Berghaus*.) Though metamorphosed from the quiet seat of a university into a garrison and fortified town, Wittenberg has a peculiarly dull and melancholy aspect. It is, however, highly interesting, as the seat of the Reformation; Luther and Melancthon having been professors in its university, and their remains being deposited in its cathedral. A statue of the great reformer in bronze, by Schadow, of Berlin, was erected in the market-place, in 1821. "It represents, in colossal proportions, the full length figure of Luther, supporting on his left hand the Bible, kept open by the right, pointing to a passage in the inspired volume. The pedestal on which the statue stands is formed of a solid block of red polished granite, 30 ft. in height, 10 ft. in width, and 8 ft. in depth. On each of its sides is a central tablet, bearing a poetical inscription, the import of the principal being that 'if the Reformation be God's work, it is imperishable; if the work of man, it will fall.' Over the figure is a very handsome light Gothic canopy, supported by 4 corner pillars, and surmounted by 8 different-pointed pinnacles. This canopy is beautifully cast in iron. Taken altogether, the monument is a most creditable piece of workmanship, and does honour to the present state of the arts in Prussia." (*Granville's Trav.*, i. 247-8.)

The graves of Luther and Melancthon in the cathedral are marked by two plain tablets. The altar-piece is by Lucas Cranach, a burgo-master of Wittenberg, the town-hall of which he has embellished with pictures of Luther and of the subjects of the Ten Commandments. It was against the walls of this church that Luther suspended his 95 theses against papal indulgences; and outside the E. gate of the town he publicly burned the bull for his excommunication. Luther's apartment in the old Augustine convent remains in much the same state as in his time; and the autograph of Peter the Great on the wall is preserved by a glass covering. Wittenberg, having ceased to be a capital, was found inadequate to the support of its university, which was accordingly removed to Halle. It still has, however, a gymnasium, an ecclesiastical seminary, &c., and is the seat of a board of taxation and of the usual circle courts. From its situation on the Elbe, in a fertile country, with both iron and coal in its neighbourhood, it possesses great commercial advantages; but its trade is insignificant, and it has only a few manufactures of linen and woollen goods.

It has frequently suffered from sieges, particularly in 1766; and in 1814, when it was taken by storm from the French. (*Dict. Géog., Hodgskin, Trav. in the N. of Germany; Strang, &c.*)

WOBURN, a market town and par. of England, co. Bedford, hund. Manshead, on the great N. road, 28 m. N.W. London. Area of par., 3,300 acres. Pop., in 1841, 1,914. The town consists of a main street, about 1.3d m. in length, with the market-cross nearly in its centre; and having been nearly burnt down in 1794, it is comparatively well laid out and well built. The market-house, a handsome edifice, originally erected by the Bedford family, was rebuilt at their expense, by Blore, in 1830. The same artist has, also, restored the church, an edifice in the perpendicular style, built by the last abbot of Woburn, having a tower detached from its main body. In the chancel is, among others, a curious monument to Sir F. Staunton and his family. The living, a curacy, in the gift of the Duke of Bedford, is worth 251*l.* The free-school, founded by the Earl of Bedford in 1582, has an income of 50*l.* a year, and furnishes instruction to 150 boys on the Lancasterian plan. Almshouses, founded in 1673 for 24 widows, have an income of 30*l.* a year, and there are several minor charities. Petty sessions monthly, and manorial courts occasionally, are held in Woburn. The inhabs. are either occupied in lace-making and straw-plaiting or are employed by the Bedford family. Markets on Fridays; fairs four times yearly for farm stock.

Immediately E. of the town is Woburn Park, with Woburn Abbey, the principal seat of the Duke of Bedford. It derives its name from its occupying the site of a Cistercian abbey, founded here in 1145, and granted to the Russell family in the time of Edw. VI. The present mansion, which was built about 1745, has since been greatly improved and enlarged. It is a quadrangular edifice, its principal or W. front being of the Ionic order, with a rustic basement. The interior of this noble pile is splendidly fitted up, and many of the apartments are enriched with valuable paintings, both by the old masters and British artists. The drawing room, thence called Venetian, has a fine series of 24 views in Venice, by Canaletti. In the hall is an anc. mosaic pavement, brought from Rome. A sculpture gallery, 138 ft. in length by 25 ft. in breadth, with a flat dome in its centre supported by 8 antique marble columns, has a fine collection of antique marbles, including the famous Lanti Vase, of Parian marble, 6 ft. 3 in. in diameter, and 6 ft. in height, exclusive of the plinth on which it stands. It is of the lotus form, has two magnificent handles, and is beautifully sculptured. This admirable specimen of ancient art was found among the ruins of Hadrian's Villa at Tivoli, of which it had no doubt formed a prime ornament. Here, also, is a fine cast of the Apollo Belvidere. Westminster's statue of Psyche, &c. In the W. wing of the edifice is the Temple of the Graces, erected in 1818, to receive Canova's magnificent group of the Graces, placed on a circular pedestal in the centre. The library is both extensive and valuable; and at one of its extremities is a room appropriated to Etruscan antiquities. The stables, riding-house, tennis-court, &c., are in a detached building, connected with the mansion by a colonnade, 3 m. in length. The greenhouse, designed by Sir J. Wyattville, is a handsome building 140 ft. in length, and in which, with a great variety of valuable plants, are some fine statues. The park, 19 m. in circuit, surrounded by a wall 8 ft. in height, is beautifully diversified, abounding in wood and water, and well stocked with deer. (*Parl. Rep.; Railway Handbook, &c.*)

WOKINGHAM or OAKINGHAM, a market-town and par. of England, co. Berks, hund. Sonning, on the confines of Windsor Forest, 64 m. S.E. Reading. Area of par., 8,450 acres. Pop., in 1841, 3,342. The town consists of several streets, meeting in a central market-place, in which is the market-house and town-hall. The

church, in the perpendicular style, is a fine old edifice. The living, a perpetual curacy, worth 126*l.* a year, is in the gift of — Jacob, Esq. The Wesleyans, Baptists, &c. have meeting-houses here; and, besides Sunday schools, here is a free school, with an income of above 45*l.* a year, at which between 30 and 40 boys are instructed on the Madras system. The aggregate income of the various charities in Wokingham amounts to nearly 530*l.* a year. (*Digest of Charity Repts.*)

About 1 m. from the town is an hospital, under the direction of the Drapers' Company, London, founded in 1665, for 16 poor men and a master. The inhabs. of Wokingham are employed principally in weaving silk stuffs and gauzes, and in making shoes. The town was incorporated by Jas. I., and is governed by an alderman, recorder, 7 burgesses, and other officers, chosen on Easter Wednesday, who hold petty sessions and some other courts. Formerly all the courts for the Windsor Forest were held at Wokingham. Markets, Tuesdays; fairs, April 23, June 11, Oct. 11, and Nov. 2, for horses and cattle. (*Parl. Repts., &c.*)

WOLFENBÜTTEL, a town of Germany, duchy of Brunswick, cap. circ., on the Ocker, 8 m. S. Brunswick, Pop., 9,000. It was formerly fortified, but its defences are now in a ruinous state. It consists of the citadel, the town-proper, called Heinrichstadt, and the quarters or suburbs of Augustustadt and Gotteslager. It is well-built; and its streets, which are broad and regular, are paved and watered by branches of the Ocker. It has several churches worthy of notice; and a magnificent ducal library, comprising not less than 190,000 vols. It includes a large collection of bibles, among which is the one that belonged to Luther, with autograph notes: His marriage ring, doctor's ring, spoon, drinking-glass, and one of his many portraits by L. Cranach are also preserved here. (*Murray's Handb.*) The old castle of the lords of Wolfenbüttel has been converted into a prison; and the ducal castle now serves for a factory! It has a large workhouse, hospital, orphan asylum, gymnasium, and several city schools; and is the seat of the superior court of appeal for the states of Brunswick, Wolfenbüttel, and Lippe, and of several subordinate courts. It has manufactures of lacquered and japanned wares, paper hangings, leather, tobacco, &c.; with some trade in corn and linen yarn, and 5 annual fairs. Its neighbourhood is fertile, but marshy and unhealthy. (*Berghaus; Dict. Géog.*)

WOLGA or VOLGA (an. *Rha*), the largest river of Europe, through the E. part of which it flows; its basin comprising the central part of European Russia, has the basin of the Dvina to the N., of the Don and Dnieper to the S., and of the Oural, to the E. The Wolga was formerly considered as constituting a part of the boundary-line between Europe and Asia; but since the limits of these continents have been removed to the Caucasus and the Caspian, its basin, with those of its tributaries, lie wholly within Europe. From its source to its mouth its length is estimated at about 2,000 m., being about 200 m. longer than the Danube. The area of its basin has been supposed to include upwards of 636,000 sq. m., or considerably more than twice as much as the basin of the Danube, and eight times as much as that of the Rhine. (*Müller, Stromquellen der Wolga, &c.*)

The Wolga has its source in a small lake at the W. extremity of the gov. Tver, in lat. 57° 10' N., long. 40° 20' E., 520 m. S.S.E. Petersburg; on the E. declivity of the Valdai plateau, near the source of the S. Dvina, the Dnieper, and other large rivers, at an elevation of 895 ft. above the level of the sea. (*Müller, l. 113.*) It flows at first S.E., and afterwards N.E. through the gov. of Tver and Jaroslavl; at Mologa it turns to the E.S.E., which direction it generally pursues through Jaroslavl, Kostroma, Nijni Novgorod, and Kazan to the confluence of the Kama, about lat. 55° 37', and long. 40° 40'. Thenceforward it runs generally S.S.W. through the gov. of Simbirsk and Saratof to Tzaritzin, where it approaches within 32 m. of the main stream of the Don, their confluence being prevented by an intervening chain of hills.

It then turns again to the S.E. through the gov. Astrakhan, and pours itself into the Caspian, on its N.W. side, through an extensive delta by more than 70 mouths, the W. and largest of these being in lat. 46° N., and long. 48° E. Throughout its long course it waters, with its tributaries, some of the most productive portions of European Russia and the region which was anciently the nucleus of the Russian monarchy, Tver, Jaroslavl, Kostroma, Nijni Novgorod, Simbirsk, Saratof, Astrakhan, and several other towns are situated on the Wolga; and Kazan is on one of its tributaries within a short distance of the main stream.

The principal affluents of the Wolga are the Tvertza, Mologa, Sheksna, Unja, Vetluga, and Kama, from the N. and E., and the Oka and Sura from the W. and S. The Kama, which is by far the largest, is, also, the last tributary of any consequence which it receives. It rises in the gov. of Viatka, about lat. 58° N., long. 53° E., and flows with a very tortuous course, at first

N.E., to about lat. 60° 30', but afterwards in general S. or S.W. through the gavs. of Perm and Kasan, and between those of Alaska and Orenburg. After a course of nearly 1,000 m. it joins the Wolga, bringing with it a volume of water nearly equal to that of the latter. Its basin is supposed to comprise about one-third part of that of the Wolga. Perm is among the towns on its banks.

The Oka rises in at 55° 10' N., long. 36° E., in the gov. of Orel; through which, and the gavs. of Tula, Kaluga, Moscow, Riazan, Tambow, Vladimir, and Nijni Novgorod, it flows in a very tortuous, but mostly N.E. direction, joining the Wolga at Nijni Novgorod after a course of nearly 700 m. Its basin is supposed to comprise 127,000 sq. m. (Müller.) It has several important affluents. Though rapid, it is navigable to Orel not far from its source. The waters of the Kama and Oka are, like those of the Wolga, remarkable for their purity; and all of them are famous for their fish. The Wolga is, in fact, believed to be more prolific of fish than any other European river; and its fisheries are an abundant source of employment and of food. The fish usually taken comprise sturgeon, the roes of which furnish the caviar, of which vast quantities are sent from Astrakhan to all parts of Russia, with salmon, sterlet, tench, pike, perch, beluga, &c. The sterlet (*Acipenser stellatus*), a small kind of sturgeon, supposed to be peculiar to the Russian and Siberian rivers, is much prized by the Russian epicures. Exclusive of caviar, the exports from Astrakhan include large quantities of cured fish. (Müller, p. 627; *Mod. Trav.* xvii.)

From its abounding with islands, particularly in the lower part of its course, the breadth of the Wolga is very variable. At Tver, however, it is nearly 600 feet in breadth; at Nijni Novgorod, after it has received the Oka, about a verst, or 1,300 ft.; and at Astrakhan it is usually $\frac{1}{2}$ m. across. But this is not the case during the entire year, for, on the melting of the ice and snow in spring, it is subject to great risings, and inundates large tracts of the surrounding country. The rise begins in April; its height varies greatly in different places, but is greatest in the middle portion of the river's course. At Tver the total rise is about 12 ft. above its summer level; at Jaroslavl and Nijni Novgorod 18 or 20; at Kasan 35 or 20; and at Saratof from 30 to 40 ft. But downwards beyond this point, after which the Wolga receives no affluent of any consequence, and its bed becomes more capacious; the height of its rise gradually diminishes, being at Tzaritsin from 25 to 30 ft., and at Astrakhan only from 6 to 8, or seldom so high as 12 ft. The time of subsidence also varies considerably in different parts: at Nijni Novgorod the river is commonly confined again within its bed by the beginning of June; at Kasan not till the middle of the same month; and at Astrakhan it does not diminish to its ordinary height till after the summer solstice. According to recent discoveries, the surface of the Caspian is 101 ft. below the level of the Black Sea, which would give to the Wolga (estimating its course at 2,000 m.) an average descent of about 5.4 inches per mile: from the junction of the Kasan with the Wolga, the fall of the latter, Humboldt says, is greater than that of either the Amazon or the Nile, and almost as great as that of the Oder. (See *Geog. Journ.* viii. 135.) Though rather a rapid river (*Pallas*, l. 25.), yet, as it runs through a flat country, with an immense volume of water, in a bed unbroken by cataracts, though not free from sand-banks, it is navigable for flat-bottomed boats nearly to its source. Not far below this point it is connected by a canal with the S. Dwina, establishing a direct water communication between the Caspian and the Baltic. The Ivanofka Canal, in the gov. of Tula (which unites the Upa, a tributary of the Oka, with the Don), opens a communication between the Caspian and the Black Sea, and by means of the Vichnej Volotchok Canal, between the Msta and Tvertza rivers, and the canal between the Sestra and Istra, in the gov. of Moscow, Petersburg and Moscow are directly connected. Other canals connect the basin of the Wolga with that of the N. Dwina, the Lake Onega, &c.; and nowhere else has so extensive a system of inland navigation been effected by artificial means, with so little labour. This navigation is, however, suspended by the frost for at least 160 days each year.

Though the situation of the Wolga, remote from the great marts of Europe, Asia, and Africa, with its embouchure in the Caspian, renders it of much less commercial importance than it would be under other circumstances, it is still the main artery of Russia, and the grand route of the internal traffic of that empire. It has been estimated that in the first thirty years of the present century, from 600 to 700 vessels a year came down the Wolga to Astrakhan, while from 300 to 450 sailed from that port to others on the upper course of the river. Unfortunately, it would seem as if the Wolga had been for some considerable period decreasing in depth; and it is said that of late years sand-banks have accumulated

so much, particularly between Nijni-Novgorod and Kasan, that the vessels laden with salt from Perm, which in the early part of last century used to bring cargoes of from 120,000 to 150,000 pounds, can now only carry cargoes of about 30,000 pounds; and in the portion of its course now referred to, it is navigated with difficulty even by the two-masted vessels of Astrakhan. (*Müller, Das Stromsystem der Wolga; Berghaus; Sieben's Hand-buch der Geog.; Dict. Géog.* &c.)

WOLLSINGHAM, or WALSINGHAM, a market town and par. of England, co. Durham, Darlington ward, on the Wear, 12 m. W.S.W. Durham. Area of par., 34,780 acres. Pop., in 1841, 2,066. The town is pleasantly situated, but irregularly built. The church is an ancient structure, with beautiful font of Wealden marble. The living, a valuable rectory, worth 791*l.* a year, net, is in the gift of the Bishop of Durham. The remains of an old manor-house, belonging to the former bishops, and enclosed by a moat, are near the church. The grammar-school, founded in 1612, with an income of above 65*l.* a year, besides 20 pay scholars, supplies gratis instruction to 26 boys, in reading, writing, arithmetic, and the classics. Here, also, are several other schools, and endowments for the poor not receiving parochial relief. The inhabitants are principally employed in the manufacture of linen and woollen cloths, tools and agricultural implements; or in the coal, lead, and limestone works in the vicinity. Petty sessions are held weekly; and a court-leet twice a year, at which debts of 40*l.* are recoverable. Markets on Tuesdays: fairs, May 12 and Oct. 2.

WOLVERHAMPTON, a par. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Stafford, hund. Seisdon, in one of the principal iron manufacturing districts, and at the junction of six principal roads, 13 m. N.W. Birmingham. The par., which is of great extent, comprises 5 townships, 4 of which, including the towns of Bilston and Willenhall, with the adjoining par. of Sedgley, are included in the par. bor.; the area of which amounts to 16,630 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 92,943, of whom 35,323 belonged to Wolverhampton township. Wolverhampton stands on an eminence commanding fine views of the surrounding country, and though irregularly laid out, is not ill-built; but, from the many furnaces and forges in the town and neighbourhood it has a blackened appearance. There are some good modern residences in the suburbs. Four of the principal streets diverge from the market-place. The town is well lighted, partially paved, and supplied with water from wells sunk in the rock on which it is built. The collegiate church of St. Peter, on the most elevated position in the town, is a large cruciform structure, chiefly in the perpendicular, but partly, also, in the decorated and early English styles. It has a tower, the upper part of which is late perpendicular, and a much finer composition than the other portions of the church. The chancel is modern; the nave has a rich stone pulpit, and in the churchyard is a rudely sculptured cross, much defaced by time. (*Richman.*) This church was formerly considered one of the king's free chapels, and was attached by Edward IV. to the demery of Windsor. The living, a vicarage worth 192*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Dean of Windsor. St. John's church, a handsome stone edifice, on the S. side of the town, erected by subscription, in 1761, is a curacy worth 200*l.* a year, in the gift of the Earl of Stamford. St. George's, a building of Grecian architecture, St. Paul's, a Gothic structure, and various other churches, have been erected of late years. Besides a Rom. Cath. chapel, there are several Dissenting meeting-houses, to all of which, as well as to the churches, well-attended Sunday-schools are attached. The free grammar-school, founded by Sir Stephen Jennings, a native of the town, who was lord mayor of London, in 1668, has an endowment yielding about 1,900*l.* a year. It is managed by 40 trustees, who select the head master 500*l.* a year. It is open to all boys of the par., and was, in 1842, attended by about 140 pupils. Sir W. Congreve and Abernethy, the surgeon, were educated at this school. Besides a blue-coat charity for 26 boys and 30 girls, of very ancient foundation, with an income of 240*l.* a year, there are national and British schools; and considerable funds exist for distribution among the poor. A dispensary was established in 1821, for which an eligible building was erected in 1836, and, in 1812, a union-mill, for grinding corn for the poor at a cheap rate, was built by shares at a cost of 14,000*l.* Wolverhampton has also a public news-room with an extensive library, assembly and concert-rooms, and mechanics' institute. W. of the town is a fine race-course, with a grand stand, where races take place annually in August. Two weekly newspapers are published in the town.

Most departments of the hardware manufacture, excepting cutlery, are carried on here and in the adjacent town of Bilston and the district. Wolverhampton has been long celebrated for her lock, of which she almost exclusively engrossed the manufacture down to a comparatively late period. At present, however, the

most expensive and best locks are made in the metropolis; and the lock trade is also carried on in Birmingham; but this town still enjoys the largest share of the business. Probably, however, the manufacture of japanned ware and tinned plates may be regarded as her staple business; and in addition she furnishes carpenters' tools, files, screws, hinges, steel mills, machinery, &c. Immense quantities of nails are made in the surrounding villages.

Wolverhampton, Bilston, and the other places within the limits of the parl. bor., are wholly indebted for their rapid rise and large pop. to the facilities they enjoy for carrying on the iron trade. In the vicinity are all but inexhaustible mines of coal and ironstone, the main bed of coal being 20 ft. thick, with strata of ironstone above and below! The district has also the farther advantage of being connected by numerous canals, with all the great shipping ports of the empire. Under such circumstances, we need not be surprised at the rapid progress it has made since 1772, when there was only one blast furnace at Bilston! whereas, in 1842, there were in the parl. bor. no fewer than 55 blast furnaces, capable of producing more than 4,000 tons of iron a week! Indeed, the whole country to the S. and E. of the town is covered with furnaces, forges, rolling mills, foundries, ironstone and coal-pits; and though the trade be occasionally much depressed, the advantages enjoyed by the district for the production and manufacture of iron are such as can hardly fail to insure its prosperity.

The Great N.W. Railway has a station 1 m. E. of the town, and here the line attains its greatest elevation of 440 ft. above the sea level. The Birmingham, Staffordshire and Worcestershire, and Birmingham and Liverpool canals, unite about 1 m. N. from the town, affording, as already stated, ready communication with all parts of the kingdom. The Wolverhampton and Staffordshire Banking Company, established in 1831, has its office in this town.

The town is under the jurisdiction of the co. magistrates, but is locally governed by two constables and other officers, chosen at an annual manorial court. Petty sessions for the hundred are held here, and there is a county court, before which 3,365 complaints were entered in 1848.

The Reform Act conferred on Wolverhampton, Bilston, and the district included within the parl. bor., the important privilege of sending 2 mems. to the H. of C. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 3,298.

The new poor-law was introduced here in 1836, when the townships of W. Hampton, Bilston, Willenhall, and Wednesfield were formed into the "W. Hampton Union." The pop. of these townships amounted, in 1831, to 46,931; and in 1841, to 68,185. A superior and spacious "Union house" has been erected.

Though of great antiquity, the earliest records of Wolverhampton date only from the end of the 10th century, when Willfrum, Duchess of Northampton, founded a monastery here, of which, however, there are now no remains. A fire, which continued for five days, destroyed the greater part of the town in 1890.

Market days, Wednesday and Saturday; fairs, July 10th, 11th, and 12th, for cattle and various merchandise. (*Parl. Rep.; Priv. Inf.*)

WOODBRIDGE, a market town, par., and river-port of England, co. Suffolk, on the Deben, 8 m. from the sea, and 7½ m. E.N.E. Ipswich. Area of par., 1,650 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 4,554. The town is on the slope of a hill, and consists of two principal streets, an open space called Market Hill, and some narrow thoroughfares: it has many good houses, and is tolerably well paved and lighted. In the centre of the Market Hill is the sessions house, a brick edifice, in the lower part of which the corn market is held. The church, a noble edifice, said to date from the time of Rdw. III., consists of a nave, chancel, and two side aisles, the roofs of which are supported by 14 fine slender pillars; its outer walls are constructed of black flints, and it has a square tower 108 ft. in height. On its S. side was anciently an Augustinian priory, founded by one of the Rous family in the 13th century. The living, a perpetual curacy, worth 439*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Rev. T. Salmon. Here, also, is a free grammar school for 10 boys, sons of the poorer inhab. of the town, who are to be instructed in Latin and Greek, and fitted for the university; with national, Lancastrian, and Sunday schools. Almshouses, for 13 poor men and 3 women, founded and endowed in 1387, had, in 1825, an income of 570*l.* a year; but as this income was derived from a lease of property in Clerkenwell, in the city of London, entered into about 60 years previously, and then about to expire, it is now probably much greater. The income of the town lands is chiefly applied to parochial repairs, &c. A small theatre was erected in 1813.

Woodbridge is a member of the port of Yarmouth, and the Deben being navigable thus far, for vessels of 120 tons, it has a considerable trade with London, Hull, Newcastle, &c., exporting corn, flour, and malt, and im-

porting coal, timber, wines, spirits, groceries, &c. It has several docks for the building of vessels, with convenient wharfs and quays. Woodbridge is governed by a visitor and two guardians, chosen by the parishioners. Quarter sessions for the liberty of St. Ethelred and for six adjacent hundreds are held here; and petty sessions weekly. Market day, Wednesday; fairs, April 5. and Oct. 31. for cattle.

WOODSTOCK (NEW), a parl. and munic. bor., and market town of England, co. Oxford, hundred Wootton, par. of Bladon; on the small river Glyme, which supplies the magnificent piece of water in Blenheim Park, 8 m. N.N.W. of the old parish. Included only a portion of the town; but the modern parl. bor. includes the whole of the latter, with a district extending about 4 m. on every side, comprising several adjacent villages and hamlets, and having an area of 21,540 acres, and a pop., in 1841, of 7,404. This is a clean, well built, country town; the streets are well paved, and well kept, and many of the houses, which are mostly of stone, are of a superior class; but it has, notwithstanding, a dull and inanimate appearance, and is not prosperous. The church is a handsome structure, partly rebuilt in 1785, when a tower was added to its W. extremity. The living is a curacy annexed to the rectory of Bladon, worth 329*l.* a year, and in the gift of the Duke of Marlborough. Here, also, are places of worship for Baptists and Wesleyans. The town hall, erected in 1766, at the expense of the then Duke of Marlborough, has under it the market place. A free grammar school, founded in 1585, affords instruction to about 90 boys; but the endowment for its support is small, and the master's salary of 30*l.* a year is partly made up by the corporation; it has, besides, an endowed school, with an income of 75*l.* a year, in which 24 children are educated, partially clothed, and apprenticed, with almshouses for widows, and several minor charities.

Woodstock had formerly a considerable manufacture of polished steel articles, much esteemed for their delicate workmanship; but this business is now nearly or wholly extinct. The manufacture of doe-skin gloves, which was introduced at a later date, is now almost the only branch of industry carried on in the town. In 1835, upwards of 1,300 hands, mostly women and girls, were employed in this manufacture in Woodstock and its vicinity, who were supposed to produce about 500 pairs of gloves per week. But the branch has, also, declined in the interval, principally, as is understood, in consequence of the substitution of thread and cotton for leather gloves; and in consequence of this decline, and of the embarrassed situation of the Marlborough family, the prosperity and population of the town have both fallen off.

The bor. received its present charter of incorporation from Henry VI.; but that by which it has been latterly governed dates from the 16th of Charles II., the corporate body consisting of a mayor, 4 other aldermen, a high steward, recorder, and other officers. The annual court leet or sessions, granted to the bor. by charter, has been discontinued since 1829; but petty sessions, and a court of record are opened monthly. The bor. has no jail, but a small lock-up house.

Woodstock was a bor. by prescription previously to its incorporation, and returned 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the 12th of Elizabeth down to the passing of the Reform Act, which deprived it of 1 mem., at the same time that the boundary of the parl. bor. was altered, as already stated. Previously to the Reform Act the franchise was vested in the mayor, aldermen, and freemen of the bor.; but substantially, and in fact, it was a nomination bor., belonging to the Duke of Marlborough. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 362. Market day, Tuesday; fairs, seven times a year, chiefly for cattle, horses, cheese, and hardware.

Old Woodstock stood in a low situation a little N. of the town, on the Glyme, and has now only a few houses and one ancient mansion. Woodstock was long a royal residence. A palace, or manor-house, on the N. bank of the Glyme, was the residence of Henry II., and the scene of some of the adventures of the fair Rosamond; but all traces of this building have long since disappeared. Edward I. held, in 1273, a parliament at Woodstock; and it also was the birth-place of his second son Edmund, and of the eldest son of Edward III., the illustrious Black Prince. It was subsequently inhabited by several of our monarchs; and Elizabeth was for a while imprisoned here. But every part of this more recent palace has also been pulled down.

Chaucer, the great improver of the English language and versification, is supposed by many to have been a native of Woodstock; where, it is alleged, he first saw the light in 1328. At all events he frequently resided in the town; and some traces still exist of the house which he occupied.

At present Woodstock derives its whole importance from its being in the immediate vicinity of Blenheim

Palace and Park, the seat of the Duke of Marlborough. In previously noticing this noble seat (see *BLenheim PARK*, Vol. I.) we omitted to notice the library, originally intended for a picture gallery, and one of the finest apartments in England. It extends along the whole of the W. front, being 183 ft. in length, and beautifully proportioned. It contains the Sunderland collection of books, comprising 17,000 vols.; and a fine statue of Queen Anne by Ryabrock. In the chapel is a splendid monument, by the same sculptor, in honour of the great Duke of Marlborough and his Duchesse. (*Bound. Rep. & Music. Corp. Append.; Private Information.*)

WOOLER, a market-town and par. of England, co. Northumberland, Glendale ward, on the E. declivity of the Cheviot hills, 42 m. N.N.W. Newcastle. Area of par. 4,620 acres. Pop. in 1881, 1,236. The town is of high antiquity, and at one period was a good deal resorted to by invalids. It consists of several streets branching from the market-place, and has a public library, mechanics' institute, dispensary, and many dissenting places of worship. The church is a neat but plain building, erected about the middle of last century: the living, a vicarage, worth £784 a year, is in the gift of the Bishop of Durham. A free school, with a small endowment, is the only charity mentioned as existing here. Courts leet and baron are held annually by the lord of the manor. In the neighbourhood are the vestiges of ancient encampments. At Homildon, about 2 m. from the town, is a pillar, erected to commemorate the total defeat, in 1403, of an army of 12,000 Scotchmen, under Earl Douglas, by the forces of the Earls Percy and March. Markets on Thursdays; fairs, May 4th, Oct. 27th, and Whit Tuesday.

WOOLWICH, a parl. bor., market, and sea-port town of England, co. Kent, on the S. bank of the Thames, 7 m. E. London, and 2½ m. E. Greenwich. Pop. in 1841, 25,785. Though latterly a good deal improved, the older parts of the town, near the river, have narrow streets, and are comparatively mean, dirty, and badly built; but in the more modern portions, and especially between the old town and the barracks, the streets and houses are of an improved and far more respectable description. Woolwich, however, derives its entire importance from its dock-yard, arsenal, and other great naval and military establishments; and is principally inhabited by individuals dependent upon or connected with them. The par. church, in a conspicuous situation, with a tower at the W. end, was rebuilt towards the middle of the last century. The living, a valuable rectory, worth 7404. a year nett, is in the gift of the Bishop of Rochester. Besides the par. church, Woolwich has 2 district churches, St. John's and St. Thomas's, an Ordinance chapel on the road to Plumstead, a chapel in the barracks, a proprietary episcopal church, near the arsenal, a Scotch church, and various meeting-houses for different classes of dissenters. The charitable institutions comprise an alms-house for 5 poor widows, endowed, in 1660, by Sir Martin Bowles, lord mayor of London, and 2 charity schools, one for 30 girls, and one for educating, clothing, and apprenticing poor orphan boys, sons of such shipwrights as have served their apprenticeship in the dock-yard; and national and other public schools have been established, in which about 900 children are daily instructed, exclusive of the Sunday schools attached to the parish church and the dissenting chapels, where upwards of 2,000 children are taught. Among the places of amusement is a small theatre. A mineral spring on the N. of the common possesses valuable medicinal properties. The S. Eastern railway has 3 stations in the town, one near the dock-yard and the other close to the arsenal. Here, also, are public baths, and a mechanics' institute.

Dock-yard.—This, though not the most extensive, is the most ancient royal dock-yard in the kingdom. Some uncertainty exists as to the precise date, but it is believed to have been established as early as 1512; and it is certain that it was placed upon a permanent footing in the latter part of the reign of Henry VIII. It presents a frontage to the river of nearly 4,000 ft., but is of irregular breadth. It has been, of late years, greatly improved and extended, and contains at present about 55 acres; but it is in contemplation to increase it to about 62 acres. It has 6 building slips: 3 for first-rates, 2 for line-of-battle ships of inferior size, and 2 for smaller ships.

Although some very large ships have been built in this dock-yard at different periods, such as the Royal George (lost at Spithead), the Nelson in 1814, and the Trafalgar in 1841, yet considerable disadvantages are felt in the constructing of such ships from the shallowness of the water and the accumulation of mud in the river; and it has, in consequence, been determined to

build the largest class of men-of-war in the other dock-yards, and to make this the principal yard for steam-ships belonging to the royal navy. With this intention a factory was built in 1839, consisting of 2 ranges of handsome and substantial buildings, each 440 feet in length by 36 in breadth, for the manufacture of steam-engines and boilers. The factory contains a foundry and forges, with fan-blowing machines for the furnaces, and a variety of machines for punching, shearing, plate-bending, drilling, boring, planing, turning, shaping, bob-screwing, &c. &c. The machinery has been made by the most eminent manufacturers in the kingdom, and embodies the results of all the improvements of the last twenty years; its skillful selection and adaptation reflecting infinite credit on the chief engineer.

The moving power of the factory is a steam-engine of 20 horse-power. Another building is erected, 323 ft. in length by 66 ft. in breadth, with a chimney 190 ft. in height, into which all the fumes of the factory are led. These additions give the means of executing the work performed, and enable the Admiralty to furnish the whole of the steam-ships with the necessary machinery.

There is at present an outer basin, comprising an arm of 190,000 sq. ft., in which ten or a dozen steam-ships of different sizes may conveniently lie. An inner basin of 160,000 sq. ft. area, on the site of the Mast Pond, allows two first-class steam-ships to lie alongside the factory and be simultaneously fitted with their engines, boilers, and other machinery. A magnificent dock, entirely composed of massive blocks of granite, has lately been built, capable of receiving a 120-gun-ship; a second is nearly completed, and it is proposed to construct two similar docks for steam-ships, making four in all.

The smithery, constructed by the late Mr. Remmie, is on a very grand scale, and is suitable for the forging of the largest anchors, and other heavy articles. It contains 37 forges, with 2 lift hammers weighing 4½ tons each, and 2 lift hammers of 18 cwt. each; there are also 3 air and 2 blast furnaces, with a blasting apparatus of a very scientific description. There are two steam-engines in the smithery, one of 30 and another of 14 horse-power. The anchors are tested by a powerful hydraulic machine, made by Bramah, capable of applying a pressure of 100 tons. The pitch and tar vault is constructed so as to admit of its easy inundation in case of fire. Large saw mills have also been constructed, similar to those in the carriage department in the arsenal, for cutting the timber for service. The ships now (1851) building are, the Royal Albert, 120; Argammon, 80; Edgar, 80; San Fiorenzo, 50; with various smaller craft.

The number of workmen of all kinds employed amounts at present (1851) to 1,589, exclusive of about 450 convicts, landed daily from the Warrior hulk, moored off the yard, who are generally employed in the most laborious occupations.

The mast houses, mast slip, mast ponds, warehouses, &c., are all on a very extensive scale, and the whole is thoroughly organised and in the most efficient state. A large ropery was formerly attached to the dock-yard, but its situation not admitting of the introduction of machinery, it has been abandoned, the buildings removed, and the site built upon. The workmen have been enrolled in a dock-yard brigade, and are commissioned by the clerks and civil officers of the various departments, the superintendent acting as commandant. Instruction is given during the summer season in the infantry and artillery drill.

Arsenal.—Woolwich is the head quarters of the Ordnance military corps, viz., the Royal Horse and Foot Artillery, the Royal Sappers and Miners, &c.; and it is also the principal establishment in the kingdom for the provision of warlike materiel for the navy and army. The Royal Arsenal, formerly called the Warren, admirably situated on the E. side of the town, appears to have been used as a gun-wharf and powder magazine from about the middle of the last century; but it was not until the removal of the foundry from Moorfields, in 1730, that it began to assume the importance it has since attained. It comprises within its boundaries about 110 acres, or, including a part of the Plumstead marshes, used as a review and practising ground, from which it is separated by a canal communicating with the Thames, it may extend over nearly 300 acres. The following are the principal departments into which it is divided:—1st. *The Royal Brass Foundry*, erected by Sir John Vanburgh in 1719, on a site chosen by a young Swiss named Schaal, under whose direction the foundry had been placed on its removal from London. In it are now cast all the brass ordnance used in the service. It contains 3 furnaces, the largest capable of melting 16 tons of metal, sufficient for about twelve 24-pounders; with accommodation for making moulds, boring, turning, and polishing the guns. This department has the inspection and proving of all ordnance, not only for the army and navy, but also for the East India Company, and the affixing of the sights, tangents, &c. to them. The iron ordnance is all cast by

contract according to the plans furnished. All brass ordnance are moulded and cast solid in this foundry. They are afterwards bored, turned, and completed by machinery; and properly engraved. Other articles are sometimes cast, as the statues of the late Duke of York and Lord Hopetoun, at Edinburgh, the acanthus and capital of the Nelson Column, in Trafalgar Square, with gun metal articles required for service in other departments, comprising pivots, circles, &c.

2nd. The *Royal Laboratory*, in which every kind of ammunition, viz. ball and blank cartridges, &c., is made up; Congreve and other rockets, grenades and fireworks manufactured; shells and spherical case-shot, or Shrapnell shells, filled, &c. A machine, invented by Napier, for making musket and pistol balls by compression, has been lately introduced, which acts with great ease and rapidity, and seems to be far preferable to the old mode of casting. Percussion caps for the service have, also, within the last two years, been entirely made in the laboratory; the process of the machinery designed for filling and finishing the caps is exceedingly ingenious, and performs its work with great rapidity and safety, one man and four boys being, with its assistance, able to fill and complete 150,000 caps a day! Two model rooms are attached to this department, containing specimens of every firework used in war, and many other interesting objects.

3rd. The *Royal carriage department* in which every kind of ship and land gun carriage is made and repaired; with traversing platforms, ammunition waggons, carts &c. Copper-lined powder-cases are also made. The sheets of copper are thinned instantly, on both sides, by a process displaying much ingenuity, the invention of one of the foremen employed here, superseding a tedious and unwholesome operation before in use, and effecting a considerable annual saving. This contains a great variety of the most efficient machinery. Among others is a scrap forge for the remanufacture of iron; a gigantic steam hammer, and two of a lesser size in the smitheries; a rolling mill, and extensive planing and saw mills.

4th. The guns, which are arranged in the open air, comprise complete field and battering trains, mortars, howitzers, carronades, &c., with the guns belonging to many of the ships of war out of commission, numbering, in the whole, about 1,700 pieces of brass, and 21,000 pieces of iron ordnance, of 200 different varieties. The shot and shells, arranged in pyramidal piles, amount to nearly 1,285,000 in number. These, as well as every other description of store required for naval or military equipment, are kept in constant readiness, under the charge of the *storekeeper's department*. The various piles of brick buildings containing these articles, or appertaining to the departments before enumerated, are constructed on the grandest scale, and are as complete and efficient as can well be imagined. There are two *butts*, one within the arsenal and the other in the marshes, for the practice and proof of ordnance; but, as the shot frequently cross the river, the service is liable to constant and serious interruptions from the passing of ships. A new practice range upwards of 3 m. extent, at Shoeburyne, as also one in the marshes towards Erith, is therefore in course of formation, which will be free from the inconveniences now experienced; and will besides allow of the practice, at long ranges, of the new heavy guns (42 to 64 pounders), on Monk's and Millar's principles.

The number of artificers, labourers, and boys employed in the various departments of the arsenal may amount to about 900, exclusive of the convicts belonging to the Unk'd and Hebe hulks, stationed on the river, opposite to the arsenal, amounting to about 400.

The Royal Military Academy, an institution that has considerably raised the professional character of the corps of Royal Engineers and the Royal Regiment of Artillery was founded in 1719, but was not finally arranged until 1741. The establishment, which has varied at different periods, has at present 165 pupils, termed gentlemen cadets. It is under the direction of the Master-General and Board of Ordnance for the time being, and has a lieutenant-governor, inspector, and other officers. For the literary department, there is a professor of mathematics, and 20 other professors and masters for mathematics, fortification, plan-drawing, surveying, chemistry, landscape-drawing, German, French, History, Geography, &c. The academy has numbered amongst its professors several eminent men, among whom may be specified Mr. Thomas Simpson, Dr. Hutton, author of the *Mathematical Dictionary* and other valuable works, Mr. Bonycastle, Dr. Olynthus Gregory, &c. The establishment formerly cost the public 8,000*l.* or 10,000*l.* per annum, for half the number of cadets now educated; but for several years past it has been conducted upon a self-supporting principle; and with a much enlarged and a more efficient establishment, it now nearly maintains itself. The scale of payments to be made by the friends of cadets is as follows:—

	Per an-
Sons of noblemen and private gentlemen, not being officers of the army or navy	125
Sons of admirals, and generals with regiments	10
Sons of generals without regiments	70
Sons of captains and commanders in the navy, and colonels and regimental field officers of the army	40
Sons of all officers of the navy and army under the above ranks	40
Sons of officers who have died in the service, and whose families are in pecuniary distress	20

The sons of civil officers of the army and ordnance are admitted, upon payment of the sums required from military officers of corresponding ranks.

The cadets receive an annual allowance of 45*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.*, which is considered sufficient to supply every necessary article except linen. The education is excellent; the standard having been much raised of late: when the course is completed, the cadets, if found duly qualified, receive commissions in the Royal Engineers or Royal Artillery, according to their merit.

The academy, formerly within the arsenal, was removed in 1806 to a fine building on the upper end of the common, about 1 m. S. from the town. This edifice, which was built by Wyatt, consists of a centre and 2 wings, united by corridors with a range of building behind, containing the hall, servants' offices, &c. The centre forms a quadrangle, with octagonal towers at the angles; and, besides a variety of other apartments, contains the four teaching rooms or academies, as they are termed. The wings contain the apartments for the cadets and chief officers. The building, which is about 200 yards in length, is of brick, stuccoed over.

The barracks, erected for the accommodation of the Royal Artillery at different periods from 1783 to 1810, are situated on the N. brow of the common, and form a most extensive pile of building, calculated to accommodate 3,338 officers and men, and 1,800 horses. The principal front, 340 yards in length, consists of six ranges of brick building. The entrance consists of a handsome gateway, with Doric columns and military trophies. This noble building contains, exclusive of other apartments, a chapel, which has been recently enlarged; a spacious library and observatory, two handsome reading rooms, and the mess room.

The barracks for the corps of Royal Sappers and Miners are a short distance to the N.E. of the artillery barracks; they are constructed for 350 men.

The parade is in front of the barracks; and the open space on the common affords sufficient room for exercising the soldiers in the throwing of shells, and ball-firing. On the E. side of the barracks, on the descent leading to the arsenal, is the ordnance hospital, an extensive edifice, calculated to accommodate about 500 patients. It has a valuable library and museum. Several detached buildings, for the use of the artillery, have also been raised on different parts of the common; among which is a veterinary hospital for the horse brigade, with stalls for 66 sick horses. A division of the Royal Marines have also barracks and an hospital at Woolwich.

Perhaps, however, the most interesting establishment at Woolwich is the Repository, on the S.W. side of the barrack-field, for the reception of models of different fortified places, ships, warlike instruments and machines of all kinds, trophies taken in war, &c. The collection, which is alike extensive and valuable, is partly contained in the Rotunda, a circular apartment 115 ft. in diameter, originally erected by George IV. in Carlton Gardens, for the entertainment of the allied sovereigns when on a visit to this country in 1814. Near the Repository has lately been erected an observatory for the use of the officers, containing a telescope and other philosophical instruments, and a museum.

The parish of Woolwich is governed, under a local act, by 30 commissioners, chosen by the parishioners, besides the rector and churchwardens. The Reform Act constituted Woolwich a portion of the par. bor. of Greenwich (which see). Petty sessions are held here by the co. magistrates on Mondays and Fridays, and a court of requests for the adjudication of claims under 5*l.* every alternate Friday. Market days, Wednesdays, Fridays, and Saturdays. (*Parl. Rep. and Private Information, obtained from the best sources.*)

WOOTTON BASSETT, a man. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Wilts, hund. Kingsbridge, 78 m. W. London. Area of the par., 4,380 acres. Pop. of do. in 1831, 1,896. The town, which stands on a hill, consists almost wholly of one street, about $\frac{1}{4}$ m. in length, and tolerably well built, in the centre of which is the town-hall. The par. church is an old building, in the mixed style; the living, a vicarage worth 461*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Earl of Clarendon. It has, also, a chapel for Independents; a free school, founded in 1688, affording instruction to about 20 children; with charity and Sunday schools. It has no manufactures of any kind, and would hardly, indeed, have been worth notice, but for the circumstance of its having returned 2 mems. to the H. of C. from the 25th of Henry VI. down to the passing of the Reform Act, by which it was disfranchised. It was reckoned too inconsiderable to be included in the

provisions of the Municipal Reform Act. (*Mun. Corp. Appendix; Private Information.*)

WOTTON-UNDER-EDGE, a market-town and par. of England, co. Gloucester, hund. Berkeley, on the declivity of a hill, as its name implies, 17 m. S. by W. Gloucester. Area of par., 4,390 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 4,702. The town, traversed by a small stream, on which are several cloth-mills, consists principally of 2 well-built parallel streets. The church, which is large and handsome, has some curious old monuments. The living, a vicarage, worth 112*l.* a year, is in the gift of the dean and chapter of Oxford. The grammar-school, founded in the 8th of Richard II., and revived in the time of James I., had, at the date of the last inquiry, an income of 376*l.* 12*s.* a year: it supports 10 foundation scholars and is free to all other boys born in, or inhabiting Wotton and North Nibley. The boys are instructed in writing and accounts, and are "to use no language in the school but Latin." The Blue-coat school, established in 1693, has an income of 94*l.* a year; the general hospital, for 12 almshouses, has a clear income of 546*l.* a year; and Perry's hospital, also for 12 persons, an income of nearly 170*l.* a year. The aggregate amount of the public endowments in the par. reached, at the period referred to above, 1,130*l.* a year. (*Digest of Charity Repts.*) Wotton-under-Edge is a bor. by prescription, but has no extant charter: its corporation, consisting of a mayor, and 12 aldermen, elected at an annual court-leet, has no municipal functions, revenues, or emoluments. The inhabs. of the town and surrounding district are chiefly occupied in the weaving of woollen cloth. In 1838, there were in the par. 6 woollen mills, wrought principally by steam, employing, in all, 183 hands (*Mills and Factories Report*); besides which, there were many looms wrought by the weavers in their own houses. Petty sessions for the hund. are held in Wotton. Markets on Fridays; fairs, Sept. 25th, for cattle and cheese. (*Parl. Repts.*, &c.)

WORCESTER, an inland co. of England, having a very irregular outline and several detached portions, is bounded on the N. by the co. of Salop and Stafford, W. by Hereford, S. by Gloucester, and E. by Warwick. Area, 462,720 acres, of which about 400,000 are supposed to be arable, meadow, and pasture. This is an extremely beautiful and well-watered co. It is traversed from N. to S. by the Severn, and in part, also, by its important tributaries the Avon from the E., and the Teme from the W. Surface finely diversified: the Malvern hills divide the S.W. part of the co. from Herefordshire; the Bredon hills, to the S. of Pershore, have an elevation of nearly 900 ft.; and there are some considerable hills on its N. frontier between Hales-Owen and Bromsgrove. The vales of Worcester and Evesham, or rather of the Severn and Avon, are alike beautiful and fertile; but the soil in other parts, especially on the E. side of the country, is cold and poor. Besides corn, cattle, and dairy produce, Worcester produces large quantities of fine wool, apples, hops, and excellent cyder. We are sorry, however, to have to state that agriculture is by no means in an advanced state. "The system followed is, in itself, a bad one, and is carelessly and negligently conducted. There is no rotation as to cropping; nor are any pains taken to relieve the ground from water, though it be in many places very wet. Ploughing is badly performed, and the whole management of a slovenly description." (*Kennedy and Granger, on the Trancry of Land*, l. 358.) In 1838 there were in this co. 1,583 acres under hops. Estate of all sizes; farms for the most part small. Average rent of land, in 1843, 3*l.* 11*d.* an acre. Coal is found in the N. parts of the co., and the brine springs of Droitwich furnish immense quantities of salt.

The city of Worcester is the principal seat of the leather glove manufacture; the iron, hardware, and glass manufactures are carried on with spirit and success at Dudley; Kidderminster is famous for its carpets; and needles and fish-hooks are made to a greater extent at Redditch and Feckenham, in this co., than any where else in England or, indeed, in the world. Worcestershire is divided into 5 hundreds, and 171 parishes. It sends 13 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 4 for the co., 3 each for the city of Worcester and the bor. of Evesham, and 1 each for the bors. of Kidderminster, Bewdley, Droitwich, and Dudley. Registered electors for the co., in 1849-50, 10,004, whereof 5,673 were for the E., and 4,331 for the W. division of the co. In 1841, Worcester had 46,919 inhab. houses, and 233,336 inhabs., of whom 114,664 were males, and 118,672 females. Sum expended on the relief of the poor, in 1848-49, 78,135*l.* Total annual value of real property in the co. in 1843, 1,332,538*l.*

WORCESTER, a city, parl. and mun. bor. of England, locally situated in the co. of Worcester, of which it is the cap., but forming a co. of itself; hund. Oswald-slow, on the Severn, crossed here by a handsome stone bridge of 5 arches, 26 m. S.W. Birmingham, and 100 m. W.N.W. London; lat. 52° 9' 30" N., long. 2° 0' 15" W.

The city and old mun. bor., comprising 230 acres, constitute about 1-4th part of the modern parl. and mun. bor., which had, in 1831, a pop. of 36,806; the pop. of the modern parl. bor., in 1841, was 36,806.

Worcester is finely situated on the E. bank of the river, in a fertile and beautiful country; and is one of the best built, handsomest towns in the kingdom, having every appearance of wealth and respectability. "The main streets are wide, well paved, and lighted with gas; the central street, which traverses the city from N. to S., is of considerable length, and kept particularly clean and neat. A considerable extent of ground comprised in the suburbs is unoccupied by houses, and consists principally of gardens and meadows. It is probable, however, that a great portion of it will, in process of time, form the site of new buildings. On the E. side of the canal the number of houses is rapidly increasing; and it appears probable, that the area included within the new boundary to the N. will be gradually filled up by villa residences. To the N., both within and beyond the boundary of the tything, the building of streets, and rows of dwelling-houses, as well as of detached residences of a very superior class, is going on rapidly." (*Parliamentary Boundary Report*.) Of the public buildings, the principal is the cathedral, originally founded in 1084, but not completed till 1374. It stands towards the S. extremity of the town, and its appearance has recently been greatly improved by taking down the ancient church of St. Michael, a most ungainly edifice, which stood close to the N.E. extremity of the cathedral, and greatly marred the prospect. Its exterior is extremely plain, and its attractions consist principally in its size and the lightness of its architecture. The central tower, though the stone has become decayed, is extremely fine. It is built in the form of a double cross; its external length, including buttresses, is 436 ft., and the internal 294 ft.; the nave, from the front to the W. transept, is 180 ft. in length; the tower, which is about 260 ft. in height, is ornamented with light and elegant pinnacles. The general character of the building is early English; there are, however, some earlier parts. A crypt, part of the nave, the chapter-house, &c. are Norman; parts of the nave and aisles are decorated; the cloisters, and a fine S. porch are perpendicular. The interior is very spacious, mostly in the early English style, with elegant details, and good groining. Across the S.E. transept is the monumental chapel of Prince Arthur, son of Henry VII., and in the middle of the choir is the tomb of King John, the top stage of which, with the effigy, is evidently of a date soon after his decease. (*Rickman*, 260.) There are several fine ancient monuments in different parts of the church, including that of the celebrated Judge Littleton, one of the founders of the English law, a justice of the Common Pleas under Edward IV., who died in 1481. Among the more modern monuments is that of the celebrated scholar, Stillingfleet, author of the *Origines Sacre*, and other valuable works, bishop of the diocese from 1689 till his death in 1699, with an extravagantly eulogistic inscription written by the famous Dr. Bentley. Adjoining the S. side of the cloister is the ancient refectory of the monastery attached to the cathedral, a lofty and spacious hall, 120 ft. in length, by 38 ft. in width, now occupied as the King's School. On the E. side of the cloisters is the chapter-house, the library belonging to which comprises a valuable collection of books and manuscripts, chiefly relating to theology and common law. The net revenue of the bishopric amounted, at an average of the three years ending with 1831, to 6,568*l.* a year. The chapter, previously to 1836, consisted of a dean, 10 prebendaries, and 8 minor canons. The canons or prebendaries were then reduced to 8, including the dean, and their emoluments were also considerably reduced. The income of the establishment averages about 12,000*l.* a year. The bishop's palace, on the bank of the river, is an incongruous but commodious edifice, formerly surrounded with walls. It has lately been arranged that the episcopal palace shall in future be the deanery, and the bishop is to reside at his house at Hartlebury, 10 m. distant. An ancient gateway, called Edgar's Tower, leads into the precincts of the cathedral. There are remains of several monastic establishments, including a commandery of the Hospital of St. John, in different parts of the city; and it had formerly a castle, every trace of which has been obliterated, excepting the mound on which the keep stood. Several of the par. churches deserve notice: that of St. Andrews has a square tower, 90 ft. in height, surmounted by an octagonal spire 155 ft. 6 in. in height, making the total elevation of the latter 245 ft. 6 in. The church and town are very ancient; but the spire is comparatively modern, having been added in 1751. All the living in the city, except that of St. Peter, are rectories; and, except All Saints (which is in the gift of the crown), they are all in the patronage of the dean and chapter. The most valuable are St. Martin's, worth 378*l.*; St. Nicholas, worth 260*l.*; and St. Peter's, worth 233*l.* a year.

Exclusive of its numerous churches, Worcester has chapels for R. Catholics, Independents, Calvinists, Wesleyans, Friends, &c. The guildhall, a large brick edifice, constructed in 1723, the front of which is ornamented with columns, statues, &c., has a hall for the accommodation of the courts of assize, a council chamber, &c. The old co. jail and house of correction was defective in its plan and accommodation; but a new jail at the top of Foregate Street was built on Howard's plan, in 1824. The old city jail, in Friar Street, was formerly a Franciscan convent. The market-house, in the High Street, is a spacious and convenient building; and the public subscription library, in Foregate Street, contains reading and news rooms, and a considerable collection of books. Here is also a small theatre.

The royal grammar-school attached to the cathedral was founded in the reign of Henry VIII., for 40 scholars, who are prepared for the universities, and instructed besides in various subordinate departments of knowledge. It has two exhibitions to Balliol College, Oxford. The free grammar-school, founded by Queen Elizabeth, in 1561, for 13 boys, has 14 exhibitions to the universities, of 30*l.* each, and scholarships at Worcester College, Magdalen Hall, Oxford. The great Lord Somers and Butler, author of *Hudibras*, were educated in this school. Here also are subscription schools on the Madras and Lancasterian plans, with several other schools for children of both sexes. The whole number of children at school may be estimated at about 3,000. A Diocesan Board of Education for superintending all the schools in connexion with the Church in the diocese has recently been established. It has various almshouses, the oldest of which appears to be those of St. Oswald's hospital, founded in 1268: a city and county infirmary, erected in 1770; a lying-in institution, house of industry, female penitentiary, dispensary, &c. Several medical and other societies have been formed: a music meeting is held every third year in the hall of the king's school, the meeting in the intervening years being at Gloucester and Hereford; the proceeds are appropriated to the relief of widows and orphans of the clergy. Races take place in July and Nov.

Worcester had formerly a considerable manufacture of woollen goods; but this has been discontinued, and the chief business of the city consists at present (1840) of the manufacture of gloves and china ware. The number of master manufacturers in the glove trade has of late years been a good deal reduced; but the trade itself is at present in a flourishing condition, and employs a great many hands. China ware of a superior quality used to be produced here on an extensive scale; but, owing to the superior facilities for its production enjoyed by the manufacturers in the Potteries, the business declined, and is now (1850) restricted to two factories. One of these, however, the Royal Porcelain Works, is on a large scale, employing (inc. the butts) about 500 hands; and its produce, as respects beauty of design and excellence of material, is not surpassed by any in the kingdom. Messrs. Granger and Co. principally produce articles of semi-porcelain, which are at once cheap and handsome. Here is an extensive manufactory of damask and hair seating. The other principal products are lace, spirits, tanned leather, nails, turnery ware, &c. There are some large iron foundries on the canal and river banks. The inland trade is carried on by means of the Worcester and Birmingham Canal and the Birmingham and Gloucester Railway, which is united by a short branch railway with the city. The canal communicates with the Severn, the banks of which have been furnished with good quays and spacious warehouses. An act, passed in 1842, placed the management of the improvement it was intended to effect in the river in the hands of public commissioners, elected by the cities, towns, and landowners along its banks, within the distance of 42 m. from Gloucester to Stourport, which was to be improved. A continuous depth of 8 ft. water was expected to be obtained from the entrance of the Berkeley Canal at Gloucester to Worcester; and from thence a depth of 6 ft. to Stourport, where the Severn is joined by the Stafford and Worcester canal. Mr. Cubitt, the engineer, drew up the plan adopted for the improvement. Its leading features are a succession of solid weirs built obliquely, instead of in the usual way, at right angles, across the stream, with side cuts or locks. Ascending the river, the first weir is placed a little below the city of Worcester. The channel is left clear to that point. The fall in this portion of the river being very gradual, it is proposed to cut out the shallows, and keep them clear by dredging. The greatly higher scale of gradients in the inclination of the river above Worcester rendered the employment of weirs and locks inevitable. The improvement in the upper part of the river has been quite successful, and vessels of 100 tons burden, drawing 6 ft. water, now navigate the Severn from Worcester to Stourport at all seasons of the year without let or hindrance. But in the lower part of the river the plan for dredging has not been equally successful, and there, also, it will be necessary to adopt weirs and locks. As it is,

however, vessels drawing 7 ft. water have come up to Worcester, and that city is, in consequence of these facilities, becoming the centre of a considerable trade. About 20,000 tons of salt are now annually sent down the Severn from Droitwich, and nothing is wanted to the extension of the trade but a greater facility of navigation. The other great articles of trade are coals, iron, china-clay, groceries, &c., amounting in all to about 800,000 tons a year. The hop plantations of Worcestershire extend over about 1,000 acres, and most part of the produce is brought hither for sale. The society of Worcester is extremely good, it being the residence of many respectable families, attracted hither by the beauty of the situation, cheapness of living, facilities of education, and the variety of amusements furnished by its theatre, assemblies, concerts, clubs, races, &c. It has four weekly newspapers, a savings' bank and four other banks, three of which are native establishments, and the fourth a branch of a Metropolitan Joint Stock Bank. It has, also, an extensive corn market.

Worcester was chartered in the 1st of Richard I.; but the charter was not confirmed until the 2d of Henry III. Various other charters, &c., were afterwards granted by different sovereigns; but that by which the city was governed previously to the Reform Act dated from the 19th of James I. It erected the city and liberties of Worcester into a co. separate from, and independent of, the co. of Worcester. Under the Municipal Reform Act, the city is governed by a mayor, 11 other aldermen, and 36 councillors. Corporation revenue in 1847-8, 8,387*l.* It has a commission of the peace, with jurisdiction in nearly all felonies, excepting such as affect life and limb. A sheriff's court is held once a month by the under-sheriff; a court of common pleas, and petty sessions weekly; and it is the seat of a county court, before which 1,341 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. The assizes for the co. are also held here. A police force has been organised, and the peace of the town is well maintained. Worcester has returned 2 mems to the H. of C. since the 23d of Edw. I.: the right of voting previously to the Reform Act having been vested in the freemen. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 2,783. It is also the seat of election and principal polling-place for the W. div. of the co.

Worcester is of great but uncertain antiquity. It is principally celebrated in history from its giving name to the decisive victory obtained here by Cromwell over the forces of Charles II., on the 3d of Sept. 1651. Among other eminent individuals, Worcester gave birth to the distinguished statesman, Lord Somers, born here in 1652. Markets, Wednesday and Saturday. Fairs, eleven times a year, mostly for cattle, lambs, horses, linen, wool, cheese, &c. (*Part. Bound. and Mem. Reps.; Recs' Cyclopædia; Priv. Inf.*)

Worcester, a town of the U. States, in Massachusetts, cap. co. Worcester, 33 m. W. of Boston. Pop. in 1850, 19,000, having more than doubled in the preceding 10 years. It is pleasantly situated in a fine agricultural district; and being at the junction of several important roads, as well as on the great railway line between Boston and Albany, it is the centre of a considerable inland trade. The principal street, upwards of 1 m. in length, is well built, and has many good private houses and hotels. The court-house, jail, several churches, a state-asylum for the insane, the hall of the American Antiquarian Society, with a museum, and a library of 12,000 vols. (*Bradford*), are the chief public edifices. Worcester has numerous woollen, cotton, and paper-mills; machine factories and printing-offices. The Blackstone Canal connects the town with Providence, and other canals with Boston and the Connecticut line. The permanent settlement of the town took place in 1713, and its incorporation in 1722.

WORKINGTON, a market town, par., and seaport of England, co. Cumberland, ward Allerdale, on the Derwent, near its mouth, 7 m. N. by R. Whitehaven. Area of par., 7,730 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 6,594, of whom 6,045 inhabited Workington township. The streets are mostly narrow and inconvenient; but of late years many good houses have been erected. In the upper town a new square has been built, in which the corn market is held. It has a small neat theatre, assembly and news rooms, and various other public buildings. The Derwent is crossed here by a stone bridge, of three arches. The par. church, rebuilt in 1760, has a fine altar-piece: the living is in the gift of—Curwen, Esq., whose mansion, Workington Hall, a fine castellated structure, on a richly wooded height, overlooks the town. A chapel-of-ease, in the Tuscan style, was built in 1833; and here, also, are chapels for Independents, Methodists, Presbyterians, R. Catholics, &c. A grammar school, founded in 1654 by Sir P. Curwen, has since ceased to exist; the founder having had only a life interest in the property with which it was endowed. There are, however, Lancastrian and female schools, a dispensary, and various institutions for the benefit of the poor, supported by subscription. Workington has manufactures of sailcloth and cordage, and a valuable salmon

fishery on the Derwent, the property of the Earl of Lonsdale; but it derives its principal importance from the extensive collieries in its vicinity, which furnish considerable quantities for shipment to Ireland, the Isle of Man, &c.

Workington harbour is protected by a breakwater, and has good quays; but it nearly dries at low water. It is a creek of the port of Whitehaven; but it has about 7,000 tons shipping. Ship-building has been long carried on; and a fine Indiaman was launched in the course of the present year (1851). Markets, Wed. and Sat.; fairs, May 18. and Oct. 18. Races are held annually in August.

WORKSOP, a market-town and par. of England, co. Nottingham, wapent. Basselaw, on the Rytou, a tributary of the Idle, 22 m. N. Nottingham. Area of par., 18,390 acres. Pop., in 1841, 6,197. The town, consisting chiefly of one street, crossed by two others, is well built, paved, and lighted. Its church, which formerly belonged to an Augustinian priory, is a fine old edifice, with two lofty towers, and has within several ancient monuments. The living, a vicarage worth 388*l.* a year clear, is in the gift of the Duke of Norfolk. Here, also, are places of worship for various sects, a national school, and some small endowments for parochial and charitable purposes. The town is celebrated for its malt, and was formerly, also, celebrated for its liquors, of which large quantities were raised in the adjoining district; latterly, however, its culture has been wholly abandoned.

Worksop may be regarded as the cap. of the district popularly called the "dukery," from its containing Worksop-manoor, formerly a seat of the Duke of Norfolk, Clumber Park, the seat of the Duke of Newcastle, and Welbeck Abbey, the seat of the Duke of Portland. These are all magnificent residences in fine parks. But the Duke of Newcastle having purchased Worksop-manoor, the house, which had been rebuilt in 1763, has been pulled down. Clumber Park, now about 11 m. in circ., and finely laid out and wooded, was, so late as the era of the American war, little better than a black heath, interspersed with bogs and marshes. In this district also, is Thoresby, the seat of Earl Manvers. Markets on Wednesday.

WORMS (an. *Borbetomagus*), a city of W. Germany, grand duchy of Hesse Darmstadt, prov. Lower Hesse, cap. cant. on the W. bank of the Rhine, near the border of Rhenish Bavaria, and 96 m. S.S.E. Ments. Pop., in 1850, about 9,500. It was formerly an important free city of the empire, but is now much decayed, and is surrounded by dismantled and ruined walls. "Its interior," says Mr. Chambers, "consists of a single good street, lined with tall mansions, inhabited by persons of an inferior order, and a number of back lanes and detached buildings, many of them vacant and desolate. In a piece of open ground behind the main street stands the cathedral, a building of red sandstone, its foundation dating as far back as the beginning of the 11th century (*Schreiber, Guide du Rhin*, says the 8th). The original part of this edifice is Gothic, but the larger portion is in the Byzantine style; the interior arches being all rounded, and the pinnacles and dome fretted in the Moorish taste. The building contains a number of excellent pieces of sculpture, and the high altar at the E. end is enveloped with ancient carvings, in oak." (*Tour on the Rhine*, 60.) This cathedral has 3 choirs, each surmounted by a cupola, one of which rises 137 ft. (*Schreiber*) above the pavement. The W. choir is a good specimen of the architecture of the 12th century, and has a magnificent rose-window of that period. The Lutheran church in the market-place, in which is a painting of Luther before the Diet of Worms, in 1521, occupies the site of the council-hall, in which that event took place. This hall was destroyed when the city was bombarded by the French, in 1699; at which time, also, a vast number of houses were destroyed. From this period, in fact, the decay of Worms may be dated; many of the inhabitants having afterwards settled in other German towns, and in Holland. Some of the other churches deserve notice; and there are 3 synagogues. Charlemagne was married at Worms; and it was frequently inhabited, both before and after his time, by the Frankish sovereigns; but no remains of the imperial palace exist, except a few fragments of a wall, forming part of the *Bürgerhop*, a prison, and police-office. Worms is the seat of a consistory, about half its inhabs. being Protestants; and it has several convents and hospitals, a gymnasium, and elementary schools, supported by different religious sects. It has manufactures of tobacco, sealing-wax, hats, &c.; but its principal trade is in wine, and other agricultural produce. The vicinity of Worms, celebrated by the ancient Minneingers as the *Wonnegau*, or "land of joy," is in great measure covered with vineyards, producing some of the best growths of the Rhine. The famous *Liedersheimisch* is grown around the church of Notre Dame, close to the city. Worms is supposed to owe its origin to a fort erected here by Drusus: many Roman antiquities have been discovered in and near it. Among the councils held at Worms, that in 1122 was the most famous. Diets

were, also, held here in 1492, 1517, and 1521. The latter is famous from the fact of Luther having, as already stated, appeared before it, to explain and answer for his opinions. On appearing before the Diet, he displayed equal firmness and moderation. An edict was, however, issued against him on the 26th of April, by which he was excommunicated as an obstinate heretic. But previously to this, in consequence of the determination of the emperor and the other princes who had given him a safe conduct, not to forfeit their word, he was allowed to withdraw from the city in safety. (*Schreiber; Berghaus; Robertson's Charles V.*, book li.)

WORTHING, a maritime town and fashionable watering-place of England, on the English channel, co. Sussex, rape Bramber, hund. Brightford, in the par. of Broadwater, a village about a mile to the N., 49 m. S. by W. London, and 10 m. W. Brighton. Area of par., 2,340 acres. Pop. of do. in 1841, 5,245, of whom 4,703 were supposed to belong to the town. Until within the last 50 or 60 years, Worthing was only an inconsiderable fishing village; and is much indebted for its increase and celebrity to the visits of the royal family during the latter part of last century. The buildings of the town extend along the coast for about $\frac{1}{2}$ m., and the main street runs for somewhat more than $\frac{1}{2}$ m. in a N. direction. Excepting in its centre, the houses are mostly arranged in regular terraces, though many are isolated and interspersed with fields and gardens. The range of building fronting the sea are generally faced with cream-coloured brick made from a peculiar clay found in the vicinity, and the town is well paved, lighted, and has an ample supply of water. The chapel-of-ease, erected in 1812, at a cost of 12,000*l.*, is a very neat edifice, with a Doric portico. The living, a curacy worth 156*l.* a year, is in the gift of the rector of Broadwater. Here, also, are chapels for Independents and Wesleyans, to which Sunday schools are attached; with well attended national schools for both sexes, supported by subscription; a savings' bank, and a small, but elegant theatre, opened in 1807. The market-place consists of a range of covered stalls built around a square area. The Esplanade, a raised causeway, extends along the shore for the whole length of the town: near its W. extremity are the Royal Baths, comprising two complete suites of apartments. The New Parisian Baths, recently built, adjoin the Sea House Hotel. It is almost superfluous to add, that it has numerous hotels, with assembly-rooms; libraries, reading and news-rooms, convenient bathing-machines; and the other accommodations incident to a well-attended watering-place. Fine sands extend along the coast for 7 m. to the W., and 3 m. to the E. of the town. These, with the gradually increasing depth of the water, which gives the opportunity of bathing at any time of the tide, added to the mildness of the climate, in consequence of the shelter afforded on the N. and E. by the South Downs, render Worthing especially suitable as a place of resort for invalids. No manufacture of any kind is carried on; but the mackerel and herring fisheries are usually very productive, and contribute largely to the supply of the London markets. An annual fair is held on July 20.; market-day, Sat. and every alternate Wed. for corn. (*Guide to Watering-places of England; Priv. Imp.*) **WREXHAM**, a parl. bor., market-town, and par. of Wales, co. Denbigh, hund. Bromfield, on the high road between Shrewsbury and Chester, 11 m. S. by W. the latter. The par. of Wrexham includes no fewer than 12 townships, 2 only of which and a small detached portion of a third are included in the parl. bor., which has an area of about 1,145 acres, and had, in 1841, a pop. of 5,821.

Wrexham is a handsome and lively town, with spacious streets crossing each other at right angles, and neatly and substantially built houses; it is, also, well paved, lighted with gas, and plentifully supplied with water. The church, dedicated to St. Giles, a simple and venerable structure, is deservedly regarded as one of the principal ecclesiastical edifices in the principality. It was erected about 1473 on the site of a more ancient structure: it is in the Perpendicular style, and is covered with grotesque sculpture; but in correctness of design and proportion it is surpassed by few buildings of the same date. It consists of a nave, with side aisles and a chancel, the whole length being 178 ft., and the breadth 73 ft.; the aisles are separated from the nave by clustered columns supporting pointed arches; and the ceiling is of oak, in imitation of groined stone. The tower, which was not completed till about 1500, is 135 ft. in height; it consists of several successive stages pinnacled throughout, and decorated with numerous statues of saints placed in niches of the buttresses; which latter are surmounted by 4 light open-work turrets rising 34 ft. above the balustrade that surrounds the summit of the tower. It has a fine altar-place, and some interesting monuments; among which are two to members of the Middleton family, admirably sculptured by Moebilliac. The living, a valuable rectory, worth 766*l.* a year, is in the gift of the bishop of St. Asaph. It has, also, a Rom. Cath. chapel, and four

places of worship for Protestant dissenters; a house of correction for the co., with 7 wards; a free endowed grammar-school; 2 parochial national schools; a public library; reading, news, and lecture-rooms; agricultural and horticultural societies; a neat theatre; and a property, yielding 230*l.* a year, for distribution among the poor and other charitable purposes. The town-hall, at the head of High Street, has a large room used for public meetings. Annual races take place in October. The town is under the jurisdiction of the co. magistrates, who here hold monthly petty sessions for the hundreds of Bromfield and Gale. The Reform Act conferred on Wrexham the privilege of voting in the return of a mem. to the H. of C., along with the bors. of Denbigh, Holt, and Ruthin. Registered electors for Wrexham and the other bors. in 1849-50, 831. It is one of the polling-places for the co. No particular branch of trade or manufacture is now carried on here; though Leland describes it, some centuries since, as containing "sum merchants and good broker (buckler) makers." It owes its present degree of activity principally to its situation on the main road from North Wales through Chester to Liverpool. Coal, iron, and lead mines are extensively wrought in the parish, which has also some large iron works. Exclusive of several of minor importance, a large fair, which continues for 14 days from the 23d of March, and is attended by traders from a great way round, is held here annually, for the sale of horses, cattle, Manchester, Birmingham, and Sheffield goods, Irish linens, Welsh flannels, Yorkshire and other woollen cloths, &c. Five large areas in the town are fitted up with booths and temporary shops, for the accommodation of the dealers in the fair. Market-days, Monday and Thursday. (*Nicholson's Cambrian Guide; Panorama of N. Wales; Bound. Rep., &c.*)

WURZBURG, a city of Bavaria, circ. Lower Franconia, of which it is the cap., on the Mayn, by which it is divided into 2 parts, 62 m. S.E. by E. Frankfurt, lat. 49° 47' 48" N. long. 7° 35' 0" E. Pop., exclusive of students and troops, about 22,500. Würzburg is finely situated, in a hollow surrounded by vine-covered hills, and traversed by the Mayn, here a large and fine stream, covered with boats and barges. The greater part of the city is on the right or N. bank of the river, the communication with the citadel, and a suburb on the opposite bank, being kept up by means of a handsome bridge. Würzburg is inclosed by walls, and, being one of the oldest towns of Germany, is irregularly laid out, its streets being generally narrow and angular; it has, however, some venerable edifices. The cathedral was originally founded in the 8th century, but the earliest portions of the present building appear to date from the 11th or 12th. The interior has been modernized with little taste; but it has some monuments worth notice, including those of a long series of the prince-bishops of Würzburg, the sovereigns of the city and adjacent territory, for upwards of 1,000 years. There are 32 other churches, the finest of which is the Marienkirche, in the pointed Gothic style. The royal, formerly the episcopal, residence, in a small square, was erected early in the last century; it is of an oblong form, on the plan of the palace at Versailles, and is of great extent, including, besides a magnificent staircase, upwards of 280 apartments, mostly fitted up in the style of Louis XIV. The gardens attached to it form a favourite promenade. The great hospital is an extensive and well conducted establishment, partly subsidiary to the school of medicine, for which the university of Würzburg is famous. This university was founded in 1403, and revived in 1527; at different periods it has been in a very flourishing state. It has some good scientific collections, and a library of 120,000 volumes. In 1832, it had 531 students, of whom 244 attended the medical classes, 109 the law, 118 the divinity, and 30 the philosophical, &c. (*Journ. of Education*); but the number of students has since declined, and probably does not at present (1842) amount to 400. It has also, a gymnasium, a teachers' seminary, musical and polytechnic institutions, a society of arts and sciences, and an infirmary for the cure of deformities. Only 3 or 4 of the numerous monastic institutions formerly established in the city now exist. Würzburg is the seat of the court of appeal for the circle, and a bishop's see. Its manufactures consist principally of woollen stuffs, hats, leather, sealing-wax, and surgical instruments. It is the principal depot for Franconian wines, which are mostly sent down the Mayn to Frankfurt; and its trade will most probably be materially increased by the opening of the canal from Bamberg on the Mayn to Diefthur on the Altmühl, an affluent of the Danube. Würzburg was secularized and given to the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria in 1803, and was ceded to Bavaria in 1815. (*Berghaus; Diet. Géog., &c.*)

WYCOMBE (CHIPPING, or HIGH), a parl. and mun. bor., market-town, and par. of England, co. Buckingham, hund. Desborough, on the Wick, a small tributary of the Thames, and on the high road from London

to Oxford, 27 m. W.N.W. the former. The old parl. and mun. bor., which were co-extensive, did not include the whole of the town; but the modern mun. bor. is rather more than three times the size of the former, and the modern parl. bor. is identical with the par. The latter has an area of 6,380 acres; with, in 1841, a population of 6,480. Wycombe extends for 1½ m. along the valley in which it is situated; and, though it has increased but little of late years, its general appearance is that of a well-built, prosperous, market-town. The principal roads communicating with the country to the N.W. and S.E., diverge from the market-place in the centre of the High Street. The church, a large and venerable structure in the perpendicular and early-decorated styles, has a tower at its W. end, 108 ft. in height, erected in 1522; but the rest of the church dates chiefly from the latter part of the 13th century. The interior has a fine altar-piece, and several monuments, among which is one by Schemmakaer, to the Earl of Shelburne, father of the first Marquis of Lansdowne, who died in 1761, and another by Carlini to a Countess of Shelburne. The living, a vicarage worth 140*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Marquis of Lansdowne. The Independents, Baptists, and Friends, have places of worship here. The town-hall, erected in 1775, is a large and respectable brick building, supported on stone pillars. The free grammar-school, founded by Queen Elizabeth, has attached to it some almshouses, and an income of about 390*l.* a year. Though established for an unlimited number of scholars, only 27 were receiving instruction at the date of the last inquiry. Here, also, is a girls' Lancasterian school, with numerous bequests for the general relief of the poor. The manufacture of chain is the only one of any importance carried on in the town. Some years since a considerable quantity of pillow lace was produced here; but this branch of industry has been nearly superseded by the machine-made lace of Nottingham and other places. There are several considerable paper-mills near the town, on the Wick, and others in different parts of the parish. But the prosperity of High Wycombe is mainly owing to its being a place of considerable thoroughfare, though, since the opening of the Great Western Railway, that has materially diminished; and to its being the market-town for a district of 10 m. round. It has an extensive corn-market.

The earliest extant charter dates from 1586. Under the Mun. Reform Act it is governed by 4 aldermen, and 12 councillors.

The bor. has returned 2 mems. to the H. of C. since the 28th of Edward I. Previously to the Reform Act the right of election was vested in the mayor, aldermen, bailiffs, and burgesses, of whom there were usually about 180. As already seen, the limits of the modern parl. bor. have been considerably enlarged. Registered electors, in 1849-50, 316. Waller, the poet, was mem. for this bor. in 1625. A little S.W. from the town is Wycombe Abbey, the seat of Lord Carrington, by whose ancestor it was purchased from the Lansdowne family. Market-day, Friday; fair, Monday before Michaelmas. (*Mun. Corp. and Bound. Rep., &c.*)

WYMONDHAM, or WYNDHAM, a market-town and par. of England, co. Norfolk, hund. Forehoe, on a hill, 9 m. S.W. by W. Norwich. Area of par. 11,240 acres. Pop. of ditto, in 1841, 5,179. The town, on the high road from London to Norwich, has a market-place with an ancient cross. The church, a venerable structure, in a mixed style, consists of a nave with aisles, a large W. tower, and another at the intersection of the nave with the transepts. Originally it formed a part of a monastery founded in the time of Henry I., to which the town appears to have owed its earliest importance. Within are many curious monuments, including that of the founder, William de Albini; a large carved font, &c. The living, a vicarage worth 515*l.* a year, is in the gift of the Bishop of Ely. Here, also, are chapels for Independents, Wesleyans, Baptists, Friends, &c. The grammar school, founded by Edward VI., has a total income of about 180*l.* a year. It is governed by 12 trustees and 15 governors, and is free to all boys of the par.; but, in consequence of a pending chancery suit, it had no pupils at the date of last inquiry. It has 2 exhibitions at Cambridge, and a share of an exhibition for scholarships. A fuel allotment charity has an income of 86*l.* 15*s.* a year; and an endowment of 65*l.* yearly is expended in payments to the vicar, to old unmarried women of the parish, and in the partial support of 8 schools. (*Digest of Charity Reps.*)

A national school affords instruction to about 100 boys and 70 girls: 200 children attend a Sunday school attached to the church, and about the same number frequent one attached to a dissenting chapel. It was estimated, in 1833, that about 1-6th part of the pop. was supported by weaving, principally bombazines, crapes, and other Norwich goods. There were about 300 looms at work in the town; about 1-3d for a resident manufacturer, 1-3d for Norwich manufacturers, and the rest for various employers. The average wages of weavers at that

period amounted to only about 7s. a week per loom, many of the weavers having only half-work; and few members of the weavers' families were brought up to assist, but sought rather for agricultural or other employment. (*Hand-loom Weavers' Reports*, li. 328, 329.) A court leet is held annually, and a manorial court occasionally. A little to the N. of this town is Kimberley Hall, the seat of Lord Wodehouse, in an extensive and finely-wooded park. The Wyndham family, one of the most illustrious in the co. of Norfolk, which derived its name from this town, has produced, among other eminent individuals, the distinguished parliamentary leaders, Sir William Wyndham of the reigns of George I. and II., and Mr. Wyndham, of that of George III. Markets at Wyndham, on Fridays; fairs for cattle, &c., Feb. 12th, May 16th, and Sept. 29th. (*Parl. Rep.*, &c.)

X.

XALAPA, or JALAPA, a town of Mexico, state Vera Cruz, on the high road from Vera Cruz to Mexico, 55 m. N.W. the former. Pop. estimated at 13,000. It stands on a platform, about 4,300 ft. above the level of the sea, surrounded by fine mountain scenery, and sometimes subject to heavy fogs. Its climate is generally mild and salubrious, though it is said to be neither so clean nor so well built as Vera Cruz; but it has numerous houses of 2 stories, built after the old Spanish manner, in a square, enclosing a court planted with trees and flowers, with a fountain in the centre. The cathedral and other churches, though in an indifferent style of architecture, are very gorgeous. This was formerly a great entrepôt for the European trade with Mexico, and large fairs were held here; but its trade has greatly diminished, and its shops and warehouses do not now make much show: at present, indeed, Xalapa is chiefly celebrated for its washing; and many of the inhabs. of Vera Cruz send their clothes hither to have them cleaned. (*Bullock*.) The more wealthy inhabs. of Vera Cruz, and, indeed, of all the adjacent coast district, or *tierras calientes*, resort to Xalapa in the summer to avoid the heat, insects, and fevers of the low country, from all which it is free. The well known medicinal herb *jalap*, grows abundantly in the vicinity of this town, to which it is indebted for its name. (*Ward's Mexico*, li. 19, 20.; *Poinsett's Mexico*, 35.—37.)

KERES DE BADAJOS, or DE LOS CABALLEROS, a town of Spain, in Estremadura, prov. Badajoz, near the Ardilla, a tributary of the Guadiana, 40 m. S. Badajoz. Pop. estimated at about 9,000. It is walled, and, like most Spanish towns, had numerous monastic institutions; but from its being out of any great route, it is rarely visited by travellers. It has manufactures of linen fabrics, leather, hats, soap, &c., and a large trade in cattle, which are extensively reared in its neighbourhood.

KERES DE LA FRONTERA, a city of Spain, in Andalusia, prov. Cadiz, on the road from Cadiz to Seville, near the Gaudalete, 17 m. N.N.E. Cadiz. Pop., according to Mifano, 31,000, which, though perhaps somewhat underrated, is, we suspect, much nearer the mark than Captain Scott's estimate of 50,000. "Keres is situated in the lap of two rounded hillocks, which shelter it to the E. and W.; and it covers a considerable extent of ground. The city, properly so called, is embraced by an old crated Moorish wall, enclosing a labyrinth of narrow, ill-built and worse drained streets; but this wall is of no great circuit, and is so intermixed with the houses of the suburbs as to be visible only here and there. The limits of the ancient town are, however, well defined by the numerous gateways still standing. Some of the old buildings and narrow streets are striking in appearance, and the number of gables and chimneys cannot fail to strike one who has been long accustomed to the flat-roofed cities of Andalusia." (*Scott's Rome*, &c. li. 73.) It has eight par. churches, among which is one that is collegiate, with a library and a collection of coins; a town-hall, numerous convents; a founding, an orphan, and other hospitals; several schools, a college, a public granary, infantry barracks, and an old fortress, are the principal public edifices. The streets, even in the best parts of the city, are disgustingly filthy; and the want of cleanliness is no doubt the main source of the destructive epidemics with which the town is frequently visited.

Keres derives its principal or rather its sole importance from its being the great emporium of the well-known wine, called sherry, grown in its vicinity. The principal wine merchants reside mostly in the suburbs, where are, also, the largest warehouses. These are all above ground, and are immense buildings, with lofty roofs supported on arches, springing from rows of slender columns, having their walls pierced with numerous windows to admit of the thorough circulation of air. (*Scott*, li. 79, 80.)

The vineyards, mostly situated on slopes, are scattered at considerable distances; in 1818 they were estimated to comprise an area of about 8,000 acres; and at present, perhaps, they may extend over 12,000 acres. It is not easy to form any very accurate estimate of the produce of the sherry vineyards, partly because there is no accurate account of the exports and of the stocks on hand, and partly because a considerable quantity of the light wine, called *moguer*, grown on the right bank of the Guadalquivir, is mixed up with the inferior sherries. Probably, however, the average annual export of sherries may amount to about 30,000 butts (the butt contains about 106 wine gallons), worth from 12s. to 64s. a butt! It is a mistake to suppose that good sherry is a cheap wine. "It may," says Ingils, "be laid down as a fact, that genuine sherry, one year old, cannot be imported under 30s. a dozen; and if to this be added the profit of the merchant, and the accumulation of interest, it is obvious that genuine sherry, 8 years old, cannot be purchased in England under 45s. a dozen." (*Ingils's Spain* in 1830, li. 83.) When, therefore, any one sees fine old sherry advertised at 2s. or 3s. a dozen, he may be pretty well satisfied that it is a hoax, and that Maraval or Cape Madeira, and not sherry, is the staple of the wine.

The finer sherries are all made from the Xeres grape, with the addition of only about 2 bottles of brandy to a butt, and sometimes of a little Paxeate, or sweet sherry, and of Amontillado. The wines are mostly all kept in very large casks, approaching in some degree to the Haddelburg tun, and when any wine is drawn off from one of these *madre* butts, it is replaced by an equal quantity taken from the next oldest butt, so that it is idle to talk of the sherry found in the market belonging to any particular vintage. The dark or deep brown sherries are occasionally produced by boiling a quantity of pale sherry to one fifth part its bulk, and mixing up this residuum with paler sherries, in quantities proportioned to the colour required. Amontillado, made in imitation of the wine of Montilla, near Cordova, the driest of sherries, is made from a variety of grapes plucked before they are quite ripe. It is the purest of the sherries, and will bear no admixture of either brandy or boiled wine.

England is and has long been the principal market for sherries. They used originally to be introduced and sold under the name of sack; but it is only of late years, and especially since the decline in the taste for Madeira, that they have come into all but universal use among all classes as a dinner wine. It is not easy, indeed, to account for their extraordinary popularity; for, though sherry of good quality, and kept to a proper age, is a very superior wine, the finer varieties bear no proportion to those that are inferior; and it is, besides, too powerful to be used with any degree of freedom.

To show its popularity it is sufficient to mention that, in 1849, of 6,251,862 galls. wine entered for consumption in the United Kingdom, no fewer than 2,448,107 were sherry! The entries of port during the same year amounted to 2,648,343 galls., making together 4,156,513 galls., leaving only 1,155,518 galls. for all the other sorts of wine! (*Scott's Rome*, &c. li. 73.) It has eight par. churches, among which is one that is collegiate, with a library and a collection of coins; a town-hall, numerous convents; a founding, an orphan, and other hospitals; several schools, a college, a public granary, infantry barracks, and an old fortress, are the principal public edifices. The streets, even in the best parts of the city, are disgustingly filthy; and the want of cleanliness is no doubt the main source of the destructive epidemics with which the town is frequently visited.

Of late years Port St. Mary, on the N. side of the Bay of Cadiz, 10 m. S.W. Xeres, has absorbed a considerable part of the trade of the latter, the wine-merchants who have settled there having the additional advantage of being able to superintend the shipping of their wines. Xeres has a few manufactures of serge, leather, soap, &c., but only for the consumption of its own inhabs. On the plain outside its walls was fought, A. D. 714, the battle which finally overturned the Visigothic monarchy of Spain, and gave a great part of that country to the Moors. On the Gaudalete, near the scene of this battle, is a Carthusian monastery, founded in 1571, once the most celebrated in Spain, but now in decay.

Y.

YAKUTSK, a town of E. Siberia, cap. of the immense prov. of its own name, on the Lena, about 1,150 m. N.E. Irkutsk, lat. 63° 1' 50" N., long. 107° 48' E. Pop. about 4,000. According to Wrangell, "Yakutsk has all the character of the cold and gloomy north. It is situated on a barren flat, near the river. The streets are wide, but the houses and cottages are poor in appearance, and are surrounded by tall wooden fences. Here are five churches, a convent, a stone building for commercial purposes, and an olden wooden fortress with its ruined tower, built in 1647, by the Cossack conquerors of Siberia. The town has, however, undergone great improvements in the last thirty years. The Yakut has been replaced by substantial houses; the windows of ice or talc, have given way to glass in the better class of houses, and the more wealthy inhabitants begin to have higher rooms, larger windows, double doors, &c.

"Yakutsk is the centre of the interior trade of E. Siberia. All the most costly furs, as well as the more common kinds, walrus teeth, and fossil remains, are brought here for sale or barter, during the ten weeks of summer, from Anabar and Behring's Straits, the coasts of the Polar Sea, and even from Okhotsk and Kamtschatka. It is not easy to imagine the mountain-like piles of furs of all kinds seen here; their value often exceeds 2,500,000 roubles. Almost all the Russian settlers in Yakutsk employ their little capital in purchasing furs from the Yakuti during the winter; on which they realise a good profit at the time of the fair, when they sell them to the Irkutsk merchants.

"As soon as the Lena is clear of ice, the merchants begin to arrive from Irkutsk, bringing with them for barter, corn, meal, the pungent Circassian tobacco, tea, sugar, brandy, rum, Chinese cotton, and silk stuffs, yarn, cloth of inferior quality, hardware, glass, &c. But at the annual fair there is not the appearance of animation and bustle, which might naturally be expected. The goods are not exposed for sale, and most of the purchases are effected in the houses or enclosures of the citizens." (*Wrangell's Siberia*, 11-13.) Dobell says, that the inhabs. are hospitable and gay. Several balls were given during his stay, and the dress, manners, and appearance of the people far surpassed what he expected in so remote a situation. (*Zyco*, ii. 12.) The variations of climate are extraordinary; for, though, on the whole, cold predominates to a very great extent, the thermometer in winter often falling to -40° R., or 66° below the zero of Fah. 1. The heat in summer is sometimes not inferior to that of the temperate zone.

The vast province of Yakutsk comprises, at least, three fifths of E. Siberia, and is watered by the great rivers Lena, Yana, Indigirka, and Kolyma, which supply vast quantities of fish. Iron, salt, and excellent talc are the chief mineral products: game, of many kinds, abounds. Large herds of cattle, &c., are reared near Yakutsk, and notwithstanding the severity of the winters, rye, barley, and even wheat, are said to succeed well throughout the province, except in those parts which are so far N. as to render the summer too short for ripening grain. (See *Dobell's Travels in Siberia*, ii. 21, &c.; *Wrangell's Siberia and the Polar Sea*, &c.)

YANINA, improperly JOANNINA, (probably the an. *Eurea*), a city of European Turkey, prov. Albania, of which it is the cap.; on the W. bank of the lake of its own name, 80 m. W. by N. Larissa. Lat. 39° 47' N., long. 21° 1' E. Pop. said to be at present about 12,000. It occupies a small peninsula, extending into the lake, and a part of the adjacent shore, its site being tolerably level. Twenty-five years ago Yanina was a town of 30,000 inhabs., with numerous mosques, many large and well-built houses, and several palaces. It had then a considerable trade with the rest of Epirus, Roumelia, Wallachia, &c.; and a large annual fair, to which a good deal of Italian produce, with French and German manufactures, &c., were brought. It was, however, set on fire by order of its barbarian and bloodthirsty tyrant, Ali Pacha, in 1820, and was almost wholly ruined. The streets are narrow and crooked, and the houses are now mostly of mud. Numerous vacant spaces, especially about the citadel, are covered with ruins, and all its animation is confined to the bazaar. (*Burgess's Greece*, i. 61-63.)

The lake of Yanina is about 6 m. in length, and nearly 3 in its greatest breadth; it is narrowest at the N., and gradually expands towards the S. Mr. Burgess says that the scenery around it would be fine if its banks were wooded; but as it is, the lake is far inferior in respect of beauty to those of Italy or Switzerland, and is excelled by some of the Scottish lakes. An island opposite the peninsula has a church and monastery. The description given by modern travellers of the site of Yanina and its lake, answers perfectly to that of the city and lake of Eurus by Procopius. Justinian built a fortress at Eurus, apparently on the identical site now occupied by the citadel of Yanina. (*Cramer's Ancient Greece*, i. 141, 142; *Burgess's Greece*, &c.; *Hobhouse*; *Hughes*; *Cramer's Greece*, &c.)

YARKUND, the chief city of Chinese Turkestan, in a fertile plain, on the river of its own name, lat. 38° 19' N. long. 76° 17' 45' E. Its pop. has been variously estimated, but may probably amount to 50,000, exclusive of the Chinese garrison. (*Burner's Bokhara*, &c., iii. 198.) It is enclosed by an earth rampart, pierced with five gateways, outside of which are extensive suburbs; there are two citadels, one in the suburbs, and the other in the town. The houses, built of stone and clay, are mostly only one story in height; the streets are intersected by numerous canals and aqueducts which bring water from the river for the use of the inhabs. Yarkund has two large bazars, numerous mosques, and 10 or 12 Mohammedan colleges, most of the native inhabs. begin Mussulmen, though much more lax in their religious prejudices than their neighbours to the W. About 200 Chinese merchants reside in the place, and some Cash-

merians and Persians, but only a few Hindoos, and neither Jews nor Nogai Tartars. When Marco Polo visited this city, he found some Nestorian Christians among the inhabs. (*Ritter, Erdkunde von Asien*, p. 390. -400.)

"The productions of China," says Sir A. Burnes, "are transmitted to this prov., and sold to the natives of Bokhara and Thibet, who are permitted to frequent certain fixed markets. No Chinese crosses the frontiers; the trade to Bokhara being carried on by Mohammedans, who visit Yarkund for that purpose. The same vigilance to prevent the ingress of foreigners is here exhibited as upon the sea-coast." Horses are a great article of trade; and it is chiefly to open a traffic in these animals, that Moorcroft desired to reach Yarkund, in which attempt, however, he was frustrated by the jealousy of the Chinese authorities. "Yarkund, with the adjacent prov. of Cashgar, formed the principality of a Mohammedan Khojir. Dissensions arose in the reigning family about eighty years since (in the time of Kien-long), and they called on the Chinese government as a mediator, which, as frequently happens, acted the part of a conqueror. The period which has elapsed since the capture of Yarkund has in no way diminished the precautions of the Chinese government. Yarkund is still considered but an outpost, and the communication between it and Peking is maintained in a most characteristic manner." (See *Burnes*, iii. 193-196.) The Mohammedan natives, indeed, fill the subordinate offices of state, but under the strict superintendence of the Chinese authorities. The garrison, consisting of from 5,000 to 7,000 soldiers, are recruited from boys of 14 and 15 years old, who are sent back, after about as long a period of service. (*Burnes*.) According to some Chinese documents, the annual tribute of the Yarkund people to the Chinese comprises 30 oz. of gold, 35,000 ds. of silver, 30,000 sacks of corn, 80 lbs. oil, 57,000 pieces of linen, 15,000 lbs. cotton, 3,000 lbs. copper, &c. (*Ritter, Erdkunde*, v. 402; *Kiepert's Marco Polo*; *Waltheo*, &c., in *Calc. Asiat. Journ.*, &c.)

YARMOUTH, a pari. and munic. bor. and sea-port of England, partly and principally in the co. Norfolk, but partly, also, in that of Suffolk, on the Yare, at its mouth, in the North Sea, 13 m. E. by S. Norwich, and 108 m. N.E. London. Lat. 52° 36' 40" N., long. 1° 44' 22" E. The old pari. bor., which included the hamlet of Southtown, in Suffolk, in the par. of Gorleston, on the S. side of the river, had an area of 2,110 acres, with, in 1831, a pop. of 23,332; but the modern pari. bor. includes the whole par. of Gorleston, comprising the village of that name, and has an area of 3,940 acres, with, in 1831, a pop. of 25,448, and in 1841 of 27,550. The part of the town on the E. side of the Yare, or Yarmouth properly so called, occupies a narrow peninsula, between the sea on the one hand, and the river on the other. "It consists of four principal lines of streets running nearly parallel with the river, and of an immense number of narrow lanes, or rows, that form the lateral communications between these streets. Very few of the rows exceed from 5 to 8 ft., and only two of them at the opposite ends of the town were passable for common wheel-carriages until the widening of some others in the centre of the town, not long since formed the street called Regent Street. The principal streets are well built, and wide, opening in some places into a spacious quay, market-place, and squares; and the town presents, on the whole, a thriving appearance. The best dwelling-houses are situated along the quay; many of these are substantial and handsome, as are, also, many of those in the other principal streets. Most of the shops are situated in the market-place, King Street, Broad Row, and Market Row; and the ware-houses, granaries, malt-houses, and fish-offices, together with the inferior dwelling-houses, are in the different rows. On the N., E., and S., the town is enclosed by old walls, beyond which is an intermixture of every description of buildings; but principally of extensive warehousing premises, and residences of an inferior class. This part is not paved, and only partially lighted, and principally with oil lamps; but the whole of the town within the walls is well paved, and lighted with gas. A considerable extension beyond the old walls has taken place on the E. side; and long lines of streets, besides many detached dwellings and extensive fish-offices, and other premises connected with the trade of the place, now occupy a great part of the space between the town and the sea shore, particularly towards the new jetty. New houses are in progress also on the N. side of the town, along the road leading toward Cator; and along the road toward Nelson's monument. S. of the town, the whole of which neighbourhood, and more especially the line fronting the sea, it is contemplated to cover with a new town.

Yarmouth is connected by a bridge over the Yare with South town, or Little Yarmouth. This suburb, forming the N. part of Gorleston par., consists principally of neat and substantial private residences; with docks, timber wharfs, building yards, &c. on the river, and in which much of the business of this port is carried on.

The other distinct group of buildings in Gorleston, which forms the village or town of that name, lies considerably more to the S., nearer to the entrance of the harbour. South town is very imperfectly lighted; and Gorleston is neither paved nor lighted." (*Muns. Corp. Rep.*)

Yarmouth quay is one of the most extensive and finest in England: it is upwards of 1 m. in length, and in some places 150 yards in breadth, having in its centre a planted promenade. Here is the town-hall, a handsome edifice with a Tuscan portico; the council chamber, which is highly decorated, has a full-length portrait of George II. The Star inn, near the town-hall, was once the residence of Bradshaw, president of the High Court of Justice which condemned Charles I.; and some of its apartments still remain apparently as he left them, or even as they were at an earlier period, for the house is of the Elizabethan age. Yarmouth parish church is one of the largest ecclesiastical edifices in the kingdom. It was originally founded in the time of William I.; but the most ancient parts of the present edifice date no further back than about 1250; and, according to Rickman, only a portion of the building of early English; other parts, particularly the windows, being of the Decorated and Perpendicular styles. (*Rickman's Gothic Architecture*, p. 206.) It is 230 ft. in its greatest length, by 108 ft. in breadth. At the W. end are 4 octagonal towers, the outermost of which are surmounted with plain pinnacles, as are the octagonal towers at each angle of the S. transept. The tower, at the intersection of the transepts with the nave, formerly decorated with pinnacles, is now unembellished, and supports a tall fluted spire erected in 1807, a conspicuous mark from the sea. The part of the interior W. of the tower forms a spacious choir, the ceiling of which is paneled in compartments, having coats of arms of different branches of the royal family of England, and of the Pastolls, Gournays, Bardolfs, and other proprietors of the neighbouring castle of Calster. The organ in this church is one of the finest in England; and it has many interesting monuments. The churchyard, comprising about 6 acres, is entered by handsome iron gates: on its W. side was standing, till the present summer, the Leaf Gate, a curious brick archway of the time of Charles I. The living, a perpetual curacy, worth 242*l.* a year, is in the gift of the dean and chapter of Norwich. A chapel-of-ease was built in 1716; and the living, a curacy worth 100*l.* a year, is in the gift of the corporation of Yarmouth, the minister's salary being derived from a local duty on coal. The living of St. Peter's church, an edifice in the Tudor style, built under a recent act, is a perpetual curacy, worth 160*l.* a year, in the gift of the incumbent of St. Nicholas' (the par.) church. Attached to the living of Gorleston and Southtown is a curacy, with a separate church, a modern erection, called St. Mary's Chapel, worth 204*l.* a year, in the gift of trustees. (*Ecclesiast. Rev. Rep.*) Here, also, are chapels for R. Catholics, Independents, Unitarians, Baptists, Friends, a Jews' synagogue, &c.; and some remains exist of various convents suppressed at the Reformation. A free grammar-school was formerly supported by the corporation, but it ceased to exist about the end of last century. The Children's hospital, founded in the reign of Edward I., is under the government of the corporation, and has an income of 857*l.* a year: it serves as a workhouse, and, also, maintains and clothes 30 boys and 20 girls, and 100 children are taught as day scholars. All children of parents belonging to the town are eligible to be admitted as day scholars, and, as vacancies occur, to become boarders by rotation, according to seniority. The charity school, founded in 1713, clothes and educates a considerable number of children; here, also, is a Lancasterian school, which educates about 150 boys; a girls' school, founded in 1810, for educating and clothing 80 poor girls; and a proprietary grammar school, founded in Southtown in 1835. The Fishermen's hospital, established and built in 1708, was chiefly supported by an annual government grant of 160*l.* a year, deducted from the beer duties, till 1832, when it was discontinued, in consequence of the repeal of the beer duty. The hospital is, however, otherwise endowed, and, at the date of the late inquiry, had an income of 56*l.* 10*s.* a year. Warren's charity, established in 1694 for the general relief of the poor, sick, orphans, widows, &c., has an income of about 375*l.* a year; and there are several other endowments for schools and other charitable purposes. (*Charities' Rep. XXVI.; and Digest, &c.*)

There is in the town a very extensive silk factory for the winding and throwing of silk, and the weaving of crapes and other silk goods. The Municipal Corporation Report of 1836 states that "Ship-building, and the various trades with it, are also carried on to some extent in Yarmouth; nevertheless, it cannot be considered as a manufacturing town, but derives its importance and prosperity from the trade and commerce which it owes to its situation and port. The rivers Yare, Waveney, and Bure, which unite in Braydon water, adjoining the town, are navigable; the

first to Norwich, the second to Bungay, and the Bure to Aylsham; and they secure to Yarmouth an extensive trade in the exportation of the agricultural produce of the districts traversed by these rivers, and in supplying them with coals and other heavy goods. The export of grain and malt from this port is considerable, of barley greater than from any other part in England; but the principal business of Yarmouth is the herring and mackerel fisheries, and the curing and exportation of the herrings to foreign countries, particularly the states bordering on the Mediterranean. An extensive timber trade with the Baltic is also carried on; and a considerable number of square-rigged vessels belong to the port. Yarmouth roads have long been the principal rendezvous of the vessels in the collier trade; and the town derives some advantages from the supply of fresh provisions to them.

"The harbour of Yarmouth is formed by the river Yare: it has an awkward entrance obstructed by a bar. Great attention, however, appears to be bestowed on remedying this defect, and on the improvement of the port generally. Vessels drawing about 12 ft. water, or of about 200 tons' burden, can cross the bar, and proceed up to the town at spring tides." The chief improvements of the harbour were effected by a Dutchman named Johnson, employed for the purpose, who first erected piers at the mouth of the river.

Yarmouth Roads, between the town and a line of outer sand banks, though so much frequented, are by no means free from danger. They are marked by buoys and floating lights. There belonged to the port, in 1849, 338 boats of under 50 tons each, and 345 vessels of above 50 tons each, the aggregate burden of the latter being 37,481 tons.

Yarmouth is the principal seat of the English herring-fishery. The herrings usually make their appearance in the roads about the middle of September, when the fishery begins, and continues till towards the end of November. They are partly cured, and partly sent fresh to the metropolis. The fishery of cod, mackerel, skate, soles, red-mullet, whiting, &c., is also extensively carried on. In 1849 the gross customs' duties received at Yarmouth amounted to 45,536*l.*

Yarmouth has been, for a long time, more or less frequented as a bathing-place, for which, indeed, it is well fitted by its salubrity and its firm, shelving, sea-beach. It has, also, a pier, projecting 450 feet into the sea, with public baths, assembly rooms, a neat theatre, a public library, public gardens, and all the establishments usual at a watering place. To the N. and S. of the town, facing the sea, are open and level pieces of ground covered with verdure, called the Denes; and on the most southerly of these is a beautiful fluted column designed by Wilkins, erected in 1817 in honour of Nelson: it is 144 ft. in height, and is surmounted by a statue of Britannia. On other parts of the Denes are various batteries, the barracks, a fine edifice, formerly a naval hospital, built in 1802, at an expense of 120,000*l.*; a new workhouse, erected in 1830, at an expense of 8,000*l.*; numerous windmills, a race-course, &c. On other sides, the environs of Yarmouth have no particular beauty; but the country is well cultivated, and the markets of the town are well supplied. Within a few miles, on the Suffolk side, are extensive remains of the Roman station *Gariemontes*, so called from its situation at the mouth of the *Gariensis* or Yare; and within a similar distance, on the Norfolk side, are the ruins of Calster castle, formerly a sumptuous mansion erected by Sir J. Pastoll soon after the battle of Agincourt.

The first charter of incorporation possessed by Yarmouth appears to have been granted by John in 1208; but the governing charter previously to the late acts was that granted by Queen Anne, in 1702. Under the Municipal Reform Act the borough is divided into 6 wards, and is governed by a mayor, 11 other aldermen, and 36 councillors. Corporation revenue, 1847-8, 6,230*l.* a year.

Yarmouth has sent 3 mems. to the H. of C., with little intermission, since the time of Edward I., the right of voting, down to the Reform Act, having been in the sons of freemen, and in apprentices serving a seven years' apprenticeship to freemen within the bor. Reg. electors, in 1849-50, 1,222. It has two banks. The bor. has a commission of the peace, and a gaol, an admiralty court, and a county court, before which 1,620 plaintiffs were entered in 1848. The maritime jurisdiction of the corporation extends for 10 miles up the rivers Bure, Yare, and Waveney. The markets are held weekly, on Saturday and on Wednesday. A fair is held on Friday and Saturday in Easter week: a regatta annually, &c.

Yarmouth communicates with Norwich, Ely, London, Ipswich, &c. by railway; and with London and Hull by steam packets; the Leith, Dundee, Aberdeen, and other steamers, frequently call here in fine weather. (*Board. Mus. Corp., and other Parl. Reps., and Local Inform.*)

YARMOUTH, a market town and par. of England, on the N.W. shore of the Isle of Wight, at the mouth of the little river Yar, immediately opposite Lymington, and 9 m. W. Newport. Area of par. 50 acres. Pop. of ditto, in 1831, 566. This town, which has long been in a stationary state, would have been wholly unworthy of notice in a work of this kind but for the circumstance of its having enjoyed the important privilege of sending 3 mms. to the H. of C., from the era of Edward I. down to the passing of the Reform Act, by which it was most properly disfranchised. It was, in fact, one of the most perfect specimens of a proprietary bor. (*Parl. Rep.*, &c.)

YÉCLA, a town of Spain, prov. Murcia, at the foot and on the declivity of a hill, 43 m. N. by E. Murcia. Pop., according to Mifano, 11,600. It was formerly walled and had a fortress, but of these there are now no remains. Its principal buildings comprise 2 par. churches, some convents, an hospital, an ecclesiastical tribunal, and a prison. Its neighbourhood is very fertile; and its inhabs. are mostly occupied in the production of corn, flour, wine, brandy, and leather. Near Yécla are the traces of a more ancient town, where various Roman antiquities have been discovered. (*Mifano; Dict. Géog.*)

YEDDO, or **JEDDO**, the chief city of Japan, and the residence of the *gégous* or military emperor; on the S.E. shore of the island of Niphon, prov. Moosasa, at the bottom of the Bay of Yeddo; lat. 36° 39' N., long. 140° E. Its pop. has been variously estimated at from 700,000 to 1,500,000; but the probability is, that the first of these numbers is beyond the mark. Yeddo is said to be surrounded by a ditch, and intersected by numerous canals and branches of the river Tonak, which are navigable for vessels of moderate burden. It has 2 large suburbs. Its internal plan would appear to be less regular than that of most other Japanese cities; but its streets and squares are clean, and some of the former are of prodigious length. Each street is appropriated to persons of one trade only, lined with covered arcades, and closed at night by gates at each extremity. The houses are mostly 2 stories in height; but being built and almost wholly of wood, destructive fires are very frequent. Yeddo has many temples, Buddhist convents, and other large public buildings; the emperor's palace occupies a large extent of ground. This city has a considerable trade; but there are no materials for forming any estimate of its amount. For farther information as to Yeddo, we must refer the reader to the works of Kämpfer, Thunberg, Siebold, &c.

YEMEN, a district of Arabia, which see.

YENISEI, a great river of N. Asia, in Siberia, through the central part of which it flows, its basin lying between those of the Lena to the E., and the Obi to the W., is supposed to comprise an area of near 1,000,000 sq. m., being about the same size as the prov. of Yeniseisk. The Yenisei rises within the Chinese Empire, not far from lat. 51° N., long. 98° E., and proceeds at first W. for about 90° of long., to near the point where it leaves the Chinese frontier. It then turns northward, and pursues generally a northerly course to the Arctic Ocean, which it enters by a wide estuary called the bay of the 73 islands, the mouth of which is in about lat. 73° N., long. 85° E., about 300 m. E. of the gulph of Obi. The entire course of the Yenisei has been estimated at 2,600 m. Its chief affluents join it from the E., its tributaries from the W. being of much less importance. Various towns in the upper, with Krasnoyarsk, Yeniseisk, &c. in the middle and lower part of its course, are on its banks; Irkutsk is on its great tributary the Verkhne-Tunguska, which flows out of Lake Balkal. As far as Krasnoyarsk it runs through a mountainous country, and thenceforward to Yeniseisk, where its width, when highest, is about 1 m.; its banks are elevated and precipitous. A survey of the river was completed in the last century by the Russian government, up to this town, from this it appears that its channel varies from 2 to 8 fathoms in depth. This noble stream, however, like the other large rivers of Siberia, is but of little use, inasmuch as it flows, for the most part, through desolate wastes; its embouchure being also in a frozen sea, and the river itself being frozen over for the greater part of the year. The Russian surveyors were stopped in their progress upwards, by the ice at Turnshansk on the 1st of October, and by the 10th the river was completely frozen over; and it was not till the succeeding 4th of June that they were enabled to proceed with their survey. (*See Wrangell's Siberia; &c. Introd.; &c. Dict. Géog.*)

YEOVIL, a market-town and par. of England, co. Somerset, bund. Stone, on the border of Dorset, on the Yeo or Ivel, a tributary of the Parrott, here crossed by a stone bridge, 18 m. S. Wells. Area of par., 3,890 acres. Pop. of do., in 1841, 7,043, of whom 6,303 inhabited the town. Yeovil comprises about twenty streets and lanes, some of which are wide and open thoroughfares, the houses being generally good and built of freestone. The par. church, a tight Gothic structure, with a large

plain tower at the W. end, is supposed to date from the time of Henry VI. An ancient crypt, an adjoining chapel, and the handsome altar in the church, are worthy of notice. The living, a vicarage, with the curacy of Preston, of the clear annual value of 391l., is in the gift of — Phillips, Esq. Here, also, are places of worship for Unitarians, Baptists, Wesleyans, Independents, &c. The free-school, endowed in 1707 and subsequently, had recently an income of 114l. a year, and at the date of the last inquiry, 30 boys were taught reading, writing, and arithmetic, 14 of whom were clothed and apprenticed, and 1 taught Latin. An almshouse for a master, 2 wardens, and 13 poor men and women, had an income of 291l. a year; and exclusive of these, there is an almshouse for 4 poor women, and several minor charities. (*Digest of Charity Reports.*)

Yeovil was at one period celebrated for its woollen manufactures. But these appear to have been early superseded by the glove trade, the latter having attained to considerable importance in the town so far back as the middle of the 16th century. Hull, in his History of the Glove Trade, published in 1834, says, "At present the manufacturers are employed in making men's and women's fine gloves; which pass in the retail shops as kid gloves, but are, in reality, made from lamb-skins imported from Italy, Spain, and Germany. These skins are mostly dressed into leather in Yeovil, in which place the manufacturers are leather dressers and large dealers in wool, as well as gloves. The quantity of gloves made in Yeovil, of all sorts, may be estimated at 300,000 dozens annually; and the number of men, women, and children employed in the place and the adjoining district (spreading over 30 m.) amounts, perhaps, to 30,000." (pp. 70, 71.)

The use of cotton and woollen gloves, and the importations of French and other foreign leather gloves, had in some late years seriously depressed the trade of Yeovil; but latterly it has been in a comparatively flourishing state, and the imports of lamb-skins have been greater than at any former period. From 80,000l. to 90,000l. are said to be, at present (1850), annually paid as wages to persons engaged in the glove trade of the town and its vicinity. Yeovil claims to be a seat, by prescription, its sovereignty having been till lately vested in a portreeve and 11 burgesses; but their authority was very circumscribed. A county court has been established here, before which 566 plaints were entered in 1848. Market day Friday, when a good deal of butter, cheese, corn, &c., is sent into the town; and large quantities of the butter made in the surrounding district are purchased, and sent to London, to be sold as Dorset butter. Fairs, June 28, and Nov. 17., chiefly for farm stock. (*Parl. Reports; Hull's History of the Glove Trade; &c.*)

YEZID, a considerable city of Persia, in the E. part of which it is situated, about 260 m. E. by S. Isfahan. Its pop. has been variously estimated; but if the statement of Kinnaird, who assigns to it 24,000 houses, be near the mark, it must certainly be one of the most populous cities in the empire. It is situated in a sandy desert, near a range of high mountains, and has a fort, but no other defensive works. Being at the point of union of the principal roads connecting Isfahan, Kirman, Meshed, and Herat, it is consequently a considerable emporium. Its bazaar is said to be well supplied with provisions; though, from the sterility of the adjacent country, its supplies of corn have, for the most part, to be brought from Isfahan, and cattle are both scarce and dear.

The manufacture of silk stuffs in this city was, some years ago, superior to any other in Persia, and the village of Tuft, about 8 m. S. W., was equally famous for its *sarads*. Here, also, are some fabrics of arms and sugar refineries. Formerly a good many Hindoos were settled in the town, but these were driven away by the exactions of a late Persian governor; it has since, however, numerous families of Eusees (Guebres, or fire-worshippers) among the pop., this being almost the only town in the Persian dominions where they are now met with. Though an oppressed, they are an exceedingly industrious people. (*Kinnaird's Pers. Emp.*, 113, 114.; *Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

YONNE, a dep. of France, reg. centre, formerly comprised, for the most part, in Champagne and Burgundy, principally between lat. 47° 30' and 48° 30' N., and the 3d and 4th degrees of E. long., having N.W. the dep. Seine-et-Marne, N.E. Aube, E. Côte d'Or, S. Nievre, and W. Loiret. Area, 728,747 hectares. Pop. in 1846, 374,803. Surface undulating; the hills scarcely anywhere rising to more than 690 ft. in height; the most elevated are in the S.W., separating the basin of the Seine from that of the Loire. The Yonne, whence the dep. takes its name, rises in Nievre, near Château-Chinon, and runs generally northward to the Seine, which it enters at Montereau, in the dep. Seine-et-Marne, after a course of about 177 m.; for 70 of which, or as high as Auxerre, it is navigable. It traverses the dep. of Yonne nearly in its centre, receiving within its limits the Oure, Serein, and Armançon from the E.; its tributaries from the opposite side being inconsiderable.

It communicates with the Loire by the canal of Nivernais; and with the Saône by that of Burgundy. A great part of the soil is calcareous, or gravelly, but about 300,000 hectares are said, in the *Official Tables*, to consist of rich land; and more corn is grown than is required for home consumption. In 1841, the arable lands were estimated to comprise 453,100 hectares; meadows, 31,365 do.; vineyards, 27,543 do.; and woods, 146,570 do. Hugo estimates the annual produce of corn, mostly wheat and oats, at 2,060,000 hectolitres, and that of wine at 1,110,000 do. The growths of this dep. are known as those of Lower Burgundy; the red wines of Tonnerre and Auxerre are especially esteemed; and the secondary growths of Epineuil, Irancy, &c., are also in high estimation. Chablis, the best of the white wines, is served up by the French epicures with oysters. Wines of this class *sont spiritueux sans être trop fumeux, ont du corps, de la finesse, et un parfum très agréable*. The consumption of the dep. does not exceed 350,000 hectolitres, the rest being mostly sent to Paris, the N. of France, and foreign countries, little brandy being made. The orchards, which comprise nearly 6,000 hectares, are of importance; and Yonne, along with Loiret, supplies Paris with all the *raisons* consumed by its inhabs. Fewer cattle and sheep are reared in this than in any other part of the central deps. The forests abound with game, and produce great quantities of charcoal, the trade in which is extensive. Iron, marble, lithographic and many other kinds of stone, gun flint, as Cornilly, lime, and clay, are the principal minerals. Bricks and tiles are made in large quantities, and glass, earthenware, &c., in various places. The manufactured products include woollen stuffs and yarn, blankets, serges, &c.; beetroot sugar, paper, glue, &c.; hydraulic clocks made at Sens, barrels at Avallon, &c. The chief trade of the dep. consists in the export of its wines, corn, timber, and other agricultural produce. In 1835, of 150,786 properties subject to the *contrib. foncière*, 108,342 were assessed at less than 5 fr., and 28,100 at from 5 to 10 fr.; the number of those assessed at 1,000 fr. and upwards, amounted to only 161. Yonne is divided into 5 arrondis., ch. towns, Auxerre the cap., Avallon, Joigny, Sens, and Tonnerre. It sends 5 mems. to the Ch. of Dep. Number of electors, in 1838-39, 1,839. Total pop. rev., in 1831, 11,244,924 fr. (*Hugo*, art. *Yonne*; *Dict. Géog.*; *French Offic. Tables*.)

YORK, a marit. co. of England, being by far the largest and most important in that part of the U. Kingdom, is bounded on the N. by the co. of Durham, E. by the North Sea, S. by the cos. of Lincoln (from which it is separated by the Humber), Nottingham, and Derby, and W. by Lancaster and Westmoreland, and a small part of Chester. Area, 3,669,510 aers, of which about 2,500,000 are supposed to be arable, meadow, and pasture. It is divided into the districts of the North, East, and West Ridings, being respectively as large as cos., and each of them having its particular lord lieutenant; there is besides a separate smaller district called the city of York and Ainsty; but the latter, except in so far as the city is concerned, has been united to the W. Riding. The extent, population, &c., of these different divisions are as follows:—

	Area, Acres.	Inhab. Houses in 1841.	Popul- tion in 1841.
North Riding - -	1,275,820	49,490	201,668
East Riding - -	711,560	38,390	193,676
West Riding - -	1,649,490	226,473	1,154,924
City and Ainsty - -	32,440	7,710	38,382
Totals - -	3,669,510	315,082	1,591,584

Owing to its extent and various capacities, Yorkshire presents an epitome of the whole kingdom with respect to surface, soil, products, and industry. Some of the mountains on its W. border, are among the highest in the great central divide extending from Scotland S. to the middle of Derbyshire; and both there and in its N. division are very extensive tracts of high, sterile, moor ground. In the E. Riding a large tract of wolds extends from Flamborough Head to Filey Head, on the coast, to Pocklington and Market Wighton; but, notwithstanding these deductions, Yorkshire contains a great extent of the most excellent land. The vale of York, the district of Cleveland in the N. and that of Holderness in the S.E., besides various other extensive tracts in different parts of the co., are exceedingly fertile, possessing soils suitable for every purpose, either of arable or stock husbandry. The climate is as various as the soil and elevation; but, except on the high grounds, it is mild and early, and is everywhere salubrious, except on the low, marshy grounds along the Humber. Agriculture in a medium state of improvement; not so far advanced as in Northumberland or Lincoln, but not so backward as in several other cos. There is in this respect, however, a great difference in the different ridings, agriculture being in a much more advanced state in the W. riding than in either of the others. The general rotation is there—1st, turneps or fallow; 2d, barley; 3d, seeds; 4th, wheat. Bone manure is much

used, but not to so great an extent as rape-dust; the latter, however, is principally used for wheat, the bone manure being decidedly superior for turnips. Drainage is too much neglected in the N. and E. ridings. In the latter no system is acted upon, except in the Wolds, where the rotation is—1st, turnips; 2d, barley; 3d, seeds; 4th, wheat. In other parts of this riding, and in the N. riding, two corn crops not unfrequently follow in succession, and but few operations are performed as they ought to be. (*Kennedy and Grainger*, i. 367.) York is more of a grazing than of an agricultural co. Vast numbers of horses are bred in most parts. Those in the highest estimation are called Cleveland bays, partly from the district in which they were originally found in the greatest perfection, and partly from their colour; but they are now very widely diffused. They are in extensive demand as carriage-horses. Cattle very various: they consist mostly of the long-horned breed; but there are considerable numbers of short horns, with endless varieties produced by crosses between these and other breeds. At present, the Teeswater and Holderness breeds are the greatest favourites with the graziers; but the long horns, or a cross between them and the short horns, are preferred by the dairy farmers. Yorkshire supplies most of the cows used in the London dairies. Their average yield of milk may be estimated at from 22 to 24 quarts a day, but it does not yield a proportionate quantity of butter. Sheep of all varieties, and stock very large, supposed to amount to about 1,300,000 head, producing annually about 28,000 packs of wool. Many hogs are kept, and Yorkshire hams are celebrated in all parts of the country. Property in the W. and N. ridings very much subdivided; but in the E. riding it is less subdivided than in most parts of England, and many families in this riding have held their estates for centuries. Farms of all sizes; but the majority seem to be unusually small. Most part of these farms are held from year to year, or by tenants at will; and, notwithstanding the statements that have been made to the contrary, we have no doubt that the species of tenure, by diminishing the security of the farmer, has operated in no ordinary degree to retard the progress of improvement. Farm houses and buildings for the most part rather indifferent. Average rent of land, in 1842, 21s. 4d. an acre.

The W. riding of this co. stands in the very first rank as a manufacturing district. Leeds, Bradford, Huddersfield, Halifax, and Wakefield are the great seats of the woollen manufacture; flax-spinning is extensively carried on at Leeds; and the hardware manufactures of Sheffield rise, and, in some departments, as that of cutlery, far surpass those of Birmingham. There are extensive iron-works at Rotherham; and latterly the iron-works of Yorkshire have made considerable progress. Their total produce in 1848 has been estimated at 66,560 tons, which is probably within the mark. Cotton manufactures have been established at Easingwold, and in some other parts of the W. Riding. The manufactures in the other ridings are but of trivial importance. The valuable beds of coal found in the vicinity of Leeds, Sheffield, Bradford, Wakefield, &c. have, no doubt, been the principal source of the prosperity, as that of iron, Yorkshire has mines of lead, and veins of copper; alum works were established near Whitby in the reign of Elizabeth, and are still worked (see WHITBY); and there are in various places excellent limestone and freestone quarries. Principal rivers Ouse, Swale, Ure, Wharfe, Aire, Calder, Don, Derwent, Hull, and Esk; the waters of all these, except the last, being poured into the great estuary of the Humber. The canals, particularly in the W. Riding, are numerous, being some of them of great importance; and the principal towns are now, also, connected with railways. The div. is divided into wapentakes and liberties, and contains 613 parishes. It sends 29 mems. to the H. of C., viz. 6 for the co., being 2 for each riding; 2 each for the city of York, and the bors. of Leeds, Sheffield, Hull, Beverley, Bradford, Halifax, Doncaster, Pontefract, Ripon, Knaresborough, Malton, Richmond, and Scarborough; and 1 each for the bors. of Huddersfield, Whitby, Wakefield, Northallerton, and Thirsk. Registered electors for the N. Riding, in 1849-50, 11,291; for the E. Riding, 7,341; and for the W. Riding, 36,750! Sum expended for the relief of the poor, in 1849, N. Riding, 56,464l., E. Riding, 76,374l., W. Riding, 329,766l. Total value of real property assessed to the poor, in 1840-41, N. Riding, 1,011,985l., E. Riding, 1,111,807l., and W. Riding, 3,394,002l. Total amount of money levied for poor-rates for the co. during the year ended Lady-day, 1814, 468,947l.

YORK (an. *Eboracum*), an ancient and celebrated city of England, being, under the Romans, the cap. of Britain, and at present the second city of the kingdom in respect of rank, though not of importance. It is a county of itself, and a pari. and mun. bor., locally situated near the centre of the E. York, of which it is the cap., at the junction of the N., E., and W. Ridings; on the Ouse, at the confluence of the For,

22 m. N.E. Leeds, 33 m. N.W. Hull, 170 m. N.N.W. London, and 160 m. S.S.E. Edinburgh. Lat. $53^{\circ} 57' 45''$ N., long. $1^{\circ} 4' 34''$ W. The area of the old parl. bor., and city comprised 2,720 acres, and had in 1831 a pop. of 26,260. But by the late act, some additions were made of parts of the townships of Clifton and Heworth on the N., and of Fulford on the S.E., to the parl. bor., which is nearly co-extensive with the mun. bor., comprising, in part or wholly, 36 parishes, with some extra-parochial districts.

The city is inclosed by its ancient walls, supposed to have been erected by Edw. I., about 1280: they are flanked with numerous towers, and having been repaired and renovated in 1831, form a most delightful promenade, extending round the greater part of the city. They are pierced by 5 principal gates, termed bars, and by 5 smaller gates, or posterns; some of the former being remarkable structures. The Ouse and the Foss traverse the interior of the city, uniting at its S. extremity. The Foss is crossed by 4 bridges, and the Ouse by a single bridge, a handsome structure of 3 arches constructed between 1810 and 1820, at a cost of 80,000. The span of the central arch is 75 ft., that of the other arches 65 ft. each; the total width of the bridge within the parapet is 40 ft. Handsome flights of steps at each end conduct to spacious quays on both sides the river, called the King's and Queen's staiths, to which vessels of 90 tons may be moored.

York consists of several parallel lines of thoroughfare, running N. and S., crossed by others, which are generally shorter and more irregular, in an opposite direction. The principal of the former, nearly 2 m. in length, consists of Bootham, Petergate, Collegate, Walmgate, &c. with their continuations. The line crossing it, and composed of Micklegate, Ousegate, Pavement, St. Saviour's-gate, &c., is almost as long. In the centre of the city is a fine broad open space called Parliament Street, terminating at one end in Sampson Square; and at the other end in the Pavement, the site of the corn, poultry, and other markets; and wool and leather fairs are held in Peaseholme Green, an open space in the E. part of the city. There are a few other open spaces in the heart of the city, as St. Helen's Square, &c., but none of them deserves any particular notice. York has been much improved and modernised of late years, but it still preserves an air of antiquity in its narrow streets and old-fashioned houses. Many of the latter formerly overhung the streets, the upper stories projecting beyond the lower; but a good many of these have been taken down, and buildings in a modern style have been erected in their stead. Some of the streets also have been widened, and the city generally is well paved, and lighted with gas. In consequence of the rise of Liverpool, Manchester, &c., the increasing importance of many of the large towns of Yorkshire, and the greater facilities of communication between the different parts of the kingdom, York no longer enjoys that pre-eminence in the N. she possessed in the earlier part of last century. Still, however, she is not declining in any respect; but is, on the contrary, increasing in size. In the outskirts many substantial and even superior buildings have been recently erected; and the city is extending itself nearly in an equal degree in almost all directions. To the N.E. of the town was formerly an open space known by the name of Heworth Moor. In 1817 this was enclosed; and in this neighbourhood a great number of substantial and excellent houses have been built since the period of the enclosure. Here also many market gardens are cultivated; and altogether the district is thriving and populous, and presents undoubted testimony of progressive and prosperous industry. (*Board. Report.*) On the W. of the Ouse along the road from Leeds to the "Micklegate" are several good houses, many of which have been recently built, and are occupied chiefly by persons who have either retired from business, or are engaged in business in the older part of the town; a number of these houses is constantly increasing. The parishes beyond the Foss, through which the road to Hull passes, contain for the most part a pop. of a poor description." (*Mun. Corp. Rep.*)

York minster, or cathedral, is the finest edifice of its kind in the kingdom. It stands in the N. part of the city, and, except on its N. side, where a considerable space of ground has been cleared, is closely hemmed in by mean-looking buildings. The present edifice, said to have been raised on the site of a church originally founded by Edwin king of Northumberland, in the 7th century, was principally erected during the 13th and 14th centuries. It is without cloisters, and built in the form of a cross; consisting internally of a nave with two aisles; a transept, with aisles and a lantern in the centre; a choir, with aisles, and vestries or chapels on the S. side; and a chapter-house, with a vestibule, on the N. side. Its principal measurements are as follow:—length, internally, 524½ ft. (being greater than that of any other cathedral in England, except Winchester); internal length of transept, 223 ft.; length of nave, 264 ft.; do. of choir, 131 ft.; height of both, 99 ft.; breadth of nave, 109 ft.; height of

great tower, 234 ft.; height of W. towers, each 196 ft. (*Stranger's Guide to York*, p. 103.)

This magnificent structure has a portion of all the styles of English architecture; but the Norman only appears in a fine crypt, under a part of the choir, which reduces the general appearance to the three later styles; of these, the transepts are early English; the nave and arches supporting the great tower are decorated; and the choir and upper part of the great tower are perpendicular. (*Richman's Gothic Architecture.*) The W. front has been compared to that of the cathedral of Rheims for richness, sublimity, and beauty of architectural design. It is divided into 3 compartments, by 2 massive graduated buttresses enriched on every face with tabernacled work, and the elevated battlemented gable is covered with ornamental tracery of the most florid kind. There are 3 entrances in this front; over the central of which is the unrivalled W. window, divided into 8 portions by upright mullions, which in the upper part beautifully diverge into the leafy tracery peculiar to the 14th century. The magnificent towers which flank this side exactly correspond; they are supported by buttresses, and have at their summits 8 crocketed pinnacles connected by a battlement. Almost the whole of the W. front is filled with niches, but these, with few exceptions, are empty. The S. side, though finished less elaborately than the W. front, is very imposing. The porch in the S. transept is the most usual entrance to the church, and is deeply recessed by numerous mouldings; over it is a beautiful maynold window, and the gable is surmounted by an enriched pinnacle. The N. side is in a similar style to the S., though finished in a plainer manner; and in its transept is the remarkable stained glass window termed the "five sisters." The E. like the W. front, is in three grand divisions, separated by buttresses, the central of which is wholly occupied by a magnificent window. Like the W. front also, it is covered with niches, though only a very few of the statues formerly occupying them now exist. On this front the influence of time is very perceptible. The central tower, 284 ft. in height, is probably unfinished. It has two large windows, with two tiers of mullions, in each of its four sides. But it wants a spire; and, when contrasted with the W. towers, has a heavy appearance.

The interior of the minster corresponds in beauty and grandeur with the exterior. A careful restoration of the cathedral in most of its parts had been completed, when, on 2d February, 1825, it was set on fire by a lunatic; the conflagration thence ensuing destroyed the fine organ, and all the woodwork and roof of the choir. Another destructive fire broke out on the 20th of May, 1840, in the S.W. tower, by which its fine ring of 10 bells and the clock, with part of the roof of the nave, were burnt. These injuries are now (1842) in the course of being completely restored: the choir was removed after the fire of 1825, under the superintendence of Sir R. Smirke. The new roof is wholly constructed of oak, presented by government; and is covered with lead procured from the mines of the Greenwich hospital estates. The remarkable stone screen, which separates the choir from the nave, stands in its original position, and is of a most gorgeous and florid style, ornamented with 15 statues of the kings of England, from William I. to Henry VI., all of which, except the last, are of ancient sculpture. The new organ placed above this screen, and presented by the late Earl of Scarborough, is of the most superb description, and has some pipes 32 ft. in length. A great deal of fine stained glass, many sculptured coats of arms, and the tombs of many of the archbishops of York, attract the visitor's notice in the interior; though, on the whole, this cathedral is less rich in monuments than many others in the kingdom. From the N. transept, a vestibule leads to the chapter-house; this is an octagonal building, 63 ft. in diameter, and 67 ft. 10 in. in height, supported on the outside by eight massive buttresses. "The more minutely," says Richman, "this magnificent edifice is examined, the more will its great value appear. The simplicity and boldness, and at the same time the great richness of the nave, and the very great chastity of design and harmony of composition of the choir and great tower, render the building more completely one whole than any of our mixed cathedrals; while the exquisite beauty of the early character of the chapter-house, and its approach, forms a valuable link to unite the early English transepts and the decorated nave. This chapter-house is by far the finest polygonal room without a central pier in the kingdom, and the delicacy and variety of its details are nearly unequalled. Too much praise cannot be given to the dean and chapter for their careful restoration of every decayed portion. By this restoration the whole of the W. front may be considered in as good a state as when first erected; a considerable portion of the S. side is also restored." (*Gothic Architect*, p. 265.) The vestries on the S. side of the church contain, among many other antiquities, a chair in which several of the Saxon kings were crowned,

and which is said to be older than the cathedral itself; and the drinking horn of Ulphus, a Saxon prince of Deira, presented to the cathedral in 1086, with a large extent of country to the E. of York, still in the possession of the see. The library is at a short distance from the cathedral on the N. side. (*Winkie's Cathedrals; Guild: to York; &c.*)

The gross annual income of the see of York amounted, at an average of the three years ending with 1831, to about 13,800*l.*, and the net income to 12,624*l.* The chapter consists of a dean and four canons residentiary, sharing an income of 1,362*l.* a year, and 36 prebendaries having separate revenues. (*Ecc. Rev. Report.*) The archbishop of York has the title of primate of England, with the privilege of crowning the queen-consort, and ecclesiastical authority over the province of York, comprising the sees of York, Durham, Carlisle, Chester, Ripon, and Sodor and Man.

Previously to the dissolution of the religious houses by Henry VIII., besides 17 chapels, 16 hospitals, and 9 religious houses, there were in this city 41 par. churches, but of these last only 23 now remain. Many of these would be worthy of notice elsewhere; but they sink into insignificance after the cathedral. St. Michael-le-Belfrey, in the minister-yard, is the largest and most elegant, and with St. Martin's parsonage is in the last style of the Gothic style. All Saints, North Street, and St. Mary's, Castle-gate, have towers and lofty spires, and are mostly perpendicular with some earlier portions; St. Denis, St. Lawrence, and St. Margaret, have good Norman doors, with portions of later date; and St. Mary Bishop-hill, the Elder, has portions of good early English and decorated work, amidst various alterations and inser-

tions. In many of the churches are considerable quantities of old stained glass. (*Rickman, p. 266.*) All Saints in the Pavement is of very ancient foundation; and Drake says that its N. side is almost wholly built out of the ruins of *Eboracum*, though other parts of the edifice are quite modern. A large lamp still preserved here used to be hung at the summit of this building, as a beacon for travellers at night through the forest of Galtres, which extended from Bootham-bar a considerable distance N. of the city. Most of the livings of these churches are rectories or vicarages in the gift of the crown or the dean and chapter of York; the most valuable are those of St. Cuthbert, worth 233*l.* a year nett, and St. Mary Bishophill, the Elder, worth 220*l.* a year, both in the gift of the crown; St. Martin Micklegate, worth 243*l.* a year, is in the gift of a private family. (*Ecc. Rev. Rep., &c.*)

The remains of St. Mary's Abbey, originally founded by William Rufus in 1083, and refounded in 1270 for black monks of the Benedictine order, are very interesting. The abbot was mitred, and had a seat in parliament; and at the time of the dissolution the revenues of the abbey amounted to 2,085*l.* 1*l.* 3*d.* a year. The buildings were for the most part destroyed, between 1701 and 1717, and their materials used for rebuilding the castle of York and St. Olave's church, and repairing Beverley minister. Almost the only parts remaining are a gateway, and the N. wall of the abbey church, 371 ft. in length, having fine light Gothic window-arches, with highly finished carved capitals. Mr. Rickman says that the remaining part of the church furnishes the richest and most beautiful specimens of transitions from early English to decorated that remain for examination; but being entirely exposed, it is fast decaying. The abbey had an extensive and strongly fortified precinct without the ancient walls of the city; and some of its walls and towers, forming an extraneous portion of the old city defences, may still be seen between Bootham-bar and the Ouse. The remains of St. William's College, founded by Henry VI., exist in a street near the cathedral. St. William's chapel stood on the old bridge over the Ouse, and was consequently taken down with that structure. The cloisters of St. Leonard's and St. Peter's hospitals, curious remains of the architecture of the time of Will. I. & II., are now used as wine vaults.

The dissenters, who form a numerous and respectable body in York, have at least a dozen places of worship; the oldest of which is the Presbyterian (Unitarian) chapel, in St. Saviour-gate. The Wesleyans have an elegant new chapel in the same street, with a massive Ionic portico, &c., besides three other chapels. The Independents have 2 chapels, one of which (Salem Chapel), erected at the end of St. Saviour Gate, is a large and handsome edifice. There are also meeting houses for Primitive and other Methodists, and Friends; a fine R. Cath. chapel, a nunnery, and chapel outside Micklegate-bar, &c.

York Castle, towards the S. extremity of the city, between the Ouse and Foss, near their confluence, occupies a space of nearly 4 acres. It was originally built by William the Conqueror, who also erected another fortress, at York, on the other side of the Ouse. But only a small portion of the original structure of the castle remains, except Clifford's Tower, a keep added

by the Conqueror to the rest of the edifice, and erected upon an artificial mound, which had probably served for the site of a Roman fortress. York Castle, which was long garrisoned for the king in the civil wars, is not now a defensive military post, but has been converted into the co. prison and hall. The basilica, or co. hall, on the W. side of the great area, is entered by a portico, supported by Ionic columns, and internally divided into civil and criminal courts, with handsome rooms, for the use of the grand and petit juries, counsel, &c. The building, on the E. side of the area, which is uniform in design with the court-house, is chiefly appropriated to female prisoners. Between 1821 and 1836, a new prison was built here, at an expense of 203,580*l.*, on the panopticon principle, with 8 firing courts, the whole being surrounded by a lofty stone wall, 25 ft. high. This building is said to be most excellent of its kind. In 1828-30, the commitments to York Castle amounted to 632. (*Gen. Returns, 1840.*) The city gaol and house of correction is on the W. side of the Ouse; its outer wall encloses an area of nearly three fourths of a mile in circuit: it is appropriated partly to prisoners before trial. Near it is the *seus balneus*, or old baile, a mound corresponding with that on which Clifford's Tower is built, having probably had the same origin and purpose.

Most of the other edifices of public interest, are in the N. part of the city. The mansion-house, a large and handsome edifice, erected in 1735, has in front a rustic basement supporting an Ionic colonnade, with a pediment on which are the arms of the city. The state-room, 49½ ft. in length by 37½ ft. in breadth, has paintings of Will. III., Geo. II and IV., and of several noblemen and gentlemen. The guildhall, behind this edifice, built in 1446, comprises one of the finest Gothic halls in the kingdom, 96 ft. in length, 43 ft. in width, and 29½ ft. in height, the roof being supported by 10 octagon pillars on stone bases. In the windows are some fine specimens of stained glass, and over the entrance is a full-length statue of Geo. II. In this hall, the Lords-president of the North formerly held their court; and here also the Scotch received the 300,000*l.* paid them by Parliament for the assistance they afforded against Charles I. At the end of the hall is the city assize and sessions court; and adjoining, are the council chambers of the corporation. The assembly-rooms were erected, by subscription, in 1730, and are entered under a portico, resting upon light stone columns, supporting a balustrade. The walls are supported by 44 solid and elegant Corinthian columns, with a beautiful cornice. The upper part of the building being of the Composite order, and richly adorned. The rooms are lighted by 44 windows. The grand assembly-room is constructed from a design by Palladio, and measures 113 ft. by 40 ft., and 40 ft. in height. It was used for concerts till about 1825, when, being found too small, a magnificent concert-hall adjoining was built, 95 ft. in length, 60 ft. in breadth, and 45 ft. in height, capable of containing 1,700 persons, 400 being accommodated in a gallery supported by cast-iron pillars. It is lighted with gas, and divided up in a style of much elegance: its cost, including the purchase of the ground, amounted to 9,400*l.* The theatre, built by Tate Wilkinson, in 1765, and recently altered externally in the Elizabethan style, is extremely commodious. The Yorkshire Philosophical Society, founded in 1822, obtained, in 1826, a grant of 3 acres of land, part of the site of St. Mary's Abbey, from government, for a suitable building, botanic garden, &c. The Museum, built between 1827 and 1830, is an elegant edifice, with a front towards the Ouse, 300 ft. in length, and has a spacious hall, a library, a theatre for lectures, with large collections in geology, mineralogy, zoology, comparative anatomy, a chemical laboratory, &c. The affairs of the society are conducted by a council of 13 members, and officers elected once a year. Annual subscription of members 2*l.* (ladies, 1*l.*), with 5*l.* entrance. The York Subscription Library, with 17,000 vols., occupies a spacious suite of rooms in St. Leonard's Place: it is supported by about 400 members, who pay 10 guineas each an entrance, and 2*l.* a year afterwards. There are other subscription and circulating libraries, with 3 news-rooms, at which the London, Edinburgh, and many provincial newspapers are taken in. Four weekly newspapers are published in York.

Outside Monk-bar is the county hospital, founded in 1749 by Lady Hastings, with (in 1849) an income of about 1,400*l.* a year. The building has a front of 75 ft., by a depth of 90 ft., and encloses a court measuring 36 ft. by 35 ft. It is remarkably well kept, and capable of accommodating 100 patients. Without Bootham-bar is a lunatic asylum, built by subscription in 1777, 3 stories in height, having a front 133 ft. in length, with extensive grounds, &c.; and about 1 m. from the city is the Retreat, an establishment of a similar nature under the careful management of the society of Quakers. Here, also, is a dispensary, founded in 1788; an eye infirmary, established in 1831, and various medical and other charities for the benefit of the poor. The educational establish-

ments are on a very extensive scale, at least in so far as elementary and the more ordinary branches of instruction are concerned. A masters' school, in connection with the York Diocesan Society, occupies the extensive premises in Monkgate, formerly used as the Unitarian college. This last, the chief seminary of the Unitarians in England, was removed from Manchester to York in 1808, but has lately been again removed to Manchester. Here also are national schools, established in 1813, in which above 700 children of both sexes are educated; British schools for about 200 boys and 300 girls; the blue coat boys and grey coat girls' schools, established in 1706, having an income of about 1,500*l.* a year; Haughton's charity school, for the education of 20 poor children of the par. of St. Cruz; the spinning school, established by two ladies in 1783, where about 60 girls are instructed in reading, knitting, and sewing, and principally clothed; with Sunday schools, &c.

The cavalry barracks on the Fulford road, the manor-house at different times a royal palace and mint, and Bishopthorpe palace, the seat of the archbishop, about 3*m.* S.E. from the city, are the principal edifices which remain to be noticed. The grounds of the last are frequently resorted to in summer by the inhabs., whose principal public promenade in the city is the New Walk, a gravelled terrace planted with elms, &c., extending from the neighbourhood of the castle for nearly 1*m.* along the Ouse. Near the New Walk is a cold-bath; and hot, cold, and vapour-baths are established in Lendal for the accommodation of the public at large. Swimming baths have also been recently erected.

The city of York claims to be a corporation by prescription. Its earliest extant charter is one of Henry II., without date; but its governing charters before the Municipal Reform Act were of the 16th Charles II. and the 10th Geo. IV. By the latter, the corporation officers were the mayor, 12 aldermen, the 2 acting and the former sheriffs, the recorder, city counsel, town clerk, coroners, 72 common councilmen, &c., who sat, as in London, in two separate courts. All the corporate officers were freemen, the freedom of the city being acquired by birth or apprenticeship to a freeman within the city liberty, and by gift or purchase from the upper house, the price of purchase varying from 25*l.* to 150*l.* Under the Municipal Reform Act, the bor. is divided into six wards, and is governed by a mayor, recorder, 12 aldermen, and 36 councillors, 6 from each ward. The chief magistrate has the title of Lord Mayor conferred by Richard II., in 1389, which title he consequently enjoyed before the chief magistrate of the metropolis. York sent 2 members to the H. of Com. in the 49th of Hen. III., and has continued to do so regularly from the time of Edw. I., the right of election having been formerly vested in the corporation and freemen. The greatest number of voters within the 30 years previously to the Parl. Reform Act, was 3,715 polled in 1830. Reg. electors in 1849-50, 4,289. The election for the N. riding of the co. of York is held here. Courts of assize for the co. and the city are also held here twice a year, besides quarter sessions, a court of pleas, and petty sessions twice a week; and there were formerly several other courts, now obsolete. *Mun. Rep., Appendix III.* Corp. revenue, in 1847-8, 7,404*l.* The corp. of York had exclusive jurisdiction over the Ainsty, a large district comprising about 35 towns and villages, from the time of Hen. VI. till a late act annexed the Ainsty to the W. riding of the co.

Under the Romans York was, no doubt, the commercial emporium of the N. part of the island, and it appears to have been a city of some commercial importance in the time of Edw. III., who established a woollen manufacture in the city, which continued to flourish for a lengthened period. At present its trade is comparatively small for its size, and the largest amount of capital now employed in any one branch by the citizens is supposed to be in the drug trade. Considerable business has, however, been done lately in the iron trade, and there are several large foundries: printing, brewing, and comb making are also extensively carried on. The glass manufacture was established at York at a somewhat early period; and phials and flint glass wares are still made here. Linen cloth, sackings, twine, leather, gloves, jewellery, paper-hangings, pipes, waxes, instruments, brass wares, &c., are among the other goods made at York. Many guilds or trading companies formerly existed, but all of them except three appear to be dissolved. The Company of Merchant Adventurers of York is an ancient corporation by prescription, now consisting of about 120 members, under a governor, deputy governor, &c., having property yielding 300*l.* a year, with a chapel and hall, and a hospital, in Fosgate. The Merchant-Tailors' Company, incorporated by charter 14 Chas. II., consists of from 30 to 35 members, with exclusive privileges in the city, and an income of 136*l.* a year. The other company is the Goldsmiths', authorised by act of parliament. The Ouse trustees have lately spent large

sums on the improvement of the river navigation; and steamers now ply to and from Hull at all times of the tide. Coals are brought to the town by water and by railway. A decided increase of trade has been experienced since the completion of the Railways, by which York communicates with Newcastle, Durham, Carlisle, &c. northward, and with Leeds, Hull, the Liverpool line, and other parts to the S. The York station of these railways is an elegant building, immediately within the walls near Micklegate. Large sales of cattle and horses take place at fairs held here once a fortnight, besides which there are monthly fairs for leather; many others in the year for flax, wool, &c. Markets, Tuesd. and Sat., the latter chiefly for corn. A new cattle-market was opened in 1828 outside Fishergate. Races, which are extremely well attended, are held three times a year on Knavesmire, a large plain about 1*m.* S. from the city, where is a spacious grand stand. Four joint-stock banking companies and two private banks are established in the city.

The society of York is superior to that of most provincial towns. From its being the capital of the most extensive co. in the kingdom, it is the residence of a great number of gentlemen connected with the law and the administration of public affairs. It is necessarily, also, the residence of a number of gentlemen connected with its cathedral and different ecclesiastical establishments. And in addition to its fixed inhabs., it is the winter residence of many of the provincial gentry attracted hither by its superior society, amusements, facilities for education, &c.

Antiquities and History.—York, though successively the residence of Hadrian, Severus, Geta, and Caracalla, Constantius Chlorus, Constantine the Great, &c., has few striking Roman antiquities. Such as do exist comprise a remarkable multangular tower, a long wall, with altars, *pæteræ*, tombs, monuments, and the foundations of ancient buildings. The *palæstræ* of the Roman emperors is supposed by Drake to have occupied several acres near the cathedral, extending from Christ Church through all the space between Goodgate and St. Andrewgate to Aldwark. Not far from this, in St. Cuthbert's cemetery, many Roman sepulchral remains have been found. Outside Micklegate-bar, a Roman vault, with a perfect skeleton, was opened in 1807; and a tessellated pavement was discovered within the same bar in 1814. Severus died at York A.D. 212; and his funeral obsequies would appear to have been performed on some heights a little W. of the city, still called Severus' hills. Constantius, who died in 307, is traditionally said to have been buried in the par. church of St. Helen's. Under the Saxons York was successively the cap. of the kingdoms of Northumberland and Deira. It was taken, and its neighbourhood devastated by William the Conqueror in 1069. Several parliaments have been held in York, the first being that summoned by Henry II. in 1160. In 1540, Henry VIII. established in this city an officer called the Lord President of the North, and a council with very extensive powers, which existed till the civil wars, when York was frequently a principal station and residence of Charles I.; he, however, surrendered to the parliament in 1644. (*Boissac, Music, and other Parl. Reps.; Bellerby's Guide to York; Rickman's Archæol. in England; Private Information, &c.*)

YORK, a town of the U. States. Pennsylvania, cap. co. York, on a creek flowing into Chesapeake Bay, and on the railroad between Harrisburgh and Baltimore, 40*m.* N. by W. the latter. Pop. in 1840, 4,779. It is an agreeable and flourishing town, in a rich agricultural district. It is constructed mostly of brick, and has some good buildings, including numerous churches, an episcopal academy, court, market, and alms-houses, &c. Its trade is chiefly in agricultural produce.

YOUGHALL, a port, bor., and sea-port town of Ireland, prov. Munster, co. Cork, on the W. side of the estuary of the Blackwater, immediately within its mouth, 27*m.* E. by N. Cork. Area of modern parl. bor., 504 acres. Pop. in 1841, 9,939. It is built close to the water's edge, along the foot of a pretty steep hill, and consists principally of a main street, extending for about 1*m.* parallel to the strand, and of various other smaller streets and lanes. It was formerly surrounded by walls; and these, in part, remain, and form, on the summit of the hill to the W., the rocky story of the town. Of 1,200 houses comprised within the parl. bor. in 1831, 1,000 were slated, and 200 thatched; the greater proportion of the latter are in the suburbs, which are "large and bad," extending in every direction up the hill. The principal public building is the parish church, a large Gothic edifice: in its immediate vicinity are the ruins of an old abbey, one of the wind-dows of which "is extremely beautiful, and quite entire. The churchyard, too, is one of the largest and finest in point of situation, I have ever seen. It is interspersed with lime and other trees; and, like every thing else about Youghall, has many remnants of antiquity, old tombs, old lived moss-grown stones,

and luxuriant weeds." (*Ingalls*, l. 178.) It has, also, a chapel of ease, several Roman Catholic chapels, and meeting-houses for various classes of dissenters, an infirmary, a dispensary, a barrack for infantry, numerous public schools, a convent, the college, now in a neglected state, the property of the Duke of Devonshire, a court-house, custom-house, fever and lying-in hospitals, &c. The house occupied by Sir Walter Raleigh is still preserved in good repair, and with but little change.

Youghall sent 2 mems. to the Irish H. of C.; and it has sent 1 mem. to the Imperial H. of C. from the era of the Union downwards. Registered electors for 1849-50, 408. Under the Irish Municipal Reform Act, 3 & 4 Victoria, cap. 108., the corporation is extinct, and the corporate property has been vested in commissioners.

The manufactures of the town are inconsiderable, consisting only of 2 small potteries and brick-works. It is too near Cork to have much foreign trade; but owing to its situation on a fine navigable river, it is the emporium of a considerable tract of country. The great articles of export consist of grain and meal, provisions, cattle, and pigs, their aggregate value having amounted, in 1836, to 215,316*l*. The principal articles of import are timber and coal. The bar at the river's mouth has only 1 foot water at ebb tide, and it is inaccessible for vessels drawing more than 12 or 13 feet water, except at high springs. Youghall is included in the port of Cork, but its shipping is inconsiderable. Postage, in 1842, 51*l*.; ditto, in 1849, 63*l*.. Branches of the Bank of Ireland and the Provincial bank are established in the town. The beach is fine, and the town is well fitted for sea-bathing; though, in this respect, but little advantage has been taken of its capabilities.

It is believed, apparently on good grounds, that the introduction of the potato cultivation into Ireland dates from 1610, when Sir Walter Raleigh sent a few to be planted on his estate in the vicinity of this town! But such has been the progress of this exotic, that it now furnishes, and has for a lengthened period furnished more than three fourths of the food of the people of Ireland; and its astonishing increase has been at once a cause and a consequence of the equally astonishing increase of population in the island. (See *Boundary Report*; *Railway Report*; *Commercial Dict.*, art. *Potatoes*, &c.)

YPRES (Flem. *Ypres*), a fortified town of Belgium, prov. W. Flanders, cap. arrond. and two cant., on the Yperlee, 29 m. S.W. Bruges, and 16 m. N.N.E. Lille; lat. 50° 51' 10" N., long. 2° 53' 4" E. In the 14th century it is said to have been nearly equal in pop. and importance to Bruges; whereas in 1836 it had only 15,064 inhabs. (*Henschling*.) It is well built, and, like most towns in Flanders, it has extensive water communications, being connected by canals with Nieuport, Bruges, &c.

The court-house and cloth-hall occupy a vast Gothic building of the 14th century, surmounted by a fine tower. The cathedral, a Gothic edifice, has a painting attributed to Van Eyck; the tomb of Jansen, bishop of Ypres, and founder of the sect of Jansenists in the 17th century, &c. There are several other churches and chapels, 4 hospitals, an exchange, a royal college, &c. Ypres was formerly famous for its manufactures of woollen and linen cloths, and the fabric called *draper* (originally *d'Ypres*) derives its name from having been originally made in this town. Linen yarn and lace are now the principal articles manufactured; but there are still some woollen and linen cloth factories at Ypres, with tanneries, bleaching and dyeing-houses, one or more salt-refineries, &c. Ypres experienced many reverses in the wars of the 17th and 18th centuries. Under the French it was the cap. dep. *Lys*. (*Fundermaelen*, *Dict. de Fland. Occident.*; *De Cloet*, &c.)

YRIEX (ST.), a town of France, dép. Haute-Vienne, cap. arrond., on the Loue, a tributary of the Isle, 31 m. S.S.W. Limoges. Pop., in 1846, incl. comm., 7,470. It owes its origin to a monastery founded here in the 6th century; and is old and ill built. It has a collegiate church, a curious Gothic edifice of the 12th century, 4 other par. churches, an hospital, a court of primary jurisdiction, a society of agriculture, &c., with manufactures of woollen stuffs, linen yarn, and porcelain, and 12 annual fairs. Here are some iron works, and works for the preparation of antimony: all the porcelain clay used in the china-manufactory of Sèvres comes from St. Yriex. (*Hugo*; *Guide du Voyageur*, &c.)

YSENGAIX, a town of France, dép. Haute-Loire, cap. arrond., on a rocky and elevated site, 14 m. N.E. Le Puy. Pop. incl. comm., 7,560. Though irregularly built, and *assez triste*, it has a good modern church, and is improving. It has no manufactures worthy of notice, its inhabs. being principally engaged in agriculture and cattle-dealing. (*Hugo*, &c.)

YUCATAN, the most E. state of the Mexican Con-

ZAANDAM.

federation, consisting of a peninsula, projecting northwards, between the Caribbean Sea on the E., and the Gulph of Mexico on the W., and between the 18th and 21st degs. of N. lat., and the 87th and 91st of W. long., having S. the states of Tabasco, Chiapas, Vera Paz, and the British territ. of Honduras; length, N. and S., about 250 m.; average breadth, 300 m. Area about 50,000 sq. m. The pop. has been estimated at about 500,000. The most striking accounts of the productiveness of this region have been frequently put forth in geographical works. But, according to Mr. Ward, "Yucatan is one of the poorest states in the Federation. On parts of it, maize, cotton, rice, tobacco, pepper, and the sugar-cane, are produced; with dye-woods, hides, soap, &c. But the scarcity of water in the central parts of the peninsula, where not a stream of any kind is known to exist, and the uncertainty of the rainy season, render the crops very variable; and years frequently occur in which the poorer classes are driven to seek a subsistence by collecting roots in the woods, when a great mortality ensues, in consequence of their exposure to a very deleterious climate. Yucatan has no mines. An active intercourse was formerly carried on with the Havannah, which Yucatan supplied with Campechy wood, salt, hides, deer skins, salted meat, and the *jacuques*, a plant from which a sort of coarse thread was made, and wrought up into sacking, cordage, and hammocks. This trade was cut short by the war; and as few foreigners have been induced to settle in Yucatan, the inhabs. have derived but little advantage from the late change of institutions. The receipts of the state in 1836 amounted to 213,127 doll., the expenditure was 207,199 do.; so that a small surplus revenue remained." (*Ward's Mexico*, II. 399, 391.)

This state is divided into 15 depes.; its chief towns are Merida, the cap., Valladolid, Bacalar, Campechy, and Vittoria; but none is of much importance. In 1825, it separated itself for a time from Mexico; and we incline to think that at present (1842) it is but little, if in any degree, dependent on the central government.

YVERDUN (Germ. *Yveron*, *anc. Ebrodunum*): a town of Switzerland, cant. Vaud, cap. distr., on the Thiele, at its mouth in the S. extremity of the lake of Neuchâtel, 17 m. N. by W. Lausanne. Pop. between 3,000 and 4,000. It is well-built, consisting of three principal streets, with a handsome square, a new church, and town-hall, several bridges across the Thiele, &c. Its principal edifice is a castle, built in the 12th century, and which, from 1805 to 1825, served for Pestalozzi's central school, conducted by himself. Yverdun has a college, a public library, with a museum of antiquities, and a tolerable harbour on the Thiele. Its trade is brisk, it being the great depôt for the wine of the cant. exported northward. (*Ebel*; *Dict. Geog.*, &c.)

YVETOT, a town of France, dep. Seine-Inférieure, cap. arrond., on the road between Havre and Rouen, 20 m. N.W. the latter. Pop., in 1846, incl. comm., 8,963. It is situated on a bare and arid hill, destitute of any running water, the inhabs. being supplied from wells. It consists chiefly of one long street; but this has few good houses, and the rest of the town is very meanly built. It has, however, a planted promenade; and the surrounding country is fertile and populous. Yvetot is the seat of courts of primary jurisdiction and commerce, a chamber of manufactures, &c., and has manufactures of linen and cotton cloths, cotton velvet, handkerchiefs, hosiery, cutlery, and hardware. It has also a considerable trade in corn and sheep. Towards the end of the 13th century, the Spanish, Italian, and other merchants used to proceed from Harfleur to Yvetot, where they conducted their chief mercantile transactions with the French; and, perhaps in the view of encouraging commerce, the shief of Yvetot was declared, to 1370, free of all feudal service to the French crown. Its lords soon afterwards coined their own money, and assumed the title of *king*. The exploits of one of these petty monarchs form the subject of one of Beranger's national songs. (*Hugo*, art. *Seine Inférieure*; *Dict. Geog.*, &c.)

YUTHIA, the an. cap. of the kingdom of Siam, on the Menam, 40 m. N. Bangkok: it appears to have been formerly a place of much magnificence, but it has now fallen into decay.

Z.

ZAANDAM, improperly SAARDAM, a town of N. Holland, on the Zaan, a tributary of the Y, by which it is divided into E. and W. Zaandam, 44 m. N.W. Amsterdam. Pop. about 11,000. Mr. McGregor says, "We have only visited one place (Broek), so trim, quiet, and minutely clean. The streets are paved with clinkers, and daily washed; the houses are built of wood and painted white and green, and their principal door, that of ceremony, is only opened at baptisms, marriages, and funerals."

The dockyard, in which 300 vessels were built and repaired annually, have disappeared; its herring and whale fisheries have also vanished; but its vast number of windmills employed in sawing timber, &c., appear, with their dependent operations, to give full occupation to the inhabs." (*Note Book*, i. 197, 198.)

At one period, Zasuand ranked among the greatest naval arsenals in Europe; but the principal celebrity of the arsenal, and, indeed, of the town, is derived from the circumstance of Peter the Great having wrought in it as an ordinary ship carpenter during his visit to Holland in 1697. The hut which he occupied is still kept up, and has been visited by numerous distinguished personages, including Napoleon, Alexander, Emperor of Russia, &c. (*De Cloet; Voyage, Hist. de Russie*, partie I. cap. 9.)

ZACATECAS, a city of Mexico, cap. of the state of its own name; in a narrow valley, 290 m. N.W. Mexico. Ward estimates its pop. at 22,000, and that of its suburb, Veta Grande, at 6,000. (*Mexico*, ii. 342.) At a distance, its numerous churches and convents give it a fine appearance, and it has many excellent houses; but its streets are narrow and filthy. Its markets appear to be abundantly supplied with fish, fruits, vegetables, &c. Gunpowder and some cotton fabrics are manufactured here; and Zacatecas is next to Guanajuato, the principal mining city, and one of the chief mints in Mexico. In the latter establishment, some years ago, 300 people were constantly employed. The machinery, of brass, and made in the town, was ponderous, and a great deal of labour was wasted; still, however, the coinage from Jan. 1821 to June 1826 amounted to upwards of 17,570,000 dollars.

The state of Zacatecas, with an area of about 30,000 sq. m., and a pop. of 280,000, is one of the richest mining provinces in America. "As a mining district, it differs materially from Guanajuato, for in lieu of one great mother vein, it has 3 lodes nearly equal in importance, with many inferior lodes; upon all which nearly 3,000 pits or shafts have been opened." (*Ward's Mexico*, ii. 333.) N. and E. of Zacatecas, the country is divided into vast breeding estates, and is very thinly peopled. The state has no manufactures, except those of the cap. and a few in Aguas Calientes, the pop. living by mining and rural industry. After the cap. the principal towns are Somburelli, Fresnillo, Jerez, Pinos, &c., which, according to Mr. Ward, have a pop. of from 14,000 to 18,000 each.

ZAFRA (an. *Segeda*), a town of Spain, in Extremadura, prov. Badajoz, 40 m. S.E. Badajoz, on the road between it and Seville. Pop. 7,500. (*Mitkano*.) It is regularly built, and has 2 squares surrounded with arcades, and many houses of a superior class. Among the latter is the magnificent residence of the Dukes of Medina Cell. (See *Mitkano*, s. 58.) The collegiate church is also a fine edifice, and several other churches are richly adorned. This town had formerly manufactures of gloves and jewellery; but these have decayed, and earthenware and leather are now the principal articles made at Zafra. It was taken from the Moors by Ferdinand III. in 1240. (*Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

ZAMORA, a city of Spain, in Leon, cap. prov. of its own name, near the confines of Portugal on the Douro, here crossed, according to Twiss, by an ancient and clumsy stone bridge, with 16 unequal arches; 34 m. N.N.W. Salamanca. Pop., about 10,000. (*Mitkano*.) Its fortifications are of considerable extent, and some years ago enclosed upwards of 20 churches, 16 convents, 3 hospitals, infantry and cavalry barracks, a court-house, public granary, bishop's palace, &c. The cathedral was much admired by Townsend (ii. 71), for its variety of marbles and the beauty of its hangings. Without the walls are the remains of an ancient castle. The inhabitants manufacture hats, serges, leather, liqueurs, and gunpowder, and have several dyeing-houses. The city, which is supposed to have been the ancient *Sevicia*, derives its modern name from the turquoises found in its vicinity, for which *Zamora* is the Moorish term. Alphonso, the Catholic, took it from the Moors in 748, but it was retaken by the latter in 985. Ferdinand the Great finally annexed it to Castile in 1093, and it was the seat of the Cortes in 1297 and 1302. (*Mitkano*; *Townsend*; *Twiss*; *Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

ZANESVILLE, a town of the U. States, in Ohio, cap. co. Muskingum, on the Muskingum river, 48 m. E. Columbus. Pop. in 1840, 4,766. The falls in the river here have made Zanesville the seat of many flour, paper, and saw-mills, some iron-foundries, cotton-factories, &c. It has an atheneum, and several other schools. Two bridges connect the town with the village of Putnam opposite; and it has water communication with both New York and New Orleans; from either of which steam-boats ascend to Zanesville. (*Encyc. of Geog.*, Amer. edit., &c.)

ZANTE (an. *Zacynthus*), one of the Ionian Islands, (which see), of which it is the third in point of magnitude and importance, about 10 m. off the W. coast of the Morea, its cap. being in lat. 37° 47' 17" N.,

long. 20° 54' 33" E. It is of a somewhat oblong shape; greatest length N.W. to S.E. about 20 m.; greatest breadth 10 m. Area estimated at 156 sq. m. Pop., in 1836, 35,348. It is mostly mountainous, particularly its W. portion, where several summits rise to the height of 1,300 ft.; but on the E. side, behind the town of Zante, is an extensive and fertile vale, so covered with currant bushes (*Vitis Coriathica*), olive trees, cypresses, &c., as to entitle the island now, as of old, to the epithet of "woody."

Jeun media apparuit fluenta mœnibus Zacynthis.

Æneid, iii. 270.

"About 9,000,000 lb. currants are annually produced in this fertile vale. They are accounted better than those of Cephalonia, but inferior to those of the Morea. They are gathered in Aug., and spread out to dry for three weeks; and for this purpose a plot of ground is levelled and kept dry before every house in the valley. Much depends upon the process of drying: a shower of rain will sometimes diminish the value of the article by one third, and a second entirely ruin the crop." (*Burgess's Greece*, &c., i. 130.) The learned traveller, Dr. Chandler, has given the following details with respect to the treatment of currants, which, perhaps, may be worth quoting:—"When dried by the sun and air, they are transported to the city on horses and mules, guarded by armed peasants; and poured down a hole into magazines, where they cake together. When about to be shipped, the fruit is dug up with iron crows, and stamped into casks by men with bare legs and feet. In the ships it sweats, and, as we experienced, often fills the vessel with a stench scarcely tolerable. The islanders believe it is purchased to be used in dyeing, and in general are ignorant of the many dishes of which currants are an ingredient." (*Travels in Greece*, cap. 79.) The honey, oil, and wine of the island are much esteemed; of the latter no fewer than 40 different sorts are said to be made. Oranges, lemons, and citrons are also exported, and about 40,000 barrels of salt are annually produced from the salt works of the island. The pitch wells, visited and described by Herodotus (iv. 156), are situated towards the S. extremity of the island, in a small plain, open on one side to the sea, but elsewhere circumscribed by hill ranges. It is, partly at least, of volcanic formation, and occasionally suffers from earthquakes, one of which, in 1840 (Oct. 30), committed the most extensive ravages. In the wells, a dark substance is continually forcing itself from the bottom through the water, boiling up in large globules, which burst when they come to the surface. The pitch is collected with large spoon-like implements: the average annual produce is about 100 barrels, used for smearing ships' bottoms, &c.

The town of Zante, on the E. shore of the island, is the largest in the Ionian Islands, having about 20,000 inhabs. (*Burgess*.) It stands partly on the level shore, and partly on some acclivities, one of which is crowned by its citadel, anciently called *Psopis*, founded by the Arcadian Zacynthus. The town, which is well kept and clean, is supplied with water by an aqueduct constructed by the British. The reflection of the sun renders it extremely hot in summer, though the heat be a good deal moderated by the action of the sea-breezes, which blow during the day. The harbour is capacious, and protected from N.E. winds by a mole, at the extremity of which a lighthouse is erected. Ships anchor opposite the town, at from 500 to 1,000 yards distance, in from 12 to 15 fathoms water. Zante is the see of a Greek protopapas, and of a Rom. Cath. bishop, and has numerous churches, two synagogues, a lazaretto, a lyceum, &c.; with some manufactures of linen, cotton, and woollen stuffs, liqueurs, soap, jewellery, &c. This town suffered severely from the earthquake already alluded to.

At the time of the Peloponnesian war, Zacynthus belonged to Athens: it was at an after period alternately a possession of the Macedonians and the Romans. Several curious antiquities have been discovered in the island, and it has been supposed that the remains of Cleero were deposited in a tomb discovered here in 1544. (See *Hughes's Travels*, i. 155, 156, &c.; *Burgess*; *Chandler's Greece*; *Gramer's Ancient Greece*; *Commerc. Dict.*, &c.)

ZARA (an. *Jadera*), the cap. of Dalmatia, circ. of same name on the Adriatic, opposite the island Ugliano, 150 m. S.E. Venice. Lat. 45° 9' 25" N., lon. 15° 9' 35" E. Pop. about 6,500; principally of Italian descent. It stands on a small peninsula, and is fortified with bastioned walls and several outworks. It has many good private dwellings, but its streets are narrow and ill-drained, and it suffers from a deficiency of water. It has a cathedral and several other churches, 10 convents, a naval and military arsenal, and a theatre; with a lyceum, gymnasium, episcopal seminary, many inferior schools, a museum of antiquities, &c. Its harbour is spacious, but exposed to N. winds, which sometimes blow with tre-

mendous violence. The coasting trade and fisheries employ most part of the inhabs., and a great number of vessels are owned in the port. The manufacture of *rosoglio* is almost the only other branch of industry carried on, and that at present to a very limited extent. (*Océanogr. Nat. Encyc.*) Zara is an archbishop's see, the residence of a general commandant, and the seat of all the superior provincial courts of Dalmatia. Without its walls are the remains of an ancient aqueduct; but, with this exception, few other Roman antiquities exist in Zara, in consequence of their having been mostly employed in the building of the fortifications. (*Fortis's Dalmatia*, 115.; *Berghaus*, &c.)

ZEALAND, the largest and most important of the Danish islands, being that on which Copenhagen is situated. It lies mostly between the 56th and 56th degs. of N. lat., and long. 11° and 12° 40' E., at the entrance of the Baltic, being separated from Sweden by the Sound, and from Funen and Langeland by the Great Belt. Its area may be estimated at 2,830 sq. m.; pop., in 1845, including that of the small and thinly peopled islands of Moen and Samsoe, 488,890. Like the rest of the Danish islands, it is flat, or at most gently undulating, and is in parts intersected by canals. The climate is mild, and similar to that of the S. of Scotland. It is well cultivated, and is exceedingly fertile, producing grain of all sorts, especially rye, barley, oats, and wheat. The pastures are excellent, and the island is celebrated for its breed of horses. It is, also, well stocked with cattle and sheep. Wood is plentiful, except in the middle of the island, where turf is used for fuel. It is studded with cottages, farms, and country-houses; bearing a greater resemblance to England than is exhibited by most continental districts. It is also the principal seat of the manufactures and trade of Denmark. It is subdivided into 5 bailiwicks, and is governed by a grand-bailiff: it forms, of itself, a separate ecclesiastical superintendency. (*See DENMARK*, in this work; *Ingliis*; *Bremner*, &c.)

ZEALAND (NEW), a group of three principal and some smaller islands in the S. Pacific Ocean, belonging to the Australian continent, and now forming a dependency of the British crown. The group extends in a curved line, between 35° and 47° S. lat., and 166° and 179° E. long., about 19° E. of Australia and Van Diemen's Land, being the land nearest to the antipodes of Great Britain. The principal islands are, from their position, called the North, the Middle, and the South. The first two, which are by far the largest, are separated by the narrow channel called Cook's Strait, in about the 41st deg. of S. lat.; the southern being separated from the middle island by a similar strait, in about the 47th deg. S. lat. The length of the curved line extending through the 3 islands, from the N. to the S. Cape, is about 900 m., the two largest being of great length as compared with their breadth. They have been estimated to have in all an area of about 100,000 sq. m., or 64,000,000 acres, of which the N. island is supposed to have about 27,000,000, the M. 35,000,000, and the S. only 1,500,000; but it is probable that this estimate is beyond the mark.

New Zealand, like the majority of the S. Sea Islands, is of volcanic origin. A chain of lofty mountains occupies the centre of the Middle island through its whole length, extending also through more than half the length of the N. island. The mountains on both sides slope gradually towards the sea, leaving on both sides a large extent of shelving forest, plain, and marsh lands. Here and there along the line of the Cordillera several high summits, overtopping the rest, rise into the region of perpetual snow. There are likewise several subordinate ranges of hills, and some detached outlying mountains of large dimensions. A few of the mountains are barren, or clothed with fern; but by far the greater number are covered, up to the range of perpetual snow, by magnificent timber trees. There are some pretty extensive plateaus, or tracts of table land. The

country is extremely well watered: a great number of streams, affording an unlimited command of water power, descend from the central chain on both sides. Few of the larger rivers have been surveyed to any great distance, but the Waikato and others are of considerable size and length. There are numerous lakes. The shores are in parts iron-bound and dangerous; but all the islands, and more particularly the Northern, have many excellent bays and harbours.

Our knowledge of the geology and mineralogy of New Zealand is very imperfect. Coal has, however, been found and wrought to some extent at Nelson, New Plymouth, and at other points in both the larger islands. Iron ore is abundant, which also is affirmed to be the case with copper, manganese, and other metals; and pumice stone, sulphur, whinstone, limestone, slate, marble, &c., with fullers' earth, clay for brick-burning, &c., are met with in the greatest profusion. There are some active volcanoes; and in the N. island are various cavities, which appear to be extinct craters, in the vicinity of which numerous hot springs are met with; some of these, as they rise to the boiling point, are used by the natives for cooking. Mount Egmont, an extinct volcano, in the S. W. portion of the Northern island, near the N. entrance to Cook's Strait, is said to be 8,840 feet in height.

The climate is temperate, bearing a considerable analogy to that of France and the S. of England. The country is free from the oppressive heats that prevail at mid-day in Sidney; and what is of greater importance, it is not subject to the long-continued droughts that afflict the Australian continent. But it is subject to severe storms and hurricanes. Strong winds, principally from the N. E. or S. W., always occur at changes of the moon, frequently bringing rain, particularly in the winter months. In the interior the weather is colder, but more equable than on the coast. The climate appears to be generally salubrious, and favourable to longevity; the prevalent diseases are mostly those which have been introduced by Europeans, though in some situations the natives suffer from scrofulous and glandular affections. (*Part. Rep. on New Zealand*.)

The following comparison has been made between the climate of London and that of Wellington, nearly in the centre of the group:—

	Mean Annual Temperature.	Mean of Winter.	Mean of Coldest Month.	Mean of Hottest Month.	Average No. of Days on which Rain falls.	Mean Annual Quantity of Rain in Inches.
London	50.39	39.12	37.36	63.43	178.	24.90
Wellington	52.50	48.85	44.05	64.35	128.	25.75

In 1847, at Wellington 222 days were fine, 20 cloudy, 76 stormy, and 47 rainy; in the same year there were 77 days on which frosts, and 17 on which frosts were experienced. Shocks of earthquakes are by no means rare; but none have occurred since the settlement of the islands productive of any injurious consequences.

The country presents the aspect of perpetual vegetation, most of its indigenous vegetable products being evergreens; and the soil, which, in most of the valleys hitherto explored, is a deep loam, or vegetable mould of great fertility, is well adapted to the growth of nearly all the useful vegetables of Europe. But the exaggerated statements circulated in England of the colony, its products, soil, and climate, have, as Mr. Terry says, led to the very erroneous opinion that it is a country in which the necessities of life, especially food, must be abundant and extremely cheap. New Zealand, however, has neither a tropical climate, nor is it a land in which edible vegetables and fruits, indigenous to such regions, grow and flourish spontaneously and abundantly; and it has no native animals adapted for the food of man, and easily obtained by the chase. The islands are, at present, in great measure, uncultivated wastes, consisting of mountains covered with dense forests, of plains and undulating grounds, sometimes heavily timbered, and sometimes overrun with fern and scrub, and of swamps and marshes, covered with rushes and flax; but it has comparatively few open spaces of grass-land for tillage or pasturage, or of downs and hills for sheep. In many vast tracts there are no living animals, wild or food of the pop., and whatever is produced for the domestic use, is of stock from pasture, or of fish from the sea, must be the result of considerable labour, care, and expense.

When once cleared, the soil is generally of a superior description, and suitable to all sorts of husbandry practised in Britain. The dry, alluvial, and heavily timbered

tracts are the most fertile; and the swampy tracts, especially, if they be covered with fern, are also, when drained extremely productive. The dry upland grounds, if they be well covered with luxuriant fern and scrub, are said to be, in most localities, of a fair average fertility; but where the fern is short and stunted, the soil is decidedly inferior. Where the sides of the mountains are well wooded, the soil is generally good; but, except where the slopes are formed into terraces, it is apt to be washed down on the trees being felled and their roots rotted. The soil of the purely volcanic districts depends on the extent to which the surface matter is decomposed; in some parts it is very fertile.

Grain of all kinds, fruits, and vegetables, grow luxuriantly. Potatoes, originally introduced by Captain Cook, now form the principal food of the natives. Two crops are annually obtained from the same ground. "To an English farmer, about to emigrate to N. Zealand, it will be praise sufficient to say that turnips—the mainstay of British husbandry—grow with a vigour unsurpassed anywhere; and that beans, peas, and other leguminous plants are equally successful, arriving here with all the luxuriance of the old country. His old familiar crops will be the crops of his new country; his husbandry maxims will scarcely require any variations, except in the transposal of his seed-time and harvest; and the gooseberries and currants of his garden, the apples and cherries of his orchard, and the hum of his bees, will all serve to remind him of his native country." (*Emigrant's Guide to New Zealand.*)

The expense of clearing the land constitutes, however, a very serious statement from this rather flattering picture. This expense varies of course according to the difficulties to be overcome. It has been estimated at from 10*l.* to 15*l.* per acre for the timbered land; at from 5*l.* to 10*l.* per acre for that which is covered with brush and scrub; and at from 1*l.* 10*s.* to 4*l.* for that which is covered with fern, the roots of the latter being strong and difficult to remove. In some situations the cost of clearing the land is greater, and in some, less than the above; but, on the whole, it may be regarded as a fair average. This heavy outlay required to make the land available, is the great discouragement to settlers in N. Zealand; and it also is the cause of the cleared land bringing a pretty high rent. Though the heavier timbered land is almost uniformly richer and finer than that covered with brush, scrub, and fern; yet, owing to the cost of its clearance being so much greater, it is doubtful whether it be not more advantageous for a settler, unless, indeed, he have a very considerable capital, to commence, in preference, clearing the inferior land. A large proportion of the fern roots are usually left to rot in the ground.

The following table, showing the extent of land under different crops, with the stock, &c., in the principal settlements in the southern prov., during each of the five years ending with 1847, has been compiled by Mr. Grimstone, the Colonial Secretary:—

District.	Years.	Number of Acres under Crop.							Live Stock.				Agricultural Population.
		Wheat.	Oats.	Barley.	Maize.	Potatoes.	Other Produce.	Total.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.	
Wellington.	1843	450	-	-	-	-	-	450	136	1,564	5,425	158	439
	1844	568	78	98	-	157	356	1,099	190	1,950	8,030	450	649
	1845	592	80	67	-	143	469	1,351	260	2,399	12,002	865	921
	1846	495	115	96	-	218	191	1,117	265	3,493	19,461	-	501
	1847	540	159	91	-	153	894	1,677	602	5,611	26,552	911	474
Nelson.	1843	987	25	136	-	97	943	76	918	718	4,782	223	868
	1844	892	808	468	-	332	379	2,259	92	1,233	7,475	453	479
	1845	1,371	162	911	-	241	298	3,274	199	1,591	10,922	1,079	856
	1846	1,551	156	1,098	1	321	469	3,456	132	2,101	16,740	2,180	800
	1847	60	7	18	-	6	-	83	7	808	129	-	86
Pete.	1845	61	5	19	-	12	-	87	10	316	174	153	80
	1846	48	2	12	-	10	-	78	16	414	456	298	68
New Plymouth.	1846	859	74	152	1	155	61	1,240	22	363	511	96	300

It is to be regretted that no similar information is to be had with respect to the settlements in the N. prov. Probably, however, they do not differ very materially from those in the S. prov. Their trade, as will be seen below, is nearly the same.

Timber, of which the supply is all but inexhaustible, has already become, and no doubt, will continue to be, an important article of export to Sydney and other places. The trees, which are principally of the pine species, sometimes attain to an extraordinary size. A tree, of the variety called *kauri* pine, cut and shipped in 1841, measured 150 ft. in length, and 25 ft. in circ. at the base. A species of gum exudes copiously from the stumps of these trees when cut down. It hardens in the air, and being collected by the natives is exported as an article of merchandise. This tree is only found in perfection in the N. parts of the N. island, and Dr. Dieffenbach states that the ground on which it grows is quite unsuitable for cultivation. The *kahikatea*, or white gum, and other varieties, are found in the greatest perfection in the middle and southern islands. There are a great many woods suitable for furniture and fancy work. Some of these are finely grained, and may probably bear the cost of a voyage to England.

Flax is one of the principal products of the colony. It is obtained from the leaves and not from the stem of the *Phormium tenax*, an indigenous plant, found in the greatest abundance in the marshes of the larger islands. The best varieties are distinguished by the length, toughness, and flexibility of the fibre. Much difference of opinion has, however, prevailed in regard to its quality, and the imports into England have not sold well; but this has been ascribed, partly to an inferior variety having been exported, and partly to its defective preparation, which was, at first, wholly intrusted to the native women. The *tihore*, or silky variety, is said to be very superior; and its preparation and manufacture are beginning to engross a larger share of the attention of the colonists. Hence the exports from the S. prov., which only amounted to 5 tons in 1842, had increased to 100 tons in 1846, and considerable quantities are, also, exported in the shape of ropes and cordage.

Except a few cattle and sheep in the possession of the missionaries, and a small number of goats, no kind of live stock existed in New Zealand, down to a very late epoch, except pigs. These, which were introduced by Captain Cook, have, from the great abundance of fern roots, their favourite food, multiplied exceedingly. They have been allowed to run wild by the natives, who

catch them by means of dogs. It is remarkable that when New Zealand was first discovered, it had no *indigenous mammalia whatever*; indeed its only quadrupeds were a few species of lizards, which the natives held in veneration or terror. Horses, cattle, sheep, and other useful animals, have all been imported; even the dog and the rat have been introduced by Europeans; and the latter is at present, or was very recently, the principal species of *game*! A good many parrots, paroquets, wild ducks, pigeons of large size and fine flavour, &c., inhabit the forests; and poultry are found to thrive very well, though not yet reared to any great extent. Indeed, if we except their prisoners of war, almost the only animal food used by the New Zealanders, previously to the settlement of the English, was the fish, which abounded round the coasts.

It is seen by the preceding table that the soil and climate are well suited to the growth of cattle, sheep, and other useful animals. The wool of New Zealand is of a very good quality; and the exports of it are progressively increasing; though the want of down lands and of open spaces for their pasture makes the increase of sheep less rapid than in Australia. As might have been anticipated, the weight of the fleece is greater here than in N. S. Wales and the contiguous settlements. The depasturing by sheep is said to improve the quality of the *run*; the fern disappearing, and the fine grass springing up in its stead. Cattle and sheep are bred, and thrive extremely well. The seas and bays round N. Zealand are stocked with a great variety of excellent fish; and the country is extremely well situated for the successful prosecution of the S. whale-fishery. Indeed this branch of industry is already carried on to a considerable extent; and whale-oil and whale-bone make prominent articles in the list of exports. The colony appears to possess every facility for the building of ships.

The natives, who are called *Māorians*, probably belong to the Malay family, and, if so, are by far its best specimens. In general, the men are tall; many individuals of the upper classes reaching the height of 6 ft. and upwards. They are strong, active, and almost uniformly well-shaped. Generally speaking, the forehead is retreating and narrow, though rather wide at the base. Hair commonly straight, but sometimes curly, particularly that of the women, who are frequently handsome. Colour resembles that of a European gypsy; but varies in individuals from a dark chestnut to the light tinge of an English brunette. Eyes dark, deeply sunk,

and full of vivacity; the teeth, which are white, even, and regular, last to old age; the features, though prominent, are regular; their physiognomy bears no sign of ferocity, but is easy, open, and pleasing. They make excellent seamen, in which capacity they are extensively known. If we except occasional cannibalism and infanticide (both of which have greatly decreased of late years), they manifest fewer of the vices of savages than almost any other savage people. Their manufactures when first discovered, were but few, and mostly confined to the furniture of their huts, articles of dress, weapons, and other necessities. But they prepared mats and other articles in flax of great beauty, and evinced much ingenuity in carving and building canoes. They have an abundance of poetry of a lyrical kind, in a metre which appears to be regulated by a regard to quantity; and are passionately fond of music. They have also a kind of astronomy; and, according to Baron Hügel, there is not a tree or even a weed, a fish or a bird, in the N. Island, for which the natives have not a name universally known. Unlike most other savages, they have evinced the greatest aptitude for acquiring the arts, and the greatest desire to participate in the advantages of civilised life. A considerable proportion of the natives are slaves to others, who are themselves dependent, to some extent, on certain *arerekes* or head chiefs; but the holders of slaves appear, notwithstanding, to have independent control over their own lands, and to dispose of them without the consent of the *arereke*. Polygamy is practised by such of the New Zealanders as continue attached to their ancient superstition; but the missionaries, who have establishments in many parts of the islands, have, according to their own account, been eminently successful in converting them to Christianity. Schools, also, have been established in which the natives are instructed in the English language; so that the fair presumption is, that at no very distant period polygamy, with cannibalism and the other savage vices by which they were lately distinguished, will be wholly unknown. (*Prichard's Researches*, v. pp. 122—134., and the authorities there referred to.)

In a dispatch, dated March, 1846, the governor gives, among others, the following details respecting the natives:—

"Upon the state of the native population generally, I would report that they are making rapid and remarkable progress in the arts of civilised life.

"The attention they now pay to the cultivation of wheat, to improved modes of agriculture, and to the rearing of horses and cattle, is very remarkable. They readily, in the parts of the colony which are distant from towns, dispose of their wheat at 2s. per bushel, taking payment in manufactured goods which are valued by the European trader; so that, virtually, the price given for the wheat is much less than 2s. per bushel.

"To give particular illustrations of the kind of property they own, I may mention that the natives near Nelson, about 600 in number, had upwards of 340 acres under wheat, 800 acres of potatoes, 80 of maize, and 30 of other crops, besides several small vessels, and 11 horses, in addition to their pigs, poultry, &c. Whilst the Ngamotu natives near Taranaki, consisting of only 118 males and 86 females, are not only large growers of wheat and other produce, but are possessed of 23 head of horned cattle, 7 horses, 2 drays, and 1 plough. These are particular instances which happen to have been lately reported to me, but I have no doubt that other much more striking ones exist in other portions of the island.

"If such advances as these have been made so immediately after the recent disturbances, there can, I think, be no doubt that a few years of peace will produce still more striking and rapid changes.

"The measures which have been recently carried out for advancement of the natives are:—prohibiting the sale of arms and gunpowder, and the repair of arms; prohibiting the sale of spirituous liquors; the enactment of an ordinance which provides the means of educating a large and constantly increasing number of native children; the providing a tolerably efficient means of medical attendance in the most populous native districts; the employment of a native constabulary force, thus acquainting them with our laws; the enactment of laws for the adjustment of all disputes between natives and Europeans; the employment of natives upon public works, where they are trained in various kinds of skilled labour, and in the use of European tools and implements; and the providing employment generally for from 1,300 to 1,400 natives on the various public works.

"These measures have all tended to incorporate the natives with the Europeans, to blend the interests of the two races, to render them mutually necessary to each other, and to induce the natives largely to contribute to

that revenue which will provide the means for their own more perfect control and government.

"I have strong hopes that, under the continuance of such a system, the value which the labour of the natives will give to the land will produce a rapidly increasing land fund, which will again afford the means of more extensively employing them upon roads and public works, and thus provide the means of still further promoting their civilisation, and of opening up the country by roads."

But favourable as this picture undoubtedly is, we should not presume too much upon the forbearance or friendliness of the natives. Like all savages, they are both suspicious and treacherous; and causes of dissatisfaction between them and the colonists will never cease to arise, especially when the numbers of the latter are considerably increased. Hence the expediency of always having a considerable military force in the islands; and of preventing, in as far as practicable, the natives from acquiring fire-arms.

New Zealand was discovered by Tasman in 1642, but its extent and character were not ascertained till the voyages of Cook in 1769 and 1774. From that period, the coasts were occasionally visited by whalers, and some communication was held with the natives; but no permanent settlement appears to have been made by any people till about 1816, when a missionary station was established in the Bay of Islands, towards the N. extremity of the N. Island. Though the right of Great Britain to these islands was recognised at the general peace, no constituted authority was placed over New Zealand till 1833, when a resident, subordinate to the government of New South Wales, was sent hither, but with very limited powers. Meantime the shores had become infested by marauding traders, run-away convicts, and other unscrupulous characters, who introduced a taste for ardent spirits, various diseases, and much demoralisation. These persons also swindled, or attempted to swindle, the natives out of large tracts of land, by getting them to subscribe contracts, of the real import of which they certainly knew little or nothing, by which entire districts were conveyed away for the merest trifle. Under these circumstances, it became necessary to establish a government sufficiently strong to protect the aborigines and the real interests of the colonists. Accordingly, in Jan. 1840, New Zealand was constituted a colony dependent on New South Wales; and a lieutenant-governor appointed, who immediately proclaimed, among other announcements, that *ad purchasers of land would, in future, be void unless connected with the British local government*. But shortly before the formal occupation of these islands, the mana for speculating in land attained to an enormous extent; and vast tracts, equal, in fact, to provinces, were acquired by a few individuals, belonging to the islands, to Sydney, and other parts. It was not, therefore, enough to prevent such wholesale acquisitions in future. Justice to the natives, on the one hand, and the best interests of the colony on the other, made it imperatively necessary that the grounds on which the claims to land were made should be carefully inquired into; that in all cases in which the natives had been swindled the grants should be cancelled; and that, when confirmed, their extent should be limited. And, in consequence of these considerations, a commission was appointed to inquire into the validity of all claims to land; and the commissioners were instructed to recognise those only which were founded on fair and equitable considerations, with the important proviso, that no claim for land, when affirmed, should be allowed to a greater extent than 2,560 acres.

The N. Zealand Company, established in 1841, for the promotion of colonisation in the islands, acquired in this view a right to extensive tracts of land. It had not, however, been long established till disputes began to arise between its directors and the government; and great difficulties were also experienced in adjusting the rival land claims of the crown, the natives, the colonists, and others. Hence the affairs of the islands were for a considerable period in the greatest confusion. The natives and the colonists came to blows, and the real or alleged grievances of the N. Z. Company engaged a large share of the attention of parliament. Happily, however, these differences have been adjusted. All lands not actually cultivated or occupied by the natives have been vested in the crown, which has also the exclusive right of purchasing land from tribes, though individuals, as distinct from tribes, may dispose of their property at pleasure. All lands, whether belonging to colonists or natives, are to be registered. The crown is not to alienate or dispose gratuitously of any land, except what may be required for public works. The rest is to be sold by auction; and we may add that had, as in Australia, its *minimum* price has been fixed at the extravagant rate of 30s. an acre. Government has farther agreed to give up for a term of (three) years to the N. Z. Company the crown's right to the pre-emption of

land from the natives in the S. province, and has engaged to give effect to such grants, leases, and mortgages as the company may enter into. In consequence of these arrangements, and of the tranquillity that has been restored to the islands, it is probable that emigration to them will receive a new impetus, and that their progress will be comparatively rapid. The government of the colony is to be established on a liberal basis, with representative corporations in the towns, and a representative colonial assembly. Inasmuch, however, as the regulations to be introduced into the constitution will probably be much modified before they are carried into full effect, it would be useless to state them in detail.

The European pop. in the islands has been estimated to amount in 1848 to 18,000. The estimates of the native pop. differ very widely; but it may, perhaps, be taken at about 100,000.

The principal British settlements consist of Auckland, the cap., with a pop. in 1848 of about 5,000, on the E. side of the N. island, on the S. side of Waitemata harbour, lat. 36° 31' 27" S., long. 174° 45' 20" E.; Wellington, the cap. of the S. prov., on the E. side of Port Nicholson, near the S. extremity of the N. island in Cook's Straits; New Plymouth, or Taranaki, on the E. coast of do.; Nelson, at the head of Tasman's Gulph, N. shore of the middle-island; Akaroa, near the extremity of Banks's Peninsula, on the E. coast of do. A new settlement is now being established at Otago, on the S.E. coast of the middle island, which is patronised by the Scotch Free Church; and a settlement, entitled New Canterbury, of which the site is not yet selected, is to be founded, under the patronage of the leaders of the established church.

It may well be doubted whether much judgment has been displayed in the selection of the majority of these sites. At Auckland there is no good landing-place even for small vessels, and the water in-shore being shoal, ships load and unload with difficulty. It is stated by Mr. Southern (*Traveller on Cook's Voyage*, p. 145), that a ship laden with coal, of which the inhab. were at a time in want, was obliged to leave the port from there being no chance of her being able to discharge her cargo within any thing like a reasonable time. The town is also indifferently supplied with fresh water, and the country is bare of wood, and comparatively unproductive. Wellington is hemmed in by ranges of mountains which in great measure shut it out from all communication with the interior, though this disadvantage has been in part overcome by the carrying of good roads through the ranges in question. It is also frequently exposed to heavy gales of wind; and the water in-shore is so shallow as to hinder vessels of above 80 or 100 tons burden from reaching its wharfs. But despite these serious drawbacks, the town is said to be in a comparatively thriving state. Governor Grey, in his dispatch already referred to, says,—

"I regard this settlement as being now in a most thriving state. The whole of the disputes which existed between Europeans and natives regarding claims to lands have been settled. Grants have been issued to the New Zealand Company for the lands they claim in the vicinity of Wellington. The two ranges of mountains which, upon the east and west, divided the port and town from the fertile and extensive districts lying upon the other side of the ranges, have been broken through by excellent roads, which will now in a few months be completed. The Customs revenue of this single port already averages nearly 16,000*l.* a-year, and is steadily increasing. The flocks and herds of the settlers are rapidly spreading over the fine pastoral country which the new roads have opened up. The most friendly relations exist between the Europeans and natives. The town has been made the capital of a separate province, so that it will no longer feel the evils of a distant seat of Government. The soil and climate of the surrounding country are most favourable to Europeans; and the settlers, under circumstances of great difficulty, have shown themselves to be energetic and enterprising in no ordinary degree. There thus appears every reason to think that Wellington and the district in its neighbourhood will continue to advance steadily in that course of prosperity upon which it appears to have fairly entered."

The situation of Nelson is also objectionable, being built at the head of a deep bay, having a narrow and dangerous entrance. According to Governor Grey, the harbour of Akaroa is one of the best in the colony; and he farther says that its soil and climate are excellent.

Although, therefore, N. Zealand be justly celebrated for the number and excellence of its bays and harbours, but little sagacity would appear to have been exercised by the early settlers in profiting by them; and it is probable that the great emporia of the islands will be founded hereafter in situations more accessible and better suited to shipping and navigation.

In 1846, the value of the imports into Zealand

amounted to 81,522*l.*, and that of the exports to 46,312*l.* The customs revenue of the same settlement amounted in 1847 to 17,971*l.*, that of the settlements in the S. prov. in the same year being nearly identical, or 17,702*l.* An extensive trade is carried on with Sydney, Boyd Town, and other places in Australia; the imports into N. Zealand consisting principally of cattle, sheep, horses, and other live stock; and the exports of timber, flax, &c. The Union Bank of Australia has branches at Auckland and Wellington. Newspapers, also, are published at Auckland, Wellington, and other towns. We subjoin a list of the retail prices of various articles, and of the rates of wages at Wellington and Nelson, in February, 1848:—

	Wellington.				Nelson.			
	s.	d.			s.	d.		
Ale, per gallon	-	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
Bread, per 4lb. loaf	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Butter, fresh, per lb.	-	0	0	1	0	8	0	10
salt	-	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Beef, fresh	-	0	7	0	0	6	0	8
Chow, New Zealand	-	0	0	1	4	0	0	10
Sydney	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Eggs, per dozen	-	0	0	8	0	0	0	0
Fish of various sorts, always to be had, and very cheap.								
Fire-wood, per chord	-	0	0	30	0	0	12	0
Ham and bacon	-	0	6	0	7	0	0	0
Milk, per pint	-	0	2	0	2	1	0	2
Mutton, per lb.	-	0	5	0	6	0	0	5
Pork, fresh, per lb.	-	0	5	0	6	0	0	2
Poultry, fowls per pair	-	0	0	4	0	0	2	6
ducks	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	6
geese	-	0	0	1	0	0	10	0
turkeys	-	0	0	13	0	0	10	0

Clothing is generally to be had at reasonable prices; but shoes are very dear.

	Wages.			
Mechanics, per diem	-	3	0	7
Labourers	-	2	6	4
Natives, employed on roads, &c.	-	2	0	6

Wages. — August, 1847.*	
Males.	
Agricultural labourers	29 <i>l.</i> to 27 <i>l.</i> per ann.
Ranchers	4 <i>l.</i> per diem.
Bakers	4 <i>l.</i> to 5 <i>l.</i> per diem.
Brickmakers	4 <i>l.</i> to 5 <i>l.</i> per diem.
Blacklayers	5 <i>l.</i> to 7 <i>l.</i> per diem.
Blacksmiths	5 <i>l.</i> to 7 <i>l.</i> per diem.
Carpenters	7 <i>l.</i> to 10 <i>l.</i> per diem.
Cabinet-makers	6 <i>l.</i> to 7 <i>l.</i> per diem.
Cooks	15 <i>l.</i> to 20 <i>l.</i> per ann.
Coopers	4 <i>l.</i> to 5 <i>l.</i> per diem.
Domestic servants	15 <i>l.</i> to 20 <i>l.</i> per ann.
Glaziers	4 <i>l.</i> to 5 <i>l.</i> per diem.
Gardeners	5 <i>l.</i> per diem.

Such is a brief and imperfect notice of this interesting country, destined, no doubt, at some future period, to be occupied by a great and powerful nation of Englishmen. We agree with Mr. Terry in thinking that "the class of emigrants to which New Zealand at present offers the most certain advantages and success are those who have been accustomed to husbandry. If such persons, having families, would be content with small farms of from 20 to 50 acres, according to their means for outlay in stock and buildings, and then, by their own personal industry and labour, cultivate the land, and rear cattle, poultry, &c., with moderate views and expectations, looking to frugality, perseverance, and time, to acquire competence and independence, instead of resorting to land-jobbing and speculation for sudden wealth, they would be certain of success in their undertakings, and of realising property in a few years."

But it is monstrous that government should obstruct and discourage the industry of such persons, by imposing a tax, for such it really is, of no less than 20*l.* on each acre of land that they recover from the forest or the swamp. The aborigines whom we are dispossessing of their ancient inheritance never did any thing more irrational and absurd than this. It tends to hinder that settlement of the lands which it should be our object to encourage; and makes nineteen out of twenty of the smaller class of capitalists that are now leaving our shores, resort to the U. States rather than to this or any one else of our colonies.

When N. Zealand becomes reasonably well-peopled, or has a pop. of one or two millions, she will probably be distinguished by her manufactures. Her geographical position, temperate climate, and the command of vast water power, of unlimited supplies of coal, iron, and the useful metals, and of timber, wool, flax, and other raw materials, give her almost unequalled advantages for the successful prosecution of manufacturing industry. But it would be unwise either in government or in individuals to attempt to anticipate what can only grow up slowly, as the capacities of the country and the population are more and more developed. Agriculture, including therein the clearing of the land, mines, and fisheries, but especially the first, will for a lengthened

* The rates of wages for tradesmen were a little higher than those above given. Miners and miners usually work by piece work.

† With board and lodging.
‡ Without board and lodging.

period he the most advantageous business in which the colonists can engage.

In 1840 the government of N. Zealand, as previously stated, was separated from that of N. Wales, being then placed under a governor of its own, with a legislative council composed in the usual manner. A subordinate government has more recently been established at Wellington, the cap of the S. prov. It is probable, however, that the latter will be subdivided, and that a lieutenant-governor will be appointed to reside in some of the settlements towards the S. extremity of the middle island.

N. Zealand has been erected into a bishopric; and it has a numerous body of clergymen of various denominations, and of missionaries. Governor Grey speaks of the services of the latter in high terms of commendation.

New Zealand forms the subject of numerous publications and Parl. Reports; a list of most of which is given in the *Handbook for Australia*, published in 1848, one of the best of the class of publications to which it belongs.

ZEITZ, a town of Prussian Saxony, reg. Merseburg, cap. circ., on the White Elster, here crossed by a stone bridge, 22 m. W.S.W. Leipzig. Pop. 10,000. (*Berghaus*.) It is walled, is divided into an upper and lower town, and has a cathedral, and several other churches, various hospitals, two castles, one of which was formerly the residence of its princes, but now serves for a house of correction, a gymnasium, with a public library of 14,000 vols., and manufactures of cotton goods, earthenware, leather, shoes, &c.; with cotton-printing establishments, breweries, and distilleries. It is the seat of the ordinary circle courts, of an ecclesiastical board, and of a Calvinist college. The gardens and grounds in its vicinity are celebrated for their neatness, and the attention bestowed on them. (*Berghaus*; *Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

ZELL, or **CELLE**, a town of the Hanoverian dom., distr. Lüneburg, on the Aller, where it receives the Fune, and on the road between Hanover and Lüneburg, 22 m. N.E. the former. Pop. 11,300. It is well built and paved, and has Lutheran, Calvinist, and R. Catholic churches, an old castle once the residence of the Dukes of Lüneburg, a large penitentiary, a medical college, Latin school, society of agriculture, and a famous royal breeding stud. Its inhabs. manufacture linen cloths, hosiery, flannel, hats, tobacco, &c., and have brisk transit trade both by the Aller and by land. Celle is the seat of the high court of appeal for the kingdom of Hanover, the decisions of which were final, till recently they were interfered with by the government. (*See* HANOVER, 1. 963.)

It was the residence, during the latter years of her life, of the unfortunate Matilda, Queen of Denmark, and sister of George I. of England; and a monument to her memory stands in the palace garden.

Zell has also been for a lengthened period the favourite abode of such of the nobility of Lüneburg as do not live in Hanover. (*Hodgskin, Travels in the N. of Germany*, 1. 156—163.)

ZERBST, a town of N. Germany, territory of Anhalt-Dessau, on a small tributary of the Elbe, 17½ m. S.E. Magdeburg. Pop. 9,200. It is walled, and entered by 6 gates; has an old castle, several churches, one of which is among the finest structures of its class in Germany, two well-endowed charitable institutions, an orphan asylum, a house of correction, and a large school termed the *Franciscanum*. It is the seat of the high court of appeal for the Anhalt and Schwartzburg principalities; and till near the end of last century it was the residence of the ducal family of Anhalt. It has manufactures of jewellery and earthenware. The empress Catherine II. of Russia was a princess of Zerbst; but she was not born here, as is stated in the *Dict. Géographique*, but at Stettin (in 1759), of which her father was governor. (*Berghaus*; *Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

ZITTAU, a town of the kingdom of Saxony, circ. Bautzen, on the Mandau, a tributary of the Neisse, 50 m. E.S.E. Dresden. Pop., in 1838, 8,674. It is tolerably well built, and has numerous churches, a gymnasium, public library of 13,000 vols., house of correction, and various charitable institutions. It is the centre of the linen manufactures of Lusatia; and most of its inhabs. are occupied in the weaving of damasks, ticks, and other linen fabrics, or of cotton and woollen cloths; and in bleaching, printing, carding, and other auxiliary occupations. Zittau has also porcelain factories, paper-mills, and breweries, and a large trade in flax. It was the birthplace of the great orientalist, B. Michaelis. (*R. Ritter*; *Berghaus*, &c.)

ZOMBOR, a royal free town of Hungary, co. Bacs, of which it is the cap., in an extensive plain near the Francis Canal, uniting the Danube and the Theiss, 118 m. S. by E. Pesth. Pop. about 21,000, mostly of the Greek church. It has several fine buildings, including a co. hall, town-house, several churches, barracks, and the government offices. Here, also, is a Greek ecclesiastical seminary, and a Rom. Cath. high school, with some silk

manufactures, and a considerable trade in corn, wine, and cattle. (*Oesterl. Nat. Encege*.)

ZUG or **ZONG**, a canton, lake, and town of Switzerland, in the central part of the Confederation. The canton, which is the smallest in Switzerland, is enclosed between the territory of Zurich on the N., Schwytz on the E. and S., and a small part of Lucerne and Argau on the W.; from which last it is separated by the Reuss. Area, about 86 sq. m.; a considerable part of which is occupied by the Lakes of Zug and Egeri. Pop., in 1837, 15,222. Except a small plain to the N. of Zug, the surface is wholly mountainous, but the mountains do not rise to any great elevation, the highest, the Rosenberg, on the S. being hardly more than 5,600 ft. above the sea. Principal rivers, Reuss, Sihl, which forms the N.E. boundary, and Lorts, which brings the waters of the Egeri lake into that of Zug, and forms also the outlet of the latter towards the Reuss. The Lake of Zug, principally comprised in this canton, but partly in that of Schwytz, and intermediate in situation, as in character, between the Lakes of Zurich and Lucerne, is about 8½ m. in length, N. to S., by 3 m. in its greatest breadth. Its area has been estimated at about 10 sq. m., and the height of its surface above the level of the sea, at 1,385 Eng. ft. Its waters are of a very dark blue colour; and though near the town of Zug, its depth appears to be only about 300 ft.; at its S. extremity it is said to exceed 1,300 ft. (*Riet*; *Pictet*, &c.)

The banks of the Lake of Zug are cultivated, richly wooded, and in general gradually sloping, except on the S. and S.W. sides, where the Righi and Rosenberg rise abruptly from the water's edge. The lake abounds with fish, the taking of which forms an important occupation of the inhabs. of its vicinity. Some indifferent wine, with elder, hawthorn, &c., are made, and considerable quantities of apples and other fruits are grown for exportation; but the principal employment of the peasantry is cattle breeding. A few silk and cotton fabrics are woven, cotton yarn is spun, and at Zug, Cham, and Baar are some tanneries and paper-mills; but the manufacture of the canton are comparatively insignificant. The government is strictly democratic. The cantonal council is composed of 84 deputies, elected for two years by all the male citizens of the canton above the age of 19 years, who are not bankrupt, pauper, or under penal condemnation. This council exercises all the ordinary administrative functions. The legislative power is exercised by the *tribunal* council, composed of the cantonal council and two additional mems. for each deputy, chosen like the deputies, triennially by the communes. The general assembly meets annually in May; its *landammann* or president being taken alternately from the two circles into which the canton is divided. The deputies are paid for their services, at such rates as can be afforded by the communes which send them. The sum paid by the town of Zug to its representatives is about 4. each per annum 1 and, besides this, every councillor entering Zug to attend a council, which takes place perhaps once a month, receives about 9d. English. And some of the communes are so poor as not to be able to pay even this pittance to their representatives. (*Ingliis*.) The chief criminal tribunal consists of 36 mems., and the ordinary civil tribunal of 6 assessors and the *statthalter*: the latter becomes a final court of appeal by the addition of 6 mems. chosen annually by the cantonal council. Civil causes below the amount of 13 francs, misdemeanours, and other matters of minor importance, are decided by the communal assemblies and tribunals. There is no tax of any kind in the canton. The whole state expenses, amounting to about 180,000 a year, are defrayed from the general Swiss fund, drawn from the entry of foreign merchandise, and from a monopoly of salt, which is farmed by the government, and brings in about 800,000 a year. Zug furnishes a contingent of 200 men to the army, and 3497 francs a year to the treasury of the Swiss Confed.

Zug, the cap., on the N.E. side of the lake of the same name, 15 m. S. Zurich, with about 2,800 inhabs., is the only town worth notice. It is pleasantly situated, and has several good churches, to one of which is attached a curious gothic, containing many hundreds of skulls, each labelled with the name of its original possessor. Provisions are cheap at Zug; and though without the pretension to rank with Zurich in importance, a residence here would seem to be the more agreeable of the two from the greater cordiality and gaiety of the people.

The people of this canton are of a German stock, and for the most part similar to those of Schwytz, though less ignorant and superstitious. They are all R. Catholics; and, small as is the extent of the canton, Boel says—*Le pays de Zug fournil des enfants d'une grande variété de la Suisse Catolique*. (*Pictet, Statistique de la Suisse*; *Boel's Manuel*, &c.; *Ingliis's Switzerland*; *Dict. Géog.*, &c.)

ZURICH (CANTON OF), a canton of Switzerland, ranking first in the Confederation, and being superior

also, in pop. and importance, to most of the other cantons. It extends between lat 47° 10' and 47° 40' N., and long. 8° 30' and 9° E.; having E. Thurgau and St. Gall, S. the Lake of Zurich and the cant. Zug, W. Aargau, and N. Schaffhausen and Baden, from which it is partly separated by the Rhine. Length, N. and S., about 80 m.; greatest breadth, 33 m. Area, 686 sq. m. Pop., in 1860, 240,638; nearly all Protestants. Surface generally undulating; and, though picturesque, it presents none of those grand natural features which arrest the traveller's attention in the cantons further S. Several mountain, or rather hill ranges, enter Zurich, but the highest summit, the Hörnli, near the E. border, scarcely rises to 3,900 ft. above the sea.

After the Rhine, the principal rivers are its tributaries, the Limmat, which drains the lake of Zurich, Thur, Toos, Sihl, &c. with the Reuss forming a part of the W. border. Of these however, only the Limmat is navigable. The Greiflen, famous for its fine eels, and several smaller lakes, are in this canton. Climate mild; the mean annual temp. at Zurich is about 48° Fah. Nowhere in the canton is the ground perpetually covered with snow; and the soil is in general productive. Agriculture is perhaps better conducted in this than in most other parts of Switzerland; manuring is well understood; and irrigation is successfully practised. Ingils says "Anywhere in the neighbourhood of Zurich, one is struck with the extraordinary industry of the inhabitants; and if we learn that a proprietor here has a return of 10 per cent., we are inclined to say, 'he deserves it.' It is impossible to look at a field, a garden, a hedge, scarcely even a tree, a flower, or a vegetable, without perceiving proofs of the extreme care and industry that are bestowed upon the cultivation of the soil. If, for example, a path leads through, or by the side of a field of grain, the corn is not, as in England, permitted to hang over the path; but is everywhere bounded by a fence. If you look into a field towards evening, where there are large beds of cauliflower or cabbage, you will find that every single plant has been watered; and the gardens, which, around Zurich, are extremely large, the most punctilious care is evinced in regard to the culture of every product." (*Ingils's Switzerland*, §c. 25.)

The labouring classes in this canton are almost universally proprietors of the small farms and cottages which they cultivate and inhabit. The corn grown is insufficient for the pop., but great quantities of fruit and garden vegetables are raised. The vine is pretty generally cultivated. But though improved the wine is still inferior. The pasture lands are not extensive; and no great quantities of farm stock are reared; a very large breed of cattle is however produced by a cross between those of this canton and those of Schwytz. Some iron, coal, salt, &c. are met with; but mining industry is not of much consequence. (*Meyer, Der Kant. Zürich*.)

Zurich is one of the principal manufacturing cantons of Switzerland; its inhabitants generally dividing their attention between the labours of agriculture and those of the loom. "I have seldom entered," says Dr. Bowering, "a rural dwelling without finding silk or more looms in it. employed in the weaving of silk or cotton. If the labours of the field demand the hands of the peasant, his wife or children are occupied in manufacturing industry. When lighter toils suffice for the agricultural part of the family exertions, the females and the young people resign the loom to the father or the brothers. The interstices of agricultural labour are filled up by manufacturing employment; and in more than half of the operations of Zurich the farmer and the weaver are united." (*Rep.*, pp. 69, 70.) Cotton and silk fabrics are those principally produced. The silk fabric consist of Florentines, gros de Naples, marcellines, tafetas, levantines, handkerchiefs, crapes, shawls, velvets, &c. Early in the present century about 5,000 looms were employed upon these goods; but since the peace they have rapidly increased. The disturbances at Lyons, also, in 1834, were the cause of many Lyons' workmen settling in Zurich. In 1840, Villermé estimated the number of silk-loom in the canton at 11,000, and the weavers of all ages at 16,000. (*Tableau des Ouvriers*, 1. 420.) The annual value of the total produce of the silk-loom has been estimated at 600,000 sterling. The male weavers of Florentines and serges gave from 3½ to 4½ francs a week wages, and of Gros d'Orléans and Marcellines, at an average from 68 to 74 fr. a week. (*Handloom Weaver's Rep.*) The cotton manufactures of Zurich had their origin in the 5th century, their two principal seats being then, as now, Zurich and Winterthur. There are said to be about 12,000 cotton weavers in the canton, and 4,000 persons engaged in other trades connected with the cotton manufacture, producing annually 800,000 pieces of cotton. In 1836 there were 19 cotton printing establishments in the canton, employing about 1,000 workmen, and printing 100,000 pieces a year of cloth. (*Bowering's Rep.*, p. 76.) Cotton spinning is, also, extensively carried on, there being, in 1836, 292,900 spindles in

operation. (*Handloom Weaver's Rep.*, p. 108.) At Winterthur and elsewhere numbers 190 and 120 are made; but the yarns spun are mostly from 30 to 40, the higher numbers being imported from England. 40,000 cwts. of raw cotton are supposed to be annually consumed in the cant. The general average rate of wages in the Zurich mills is, for a man, about 1½ fr., girls ¾ fr., and children 2 fr. a week. (See also a Table of the Spinners' and Weavers' Gains in *Villermé's Tableau des Ouvriers*, 1. 429.)

The other manufactures are not of any great importance. The woollen trade does not employ 800 hands, and the linen manufacture is now almost wholly extinguished. The imports of Zurich mainly consist of cotton and cotton yarn (Nos. 80 to 150), woollen cloths, colonial products, bark, straw hats, linens, furs, glass, stationery; wheat, principally from Swabia; wine, brandy, fruits, tobacco, fir-wood, raw silk, butter and cheese, minerals, &c. The exports are cotton cloths, particularly Turkey reds; silk goods, chiefly plain; machinery, tanned leather, kirchwasser, and sometimes an excess of agricultural produce to the neighbouring districts. (*Bowering's Rep.*, p. 77.)

"Most of the families in Zurich cant., consisting of father and mother and two or three children, earn among them, or possess in the produce of their land, an income fully equal to 30s. a week in England. The working classes are, compared with those of England, more moral, and better educated. With regard to education the law compels it, and consequently there are scarcely any persons to be found who cannot read, and very few who cannot write. Music is much cultivated in this canton; and the whole demeanor and appearance of the working classes present a most gratifying picture of high prosperity, contentment, morality, and intelligence. Few cantons are really more flourishing: the entire poor rates a few years since was only 2½d. per head per annum." (*Synopsis in Handloom Rep.*) In point of fact, however, this state of things is mainly to be ascribed to the great economy of the people; a consequence, in part, of severe sumptuary laws, and to their avoiding all superfluous expenditure.

The constitution of Zurich underwent a great change in 1831. The cantonal assembly, or greater council, still consists, as formerly, of 212 mems.; but instead of 130 being elected by the grand council itself, only 23 are now so nominated, the remainder being chosen by the different guilds, and the pop. at large. Every male above the age of 19, not a domestic, a bankrupt, a recipient of public relief, or under penal condemnation, has a right to vote in the election of representatives; citizens must, however, be 30 years of age to sit in the chamber. The mems. of the greater council are elected for four years; but half their number goes out biennially. By the new constitution, the executive and judicial powers, formerly united in the same individuals, are separated; the functions of the former are exercised by a body of 19 mems. chosen by the greater council, and those of the latter by a high court of appeal composed of 11 mems., a criminal court of primary jurisdiction in Zurich, district courts, &c. The proceedings of the cantonal assembly, the law courts are public; freedom of trade and of the press is guaranteed; and each individual contributes to the exigencies of the state in proportion to his income. (*Meyer, Kant. Zürich*.)

The cantonal government compels a general system of insurance against fire, being itself the insurer. Public revenue, in 1834, 1,233,380 Sw. francs; expenditure, 1,281,423 fr. Zurich has no public debt. This canton contributes 3,668 men to the army, and 77,158 francs a year to the treasury of the Swiss confederation. (*Picot, Statist. de la Suisse*.) It is divided into 11 districts, but it has no town, except its cap., deserving of notice.

ZURICH (an. *Twricum*), a town of Switzerland, cap. of the above canton, and alternately with Bern and Lucerne, the seat of the confederate government; on the Limmat, at its efflux from the N.W. extremity of the Lake of Zurich, 58½ m. N.E. Bern. Lat. of the observatory, 47° 22' 31" N.; lon. 8° 31' 30" E. Pop. in 1844, 14,500. It is beautifully situated, the river dividing it into 2 parts, which are connected by 3 bridges; and considerable improvements are going on in the town. It has some fine public walks, but few public buildings are worth notice. The principal are the cathedral, a massive edifice of the 10th or 11th century, in which Zwinglius denounced, though in comparatively mild and measured terms, the errors of the church of Rome, and enforced the principles of the Reformation; St. Peter's church,

* Zwinglius, or rather Zuinglie, was born January 1, 1484, at Bollingen, a small village in the Toggenburg. Of all the Reformers, says Cox, "the mild and elegant Zwinglius alone excepted, Zuinglie seems to merit peculiar esteem. He possessed to a great degree that spirit of meekness, moderation, and charity, which are the characteristics of true Christianity; and, amid all the disputes between the Lutherans and the Reformed churches, was a constant advocate for peace and reconciliation. He was perfectly free from narrow bigotry, which makes no distinction between points of the merest indifference and objects of the greatest importance, as from

of which Lavater was the minister; the town hall, a square edifice, in which the diet meets; the old arsenal; the town library, a spacious edifice, containing about 60,000 volumes, with portraits of Zwingli and many of the burgomasters of Zürich, a bust of Lavater by Dannacker, a bas-relief model of a great part of Switzerland, a collection of fossils, &c.; and, in the middle of the Limmat, the tower of Wellenberg, formerly a state prison.

The principal manufactures are those of silk and cotton goods; and numerous factories and country houses stand on the banks of the lake in the environs. "In Zürich," says Inglis, "it is all work and no play; there are no amusements of any kind, nor probably do the inhabitants feel the want of them. There is no theatre; there are no public concerts; balls, in a canton where leave to dance must be asked, are out of the question. The great object of the Zürickers is to get money: distinction in wealth is the chief distinction of rank known in Zürich. Literature, however, has kept its place here; and no where, perhaps, in Europe is the study of the classics more general than in this city. Here are an academy for theology and various other branches of philosophy; another academy preparatory to the former; an institution for medicine and surgery; another for the education of merchants; an institution for the instruction of the deaf and dumb, and for the blind, the model of which was considered so excellent, that upon it Napoleon formed that of Paris; academies of artists and music; a society of public utility; and many schools for instruction in languages and for the education of the poor. Two newspapers are published in Zürich, one appearing weekly, the other twice a week; and there is also a monthly literary journal. If house-rent were out of the question, one might live cheaply enough at Zürich, or in its neighbourhood. Beef usually sells at about 8d. per lb., mutton at 2½d., and veal 1d. higher; fowls average 1s. 6d. a pair, butter 7d. per lb., and eggs 2 doz. for 10d. But the reasonable price at which most necessities may be obtained in Zürich is more than neutralised by the high rent of houses, for which indeed at least three times the sum is asked that would command the same accommodation in England! and to those desirous of selecting a constantly agreeable residence I dare not recommend Zürich. A winter's residence could not be otherwise than *fratle* in a city where amusement is confounded with crime, and where men and women do not meet each other in society." (*Inglis's Switzerland*.) There is, however, a museum club, with a good reading-room. Where the leading English newspapers and periodical publications are taken in, a perpetual communication is kept up by diligences with Basle, Bern, Constance, and the other chief Swiss towns; and by steam-boats twice a day with places on the bank of its lake. Zürich was one of the earliest cities that joined the Swiss Confederation; and here the Reformation in Switzerland commenced, under Zuinglius, in 1519. Among its distinguished natives have been the two Gesners, Zimmermann, Fuseli, Lavater, Bodmer, and Pestalozzi. (*Ebel; Inglis; Dict. Géog., &c.*)

ZÜRICH (LAKE OF), one of the principal lakes of Switzerland, in the E. part of which it is situated, being bounded by the cantons of Zürich, Schwytz, and St. Gall. It curves in a semicircular manner, from S.E. round to N.W. Length, about 34 m.; breadth, varying to about 3 m.; but at Rapperschwil it is contracted to less than ½ m., and is crossed there by a wooden bridge. Area, estimated at about 23 sq. m.; height above the sea, 1,362 Eng. ft. Its depth in some places exceeds 600 ft.; but for several hundred yards from its banks it is (near Zürich at least) seldom more than from 6 to 12 ft. in depth. At its S.E. extremity it receives the Linth canal, which brings to it the superfluous waters of the Lake Wallenstadt; at its N.W. extremity it discharges itself by the Limmat. Zürich, Meilen, Rapperschwil and Richtschwil, are on its banks. This lake has none of the very savage sublimity which characterises most of the Swiss lakes; its scenery is, in fact, comparatively tame. Inglis calls it "the Winan-

overbearing pride, which, while it violently condemns the opinions of others, assumes infallibility with respect to its own. In a word, it was his opinion, that, provided Christians agree in the most essential articles, they ought to bear with any difference on subjects less uncontrollable, and which do not influence morals." (*Cave's Switzerland*, l. 62, 8vo. ed.)

dermere of Switzerland." The hills around it scarcely rise to 3,000 ft. above the sea, and they descend in gentle and cultivated slopes to the water's edge; where the banks, from one end of the lake to the other, are studded with villages, country houses, and other habitations. Good carriage roads run along both sides of this lake; and it is daily traversed by steamers between Zürich and Rapperschwil. (*Ebel; Picot; Inglis's Switzerland; Stein's Handb.; Meyer, Die Canton Zurich; Murray's Handb. for Switzerland, &c.*)

ZUTPHEN, a fortified town of the Netherlands, prov. Guelderland, cap. arrond., on the Vaal, crossed here by a stone bridge, where it is joined by the Birkel, 15 m. N.E. Arnhem. Pop., according to Stein, about 11,000. It is strong by its situation, and, though in the midst of fens, is not considered unhealthy. It is divided by the Birkel into an old and a new town. The principal church is an old and stately edifice: the town-hall, the college of deputies, and the palace of the former counts of Zutphen, are the other most conspicuous buildings. Here, also, is a Latin school, a society of physical science, a court of primary jurisdiction, manufactures of cotton fabrics, with tanneries, paper and glue factories, oil and flour mills, &c.

Zutphen was one of the Hanse towns. It was taken and pillaged by the Spaniards in 1573 and 1583, but was retaken by the troops under Prince Maurice in 1591. In this siege the famous Sir Philip Sidney, the flower of the chivalry of Elizabeth's reign, received a wound of which he died on the 17th of Oct., at the early age of 32. (*Dict. Clae; Stein; Dict. Géog.*)

ZVORNIK or ISVORNIK, a fortified town of Bosnia, cap. sandjak, on the Drin, 72 m. W. S.W. Belgrade. It is situated on a rocky height, and has two castles, and a large collection of mud houses, with several mosques, and Greek and R. Catholic churches. Its pop. has been estimated at 15,000. It is said to have a considerable trade in timber and fuel with Belgrade, Semlin, &c.; but from its lying out of any great road, it is very seldom visited by travellers from W. Europe; and our information respecting it (as, indeed, of the whole of Bosnia) is very imperfect.

ZWICKAU, a town of the kingdom of Saxony, cap. circ. of its own name, on the Mulda, 59 m. S.W. Dresden. Pop., in 1846, 8,337. It was formerly strongly fortified, and suffered repeatedly in the wars of last century between Austria and Prussia. Its principal buildings are St. Mary's Church, with some fine paintings by Wöhlgemuth, and a lofty tower, which was often ascended by Luther; and an old castle, now used for a house of correction. The gymnasium has a library of 18,000 volumes (*B. Ritter*); and there are also some military storehouses, an hospital, &c. Zwickau has manufactures of woollen cloths, hosiery, cotton goods, and hardware; which she owes to the coal fields on both sides the Mulda, in her vicinity.

ZWOLLE, a fortified town of the Netherlands, prov. Overijssel, of which it is the cap.; on the Zwartewater, about 10 m. from the Zuider-see, and 50 m. E.N.E. Amsterdam. Pop. between 17,000 and 18,000. It is well built, in the style of most other Dutch towns; and has several suburbs, 8 churches, including a fine old cathedral, a house of correction, tribunals of primary jurisdiction and commerce, and some agreeable promenades in the vicinity. It was formerly one of the Hanse towns, and its trade is still considerable in cattle and other live stock, dried fish, corn, wool, hides, honey, leather, &c. It has some salt and sugar refineries, tanneries, &c. It was taken by the Dutch in 1580. The famous Thomas à Kempis was, for 64 years, a monk of an Augustine priory in this town, where he died in 1471. (*De Clae; Dict. Géog.; Murray's Handbook, &c.*)

ZYTOMIERS, or *Jitomir*, a town of Russian Poland, government Volhynia, of which it is the capital; on a tributary of the Dnieper, 75 m. W. S.W. Kief. Pop., in 1846, 36,000. It has 3 Russo-Greek, a Lutheran, and 2 R. Cath. churches, various government buildings, a gymnasium, seminary, public library, &c. It has increased greatly in importance since it came into the possession of the Russians: it has manufactures of hats, leather, &c., and a considerable trade in woollen, silk and linen fabrics, honey, wax, salt, and wines, chiefly with Galicia, Hungary, and Wallachia. (*Schmidler; Puzari; Berghaus, &c.*)

SUPPLEMENT.

ADELAIDE, a city of South Australia, cap. of the British colony of that name, about 7 m. S.E. from its port, an inlet on the E. side of St. Vincent's Gulph. Lat. $34^{\circ} 57' S.$, long. $138^{\circ} 38' E.$ Pop. in 1846, 7,143, and in 1850 probably 10,000. The munic. boundary comprises rather more than 1,000 acres. It is divided into N. and S. Adelaide, by the river Torrens, here crossed by two bridges. Both portions of the town stand on gentle elevations, and are regularly laid out: the streets, which vary from 70 to 130 ft. in width, mostly cross or meet each other at right angles, and there are several good squares. The S. is a good deal larger than the N. division of the city: it includes the government house, hospital, &c., with some handsome terraces and villas, having from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ acre of shrubbery and garden ground attached. Along King William Street (its central thoroughfare) are sundry large buildings, including the government offices and commissariat stores, with many good private houses and shops of all descriptions. Hindley Street is the principal place of business, and here is to be observed all the bustle of a flourishing town. It is lined on both sides with good stone, brick, or wooden houses, some of which are of superior build, and do credit to Australian street architecture. Many of the stores or merchants' warehouses are massive brick or stone buildings. (*Wilkinson, S. Australia*, pp. 47, 48.) The government house, near the river, is a neat building surrounded by about 10 acres laid out in ornamental gardens. Among the other principal edifices are Trinity and St. John's churches, the legislative council house, court house (formerly the theatre), the office of the S. Australian bank, an auction mart, the offices of the S. Australian Company, and an immense jail, upon which no less a sum than 34,000*l.* has been expended, or rather thrown away! In the centre of Light Square is a handsome Gothic cross, 45 feet high, erected to the memory of Colonel Light, the founder of the city. Adelaide has chapels for Presbyterians, Roman Catholics, Baptists, Independents, Methodists, German Lutherans, and others, a Friends' meeting house, a Jews' synagogue, numerous schools, the S. Australian bank, and a branch of the Australasian Co., S. Australian Assurance Company, a philanthropic institution, a mechanics' Institute, a botanic garden, a public cemetery, &c. Several newspapers are published in the city. It manufactures woollen goods, starch, soap, snuff, and machinery, and it has a variety of steam and other mills, with breweries, tanneries, malt-houses, &c. Its trade in ores, wool, &c., is already very extensive, and it will necessarily increase with the increase of the trade of the colony, of which it is the grand emporium. Around the city on the E. and S. is a semicircle of hills, some rising to upwards of 2,000 ft. above the sea; and within a few miles are some of the principal copper and lead mines, to which, especially the former, the colony owes the greater part of its prosperity. So much is this the case, that of the total exports from the colony, amounting in the year ending October 10th, 1849, to 436,316*l.*, those of copper and copper ores amounted to 287,481*l.* (See post.)

The river Torrens, on which Adelaide is built, loses itself in a marsh before reaching the sea, so that the city is from 6 to 7 m. distant from its port, an inlet of St. Vincent's Gulph. This inland situation is a serious drawback on the trade of the city; and it would seem that a mistake was committed in not building it on, or much nearer to, the coast. This, we are aware, has been denied, though, as we think, upon very unsatisfactory grounds. There appears, indeed, to be but little doubt that in no very lengthened period most part of the commerce of the town will be transferred to the port; and that the latter will be preferred as a residence by commercial people. In the rainy season the Torrens is much flooded, though it seldom overflows its banks, which are steep and lofty; but in the dry season it has no current, its bed being then formed into a series of pools or tanks.

VOL. II.

Port Adelaide, 7 m. N.W. from the city, in a low and marshy situation, consists of a number of dwelling-houses, and warehouses, many of which are of stone, with wharves, partly belonging to government, and partly to the South Australian Company. Pop. in 1850 about 2,500. The inlet of the sea forming the harbour, opposite the entrance to which a light vessel is moored, stretches from the gulph, from which it is separated by a narrow neck of land, for about 8 m. southward surrounding Torrens Island. At its mouth is a sandy bar with 8 ft. water at ebb and 16 ft. at flood tide; this depth being considerably increased during S. and S.W. winds. Ships of 400 or 500 tons may, consequently, pass the bar in safety, and once over, there is depth enough for the largest ships to the head of the harbour. (*Dutton, S. Australia*, p. 112.) Large vessels are, however, obliged to lie in mid channel, but projects were recently on foot, and are now, probably, being realised, for improving the harbour, either by carrying out piers into the deep water, or by establishing a new port about 2 m. nearer to the harbour's mouth, where the water in-shore is deeper, and the situation affords greater facilities for the accommodation of shipping. Port Adelaide has a custom house; but vessels are exempted from all port charges in this and in the other ports of the colony. A railway planned to unite the city with the port, will, most likely, be completed at an early date. We subjoin the following statements with respect to the trade, &c., of Port Adelaide (or S. Australia) in the following years:—

Imports and Exports at Port Adelaide.

Years.	Total Imports.			Total Exports.		
	<i>£</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
1843 - - -	108,015	0	9	80,855	12	2
1844 - - -	118,915	6	11	83,372	14	6
1845 - - -	184,819	11	5	148,429	4	7
1846 - - -	399,099	12	9	312,837	16	6
1847 - - -	410,815	12	9	320,548	12	12
1848 - - -	381,258	19	0	304,068	0	0
1849 - - -	599,518	10	6	403,167	0	6

Exports the Produce of South Australia.

	<i>£</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
1844 - - -	-	-	89,228 13 8
1845 - - -	-	-	131,900 6 0
1846 - - -	-	-	287,038 13 0
1847 - - -	-	-	275,115 11 0
1848 - - -	-	-	465,378 10 0
1849 - - -	-	-	374,185 10 0

Ships entered inwards at Port Adelaide in the under-mentioned Years.

	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.
From Great Britain	8	12	80	25	35	95
B. Colonies	60	97	111	115	170	165
Foreign States	2	5	11	7	10	17
Total	70	114	142	150	215	277

Immigration and Emigration.—The arrivals and departures at Port Adelaide, by sea, during the last few years have been as follows:—

	Arrived.	Departed.
1844 - - -	1,114	547
1845 - - -	2,236	645
1846 - - -	4,458	823
1847 - - -	5,646	825
1848 - - -	7,664	1,042
1849 - - -	16,166	2,594

During 1849 the arrivals and departures were from and to the places following:—

	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		Foreign States.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Arrivals	6,854	5,647	1,455	585	981	646
Departures	76	55	1,611	782	144	95

The excess of departures for the neighbouring colonies is caused by many of the English passenger-ships being bound for Adelaide, Melbourne, and Sydney, where many proceed, and are entered accordingly.

Under Foreign States, the numbers denote nearly the arrivals from Germany, and the departures for California.

Account of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles, the Produce of S. Australia, exported from Port Adelaide in the Year ending the 10th October, 1849.

Articles.	Quantities.	Values.
Bacon and hams	122 cwts.	41 0
Beef	6 cwt.	12 0
Beer	11,390 gals.	1,100 0
Bread	391 cwt.	254 0
Butter	7 cwt.	35 0
Cattle	-	-
Horses	3	100 0
Cows	17	85 0
Sheep	379	185 0
Cheese	60 cwt.	120 0
Corn	-	-
Barley	219 qrs.	157 0
Wheat	11,401 qrs.	17,299 15
Flour	1,184 tons 10 cwt.	13,216 0
Glue, pieces	1 ton	12 0
Gum	557 cwt. 24 lb.	586 0
Hides	1,626	430 0
Horns and bones	116 cwt.	90 0
Horns	3,694	145 0
Leather	104 cwt.	331 0
Metal	-	-
Copper	3,785 cwt. 2 qrs. 5 lbs.	14,862 0
Lead	22 cwt.	29 0
Oil, black	3 tons.	100 0
Ore	-	-
Copper	14,547 tons 16 cwt.	272,607 0
Emery	21 cwt. 1 qr. 14 lbs.	29 0
Lead	415 tons 14 cwt. 1 qr.	5,510 0
Specimens	120 lbs.	6 0
Preserves	-	-
Specimens	5,872 cwt. 3 qrs. 9 lbs.	142 0
Tallow	9,076 0	9,076 0
Wool	10,504 bales. 2,338,040 lbs.	99,137 5
Whalebone	56 cwt. 1 qr. 21 lb.	250 0
Wine	5 gals.	1 0
Miscellaneous	-	295 0
		456,216 0

Adelaide was founded in 1834. In 1842, it was incorporated by an act of the colonial legislature as a city under a mayor, aldermen, and common council; but the corporation was subsequently broken up, and we have not learned whether it has been re-established. (*Wilkinson, Dutton, Bennett, S. Australia; South Australian Almanac for 1850.*)

AUSTRIA. The dismemberment of the Austrian monarchy, which appeared, when the article "Austria" in the Dictionary was written, to be not at all improbable, has, for a while at least, been averted. The revolutionary excesses of which Vienna was the theatre did not extend to any other portion of the German provinces of the empire; and the vigorous efforts made by the Magyars of Hungary to throw off the Austrian yoke were weakened by the opposition of the Slavonians of Croatia, and other provinces. Perhaps, however, the Magyars might have succeeded in establishing their independence, and, at all events, the struggle with them would have been much more severe, but for the powerful assistance given by Russia to the Austrians. In Italy the latter had comparatively little difficulty in re-establishing their authority. The Italians can do everything but fight. They can produce, at sight, the draught of a free constitution, with representative bodies, and providing for the freedom of the press, of religious worship, and so forth. But when it becomes necessary to maintain by the sword what they have so well expressed by the pen, their courage rapidly evaporates. Indeed, the presumption is, that, though the whole population were in arms from the Alps to the extremity of Calabria, 100,000 Austrian, French, or Russian troops would suffice to reduce them to obedience, and make them crouch, like slaves, under the lash. They have not yet learned to prefer death to dishonour.

*Suum cuique erede nobis, animam proferre pudori,
Et propter vicium, vivendi perdere causam.*

But the difficulties with which the Austrian

government has to contend are still extremely formidable. The different provinces of the empire, occupied by different races of people, speaking different languages, are not held together by any common tie of interest or affection. On the contrary, they entertain the greatest jealousy of, and aversion from, each other; and no attempt has been made to obviate this state of things, or to reconcile the apparently conflicting, but really identical interests of the various countries and races under the imperial sceptre. On the 4th March, 1849, the present emperor promulgated a constitution for all the states of the empire, establishing two representative chambers, an upper and a lower, the latter chosen by universal suffrage, and guaranteeing the freedom of the press, &c. But the urgency of the crisis which led to the promulgation of this important document having passed away, we hear no more of the constitution, or of the fulfilment of the promises made in it. On the contrary, all the most offensive parts of the old regime have again been made as prominent as ever. The sword, in fact, is at present the only instrument of government recognised in Austria, and courts-martial are the only tribunals for the trial of political offences. But though a system of this sort may answer perfectly well in Italy, we hardly think it will succeed in Germany. We believe, indeed, that if it be not very materially modified, it will, at no very distant period, be wholly overthrown. Dissatisfaction is everywhere prevalent. The finances are, also, in a state of the greatest disorder; and the attempt to impose new taxes, without the sanction either of provincial states or of a general diet or parliament, has excited deep feelings of disgust in some of the provinces most attached to the reigning family.

It may even be doubted whether the praiseworthy efforts of the government to modify or repeal the existing shackles on the freedom of commerce will not add to its unpopularity. They have provoked the hostility of the manufacturers; and it is by no means clear that they will be favourably received even by those classes to whom they will be of the greatest advantage. Whatever may be its political consequences, the attempt that is now being made by the Austrian government to have its territories, and those of the Southern Germanic states, included in the Zollverein, or German Customs League, would certainly add greatly to the industry and well-being of the German people.

On the 1st of May next (1851), unless, like the constitution of 1849, it should be indefinitely postponed, a new uniform customs tariff for the whole of the Austrian dominions is to come into operation, and the export and import laws published in 1829 and 1838 are to be annulled. In the new tariff, the articles liable to duty are classed under 32 principal heads, and these into inferior ones. With the exception of salt, gunpowder, tobacco, and preparations liable to explode, all goods may be exported and imported without requiring any special permit. On most articles the duties are considerably reduced; and some at present prohibited will for the first time be admissible. All customs must be paid in imperial coins of "three pieces of twenty to the florin." The duration of the tariff is fixed at 5 years; and no change can be made in it except by decree of the Imperial Diet, or in case of a customs-union with Germany and Italy.

BOYD TOWN. A sea-port town, co. Auckland, N. S. Wales, on the S. shore of Twofold Bay, lat. 37° 72' S., long. 149° 54' E. Pop., in 1848, probably 3,000. It has a jetty 300 feet in length with other accommodations for shipping; and E. Boyd is the seat of a large whaling establishment. Boyd Town was founded by Mr. Benjamin Boyd, who connected it by a road 45 m. in length with the extensive squattling district called the Maneroo Plains. A lighthouse, 76 feet in height, has been erected on the headland, forming the S. boundary of Twofold Bay, adjoining E. Boyd.

CHICAGO, a town of the U. States, Illinois, at the embouchure of the Chicago river, in the S. W. corner of Lake Michigan, lat. 42° N., long. 87° 37' W. The river, which is formed of two branches that unite about 3 m. from the lake, divides the town into three portions, the principal seat of business being on the S. side of the main stream. The growth of Chicago has been quite extraordinary, its pop., which in 1840 amounted to only 4,853, having increased, in 1848, to about 17,000! and there is every probability that it will continue rapidly to increase for many years to come. It is indebted for this wonderful development to its situation and the enterprise of its inhabitants. It is the natural entrepôt for the trade between the flourishing state of Illinois and the vast regions watered by the great lakes; its importance in this respect having been very greatly increased by its having been united by a canal, of the largest class, with the navigable waters of the Illinois river, an affluent of the Mississippi; so that it communicates, on the one hand, with New Orleans and the Mexican Gulph, and, on the other, with Quebec and the St. Lawrence. Hence the value of its exports and imports, which, in 1840, were respectively 228,636 and 562,106 dollars, had risen, in 1847, to 2,296,299 and 2,641,853 do. 1 Among other articles, the exports, in 1847, comprised 1,574,268 bush. of wheat, 39,538 bar. flour, 48,920 bar. beef and pork, and 411,488 lb. wool. The harbour, which is partly artificial, is formed by means of piers, at the extremity of one of which is a lighthouse, projecting from the river into the lake. The trade of the port employs a great number of steamers and sailing vessels, a good many of which belong to the town. The situation, though low, is above the level of the inundations, and is said to be healthy. The streets cross each other at right angles, and the wooden buildings of the first settlers are now rapidly giving way to substantial brick edifices. It has some handsome churches, a medical college, various elementary and superior schools, a merchant's academy, banks, insurance offices, and so forth; and, in 1847, no fewer than 7 weekly and 4 daily newspapers! Fort Dearborn, which acquired some celebrity in the last war between this country and the U. States, is in its immediate vicinity. Such is the present state and prospects of a town founded on what was, 20 years since, a hunting-ground occupied by the Indians. (See an excellent art. on Chicago in *Hunt's Commercial Magazine* for February, 1848.)

COLUMBUS, a city of the U. States, cap. Ohio, of which it is nearly in the centre, on the banks of the Scioto, immediately above the point where it is joined by the Whetstone river, 100 m. N.E. Cincinnati, lat. 36° 47' N., long. 83° 3' W. It was founded so late as 1812, the land on which it stands having previously been a wilderness. Pop., in 1840, 6,048; in 1848, about 14,000! It is well situated on land rising gradually from the river; the streets, which are broad and straight, cross each other at right angles, being for the most part lined with substantial houses. It has a square, which comprises 10 acres, and a convenient wharf extends along the margin of the river. But the navigation of the latter (an affluent of the Ohio) being liable to interruption, the city is united by a canal to the Ohio canal, which opens an easy communication with the lakes on the one hand, and the Mississippi on the other; and its trade is farther promoted by its being on the line of the great national road from Indianapolis to Zanesville, &c. A bridge across the river unites the city with the suburb of Franklinton. The public buildings comprise a state house, commanding a fine view of the surrounding country; an edifice for the accommodation of the officers of the state; a state penitentiary; a lunatic asylum, and asylums for the blind, and for deaf and dumb persons; a Lutheran theological seminary; numerous churches; several bank offices, one of which has a handsome Doric portico, &c. Here, as in the other towns of the U. States, there is ample provision for the education of the young in elementary and superior schools, academies, &c. It has factories of various sorts, with tanneries, breweries, distilleries, and printing-offices, which, in addition to other publications, furnish supply monthly and daily newspapers. (*Haskell's Gazetteer*, &c.)

DENMARK. Since the art. Denmark, in the body of this work, was printed, we have received from Copenhagen, from a source on which every reliance may be placed, the following statements.

The prohibitory regulations obstructing the commerce of the country and encouraging sloth and smuggling, have been materially modified by ordinances passed in 1838, 1841, 1844, 1846, and 1847. The duties on foreign imports vary at present from 3 to 20 per cent. *ad valorem*. All prohibitions of importation and exportation have been abolished. The facility of trade is promoted by

great liberality in regard to the warehousing and bonding of merchandise. A few articles continue subject to duties on being exported, and of these cattle, hides, and skins are of greatest consequence. The education of mechanics has of late years been improved by the formation of mechanics' institutes, drawing-schools, &c.

Account of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles, the Produce of Denmark and her Dependencies, exported from that Kingdom and the Duchies of Sleswick and Holstein, in 1847.

Articles.	Denish Weights and Measures.	British Weights and Measures.	Approximate Value.
<i>I. Agricultural Produce.</i>			
Wheat - - -	442,122 tender	211,541 qrs.	348,171
Rye - - -	405,192 -	193,871 -	182,336
Barley - - -	1,106,483 -	529,480 -	373,139
Malt - - -	21,941 -	10,496 -	2,173
Oats - - -	736,578 -	342,324 -	248,522
Black-wheat - -	116,194 -	55,567 -	76,431
Grains of buck-wheat, and oats - -	9,047,113 lbs.	9,558,845 lbs.	50,890
Flour of barley, wheat, and potatoes - -	3,410,980 -	3,754,703 -	11,512
Other flour - -	3,538,540 -	3,893,140 -	11,943
Pulse - - -	185,198 tender	86,612 qrs.	125,009
Turns - - -	46,999 -	22,482 -	21,145
Beans - - -	45,414 -	20,796 -	21,437
Rape-seed - -	140,346 -	70,022 -	131,711
Flax and other seeds - - -	69,671 -	32,646 -	43,781
Oil cakes - -	20,824,987 lbs.	205,024 cwts.	46,917
Butter - - -	87,755 tender	39,893 cwt.	465,347
Cheese - - -	877,000 lbs.	8,623 cwt.	9,865
Fork, salted - -	3,825,566 -	37,596 -	61,618
Beef, salted - -	1,643,459 -	18,146 -	24,914
Pork, salted - -	181,291 -	1,783 -	2,498
Tallow - - -	192,576 -	1,494 -	3,899
Candles - - -	59,798 -	508 -	1,481
Horses - - -	11,250 head	11,250 head	94,292
Oxen - - -	44,084 -	44,084 -	297,567
Cows - - -	15,186 -	15,186 -	19,430
Calves - - -	16,663 -	16,663 -	18,746
Pigs - - -	23,603 -	23,603 -	7,966
Sheep and lambs - -	106,887 vtr.	-	16,034
Corn and potatoes, brumby - -	-	-	-
Hides - - -	210,699 lbs.	2,367 cwt.	5,654
Horse, ox, and cow - -	-	-	-
Skins - - -	-	-	-
Calf, sheep, and lamb - -	1,387,584 -	13,614 -	41,550
Honey - - -	174,074 -	1,692 -	5,484
Wax - - -	161,948 -	1,621 -	11,166
Quills, writing - -	1,413 -	-	80
Bones - - -	6,695,835 -	63,839 cwt.	7,233
Do. burnt - -	195,021 -	1,918 -	873
Potatoes - - -	146,511 tender	-	12,681
Wood for fuel - -	16,380 fathm.	-	12,859
Turf - - -	-	-	23,507
<i>II. Produce of the Fishery.</i>			
Herrings - - -	10,725 tender	-	9,633
Salmon - - -	1,178 -	-	1,084
Oysters - - -	1,680 tender	-	5,024
<i>III. Produce of the Colonies.</i>			
<i>a. Of Iceland, the Faroe Islands, and Greenland, exported into Denmark.</i>			
Eider-down - -	4,763 lbs.	5,247 lbs.	2,143
Feathers for beds - -	19,566 -	21,508 -	881
Lub-fish - - -	-	-	-
Flat-fish - - -	2,768,768 -	27,225 cwt.	21,804
Sheep and lamb skins - -	19,489 -	-	351
Reindeer skins - -	40,998 -	-	1,063
Fox - - -	67,515 -	-	15,191
Seal - - -	136,026 -	-	15,203
Scooters - - -	16,690 -	-	45
Tallow - - -	848,660 -	8,315 cwt.	17,182
Train-oil - - -	16,957 tender	-	40,060
Wool - - -	1,007,704 lbs.	9,850 cwt.	22,561
Worsted jackets - -	-	-	-
Stockings - - -	90,299 -	-	10,160
Mittens - - -	-	-	-
Whalebone - -	8,240 -	81 cwt.	927
<i>b. In the Island of St. Croix, exported into Denmark.</i>			
Sugar - - -	13,381,859 -	131,692 -	188,192
Rum - - -	390,677 vtr.	-	85,015
Total - - -	-	-	3,291,406

The approximate value of the mentioned articles is official.

In 1847 Denmark possessed, exclusive of 28 steam-boats and of vessels under 30 tons, 2,033 ships of the burden of 144,064 tons; of which about 71, of the burden of 14,323 tons, were employed in the Transatlantic trade.

In 1848 slavery was abolished in the Danish W. Indies. In 1849 the produce of St. Croix amounted to only

17,711,735 lbs. sugar, and 664,804 gall. rum, owing, it is said, to the dryness of the season.

The settlements of Tranquebar and Serampore, in the East Indies, were sold, in 1845, to the East India Company.

In the years 1835-40 the average increase of the population in Denmark Proper was '88 per cent., and in the duchies '97 per cent. per annum.

In 1845 Copenhagen had 126,787 inhabs.; Altona, 32,300 do.; Flensburg, 16,537 do.; Kiel, 13,573 do.

A few days after his accession to the throne, in January, 1848, his present Majesty, Frederic VII., issued an ordinance, declaring his willingness to give a free constitution to all the states subject to his sceptre. But a great party in the duchies was dissatisfied with this offer, and as the king, in March, 1848, declined to comply with their request to have Sleswick embodied in the Germanic Confederation, the insurrection broke out in the duchies.

The new constitutional law of Denmark was passed the 5th of June, 1849. The legislative power is vested in the king and the diet; the executive power belongs to the king. The diet consists of an upper chamber, called *Landsthing*, and a lower chamber, called *Folkething*. The electors of the former comprise all Danes, not count-

victed of any crime, 30 years of age, excepting domestic servants, persons who have received any provision from the poor rates without repaying the same, bankrupts, and those who have not resided a whole year in the district previously to the election. Under the same limitations all Danes, 25 years of age, are electors of members of the Folkething. The elections for the Landsthing are indirect: its members must be 40 years of age, and pay a direct tax of 300 rbd., or have a net annual income of 1,200 rbd. The sittings of both chambers are public. The members of the diet receive 3 rbd. a day each, and this is not to be refused. Every man in good health is obliged personally to contribute to the defence of the country. All prerogatives of nobility and rank are abolished.

The schools were attended, in 1847, by 234,000 pupils.

The Danish army amounts to upwards of 35,000 men; but in time of peace it is much less considerable, not exceeding 6,000 or 8,000.

The navy consisted, in 1850, of 5 ships of the line, of which 3 carried 34 guns, 8 frigates, 5 corvettes, 4 brig, 5 war steamers, 82 gunboats, &c.

Finances.—The revenue and expenditure of Denmark and the Duchies, in 1846, were as under:

Revenue.	Amount of each of the several Branches.	Expenditure.	Amount of each of the several Branches.
<i>Ordinary.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Public Expenses.</i>	<i>£</i>
1. Woods and forests and other property of the crown - - - - -	189,932	1. Establishment of the king - - - - -	86,676
2. Land and house tax - - - - -	608,159	2. Ditto of the royal family - - - - -	57,734
3. Customs and excise - - - - -	49,585	3. Public departments, exclusive of the customs - - - - -	177,007
4. Sound toll - - - - -	221,754	4. Navy - - - - -	572,473
5. The canal of Eyder - - - - -	7,693	5. Navy - - - - -	118,400
6. Post - - - - -	83,724	6. Pensions and allowances - - - - -	165,363
7. Surplus of Lauenburg - - - - -	36,457	7. Public works - - - - -	100,830
8. Ditto of the West India Islands - - - - -	521	8. Industry and trade - - - - -	105,360
9. Income derived from other property of the crown - - - - -	65,575	9. Arts and sciences - - - - -	39,258
10. Miscellaneous - - - - -	178,514	10. Charitable institutions - - - - -	16,679
		11. Miscellaneous - - - - -	145,398
		<i>Public Debt.</i>	
		1. Interest upon the same - - - - -	445,760
Deduct loss in the exchange of paper money and small coin - - - - -	2,081,772	2. Payments to the sinking fund - - - - -	271,462
Total net revenue, 1846 - - - - -	2,081,584	Surplus of income to be carried over to next year - - - - -	2,009,489
		Total - - - - -	72,104
			2,081,584

On the 1st of January, 1847, the public debt amounted to 106,314,520 rix-doll., but in consequence of the war it was increased, on the 1st of April, 1850, to 112,148,570 rix-dollars.

According to the last census, in 1845, there were in Denmark Proper, that is, in the islands and Jutland, 37,457 poor persons, exclusive of 1,880 inmates of bride-wells and houses of correction. In Sleswick and Holstein there were 19,173 paupers, &c. of 763 inmates of bride-wells and houses of correction.

We subjoin, from a valuable art. on the agriculture of Denmark that lately appeared in the *Morning Chronicle*, the conditions of the leases granted on one of the chief baronial estates of Zealand, from the printed form of contract.

"1. The farmer is to pay, punctually at the legal term, to the baron, or his authorised agent, all public and communal taxes, imposts, and prestations due or to be rendered from the farm, by whatsoever name they may be called, which are now or may hereafter be required by law, as well as all personal taxes or imposts due from himself or his family, in the same manner as if he were himself the owner of the land.

"2. He is to pay *tender of rye*, barley, oats, with — rix dollars yearly. If in money, the grain is to be valued at the *saize price* (*saize* means, the amount to be paid 14 days after the same is declared, and the fixed money payment to be made on the 1st of November of each year. The proprietor (*seer*) reserves to himself the right of requiring the grain to be paid in kind, upon giving one year's notice to the farmer; and in such case the farmer is to deliver the grain at the barn, or at one of the three nearest towns, or on board ship (the sea being close at hand), as the proprietor may determine. The grain to be in good sound marketable condition. The tithe due from the farm are to be paid by the farmer to the legal recipient; those belonging to the proprietor to be paid at the same time as the rent.

"3. The farmer must cultivate the land farmed to him in such a manner that its productiveness shall in no case be impaired, and must therefore follow a determinate plan. He is in no case to allow manure, straw, or hay to go off the farm, or to use any of the funder for fuel. Should the proprietor find occasion to complain of unwarrantable treatment of the land, he has the right to appoint a legal institution to be taken by men nominated thereto, according to law, who are to decide, to the best of their judgment, whether the farmer, with the stipulation against injuring the land before his eyes, has treated it unwarrantably; if this should prove so, the proprietor is authorised to call upon the farmer to desist from this mode of acting, as well as to make restitution for the damage which may have been already occasioned. When the farmer quits the land he is to give it up sown with winter seed, and the owner is to have access to it until it shall be sown with spring seed. The farmer must not cut turf on the ground until he has given intimation to the proprietor.

"4. The farmer is himself to fit the stock of horses, waggons, ploughs, harrows, and other gear; seed-corn and food-corn required for the farm; all which shall be delivered over to him along with the farm-buildings, under legal obligation. This stock, although it is to remain the property of the farmer, shall not be diminished during

the term of the lease, but shall be preserved on the property during the whole period, and when the lease passes to another, it is to be notified by legal institution that the new lessee has received the stock. The farmer must insure his stock against fire, and inform the proprietor on every occasion of renewing the policy of insurance. The farm-buildings are to be delivered over to the farmer at the same institution as the stock, in the condition in which they are standing. During the term of his lease, the farmer is bound to maintain the buildings in good condition, and the proprietor has the right of inspecting them. If the farmer allow the buildings to sustain injury, and the loss be not repaired within a fixed term, the proprietor is entitled to have the damages examined by an inquest, and the farmer shall make them good under pain of legal process.

"5. In case the farmer fall into arrears of rent, tithe, or taxes, and be sued by the proprietor, and be obliged to make them within a term of 16 weeks from the day of payment fixed by such sentence or arbitration, and, if not, the lease is to be forfeited, and the owner is entitled to make over the farm to another party, and to require the same to be delivered up in conformity with the preception of the inquest.

"6. The farmer is debarred from sporting of any sort; the rights of chase on the ground are reserved to the proprietor and to those to whom he may grant permission.

"7. The farmer is precluded from transferring the property leased, or any part of it, to others, without the proprietor's consent; but he has the option of giving up the lease. In this case it is to be disposed of by public auction, and the proprietor is entitled to resume the ground, on paying the highest bid offered at the auction, within a term of 14 days.

"8. The proprietor has priority of claim on the stock and produce for the due discharge of rent and taxes by the tenant; and if the claims shall amount to more than the value of the stock, then the property is to be sold, and the proceeds are to be applied to the payment of the claims, both as a security to the proprietor and as evidence of the tenant's right to the usufruct of the land.

"9. The tenant is bound to keep the out-fences of his farm in repair. The tenant is bound to plant every year 20 falcons of holly, with ash, fir, or other suitable species of trees, and to replant gaps which may have been made; this is to be continued until all the out-fences of the farm are planted. In case of neglect of such planting or re-planting, he is bound for every year during which he shall have neglected it to contribute a *tande* (half a quarter) of barley to the poor-box of the parish.

"10. The tenant is entitled to a renewal of the contract for fifty years, on offering to pay the proprietor an increased yearly rent. If such an offer is made in the first ten years, the proprietor shall either accept it or buy out the tenant by paying twenty times the amount of yearly increase offered; &c. &c. If the tenant offers to pay in the next ten years, and it is not accepted, then the proprietor shall pay to the tenant an indemnity of sixteen times the amount of the offered yearly increase. If the offer is made within the third term of ten years, and refused, then the indemnity is to be fourteen times the amount of the offered yearly increase; if in the fourth ten years, twice times such amount; if after 40 to 45 years, the indemnity is to be ten times the amount; and if in the 45th, 50th, 47th or 48th, five times the amount. In the last year the proprietor shall settle a sum to renew the contract nor to give an indemnity for not renewing it.

"11. A fine or acknowledgment of six dollars is to be paid on the subscription of this contract, but any portion of it may remain unpaid on the tenant engaging to make a yearly payment of eight per cent. interest on the sum.

"12. The tenant may sublet two *tenders* (2½ acres) land to be attached to one or two houses, in any angle of his ground.

"13. All the costs of transfer, the stamp and registry of the contract, and the survey of the ground on delivery, are to be borne by the tenant.

DOLLAR, a neat village of Scotland, co. Clackmannan, 12 m. E. by N. Stirling. This village is celebrated for its important educational institution established under the will (1818) of the late John Macnab, Esq., a native of the parish, who appropriated nearly 100,000*l.* for its foundation. It is said in the article **DOLLAR**, in the body of this work, that the institution had not been so successful as might have been anticipated, owing, as was supposed, to defects in its management, which was vested in the kirk-session of the par., or rather in the clergyman by whom the kirk-session is nominated. But we are glad to have to state, that this defective constitution has been amended, and that the private act, 10 & 11 Vict. c. 16., has entrusted the government of the institution to a body of trustees, comprising the lord-lieutenant of the county and other distinguished individuals. This change has been of the greatest advantage. The institution is now in an efficient and flourishing condition. Notwithstanding the expenditure on the erection of extensive, handsome, and commodious buildings for the different classes, including houses for the principal and masters, and on libraries, museums, a botanical garden, playgrounds, &c., the institution has a capital which produces a free income of from 2,000*l.* to 3,000*l.* a year, expended in the promotion of its objects. Instruction is afforded, under separate and well-qualified masters, in Latin and Greek; French, German, and Italian; English composition, mathematics, &c. Pupils are thus prepared either for entering on the active duties of life, or for the universities, the East India Company's colleges, the schools for engineering, &c. Boys on the foundation pay no school fees. This, however, is no very great boon, as the fees are exceedingly low, not exceeding 2*l.* a year for all the classes a boy can advantageously attend! Good board may be had in the village for 30*l.* a year or less. The number of pupils is at present above 400; but the attendance will no doubt increase when the cheapness and other advantages of the institution come to be better known.

FRANCE.

CONSTITUTION OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

AS DEFINITELY VOTED ON THE 4TH NOVEMBER, 1848.

PREAMBLE.

Art. 1. France, in constituting herself into a Republic, proposes to herself, as its object, to march freely in the path of progress and civilization; to secure a more equitable division of the charges and advantages of society between all citizens; to augment, by the gradual reduction of public charges, the sum of the general advantages, and to cause all to arrive without free exemptions, by the successive and constant action of the law, to the same level, to a higher degree of morality, intelligence, and comfort.

Art. 2. The French Republic is democratic, one and indivisible. Art. 3. It recognises rights and duties anterior and superior to the positive laws, and independent of them.

Art. 4. Its dogma is Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity. It has for basis, labour, family ties, property, and public order.

Art. 5. It recognises foreign nationalities as it comprehends making its own respected; it undertakes no war from views of conquest, and never employs its forces against the liberty of any nation.

Art. 6. Reciprocal duties bind citizens towards the Republic, and the Republic towards citizens.

Art. 7. The duty of the citizen is to love his country, to serve the Republic, to defend it even at the expense of his life; to share in the charges of the state in proportion to his fortune; to secure to himself and his family, by his labour, the means of existence, and by care and forethought to create resources for the future; to concur in promoting the common welfare, by giving fraternal assistance to others, and the general order, by observing the moral written laws which govern society, families, and individuals.

Art. 8. The Republic is bound to protect the citizen in his person, his family, his religion, his property, and his labour, and to place within the reach of each the instruction indispensable for all: it is bound, by a fraternal assistance, to assure the assistance of the necessitous citizens by procuring them employment within the limits of its resources, or, when there is no family to provide it, giving assistance to those who are unable to work. With a view to the accomplishment of all those duties, and to guarantee all these rights, the National Assembly, faithful to the traditions of the great assemblies

who have inaugurated the French revolution, decrees as follows: the Constitution of the Republic:—

CONSTITUTION.

CHAPTER I.—OF THE SOVEREIGNTY.

Art. 1. The sovereignty resides in the universality of French citizens. It is inalienable and imprescriptible. No individual fraction of the people can attribute to themselves the exercise of it.

CHAPTER II.—RIGHTS OF CITIZENS GUARANTEED BY THE CONSTITUTION.

Art. 2. No man can be arrested, or detained in custody, except according to the prescriptions of the law.

Art. 3. The dwelling-place of each person inhabiting the French territory is an inviolable asylum; it is not permitted to any one to penetrate within its precincts, except according to the forms and in the cases provided for by law.

Art. 4. No citizen shall be deprived of his natural judges; no commissions or extraordinary courts can be created on any pretext or denomination whatever.

Art. 5. The punishment of death is abolished in political matters.

Art. 6. Slavery cannot exist in any part of the French territory.

Art. 7. Each citizen professes freely his religion, and receives from the State, for the exercise of his worship, an equal protection. The clergymen of the creeds recognised by the law have also a right to receive a salary from the State.

Art. 8. Citizens have a right to meet, to assemble peaceably, and without arms, to petition, to express their thoughts by means of the press or otherwise. The exercise of these rights has no other limit than the rights or the liberty of others, and public security. The press cannot in any case be subjugated to censorship.

Art. 9. Instruction is free: the liberty of instruction is enshrined on conditions of capacity and morality determined by the law, and under the surveillance of the State. This surveillance extends to all establishments of education and instruction, without any exception.

Art. 10. Citizens are admissible to all public employments, without other motives of preference but their merit, or the rights acquired according to the law. The Constitution recognises no title or distinction of birth, class, or caste. All titles, distinctions of nobility, of class and caste, are for ever abolished.

Art. 11. All properties are inviolable; nevertheless the State can require the sacrifice of a property for cause of public utility, legally proved, and on payment of a just and previous indemnity.

Art. 12. The confiscation of property can never be re-established.

Art. 13. The Constitution guarantees to all citizens the liberty of labour and industry. Society favours and encourages the development of labour by gratuitous primary instruction, by professional education, equal of relations between the employer and the workman, institutions of credit and provident establishments, voluntary associations, agricultural establishments, and the establishment by the State, its departments, and the communes, of public works, proper to employ unoccupied hands. It furnishes assistance to children who may have been abandoned, to the infirm and to the old without resources, and whom their families cannot support.

Art. 14. The public debt is guaranteed. Every kind of engagement entered into by the State with its creditors is inviolable.

Art. 15. All taxes are established for the common utility; each citizen contributes to them in proportion to his faculties and his fortune.

Art. 16. No tax can be established and levied, except in virtue of a law.

Art. 17. Direct taxes are consented to only for one year. Indirect taxes may be consented to for several years.

CHAPTER III.—OF THE EXECUTIVE POWER.

Art. 18. All the public powers, of every description, emanate from the people. They cannot be delegated hereditarily.

Art. 19. The separation of the powers is the first condition of a free government.

CHAPTER IV.—OF THE LEGISLATIVE POWER.

Art. 20. The French people delegates the legislative power to one Assembly.

Art. 21. The total number of the representatives of the people shall be 750, inclusive of the representatives of Algeria and of the French colonies.

Art. 22. That number will be raised to 900 for Assemblies called on to revise the Constitution.

Art. 23. The election has for its basis the population.

Art. 24. The suffrage is direct and universal.* The vote is by ballot.

Art. 25. Are electors, all Frenchmen, aged twenty-one years, and in enjoyment of their civil and political rights.

Art. 26. All Frenchmen, who are twenty-five years of age, and in the enjoyment of their civil and political rights, are entitled to be representatives, without condition of property qualification, or residence.

Art. 27. The electoral law shall determine the cases which may deprive a French citizen of the right of electing or being elected. It shall designate the citizens who, exercising or having exercised functions in a department or territorial district, cannot be elected within it.

Art. 28. Every public functionary with a salary is incompatible with the rights of the elector. No member of the National Assembly can during the legislature be named or promoted to salaried public functions, the holders of which are chosen at will by the executive power. The exceptions to the two preceding paragraphs shall be determined by the electoral organic law.

Art. 29. The provisions of the preceding article are not applicable to assemblies elected for the revision of the Constitution.

Art. 30. The representatives, elected by the preceding paragraphs, are elected by the ballot. The electors shall vote at the chief town of the canton; nevertheless, by reason of local circumstances, the canton may be divided into several circumscriptions in manner and on conditions to be decided by the electoral law.

Art. 31. The National Assembly is elected for three years, and is renewed integrally. Forty-five days at latest before the end of the legislature, a law fixes the period for the new elections. If no law is made within the period fixed by the preceding paragraph, the electors assemble in full right on the thirtieth day preceding the end of the legislature. The new Assembly is convoked in full right on the morrow of the day on which the mandate of the preceding Assembly terminates.

Art. 32. It is permanent. Nevertheless, it may adjourn to a day to be fixed by itself. During the prorogation, a commission, composed of the members of the bureau and 25 representatives, named by the Assembly by ballot, and by an absolute majority, has the right of convoking it in case of urgency. The President of the Republic

* But the electoral law of 1850 provides that, besides being 21 years of age, every voter must have resided for at least 3 years in the commune in which he proposes to vote.

some organization and attributions until they shall have been abrogated by a law.

Art. 89. Any disagreement as to attributions between the administrative and the judicial authority shall be settled by a special tribunal, composed of members of the Court of Cassation and of Councillors of State selected in equal numbers, by their respective bodies. This tribunal shall be presided over by the Minister of Justice.

Art. 90. Appeals on the score of incompetency and excess of power against the decisions of the Court of Accounts shall be carried before the *Jurisdiction de Conflits*.

Art. 91. A High Court of Justice tries, without appeal or recourse in cassation, the accusations brought by the National Assembly against the President of the Republic or against the Ministers. It also tries all persons accused of crimes, attempts, or conspiracies against the safety of the State either at home or abroad, whom the National Assembly shall so decide. Except in the cases provided for by Art. 68, it cannot take cognizance but in virtue of the decree of the National Assembly, which points out the town in which the court shall hold its sittings.

Art. 92. The High Court is composed of five judges and thirty-six jurymen. Every year, in the first fortnight of November, the Court of Cassation appoints from amongst its members, by secret ballot and by the absolute majority, the judges of the upper court, to the number of five, and two supplementary judges. The five judges called on to sit shall select their president. The magistrates performing the functions of public prosecutors are appointed by the President of the Republic, in the case of the absence of the President or of the Ministers, by the National Assembly. The jurymen, to the number of thirty-six and four supplementary jurymen, are selected from amongst the members of the council-general of the departments. The representation of the people is equal in each part of them.

Art. 93. When a decree of the National Assembly has ordered the formation of the High Court of Justice, and in the case provided for by Art. 68, on the requisition of the President, or of one of the judges, the President of the Court of Cassation, or in default of the Court of Appeal, the President of the *Tribunal de Première Instance* of the judicial chief town of the department, draws, by lot, in a public sitting, the name of a municipality. The council-general of that municipality, on the day appointed for the trial, if there are less than sixty jurymen present, that number shall be completed by the supplementary jurymen drawn by lot by the President of the High Court from amongst the members of the Council-General of the department in which the court will sit.

Art. 94. The absent jurymen who shall not have produced a reasonable excuse shall be condemned to a fine of from a hundred to ten thousand francs, and to the deprivation of political rights for not exceeding five years.

Art. 95. The accused and the public prosecutor exercise the right of challenge, as in cases of criminal procedure.

Art. 97. The verdicts of the Jury, declaring that the accused is guilty, cannot be given but by a majority of two-thirds of the number.

Art. 98. In all cases of responsibility of the Ministers, the National Assembly may, according to circumstances, send the accused Minister either before the High Court of Justice or before the ordinary tribunals for civil reparation.

Art. 99. The National Assembly and the President of the Republic may, in all cases, refer the examination of the acts of any functionary, other than the President of the Republic, to the Council of State, whose report is to be rendered to the Assembly.

Art. 100. The President of the Republic can only be tried by the High Court of Justice. Except in the case provided for by Art. 68, he can only have proceedings instituted against him on the accusation of the National Assembly, and for crimes and misdemeanors which shall be determined by the law.

CHAPTER IX.—OF THE PUBLIC FORCE.

Art. 101. The public force is instituted to defend the state against enemies from without, and to secure the maintenance of order and the execution of laws at home. It is composed of the National Guard, and of the land and sea forces.

Art. 102. Every Frenchman, with the exceptions fixed by law, owes military service, and that of the National Guard. The power of any citizen of liberating himself from personal military service shall be regulated by the law of recruitment.

Art. 103. The organization of the National Guard and the constitution of the army shall be regulated by a law.

Art. 104. The public force is essentially obedient. No armed body can deliberate.

Art. 105. The public force employed to maintain order at home only acts on the requisition of the constituted authorities, according to the rules determined by the legislative power.

Art. 106. A law will determine the cases in which the state of siege may be declared, and will regulate the forms and the effects of that measure.

Art. 107. No foreign troops can be introduced on the French territory without the previous consent of the National Assembly.

CHAPTER X.—PARTICULAR PROVISIONS.

Art. 108. The Legion of Honour is maintained; its statutes shall be revised and put in harmony with the Constitution.

Art. 109. The territory of Algeria and of the colonies is declared French territory, and will be governed by the laws which are in special law places them under the régime of the present Constitution.

Art. 110. The National Assembly confides the deposit of the present Constitution, and of the laws which it enacts, to the guardianship and patriotism of all Frenchmen.

CHAPTER XI.—OF THE REVISION OF THE CONSTITUTION.

Art. 111. When, in the first year of a legislature, the National Assembly shall express a wish that the Constitution shall be modified wholly or in part, it shall proceed to that revision in the following manner:—The wish expressed by the Assembly shall not be converted into a definitive resolution until after three consecutive deliberations, each taken at intervals of one month, and with three-fourths of the votes occupied. The number of voters shall be at least 500. The Assembly of revision shall only be named for three months. It shall only occupy itself with the revision for which it shall have been convoked, but it may nevertheless, in case of urgency, provide for any legislative necessities.

CHAPTER XII.—TRANSITORY PROVISIONS.

Art. 112. The existing provisions of the codes, laws, and regulations which are not contrary to the present Constitution, remain in force until they shall have been legally abrogated.

Art. 113. All the authorities constituted by the existing laws remain in exercise until the promulgation of the organic laws which concern them.

Art. 114. The law of judicial organization will determine the special mode of nomination for the first composition of the new tribunals.

Art. 115. After the vote of the Constitution, the National Constituent Assembly shall proceed to draw up the organic laws, the enumeration of which shall be determined by a special law.

Art. 116. The first election of the President of the Republic shall be preceded with conformably to the special law passed by the National Assembly on Oct. 29, 1848.

GALAXIDI, a sea-port of Greece, on the W. side of the bay of Salona (an. *Crisarusa Sinus*), an arm of the Gulph of Lepanto (an. *Corinthiacus Sinus*), 12 m. S. by W. Salona, and 36 m. E. by N. Patras. Pop. perhaps 6,000 or 7,000. This town, which is supposed to occupy the site of the ancient *Gamike*, is now one of the principal shipping ports of Greece, and is distinguished by the maritime skill and enterprise of its inhabs. It is built on a rocky peninsula, on each side of which it has a secure port; but unfortunately it has no fresh water, except such as may be supplied by the rains, within a distance of 3 m. Under the Turkish government Galaxidi latterly enjoyed a large share of the trade of N. Greece, and of the opposite shore of the Morea. The wealth that was consequently brought into the town was manifested in the improved houses, the increased numbers, and the more luxurious accommodations of the inhabs. But in the first year of the revolutionary war, (1821), Galaxidi was burned by the Captain Pacha, and most part of her ships fell into his hands. We are, however, glad to have to state, that she has recovered from this disaster, and is now more flourishing than ever. In 1848 she had 143 registered vessels, of the agg. burden of 14,359 tons, engaged in foreign trade; exclusive of a large number of coasting vessels and of open-decked boats. And during the last 3 years her navigation and commercial importance have considerably increased. The exports, which are not very material, consist principally of olive oil and olives, yellow berries, corn, and cotton. The vessels belonging to the port are, like those in most other parts of Greece, generally divided into small shares, which are usually distributed among the crews. This gives them a strong interest in the success of their voyages, and makes them display at once alacrity and enterprise, skill and economy. The ships of Galaxidi are to be found in all parts of the Levant, and sometimes in the ports of W. Europe. (*Dodwell's Greece*, i. 131; *Hugbes's Greece and Albania*, i. 369, 2nd ed., and next article.)

GREECE. We have borrowed the following details from an able and excellent paper by Mr. Green, British Consul at the Piræus, printed in 1847. It gives by far the best account of the commerce and agriculture of this interesting country that has ever been published; and is eminently deserving of the reader's attention.

Commerce and Shipping.—The principal ship-building places are Galaxidi, Syra, Hydra, Spezzia, Skiathos, Courni, and various points on the coast. Two building-yards have also been established at the Piræus within the last year (1846), and several merchant-vessels of considerable burthen have been launched and are on the stocks. The register measurement is by the ton, consisting of forty kilas. * In the absence of official returns that can be depended upon, the number, tonnage, and crews of vessels and boats belonging to the Greek kingdom, may be stated approximately in round numbers at 4,000 vessels, measuring 150,000 tons, and employing 30,000 seamen.

Although a vast number of vessels and boats are built yearly, their rapid decay prevents the increase being as considerable as might be expected. There are Greek vessels of between 600 and 700 tons register, and a considerable number between 300 and 400 tons; but the great majority consists of boats of 6 or 7 tons, having a large hatch in midships.

The principal shipping port is Syra, where 468 vessels are registered. At Galaxidi, also, a great many vessels are registered as engaged in foreign trade; while at Patras, the most important commercial place of Greece, there are but 2 vessels registered. The Piræus possesses 298 vessels. Freight both for short and long voyages are usually higher on board Greek vessels than those paid to English shipping, either in the coasting or foreign trade. It is customary for the shipowners to agree with the captain and crew, taking up a certain sum at interest usually secured on bottomry bond, with which a cargo is purchased on ship's account, and the profit divided between the vessel and crew, the latter partitioning among themselves accord-

* A kilo of corn = a Winchester bushel.

ing to their special agreements. This is the system on which the Black Sea corn trade has for years been carried on by the Hydriots and Spezzioti, and under which the shipping interests of those islands have rapidly advanced. It may, however, fairly be doubted whether their prosperity, owing in the first instance to fortuitous circumstances, and subsequently aided by their activity and economical habits, may not rather have been impeded than advanced by this system. There is no branch of trade to which the Greeks particularly confine their energies and views; nevertheless Greek commerce may be divided into the following principal great branches.

1st. The Corn Trade of the Black Sea and Alexandria, including the transport in their own vessels, either under Greek or Russian colours, to the ports of Turkey, Italy, Spain, and France, and speculations on the most extensive scale whenever bad harvests or other circumstances open markets to them. Some idea may be formed of the importance of this carrying trade to the Greeks, from the fact that in Galatz 370 Greek vessels loaded in 1844, besides 104 under Turkish colours, and 96 under Russian, of which the great majority were Greek. At Ibralla, during the same year, 325 Greek, 143 Turkish, and 53 Russian vessels loaded. Yet these ports are insignificant as compared to Odessa and Taganrog; and I only mention them and the particular year 1844, from having the returns before me.

2dly. The exportation of the produce of Turkey, Greece, Egypt, Persia, and Southern Russia, to England, Italy, and France, principally to London, Trieste, and Marseilles. The great advantage the Greeks possess over foreigners in the purchase of produce in Turkey and Greece, is that having relatives and connections on whom they can depend for the collection of small parcels in the interior of the country, and at the places of growth, so that they are not imposed upon by their agents, and avoid the profits of middlemen. The Greek trader considers nothing beneath his notice, and will gather together a few bags of rags, or a ton or two of bones and horns, while he is chartering perhaps fifty vessels to load corn and tallow.

3dly. The supply of Turkey, Persia, and Greece, with the cotton and woollen manufactures of England and Germany. The extensive operations of the Greeks at Manchester, where they have their own establishments for purchasing, examining, and packing the goods, attest the importance of this branch of their commerce. In supplying Persia and Constantinople with the cotton manufactures of England, these parties have almost driven the English out of the market, and defied their competition. This has been occasioned by their thorough knowledge of these countries, and by their readiness to execute the smallest as well as the largest commissions of the shopkeepers of Turkey and Greece; while their correspondents open and retail the largest parcels of manufactures in the exact proportions required by the purchasers.

4thly. Banking and exchange operations. This perhaps is the most wonderful part of the Greek system of commerce, and is largely and successfully carried on.

Agriculture and Internal Trade.—The land measure of Greece is the *strema*, equal to about one-fourth part of an English acre.

No proper survey and register of lands having been made by the Greek government, it is impossible to state correctly what may be the actual extent of the soil cultivated, or available for cultivation. But from private and general information, I am inclined to calculate that considerably less than half the superficial contents of continental Greece and the Morea is susceptible of cultivation, and that not one-sixth of this in Roumelia, and less than a fourth in the Morea, are now brought into cultivation; the preference being given to such as are susceptible of irrigation from the proximity of springs or streams.

Notwithstanding the continual plunder and illegal appropriation of the national lands, at least two-thirds of the cultivated, and four-fifths of the uncultivated, soil belong to the state. The national lands were, previously to the revolution, the property of the Turkish inhabitants, to whom the government has succeeded; and though, as now stated, large portions of them have been embeslied in the interim, they still stand toward private property in the proportion I have mentioned.

The rent levied on the national land is nominally 10 to 15 per cent. of the gross produce, but by the connivance and venality of public functionaries this rent is no doubt reduced in many instances to an almost nominal amount—a circumstance tending to deprive private landowners of remunerating rents, unless they themselves are the immediate cultivators of their property, or that from position, or some other adventitious circumstance, it forms an exception to the surrounding lands. Money rent, with some trifling exceptions, is unknown in Greece, the system acted on being that worst of all systems, the *Metayer*, the landlord receiving

as rent a certain proportion—usually a third—of the net produce, or for good lands one-half. The landowner has frequently to furnish, besides the land, the seed, and sometimes the oxen for tillage, the expense of which together with enormous interest, has to be deducted before the division of the profits. The metayer, without the slightest interest in the soil beyond the season, will neither expend time nor capital on its improvement, while the landlord, it is evident, will never expend capital on ameliorations, two-thirds of the benefit of which he would be deprived of by his metayer. From these causes (the abundance of national lands and the metayer system) it is hopeless at present to look for any improvement of the very wretched state of agriculture as regards the arable land, the inclosure and drainage of which is never thought of, and its improvement by manure unpractised, except for the growth of barley for the green food of horses in the neighbourhood of large towns. The stones never having been removed from the soil are so thickly collected together, that in many spots it is incredible that they can have accumulated naturally, and far more so that man should expect grain to grow from amongst them.

In spite of such adverse circumstances, the cost of land—for I will not call it its value—continues unaccountably high, and the eagerness of some to purchase seems equalled only by the anxiety of others to retain its possession. Instances continually occur of persons borrowing money at enormous interest to purchase land, which it is notorious will not give them a return equal to half the interest they have to pay; while others, whose circumstances are embarrassed, and who might extricate themselves by the sale of a portion of their lands, continue borrowing from year to year, increasing their difficulties rather than part with an inch of soil. The present price of arable land in Attica is from 18 to 30 drachmas the *strema*, or 2s. to about 3s. per acre for notoriously the worst land in Greece. In the plain of Argos, 100 to 130 drachmas the *strema*, or 14s. to 15s. per acre, is given. Vineyards in full bearing in Attica sell for from 400 to 800 drachmas per *strema*, or about 60s. per acre. Current plantations in the Morea, in full bearing, are valued at 1,000 to 1,200 drachmas per *strema*, or about 150s. to 160s. per acre.

St. Thiersch writes in 1833, "The Agency will find in Greece about 120,000 landed proprietors." Calculating each family to consist of five individuals, this gives an agricultural population of 600,000 souls, or about two-thirds of the population, which is probably the correct proportion: almost without an exception, exclusive of the strangers in Athens, the shopkeepers are landed proprietors, and also engaged in agriculture.

The dwellings of the peasants more resemble barns or stables, both in their interior arrangements and external appearance, than human residences. They cast an appearance of poverty and misery over the face of the country, in reality not existing among the agriculturists in any further degree than is derived from their ignorance of the comforts of civilised life. The walls are built of materials of every form and size, from the enormous corner-stone of an ancient temple, or the fragments of a marble column or statue, to the pebble of the brook and the minute pieces of tiles and pottery with which the sites of all ancient cities abound. These are held together by mud, which having a continual tendency to return to its native earth, either in a liquid or pulverised state, generally leaves the harder formations to stand in bold relief on the surface. The walls are about seven or eight feet in height, and extend in a long straight line, in which a low door way, four feet high, is rendered less convenient by an elevated sill the whole width of the wall. The window or windows are proportionally diminutive, and are closed by shutters seldom opened, as glass casements do not exist even in the generality of provincial towns. The light of day is thus most frequently obtained from the doorway alone. The absence of all paint from the woodwork adds to the miserable appearance of the whole. The roofs are either slightly sloping and covered with tiles, or (which is not so usual) are flat and terraced. The farm-houses and villages are still frequently beset with some attention to military defence, in elevated positions presenting a blank wall to the exterior, pierced with loop-holes for musketry, and the doors and windows turned towards a closed yard, into which the flocks are driven at night. Property and life, indeed, is more insecure in Greece than in any other country in Europe; so that isolated cottages are seldom to be seen, the peasants uniting for mutual protection in villages frequently of considerable size, and preferring the daily loss of several hours in proceeding to and returning from their labour, to residing in their lands at the imminent risk of being attacked on their way.

The interior of the dwellings are even less inviting than their exteriors. In the immediate vicinity of the hearth, the family eats and sleeps on the bare ground, or in some instances elevated from it by a few planks,

on which they lay their mats and extend themselves in their clothes at night. A few painted boxes contain all their riches; a small picture of the Virgin or some saint hangs in a corner, and the only light, a miserable lamp, is kept burning before it. At night the oxen are driven in to take their rest by the side of the family, and beyond them the winter's stock of grain and straw is carefully piled up. The wind whistles through the crevices of the ill-covered roof, and the fowls roost on the smoke-blackened beams. Pack-saddles, agricultural instruments, and some scanty household stores fill up the picture. The houses of some of the small landed proprietors are, however, superior to this, and some even consist of two stories, when the staircase or steps are invariably on the outside of the house.

The close resemblance many of the agricultural processes of the modern Greeks bear to those described by Hesiod, has not failed to attract the notice of successive writers. The simplicity of the construction of the plough, formed of a single shaft and handle, and without wheels, is peculiarly calculated to fix attention.

When, grasping first the handle of the plough,
O'er thy broad come's' backs thy quickening hand
With gentle stroke lets fall the guiding wand;
A boy should tread thy steps; with rake & scy
The buried seed, and scare the birds away.

These are the instructions of Hesiod, and they are still usually attended to. Frequently three oxen belong to one plough, so that by allowing one to rest and ruminate, the labour can be continued more advantageously. Each ploughman has also an ass, on whose back he carries the plough to and from labour, and which animal is so indispensable as to be free from the cattle-tax. In consequence of the periodical rest it is necessary to allow the oxen for their food and rumination during the day, it is not an unfrequent case that a favourable state of the soil will be taken advantage of by the agriculturists to continue their labour at times during moonlight nights. The cost of a yoke of oxen is from 12*l.* to 15*l.* The usual period of ploughing and sowing is during January and November for barley, and December and January for wheat.

In Attica the corn harvest is almost a month earlier than in other parts of Greece, and is generally over by the commencement of June. The corn is cut with sickles, laden in small sheaves on the backs of donkeys, mules, and horses, and carried to the *alaia*, or threshing-floors. These are usually in the outskirts of towns or villages, a good hard piece of ground being selected, while others, where the soil is light, are regularly paved in a circular form. They are generally in an exposed situation for the advantage of winnowing. Around the *alaia*, the corn of the whole district is piled up, each individual remaining to guard his own, night and day, during several weeks and may be months, as September has frequently arrived before the corn has all been threshed. The corn is threshed by beating it out with the hoofs of horses rapidly driven over it. The owners of the horses are entitled to 4 per cent. of the produce for their trouble. Oxen are also employed, but not so frequently as horses. When the corn is sufficiently trodden out, the whole is gathered up in large heaps near the threshing-floor, and on windy days the winnowing takes place by throwing up the amalgamated corn and straw (which is frequently cut by drags drawn by the horses), with wooden shovels, the straw being carried to leeward by the breeze. The straw thus cut into pieces, and containing a great proportion of dust, forms the principal food for horses; hay being seldom used, and always considered unwholesome from the coarse nature of the grass and other causes.

The quality of the corn grown in Greece varies much in different districts. The wheat of the plain of Thebes is considered to be the best produced in the country, and the barley of Attica is preferred to that of other provinces.

In Athens the average price of wheat during the five years (ending with 1846) has been 27 *leptas* per oke (3*ds.* per quarter); the highest price paid having been 36 *leptas* per oke (4*5s.* 3*d.* per quarter) in February 1839, and the lowest price 20 *leptas* per oke (3*5s.* per quarter) in August 1842. The average price of barley during the same period was 18 *leptas* per oke (22*s.* 6*d.* per quarter), the highest price having been 30 *leptas* per oke (37*s.* per quarter) in May 1840, and the lowest price 12 *leptas* per oke (15*s.* per quarter), which is the usual price of barley in the middle of June each year, when the new crop is brought to market, unless the harvest should have proved a bad one.

The islands of the Archipelago grow about one-third of their consumption, and the rest of Greece produces generally more than the consumption, with the exception of such as is required for the finer kind of bread generally baked by the town bakers, and that used in the manufacture of pastes, such as *macaroni*, &c., of which much use is made. The majority of families make their own bread, so that the bakers only supply

the floating population, bachelors, and small families. A certain quantity of Black Sea wheat is used to mix with and improve the quality of the Greek wheat. Except in the event of an unfavourable harvest, the peasants of the Roumelia and the Morea produce more than sufficient grain for their own maintenance and for that of the poorer classes in the towns. The Greek wheat is generally, owing to quality, 3 *leptas* per oke (4*s.* per quarter) cheaper than that of the Black Sea. A considerable quantity of wheat grown in Greece is also consumed in the Ionian islands, the agriculturists of which cultivate the Greek soil opposite their respective islands, and carry the remuneration of their labour to the islands in corn. Foreign barley, especially that of Egypt, is considered inferior to that grown in Greece.

Maize, or Indian corn, called in Greece *kallam-bókkia*, is extensively cultivated in the Morea and in Western Continental Greece. It is generally sown where the fields can be irrigated, a process almost necessary for this crop, except where the rains continue late in the season, as is the case in the Upper Mountain districts. Maize may also be seen growing in all parts of Greece in small quantities in the vineyards and gardens. The return is generally calculated at about thirty or forty to one. It is reduced to flour, and formed into cakes or loaves, the principal food of the peasantry in many districts.

The grinding of corn in Greece is effected by four powers—wind, water, horse, and women. In each case the least possible ingenuity or knowledge seems to guide the various processes. Windmills are most numerous in the islands of the Archipelago. Water-mills are numerous, or almost innumerable, in both the Morea and Roumelia; and the former existence of several thousands can be traced by the remains of aqueducts in favourable situations. Many of these mills now in repair grind but sufficient corn for a few families, and some are not capable of producing more than a couple of bushels of flour in a day. In the larger towns mills turned by horses are prevalent; and in the villages hand-mills consisting of two stones about two feet in diameter, turned by a simple handle, by two women.

The scarcity of water, the natural aridity of the soil, and the deficiency of rain in summer, have tended in all times and ages to make the property of water in Greece be considered of the greatest possible importance. The quantity of water falling in the year cannot be estimated at less than forty inches, especially on the southern and western coasts. A part of this enormous mass of water flows directly to the sea by the beds of the torrents and the abrupt cliffs or slopes, with a rapidity which tends greatly to increase the mudity of the mountains. The right of irrigation by means of the rivers, streams, and springs, is regulated by laws and customs of ancient date; and the tenure of water is secured by titles as binding as those of land. This may be easily understood in regard to property in the vicinity of large bodies of water; but when it relates to a certain proportion of a small source, to be brought a considerable distance for a fixed number of hours; and when it is added that this right may be disposed of together or separate from the land to which it is at the time attached, and that it is transferable by sale or mortgage, the subject becomes one of which the extreme complication is only equalled by its vital importance to landowners. In this manner the Cephissus is now, as in the time of Sophocles, employed in the irrigation of the gardens and vineyards of the plain of Athens. It is made to branch off in hundreds of directions, and its wanderings are directed by functionaries under the title of *Potomarchs* and *Nerokratis*.

The right of individuals to the waters of the Cephissus for irrigation ceases on the 25th of October, the Feast of St. Demetrius, after which it is government property for six months. The government then farms it to persons who sell it by the hour to those who require it. In April the water again becomes private property, according to the various title-deeds. Even in winter as much as 20 drachmas (14*s.* 6*d.*) per hour is sometimes paid for the stream, which consists of a body of water two or three feet wide by a foot or eighteen inches in depth.

In certain situations a small building is erected, like a miniature chapel, and called a *bouboulistra*. In it the channels of some streams are regulated, and being thus arranged (that is to say, some opened and others closed, or partly open and closed), the door of the building is made fast, and the water can only be cut off by unfair means in the fields, which can be guarded against by watching. In some places the watercourses are built up and covered; in others they are open.

In towns the measurement of the water is by the *drám*; which means that the stream of water supplied is equal to the diameter of a leaden ball weighing a *drám*, or a specified number of *dráms*.

The irrigated lands are divided into squares and

channels by banks and ridges formed by the earth; and the water is admitted and regulated by the cultivators, who open and close the trenches with mattocks and their feet. Such grounds, gardens, and vineyards as require irrigation, and are not entitled to the supply of a natural stream, are watered by means of the machines for raising water common to most countries in the East: it is called a *dolap*, and is the usual wheel for raising buckets attached to double ropes turned by means of horse-labour.

The growth of the vine and currant plant forms a separate feature in the agriculture of Greece, for the owners of vineyards and currant plantations usually attend to their cultivation themselves, hiring day-labourers for each process. The vine is cultivated extensively throughout the whole kingdom. The growth of the currant is mostly confined to the northern shore of the Morea, bordering on the Gulf of Lepanto; though of late years extensive plantations have been made near Nauplia, Pyrgos, and Missolonghi.

The great disadvantage of the Metayer system becomes doubly evident in Greece, in the contrast afforded by the cultivation of the vineyards as compared to that of the arable lands. While the latter are neglected, the former present evidence of the care bestowed upon them. They are frequently inclosed with walls, fences, or hedges; they are drained, well dug, freed from stones, weeded, and manured.

Among the means of inclosing vineyards may be mentioned the mud fences, especially used in Attica. These fences are formed of the soil, trodden down in its natural state, within a wooden frame-work, which is afterwards removed, leaving the earth standing alone, formed by this means into a species of unburnt brick, about a foot and a half in thickness by four feet in length and height. Some brushwood is placed at the top (kept in its place by a few basketfuls of earth), which, spreading out on each side, prevents the rain from reaching the sides of the fence, which will last for ten or fifteen years. This economical method of inclosing lands, the cost of which is only 30 leptas or less than 2d. for each four feet piece, is an excellent substitute for a wall, and more easily obtained in most situations than a hedge.

The vineyards are principally cultivated during January and February, and the grapes are gathered in September. A small tank is usually built on the spot, where the grapes are trodden out by men standing on a plank over this simple wine-press. The juice is drawn off at once, put into skins, and sold to the dealers, or filled into casks by the proprietors, when it is allowed to ferment. A larger or smaller quantity of liquid rosin is put into the cask, which gives the wine so strong a flavour as to take away the breath of a person unaccustomed to it; such, however, is the force of habit, that the generality of Greeks prefer this taste imparted to their own wine to that of the most expensive growths of France and Spain—indeed, I have even known foreigners become very soon accustomed to it, and declare their partiality to it. We may thus account for the Thyrus of Bacchus, which represents the apple of the fir-tree, from whence the rosin is extracted, and which was amalgamated by the ancient Greeks with the wine, as it is by the moderns. The islands of the Archipelago, however, are not in the habit of mixing rosin with their wine, the quality of which is superior to that produced on the continent.

It may be stated that the art of expressing and fermenting the juice of the grape is completely in its infancy in Greece, and that no attention whatever is paid either to the quality of the grape, or the method of attending to its fermentation. The cost of the *Musto*, the name given to the juice of the grape as just extracted from the fruit, is about 25 to 30 leptas the botza in Attica, which is equal to about 4d. per imperial gallon—a price owing to the proximity of the Athenian market; for at Arakova on Paros wine is sold at 10 leptas the oke, or about 2½d. per gallon; and in the districts of Tsakona and Tripolitza the prices are even lower. It is seldom that any wine remains over from one year to another.

The vineyards and currant plantations are cultivated with the hoe or mattock. A vineyard having to be dug up, a dozen or sixteen men are hired. One, generally the best workman, commences digging a ridge; when he has advanced a few feet, the next labourer commences the next ridge, and so on, each in his own ridge, and at regular distances from each other, proceeding across the vineyard, under the immediate eye of the proprietor or superintendent.

The yearly expenses of cultivating a strema of currants is about 55 drachmas, or 2l. The average produce may be calculated at about 3,500 lbs. English for five strems, though some land produces even more than 1000 lbs. per strema. At the average production, the cost of producing 1000 lbs. of currants will thus be 78 drachmas, or 6s. 3d. the cwt.

The selling price of currants in the Morea averaged, for the crop of 1844, 43 Spanish dollars per 1000 lbs., or 20s. per cwt., free of all tax and duty, as both these items are paid by the merchant on exportation. In 1843, the price was as low as 22 dollars per 1000 lbs., or 14s. the cwt., but even this afforded a handsome profit to the growers; while in 1846, the average price may be said to have been 53 dollars, or 25s. 2d. per cwt. A strema of currants in full bearing, I have said, is worth 1200 drachmas; but the price varies very much with the prospect of high or low prices for the produce. A new plantation does not produce sufficient fruit to pay the cultivation until the sixth year, nor is it in full bearing until several years later.

The cultivation and drying of currants are subject to so many adverse circumstances from the state of the weather, that the production of this fruit in the state in which it is exported is at all times of a precarious nature; and the total quantity likely to be warehoused in the Morea and Ionian Islands can never be calculated with any certainty. Frost, or cold weather, or a high wind, in the spring, may cause the blossoms to decay; locusts and blights may destroy the fruit in summer; rain and great heat may cause it to fall from the plant, when nearly ripe. But the greatest danger to which it is exposed is from the rain, after it has been cut and laid on the ground to dry. For this operation ten days of fine weather are required during the month of August; and unfortunately for the proprietor, this is the season of thunder-storms all over Greece, and especially in the neighbourhood of the Gulf of Lepanto. It is, therefore, seldom that the entire crop is harvested without injury; and though generally the rain-damaged fruit is mixed with the sound, and passed as such, if the damage has been very considerable or general, the fact cannot be disguised. A trifling rain does not affect the fruit much; but if several showers or very heavy rain descends upon it after it is cut, it gives it an appearance and flavour which cannot be mistaken. The fruit, after being dried, is winnowed from the stalks and dirt, loosely shovelled into sacks, and carried to the warehouses, which are principally at Patras and Vostizza. The early shipments are frequently not housed at all, the currants being received and packed by the merchant from the mules' backs, as they arrive from the country, a great disadvantage to the fruit, which undergoes a fermentation in the warehouse during the first twenty or thirty days, after which only it obtains the bloom which is so much admired. The first shipments of new fruit are generally made towards the end of August.

The total produce of currants in Greece and the Ionian Islands in 1845, and the countries to which they were shipped, will be seen by the following statement.

	Morea Crop.	Ionians.	Total.
To Great Britain	Tons, 7,845	Tons, 7,606	Tons, 15,451
Holland and ports of North Germany	206	2,037	2,243
Belgium	-	293	293
France	-	816	816
Trieste and Venice	522	65	587
New York	-	136	136
	8,573	10,553	18,996

In consequence of the cheapness of labour and the superiority of the soil in the Morea, the cost of production there is considerably less than in the Ionian Islands, and it will consequently be in those islands that the over-production, if it take place, will be soonest felt. In the Morea alone, above 40,000 strems, or 10,000 acres, of this plant are now under cultivation.

Figs are cultivated in every part of Greece with great success, but it is in the neighbourhood of Kalamata, in the districts of Androuss and Nisi on the Pamfalus, that they are produced in large quantities, dried, and exported. Of late years more attention has been paid than formerly to the preparation of this fruit for foreign markets, and a very considerable quantity has found its way to England, packed in cases, whereas formerly these figs were all strung on reeds and formed into chaplets weighing about 2½ lbs. each, as is still the case with such as are required for home consumption, and for other markets. The Kalamata figs are sent to Patras for shipment to England or to Smyrna, from whence they are shipped as the superior produce of that place.

The nomade and quasi-nomade tribes which wander about Greece mostly belong to the Blakkh or Wlakh (Wallach) nation, which has for seven or eight centuries inhabited the central range of Mounts Pindus and Olympus. There are, however, numerous other pastoral inhabitants of the Morea, who may easily be confounded with the Blakkhs, but who are neither perfectly nomads,

having their fixed summer residences on the mountains, built of stone, nor do they speak the Blakh language.

I can conceive nothing more picturesque than a community of Blakhs in its progress of migration. The numerous flocks of sheep, goats, and horned cattle, grazing on their way, the boys acting as whippers-in on the outskirts, and now and then throwing their crooks at stragglers; all the bipeds of the party mounted on asses; the women spinning, and the smaller children stowed away in huge coppers used for boiling the milk, or in the wooden troughs for making bread; a shrill pipe blown by one of the party; and the fierce dogs ready, as usual, for an attack. Their tents are made of a coarse dark-coloured tissue of goat's hair, and are usually pitched under some evergreen oaks, on the branches of which hang the bags of fresh cheese and butter. Near the tents the milk will be seen boiling for the manufacture of these articles; and close to the encampment, the fold, constructed of rough stones or brushwood. On some elevated rock, watching the cattle and sheep, will be perceived, standing as unmoved as a statue, a Blakh, leaning on his strange-looking musket, his silver-hilted pistols peeping from beneath his grey apotes. The nomadic women emulate or rather surpass the men in every act of labour requiring strength or exertion, a quality belonging to the whole female portion of the Blakh nation, as does also the reputation they enjoy with that of undoubted chastity and honour, of unmitigated ugliness. Their costume bears some resemblance to that of the Albanians, but is far more wild and singular in its appearance. Though innumerable laws have been promulgated to regulate the movement of these hordes, and though the rights of private property are more or less enforced and respected, the proceedings of the shepherds, a body of men estimated by the government to amount to about 27,266, are based upon lawlessness and encouraged by impunity. To obtain pasturage for their flocks, they habitually set fire in the summer and autumn to the brushwood and even forests; the conflagrations of the latter having in 1844 surpassed those of all previous years, and having been carried to an extent which, if not checked, in a few years will leave every mountain in Greece as bare of vegetation and even soil, as Hymettus and many others.

The object of the shepherds, though temporarily successful (the ashes of the branches and leaves washed into the soil by the heavy rains forming a manure which causes a tender and abundant crop of grass during the ensuing summer), by continual repetition destroys the germ of all vegetation, and the soil, no longer held together by the roots of the trees and bushes, is washed by the torrents into the plains below.

The sheep and goats are frequently, if not usually, herded pell-mell. The flocks of the Blakhs are watched by themselves; those of the Morea are mostly the property of the agriculturists, who confide them to the care of shepherds. Messenia and Arcadia are the two truly pastoral provinces of the Peloponnese. The flocks seldom consist of more than 500 or 700, and are usually much less. Four rams are sufficient for 100 ewes; they are put together in the latter end of July, and the lambs are dropped in December and January. A ewe gives about a pound of milk twice a day until June, then once a day till July, when they are only milked occasionally. All the preparations from the milk made in Greece are entirely different in appearance to anything of the same nature seen in England. The butter is white and is similar to lard, and is packed in skins. The cheese is also white, and generally very much salted, and extremely hard. There are several other preparations from milk, such as *mitakras* and *gnometis*; the latter, which is said to have been a Tartar invention, brought into Greece by the Turks, is made by introducing a piece of leaven of bread prepared with lemon juice into boiling milk; and on future occasions a cup of the old *yaourt* forms the best leaven. *Yaourt* is very extensively consumed in Greece during the spring and summer.

The sheep-shearing takes place from April to May, and the animals are not previously washed. The flocks occasionally suffer greatly from a disease called the plague, or *eudoglia*.

The production of olive-oil is one of the many sources of wealth of the Greek agriculturists and landowners. The numbers of olive trees in bearing may be calculated at about a million; and being indigenous in Greece, they are to be met with in a wild state in every direction. The wild olives are grafted; but the expenses attending the process of clearing the soil, and the length of time elapsing before any return can be obtained for the requisite outlay of capital, prevent any rapid increase of this branch of agriculture. In Greece, as in Spain and in Southern Italy, the olive tree produces but in alternate years. It is said, owing either to the olive being allowed to fall from the trees, or to the gathering being put off too long, generally to December, while at Aix, where the olive harvest takes place in November, it is

annual. The fact of the uncertainty that always exists as to the next year's crop may perhaps thus be accounted for. The trees are in many places well dug up and irrigated, but are still generally much neglected. It is calculated that there are eight or nine varieties of the olive in Greece. The oil is extracted in the rudest manner, after which it is either run into cisterns or jars; and as these are far from sufficient to contain the produce of an extensive crop, the olives are saked to prevent their spoiling, until a quantity of oil has been got rid of by exportation. The quality of the Salona and Kalamata oil is considered superior to that of the Ionian islands. A great consumption of olive oil takes place in Greece, none other being burnt for lighting, besides which it is generally used in food and cookery. The principal oil districts are Kalamata, Mistra, Lendii, Marathonisi, Corou, Salona, Corinth, Megara, and Athens. The price of oil, as paid to the peasants, generally averages about 90 leptas per oke. There are 48 okes to a Venetian barrel, equal to about 15 to 16 gallons.

Silk is produced in most parts of Greece, and the climate affords facilities for an unlimited extension of this branch of industry. The neighbourhood of Kalamata, and the south of the Morea generally, is particularly adapted to this art. The house of almost every peasant is partly given up to the rearing of the worm. The eggs or spawn are nestled in the breasts of the women within their clothes; and the worms hatched in the spring are plentifully supplied with the young mulberry leaves then shooting.

The cocoons are placed in the sun, and the worms become killed by the heat. The operation of winding off the silk from the cocoon was, and is still generally, carried on in the manner practised at Brussa and in other parts of Turkey, the silk being less evenly spun in Greece than at Brussa. In 1838, however, some Greek merchants, among whom were some who had long resided in the silk-producing districts of Italy, obtained a species of monopoly from the government, and established Italian workmen and their families in the south of the Morea and at Andros, for the purpose of improving the mode of production. These at once pronounced that the quality of the silk was quite equal, if not superior, to that of their own country, and the produce of their labour proved the correctness of their assertions. The improved system of working, which occurred to those who chose to adopt it double and treble the prices to which they had been accustomed, spread rapidly among the Greek peasantry, who broke down the barriers of former ignorance and prejudices, and laughed at the monopolising edicts of their governors. A few years' experience has firmly established this new source of industry on an extensive and firm basis, which promises to open to Greece a lucrative and increasing trade. The average price of Greek silk spun in the Italian fashion, is about 15 per cent. under that of good Italian silk. An establishment for winding silk on the improved principle exists at the Piræus, and I understand that Turkey also the example shown in Greece has been followed.

Cotton is cultivated in Greece to a considerable extent, although not forming an important item in the exports of the country, owing to its extensive consumption by the peasantry in the manufacture of their own clothes. The best land is chosen for this purpose. The seed is soaked in water for several days before sowing, which process takes place at about the same season, and in the same manner, as maize.

The cultivation of madder, which, previous to the revolution was carried on to some extent in the plain of Athens and other parts of Greece, has within a few years attracted the attention of the Greek agriculturists, and will no doubt soon form a most important branch of the export trade of Greece. The neighbourhood of Chalcis and the north of Eubœa seem likely to become the districts for this cultivation. The roots are allowed to remain in the soil four or five years, and both in size and colour those of the Greek plant are considered of first-rate quality.

Tobacco is principally cultivated in the plain of Argos, where the quantity produced generally amounts to about 12,000 cwts. Larissa and Kalamata produce this plant to some extent. The quality of that produced at Lykureo, between Nauplia and Epidaurus, is much esteemed in Turkey, and was formerly sent to the seraglio of Constantinople. Besides what is consumed in Greece, a considerable quantity is exported mostly to Tunis and Egypt, and of late to France on French government account. The price paid to the farmer varies from 80 leptas to 2 drachmas per oke. The cultivation is free and unrestricted by government enactments.

Besides these principal articles of agricultural produce, may be mentioned some of less consideration, but which are, nevertheless, produced to a considerable extent, either for home consumption or for exportation.

Among these may be noted hemp, flax, and linseed, frequently very extensively grown in the plains of Archaia and Ellis; opium, the cultivation of which has been lately introduced near Nauplia; kidney-beans *favaria*, which are much eaten during the long Lentis by the lower orders; almonds, oranges, lemons, citrons, quinces, and melons; the latter cultivated in fields.

First among the natural productions requiring from the hand of man but the trouble of collecting, may be classed Valonea, the cup of the acorn of the *Quercus Egilops*, used as a powerful astringent in tanning and dyeing. These oaks grow in considerable forests in the neighbourhood of Marathonis, Cape Papa, Dragomestri, and also in Attica, the island of Zea, and other parts of Greece. It is now principally exported from Dragomestri and Patras for England, and from the other places to Italy. It is divided into three qualities, *canada*, *mezzo-canada*, and *grossa*. The *canada*, which is the most esteemed, is the acorn gathered before it opens to allow of the growth of the nut. The *mezzo-canada* is the younger and better cups of the acorns, and the *grossa* is the inferior. That shipped to England is generally formed of the three together, and of later years the quality of the Greek valonea has been approved of. It is generally shipped from January to March. The quantity produced is very considerable.

Another species of oak, the *Quercus coccifera*, a kind of holly, grows in large quantities on Mount Taygetus, and on all the mountains of the eastern coast of the Peloponnesus. This plant produces the insect known as Kermes. The insect in the process of drying assumes the appearance of a small brittle berry partly filled with powder, and various incorrect notions on the subject have been held from time immemorial: some considering it to be caused by the puncture of a particular kind of fly, while others have supposed it to be the berry of the plant. It is now entirely used in dyeing the red Tunis cape worn by the Greeks as well as Turks. It is exported from Nauplia direct to Tunis, and sometimes also to Constantinople and Alexandria, where of late years the manufacture of caps has also been carried on. The quantity gathered by the peasantry sometimes amounts to 15,000 oke.

The dried leaves of the lentisk, under the appellation of *skind phlo*, are used in Greece and the Levant by the tanners. The leaves are reduced to powder in a mill, then sifted, and mixed in about equal proportions with valonea. In consequence of some of this powder having been sent to Trieste, where it was sold and purchased as shumack, a cargo of it was prepared and sent to London, where it was pronounced to be of such inferior quality as to be almost useless. It was sold at a price which did not pay the freight and other expenses, the first costs and charges being also a total loss.

The fustic which is exported from Patras and Vostiza, and forms the dunnage of the currant cargoes, known in commerce as Zante or young fustic, is a species of shumack quite distinct from old fustic, which is a large American tree.

Turpentine is obtained in large quantities from the extensive pine forests of Mount Citheron and other districts. At the bottom of each tree a kind of step is cut with an adze, the bottom of which is scooped out as a cup, the bark of the tree above this step is wounded afresh each year, and the turpentine flows down freely. The cups are emptied from time to time by the peasants. Owing to the rough way in which this process is performed, many trees are destroyed, and most of them injured, as frequently the whole circle of the bark is chipped off. The resin obtained from these trees is that mixed with the wine.

Among the minor articles of natural produce may be mentioned gum tragacanth, chestnuts (forming almost the sole food of the inhabitants of some districts), and timber, both oak and fir, still amply sufficient, in spite of waste, destruction, and mal-administration, for the extensive ship-building of the Greeks.

The principal places of trade in the kingdom of Greece are Syra, Patras, Kalamata, and Nauplia; while Hydra, Spezzia, and Galaxidi come more properly under the denomination of ship-building ports. The trade of the island of Syra is apparently on the decrease, while that of Patras is making the most rapid progress. The trade of the Piræus consists of the importation of articles of necessity and luxury for the capital and immediate neighbourhood, and an increasing exportation of silk, sponge, and a few other articles.

The exchange operations of Greece are ruled principally by the transactions at Athens, where bills on London, Paris, Marseilles, Trieste, &c., are negotiated with facility. Besides this, Athens derives advantage from the banks and banking establishments with which it abounds, and which constitute it the centre of the monetary arrangements of the commerce and agriculture of the state.

Nauplia has declined in importance since the removal of the seat of government, but it is still the *dépot* of a proportion of the exports of the Morea.

In the vicinity of Nauplia is the town of Cranidi, the inhabitants of which are the principal sponge-fishers of the Archipelago and Levant. This fishery is carried on by two means, — spearing with grains and diving; the latter securing the sponge free from injury, which is not the case with the former. The Cranidiots are most expert divers, and anecdotes approaching to the marvellous are told of their feats. It is usual after the sponge is fished up, when it is perfectly free from all sand, and when dry, so light that the slightest breath of air will move a large piece of it, to impregnate it with fine sand. This process is performed by stringing the sponges together, and laying them on the sand to allow the ripple of the sea to slush the fine sand into them, after which they are placed in a heap under a large pile of stones to press them together as tightly as possible. When dry they are hard flat substances, and are beaten and sifted, but however well this process may be performed, even after washing and further sifting, the sponge, though apparently clean, will weigh three or four times its original weight. It is hardly necessary to add that they are always sold by weight.

The staple articles of Greek export are currants, valonea, oil, emery-stone, and silk. The other articles of export are dried figs, raisins, corn, tobacco, madder, kermes, lentisk leaf, honey, wax, fustic, cheese, cotton, wheat, barley, maize, fresh fish (from Missolonghi to Zante), galls, wine, hemp, linseed, silk gauze, tanned skins, lamb and sheep-skins, hare-skins, ox-hides, wool, sulphur, coarse woollen manufactures for capotes, guns, tragacanth, marble, santorin cement, sponge, turpentine, timber, liquorice, liquorice juice, botargo, cream of tartar, sesame seed, citrons, and some minor articles said to amount in all to nearly sixty separate articles.

The importations of Greece consist of cotton and woollen manufactures, silk manufactures and articles of luxury in dress, coffee, sugar and spices, indigo and other dyes, iron and other metals, hardware, earthenware, glass, rum, paper, corn, and a vast number of coarse iron and wooden manufactures from Trieste.

The rate of interest of money varies from 8 per cent. to 12 per cent. per annum, the latter being the most usual rate paid, though many, especially in the provincial towns, pay much higher rates than these; and it is hardly necessary to add, that as long as money continues at its present value, the profits of the capitalists must necessarily absorb all others.

The manufactures of Greece may be dismissed in a few lines, yet the peasantry are entirely clothed in the woollen and cotton clothes of their own manufacture. The peculiar woollen manufacture of the Blakhs forms not only the capotes of the Greeks, but of the maritime population of the Mediterranean. Kalamata is famous for the production of a silk gauze, highly prized in the East for shirts and bed-curtains; and at Tripolizza the common trousers of the country are manufactured in abundance. In the general state of the manufactures, however, the value of the raw material is but slightly enhanced by the labour.

Handicraft in general is not in an advanced state of perfection, embroidery in gold, silver, silk, and cotton forming an exception, however, to this rule, as does also marble-cutting and sculpturing, in which rapid progress has been made. Turning, shoe and boot-making, tailoring, dyeing, distilling, plastering, and the decoration of houses are among the crafts that have made the most progress. Carpentering and smith's work, those that are the least advanced.

GREAT GRIMSBY. We have been obligingly furnished with the following statements in regard to the great works now in progress at this port, by Adam Smith, Esq., the resident engineer.

GrimsbY is a bor. of considerable antiquity and was formerly a port of such importance that in the reign of Edward III. it sent 11 ships to the siege of Calais. But, owing to the gradual filling up of its harbour, it latterly sunk into comparative insignificance. In 1802 a new harbour was constructed; but being accessible only at high water, it was not productive of all the advantage that was expected. But, in 1846, a new harbour, on a grand scale, accessible at all times of the tide, was commenced; and in anticipation of its being finished, Grimsby has been made the terminus of two important railways.

GrimsbY is situated on the S. side of the ae-

uary of the Humber, which, at this point, is about 7 m. across, being 7 m. W. from the lighthouse on Spurn Head, which is in lat. $55^{\circ} 34' 44''$ N., long. $0^{\circ} 7' 9''$ E. The long, low, narrow, hooked tongue of land, which terminates in the Head, protects a capacious roadstead, with good holding ground, extending to within a mile of the new works at Grimsby, and well known as a harbour of refuge to those who navigate the North Sea. The entrance to the river is marked by the lighthouse on the Spurn Head, and by two light-ships in the Channel. Grimsby has, in consequence, the double advantage of a secure road and of proximity to the open sea. The great utility of the new works at the latter is made additionally evident by the scarcity of ports along this portion of the coast of England; for, if we except Hull, which also lies on the Humber, but 20 m. further inland, there is no other port with docks, but that of Grimsby, between Hartlepool in Durham and King's-Lynn in Norfolk, a distance of fully 150 m.

The old dock or floating basin, referred to above, measures about 17 acres; but being placed at the high water margin of a flat shore, and being consequently accessible only towards high water, it is of very limited utility.

To secure a proper depth of water at the entrance of the new works was an object of the first importance; and to attain it they have been projected $\frac{1}{4}$ of a m. into the estuary in advance of the old dock, reclaiming at the same time and enclosing 130 acres of land.

The new works comprise a wet dock of upwards of 20 acres in extent, with two entrance locks, having in front a tidal basin of 13 acres. The latter, formed by two timber piers, which are together about 2,000 ft. in length, is provided with landing slips. The facility of ingress and egress afforded by this basin will be especially useful to steamers, which, as they usually convey passengers or light merchandise, do not require to enter a dock. Here they will be able to lie afloat alongside the piers at all times of the tide.

The chambers of the two entrance locks connecting the tidal basin and the dock, are respectively 45 ft. in width by 200 ft. in length, and 70 ft. in width by 300 ft. in length. The latter are of sufficient magnitude to permit the docking of the largest frigate in the steam navy. The average depths of water at the dock entrances are about 9 ft. at ebb and 26 ft. at high tide; the latter depth being permanently maintained in the dock itself.

The quays surrounding the dock are intended to provide means both for the easy storage of merchandise and for its rapid conveyance to its destination. Bonding sheds and warehouses fronting the quays will answer the first purpose; and the second will be attained by the formation of railways on each side the dock throughout its length, so laid that trains may be loaded at once from vessels lying along the quay, and straightway proceed on their journey. The railways likewise communicate with the sheds and warehouses. On one side the dock, and close to the steamboat pier previously mentioned, is a railway passenger station.

A graving dock, for the repair of ships, is also to be provided in connexion with the wet dock; and it is further intended to open a channel of communication between the old and the new dock, which will add greatly to the utility and value of the former. These works were, as stated above, commenced in 1846. In 1849 the first stone was laid by Prince Albert. The

works are now in a very advanced state, and are to open for public traffic in the spring of 1852. J. M. Rendel, Esq., is engineer in chief.

But, after all, the value of Grimsby as a commercial port must mainly depend on its facilities of communication with the interior. And these will be of the most extensive description. A direct branch of the Great Northern Railway, from Peterborough, passing through Boston and the E. parts of Lincoln, and thus opening a rich agricultural country, brings Grimsby within 154 m. distance, or 4 or 5 hours' travelling, of London. The line of the Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Railway Company, who are the proprietors of the works at Grimsby, unites it with Manchester (dist. 117 m.). It passes through Sheffield, and intersects in its course two trunk lines to the North, viz. the Midland and the Great Northern.

The agricultural districts of Lincolnshire and the Midland counties, the manufacturing and mineral districts of Lancashire and Yorkshire, and the metropolis, are thus brought into direct and easy communication with a port that offers especial advantages for the trade with Holland, the Elbe, and the Baltic; and which is, indeed, extremely well situated for traffic, whether East, North, or South.

Even with its present limited means of accommodation for shipping, certain articles, such as timber, linseed and rapeseed, bones, &c., are largely imported at Grimsby. Recently wheat flour, from France, for the manufacturing districts, has, also, been extensively imported. A large traffic in fish is anticipated when the means for its reception and speedy conveyance to the towns in the interior have been completed.

The export trade of Grimsby has hitherto been, and will continue to be very limited, till the new docks and warehouses have been opened, when, no doubt, it will rapidly develop itself. There will, probably, be a large exportation of Yorkshire coal; and to facilitate this business branch lines are being laid from the Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Railway to some of the principal coal-mines in the district through which it passes. The dock will have every facility for loading coal-ships.

IOWA. One of the U. States of N. America, between lat. $40^{\circ} 30'$ and $43^{\circ} 30'$ N., and long. 90° and 97° W., having N. the Minnesota territory, E. the states of Wisconsin and Illinois, from which it is separated by the Mississippi, S. the state of Missouri and W. the Missouri and Sioux rivers. It is shaped like a parallelogram, and is estimated to contain about 51,000 sq. m. Pop. in 1840 (ex. Indians), 43,111, and at present (1850) about 192,000. Surface undulating, without any high hills or mountains; but a tract of considerably elevated table land occupies the greater part of its centre, dividing the streams that fall into the Mississippi from those that fall into the Missouri. The margins of the creeks and rivers are covered for a considerable way back with large timber trees, the rest of the country being mostly open prairies. The latter, which extend over two thirds of the surface, are generally covered with luxuriant herbage, occasionally intermixed with hazel thickets and sassafras shrubs, which, in the flowering season, have a rich and beautiful appearance. Soil various, but generally good; consisting in the bottoms of a deep black mould, mixed in the prairies with sandy loam, red clay, and gravel. Iron is abundant; and one of the richest portions of the lead region of the Union is found in the S.W. quarter of the state; zinc is met with, and limestone is a prevalent formation. Except in some of the lowest bottoms, the country is salubrious. The cold in winter, though frequently severe, is not injurious; and the heats in summer are said not to be oppressive. Iowa bids fair to become one of the principal agricultural states of the Union. It is well suited to the growth of wheat, Indian corn, and all sorts of grain, and a great variety of fruits and culinary vegetables have been already introduced; it is also extremely well fitted for grazing and dairy purposes. In-

deed, such has been its progress that, though till 1833, when it received its first white settlers, it had been exclusively occupied as a hunting-ground by the Indians, it produced in 1848, 1,300,000 bush. wheat, 1,500,000 do. oats, 3,500,000 do. Indian corn, with considerable quantities of barley, potatoes, &c. The situation of the state, between two great navigable rivers, affords every facility for the exportation of its various products. The town of Iowa, on the river of that name, in the E. part of the state, is the seat of government; and Burlington, Dubuque in the lead district, Davenport, and various other places, are fast rising into importance. The government is vested in a governor, chosen every four, a senate every four, and a house of representatives every two years, by the suffrages of the white male inhabs. of twenty-one years of age. The members of both houses are paid for their attendance, their numbers depending on the amount of the population. The judges of the supreme court receive each 1,000 doll. a year of salary. The constitution prohibits the creation of any corporation with banking privileges. A university has already been established; and ample provision is made for the support of public schools. Slavery is not permitted. Iowa was acquired from the Indians in 1832: in 1833, it began to be settled; in 1838, it was erected into a territorial government; and in 1846 it was admitted into the Union. (*Haskell's Gazetteer*; *American Almanac* for 1851, &c.)

KEY-WEST. A small island from 5 to 6 m. in length, by 1 in width; 56 m. S. W. from Cape Sable, in Florida. It is one of the Florida keys, or of that extensive circular range of low islands, banks, and reefs, which fences the coast of Florida, and forms the northern boundary of the Gulf Stream, from the Tortugas islands on the W. round to Cape Florida on the N. A lighthouse erected on the S. W. point of the island, lat. 24° 29' N., long. 81° 59' W., has a fixed light elevated 83 ft. 6 in. above the sea. The town of Key-West, near the N. W. part of the island, has about 1,600 inhabs., and has an excellent harbour, with about 35 ft. water. A safe passage, about 6 m. in length, leads by Key-West from the Gulf Stream to the Gulf of Mexico. It has 12 ft. water at ebb tide, and vessels from the N. bound for New Orleans, Mobile, &c., or from the latter for the former, by passing through it, avoid the delay and danger of the more westerly passage round the Tortugas.

Owing to the frequent accidents to shipping from coming in contact with the banks and reefs in this dangerous vicinity, the American government have organised an establishment at Key-West for the assistance of ships in distress, and made it the seat of an admiralty court for the adjudication of claims for salvage. The former consists of 15 licensed vessels with crews of about 10 men each. These are kept constantly cruising about on the look-out for ships in distress or wanting pilots; and as their employment principally depends on the fees they obtain for their assistance, it may be fairly presumed that it will be rendered with the greatest alacrity. But the desirable thing is to hinder vessels from getting on shore, the assisting them when in that predicament being, though an important, a secondary consideration. The latter, however, and not the former, is the main object which the licensed cruisers of Key-West have in view; and it would be preferable, could means be devised for making their remuneration depend rather on their success in preventing disasters, than, as at present, in mitigating their influence. This, however, is by no means easily done. Shipwrecks will, perhaps, be more effectually prevented by increasing the number of light-houses, light-vessels, and sea-marks, along the edges of the islands and reefs, than in any other way. We subjoin an account of the sums awarded as salvages by the court of Key-West in each of the 18 years ending with 1848.

	Dollars.		Dollars.
1851	- 26,497	1840	- 83,115
1832	- 46,555	1841	- 71,173
1833	- 38,128	1842	- 38,103
1834	- 25,040	1843	- 29,811
1835	- 87,240	1844	- 99,712
1836	- 174,132	1845	- 69,592
1837	- 107,495	1846	- 109,000
1838	- 104,978	1847	- 123,000
1839	- 90,797	1848	- 127,379

(*Bunt's American Coasting Pilot*, p. 266.; *Hunt's Commercial Magazine*.)

LABUAN, a small island off the N. W. coast of Borneo, a dependency of the British crown, about 6 m. distant from the nearest point of the mainland, and 30 m. N. from the city of Borneo or Bruni, lat. 5° 12' N., long. 115° 19' 36" E. It is from 25 to 30 m. in circ., flat and covered with wood. The anchorage, on the E. side of the island, is protected by the greater and three smaller islands; and the town of Victoria has been commenced at the embouchure of a rivulet in a small bay, at the head of the anchorage. Coal of good quality is found on the island, and it is well supplied with fresh water. It was ceded by the Sultan of

Borneo to Great Britain in 1844; and Sir James Brooke, who negotiated its cession, has since been appointed its governor. When it came into our possession it was uninhabited; but its situation is such that, provided it be moderately healthy, it can hardly fail to become an important emporium. It lies near the best route for shipping from the Straits of Singapore to China, and, while it is extremely well situated for carrying on trade with the W. and N. coasts of Borneo and the Philippine islands, it will serve as a harbour of refuge and as a convenient station for the steamers and other ships of war required for the suppression of the piracy that is now, to the great injury of commerce, carried on to so great an extent from the ports and rivers of Borneo, and of some of the adjacent islands. In this respect its abundant supply of coal will be of the greatest service. In war the possession of Labuan will give us the entire command of the Chinese sea. (*See Brooke's Journal*, and an excellent paper by Mr. Craufurd in *Keppel's Borneo*, li. p. 144. and p. 305.)

Borneo, or Bruni, on the adjacent shore of the mainland, the residence of the Sultan of Borneo Proper, has been termed the Venice of the East. It contains from 30,000 to 40,000 inhabitants, mostly Malays, and it really seems as if it floated on the waves. It is situated on an estuary, and though built with little regard to regularity, it is intersected crosswise by two main streets, which divide it into four portions, one only of which stands on dry land. The houses in the other three parts are of wood built on piles, which support them above the water, with streets, if so they may be called, to admit the passage of canoes. The steamer which conveyed Sir James Brooke to Borneo, when Labuan was ceded, anchored in the main street in the centre of the town! "The greatest novelty at Bruni," says Mr. Marryat, from whom we have borrowed these details, "is the floating bazaar. There are no shops in the city, and the market is held every day in canoes. These come in at sunrise every morning from every part of the river, laden with fresh fruit, tobacco, pepper, and every other article which is produced in the vicinity; a few European productions, such as handkerchiefs, check-cotton prints, &c., also make their appearance. Congregated in the main street, the canoes are tacked together, forming lanes through which the purchasers in their own canoes paddle, selecting and bargaining for goods with as much convenience as if the whole were transacted on *terra firma*. Iron is here so valuable that it is used as money. One hundred flat pieces an inch square are valued at a dollar, and among the lower classes these iron pieces form the sole coin. They are unstamped, so that any person appears to be at liberty to cut his own iron into money; but whether such is really the case, I cannot vouch." (*Marryat's Borneo*, &c. p. 113.)

But though deficient in iron, the gold mines of Borneo are amongst the richest in the world. Sir Stamford Raffles estimated that in his time about 33,000 Chinese labourers were employed in these mines on the W. coast of Borneo; and it is not easy to say how productive they might become, were the miners in a condition to prosecute their undertakings in safety, and to bring the resources of science and of capital to their aid. Antimony is also found in abundance in Borneo, especially in the district of Sarawak, of which Sir James Brooke is now rajah; and the diamonds of Borneo rival those of India and Brazil. But independently of its coal and of its precious and other metals, its vegetable products might alone furnish the materials of an extensive commerce. The sago palm grows in great perfection in many parts of the island, and sago is largely exported in a rough state to Singapore. The areca nut, rattans, gutta percha, gum-benjamin, camphor, birds' nests, &c., are also considerable articles of export; and sugar, pepper, and all the products of tropical regions, might, with a little care, be raised to any extent in most parts of this vast island. The numbers and ferocity of the savages by whom it is occupied present, indeed, formidable obstacles to its improvement. But civilization is beginning to make its way amongst them; and, though probably slow, its progress cannot well be arrested. (For further particulars in regard to Borneo, see the article on it in the *Geographical Dictionary*, the work of Captain Keppel referred to above, and Mr. Low's valuable work on Sarawak and its inhabs.)

LIBERIA. We borrow from the *Times* the following details with respect to the condition of this state in 1848. (See art. **LIBERIA** in this work.) Probably, however, they give too flattering a view of its progress and prospects. At all events its trade has not lately increased.

"The colony of Liberia has just been recognised as an independent republic by Great Britain and France, and a treaty of trade and commerce has upon our part

been concluded with that State. So little, however, is known of its situation, prospects, and resources, that it will be desirable to furnish some general information on these points.

"The colony of Liberia lies midway between Sierra Leone and Cape Palmas, and was established by the American Colonisation Society in 1820 by an immigration of free or liberated people of colour from the United States. Since that period its population, including the aborigines who have incorporated themselves with the immigrants, has increased to upwards of 80,000, while the land they occupy extends along 320 miles of coast, and reaches at an average about 80 miles into the interior. The proportion of the population born in America, or of American descent, is estimated at about 10,000, and such has been the effect of their example and influence, that out of the remaining 70,000, consisting of aborigines, or of captives released from slavers, at least 50,000 can speak the English language, so that any one would perfectly understand them, while their habits are rapidly becoming those of civilised and steady agriculturists. The desire for education is also manifested by the surrounding tribes, and instances are not uncommon of natives sending their children four or five hundred miles from the interior to be instructed in the primary schools established in the republic. Of these there are 36 in operation, with an average attendance in each of about 40 aboriginal pupils.

"The whole of the territory of Liberia has been purchased from time to time from the aboriginal owners; and in this way at least twenty petty sovereignties have been extinguished. In its former condition the coast was the constant resort of slavers, but the traffic is now effectually suppressed as far as the jurisdiction of the republic extends, and its entire abandonment is an invariable stipulation in every treaty of trade and protection into which the republic may consent to enter with neighbouring states. The disposition to avail themselves of treaties of this description is plainly on the increase on the part of the surrounding natives, and it is estimated that not less than 2,000,000 persons in the interior now obtain their supply of European goods from the republic and from the kindred colony of Cape Palmas. Last year 42 foreign vessels visited Liberia, and exchanged merchandise for articles of African production to the amount of 600,000 dolls.

"The natural resources of Liberia are immense, and are steadily in process of development. The principal articles of export are ivory, palm oil (of which 150,000 dolls. worth was shipped in 1847), camwood, gold dust, &c. Coffee is indigenous, and of excellent quality, and is now being cultivated extensively. It yields more than in the West Indies, and the belief is entertained that it may be produced so as to come into competition with that produced by slave-labour. Sugar also thrives well, but enough only is grown for home consumption, and there is no present hope of competing with Cuba or Brazil. Cocoa has just been introduced, and promises well. Cotton, it is expected, will soon become an article of export. Indigo, ginger, arrowroot, and various other articles of commerce, likewise grow luxuriantly. Rich metallic mines exist in the country, and only require capital to lay them open.

"The population is upon the whole well disposed to work, and the rate of wages per day is about 1s. sterling. It is an extraordinary feature of this part of the coast that horses and other draught animals will not live, and hence every kind of transport, except that upon the rivers, is performed by manual labour. Much of the camwood which is exported from Liberia is brought a distance of 200 m. on men's backs. It is seen, however, that this difficulty, which appears a great one at first, may have the effect, not only of inuring the people to labour, but of stimulating them to every kind of mechanical contrivance, which it may be overcome. The climate of Liberia, although more healthy than Sierra Leone, is still deadly to the European; but the improvement it has undergone during the last ten years, the effect of clearing, drainage, &c., is stated to be most remarkable. The coloured immigrants from America, who used invariably to suffer from fever on their arrival, are now able to go to work at once.

"At Monrovia, the port and capital, the population amounts to about 9,000. A large portion of the territory has been accurately surveyed, and is sold in sections by the government, at from 50c. to 1 doll. per acre. The government of the country is precisely on the American model, consisting of a president, a vice-president, a senate, and a house of representatives, the number of members in the former being 6, and in the latter 28. The possession of real estate to the value of 30 dolls. is the electoral qualification. The revenue, which was last year about 20,000 dolls., is derived entirely from an *ad valorem* duty of 6 per cent. on imports, and the produce of land sales. Ardent spirits, the use of which it is sought to discourage, form an exception, and are taxed 36 cents per gallon. The principal trade is carried on

by bayer, but there is a small paper circulation of about 6,000 dolls. redeemable on demand.

"The organisation of the Republic as an independent state took place in July last, when Mr. Roberts, who had formerly acted as governor under the Colonisation Society, was elected President. Speaking of his qualifications, Commodore Perry, of the United States navy, says in a report to the American Government, dated in 1844—

"Governor Roberts, of Liberia, and Russwurm, of Cape Palmas, are intelligent and estimable men executing their responsible functions with wisdom and dignity; and we have in the example of these two gentlemen irrefragable proof of the capability of coloured people to govern themselves."

"While with regard to the advantages of the colony he adds—

"So far as the influence of the colonists has extended, it has been exerted to suppress the slave trade. Their endeavours have been eminently successful, and it is by planting these settlements (whether American or European) along the whole extent of coast from Cape Verd to Benguela, that the exportation of slaves will be most effectually prevented."

MELBOURNE, the cap. of the British colonial territory of Victoria, or Port Phillip, in Australia, occupying the S.E. portion of the continent, stretching through 9 degs. of long., from Cape Howe on the E. to Glenelg river on the W. The town is situated on the N. bank of the Yarra-yarra river, about 9 m. (following its windings) from its mouth in the basin of Port Phillip, lat. 37° 49' 25" S., long. 144° 57' E. Pop., according to the statement in a petition of the inhabs., 30,000 in 1850; but this is perhaps exaggerated. It was founded in 1837, and now extends for 2 m. in length by 1 do. in breadth, along the banks of the river. But its site is unfortunate; for the river, being obstructed by a bar and shallows, is not generally navigable for vessels of more than 60 tons burden; and it has the further disadvantage of being low, and liable to be flooded by the overflowing of the river during the wet season. It has been proposed to facilitate the trade of the town by removing the bar at the mouth of the river, and deepening its channel; but this would be a very expensive undertaking, and one of which the success would be not a little doubtful. The excavation of a ship canal from the deep water in the bay to Melbourne has also been proposed; and it, probably, would be the preferable plan. It seems, however, most likely that the trade of the town, and even the greater part of its population, will ultimately centre at Williamstown, a village a few miles distant, on a headland extending into the bay opposite to which all large vessels coming to Melbourne are obliged to anchor. The principal objection to Williamstown is the scarcity and bad quality of the fresh water; but this serious defect might, we are assured, be obviated by sinking wells, or by conveying hither a supply of water from some of the adjacent streams. Melbourne has the appearance of an English country town. Streets regular, and mostly 100 ft. in width; houses chiefly of brick, some of them being stuccoed. Of late, several buildings have been constructed of granite, whinstone, or sandstone quarried in the vicinity, and a handsome freestone bridge of one arch across the river has been constructed. Melbourne has Episcopalian, Presbyterian, R. Cath., Independent, Methodist, and Baptist churches, Port Phillip college, a mechanics' institute, a court ho., jail, and good edifices appropriated to the government offices, two banks, a theatre, steam flour-mills, iron foundries, horse bazars, extensive wool-stores, a "squatters' club," a botanic garden, race-course, &c., and in its vicinity are many thriving farms, and country-residences of its more opulent inhabs. It forms a bor., divided into 4 wards, and is governed by a mayor, alderman, and councillors. It is the see of the bishop of the diocese of a court of justice, whence appeal lies to the supreme court at Sydney, &c. Several newspapers are published in the town. It communicates by steam-boats daily with Geelong, and at stated periods with Sydney, Launceston, and Hobart Town.

Geelong, the town next in importance in the Victoria territory, stands at the W. extremity of the W. arm of Port Phillip, about 40 miles S.W. Melbourne. Total pop. (1846) 2,065. It has an increasing trade; though, like Melbourne, shoals prevent its being reached by large vessels. But, notwithstanding, it appears to be the preferable port for the trade of the E. side of the bay are the marit. villages, St. Kilda and Brighton, respectively 3 and 6 m. S. Melbourne, and occasionally resorted to by its inhabitants.

In 1849 the aggr. value of the exports of native produce from the prov. of Victoria, and mostly from Melbourne, amounted to 737,067l. Wool is by far the most important article, the quantity exported being no less than 14,567,805 lbs., worth, when shipped, 874,694l. The next most important article was tallow, 69,649 cwt., worth 100,361l., with horned cattle, sheep-beef, &c. The imports

into Victoria during the same year amounted to 479,831. They comprised cottons, linens, woollens, and other manufactured goods; iron and hardware; apparel and slops; ale and beer; spirits and wine; sugar and tea; tobacco, &c. Were it not for the absurd regulations in regard to the disposal of land, Victoria and South Australia would be, perhaps, the most desirable of our colonies to which to emigrate. (*Australas and Prison Discipline; Griffith's Present State of Port Phillip; Wells' Australian Gazetteer.*)

MILWAUKIE, a town and harbour of the U. States, state Wisconsin, cap. of same name, at the mouth of the Milwaukee river, on the W. shore of Lake Michigan, 80 m. N. Chicago. This place is rapidly rising in importance; and being the only good harbour on the W. side of the lake, between Chicago and Green Bay, it will most likely become the principal emporium of the extensive territory in which it is situated. In 1840, it had only 1,709 inhab., whereas, in 1849, it had not fewer than 17,000. It has already a very extensive trade; and steamers ply between it and Buffalo, at the E. extremity of Lake Erie. It is well-built, has a courthouse, jail, and land office for the U. States, with numerous churches, schools, academies, newspapers, &c.

We subjoin an Account of the Exports of Wheat and Flour from Milwaukee during each of the 4 Years ending with 1849.

		1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.
Wheat	- bush.	213,448	598,011	602,474	1,136,425
Flour.	- bbls.	15,476	34,840	97,758	136,657

MINESOTA, a territory of the U. States, having N. the British possessions, from which it is separated in part by the parallel of 46° N. lat., E. Lake Superior and the State of Wisconsin, S. Iowa, and W. the unappropriated Indian territories. Its area is estimated at about 150,000 sq. m.; and, in June, 1849, it had only about 4,500 free white inhab., but the pop. is rapidly increasing. Its central table land, though only about 1,700 ft. above the level of the Gulf of Mexico, contains the sources of the "King of floods," the Mississippi, flowing S., and of the Red River, flowing N. to Lake Winnipeg. It is extremely well watered, and has a greater number of lakes than any other state or territory of the Union. It has every variety of soil; and while in parts it is covered by extensive forests, in others it has large tracts of prairies and open lands, with swamps and morasses. It is said to be peculiarly well fitted for the raising of corn and of cattle, and we already hear of its agricultural societies and its cattle shows. (*Johnston's Notes*, 1. 236.) Almost nothing is known of its mineral products, except that it has lead mines. Capital, St. Paul, immediately below the falls of St. Anthony, on the Upper Mississippi, and 219 m. within the territory. The climate in winter is severe; but, though followed by a hot summer, it is anything but unhealthy. Its government is vested, like that of the other states and territories of the Union, in a governor, senate, and house of representatives, all chosen by universal suffrage.

NATAL, the name given to a district on the S.E. coast of Africa, a dependency of the British crown, being a portion of the great country occupied by the Caffres or Kaffirs, between 7½ and 31 degs. S. lat., and 29½ and 31 degs. E. long. It has on the N. the country of the Zoolah Kaffirs, from which it is separated by the Buffalo and Trikelu rivers, on the E. the Indian Ocean, S. the Umsinkala river, and W. a chain of lofty mountains called the Drakenberg or Kathlamba, running N.N.E. and S. S. W., from 80 to 100 m. from the coast. Its area has been differently estimated, but it may probably amount to 15,000 or 16,000 sq. m. The country shelves rapidly downwards from the mountains into the sea, having the appearance of a hilly declivity intersected by deep ravines, but along the shore and the rivers it is most flat and swampy. The declivities of the hills are in part covered with forest trees and bushes, and in part bare and red, owing to the prevalence of the iron ore which they contain. The lower grounds are everywhere covered with vegetation, consisting either of the most luxuriant grass, or of bush or scrub. It is everywhere well watered, being traversed by numerous rivers and streams which, rising in the mountains, pursue their winding courses to the sea. In the rainy seasons these are much swollen, and rush forward with great violence. They have generally but a short course; are frequently interrupted by cataracts; and owing to the quantity of sand and earth which they carry down, they have unsoundly bare at their mouths, so that they are in great measure useless for navigation. According to the statement of the Surveyor General, "the soil is well adapted for cultivation; on the alluvial land, along the banks of the rivers, it is particularly so, producing much larger crops than are ever grown in the colony of the Cape of Good Hope." (*Correspondence relating Natal*, 1848, p. 79.) The principal rocks are granite, basalt, slate,

sandstone, shale, &c. Iron ore is extremely abundant; coal, also, is found in different localities; and might, it is said, be obtained in any quantity. The climate is not too hot; but in the summer months the grass is generally brown and dry, and towards the S. frontier droughts are frequent. The district is said to be remarkably healthy, and free from the epidemics by which most parts of Africa are visited.

Tigers, hyenas, wolves, and a few lions, lurk in the deep ravines, and in the forests on the mountains along the frontier of the colony, whence they occasionally descend to prey on the flocks; but they are less feared, and their ravages are of less consequence, than might be supposed. The hippopotamus is found in the pools in the rivers in the interior; elephants and rhinoceroses are also met with, though they are less common now than formerly. Game is abundant, comprising antelopes, hares, pheasants, partridges, &c. Baboons, monkeys, with sundry varieties of serpents and other reptiles, are among the native animals. The district is the most parts well suited for the rearing and feeding of cattle. The greatest obstruction in the way of the successful prosecution of this branch of industry will most probably be found, not in the depredations of wild animals, but in the thievish propensities of the native population. Most part, indeed, of the contests in which we have been engaged along the frontiers of our possessions in S. Africa, have originated in this source, or in the predatory incursions of the Kaffirs and other contiguous tribes in quest of cattle. But were the country divided into suitable districts, a police establishment organised, and measures adopted for the prevention and prompt punishment of crime, the natives might, perhaps, be induced to renounce these practices, and become alive to the superior advantages of security and industry.

Wheat, barley, millet, maize, and beans, are already cultivated to some extent, and might be raised in any quantity; and sugar, coffee, cotton, indigo, and other tropical productions, are well suited to the soil and climate. The cotton is of very good quality, as is evinced by the price which the small quantity of it that has been exported has brought at Liverpool. Wre, figs, oranges, and lemons, have also been introduced, with every reasonable success.

The principal, or rather the only, harbour on this coast, is that of Port Natal, lat. 29° 55' S., long. 30° 41' E. It opens to the N., and outside its mouth, which is narrow, is a bar of sand, on which there are in ordinary tides about 6 ft. water at ebb, and about 12 ft. at flood; but at springs the rise of the tide is greater. Within the bar there are from 12 to 15 and 16 ft. water at ebb. On the whole the harbour is not suited for vessels drawing more than 10 or at most 12 ft. water. But ships of any burden may anchor outside the bar with the wind at S. W. by W., round by W. to N. N. E. When, however, the wind veers round to any point not within these limits, the anchorage becomes unsafe, and ships must immediately stand out to the sea. Within the harbour forms a large basin, which, at flood, exhibits a wide expanse of water, but it mostly dries at low ebb. Durban, the town, an inconsiderable place, is on the N. side of the basin, and has the disadvantage of being about 1½ m. from the nearest point where ships can anchor. Good fresh water for shipping is obtained within the bay. (*Private Information*.) The seat of government is not, however, here, but at Pietermaritzburg, a considerable way inland. The exports comprise ivory, hides, horns, gun, bees-wax, Indian corn, &c.; and among the imports are fire-arms and ammunition, coarse cotton stuff, iron and hardware, &c.

This district rose into importance some years ago from its having become the resort of the Dutch boors who emigrated from the Cape Colony, partly from their dissatisfaction with our regulations in regard to land, but more, perhaps, from the restraints under which they were properly held by our governor. And it is a curious fact, since our occupation of Natal in 1842, it also has been deserted by the boors, so that it is at present all but wholly denuded of its white inhabitants. It has latterly been erected into a separate dependency, under a lieutenant-governor, subordinate to the governor of the Cape colony.

Under these circumstances there can be no question that it would be greatly for the advantage of the district, could a small portion of that vast stream of emigration that is now flowing from this country to Canada and the United States be diverted thither. But the most advantageous class of immigrants for Natal would undoubtedly be practical farmers, with from 200, to 500, or 500, of capital. Such persons are much wanted to form the nucleus of an English population, and to introduce the husbandry for which the colony is suited. The colonial authorities are aware of this; and to encourage the immigration of such parties they have proposed that "they should receive an equivalent in land to the amount they have necessarily expended in the

outfit and passage of themselves, families, and servants. An arrangement of this nature would enable a man possessing capital to the extent we have mentioned, to commence farming with advantage the moment of his arrival in the district, while without it the means of a most valuable class of colonists would be swallowed up in expenses, and upon their landing here emigrants with limited capital would find themselves very little better off than before they left their native land." (*Report of the Surveyor-General, &c., of the Colony, 29 Dec. 1847.*)

No doubt this is a highly judicious recommendation, and does credit to those from whom it emanated. But there is no chance of its being acted upon, for unluckily it happens to be opposed to the grand nostrum (it would be an abuse of terms to call it principle), that no land, how worthless soever, shall be granted to any immigrant; but that he shall be compelled to buy it in considerable lots at a high price. And such being the case, immigrants who can afford to buy land will most probably continue to think, as they do at present, that it is a safer and a better speculation to pay 5s. or 7s. an acre for the rich wheat lands in the valley of the Mississippi, than 30s. an acre for the sheep-walks of Australia, or 2s. an acre for the declivities, swamps, and jungles of S. Africa.

PETRA, a once famous but now deserted city of Arabia Petrea, the metropolis of the Nabatheans, nearly half way between the head of the Gulph of Akabah (an. *Ælaniticus Sinus*) and the Dead Sea, in about lat. 30° 15' N., long. 35° 35' E. It is situated on a small stream, at the foot of Mount Hor, in a fissure or chasm, about 1½ m. in length by ¼ m. in breadth, surrounded on all sides by precipitous and mostly inaccessible rocks, except on the E., where the rivulet escapes, and where it is entered by a gorge which hardly affords room enough for two horsemen to ride abreast. The statement of Pliny is as correct as it is brief:—*Nabataei oppidum incolunt Petrom nomine in convulle, paulo minus II. mill. passuum amplitudinis, circumdatum montibus inaccessis, amne interficiente.* (*Hist. Nat.*, lib. vi. cap. 28.) Its name of *Πετρα*, a Rock, which afterwards became that of the surrounding country, has been obviously derived from its situation.* It has been long deserted, and its very site had become a matter of doubt and conjecture. But in 1812 it was visited by Burckhardt; and it has since been visited by Captains Irby and Mangles, M. de Laborde, Lord Lindsay, Mr. Robinson, and other travellers. Altogether its position and ruins are most extraordinary; and show, not less conclusively than those of Palmyra, the wealth and civilisation of which the commerce of the ancient world was the prolific source. The city, of which there are some magnificent relics, appears to have occupied the entire extent of the chasm. The rocks, also, with which it is surrounded, with those along the gorge by which it is entered, are almost all hollowed out and cut into tombs, temples, and other public and private structures, of extraordinary magnificence, including a large theatre. And, thanks to the climate, their embellishments are as sharp and perfect as if they had only come from the chisel of the workmen. The rock is of different colours; and Messrs. Irby and Mangles say, "We must despair of giving the reader any idea of the singular effect of rocks tinted with the most extraordinary hues, whose summits present to us nature in her most savage and romantic form, while their bases are worked out in all the symmetry and regularity of art, with colonnades and pediments, and ranges of corridors adhering to the perpendicular surface." Nowhere, perhaps, have the habitations of men and their final resting-places been brought into such immediate contact as at Petra. Even the approaches to

the theatre are lined with tombs! The ruins, though many of them are doubtless of great antiquity, appear principally to belong to the Roman period; and the only inscription found among them is in Latin of the age of Adrian or Antoninus Pius. (*Laborde's Sinai, &c.*, Eng. trans. p. 179.)

Petra, from its great natural strength and its position, was peculiarly well fitted to serve as a safe and convenient entrepôt for the extensive caravan trade carried on between Phenicia and Arabia and the Persian Gulph. The products native to Arabia Felix, and those brought to its ports from India and Africa, were conveyed to Petra, partly by caravans which performed the entire journey by land, and partly by caravans from Ælana, at the head of the Ælanitic Gulph, to which they were sometimes conveyed by sea. There was, also, at a very remote epoch, a caravan route from the important emporium of Gerrha, on the W. side of the Persian Gulph, to Petra. (*Vincent's Commerce of the Ancients*, and the authorities referred to in it, ii. 361.) When brought to the latter the products of the E. world were forwarded to Tyre by way of Gaza and Rhinoculura (*Strabo*, lib. xvi. cap. 3.), to be exchanged for the products of Phenicia and of the countries round the Mediterranean; or, which is most probable, quantities of the latter would be always in store in Petra, and the exchange would be effected in it. That this trade was carried on in the way now stated from a very remote antiquity, is evident from the fact that reference is made in the sacred writings to the Edomites, or Idumeans, the original founders and occupiers of Petra, as being managers or agents for the Tyrians, and bartering one sort of produce with them for another. (*Heeren's Asiatic Nations*, i. 353.) In the age of Alexander the Great a fair on a large scale was held in the vicinity of Petra, which, no doubt, had been established at a much more remote epoch. (*Heeren, ubi supra.*) At a later period, Strabo mentions that a good many Romans and other strangers were established in the town; and he, also, indicates some points in the route of the caravans from Southern Arabia. (*Lib. xvi. cap. 3.*) According to Pliny, it had a direct communication with Palmyra. (*Hist. Nat.*, *ubi supra.*) It was the wealth resulting from this extensive trade that filled the rocky girdle of the city with a rich, a refined, and an enterprising population, and gave them abundance, though in the middle of vast deserts.

The history of Petra is involved in much obscurity. There appears to be little doubt that it is identical with the Selah and Joktheel of the Bible. (2 Kings, chap. xiv. v. 7.) The reports of its riches having excited the cupidity of Antigonus, general of Alexander the Great, and king of Syria, he made two efforts to effect its subjugation. But, in both instances, he was defeated, though his forces in the second expedition were commanded by his son Demetrius, celebrated for his skill in the besieging of cities. (*Diodorus*, lib. xix. §§ 95. 97, and 98.) Petra appears to have preserved its independence down to the reign of Trajan, when it submitted to his victorious arms. (*Dion Cassius*, lib. lxxviii. cap. 14.) It would seem, from inscriptions on coins still extant, that Adrian, the successor of Trajan, had conferred his name on Petra. But from that epoch it is no more heard of in history. The commerce, to which it owed its existence, was gradually diverted into other channels; and it has now nothing to interest save its wonderful ruins.

* Mr. Foster has given, in his learned and valuable work on the "Historical Geography of Arabia" (i. 237.), a different, but, as we think, fanciful, derivation of the term Petra.

PRUSSIA.

Prussian revised Constitution, as promulgated on the 1st of February, 1850, and sworn to by the King, at Berlin, on the 6th of the same Month.

We, Frederick William, by the grace of God, King, &c., hereby make known and proclaim that we, after that the constitution of the 5th of December, 1848, reserved for revision by ordinary legislative means, has been submitted to the required revision by both chambers of our kingdom, have, in accord with both chambers, determined the same to be definitively valid (end-gültig).

CHAPTER I.—OF THE STATE TERRITORY.

Art. 1. All portions of the monarchy, within their present boundaries, form the territory of the Prussian State.^a
Art. 2. The frontiers of this State territory can only be altered by a law.

CHAPTER II.—OF THE RIGHTS OF PRUSSIA.

Art. 3. The constitution and law determine the conditions under which the qualities of a Prussian and rights of state citizenship can be acquired, exercised, or lost.

Art. 4. All Prussians are equal before the law. Privileges derived from rank do not exist. Public employments are equally open to all who may be qualified for the same, within such restrictive conditions as the law may define.

Art. 5. Personal freedom is guaranteed. The conditions and forms under which a restriction of the same, and especially arrest, may take place, shall be defined by law.

Art. 6. Dwellings are inviolable. Entry into or search within the same, as well as the use of letters or papers, can only be permitted in the modes and forms legally prescribed.

Art. 7. No one can be abstracted from his lawful judges. Exceptional courts and extraordinary commissions are inadmissible.

Art. 8. Punishments can only be adjudged or pronounced in accordance with law.

Art. 9. Property is inviolable: it can only be sequestered or restricted for motives of public utility, in consideration of previous compensation, in urgent cases at least to be determined beforehand.

Art. 10. Civil death and punishment of confiscation of property cannot take place.

Art. 11. Freedom of emigration, in so far as the state is concerned, can only be restricted in consideration of military service obligations. Departure money cannot be levied.

Art. 12. Freedom of religious profession. Association for religious communities (see Arts. 31 and 52) and the collective exercise of domestic or public religious worship is guaranteed. The enjoyment of civic or state citizenship rights is independent of religious profession. Civic and state citizenship obligations can no way be impeded by the exercise of religious freedom.

Art. 13. Religious communities as well as ecclesiastical assemblies not possessing corporate rights can only obtain these rights in virtue of a law.

Art. 14. The Christian religion is declared to be the basis of all such institutions which are connected with religious observances, without prejudice to the freedom of religion guaranteed by Art. 12.

Art. 15. The Evangelical and Roman Catholic Church, as well as all other religious associations, regulate and administer their affairs independently, and remain in possession and enjoyment of their establishments, foundations, and funds destined for religious, educational, and charitable purposes.

Art. 16. Intercourse between religious associations and their superiors is unimpeded. The publication of ecclesiastical ordinances is only subject to such formal qualifications as affect other publications.

Art. 17. A special law will regulate church patronage, and the conditions under which the same can be annulled.

Art. 18. Nomination, proposal, for, elections and confirmations of, possessions of ecclesiastical functions, in so far as regards the State, and where not resting upon special patronage, or legal titles, are abolished. These stipulations do not affect the nomination of ecclesiastics in the army or to public establishments.

Art. 19. The introduction of civil marriage shall take place according to a special law, which will also regulate the management of the civil registers.

Art. 20. Knowledge and its teachers are free.

Art. 21. The instruction of youth shall be sufficiently provided for by public schools. Parents and their substitutes cannot leave their children or wards without the instruction prescribed for public schools for the people.

Art. 22. Every one is at liberty to teach, or to form establishments for instruction, providing he can prove to the competent authorities his moral, scientific, and technical qualifications therefor.

Art. 23. All private and public establishments for instruction and education are placed under the superintendence of authorities named by the State. All public teachers have the rights and obligations of servants of the State.

Art. 24. Confessional relations must be taken into consideration so far as possible, in organising public schools for the people. Religious instruction in schools for the people will be administered by the religious communities who it may concern. The management of the external affairs of schools for the people appertains to parishes. The State appoints teachers to these schools from a list of those qualified, with the lawful concurrence of parishes.

Art. 25. The means for establishing, maintaining, and augmenting public schools will be furnished by parishes. In cases of insufficiency, the requisite funds shall be made up by the State. The obligations of third parties, granted upon special legal titles, remain intact. The State guarantees, to teachers in public schools, an income commensurate with the lawful concurrence of parishes.

Art. 26. The means for establishing, maintaining, and augmenting public schools will be furnished by parishes. In cases of insufficiency, the requisite funds shall be made up by the State. The obligations of third parties, granted upon special legal titles, remain intact. The State guarantees, to teachers in public schools, an income commensurate with the lawful concurrence of parishes.

Art. 27. The means for establishing, maintaining, and augmenting public schools will be furnished by parishes. In cases of insufficiency, the requisite funds shall be made up by the State. The obligations of third parties, granted upon special legal titles, remain intact. The State guarantees, to teachers in public schools, an income commensurate with the lawful concurrence of parishes.

Art. 28. The means for establishing, maintaining, and augmenting public schools will be furnished by parishes. In cases of insufficiency, the requisite funds shall be made up by the State. The obligations of third parties, granted upon special legal titles, remain intact. The State guarantees, to teachers in public schools, an income commensurate with the lawful concurrence of parishes.

Art. 29. The means for establishing, maintaining, and augmenting public schools will be furnished by parishes. In cases of insufficiency, the requisite funds shall be made up by the State. The obligations of third parties, granted upon special legal titles, remain intact. The State guarantees, to teachers in public schools, an income commensurate with the lawful concurrence of parishes.

Art. 30. The means for establishing, maintaining, and augmenting public schools will be furnished by parishes. In cases of insufficiency, the requisite funds shall be made up by the State. The obligations of third parties, granted upon special legal titles, remain intact. The State guarantees, to teachers in public schools, an income commensurate with the lawful concurrence of parishes.

Art. 31. The means for establishing, maintaining, and augmenting public schools will be furnished by parishes. In cases of insufficiency, the requisite funds shall be made up by the State. The obligations of third parties, granted upon special legal titles, remain intact. The State guarantees, to teachers in public schools, an income commensurate with the lawful concurrence of parishes.

Art. 32. The means for establishing, maintaining, and augmenting public schools will be furnished by parishes. In cases of insufficiency, the requisite funds shall be made up by the State. The obligations of third parties, granted upon special legal titles, remain intact. The State guarantees, to teachers in public schools, an income commensurate with the lawful concurrence of parishes.

Art. 33. The means for establishing, maintaining, and augmenting public schools will be furnished by parishes. In cases of insufficiency, the requisite funds shall be made up by the State. The obligations of third parties, granted upon special legal titles, remain intact. The State guarantees, to teachers in public schools, an income commensurate with the lawful concurrence of parishes.

Art. 34. The means for establishing, maintaining, and augmenting public schools will be furnished by parishes. In cases of insufficiency, the requisite funds shall be made up by the State. The obligations of third parties, granted upon special legal titles, remain intact. The State guarantees, to teachers in public schools, an income commensurate with the lawful concurrence of parishes.

Art. 35. The means for establishing, maintaining, and augmenting public schools will be furnished by parishes. In cases of insufficiency, the requisite funds shall be made up by the State. The obligations of third parties, granted upon special legal titles, remain intact. The State guarantees, to teachers in public schools, an income commensurate with the lawful concurrence of parishes.

Art. 36. The means for establishing, maintaining, and augmenting public schools will be furnished by parishes. In cases of insufficiency, the requisite funds shall be made up by the State. The obligations of third parties, granted upon special legal titles, remain intact. The State guarantees, to teachers in public schools, an income commensurate with the lawful concurrence of parishes.

conform with local circumstances. Instruction in public schools for the people will be given gratis.

Art. 26. A special law will regulate the whole system of instruction.
Art. 27. All Prussians have a right to express their opinions freely, by word, writing, print, or pictorial representation. The same cannot be introduced, and other restrictions to the liberty of the press only through legislative means.

Art. 28. Offences by word, writing, print, or pictorial representation shall be punished by the common penal law.

Art. 29. All Prussians are entitled to meet peaceably, and without arms, in inclosed spaces, without previous permission from the authorities. These stipulations do not refer to open air meetings, which also, in regard to previous authoritative permission, are subject to the dispositions of the law.

Art. 30. All Prussians have a right to associate for such purposes as are not contrary to the penal code. The law, in so far as regards the maintenance of public security, specially restricts the rights of the associations guaranteed in this and in the preceding article (29). Forbidden associations can be subjected to restrictions and temporary suspension in the mode appointed by the legislature.

Art. 31. The conditions under which corporate rights can be accorded, or withheld, are regulated by law.

Art. 32. The right of petition is open to all Prussians. Petitions under collective names are only permitted to authorities or corporate bodies.

Art. 33. Secrecy of letters is inviolable. The necessary exceptions, in case of criminal accusations, shall be determined by law.

Art. 34. All Prussians are bound to serve (as soldiers). The amount and mode of this obligation is defined by law.

Art. 35. The army comprises all portions of the standing force and landwehr. In case of war the king can call out the landwehr, as accordance with the law.

Art. 36. The armed force can only be employed in suppressing internal disorders and for the maintenance of the laws, in cases and in the manner determined by law, and at the requisition of the civil authorities. The law will define exceptions as regards the latter.

Art. 37. Military judicial power of the army is limited to military offences, and shall be exercised by regulations for regulations for military discipline in the army remain as objects for special ordinances.

Art. 38. The armed force can neither assemble nor deliberate without orders, whether on or off duty. Meetings of landwehr, even when not on duty, for purposes of discussing military orders and regulations, are forbidden.

Art. 39. The stipulations contained in Articles 5, 6, 29, 30, and 32, are only applicable to the army in so far as they do not militate against military law and disciplinary regulations.

Art. 40. The establishment of fiefs and endowments of family entails is forbidden. Existing fiefs and family entails shall be converted into free property by legal enactments. These stipulations do not affect family settlements.

Art. 41. The foregoing dispositions (Art. 40) are not applicable for the time being to crown fiefs, to the entails of the royal household, or to those fiefs situated without the state, or to those possessions or entails derived direct from the empire, in so far as the same have been guaranteed by the German Confederation. The legal relations of the same shall be determined by special laws.

Art. 42. The right of freely disposing of landed property is subject to no other restrictions than those of common legislation.

CHAPTER III.—OF THE KING.

Art. 43. The king's person is inviolable.

Art. 44. The king's ministers are responsible. All acts of the king's government, to be valid, require the countersign of a minister, who thereby assumes the responsibility.

Art. 45. To the king alone belongs the executive power. He issues and dismisses ministers. He orders the promulgation of laws, and issues the decrees requisite for their fulfilment.

Art. 46. The king is commander-in-chief of the army.

Art. 47. The king appoints to all commissions in the army, as well as to all other functions in the divers branches of the state service, in so far as the law does not otherwise ordain.

Art. 48. The king has the right to declare war and conclude peace, and to establish other treaties of alliance, provided the ratification of the same is approved by the chambers. The king can only put a stop to prosecutions already commenced in virtue of a special law.

Art. 49. The king has the right of grace and reducing punishments. This right can only be exercised in favour of ministers condemned on account of official proceedings, on the proposition of the chamber whence the accusation has emanated. The king can only put a stop to prosecutions already commenced in virtue of a special law.

Art. 50. To the king belongs the conferring of orders and other distinctions, not connected with privileges. He exercises the right of coinage according to law.

Art. 51. The king convenes the chambers and closes their sessions. He can dissolve one or both together. In such cases, however, the electors must be convoked within the space of 60 days after the dissolution, and the chambers reassembled within 90 days of their dissolution.

Art. 52. The king can adjourn the chambers. This adjournment cannot last longer than 30 days without their assent, and cannot be renewed during the same session.

Art. 53. The crown, according to the law existing in the royal house, passes in the male line of the royal family, according to the rights of primogeniture and the agnatic law of descent.

Art. 54. The king obtains his majority upon accomplishing his eighteenth year. He takes a solemn oath, in presence of both chambers assembled, to maintain firmly and inviolably the constitution of the monarchy, and to govern in accordance with it and the laws.

Art. 55. The king cannot simultaneously reign over any foreign state without the assent of the chambers.

Art. 56. Should the king be a minor, or unable for a length of time to govern, the oldest agent nearest allied to the crown assumes the regency. He must forthwith convocate the chambers, who in united assembly will decide upon the regency.

Art. 57. Should no agent of age be forthcoming, and no legal measure have previously provided for this event, the ministers must convocate the chambers, who in united assembly will appoint a regent. The ministry will conduct the regency until the regent shall assume his functions.

Art. 58. The regent exercises the kingly power ascribed to him in the king's name. Upon the constitution of the regency he takes oath before both chambers, to observe firmly and inviolably the constitution of the monarchy, and to govern in accordance with it and the laws. Until this oath be taken ministers remain responsible, under every circumstance, for all acts of government.

Art. 59. The revenues of the crown (civil list) continue to be derived from the rent of the forests and domains, according to the law of the 17th January, 1850, regulating the Royal Estate Funds.

CHAPTER IV.—OF THE MINISTERS.

Art. 60. Ministers, as well as the state functionaries appointed as

* Including Neufchatel-Vallingen and the Hohenzollern principalities.

† Is this in contradiction to the establishment of an hereditary peerage?

‡ How is this to be reconciled with the formation of special jury courts?

§ It has hitherto been the practice for operative journeymen wishing to migrate from one town or territory to another, to pay a certain tax or fine for their permit.

|| This admits all men to the same privileges; but excludes none from obligations, such as military service, &c.

¶ A safeguard against the Junkes.

their substitutes, are entitled to appear in both chambers, and must be heard at all times on their demand. Each chamber has a right to require the presence of a minister. Ministers can only vote in one or other chamber if they be members of the same.

Art. 61. Ministers can, through a resolution of either chamber, be impeached for the crime of violating the constitution, for corruption, or treason. The highest court of the monarchy, assembled in senatus, takes cognizance of the accusation. So long as two supreme courts of justice exist, they will unite for this purpose. More immediate dispositions respecting the cases of responsibility, the proceedings and punishments, are reserved for special law.

CHAPTER V.—OF THE CHAMBERS.

Art. 62. The legislative power is exercised in common by the king and two chambers. The assent of the king and both chambers is requisite for all laws. Financial projects and estimates (budgets) must first be submitted to the Second Chamber. The latter must be accepted or rejected for special law.

Art. 63. In cases only when the maintenance of public security or the suppression of any extraordinary necessity urgently demands, and in cases the chambers are not assembled, and under the responsibility of the whole ministry, can ordinances be issued having force of law, always providing they be not contrary to the constitution. The same must, however, be submitted forthwith to the approbation of the chambers at their next meeting.

Art. 64. The right of proposing laws is vested in the king and in both chambers. Projects of law selected by either chamber or by the king cannot be rejected during their session.

Art. 65. The First Chamber consists:—(a) Of princes of the royal family of age. (b) Of the heads of Prussian houses deriving directly from the former Empire, and of the heads of those families who, by royal ordinance, may be admitted to sit in the First Chamber, according to the rights of primogeniture and lineal descent. These ordinances will, at the same time, specify the conditions whereby this right may be attached to certain lineal possessions. This right cannot be exercised by proxy, and no absence during minority or during service taken under a non-German state, and further so long as he possesses the right shall not be domiciled in Prussia. (c) Of such members whom the king may appoint for life. Their number not to exceed one-tenth of those members named in schedules a and b. (d) Of ninety members, which are to be directly elected by electoral districts, determined by law, to consist of thirty times the number of electors (Art. 79) who pay the highest taxes to the state. (e) Of thirty members to be elected, according to the stipulations of the law, from the members of the municipal councils elected by large towns, the whole number of the members named in schedules a to c cannot exceed those mentioned in d and e. The dissolution of the chamber only affects electoral members.

Art. 66. The formation of the First Chamber, in the manner defined in Art. 65, shall not take place until the 1st August 1848. Until that period, the First Chamber will continue to be elected upon the basis of the law of 6th December, 1848.

Art. 67. The term of the legislative period for the First Chamber is fixed for six years.

Art. 68. Eligible as member of the First Chamber is every Prussian who has accomplished his 40th year, who has not lost the full enjoyment of civic rights through judicial sentence, and who has already resided five years within the Prussian state territory. Members of the First Chamber receive neither diet nor travelling expenses.

Art. 69. The Second Chamber consists of 350 members. The electoral districts are determined by law. They may consist of one or more districts or not, of one or more large towns.

Art. 70. Every Prussian who has attained his 25th year, and is qualified to vote for the municipal elections of his place of domicile, is eligible to vote as indirect elector. He who is entitled to vote for municipal elections in several parishes can only exercise the right of indirect elector (warden) in one.

Art. 71. One direct elector (*wahlmann*) shall be elected from every complete amount of 250 souls. The indirect electors (*wahlkörper*) shall be divided into three classes, according to the relative amount of direct taxes paid by each; and in such manner that each category shall pay one-third of the whole amount of direct taxes levied on the whole. The total amount shall be calculated thus:—(a) Parochially, providing the parish constitutes an electoral circle; (b) According to districts, when the indirect electoral circle consists of several parishes. The first category consists of all such electors as pay the highest taxes (one-third of the whole amount). The second of those who pay the next highest amount down to the limits of the second third. The third of all the lowest taxed, who, together, complete the last third. Each class can be divided into several electoral circles, none of which must, however, exceed 500 souls. Direct electors may be nominated in each division of the circle from the number of persons entitled to vote indirectly, without regard to special divisions.

Art. 72. Representatives are to be elected by direct electors. The electoral law defines more minutely the mode of carrying out elections in such towns where, in lieu of parts of direct taxes, the meat and slaughter tax is levied.

Art. 73. The legislative period of the Second Chamber is limited to three years.

Art. 74. Every Prussian is eligible to be a member of the Second Chamber who has accomplished his 30th year, who has not forfeited the enjoyment of full civic rights through judicial sentence, and who has belonged during three years to the Prussian state.

Art. 75. The chambers are to be re-elected at the expiration of their legislative period. The members who remain when they are dissolved. In either case former members are re-eligible.

Art. 76. The chambers are to be regularly convoked by the king during the month of November; and besides that, as often as circumstances may require.

Art. 77. The opening and closing of the chambers takes place by the king in person, or by a minister appointed by him, in presence of both chambers. Both chambers are to be convoked, opened, adjourned, and prorogued simultaneously.

Art. 78. Each chamber provides the qualification of its members and decides thereon. They regulate their order of business and discipline by business regulations, and elect their own presidents, vice-presidents, and secretaries. Functionaries do not require leave (of absence) to sit in the chamber. When a member accepts paid functions, or a higher office connected with increased salary, he vacates his seat and is not in the chamber and can only recover the same by new election. No one can be member of both chambers.

Art. 79. The sittings of both chambers are public. Each chamber, at the proposition of the president or of ten members, may proceed to secret deliberation, whereon a decision must be come to on the legal proposal (clearing the galleries).

Art. 80. Neither chamber can adopt a resolution when the legal majority of its members is not present. Each chamber adopts its resolutions by absolute majority, unless in such cases as the rules of the house for election for the various estates establish exceptions.

Art. 81. Each chamber has a right to present addresses to the king. No one can deliver a petition or address to the chambers, or to either of them, in person. Each chamber can refer documents addressed to

it to the ministers, and demand explanations relative to complaints contained therein.

Art. 82. Each chamber has the faculty to appoint commissions of investigation of facts for their own information, but not for the facts of the state.

Art. 83. Members of both chambers are representatives of the whole population. They vote according to their free conviction, and are not bound by prescriptions or instructions.

Art. 84. They cannot be called to account, either for their votes, or for opinions uttered by them in the chambers. No member of the chamber can, without its assent, be submitted to examination or arrest for any proceeding entailing penalties, unless seized in the act, or within 24 hours of the same. Similar proceedings are necessary in case of arrest for debt. All criminal proceedings against members of the chamber, and all examination or civil arrest, must be suspended during the session, should the chamber when it may concern so demand.

Art. 85. Members of the Second Chamber receive travelling expenses and diet money from the state, according to a scale fixed by law (three dollars or nine shillings per day). Refusal of the same is not admissible.

CHAPTER VI.—OF THE JUDICIAL POWER.

Art. 86. The judicial power is exercised in the king's name by independent courts, subject to no other authority than that of the law. Sentences are promulgated and carried into effect in the king's name.

Art. 87. Judges are nominated by the king, or in his name, for life. They can only be removed, or suspended from office temporarily, for reasons provided for by law. Temporary resignations from office, which do not take place according to law, involuntary removal to other parts, or to the retired list, can only be enforced for causes and in the mode prescribed by law, and in consequence of judicial sentence.

Art. 88. Judges cannot henceforth occupy other paid official functions. Exceptions are only admissible in virtue of a law.

Art. 89. The organisation of judicial courts shall be determined by law.

Art. 90. Those only can be appointed judges who are qualified thereby by the prescriptions of the law.

Art. 91. Courts for special classes of affairs, especially courts of commerce and industry, shall be established in such places as may be required through legislative means. The mode of procedure in the trial of the members of the special tribunals of law, of the latter, and the duties of their office, shall be determined by law.

Art. 92. There shall be only one supreme court of justice in Prussia.

Art. 93. Proceedings before competent courts in civil and criminal cases shall be public. This publicity can, however, be suspended by a judgment openly pronounced, should it endanger order or morality. In other cases publicity can only be restricted by a law.

Art. 94. In cases of crimes entailing heavy penalties, in all political crimes and offences of the press, which the law does not explicitly except, the decree as to the guilt of the accused must be pronounced by a jury.

Art. 95. A special jury court can be established by a law to be enacted with the previous assent of the chambers, the province of which will be to take cognizance of crimes of high treason, and such other serious offences against internal or external security of the state, as may be referred to it by law. The constitution of the jurists of this court shall be regulated by law.

Art. 96. The competency of courts of justice and of administrative authorities shall be determined by law. Conflicts between administrative and judicial authorities shall be decided by a court of justice appointed by law.

Art. 97. The conditions under which public functionaries, civil and military, can be prosecuted for violations of their law by overstepping their official attributes shall be determined by law. The previous permission of their superiors in office is not required.

CHAPTER VII.—OF STATE FUNCTIONARIES NOT BELONGING TO THE BRANCH OF JUDICE.

Art. 98. The special legal relations of such state functionaries as do not belong to the branch of judges, including the attorney-general, shall be regulated by a law which, without unnecessarily restricting the freedom of the functionaries in their office or again, shall afford sufficient security to state functionaries against arbitrary deprivation of place and income.

CHAPTER VIII.—OF THE FINANCES.

Art. 99. All receipts and disbursements of the state must be calculated for each year in advance, and inserted in the estimates. The latter shall be determined each year by a law.

Art. 100. Taxes and contributions for the public treasury can only be levied when they are entered in the estimates or in virtue of a special law.

Art. 101. Levying of taxes by anticipation is not permitted. The existing taxation laws shall be submitted to revision, and all payments by anticipation thereby abolished.

Art. 102. State or communal authorities can only levy taxes in virtue of the law.

Art. 103. Loans can only be raised for the public service in virtue of a law.

The same rule regards all guarantees imposing charge on the country.

Art. 104. All out-expenditure requires the subsequent assent of the chambers. The financial accounts shall be audited by the supreme chamber of accounts. A general report on the financial estimates, including a summary of the national debt, shall every year be made, with remarks, by the chamber of accounts, to the chamber, for the consideration of ministers. A special law will determine the establishment and attributes of the supreme chamber of accounts.

CHAPTER IX.

This chapter relates to the parochial, circle, district, and provincial unions.

GENERAL DISPOSITIONS.

Art. 105. Laws and ordinances are binding, when promulgated according to the forms prescribed by law. The sending of the copy of promulgated laws does not appertain to the authorities, but to the chambers alone.

Art. 106. The constitution can be changed through the ordinary channel of legislation, for which the customary absolute majority in each chamber is sufficient. After two divisions, between each of which a space of at least 30 days must elapse.

Art. 107. The members of both chambers, and all functionaries of the state, make oath of loyalty and obedience to the king, and swear to the conscientious observance of the constitution. The army does not swear to the constitution.

Art. 108. Existing laws and contributions shall continue to be levied, and all dispositions of existing statutes, individual laws and ordinances, which are not contrary to the present constitution, remain in force until they are repealed by law.

Art. 109. All authorities in office, in virtue of existing laws, remain in activity, until the carrying out of such urgent laws as may affect them.

Art. 111. In case of war or urgent danger, for public security, articles 5, 6, 7, 24, 25, 27, 28, and 34 of the constitution can be put out of force temporarily, or by districts. The law will define and specify more minutely.

Arts. 112 to 119. Transitory dispositions.
Proclaimed under our own seal, manual, to which our royal seal is added. (Signed) **FREDERICK WILLIAM.**

(Countersigned) Count Brandenburg, von Ledeburg, von Mantau, von Strotha, von der Heydt, von Rabe, Simon, von Schleinitz.

Given at Charlottenburg, Jan. 31. 1850.

Prussian Railways.—The *Prussian Gazette* has published the following notice relative to the Prussian railways in full operation.

Lines.	Distance.*	Capital expended.	Receipts per Mile Jan. 1851.
		<i>Ris-doll.</i>	<i>Ris-doll.</i>
Berlin, Potsdam, and Magdeburg	19½	10,500,000	5,352
Cologne, Minden, and branches	36½	20,174,300	3,537
Cologne and Bonn	31	1,027,800	1,774
Cologne and Aix	31	1,166,300	2,028
Prince William	4	2,000,900	1,641
Münster and Hamm	4	1,300,900	1,510
Düsseldorf and Elberfeld	5	2,427,800	3,565
Berlin, Dresden, and Leipzig	50½	7,000,000	1,797
Berlin, Stettin, and Stargard	22½	5,624,000	2,707½
Stettin, Stargard, and Posen	22½	5,000,000	655
Breslau and Schweidnitz	8½	2,000,000	1,438
Berlin, Breslau, and Rastatt	51½	19,975,000	2,218
Lower Silesian	26½	7,000,000	2,731
Lower Silesian Branch	26½	2,000,000	739
Berlin and Hamburg	38	14,000,000	2,945
Wilhelm's Line	7½	1,450,000	1,067
Reiss and Brieg	5½	1,100,000	833
Berg and Marchen	5½	5,750,000	2,248
Crefeld-Gladbach	5½	2,150,000	804
Total	290½	121,645,800	

ROCHESTER, a city of the U. States, New York, on the Genesee river, 7 m. S. from its embouchure in Lake Ontario, at the point where the Erie canal is carried over it by a splendid aqueduct, 260 m. N. W. New York. This is one of the most remarkable even of the American towns for the rapidity of its growth. Its pop., which, in 1820, amounted to only 1,502, had increased, in 1830, to 9,369, in 1840, to 30,151, and in 1846, to about 30,000! This unparalleled increase has been owing, in part, to the advantageous situation of the town for an emporium, from its easy communication with the lakes by means of the Genesee, which is navigable to within 2 m. of the town, and with the country traversed by the Erie and Genesee canals, and by various railways, which either terminate in or pass by the town; but it should principally, perhaps, be ascribed to its immense command of water-power, the various falls of the Genesee river within its limits amounting in all to 263 ft. in perpendicular height; it has, in consequence, many large flour-mills, and is, in fact, become the principal seat of the flour trade of the Union. In proof of this we may state, that the shipments of flour from Rochester by canal, in 1846, amounted to 540,235, and in 1847 to above 600,000 bar. It has also a variety of other large establishments, the moving power in which is supplied, wholly or in part, by water—such as fulling-mills, woollen and cotton factories, iron foundries, &c. In addition, it has extensive tanneries; and boat-building, both for the canals and for the trade of the lakes, is carried on with great spirit.

Rochester is a well-built, as well as an opulent and flourishing town, having wide streets, large "stores" and warehouses, and many neat, and some superior dwelling-houses, with shrubberies attached. Being the cap. of a county, it has a court-house, jail, and other county buildings; numerous schools, academies, and churches; a collegiate institution and museum; various public banks, and one of the largest savings' banks in the state; with an ample supply of weekly and daily newspapers, &c. It was incorporated as a city in 1834. (*Haskell's Gazetteer*; and an art. in *Hunt's Com. Magazine* for July 1847.)

SAN FRANCISCO, a city and sea-port of the U. States, in California, on the S. promontory bounding the great bay of San Francisco, inside the bay, and a little to the S. of its entrance from the Pacific, lat. 37° 49' 5" N., long. 122° 4' W. The growth of this city has been quite extraordinary. In the early part of 1848, it consisted only of a few rude cabins; whereas it has now an exchange, a theatre, a custom-house,

sundry churches and other public buildings, with great numbers of private houses, many of which are of wood, but many, also, of *adobe* (sun-dried bricks), with a vast number of attached tents and booths. And while such is the metamorphosis on shore, her waters, which were formerly quite deserted, are crowded with ships and steamers from all parts of the world! San Francisco is indebted, as every one knows, for this all but miraculous transformation, to the discovery of the gold deposits in the beds of the tributaries of the San Joaquin and Sacramento rivers, which fall into her bay. Such, however, are the advantages of her situation, and the fertility of the adjacent country, that the exhaustion of the gold deposits, though it might check for a while, would not permanently affect the growth of the city, or the extent of her trade.

San Francisco stands on a sandy level; and, during the wet season, when it is most crowded, the streets were at first mere puddles, into which carriages sunk to the axles; while, in the dry season, the annoyance from dust was all but intolerable. But these inconveniences have been to a great extent obviated by flooring the streets, or covering them with stout planks, a process which has been carried to a great extent, and has had the most complete success. The city has suffered much from fires. These, however, have been speedily repaired; and, in a few weeks, no traces are seen of the most destructive conflagrations. According, however, as houses of brick or stone are substituted for those of wood and for tents, fires will become less frequent and less destructive.

The pop. of San Francisco is the most motley that can be imagined; for, though Americans predominate, a large admixture is to be seen of adventurers from all parts of the world. Gambling is very prevalent; and is, perhaps, carried on to a greater extent here, during the rainy season, than in any other place either in the New or the Old World. But this is the natural result of the circumstances under which the pop. has been brought together; and the passion will, no doubt, abate as the circumstances in which it originated change or lose their influence.

The bay of San Francisco has a narrow entrance, but within it expands into one of the noblest basins that is anywhere to be met with, having a coast line of about 275 m. The town has already become the seat of a very extensive trade, and will, most likely, be the grand emporium of the vast territory belonging to the U. States on the Pacific. The trade with China, Australia, the Eastern Archipelago, and the Polynesian islands, is even now considerable, and several ships have been fitted out for the whale-fishery. At present, however, the principal trade of the city is with Panama on the one hand, and Oregon on the other; bringing immigrants and all sorts of manufactured goods from the former, and corn and other raw produce from the latter. But she has, also, an extensive trade with Chili, the Eastern portion of the U. States, and with Europe by Cape Horn. The importation of almost all sorts of products has been completely overdone, and most varieties of manufactured goods may at present (1851) be bought in San Francisco cheaper than in Liverpool or Havre. This, however, is a species of miscalculation incident to the opening of all new markets, which will speedily correct itself. Gold bullion, with small but increasing quantities of quicksilver, and hides, have hitherto been all but exclusive articles of export.

We borrow from a San Francisco paper, the

* In German miles (about 4½ English).

† Stettin and Stargard only 648.

‡ Key, in round numbers, 1,350 English miles. To these must be added 10 out of 18 German miles of the Westphalian line recently opened for traffic, so that the actual amount is 300 German (about 1,125 English) miles.

SHANG-HAE.

following statement of the quantities of gold exported from California, from the discovery of the mines in 1849 down to the 31st December, 1850.

	Dollars.
Gold dust shipped by steamers from 1st April, 1849, to 31st Dec. 1850	34,470,255
Estimated to have been taken by passengers	4,571,500
Shipped to foreign Pacific ports and to Europe, coined, manufactured into jewelry in California, and forwarded per sailing vessels, as per Custom-house reports	4,576,043
Carried overland and consigned by miners from Mexico, Chili, and Oregon, shipped by merchants without manifest entry, and amount at present in possession of miners, merchants, &c.	19,000,000
In the above estimates the value of gold dust has been computed at 16 dolls. per ounce troy. To this amount should be added 1 doll. 50 cents the mint value, say—	62,717,797
	5,869,794
Total	68,587,591

Nowhere in the world is there so great a disparity between the sexes as in San Francisco; there being at least from 5 to 6 men for one woman. But this disparity is gradually lessening, and with it some of the worst features in the present condition of the pop.

The population of the city differs widely at different periods, being crowded in the wet, and comparatively deserted in the dry season. Though by far the largest and most important town in the State, it is not its capital. That distinction has been conferred on San José, because of its more central situation.

SHANG-HAE, a city and river port of China, prov. Kiang-su, on the Woosung river, 40 m. by water from the sea, and 160 m. E. S. E. Nankin; lat. 31° 12' N., long. 120° 50' E. Pop. estimated at from 115,000 to 135,000. It stands in a level and well-cultivated plain, producing good crops of cotton, rice, and wheat. Immediately outside the wall by which it is enclosed are several populous suburbs. Streets narrow and filthy. Foundling hospitals, tea-gardens, and vast ice-houses, are the objects most worthy of notice in the city. It has a mint, with manufactures of silk, vegetable oils and oil cake (of which vast quantities are annually sent into the interior), iron ware, glass, paper, ivory ware, &c.

This is the most northerly of the five Chinese ports opened to foreigners by the treaty of 1842, and, excepting Canton, it is, also, the most important. The river, which may be navigated by ships of 450 or 500 tons for a considerable distance above the town, crosses the Grand Canal, so that Shanghai is an *entrepôt* for all the vast and fertile countries traversed by the canal, and by the great rivers, inc. the Yang-tse-Kiang and the Hoang-Ho, with which it is connected. Hence the present importance of this emporium, and hence, also, the indefinite extension to which its foreign trade will probably attain. Its inland and coasting trades are both very extensive. It is said to be annually visited by from 5,000 to 6,000 canal and river boats, some from very great distances, and by 1,500 or 1,600 coasting junks. The prov. of Kiang-su, in which Shanghai is situated, produces great quantities of silk; and besides supplying most part of the N. provs. of the empire, the shipments of silk to the foreigner are greater from this than from any other port. It is, also, well situated for the export of both green and black tea. Among the other exports are gold and silver, with oil and oil-cake, camphor, drugs, porcelain, cotton, cassia, alum, gypsum, coal, &c. Of the imports opium is by far the greatest; and at least 20,000 chests of Bombay (Malwa) and Patna opium are now annually disposed of in this market; which, supposing the chest to be worth 500 dolls., will represent an aggregate sum of 10,000,000 dolls., or 2,300,000 sterling, for which payment is almost invariably made in the precious metals! Sugar is extensively imported from Formosa, Canton, the Philippines, &c.; cotton stuffs, woollens, iron, &c., from England; with sandal wood, birds' nests, *Wickiwer*, and other products of the Eastern Archipelago, &c. In 1847, 76 British vessels, of the burden of 19,361 tons, entered the port; the value of their imports (ex. opium, which is contraband) being \$98,236L, of which cottons made near 700,000L. During the same year we exported, ex. gold and silver, 13,313,599 lbs. tea, and 17,680 bales silk, the estimated value of the latter being 1,004,059L. The inhabs. of Shanghai are much more hospitable

VANCOUVER'S ISLAND.

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and better disposed towards foreigners than those of Canton; and strangers may travel for miles into the interior all round the city, with perfect security. Within the last 4 or 5 years, some very fine brick houses have been built by the British and other foreign merchants in the suburbs. (*Part. Reports, and Information obtained from residents in Shanghai.*)

UTAH, a central region of the U. States, newly erected into a territory, having N. Oregon, E. the crest of the Rocky mountains, S. the parallel of the 37th deg. of N. lat., and W. California. It is for the most part mountainous; but it also contains a considerable extent of forest and cultivable land, especially along the banks of the Colorado and its affluents. In many parts, however, it is still wholly unexplored. It includes the Great Salt Lake, on the E. side of which is a settlement of Mormons, or "Latter Day Saints," comprising almost the whole white inhabs. of the territory. The absurdity of their tenets occasioned their expulsion from the other parts of the Union, and the violent death, or, as it is called, martyrdom of their prophet, Joe Smith. Here, however, they seem to have found a secure asylum; and so rapidly are their numbers increasing, that the territory will speedily be erected into a state. Mr. Johnston mentions that down to the present year (1851) no fewer than 13,500 avowed Mormons had sailed from Liverpool for this newly explored land of promise. The sect has, in fact, almost everything required to ensure its progress. Its doctrines have as much of mysticism, blasphemy, and folly as is required to recommend them to the ignorant; and being hallowed by the blood of the prophet, their dissemination may be expected, as a matter of course, till they are superseded by some greater folly.

VANCOUVER'S ISLAND, a large island belonging to Great Britain, on the N. W. coast of N. America, being the most southerly of our possessions in that quarter. It stretches in a N. N. W. and S. S. E. direction, between the 48th and 51st degs. N. lat., and the 123rd and 129th degs. W. long., being about 300 m. in length, by from 40 to 50 m. in breadth. It is separated from the continent by what is in most parts a narrow channel, called on the S. the Straits of Fuca, in the middle, where it is widest, the Gulph of Georgia, and on the N. Queen Charlotte's Sound. The Hudson's Bay Company have built a fort at the S. end of the island, lat. 48° 26' N., long. 125° 9' W. Around the shores are many excellent harbours, the best, perhaps, and, at all events, the most celebrated of which, Nootka Sound, on its W. coast, was discovered by Cook in 1778.

The island is intersected by high mountain ranges, but it has notwithstanding a considerable extent of level and undulating land susceptible of cultivation. Soils very various, being principally, however, of a friable description. The best is a black vegetable mould, producing a most luxuriant vegetation. Climate peculiarly mild, but in winter the rains, accompanied with violent thunder-storms, are heavy, and almost incessant, the smallest brooks being then swollen to impassable torrents; and, in summer, though there is but little rain, dews are heavy, and fogs frequent and dense. Hence, it is doubtful, notwithstanding the aptitude of the soil, whether the country be suitable for the production of wheat and barley, which have hitherto being tried only on a very small scale. Probably, however, it may not be too moist for oats; and the potato, which is extensively raised by the natives, is said to thrive remarkably well. The growth of timber is most luxuriant. Pine, spruce, red and white oak, ash, cedar, maple, &c. are found in the utmost profusion, the cedar and pine attaining to an immense size. The land animals comprise bears, foxes, deer, ermines, squirrels, &c., with a great variety of game. It has been said that the humidity of the climate will hinder this island from ever becoming a wool-growing country; but though it may not produce fine, it may produce coarse, wool; and there can be no doubt of its being well fitted, from the luxuriance of its pastures, for the growth of cattle. The bays,

ivers, and adjacent seas, swarm with a variety of fish, including salmon, sturgeon, herrings, &c., with seals, sea otters, tortoises, &c., and they are also resorted to by whales. The harbours of the island are consequently well situated for carrying on an extensive and profitable fishery; and they are further said to be better fitted than any others, on the W. coast of N. America, for ship-building.

The mineral riches of the island have been very imperfectly explored. Enough, however, is known to establish the important fact, that extensive beds of coal are to be met with in its N.E. parts. In various localities the beds have been found cropping out at the surface, and large supplies have been obtained with but little difficulty and little expense. Some of the coal has been brought to England, and it is said to have answered very well in the furnace. It is probable, however, inasmuch as the surface of one or two beds has hitherto been merely scratched, that we have not yet had any proper specimen of the best coal.

The native inhab. subsist principally by hunting and fishing, especially the latter, and by cultivating the potato. They are remarkable for indolence and filth; their heads are flattened when young by artificial means; and their legs are ill-formed, those of the women being frequently swollen.

A settlement established by this country at Nootka Sound in 1788, was suppressed in the following year by the Spaniards, an outrage which nearly occasioned a war with Spain. Since then it has been almost wholly neglected, till within these few years that some establishments have been formed upon it by the Hudson's Bay Company. Latterly it has been proposed to make it the site of a colony that should prosecute the seal and whale fishery, for which, as already stated, it is supposed to be peculiarly well situated. And with a view to the realising of this project, it has been made over to the Hudson's Bay Company, on condition of their establishing a colony within its limits in the course of the five years following 1848. This proceeding has, however, been much censured, principally because of the alleged anti-colonising character of the Company. But we doubt whether this character be deserved; and we are inclined to think that the inhospitable nature of the countries included in their charter has been the great, or rather the sole, cause of their not being colonized. We further take leave to doubt, whether, considering the number and situation of our other dependencies, the colonisation of this island be desirable. But whether it be so or not, its great distance from England, the humidity of the climate, and the infinitely greater facilities afforded by Canada and our other colonies in N. America for the reception of emigrants from this country, are obstacles to its settlement, which, we apprehend, it will be difficult to overcome.

The following is a synopsis of the basis of the constitution of the colony:—

"The Governor is appointed by the Crown, with a council of seven members, likewise so appointed.

"The Governor is authorised to call Assemblies, to be elected by the inhabitants holding twenty acres of freehold land.

"For this purpose, it is left to the discretion of the Governor to fix the number of representatives; and to divide the island into electoral districts, if he shall think such division necessary.

"The Governor has the usual powers of proroguing or dissolving such Assembly.

"Laws will be passed by the Governor, Council, and Assembly.

"The legislature, thus constituted, will have full power to impose taxes, and regulate the affairs of the island, and to modify its institutions, subject to the usual control of the Crown."

There is little to object to in the above regulations. And it might have been supposed, considering the remote situation of the colony, and the difficulties under which it labours from its proximity to Oregon and California, that every encouragement would have been given to intended settlers. But no! The foundation of a colony is a trifling matter compared with the maintenance of the "grand principle" (1) of imposing a high price on the land; and hence the following rules:—

"1. That no grant of land shall contain less than twenty acres.

"2. That purchasers of land shall pay to the Hudson's Bay Company, at their house in London, the sum of 1l.

per acre for the land sold to them, to be held in free and common socage.

"3. That purchasers of land shall provide a passage to Vancouver's Island for themselves and their families, if they have any; or be provided with a passage (if they prefer it) on paying for the same at a reasonable rate.

"4. That purchasers of larger quantities of land shall pay the same price per acre, namely, 1l., and shall take out with them five single men, or three married couples, for every hundred acres.

"5. That all minerals, wherever found, shall belong to the Company, who shall have the right of digging for the same, compensation being made to the owner of the soil for any injury done to the surface; but that the said owner shall have the privilege of working for his own benefit any coal mine that may be on his land, on payment of a royalty of 2s. 6d. per ton."

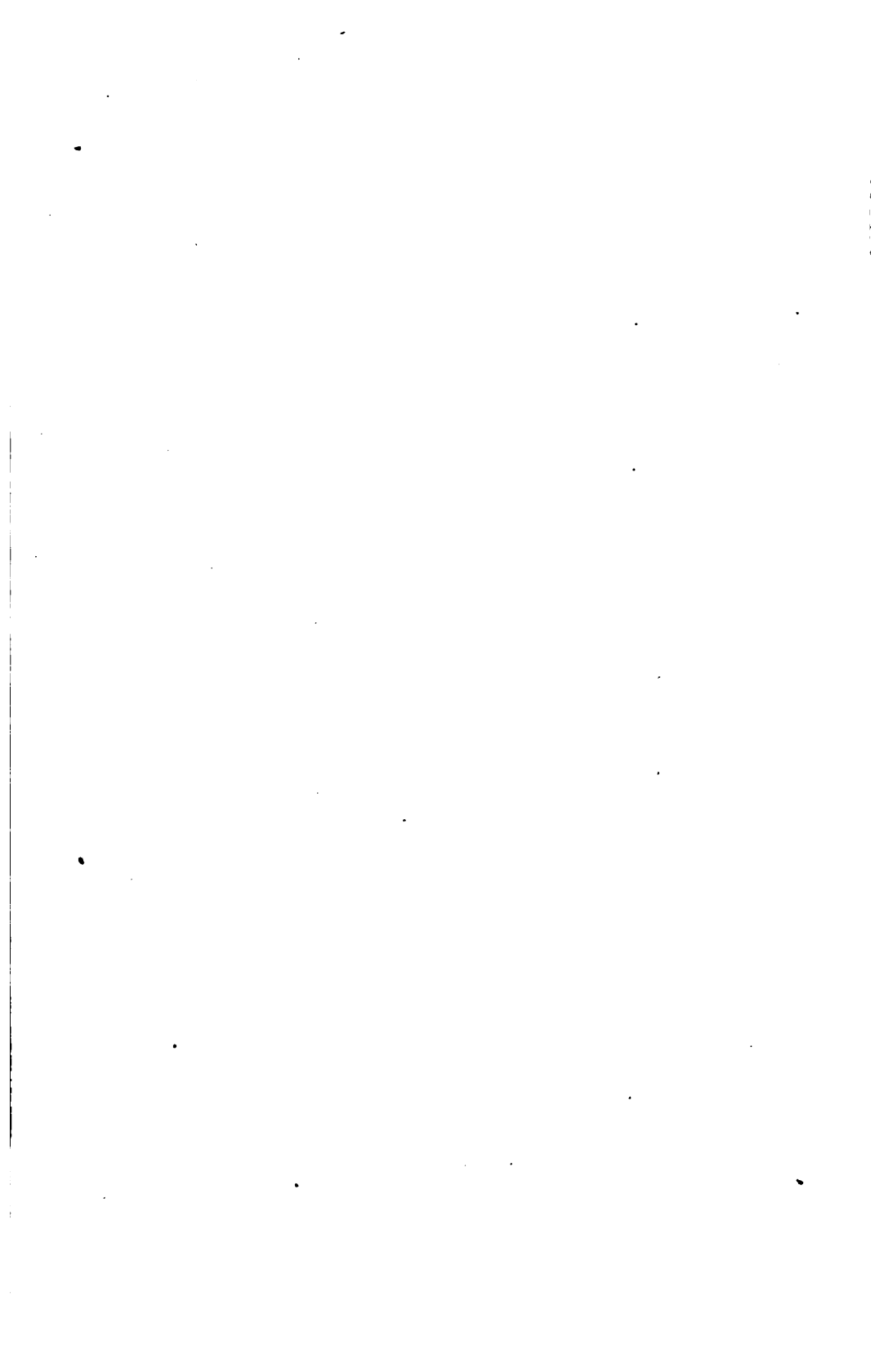
And these rules have been laid down for emigrants to Vancouver's Island, when it could hardly fail to be known to their framers that Oregon, in its immediate vicinity, has a better soil, a better climate, and is in every respect preferable as a place of settling; and further, that land may be had in unlimited quantities in Oregon for 6s. or 6s. 6d. an acre! And such being the case, to say that the regulations laid down for the sale of land in Vancouver's Island are impolitic, is to say nothing. They are at once absurd and suicidal. And the only thing to be said in their favour is, that they are so palpably mischievous, that few indeed will be such fools as to subject themselves to their operation.

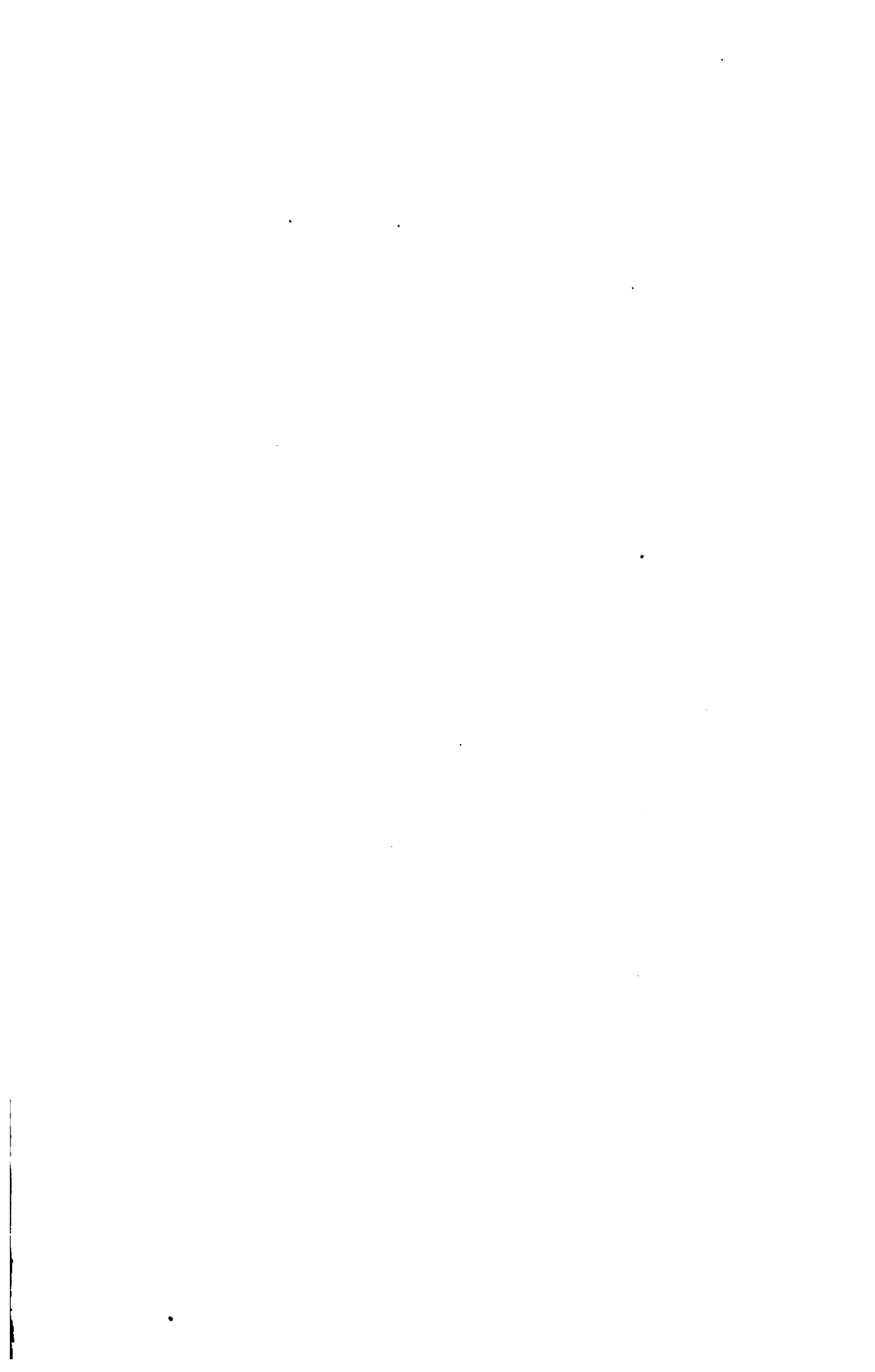
This island, which is sometimes called "Quadra and Vancouver's Island," received the former of these names from Quadra, a Spanish officer, by whom it was first surveyed; and the latter from Vancouver, an *Esq.* of Cork, who carefully surveyed most part of its shores, with large extent of the N. W. coast of the American continent. (*Dun's Hist. of the Oregon Territory; Martin's Account of the Hudson's Bay Territories; and Official Papers.*)

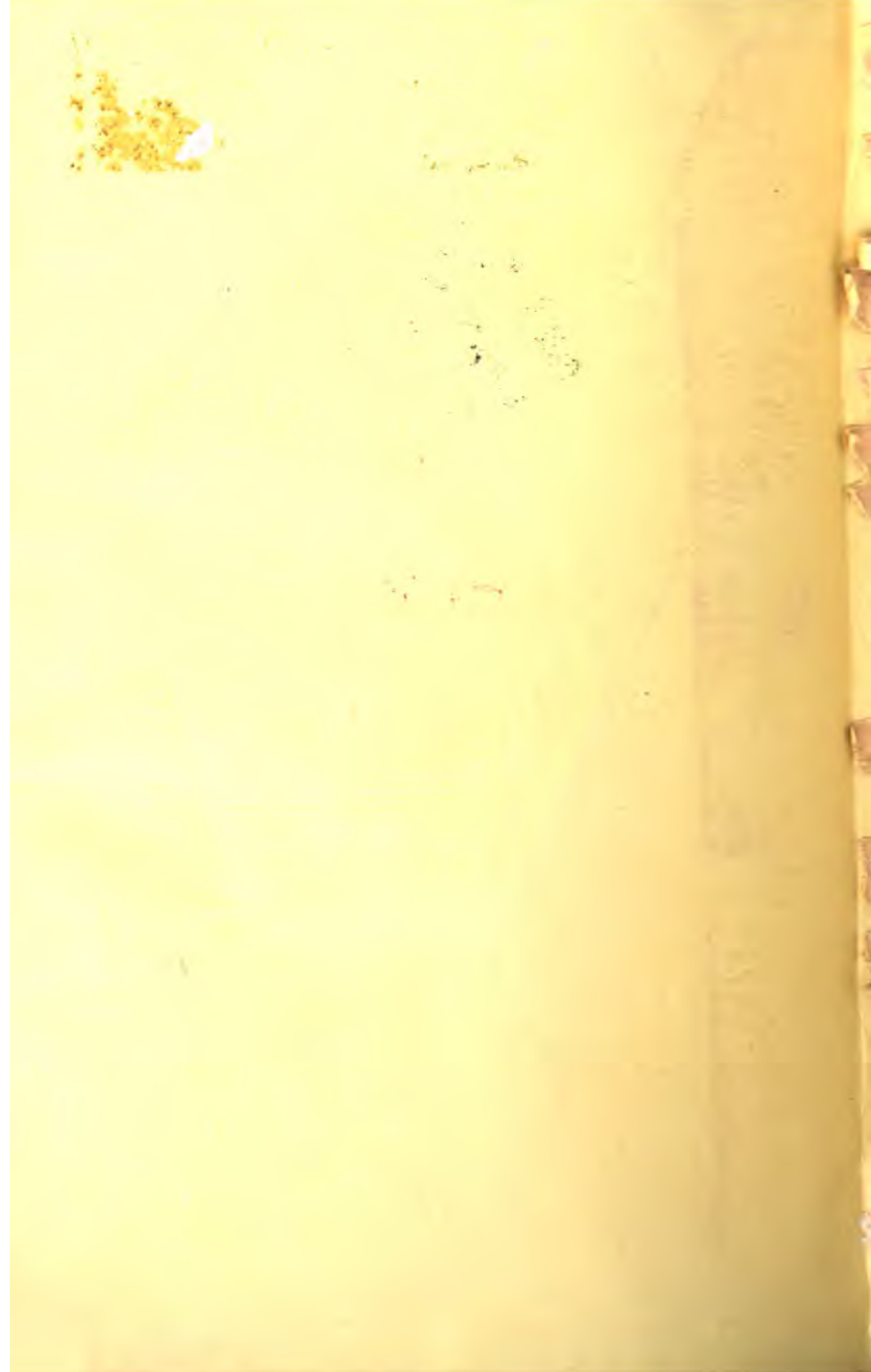
ZANZIBAR, a small island on the E. coast of Africa, opposite to Zanguebar, from which it is distant only about 20 m. the town of the same name, on its W. side, being in lat. 6° 8' 15" S., long. 39° 10' E. It is about 45 m. in length from N. to S. by about 15 m. in breadth. The W. coast is low, and in parts marshy; but the E. coast is bold and well wooded. There are numerous harbours between the island and the mainland, formed by smaller islands and reefs, which are safe and not difficult of access. The anchorage opposite to the town is at once secure and capacious. The island is well watered, producing considerable quantities of excellent sugar, with rice and other grains; and provisions and fruits of all sorts are abundant and cheap. Though the hills in the interior are not sufficiently high to interrupt the course of the sea breeze, the island is but indifferently healthy, at least to Europeans. The inhab. are mostly of Arab extraction, and profess the Mohammedan religion. The island belongs to the Imam of Muscat, who occasionally resides upon it. The town is built in the Arabian style, and is defended by a castle, which, however, is of little strength.

Zanzibar is the centre of a considerable commerce with the opposite coast of the continent, Madagascar, India, Arabia, &c. Among other things, the exports comprise gums, ivory, antimony, blue vitriol, coconuts, oil, hides, horns, sugar, &c. Formerly slaves were a principal article of export. Fancy shells are also exported, and the shell known in commerce by the name of the *bull mouth*, having been used in the manufacture of imitation canoes, was extensively imported into this country while these articles were in fashion; but since the demand for them has fallen off, the value of the shell and the quantity imported have proportionally declined. The imports comprise arms, gunpowder, cutlery, coarse cotton stuffs, beads, wire, iron, &c. Small vessels of about 200 tons burden, called *dows*, are built on the island. We have not seen any statement of the pop. of Zanzibar on which any reliance could be placed, but it may, perhaps, amount to from 20,000 to 25,000. (*Owen's Voyages on the Shores of Africa, Arabia, &c.* i. 437—434; *Dict. Géog.*; and *Private Information.*)

THE END.







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